

UNIMODALITY IDEAS

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1. DIRECTIONS TO MOVE

- (1) Look at generalising p_i^r for general r .
- (2) Generalizing to q analog of cyclic group.
- (3) Try relating p_i, q_i .
- (4) Coding which groups G we have $p_i = q_i$.
- (5) When are $p_i = q_i$.
- (6) Try to compute q_i .
- (7) Look at simple groups, and maybe solvable groups, try quotienting by normal subgroups?
- (8) Are there any ways to combine G_1, G_2 where G_i are groups with $p_i = q_i$.
- (9) Are there some characterisations of groups with q_i, p_i .
- (10) How to use sage, what can we do with groups?
- (11) Which edge poset definition do we want? Do we include edges containing y or exclude them?

2. CYCLIC GROUP EDGES, THIS SECTION IS WRONG.

Remark 2.0.1. All subscripts will be taken $(\text{mod } n)$.

Theorem 2.0.2. The statistic p_i as Zijian defined are unimodal for the necklace poset.

Proof. □

Lemma 2.0.3. $q_i = \binom{n-1}{i-1}$.

Proof. □

Lemma 2.0.4. The difference $p_i - q_i$ is the number of pairs $(x, y), x \leq y$, such that there exists σ so that $\sigma x \leq y$, but there does not exist g with $gx = \sigma x, gy = y$.

Proof. □

Definition 2.0.5. We call (x, y) a special pair if there exists σ so that $\sigma x \leq y$, but there does not exist g with $gx = \sigma x, gy = y$.

Lemma 2.0.6. $p_i - q_i$ is the number of orbits of special pairs

Proof. □

Remark 2.0.7. We are restricting to the cyclic group C_n , and so we are assuming that all elements are generated by the permutation $c = (12 \cdots n)$. We now wish to bound the number of orbits of special pairs.

Remark 2.0.8. To compute the number of orbits of special pairs, we can always assume $x = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{i-1}\}_<$ and $y = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_i\}_<$ by simply composing with an element of C_n in order to make the missing t_i the biggest element of the set. We may as well assume $t_1 = 1$.

Lemma 2.0.9. Suppose (x, y) is a special pair, as in 2.0.8 with $\sigma x < y$. Then, σ is the permutation sending t_1 to t_2 or t_1 to t_i .

Proof. Suppose otherwise, that it sent t_1 to t_k for $k \neq 2, i$. Then, since the relative ordering of the elements are preserved, we must have t_l is sent to t_{l+k-1} . Since we can only act by elements of C_n , this gives us that the values $t_{l+1} - t_l = t_{k+l} - t_{k+l-1}$ for all $l \in [i]$. However, this means that $\sigma y = y$, (THAT IS THE TRICKIEST PART TO SEE) so x, y is not a special pair. \square

Lemma 2.0.10. Any special pair (x, y) must have $y = \{t_1, t_1 + a, t_1 + 2a, \dots, t_1 + (i-1)a\}$ for some $a < n$.

Proof. By 2.0.9 we must have that σ sends t_1 to t_2 or t_i . Let's assume it sends t_1 to t_2 , the other case is similar. However, this means we must send t_l to t_{l+1} , which means $t_l - t_{l-1} = t_{l+1} - t_l$, which means that y is of the claimed form. \square

Lemma 2.0.11. The number of orbits of special pairs is between $n-1$ and $\frac{n}{2}-1$.

Proof. By the above, there are at most n orbits (as determined by the value of a) which can have special pairs. However, it is clear that $a = i$ and $a = n-i$ lie in the same orbit. Therefore, we have $\frac{n}{2}$ identifications, which tells us $p_i - q_i \geq \frac{n}{2} - 1$. On the other hand, in the worst possible case, we have all n orbits are equivalent, which implies $p_i - q_i \leq n$. \square

Lemma 2.0.12. The p_i statistics are unimodal.

Proof. By 2.0.3 we know the differences of the q_i on the nose it is obvious that $q_i - q_{i-1} \geq \frac{n}{2}$. However, by 2.0.11 we have $n-1 \geq (q_i - p_i) \geq \frac{n}{2} - 1$. Therefore, $p_i - p_{i-1} \geq \frac{n}{2} - \frac{n}{2} \geq 0$. \square

3. IDEAS FROM MONDAY JUNE 30

Let $S_{x,y} = \{\sigma | \sigma x < y\}$. I think $q_i = \sum_{G(x,y)} \frac{|S_{x,y}|}{|Stab(x) \cup Stab(y)|}$

Now, let us think of σ as a representative of $S_{x,y}/(Stab_x \cup Stab_y)$. Note, the condition that σ does not stabilize x means we need the all the vertices of y to be present in $x \cup \sigma x$.

