## LECTURE 12: HOPF ALGEBRA $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$

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## Introduction

In this lecture we start to study quantum groups  $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$ , certain deformations of the universal enveloping algebras  $U(\mathfrak{g})$ . The algebras  $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$  are Hopf algebras that basically means that we can take tensor products and duals of their representations. In Section 1 we define Hopf algebras.

In Section 2 we start discussing quantum groups themselves concentrating mostly on the simplest case,  $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$ . An important feature here is that the tensor product is not commutative in a naive sense. This is a feature and not a bug, this is one of the main reasons why the quantum groups were introduced.

## 1. Hopf algebras

1.1. **Tensor products and duals.** Recall that for a group G and two G-modules  $V_1, V_2$  we can define G-module structures on  $V_1 \otimes V_2$  and  $V_1^*$  by

$$g.(v_1 \otimes v_2) := gv_1 \otimes gv_2, \langle g.\alpha, v_1 \rangle := \langle \alpha, g^{-1}v_1 \rangle.$$

We also have the trivial one-dimensional module  $\mathbb{C}$ , where  $g \in G$  acts by 1.

Similarly, for a Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$  and two  $\mathfrak{g}$ -modules  $V_1, V_2$ , we can define  $\mathfrak{g}$ -module structures on  $V_1 \otimes V_2$  and  $V_1^*$  by

$$x.(v_1 \otimes v_2) = (x.v_1) \otimes v_2 + v_1 \otimes (x.v_2), \langle x.\alpha, v_1 \rangle = -\langle \alpha, x.v_1 \rangle.$$

And we have the trivial one-dimensional module  $\mathbb{C}$ , where  $x \in \mathfrak{g}$  acts by 0.

Recall also that a G-module (resp.,  $\mathfrak{g}$ -module) is the same thing as a module over the group algebra  $\mathbb{C}G$  (resp., over the universal enveloping algebra  $U(\mathfrak{g})$ ). Both  $\mathbb{C}G, U(\mathfrak{g})$  are associative algebras. Note, however, that if A is an associative algebra, then we do not have natural A-module structures on  $V_1 \otimes V_2, V_1^*, \mathbb{C}$  (where  $V_1, V_2$  are A-modules). Indeed,  $V_1 \otimes V_2$  carries a natural structure of  $A \otimes A$ -module by  $(a \otimes b).(v_1 \otimes v_2) = (av_1) \otimes (bv_2)$ . The dual space  $V_1^*$  is naturally a module over the opposite algebra  $A^{op}$ , which is the same vector space as A but with opposite multiplication:  $a \cdot b := ba$ . An  $A^{op}$ -module is the same thing as a right A-module, and we set  $(\alpha a)(v_1) := \alpha(av_1)$ . Finally,  $\mathbb{C}$  is naturally a  $\mathbb{C}$ -module. We could equip  $V_1 \otimes V_2$  with an A-module structure if we have a distinguished algebra homomorphism  $\Delta : A \to A \otimes A$  (then we just pull the  $A \otimes A$ -module structure back to A). This homomorphism  $\Delta$  is called a coproduct. Similarly, to equip  $V_1^*$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  with A-module structures we need algebra homomorphisms  $S : A \to A^{op}$  (antipode) and  $\eta : A \to \mathbb{C}$  (counit). Let us construct these homomorphisms for  $A = \mathbb{C}G$  and  $A = U(\mathfrak{g})$ .

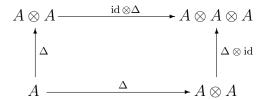
**Example 1.1.** For  $A = \mathbb{C}G$ , we have  $\Delta(q) := q \otimes q$ ,  $S(q) = q^{-1}$ ,  $\eta(q) = 1$  for  $q \in G$ .

**Example 1.2.** Let  $A = U(\mathfrak{g})$ . Since  $\Delta, S, \eta$  are supposed to be algebra homomorphisms, it is enough to define them on  $\mathfrak{g}$ . We set  $\Delta(x) = x \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes x, S(x) = -x, \eta(x) = 1$ , where  $x \in \mathfrak{g}$ .

