

Hopf Algebras and Combinatorics

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Context

These are notes created based on the lectures from San Francisco State University under Prof. Federico Ardila. Hopf algebras seem to be a difficult topic to introduce as a simple definition. They apparently have applications in quantum field theory, pertinent to Feynman diagrams.

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1 Introduction

A Hopf algebra is a complicated mathematical structure with a definition involving lots of properties and scary commutative diagrams. It fundamentally invokes the tensor product, and it is difficult to construct as a complete definition in one sitting, so we must do it in pieces.

Definition 1 (Hopf algebra). A *Hopf algebra* H is a \mathbb{K} -vector space with five operations:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Multiplication: } m &: H \otimes H \rightarrow H \\ \text{Unit: } u &: \mathbb{K} \rightarrow H \\ \text{Comultiplication: } \Delta &: H \rightarrow H \otimes H \\ \text{Counit: } \epsilon &: H \rightarrow \mathbb{K} \\ \text{Antipode: } S &: H \rightarrow H\end{aligned}$$

These definitions invoke lots of commutative diagrams that are difficult to \TeX , so they'll be shown later once a better understanding is developed. Now we must preliminarily define the tensor product.

Definition 2 (Tensor product). Let \mathbb{K} be a field, and let V and W be vector spaces over \mathbb{K} . The tensor product $V \otimes W$ is a vector space over \mathbb{K} generated by vectors $v \otimes w$, $v \in V$, $w \in W$, and satisfying the following properties:

Distributivity over addition: $(v + v') \otimes (w + w') = v \otimes w + v \otimes w' + v' \otimes w + v' \otimes w'$
 Scalar multiplication independent of two arguments: $\lambda(v \otimes w) = \lambda v \otimes w = v \otimes \lambda w$

The combination of these is a property called *bilinearity*. Note that this vector space is much larger than the product space $V \times W$:

$$\dim U \times V = \dim U + \dim V$$

$$\dim U \otimes V = \dim U \dim V$$

This is intuitively obvious because the tensor product defines an *actual* product between elements of V and W , instead of a restricted component structure induced by a Cartesian product, which constrains manipulations to V and W independently.

Example (Tensor product of bases). If $\{v_i\}_{i \in I}$ and $\{w_j\}_{j \in J}$ are bases of V and W , then $\{v_i \otimes w_j \mid i \in I, j \in J\}$ is a basis for $V \otimes W$. Let $\{v_i\}$ and $\{w_j\}$ be the standard bases in two and three dimensions, represented as column and row vectors respectively. One element of the basis for the tensor product is:

$$v_1 \otimes w_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

It is clear that this construction develops the standard basis for $V_2 \otimes W_3$.

Example (Polynomial ring and matrices). Let $V = \mathbb{R}[x]$ and $W = \text{Mat}_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{R})$. A formal expression of an element in $V \otimes W$ is, for example, $(2 + 2x) \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Example (Dirac matrices). The following anticommutation relations have a corresponding matrix representation called the Pauli matrices:

$$\sigma_i^2 = I_2, \quad \sigma_i \sigma_j + \sigma_j \sigma_i = 0, \quad i \neq j \quad (1)$$

$$\sigma_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

To develop the relativistic theory of the electron, Dirac constructed 4×4 matrices γ^μ , $\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$, out of the Pauli matrices using tensor products. The details are not relevant, so we will just display the results:

$$\gamma \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

$$\gamma^0 = \sigma_3 \otimes \mathbf{1}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} I_2 & 0 \\ 0 & -I_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

$$\gamma^i = \gamma \otimes \sigma_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \sigma_i \\ -\sigma_i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (5)$$

The Pauli and Dirac matrices form Clifford algebras respectively, which I don't know anything about.

1.1 Motivating Examples for Hopf Algebras

Example 1 (Groups). Let G be a *finite group* and \mathbb{K} a *field*. To allow multiplication of scalars into the group, define the group ring:

$$H = \mathbb{K}G = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i g_i \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall \lambda_i \in \mathbb{K}, \forall g_i \in G \right\} \quad (6)$$

Multiplication: $m(g \otimes h) = gh$. Extending this linearly:

$$m(g \otimes h) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i g_i \right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n \mu_j h_j \right) = \sum_{i,j} \lambda_i \mu_j (g_i h_j) \quad (7)$$

Comultiplication: $\Delta(g) = g \otimes g$. Extending this linearly:

$$\Delta \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i g_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i (g_i \otimes g_i) \quad (8)$$

These definitions do give a Hopf algebra according to the lecturer.

Remark. The comultiplication $\Delta(g) = 1 \otimes g + g \otimes 1 + g \otimes g$ should also be valid, as the mapping *should* point to all possible information of where g can come from. As we will see later, this idea will be partially evident in future definitions of different structures.

Example 2 (Polynomial Rings). Let $H = \mathbb{K}[X]$, the *polynomial ring*.

Multiplication: $m(X^i \otimes X^j) = X^{i+j}$. Extending this linearly:

$$m \left(\sum_i^k \alpha_i X^i \otimes \sum_j^l \beta_j X^j \right) = \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \beta_j X^{i+j}, \quad \forall \alpha_i, \beta_j \in \mathbb{K}, \forall k, l \in \mathbb{N} \quad (9)$$

Remark. This is a commutative multiplication because the ring forms a commutative algebra by definition, making the multiplication of the tensor product commutative in i and j . This linear extension is obvious because the ring is commutative in addition by definition.

Comultiplication: Extending the logic from groups:

$$\Delta(X) = (1 \otimes X) + (X \otimes 1) \quad (10)$$

Remark. The combination $(X \otimes X)$ is not included here probably because the addition of ring elements is analogous to multiplication of group elements, justifying $g \otimes g$ in the definition for groups.