Possible idea, we might still have to always send $i_1 \mapsto i_n$? Not so sure about how to make this precise though.

Lemma 3.0.13. $Stab(x) \neq e \implies Stab(y) = e$, and $Stab(x) \neq e \implies Stab(y) = e$,

Proof. If $c^k \in Stab(x)$, $c^k \neq e$, where c is the cyclic generator, and k is minimal. We know that every elements in x spaced every k apart. So, we can treat it as a necklace of length k . We just have to show that after adding a single bead it cannot have any symmetries. However, if we could do this in a relatively prime fashion, we would obtain many additional equalities between differences of places in x , and we could not change just one of those differences due to cyclic symmetry of order k , since we would not get an equality in one of the n/k parts, but we would get the equality in all the others. \square

Lemma 3.0.14. *In order for $|\frac{|S_{x,y}|}{|Stab(x) \cup Stab(y)|}| > 1$, we must have $Stab(x) \cup Stab(y) = e$.*

Proof. This is similar to the previous lemma, in either case, we get equalities between differences of the one with a stabilizer, which end up contradicting the one additional point. \square

Lemma 3.0.15. *In order to have $|\frac{|S_{x,y}|}{|Stab(x) \cup Stab(y)|}| > 1$, x must be of the form of a cyclic element union 1 dude, and y must be of the form of the cyclic element union 2 dudes, and the rotation must take x to y .*

Proof. \square

Lemma 3.0.16. *Now we just need to count the number of cyclic generator dudes. Clearly at most n , since the number of divisors are less than n . Therefore, since each contributes at most n , we only have to bound successive differences of binomial coefficients by n^2 .*

Proof. For each prime divisor, we can obtain one such cyclic generator dude. First, there are the ones which all have the same difference, these seem to be most common. There are exactly $n/2-1$ of these? The other counts will depend on the orbit sizes. \square

4. PROOF OF CYCLIC GROUP EDGE NUMBERS IS UNIMODAL

Lemma 4.0.17. *The number $q_i - p_i$ is in bijection with the number of orbits with representative y satisfying the following properties.*

- (1) *There is some $k|n$, possibly with $k = n$, such that there are $\lfloor \frac{i}{k} \rfloor$ distinct sets of the form $\{a + k, \dots, a + nk\}$, taken $(\text{mod } n)$*
- (2) *The remaining $s = i - \lfloor \frac{i}{k} \rfloor$, with $s \neq 1, s \neq k$. elements all have the same value $(\text{mod } \frac{1}{n}k)$ and there exists $a \in [n]$ and $r < \frac{n}{2}$ such that the remaining elements all lie in the set $\{a + r, a + 2r, \dots, a + sr\}$.*

Proof. Split by the cases of $k = n$, in which case we have a full cycle, and this is clearly the only possibility, or otherwise $k \neq n$, in which case some set of elements must be fixed, and then we will have such a “tail cycle” as in the second property \square

Definition 4.0.18. *We call the non full cycle, as described in the second property a tail cycle.*

Remark 4.0.19. *The goal of this section is to bound $q_{i-1} < p_i \leq q_i$. Note we trivially know $p_i \leq q_i$, Additionally, this bound will trivially show the p_i are unimodal (they are obviously symmetric by taking complements.) Therefore, to accomplish our goal, it suffices to show $q_i - p_i > q_i - q_{i-1} = \binom{n-2}{i-1}$, since we know $q_i = \binom{n-i}{i-1}$.*

Notation 4.0.20. *Denote the number of edges from $(B_n/G)_i$ to $(B_n/G)_{i-1}$ by $p(n, i)$. Similarly, define $q(n, i)$ as the q_i for B_n .*

Lemma 4.0.21.

$$p_i \leq \sum_{k=\frac{n}{p}, p|k, p \text{ prime}} p(k, \lceil \frac{i}{k} \rceil \lfloor \frac{p}{2} \rfloor)$$

Proof. Note that by 4.0.17, we only have to count the number of G -orbits satisfying the condition of 4.0.17. Clearly, for every $t|n$, we can write t as a factor of some $k = \frac{n}{t}$. Therefore, for any cycle size t , it can be decomposed as a disjoint union of $\frac{k}{t}$ cycles of size k . Therefore, summing the number of equivalence classes corresponding to elements of $p_i - q_i$, overcounts the number of equivalence classes.