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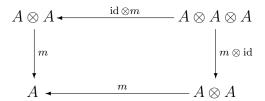
1.2. Coassociativity. We need some additional assumptions on  $\Delta$ , S,  $\epsilon$  in order to guarantee some natural properties of tensor products such as associativity. Axiomatizing these properties, we arrive at the definition of a *Hopf algebra*.

First, let us examine the associativity of the tensor product. We have a natural isomorphism  $(V_1 \otimes V_2) \otimes V_3 \to V_1 \otimes (V_2 \otimes V_3), (v_1 \otimes v_2) \otimes v_3 \mapsto v_1 \otimes (v_2 \otimes v_3)$ . We want this isomorphism to be A-linear. We have two homomorphisms  $A \to A^{\otimes 3}$  produced from  $\Delta$ . First, we have  $(\Delta \otimes \mathrm{id}) \circ \Delta$ . The algebra A acts on  $(V_1 \otimes V_2) \otimes V_3$  via this homomorphism  $A \to A^{\otimes 3}$ . Indeed, if  $\Delta(a) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i^1 \otimes a_i^2$ , then  $a.((v_1 \otimes v_2) \otimes v_3) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i^1.(v_1 \otimes v_2) \otimes a_i^2v_3 = \sum_{i=1}^k \Delta(a_i^1)(v_1 \otimes v_2) \otimes a_i^2v_3$ , and  $(\Delta \otimes \mathrm{id}) \circ \Delta(a) = \sum_{i=1}^k \Delta(a_i^1) \otimes a_i^2$ . Similarly, A acts on  $V_1 \otimes (V_2 \otimes V_3)$  via  $(\mathrm{id} \otimes \Delta) \circ \Delta : A \to A^{\otimes 3}$ . So, if we want to the isomorphism  $(v_1 \otimes v_2) \otimes v_3 \mapsto v_1 \otimes (v_2 \otimes v_3)$  to be A-linear, it is natural to require that  $(\Delta \otimes \mathrm{id}) \circ \Delta = (\mathrm{id} \otimes \Delta) \circ \Delta$ . In other words, we want the following diagram to be commutative.



If this holds, then we say that  $\Delta$  is coassociative.

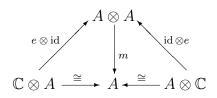
Let us motivate the terminology ("coproduct" and "coassociative"). Let A be a finite dimensional algebra. Let us write  $m:A\otimes A\to A$  for the product. Then m is associative (i.e.,  $m(m(a\otimes b)\otimes c)=m(a\otimes m(b\otimes c))$ ) if and only if the following diagram is commutative.



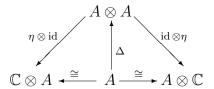
Now let us dualize. We get the space  $A^*$  together with the map  $m^*: A^* \to A^* \otimes A^*$  that is natural to call a coproduct. Clearly, m is associative if and only if  $m^*$  is coassociative.

1.3. **Axioms of Hopf algebras.** We need to axiomatically describe two more maps: the counit  $\eta: A \to \mathbb{C}$  and the antipode  $S: A \to A^{op}$ .

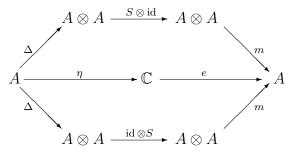
An axiom of a counit should be dual to that of the unit,  $e: \mathbb{C} \to A, z \mapsto z \cdot 1$ . The element e(1) is a unit if and only if the following diagram is commutative.



Dualizing this diagram we get the counit axiom: the following diagram is commutative.



Finally, the antipode axiom is the commutativity of the following diagram.



