

Defining equations for matroid varieties

Commutative and Homological Algebra Market
Presentations (CHAMP) Virtual Seminar

Ashley K. Wheeler

Mount Holyoke College

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Thank-you to the organizers, and for the invitation to speak!

- Joint w/ Jessica Sidman (MHC) and Will Traves (USNA).
- **Goal:** To find defining equations for matroid varieties.
- Ground field: \mathbb{C}

Introduction & Problem

Q: Which collections of 3 columns form a basis for the column space of A ?

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Look for non-zero 3-minors of A .

Number the columns of A 1 through 5. Here are the 3-minors, according to their column indices:

$$\{1, 2, 3\} \rightarrow 0 \quad \{1, 2, 4\} \rightarrow -6 \quad \{1, 2, 5\} \rightarrow -12$$

$$\{1, 3, 4\} \rightarrow -9 \quad \{1, 3, 5\} \rightarrow -18 \quad \{1, 4, 5\} \rightarrow -9$$

$$\{2, 3, 4\} \rightarrow 3 \quad \{2, 3, 5\} \rightarrow -6 \quad \{2, 4, 5\} \rightarrow -11$$

$$\{3, 4, 5\} \rightarrow 0$$

The **matroid** \mathcal{M}_A on A is given by the set:

$$\mathcal{B} = \{\text{all 3-tuples except } \{1, 2, 3\} \text{ and } \{3, 4, 5\}\} \subset \{1, \dots, 5\}$$

The sets in \mathcal{B} are called **bases** for the matroid \mathcal{M}_A .

Matroids are a generalization of the collections of linearly independent columns of a matrix.

Q: Given a matroid on a matrix A , what other matrices have the same matroid as A ?

E.g., $\text{rref } A$.

In fact, any other matrix that represents the same point in the Grassmannian $\text{Grass}(3, 5)$!

... What else?

Say A represents a point $x \in \text{Grass}(r, n)$. Put $\mathcal{M}_x = \mathcal{M}_A$.

Gel'fand, Goresky, Macpherson, and Serganova (1987) introduced the matroid stratification of $\text{Grass}(r, n)$ by sets of the form

$$\Gamma_x = \{y \in \text{Grass}(r, n) \mid \mathcal{M}_y = \mathcal{M}_x\}$$

and gave beautiful connections to combinatorics.

We study the Zariski closures of these strata, \mathcal{V}_x . \mathcal{V}_x is called the **matroid variety** for the matroid \mathcal{M}_x .

Let X denote the generic $r \times n$ matrix and $\wedge^r X$ the matrix whose entries are the r -minors of X .

Given a matroid variety \mathcal{V}_x , we wish to find the defining ideal,

$$\begin{aligned} I_x = I(\mathcal{V}_x) &\subseteq \mathbb{C}[\text{Grass}(r, n)] \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{C}[X]}{\langle \text{Plücker relations} \rangle} \\ &= \mathbb{C}[\wedge^r X]. \end{aligned}$$

Mnëv (1985), Sturmfels (1989), Knutson, Lam, & Speyer (2013): **All “hell” breaks loose when we try to find I_x .**

Why?

- Mnëv, Sturmfels: Arbitrary singularities appear.
- The Zariski topology; the matroid stratification is based on Zariski-open conditions, the basis axioms of a matroid.
- The equations are not obvious (as we shall see).

If A_x is a matrix representative of $x \in \text{Grass}(r, n)$, λ an ordered subset of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ of size r , then let $[\lambda]$ denote the r -minor of A_x with columns indexed by λ .

Define the ideal

$$N_x = \langle [\lambda] \mid \lambda \text{ is not a basis of } \mathcal{M}_x \rangle \subseteq I_x.$$

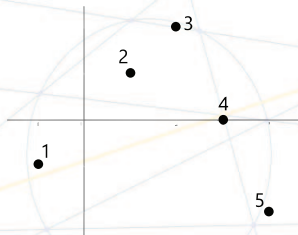
(N for “Naïve”)

- Knutson, Lam, & Speyer: $N_x = I_x$ when \mathcal{M}_x is a **positroid**. (Is the converse true?)
- Sturmfels (1993): $N_x \subsetneq I_x$ in general.