Now, I claim the number of equivalence classes composed of cycles of length k is $p(k, \lceil \frac{i}{k} \rceil) \lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor$. To see this, we describe a simple bijection. We know that the tail cycle has between 2 and $k-1$ elements. Now, restrict to only the first k elements of the cycle. Each representative has a set of $\lfloor \frac{i}{k} \rfloor$ full cycles, and 1 partial cycle. For each such element, we correspond all $\lceil \frac{i}{k} \rceil$ to an element $y_k \in B_k$, and the elements of $\lfloor \frac{i}{k} \rfloor$ with an element x_k of B_k . Clearly $x < y$. This uniquely characterizes the locations of the full cycles $(\text{mod } k)$, and the location of the partial cycle. Hence, there are $p(k, \lceil \frac{i}{k} \rceil)$. The reason we have to add in a factor of $\lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor$ is simply to tell us the difference between two adjacent element of the cycle in x_k . It can be any multiples of k from k to $k \cdot p$, but of course a difference of $k \cdot i$ is equivalent to $k \cdot p - i$, and these are the only two equivalent cycles. Hence, this proves the bound. \square

Theorem 4.0.22. *We can bound $p_i \leq q_i - q_{i-1}$*

Proof. Using the above relation, we can bound $p_i \leq \sum_{k=\frac{n}{p}, p|k, p \text{ prime}} p(k, \lceil \frac{i}{k} \rceil) \lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor$. We know $p(n, i) \leq q(n, i)$, and so using this bound, we have $p_i \leq \sum_{k=\frac{n}{p}, p|k, p \text{ prime}} q(k, \lceil \frac{i}{k} \rceil) \lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor$, and then since we know $q(k, \lceil \frac{i}{k} \rceil) = \binom{k-1}{\lceil \frac{i}{k} \rceil - 1}$, we can write $p_i \leq \sum_{k=\frac{n}{p}, p|k, p \text{ prime}} \binom{k-1}{\lceil \frac{i}{k} \rceil - 1} \lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor$. Now, there are clearly at most $\log n$ terms in this sum, since there are fewer than $\log n$ distinct prime factors of n . And therefore, for all $k|n, k > 3$, we just have to bound $\log n \cdot \binom{k-1}{\lceil \frac{i}{k} \rceil - 1} \lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor \cdot \log n < \binom{n-2}{i-1}$, which is quite obvious, at least for $n > 5$ or so. \square

5. CYCLIC GROUP WITH $R > 1$

Notation 5.0.23. *Let me define statistics $p(i, r, n)$ which will denote the number of pairs $(x, y) \in B_n \times B_n$ such that $|x| = i - r, |y| = i, x < y$ up to the equivalence relation that $(x, y) \equiv (z, w)$ if there is some σ, τ such that $\sigma x = z, \sigma y = w$.*

Conjecture 1. *The above case of $r = 1$ can be generalized for the $p(i, r, n)$ as long as $n > 2r$. The proof is essentially analagous. This time, we can't explicitly compute the q_i , but we can bound them as very close to $\binom{n}{i} \cdot \binom{i}{r} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$. We can show that at most a proportion of $\frac{1}{n^2}$ elements have nontrivial stabilizer, which means that we can bound the q_i within a factor of $\frac{1}{n}$ of $\binom{n}{i} \cdot \binom{i}{r} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$. We can then look at how the p_i differ from the q_i . This time, we can associate at most r elements to each pair (x, y) which has the special property that $gx < y$, but there is no h with $hx = gx, hy = y$. And then we can count the number of such pairs and bound them by much smaller binomial coefficients, as in the $r = 1$ case.*

6. WHEN ARE QUOTIENTS OF PRIME ORDER NECKLACE POSETS PECK?

I think Stanley's proof of quotients of unitary peck posets being peck uses something a little weaker. That is, I think he only uses that we need the constants $c_y = c_{wy}$ for all $w \in G, y \in P_i$. However, for necklace posets, we know that c_y is always either 1 or 2. So, quotienting by group actions which send the 1's to 1's and 2's to 2's will still leave us with a Peck poset.

In the prime case, for example, we always have the 2's coming from evenly spaced chains. So for any group action sending non evenly spaced chains to evenly spaced chains, and non evenly spaced sequences to non evenly spaced sequences, the quotient should be Peck.

