

Elliptic hypergeometric functions and the Ruijsenaars model

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What is the point of this talk?

- Philosophy:
Everything should be made elliptic!
- Example:
Elliptic hypergeometric integrals
and the Ruijsenaars model.

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Philosophy

Hierarchy:

Rational – trigonometric (q) – elliptic (p and q)

- Algebra
Lie groups – Quantum groups – Elliptic quantum groups
- Special functions
Jacobi polynomials – Askey–Wilson polynomials –
Spiridonov–Zhedanov functions
- Physics
- Combinatorics (should be studied more!)

Elliptic curves

Realize elliptic curve (complex torus) **multiplicatively**

$$(\mathbb{C} \setminus 0)/(x \sim px),$$

where $|p| < 1$.

Equivalently, if $x = e^{2\pi iz}$,

$$z \in \mathbb{C}/(z = z + 1 = z + \tau),$$

where $p = e^{2\pi i\tau}$.

Elliptic functions

An **elliptic function** is a meromorphic function on $\mathbb{C} \setminus 0$ such that

$$f(x) = f(px).$$

The (multiplicative) theta function is defined by

$$\theta(x; p) = \prod_{j=0}^{\infty} (1 - xp^j)(1 - p^{j+1}/x).$$

It satisfies

$$\theta(px; p) = -x^{-1}\theta(x; p).$$

Any elliptic function can be factored as

$$f(x) = C \frac{\theta(a_1x; p) \cdots \theta(a_nx; p)}{\theta(b_1x; p) \cdots \theta(b_nx; p)},$$

where

$$a_1 \cdots a_n = b_1 \cdots b_n.$$

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Elliptic hypergeometric integrals

A one-variable **elliptic hypergeometric integral** has the form

$$\oint g(x) \frac{dx}{x},$$

where $f(x) = g(qx)/g(x)$ is elliptic. Equivalently,

$$g(x)g(pqx) = g(px)g(qx).$$

Factoring f as above, we are reduced to solving

$$\frac{g(qx)}{g(x)} = \theta(x; p).$$

This is solved by **Ruijsenaars's elliptic gamma function**

$$g(x) = \Gamma(x; p, q) = \prod_{j,k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1 - p^{j+1}q^{k+1}/x}{1 - p^j q^k x}.$$

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Elliptic hypergeometric integrals

Elliptic hypergeometric integrals have the form
(Spiridonov, 2001)

$$\oint \frac{\Gamma(a_1 x; p, q) \cdots \Gamma(a_n x; p, q)}{\Gamma(b_1 x; p, q) \cdots \Gamma(b_n x; p, q)} \frac{dx}{x},$$

where

$$\Gamma(x; p, q) = \prod_{j,k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1 - p^{j+1} q^{k+1} / x}{1 - p^j q^k x}.$$

We will encounter multivariable versions of such integrals.

Ruijsenaars operators

Ruijsenaars operators (depending on p, q, t)

$$\begin{aligned} & (D^{(k)}f)(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{I \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}, \\ |I|=k}} \prod_{i \in I, j \in I^c} \frac{\theta(tx_i/x_j; p)}{\theta(x_i/x_j; p)} \cdot f(x_1, \dots, \underbrace{qx_i}_{i \in I}, \dots, x_n). \end{aligned}$$

Commutativity (Ruijsenaars 1987)

$$[D^{(k)}, D^{(l)}] = 0, \quad k, l = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

Define integrable system of relativistic quantum particles.
Generalizes various Calogero–Moser–Sutherland-type models.

When $p = 0$, $\theta(x; 0) = 1 - x$, $D^{(k)}$ are the Macdonald operators, having **Macdonald polynomials** as joint eigenfunctions.

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Q -operators

We will define a commuting family of integral operators Q_c , which also commute with all the operators $D^{(k)}$.

Belousov, Derkachov, Kharchev & Khoroshkin (2024) studied and applied such operators in the hyperbolic limit case. Following those authors, we call them Q -operators.

