Quantum determinants

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Plan

1 Introduction

- 2 Braidings and symmetries
- 3 Quantum determinants in RTT and RE algebras
- 4 Determinants in Generalized Yangians
- 5 Characteristic polynomials
- 6 Determinants and quasideterminants

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Let V be a vector space over the field \mathbb{C} and P be the usual flip acting in $V^{\otimes 2}$ or its matrix. Also, let $M = (m_i^j)$ be a numerical $N \times N$ matrix. Consider the system

$$P M_1 M_2 - M_1 M_2 P = 0, \ M_1 = M \otimes I, \ M_2 = I \otimes M.$$

Note that $M_2 = P M_1 P$ and consequently, this system can be cast under the form

$$P M_1 P M_1 - M_1 P M_1 P = 0.$$

This system written via the entries reads

$$m_i^j m_k^l = m_k^l m_i^j, \ \forall i, j, k, l,$$

i.e. the entries commute with each other. < => <중> < 돌> < 돌> 로 - ᠀<< Dmitry Gurevich Valenciennes University (with Pavel Saponc Quantum determinants

Introduction

Braidings and symmetries Quantum determinants in RTT and RE algebras Determinants in Generalized Yangians Characteristic polynomials Determinants and quasideterminants

Example
$$N = 2$$
:

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \ M = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix},$$
$$M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & a & 0 & b \\ c & 0 & d & 0 \\ 0 & c & 0 & d \end{pmatrix}, \ M_2 = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & 0 & 0 \\ c & d & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a & b \\ 0 & 0 & c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

The corresponding system reads

$$ab = ba, ac = ca, ...$$

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Let us introduce some symmetric polynomials of M (namely, elementary ones and power sums)

$$\det(M - t I) = \sum_{0}^{N} (-t)^{N-k} e_k(M), \ p_k(M) = Tr M^k.$$

If M is a triangular matrix these elements are respectively elementary symmetric polynomials and power sums in the eigenvalues μ_i of M. Namely, we have

$$e_k = \sum_{i_1 < ... < i_k} \mu_{i_1} ... \mu_{i_k}, \ p_k(M) = \sum \mu_i^k.$$

Also, note that these symmetric polynomials of M are related by the Newton identities

$$k e_k - p_1 e_{k-1} + p_2 e_{k-2} + \dots + (-1)^k p_k e_0 = 0.$$

Together with the initial system $P M_1 P M_1 - M_1 P M_1 P = 0$ consider its inhomogeneous analog

$$P M_1 P M_1 - M_1 P M_1 P = P M_1 - M_1 P.$$

In terms of the entries we have the relations

$$m_i^j m_k^l - m_k^l m_i^j = m_i^l \delta_k^j - m_k^j \delta_i^l,$$

which define the enveloping algebra U(gl(N)).

Note that if in the homogeneous (inhomogeneous) system we replace P by the super-flip $P_{m|n}$, we get the defining relations of the super-commutative algebra Sym(gl(m|n)) (resp., the enveloping algebra U(gl(m|n))).

Now, deform $P \rightarrow R$ in the corresponding systems-homogeneous and not. And do the same with the super-flip $P_{m|n}$. Namely, take R as follows (here N = 2, m = n = 1)

$$\left(egin{array}{ccccc} q & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & q-q^{-1} & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & q \end{array}
ight), \left(egin{array}{ccccc} q & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & q-q^{-1} & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & -q^{-1} \end{array}
ight)$$

Note that for $q \to 1$ we respectively recover the flip P and the super-flip $P_{1|1}.$

There exist two ways of deforming the system $P M_1 P M_1 - M_1 P M_1 P = 0$ and its inhomogeneous analog. If we deform P into R everywhere we get

 $R M_1 R M_1 - M_1 R M_1 R = 0.$

 $R M_1 R M_1 - M_1 R M_1 R = R M_1 - M_1 R.$

The first one will be called Reflection Equation (RE) algebra. The second one-modified RE algebra.

If we only deform P on the outside positions, we get

 $R M_1 M_2 - M_1 M_2 R = 0.$

This algebra is called RTT algebra (or Leningrad one).

