combinatorics in finite vector spaces

In this chapter F is a finite field with q elements and all vector spaces are over F and finite dimensional.

Result.
$$|V| = q^{\dim V}$$
.

Result. Given a linear surjective mapping $T: V \longrightarrow W$, T is $|\ker T|: 1$.

Exercise. Given a random coloring of the 30 edges of the icosahedron red green and blue, what is the probability that each of the 20 triangular faces have two edges of one color and one edge of another color?

Result. The number of bases of V is $b_d = (q^d - 1)(q^d - q) \dots (q^d - q^{d-1})$, where $d = \dim V$.

 $\text{Result. The number of subspaces of V of dimension k is } \frac{(q^d-1)(q^d-q)\dots(q^d-q^{k-1})}{(q^k-1)(q^k-q)\dots(q^k-q^{k-1})} = \left[\begin{array}{c} d \\ k \end{array}\right]_q.$

Result. The number of pairs (U, W) with $U \oplus W = V$ and $\dim U = k$ is $\frac{b_d}{b_k b_{d-k}}$.

Result. The number of $T \in End V$ such that $ker T \oplus imgT = V$ and dim ker T = k is $\frac{b_d}{b_k}$.

Result. Given $U \le V$ of dimension r, the number of pairs (W_1, W_2) with $W_1 + W_2 = V$, $W_1 \cap W_2 = U$ and $\dim W_1 = r + j$ is $\frac{b_{d-r}}{b_j, b_{d-r-j}}$.

Result. The number of $T \in \text{End } V$ such that $\dim(\ker T \cap \text{img} T) = r$ and $\dim \text{img} T = r + j$ is $\begin{bmatrix} d \\ d - r \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} d - r \\ r \end{bmatrix}_q \frac{b_{d-2r}b_{j+r}}{b_jb_{d-2r-j}}$.

Result.
$$q^{d^2} = \sum_{r=0}^{\lfloor d/2 \rfloor} \sum_{j=0}^{d-2r} \begin{bmatrix} d \\ d-r \end{bmatrix}_q \begin{bmatrix} d-r \\ r \end{bmatrix}_q \frac{b_{d-2r}b_{j+r}}{b_j b_{d-2r-j}}$$

random abstract algebra bits

Observation. The following are equivalent for a finite group G.

- The composition $G \xrightarrow{Cay} Perm(G) \xrightarrow{sgn} \{\pm 1\}$ is non-trivial.
- $2 \mid \text{ord}(G)$ and G has an element of order $2^{\nu_2(\text{ord}(G))}$.
- 2 | ord(G) and G's Sylow₂ subgroups are cyclic.

Corollary. Let G be a finite group. Then the set elements of odd order O forms a subgroup, under the assumption that G has an element of order $2^{\nu_2(\operatorname{ord}(G))}$. Moreover, $[G:O] = 2^{\nu_2(\operatorname{ord}(G))}$.

Proof. Write $\operatorname{ord}(G) = 2^k(2\ell-1)$. The case k=0 is trivial. If $k \ge 1$, then the composition $G \longrightarrow \operatorname{Perm}(G) \longrightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ is non-trivial. Thus G has a normal subgroup N of index G. We have $\operatorname{ord}(N) = 2^{k-1}(2\ell-1)$, $O_G = O_N$, and G has an element of order G.

Observation. Let M be a semi-group of n elements. Then $\mathfrak{m}^{lcm(1,\dots,n)}=\mathfrak{m}^{2lcm(1,\dots,n)}$ for all $\mathfrak{m}\in M$.

Corollary. Let $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$ be a k-th power of an integral matrix for all $k \ge 2$. Then $A = A^2 = A^3 = \dots$

Proof. It suffices to show $A = A^2$ when reduced mod p for each prime p. However, working in $M = \mathbf{F}_p^{n \times n}$ we have $\bar{A} = X^{\text{lcm}(1,\dots,p^{n^2})}$ which implies $\bar{A} = \bar{A}^2$.