7. ALL ABELIAN SUBGROUPS

For A an abelian subgroup action on $[n]$, we can decompose it into orbits. Now, let's just try to understand the action on a single orbit. By assumption, this is transitive, and it must also act simply, as otherwise the action has a stabilizer (due to A being abelian). So, now we have a simply transitive action of an abelian subgroup on $[k]$. But then we know exactly that after quotienting by the stabilizer, we have $|A|/|Stab([k])| = k$ acting on $[k]$, so we can view k as a cube corresponding to A , so we have A acting on A in the natural way of the cube A .

8. REDUCING TO TRANSITIVE ACTIONS

Think about the size of the stabilizer.

Maybe we can restrict to transitive group action, since nontransitive actions can either be ignored, or have too much redundant information.

Remark 8.0.24. *Here is an interesting equality*

$$\sum_{Gx < Gy} \frac{|\{g | gx \leq y\}|}{|Stab(x)|} = \sum_{G(x < y)} 1$$

Theorem 8.0.25. *Suppose B_n/G has orbits O_1, \dots, O_k on $[n]$. If the edge counting posets given by restricting the G action to each orbit O_i are symmetric unimodal. Then, B_n/G is symmetric unimodal.*

Proof. We shall prove this using several following claims. Basically, let's just assume there are 2 orbits. \square

Corollary 8.0.26. *If we would like to show that the edge sequences are always unimodal. We can restrict to considering transitive group actions. In particular, we may assume $|O/X| = 1$, and hence $\sum_{g \in G} |X^g| = |G|$.*

Proof. \square

Corollary 8.0.27. *All abelian groups have symmetric, unimodal sequences.*

Proof. By the theorem, it suffices to show this is true for transitive abelian groups. It's not too hard to see than transitive faithful abelian group actions are actually simply transitive. Then, we can actually describe all abelian group actions A on $[n]$ as $A \times A \rightarrow A$, if we identify $[n]$ with A as a set (think of $[n]$ as a torus). But then, using this identification, we may use the same argument of computing the q_i and bounding the difference of the p_i from the q_i to explicitly show the sequence is unimodal. \square

Proposition 8.0.28. *Let the orbits be O_1, O_2 and let the corresponding unimodal, symmetric edge counting posets be P, Q . In order to show B_n/G is symmetric unimodal, it suffices to show there are more edges emanating from $P_{i+1} \times Q_j$ than from $P_i \times Q_j$, with $i < rk(P)/2$.*

Proof. Clearly, if $i + j < n/2$, we must have either $i < rk(P)/2$ or $j < rk(Q)/2$. So, just assume $i < rk(P)/2$. Then, each level of the poset B_n/G is made of a union of elements of the form $P_t \times Q_s$ with $t + s = i + j$. Again, always one of t, s must be less than $rk(P)/2$ or $rk(Q)/2$, so if it is t use the assumption to show there are more edges leaving $P_{t+1} \times Q_s$ than $P_t \times Q_s$. Essentially, we are just creating a trivial order matching here. \square

Proposition 8.0.29. *In order to show there are more edges emanating from $P_{i+1} \times Q_j$ than from $P_i \times Q_j$, with $i < rk(P)/2$, it suffices to show there are more edges from $P_{i+1} \times Q_j$ to $P_{i+2} \times Q_j$ than there are from $P_i \times Q_j$ to $P_{i+1} \times Q_j$, and that there are more edges from $P_{i+1} \times Q_j$ to $P_{i+1} \times Q_{j+1}$ than there are from $P_i \times Q_j$ to $P_i \times Q_{j+1}$.*

Proof. All the edges leaving $P_t \times Q_s$ must either go to $P_{t+1} \times Q_s$ or $P_t \times Q_{s+1}$, and if we assume both of these are dominated by the edges one level higher, then we obtain unimodality. \square

Proposition 8.0.30. *there are more edges from $P_{i+1} \times Q_j$ to $P_{i+2} \times Q_j$ than there are from $P_i \times Q_j$ to $P_{i+1} \times Q_j$.*