This ring already has a multiplicative structure, which the coproduct should obey naturally:

$$\Delta(X^2) = [1 \otimes X + X \otimes 1] \cdot [1 \otimes X + X \otimes 1] \quad (11)$$

$$= 1 \otimes X^2 + 2(X \otimes X) + X^2 \otimes 1 \quad (12)$$

This suggests the following extension:

$$\Delta(X^n) = \sum_i^n \binom{n}{i} (X^i \otimes X^{n-i}) \quad (13)$$

Notice the following, which shows the information about the coefficient of a comultiplication:

$$m(\Delta(X^n)) = \sum_i^n \binom{n}{i} X^n = 2^n X^n \quad (14)$$

Example 3 (Graphs). Let $[G]$ be the *isomorphism class* of the graph $G = (V, E)$. The class of all isomorphic graphs is denoted by $L = \{ [G] \mid G \in \mathcal{G} \}$, where \mathcal{G} is the class of all graphs. Let the vector space $H = \mathbb{K}L$, in which the elements are linear combinations of graphs:

$$H = \left\{ \sum_i k_i [G_i] \mid k \in \mathbb{K}, G \in \mathcal{G} \right\} \quad (15)$$

Multiplication: Defined most naturally as a disjoint union of the arguments as components of the graph, which is commutative:

$$m \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{graph 1} \otimes \text{graph 2} \end{array} \right) = \text{graph 1} \cup \text{graph 2} \quad (16)$$

Comultiplication: Not entirely obvious, but a satisfactory definition can be deduced from the previous examples and observations. The comultiplication structure of an element is essentially a decomposition of the components by taking complementary combinations of the subelements of the algebraic structure (FIX THIS).

This idea can be implemented in this vector space as well by selecting a subset S of the vertex set of the graph $V(G)$, constructing the graph based on the existence of edges between the vertices of S , and taking a tensor product with its complement. This is shown by (dropping the isomorphism class notation for brevity):

$$\Delta(G) = \sum_{S \in V(G)} G|_S \otimes G|_{V(G)-S} \quad (17)$$

This is illustrated using the following example:

$$\Delta \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{graph 1} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{graph 2} \otimes \text{graph 3} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{graph 4} \otimes \text{graph 5} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{graph 6} \otimes \text{graph 7} \end{array} \right) + \dots \quad (18)$$

The number of tensor products is easily countable as the number of subsets of $V(G)$, which is 2^n , where n is the number of vertices of the graph G . For the above example, there are 5 vertices, so there are 32 tensor products to be summed over.

Remark. The product of the coproduct of a graph is:

$$m(\Delta(G)) \neq G \quad (19)$$

This indicates that the product of the coproduct of a graph does not bring back the original argument, so m and Δ are not inverse operations. (Note: This is also evident from the group and the polynomial ring examples.)

Example 4 (Permutations). Let P_n denote the set of *all permutations of the subsets* of $\mathbb{N} \pmod n$, where n is finite. To clarify with an example, take the set $\mathbb{N} \pmod 5 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$. Here are two permutations of P_5 :

$$p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 & 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix}, \quad q = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (20)$$

Remark. Although they might have the ‘same’ action, they are fundamentally different elements (of S_5 and S_2 , respectively in the above example) by definition. The set P_n consists of elements of the permutation groups S_1 to S_n . (CHECK)

The vector space is defined as:

$$H = \mathbb{K}P_n = \left\{ \sum_i^n k_i P_i \mid \forall k_i \in \mathbb{K}, \forall P_i \in P_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \quad (21)$$

Note that the coefficients do not imply the number of times of application of their corresponding permutations; they just depict a formal linear extension for the vector space.

Multiplication: An example is $(12) \otimes (123)$ using one-line notation:

$$m((12) \otimes (321)) = 12543 + 15243 + 15423 + 15432 + 51243 + 51423 + \dots \quad (22)$$

Which shows that it respects the order of the arguments while shuffling and generates only *some* permutations of S_5 as a result. This might be represented by using U_i to denote the i th entry of the permutation U :

$$m(U \otimes V) = m((U_1 \dots U_j) \otimes (V_1 \dots V_k)) \quad (23)$$

$$= \sum p(U_1 \dots V_{j+1} \dots U_j \dots V_{j+k}), \quad n(U_j) < n(U_{j+1}), \quad n(V_{i+j}) < n(V_{i+j+1}) \quad (24)$$

Where $p(U_1 \dots V_{i+1} \dots U_i \dots V_{i+j})$ stands for the permutations of the resultant set with the values of V_i right-shifted by j , under the rule that the partial order of the elements is not lost, using $n(U_i)$ to denote placement. (NEEDS IMPROVEMENT)

Comultiplication: Similar to graphs, the coproduct of permutations is obtained by cutting a line between the numbers (in one-line notation, e.g. $(12 \mid 345)$), and writing the

outer product with each piece as a component, then summing over all complementary combinations.

$$\Delta(U_1 U_2 \dots U_n) = \sum_{i=0}^n (U_1 \dots U_i) \otimes (U_{i+1} \dots U_n) \quad (25)$$

An example using a permutation of S_5 :

$$\Delta(4\,2\,5\,3\,1) = (\phi \otimes 42531) + (1 \otimes 2431) + (21 \otimes 321) + \dots \quad (26)$$

Note: Substrings like $(4\,5\,3)$ are just elements of S_3 , so they can be rewritten as $(2\,3\,1)$, and so on for substrings of varying lengths with their corresponding symmetric groups.

Remark. Nothing so far.

2 Algebras Over a Field