# Counting symmetric nilpotent matrices 

Andries E. Brouwer

## Counting

## Counting <br> Small $n$

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The end

## Look at matrices over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ so we can count.

 The number of matrices of order $n$ is $q^{n^{2}}$.
## Counting

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The number of matrices of order $n$ is $q^{n^{2}}$.
The number of symmetric matrices is $q^{n(n+1) / 2}$.

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The number of nilpotent matrices is $q^{n(n-1)}$.

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The number of symmetric matrices is $q^{n(n+1) / 2}$.
The number of nilpotent matrices is $q^{n(n-1)}$.
$N$ is nilpotent when $N^{e}=0$ for some $e \geq 0$. $e$ is called the exponent of $N$.

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The number of matrices of order $n$ is $q^{n^{2}}$.
The number of symmetric matrices is $q^{n(n+1) / 2}$.
The number of nilpotent matrices is $q^{n(n-1)}$.
This is easy but nontrivial. Proofs by Hall (1955), Fine \& Herstein (1958), Gerstenhaber (1961), Crabb (2006), Gow \& Sheekey (2011), Blokhuis (2011).

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The number of matrices of order $n$ is $q^{n^{2}}$.
The number of symmetric matrices is $q^{n(n+1) / 2}$.
The number of nilpotent matrices is $q^{n(n-1)}$.
How many symmetric nilpotent matrices?

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## Count symmetric nilpotent matrices of order $n$ $n=0: 1$ (exponent 0 ), namely ()

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Count symmetric nilpotent matrices of order $n$
$n=0: 1$ (exponent 0), namely ()
$n=1$ : 1 (exponent 1 ), namely ( 0 )
$n=2$ :
Look at $\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ b & c\end{array}\right)$.
All eigenvalues are 0 , so trace is 0 , so $c=-a$.
Determinant is 0 , so $a^{2}+b^{2}=0$.
How many solutions?
$q$ even: $q$
$q \equiv 1(\bmod 4): 1+2(q-1)=2 q-1$
$q \equiv 3(\bmod 4): 1$
Messy

## Small $n$

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$q$ even: $q$
$q \equiv 1(\bmod 4): 1+2(q-1)=2 q-1$
$q \equiv 3(\bmod 4): 1$
$n=3: 1+\left(q^{2}-1\right)+\left(q^{3}-q\right)=q^{3}+q^{2}-q$

## Exercise

Sometimes we find a polynomial in $q$.

## Self-adjoint matrices

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A matrix $N$ defines a linear map $N: V \rightarrow V$ and it makes sense to talk about $N^{e}$. What does it mean that $N=N^{\top}$ ?

## Self-adjoint matrices

## Counting

Small $n$

## Self-adjoint matrices

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Let $g: V \times V \rightarrow F$ be a nondegenerate symmetric bilinear form. $N$ is called self-adjoint w.r.t. $g$ when $g(x, N y)=g(N x, y)$ for all $x, y$.

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Fix a basis. Then $g(x, y)=x^{\top} G y$ for a symmetric matrix $G$. Now $N$ is self-adjoint when
$G N=N^{\top} G$, that is, when $G N=(G N)^{\top}$.

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The standard form is the one given by the identity matrix: $g(x, y)=x^{\top} y=\sum x_{i} y_{i}$.

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The standard form is the one given by the identity matrix: $g(x, y)=x^{\top} y=\sum x_{i} y_{i}$.
$N=N^{\top}$ iff $N$ is self-adjoint for the standard form.

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So, it seems we should be counting self-adjoint matrices w.r.t. a given nondegenerate symmetric bilinear form. How many nonequivalent forms are there?

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So, it seems we should be counting self-adjoint matrices w.r.t. a given nondegenerate symmetric bilinear form. How many nonequivalent forms are there? That depends on the parity of $n$.

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So, it seems we should be counting self-adjoint matrices w.r.t. a given nondegenerate symmetric bilinear form. How many nonequivalent forms are there? That depends on the parity of $n$.
When $n$ is odd, all forms are equivalent to the standard form.

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When $n$ is even, there are two nonequivalent types.

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When $n$ is odd, all forms are equivalent to the standard form.

