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A Γ-structure on Lagrangian Grassmannians

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Abstract. For *n* odd the Lagrangian Grassmannian of \mathbb{R}^{2n} is a Γ -manifold.

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1. Introduction and statement of the result

We denote by $(\mathbb{R}^{2n}, \omega)$ the standard symplectic vector space. The (unoriented) Lagrangian Grassmannian \mathscr{L} is the space of all Lagrangian subspaces of \mathbb{R}^{2n} . It is a homogeneous space

$$\mathcal{L} \cong \mathrm{U}(n)/\mathrm{O}(n),$$

see [AG01], [MS98]. Every Lagrangian subspace can be identified with the fixed point set of a linear orthogonal anti-symplectic involution. Using this identification, we define a smooth map

$$\Theta: \mathcal{L} \times \mathcal{L} \to \mathcal{L}$$

by

$$(R,S)\mapsto RSR$$
,

which we think of as a product. On every space there are products such as constant maps and projections to one factor. In [Hop41] Hopf introduced the notion of Γ -manifolds which rules these trivial products out. The purpose of this paper is to prove that the above product gives the Lagrangian Grassmannian \mathcal{L} the structure of a Γ -manifold for n odd.

Definition 1.1. A closed, connected, orientable manifold M carries the structure of a Γ -manifold if there exists a map

$$\Theta: M \times M \to M$$

such that the maps

$$x \mapsto \Theta(x, y_0)$$
 and $y \mapsto \Theta(x_0, y)$

have non-zero mapping degree for one and thus all pairs $(x_0, y_0) \in M \times M$.

It is well known that \mathcal{L} is orientable if and only if n odd, see [Fuk68]. The main result of this article is the following theorem.

Theorem 1.2. If n is odd, then (\mathcal{L}, Θ) is a Γ -manifold.

Using Hopf's theorem ([Hop41], Satz 1), we get a new proof of the following corollary due to Fuks [Fuk68].

Corollary 1.3 ([Fuk68]). For n odd, the rational cohomology ring of \mathcal{L} is an exterior algebra on generators of odd degree.

Remark 1.4. The cohomology ring of the oriented and unoriented Lagrangian Grassmannian was computed by Borel and Fuks for all *n*, see [Bor53a], [Bor53b], [Fuk68]. A nice summary of these results can be found in Chapter 22 of the book by Vassilyev [Vas88].

The above situation fits into the following general framework. It is well known that \mathscr{L} embeds into $\mathrm{U}(n)$ as the set $\mathrm{U}(n)\cap \mathrm{Sym}(n)$, i.e. the symmetric unitary matrices. Indeed the image of a Lagrangian subspace $\Lambda\subset\mathbb{C}^n$ is the symmetric unitary matrix $A_\Lambda:=uu^t\in\mathrm{U}(n)\cap\mathrm{Sym}(n)$ where $a\in\mathrm{U}(n)$ maps \mathbb{R}^n onto Λ . The unique orthogonal anti-symplectic involution with fixed point set Λ is then the map $A_\Lambda\circ\tau$ where $\tau\colon\mathbb{C}^n\to\mathbb{C}^n$ is complex conjugation. Thus, the Lagrangian Grassmannian \mathscr{L} can be interpreted as the fixed point set of the involutive anti-isomorphism $A\mapsto A^T$ of $\mathrm{U}(n)$. On any Lie group G we can define a new product: $(g,h)\mapsto gh^{-1}g$. If $I:G\to G$ is an involutive anti-isomorphism then this new product restricts to a product on the fixed point set $\mathrm{Fix}(I)$. This is precisely the situation for the Lagrangian Grassmannian, namely the map Θ corresponds under the embedding of $\mathscr L$ into $\mathrm{U}(n)$ to $(g,h)\mapsto gh^{-1}g$.

For general Lie groups this new product does not always give rise to a Γ -structure for various reasons. For example, if we take $G = \mathrm{O}(n)$ resp. $G = \mathrm{U}(n)$ and $I(A) := A^{-1}$, then $\mathrm{Fix}(I)$ can be identified with $\bigcup_k G(k,n)$, the union of all real resp. complex Grassmannians, which is not connected. Another example is $G = \mathrm{SU}(n)$ with $I = \mathrm{transposition}$. Then for n = 2 we can identify $\mathrm{Fix}(I) \cong S^2$. But by Hopf's theorem ([Hop41], Satz 1) S^2 is not a Γ -manifold.