Let us illustrate this axiom in the example of  $A = \mathbb{C}G$ , where  $S(g) = g^{-1}$ . There  $\Delta(g) = g \otimes g$ ,  $S \otimes \mathrm{id}(g \otimes g) = g^{-1} \otimes g$ ,  $m(g^{-1} \otimes g) = 1 = e \circ \eta(g)$ .

**Definition 1.3.** By a Hopf algebra we mean a  $\mathbb{C}$ -vector space A with five maps  $(m, e, \Delta, \eta, S)$ , where  $m: A \otimes A \to A, e: \mathbb{C} \to A, \Delta: A \to A \otimes A, \eta: A \to \mathbb{C}, S: A \to A$  such that:

- (1) (A, m, e) is an associative unital algebra.
- (2)  $\Delta: A \to A \otimes A, S: A \to A^{op}, \eta: A \to \mathbb{C}$  are algebra homomorphisms.
- (3)  $\Delta$  is coassociative, and  $\eta$  satisfies the counit axiom.
- (4) S satisfies the antipode axiom.

**Remark 1.4.** In fact, once  $m, e, \Delta$  are specified, S and  $\eta$  are recovered in at most one way.

It is straightforward to check that  $\mathbb{C}G$  and  $U(\mathfrak{g})$  are Hopf algebras.

1.4. **Duality of Hopf algebras.** Now let  $(A, m, e, \Delta, \eta, S)$  be a finite dimensional Hopf algebra. One can show that  $(A^*, \Delta^*, \eta^*, m^*, e^*, S^*)$  is a Hopf algebra as well.

**Example 1.5.** Let us describe  $(\mathbb{C}G)^*$ . As a vector space,  $(\mathbb{C}G)^*$  is the algebra of functions on G, to be denoted by  $\mathbb{C}[G]$ . The map  $\Delta: \mathbb{C}G \to \mathbb{C}G \otimes \mathbb{C}G$  sends g to  $g \otimes g$ . So  $\Delta^*(\alpha \otimes \beta)(g) = \alpha \otimes \beta(g \otimes g) = \alpha(g)\beta(g)$  is the usual multiplication of functions. Similarly,  $\eta^*$  sends 1 to the identity function. The map  $m^*: \mathbb{C}[G] \to \mathbb{C}[G] \otimes \mathbb{C}[G] = \mathbb{C}[G \times G]$  sends  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}[G]$  to  $m^*(\alpha)(g,h) := \alpha(gh)$ . The map  $e^*: \mathbb{C}[G] \to \mathbb{C}$  maps  $\alpha$  to  $\alpha(1)$ . Finally, we have  $(S^*\alpha)(g) = \alpha(g^{-1})$ .

1.5. Cocommutativity. In the cases of  $A = U(\mathfrak{g})$ ,  $\mathbb{C}G$  the isomorphism  $V_1 \otimes V_2 \xrightarrow{\sim} V_2 \otimes V_1$  is that of A-modules. The reason for this is that the *opposite coproduct*  $\Delta^{op} := \sigma \circ \Delta$ , where  $\sigma : A^{\otimes 2} \to A^{\otimes 2}$ ,  $a \otimes b \mapsto b \otimes a$ , coincides with  $\Delta$ . The Hopf algebras with  $\Delta = \Delta^{op}$  are called *cocommutative*. However, there are Hopf algebras that are not cocommutative, e.g.  $\mathbb{C}[G]$ .

The Hopf algebras we have encountered so far are commutative as algebras  $(\mathbb{C}[G])$  or cocommutative  $(\mathbb{C}G, U(\mathfrak{g}))$ . Of course, one can cook a Hopf algebra that is neither commutative nor cocommutative: the tensor product of two Hopf algebras carries a natural Hopf algebra structure and we can take the tensor product of a non-commutative Hopf algebra with a non-cocommutative one. But this is very boring. In the next section, we will study a far more interesting example.

2. 
$$U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$$

2.1.  $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$  as a Hopf algebra. We will define the "quantum  $\mathfrak{sl}_2$ " by generators and relations (as an algebra) and then define  $\Delta, \eta, S$  on the generators.