When $n$ is even, there are two nonequivalent types. (Assuming $n>0$.)

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When $n$ is odd, all forms are equivalent to the standard form.

When $n$ is even, there are two nonequivalent types.
$q$ odd: the elliptic and hyperbolic forms.
$q$ even: the standard and symplectic forms.

## The standard form

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When $n$ and $q$ are even, one has the standard and symplectic forms. How can one distinguish them?

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When $n$ and $q$ are even, one has the standard and symplectic forms.

A form $g$ is symplectic iff $g(x, x)=0$ for all $x$.

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When $n$ and $q$ are even, one has the standard and symplectic forms.

A form $g$ is symplectic iff $g(x, x)=0$ for all $x$. That is, iff $G$ has zero diagonal.

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When $n$ and $q$ are even, one has the standard and symplectic forms.

A form $g$ is symplectic iff $g(x, x)=0$ for all $x$. That is, iff $G$ has zero diagonal.
(For $n=0$ the standard form is symplectic.)

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When $n$ and $q$ are even, one has the standard and symplectic forms.

A form $g$ is symplectic iff $g(x, x)=0$ for all $x$.
When $n$ is even and $q$ is odd, one has the elliptic and hyperbolic forms. The form is hyperbolic when $(-1)^{n / 2} \operatorname{det} G$ is a square.

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The standard form is hyperbolic if $(-1)^{n / 2}$ is a square, and elliptic otherwise.

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When $n$ is even and $q$ is odd, one has the elliptic and hyperbolic forms. The form is hyperbolic when $(-1)^{n / 2} \operatorname{det} G$ is a square.
The standard form is hyperbolic if $(-1)^{n / 2}$ is a square, and elliptic otherwise. (For $n=0$ there is no elliptic form.)

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When $n$ and $q$ are even, one has the standard and symplectic forms.
A form $g$ is symplectic iff $g(x, x)=0$ for all $x$.
When $n$ is even and $q$ is odd, one has the elliptic and hyperbolic forms. The form is hyperbolic when $(-1)^{n / 2} \operatorname{det} G$ is a square.
The standard form is hyperbolic if $(-1)^{n / 2}$ is a square, and elliptic otherwise. So it is hyperbolic, unless $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ and $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$.

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## For $n=2$ we now find for the number of nilpotent self-adjoint matrices:

$q$ even:
$g$ standard: $q$
$g$ symplectic: $q^{2}$

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$g$ symplectic: $q^{2}$
Look at $N=\left(\begin{array}{cc}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)$.
Here $G=\left(\begin{array}{cc}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right)$, and $G N=(G N)^{\top}$ yields
$\left(\begin{array}{ll}c & d \\ a & b\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}c & a \\ d & b\end{array}\right)$, so that $a=d$.
The trace is 0 . Determinant is 0 , so $a^{2}=b c$.
Now $b$ and $c$ can be chosen freely.

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$g$ standard: $q$
$g$ symplectic: $q^{2}$
$N=\left(\begin{array}{lll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)$ has $a=d$ and $a^{2}=b c$.
(More generally, for backdiagonal $G$, the self-adjoint $N$ are those that are symmetric w.r.t. the back diagonal.)

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For $n=2$ we now find for the number of nilpotent self-adjoint matrices:
$q$ even:
$g$ standard: $q$
$g$ symplectic: $q^{2}$
$q$ odd:
$g$ elliptic: 1
$g$ hyperbolic: $2 q-1$
Note that $q$ is the average of 1 and $2 q-1$.

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Consider a vector space $V$ of dimension $n=2 m$ provided with a nondegenerate symplectic form $g$.

Theorem (Steinberg (1968), Springer (1980).) The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s p}_{2 m}$ has $q^{2 m^{2}}$ nilpotent elements.

A matrix $A$ belongs to $S p(2 m)$ when it preserves the form, i.e., when $g(A x, A y)=g(x, y)$ for all $x, y$. Write $A=I+\epsilon X$, where $\epsilon^{2}=0$, to see that this means $g(x, X y)+g(X x, y)=0$. For $q$ even this says that $X$ is self-adjoint.

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Theorem (Steinberg (1968), Springer (1980).) The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{s p}_{2 m}$ has $q^{2 m^{2}}$ nilpotent elements.