Note that all these algebras make sense for some other braidings R_{\cdot}

We call an invertible linear operator $R: V^{\otimes 2} \to V^{\otimes 2}$ braiding if it satisfies the so-called braid relation

$$R_{12} R_{23} R_{12} = R_{23} R_{12} R_{23}, \quad R_{12} = R \otimes I, \ R_{23} = I \otimes R.$$

Then the operator $\mathcal{R} = R P$ where P is the usual flip is subject to the QYBE

$$\mathcal{R}_{12} \, \mathcal{R}_{13} \, \mathcal{R}_{23} = \mathcal{R}_{23} \, \mathcal{R}_{13} \, \mathcal{R}_{12}.$$

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A braiding *R* is called *involutive symmetry* if $R^2 = I$. A braiding is called *Hecke symmetry* if it is subject to the Hecke condition

$$(q \ I - R)(q^{-1} \ I + R) = 0, \ q \in \mathbb{C}, \ q \neq 0, \ q \neq \pm 1.$$

In particular, such a symmetry comes from the QG $U_q(sl(N))$. For N = 2 it is just the example above.

We assume q to be generic. This means that $k_q \neq 0$ for any integer k.

In order to classify Hecke symmetries, consider "R-symmetric" and "R-skew-symmetric" algebras

$$Sym_R(V) = T(V)/\langle Im(qI-R) \rangle, \ \bigwedge_R(V) = T(V)/\langle Im(q^{-1}I+R) \rangle,$$

where T(V) is the free tensor algebra. Also, consider the corresponding Poincaré-Hilbert series

$$P_+(t) = \sum_k \dim \operatorname{Sym}_R^{(k)}(V)t^k, \ P_-(t) = \sum_k \dim \bigwedge_R^{(k)}(V)t^k,$$

where the upper index (k) labels homogenous components of these quadratic algebras.

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If R is involutive, we put q = 1 in these formulae.

Example

Let us compare two symmetries. The first one is Hecke coming from $U_q(sl(2))$, the second one is involutive:

$$\left(egin{array}{cccc} q & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & q - q^{-1} & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & q & q \end{array}
ight), \ \left(egin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & q & 0 \ 0 & q^{-1} & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array}
ight)$$

For the first (resp., second) symmetry we have

$$Sym_R = T(V) / \langle xy - qyx \rangle, \bigwedge_R = T(V) / \langle x^2, y^2, qxy + yx \rangle.$$

$$Sym_R = T(V) / \langle xy - qyx \rangle,$$
 $N_R = T(V) / \langle x^2, y^2, xy + qyx \rangle.$

Observe that the algebras $S_{VM_R}(V)$ are similar, but $\Lambda_{D}(V)$ are not. Dritry Gurevich Valenciennes University (with Pavel Sapone Quantum determinants

The following holds $P_{-}(-t)P_{+}(t) = 1$. Also, the both series are rational functions. Thus,

$$P_{-}(t) = \frac{N(t)}{D(t)}$$

We call the couple (r|s), where r is the degree of N(t) and s is the degree of D(t) the *bi-rank*. It plays the role of the super-dimension (m|n) while R is a super-flip.

Let us present any braiding R in a basis $\{x_i\} \in V$:

$$R(x_i\otimes x_j)=R_{ij}^{kl}x_k\otimes x_l.$$

We say that a braiding R is *skew-invertible* if there exists an operator $\Psi: V^{\otimes 2} \to V^{\otimes 2}$ such that

$$\mathrm{Tr}_2 R_{12} \Psi_{23} = P_{13} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad R_{ij}^{kl} \Psi_{lp}^{jq} = \delta_i^q \delta_p^k,$$

Below, we assume all braidings to be skew-invertible.

For any such braiding R there exist two operators B and C such that

$$BC = \alpha I$$

and C is involved in defining the R-trace

$$Tr_R A = Tr C A$$

for any $N \times N$ matrix A and $B = (B_i^j)$ is involved in the pairing

$$\langle x^j, x_i \rangle = B^j_i$$

where $\{x^j\}$ is the right dual basis of the dual space V^* :

$$\langle x_i, x^j \rangle = \delta_i^j.$$

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Now, let R be a skew-invertible involutive or Hecke symmetry of bi-rank (m|0) (in this case R is called *even*). Then the homogenous component

