

# The Rogers–Ramanujan identities for $A_{2n}^{(2)}$

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The Rogers–Ramanujan identities, first proved by **Rogers** in 1894, are the pair of  $q$ -series identities



$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{q^{n^2}}{(1-q) \cdots (1-q^n)} = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(1-q^{5n-1})(1-q^{5n-4})}$$

and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{q^{n^2+n}}{(1-q) \cdots (1-q^n)} = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(1-q^{5n-2})(1-q^{5n-3})}$$

Schur and MacMahon independently observed that the Rogers–Ramanujan identities have a combinatorial interpretation in terms of integer partitions.



A partition  $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots)$  is a weakly decreasing sequence of nonnegative integers, such that only finitely many  $\lambda_i > 0$ .

If  $|\lambda| := \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots = n$  we say that  $\lambda$  is a partition of  $n$ .

For example, there are 7 partitions of 5:

$$(5), \quad (4, 1), \quad (3, 2), \quad (3, 1, 1), \\ (2, 2, 1), \quad (2, 1, 1, 1), \quad (1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$$

(First) Rogers–Ramanujan identity.

The number of partitions of  $n$  such that consecutive parts differ by at least 2 is equinumerous to the number of partitions of  $n$  such that parts are congruent to  $\pm 1$  modulo 5.

For example, for  $n = 9$  both sets of partitions have cardinality of 5:

$(9), (8, 1), (7, 2), (6, 3), (5, 3, 1)$

$(9), (6, 1^3), (4^2, 1), (4, 1^5), (1^9)$

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(Second) Rogers–Ramanujan identity.

The number of partitions of  $n$  such that consecutive parts differ by at least 2 and such that no 1s occur is equinumerous to the number of partitions of  $n$  such that parts are congruent to  $\pm 2$  modulo 5.

Gordon generalised the combinatorial version of the Rogers–Ramanujan identities to



### Gordon's partition theorem.

The number of partitions  $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots)$  of  $n$  such that

$$\lambda_j - \lambda_{j+m} \geq 2$$

and such that at most  $i - 1$  1s occur is equinumerous to the number of partitions of  $n$  such that parts are *not* congruent to  $0, \pm i$  modulo  $2m + 3$ .

For  $m = 1$  and  $i = 2$  this is the first Rogers–Ramanujan identity and for  $m = 1$  and  $i = 1$  this is the second Rogers–Ramanujan identity.

Andrews discovered the  $q$ -series analogue of Gordon's partition theorem.



For  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0 \cup \{\infty\}$  let

$$(q)_n = (q; q)_n = (1 - q)(1 - q^2) \cdots (1 - q^n)$$

and define the “theta function”

$$\theta(z; q) = (z; q)_\infty (q/z; q)_\infty = \frac{1}{(q)_\infty} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (-z)^n q^{\binom{n}{2}}$$

The Andrews–Gordon identities.

For  $1 \leq i \leq m + 1$

$$\sum_{r_1 \geq \cdots \geq r_m \geq 0} \frac{q^{r_1^2 + \cdots + r_m^2 + r_i + \cdots + r_m}}{(q)_{r_1 - r_2} \cdots (q)_{r_{m-1} - r_m} (q)_{r_m}} = \frac{(q^{2m+3}; q^{2m+3})_\infty}{(q)_\infty} \theta(q^i; q^{2m+3})$$

In the 1980s **Lepowsky and Milne** observed that the Rogers–Ramanujan and Andrews–Gordon  $q$ -series arise in the representation theory of affine Kac–Moody algebras.

Let  $A_1^{(1)}$  be the affine Kac–Moody algebra with **Cartan matrix** and **Dynkin diagram**

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \bullet \longleftrightarrow \bullet \\ \alpha_0 \quad \alpha_1$$

If  $V(\Lambda)$  is the integrable highest weight module of  $A_1^{(1)}$  of highest weight  $\Lambda = (2m - i + 2)\Lambda_0 + (i - 1)\Lambda_1$  and  $\phi$  the homomorphism (principal specialisation)

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : \mathbb{C}[[e^{-\alpha_0}, e^{-\alpha_1}]] &\rightarrow \mathbb{C}[[q]] \\ e^{-\alpha_i} &\mapsto q \end{aligned}$$

then

$$(q; q^2)_\infty \phi(e^{-\Lambda} \text{char} V(\Lambda)) = \frac{(q^{2m+3}; q^{2m+3})_\infty}{(q)_\infty} \theta(q^i; q^{2m+3})$$



The previous observation resulted in a new, representation theoretic derivation of the Rogers–Ramanujan identities by **Lepowsky** and **Wilson**. A complicating factor in their proof is the occurrence of the unwanted infinite product in



$$(q; q^2)_\infty \phi(e^{-\Lambda} \text{char } V(\Lambda))$$

and to this day it is not clear how to extend their approach to obtain Rogers–Ramanujan identities for  $A_n^{(1)}$ .

