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## ON A CUBIC HECKE ALGEBRA ASSOCIATED WITH THE QUANTUM GROUP $U_q(2)$

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Abstract. We define an operator  $\alpha$  on  $\mathbb{C}^3 \otimes \mathbb{C}^3$  associated with the quantum group  $U_q(2)$ , which satisfies the Yang-Baxter equation and a cubic equation  $(\alpha^2 - 1)(\alpha + q^2) = 0$ . This operator can be extended to a family of operators  $h_j := I_j \otimes \alpha \otimes I_{n-2-j}$  on  $(\mathbb{C}^3)^{\otimes n}$  with  $0 \leq j \leq n-2$ . These operators generate the cubic Hecke algebra  $\mathcal{H}_{q,n}(2)$  associated with the quantum group  $U_q(2)$ . The purpose of this note is to present the construction.

1. Introduction. In [SLW3] Woronowicz considered the algebra of operators which intertwine the *n*-th tensor power of the fundamental representation  $f_N$  of the quantum group  $SU_q(N)$  with itself. For n = 2 it is generated by

$$\sigma = I - \frac{\mu^{-2N+4}}{[N-2]_{q^2}!} (I \otimes E^*) (E \otimes I).$$

Here

$$[N]_{q^2}! = \prod_{k=1}^{N} \frac{1 - q^{2k}}{1 - q^2},$$

and  $E: \mathbb{C} \to (\mathbb{C}^N)^{\otimes N}$  and  $E^*: (\mathbb{C}^N)^{\otimes N} \to \mathbb{C}$  are defined as

$$E(1) = \sum_{k_1,\dots,k_N=1}^{N} E_{k_1,\dots,k_N} \cdot \varepsilon_{k_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \varepsilon_{k_N}, \quad E^*(\varepsilon_{k_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \varepsilon_{k_N}) = E_{k_1,\dots,k_N} \quad (1.1)$$

for the standard basis  $\{\varepsilon_1, \ldots, \varepsilon_N\}$  of  $\mathbb{C}^N$ . This operator  $\sigma$  can be written explicitly (see [SLW3], formula (4.13)) as

$$\sigma(\varepsilon_a \otimes \varepsilon_b) = \begin{cases} q \cdot \varepsilon_b \otimes \varepsilon_a & \text{for } a < b, \\ \varepsilon_b \otimes \varepsilon_a & \text{for } a = b. \\ q \varepsilon_b \otimes \varepsilon_a + (1 - q^2) \varepsilon_a \otimes \varepsilon_b & \text{for } a > b. \end{cases}$$
(1.2)

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It has interesting properties, in particular it is a self-adjoint Hecke operator and satisfies the Yang-Baxter equation ([SLW3], (4.14)-(4.16)):

$$\sigma^* = \sigma, \quad \sigma^2 = (1 - q^2)\sigma + q^2 I, \quad (\sigma \otimes I)(I \otimes \sigma)(\sigma \otimes I) = (I \otimes \sigma)(\sigma \otimes I)(I \otimes \sigma) \quad (1.3)$$

Therefore it defines a Hecke algebra  $H_{q,n}$ , generated by elements  $\{g_j : j = 1, ..., n\}$ , if one puts

$$g_j := I_j \otimes \sigma \otimes I_{n-j-2}$$
 for  $j = 1, \dots, n-2$ ,

where  $I_k$  denotes the identity map on  $(\mathbb{C}^N)^{\otimes k}$ . This Hecke algebra is exactly the algebra of intertwining operators for  $f_N^{\otimes n}$ .

2. The Yang-Baxter operator associated with  $U_q(2)$ . In this note we are going to show an analogous construction for the quantum group  $U_q(2)$ . The paper [W] contains a construction of the quantum group  $U_q(2)$ , in which the crucial role is played by the function counting the number of cycles in permutations from the symmetric group  $S_3$ . Namely, by considering the function  $S_3 \ni \sigma \mapsto (-q)^{3-c(\sigma)}$ , where  $c(\sigma)$  is the number of cycles and q > 0, we constructed the following array:

$$\begin{split} E_{1,2,3} &= 1, & E_{1,3,2} = E_{2,1,3} = E_{3,2,1} = -q, \\ E_{2,3,1} &= E_{3,1,2} = q^2, & E_{i,j,k} = 0 \text{ if } \{i,j,k,\} \subsetneqq \{1,2,3\} \end{split}$$

This array defines an operator  $\rho$  on  $\mathbb{C}^3 \otimes \mathbb{C}^3$  by

$$\rho: \mathbb{C}^3 \otimes \mathbb{C}^3 \ni (a,b) \mapsto \sum_{i,j,k=1}^3 E_{i,j,k} E_{k,a,b}(i,j) \in \mathbb{C}^3 \otimes \mathbb{C}^3$$
(2.4)

where (a, b) denotes the standard basis element  $\varepsilon_a \otimes \varepsilon_b$ . In particular  $\varepsilon_1 = (1, 0, 0)$ ,  $\varepsilon_2 = (0, 1, 0)$  and  $\varepsilon_3 = (0, 0, 1)$ .