Corollary If $q$ is even, there are $q^{2 m^{2}}$ nilpotent matrices of order $2 m$ that are self-adjoint for a given nondegenerate symplectic form $g$.

This explains the $q^{2}$ that we got for $n=2$.

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Corollary If $q$ is even, there are $q^{2 m^{2}}$ nilpotent matrices of order $2 m$ that are self-adjoint for a given nondegenerate symplectic form $g$.

Exercise: give a direct geometric proof.

## Steinberg

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Steinberg (1968) shows for unipotent elements in algebraic groups, and Springer (1980) for nilpotent elements in the corresponding Lie algebras, that there are $q^{N}$ of them, where $N=|\Phi|$ is the number of roots of the root system.

The proof uses the Steinberg character and modular representation theory.

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For $A_{n-1}$, that is, $G L(n)$, we have $|\Phi|=n(n-1)$, and we see again that there are $q^{n(n-1)}$ nilpotent matrices.

For $C_{m}$, that is, $S p(2 m)$, we have $|\Phi|=2 m^{2}$. If $q$ is even, there are $q^{2 m^{2}}$ nilpotent back-symmetric matrices of order $2 m$.

## Skew-symmetric nilpotent matrices

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$N$ is skew-symmetric when $N$ has zero diagonal and $N=-N^{\top}$.

For $D_{m}$, that is, $O^{+}(2 m)$, we have $|\Phi|=2 m(m-1)$. There are $q^{2 m(m-1)}$ skew-symmetric nilpotent matrices of order $2 m$.

For $B_{n}$, that is, $O(2 m+1)$, we have $|\Phi|=2 m^{2}$. There are $q^{2 m^{2}}$ skew-symmetric matrices of order $2 m+1$.

## Young diagrams

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The Jordan normal form $N$ of a nilpotent matrix of order $n$ has zeros on the main diagonal, and zeros and ones on the diagonal just above it. This leads to a block partition of the matrix, and to a partition of $n$.
Partitions are represented by Young diagrams $Y$.
\(N=\left[$$
\begin{array}{lllllll}{\left[\begin{array}{llllll}0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}
$$\right.} \& 0 <br>
0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 1 \& 0 \& 0 <br>
0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 <br>
0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 <br>
0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 \& 0 <br>

\hline\end{array}\right] . \quad Y=\)| $\square$ |
| :--- |
| $\square$ |
| $\square$ |

$e_{3} \mapsto e_{2} \mapsto e_{1} \mapsto 0, e_{5} \mapsto e_{4} \mapsto 0, e_{6} \mapsto 0, e_{7} \mapsto 0$.

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$e_{3} \mapsto e_{2} \mapsto e_{1} \mapsto 0, e_{5} \mapsto e_{4} \mapsto 0, e_{6} \mapsto 0, e_{7} \mapsto 0$.
The map $N$ determines a unique $Y$. The number of rows is $\operatorname{dim}$ ker $N$. The number of columns is the exponent of $N$. There is a square in row $i$ column $j$ if $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{ker} N \cap \operatorname{im} N^{j-1} \geq i$.

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Consider the Gram matrix $G=\left(g\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)\right)_{i j}$ of 'inner products' of basis vectors belonging to the Young diagram $Y=\square$, with the $u_{i}$ identified with the squares of the diagram. If $u_{i}$ has more squares to its right than $u_{j}$ to its left, then $g\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)=g\left(N^{a} u_{h}, u_{j}\right)=g\left(u_{h}, N^{a} u_{j}\right)=0$.

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If $u_{i}$ has more squares to its right than $u_{j}$ to its left, then $g\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)=0$.


