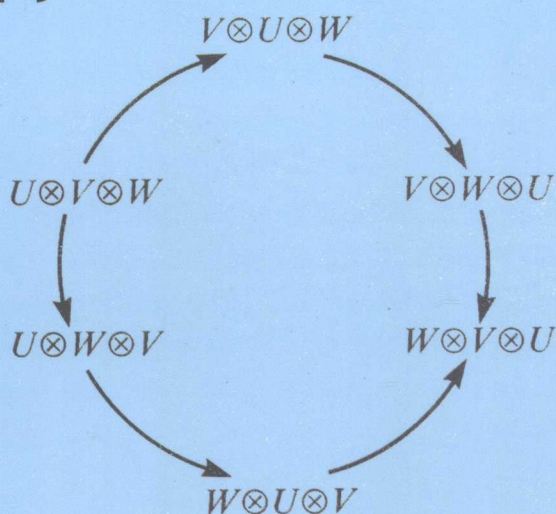


Vyjayanthi Chari and Andrew Pressley

A GUIDE TO

Quantum Groups

量子群入门



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A GUIDE TO
QUANTUM GROUPS

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Contents

Introduction	1
1 Poisson–Lie groups and Lie bialgebras	15
1.1 Poisson manifolds	16
A Definitions	16
B Functorial properties	18
C Symplectic leaves	18
1.2 Poisson–Lie groups	21
A Definitions	21
B Poisson homogeneous spaces	22
1.3 Lie bialgebras	24
A The Lie bialgebra of a Poisson–Lie group	24
B Manin triples	26
C Examples	28
D Derivations	32
1.4 Duals and doubles	33
A Duals of Lie bialgebras and Poisson–Lie groups	33
B The classical double	34
C Compact Poisson–Lie groups	35
1.5 Dressing actions and symplectic leaves	36
A Poisson actions	36
B Dressing transformations and symplectic leaves	37
C Symplectic leaves in compact Poisson–Lie groups	39
D The twisted case	41
1.6 Deformation of Poisson structures and quantization	43
A Deformations of Poisson algebras	43
B Weyl quantization	44
C Quantization as deformation	46
Bibliographical notes	48
2 Coboundary Poisson–Lie groups and the classical Yang–Baxter equation	50
2.1 Coboundary Lie bialgebras	50

A Definitions	50
B The classical Yang–Baxter equation	54
C Examples	55
D The classical double	58
2.2 Coboundary Poisson–Lie groups	59
A The Sklyanin bracket	60
B r -matrices and 2-cocycles	62
C The classical R -matrix	67
2.3 Classical integrable systems	68
A Complete integrability	68
B Lax pairs	69
C Integrable systems from r -matrices	71
D Toda systems	75
Bibliographical notes	77
3 Solutions of the classical Yang–Baxter equation	79
3.1 Constant solutions of the CYBE	80
A The parameter space of non-skew solutions	80
B Description of the solutions	81
C Examples	82
D Skew solutions and quasi-Frobenius Lie algebras	84
3.2 Solutions of the CYBE with spectral parameters	87
A Classification of the solutions	87
B Elliptic solutions	90
C Trigonometric solutions	91
D Rational solutions	95
Bibliographical notes	98
4 Quasitriangular Hopf algebras	100
4.1 Hopf algebras	101
A Definitions	101
B Examples	105
C Representations of Hopf algebras	108
D Topological Hopf algebras and duality	111
E Integration on Hopf algebras	115
F Hopf \ast -algebras	117
4.2 Quasitriangular Hopf algebras	119

A Almost cocommutative Hopf algebras	119
B Quasitriangular Hopf algebras	123
C Ribbon Hopf algebras and quantum dimension	125
D The quantum double	127
E Twisting	129
F Sweedler's example	131
Bibliographical notes	133
5 Representations and quasitensor categories	135
5.1 Monoidal categories	136
A Abelian categories	136
B Monoidal categories	138
C Rigidity	139
D Examples	140
E Reconstruction theorems	147
5.2 Quasitensor categories	149
A Tensor categories	149
B Quasitensor categories	152
C Balancing	154
D Quasitensor categories and fusion rules	154
E Quasitensor categories in quantum field theory	157
5.3 Invariants of ribbon tangles	161
A Isotopy invariants and monoidal functors	161
B Tangle invariants	166
C Central elements	168
Bibliographical notes	168
6 Quantization of Lie bialgebras	170
6.1 Deformations of Hopf algebras	171
A Definitions	171
B Cohomology theory	173
C Rigidity theorems	176
6.2 Quantization	177
A (Co-) Poisson Hopf algebras	177
B Quantization	179
C Existence of quantizations	182
6.3 Quantized universal enveloping algebras	187
A Cocommutative QUE algebras	187
B Quasitriangular QUE algebras	188

