

# On $\lambda$ -fold Partitions of Finite Vector Spaces and Duality

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## Abstract

Vector space partitions of an  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $V$  over a finite field are considered in [5], [10], and more recently in the series of papers [3], [8], and [9]. In this paper, we consider the generalization of a vector space partition which we call a  $\lambda$ -fold partition (or simply a  $\lambda$ -partition). In particular, for a given positive integer,  $\lambda$ , we define a  $\lambda$ -fold partition of  $V$  to be a multiset of subspaces of  $V$  such that every nonzero vector in  $V$  is contained in exactly  $\lambda$  subspaces in the given multiset. A  $\lambda$ -fold spread as defined in [12] is one example of a  $\lambda$ -fold partition. After establishing some definitions in the introduction, we state some necessary conditions for a  $\lambda$ -fold partition of  $V$  to exist, then introduce some general ways to construct such partitions. We also introduce the construction of a dual  $\lambda$ -partition as a way of generating  $\lambda'$ -partitions from a given  $\lambda$ -partition. One application of this construction is that the dual of a vector space partition will, in general, be a  $\lambda$ -partition for some  $\lambda > 1$ . In the last section, we discuss a connection between  $\lambda$ -partitions and some designs over finite fields.

We denote by  $V_n(q)$  the vector space of dimension  $n$  over the field  $\mathbb{F}_q$  with  $q$  elements, where  $q$  is a power of a prime. In a series of papers ([3], [8], [9]), we extended the results of T. Bu ([5]) and O. Heden ([10] and [11]) on partitioning  $V$  into subspaces. (More precisely, we considered finding a set of subspaces of  $V = V_n(q)$  such that every nonzero vector is in exactly one subspace in this set.)

One natural extension of our previous work is to examine the idea of a  $\lambda$ -fold partition of  $V$ . As in the vector space partition, we define a  $\lambda$ -fold partition to be a multiset of subspaces such that every nonzero vector in  $V$  is contained in exactly  $\lambda$  subspaces in our multiset. A  $\lambda$ -fold partition generalizes the idea of a  $\lambda$ -fold spread defined in Section 4.2 of J.W.P. Hirschfeld's book on projective geometries over finite fields [12]. In fact, Corollary 8 of this paper extends Theorem 4.16 of [12]. The purpose of this note is to construct certain  $\lambda$ -fold partitions and consider some questions that naturally arise from our treatment of these partitions.

We start with a more precise definition of  $\lambda$ -fold partition which will be specially useful to prove our duality theorem (Theorem 15).

**Definition 1** *Let  $\lambda$  be a positive integer. A  $\lambda$ -fold partition of the vector space  $V$  is an ordered pair  $(A, \alpha)$  such that  $A$  is a set and  $\alpha$  is a map from  $A$  to  $2^V$ , the set of subsets of  $V$ , such that*

1. *if  $a \in A$ , then  $\alpha(a)$  is a nonzero subspace of  $V$ ,*
2. *if  $0 \neq v \in V$ , then the cardinality of the set  $\{a \in A : v \in \alpha(a)\}$  is  $\lambda$ .*

*We call the cardinality of  $A$  the size of the partition and say two  $\lambda$ -partitions  $(A, \alpha)$  and  $(B, \beta)$  are equal if there exists a bijection  $\tau : A \rightarrow B$  such that  $\alpha = \beta\tau$ .*

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Note that using this definition, a 1-fold partition of  $V$  is just a vector space partition in the sense mentioned above. For brevity, we will henceforth refer to a  $\lambda$ -fold partition simply as a  $\lambda$ -partition. We will use the term 1-partition of  $V$  when we are referring to a standard vector space partition.

We also make the observation that two  $\lambda$ -partitions  $(A, \alpha)$  and  $(B, \beta)$  are equivalent if and only if their multiset images  $\{\alpha(a) : a \in A\}$  and  $\{\beta(b) : b \in B\}$  are equal as multisets. As a result, sometimes we will identify a  $\lambda$ -partition with its multiset image.

Given a 1-partition of  $V$ , one easy way to construct a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V$  is to replicate the 1-partition  $\lambda$  times. If one has  $\lambda$  different 1-partitions, then we could also take the union (as multisets) of these 1-partitions to form another  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V$ . The  $\lambda$ -partitions generated in this way do not add much to our knowledge, but there are more interesting  $\lambda$ -partitions that do not come from 1-partitions in this way. One such example is the  $q$ -Grassmanian  $G(n, n-1)$  consisting of the set of all  $(n-1)$ -dimensional subspaces of  $V$  when  $n \geq 3$ , which forms a  $\left(\frac{q^{n-1}-1}{q-1}\right)$ -partition. More generally, we can consider the  $q$ -Grassmanian  $G(n, r)$  consisting of all  $r$ -dimensional subspaces of the  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $V$ . In this case  $G(n, r)$  consists of  $\binom{n}{r}_q = \frac{(q^n-1)(q^n-q)\cdots(q^n-q^{r-1})}{(q^r-1)(q^r-q)\cdots(q^r-q^{r-1})}$  subspaces of dimension  $r$ , each containing  $q^r-1$  nonzero vectors, so that each of the  $q^n-1$  nonzero vectors in  $V$  are included in  $\binom{n-1}{r-1}_q$  of these subspaces.

Therefore,  $G(n, r)$  forms a  $\binom{n-1}{r-1}_q$ -partition of  $V$ .

If  $(A, \alpha)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition, then we define a  $\lambda_0$ -subpartition of  $(A, \alpha)$  to be a  $\lambda_0$ -partition  $(B, \beta)$  of  $V$  where  $B \subseteq A$ ,  $\beta = \alpha|_B$ , and  $0 < \lambda_0 \leq \lambda$ . We say that the  $\lambda_0$ -subpartition  $(B, \beta)$  is *proper* if  $0 < \lambda_0 < \lambda$ . Note that if  $(B, \beta)$  is a proper  $\lambda_0$ -subpartition of  $(A, \alpha)$ , then the complement of  $(B, \beta)$ , or  $(A \setminus B, \alpha|_{A \setminus B})$ , also forms a  $(\lambda - \lambda_0)$ -subpartition of  $(A, \alpha)$ . We say a  $\lambda$ -partition  $(A, \alpha)$  is *irreducible* if it has no proper  $\lambda_0$ -subpartitions for any  $0 < \lambda_0 < \lambda$  and *reducible* otherwise. Note that a 1-partition is always irreducible. Clearly, the  $\lambda$ -partitions built as unions of 1-partitions are reducible.

Note that not all irreducible  $\lambda$ -partitions are 1-partitions. For example, consider the 2-partition of  $V = V_3(2)$  given by  $\alpha : \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \rightarrow 2^V$ , where the nonzero vectors of  $\alpha(i)$  for  $1 \leq i \leq 6$  are

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha(1) &= \{100, 011, 111\}, & \alpha(2) &= \{010, 001, 011\}, & \alpha(3) &= \{001, 110, 111\}, \\ \alpha(4) &= \{110, 010, 100\}, & \alpha(5) &= \{101\}, & \alpha(6) &= \{101\}. \end{aligned}$$

(Here we abbreviate the nonzero vector  $(a, b, c)$  by the string of digits  $abc$ , where  $a, b, c \in \{0, 1\}$ .) Since a 1-partition of  $V_3(2)$  can contain at most one 2-dimensional subspace, this 2-partition cannot be written as the union of two 1-partitions since it contains more than two 2-dimensional subspaces. Therefore, this 2-partition must be irreducible. This turns out to be a special case of Corollary 3 in the next section.

One goal would be to classify all irreducible  $\lambda$ -partitions for a given  $V$ . We note that the problem of classifying all irreducible  $\lambda$ -partitions includes the classification of all vector space partitions as a subproblem. To aid us in classifying  $\lambda$ -partitions, we introduce the following terminology. Let  $(A, \alpha)$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V$ , where  $V$  has dimension  $n$ . We say the  $\lambda$ -partition  $(A, \alpha)$  is of *type*

$[(t_1, n_1), \dots, (t_s, n_s)]$  if for all  $1 \leq k \leq n$  we have

$$|\{a : \dim(\alpha(a)) = k\}| = \sum_{n_i=k} t_i.$$

Note that this notation does not exclude  $t_i = 0$  for some  $i$  nor do the  $n_i$  need to be distinct. We will consider two partition types  $[(t_s, n_s), \dots, (t_1, n_1)]$  and  $[(c_r, m_r), \dots, (c_1, m_1)]$  to be the same if for all  $1 \leq k \leq n$  we have

$$\sum_{n_i=k} t_i = \sum_{m_j=k} c_j.$$

Sometimes it will be convenient to use the more compact notation  $n_s^{t_s} \cdots n_2^{t_2} n_1^{t_1}$  for the type  $[(t_s, n_s), \dots, (t_2, n_2), (t_1, n_1)]$ .

Before continuing, we prove the following analogy to [5, Lemma 1].