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2. Proof of Theorem 1.2

We recall that the (unoriented) Lagrangian Grassmannian ${\mathscr L}$ is the homogeneous space

$$\mathcal{L} \cong \mathrm{U}(n)/\mathrm{O}(n),$$

see [AG01], [MS98]. Since n is odd, \mathcal{L} is a closed connected orientable manifold [Fuk68]. The space \mathcal{L} is naturally identified with the space of linear orthogonal anti-symplectic involutions of \mathbb{R}^{2n} with the standard symplectic structure. Using this identification, we define the map

$$\Theta: \mathcal{L} \times \mathcal{L} \to \mathcal{L}$$

by $(R, S) \mapsto RSR$. In order to prove Theorem 1.2, it suffices to show for one choice of basepoint R_0 that the mapping degrees of

$$S \mapsto \Theta(R_0, S)$$
 and $S \mapsto \Theta(S, R_0)$

are non-zero. Since

$$S \mapsto \Theta(R_0, S) = R_0 S R_0 \mapsto \Theta(R_0, R_0 S R_0) = R_0 R_0 S R_0 R_0 = S$$

the first map is an involution and therefore has mapping degree ± 1 . The non-trivial case is to compute the mapping degree of

$$\Theta_0(S) := \Theta(S, R_0) = SR_0S.$$

Theorem 1.2 follows immediately from the following proposition.

Proposition 2.1. The mapping degree of Θ_0 equals

$$\deg\Theta_0=2^{m+1}$$

where n = 2m + 1.

Proof. Identify $\mathbb{R}^{2n}=\mathbb{C}^n$ in the standard way. Denote by $\tau\colon\mathbb{C}^n\to\mathbb{C}^n$ the map given by complex conjugation of all coordinates simultaneously. It is a standard fact, see for instance [MS98], that an orthogonal symplectic map $\mathbb{R}^{2n}\to\mathbb{R}^{2n}$ corresponds to a unitary map $\mathbb{C}^n\to\mathbb{C}^n$. It follows that an orthogonal anti-symplectic map

 $R: \mathbb{R}^{2n} \to \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ can be written as the composition $A \circ \tau : \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$ for A a unitary linear map. The condition $R^2 = \text{Id}$ then translates to $A\overline{A} = \text{Id}$. So, we identify

$$\mathcal{L} = \{ A \in \mathrm{U}(n) \mid A\overline{A} = \mathrm{Id} \}.$$

Under this identification, the map Θ is given by

$$\Theta(A, B) = A\overline{B}A.$$

Let B_0 be the unitary matrix corresponding to R_0 . Then the map Θ_0 is given by

$$\Theta_0(A) = \Theta(A, B_0) = A\overline{B}_0A.$$

In the following, we take $B_0 = B$, the diagonal matrix with entries $b_{jk} = e^{i\theta_j} \delta_{jk}$ where

$$0 < \theta_i < 2\pi$$
, $\theta_1 < \theta_2 < \cdots < \theta_n$.

For this choice of B_0 , we show that Id is a regular value of Θ_0 and compute the signed cardinality of Θ_0^{-1} (Id).

Indeed, if $\Theta_0(A) = \text{Id}$, then $A\overline{B}A = \text{Id}$, and therefore $\overline{A}B = A$. Throughout this paper, we do *not* use the Einstein summation convention. Letting a_{jk} denote the matrix entries of A, we have

$$\bar{a}_{jk}e^{i\theta_k}=a_{jk}.$$

Write $a_{jk} = r_{jk}e^{i\psi_{jk}}$, where $r_{jk} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $0 \le \psi_{jk} < \pi$. So,

$$e^{i2\psi_{jk}} = a_{ik}/\bar{a}_{ik} = e^{i\theta_k},$$

and therefore $\psi_{jk} = \theta_k/2$. Writing the unitary condition for A in terms of r_{jk} and ψ_{jk} , we have

$$\delta_{jl} = \sum_{k} a_{jk} \bar{a}_{lk} = \sum_{k} r_{jk} r_{lk} e^{i(\psi_{jk} - \psi_{lk})} = \sum_{k} r_{jk} r_{lk}.$$

Thus r_{jk} is an orthogonal matrix. Furthermore, the condition $A\overline{A} = \text{Id}$ translates to

$$\delta_{jl} = \sum_{k} a_{jk} \bar{a}_{kl} = \sum_{k} r_{jk} r_{kl} e^{i(\theta_k - \theta_l)/2}.$$