C QUE duals and doubles	189
D The square of the antipode	190
6.4 The basic example	192
A Construction of the standard quantization	192
B Algebra structure	196
C PBW basis	199
D Quasitriangular structure	200
E Representations	203
F A non-standard quantization	206
6.5 Quantum Kac-Moody algebras	207
A The standard quantization	207
B The centre	212
C Multiparameter quantizations	212
Bibliographical notes	213
7 Quantized function algebras	215
7.1 The basic example	216
A Definition	216
B A basis of $\mathcal{F}_h(SL_2(\mathbb{C}))$	220
C The R-matrix formulation	222
D Duality	223
E Representations	227
7.2 R-matrix quantization	228
A From R-matrices to bialgebras	228
B From bialgebras to Hopf algebras: the quantum determinant	231
C Solutions of the QYBE	233
7.3 Examples of quantized function algebras	234
A The general definition	234
B The quantum special linear group	235
C The quantum orthogonal and symplectic groups	236
D Multiparameter quantized function algebras	238
7.4 Differential calculus on quantum groups	240
A The de Rham complex of the quantum plane	240
B The de Rham complex of the quantum $m \times m$ matrices	242
C The de Rham complex of the quantum general linear group	244
D Invariant forms on quantum GL_m	245
7.5 Integrable lattice models	246
A Vertex models	246
B Transfer matrices	248

C Integrability	249
D Examples	251
Bibliographical notes	253
8 Structure of QUE algebras: the universal R-matrix	255
8.1 The braid group action	256
A The braid group	256
B Root vectors and the PBW basis	258
8.2 The quantum Weyl group	262
A The sl_2 case	262
B The relation with the universal R-matrix	263
C The general case	265
8.3 The quasitriangular structure	266
A The quantum double construction	266
B The sl_2 case	267
C The general case	271
D Multiplicative properties	274
E Uniqueness of the universal R-matrix	275
F The centre of U_h	275
G Matrix solutions of the quantum Yang-Baxter equation	276
Bibliographical notes	278
9 Specializations of QUE algebras	279
9.1 Rational forms	280
A The definition of U_q	280
B Some basic properties of U_q	282
C The Harish Chandra homomorphism and the centre of U_q	284
D A geometric realization	285
9.2 The non-restricted specialization	288
A The non-restricted integral form	289
B The centre	290
C The quantum coadjoint action	293
9.3 The restricted specialization	296
A The restricted integral form	297
B A remarkable finite-dimensional Hopf algebra	301
C A Frobenius map in characteristic zero	304
D The quiver approach	307

9.4 Automorphisms and real forms	309
A Automorphisms	309
B Real forms	309
Bibliographical notes	311
10 Representations of QUE algebras: the generic case	313
10.1 Classification of finite-dimensional representations	313
A Highest weight modules	313
B The determinant formula	319
C Specialization: the non-root of unity case	324
D R-matrices associated to representations of U_q	327
E Unitary representations	329
10.2 Quantum invariant theory	332
A Hecke and Birman–Murakami–Wenzl algebras	332
B Quantum Brauer–Frobenius–Schur duality	334
C Another realization of Hecke algebras	336
Bibliographical notes	337
11 Representations of QUE algebras: the root of unity case	338
11.1 The non-restricted case	339
A Parametrization of the irreducible representations of U_c	339
B Some explicit constructions	344
C Intertwiners and the QYBE	348
11.2 The restricted case	351
A Highest weight representations	351
B A tensor product theorem	357
C Quasitensor structure	359
D Some conjectures	359
11.3 Tilting modules and the fusion tensor product	361
A Tilting modules	361
B Quantum dimensions	365
C Tensor products	367
D The categorical formulation	370
Bibliographical notes	372