The terminology originates in Baxter's solution of the eight-vertex model (1972, 1973).

Definition of Q -operators

Our Q -operators are (from now on $\Gamma(x) = \Gamma(x; p, q)$)

$$\begin{aligned} & (Q_c f)(y_1, \dots, y_n) \\ &= \int_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{T}_{y_1 \dots y_n}^{n-1}} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \prod_{1 \leq i \neq j \leq n} \frac{\Gamma(tx_i/x_j)}{\Gamma(x_i/x_j)} \prod_{i,j=1}^n \frac{\Gamma(cy_j/x_i)}{\Gamma(cty_j/x_i)} |d\mathbf{x}|. \end{aligned}$$

Similar operators were considered already by Ruijsenaars (2005). Here,

$$\mathbb{T}_{y_1 \dots y_n}^{n-1} = \{x \in \mathbb{C}^n; |x_1| = |x_2| = \dots = |x_n|, \mathbf{x}_1 \cdots \mathbf{x}_n = y_1 \cdots y_n\},$$

$$|d\mathbf{x}| = \frac{dx_1}{2\pi i x_1} \cdots \frac{dx_{n-1}}{2\pi i x_{n-1}}.$$

We will not go into details about parameter conditions.

Commutativity

It is not hard to show that

$$[Q_c, D^{(k)}] = 0, \quad 0 \leq k \leq n.$$

However, the relation

$$[Q_c, Q_d] = 0$$

is not obvious!

GRRY identity

The integral operator identity $[Q_c, Q_d] = 0$ is equivalent to (after a change of parameters)

$$\int_{x \in \mathbb{T}^{n-1}} \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{j=1}^{2n} \Gamma(\textcolor{red}{a} y_j x_i) \Gamma(\textcolor{red}{b} / y_j x_i)}{\prod_{1 \leq i \neq j \leq n} \Gamma(x_i / x_j) \Gamma(ab x_i / x_j)} |d\mathbf{x}|$$

$$= \int_{x \in \mathbb{T}^{n-1}} \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{j=1}^{2n} \Gamma(\textcolor{red}{b} y_j x_i) \Gamma(\textcolor{red}{a} / y_j x_i)}{\prod_{1 \leq i \neq j \leq n} \Gamma(x_i / x_j) \Gamma(ab x_i / x_j)} |d\mathbf{x}|,$$

where

$$x_1 \cdots x_n = y_1 \cdots y_{2n} = 1.$$

Conjectured by Gadde, Rastelli, Razamat and Yan (2010).
Appeared from quantum field theory.

One-dimensional case ($n = 2$) due to Van de Bult (2011).
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Proof of commutativity

Together with Rains we found two proofs of $[Q_c, Q_d] = 0$. I will sketch one of them, based on the **elliptic Macdonald polynomials** of Langmann, Noumi and Shiraishi (2022).

Work in space of formal power series

$$V = \mathbb{C}[x_1, x_1^{-1}, \dots, x_n, x_n^{-1}]^{S_n}[[p]].$$

Elements are series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k(x_1, \dots, x_n) p^k,$$

where f_k are symmetric Laurent polynomials.

The Ruijsenaars operators $D^{(k)}$ act on this space.

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Elliptic Macdonald polynomials

Monomial symmetric Laurent polynomials

$$m_{\lambda}(\mathbf{x}) = x_1^{\lambda_1} \cdots x_n^{\lambda_n} + \text{distinct permutations},$$

where $\lambda_1 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_n$. Note that λ_j may be negative.

Dominance order

$$\lambda \leq \mu \iff \lambda_1 + \cdots + \lambda_j \leq \mu_1 + \cdots + \mu_j, \quad 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

Elliptic Macdonald polynomials have the form

$$\mathbf{P}_{\lambda}(\mathbf{x}; p) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_{\lambda}^{(k)}(\mathbf{x}) p^k,$$

where

$$P_{\lambda}^{(k)} \in \text{span}_{\mu \leq \lambda + (k, 0, \dots, 0, -k)} m_{\mu}.$$

The constant term $P_{\lambda}^{(0)}$ is a standard Macdonald polynomial.

