From the Vandermonde determinant to generalized factorials to greedoids and back

Darij Grinberg joint work with Fedor Petrov

2022, New York Number Theory Zoom Seminar

slides: http://www.cip.ifi.lmu.de/~grinberg/algebra/
greedtalk-ny2022.pdf
extended abstract with further references: http:
//www.cip.ifi.lmu.de/~grinberg/algebra/fps20gfv.pdf
solutions to exercises: at the end of the slides

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Bhargava's generalized factorials: an introduction

References:

- Manjul Bhargava, *P-orderings and polynomial functions on arbitrary subsets of Dedekind rings*, J. reine. angew. Math. 490 (1997), 101–127.
- Manjul Bhargava, The Factorial Function and Generalizations, Amer. Math. Month. 107 (2000), 783–799. (Recommended!)
- Manjul Bhargava, On P-orderings, rings of integer-valued polynomials, and ultrametric analysis, Journal of the AMS 22 (2009), 963–993.

Theorem (classical exercise): Let a₀, a₁, ..., a_n ∈ Z. Then, 0! · 1! · 2! · · · · n! | ∏_{i>j} (a_i - a_j). (Here and in the following, ∏ means ∏_{n≥i>j≥0}.)

 Theorem (classical exercise, slightly restated): Let a₀, a₁,..., a_n ∈ Z. Then,

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$$12 = (1-0)(2-1)(2-0)(3-2)(3-1)(3-0) | (a_1 - a_0)(a_2 - a_1)(a_2 - a_0)(a_3 - a_2)(a_3 - a_1)(a_3 - a_0);$$

and so on.

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• Hint to proof 1: Show that

$$\frac{\mathsf{RHS}}{\mathsf{LHS}} = \det\left(\binom{a_i}{j}\right)_{i,j\in\{0,1,\dots,n\}} = \det\left(\binom{a_0}{0} & \binom{a_0}{1} & \cdots & \binom{a_0}{n}\\ \binom{a_1}{0} & \binom{a_1}{1} & \cdots & \binom{a_1}{n}\\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots\\ \binom{a_n}{0} & \binom{a_n}{1} & \cdots & \binom{a_n}{n} \right)$$

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This might remind you of the Vandermonde determinant, which says that

$$\prod_{i>j} (a_i - a_j) = \det \left(a_i^j\right)_{i,j \in \{0,1,\dots,n\}} = \det \begin{pmatrix} a_0^0 & a_0^1 & \cdots & a_0^n \\ a_1^0 & a_1^1 & \cdots & a_1^n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_n^0 & a_n^1 & \cdots & a_n^n \end{pmatrix}$$

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Both are particular cases of the general ...

Theorem: If a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n are numbers, and P_0, P_1, \ldots, P_n are polynomials with deg $P_i \leq j$ for each j, then

$$\det\left(\left(P_{j}\left(a_{i}\right)\right)_{i,j\in\left\{0,1,\ldots,n\right\}}\right)=\ell_{0}\ell_{1}\cdots\ell_{n}\prod_{i>j}\left(a_{i}-a_{j}\right)$$

where ℓ_i is the x^j -coefficient of P_i . [Exercise 1: Prove this!]

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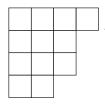
$$\prod_{i>j} (i-j) \mid \prod_{i>j} (a_i - a_j)$$
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 Hint to proof 2: WLOG assume 0 ≤ a₀ < a₁ < ··· < a_n. (Otherwise, move each a_i preserving a_i mod LHS.)

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• **Hint to proof 2:** WLOG assume $0 \le a_0 < a_1 < \cdots < a_n$. Consider an array of n + 1 left-justified rows with lengths $a_0 - 0, a_1 - 1, \dots, a_n - n$ from bottom to top: e.g., if n = 3 and $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) = (2, 4, 5, 7)$, then it is



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 Hint to proof 2: WLOG assume 0 ≤ a₀ < a₁ < ··· < a_n. Now fill this array with numbers ∈ {1, 2, ..., n + 1} that increase weakly along rows and increase strictly down columns, e.g.:

1	1	2	4
2	2	3	
3	4	4	
4			

(a "semistandard tableau").

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The number of such fillings is $\frac{\text{RHS}}{\text{LHS}}$. ("Weyl's character formula" in type A; see MathOverflow question #106606.)

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 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 \\ \hline 3 & 4 & 4 \\ \hline 4 \end{bmatrix}$ (a "semistandard tableau"). The number of such fillings is $\frac{\text{RHS}}{\text{LHS}}$. ("Weyl's character formula" in type A; see MathOverflow

question #106606.) Question: Bijective proof?

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 Hint to proof 3: To show that u | v, it suffices to prove that every prime p divides v at least as often as it does u. Now get your hands dirty.

What about squares?

• Theorem (Bhargava?): Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then, $\frac{0! \cdot 2! \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n)!}{2^n} \mid \prod_{i>j} (a_i^2 - a_j^2).$

(Typo in Bhargava corrected.)

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• Theorem (slightly restated): Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then, $\prod_{i>j} (i^2 - j^2) \mid \prod_{i>j} (a_i^2 - a_j^2).$ [Exercise 2: Prove that $\frac{0! \cdot 2! \cdots (2n)!}{2^n} = \prod_{i>j} (i^2 - j^2)$, so this is really a restatement!]

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- Analogues of the 3 above proofs work (I believe). [Exercise 3: Check this!]

$$\prod_{i>j} \left(i^3 - j^3\right) \mid \prod_{i>j} \left(a_i^3 - a_j^3\right) ?$$

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• Answer: No. For example, n = 2 and $(a_0, a_1, a_2) = (0, 1, 3)$.

