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# On quantum spin-chain spectra and the representation theory of Hecke algebras by augmented braid diagrams 

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#### Abstract

We use simple diagrammatic techniques to analyse the ordinary representation theory of the $A_{n}$ Hecke algebras $H_{n}(q)$, and to construct $H_{n}(q)$ modules (resp. representations) which are generically simple (irreducible) and well defined in every specialization of $q$, including roots of unity. We determine several physically important properties of these modules, generalizing properties of the Temperley-Lieb algebra and its diagrams which have proved useful for lattice models.

We show how these results can be used to locate energy level crossings in $U_{q} \mathrm{sl}(N)$ invariant quantum spin chains, and locate a new crossing of the thermodynamic limit $U_{q} \mathrm{sl}(3)$ spin chain at $\frac{q^{5}-1}{q-1}=0$ as an example.


## 1. Introduction

Recent results of Lascoux et al [29], Grojnowski [20], Soergel [43] and Ariki [2] narrow a crucial gap in the programme of analysis of $A_{n}$ Hecke algebra representation theory proposed in [32]. The programme can now be developed to give extensive information on the energy level crossings of $U_{q} \mathrm{sl}(N)$ invariant quantum spin chains and vertex models (cf [41, 42]). This note begins with a review of the relevant background in the ordinary representation theory of the $A_{n}$ Hecke algebras $H_{n}(q)$, using a simple diagrammatic technique (a variant of braids [5] with some features of Penrose diagrams [39]). In fact this technique turns out to be so powerful that we are able to include quick and simple new proofs of key, but hitherto difficult, results in our review. We then proceed to give new results on the structure of the exceptional cases. We use these to show how 'classical' results for the symmetric group may be applied to spectrum level crossing problems, concluding with some specific results in this area. Taken with the recent work of Lascoux et al [29] and Ariki [2] on decomposition matrices of Specht modules this should in principle enable the reader to compute all $q$-variation level crossings of $U_{q} \mathrm{sl}(N)$ spin chains.

The Hecke algebras are important in the study of exactly solvable models $[4,9,10]$, in computation in more general statistical mechanical models, and in the study of reactiondiffusion processes [1]. They arise particularly in quantum spin chains [40] (including those thought to be relevant to Anderson's t-J model, and hence to high $T_{c}$ superconductivity [3, 27, 34], although we will not make our approach specific to this case) and in the transfermatrix formulation of many classical two-dimensional models such as Potts, vertex, IRF and generalized Andrews-Baxter-Forrester models. For a review and references see [12]. The 'universal' Hamiltonian, $\mathcal{H}$, is given in equation (6) below. In all cases $H_{n}(q)$ for
given $n$ builds a system of physical 'size' proportional to $n$, so it is rather the sequence of algebras

$$
H_{*}=\left\{H_{1}(q) \subset \cdots \subset H_{n}(q) \subset H_{n+1}(q) \subset \cdots\right\}
$$

approaching the thermodynamic limit of large $n$ which is of interest. The collective representation theory of these algebras gives a classification scheme for the spectra of spin chains [34] and for classical thermodynamic observables [32], and may reveal hidden symmetries of the model [38]. It also determines a lower bound on the degeneracies of eigenvalues in the Hamiltonian $\mathcal{H}$, or transfer matrix $\mathcal{T}$, and $q=$ roots of unity have been identified as energy level crossing points ([33] and see later).

Unfortunately the determination of the structure of $H_{n}(q)$ at roots of unity has always appeared very complicated. (Even a description of the structure, where known, can appear so [32]!) Here, by pulling together several strands of recent technology and illustrating them with some intuitive pictures we have been able to develop a relatively straightforward form of analysis (and one which provides a suitably unified treatment of all the elements of $H_{*}$ ). This simplicity has in turn allowed us to obtain previously inaccessible results on the structure of the $q^{r}=1$ exceptional cases.

### 1.1. Basic definitions

(1.1). Recall $[5,22]$ that the braid group on $n$ strings $B_{n}$ has generators $1, g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{n-1}$ and inverses, and relations:

$$
\begin{align*}
& g_{i} g_{i+1} g_{i}=g_{i+1} g_{i} g_{i+1}  \tag{1}\\
& g_{i} g_{j}=g_{j} g_{i} \quad i \neq j \pm 1 . \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

(1.2). For $q \in \mathbb{C}$ the Hecke algebra $H_{n}=H_{n}(q)$ is the quotient of the braid group algebra $\mathbb{C} B_{n}$ by the relations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(g_{i}+1\right)\left(g_{i}-q\right)=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note in particular, therefore, that $H_{n}(1)=\mathbb{C} S_{n}$, the group algebra of the symmetric group. Recall that this is a semi-simple algebra with irreducible representations indexed by Young diagrams of degree $n$, written $\lambda \vdash n$ [24].
(1.3). The set of weights of degree $n$, depth $N$, is

$$
\Lambda(n, N)=\left\{\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{N}\right) \mid \lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{N}_{0}, \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}=n\right\} .
$$

Let $S_{N}$ act on $\Lambda(n, N)$ via $\pi \lambda=\left(\lambda_{\pi(1)}, \lambda_{\pi(2)}, \ldots\right)$. The orbits of this action may be indexed by their dominant weights (Young diagrams)

$$
\Lambda^{+}(n, N)=\left\{\lambda \in \Lambda(n, N) \mid \lambda_{i} \geqslant \lambda_{i+1}\right\}
$$

so $\lambda \vdash n$ means $\lambda \in \Lambda^{+}(n, n)$. For $\lambda \in \Lambda(n, N)$ let $\lambda^{d}$ denote the dominant weight in the orbit of $\lambda$. For $\lambda \vdash n$ let $\lambda^{\prime}$ denote the Young diagram conjugate to $\lambda$.
(1.4). A set of words in $1, g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{n-1}$ is a basis of $H_{n}(q)$ if it is identically the set $S_{n}$ in case $q=1$. Conversely, writing $S_{n}$ as a set of reduced words, this set passes to a reduced basis $\mathfrak{B}_{n}$ of $H_{n}(q)$, unique up to equations (1) and (2).
(1.5). By equation (3) every word is in $\mathbb{H}_{n}:=\mathbb{Z}[q] \mathfrak{B}_{n}$, the $\mathbb{Z}[q]$ span of the reduced basis. Thus $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ is a $\mathbb{Z}[q]$-form of the algebra, and $H_{n}(q):=\mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}[q]} \mathbb{H}_{n}$.
(1.6). For $x \in H_{n}(q)$ and $b \in \mathfrak{B}_{n}$ write $\mathfrak{C}_{b}(x)$ for the coefficient of $b$ in $x$.
(1.7). For $b \in \mathfrak{B}_{n}$ let $b^{T}$ denote the word obtained by reversing the order of letters. This transformation may be extended linearly to $H_{n}(q)$.
(1.8). For $x \in H_{n}(q)$ then $x^{(k)}$ is $x$ 'translated' by $g_{i} \mapsto g_{i+k}$ for all $i$ (we think of $H_{n}(q)$ embedded naturally in $\left.H_{m}(q), m \gg n, k\right)$.

The main outstanding interest in Hecke algebras lies in cases where $H_{n}(q)$ has a representation theory different from that of $\mathbb{C} S_{n}$. As we will verify, $H_{n}(q) \cong \mathbb{C} S_{n}$ unless $q$ is one of a certain set of algebraic points. We will call these points special, and the remainder generic.
(1.9). Irrespective of the choice of $q$, we always have a $q$-generalization of the (unnormalized) Young symmetrizer [47]. For $N \in \mathbb{N}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{N+1}=1+g_{1}+g_{2} g_{1}+\cdots+g_{N} g_{N-1} \ldots g_{1} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

(so $L_{3}^{(1)}=1+g_{2}+g_{3} g_{2}$, for example); and the unnormalized $q$-Young symmetrizer is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{0}=Y_{1}=1 \quad Y_{N+1}=L_{N+1} Y_{N}^{(1)} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

(1.10). Let $[N]=\frac{q^{N}-1}{q-1}$ (called $q$-integers), $[0]!=1,[N]!=\prod_{i=1}^{N}[i]$, and for $\lambda \vdash n[\lambda]!=\prod_{i}\left[\lambda_{i}\right]!$ (product over rows of $\lambda$ ). Let $K$ denote the monoid generated by $q$-integers and $q$.