**Lemma 1** *Let  $(A, \alpha)$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V$  and let  $W$  be a subspace of  $V$ . Define  $A_W = \{a \in A : \alpha(a) \cap W \neq \{0\}\}$  and  $\alpha_W : A_W \rightarrow 2^W$  by  $\alpha_W(a) = \alpha(a) \cap W$ . Then  $(A_W, \alpha_W)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $W$ .*

*Proof.* We verify the two conditions for  $(A_W, \alpha_W)$  to be a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $W$ . Indeed, for every  $a \in A_W$  we have  $\alpha_W(a) = \alpha(a) \cap W$ , which is a nonzero subspace. Also, for any  $0 \neq w \in W$  we have  $\{a \in A : w \in \alpha(a)\} = \{a \in A : w \in \alpha(a) \cap W\} = \{a \in A_W : w \in \alpha_W(a)\}$ , where the last equality follows because if  $0 \neq w \in \alpha(a) \cap W$  then  $a \in A_W$ . Hence,  $|\{a \in A_W : w \in \alpha_W(a)\}| = |\{a \in A : w \in \alpha(a)\}| = \lambda$ . Therefore,  $(A_W, \alpha_W)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $W$  as claimed.  $\blacksquare$

Note, when  $\dim(W) = \dim(V) - 1$ , we have for any  $a \in A$  either  $\dim(\alpha(a) \cap W) = \dim(\alpha(a))$  or  $\dim(\alpha(a) \cap W) = \dim(\alpha(a)) - 1$ , hence we can use this observation to determine the type of  $(A_W, \alpha_W)$  from  $(A, \alpha)$ .

For example, this lemma can be applied to the  $\left(\frac{q^{n-1} - 1}{q - 1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$  consisting of all the  $(n - 1)$ -dimensional subspaces by intersecting with one of those  $(n - 1)$ -dimensional subspaces  $W$  to get a  $\left(\frac{q^{n-1} - 1}{q - 1}\right)$ -partition of type  $\left[(1, n - 1), \left(\frac{q^n - q}{q - 1}, n - 2\right)\right]$ .

In Section 1, we first discuss some necessary conditions for a  $\lambda$ -partition to exist. In Section 2, we create some further examples. In Section 3, we introduce the concept of a dual  $\lambda$ -partition. This allows us to construct  $\lambda$ -partitions from known 1-partitions in a nontrivial way as well as to create new  $\lambda$ -partitions from those constructed in Section 2.

## 1 Necessary conditions

In this section, we prove a series of necessary conditions for  $\lambda$ -partitions to exist. For 1-partitions, there are two immediate necessary conditions. The first of these is the usual diophantine equation counting the nonzero vectors. So for a 1-partition of  $V_n(q)$  of type  $[(a_1, n_1), \dots, (a_t, n_t)]$  to exist, we must have

$$\sum_{i=1}^t a_i (q^{n_i} - 1) = q^n - 1.$$

The second condition is a simple dimension consideration that can be stated as follows:

if  $a_i \neq 0 \neq a_j$  with  $i \neq j$ , then  $n_i + n_j \leq n$  and if  $a_i \geq 2$ , then  $n_i \leq n/2$ .

The diophantine equation for 1-partitions has an easy generalization to  $\lambda$ -partitions. In particular, if  $(A, \alpha)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V_n(q)$  and  $n_a = \dim \alpha(a)$ , then

$$\sum_{a \in A} (q^{n_a} - 1) = \lambda(q^n - 1). \quad (1)$$

Therefore, if  $(A, \alpha)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition of type  $n_1^{c_1} \cdots n_t^{c_t}$ , we must have

$$\sum_{i=1}^t c_i (q^{n_i} - 1) = \lambda(q^n - 1). \quad (2)$$

The next theorem is a generalization of the dimension condition for 1-partitions.

**Theorem 2** *Let  $(A, \alpha)$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of the  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $V$  over  $\mathbb{F}_q$ , and suppose that  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{\lambda+1} \in A$  are distinct elements of  $A$ . Then*

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\lambda+1} \dim \alpha(a_i) \leq \lambda n.$$

*Proof.* Let  $W_j = \alpha(a_1) \cap \alpha(a_2) \cap \cdots \cap \alpha(a_j)$  for  $1 \leq j \leq \lambda + 1$ . We will prove by induction that

$$\dim W_j \geq \left( \sum_{i=1}^j \dim \alpha(a_i) \right) - (j-1)n, \quad 1 \leq j \leq \lambda + 1.$$

This is trivial for  $j = 1$ . Assume it holds for  $j$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \dim W_{j+1} &= \dim(W_j \cap \alpha(a_{j+1})) = \dim W_j + \dim \alpha(a_{j+1}) - \dim(W_j + \alpha(a_{j+1})) \\ &\geq \left( \sum_{i=1}^j \dim \alpha(a_i) \right) - (j-1)n + \dim \alpha(a_{j+1}) - n = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{j+1} \dim \alpha(a_i) \right) - jn. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the  $j + 1$  case is established, hence  $\dim W_{\lambda+1} \geq \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\lambda+1} \dim \alpha(a_i) \right) - \lambda n$ .

Now if  $\sum_{i=1}^{\lambda+1} \dim \alpha(a_i) > \lambda n$ , then  $\dim W_{\lambda+1} > 0$  and hence  $W_{\lambda+1}$  contains a nonzero vector  $w$ . Since  $w$  is in each set  $\alpha(a_i)$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq \lambda + 1$ , the set  $\{a \in A : w \in \alpha(a)\}$  has cardinality at least  $\lambda + 1$ . This contradicts the assumption that  $(A, \alpha)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V$ . ■

We can use the above theorem to determine some irreducible  $\lambda$ -partitions, as pointed out by a referee for this paper. We are grateful for this observation.

**Corollary 3** *Suppose  $(A, \alpha)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V = V_n(q)$  and  $n > \lambda$ . If there exists an integer  $0 < k < n/\lambda$  such that  $|\{a \in A : \dim \alpha(a) = n - k\}| > \lambda$ , then  $(A, \alpha)$  is irreducible.*

*Proof.* Let  $k$  be as in the statement of the Corollary and assume  $(A, \alpha)$  is reducible. Let  $(A_1, \alpha_1)$  be a proper  $\lambda_1$ -subpartition and let  $(A_2, \alpha_2)$  be its complement, which is a  $\lambda_2$ -partition. By the Pigeonhole principle, for either  $i = 1$  or  $i = 2$  we know  $(A_i, \alpha_i)$  must contain at least  $\lambda_i + 1$  subspaces of dimension  $n - k$ . By Theorem 2

$$\lambda_i n \geq (\lambda_i + 1)(n - k) = (\lambda_i + 1)n - (\lambda_i + 1)k > (\lambda_i + 1)n - n = \lambda_i n,$$

which is a contradiction. Therefore,  $(A, \alpha)$  must be irreducible. ■

**Theorem 4** *Let  $(A, \alpha)$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V = V_n(q)$ . Assume  $r = \max\{\dim \alpha(a) : a \in A\} < n$  and  $\dim \alpha(a) \geq n - r$  for all  $a \in A$ . Then*

$$|A| \geq \lambda + q^r.$$

*Proof.* We have the usual diophantine equation

$$\sum_{a \in A} (q^{\dim \alpha(a)} - 1) = \lambda(q^n - 1),$$

and so

$$\sum_{a \in A} q^{\dim \alpha(a)} = \lambda(q^n - 1) + |A|.$$

Choose  $a_0 \in A$  with  $\dim \alpha(a_0) = r$ . Taking  $W_1$  to be  $\alpha(a_0)$ , we note for  $a \neq a_0$  we have

$$\dim(\alpha(a_0) \cap \alpha(a)) = \dim(\alpha(a_0)) + \dim(\alpha(a)) - \dim(\alpha(a_0) + \alpha(a)) \geq \dim(\alpha(a_0)) + \dim(\alpha(a)) - n.$$

Let  $t$  count the elements  $v$  of  $\alpha(a_0) \setminus \{0\}$ , each counted as many times as there exists an  $a \in A \setminus \{a_0\}$  such that  $v \in \alpha(a)$ . Then

$$t = \sum_{a_0 \neq a \in A} |(\alpha(a_0) \cap \alpha(a)) \setminus \{0\}| \geq \sum_{a_0 \neq a \in A} (q^{\max(0, \dim(\alpha(a)) + r - n)} - 1).$$

But each element of  $\alpha(a_0) \setminus \{0\}$  must be in  $\alpha(a)$  for  $\lambda - 1$  elements of  $A \setminus \{a_0\}$ , so  $t = (\lambda - 1)(q^r - 1)$ . Hence we get

$$\sum_{a \in A \setminus \{a_0\}} (q^{\dim \alpha(a) + r - n} - 1) + q^r - 1 \leq (q^r - 1)\lambda.$$