## Young diagrams (2)

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If $u_{i}$ has more squares to its right than $u_{j}$ to its left, then $g\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)=0$.
$Y=\left[\begin{array}{llllllll}1577 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 6 \\ \frac{3}{4} \\ 4\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{llllll}0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 & . & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots\end{array}\right]$

## Young diagrams (2)

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If $u_{i}$ has more squares to its right than $u_{j}$ to its left, then $g\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)=0$.

$$
Y=\begin{array}{|l|l|}
\hline \begin{array}{lll}
1 & 5 & 7 \\
2 & 6 \\
\hline & \\
\hline 4
\end{array} & {\left[\begin{array}{ccccccc}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * & . \\
0 & 0 & . & . & . & . & . \\
0 & 0 & . & . & . & . & . \\
0 & 0 & . & . & . & . & . \\
0 & * & . & . & . & . & . \\
* & . & . & . & . & . & .
\end{array}\right]}
\end{array}
$$

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If $u_{i}$ has more squares to its right than $u_{j}$ to its left, then $g\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)=0$.

$$
Y=\begin{array}{|l|l|}
\hline \begin{array}{lll}
1 & 5 & 7 \\
\hline 2 & 6 \\
\hline 3 & \\
\hline 4
\end{array} \quad\left[\begin{array}{ccccccc}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * & . \\
0 & 0 & . & . & 0 & . & . \\
0 & 0 & . & . & 0 & . & . \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * & . & . \\
0 & * & . & . & . & . & . \\
* & . & . & . & . & . & .
\end{array}\right], ~
\end{array}
$$

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If $u_{i}$ has more squares to its right than $u_{j}$ to its left, then $g\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)=0$.

$$
Y=\begin{array}{|l|l|}
\hline 1 & 5 \\
\hline & 7 \\
\hline 3 & 6 \\
\hline 4 & \\
4
\end{array} \quad\left[\begin{array}{ccccccc}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * & . \\
0 & 0 & a & b & 0 & . & . \\
0 & 0 & b & c & 0 & . & . \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & * & . & . \\
0 & * & . & . & . & . & . \\
* & . & . & . & . & . & .
\end{array}\right]
$$

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If $u_{i}$ has more squares to its right than $u_{j}$ to its left, then $g\left(u_{i}, u_{j}\right)=0$.

$$
Y=\frac{\begin{array}{l}
155 \\
\frac{2}{2} 6 \\
\frac{3}{4} \\
4
\end{array}}{\substack{ \\
\hline \\
\hline}}
$$

$\left[\begin{array}{ccccccc}0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & d \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & e & \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & n_{a} & b & 0 & \cdot & \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & b & c & 0 & \cdot & \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & d & \cdot & \cdot \\ 0 & e & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline d & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot\end{array}\right]$

Get a transversal of nonsingular symmetric subblocks: for each group $R$ of $r$ rows of length $s$, get an $r \times r$ subblock with rows indexed by $Y_{h i}$ and columns by $Y_{h, s+1-i}(h \in R)$ for each $i$, $1 \leq i \leq s$. Different $i$ give the same block.

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Another example:

Get a transversal of nonsingular symmetric subblocks: for each group $R$ of $r$ rows of length $s$, get an $r \times r$ subblock with rows indexed by $Y_{h i}$ and columns by $Y_{h, s+1-i}(h \in R)$ for each $i$, $1 \leq i \leq s$. Different $i$ give the same block.

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Another example:
$Y=\left[\begin{array}{llllllll}14[7] \\ \frac{1}{2} 5 \\ 3 / 6\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & d \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & a & b \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & d & b & c\end{array}\right]$
Diagrams $Y$ describe conjugacy classes of unipotent matrices. (Or, orbits of nilpotent matrices under conjugation.)

## Young diagrams (2)

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Another example:

If the form is symplectic, then the Gram matrix has zero diagonal. This means that each odd part of the partition has even multiplicity.

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We want to count the number of self-adjoint nilpotent matrices in six cases: for odd $q$ there are the elliptic, hyperbolic, and parabolic forms, for even $q$ the symplectic and standard forms. Let us call these counts $e(2 m), h(2 m), p(2 m+1)$, $z(2 m), s(2 m), s(2 m+1)$.

Theorem All of $e(2 m), h(2 m), p(2 m+1)$, $z(2 m), s(2 m), s(2 m+1)$ are polynomials in $q$.

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So far we learned one value: $z(2 m)=q^{2 m^{2}}$.
Theorem $p(2 m+1)=s(2 m+1)$.
Put $a(2 m)=(h(2 m)+e(2 m)) / 2$ and $d(2 m)=(h(2 m)-e(2 m)) / 2$.