12 Infinite-dimensional quantum groups	374
12.1 Yangians and their representations	375
A Three realizations	375
B Basic properties	380
C Classification of the finite-dimensional representations	383
D Evaluation representations	386
E The sl_2 case	388
12.2 Quantum affine algebras	392
A Another realization: quantum loop algebras	392
B Finite-dimensional representations of quantum loop algebras	394
C Evaluation representations	399
12.3 Frobenius–Schur duality for Yangians and quantum affine algebras	403
A Affine Hecke algebras and their degenerations	403
B Representations of affine Hecke algebras	405
C Duality for $U_\epsilon(sl_{n+1}(\mathbb{C}))$ – revisited	408
D Quantum affine algebras and affine Hecke algebras	410
E Yangians and degenerate affine Hecke algebras	413
12.4 Yangians and infinite-dimensional classical groups	414
A Tame representations	415
B The relation with Yangians	416
12.5 Rational and trigonometric solutions of the QYBE	417
A Yangians and rational solutions	418
B Quantum affine algebras and trigonometric solutions	423
Bibliographical notes	426
13 Quantum harmonic analysis	428
13.1 Compact quantum groups and their representations	430
A Definitions	430
B Highest weight representations	433
C The sl_2 case	435
D The general case: tensor products	437
E The twisted case and quantum tori	439
F Representations at roots of unity	442
13.2 Quantum homogeneous spaces	445
A Quantum G -spaces	445
B Quantum flag manifolds and Schubert varieties	447
C Quantum spheres	448

13.3 Compact matrix quantum groups	451
A C^* completions and compact matrix quantum groups	451
B The Haar integral on compact quantum groups	454
13.4 A non-compact quantum group	459
A The quantum euclidean group	459
B Representation theory	462
C Invariant integration on the quantum euclidean group	463
13.5 q -special functions	465
A Little q -Jacobi polynomials and quantum SU_2	466
B Big q -Jacobi polynomials and quantum spheres	467
C q -Bessel functions and the quantum euclidean group	469
Bibliographical notes	473
14 Canonical bases	475
14.1 Crystal bases	476
A Gelfand–Tsetlin bases	476
B Crystal bases	478
C Globalization	480
D Crystal graphs and tensor products	481
14.2 Lusztig's canonical bases	486
A The algebraic construction	486
B The topological construction	488
C Some combinatorial formulas	490
Bibliographical notes	492
15 Quantum group invariants of knots and 3-manifolds	494
15.1 Knots and 3-manifolds: a quick review	495
A From braids to links	496
B From links to 3-manifolds	502
15.2 Link invariants from quantum groups	504
A Link invariants from R -matrices	504
B Link invariants from vertex models	510
15.3 Modular Hopf algebras and 3-manifold invariants	517
A Modular Hopf algebras	517
B The construction of 3-manifold invariants	522
Bibliographical notes	525

16 Quasi-Hopf algebras and the Knizhnik–Zamolodchikov equation	527
16.1 Quasi-Hopf algebras	528
A Definitions	529
B An example from conformal field theory	533
C Quasi-Hopf QUE algebras	534
16.2 The Kohno–Drinfel'd monodromy theorem	537
A Braid groups and configuration spaces	537
B The Knizhnik–Zamolodchikov equation	539
C The KZ equation and affine Lie algebras	541
D Quantization and the KZ equation	543
E The monodromy theorem	549
16.3 Affine Lie algebras and quantum groups	550
A The category \mathcal{O}_κ	551
B The tensor product	552
C The equivalence theorem	555
16.4 Quasi-Hopf algebras and Grothendieck's esquisse	556
A $\text{Gal}(\overline{\mathbb{Q}}/\mathbb{Q})$ and pro-finite fundamental groups	557
B The Grothendieck–Teichmüller group and quasitriangular quasi-Hopf algebras	559
Bibliographical notes	560
Appendix Kac–Moody algebras	562
A 1 Generalized Cartan matrices	562
A 2 Kac–Moody algebras	562
A 3 The invariant bilinear form	563
A 4 Roots	563
A 5 The Weyl group	564
A 6 Root vectors	565
A 7 Affine Lie algebras	565
A 8 Highest weight modules	566
References	567
Index of notation	638
General index	643

Introduction

Quantum groups first arose in the physics literature, particularly in the work of L. D. Faddeev and the Leningrad school, from the 'inverse scattering method', which had been developed to construct and solve 'integrable' quantum systems. They have excited great interest in the past few years because of their unexpected connections with such, at first sight, unrelated parts of mathematics as the construction of knot invariants and the representation theory of algebraic groups in characteristic p .