In particular, taking j = l, we obtain

$$1 = \sum_{k} r_{jk} r_{kj} \cos((\theta_k - \theta_j)/2).$$

Writing $r'_{jk} = \cos((\theta_k - \theta_j)/2)r_{jk}$, we can reformulate the preceding equation in terms of the inner product of the row and column vectors r'_{j} , and r_{j} . Namely,

$$r'_{j} \cdot r_{\cdot j} = 1. \tag{2.1}$$

On the other hand, since r_{jk} is unitary, $|r_{j}| = 1$ and

$$|r'_{j}.|^{2} = \sum_{k} r_{jk}^{2} \cos^{2}((\theta_{k} - \theta_{j})/2) \le \sum_{k} r_{jk}^{2} = |r_{j}.|^{2} = 1,$$

with equality only if $r_{jk} = 0$ when $k \neq j$. Applying Cauchy–Schwartz to equation (2.1), we have

$$1 \le |r'_{i}||r_{i}| = |r'_{i}| \le 1.$$

Thus equality must hold, and the matrix r_{jk} is diagonal. Moreover, orthogonality implies that $r_{jk} = \pm \delta_{jk}$. Summing up, $A \in \Theta_0^{-1}(\mathrm{Id})$ if and only if we have $A = A^{\epsilon}$, where

$$\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n), \quad \epsilon_k \in \{0, 1\},$$

and A^{ϵ} is the matrix with elements

$$a_{ik}^{\epsilon} = e^{i(\theta_k/2 + \epsilon_k \pi)}.$$

In particular, $\Theta_0^{-1}(Id)$ has unsigned cardinality 2^n .

It remains to show that Id is a regular value and compute the signs. Let Sym(n) denote the space of real $n \times n$ symmetric matrices. It is easy to see that the tangent space to \mathcal{L} at A = Id is given by

$$T_{\mathrm{Id}}\mathcal{L} = \{T \in \mathfrak{u}(n) \mid T + \overline{T} = 0\} = \{iQ \mid Q \in \mathrm{Sym}(n)\}.$$

Recall that U(n) acts on \mathscr{L} by $A\mapsto UA\bar{U}^{-1}$. Thus, if $A=U\bar{U}^{-1}$, we have an isomorphism

$$\kappa_{IJ}: T_{\mathrm{Id}}\mathscr{L} \xrightarrow{\sim} T_{A}\mathscr{L}$$

given by $T \mapsto UT\bar{U}^{-1}$. Since \mathscr{L} is a $\mathrm{U}(n)$ homogeneous space, the isomorphism κ_U preserves orientation. Moreover, for $T \in T_{A^\epsilon}\mathscr{L}$ we have

$$d\Theta_0|_{A^\epsilon}(T) = T\,\overline{B}\,A^\epsilon + A^\epsilon\,\overline{B}\,T = T\,\overline{A}^\epsilon + \overline{A}^\epsilon\,T.$$

If $U^{\epsilon} \in U(n)$ satisfies

$$A^{\epsilon} = U^{\epsilon} (\bar{U}^{\epsilon})^{-1},$$

then A^{ϵ} is a regular point of Θ_0 if the linear map

$$\alpha^{\epsilon} = d\Theta_0|_{A^{\epsilon}} \circ \kappa_U \colon T_{\mathrm{Id}} \mathscr{L} \to T_{\mathrm{Id}} \mathscr{L}$$

is invertible, and in that case the sign of A^{ϵ} is sign $\det(\alpha^{\epsilon})$. Explicitly,

$$\alpha^{\epsilon}(T) = U^{\epsilon}T(\overline{U}^{\epsilon})^{-1}\overline{A}^{\epsilon} + \overline{A}^{\epsilon}U^{\epsilon}T(\overline{U}^{\epsilon})^{-1}$$

$$= U^{\epsilon}T(U^{\epsilon})^{-1} + \overline{U}^{\epsilon}T(\overline{U}^{\epsilon})^{-1}$$

$$= U^{\epsilon}T(U^{\epsilon})^{-1} - \overline{U}^{\epsilon}\overline{T}(\overline{U}^{\epsilon})^{-1}$$

$$= 2i\operatorname{Im}(U^{\epsilon}T(U^{\epsilon})^{-1}).$$

Writing T = iQ, we can think of α^{ϵ} as the map $\operatorname{Sym}(n) \to \operatorname{Sym}(n)$ given by

$$\alpha^{\epsilon}(Q) = 2 \operatorname{Re}(U^{\epsilon} Q(U^{\epsilon})^{-1}).$$