The left side is

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{a \in A} (q^{\dim \alpha(a) + r - n} - 1) &= (q^{2r - n} - 1) + q^r - 1 \\ &= q^{r - n} \sum_{a \in A} q^{\dim \alpha(a)} - |A| - q^r(q^{r - n} - 1) \\ &= q^{r - n}[\lambda(q^n - 1) + |A|] - |A| - q^r(q^{r - n} - 1) \\ &= \lambda q^{r - n}(q^n - 1) + (q^{r - n} - 1)|A| - q^r(q^{r - n} - 1). \end{aligned}$$

Since this is less than or equal to the right hand side,  $(q^r - 1)\lambda$ , we have

$$(q^{r-n} - 1)|A| - q^r(q^{r-n} - 1) \leq \lambda[q^r - 1 - q^{r-n}(q^n - 1)] = \lambda(q^{r-n} - 1).$$

Dividing by the negative number  $q^{r-n} - 1$  reverses the sense of the inequality, and the theorem follows.  $\blacksquare$

**Lemma 5** *Let  $(A, \alpha)$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V = V_n(q)$  such that  $n > m = \min\{\dim \alpha(a) : a \in A\}$ . Let  $W \subseteq V$  be a subspace of dimension  $n - 1$ . If  $k = |\{a \in A : \alpha(a) \not\subseteq W \text{ and } \dim \alpha(a) = m\}|$ , then  $q$  divides  $k$ .*

*Proof.* First suppose that  $(B, \beta)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V_N(q)$  where the minimum dimension of any subspace in the partition is  $M$ . Let  $B' = \{b \in B : \dim \beta(b) = M\}$ , and suppose  $|B'| = R$ . Then by Equation (1) we have

$$\lambda(q^N - 1) = R(q^M - 1) + \sum_{b \in B \setminus B'} (q^{\dim \beta(b)} - 1) = Rq^M + \sum_{b \in B \setminus B'} q^{\dim \beta(b)} - |B|,$$

and so

$$|B| = \lambda - \lambda q^N + Rq^M + \sum_{b \in B \setminus B'} q^{\dim \beta(b)}. \quad (*)$$

Thus

$$|B| \equiv \lambda \pmod{q^M} \quad \text{and} \quad |B| \equiv \lambda \pmod{q}.$$

Applying this to  $(A, \alpha)$  gives  $|A| \equiv \lambda \pmod{q^m}$  and  $|A| \equiv \lambda \pmod{q}$ .

Let  $(A_W, \alpha_W)$  be the  $\lambda$ -partition induced by  $(A, \alpha)$  on  $W$ . If  $m = 1$ , then  $|A_W| = |A| - k$ . Since  $|A_W| \equiv \lambda \pmod{q}$  also, we see that  $q$  divides  $k$ .

Now assume  $m > 1$  and  $k > 0$ . Then  $A = A_W$  and the minimum dimension of a subspace of  $(A_W, \alpha_W)$  is  $m - 1$ . Applying (\*) to  $(A_W, \alpha_W)$  gives

$$|A| = |A_W| = \lambda - \lambda q^{n-1} + kq^{m-1} + \sum_{\substack{a \in A_W \\ \dim \alpha_W(a) \geq m}} q^{\dim \alpha_W(a)}.$$

Since  $|A| \equiv \lambda \pmod{q^m}$  and  $n - 1 \geq m$ , we see that  $q$  divides  $k$ .  $\blacksquare$

For any  $\lambda$ -partition  $\mathcal{P}$  of  $V_n(q)$ , let  $\dim_{\min}(\mathcal{P})$  be the minimum dimension that occurs in  $\mathcal{P}$ . Define

$$S(\mathcal{P}) = \{U \in \mathcal{P} : \dim(U) = \dim_{\min}(\mathcal{P})\},$$

and let  $\tau(\mathcal{P})$  denote the number of subspaces of dimension  $\dim_{\min}(\mathcal{P})$  in  $\mathcal{P}$  (counting duplications).

**Corollary 6** *Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V = V_n(q)$ , and let  $m = \dim_{\min}(\mathcal{P}) < n$  and  $|S(\mathcal{P})| = 1$ . Then  $q$  divides  $\tau(\mathcal{P})$ .*

*Proof.* If  $|S(\mathcal{P})| = 1$ , then  $S(\mathcal{P}) = \{U\}$  for some subspace  $U \subseteq V$ . Let  $W \subseteq V$  be an  $(n-1)$ -dimensional subspace not containing the subspace  $U$ . Then none of the  $k = \tau(\mathcal{P})$  subspaces of dimension  $m$  in  $\mathcal{P}$  is contained in  $W$  (since they are all identical to  $U$ ). Thus, it follows from Lemma 5 that  $q$  divides  $\tau(\mathcal{P})$  and our conclusion holds.  $\blacksquare$

## 2 Some Initial Constructions

We start this section with a well-known example.

### Example 1

Let  $V$  be an  $n$ -dimensional vector space over  $F = \mathbb{F}_q$  and identify  $V$  with  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$ . Then  $V$  can be partitioned into 1-dimensional  $\mathbb{F}_q$  subspaces to form the projective space  $\mathbb{P}_F(V)$ . Let  $J \subseteq V$  be a subset consisting of one nonzero element from each one-dimensional subspace. Note  $|J| = \frac{q^n-1}{q-1}$ .

If  $U$  is a  $k$ -dimensional subspace of  $V$ , then the multiset  $\mathcal{P}(U) = \{\alpha U : \alpha \in J\}$  will have  $|J|$  elements and so  $\mathcal{P}(U)$  will form a  $\left(\frac{q^k-1}{q-1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$  of type  $\left[\left(\frac{q^n-1}{q-1}, k\right)\right]$ . Indeed, note that for any nonzero  $v \in V$  we have  $v \in \alpha U \Leftrightarrow \alpha^{-1}v \in U$ , hence there are exactly  $\frac{q^k-1}{q-1}$  subspaces in our set that contain  $v$ .

Next, we generalize the above example to examine *homogeneous  $\lambda$ -partitions*, i.e.,  $\lambda$ -partitions of type  $n_1^{t_1}$ .

**Proposition 7** *Let  $1 \leq k \leq n = \dim V$  and let  $r = \gcd(k, n)$ . There exists a  $\left(\frac{q^k-1}{q^r-1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$  of type  $\left[\left(\frac{q^n-1}{q^r-1}, k\right)\right]$ .*

*Proof.* If  $k \mid n$ , we get the 1-partition given in [5, Lemma 2]. So assume  $k$  does not divide  $n$ . Let  $r = \gcd(k, n)$  and  $V = V_{n/r}(q^r)$ , hence  $V$  is an  $n$ -dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_q$ . Then we can choose  $U$  to be a  $(k/r)$ -dimensional  $\mathbb{F}_{q^r}$ -subspace of  $V$ . Using Example 1, we can use  $U$  to create a  $\lambda = \left(\frac{(q^r)^{k/r} - 1}{q^r - 1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$  of type  $(k/r)^t$  of  $\mathbb{F}_{q^r}$  subspaces where

$$t = \left(\frac{(q^r)^{n/r} - 1}{q^r - 1}\right) = \frac{q^n - 1}{q^r - 1}.$$

Since each  $\mathbb{F}_{q^r}$ -subspace of  $V$  of dimension  $k/r$  is also a  $k$ -dimensional  $\mathbb{F}_q$ -subspace of  $V$ , this gives us the desired  $\left(\frac{q^k-1}{q^r-1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$  of type  $\left[\left(\frac{q^n-1}{q^r-1}, k\right)\right]$ .  $\blacksquare$

**Corollary 8** *Let  $1 \leq k \leq n = \dim V$  and  $r = \gcd(k, n)$ . Then there exists a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V$  of type  $k^t$  if and only if*

$$\left(\frac{q^k-1}{q^r-1}\right) \mid \lambda.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\tau = \frac{q^k - 1}{q^r - 1}$  and  $m = \frac{q^n - 1}{q^r - 1}$ . If  $\tau \mid \lambda$ , we can just take  $\lambda/\tau$  copies of the  $\tau$ -partition of  $V$  from Proposition 7 to get the corresponding  $\lambda$ -partition.

Conversely, assume that there exists a  $\lambda$ -partition of type  $k^t$ . Then it follows from Equation (2) that

$$t(q^k - 1) = \lambda(q^n - 1) \Rightarrow t\tau = \lambda m \Rightarrow \tau \mid \lambda m.$$

Therefore, since  $\gcd(\tau, m) = 1$ , we see that  $\tau \mid \lambda$ . ■

Next, we describe two methods that allow us to construct  $\lambda$ -partitions from 1-partitions. First, we introduce a technique for generating some  $q^m$ -partitions of  $V$ .