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Answer: No. For example, n = 2 and (a₀, a₁, a₂) = (0, 1, 3).
So what is

$$\operatorname{gcd}\left\{\prod_{i>j}\left(a_{i}^{3}-a_{j}^{3}
ight) \mid a_{0},a_{1},\ldots,a_{n}\in\mathbb{Z}
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Answer: No. For example, n = 2 and (a₀, a₁, a₂) = (0, 1, 3).
So what is

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ight\} \, ?$$

• Already for n = 6, there is no choice of a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n that attains the gcd (such as $0, 1, \ldots, n$ was for first powers and for squares).

General question (Bhargava, 1997): Let S be a set of integers. Fix n ≥ 0. What is

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• Enough to work out each prime *p* separately, because:

- Let p be a prime. Set $\mathbb{N} := \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$.
- For each nonzero n ∈ Z, let v_p(n) (the p-valuation of n) be the highest k ∈ N such that p^k | n.

• Set
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• Examples:

$$v_3(18) = 2;$$
 $v_3(17) = 0;$
 $v_2(14) = 1;$ $v_2(16) = 4.$

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- Set $v_p(0) = +\infty$.
- Rules for *p*-valuations:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} v_{p}\left(1\right) = 0; & v_{p}\left(ab\right) = v_{p}\left(a\right) + v_{p}\left(b\right); \\ v_{p}\left(p^{k}\right) = k; & v_{p}\left(a + b\right) \geq \min\left\{v_{p}\left(a\right), v_{p}\left(b\right)\right\}. \end{array}$$

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Define the *p*-distance d_p (a, b) between two integers a and b by

$$d_{p}\left(a,b\right)=-v_{p}\left(a-b\right).$$

Then, the last rule rewrites as

$$d_{p}\left(a,c
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The *p*-distance is not very geometric: For instance, 2 is closer to p + 2 than to 1, and even closer to $p^2 + 2$. Cf. the *p*-adic solenoid. Also, artistic rendition by Fomenko.

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• Two integers u and v satisfy $u \mid v$ if and only if

 $v_{p}(u) \leq v_{p}(v)$ for each prime p.

Thus, checking divisibility is reduced to a "local" problem.

Equivalent problem: Let S be a set of integers. Let p be a prime. Fix n ≥ 0. What is

$$\min\left\{v_p\left(\prod_{i>j}\left(a_i-a_j\right)\right) \mid a_0,a_1,\ldots,a_n\in S\right\}?$$

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• We can WLOG assume that a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n are distinct.

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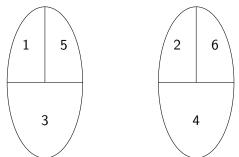
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- **Example:** p = 2 and $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

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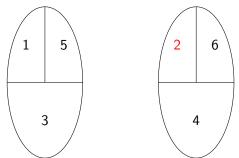
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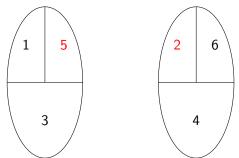
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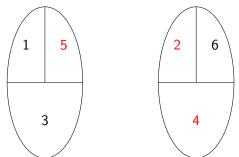
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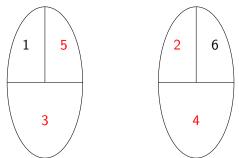
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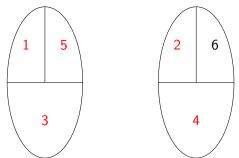
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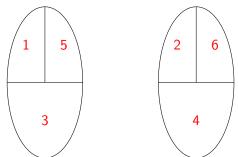
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- Note: There is such a sequence for each prime *p*, but there isn't always such a sequence that works for all *p* simultaneously.

 In his first (1997) paper on the subject, Bhargava already noticed that p is a red herring: The properties of d_p are all that is needed.

> "We note that the above results (i.e. Theorem 1, Lemmas 1 and 2) do not rely on any special properties of P or R; they depend only on the fact that R becomes an ultrametric space when given the P-adic metric. Hence these results could be viewed more generally as statements about certain special sequences in ultrametric spaces. For convenience, however, we have chosen to present these statements only in the relevant context. In particular, we note that our proof of Theorem 1 shall be a purely algebraic one, involving no inequalities."

(Theorem 1 is a slight generalization of the above Theorem.)

2.

Ultra triples

References:

- Darij Grinberg, Fedor Petrov, *A greedoid and a matroid inspired by Bhargava's p-orderings*, arXiv:1909.01965.
- Darij Grinberg, *The Bhargava greedoid as a Gaussian elimination greedoid*, arXiv:2001.05535.
- Alex J. Lemin, *The category of ultrametric spaces is isomorphic to the category of complete, atomic, tree-like, and real graduated lattices LAT**, Algebra univers. **50** (2003), pp. 35–49.

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 More generally, we can replace ℝ by any totally ordered abelian group V.

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• We will only consider ultra triples with **finite** ground set *E*. (Bhargava's *E* is infinite, but results adapt easily.)

Ultra triples, examples: 1 (congruence)

Example: Let E ⊆ Z and n ∈ Z. Define a map w : E → R arbitrarily. Define a map d : E × E → R by

$$d(a,b) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } a \equiv b \mod n; \\ 1, & \text{if } a \not\equiv b \mod n \end{cases}$$

for all $(a, b) \in E \times E$.

Then, (E, w, d) is an ultra triple.

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where ε and α are fixed reals with $\varepsilon \leq \alpha$. Then, (E, w, d) is an ultra triple.

Ultra triples, examples: 2 (*p*-adic distance)

Let p be a prime. Let E ⊆ Z. Define the weights w (e) ∈ R arbitrarily. Then, (E, w, d_p) is an ultra triple. Here, d_p is as before:

$$d_{p}\left(a,b\right)=-v_{p}\left(a-b\right).$$

• This is the case of relevance to Bhargava's problem! Thus, we call such a triple (E, w, d_p) a *Bhargava-type ultra triple*.