Proof. The number of edges from A to B is just the number of pairs $(Ga, Gb) \in A \times B$ with $Ga \leq Gb$. By the unimodality assumption on P_i , taking $A = P_i, B = P_{i+1}, C = P_{i+2}$, there are more edges from A to B than from B to C , which means there are fewer pairs $Ga \leq Gb$ than there are $Gb \leq Gc$. Then, note that for any fixed $y \in Q_j$, the orbit Gy does not intersect the orbit P_i . Therefore, for each y in Q_j , we have that there are fewer pairs $G(a, y) \leq G(b, y)$ than there are $G(b, y) \leq G(c, y)$. Hence, summing over all $Gy \in Q_j$ gives the proposition. \square

Proposition 8.0.31. *there are more edges from $P_{i+1} \times Q_j$ to $P_{i+1} \times Q_{j+1}$ than there are from $P_i \times Q_j$ to $P_i \times Q_{j+1}$.*

Proof. We know that there is an order matching $P_i \rightarrow P_{i+1}$. Hence, for each edge $P_{i+1} \times Q_j$ to $P_{i+1} \times Q_{j+1}$, which is of the form $G(t, x) \leq G(t, y)$, we obtain an edge from $P_i \times Q_j$ to $P_i \times Q_{j+1}$ of the form $G(s, x) \leq G(s, y)$, where s is the image of t under the order matching. Hence, there are more edges from $P_{i+1} \times Q_j$ to $P_{i+1} \times Q_{j+1}$ than there are from $P_i \times Q_j$ to $P_i \times Q_{j+1}$. \square

9. ATTEMPTING TO USE TRANSITIVE ORBITS

Remark 9.0.32. *Here is a heuristic computation, which may provide some insight into what is going on? Tried to calculate this assuming independence of the elements in y , but this ends up just corresponding to the trivial group action, where there are $\binom{n}{i} \cdot i$ orbits.*

10. TRYING INJECTIVE EDGE POSET MAPS

Remark 10.0.33. *Consider the raising operator*

$$U(Ga, Gb) = \sum_{a \in Ga, b \in Gb | a < b} \left(\sum_{z \notin b} (G(a \cup z), G(b \cup z)) \right).$$

For instance, in the case $G = e$ acts trivially, we get the raising map Vic defined. I wonder if $UD - DU = CI$ for some positive constant C . This does not seem to

work, particularly if you have a G action twisting one side. I think it probably fails if we take $G = C_6$, as can be seen by looking at the edges $(13,1)$ and $(12,2)$.

Remark 10.0.34. Maybe we can do something tricky where we weight these maps in the previous remark by the $c_{x,y}$ which are integers keeping track of the edge counts.

Remark 10.0.35. Define $d_{x,y} = |\{(a,b) | (a \leq b), Ga = Gx, Gy = Gb\}|$. Then, try the raising operator

$$U(Ga, Gb) = \sum_{a \in Ga, b \in Gb | a \leq b} \left(\sum_{z \notin b} \frac{1}{d_{a \cup z, b \cup z}} (G(a \cup z), G(b \cup z)) \right).$$

Using this map, we can probably see $DU - UD = CI$ for the cyclic group, for example.

Remark 10.0.36. It would be useful to know when the following statement is true: for any two orbits $G(y, x), G(b, a)$ with $(Gy, Gx) = (Gb, Ga)$ we have $|G(y, x)| = |G(b, a)|$.

Here, we can clearly assume $y = b$, and so one sufficient condition would be if $h(x) = a$, then we want $|Stab(y) \cap Stab(y/x)| = |Stab(y) \cap Stab(y/a)|$. I'm not actually sure when this is true. It is true, for example, in the cyclic group, as points always have trivial stabilizer.

Lemma 10.0.37. For all $h \in G$, there exists $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $h^k = h^{-1}$.

Proof. This is true for S_n , and so it is true for all embedded subgroups. \square

11. SHOWING THE p_i ARE UNIMODAL FOR ALL QUOTIENTS G .

Definition 11.0.38. Given a poset P , we define the edge poset $E(P)$, to be the poset whose elements are pairs (x, y) such that $x, y \in P, x \leq y$. We have $(x, y) < (a, b)$ if $x \leq a, y \leq b$ (possibly with $y \neq a$, I'm not too sure which is better).

Lemma 11.0.39. For B_n/G a symmetric poset, the edge poset $E(B_n/G)$ is symmetric.

Proof. Use complementation. \square

Remark 11.0.40. This notion of B_2 full is more related to the other type of edge poset, defined by relations where we have $(x, y) < (a, b)$ if $x \leq a, y \leq b$ and $y \neq a$, but it may still be relevant for other things.