Paradigm shift

Matroids as point configurations

Idea: Think of the columns of a matrix A as points in \mathbb{P}^{r-1} .



Q: What do you notice about the points in relation to the matroid \mathcal{M}_A whose bases are

{all 3-tuples except $\{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\{3, 4, 5\}\} \subset \{1, \dots, 5\}$?

Points 1, 2, and 3 are collinear if and only if $\{1, 2, 3\}$ is not a basis for \mathcal{M}_A . We say the **bracket** $[123]$ vanishes. We also have $[345] = 0$.

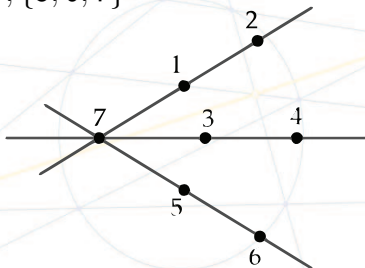
So if $x \in \text{Grass}(3, 5)$ is the point represented by A , then we have

$$N_x = \langle [123], [345] \rangle.$$

Q: Is $N_x = I_x$? (Yes in this case, actually – \mathcal{M}_x is positroid.)

Example (Ford 2013):

$\mathcal{M}_{\text{pencil}}$ = matroid on a 3×7 matrix with *nonbases*
 $\{1, 2, 7\}, \{3, 4, 7\}, \{5, 6, 7\}$



$$N_{\text{pencil}} = \langle [127], [347], [567] \rangle.$$

All hell breaks loose:

$I_{\text{pencil}} = N_{\text{pencil}} + \langle [134][256] - [234][156] \rangle$. How could we have known this?!

Ans: The **Grassmann-Cayley algebra**.

Tool

Grassmann-Cayley algebra

The Grassmann-Cayley algebra was invented to do *synthetic projective geometry*.

We do arithmetic on the points (vectors) themselves, and obtain expressions in the brackets.

The Grassmann-Cayley algebra is the usual exterior algebra over the vector space \mathbb{C}^r equipped with two operations:

join (\vee): refers to the line passing through points (in \mathbb{P}^2)

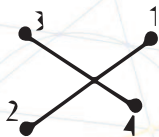


The line joining 1 and 2 is $1 \vee 2$, or 12 .

When $r = 3$ (i.e., over \mathbb{P}^2), three points joined makes a bracket, and three collinear points make the bracket vanish.

(The join is the usual exterior product with the wedge symbol flipped upside down.)

meet (\wedge): refers to the intersection of two lines (in \mathbb{P}^2)



The meet of the lines $1 \vee 2$ and $3 \vee 4$ is $(1 \vee 2) \wedge (3 \vee 4)$, or $12 \wedge 34$.

The meet operation uses **shuffle products**, which also produce expressions in the brackets.

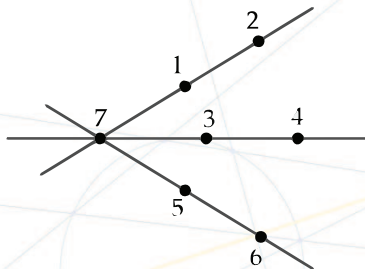
For general r , given two extensors $v = v_1 \cdots v_k$ and

$$w = w_1 \cdots w_l,$$

- when $k + l < r$ we define the meet to be 0;
- if $k + l \geq r$, the meet is defined to be

$$v \wedge w = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{S}(k, l, r)} \text{sign}(\sigma) [v_{\sigma(1)} \cdots v_{\sigma(r-l)} w_1 \cdots w_l] \cdot v_{\sigma(r-l+1)} \cdots v_{\sigma(k)},$$

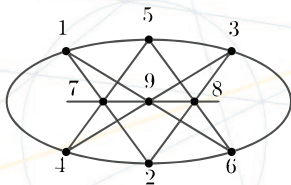
where $\mathcal{S}(k, l, r)$ is the set of all permutations σ of $\{1, \dots, k\}$ so that $\sigma(1) < \cdots < \sigma(r-l)$ and $\sigma(r-l+1) < \cdots < \sigma(k)$.