The definition of E implies that (2.4) simplifies to

$$\rho(a,b) = E_{a,b,k}E_{k,a,b}(a,b) + E_{b,a,k}E_{k,a,b}(b,a), \quad \text{where} \quad \{a,b,k\} = \{1,2,3\}$$
(2.5)

for  $a \neq b$  and a, b = 1, 2, 3. If a = b then we get  $\rho(a, a) = 0$ . The formulas can be written explicitly as follows.

$$\begin{array}{rclrcrcrcrc} \rho(1,2) &=& E_{1,2,3}E_{3,1,2}(1,2)+E_{2,1,3}E_{3,1,2}(2,1) &=& q^2(1,2)+q^3(2,1),\\ \rho(2,1) &=& E_{2,1,3}E_{3,2,1}(2,1)+E_{1,2,3}E_{3,2,1}(1,2) &=& q^2(2,1)+q(1,2),\\ \rho(1,3) &=& E_{1,3,2}E_{2,1,3}(1,3)+E_{3,1,2}E_{2,1,3}(3,1) &=& q^2(1,3)+q^3(3,1),\\ \rho(3,1) &=& E_{3,1,2}E_{2,3,1}(3,1)+E_{1,3,2}E_{2,3,1}(1,3) &=& q^4(3,1)+q^3(1,3),\\ \rho(2,3) &=& E_{2,3,1}E_{1,2,3}(2,3)+E_{3,2,1}E_{1,2,3}(3,2) &=& q^2(2,3)+q(3,2),\\ \rho(3,2) &=& E_{3,2,1}E_{1,3,2}(3,2)+E_{2,3,1}E_{1,3,2}(2,3) &=& q^2(3,2)+q^3(2,3). \end{array}$$

Therefore, the operator  $\alpha := I_2 - \frac{1}{q^2}\rho$  acts as:  $\alpha(a, a) = (a, a)$  for a = 1, 2, 3 and

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\alpha(1,2) &=& -q(2,1), \\
\alpha(1,3) &=& -q(3,1), \\
\alpha(3,2) &=& -q(2,3), \\
\alpha(2,1) &=& -q^{-1}(1,2), \\
\alpha(2,3) &=& -q^{-1}(3,2), \\
\alpha(3,1) &=& (1-q^2)(3,1) - q(1,3).
\end{array}$$
(2.6)

This operator is not self-adjoint (which was the case for the Woronowicz's operator  $\sigma$  – see (1.3)), but  $\alpha^2 = (\alpha^2)^*$  is so, since

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha^2(1,2) &= (2,1), \\ \alpha^2(2,1) &= (2,1), \\ \alpha^2(2,3) &= (2,3), \\ \alpha^2(3,2) &= (2,3), \\ \alpha^2(1,3) &= q^2(1,3) - q(1-q^2)(3,1), \\ \alpha^2(3,1) &= (1-q^2+q^4)(3,1) - q(1-q^2)(1,3). \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.7)$$

The first important property of  $\alpha$  is that it is a Yang-Baxter operator.

**PROPOSITION 2.1.** The operator  $\alpha$  satisfies the Yang-Baxter equation

$$(\alpha \otimes I)(I \otimes \alpha)(\alpha \otimes I) = (I \otimes \alpha)(\alpha \otimes I)(I \otimes \alpha).$$
(2.8)

*Proof.* Let  $L = (\alpha \otimes I)(I \otimes \alpha)(\alpha \otimes I)$  be the left-hand side and  $P = (I \otimes \alpha)(\alpha \otimes I)(I \otimes \alpha)$ be the right-hand side of (2.8). We have to show that L(a, b, c) = P(a, b, c) for every  $a, b, c \in \{1, 2, 3\}$  (with the notation:  $(a, b, c) = \varepsilon_a \otimes \varepsilon_b \otimes \varepsilon_c$ ). This requires checking 27 cases. It is clear that L(a, a, a) = (a, a, a) = P(a, a, a) for any a = 1, 2, 3. The direct calculation provides the following formulas for the other cases.