**Proposition 9** *Let  $(A, \alpha)$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V = V_n(q)$ , and let  $U, W$  be subspaces such that  $V = U \oplus W$ . If  $\pi : V \rightarrow U$  is the projection onto  $U$  associated with the above direct sum decomposition of  $V$ , then  $\pi$  induces a  $\lambda q^m$ -partition  $(B, \beta)$  of  $U$  where  $m = \dim(W)$ ,  $B = \{(a, w) : a \in A, w \in W \cap \alpha(a) \neq \alpha(a)\}$ , and  $\beta : B \rightarrow 2^U$  is given by  $\beta(a, w) = \pi(\alpha(a))$ .*

*Proof.* Note that for any  $a \in A$ ,  $\pi(\alpha(a))$  is a subspace of  $U$ , so it is clear that  $\beta(a, w) = \pi(\alpha(a))$  is a subspace of  $U$  for all  $(a, w) \in B$ . Since  $W \cap \alpha(a) \neq \alpha(a)$ , we get  $\beta(a, w) = \pi(\alpha(a)) \neq \{0\}$ .

Let  $u \in U^* = U \setminus \{0\}$  and let  $B_u = \{(a, w) \in B : u \in \beta(a, w)\}$ . We now show that  $|B_u| = \lambda q^m$  by counting in two ways the cardinality of the set

$$S = \{(u, w) : u \in U^*, w \in W, \text{ and } u \in \beta(a, w) \text{ for some } a \in A\}.$$

For each  $u \in U^*$ , there are exactly  $|B_u|$  subspaces  $\beta(a, w) \in B$  that contain  $u$ . So  $|S| = |U^*| |B_u|$ . On the other hand, for each of the  $|U^*| |W|$  pairs  $(u, w)$  with  $u \in U^*$  and  $w \in W$ , the number of  $a \in A$  such that  $u \in \beta(a, w)$  is the same as the number of  $a \in A$  such that the vector  $v = u + w$  is in the subspace  $\alpha(a)$ . Since this latter number is  $\lambda$ , we also have  $|S| = \lambda |U^*| |W|$ . Combining these two counts of  $|S|$  yields

$$|U^*| |B_u| = |S| = \lambda |U^*| |W| \Rightarrow |B_u| = \lambda |W| = \lambda q^m,$$

which concludes the proof. ■

It follows from the above construction that the type of the  $\lambda q^m$ -partition will depend on the relationship between the subspaces  $\alpha(a)$  and the subspace  $W$ . In particular, if  $n_a = \dim \alpha(a)$  and  $r_a = \dim(\alpha(a) \cap W)$ , then this subspace will contribute  $q^{r_a}$  copies of a subspace of dimension  $n_a - r_a$  in the new partition  $(B, \beta)$ . In this way, we can decompose every subspace  $\alpha(a)$  of  $(A, \alpha)$  to determine a  $\lambda q^m$ -partition of  $U$ .

### Example 2

Consider  $V_5(2)$ . We can identify  $V_5(2)$  with a 5-dimensional subspace  $V$  of  $V_6(2)$  and let  $W$  be a one-dimensional complement of  $V$ . Let  $(A, \alpha)$  be a partition of  $V_6(2)$  of type  $[(21, 2)]$ . Since  $W$  is one-dimensional, it is contained in exactly one of the two-dimensional subspaces. Hence the



2-partition induced on  $V$  is of type  $[(20, 2), (2, 1)]$ . Similarly, we can see that a  $[(9, 3)]$  partition of  $V_6(2)$  induces a 2-partition of  $V$  of type  $[(8, 3), (2, 2)]$ .

One important special case of the above is when  $(A, \alpha)$  is a 1-partition and  $W = \bigcup_{a \in C} \alpha(a)$  for some proper subset  $C \subset A$ . If this is the case, we can take  $B = A \setminus C$  and get a  $q^m$ -partition of  $V$ .

A second technique for generating  $\lambda$ -partitions from 1-partitions is given in the theorem below.

**Theorem 10** *Let  $V = V_n(q)$  and let  $(A, \alpha)$  be a 1-partition of type  $n^{t_n} \dots 2^{t_2} 1^{t_1}$ . (Here we allow the possibility that  $t_j = 0$  if  $j > 1$ .) Then for any integer  $1 < k \leq n$ , there exists a  $\lambda$ -partition  $(B, \beta)$  of type*

$$n^{\lambda t_n} \dots (k+1)^{\lambda t_{k+1}} k^{\lambda t_k + t_1} (k-1)^{\lambda t_{k-1}} \dots 2^{\lambda t_2}$$

where  $\lambda = \frac{q^k - 1}{q - 1}$ .

*Proof.* Let us identify  $V$  with the field  $\mathbb{F}_{q^n}$  and let  $W$  be a subspace of  $V$  of dimension  $k$ . Define  $A_1 = \{a \in A : \dim \alpha(a) = 1\}$  and  $A_+ = A \setminus A_1$ . Furthermore, let  $(C, \gamma)$  be a 1-partition of  $W$  of type  $1^\lambda$  where  $\lambda = \frac{q^k - 1}{q - 1}$  and let  $B = (A_+ \times C) \cup A_1$ .

Then we can define a function  $\beta : B \rightarrow 2^V$  as follows. If  $y = (a, c) \in A_+ \times C$ , define  $\beta(y) = \beta(a, c) = \{x \cdot w : x \in \alpha(a), w \in \gamma(c)\}$ . If  $y \in A_1$ , define  $\beta(y) = \{x \cdot w : x \in \alpha(y), w \in W\}$ .

We claim the pair  $(B, \beta)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V$ . Indeed, if  $y = (a, c) \in A_+ \times C$ , for any nonzero  $v_1, v_2 \in \beta(y)$  there exist  $x_1, x_2 \in \alpha(a)$ ,  $w_1, w_2 \in \gamma(c)$  such that  $v_1 = x_1 w_1$  and  $v_2 = x_2 w_2$ . Since  $\gamma(c)$  is one-dimensional, there exists  $d \in \mathbb{F}_q \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $w_2 = d w_1$ , so  $v_2 = (d x_2) w_1$ . Hence, for any  $d' \in \mathbb{F}_q \setminus \{0\}$ , we have  $v_1 + d' v_2 = x_1 w_1 + d' d x_2 w_1 = (x_1 + d' d x_2) w_1 \in \beta(y)$ . Therefore  $\beta(y)$  is a subspace of  $V$ . The proof that  $\beta(y)$  is a subspace of  $V$  when  $y \in A_1$  is similar.

Note that for any  $x \in \mathbb{F}_{q^n}^\times$  the function  $\phi_x : V \rightarrow V$  defined by  $\phi_x(v) = xv$  is a vector space automorphism. If  $y = (a, c) \in A_+ \times C$ , then  $\gamma(c)$  is one-dimensional so for any nonzero  $w \in \gamma(c)$  we have  $\phi_w(\alpha(a)) = \{xw : x \in \alpha(a)\} = \{xw' : x \in \alpha(a), w' \in \gamma(c)\} = \beta(y)$ . Hence  $\dim \beta(y) = \dim \alpha(a)$ . Also, if  $y \in A_1$ , then  $\alpha(y)$  is one-dimensional so for any nonzero  $x \in \alpha(y)$  we have  $\phi_x(W) = \{xw : w \in W\} = \{x'w : w \in W, x' \in \alpha(y)\} = \beta(y)$ . Therefore,  $\dim(\beta(y)) = \dim(W) = k$ .

Next, we need to show that for any  $0 \neq v \in V$  we have  $|\{y \in B : v \in \beta(y)\}| = \lambda$ . But if  $y = (a, c) \in A_+ \times C$ , we have  $v \in \beta(y) \Leftrightarrow \mathbb{F}_q w^{-1} v \subseteq \alpha(a)$  for some  $0 \neq w \in \gamma(c)$ . If  $y \in A_1$ , then  $v \in \beta(y) \Leftrightarrow \mathbb{F}_q w^{-1} v \subseteq \alpha(y)$  for some  $0 \neq w \in \gamma(c)$ . Therefore, since  $(A, \alpha)$  is a 1-partition,  $|\{y \in B : v \in \beta(y)\}| = |\{\mathbb{F}_q w^{-1} v : 0 \neq w \in W\}| = \lambda$  since  $\dim(W) = k$ . ■

Next, we use Theorem 10 to make an observation about the existence of a  $\lambda$ -partition of type  $[(t_2, s), (t_1, r)]$  where  $r$  and  $s$  are distinct.