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- Lots of other distance functions also give ultra triples: Compose d_p with any weakly increasing function ℝ → ℝ. For example,

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More generally, we can replace p⁰, p¹, p²,... with any unbounded sequence r₀ | r₁ | r₂ | ··· of integers.

• Let E be the set of all living organisms. Let

$$d(e, f) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } e = f; \\ 1, & \text{if } e \text{ and } f \text{ belong to the same species}; \\ 2, & \text{if } e \text{ and } f \text{ belong to the same genus;} \\ 3, & \text{if } e \text{ and } f \text{ belong to the same family;} \\ \dots \end{cases}$$

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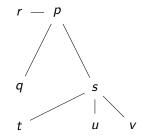
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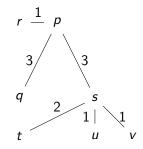
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• More generally, any "nested" family of equivalence relations on *E* gives a distance function for an ultra triple.

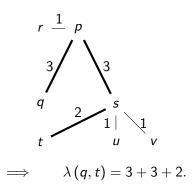
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$$d(x,y) = \lambda(x,y) - \lambda(x,r) - \lambda(y,r)$$
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• **Hint to proof:** Use the well-known fact ("four-point condition") saying that if *x*, *y*, *z*, *w* are four vertices of *T*, then the two largest of the three numbers

 $\lambda(x, y) + \lambda(z, w), \quad \lambda(x, z) + \lambda(y, w), \quad \lambda(x, w) + \lambda(y, z)$ are equal. [Exercise 4: Prove this!]

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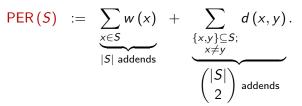
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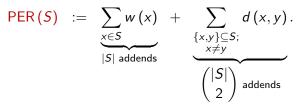
Actually, this is the general case: Any (finite) ultra triple can be translated back into a phylogenetic tree. It is "essentially" an inverse operation.

(The idea is not new; see, e.g., Lemin 2003.)

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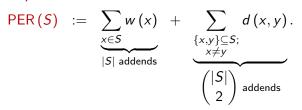
$$PER \emptyset = 0;$$

$$PER \{x\} = w(x);$$

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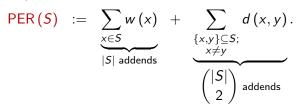
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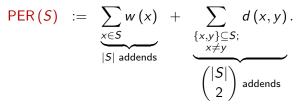
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- Bhargava's problem (generalized): Given an ultra triple (E, w, d) and an n ∈ N, find the maximum perimeter of an n-element subset of E, and find the subsets that attain it. (The n here corresponds to the n + 1 before.)
- For $E \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ and w(e) = 0 and $d_p(a, b) = -v_p(a b)$, this is Bhargava's problem.

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- Bhargava's problem (generalized): Given an ultra triple (E, w, d) and an n ∈ N, find the maximum perimeter of an n-element subset of E, and find the subsets that attain it. (The n here corresponds to the n + 1 before.)
- For Linnaeus or Darwin ultra triples, this is a "Noah's Ark" problem: What choices of *n* organisms maximize biodiversity? A similar problem has been studied in: Vincent Moulton, Charles Semple, Mike Steel, *Optimizing phylogenetic diversity under constraints*, J. Theor. Biol. **246** (2007), pp. 186–194.

3.

Solving the problem

References:

- Darij Grinberg, Fedor Petrov, *A greedoid and a matroid inspired by Bhargava's p-orderings*, arXiv:1909.01965.
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Greedy permutations: definition

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$$\mathsf{PER} \{ c_1, c_2, \dots, c_i \} \ge \mathsf{PER} \{ c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{i-1}, x \}.$$

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In other words, a greedy *m*-permutation of *E* is what you obtain if you try to greedily construct a maximum-perimeter *m*-element subset of *E*, by starting with Ø and adding new points one at a time.

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Greedy permutations: theorems

• **Proposition:** For any $m \in \mathbb{N}$ with $m \leq |E|$, there is a greedy *m*-permutation of *E*.

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- In Example 2, this yields that Bhargava's greedy algorithm correctly finds max ∑_{n≥i>j} d_p (a_i, a_j).
- Theorem (Petrov, G.): Let m, k ∈ N with |E| ≥ m ≥ k. Let A be a k-element subset of E that has maximum perimeter among all such.

Then, there exists a greedy *m*-permutation (c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_m) of *E* such that $A = \{c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k\}$.

- **Proposition:** For any $m \in \mathbb{N}$ with $m \leq |E|$, there is a greedy *m*-permutation of *E*.
- Theorem (Petrov, G.): Let (c₁, c₂,..., c_m) be any greedy m-permutation of E. Let k ∈ {0, 1, ..., m}. Then, the set {c₁, c₂,..., c_k} has maximum perimeter among all k-element subsets of E.
- In Example 2, this yields that Bhargava's greedy algorithm correctly finds max ∑_{n≥i>j} d_p (a_i, a_j).
- Theorem (Petrov, G.): Let m, k ∈ N with |E| ≥ m ≥ k. Let A be a k-element subset of E that has maximum perimeter among all such.

Then, there exists a greedy *m*-permutation (c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_m) of *E* such that $A = \{c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k\}$.

• Exercise 5: Use this to prove

$$\prod_{i>j} (i-j) \mid \prod_{i>j} (a_i - a_j) \quad \text{and} \quad \prod_{i>j} \left(i^2 - j^2\right) \mid \prod_{i>j} \left(a_i^2 - a_j^2\right).$$



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- This is characteristic of a *greedoid* a "noncommutative analogue" of a matroid.
- I will now define greedoids.
 Warning: some abstraction to follow.

