

The Yang-Baxter equation

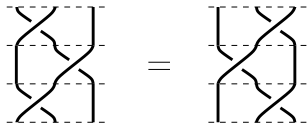
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Let V be a vector space. We want to find $c \in \mathbf{GL}(V \otimes V)$ that are solutions to the **Yang–Baxter equation**:

$$(c \otimes \text{id})(\text{id} \otimes c)(c \otimes \text{id}) = (\text{id} \otimes c)(c \otimes \text{id})(\text{id} \otimes c)$$



Let us explain the notation.

- ▶ If V be a vector space of dimension n , say with basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, then the **tensor product** $V \otimes V$ is the n^2 -dimensional vector space with basis

$$\{v_i \otimes v_j : 1 \leq i, j \leq n\}.$$

- ▶ If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{C}^{p \times q}$, then the **tensor product** (or **Kronecker product**) of A and B is the matrix

$$A \otimes B = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}B & \cdots & a_{1n}B \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1}B & \cdots & a_{mn}B \end{pmatrix}.$$

Concrete example:

If V is the two-dimensional vector space with basis $\{x, y\}$, then $V \otimes V$ is a four-dimensional vector space with basis

$$\{x \otimes x, x \otimes y, y \otimes x, y \otimes y\}.$$

Let us compute a Kronecker product:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 & 10 & 12 \\ 7 & 8 & 14 & 16 \\ 15 & 18 & 20 & 24 \\ 21 & 24 & 28 & 32 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Some solutions:

- ▶ The flip: $\tau(x \otimes y) = y \otimes x$.
- ▶ The matrix

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

satisfies

$$(R \otimes I)(I \otimes R)(R \otimes I) = (I \otimes R)(R \otimes I)(I \otimes R),$$

where $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Another example:

Let V with basis $\{x, y\}$ and $q \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$. Then

$$c(x \otimes x) = x \otimes x,$$

$$c(y \otimes y) = y \otimes y,$$

$$c(x \otimes y) = q(y \otimes x),$$

$$c(y \otimes x) = q(x \otimes y) + (1 - q^2)(y \otimes x),$$

is a solution.

Remark:

This example comes from the quantum group $\mathcal{U}_q(\mathfrak{sl}_2)$ and explains the Jones polynomial of a knot!

Important fact:

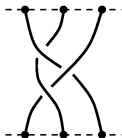
Solutions of the Yang–Baxter equation produce representations of the **Braid Group**.

Braid groups were introduced by Emil Artin in 1925, although they were already implicit in Adolf Hurwitz's work in 1891.

Braid groups find applications in topology and knot theory, cryptography, quantum computers, etc.

Before defining the **Braid Group** \mathbb{B}_n for $n \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, let us start with an example.

This is a typical element of \mathbb{B}_3 :



The **Braid Group** \mathbb{B}_n has generators

$$\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_{n-1},$$

and relations

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_i \sigma_{i+1} \sigma_i &= \sigma_{i+1} \sigma_i \sigma_{i+1} & 1 \leq i \leq n-2, \\ \sigma_i \sigma_j &= \sigma_j \sigma_i & |i-j| \geq 2. \end{aligned}$$

If each σ_j is written as

$$\boxed{\dots \underbrace{\quad}_{i} \underbrace{\quad}_{i+1} \dots}$$

then

- ▶ the relation $\sigma_i \sigma_{i+1} \sigma_i = \sigma_{i+1} \sigma_i \sigma_{i+1}$ is

The diagram shows two equivalent braid configurations on four strands, labeled i and $i+1$ at the bottom. The left side shows a sequence of three braiding operations: first strands i and $i+1$ cross, then strands $i+1$ and i cross, and finally strands i and $i+1$ cross again. The right side shows the same sequence in reverse order: first strands $i+1$ and i cross, then strands i and $i+1$ cross, and finally strands $i+1$ and i cross again. The two diagrams are separated by an equals sign.

