## QUANTIZATION OF ELEMENTARY DYNAMICAL SYSTEMS II (WILL DONOVAN)

## 1. Some Lie Theory

Let  $G = SL(n, \mathbb{C})$ . Much of what we say generalizes to arbitrary semisimple (or indeed reductive) Lie groups.

1.1. Borels and Flags. The Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$  is the space of trace-free  $n \times n$  complex matrices (the Lie bracket is the usual commutator of matrices AB - BA). A flag F is a sequence of vector spaces

$$F = (0 = F_0 \subset F_1 \subset \cdots \subset F_n = \mathbb{R}^n)$$

with dim  $F_d = d$ . The stabilizer  $\mathfrak{b}_F$  of F in  $\mathfrak{g}$  is a Borel subalgebra (by definition, a Borel subalgebra is a *maximal solvable* Lie subalgebra of  $\mathfrak{g}$ ). For example, with respect to the standard basis  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$ , let  $F_d = \operatorname{span}(e_1, \ldots, e_d)$ . Then  $\mathfrak{b}_F$  is the space of traceless upper-triangular matrices.

A theorem of Engels says that  $F \mapsto \mathfrak{b}_F$  is a *G*-equivariant bijection between the set  $\mathcal{F}$  of flags and the set  $\mathcal{B}$  of Borel subalgebras.

1.2. The universal resolution. The 'universal resolution'  $\tilde{g}$  of g is defined by

$$ilde{\mathfrak{g}} = \{(f, \mathfrak{b}): f \in \mathfrak{b}\} \subset \mathfrak{g} imes \mathcal{B}$$

We have obvious maps  $\mu \colon \tilde{\mathfrak{g}} \to \mathfrak{g}$  and  $\pi \colon \tilde{\mathfrak{g}} \to \mathcal{B}$ . The fibres of  $\mu$  are interesting. First,  $\mu^{-1}(0) = \mathcal{B}$ .

Second, if  $f \in \mathfrak{g}$  is regular semisimple (i.e. diagonalizable, with distinct eigenvalues), then  $\mu^{-1}(f)$  has n! elements and a natural action of the symmetric group  $S_n$ . That is, if  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$  are the eigenvectors of f, then each  $\sigma \in S_n$  defines a flag  $F_d = \operatorname{span}(e_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, e_{\sigma(d)})$ . In other words, over the open set  $\mathfrak{g}_{rs}$  of regular semisimple elements,  $\mu$  is an principal  $S_n$ -bundle.

A third and most interesting case is when f is 'regular nilpotent': that is, it has a single block in Jordan normal form. (For  $SL_n(\mathbb{C})$ , f is nilpotent if it is strictly upper triangular in some basis. In general, the condition is that  $ad(f): \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{g}$  is a nilpotent map. The nilpotent elements can be classified by dimker ad(f); the 'regular' nilpotent elements are the ones where this number is as small as possible.)

1.3. The nilpotent cone. Let  $\mathcal{N} \subset \mathfrak{g}$  be the set of all nilpotent elements.  $\mathcal{N}$  is called the nilpotent cone; it *is* a cone, i.e. invariant under scaling. Let  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}} = \mu^{-1}(\mathcal{N})$ .

**Proposition 1.4.** (1) If f is regular nilpotent, then there is a unique Borel  $\mathfrak{b}$  containing f. (2) The set  $\mathcal{N}_r$  of regular nilpotent elements is a dense G-orbit in  $\mathcal{N}$ .

Thus the *n*!-fold cover of  $\mathfrak{g}_{rs}$  ramifies to a 1-fold cover over  $\mathcal{N}_r$ . The proof of (1) is that f determines a flag  $F_d = \ker f^d$ . The fact that f is regular means that this is actually a flag in the sense we have defined. For the proof of (2) see for example Chriss/Ginzburg, Proposition 3.2.10.

Remark 1.1. There is a natural identification  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}} = T^* \mathcal{B}$ .

Example 1.1. For  $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$ ,  $\mathfrak{g} = \mathbb{C}^3$ , each non-zero semisimple orbit (automatically regular) is a hyperbola  $x^2 - yz = c$ , degenerating to a quadratic cone  $x^2 - yz = 0$ . The smooth part of the cone is the regular nilpotent orbit. The only other orbit is  $\{0\}$ .

1.5.  $\mathfrak{g}$  vs  $\mathfrak{g}^*$ . We often make use of a *G*-equivariant isomorphism  $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}^*$ . This is the same as choosing a *G*-invariant bilinear form on  $\mathfrak{g}$ . For  $\mathrm{SL}(n, \mathbb{C})$ , or for a semisimple group in general, such an isomorphism exists uniquely (up to scale) – the Killing form. For a reductive group, the Killing form is degenerate, but one can nonetheless define such an isomorphism. José says there is a classification of Lie algebras admitting invariant bilinear forms. They can all be constructed from one-dimensional Lie algebras and simple Lie algebras using a method called 'double extension.'

1.6. Homogeneous spaces and line bundles. One can show that  $\mathcal{B} \cong G/B$  (where *B* is the subgroup of *G* corresponding to some standard Borel subalgebra  $\mathfrak{b}$ ). The claim is just that *B* is its own normalizer, and that all Borel subgroups are conjugate.