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- **Example:** $E = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{F} &= \left\{ \varnothing, \left\{1\right\}, \left\{2\right\}, \left\{5\right\}, \left\{1,2\right\}, \left\{1,5\right\}, \left\{2,5\right\}, \\ &\left\{4,5\right\}, \left\{1,2,3\right\}, \left\{1,2,5\right\}, \left\{2,4,5\right\}, \left\{3,4,5\right\}\right\} \right\}. \end{split} \right. \end{split}$$

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- **Example:** $E = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ \varnothing, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{5\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,5\}, \{2,5\}, \right.$$

 $\{4,5\},\{1,2,3\},\{1,2,5\},\{2,4,5\},\{3,4,5\}\}$.

Check axiom 2. for $B = \{1, 2, 3\}!$

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- **Example:** $E = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and

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Axiom 2. holds for $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$, since we can take b = 3.

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 - **3.** If $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfy |B| = |A| + 1, then there exists $b \in B \setminus A$ such that $A \cup \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$.
- **Example:** $E = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and

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Axiom 2. holds for $B = \{2, 4, 5\}$, since we can take b = 4 or b = 2.

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Check axiom 3. for $A = \{1, 5\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 5\}!$

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Check axiom 3. for $A = \{4, 5\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 5\}!$

- A set system on a set E means a set of subsets of E.
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 - 2. If $B \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfies |B| > 0, then there exists $b \in B$ such that $B \setminus \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$.
 - **3.** If $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfy |B| = |A| + 1, then there exists $b \in B \setminus A$ such that $A \cup \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$.
- **Example:** $E = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and

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Axiom 3. holds for $A = \{4, 5\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 5\}$, since we can take b = 2. (More generally, Axiom 3. always holds if $A \subseteq B$.) • If you have seen matroids: Let *M* be a matroid on a ground set *E*. Then,

{independent sets of M}

is a greedoid on *E*. We shall call this a *matroid greedoid*.

• Let A be an
$$m \times n$$
-matrix over a field \mathbb{K} . Let
 $E = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$. Then,
 $\left\{F \subseteq E \mid \text{ we have } |F| \leq n \text{ and } \det\left(\sup_{\{1, 2, ..., |F|\}}^{F} A\right) \neq 0\right\}$
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is a greedoid on E, where $sub_F^G A$ means the submatrix of A with rows indexed by F and columns indexed by G.

This is called a *Gaussian elimination greedoid* over K. We denote it by GEG(A).
 [Exercise 6: Prove that it is a greedoid!]

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- For example, if $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Q}$ and m = 5 and n = 5 and

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ then }$$

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 $\{2,5\} \in \mathsf{GEG}(A), \qquad \text{since } \det\left(\sup_{\{1,2\}}^{\{2,5\}}A\right) \neq 0.$

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 $\{1, 2, 3, 5\} \in \text{GEG}(A),\$

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 $\{3,5\} \notin GEG(A),$ since det $\left(\sup_{\{1,2\}}^{\{3,5\}} A \right) = 0.$

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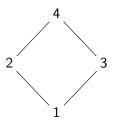
 $\mathsf{GEG}(A) = \left\{ \varnothing, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{5\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{1,5\}, \{2,3\}, \\ \left\{2,5\}, \{1,2,3\}, \{1,2,5\}, \{1,2,3,5\}\right\} \right\}.$

Greedoids, examples: 3 (order ideals)

- Let P be a finite poset. Let J be the set of all order ideals of P (that is, of all subsets I of P such that (b ∈ I) ∧ (a ≤ b) ⇒ (a ∈ I)).
- Then, J is a greedoid on P. [Exercise 7: Prove this!] We shall call this an *order ideal greedoid*.

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- Example: If P is the poset with Hasse diagram



then

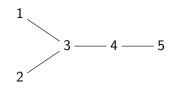
$$G = \left\{ \varnothing, \left\{1\right\}, \left\{1,2\right\}, \left\{1,3\right\}, \left\{1,2,3\right\}, \left\{1,2,3,4\right\} \right\}.$$

Greedoids, examples: 4 (complements of subtrees)

- Let *T* be a tree with vertex set *V*. Let *G* be the set of all subsets *U* ⊆ *V* such that the induced subgraph on *V* \ *U* is connected (i.e., no vertex in *U* lies on the path between two vertices in *V* \ *U*).
- Then, G is a greedoid on V. [Exercise 8: Prove this!]

Greedoids, examples: 4 (complements of subtrees)

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- Then, G is a greedoid on V. [Exercise 8: Prove this!]
- Example: If T is the tree



then

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{G} &= \left\{ \varnothing, \left\{1\right\}, \left\{2\right\}, \left\{5\right\}, \left\{1,2\right\}, \left\{1,5\right\}, \left\{2,5\right\}, \left\{4,5\right\}, \\ &\left\{1,2,3\right\}, \left\{1,2,5\right\}, \left\{2,4,5\right\}, \left\{1,2,3,4\right\}, \\ &\left\{1,2,3,5\right\}, \left\{1,2,4,5\right\}, \left\{1,3,4,5\right\}, \left\{2,3,4,5\right\}\right\} \right\}. \end{split} \right.$$

• Back to our setting: For any ultra triple (E, w, d), define

 $\mathcal{B}(E, w, d) = \{A \subseteq E \mid A \text{ has maximum perimeter among} \\ \text{all } |A| \text{ -element subsets of } E\} \\ = \{A \subseteq E \mid \mathsf{PER}(A) \ge \mathsf{PER}(B) \text{ for} \\ \text{ all } B \subseteq E \text{ satisfying } |B| = |A|\}.$

We call this the *Bhargava greedoid* of (E, w, d).