Proposition 1. The element $Y_{N} \in \mathbb{H}_{N}$ obeys $Y_{N}=\sum_{b \in \mathfrak{B}_{n}} b, Y_{N}^{T}=Y_{N}$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g_{i} Y_{N}=Y_{N} g_{i}=q Y_{N} \quad(i=1,2, \ldots, N-1) \\
& Y_{N} Y_{N}=[N]!Y_{N} .
\end{aligned}
$$

(1.11). Hence for $1 \leqslant m<n, H_{n} Y_{m} H_{n} \supset H_{n} Y_{m+1} H_{n}$. For $N \in \mathbb{N}$ define quotient algebras

$$
H_{n}^{N}:= \begin{cases}H_{n} / H_{n} Y_{N+1} H_{n} & N<n \\ H_{n} & N \geqslant n\end{cases}
$$

(1.12). In a given physical model the representation $\mathcal{R}$ of $H_{n}(q)$ appearing in the model Hamiltonian

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{H}=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \mathcal{R}\left(g_{i}\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

(or the corresponding transfer matrix) is universally characterized by the vanishing of the image of certain elements of the algebra. For example, for $V_{N}$ the fundamental $U_{q} \operatorname{sl}(N)$ module, the representation $\mathcal{R}_{N}: H_{n}(q) \rightarrow \operatorname{End}\left(V_{N}^{\otimes n}\right)$ which appears in the $U_{q} \operatorname{sl}(N)$ invariant spin chain and associated vertex models [10, 11,33] obeys $\mathcal{R}_{N}\left(Y_{N+1}\right)=0$. Indeed the quotient algebras $H_{n}^{N}$ are faithfully represented by the representations $\mathcal{R}_{N}$ arising in these models [33]. Now while for given $n$ the algebras $H_{n}$ and $H_{n}^{N}$ can be identified for large enough $N$, with fixed $N$ the sequence $H_{*}$ and the sequence

$$
H_{*}^{N}=\left\{H_{n}^{N}: n=1,2, \ldots ; N \text { fixed }\right\}
$$

are markedly different objects (for example, the corresponding Hamiltonians have different ground states [34]).

### 1.2. Representation theory generalities

We will show that the representation theory of $H_{n}^{N}$ may be determined largely from that of the subalgebras $H_{m}^{N}$ for all $m<n$, with the remaining calculations being relatively simple. This means in principle that any $H_{n}^{N}$ can be analysed by iteration on $n$ from the base $H_{1}=H_{1}^{N} \cong \mathbb{C}$.

In particular, one crucial observation relates $H_{*}^{N}$ algebras of different size $n$ :
Proposition 2. For $q,[N]!\neq 0$ there is an isomorphism of unital algebras

$$
Y_{N} H_{n+N}^{N} Y_{N} \cong H_{n}^{N}
$$

given by $x^{(N)} Y_{N} \mapsto x$.
We will prove this diagrammatically in section 2 . Let us first look at the consequences of this result. To do this succinctly we can use category theory [7] (readers unfamiliar with this might skip the next paragraph and wait until we have introduced our own pictorial formalism for a detailed explanation).
(1.13). It is standard (Green [19]) that if $A$ is an algebra and $e$ an idempotent in $A$ then there is an exact functor on the category of left $A$ modules (in this paper module will mean left module unless otherwise stated):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& G^{\prime}: A-\bmod \rightarrow e A e-\bmod \\
& G^{\prime}: \mathcal{M} \mapsto e \mathcal{M}
\end{aligned}
$$

(see $[19,32]$ for the morphism map). Consider the case in which $A$ is $H_{n+N}^{N}$ and $e=\frac{Y_{N}}{[N]!}$ (for $[N]!\neq 0$ ). Proposition 2 says that we may extend the functor trivially onto $H_{n}^{N}-\bmod$. This functor takes an irreducible representation to an irreducible representation (or zero), and is surjective. There is a right (but not left) inverse map

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F^{\prime}: e A e-\bmod \rightarrow A-\bmod \\
& F^{\prime}: \mathcal{N} \mapsto A e \otimes_{e A e} \mathcal{N}
\end{aligned}
$$

so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
F^{\prime} G^{\prime}(A)=A e \otimes_{e A e} e A=A e \otimes_{e A e} A \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
G^{\prime} F^{\prime}(\mathcal{N})=e A e \otimes_{e A e} \mathcal{N} \cong \mathcal{N} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

(1.14). Now let

$$
\Delta=\left\{\mathcal{N}_{1}, \mathcal{N}_{2}, \ldots\right\}
$$

be a complete set of inequivalent simple modules of $e A e$. Then by equation (8)

$$
F^{\prime}\left(\mathcal{N}_{1}\right), F^{\prime}\left(\mathcal{N}_{2}\right), \ldots
$$

are distinct $A$ modules. Suppose $V$ is a proper submodule of $F^{\prime}\left(\mathcal{N}_{i}\right)$. Then $e V=0$ (for suppose $e V \neq 0$, then $G^{\prime}(V)=e V \subseteq \mathcal{N}_{i}$, and thus in fact $e V \cong \mathcal{N}_{i}$, since the latter is a simple eAe-module, whereupon $V \supseteq \operatorname{AeV}=F^{\prime}\left(\mathcal{N}_{i}\right)$-a contradiction). Now let $V_{i}$ be the sum of all submodules $V$ with $e V=0$. Then this is the unique maximal proper submodule of $F^{\prime}\left(\mathcal{N}_{i}\right)$. Thus

$$
F^{\prime}\left(\mathcal{N}_{1}\right) / V_{1}, F^{\prime}\left(\mathcal{N}_{2}\right) / V_{2}, \ldots
$$

are inequivalent simple modules of $A$. If a simple module $M$ has no equivalent in this list then $e M=0$, so $M$ is also an $A / A e A$ module.

A useful example if this set-up is the well known result:
Proposition 3. For $A$, a $k$-algebra, let $e \in A$ be a primitive indempotent. Then the left ideal $A e$ has unique maximal proper submodule.

Proof. Primitivity implies $e A e=k e \cong k$ as a $k$-algebra. Thus $\mathcal{N}_{1}=k e$ is (the only) simple $k e$-module, and so $F^{\prime}(k e)=A e$ has unique maximal proper submodule.

To summarize: the irreducible representations $\mathcal{R}$ of $A-\bmod$ are in correspondence with those of $e A e-\bmod$, except that those also in $A / A e A-\bmod$ (i.e. those for which $\mathcal{R}(e)=0$, which will be taken to zero by $G^{\prime}$ ) do not have a correspondent in $e A e$ and must be discovered separately.

For example, in our case, if we know the representations and morphisms (intertwiners) of $H_{n}^{N}$ (and hence of $Y_{N} H_{n+N}^{N} Y_{N}$ ) we know those of $H_{n+N}^{N}$, except for those coming from $H_{n+N}^{N} / H_{n+N}^{N} Y_{N} H_{n+N}^{N}$, which we must determine by a separate calculation. But this quotient is just $H_{n+N}^{N-1}$, so again these may be determined by iteration (this time on $N$ with base $H_{n+N}^{1} \cong \mathbb{C}$ ). Indeed given proposition 2 we can move straight to a fundamental result on $H_{n}^{N}$ :

Proposition 4. For $q,[N]!\neq 0$, irreducible representations of $H_{n}^{N}$ are indexed by $\Lambda^{+}(n, N)$.
Outline proof. (We will complete this proof in section 3.3). By induction on $n$ and $N$. For each $n$ and $N$ define $f$ to be the isomorphism functor corresponding to proposition 2, and $F=F^{\prime} f^{-1}$ and $G=f G^{\prime}$. Now suppose the proposition true at level $H_{n-N}^{N}$ and level $H_{n}^{N-1}$ (of $n$ and $N$ respectively). Then all the irreducibles indexed by Young diagrams with less than $N$ rows come from $H_{n}^{N-1}$, and the image of $\lambda \in \Gamma^{+}(n-N, N)$ under $F$ is $\lambda+(1,1, \ldots, 1)$.