For convenience, we take U^{ϵ} to be the unitary linear map given by

$$u_{ik}^{\epsilon} = e^{i(\theta_k/4 + \epsilon_k \pi/2)} \delta_{jk}.$$

Then, denoting by q_{jk} the matrix elements of Q, we have

$$\alpha^{\epsilon}(Q)_{jk} = 2 \operatorname{Re} \left(e^{i \left((\theta_j - \theta_k)/4 + (\epsilon_j - \epsilon_k)\pi/2 \right)} \right) q_{jk}$$
$$= 2 \cos \left((\theta_j - \theta_k)/4 + (\epsilon_j - \epsilon_k)\pi/2 \right) q_{jk}.$$

Since Q is a symmetric matrix, it is determined by q_{jk} for $j \le k$. Thus

$$\det(\alpha^{\epsilon}) = \prod_{j < k} 2\cos((\theta_j - \theta_k)/4 + (\epsilon_j - \epsilon_k)\pi/2)q_{jk}.$$

We need to show that this determinant does not vanish and compute its sign. For j = k, clearly $\cos \left((\theta_j - \theta_k)/4 + (\epsilon_j - \epsilon_k)\pi/2 \right) = 1$. For j < k, by assumption, $0 < \theta_j < \theta_k < 2\pi$, so

$$-\frac{\pi}{2} < \frac{\theta_j - \theta_k}{4} < 0.$$

It follows that for all $j \le k$, we have $\cos ((\theta_j - \theta_k)/4 + (\epsilon_j - \epsilon_k)\pi/2) \ne 0$. Therefore $\det(\alpha^{\epsilon}) \ne 0$ for all ϵ and Id is a regular value. Moreover,

$$\cos((\theta_j - \theta_k)/4 + (\epsilon_j - \epsilon_k)\pi/2) < 0$$
 if and only if $\epsilon_j = 0$, $\epsilon_k = 1$.

Let Υ_n be the set of all binary sequences $\epsilon = (\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n)$. For $\epsilon \in \Upsilon_n$ define $\operatorname{sign}(\epsilon)$ to be the number modulo 2 of pairs j < k such that $\epsilon_j = 0$ and $\epsilon_k = 1$. The upshot of the preceding calculations is that

$$sign \det(\alpha^{\epsilon}) = sign(\epsilon),$$

therefore

$$\deg \Theta_0 = \sum_{\epsilon \in \Upsilon_n} (-1)^{\operatorname{sign}(\epsilon)}.$$

A combinatorial argument given below in Lemma 2.2 then implies the theorem. \Box

Lemma 2.2. For n = 2m + 1, we have

$$d_n := \sum_{\epsilon \in \Upsilon_n} (-1)^{\operatorname{sign}(\epsilon)} = 2^{m+1}.$$

Proof. Let M_n denote the number of $\epsilon \in \Upsilon_n$ such that $sign(\epsilon) = 0$. Then

$$d_n = M_n - (2^n - M_n) = 2M_n - 2^n.$$

For $\epsilon \in \Upsilon_n$ denote by $\operatorname{par}(\epsilon)$ the parity of ϵ , or in other words the number modulo 2 of j such that $\epsilon_j = 1$. Let P_n denote the number of $\epsilon \in \Upsilon_n$ such that $\operatorname{sign}(\epsilon) + \operatorname{par}(\epsilon) = 0$. By analyzing what happens when we adjoin either 1 or 0 to the beginning of a sequence $\epsilon \in \Upsilon_{n-1}$, we find that

$$M_n = M_{n-1} + P_{n-1}, \quad P_n = (2^{n-1} - P_{n-1}) + M_{n-1}.$$

Iterating these recursions twice, we obtain

$$M_n = M_{n-2} + P_{n-2} + 2^{n-2} - P_{n-2} + M_{n-2} = 2M_{n-2} + 2^{n-2}$$
.

Clearly $M_1 = 2$, so $d_1 = 2$. Using the preceding recursion for M_n , we obtain

$$d_n = 2(2M_{n-2} + 2^{n-2}) - 2^n = 2(2M_{n-2} - 2^{n-2}) = 2d_{n-2}.$$

The lemma follows by induction.

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