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We call this the *Bhargava greedoid* of (E, w, d).

• **Theorem (G., Petrov):** This Bhargava greedoid $\mathcal{B}(E, w, d)$ is a greedoid indeed.

- Recall: A *greedoid* on a set *E* means a set system *F* on *E* such that
 - **1.** We have $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$.
 - If B ∈ F satisfies |B| > 0, then there exists b ∈ B such that B \ {b} ∈ F.
 - 3. If $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfy |B| = |A| + 1, then there exists $b \in B \setminus A$ such that $A \cup \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$.

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- A *strong greedoid* on *E* means a greedoid *F* on *E* that also satisfies
 - 4. If $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfy |B| = |A| + 1, then there exists $b \in B \setminus A$ such that $A \cup \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $B \setminus \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$.

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- Remark: Axiom 4. implies axiom 3.

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- A *strong greedoid* on *E* means a greedoid *F* on *E* that also satisfies
 - 4. If $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfy |B| = |A| + 1, then there exists $h \in \mathbb{R} \setminus A$ such that $A \mapsto \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$
 - $b \in B \setminus A$ such that $A \cup \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $B \setminus \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$.

• **Remark:** In axiom 3., we can replace the condition ||B| = |A| + 1 by the weaker ||B| > |A|; the axiom stays equivalent.

- Recall: A greedoid on a set E means a set system F on E such that
 - **1.** We have $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$.
 - 2. If $B \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfies |B| > 0, then there exists $b \in B$ such that $B \setminus \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$.
 - **3.** If $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfy |B| = |A| + 1, then there exists $b \in B \setminus A$ such that $A \cup \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$.
- A *strong greedoid* on *E* means a greedoid *F* on *E* that also satisfies
 - **4.** If $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfy |B| = |A| + 1, then there exists $b \in B \setminus A$ such that $A \cup \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $B \setminus \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$.

• **Remark:** In axiom 3., we can replace the condition ||B| = |A| + 1 by the weaker ||B| > |A|; the axiom stays equivalent.

But we cannot do the same in axiom 4. (it would become much stronger, forcing \mathcal{F} to be a matroid greedoid).

- Recall: A greedoid on a set E means a set system F on E such that
 - **1.** We have $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$.
 - 2. If $B \in \mathcal{F}$ satisfies |B| > 0, then there exists $b \in B$ such that $B \setminus \{b\} \in \mathcal{F}$.
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• Strong greedoids are also known as "*Gauss greedoids*" (not to be confused with Gaussian elimination greedoids).

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- Not all greedoids from trees (Example 4 above) are strong greedoids. [Exercise 10: Show that the greedoid of a tree *T* is a strong greedoid if and only if *T* is a star.]

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- Not all greedoids from trees (Example 4 above) are strong greedoids. [Exercise 10: Show that the greedoid of a tree T is a strong greedoid if and only if T is a star.]
- Theorem (Bryant, Sharpe): Let F be a strong greedoid, and k ∈ N. Then, the k-element sets that belong to F are the bases of a matroid (unless there are none of them). If F is a Gaussian elimination greedoid, then the latter matroid is representable.

Gaussianity of the Bhargava greedoid

• **Theorem (G., Petrov):** The Bhargava greedoid $\mathcal{B}(E, w, d)$ of any ultra triple (E, w, d) is a strong greedoid.

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Then, the Bhargava greedoid $\mathcal{B}(E, w, d)$ is (up to renaming the elements of E) a Gaussian elimination greedoid over \mathbb{K} .

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- Note that this Theorem yields the previous one, which is thus proved twice.
- Stronger theorem (G.): Let (E, w, d) be an ultra triple. Let
 K be any field of size |K| ≥ mcs (E, w, d), where
 mcs (E, w, d) is the maximum clique size of E (that is, the
 maximum size of a subset C ⊆ E such that d |_{C×C} is
 constant).

Then, the Bhargava greedoid $\mathcal{B}(E, w, d)$ is (up to renaming the elements of E) a Gaussian elimination greedoid over \mathbb{K} .

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- Note that this Theorem yields the previous one, which is thus proved twice.
- Converse theorem (G.): Assume that the map w is constant. Let K be a field. Then, the Bhargava greedoid B (E, w, d) is (up to renaming the elements of E) a Gaussian elimination greedoid over K if and only if |K| ≥ mcs (E, w, d).

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- 1st step: If (E, w, d) is a Bhargava-type ultra triple (E, w, d_p) for some prime p and some E ⊆ Z, then we can explicitly find a matrix A over F_p that gives B(E, w, d) as its Gaussian elimination greedoid.

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Even better, this matrix A is the projection of a matrix \widetilde{A} over $\mathbb Z$ that satisfies

$$\begin{split} &v_{p}\left(\det\left(\sup_{\{1,2,\ldots,|F|\}}^{F}\widetilde{A}\right)\right) = (\text{max. possible perimeter}) - \text{PER}\left(F\right)\\ &\text{for each subset } F \text{ of } E.\\ &(\text{The matrix } \widetilde{A} \text{ is a Vandermonde-like matrix, with entries}\\ &\frac{1}{p^{\text{something}}}\left(a_{i}-e_{1}\right)\left(a_{i}-e_{2}\right)\cdots\left(a_{i}-e_{j}\right).) \end{split}$$

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- **2nd step:** So we know how to deal with Bhargava-type ultra triples. It would be nice if all ultra triples were isomorphic to some of them!

I'm not sure this is true, but I can prove something close that suffices:

2nd step, continued: Replace Z by the "polynomial ring"
 K[t], except that all powers t^a with a ∈ R₊ are allowed (not just for integer a).