**Corollary 11** *Let  $1 < r \leq n$ ,  $1 \leq s \leq n$  where  $r \neq s$ . Then there exists a  $\left(\frac{q^s - 1}{q - 1}\right)$ -partition of type  $\left[\left(\frac{q^s - 1}{q - 1}, r\right), \left(\frac{q^n - q^r}{q - 1}, s\right)\right]$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $U$  be an  $r$ -dimensional subspace of  $V$ . Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a 1-partition consisting of  $U$  and all the one-dimensional subspaces not contained in  $U$ . Then  $\mathcal{P}$  is a 1-partition of type  $r^{11^t}$ , where

$t = \frac{q^n - q^r}{q - 1}$ . Now we can apply Theorem 10 to this 1-partition to get a  $\left(\frac{q^s - 1}{q - 1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$  of type  $\left[\left(\frac{q^s - 1}{q - 1}, r\right), \left(\frac{q^n - q^r}{q - 1}, s\right)\right]$  ■

Next, we note that if we are given a  $\lambda$ -partition  $(A, \alpha)$ , we can also take “multiples” of  $(A, \alpha)$  as follows. For each positive integer  $k$ , let  $kA$  be the set  $A \times \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$  and define the function  $k\alpha : kA \rightarrow 2^V$  by  $(k\alpha)(x, i) = \alpha(x)$  for all  $x \in A$  and  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . Then  $(kA, k\alpha)$  is a  $k\lambda$ -partition of  $V$ . If  $\mathcal{P} = (A, \alpha)$ , then we write  $k\mathcal{P}$  to indicate  $(kA, k\alpha)$ . Note that if  $\mathcal{P} = (A, \alpha)$  is of type  $n_1^{t_1} n_2^{t_2} \dots n_s^{t_s}$ , then  $k\mathcal{P} = (kA, k\alpha)$  is of type  $n_1^{kt_1} n_2^{kt_2} \dots n_s^{kt_s}$ .

In some sense, we can reverse the above process using the concept of multiplicity. We define the *multiplicity* of the  $\lambda$ -partition  $\mathcal{P} = (A, \alpha)$  as the greatest common divisor of the set  $\{|\alpha^{-1}(\alpha(a))| : a \in A\}$ .

**Lemma 12** *Let  $(A, \alpha)$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of multiplicity  $m > 1$ . Then there exists a  $(\lambda/m)$ -partition  $(B, \beta)$  such that  $(A, \alpha)$  is equivalent to  $(mB, m\beta)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $(A, \alpha)$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V$  of multiplicity  $m$ . Therefore, for every subspace  $W \in \{\alpha(a) : a \in A\}$  there exists a positive integer  $k_W$  such that  $W$  occurs  $k_W m$  times in the multiset image of  $\alpha$ . Now let  $(B, \beta)$  be the  $(\lambda/m)$ -partition corresponding to the multiset where every  $W \in \{\alpha(a) : a \in A\}$  occurs  $k_W$  times. Then it is straightforward to check  $(A, \alpha)$  is equivalent to  $(mB, m\beta)$  since they have the same multiset image. ■

### 3 Dual $\lambda$ -Partitions

In this section, we use vector space duals to define the dual of a  $\lambda$ -partition. This is slightly more complicated than taking the dual of each subspace in a  $\lambda$ -partition since we can increase multiplicities when doing this. Therefore, to get the dual of a  $\lambda$ -partition, we take the vector space duals of each subspace and then adjust the multiplicity of the resulting  $\lambda'$ -partition to match that of the original  $\lambda$ -partition. In the lemma below, we state some basic results about vector spaces and their duals using non-degenerate symmetric bilinear forms. Refer to [1, Chapter 3] or [6, Chapter 8, §27] for proofs of these results.

Let  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_q$  be a non-degenerate symmetric bilinear form. For example, we could use the standard dot product when  $V = \mathbb{F}_q^n$ . Then  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  induces an isomorphism between  $V$  and its dual,  $V^* = \text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{F}_q)$ . For any subset  $S \subseteq V$ , we define  $S^\perp = \{v \in V : \langle v, x \rangle = 0 \text{ for every } x \in S\}$ . When  $x \in V$ , we denote  $\{x\}^\perp$  by writing  $x^\perp$ .

**Lemma 13** *Let  $S, T$  be subsets of a finite-dimensional vector space  $V$  over  $F$  and let  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow F$  be a symmetric non-degenerate bilinear form on  $V$ . Then we have the following properties:*

1.  $S^\perp$  is a subspace of  $V$ .
2.  $S \subseteq T \Rightarrow T^\perp \subseteq S^\perp$ .
3.  $S^\perp = \text{span}(S)^\perp$ .

4.  $\dim(S^\perp) = n - \dim(\text{span}(S))$ .
5.  $(S^\perp)^\perp = \text{span}(S)$ .
6.  $(S \cup T)^\perp = S^\perp \cap T^\perp$ .
7.  $(\text{span}(S) \cap \text{span}(T))^\perp = S^\perp + T^\perp$ .

In the proofs below, we will use some of these standard properties of  $S^\perp$ . We start with an important example that we will use to build dual  $\lambda$ -partitions.

**Example 3**

Let  $J \subseteq V$  be a set of nonzero vectors representing the one-dimensional subspaces of  $V$ . So if  $J = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\}$ , we have the following properties:

1.  $\bigcup_{i=1}^k \mathbb{F}_q x_i = V$ ,
2. for any  $x, y \in J$ , we have  $\mathbb{F}_q x \cap \mathbb{F}_q y \neq \{0\} \Rightarrow x = y$ .

Note here that  $k = |J| = \frac{q^n - 1}{q - 1}$ .

Next, define a function  $\alpha : J \rightarrow 2^V$  by  $\alpha(x) = x^\perp$  for all  $x \in J$ . We claim that  $(J, \alpha)$  forms a  $\left(\frac{q^{n-1} - 1}{q - 1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$ . It is clear that  $\alpha(x) = x^\perp$  is a subspace for every  $x \in J$ . Also, for any  $0 \neq v \in V$ , we have  $v \in x^\perp = \alpha(x) \Leftrightarrow x \in v^\perp$ . So, since  $\dim v^\perp = n - 1$ , there are exactly  $\left(\frac{q^{n-1} - 1}{q - 1}\right)$  elements  $x \in J$  such that  $v \in \alpha(x)$ . Hence  $(J, \alpha)$  is the claimed  $\left(\frac{q^{n-1} - 1}{q - 1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$  of type  $\left[\left(\frac{q^n - 1}{q - 1}\right), n - 1\right]$ . Indeed,  $(J, \alpha)$  is just the  $q$ -Grassmanian  $G(n, n - 1)$  mentioned in our introduction.

Given a  $\lambda'$ -partition of  $V$ , we use Proposition 14 as a first step in accomplishing our goal of defining a  $\lambda$ -partition that is dual to the initial  $\lambda'$ -partition. We will then create such a dual through a series of reductions starting from the above example.

**Proposition 14** *Let  $U \subseteq V = V_n(q)$  be a subspace of dimension  $r$ . Let  $Q \subseteq U$  consist of one nonzero vector representative for each one-dimensional subspace of  $U$ . (So for each  $0 \neq u \in U$  there exists  $x \in Q$  such that  $\mathbb{F}_q u = \mathbb{F}_q x$ ; and for any  $x, y \in Q$ , if  $\mathbb{F}_q x = \mathbb{F}_q y$ , then  $x = y$ .) Then the following hold:*

1. If  $r = \dim(U) \geq 2$ , then  $\bigcup_{x \in Q} x^\perp = V$ .
2. If  $w \in U^\perp$ , then the set  $\{x \in Q : w \in x^\perp\}$  has order  $\frac{q^r - 1}{q - 1}$ .
3. If  $w \notin U^\perp$ , then the set  $\{x \in Q : w \in x^\perp\}$  has order  $\frac{q^{r-1} - 1}{q - 1}$ .

*Proof.* Choose  $x_1, \dots, x_r \in Q$  so that  $\{x_1, \dots, x_r\}$  is a basis of  $U$ . Let  $0 \neq v \in V$  and for each  $1 \leq i \leq r$  define  $\gamma_i = \langle x_i, v \rangle$ . If  $\gamma_j = 0$  for any  $j$ , then  $v \in x_j^\perp \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^r x_i^\perp$ . If  $\gamma_j \neq 0$  for all  $j$ , then the vector

$$y = \left( \sum_{i=2}^r \gamma_i \right) x_1 - \gamma_1 \left( \sum_{i=2}^r x_i \right) \in U \setminus \{0\}$$

satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y, v \rangle &= \left( \sum_{i=2}^r \gamma_i \right) \langle x_1, v \rangle - \gamma_1 \left( \sum_{i=2}^r \langle x_i, v \rangle \right) \\ &= \left( \sum_{i=2}^r \gamma_i \right) \gamma_1 - \gamma_1 \left( \sum_{i=2}^r \gamma_i \right) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

So  $v \in y^\perp$ . Since  $y \neq 0$ , there exists  $z \in Q$  such that  $\mathbb{F}_q y = \mathbb{F}_q z$ . Therefore,  $v \in z^\perp \subseteq \bigcup_{x \in Q} x^\perp$ . So we have established that  $\bigcup_{x \in Q} x^\perp = V$ .

Next, since  $Q \subseteq U$ , for every  $x \in Q$  we have  $U^\perp \subseteq x^\perp$ ; so for any  $w \in U^\perp$ , the set  $\{x \in Q : w \in x^\perp\} = Q$ , hence has order  $\frac{q^r - 1}{q - 1}$  as claimed.