$$L(3,2,3) = (3,2,3) = P(3,2,3),$$

$$L(2,3,2) = (2,3,2) = P(2,3,2),$$

$$L(1,2,1) = (1,2,1) = P(1,2,1),$$

$$L(2,1,2) = (2,1,2) = P(2,1,2),$$

$$L(1,2,3) = -q^{3}(2,3,1) = P(1,2,3),$$

$$L(1,3,2) = -q^{-1}(3,1,2) = P(3,1,2),$$

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$$L(2,1,1) = q^{-2}(1,1,2) = P(2,1,1),$$

$$L(2,2,1) = q^{-2}(1,2,2) = P(2,2,1).$$

$$(1 - q^{2})(2,2,1) = q^{-2}(1,2,2) = P(2,2,1).$$

$$\begin{array}{rclrcrcrcrcrc} L(3,2,1) &=& (1-q^2)(3,2,1) &-& q(1,2,3) &=& P(3,2,1), \\ L(3,1,2) &=& q^2(1-q^2)(2,3,1) &-& q^3(2,1,3) &=& P(3,1,2), \\ L(2,3,1) &=& q^{-2}(1-q^2)(3,1,2) &-& q^{-1}(1,3,2) &=& P(2,3,1), \\ L(1,3,1) &=& -q(1-q^2)(3,1,1) &+& q^2(1,3,1) &=& P(1,3,1), \\ L(3,1,3) &=& -q(1-q^2)(3,3,1) &+& q^2(3,1,3) &=& P(3,1,3), \end{array}$$

$$L(3,1,1) = (1-q^2)(3,1,1) - q(1-q^2)(1,3,1) + q^2(1,1,3) = P(3,1,1),$$
  

$$L(3,3,1) = (1-q^2)(3,3,1) - q(1-q^2)(3,1,3) + q^2(1,3,3) = P(3,3,1).$$
(2.11)

From these formulas the Proposition follows.

3. The cubic Hecke algebra associated with  $U_q(2)$ . The second important property of the operator  $\alpha$  is that, even though it is not a Hecke operator, it does satisfy a cubic equation, and thus it generates a *cubic Hecke algebra*. This notion has been introduced by Funar in [F], where the cubic equation  $\alpha^3 - I = 0$  was considered.

**PROPOSITION 3.1.** The operator  $\alpha$  satisfies the cubic equation

$$(\alpha^2 - I)(\alpha + q^2 \cdot I) = 0.$$
 (3.12)

*Proof.* From the formulas (2.6), defining  $\alpha$  it follows that it acts on the following subspaces by simple matricial formulas.

- 1. On the span of (1, 2), (2, 1) as  $\beta := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{-1}{q} \\ -q & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .
- 2. On the span of (2,3), (3,2) as  $\beta^* := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -q \\ \frac{-1}{q} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .
- 3. On the span of (1,3), (3,1) as  $\gamma := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -q \\ -q & 1-q^2 \end{pmatrix}$ .
- 4. As identity on every (a, a) with a = 1, 2, 3.

It is straightforward to see that  $\beta^2 - I = 0 = (\beta^*)^2 - I$ . On the other hand, since

$$\gamma^2 = \begin{pmatrix} q^2 & -q(1-q^2) \\ -q(1-q^2) & 1-q^2+q^4 \end{pmatrix}$$

we obtain

$$(\gamma^2 - I)(\gamma + q^2 I) = (q^2 - 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & q \\ q & q^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} q^2 & -q \\ -q & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore both  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  satisfy the equation (3.12), so the  $\alpha$  does.

Let us define the elements

$$h_j := I_j \otimes \alpha \otimes I_{n-j-2} \quad \text{for} \quad j = 1, \dots, n-2, \tag{3.13}$$

where  $I_k$  denotes the identity map on  $(\mathbb{C}^N)^{\otimes k}$ . Then by Propositions 2.1 and 3.1 the elements  $h_1, \ldots, h_n$  generate a cubic Hecke algebra, associated with the quantum group  $U_q(2)$ .

DEFINITION 3.2. The algebra  $\mathcal{H}_{q,n}(2)$  generated by the elements  $h_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$  defined by (3.13) will be called the *cubic Hecke algebra* associated with the quantum group  $U_q(2)$ .

The basic properties of this algebra are summarized in the following.

THEOREM 3.3. The generators  $\{h_j : 1 \leq j \leq n\}$  of  $H_{q,n}(2)$  satisfy:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} h_j h_{j+1} h_j &=& h_{j+1} h_j h_{j+1} & for \ j=1,\ldots,n-1, \\ h_j h_k &=& h_k h_j & for \ |j-k| \ge 2, \\ (h_j)^2 - 1)(h_j + q^2) &=& 0 & for \ j=1,\ldots,n, \end{array}$$

$$(3.14)$$

The role of the Hecke algebra in the study of  $SU_q(2)$  was that it was the intertwining algebra of the tensor powers of the fundamental co-representation. It is still to be checked whether the same role is played here by the  $\mathcal{H}_{q,n}(2)$ . In [W] the irreducible corepresentations have been described, but it was not clear if the description was complete. This problem will be studied elsewhere.

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