 $\bigwedge_{P}^{(m)}(V)$

$$\mathfrak{u} = \|u_{i_1\dots i_m}\| \quad \text{and} \quad \mathfrak{v} = \|v^{j_1\dots j_m}\|,$$

such that the projector of skew-symmetrization

$$A^{(m)}: V^{\otimes m} o igwedge^{(m)}_R(V)$$

can be cast as follows

$$\begin{aligned} A^{(m)}(x_{i_1} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{i_m}) &= u_{i_1 \ldots i_m} \, v^{j_1 \ldots j_m} x_{j_1} \otimes \ldots \otimes x_{j_m}, \\ \langle \mathfrak{v}, \mathfrak{u} \rangle &:= v^{i_1 \ldots i_m} \, u_{i_1 \ldots i_m} = \underbrace{1}_{\ldots} \\ &= \underbrace{1}_{\ldots} \\ &$$

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Definition

In the RTT algebra the element

$$\det_{RTT}(L) := \langle \mathfrak{v} | L_1 \dots L_m | \mathfrak{u} \rangle := v^{i_1 \dots i_m} \left(L_1 \dots L_m \right)_{i_1 \dots i_m}^{j_1 \dots j_m} u_{j_1 \dots j_m}, \quad (1)$$

is called quantum determinant of the generating matrix L.

In the RE algebra the formula is similar but all indices are overlined

$$\det_{RE}(L) := \langle \mathfrak{v} | L_{\overline{1}} ... L_{\overline{m}} | \mathfrak{u} \rangle := v^{i_1 ... i_m} (L_{\overline{1}} ... L_{\overline{m}})^{j_1 ... j_m}_{i_1 ... i_m} u_{j_1 ... j_m}, \quad (2)$$

We use the following notions

$$L_{\overline{2}} = R_{12} L_1 R_{12}^{-1}, \quad L_{\overline{3}} = R_{23} L_{\overline{2}} R_{23}^{-1} \dots$$

Again consider the symetries

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & q & 0 \\ 0 & q^{-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \begin{pmatrix} q & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & q - q^{-1} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & q \end{pmatrix}.$$
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The former symmetry is involutive, the latter one is a Hecke symmetry.

For the involutive symmetry we have

$$\mathfrak{u} = (u_{11}, u_{12}, u_{21}, u_{22}) = \frac{1}{2}(0, 1, -q^{-1}, 0),$$

$$\mathfrak{v} = (v^{11}, v^{12}, v^{21}, v^{22}) = (0, 1, -q, 0).$$

For the Hecke symmetry we have

$$\mathfrak{u} = \frac{1}{2_q}(0, q^{-1}, -1, 0), \quad \mathfrak{v} = (0, 1, -q, 0).$$

Observe that the tensors v corresponding to these symmetries coincide with each other and, consequently, the algebras

$$\mathit{Sym}_R(V) = T(V)/\langle \mathfrak{v}
angle = T(V)/\langle xy - qyx
angle,$$

called the quantum plan, are the same for the both symmetries.

Nevertheless, the tensors $\mathfrak u$ are different. Consequently, the canonical forms of the corresponding determinants differ from each other.

Let us compute the determinants of the matrix

$$L = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ c & d \end{array}\right)$$

in the RTT and RE algebras corresponding to the both symmetries.

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The defining relations of the RTT algebra, corresponding to the involutive matrix are

$$ab = q^{-1}ba$$
, $ac = qca$, $ad = da$,

$$bc = q^2 cb$$
, $bd = qdb$, $cd = q^{-1}dc$.

The quantum determinant in this algebra is

$$rac{\mathsf{a} d + \mathsf{d} \mathsf{a}}{2} - rac{\mathsf{q}^{-1} \mathsf{b} \mathsf{c} + \mathsf{q} \mathsf{c} \mathsf{b}}{2} = \mathsf{a} \mathsf{d} - \mathsf{q}^{-1} \mathsf{b} \mathsf{c} = \mathsf{d} \mathsf{a} - \mathsf{q} \mathsf{c} \mathsf{b}.$$

The defining relations in the RTT algebra corresponding to the Hecke matrix are

$$\mathsf{a}\mathsf{b}=\mathsf{q}\mathsf{b}\mathsf{a}, \quad \mathsf{a}\mathsf{c}=\mathsf{q}\mathsf{c}\mathsf{a}, \quad \mathsf{a}\mathsf{d}-\mathsf{d}\mathsf{a}=(\mathsf{q}-\mathsf{q}^{-1})\mathsf{b}\mathsf{c},$$

$$bc = cb$$
, $bd = qdb$, $cd = qdc$.

