# Finite-Dimensional Representations of a Shock Algebra 

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#### Abstract

The algebra describing a shock measure in the asymmetric simple exclusion model, seen from a second class particle, has finite-dimensional representations if and only if the asymmetry parameter $p$ of the model and the left and right asymptotic densities $\rho_{ \pm}$of the shock satisfy $[(1-p) / p]^{r}=\rho_{-}\left(1-\rho_{+}\right) /$ $\rho_{+}\left(1-\rho_{-}\right)$for some integer $r \geqslant 1$; the minimal dimension of the representation is then $2 r$. These representations can be used to calculate correlation functions in the model.


KEY WORDS: Asymmetric simple exclusion process; weakly asymmetric limit; shock profiles; second-class particles; Burgers equation.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In ref. 1 the measure describing a shock in the asymmetric simple exclusion model with asymmetry parameter $p(1 / 2<p \leqslant 1)$, seen from a second class particle and having left and right asymptotic densities $\rho_{-}$and $\rho_{+}$ ( $0 \leqslant \rho_{-}<\rho_{+} \leqslant 1$ ), is derived using a variant of the "matrix method". In this note we study finite dimensional representations of the relevant algebraic structure: specifically, we seek linear operators $D, E$, and $A$ on a finite dimensional vector space $V$, and vectors $v$ in $V$ and $w$ in the dual space to $V$, such that

$$
\begin{align*}
& D E-x E D=(1-x)\left[\left(1-\rho_{+}\right)\left(1-\rho_{-}\right) D+\rho_{+} \rho_{-} E\right] ;  \tag{la}\\
& D A-x A D=(1-x) \rho_{+} \rho_{-} A,  \tag{1b}\\
& A E-x E A=(1-x)\left(1-\rho_{+}\right)\left(1-\rho_{-}\right) A ;
\end{align*}
$$

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$$
\begin{align*}
(D+E) v & =v, \quad(D+E)^{*} w=w  \tag{1c}\\
(w, A v) & =1 \tag{ld}
\end{align*}
$$
\]

where $x=(1-p) / p$. For the moment we take $x>0(p<1), \rho_{-}>0$, and $\rho_{+}<1$; the remaining special cases will be discussed briefly later. We will show that finite dimensional representations exist if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{r}=\frac{\rho_{-}\left(1-\rho_{+}\right)}{\rho_{+}\left(1-\rho_{-}\right)} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some positive integer $r$, and that the minimal dimension of the representation is then $2 r$.

## 2. CONDITIONS FOR EXISTENCE OF FINITE DIMENSIONAL REPRESENTATIONS

Suppose that $V$ is a finite dimensional vector space and that the operators $D, E$, and $A$ and vectors $v$ and $w$ satisfy (1). For convenience we introduce the constants $a=\rho_{+}\left(1-\rho_{-}\right)$and $b=\rho_{-}\left(1-\rho_{+}\right)$and the operators $\hat{D}=D-\rho_{-} \rho_{+}$and $\hat{E}=E-\left(1-\rho_{-}\right)\left(1-\rho_{+}\right)$, which satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{D} \hat{E}-x \hat{E} \hat{D}=(1-x) a b \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Our starting point is the treatment of (1a) in ref. 2 (finite dimensional representations of (la) were also studied in ref. 3), where it is observed that since $\hat{D} \hat{E}$ and $\hat{E} \hat{D}$ have the same spectrum, (3) implies that if $\lambda$ is a point of this spectrum, then so is $a b+x(\lambda-a b)$. This in turn implies that the spectrum is the single point $a b$, so that $\hat{D}$ is invertible. The operator

$$
P=\hat{E}-a b \hat{D}^{-1}
$$

was then used in ref. 2 to study finite dimensional representations of (1a). Here, where we must consider the operator $A$ as well as $D$ and $E$, these considerations lead us to observe that (1) may be replaced by

$$
\begin{gather*}
\hat{D} P=x P \hat{D}, \quad \hat{D} A=x A \hat{D}, \quad A P=x P A  \tag{4a}\\
(G+P) v=v, \quad(G+P)^{*} w=w  \tag{4b}\\
(w, A v)=1 \tag{4c}
\end{gather*}
$$

where $G=\hat{D}+a b \hat{D}^{-1}-(a+b) I$. (Equation (4a) describes the quadratic algebra $\left.A_{x}^{3 \mid 0} \cdot{ }^{(4)}\right)$