This is, as it were, a profoundly mathematical construction. One striking thing about it, therefore, is the fact that the map $F$ preserves statistical mechanical observables in the following sense. The spectrum of a physical transfer matrix or Hamiltonian as in equation (6) breaks up into parts from distinct irreducible representations of $H_{n}(q)$ contained within it. Now, appropriately treated eigenvalues can be collected from a set of increasing values of $n$ to form a converging sequence approaching a large $n$ limit observable-but there is essentially only one way of doing this [8]. For example, for each $n$ the free energy comes from the largest eigenvalue of the transfer matrix, and it is easy to figure out which irreducible representation gives this [34]. The functor $F$ which takes us from one $n$ to another correctly picks out the appropriate representation each time! There is also evidence that it maps spin-spin correlations to spin-spin correlations, and so on. A partial explanation is given in [32], but this deserves full generalization. In the present paper we deal with the mathematical side of this issue.

Another way of looking at this is through the $q$-Schur-Weyl duality $H_{n}^{N} \cong$ $\operatorname{End}_{U_{q} \mathrm{sl}(N)}\left(V_{N}^{\otimes n}\right)$ [33], which implies that for each $n$ the index set for irreducibles of $H_{n}^{N}$ maps injectively into the index set for irreducibles of $U_{q} \operatorname{sl}(N)$. Since this set is independent of $n$ it provides a formal link between those irreducibles of $H_{n_{1}}^{N}$ and $H_{n_{2}}^{N}$ (say) with the same $U_{q} \operatorname{sl}(N)$ index. We will see in section 3 that the $F$ and $U_{q} \operatorname{sl}(N)$ links coincide.

Note that $Y_{N}$ is central in $H_{N}^{N}$. On the dual $U_{q} \operatorname{sl}(N)$ side it is a projector from $V_{N}^{\otimes N}$ to the trivial representation $V_{\left(1^{N}\right)}$. Proposition 2 may be verified in these terms, given the duality, by observing that $V_{N}^{\otimes n} \cong V_{\left(1^{N}\right)} \otimes V_{N}^{\otimes n}$. We will include a direct proof of the
proposition, however, since this is self-contained and very much shorter than the proof of duality!

The functors $F$ will also allow us to explicitly construct representations of any $H_{n}(q)$ by iterating from the known representations of $H_{q}(q) \cong \mathbb{C}$.
(1.15). Let $A$ be an algebra, $M \in A-\bmod$ and $\mathcal{S} \subset A-\bmod$. We say that $M$ has an $\mathcal{S}$-filtration if it has a finite series of submodules $0=M_{0} \subset M_{1} \subset \cdots \subset M_{l}=M$ such that for each $i=1,2, \ldots, l$ there is some $N \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $M_{i} / M_{i-1} \cong N$. Then $N$ is called an $\mathcal{S}$-filtration factor of $M$. If the number of times $N$ occurs in a given series for $M$ is independent of the choice of series, then it is called the filtration multiplicity of $N$ in $M$. For example, if $\mathcal{S}$ is a complete set of inequivalent simple modules then every finite dimensional module has an $\mathcal{S}$-filtration, and well defined filtration multiplicities (in this case called composition multiplicities) with respect to $\mathcal{S}$.

### 1.3. Physics motivation and interpretation

Physically, while proposition 4 is well known for generic $q$ [22], it is even more useful for $q$ roots of unity (or at least those with $[N]!\neq 0$, i.e. $q^{N+1}=1$ and higher roots) since, while it is known that the size of irreducible representations generally gets smaller at roots of unity [33] we learn here that the number of distinct ones remains fixed. The only consistent explanation of this in a Hamiltonian representation $\mathcal{R}$ of dimension independent of $q$ is that the multiplicities of irreducibles (and hence of Hamiltonian eigenvalues) increases at such a $q$, i.e. we have energy level crossings! The manner in which the functor $F$ maps from $H_{n}^{N}$ (via proposition 2) to $H_{n+N}^{N}$ tells us that once such a level crossing occurs at some level $n$ it will be present at all higher levels $n_{l}=n+l N$ in the sequence. Thus it is not an accidental crossing, but a phenomenon which will survive to the thermodynamic limit.

In fact the spin-chain representation $\mathcal{R}_{N}$ has (independent of $q$ ) a filtration with factors the set of generically irreducible representations we will construct (this is standard, see [21]), thus if we can determine the morphisms and composition series of these representations in terms of irreducibles (dependent on $q$ ) we have substantial information on the $q$ dependence of spectrum degeneracies.

### 1.4. Explicit applications: level crossings

Fix $N$ (indeed it may be helpful to think concretely of $N=3$ ), and recall that a partial classification of states of the basic $n=N m+l$ site $U_{q} \operatorname{sl}(N)$ invariant spin chain ( $n$ large, $l \in\{0,1, \ldots, N-1\})$ can be made in terms of partitions $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{N-1}\right)$ where $\lambda_{1} \geqslant \lambda_{2} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant \lambda_{N-1} \geqslant 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \lambda_{i}$ is congruent to $l \bmod N$. We see from above that this corresponds to a classification for irreducible representations of $H_{n}^{N}(q)$ in the large $n$ limit, stabilized by the $F$ and $G$ functors. That is, the fibre of representations labelled $\left(\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{N-1}\right)$ is all those representations with the usual index of the form $\left(p+\lambda_{1}, p+\lambda_{2}, \ldots, p+\lambda_{N-1}, p\right), p \in \mathbb{N}$ (for given $p$ the action of $F$ takes $\left(p+\lambda_{1}, p+\lambda_{2}, \ldots, p+\lambda_{N-1}, p\right)$ to $\left(p+1+\lambda_{1}, p+1+\lambda_{2}, \ldots, p+1+\lambda_{N-1}, p+1\right)$ ).

The multiplicity (at fixed momentum) of an eigenvalue of the Hamiltonian in equation (6) will be given by the multiplicity of the corresponding irreducible representation ( $L(\mu)$, say) in $\mathcal{R}_{N}$. By duality this multiplicity equals the dimension of the corresponding indecomposable summand $T^{\prime}(\mu)$ of $V_{N}^{\otimes n}$ as a $U_{q} \operatorname{sl}(N)$-module (the 'tilting module' [17]here we use primes on modules to distinguish $U_{q} \operatorname{sl}(N)$-modules, and for these $\mu$ should be read as the fibre label). The dimension of $T^{\prime}(\mu)$ may be determined from its Weyl module content (since the dimensions of Weyl modules are known [37]). On general grounds [16]
the multiplicity of Weyl module $\Delta^{\prime}(\lambda)$ in tilting module $T^{\prime}(\mu)$ coincides with that of $H_{n}^{N}(q)$ Specht module $S^{\lambda}$ (see later) in $H_{n}^{N}(q)$ indecomposable projective module $P(\mu)$. And these, finally, are multiplicities which can be directly determined from results in this paper!

For example, later, in equations (31) and (32), we will exhibit a level crossing at $n=5$ between states of the $U_{q} \mathrm{sl}(3)$ Hamiltonian corresponding to the generic irreducible representations indexed by $(3,1,1)$ and $(4,1)$, as $q$ passes through $[5]=0$. The point is, because of the $F$ functor acting on the morphism between these two modules, our $n=5$ result tells us that the $\lambda=(2)$ and $\lambda=(4,1)$ states of the basic $l=2 U_{q} \mathrm{sl}(3)$ spin chain always produce a level crossing at $q^{5}=1(q \neq 1)$, i.e. for $n=3 m+2$, any $m$. (In fact it is implicit in Wenzl [45] and in [32] that there are $r=5$ level crossings associated with $\lambda=(2)$ in this model. The identification of the sector responsible is new, however.) Altogether, the thermodynamic limit multiplicity of the part of the Hamiltonian spectrum labelled by $(4,1)$ increases at [5] $=0$ from its generic level of 24 -fold degeneracy (recall [37] that the dimension of $U \mathrm{sl}(3)$ Weyl module $\Delta^{\prime}(\lambda)$ is $\frac{1}{2}\left(\lambda_{1}+2\right)\left(\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}+1\right)\left(\lambda_{2}+1\right)$ to 30 -fold degeneracy ( 30 being the dimension of the corresponding tilting module, computed via $T^{\prime}(4,1)=\Delta^{\prime}(4,1)+\Delta^{\prime}(2)$-see section 3.4).

Further, we will see that the $\lambda=(4,1)$ and $\lambda=(5)$ states also have crossings (this is implicit in [32]), but the states of the $(4,1)$ sector involved in these crossings are disjoint from the crossings of $(4,1)$ and (2).

### 1.5. Overview

To derive these results we are unavoidably concerned with mathematical tools. We will go into details only when they are physically or otherwise intuitively helpful, or when conducive to organizing in a physical way. Recent papers in this area use crystal base and algebraic geometry $[2,29]$. These are beautiful, but not relevant by the above criteria. We treat them as black boxes. We will, however, provide sufficient background to enable their use to find level crossings. A few remarks on feedback of our results into representation theory are placed in appendix B.