We have $((1 \vee 2) \wedge (3 \vee 4)) \vee 5 \vee 6 = 0$, because these three points are collinear. Here's how to apply the shuffles:

$$\begin{aligned} (12 \wedge 34) \vee 56 &= ([134]2 - [234]1)56 \\ &= [134][256] - [234][156] = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Example: **Pascal's theorem** says if six points on a conic are configured in the way illustrated below, then the resulting intersection points (7, 8, and 9) are collinear.



We have a matroid $\mathcal{M}_{\text{Pascal}}$ corresponding to this configuration of points, and a matroid variety $\mathcal{V}_{\text{Pascal}}$.

Q: What is N_{Pascal} ?

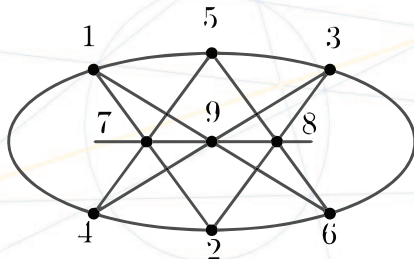
Our result and generalizations

Theorem (Sidman, Traves, W (2020))

I_{Pascal} is generated by at least one quartic, three independent cubics, and three independent quadrics in the brackets, besides the brackets in N_{Pascal} .

Evidence (M2) says these are the only defining equations.

Finding the quartic: The statement of Pascal's theorem says we have $(12 \wedge 45) \vee (23 \wedge 56) \vee (34 \wedge 61) = 0$.



Apply the shuffle products:

$$\begin{aligned} & (12 \wedge 45) \vee (23 \wedge 56) \vee (34 \wedge 61) \\ &= ([145]2 - [245]1) \vee ([256]3 - [356]2) \vee ([361]4 - [461]3) \end{aligned}$$

Now “foil”:

$$\begin{aligned} & (([145]2 - [245]1) \vee ([256]3 - [356]2)) \vee ([361]4 - [461]3) \\ &= ([145][256]23 - [145][356]22 - [245][256]13 + [245][356]12) \\ & \quad \vee ([361]4 - [461]3) \end{aligned}$$

Finish “foiling”:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & ([145][256]23 - [145][356]22 - [245][256]13 + [245][356]12) \\
 & \quad \vee ([361]4 - [461]3) \\
 = & [145][256][361][234] - \cancel{[145][256][461][233]} \\
 & \quad - \cancel{[145][356][361][224]} + \cancel{[145][356][461][223]} \\
 & \quad - [245][256][361][134] + \cancel{[245][256][461][133]} \\
 & \quad + [245][356][361][124] - [245][356][461][123] \\
 = & [145][256][361][234] - [245][256][361][134] \\
 & \quad + [245][356][361][124] - [245][356][461][123] = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Why is the quartic not in N_{Pascal} ?

Let f denote the quartic. It suffices to find $y \in \mathcal{V}(N_{\text{Pascal}})$ with $f(y) \neq 0$.

Let $y \in \text{Grass}(3, 9)$ be represented by the matrix A_y whose:

- first six columns correspond to six points in \mathbb{P}^2 not on a conic.
- last 3 columns are zero.

Recall,

$$N_{\text{Pascal}} = \langle [127], [238], [349], [457], [568], [169], [789] \rangle.$$

Every bracket in N_{Pascal} involves one of the columns 7, 8, or 9, so must vanish on y . So $y \in \mathcal{V}(N_{\text{Pascal}})$.