Definition 11.0.41. We say a poset is B_2 full, if whenever we have $x \leq y, x \leq z$, there exists a w with $y \leq w, z \leq w$.

Lemma 11.0.42. For any order preserving, rank preserving group action $G \times B_n \rightarrow B_n$, the quotient poset B_n/G is B_2 full.

Proof. Suppose we have $Gy \geq Gx, Gz \geq Gx$, in the quotient poset. This means, we have $g, h \in G, gy \geq x, hz \geq x$. Then, $gy \cup hz \geq gy, gy \cup hz \geq hz$, which implies $G(gy \cup hz) \geq Gy$ and $G(gy \cup hz) \geq Gz$, which shows B_n/G is B_2 full. \square

Theorem 11.0.43. For P a symmetric poset such that there exist injective maps $U_i : V(P_i) \rightarrow V(P_{i+1})$, for $i < \frac{n}{2}$, the edge poset $E(P)$ also has injective maps $V_i : V(E(P)_i) \rightarrow V(E(P)_{i+1})$ for $i < \frac{n}{2}$.

Proof. Let $\pi_i : P_i \times P_i \rightarrow E(P)_{i+1}$ be the projection, by annihilating pairs without an edge between them, and let $i_j : E(P)_j \rightarrow P_j \times P_{j+1}$ be the injection. We know the map $U_i \times U_{i+1} : P \times P_{i+1} \rightarrow P_{i+1} \times P_{i+2}$ is injective. We define $V_i = \pi_{i+1}((U_i \times U_{i+1}) \circ i_i) : E(P)_i \rightarrow E(P)_{i+1}$. We would like to show for $i < \frac{n}{2}$ the V_i are an injection.

Also, for each $x \in P_i$, define the natural inclusion map $L_i : x \mapsto (x, U_i(x)) \subset E(P)_i$.

First, observe that, $(U_i \times U_{i+1})(V(x_i) \times U_i(V(x_t))) \cap (U_i \times U_{i+1})(V(x_t)^\perp \cap U_i(V(x_t)^\perp)) = 0, \forall i$ simply because the maps $U_i, U_i \times U_{i+1}$ are injective and we certainly know $V(x_i) \cap V(x_i)^\perp = 0$. Therefore, $\pi_{i+1}(U_i \times U_{i+1})(V(x_i) \times V(U_i(x_i))) \cap \pi_{i+1}(U_i \times U_{i+1})(V(x_i)^\perp \times U_{i+1}(V(x_i)^\perp)) = 0, \forall i$.

By the preceeding paragraph, in order to show V_i is injective, it suffices to show that for a particular t , the restriction $W_{i,t} = V_i|_{\{(y,x) \in E(P)_i | x=x_t\}}$ is injective. Now, taking the appropriate restriction to edges leaving x_t , we know the map $U_i \times U_{i+1} : x_t \times V(y \succ x_t)$, defines an injective map, simply because U_{i+1} is injective.

Now, for a fixed $y \succ x$, by definition of the perpendicular subspace, $(V(x) \times V(y)) \cap (V(x) \times V(y)^\perp) = 0$. So, by injectivity of $U_i \times U_{i+1}$, it must be that $(U_i \times U_{i+1})(V(x) \times V(y)) \cap (U_i \times U_{i+1})(V(x) \times V(y)^\perp) = 0$. This implies that the maps $W_{i,t}$ are indeed injective. □

Theorem 11.0.44. *The sequences p_i are unimodal for all quotients B_n/G .*

Proof. First, we know B_n is Unitary Peck. This tells us B_n/G is peck for all G , and therefore, there exists injective maps $\phi_i : V(P_i) \rightarrow V(P_{i+1})$ for $i < \frac{n}{2}$ with ϕ_i injective, and in fact $\phi_i \circ \dots \circ \phi_{n-i-1} : V(P_i) \rightarrow V(P_{n-i})$ an isomorphism.

We won't even need this isomorphism, but maybe it can be used to say something even stronger!

We also know it is symmetric by 11.0.39 we also know $E(B_n/G)$ is symmetric. Therefore, it suffices to show that the edge sequence $p_i, i < \frac{n}{2}$ is unimodal. However, by 11.0.43, we obtain injective maps $V_i : V(E(B_n/G)_i) \rightarrow V(E(B_n/G)_{i+1})$ for all $i < \frac{n}{2}$. Therefore, $p_i, i < \frac{n}{2}$ are unimodal, and hence all p_i are unimodal. □