Lascoux et al [29] give an algorithm for determining simple composition factors of Specht modules. This is data we need (we will discuss the role of Specht modules), but since it is only an algorithm it is not so useful without some additional organizational control over the data it produces. We will see that proposition 2 provides this. Also, note our thermodynamic limit process works through tracking module morphisms. The decomposition matrices which encode all the composition factors do not provide this data. However, some of it can be recovered by comparing them with Gram matrix determinant calculations (section 4).

In the next section we prove proposition 2. In section 3 we use this to construct 'standard' modules of $H_{n}^{N}(q)$ and to determine their images under the $F$ and $G$ functors, and in section 4 we look at the simple submodules of these modules and associated level crossings.

## 2. Diagrammatic proof of proposition 2

Having glimpsed the utility of proposition 2 we will now prove it. To avoid the opacity and tedium of an 'index chasing' proof (cf [32] for example) we introduce some diagrams, making crude use of the Hecke algebra's properties as a braid-group quotient. The basic idea is to help locate elements and subalgebras 'spatially' with respect to the 'strings' of the braid (the notion of $i$ in $g_{i}$ as a spatial coordinate comes directly from the role of $g_{i}$
in the physical transfer matrix [32]). We do not, in fact, make much use of these as braid diagrams, i.e. we do not often use the braid relations explicitly; however, our diagrams clarify situations in which two elements commute by virtue of being realized on disjoint subsets of strings.

The key for our diagrams is as follows.
(2.16). For given $N$ the algebra $H_{n}^{N}$ itself is represented as a blank rectangle across all the $n$ strings of the corresponding braid group identity element. For example, with $n=9$ :


Note that by taking $N$ sufficiently large we can make $H_{9}^{N}=H_{9}$, and so on. We will use the same picture when working with $\mathbb{H}_{n}$, since these cases may always be distinguished by context.
(2.17). For $m<n$ then $H_{m}^{N}$ may be realized as a subalgebra of $H_{n}^{N}$ in various ways, such as by acting on some subset of $m$ of the $n$ strings (the picture below shows a 'translated' embedding of $H_{4}^{N} \subset H_{9}^{N}$ ).
(2.18). Defining

$$
g_{i, j}:=g_{i} g_{i-1} \ldots g_{j+1} g_{j} \quad(i>j)
$$

we will adopt the symbol scheme illustrated by the following examples:


Note that we avoid the usual braid-crossing picture of $g_{i}$ for the time being, as this can be distracting. We will use it later. Our point here is to view the various objects as 'beads' threaded on two or more strings, emphasizing which commute and which do not ( $g_{i}$ and $g_{i+1}$ do not). We work as far as possible in $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ where we do not have access to $g_{i}^{-1}$, so this picture is not ambiguous. Note also that action from the left is depicted as action from the top, that is, while words are read from left to right, pictures are read and composed from top to bottom.

For example, the readily proven isomorphism of $\mathbb{Z}[q]$-modules $\mathbb{H}_{m+1} \cong \mathbb{H}_{m} \oplus \mathbb{H}_{m} g_{m} \mathbb{H}_{m}$ gives

(NB the middle term on the lower line simplifies), while equation (5) iterates to
(2.19). Here the last picture reminds us of the obvious generator order reversal symmetry $Y_{N}=Y_{N}^{T}$. This is time reversal symmetry in the statistical mechanical setting [32]. We have taken care in our choice of diagram shapes to respect the 'time' and 'space' symmetries of objects, thus $Y_{N}$ is both top to bottom and left to right reflection symmetric (!), but $L_{N}$ is neither (a right-angle triangle with the right angle in the bottom left-hand corner is thus $\left(L_{N}^{(k)}\right)^{T}$ for some $k$ and $N$ ).

Noting the obvious inner automorphism of $H_{n+N}$ taking $Y_{N}$ to $Y_{N}^{(n)}$, we see that to prove proposition 2 it is enough to show

Lemma 1.

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{N}^{(n)} \mathbb{H}_{n+N} Y_{N}^{(n)} \leqslant \mathbb{H}_{n+N} Y_{N+1}^{(n-1)} \mathbb{H}_{n} \oplus Y_{N}^{(n)} \mathbb{H}_{n} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

is an inclusion of $\mathbb{H}_{n}$-bimodules.
(Proposition 2 follows on passing to the field $\mathbb{C}$, since the first term on the right-hand side vanishes in $H_{n+N}^{N}$ and there is an obvious morphism from the second term onto $H_{n}^{N}$ when $[N]!\neq 0$.) Lemma 1 looks complicated, but may be illustrated by the following 'diagrammatic' proposition on $\mathbb{Z}[q]$-modules


Proof. We claim that for $n-N<m \leqslant n$ there is a $\mathbb{Z}[q]$-module inclusion

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(L_{N}^{(n)} L_{N-1}^{(n+1)} \ldots L_{n-m+1}^{(m+N-1)}\right) \mathbb{H}_{m+N} Y_{N}^{(n)} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{H}_{n+N} Y_{N+1}^{(n-1)} \mathbb{H}_{n} \oplus Y_{N}^{(n)} \mathbb{H}_{n} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

(i.e. into the right-hand side of equation (11)), and prove this by induction on $m$. The last case $(m=n)$ establishes our lemma.

As a base, the claim is true for $m=n-N+1$ by suitably applying the top line of equation (9) to $\mathbb{H}_{n+1}$ in the left-hand side of equation (13). Suppose it is true at level $m=k-1$. Then at level $m=k$ consider the inclusion, derived from another iterate of equation (9), illustrated below


We need to show that the left-hand side here maps into the right-hand side of equation (13). Our inductive assumption is that the first term on the right-hand side here does so, since
$L_{n-k+1}^{(k+N-1)} Y_{N}^{(n)}=[n-k+1] Y_{N}^{(n)}$, thus we have only to show that the second term does so. Using the definition of $L_{N}$ and $g_{i} \mathbb{H}_{n} \subset \mathbb{H}_{n}(i<n)$ the second term obeys:


Using $L_{N+1} Y_{N}^{(1)}=Y_{N+1}$ (equation (5)) again the first term on the right here is manifestly contained in the first term in the right-hand side of equation (13) (consider it in the form of equation (12)), and the second term maps into the right-hand side of equation (12) by the inductive assumption.

Now pass to any field in which [ $N$ ]! is invertible and the composite map to $Y_{N}^{(n)} H_{n}^{N} \cong$ $H_{n}^{N}$ (as $H_{n}^{N}$-bimodules) is obviously surjective.

## 3. Applications of proposition 2

(3.20). Now apply the programme outlined in section 1.2 , composing the functors $F^{\prime}$ and $G^{\prime}$ with the isomorphism of proposition 2 for each $n$ and $N$. As above, it will be convenient to take $e=\frac{Y_{N}^{(n)}}{[N]!}$. From now on we will also show the levels $n$ and $N$ explicitly, hence the functors

$$
H_{n}^{N}-\bmod \xrightarrow{F_{n}^{N}} H_{n+N}^{N}-\bmod \xrightarrow{G_{n}^{N}} H_{n}^{N}-\bmod
$$

have object maps

$$
F_{n}^{N}: M \mapsto H_{n+N}^{N} Y_{N}^{(n)} \otimes_{H_{n}^{N}} M \quad \text { and } \quad G_{n}^{N}: L \mapsto Y_{N}^{(n)} L
$$

The latter is illustrated by the following picture, in which an arbitrary $H_{n+N}^{N}$ module is mapped to an $H_{n}^{N} Y_{N}^{(n)}$ module which is trivially also a left $H_{n}^{N}$ module, since the $Y_{N}^{(n)}$ (here specifically $Y_{3}^{(6)}$ ) clearly commutes with the indicated action of $H_{n}^{N}$ (here $H_{6}^{3}$ ) from the top


We next introduce and discuss the fate of the most important modules of $H_{n}(q)$ under these functors. Since the functors map between $H_{n}^{N}$ and $H_{n+N}^{N}$, not $H_{n}(q)$ and $H_{n+N}(q)$, we need to be able to move between categories $H_{n}-\bmod$ and $H_{n}^{N}-\bmod$. To do this we note that $H_{n}^{N}$ modules restrict to $H_{n}(q)$ modules which are identical to them as vector spaces, while $H_{n}(q)$ modules induce $H_{n}^{N}$ modules which are not in general identical. In the next section we establish a simple condition under which they are identical.