Finally, if  $w \notin U^\perp$ , then for any  $x \in Q \subseteq U$  we have  $w \in x^\perp \Leftrightarrow x \in w^\perp \cap U$ . But  $\dim(w^\perp \cap U) = r - 1$  since  $\dim w^\perp = n - 1$  and  $U \not\subseteq w^\perp$ . Hence, there are exactly  $\frac{q^{r-1} - 1}{q - 1}$  one-dimensional subspaces of  $w^\perp \cap U$ . So it follows that the order of the set  $\{x \in Q : w \in x^\perp\}$  is  $\frac{q^{r-1} - 1}{q - 1}$ .  $\blacksquare$

We can use the above observations to make a ‘‘reduction’’ in the  $\lambda$ -partition  $\mathcal{P}$  given in Example 3. In particular, based on the above proposition, if we are given an  $r$ -dimensional subspace  $U \subseteq V$ , we can reduce  $\lambda$  by  $\frac{q^{r-1} - 1}{q - 1}$  by eliminating  $\frac{q^r - 1}{q - 1}$  subspaces of dimension  $n - 1$  (corresponding to the  $x \in J \cap U$ , where  $J$  is the set defined in Example 3) and replacing them with  $\left( \frac{q^r - 1}{q - 1} \right) - \left( \frac{q^{r-1} - 1}{q - 1} \right) = q^{r-1}$  copies of the  $(n - r)$ -dimensional subspace  $U^\perp$ .

Using the technique described above, given a  $\lambda'$ -partition  $(A, \alpha)$  of  $V$ , if we naively try to define  $\alpha^\perp : A \rightarrow 2^V$  by  $\alpha^\perp(a) = (\alpha(a))^\perp$  for all  $a \in A$ , we will not in general get a  $\lambda''$ -partition for some  $\lambda''$ . Proposition 14 suggests a minor modification to this strategy to create such a  $\lambda''$ -partition. We first demonstrate this technique through an example.

#### Example 4

Let  $V = V_6(2)$ . For convenience, we can view the vectors of  $V_6(2)$  as a binary representation of an integer and then convert this to decimal form to represent this vector. Hence we use decimal notation to represent the nonzero vectors in  $V_6(2)$  in this example. For example, the vector  $(1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1)$  would be represented by  $1 \cdot 2^5 + 1 \cdot 2^4 + 0 \cdot 2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 53$ .

Now consider the following subspaces of  $V_6(2)$ , where we give only the nonzero vectors in each subspace:

$$U_1 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}, U_2 = \{8, 16, 24, 32, 40, 48, 56\},$$

$U_3 = \{9, 18, 36, 27, 54, 63, 45\}$ ,  $U_4 = \{20, 35, 30, 55, 61, 41, 10\}$ ,  
 $U_5 = \{38, 31, 53, 57, 42, 12, 19\}$ ,  $U_6 = \{29, 49, 58, 44, 11, 22, 39\}$ ,  
 $U_7 = \{28, 46, 50\}$ ,  $U_8 = \{15, 51, 60\}$ ,  $U_9 = \{21, 43, 62\}$ ,  $U_{10} = \{14, 33, 47\}$ ,  
 $U_{11} = \{13, 23, 26\}$ ,  $U_{12} = \{17, 37, 52\}$ ,  $U_{13} = \{25, 34, 59\}$ .  
Then  $\{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_{13}\}$  is a 1-partition of  $V_6(2)$  of type  $[(6, 3), (7, 2)]$ .

Next, we consider the following subspaces (again we only indicate the nonzero vectors in each subspace), where we use the standard dot product to define  $S^\perp$  for any subset  $S \subseteq V_6(2)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
U_1^\perp &= \{8, 16, 24, 32, 40, 48, 56\}, & U_2^\perp &= \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}, \\
U_3^\perp &= \{9, 18, 36, 27, 54, 63, 45\}, & U_4^\perp &= \{11, 20, 31, 33, 42, 53, 62\}, \\
U_5^\perp &= \{15, 17, 30, 35, 44, 50, 61\}, & U_6^\perp &= \{14, 19, 29, 39, 41, 52, 58\}, \\
U_7^\perp &= \{1, 12, 13, 22, 23, 26, 27, 34, 35, 46, 47, 52, 53, 56, 57\}, \\
U_8^\perp &= \{3, 12, 15, 21, 22, 25, 26, 37, 38, 41, 42, 48, 51, 60, 63\}, \\
U_9^\perp &= \{7, 10, 13, 19, 20, 25, 30, 34, 37, 40, 47, 49, 54, 59, 60\}, \\
U_{10}^\perp &= \{6, 10, 12, 16, 22, 26, 28, 33, 39, 43, 45, 49, 55, 59, 61\}, \\
U_{11}^\perp &= \{5, 11, 14, 18, 23, 25, 28, 32, 37, 43, 46, 50, 55, 57, 60\}, \\
U_{12}^\perp &= \{2, 8, 10, 21, 23, 29, 31, 36, 38, 44, 46, 49, 51, 57, 59\}, \\
U_{13}^\perp &= \{4, 9, 13, 17, 21, 24, 28, 34, 38, 43, 47, 51, 55, 58, 62\}.
\end{aligned}$$

It is straightforward to check that  $\{U_7^\perp, U_8^\perp, \dots, U_{13}^\perp, 2U_1^\perp, 2U_2^\perp, \dots, 2U_6^\perp\}$  is a 3-partition of  $V_6(2)$  of type  $[(7, 4), (12, 3)]$ , where we use  $2U_j^\perp$  to denote two copies of  $U_j^\perp$ . Note that here we needed two copies of the  $U_j^\perp$  of smallest dimension in order to make this a 3-partition.

Moreover, if we repeat this procedure for this new 3-partition (doubling  $U_i = (U_i^\perp)^\perp$  for  $7 \leq i \leq 13$ ), we get a 2-partition of type  $[(12, 3), (14, 2)]$ , which consists of two copies of the original 1-partition  $\{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_{13}\}$ , hence has multiplicity 2.

Theorem 15 takes into account the multiplicities that can occur and uses Lemma 12 to give us a range of possible candidates for a dual partition. We then identify the candidate with the same multiplicity as the original  $\lambda'$ -partition to be the dual partition.

Before stating Theorem 15, we will need to introduce the concept of  $d$ -multiplicity. Given a  $\lambda'$ -partition  $\mathcal{P} = (Y, \omega)$  of  $V$ , let  $D = \{\dim \omega(y) : y \in Y\}$ . For each  $d \in D$  define the  $d$ -multiplicity  $\mu_d$  of  $\mathcal{P}$  to be the greatest common divisor of the set  $\{|\omega^{-1}(\omega(y))| : y \in Y \text{ and } \dim \omega(y) = d\}$ . (If  $d \notin D$ , we can define  $\mu_d$  to be 0.) It follows from the definitions that the multiplicity of  $\mathcal{P}$  is the greatest common divisor of  $\{\mu_d : d \in D\}$ .

**Theorem 15** *Let  $\mathcal{P} = (Y, \omega)$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V = V_n(q)$  of type  $[(a_k, k), (a_{k-1}, k-1), \dots, (a_{s+1}, s+1), (a_s, s)]$ , where  $a_k a_s \neq 0$ . For each  $s \leq d \leq k$ , let  $\mu_d$  denote the  $d$ -multiplicity of  $\mathcal{P}$ . Then for every  $\ell \geq 1$  such that  $\ell$  is a common divisor of the set  $\{\mu_k q^k, \mu_{k-1} q^{k-1}, \dots, \mu_s q^s\}$ , there exists a  $\lambda_\ell$ -partition  $\mathcal{P}^{(\ell)} = (C_\ell, \gamma_\ell)$  of  $V$  such that:*

1.  $\lambda_\ell = \frac{1}{\ell} \left[ \left( \sum_{i=s}^k a_i \right) - \lambda \right] = \frac{1}{\ell} (|Y| - \lambda)$ .

2.  $\mathcal{P}^{(\ell)}$  is of type

$$\left[ \left( \frac{a_s q^s}{\ell}, n - s \right), \left( \frac{a_{s+1} q^{s+1}}{\ell}, n - s - 1 \right), \dots, \left( \frac{a_k q^k}{\ell}, n - k \right) \right].$$

3.  $\{\gamma_\ell(c) : c \in C_\ell\} = \{\omega(y)^\perp : y \in Y\}$  as sets.
4.  $|\gamma_\ell^{-1}(\omega(y)^\perp)| = \frac{q^{r_y}}{\ell} |\omega^{-1}(\omega(y))|$  where  $r_y = \dim \omega(y)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $(J, \alpha)$  be the  $\left(\frac{q^{n-1}-1}{q-1}\right)$ -partition of  $(n-1)$ -dimensional subspaces of  $V$  defined in Example 3, where  $\alpha(x) = x^\perp$  for all  $x \in J$ . Let  $(Y, \omega)$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V$  of type  $[(a_k, k), \dots, (a_s, s)]$ , where  $a_k a_s \neq 0$  and  $m = \sum_{i=s}^k a_i$  is the size of  $(Y, \omega)$ . For each  $y \in Y$ , let  $r_y = \dim(\omega(y))$ .