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A bashing proof of theorema egregium. Let $X = X(u, v) : D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \xrightarrow{\sim} S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ be a surface parametrization. Let

$$N = \frac{X_u \times X_v}{\|X_u \times X_v\|}$$

be the normal, and

$$\left(\begin{array}{cc}
E & F \\
F & G
\end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{ccc}
X_{u} \cdot X_{u} & X_{u} \cdot X_{v} \\
X_{u} \cdot X_{v} & X_{v} \cdot X_{v}
\end{array}\right)$$

be the first fundamental form, namely the surface isometry invariant. To compute the partials of the first fundamental form entries we write

$$X_{uu} = \alpha X_u + \beta X_v + eN$$

$$X_{uv} = \varepsilon X_u + \zeta X_v + fN$$

$$X_{vv} = \gamma X_u + \delta X_v + gN$$

Then we have

$$E_u = 2(\alpha E + \beta F)$$

$$E_{\nu} = 2(\varepsilon E + \zeta F)$$

$$G_u = 2(\varepsilon F + \zeta G)$$

$$G_{\nu} = 2(\gamma F + \delta G)$$

$$F_{11} = \alpha F + \beta G + \epsilon E + \zeta F$$

$$F_v = \gamma E + \delta F + \varepsilon F + \zeta G$$

Which mean

$$\begin{pmatrix} E & F \\ F & G \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon \\ \zeta \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} E_{v} \\ G_{u} \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} E & F \\ F & G \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} E_{u} \\ 2F_{u} - E_{v} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} E & F \\ F & G \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \gamma \\ \delta \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 2F_{\nu} - G_{u} \\ G_{\nu} \end{pmatrix}$$

And so the first fundamental form determines $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta$. Gauss's theorem, which we shall now prove, is that $eg-f^2$ is also determined by the first fundamental form. Firstly, since $N \perp X_u$ and $N \perp X_v$ we have

$$e = X_{uu} \cdot N = -N_{u} \cdot X_{u}$$

$$f = X_{uv} \cdot N = -N_{v} \cdot X_{u} = -N_{u} \cdot X_{v}$$

$$g = X_{vv} \cdot N = -N_{v} \cdot X_{v}$$

Moreover, since $||N|| \equiv 1$ we may write

$$N_{u} = a^{11}X_{u} + a^{12}X_{v}$$

$$N_{v} = a^{21}X_{u} + a^{22}X_{v}$$

which yields

$$\begin{pmatrix} a^{11} & a^{12} \\ a^{21} & a^{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} E & F \\ F & G \end{pmatrix} = -\begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ f & g \end{pmatrix}$$

We write $K = a^{11}a^{22} - a^{12}a^{21} = \frac{eg - f^2}{EG - F^2}$ for the Gaussian curvature. Now, we have

$$X_{uuv} = \alpha_{v} X_{u} + \alpha X_{uv} + \beta_{v} X_{v} + \beta X_{vv} + e_{v} N + e N_{v}$$

$$X_{uvu} = \epsilon_{u} X_{u} + \epsilon X_{uu} + \zeta_{u} X_{v} + \zeta X_{uv} + f_{u} N + f N_{u}$$

Comparing the X_{ν} part we get

$$\alpha \zeta + \beta_{\nu} + \beta \delta + e \alpha^{22} = \varepsilon \beta + \zeta_{u} + \zeta^{2} + f \alpha^{12}$$

Now, by the matrix equation we have that

$$\varepsilon \beta + \zeta_u + \zeta^2 - \alpha \zeta - \beta_v - \beta \delta = e \alpha^{22} - f \alpha^{12} = -EK$$

is determined by the first fundamental form. Since E is positive, K is determined by the first fundamental form. Gauss's theorem, for example, implies that no part of a sphere can be isometrically embedded in the plane. Any map of the globe, no matter of how small a region, will have distorsions.

In orthogonal coordinates $E = A^2$, F = 0, $G = B^2$ we get

$$K = -\frac{1}{AB} \left(\partial_{\nu} \left(\frac{A_{\nu}}{B} \right) + \partial_{\mu} \left(\frac{B_{\mu}}{A} \right) \right)$$

In particular, in isothermal coordinates $E = G = \lambda$, F = 0 we have

$$K = -\frac{\Delta \log \lambda}{2\lambda}$$

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To me, this finally gives a definition of the curvature of the hyperbolic plane and shows it is -1. Indeed, the hyperbolic plane is nothing but $H = \{y > 0\}$ with the metric given by $\frac{\sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2}}{y}$. Namely, the first fundamental form is y^{-2} id. This immediately yields K = -1.

Theorem. $v_p(n!) = \lfloor n/p \rfloor + \lfloor n/p^2 \rfloor + \lfloor n/p^3 \rfloor + \dots$

Theorem. $(p-1)\nu_p(n!) = n - s_p(n)$ where $s_p(n)$ is the digit sum of n in base p.

Theorem. $\nu_p\binom{p^k}{r} = k - \nu_p(r)$