Fortunately, there is another Kac–Moody algebra that realises the Rogers–Ramanujan and Andrews–Gordon  $q$ -series.

Let  $A_2^{(2)}$  be the twisted affine Kac–Moody algebra with Cartan matrix and Dynkin diagram

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -4 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{c} \bullet \longleftarrow \bullet \\ \alpha_0 \quad \alpha_1 \end{array}$$

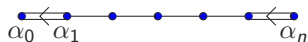
If  $V(\Lambda)$  is the integrable highest weight module of  $A_2^{(2)}$  of highest weight  $\Lambda = (2m - 2i + 2)\Lambda_0 + (i - 1)\Lambda_1$  and  $\phi$  the specialisation

$$\begin{aligned} \phi : \mathbb{C}[[e^{-\alpha_0}, e^{-\alpha_1}]] &\rightarrow \mathbb{C}[[q]] \\ e^{-\alpha_0} &\mapsto -1, \quad e^{-\alpha_1} \mapsto q \end{aligned}$$

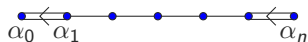
then

$$\phi(e^{-\Lambda} \text{char } V(\Lambda)) = \frac{(q^{2m+3}; q^{2m+3})_{\infty}}{(q)_{\infty}} \theta(q^i; q^{2m+3})$$

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Generalising the specialisation  $\phi$  to arbitrary rank by

$$e^{-\alpha_0} \mapsto -1 \quad \text{and} \quad e^{-\alpha_i} \mapsto q \quad (1 \leq i \leq n)$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(e^{-\Lambda} \text{ch } V(\Lambda)) &= \frac{(q^\kappa; q^\kappa)_\infty^n}{(q)_\infty^n} \prod_{i=1}^n \theta(q^{\lambda_0 - \lambda_i + i}; q^\kappa) \\ &\quad \times \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \theta(q^{\lambda_i - \lambda_j - i + j}, q^{\lambda_i + \lambda_j - i - j + 2n + 1}; q^\kappa), \end{aligned}$$

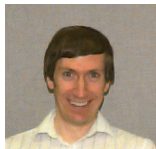
where  $\kappa = 2\lambda_0 + 2n + 1$ ,  $\lambda_0 \geq \lambda_1 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$  and

$$\Lambda = 2\lambda_n \Lambda_0 + (\lambda_{n-1} - \lambda_n) \Lambda_1 + \dots + (\lambda_0 - \lambda_1) \Lambda_n$$

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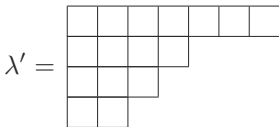
Stembridge noted that the sum side of the Rogers–Ramanujan identities and the  $i = m + 1$  and  $i = 1$  cases of the Andrews–Gordon identities can be written in a compact form using the Hall–Littlewood symmetric functions  $P_\lambda(x_1, x_2, \dots; q)$ .



For  $\lambda$  a partition, let  $m_i = m_i(\lambda)$  be the multiplicity of parts of size  $i$ .

For example, if  $\lambda = (4, 4, 3, 2, 1, 1, 1)$  then  $m_1 = 3$ ,  $m_2 = m_3 = 1$ ,  $m_4 = 2$  and  $m_i = 0$  for  $i \geq 5$ .

It is easy to see that  $m_i = \lambda'_i - \lambda'_{i+1}$  where  $\lambda'$  is the conjugate of  $\lambda$ .



For  $\lambda$  a partition, define the power sum symmetric function

$p_\lambda = \prod_{i \geq 1} p_{\lambda_i}$  by

$$p_r(x_1, x_2, \dots) = x_1^r + x_2^r + \dots$$

The power sums may be used to define a  $q$ -analogue of the **Hall scalar product** on the ring of symmetric function  $\Lambda$ :

$$\langle p_\lambda, p_\mu \rangle_q = \delta_{\lambda\mu} \prod_{i \geq 1} \frac{i^{m_i} m_i!}{1 - q^{\lambda_i}}$$

Then the Hall–Littlewood symmetric functions  $P_\lambda$  are the unique symmetric functions such that

$$P_\lambda(x; q) = m_\lambda(x) + \sum_{\mu < \lambda} u_{\lambda\mu}(q) m_\mu(x)$$

and

$$\langle P_\lambda, P_\mu \rangle_q = 0 \quad \text{for } \lambda \neq \mu$$

Here  $<$  refers to the dominance order on partitions and  $m_\lambda$  is the monomial symmetric function.