Let  $q \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0, \pm 1\}$  (we can also take q to be an independent variable in the field of rational functions  $\mathbb{C}(q)$ ). We define the algebra  $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$  generated by  $E, F, K, K^{-1}$  subject to the following relations:

$$KK^{-1} = K^{-1}K = 1$$
,  $KEK^{-1} = q^2E$ ,  $KFK^{-1} = q^{-2}F$ ,  $EF - FE = \frac{K - K^{-1}}{q - q^{-1}}$ .

Note that the algebra  $U := U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$  is spanned by the monomials  $F^k K^{\ell} E^m$ , where  $k, m \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , and  $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}$ . In fact, these monomials are linearly independent (the PBW theorem).

Now let us define the Hopf algebra structure. We set

$$\Delta(E) = E \otimes 1 + K \otimes E, \quad \Delta(F) = F \otimes K^{-1} + 1 \otimes F, \quad \Delta(K) = K \otimes K,$$

$$(2.1) \qquad \eta(E) = \eta(F) = 0, \quad \eta(K) = 1,$$

$$S(E) = -K^{-1}E, S(F) = -FK, S(K) = K^{-1}.$$

**Proposition 2.1.**  $\Delta$ ,  $\eta$ , S extend to required algebra homomorphisms. Moreover, U becomes a Hopf algebra.

*Proof.* This is a mighty tedious check... What we need to verify is that  $\Delta, S, \eta$  respect the relations in U and that the axioms (3),(4) in the definition of a Hopf algebra hold on the generators E, K, F. Let us check that  $\Delta([E, F]) = [\Delta(E), \Delta(F)]$ , which is the hardest relation to check. We have

$$\Delta([E, F]) = \Delta\left(\frac{K - K^{-1}}{q - q^{-1}}\right) = \frac{K \otimes K - K^{-1} \otimes K^{-1}}{q - q^{-1}}$$

On the other hand,

$$\begin{split} [\Delta(E), \Delta(F)] &= [E \otimes 1 + K \otimes E, F \otimes K^{-1} + 1 \otimes F] = [E, F] \otimes K^{-1} + K \otimes [E, F] + \\ &+ [K \otimes E, F \otimes K^{-1}] = \frac{(K - K^{-1}) \otimes K^{-1}}{q - q^{-1}} + \frac{K \otimes (K - K^{-1})}{q - q^{-1}} + KF \otimes EK^{-1} - \\ &- FK \otimes K^{-1}E = \frac{K \otimes K - K^{-1} \otimes K^{-1}}{q - q^{-1}} + KF \otimes EK^{-1} - (q^2KF) \otimes (q^{-2}EK^{-1}) = \\ &= \frac{K \otimes K - K^{-1} \otimes K^{-1}}{q - q^{-1}}. \end{split}$$

We note that  $\Delta \neq \Delta^{op}$ . In particular, the map  $v_1 \otimes v_2 \mapsto v_2 \otimes v_1$  does not give an isomorphism  $V_1 \otimes V_2 \to V_2 \otimes V_1$ , in general. However, in the next lecture we will find an element  $R \in U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2) \otimes U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$  (this is a slight lie, we need a certain completion) with  $R^{-1}\Delta(u)R = \Delta^{op}(u)$ . This element, called the universal R-matrix, is extremely important. In particular, it will allow us to construct link invariants, such as the Jones polynomial.

2.2.  $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$  vs  $U(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$ . The algebra  $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$  should be thought as a deformation of  $U(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$  (the latter corresponds to q=1). This however requires some care, we cannot put q=1 in the definition of  $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$ . In order to make the claim about the deformation more precise, we will need to consider the formal version of  $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$ , we will call it  $U_{\hbar}(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$ . This will be an algebra over  $\mathbb{C}[[\hbar]]$ .