In their original form, quantum groups are associative algebras whose defining relations are expressed in terms of a matrix of constants (depending on the integrable system under consideration) called a quantum R-matrix. It was realized independently by V. G. Drinfel'd and M. Jimbo around 1985 that these algebras are Hopf algebras, which, in many cases, are deformations of 'universal enveloping algebras' of Lie algebras. A little later, Yu. I. Manin and S. L. Woronowicz independently constructed non-commutative deformations of the algebra of functions on the groups $SL_2(\mathbb{C})$ and SU_2 , respectively, and showed that many of the classical results about algebraic and topological groups admit analogues in the non-commutative case.

Thus, although many of the fundamental papers on quantum groups are written in the language of integrable systems, their properties are accessible by more conventional mathematical techniques, such as the theory of topological and algebraic groups and Lie algebras. Our aim in this book is to present the theory of quantum groups from this latter point of view. In fact, we shall concentrate on the study of the 'Lie algebras' of quantum groups, which seems to be the approach which has proved most powerful, particularly in applications, but we shall also discuss, in rather less detail, their relation with 'non-commutative algebraic geometry and topology'.

We shall now describe what a quantum group is, beginning by trying to explain the motivation for the use of the adjective 'quantum'.

In classical mechanics, the phase space M of a dynamical system is a *Poisson manifold*. This means that the space $\mathcal{F}(M)$ of (differentiable) complex-valued functions on M is equipped with a Lie bracket $\{ , \} : \mathcal{F}(M) \times \mathcal{F}(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(M)$ (satisfying certain additional conditions), called the Poisson bracket. The dynamical equations defining the time evolution of the system are equivalent to the equations

$$\frac{d}{dt} f(m(t)) = \{ \mathcal{H}_{cl}, f \}(m(t))$$

for $f \in \mathcal{F}(M)$, where \mathcal{H}_{cl} is a fixed function on M called the (classical)

hamiltonian, and $m(t) \in M$ is the 'state' of the system at time t . For example, for a single particle moving along the real line, M is the cotangent bundle $T^*(\mathbb{R})$, and if q is the coordinate on \mathbb{R} ('position') and p the coordinate in the fibre direction ('momentum'), the Poisson bracket is

$$\{f_1, f_2\} = \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial p} \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial q} - \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial p} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial q}.$$

In particular, the Poisson bracket of the coordinate functions is

$$(1) \quad \{p, q\} = 1.$$

In quantum mechanics, the space M is replaced by the set of rays in a complex Hilbert space V , and the space $\mathcal{F}(M)$ of functions on M by the algebra $\text{Op}(V)$ of (not necessarily bounded) operators on V . The time evolution of an operator A is given by

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = [\mathcal{H}_{\text{qu}}, A]$$

for some operator $\mathcal{H}_{\text{qu}} \in \text{Op}(V)$, called the (quantum) hamiltonian. For example, in the case of a single particle moving along the real line, V is the space $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ of square-integrable functions of q , and the operators P and Q corresponding to the coordinate functions p and q are given by

$$P = -\sqrt{-1}h \frac{\partial}{\partial q}, \quad Q = \text{multiplication by } q,$$

where h is $1/2\pi$ times Planck's constant. Note that

$$(2) \quad [P, Q] = -\sqrt{-1}h \text{id}_V.$$

The question is: how to pass from the classical to the quantum description of a system. This is the problem of *quantization*. Ideally, one would like a map \mathcal{Q} which assigns to each function $f \in \mathcal{F}(M)$ an operator $\mathcal{Q}(f)$ on V . Moreover, since time evolution in the classical and quantum descriptions is given by taking the Poisson bracket and commutator with the hamiltonian, respectively, \mathcal{Q} should satisfy the relation

$$\mathcal{Q}\{f_1, f_2\} = \frac{[\mathcal{Q}(f_1), \mathcal{Q}(f_2)]}{-\sqrt{-1}h}$$

(the normalization comes from (1) and (2)). Unfortunately, it is known that, even for the simplest case of a single particle moving along the real line, no such map \mathcal{Q} exists.