### 3.1. Permutation modules of $H_{n}(q)$

(3.21). The image of $Y_{N}$ under the $H_{n}(q)$ algebra involution $\Gamma$ given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma: g_{i} \mapsto-1-g_{i}+q \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

is $X_{N} \in \mathbb{H}_{N}$, depicted by a diamond. The example below illustrates the identity $g_{3} X_{6}^{(1)}=-X_{6}^{(1)}$.

(3.22). For $\lambda \in \Lambda(n, N)$ define $X^{\lambda}, Y^{\lambda} \in \mathbb{H}_{n}$ by

$$
X^{\lambda}=\prod_{i} X_{\lambda_{i}}^{\left(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \lambda_{j}\right)} \quad Y^{\lambda}=\prod_{i} Y_{\lambda_{i}}^{\left(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \lambda_{j}\right)}
$$

i.e. one factor $X_{\lambda_{i}}$ (resp. $Y_{\lambda_{i}}$ ) for each row of the Young diagram of $\lambda$.
(3.23). For $\lambda \vdash n$ the $H_{n}(q)$ permutation module $P^{\lambda}$ is given by $P^{\lambda}=H_{n} X^{\lambda}$ [21,24], i.e. it takes the form

(this example is $P^{\lambda}$ for $\lambda=(4,3,2)$, that is, $P^{(4,3,2)}=H_{9} X_{4} X_{3}^{(4)} X_{2}^{(7)}$ ). Note that $H_{9} X_{3} X_{4}^{(3)} X_{2}^{(7)}$ and other such rearrangements are isomorphic as left modules (at least provided $q \neq 0$ ). This $P^{\lambda}$ specializes at $q=1$ to the $S_{n}$ induced module whose irreducible decomposition begins

$$
\begin{equation*}
(4) \otimes(3) \otimes(2)=(4,3,2) \oplus \ldots \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the rest of the summands can be determined using the Littlewood-Richardson rules [24, 21].
(3.24). The right $H_{n}(q)$ module $Q_{H}^{\lambda}:=Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} H_{n}$. In our case:

(note that $\lambda^{\prime}=(3,3,2,1)$ so we have $Q_{H}^{\lambda}=Y_{3} Y_{3}^{(3)} Y_{2}^{(6)} Y_{1}^{(8)} H_{9}$ with $Y_{1}=1$ ). This specializes at $q=1$ to the $S_{n}$-induced right module

$$
\left(1^{3}\right) \otimes\left(1^{3}\right) \otimes\left(1^{2}\right) \otimes(1)=(4,3,2) \oplus \ldots
$$

(an otherwise different set of summands to equation (16)).
(3.25). For $\lambda \vdash n$ consider an element $\sigma_{g}^{\lambda} \in \mathfrak{B}_{n}$ such that, when the strings are partitioned in the natural way by $\lambda^{\prime}$ at the top and by $\lambda$ at the bottom, no two strings in a given part at the top (resp. bottom) either cross each other or travel to the same part at the bottom (resp. top). This construction is unique, since it forces the $i$ th string from the $j$ th part at the top to travel down to be the $j$ th string in the $i$ th part at the bottom. Put $E_{g}^{\lambda}:=Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}$, for example

where each crossing should be interpreted as a $g_{i}$ (NB putting a $g_{i}^{-1}$, or a linear combination other than 1 , at each crossing only changes the element by a scalar in this environment). Note that $\mathfrak{C}_{\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}}\left(E_{g}^{\lambda}\right)=1$ by construction. Hence

Proposition 5. The vector space $Q_{H}^{\lambda} \otimes_{H_{n}} P^{\lambda}=\mathbb{C} E_{g}^{\lambda}$, i.e.

is one dimensional.
NB The tensor product is strictly superfluous here. We leave it in as a guide to the eye.
(3.26). Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a $k$-algebra. A primitive element $x \in \mathcal{A} \backslash\{0\}$ is such that $x \mathcal{A} x \subseteq k x$. A pre-idempotent is a primitive such that $x x \neq 0$.

Proposition 6. $E_{g}^{\lambda}$ is primitive in $H_{n}(q)$ (any $q$ ), and $I^{\lambda}:=\left(Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}}\right)$ is preidempotent for $q$ generic.

Proof. Using proposition 5

$$
\left(Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\right) H_{n}\left(Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\right)=Y^{\lambda^{\prime}}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda} H_{n} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right) X^{\lambda}=k Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}
$$

Further, recall that if $y$ is any element of a semi-simple algebra then there exists an element $a$ such that yay $=y$. Now suppose $I^{\lambda} I^{\lambda}=0$ for some $q$ such that $\left[\lambda^{\prime}\right]!$ is invertible. Then for any $a$ we can use proposition 5 again to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
I^{\lambda} a I^{\lambda} & =\left(Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}}\right) a\left(Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}}\right) \\
& =Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T}\left(Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} a Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\right)\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \\
& =c_{a} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T}\left(Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\right)\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \\
& =\frac{c_{a}}{\left[\lambda^{\prime}\right]!}\left(Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}}\right)\left(Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}}\right) \\
& =\frac{c_{a}}{\left[\lambda^{\prime}\right]!} I^{\lambda} I^{\lambda}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

(some $\left.c_{a} \in \mathbb{C}[13]\right)$ contradicting semi-simplicity.
(3.27). The dominance order [30] is a partial order on partitions of $n$ given by

$$
\lambda \unrhd \mu \quad \text { if } \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_{i} \geqslant \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mu_{i} \forall m
$$

For example
$(6) \unrhd(5,1) \unrhd(4,2) \unrhd(3,3) \unrhd(3,2,1) \unrhd\left(2^{3}\right) \unrhd\left(2,1^{3}\right) \unrhd\left(2,1^{2}\right) \unrhd\left(2,1^{4}\right) \unrhd\left(1^{6}\right)$.

Proposition 7. The vector space $Q_{H}^{\lambda} \otimes_{H_{n}} P^{\nu}=0$ unless $\lambda \unrhd \nu$.

Proof. Consider $Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} b X^{\nu}, b \in \mathfrak{B}_{n}$. Suppose two strings from some $Y_{\lambda_{i}^{\prime}}$ at the top of the braid picture eventually reach a given $X_{\nu_{j}}$ at the bottom (as must happen unless $\lambda \unrhd v$, by an elementary sorting argument). Then there is always a set of moves using the braid relations and $q Y=g_{i} Y$ and $g_{i} X=-X$ (proposition 1), such as those illustrated below, to bring these strings 'parallel'. For example, focusing on a particular $Y_{N}$ and $X_{M}$ we might
have


whereupon the diagram vanishes using $Y_{2} X_{2}=0$ (equation (3)).
This is an extremely useful observation. It means that any left $H_{n}(q)$-module $P^{\lambda}$, or submodule thereof, is also an $H_{n}^{N}$ module (i.e. induces an $H_{n}^{N}$ module identical to it as a vector space) provided that $\lambda_{1}^{\prime} \leqslant N$. That is, in such a case $Y_{N+1} H_{n} P^{\lambda}=0$.

We are now in a position to construct the generically irreducible modules of $H_{n}(q)$.
3.2. Specht modules of $H_{n}(q)$ (standard modules of $H_{n}^{N}$ )
(3.28). The $H_{n}(q)$ left Specht module $S^{\lambda}$ [45] (see also [14,28,15]) may be written $H_{n} I^{\lambda} \cong H_{n} Q_{H}^{\lambda} \otimes_{H_{n}} P^{\lambda}$, for example:


Note that this construction is well defined for any value of $q$. By proposition 5 such modules are irreducible when $H_{n}(q)$ is semi-simple. The particular one illustrated above specializes
at $q=1$ to the irreducible representation usually labelled $\lambda=(4,3,2)$ [24]. Our labelling is consistent with the way irreducibles are normally labelled in the $q=1$ case.