The space $V$ may be decomposed as a direct sum

$$
\begin{equation*}
V=\underset{\gamma \in \Sigma}{\oplus} V_{\gamma}, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Sigma$ is the spectrum of $\hat{D}$ and, for $\gamma \in \Sigma, V_{y}$ is the $\hat{D}$-invariant subspace naturally associated with this eigenvalue: $V_{\gamma}=\left\{v \in V:(\hat{D}-\gamma I)^{k} v=0\right.$ for some $k \geqslant 1\}$ (see, e.g., ref. 5). We choose an inner product in $V$ in such a way that (5) is an orthogonal sum, and for $u \in V$ let $u_{\gamma}$ denote the orthogonal projection of $u$ on $V_{\gamma}$. The dual space to $V$ may now be identified with $V$ itself. Note that (4a) implies that $P$ and $A$ map $V_{\gamma}$ to $V_{\gamma x}$ (with $P$ and $A$ vanishing on $V_{\gamma}$ if $x \gamma \notin \Sigma$ ) and that $P^{*}$ and $A^{*}$ map $V_{\gamma}$ to $V_{\gamma / x}$.

Since the decomposition (5) reduces the operator $G$, (4b) implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
G v_{y}=-P v_{\gamma / x} \quad \text { and } \quad G^{*} w_{\gamma}=-P^{*} w_{y x} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

(with the convention that $v_{y}=0$ if $\gamma \notin \Sigma$ ). It follows that if $v_{y} \neq 0$ then either $v_{\gamma / X} \neq 0$ or $G v_{\gamma}=0$; because the unique eigenvalue of $G$ in $V_{\gamma}$ is $\gamma+a b / \gamma-$ $a-b$, the latter is possible only if $\gamma=a$ or $\gamma=b$. We conclude that $v_{\gamma}$ can be nonzero only if $\gamma=a x^{k}$ or $\gamma=b x^{k}$ for some $k \geqslant 0$. Similarly, $w_{y}$ can be nonzero only if $\gamma=b / x^{j}$ or $\gamma=a / x^{j}$ for some $j \geqslant 0$. Because (5) is an orthogonal sum, (4c) implies that $a x^{k+1}=b / x^{j}$ for some $k$ and $j$, i.e. (2) must hold for $r=j+k+1$.

We will prove that the dimension of $V$ is at least $2 r$ by showing that the vectors

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{a}, v_{a x} \ldots, v_{a x^{x-1}}, w_{b / x^{-1}-1, \ldots, w_{b / x}, w_{b} .} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

are nonzero and pairwise orthogonal. It is convenient to introduce a functional calculus for a restricted set of functions: for an invertible operator $O$ on $V$ and a function of the form $f(z)=z^{-n} q(z)$, with $n$ a nonnegative integer and $q$ a polynomial, $f(O)=O^{-n} q(O)$. The mapping $f \mapsto f(O)$ is linear and multiplicative, and $f(O)=0$ if $f$ has a zero of sufficiently high order at all eigenvalues of $O$.