Next, consider the Cartesian product  $J \times Y$  and the canonical projection  $\pi : J \times Y \rightarrow J$  onto  $J$  defined by  $\pi(x, y) = x$  for all  $(x, y) \in J \times Y$ . Define

$$A = \{(x, y) \mid y \in Y, x \in \omega(y)\} \subseteq J \times Y.$$

We claim that  $(A, \alpha\pi)$  is a  $\lambda \left(\frac{q^{n-1}-1}{q-1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$ . Clearly  $\alpha\pi(x, y) = \alpha(x) = x^\perp$  is a subspace for all  $(x, y) \in A$ . Let  $0 \neq v \in V$ . Then

$$v \in \alpha\pi(x, y) \Leftrightarrow v \in x^\perp \text{ and } x \in \omega(y) \Leftrightarrow x \in v^\perp \cap \omega(y).$$

So

$$|\{(x, y) \in A : v \in \alpha\pi(x, y)\}| = \sum_{y \in Y} \frac{1}{q-1} |v^\perp \cap \omega(y)| = \lambda \left(\frac{q^{n-1}-1}{q-1}\right),$$

where the last equality follows because  $(Y_W, \omega_W)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $W = v^\perp$  by Lemma 1.

Now, for each  $y \in Y$ , let  $A_y = \{(x, y) \in A : x \in \omega(y)\}$ , and define  $\alpha_y : A_y \rightarrow 2^V$  to be the restriction of  $\alpha\pi$  to  $A_y$ . Then  $(A, \alpha\pi) = \left(\bigcup_{y \in Y} A_y, \bigcup_{y \in Y} \alpha_y\right)$ . For each  $y \in Y$ , choose a subset  $B_y \subseteq A_y$  of cardinality  $q^{r_y-1}$ , let  $B = \bigcup_{y \in Y} B_y$ , and define a function  $\beta : A \rightarrow 2^V$  by

$$\beta(x, y) = \begin{cases} \omega(y)^\perp & \text{if } (x, y) \in B \\ V & \text{if } (x, y) \in A \setminus B \end{cases}$$

for all  $(x, y) \in A$ .

We claim that  $(A, \beta)$  is a  $\lambda \left(\frac{q^{n-1}-1}{q-1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$ .

*Proof of Claim:* It is clear that  $\beta(x, y)$  is a subspace of  $V$  for all  $(x, y) \in A$ . Next, for any  $0 \neq v \in V$ , we let  $S_v = \{(x, y) \in A : v \in \alpha\pi(x, y)\}$  and  $T_v = \{(x, y) \in A : v \in \beta(x, y)\}$ . We prove that  $|T_v| = |S_v|$  and we know  $|S_v|$  has the required cardinality since  $(A, \alpha\pi)$  is a  $\lambda \left(\frac{q^{n-1}-1}{q-1}\right)$ -partition of  $V$ .

Note that since  $A$  is the disjoint union of the  $A_y$  for  $y \in Y$ , it suffices to show that  $|T_v \cap A_y| = |S_v \cap A_y|$  for all  $y \in Y$ . So fix  $y \in Y$ . If  $v \in \omega(y)^\perp$ , then  $A_y \cap T_v = A_y = A_y \cap S_v$ , where the last equality follows from Proposition 14(2). If  $v \notin \omega(y)^\perp$ , then  $|A_y \cap T_v| = |A_y| - |B_y| = \frac{q^{r_y-1}-1}{q-1}$  and, it follows from Proposition 14(3) that  $|A_y \cap T_v| = |A_y \cap S_v|$ . Therefore, our claim is established.

Now consider the pair  $(B, \beta_0)$ , where  $\beta_0$  is the restriction of  $\beta$  to  $B$ . By definition, it follows that  $\{\beta_0(x, y) : (x, y) \in B\} = \{\omega(y)^\perp : y \in Y\}$  as sets. Furthermore,  $(B, \beta_0)$  is also a  $\lambda_0$ -partition of  $V$  for some  $\lambda_0$  since for all  $(x, y) \in A \setminus B$ ,  $\beta(x, y) = V$ . We can compute  $\lambda_0$  as follows.

$$\lambda_0 = \lambda \left( \frac{q^{n-1} - 1}{q - 1} \right) - \sum_{y \in Y} \left( \frac{q^{r_y - 1} - 1}{q - 1} \right) = \lambda \left( \frac{q^{n-1} - 1}{q - 1} \right) - \sum_{i=s}^k a_i \left( \frac{q^{i-1} - 1}{q - 1} \right).$$

But, since  $(Y, \omega)$  is a  $\lambda$ -partition, we know

$$\sum_{i=s}^k a_i (q^i - 1) = \lambda (q^n - 1) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lambda q^{n-1} - \left( \sum_{i=s}^k a_i q^{i-1} \right) = \frac{1}{q} \left( \lambda - \left( \sum_{i=s}^k a_i \right) \right).$$

Hence we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_0 &= \frac{1}{q-1} \left[ \left( \lambda q^{n-1} - \sum_{i=s}^k a_i q^{i-1} \right) - \left( \lambda - \sum_{i=s}^k a_i \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{q-1} \left[ \frac{1}{q} \left( \lambda - \sum_{i=s}^k a_i \right) - \left( \lambda - \sum_{i=s}^k a_i \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{q-1} \left( \frac{1-q}{q} \right) \left( \lambda - \sum_{i=s}^k a_i \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{q} \left[ \left( \sum_{i=s}^k a_i \right) - \lambda \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{q} (|Y| - \lambda). \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore,  $(B, \beta_0)$  is of type

$$\left[ (a_s q^{s-1}, n-s), (a_{s+1} q^s, n-s-1), \dots, (a_k q^{k-1}, n-k) \right].$$

Because  $\beta_0$  is constant when restricted to  $B_y = A_y \cap B$ , in  $(B, \beta_0)$  we have  $|\beta_0^{-1}(\omega(y)^\perp)| = |\beta_0^{-1}(\beta_0(x, y))| = |B_y| |\omega^{-1}(\omega(y))| = q^{r_y - 1} |\omega^{-1}(\omega(y))|$ , where  $(x, y) \in B$ . Therefore, for any  $s \leq d \leq k$ , the  $(n-d)$ -multiplicity of  $(B, \beta_0)$  is  $\mu_d q^{d-1}$ . Hence the multiplicity of  $(B, \beta_0)$  is the greatest common divisor  $g$  of the set  $\{\mu_s q^{s-1}, \mu_{s-1} q^{s-1}, \dots, \mu_k q^{k-1}\}$ . So by Lemma 12, there exists a  $\lambda'$ -subpartition  $(C, \gamma)$  of  $(B, \beta_0)$  of multiplicity 1 of type

$$\left[ \left( \frac{a_s q^s}{qg}, n-s \right), \left( \frac{a_{s+1} q^{s+1}}{qg}, n-s-1 \right), \dots, \left( \frac{a_k q^k}{qg}, n-k \right) \right],$$

where

$$\lambda' = \frac{\lambda_0}{g} = \frac{1}{qg} (|Y| - \lambda).$$

Furthermore, for every  $(x, y) \in B$ , there exists a  $c \in C$  such that  $\gamma(c) = \beta_0(x, y) = \omega(y)^\perp$ .

Finally, to get the partition  $\mathcal{P}^{(\ell)} = (C_\ell, \gamma_\ell)$ , we take the  $(gq)/\ell$  multiple of  $(C, \gamma)$  as described in Lemma 12 and the discussion immediately preceding it. Then  $\mathcal{P}^{(\ell)}$  satisfies the conclusion of the

theorem. ■

Given a  $\lambda'$ -partition  $\mathcal{P}$  of  $V$ , in Theorem 15 there is a smallest partition  $\mathcal{P}^{\min}$  of multiplicity 1 that occurs when  $\ell$  is maximized.

**Definition 2** Let  $\mathcal{P} = (Y, \omega)$  be a  $\lambda'$ -partition of a vector space  $V$  of multiplicity  $m$ . The dual  $\lambda$ -partition  $\mathcal{P}^*$  of  $\mathcal{P}$  is the  $\lambda$ -partition of multiplicity  $m$  given by  $m\mathcal{P}^{\min}$ .

It follows from the definition of  $\mathcal{P}^*$  that  $(m\mathcal{P})^* = m(\mathcal{P}^*)$  for any  $m \geq 1$ .

**Corollary 16** Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a  $\lambda$ -partition. Then  $(\mathcal{P}^*)^* = \mathcal{P}$ .

*Proof.* Note that since for any  $\lambda$ -partition we have  $(m\mathcal{P})^* = m(\mathcal{P}^*)$ , it suffices to assume the multiplicity of  $\mathcal{P}$  is 1.