The Specht module $S^{\lambda}$ is a left $H_{n}$ module, not an $H_{n}^{N}$ module, so we cannot talk directly of $F_{n}^{N}\left(S^{\lambda}\right)$. However, $S^{\lambda}$ obeys $Y_{\lambda_{1}^{\prime}+1} S^{\lambda}=0$ by our argument above, so it will induce an $H_{n}^{\lambda_{1}^{\prime}}$ module identical to it as a vector space (and of course this $H_{n}^{\lambda_{1}^{\prime}}$ module will be restricted to an 'identical' $H_{n}$ module). By taking care we can thus move backward and forward between $H_{n}$ and $H_{n}^{N}$ and apply the functors to these modules. Where sensible (i.e. for $N=\lambda_{1}^{\prime}$ as above, and in fact similarly for $N>\lambda_{1}^{\prime}$ ) we will not explicitly distinguish between $S^{\lambda}$ as an $H_{n}$ module and $S^{\lambda}$ as an $H_{n}^{N}$ module.

### 3.3. Images of Specht modules under the factors $F_{n}^{N}$ and $G_{n}^{N}$

The images of $S^{\lambda}$ under the appropriate functors $F_{n}^{N}$ and $G_{n}^{N}$ are as follows. For a given $N$ then $\lambda=\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{N}\right)$ (some of these may be zero), and

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{n}^{N}\left(S^{\lambda}\right) \cong S^{\lambda_{+}} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda_{+}=\left(\lambda_{1}+1, \ldots, \lambda_{N}+1\right)$. For the domain of $G_{n}^{N}$ then either $\lambda_{N} \geqslant 1$ and the obvious reverse map pertains:

$$
\begin{equation*}
G_{n}^{N}\left(S^{\lambda}\right) \cong S^{\lambda_{-}} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda_{-}=\left(\lambda_{1}-1, \ldots, \lambda_{N}-1\right)$, or $\lambda_{N}=0$ and $G_{n}^{N}\left(S^{\lambda}\right)=0$ by (3.28). These maps may be established as follows.

First, the left module $F_{n}^{N}\left(S^{\lambda}\right)$ is given by

$$
F_{n}^{N}\left(S^{\lambda}\right)=H_{n+N}^{N} Y_{N}^{(n)} \otimes_{H_{n}^{N}}\left(Q_{H}^{\lambda} \otimes_{H_{n}^{N}} P^{\lambda}\right)
$$

To classify this module at level $n+N$ it is convenient to define $g^{\lambda} \in \mathbb{H}_{n}$ by

$$
g^{\lambda}=\prod_{i=1}^{\lambda_{1}^{\prime}}\left(g_{n+i-1, i+\sum_{j=1}^{i} \lambda_{i}}\right)
$$

(this looks complicated, but is very simple in the pictorial version as we will see in the next figure) and to note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{n}^{N} Q_{H}^{\lambda} \otimes P^{\lambda} g^{\lambda} X^{\lambda_{+}} \cong H_{n}^{N} Q_{H}^{\lambda} \otimes P^{\lambda} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

as an $H_{n}^{N}$ module. To see this look at the bottom three layers of the figure below-three strings pulled off to the right play no role, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
X^{\lambda} g^{\lambda} X^{\lambda_{+}}=[\lambda]!g^{\lambda} X^{\lambda_{+}} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

since $X_{N} X_{N+1}=[N]!X_{N+1}$. Working with this we end up with a module isomorphism

$$
F_{n}^{N}\left(S^{\lambda}\right) \cong H_{n+N}^{N} \underbrace{Q_{H}^{\lambda_{+}}}_{\substack{\text { prop. } . S}} \otimes P^{\lambda_{+}} .
$$

which, for $N=3$ and $n=9$ looks like


The left module $G_{n}^{N}\left(S^{\lambda}\right)$ is given by
$G_{n}^{N}\left(S^{\lambda}\right)=Y_{N}^{(n-N)} H_{n}^{N} Q_{H}^{\lambda} \otimes P^{\lambda}= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } \lambda_{1}^{\prime}<N \\ \underbrace{Y_{N}^{(n-N)} H_{n}^{N} Y_{N}^{(n-N)}}_{\cong H_{n-N}^{N}} Q_{H}^{\lambda-} \otimes P^{\lambda} & \text { if } \lambda_{1}^{\prime}=N\end{cases}$
and the latter case becomes

$$
H_{n-N}^{N} Q_{H}^{\lambda_{-}} \otimes H_{n} X^{\lambda_{-}} g^{\lambda_{-}} X^{\lambda} \cong S^{\lambda_{-}}
$$

by a move analogous to equation (22). The latter case is illustrated by

where the action of $H_{n-N}^{N}$ is at the top left.
The modules $\left\{S^{\lambda} \mid \lambda \vdash n\right\}$ form a complete set of irreducibles for generic $q$, and from propositions 2 and 4 we know that their maximal semi-simple quotients are simple and form a (possibly over-) complete set of irreducibles for any $q$.

### 3.4. Induction and restriction

Since Specht modules are well defined for any $q$ we may deduce partial restriction rules for the inclusion $H_{n-1} \hookrightarrow H_{n}$ from the classical $q=1$ case. These are:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Res}_{H_{n-1}}^{H_{n}}\left(S^{\lambda}\right) \cong \underset{\mu=\lambda-\square}{+} S^{\mu} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

as vector spaces, where $\mu=\lambda-\square$denotes $\mu \vdash n-1$ obtained by subtracting a box from the Young diagram $\lambda$ and the sum is necessarily a direct sum of $H_{n-1}$ modules (in characteristic 0 ) unless $q$ is a root of unity.

This formula, together with the linkage principal [26, ch 6] and proposition 2 is enough to determine all composition multiplicities for $N=2,3$, and most (possibly all [35]) for general $N$. For example, the fibre of $N=3$ Specht modules labelled by $\lambda=$ (2) (i.e. $S^{(2)}, S^{(3,1,1)}, S^{(4,2,2)}$ and so on) are easily shown to be projective in case [5] $=0$. Restriction takes projective to projective, so applying three successive restrictions as above to (say) indecomposable projective $P(4,2,2)$ produces a new projective with direct summand $P(4,1)$, itself a non-direct sum of the Specht modules for the fibres $(4,1)$ and (2) (see section 4). Other projectives are determined similarly by iteration on the usual dominance order [23] on the fibre labels.

Mathematically oriented readers will also note that we may deduce that each algebra $H_{n}^{N}(q)$ for which the Specht module corresponding to fibre $\lambda=(0)$ is projective, is a quasi-hereditary algebra (cf [16]).

## 4. Inner products and submodules

Although Specht modules are generically irreducible they are not in general irreducible at roots of unity. Suppose we know the structure of $H_{m}(q)$ for some $q$ at all $m<n$. In particular suppose $S^{\lambda}$ develops a submodule at this $q$, i.e. for at least one $\mu$

(diagonal sequences short exact). Then there are two cases to consider. Either $\mu_{1}^{\prime}=\lambda_{1}^{\prime}$ and we already know about the composite

$$
S^{\mu} \xrightarrow{\psi} S^{\lambda}
$$

via $F_{n-\mu_{1}^{\prime}}^{\mu_{1}^{\prime}}$, or $\mu_{1}^{\prime}<\lambda_{1}^{\prime}$ and $\psi$ is 'new'. In the latter case we can hope to find it by looking at the Smith form of the Gram matrix $[44,25]$ for some inner product on $S^{\lambda}$.
(4.29). A Gram matrix for $S^{\lambda}$ may be constructed as follows. Let $A$ and $B$ be two bases for $S^{\lambda}$. Each can be of the form

$$
A \subset\left\{w E_{g}^{\lambda} \mid w \in \mathfrak{B}_{n}\right\}
$$

so for $x \in A$ and $y \in B$ we have an inner product $\langle x \mid y\rangle$ via

$$
x^{T} y=\left(X^{\lambda}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} w_{x}^{T}\right)\left(w_{y} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right) X^{\lambda}\right) \stackrel{\text { defn }}{=}\langle x \mid y\rangle X^{\lambda}\left(\sigma_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T} Y^{\lambda^{\prime}} \sigma_{g}^{\lambda} X^{\lambda} .
$$

Then

$$
C_{x y}^{\lambda} \stackrel{\text { defn }}{=}\langle x \mid y\rangle \in \mathbb{Z}[q]
$$

gives the matrix elements of the Gram matrix $C^{\lambda}$ (with respect to $A, B$ ).
If $V_{q_{c}}^{\lambda}$ is the maximal proper submodule of $S^{\lambda}$ at $q=q_{c}$ then $\operatorname{dim}\left(V_{q_{c}}^{\lambda}\right)$ is the number of invariant factors of $C^{\lambda}$ which vanish at $q=q_{c}$. Indeed, the number of invariant factors vanishing like each power of $\left(q-q_{c}\right)$ tells us the dimension of some subquotient of $V_{q_{c}}^{\lambda}$. Taken with our category theory data and Frobenius reciprocity [7] this kind of data is often enough to identify $V_{q_{c}}^{\lambda}$ (cf [31]). In any case, any vanishing invariant factor (hence vanishing $\operatorname{det}\left(C^{\lambda}\right)$ ) signals a level crossing of the Hamiltonian at $q=q_{c}$.