From (4a) it follows that $f(\hat{D}) A=A f(x \hat{D})$ and $f(\hat{D}) P=P f(x \hat{D})$ for any $f$ and hence, again using (4a), that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A f(\hat{D}) P=x P f(\hat{D}) A . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The operator $G$ defined above is $g(\hat{D})$, with $g(z)=z+a b z^{-1}-(a+b)$. Let $h(z)$ be a polynomial vanishing to high order at $z=a$ and $z=b$, and agreeing with $-1 / g(z)$ to high order at other points of $\Sigma$, and let $H=h(\mathcal{D})$,
so that $G H=H G$ acts as the negative of the identity on $V_{\gamma}$ if $\gamma \neq a, b$. From (6), $v_{a x^{k}}=H P v_{a x^{k-1}}$ and $w_{b / x^{k}}=H^{*} P^{*} w_{b / x^{k-1}}$ for $k=1, \ldots, r-1$. Then if $0 \leqslant k \leqslant r-2$, from (8),

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(w_{b / x^{r-k-1}}, A v_{a x^{k}}\right) & =\left(H^{*} P^{*} w_{b / x^{r-k-2}}, A v_{a x^{k}}\right) \\
& =\left(w_{b / x^{r-k-2}}, P H A v_{a x^{k}}\right) \\
& =x^{-1}\left(w_{b / x^{r-k-2}}, A H P v_{a x^{k}}\right) \\
& =x^{-1}\left(w_{b / x^{r-k-2}}, A v_{a x^{k+1}}\right) . \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

Now (4c) implies that ( $W_{b / x^{r-k-1}}, A v_{a x^{k}}$ ) $\neq 0$ for some $k$ with $0 \leqslant k \leqslant r-1$, and then (9) implies that this holds for all such $k$, and hence all the vectors in (7) are nonzero.

Finally, we claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(f_{1}(\hat{D})^{*} w_{b / x^{r-k}}, f_{2}(\hat{D}) v_{a x^{k}}\right)=0 \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any functions $f_{1}, f_{2}$ and any $k, 1 \leqslant k \leqslant r-1$; (10) for $f_{1}=f_{2}=1$, together with the orthogonality of $V_{a x^{k}}$ and $V_{a x^{j}}$ for $k \neq j$, implies that the vectors of (7) are pairwise orthogonal. For $k=1, \ldots, r-1$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(f_{1}(\hat{D})^{*} w_{b / x^{r-k}}, f_{2}(\hat{D}) v_{a x^{k}}\right) \\
& \quad=\left(f_{1}(\hat{D})^{*} w_{b / x^{r-k}}, f_{2}(\hat{D}) H P v_{a x^{k}-1}\right) \\
& \quad=\left(f_{1}(x \hat{D})^{*} w_{b / x^{r-k}}, f_{2}(x \hat{D}) h(x \hat{D}) v_{a x^{k}-1}\right) \\
& \quad=-\left(f_{1}(x \hat{D})^{*} G^{*} w_{b / x^{r-k+1}}, f_{2}(x \hat{D}) h(x \hat{D}) v_{u x^{k-1}}\right) . \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

For $k=1$, (11) vanishes because $G v_{a}=0$ by (6); for $k>1$ it vanishes by induction. This verifies the claim and completes the proof that the elements of (7) are linearly independent.

## 3. REPRESENTATIONS OF MINIMAL DEGREE

The above considerations lead, for any $r$, to the construction of a representation with the minimal dimension $2 r$. In the representation we construct the operator $D$ and hence $G$ and $H$ will be diagonal, so that from (6), $v_{a x^{k}}$ is proportional to $P^{k} v_{a}$ and $w_{b / x^{k}}$ to $\left(P^{*}\right)^{k} w_{b}$. We normalize the inner product so that the vectors $P^{k} v_{a}$ and $\left(P^{*}\right)^{k} w_{b}, k=0, \ldots, r-1$, form an orthonormal basis. Taking these as the standard basis in $\mathbb{R}^{2 r}$, we may
represent the operators as matrices, using a block decomposition into $r \times r$ blocks:

$$
D=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
D^{11} & 0  \tag{12}\\
0 & \hat{D}^{22}
\end{array}\right], \quad P=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
P^{11} & 0 \\
0 & P^{22}
\end{array}\right], \quad \text { and } \quad A=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 0 \\
A^{21} & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

with

$$
\begin{gathered}
\hat{D}^{11}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
a & & & \\
& a x & & \\
& & \ddots & \\
& & & a x^{r-1}
\end{array}\right], \quad \hat{D}^{22}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
a x & & & \\
& a x^{2} & & \\
& & \ddots & \\
& & & b
\end{array}\right] \\
\\
\\
\end{gathered}
$$