- ▶ and the relation $\sigma_i \sigma_j = \sigma_j \sigma_i$ is

The diagram shows two equivalent configurations on four strands, labeled i and j at the bottom. The left side shows two braiding operations: first strands i and j cross, then strands $i+1$ and $i+2$ cross. The right side shows the same two braiding operations in reverse order: first strands $i+1$ and $i+2$ cross, then strands i and j cross. The two diagrams are separated by an equals sign.

Braid Group representations:

If c is a solution of the Yang–Baxter equation, let

$$c_i = \text{id}_{V^{\otimes(i-1)}} \otimes c \otimes \text{id}_{V^{\otimes(n-i-1)}} \in \mathbf{GL}(V^{\otimes n}).$$

Then

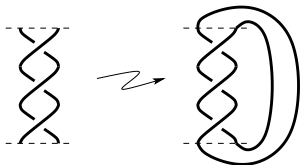
- ▶ c_1, \dots, c_{n-1} satisfy the relations of the Braid Group.
- ▶ The map

$$\rho_n : \mathbb{B}_n \rightarrow \mathbf{GL}(V^{\otimes n}), \quad \rho_n(\sigma_i) = c_i,$$

is a group homomorphism.

Why the Braid Group?

Every knot can be presented as the closure of a braiding. This is a well-known [theorem of Alexander](#).



Problem

Construct solutions of the Yang–Baxter equation.

Attempts to find non-trivial solutions lead to the theory of **quantum groups**.

In 1992 Drinfeld propose to study **set-theoretical solutions** of the Yang–Baxter equation.



Vladimir Drinfeld.

A **set-theoretical solution** is a pair (X, r) , where X is a set and $r: X \times X \rightarrow X \times X$ is a bijective map such that

$$(r \times \text{id})(\text{id} \times r)(r \times \text{id}) = (\text{id} \times r)(r \times \text{id})(\text{id} \times r).$$

Set-theoretical solutions produce solutions!

Examples:

- ▶ The flip: $r(x, y) = (y, x)$.
- ▶ Let X be a set and $f, g: X \rightarrow X$ be bijections such that $fg = gf$. Then

$$r(x, y) = (f(y), g(x))$$

is a solution.

- ▶ Let $X = \mathbb{Z}/n$. Then

$$r(x, y) = (2x - y, x)$$

is a solution.

More examples:

Let X be a group.

- ▶ $r(x, y) = (xyx^{-1}, x)$ is a solution.
- ▶ $r(x, y) = (xy^{-1}x^{-1}, xy^2)$ is a solution.

Problem

Construct (finite) set-theoretical solutions.

The first papers devoted to set-theoretical solutions are those of Etingof, Schedler and Soloviev¹ and Gateva-Ivanova and Van den Bergh².

Both papers deal with **non-degenerate involutive** solutions, i.e. solutions $r: X \times X \rightarrow X \times X$ such that $r^2 = \text{id}$ and

$$r(x, y) = (\sigma_x(y), \tau_y(x)),$$

where σ_x and τ_x are permutations of X for each $x \in X$.

¹Duke Math. J. 100 (1999), no. 2, 169–209.

²J. Algebra 206 (1998), no. 1, 97–112.

Number of finite non-degenerate involutive solutions.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|---|---|---|----|----|-----|------|-------|---|
| size | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| solutions | 1 | 2 | 5 | 23 | 88 | 595 | 3456 | 34528 | ? |

Not much is known about solutions. An important conjecture was the following:

Conjecture (Gateva-Ivanova, 2004)

Let (X, r) be a non-degenerate involutive solution with X finite. Assume that $r(x, x) = (x, x)$ for all $x \in X$. Then $\sigma_x = \sigma_y$ for some $x \neq y$.

Cedó, Jespers y Okniński proved³ that the conjecture is true in the case where the group

$$L(X, r) = \langle \sigma_x : x \in X \rangle$$

is abelian.

³Adv. Math. 224 (2010), no. 6, 2472–2484.