For example,

$$3 + 2t^{0.5} - 7t^{0.8} + 4t^{3.2}$$
 lies in this ring.

2nd step, continued: Replace Z by the "polynomial ring"
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Replace v_p by v_t (which sends any polynomial to the lowest exponent of t that appears in it).

For example,

$$v_t \left(3t^{0.2} + 2t^{0.5} - 7t^{0.8} + 4t^{3.2}\right) = 0.2.$$

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Construct the natural analogue of (E, w, d_p) in this setting.

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 3rd step: Prove that every ultra triple (E, w, d) with |K| ≥ mcs (E, w, d) is isomorphic to a generalized Bhargava-type ultra triple in this "polynomial ring".

2nd step, continued: Replace Z by the "polynomial ring"
 K [t], except that all powers t^a with a ∈ R₊ are allowed (not just for integer a).

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Construct the natural analogue of (E, w, d_p) in this setting. Shows that its Bhargava greedoid is a Gaussian elimination greedoid. (This is analogous to the 1st step.)

- Note: In proving the general case, we had to come back to our original example, the (generalized) Vandermonde determinant!

If w is constant, then we have a necessary and sufficient condition for B(E, w, d) to be a Gaussian elimination greedoid over K.

What about the general case? ($|\mathbb{K}| \ge mcs(E, w, d)$ is still sufficient, but no longer necessary.)

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• Moulton, Semple and Steel define phylogenetic diversity (for a set of leaves of a phylogenetic tree) somewhat similarly to our perimeter, yet differently. Still, they show that their maximum-diversity subsets form a strong greedoid (not the same as ours).

Is this greedoid a Gaussian elimination greedoid, too?

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• It is not too hard to define a multiset analogue of greedoids (e.g., by lifting the "simple" requirement on greedoid languages). How much of the theory adapts?

- Fedor Petrov for getting this started by answering my MathOverflow question #314130.
- Alexander Postnikov for interesting conversations.
- Melvyn Nathanson for the invitation.
- you for your patience and typo hunting.

Exercise 1: Prove the following **Theorem:** If a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n are numbers, and P_0, P_1, \ldots, P_n are polynomials with deg $P_j \leq j$ for each j, then

$$\det\left(\left(P_{j}\left(a_{i}\right)\right)_{i,j\in\left\{0,1,\ldots,n\right\}}\right)=\ell_{0}\ell_{1}\cdots\ell_{n}\prod_{i>j}\left(a_{i}-a_{j}\right),$$

where ℓ_j is the x^j -coefficient of P_j .

Hints to solution:

One approach is by root identification: WLOG assume that $\ell_0 = \ell_1 = \cdots = \ell_n = 1$ (that is, the polynomials P_j are monic), and consider both the a_i 's and the remaining coefficients of all P_j 's as indeterminates. Argue that det $((P_j(a_i))_{i,j \in \{0,1,\ldots,n\}})$ is a polynomial of total degree $\leq n(n-1)/2$ that vanishes whenever two of the a_i 's are equal. A standard divisibility argument then finishes the job.

Exercise 1: Prove the following **Theorem:** If a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n are numbers, and P_0, P_1, \ldots, P_n are polynomials with deg $P_j \leq j$ for each j, then

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where ℓ_j is the x^j -coefficient of P_j .

Hints to solution:

Another approach is explicit: Write each P_j as $P_j(X) = \sum_{k=0}^j \ell_{j,k} X^k$ (so that $\ell_{j,j} = \ell_j$), and observe that

$$(P_{j}(a_{i}))_{i,j\in\{0,1,...,n\}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_{0}^{0} & a_{0}^{1} & \cdots & a_{0}^{n} \\ a_{1}^{0} & a_{1}^{1} & \cdots & a_{1}^{n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n}^{0} & a_{n}^{1} & \cdots & a_{n}^{n} \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{Vandermonde matrix}} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \ell_{0,0} & \ell_{1,0} & \cdots & \ell_{n,0} \\ 0 & \ell_{1,1} & \cdots & \ell_{n,1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \ell_{n,n} \end{pmatrix}}_{\substack{\text{Vandermonde matrix}\\ \text{with known determinant}}} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \ell_{0,0} & \ell_{1,0} & \cdots & \ell_{n,0} \\ 0 & \ell_{1,1} & \cdots & \ell_{n,1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \ell_{n,n} \end{pmatrix}}_{\substack{\text{with determinant}\\ \ell_{0,0}\ell_{1,1}\cdots\ell_{n,n}=\ell_{0}\ell_{1}\cdots\ell_{n}}}$$

See Theorem 2 in

https://www.cip.ifi.lmu.de/~grinberg/hyperfactorialBRIEF.pdf for a more self-contained variant of this proof.

Exercise 2: Prove that
$$\frac{0! \cdot 2! \cdots (2n)!}{2^n} = \prod_{n \ge i > j \ge 0} (i^2 - j^2)$$
 for any $n \ge 0$.

Hints to solution:

$$\prod_{n \ge i > j \ge 0} \left(i^2 - j^2\right) = \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{j=0}^{i-1} \underbrace{\binom{i^2 - j^2}{\underset{=(i-j)(i+j)}{(i+j)}}}_{=(i-j)(i+j)} = \prod_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\prod_{j=0}^{i-1} (i-j)(i+j)}_{\substack{=(2i)!/2\\ (\text{check this!})}}$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^n ((2i)!/2) = \frac{2! \cdot 4! \cdots (2n)!}{2^n} = \frac{0! \cdot 2! \cdots (2n)!}{2^n}.$$

Exercise 3: Prove Bhargava's theorem: Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then,

$$\prod_{i>j} \left(i^2 - j^2\right) \mid \prod_{i>j} \left(a_i^2 - a_j^2\right).$$

Hints to solution: We can imitate each of the three proofs of $\prod_{i>j} (i-j) \mid \prod_{i>j} (a_i - a_j)$.