Theorem $a(2 m)=s(2 m)$.
In both cases, the equality is one of polynomials.

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Theorem $p(2 m+1)=q^{2 m} a(2 m)+q^{m} d(2 m)$.
Theorem $p(2 m+1)=\left(q^{2 m}-1\right) a(2 m)+z(2 m)$.
Theorem $a(2 m)=q^{2 m-1} p(2 m-1)$.
These settle all values recursively.

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Consider $V$, with nondegenerate symmetric bilinear form $g$. The number of self-adjoint $M$ is $q^{n(n+1) / 2}$. The map $M: V \rightarrow V$ determines a unique Fitting decomposition $V=U \oplus W$ of $V$, where $M$ is nilpotent on $U$ and invertible on $W$.
If $u \in U, w \in W$, then $w=M^{i} w_{i}$ for a $w_{i} \in W$, and $g(u, w)=g\left(u, M^{i} w_{i}\right)=g\left(M^{i} u, w_{i}\right)=0$ for large $i$. So $V=U \perp W$, and $U=W^{\perp}, W=U^{\perp}$, so that $U$ and $W$ are nondegenerate, and determine each other.

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Let $N(U)$ be the number of nilpotent self-adjoint maps on $U$ (provided with the restriction of $g$ to $U$ ), and let $S(W)$ be the number of invertible self-adjoint maps on $W$. We proved: $q^{n(n+1) / 2}=\sum_{U} N(U) S\left(U^{\perp}\right)$, where the sum is over all nondegenerate subspaces $U$ of $V$.
By induction one finds $N(V)$.

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One finds explicit formulas for the number of nilpotent maps of given type that have a given Young diagram $Y$ by counting pairs $(N, g)$.
E.g., for $n=2 m+1, N_{s}(Y)=N(Y) g_{s}(Y) / g_{s}$
$N_{s}(Y)$ : \# symmetric nilpotent maps of shape $Y$
$N(Y)$ : total \# nilpotent maps of shape $Y$
$g_{s}$ : total \# nondegenerate symmetric bilinear forms (on $V$, where $\operatorname{dim} V=n$ )
$g_{s}(Y)$ : \# such forms for which a given $N$ of shape $Y$ is self-adjoint.

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Each of $N(Y), g_{s}, g_{s}(Y)$ is easy to compute. (For $g_{s}(Y)$ one uses the transversal of nonsingular blocks.)

This means that all counts are known as a sum $\sum_{Y} N_{s}(Y)$ over Young diagrams. Good for checking small values. Good for proving theorems.

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We have precise conjectures, but few proofs. However, there are recurrences, so all that is missing is algebraic manipulation.

The recurrences allow one to compute all counts for much larger $n$ than is possible with the sums over $Y$.

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Let $p(2 m+1, r), h(2 m, r), e(2 m, r)$ count selfadjoint nilpotent matrices of rank $r$ (for odd $q)$. Define $a(2 m, r), d(2 m, r)$ as before.

## Conjectures

(i) $p(2 m+1,2 s+1)=\left(q^{2 m-2 s}-1\right) p(2 m+1,2 s)$.
(ii) $a(2 m, 2 s+1)=\left(q^{2 m-2 s-1}-1\right) a(2 m, 2 s)$.
(iii) $d(2 m, 2 s)=\left(q^{2 m-2 s}-1\right) d(2 m, 2 s-1)$.
(iv) $\left(q^{2 m-r}-1\right) p(2 m+1, r)=\left(q^{2 m}-1\right) a(2 m, r)$.
(v)

$$
\begin{gathered}
p(2 m+1,2 s)=q^{s(s+1)} \prod_{i=0}^{s-1}\left(q^{2 m-2 i}-1\right) \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{s} q^{(s-i)(2 m-2 s-1)}\left[\begin{array}{c}
m-s-1+i \\
i
\end{array}\right]_{q^{2}} \\
d(2 m, 2 s+1)=(q-1) q^{m+s(s+1)-1} \prod_{i=1}^{s}\left(q^{2 m-2 i}-1\right) \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{s} q^{(s-i)(2 m-2 s-3)}\left[\begin{array}{c}
m-s-1+i \\
i
\end{array}\right]_{q^{2}} .
\end{gathered}
$$

There are similar conjectures for even $q$.