Let  $\mathcal{P} = (Y, \omega)$  be a partition of multiplicity 1 of type  $[(a_k, k), \dots, (a_s, s)]$ , where  $a_k a_s \neq 0$ . Let  $\mu_d$  denote the  $d$ -multiplicity of  $\mathcal{P}$  for all  $s \leq d \leq k$ . Furthermore, let  $\mathcal{P}^* = (C, \gamma)$  and  $(\mathcal{P}^*)^* = (Z, \xi)$ . Then it follows from Theorem 15(3) that

$$\{\xi(z) : z \in Z\} = \{\gamma(c)^\perp : c \in C\} = \left\{ \left( \omega(y)^\perp \right)^\perp : y \in Y \right\} = \{\omega(y) : y \in Y\}.$$

Let  $y \in Y$  and  $z \in Z$  such that  $\xi(z) = \omega(y)$ . It suffices to show  $|\xi^{-1}(\xi(z))| = |\omega^{-1}(\omega(y))|$ . Let  $c \in C$  be such that  $\gamma(c)^\perp = \omega(y) = \xi(z)$ . By Theorem 15(4) it follows that the  $d$ -multiplicity of  $\mathcal{P}^*$  is  $(\mu_{n-d} q^{n-d})/g$  for  $n-k \leq d \leq n-s$ , so

$$|\xi^{-1}(\xi(z))| = \frac{q^{n-r_y}}{g'} |\gamma^{-1}(\omega(y)^\perp)| = \frac{q^{r_y} q^{n-r_y}}{g' g} |\omega^{-1}(\omega(y))|$$

where  $r_y = \dim \omega(y)$ ,  $g$  is the gcd of  $\{\mu_k q^k, \mu_{k-1} q^{k-1}, \dots, \mu_s q^s\}$ , and  $g'$  is the gcd of the set

$$\left\{ \frac{\mu_s q^s}{g} q^{n-s}, \frac{\mu_{s-1} q^{s-1}}{g} q^{n-s+1}, \dots, \frac{\mu_k q^k}{g} q^{n-k} \right\}.$$

Therefore,  $g'g$  is the gcd of the set  $\{\mu_k q^n, \mu_{k-1} q^n, \dots, \mu_s q^n\}$ , hence  $g'g = q^n$  since we assumed the multiplicity of  $\mathcal{P}$  was 1. So it follows that  $|\xi^{-1}(\xi(z))| = |\omega^{-1}(\omega(y))|$ , hence  $(\mathcal{P}^*)^* = \mathcal{P}$ , as claimed. ■

Many of the  $\lambda$ -partition types that we have discussed above seem realizable to be duals of 1-partitions. An example of a minimal  $\lambda$ -partition that is not the dual of a 1-partition is the 7-partition of  $V_8(2)$  of type  $3^{255}$ . In order for this to have been a dual partition of a 1-partition, we would need a 1-partition of  $V_8(2)$  of type  $5^{255}$ , which is clearly impossible.

## 4 $\lambda$ -partitions and Designs Over Finite Fields

A number of well-studied mathematical structures arise from certain partitions of finite vector spaces. For example, if  $\mathcal{P}$  is the set of all subspaces of  $V_n(q)$  (which is a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V_n(q)$ ),



then the set of all cosets of the elements of  $\mathcal{P}$ , denoted by  $AG(n, q)$ , is what is known as the *affine geometry of dimension  $n$  over  $\mathbb{F}_q$*  (see [2]). Similarly, the set of all subspaces of  $V_{n+1}(q)$ , denoted by  $PG(n, q)$ , is the *projective geometry of dimension  $n$  over  $\mathbb{F}_q$* . Other designs arise similarly either from taking cosets of subspaces in a partition or from taking the subspaces themselves as blocks in the design. We will first define these terms.

A *design* is a pair  $(X, \mathcal{A})$ , where  $X$  is a set of elements called *points*, and  $\mathcal{A}$  is a collection of nonempty subsets of  $X$  called *blocks*. Suppose  $v \geq 2$ ,  $\lambda \geq 1$ , and  $L \subseteq \{n \in \mathbb{Z} : n \geq 2\}$ . A  $(v, L, \lambda)$ -*pairwise balanced design* (abbreviated  $(v, L, \lambda)$ -PBD) is a design  $(X, \mathcal{A})$  where: (1)  $|X| = v$ , (2)  $|A| \in L$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ , and (3) every pair of distinct points is contained in exactly  $\lambda$  blocks. It is easy to see that a  $(v, L, \lambda)$ -PBD is equivalent to a decomposition of the  $\lambda$ -fold complete multigraph  ${}^\lambda K_v$  into complete subgraphs with orders in  $L$ . A  $(v, \{k\}, \lambda)$ -PBD is better known as a *balanced incomplete block design* and is denoted by  $(v, k, \lambda)$ -BIBD.

Suppose  $(X, \mathcal{A})$  is a  $(v, L, \lambda)$ -PBD. A *parallel class* in  $(X, \mathcal{A})$  is a subset of disjoint blocks from  $\mathcal{A}$  whose union is  $X$ . A partition of  $\mathcal{A}$  into  $r$  parallel classes is called a *resolution*, and  $(X, \mathcal{A})$  is said to be a *resolvable* PBD if  $\mathcal{A}$  has at least one resolution.

A parallel class in a  $(v, L, \lambda)$ -PBD is *uniform* if every block in the parallel class is of the same size. Let  $L = \{\ell_1, \ell_2, \dots, \ell_r\}$  be an ordered set of integers  $\geq 2$  and let  $R = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_r\}$  be an ordered multiset of positive integers. A *uniformly resolvable design*, denoted  $(v, L, \lambda, R)$ -URD, is a resolvable  $(v, L, \lambda)$ -PBD with  $t_i$  parallel classes with blocks of size  $\ell_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq r$ . It is easy to see that a  $(v, \{\ell_1, \dots, \ell_r\}, \lambda, \{t_1, \dots, t_r\})$ -URD is equivalent to a factorization of  ${}^\lambda K_v$  into  $t_i$   $K_{\ell_i}$ -factors for  $1 \leq i \leq r$ . For some of the necessary conditions for the existence of URDs, we direct the reader to [7] and the references therein.

If  $W$  is a subset of  $V_n(q)$ , we denote the complete graph with vertices labeled with elements of  $W$  by  $K(W)$ . If  $W$  and  $X$  are subsets of  $V_n(q)$  with  $0 \notin X$ , we define  $G(W, X)$  to be the subgraph of  $K(V_n(q))$  with edge set  $\{\{w, w+x\} : w \in W, x \in X\}$ . It is easy to see that if  $X$  is a subspace of  $V_n(q)$  of dimension  $n_i$ , then  $G(V_n(q), X \setminus \{0\})$  is a  $K_{q^{n_i}}$ -factor of  $K_{q^n}$ . Moreover, if  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are disjoint subspaces, then the factors they induce are also disjoint. Thus a  $\lambda$ -partition  $\mathcal{P}$  of  $V_n(q)$  of type  $[(t_1, n_1), \dots, (t_k, n_k)]$  induces a factorization of  ${}^\lambda K_{q^n}$  into  $t_i$   $K_{q^{n_i}}$ -factors for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . Equivalently, if we let  $\mathcal{A}$  denote the subspaces in  $\mathcal{P}$ , along with all their cosets, then,  $(V_n(q), \mathcal{A})$  is a  $(q^n, \{q^{n_1}, \dots, q^{n_k}\}, \lambda, \{t_1, \dots, t_k\})$ -URD. Thus we have the following result on URDs as a corollary to Corollary 11.

**Corollary 17** *Let  $1 < r \leq n$ ,  $1 \leq s \leq n$  where  $r \neq s$  and let  $q$  be a prime power. Then there exists a  $(q^n, \{q^r, q^s\}, \frac{q^s-1}{q-1}, \{\frac{q^s-1}{q-1}, \frac{q^n-q^r}{q-1}\})$ -URD.*

Similarly, we have the following result on resolvable designs as a corollary to Proposition 7.

**Corollary 18** *Let  $q$  be a prime power and let  $k, n$  be positive integers with  $k \leq n$ . Let  $r = \gcd(k, n)$ . Then there exists a resolvable  $\left(q^n, q^k, \frac{q^k-1}{q^r-1}\right)$ -BIBD.*

Another related area with potential applications for  $\lambda$ -partitions with additional properties is the area of designs over finite fields (see [4], for example). A  $t$ - $(n, k, \lambda^*; q)$  *design* is a collection  $\mathcal{B}$  of  $k$ -dimensional subspaces of an  $n$ -dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{F}_q$  with the property that any  $t$ -dimensional subspace is contained in exactly  $\lambda^*$  members of  $\mathcal{B}$ . It is also called a *design over a finite field* or a  $q$ -*analog of  $t$ - $(n, k, \lambda)$  design*. The collection  $\mathcal{B}$  is necessarily a  $\lambda$ -partition of  $V_n(q)$ .

The first nontrivial example for  $t \geq 2$  was given by S. Thomas [13]. Namely, he constructed a series of  $2$ - $(n, 3, 7; 2)$  designs for all  $n \geq 7$  satisfying  $(n, 6) = 1$ .

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