Analogue of proof 1: For each $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$, define

$$\binom{a}{k}' := \frac{(a(a+1)(a+2)\cdots(a+k-1))\cdot(a(a-1)(a-2)\cdots(a-k+1))}{k\cdot(2k-1)!}$$

(read the fraction as 1 if k = 0). This is an even polynomial in *a* of degree 2k with leading coefficient $\frac{2}{(2k)!}$ (or 1 if k = 0). Thus, it is a polynomial in a^2 of degree *k* with leading coefficient $\frac{2}{(2k)!}$ (or 1 if k = 0). Hence, Exercise 1 yields

$$\det\left(\left(\binom{a_i}{j}'\right)_{i,j\in\{0,1,\dots,n\}}\right) = \prod_{k=1}^n \frac{2}{(2k)!} \cdot \prod_{i>j} \left(a_i^2 - a_j^2\right)$$

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Hints to solution: We can imitate each of the three proofs of $\prod_{i>j} (i-j) \mid \prod_{i>j} (a_i - a_j)$.

However, for any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have

$$\binom{\mathsf{a}}{\mathsf{k}}' = \binom{\mathsf{a}+\mathsf{k}}{2\mathsf{k}} + \binom{\mathsf{a}+\mathsf{k}-1}{2\mathsf{k}} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

(check this!). Thus, the determinant on the LHS is an integer, so the RHS is an integer too. In other words, $\prod_{k=1}^{n} \frac{(2k)!}{2} | \prod_{i>j} (a_i^2 - a_j^2)$. Now use Exercise 2.

Exercise 3: Prove Bhargava's theorem: Let $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then,

$$\prod_{i>j} \left(i^2 - j^2\right) \mid \prod_{i>j} \left(a_i^2 - a_j^2\right).$$

Hints to solution: We can imitate each of the three proofs of $\prod_{i>j} (i-j) \mid \prod_{i>j} (a_i - a_j)$.

Analogue of proof 2: The number $\frac{\text{RHS}}{\text{LHS}}$ counts a variant of semistandard tableaux called *King tableaux*. See Exercise 24.42 in Fulton/Harris, *Representation Theory: A First Course*, 2004 for a proof that $\frac{\text{RHS}}{\text{LHS}}$ is the dimension of an irreducible representation of $\mathfrak{so}_{2(n+1)}(\mathbb{C})$, and see Robert A. Proctor, *Young Tableaux, Gelfand Patterns, and Branching Rules for Classical Groups*, 1994 for the notion of tableaux that is counted by this dimension. (Thanks to Travis Scrimshaw for the latter reference.)

Analogue of proof 3: This becomes a lot easier using the results of Chapter 2 (see Exercise 5 below).

Exercise 4: Let T be a tree. Let x, y, z, w be four vertices of T. Prove that the two largest of the three numbers

 $\lambda(x, y) + \lambda(z, w), \qquad \lambda(x, z) + \lambda(y, w), \qquad \lambda(x, w) + \lambda(y, z)$

are equal.

Hints to solution: This is a well-known fact known as the **four-point condition**, although few authors bother to prove it. Three proofs can be found in my Spring 2017 graph theory course, where it was exercise 6 on midterm #2. Sasha Pevzner's solution is probably the nicest. The idea is to induct on the size of T; in the induction step, remove a leaf from T and distinguish cases based on how many of x, y, z, w are equal to this leaf.

Exercise 5: Prove

$$\prod_{i>j} (i-j) \mid \prod_{i>j} (a_i - a_j) \quad \text{and} \quad \prod_{i>j} (i^2 - j^2) \mid \prod_{i>j} (a_i^2 - a_j^2).$$

using greedy *m*-permutations.

Hints to solution: Let *p* be a prime. Let *E* be a finite subset of \mathbb{Z} that contains $0, 1, \ldots, n$ as well as a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n . Equip this set E with the p-adic distance $d = d_p$ and the zero weight function w (so that w(e) = 0 for all $e \in E$). Thus, (E, w, d) is an ultra triple. Check that the tuple (0, 1, ..., n) is a greedy (n + 1)-permutation of E (this uses the fact that binomial coefficients are $\in \mathbb{Z}$). Hence, by the first Petrov-G. result, the set $\{0, 1, \ldots, n\}$ has maximum perimeter among all (n + 1)-element subsets of *E*. Thus, PER $\{0, 1, \ldots, n\} \ge PER \{a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$. In other words, $v_p\left(\prod_{i>j}(i-j)\right) \le v_p\left(\prod_{i>j}(a_i-a_j)\right)$. Since this holds for all primes p, we thus conclude that $\prod_{i>i} (i-j) \mid \prod_{i>i} (a_i - a_j)$. A similar argument shows that $\prod_{i>i} (i^2 - j^2) \mid \prod_{i>i} (a_i^2 - a_i^2)$. Here, we need to show that the tuple $(0^2, 1^2, \dots, n^2)$ is a greedy (n+1)-permutation of E. (Again, use binomial coefficients.)

Exercise 6: Prove that the Gaussian elimination greedoid of a matrix is a greedoid.

Hints to solution: Even better, we'll show that it is a strong greedoid (defined near the end of the talk). So we need to verify Axioms 1, 2 and 4 (since Axiom 3 follows from 4).