By definition, as an algebra,  $U_{\hbar}(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$  is the quotient of  $T(\mathfrak{sl}_2)[[\hbar]]$  by the relations

$$[h, e] = 2e, [h, f] = -2f, [e, f] = \frac{\exp(\hbar h) - \exp(-\hbar h)}{\exp(\hbar) - \exp(-\hbar)}.$$

Note that  $\frac{\exp(\hbar h) - \exp(-\hbar h)}{\exp(\hbar) - \exp(-\hbar)}$  is a formal power series in  $\hbar$ , modulo  $\hbar$  it equals h. It follows that  $U_{\hbar}(\mathfrak{sl}_2)/(\hbar) = U(\mathfrak{sl}_2).$ 

One can show that  $\hbar$  is not a zero divisor in  $U_{\hbar}(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$ . Note that E=e,F=f,K= $\exp(\hbar h), q = \exp(\hbar)$  satisfy the relations of  $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$ . Indeed, for example, we get

$$\exp(\hbar h)e \exp(-\hbar h) = \exp(\hbar \operatorname{ad}(h))e = \exp(2\hbar)e.$$

One can introduce the Hopf algebra structure on  $U_{\hbar}(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$  but one needs to extend the definition to allow  $\Delta$  to be a homomorphism  $U_{\hbar}(\mathfrak{sl}_2) \to U_{\hbar}(\mathfrak{sl}_2) \otimes_{\mathbb{C}[[\hbar]} U_{\hbar}(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$ . Here  $\otimes$  denotes the completed tensor product. While the usual tensor product consists of all finite sums of decomposable tensors, the completed product consists of all converging (in the  $\hbar$ -adic topology) infinite sums.

2.3. Algebras  $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$ . We can define quantum groups  $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$  for any semisimple Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$  (or, more generally, any Kac-Moody algebra  $\mathfrak{g}(A)$  for a symmetrizable Cartan matrix A). Let us start with  $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{sl}_{n+1}$ .

Recall that the usual universal enveloping algebra  $U(\mathfrak{sl}_{n+1})$  is defined by the generators  $e_i, h_i, f_i, i = 1, \ldots, n$ , and the following relations:

- (i)  $[h_i, e_i] = 2e_i, [h_i, f_i] = -2f_i, [e_i, f_i] = h_i.$
- (ii)  $[h_i, h_j] = 0$ .
- (iii)  $[h_i, e_j] = a_{ij}e_j, [h_i, f_j] = -a_{ij}f_i.$
- (iv)  $e_i f_j = f_j e_i, i \neq j$ .
- (v)  $e_i e_j = e_j e_i$ , if  $a_{ij} = 0$ , and  $e_i^2 e_j 2e_i e_j e_i + e_j e_i^2 = 0$ , if  $a_{ij} = -1$ . (vi)  $f_i f_j = f_j f_i$ , if  $a_{ij} = 0$ , and  $f_i^2 f_j 2f_i f_j f_i + f_j f_i^2 = 0$ , if  $a_{ij} = -1$ .

Recall that here  $a_{ij} = -1$  if |i - j| = 1 and  $a_{ij} = 0$  if |i - j| > 1.

The quantum group  $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_{n+1})$  is defined by the generators  $E_i, K_i^{\pm 1}, F_i, i = 1, \ldots, n$ , with relations

- $(i_q) K_i E_i K_i^{-1} = q^2 E_i, K_i F_i K_i^{-1} = q^{-2} F_i, [E_i, F_i] = \frac{K_i K_i^{-1}}{q q^{-1}}.$
- $(ii_q) [K_i, K_j] = 0.$
- $(iii_q) K_i E_j K_i^{-1} = q^{a_{ij}} E_j, K_i F_j K_i^{-1} = q^{-a_{ij}} F_j.$
- $(iv_a)$   $E_iF_i = F_iE_i, i \neq j.$
- $(\mathbf{v}_q)$   $E_i E_j = E_j E_i$  if  $a_{ij} = 0$  and  $E_i^2 E_j [2]_q E_i E_j E_i + E_j E_i^2 = 0$  if  $a_{ij} = -1$ .  $(\mathbf{v}_q)$   $F_i F_j = F_j F_i$  if  $a_{ij} = 0$  and  $F_i^2 F_j [2]_q F_i F_j F_i + F_j F_i^2 = 0$  if  $a_{ij} = -1$ .