There is, however, an alternative formulation of the quantization problem, introduced by J. E. Moyal in 1949. This begins by noting that the fundamental difference between the classical and quantum descriptions is that

$\mathcal{F}(M)$ is a commutative algebra, whereas $\text{Op}(V)$ is non-commutative (when $\dim(V) > 1$). Moyal's idea is to try to reproduce the results of quantum mechanics by replacing the usual product on $\mathcal{F}(M)$ by a non-commutative product $*_h$, depending on a parameter h , such that $*_h$ becomes the usual product as $h \rightarrow 0$, just as 'quantum mechanics becomes classical mechanics as Planck's constant tends to zero', and such that

$$(3) \quad \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f_1 *_h f_2 - f_2 *_h f_1}{h} = \{f_1, f_2\}.$$

If we think of $\mathcal{F}(M)$ with the Moyal product $*_h$ as a non-commutative algebra of functions $\mathcal{F}_h(M)$, we find ourselves in the realm of non-commutative geometry in the sense of A. Connes. The philosophy here is that any 'space' is determined by the algebra of functions on it (with the usual product). For example, every affine algebraic variety over \mathbb{C} is determined (up to isomorphism) by the commutative algebra of regular functions on it, whereas every compact topological space is determined by its commutative C^* -algebra of complex-valued continuous functions. More precisely, the category of 'spaces' in these examples is dual to the category of the corresponding algebras. Thus, a non-commutative algebra should be viewed as the space of functions on a 'non-commutative space', and we can say that Moyal's construction gives a deformation of the classical phase space M to a family of non-commutative (or 'quantum') spaces M_h such that $\mathcal{F}_h(M)$ is the algebra of functions on M_h .

The category of quantum spaces, then, might be defined as the category dual to the category of associative, but not necessarily commutative, algebras. To define the notion of a quantum group, let us first return for a moment to the classical situation. If G is a group, the multiplication $\mu : G \times G \rightarrow G$ of G induces a homomorphism $\mu^* = \Delta : \mathcal{F}(G) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(G \times G)$ of algebras of functions. Now, if we define the algebra $\mathcal{F}(G)$ and the tensor product appropriately, $\mathcal{F}(G \times G)$ will be isomorphic to $\mathcal{F}(G) \otimes \mathcal{F}(G)$ as an algebra. For example, if G is an affine algebraic group over \mathbb{C} , and $\mathcal{F}(G)$ is the algebra of regular functions on G , the ordinary algebraic tensor product will do. Thus, we have a comultiplication $\Delta : \mathcal{F}(G) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(G) \otimes \mathcal{F}(G)$. (The reason for this terminology is that the multiplication on $\mathcal{F}(G)$ can be viewed as a map $\mathcal{F}(G) \otimes \mathcal{F}(G) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(G)$.) Similarly, the inverse map $\iota : G \rightarrow G$ induces a map $\iota^* = S : \mathcal{F}(G) \rightarrow \mathcal{F}(G)$, called the antipode, and evaluation at the identity element of G is a homomorphism $\epsilon : \mathcal{F}(G) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, called the counit. The maps Δ , S and ϵ satisfy certain compatibility properties which reflect the defining properties of the inverse and the associativity of multiplication in G , and combine to give $\mathcal{F}(G)$ the structure of a *Hopf algebra*.

We might therefore define the category of quantum groups to be the category dual to the category of (not necessarily commutative) Hopf algebras. (We said 'might' here, and in our tentative definition of a quantum space, because,

to ensure that the categories of quantum spaces and quantum groups have reasonable properties, it would be necessary to impose some restrictions on the class of algebras which are acceptable as 'quantized algebras of functions'. Manin suggests that one should work with 'Koszul algebras', but we shall not discuss this point here.) As is common practice in the literature, we shall often abuse terminology by referring to a Hopf algebra itself as a quantum group.

As the preceding discussion suggests, one way to try to construct non-classical examples of quantum groups is to look for deformations, in the category of Hopf algebras, of classical algebras of functions $\mathcal{F}(G)$. Just as the classical Poisson bracket can be recovered as the 'first order part' of Moyal's deformation (see (3)), so it turns out that the existence of a deformation $\mathcal{F}_\hbar(G)$ of $\mathcal{F}(G)$ automatically endows the group G itself with extra structure, namely that of a *Poisson-Lie group*. This is a Poisson structure on G which is compatible with the group structure in a certain sense. Conversely, to construct deformations of $\mathcal{F}(G)$, it is natural to begin by describing the possible Poisson-Lie group structures on G and then to attempt to extend these 'first order deformations' to full deformations. This is the approach taken in this book. Poisson-Lie groups are also of interest in their own right, for they form the natural setting for the study of classical integrable systems with symmetry.