Axiom 1 is obvious. Axiom 2 follows from Laplace expansion. For Axiom 4, we need the following determinantal identity:

Plücker identity (one of many): Let *n* be a positive integer. Let *X* be an $n \times (n-1)$ -matrix, and *Y* an $n \times n$ -matrix. Let $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$. Then,

$$\det\left(X_{\sim i, \bullet}\right) \det Y = \sum_{q=1}^{n} \left(-1\right)^{n+q} \det\left(X \mid Y_{\bullet, q}\right) \det\left(Y_{\sim i, \sim q}\right).$$

Here,

- $X_{\sim i,\bullet}$ means the matrix X without its *i*-th row;
- (X | Y_●,q) means the matrix X with the q-th column of Y appended to it on the right;

• $Y_{\sim i,\sim q}$ means the matrix Y without its *i*-th row and its *q*-th column.

See the Appendix in *The Bhargava greedoid as a Gaussian elimination greedoid* for details.

The easiest way to prove the Plücker identity is to expand det $(X | Y_{\bullet,q})$ along the last column and use $Y \cdot adj Y = det Y \cdot I_n$.

Exercise 7: Let P be a finite poset. Let J be the set of all order ideals of P (that is, of all subsets I of P such that $(b \in I) \land (a \leq b) \Longrightarrow (a \in I)$). Prove that J is a greedoid on P. **Hints to solution:** Axioms 1 and 2 are easy. For Axiom 3, let A and B be two order ideals of P satisfying |B| = |A| + 1. We must prove that there exists $b \in B \setminus A$ such that $A \cup \{b\}$ is again an order ideal of P. This is easy: Just let b be a minimal element of $B \setminus A$.

Exercise 8: Let T be a tree with vertex set V. Let G be the set of all subsets $U \subseteq V$ such that the induced subgraph on $V \setminus U$ is connected (i.e., no vertex in U lies on the path between two vertices in $V \setminus U$).

Prove that G is a greedoid on V.

Hints to solution: It is best to restate Axioms 1, 2, 3 in terms of the complements \overline{A} of the sets A. Thus, we must prove:

- **1** The induced subgraph on $V \setminus \emptyset$ is connected.
- 2 If a proper subset B ⊆ V is such that the induced subgraph on B is connected, then there exists b ∉ B such that the induced subgraph on B ∪ {b} is again connected.
- If A, B ⊆ V are such that the induced subgraphs on A and on B are both connected, and if |B| = |A| 1, then there exists b ∈ A \ B such that the induced subgraph on A \ {b} is connected.

Item 1 is obvious. For item 2, just add a neighbor of a \overline{B} -vertex that is not in \overline{B} . For item 3, observe that the induced subgraph on \overline{A} is itself a tree. Call this tree T'. Each vertex of a tree lies on a path connecting two leaves (why?). Thus, if all leaves of T' were contained in \overline{B} , then \overline{A} would be contained in \overline{B} , contradicting $|\overline{B}| = |\overline{A}| - 1$. Hence, there exists a leaf of T' that doesn't lie in \overline{B} . Let *b* be such a leaf.

Exercise 9: Show that the order ideal greedoid of a finite poset P is a strong greedoid if and only if P is a disjoint union of subsets P_0, P_1, P_2, \ldots such that any two elements $p \in P_i$ and $q \in P_i$ satisfy p < q if and only if i < j.

Hints to solution: \implies : Assume that the greedoid is a strong greedoid.

For each $i \ge 0$, let P_i be the set of all $p \in P$ with the following property: The largest chain of P with largest element p has exactly i + 1 elements. (Thus, P_0 consists of the minimal elements of P.)

We must show that any two elements $p \in P_i$ and $q \in P_j$ satisfy p < q if and only if i < j. The "only if" part is clear, so we need to prove the "if" part. We prove it by strong induction on j. So fix a j and two elements $p \in P_i$ and $q \in P_j$ such that i < j. We must show that p < q, assuming that the same has been showed "for all smaller j's".

Let *r* be the second-highest element of a maximum-length chain ending in *q*; thus, $r \in P_{j-1}$. If i < j - 1, then the induction hypothesis yields p < r, hence p < r < q, and we are done. Hence, WLOG we don't have i < j - 1. Thus, i = j - 1 and $r \in P_{j-1} = P_i$.

Let $J := P_0 \cup P_1 \cup \cdots \cup P_i$. This is an order ideal of P. So is $J \setminus \{r\}$ (why?). So is $(J \setminus \{p\}) \cup \{q\}$ unless p < q (why?). Thus, unless p < q, then Axiom 4 of a strong greedoid (applied to $A = J \setminus \{r\}$ and $B = (J \setminus \{p\}) \cup \{q\}$) yields that there is some $b \in \{q, r\}$ such that $(J \setminus \{r\}) \cup \{b\}$ and $((J \setminus \{p\}) \cup \{q\}) \setminus \{b\}$ are order ideals. But this is easily seen to be false. Hence, we must have p < q, and the induction is complete. **Exercise 9:** Show that the order ideal greedoid of a finite poset P is a strong greedoid if and only if P is a disjoint union of subsets P_0, P_1, P_2, \ldots such that any two elements $p \in P_i$ and $q \in P_j$ satisfy p < q if and only if i < j. **Hints to solution:**

Estraightforward (characterize the order ideals of this disjoint union).

Exercise 10: Show that the greedoid of a tree T is a strong greedoid if and only if T is a star.

Hints to solution: \implies : Assume that the greedoid is a strong greedoid. If T has a path u - v - w - t of length 3, then the two sets $A = V \setminus \{u, v\}$ and $B = V \setminus \{t\}$ contradict Axiom 4 of strong greedoids. Thus, T has no path of length 3. This easily yields that T is a star (just pick any path u - v - w of length 2 and argue that each vertex $\neq v$ must be a neighbor of v). \iff : Straightforward.