The corresponding quantum determinant is

$$rac{q^{-1}\mathit{ad}+q\mathit{da}}{2_q}-rac{bc+cb}{2_q}=\mathit{ad}-qbc=\mathit{da}-q^{-1}cb.$$

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Thus, we see that to the same quantum plane xy - qyx there correspond different RTT algebras and different quantum determinants in dependence of the tensor \mathfrak{u} .

A similar claim is valid for the RE algebras corresponding to the above symmetries.

Now, introduce the corresponding Generalized Yangians (GY). The famous Yang braiding is $R(u, v) = P - \frac{I}{u-v}$.

Proposition.

1. If R is an involutive symmetry, then

$$R(u,v)=R-\frac{a\,l}{u-v}$$

is an R-matrix, i.e. it meets the quantum Yang-Baxter equation

 $R_{12}(u, v) R_{23}(u, w) R_{12}(v, w) = R_{23}(v, w) R_{12}(u, w) R_{23}(u, v).$

2. If R = R(q) is a Hecke symmetry, then the same is valid for

$$R(u, v) = R(q) - \frac{(q - q^{-1})uI}{u - v}$$

The Drinfeld's Yangian $\mathbf{Y}(gl(N))$ is in fact an RTT algebra defined by

$$R(u, v) T_1(u) T_2(v) = T_1(v) T_2(u) R(u, v)$$

with the Yang braiding and under a assumption that T(u) is a series

$$T(u) = \sum_{k \ge 0} T[k] u^{-k}$$

and T[0] = I.

Introduce two types of GY in a similar manner.

1. Generalized Yangians of RTT type are defined by

$$R(u, v)T_1(u) T_2(v) = T_1(u) T_2(v) R(u, v),$$

where R(u, v) is one of the above current braidings. 2. GY of RE type (also called braided Yangians) are defined by

$$R(u,v)L_{\overline{1}}(u)L_{\overline{2}}(v) = L_{\overline{1}}(v)L_{\overline{2}}(u)R(u,v).$$

Here $L_{\overline{2}} = R L_{\overline{1}} R^{-1}$.

If a braiding R(u, v) arises from an involutive symmetry R, the corresponding GY Y(R, P) is called *rational*. If R is Hecke, then Y(R, R) is called *trigonometrical*.

If R has the bi-rank (m|0), we define quantum determinants in the rational (resp., trigonometrical) GY of RE type as follows

$$\det_{rat}(L(u)) = < \mathfrak{v}|L_{\overline{1}}(u) L_{\overline{2}}(u-1) \dots L_{\overline{m}}(u-m+1)|\mathfrak{u}>,$$

$$\det_{trig}(L(u)) = < \mathfrak{v}|L_{\overline{1}}(u) L_{\overline{2}}(q^{-2}u) \dots L_{\overline{m}}(q^{-2(m-1)}u)|\mathfrak{u} > .$$

Thus, the determinants are defined by formulae similar to those above but with shifts in arguments of the matrices L(u), additive in the rational cases and multiplicative in the trigonometrical ones.

Now, we want to study the characteristic polynomials ch(t), i.e. such that ch(L) = 0. Whether it is true that

$$ch(t) = \det (L - t I) ?$$

The answer is positive if the algebra is a RE one and R is an involutive symmetry. If R is Hecke then

$$ch(t) := t^m - qe_1 t^{m-1} + q^2 e_2 t^{m-2} + \dots + (-q)^{m-1} e_{m-1} t + (-q)^m e_m.$$

Thus, by putting t = L we get the Cayley-Hamilton identity for the matrix L:

$$L^{m} - qe_{1} L^{m-1} + q^{2}e_{2} L^{m-2} + \ldots + (-q)^{m-1}e_{m-1} L + (-q)^{m}e_{m} I = 0.$$

In RTT algebras characteristic polynomials for the generating matrices do not exist.

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Below, we deal with RE algebras.

Note that this Cayley-Hamilton identity for the generating matrices of these algebras provides us with a method of inverting the generating matrix L. Upon dividing the Cayley-Hamilton identity by the element $(-q)^m Le_m$ we can express the matrix L^{-1} as a linear combination of the powers sums L^k , $0 \le k \le m - 1$ with coefficients e_k/e_m (observe that all elements e_k are central in the RE algebra).