There is another Hopf algebra associated to any Lie group G , namely the universal enveloping algebra $U(\mathfrak{g})$ of its Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . This is essentially the dual of $\mathcal{F}(G)$ in the category of Hopf algebras. In general, the vector space dual A^* of any finite-dimensional Hopf algebra A is also a Hopf algebra: the multiplication $A^* \otimes A^* \rightarrow A^*$ is dual to the comultiplication $\Delta : A \rightarrow A \otimes A$ of A , and the comultiplication of A^* is dual to the multiplication of A . Note that A^* is commutative if and only if A is cocommutative, i.e. if and only if $\Delta(A)$ is contained in the symmetric part of $A \otimes A$. If, as is usually the case in examples of interest, A is infinite dimensional, this duality often continues to hold provided the dual and tensor product are defined appropriately. To a deformation $\mathcal{F}_\hbar(G)$ of $\mathcal{F}(G)$ through (not necessarily commutative) Hopf algebras therefore corresponds a deformation $U_\hbar(\mathfrak{g})$ of $U(\mathfrak{g})$ through (not necessarily cocommutative) Hopf algebras.

In fact, only non-cocommutative deformations of $U(\mathfrak{g})$ are of interest, since any deformation of $U(\mathfrak{g})$ through cocommutative Hopf algebras is necessarily of the form $U(\mathfrak{g}_\hbar)$ for some deformation \mathfrak{g}_\hbar of \mathfrak{g} through Lie algebras. However, many interesting Lie algebras have no non-trivial deformations. This is the case, for example, if \mathfrak{g} is a (finite-dimensional) complex semisimple Lie algebra, such as the Lie algebra $sl_2(\mathbb{C})$ of 2×2 complex matrices of trace zero. This follows from the fact that the condition of semisimplicity is open, so that any small deformation of \mathfrak{g} will still be semisimple, whereas the semisimple Lie algebras are discretely parametrized (by their Dynkin diagrams, for example).

The first example of a non-cocommutative deformation of this type was discovered by P. P. Kulish and E. K. Sklyanin in 1981 in the case $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})$ (although the importance of its Hopf structure was not realized until later). Note that $\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})$ has a basis

$$(4) \quad \bar{X}^+ = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{X}^- = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{H} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

whose Lie brackets are given by

$$(5a) \quad [\bar{X}^+, \bar{X}^-] = \bar{H}, \quad [\bar{H}, \bar{X}^\pm] = \pm 2\bar{X}^\pm.$$

The comultiplication is given on these basis elements by

$$(5b) \quad \Delta(\bar{H}) = \bar{H} \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes \bar{H}, \quad \Delta(\bar{X}^\pm) = \bar{X}^\pm \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes \bar{X}^\pm,$$

an assignment which extends uniquely to an algebra homomorphism $\Delta : U(\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})) \rightarrow U(\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})) \otimes U(\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C}))$. The deformation $U_h(\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C}))$ is generated by elements H, X^\pm , which satisfy the relations

$$(6a) \quad X^+ X^- - X^- X^+ = \frac{e^{hH} - e^{-hH}}{e^h - e^{-h}}, \quad H X^\pm - X^\pm H = \pm 2X^\pm.$$

It has a non-cocommutative comultiplication given on generators by

$$(6b) \quad \begin{aligned} \Delta(H) &= H \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes H, \\ \Delta(X^+) &= X^+ \otimes e^{hH} + 1 \otimes X^+, \quad \Delta(X^-) = X^- \otimes 1 + e^{-hH} \otimes X^-. \end{aligned}$$

Formally, at least, it is clear that (6a) and (6b) go over into (5a) and (5b) as $h \rightarrow 0$. The Hopf algebra defined in (6a,b) is called 'quantum $\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C})$ '. (See Chapter 6 for the formulas for the antipode and counit of $U_h(\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C}))$, and for a way to make sense of expressions such as e^{hH} .)

The Hopf algebra dual to $U_h(\mathfrak{sl}_2(\mathbb{C}))$, the 'algebra $\mathcal{F}_h(SL_2(\mathbb{C}))$ of functions on quantum $SL_2(\mathbb{C})$ ', was discovered by L. D. Faddeev and L. A. Takhtajan in 1985. It is the associative algebra generated by elements a, b, c, d with the following multiplicative relations:

$$(7) \quad ab = e^{-h}ba, \quad ac = e^{-h}ca, \quad bd = e^{-h}db, \quad cd = e^{-h}dc,$$

$$(8) \quad bc = cb, \quad ad - da + (e^h - e^{-h})bc = 0,$$

$$(9) \quad ad - e^{-h}bc = 1,$$

and comultiplication

$$\Delta(a) = a \otimes a + b \otimes c, \quad \Delta(b) = a \otimes b + b \otimes d,$$