and

$$
A^{21}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & & & \\
& x & & \\
& & \ddots & \\
& & & x^{r-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Finally, $w=\left[\begin{array}{ll}0 & w^{2}\end{array}\right]$ and $v=\left[\begin{array}{l}v^{i} \\ 0\end{array}\right]$, with

$$
w^{2}=Z^{-1}\left[\begin{array}{llll}
\kappa_{r-1} & \cdots & \kappa_{1} & \kappa_{0}
\end{array}\right], \quad v^{1}=Z^{-1}\left[\begin{array}{c}
\kappa_{0} \\
\kappa_{1} \\
\vdots \\
\kappa_{r-1}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $\kappa_{k}=\prod_{i=1}^{k} g\left(a x^{i}\right)^{-1}\left(\right.$ with $\left.\kappa_{0}=1\right)$ and $Z=\left[\kappa_{r-1}\left(1-x^{r}\right) /(1-x)\right]^{1 / 2}$.

## 4. THE TOTALLY ASYMMETRIC CASE

It can be verified by the methods above that when $x=0$ or $b=0$ ( $\rho_{-}=0$ or $\rho_{+}=1$ ), finite dimensional representations exist if and only if $x=b=0$. The representation of minimal dimension is the two dimensional representation found above and in ref. 1.

## 5. ASYMPTOTIC BEHAVIOR OF THE PROFILE

The rate of decay of correlations in the shock measure is governed by the eigenvalues of $D+E=I-G$ other than 1; for simplicity we discuss only the decay of $\left\langle\tau_{n}\right\rangle=\left(w, A(D+E)^{n-1} D v\right)$, the density $n$ sites in front of the second class particle, to its asymptotic value $\rho_{+}$. The eigenvalues of $I-G$ are 1 and

$$
\lambda_{k}=1-g\left(a x^{k}\right)=1-a-b+a x^{k}+b / x^{k}, k=1, \ldots, r-1 .
$$

Since $\lambda_{k}=\lambda_{r-k}$, each of these eigenvalues, other than 1 and $\lambda_{r / 2}$ for $r$ even, is doubly degenerate in each of the two $r \times r$ blocks in (12). The explicit formulae above for $\hat{D}$ and $P$ show that there is only one eigenvector in each block, however, so that

$$
\left\langle\tau_{n}\right\rangle=\rho_{+}+\sum_{1 \leqslant k \leqslant r / 2}\left[\alpha_{k}+(n-1) \beta_{k}\right] \lambda_{k}^{n-1},
$$

for constants $\alpha_{k}, \beta_{k}$ with $\beta_{r / 2}=0$ when $r$ is even. We discuss in more detail the cases $r=1,2$, and 3:
$r=1 ; x=b / a$. The finite dimensional representation in this case is discussed in ref. 1. The shock measure is Bernoulli, with no correlations, and $\left\langle\tau_{n}\right\rangle=\rho_{+}$for all $n$.
$r=2 ; x^{2}=b / a$. It was shown in ref. 1 that the model exhibits distinct forms of leading asymptotic behavior in the two regions $x^{2}>b / a$ and $x^{2}<b / a$; the behavior on the surface separating these regions was not discussed. This is precisely the surface on which the four dimensional representation given above applies. It yields the exact result

$$
\left\langle\tau_{n}\right\rangle=\rho_{+}-\frac{x(1-x)}{1+x} a \lambda_{1}^{n-1} .
$$

$r=3 ; x^{3}=b / a$. In this case the asymptotic formula of ref. 1 is exact: for all $n$.

$$
\left\langle\tau_{n}\right\rangle=\rho_{+}-\frac{x^{2}(1-x)^{3}(1+x)}{1+x+x^{2}} a^{2}(n-1) \lambda_{1}^{n-2}-x(1-x) a \lambda_{1}^{n-1} .
$$

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