Note that $\Gamma$ takes $E_{g}^{\lambda} \mapsto\left(E_{g}^{\lambda^{\prime}}\right)^{T}$. Thus $\operatorname{det}\left(C^{\lambda}\right)$ may similarly be computed via $\left(E_{g}^{\lambda^{\prime}}\right) w_{x}^{T} w_{y}\left(E_{g}^{\lambda^{\prime}}\right)^{T}=D_{x y}^{\lambda} I^{\lambda^{\prime}}$. Once again, our pictures simplify the issue. Let us illustrate with an example of the $D^{\lambda}$ type.


It is straightforward to construct a basis of $S^{\lambda}$. Consider the case $\lambda=(3,1,1)$. Let 12311 be the Yamanouchi symbol [6], and associate this to $E_{g}^{\lambda}$, then $g_{3} E_{g}^{\lambda}=12131\left(g_{i}\right.$ interchanging the $i$ th and $(i+1)$ th letters), and so on until all the legal symbols are generated. A typical calculation is then

$$
E_{g}^{\lambda} g_{3} \cdot g_{3} g_{2} g_{4} g_{3}\left(E_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T}=\langle 12131 \mid 11123\rangle I^{\lambda}
$$

which is illustrated by:


Here the first identity follows from the expansion of equation (3)

$$
g_{i}^{2}=q 1+(q-1) g_{i}
$$

and $X_{2} Y_{2}=0$, and the second uses $g_{i} X_{3}=-X_{3}$ and $g_{i} Y_{3}=q Y_{3}$. Now in the present environment $X_{4}=0$, so from equation (35) of the appendix we have

$$
X_{3} g_{3} X_{3}=-q^{3}[3-1]!X_{3}
$$

Writing $E^{T} i j k E$ for $E_{g}^{\lambda} g_{i} g_{j} g_{k}\left(E_{g}^{\lambda}\right)^{T}$, the complete set of basis element products is
$\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}E^{T} E & E^{T} 3 E & E^{T} 23 E & E^{T} 43 E & E^{T} 243 E & E^{T} 3243 E \\ E^{T} 3 E & E^{T} 33 E & E^{T} 323 E & E^{T} 343 E & E^{T} 3243 E & E^{T} 33243 E \\ E^{T} 32 E & E^{T} 323 E & E^{T} 3223 E & E^{T} 3243 E & E^{T} 32243 E & E^{T} 323243 E \\ E^{T} 34 E & E^{T} 343 E & E^{T} 3423 E & E^{T} 3443 E & E^{T} 34243 E & E^{T} 343243 E \\ E^{T} 324 E & E^{T} 3243 E & E^{T} 32423 E & E^{T} 32443 E & E^{T} 324243 E & E^{T} 3243243 E \\ E^{T} 3243 E & E^{T} 32433 E & E^{T} 324323 E & E^{T} 324343 E & E^{T} 3243243 E & E^{T} 32433243 E\end{array}\right)$

We soon arrive at the Gram matrix (coefficients of, as it were, $I^{\lambda}$, in the above):
$\boldsymbol{D}^{(3,1,1)}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}(q+1)\left(q^{2}+q+1\right) & q^{3}(q+1) & -q^{3}(q+1) & q^{4}(q+1) & -q^{4}(q+1) & 0 \\ q^{3}(q+1) & q(q+1)\left(q^{3}+q+1\right) & q^{3}(q+1) & q^{5}(q+1) & 0 & -q^{5}(q+1) \\ -q^{3}(q+1) & q^{3}(q+1) & q^{2}(q+1)\left(q^{3}+q^{2}+1\right) & 0 & q^{6}(q+1) & -q^{6}(q+1) \\ q^{4}(q+1) & q^{5}(q+1) & 0 & q^{2}(q+1)\left(q^{4}+q+1\right) & q^{4}(q+1) & q^{5}(q+1) \\ -q^{4}(q+1) & 0 & q^{6}(q+1) & q^{4}(q+1) & q^{3}(q+1)\left(q^{4}+q^{2}+1\right) & q^{6}(q+1) \\ 0 & -q^{5}(q+1) & -q^{6}(q+1) & q^{5}(q+1) & q^{6}(q+1) & q^{4}(q+1)\left(q^{4}+q^{3}+1\right)\end{array}\right)$
which has

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{det}\left(D^{(3,1,1)}\right)=q^{12}(q+1)^{6}\left(q^{4}+q^{3}+q^{2}+q+1\right)^{3}=q^{12}[2]^{6}[5]^{3} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this case the invariant factors can be readily deduced, and we find that we are looking for a three-dimensional invariant subspace at $r=5$. There is only one possibility for this submodule-the irreducible quotient of $S^{(4,1)}$ by $S^{(5)}$ (see [32]), i.e. the $r=5$ module $S_{5}^{(4,1)}$ defined by the short exact sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow S^{(5)} \rightarrow S^{(4,1)} \rightarrow S_{5}^{(4,1)} \rightarrow 0 \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

That is, we have a diagram as in equation (28) with $\mu=(4,1)$ and $\lambda=(3,1,1)$. This gives the $q$-level crossing discussed in section 1.4.

A complete list of Gram matrix determinants up to $n=4$ is given in appendix $B$ (in all these cases the invariant factors are readily deduced). These determinants should be compared with the $S_{n}$ results of James and Murphy [25]. Mathas and James [36] have recently given an algorithm for computing the determinant of the Gram matrix in general, which we also discuss in the appendix.

We have already seen how these results can be used to deduce all the relevant level crossings. It is reasonable to suppose that we can 'bootstrap' these results to higher $n$ to derive all the Smith forms and all the corresponding crossings. This work is in progress.

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## Appendix A. Useful identities

First

$$
\begin{align*}
Y_{N+1}=\frac{Y_{N}}{[N]!} Y_{N+1}=\frac{Y_{N}}{[N]!} L_{N+1} Y_{N} & =\frac{Y_{N}}{[N]!}\left(1+g_{N}+g_{N-1} g_{N}+\cdots+g_{1} g_{2} \ldots g_{N}\right) Y_{N} \\
=\frac{Y_{N}}{[N]!}\left(1+L_{N} g_{N}\right) Y_{N} & =\frac{Y_{N}}{[N]!}\left(1+[N] g_{N}\right) Y_{N}=Y_{N}+\frac{1}{[N-1]!} Y_{N} g_{N} Y_{N} \tag{33}
\end{align*}
$$

so

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{N} g_{N} Y_{N}=[N-1]!\left(Y_{N+1}-Y_{N}\right) \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then applying $\Gamma$

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{N} g_{N} X_{N}=q^{N}[N-1]!X_{N}-X_{N+1} \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly

$$
\begin{gather*}
Y_{N} g_{N} g_{N+1} g_{N-1} g_{N} Y_{N}=[N-2]!\left(Y_{N+2}-\left(Y_{N+1}+g_{n+1} Y_{N+1}+Y_{N+1} g_{n+1}\right.\right. \\
\left.\left.+g_{n+1} Y_{N+1} g_{n+1}\right)+q Y_{N}+q g_{n+1} Y_{N}\right) . \tag{36}
\end{gather*}
$$

## Appendix B. Gram matrices and Smith forms

A recursive construction of the determinant det $\mu$ of the Gram matrix for Specht module $S^{\mu}$ of dimension $\operatorname{dim} \mu$ (cf the symmetric group case [25], replacing use of the orthogonal form of Young [47] with that of Hoefsmit [22]) is as follows. Let $I$ be the set of row positions of $\mu$ from which a box may be removed, and for $i \in I$ let $\mu^{i}$ denote the corresponding subdiagram. For $i \in I$ let $J_{i}$ be the set of hook lengths of $\mu$ in the column above the removable box. Then

$$
\operatorname{det} \mu=\prod_{i \in I} \operatorname{det} \mu^{i}\left(q^{x\left(\mu^{i}\right)} \prod_{j \in J_{i}} \frac{[j]}{[j-1]}\right)^{\operatorname{dim} \mu^{i}}
$$

(note that the empty product $\prod_{j \in J_{1}}$ (anything) $:=1$ ), where $x\left(\mu^{i}\right)$ is defined as follows.
(B.30). For $\mu^{i} \subset \mu$ as above the set $\mathfrak{y}\left(\mu^{i}\right)$ of standard (tableau) Yamanouchi symbols of $\mu^{i}$ maps into that of $\mu$ by $Y^{i}: y \mapsto y i\left(\right.$ and $\left.\cup_{i \in I} Y^{i}\left(\mathfrak{y}\left(\mu^{i}\right)\right)=\mathfrak{y}(\mu)\right)$. For $y \in \mathfrak{y}(\mu)$ and $y_{\mu}^{0}$ the Bruhat lowest element (e.g. $y_{\mu}^{0}=12311$ for $\mu=(3,1,1)$ ) let $l(y)$ be the minimum number of adjacent element transpositions to move from $y_{\mu}^{0}$ to $y$. Then $x\left(\mu^{i}\right):=l\left(Y^{i}\left(y_{\mu^{i}}^{0}\right)\right)$.