Now, consider the case of general symmetries R (not necessary even).

If a given symmetry R has the bi-rank (m|n) $n \neq 0$, the generating matrix L of the RE algebra also meets the Cayley-Hamilton identity

$$a_0 L^{m+n} - a_1 L^{m+n-1} + \dots (-1)^{m+n} a_{m+n} I = 0,$$

where all the coefficients a_k belong to the center of the RE algebra. Note that in this case the leading coefficient a_0 does not equal 1. Upon dividing this relation by $a_{m+n}L$, we can express the matrix L^{-1} as a linear combinations of the matrices L^k , $0 \le k \le m + n - 1$ with coefficients $\pm a_k/a_{m+n}$.

Observe that for any Schur diagram (partition) $\lambda = (\lambda_1 \ge ... \ge \lambda_k)$ there exists an analog of the Schur functor $V \mapsto V_{\lambda}$ and the corresponding Schur polynomial p_{λ} . It is a polynomial in NC generators l_i^j . However, the Littlewood-Richardson table of multiplication is still valid:

$$p_{\lambda}\,p_{\mu}=\sum_{
u}c_{\lambda,\mu}^{
u}p_{
u}$$

The coefficient a_0 is the Schur polynomial corresponding to the $m \times n$ rectangle, i.e. $\lambda = (n^m)$. Whereas the coefficient a_{m+n} is the Schur polynomial corresponding to the partition $((n + 1)^m, n)$. Then we assign the meaning of the quantum determinant to the fraction a_{m+n}/a_0 (up to a sign).

Note that the quantum determinant differs from the quantum Berezinian, which also can be realized as a fraction of two Schur polynomials

In order to exhibit the quantum determinant and Berezinian in a more explicit form we introduce "eigenvalues" of the characteristic polynomial.

Observe that after having multiplied the CH identity by a_0 we can factorize the CH in two factors: "even" and "odd". Denote $\mu_1, ..., \mu_m$ the roots of the even factor and $\nu_1, ... \nu_n$ these of the odd one. Then the quantum determinant is (up to a factor)

$$\prod_{k=1}^m \mu_k \prod_{k=1}^n \nu_k$$

whereas the quantum Berezinian is

$$\frac{\prod_{k=1}^m \mu_k}{\prod_{k=1}^n \nu_k}.$$

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Let us express the power sums via the eigenvalues:

$$Tr_R L^k = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i \mu_i^k + \sum_{j=1}^n \tilde{d}_j \nu_j^k$$

where the coefficients d_i and \tilde{d}_j explicitly read

$$d_{i} = q^{-1} \prod_{\substack{p=1\\p\neq i}}^{m} \frac{\mu_{i} - q^{-2} \mu_{p}}{\mu_{i} - \mu_{p}} \prod_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\mu_{i} - q^{2} \nu_{j}}{\mu_{i} - \nu_{j}}, \qquad (4)$$

$$\tilde{d}_{j} = -q \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\nu_{j} - q^{-2} \mu_{i}}{\nu_{j} - \mu_{i}} \prod_{\substack{p=1\\p\neq j}}^{n} \frac{\nu_{j} - q^{2} \nu_{p}}{\nu_{j} - \nu_{p}}. \qquad (5)$$

Stress that our quantum determinants are defined only for the generating matrices of some QMA. A more general method of defining an analog of the determinant is based on using the so-called quasideterminants [GR].

Again, consider a matrix

$$L = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ c & d \end{array} \right)$$

which generate the RE or RTT algebra, corresponding to the Hecke symmetry above.

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In this case there exist four different quasideterminants, associated with L. We consider two of them:

$$Q-det_{11}(L) = a - bd^{-1}c$$
, $Q-det_{22}(L) = d - ca^{-1}b$.

We get the corresponding candidates for the role of determinants if we respectively multiply these quasideterminants by d and a from the left or from the right. Then we get the determinants which are equal to the determinant $\det_{RTT}(L)$ in the RTT algebra, provided R is the Hecke matrix above.

As for the corresponding RE algebra, only Q-det₂₂(L) leads to the determinant det_{*RE*}(L) above, whereas the determinant, arising in a similar way from Q-det₁₁(L), is not equal to det_{*RE*}(L).

Many thanks

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Dmitry Gurevich Valenciennes University (with Pavel Saponc Quantum determinants