This means that  $\mathcal{B}$  has a natural principal *B*-bundle,  $G \to \mathcal{B}$ . (The fibres are the cosets of *B*, with *B* acting on the right of each coset.) For each character  $\alpha \colon \mathcal{B} \to \mathbb{C}^{\times}$ , we obtain a line bundle  $\mathcal{L}_{\alpha} = G \otimes \alpha$  on  $\mathcal{B}$ .

Considering  $SL(n, \mathbb{C})$  once again, the characters of B factor through

$$B \to B/[B,B] \subset (\mathbb{C}^{\times})^n$$

(projection to the diagonal) and are therefore given by sequences of integers  $a = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ ; the corresponding character is  $\alpha_a(\operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n)) = \prod \lambda_i^{a_i}$ . If all the  $a_i$  are equal then  $\alpha_a = 1$ , so the space of characters is  $\mathbb{Z}^n/\mathbb{Z}$ . A character  $\alpha_a$  is dominant if  $a_1 \geq \cdots \geq a_n$ . This turns out to be equivalent to the condition that the line bundle  $\mathcal{L}_{\alpha_a}$  has non-zero holomorphic sections.

It is a well-known fact that finite-dimensional holomorphic representations of  $SL(n, \mathbb{C})$  are labelled by 'highest weights', which are nothing but dominant characters in the above sense. More precisely, one has the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.7** (Borel-Weil). If  $\alpha$  is a dominant character, then the space  $\Gamma(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{L}_{\alpha})$  of holomorphic sections of  $\mathcal{L}_{\alpha}$  is a finite-dimensional irreducible holomorphic representation of G (with 'highest weight  $\alpha$ '). All such representations arise in this way.

(It should be clear that  $\mathcal{L}_{\alpha}$  is *G*-equivariant, meaning that *G* does act on on  $\Gamma(\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{L}_{\alpha})$  in a geometrically natural way.)

Example 1.2. For SL(2,  $\mathbb{C}$ ),  $\mathcal{B} = G/B = \mathbb{P}^1$ . A dominant character is given by an integer  $\alpha \geq 0$ , and  $\mathcal{L}_{\alpha} = \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^1}(\alpha)$  in the usual notation. Moreover,  $\Gamma(\mathbb{P}^1, \mathcal{O}_{\mathbb{P}^1}(\alpha)) = \operatorname{Sym}^k(\mathbb{C}^2)^*$  (concretely, the space of homogeneous polynomials of degree k in two variables). This is the standard description of representations of SL(2,  $\mathbb{C}$ ).

## 2. Mystery

What does this have to do with geometric quantization? It *looks* like quantization in the following sense: we took  $\mathcal{N}_r$ , a transitive symplectic *G*-space. This is an open submanifold of  $T^*\mathcal{B}$  (the projection  $\mathcal{N}_r \to \mathcal{B}$  is the one that assigns to each  $f \in \mathcal{N}_r$  the unique Borel containing it). We found irreducible representations of *G* by looking at sections of line bundles on the base  $\mathcal{B}$ . This looks just like the quantization story.

However, quantization should have given us *unitary* representations, and the representations we found are not unitary!  $(SL(n, \mathbb{C})$  has no non-trivial unitary finite-dimensional representations.)

It's remains a mystery to me what is going on. Here are three comments.

2.1. Look at non-holomorphic sections. The finite-dimensionality has to do with the fact that we considered holomorphic sections of  $\mathcal{L}_{\alpha}$ . In the geometric quantization prescription, we are supposed to (do something like) look at all  $L^2$ sections. This makes sense at least when  $\alpha = 0$ . This is the picture: given a *unitary* character of  $\mathcal{B}$ , we can induce from  $\mathcal{B}$  to  $\mathcal{G}$  to get a unitary representation of  $\mathcal{G}$ . My vague memory is that the corresponding representations of  $\mathcal{G}$  are irreducible (or almost so) and that *most* of the irreducible unitary representations arise in this way.

2.2. Compact groups. Instead of a complex group like  $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$ , we can consider compact groups like SU(2). Compactness implies that one can make any finite-dimensional representation unitary. Now, the holomorphic representations of  $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$  restrict to unitary representations of SU(2), and this is a bijection. So we should be able to get the holomorphic representations of  $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$  by quantizing *coadjoint orbits in* SU(2).

For SU(2), the coadjoint orbits are spheres (remember that SU(2) and SO(2,  $\mathbb{R}$ ) have the same Lie algebra). These spheres are Kähler manifolds (think sphere= $\mathbb{P}^1$ ). Using the Kähler polarization, the Hilbert space resulting from geometric quantization is the space of holomorphic sections of a line bundle. So the construction of unitary representations of SU(2) looks exactly the same as the construction of holomorphic representations of SL(2,  $\mathbb{C}$ ) before: holomorphic sections of a line bundle on  $\mathbb{P}^1$ . But there is still a bit of a mystery in the sense that for SU(2) we have quantized semisimple orbits, while for SL(2,  $\mathbb{C}$ ) we dealt with the regular nilpotent orbit. It would be nice to understand the connection between these two stories (some kind of deformation?).

2.3. **Poincaré group.** The unitary representations of  $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$  are physically important in that  $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$  is the universal cover of the Lorentz group. But one is really interested in unitary representations of the Poincaré group,  $P = SL(2, \mathbb{C}) \ltimes \mathbb{R}^4$ . By quantizing coadjoint orbits in P, one recovers the one-particle Hilbert spaces used in quantum field theory. The story here is explained in Woodhouse, and definitely involves the quantization of SU(2) explained above. It would be good to sort all this out.