Here  $[2]_q$  denotes the "quantum 2", i.e.,  $q + q^{-1}$ .

The similar definition will work for any simply laced Cartan matrix A (meaning that  $a_{ij} \in \{0, -1\}$  if  $i \neq j$ ). When A is not simply laced (e.g., of type  $B_n, C_n, F_4, G_2$ ), the definition is more technical, one needs to use different q's for the " $\mathfrak{sl}_2$ -subalgebras" of  $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$ according the length of the corresponding root. Namely, when  $\mathfrak{g}$  is finite dimensional, we define  $d_i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$  as  $(\alpha_i, \alpha_i)/2$ , where  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  is a W-invariant form on  $\mathfrak{h}^*$  normalized in such a way that  $(\alpha, \alpha) = 2$  for the short roots (we have two different root lengths). This can be generalized to an arbitrary symmetrizable Kac-Moody algebra but we are not going to explain that.

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Now set  $q_i := q^{d_i}$  (so that  $q_1 = q$ ). We also define the quantum integer  $[n]_{q_i} = q_i^{n-1} +$  $q_i^{n-2} + \ldots + q_i^{1-n}$ , and the quantum factorial  $[n]_{q_i}! = [1]_{q_i} \ldots [n]_{q_i}$ . We set

$$\binom{n}{k}_{q_i} = \frac{[n]_{q_i}!}{[k]_{q_i}![n-k]_{q_i}!}.$$

Now we define  $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$  as the algebra generated by  $E_i, K_i, F_i$  subject to the relations

$$(i_q) K_i E_i K_i^{-1} = q_i^2 E_i, K_i F_i K_i^{-1} = q_i^{-2} F_i, [E_i, F_i] = \frac{K_i - K_i^{-1}}{q_i - q_i^{-1}}.$$

$$(ii_q) [K_i, K_j] = 0.$$

$$(iii_q) K_i E_j K_i^{-1} = q_i^{a_{ij}} E_j, K_i F_j K_i^{-1} = q_i^{-a_{ij}} F_j.$$

$$(iv_q)$$
  $E_iF_j = F_jE_i, i \neq j.$ 

$$(\mathbf{v}_q) \sum_{k=0}^{1-a_{ij}} (-1)^k {\binom{1-a_{ij}}{k}}_{a_i} E_i^{1-a_{ij}-k} E_j E_i^k = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} &(\text{Im}_{q}) \ K_{i} E_{j} K_{i} &= q_{i} \ E_{j}, K_{i} I_{j} K_{i} &= q_{i} \ I_{j}. \\ &(\text{iv}_{q}) \ E_{i} F_{j} &= F_{j} E_{i}, i \neq j. \\ &(\text{v}_{q}) \ \sum_{k=0}^{1-a_{ij}} (-1)^{k} {1-a_{ij} \choose k}_{q_{i}} E_{i}^{1-a_{ij}-k} E_{j} E_{i}^{k} &= 0. \\ &(\text{vi}_{q}) \ \sum_{k=0}^{1-a_{ij}} (-1)^{k} {1-a_{ij} \choose k}_{q_{i}} F_{i}^{1-a_{ij}-k} F_{j} F_{i}^{k} &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Note that they are obtained from the relations for  $U(\mathfrak{g})$  in the same fashion as the relations for  $U_q(\mathfrak{sl}_{n+1})$  are obtained from those for  $U(\mathfrak{sl}_{n+1})$ .

The Hopf algebra structure on  $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$  is introduced as follows: we just define  $\Delta, S, \eta$  on  $E_i, F_i, K_i$  as in  $U_{q_i}(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$ .