The result is due to Mathas and James (the $q^{x\left(\mu^{i}\right)}$ part we conjecture from the results of several explicit calculations).

For example:

(B.31). For $A$ an algebra and $M \in A-\bmod$ let $\operatorname{Top}(M)$ be the maximal semi-simple quotient of $M$. Let $M=M_{0} \supset M_{1} \supset M_{2} \supset \cdots$ be a sequence of submodules such that $M_{i} / M_{i+1}=\operatorname{Top}\left(M_{i}\right)$, then put $\operatorname{Top}^{i}(M):=\operatorname{Top}\left(M_{i}\right)$. In case this Top series exactly reverses the Socle series of [18] we will call $\operatorname{Top}^{i}(M)$ the $i$ th Loewy layer of $M$.

We conjecture that the power of $\left(q-q_{r}\right)$ which divides $\operatorname{det} \mu$ is $\sum_{l} l \operatorname{dim}\left(\operatorname{Top}^{l}\left(\left.S^{\mu}\right|_{q=q_{r}}\right)\right)$. The conjecture is correct in the Temperley-Lieb $(N=2)$ sector [32,46]. We have verified the conjecture by explicit calculation (as discussed in the text above) for $N=3$ up to $n=6$. The results are shown (under the diagram to which they correspond) in the following figure. We have included all hook lengths, and an indication of the 'hook ratio' factor associated by the determinant algorithm to each edge of the restriction graph, writing (5/4.2/1) for $\frac{[5][2]}{[4][1]}$,
and so on. By this means the reader will readily confirm the agreement.


These results tie in with the conjecture of Lascoux et al [29] concerning Jantzen filtration (see also [36]). For example at $r=4, n=8$ we have the Loewy layer decomposition into irreducibles:

$$
S^{(3,3,2)}=\begin{gathered}
L(3,3,2) \\
L(4,3,1) . \\
L(8)
\end{gathered}
$$

The analysis is as follows. The three irreducibles shown are the composition factors of $S^{(3,3,2)}$ by an application of section 3.4 , or by [2,29]. Their dimensions are 1,40 and 1 respectively (the first of these follows from [22] or [45], the last is obvious, and the second is thus forced). On the other hand

$$
\operatorname{det}(3,3,2)=q^{l_{(3,3,2)}}[2]^{42}[3]^{21}[4]^{42}[5]^{21} \quad \text { where } l_{\lambda}=\sum_{y \in \mathfrak{y}(\lambda)} l(y)
$$

Thus the naive upper bound on the dimension of the maximal submodule at $r=4$ is 42 , and is not reached. The only possibility is that the Smith form of the Gram matrix has 40
invariant factors vanishing like [4] (corresponding to $L(4,3,1)$ at Loewy level 1) and one invariant factor vanishing like $[4]^{2}$ (corresponding to $L(8)$ at Loewy level 2), leaving one factor nonvanishing. The point is that the Lascoux et al [29] tables include what amounts to a formal parameter $(q)$, and the power of this parameter agrees with the Loewy level (cf [46]).

We have checked several such cases. To illustrate the method, let us determine all $H_{n}^{3}$ Specht module morphisms for $r=4, l=2$ arising up to $n=2.3+2=8$. Inspection of our determinant table at $n=0, N+2=2$ shows no $\mu$ such that [4]| det $\mu \in K$, thus no morphisms coming from this level. At $n=1, N+2=5$, $\operatorname{det}(3,2) \sim[4]$ and $\operatorname{det}(2,2,1) \sim[4]^{4}$. The first of these gives the exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow L(5) \rightarrow S^{(3,2)} \rightarrow L(3,2) \rightarrow 0
$$

since there is only one candidate for a one-dimensional submodule. Noting hence that $\operatorname{dim}(L(3,2))=4$, the second determinant gives exact

$$
0 \rightarrow L(3,2) \rightarrow S^{(2,2,1)} \rightarrow L(2,2,1) \rightarrow 0
$$

(a simple check shows that $S^{(4,1)}$ is not involved). This is everything.
Passing to $n=2 . N+2=8$ with the $F$ functor these data become sequences:

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow S^{(6,1,1)} \rightarrow S^{(4,3,1)} \rightarrow L(4,3,1) \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \rightarrow S^{(6,1,1)} \rightarrow S^{(4,3,1)} \rightarrow S^{(3,3,2)} \rightarrow L(3,3,2) \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

But in the first of these we lose exactness at $S^{(4,3,1)}$ in principle [19] (and in practice)i.e. $\operatorname{ker}(p)$ is bigger than just $S^{(6,1,1)}$; and equation (38) is not exact at $S^{(4,3,1)}$ or $S^{(3,3,2)}$. However $F$ takes projectives to projectives, so $S^{(3,3,2)}$ is projective.

From the $N=2$ solution [32, p 174] we already know
$0 \rightarrow L(8) \rightarrow S^{(7,1)} \rightarrow L(7,1) \rightarrow 0 \quad$ and $\quad 0 \rightarrow L(7,1) \rightarrow S^{(4,4)} \rightarrow L(4,4) \rightarrow 0$
and of course $\operatorname{dim}(L(8))=1$, so $\operatorname{dim}(L(7,1))=6$ and $\operatorname{dim}(L(4,4))=8$; while $\operatorname{det}(6,1,1)=q^{l_{(6,1,1)}}[2]^{21}[4]^{6}[8]^{6}$ gives

$$
0 \rightarrow L(7,1) \rightarrow S^{(6,1,1)} \rightarrow L(6,1,1) \rightarrow 0
$$

so $\operatorname{dim}(L(6,1,1))=15$. Lascoux et al's [29] table tells us that $L(4,3,1), L(8), L(4,4)$, $L(7,1)$ appear in $S^{(4,3,1)}$ each with multiplicity 1. Our morphisms show $S^{(6,1,1)} \subset S^{(4,3,1)}$, thus $L(8), L(7,1)$ remain. Since $\operatorname{det}(4,3,1)=q^{l_{(4,3,1)}}[2]^{-21}[3]^{64}[4]^{36}[6]^{27}$ and

$$
36-\operatorname{dim}(L(6,1,1))-2 \cdot \operatorname{dim}(L(7,1))=9
$$

( $L(7,1)$ is 'below' $L(6,1,1)$ ) we can locate these in the first Loewy layer. We have a block [13]

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { L(4,3,1) } \\
& S^{(4,3,1)}=L(8) \\
& L(6,1,1) \quad L(4,4) \\
& L(7,1)
\end{aligned} \quad S^{(6,1,1)}=\begin{gathered}
L(6,1,1) \\
L(7,1)
\end{gathered}
$$

and $S^{(8)}=L(8)$ (and $S^{(3,3,2)}$ as above). Again this 'agrees' with the Lascoux et al [29] $q$-depth data. A good guess for the form of a modest $n=8$ projective module is thus

$$
\begin{array}{ccccc} 
& L(8) \\
& L(7,1) & L(4,3,1) \\
& L(3,3,2) & L(8) & L(6,1,1) & L(4,4) . \\
& L(4,3,1) & L(7,1) \\
& & L(8)
\end{array}
$$

This is to be read as meaning that quotienting by the bottom $i$ layers reveals the next layer up as a semi-simple submodule, and should be compared with a typical $N=2$ projective from [32, pp 169-74].

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