Gateva-Ivanova conjecture is **not true**. I constructed an **infinite family** of counterexamples⁴.

Example: Let $X = \{1, \dots, 8\}$ and

$$r(x, y) = (\varphi_x(y), \varphi_y(x)),$$

where

$$\varphi_1 = (57),$$

$$\varphi_2 = (68),$$

$$\varphi_3 = (26)(48)(57),$$

$$\varphi_4 = (15)(37)(68),$$

$$\varphi_5 = (13),$$

$$\varphi_6 = (24),$$

$$\varphi_7 = (13)(26)(48),$$

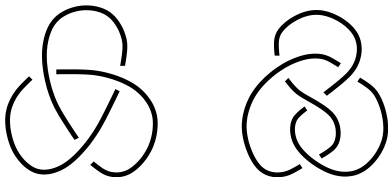
$$\varphi_8 = (15)(24)(37).$$

Then (X, r) is a **counterexample** to Gateva-Ivanova conjecture.

⁴J. Pure Appl. Algebra 220 (2016), no. 5, 2064–2076.

Let us see an application of finite solutions to the **theory of knots**.

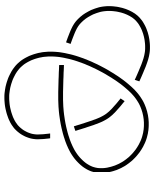
A **knot** is a simple closed polygonal in \mathbb{R}^3 .



In practice, when drawing knots it is assumed that they are so many straight line segments that the curves appear well rounded.

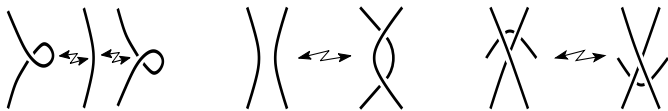
Are there non-trivial knots?

Sometimes **trivial knots** do not look trivial at all!



Two trivial knots.

Reidemeister theorem states that two knots are equivalent if and only if they are connected by a finite number of certain transformations:



These transformations are known as **Reidemeister moves**.

To check whether a knot is trivial or not, one can try to use the **3-coloring invariant**. What does it mean?

A knot can be colored with **three colors** if each arc of the diagram (from one under-pass to the next) can be colored **red**, **blue** or **green** so that all three colors are used and at each crossing either one color or all three colors appear.



A crossing with three colors.

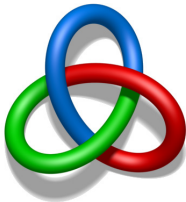
Theorem

If a knot admits a three coloring, then it is non-trivial.

Proof (exercise): One needs to check that three-colorability is unchanged by Reidemeister moves. Since the trivial knot does not admit a three-coloring, the claim follows.

Application:

The trefoil is a non-trivial knot:



Certain solutions of the Yang–Baxter equation are far reaching generalizations of the three-coloring!

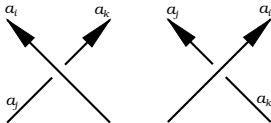
Let (X, r) be a solution, where

$$r(x, y) = (f(x, y), x), \quad f: X \times X \rightarrow X.$$

Assume that your knot is oriented. Label the arcs of the diagram with the elements of X in such a way that

$$a_k = f(a_i, a_j),$$

where

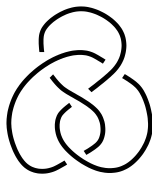


So coloring a knot with three colors is just to label the arcs with the elements of the solution (X, r) , where $X = \mathbb{Z}/3$ and

$$r(x, y) = (2x - y, x).$$

Exercise:

Prove that the following knot is non-trivial:

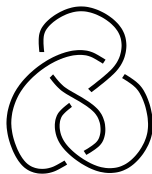
**Solution 1:**

Use the solution (X, r) , where $X = \mathbb{Z}/5$ and

$$r(x, y) = (2x - y, x)$$

Exercise:

Prove that the following knot is non-trivial:

**Solution 2:**

Use the solution (X, r) , where

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \subseteq \mathbf{SL}(2, 3).$$

and

$$r(x, y) = (xyx^{-1}, x).$$

Thanks!