On the other hand, the first six columns of A_y were chosen so that the corresponding points don't satisfy Pascal's theorem, the statement encoded in f . So we can't have $f(y) = 0$.

We generalize our theorem to:

- more points in the Pascal configuraion (i.e., $n \geq 6$ points on a conic).
- Pascal's theorem in higher dimensions, by a result of Caminata and Schaffler.
- configurations arising from Cayley-Bacharach theorems.

Example: The twisted cubic.

Caminata & Schaffler (2019) give Grassmann-Cayley conditions for $d + 4$ points in \mathbb{P}^d to lie on a rational normal curve, $d \geq 2$.

The $d = 2$ case is Pascal's theorem, with its converse (proved independently by Braikenridge and Maclaurin).

The $d = 3$ case is Pascal-Braikenridge-Maclaurin's theorem for a twisted cubic.

Let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_7\} \subset \mathbb{P}^3$.

For each 6-tuple $\lambda = \{i_1, \dots, i_6\} \subset \{1, \dots, 7\}$, let $\{j\}$ denote its complement.

CS: The points in \mathcal{P} lie on a twisted cubic if and only if

$$(i_1 i_2 \wedge i_4 i_5 j) \vee (i_2 i_3 \wedge i_5 i_6 j) \vee (i_3 i_4 \wedge i_6 i_1 j) \vee j = 0.$$

Each expression in parentheses is an intersection of a line and a plane, which gives a point. The statement is that the four points lie on a plane.

$$\underbrace{(12 \wedge 457)}_8 \vee \underbrace{(23 \wedge 567)}_9 \vee \underbrace{(34 \wedge 617)}_{10} \vee 7 = 0$$

$$\underbrace{(12 \wedge 456)}_{11} \vee (23 \wedge 576) \vee (34 \wedge 716) \vee 6 = 0$$

$$(12 \wedge 465) \vee (23 \wedge 675) \vee \underbrace{(34 \wedge 715)}_{12} \vee 5 = 0$$

$$(12 \wedge 564) \vee \underbrace{(23 \wedge 674)}_{13} \vee \underbrace{(35 \wedge 714)}_{14} \vee 4 = 0$$

$$\underbrace{(12 \wedge 563)}_{15} \vee \underbrace{(24 \wedge 673)}_{16} \vee \underbrace{(45 \wedge 713)}_{17} \vee 3 = 0$$

$$\underbrace{(13 \wedge 562)}_{18} \vee \underbrace{(34 \wedge 672)}_{19} \vee \underbrace{(45 \wedge 712)}_{20} \vee 2 = 0$$

$$\underbrace{(23 \wedge 561)}_{21} \vee (34 \wedge 671) \vee (45 \wedge 721) \vee 1 = 0$$

Let \mathcal{Q} denote the set of points labelled with the underbraces, and note that $|\mathcal{Q}| = 14$.

Theorem (Sidman, Traves, W 2020)

Let the coordinates of points in \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} comprise the columns of a 4×21 matrix A . Let $x \in \text{Grass}(4, 21)$ denote the subspace spanned by the rows of A . Then there are nontrivial quartics in I_x .

Other questions:

- 1 Study the matroid variety corresponding to the configuration of points in Pappus's theorem.
- 2 Study the matroid varieties corresponding to graphical matroids (e.g., wheel graphs).
- 3 Hard: Let $J_x \subseteq \mathbb{C}[\wedge^r X]$ be the ideal generated by the product of brackets corresponding to bases of \mathcal{M}_x (a "compliment" of N_x). It is shown (cf. STW) that the saturation of N_x by J_x is contained in I_x . In fact, $\sqrt{N_x : J_x^\infty} = I_x$. What conditions will guarantee that N_x is radical? (Implies the saturation is radical)

Thank-you!

background from *Euclidean*