## Counts by rank

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## Recursions:

## Proposition

(i) $\left(q^{2 m+1-r}-1\right) p(2 m+1, r)=$
$\left(q^{2 m}-1\right) p_{0}(2 m+1, r)+q^{2 m}(q-1) a(2 m, r)+q^{m}(q-1) d(2 m, r)$.
(ii) $\left(q^{2 m-r}-1\right) a(2 m, r)=$
$\left(q^{2 m-1}-1\right) a_{0}(2 m, r)+q^{m-1}(q-1) d_{0}(2 m, r)+q^{2 m-1}(q-1) p(2 m-1, r)$.
(iii) $\left(q^{2 m-r}-1\right) d(2 m, r)=$
$\left(q^{2 m-1}-1\right) d_{0}(2 m, r)+q^{m-1}(q-1) a_{0}(2 m, r)-q^{m-1}(q-1) p(2 m-1, r)$.

And for $f$ any of $p, h, e, a, d$ :
(iv)
$f_{0}(n, r)=q^{r} f(n-2, r)+(q-1) q^{r-1} f(n-2, r-1)+\left(q^{n-r}-1\right) q^{r-1} f(n-2, r-2)$.

Here $f(n, r)=f_{0}(n, r)=0$ for $r<0$ or $r>n$ or $r=n>0$. As start of the recursion only $h(0,0)=1$ is needed.

## Counts by exponent

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Let now $N_{s}(n, e)$ be the number of $N$ with exponent $e$.
There is information on the case with large $e$.
Proposition For odd $n$ we have
$N_{s}(n+2, n+2)=q^{n}\left(q^{n+1}-1\right) N_{s}(n, n)$.
This is $N_{s}(Y), Y=\square \square \square \square \square \square$.
Proposition For $n$ odd, $n>2 i$, the ratio $N_{s}(n, n-i) / N_{s}(n, n)$ is independent of $n$.

## Proofs

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## Proofs

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Theorem All counts are polynomials in $q$.
Proof The sums over $Y$ are rational functions of $q$ that are integral for all $q$. $\square$

Theorem $p(2 m+1)=s(2 m+1)$.
Proof Write both counts as sums over $Y$. The parity of $q$ never plays a role. $\square$

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Theorem $a(2 m)=s(2 m)$.
Proof Write as sums over $Y$ and show termwise equality. Reduce to $g_{h}(Y)-g_{e}(Y)=q^{m} g_{z}(Y)$. Look at the block structure of a form $g$. Off-diagonal blocks contribute $\pm$ a square to $\operatorname{det} G$ and do not influence whether the form will be hyperbolic, elliptic, or symplectic. Use multiplicativity of both $g_{h}-g_{e}$ and $q^{n / 2} g_{z}$ for taking orthogonal direct sums. $\square$

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Proposition Let $g$ be a standard symmetric bilinear form on $V$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \#\{N \mid N \text { self-adjoint, nilpotent }\}= \\
& \quad \#\{(N, x) \mid N \text { idem, } N x=0, g(x, x) \neq 0\}
\end{aligned}
$$

when $n=2 m+1, q$ even or odd, and when $n=2 m, q$ even.
Proof (for $n=2 m+1$ ): Write as sums over $Y$, and show that the terms can be grouped so as to get equality.

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The grouping is given by the map

that moves the bottom square from the rightmost odd column to form a new row of length one at the bottom. $\square$

Proof (for $n=2 m, q$ even): Use the Fitting decomposition. $\square$

## Proofs

## Counting

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Theorem $p(2 m+1)=q^{2 m} a(2 m)+q^{m} d(2 m)$.
Theorem $s(2 m+1)=\left(q^{2 m}-1\right) s(2 m)+z(2 m)$.
Theorem $s(2 m)=q^{2 m-1} s(2 m-1)$.
Proof The first says that $p(2 m+1)=$ $\frac{1}{2} q^{m}\left(q^{m}+1\right) h(2 m)+\frac{1}{2} q^{m}\left(q^{m}-1\right) e(2 m)$.
All follow from the proposition above. $\square$

## The end

\author{

## Counting

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