For example,

$$P_{(2,1)}(x; q) = m_{(2,1)}(x) + (1 - q)(q + 2)m_{(1,1,1)}(x)$$

so that

$$P_{(2,1)}(x_1, x_2, x_3; q) = x_1^2 x_2 + x_2^2 x_1 + x_1^2 x_3 + x_3^2 x_1 + x_2^2 x_3 + x_3^2 x_2 \\ + (1 - q)(q + 2)x_1 x_2 x_3$$

The **principal specialisation formula** for Hall–Littlewood polynomials gives

$$P_\lambda(1, q, \dots, q^{n-1}; q) = \frac{q^{n(\lambda)}(q)_n}{(q)_{n-l(\lambda)} b_\lambda(q)}$$

where

$$n(\lambda) = \sum_{i \geq 1} (i - 1)\lambda_i \quad \text{and} \quad b_\lambda(q) = \prod_{i \geq 1} (q)_{m_i}$$

For example

$$P_{(2,1)}(1, q, q^2; q) = \frac{q(q)_3}{(q)_1^3} = q(1 + q)(1 + q + q^2)$$

$$P_{(2,1)}(1, q, q^2, \dots; q) = \frac{q}{(q)_1^2} = \frac{q}{(1 - q)^2} = q(1 + 2q + 3q^2 + \dots)$$



If we interpret  $(r_1, r_2, \dots, r_m)$  as a partition  $\lambda'$  of length at most  $m$ , so that  $r_i - r_{i+1} = \lambda'_i - \lambda'_{i+1} = m_i$ , then

$$\frac{q^{r_1^2 + \dots + r_m^2}}{(q)_{r_1 - r_2} \cdots (q)_{r_{m-1} - r_m} (q)_{r_m}} = q^{|\lambda|} P_{2\lambda}(1, q, q^2, \dots; q)$$

and

$$\frac{q^{r_1^2 + \dots + r_m^2 + r_1 + \dots + r_m}}{(q)_{r_1 - r_2} \cdots (q)_{r_{m-1} - r_m} (q)_{r_m}} = q^{2|\lambda|} P_{2\lambda}(1, q, q^2, \dots; q)$$

Therefore

(Two of the) Andrews–Gordon identities. For  $\sigma = 0, 1$ ,

$$\sum_{\substack{\lambda \\ \lambda_1 \leq m}} q^{(\sigma+1)|\lambda|} P_{2\lambda}(1, q, q^2, \dots; q) = \frac{(q^{2m+3}; q^{2m+3})_{\infty}}{(q)_{\infty}} \theta(q^{(1-\sigma)m+1}; q^{2m+3})$$

We are now ready for our main theorem.

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$A_{2n}^{(2)}$  Rogers–Ramanujan and Andrews–Gordon identities.

For  $\kappa = 2m + 2n + 1$

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{\substack{\lambda \\ \lambda_1 \leq m}} q^{|\lambda|} P_{2\lambda}(1, q, q^2, \dots; q^{2n-1}) \\ &= \frac{(q^\kappa; q^\kappa)_\infty^n}{(q)_\infty^n} \prod_{i=1}^n \theta(q^{i+m}; q^\kappa) \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \theta(q^{j-i}, q^{i+j-1}; q^\kappa) \\ &= \frac{(q^\kappa; q^\kappa)_\infty^m}{(q)_\infty^m} \prod_{i=1}^m \theta(q^{i+1}; q^\kappa) \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq m} \theta(q^{j-i}, q^{i+j+1}; q^\kappa) \end{aligned}$$

$A_{2n}^{(2)}$  RR and AG identities (continued).

For  $\kappa = 2m + 2n + 1$

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The proof of the theorem is long and technical. The key step is to prove that the unspecialised characters

$$e^{-\Lambda} \text{char } V(\Lambda) \quad \text{for } \Lambda = m\Lambda_n \text{ and } \Lambda = 2m\Lambda_0$$

of  $A_{2n}^{(2)}$  can be expressed in terms of the Hall–Littlewood polynomials. Through specialisation the  $A_{2n}^{(2)}$  Rogers–Ramanujan and Andrews–Gordon identities then follow.



Congratulations Dick