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Example

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{P}_{00}(x_1, x_2; p) = & 1 \\
 & + \frac{q(1-t)^2(1+t)}{t(1-q)(1-tq)} \left(\frac{x_1}{x_2} + \frac{x_2}{x_1} \right) p \\
 & + \frac{q(1-t^2)^2(1-q^2)(1-t^2q)}{t(1-tq)^3(1-tq^2)} \left(\frac{x_1}{x_2} + \frac{x_2}{x_1} \right) p^2 \\
 & + \frac{q^2(1-t)(1-t^2)(1-t^2q)}{t^2(1-q)(1-q^2)(1-tq^2)} \left(\frac{x_1^2}{x_2^2} + \frac{x_2^2}{x_1^2} \right) p^2 \\
 & + \mathcal{O}(p^3).
 \end{aligned}$$

No explicit formula for \mathbf{P}_λ is known, not even for $\lambda = (0, 0)$.

Elliptic Macdonald polynomials diagonalize Ruijsenaars operators

$\mathbf{P}_\lambda(\mathbf{x}; p)$ are eigenfunctions of $D^{(k)}$.

Schauder basis: any $f \in V$ can be written uniquely

$$f(\mathbf{x}; p) = \sum_{\lambda} A_{\lambda}(p) \mathbf{P}_{\lambda}(\mathbf{x}; p),$$

$A_{\lambda} \in \mathbb{C}[[p]]$, with convergence as formal power series.

Langmann et al. show that the series defining \mathbf{P}_{λ} converges for some range of parameters.

Very hard to prove and we don't need it.

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Expansion of integral

We want to show that Q_c act on V .

$$\Gamma(x; 0, q) = \prod_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - xq^j} = \frac{1}{(x; q)_{\infty}}.$$

Integral kernel of Q_c is

$$\prod_{1 \leq i \neq j \leq n} \frac{(x_i/x_j; q)_{\infty}}{(tx_i/x_j; q)_{\infty}} \prod_{i,j=1}^n \frac{(tcy_j/x_i; q)_{\infty}}{(cy_j/x_i; q)_{\infty}} (1 + \Phi_1 p + \Phi_2 p^2 + \dots),$$

with $\Phi_k(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{y})$ Laurent polynomials.

Expansion of integral

By standard results from Macdonald theory (here P_λ are usual Macdonald polynomials)

$$\int_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{T}_{y_1 \dots y_n}^{n-1}} P_\lambda(\mathbf{x}) \prod_{1 \leq i \neq j \leq n} \frac{(x_i/x_j; q)_\infty}{(tx_i/x_j; q)_\infty} \prod_{i,j=1}^n \frac{(tcy_j/x_i; q)_\infty}{(cy_j/x_i; q)_\infty} |d\mathbf{x}| \\ = \phi_\lambda(c) P_\lambda(\mathbf{y}),$$

for some ϕ_λ .

Using this fact, is it easy to see that Q_c act on V (formal power series in p with symmetric Laurent polynomial coefficients).

Conclusion of proof

The rest is hand-waving.

Since Q_c acts on V , we can expand

$$Q_c \mathbf{P}_\lambda(\mathbf{x}; p) = \sum_{\mu} A_{\lambda\mu}(p) \mathbf{P}_\mu(\mathbf{x}; p).$$

We write

$$D^{(k)} \mathbf{P}_\lambda(\mathbf{x}; p) = E_\lambda^{(k)}(p) \mathbf{P}_\lambda(\mathbf{x}; p).$$

The equation $[Q_c, D^{(k)}] = 0$ then gives

$$A_{\lambda\mu}(p)(E_\lambda^{(k)}(p) - E_\mu^{(k)}(p)) = 0, \quad 0 \leq k \leq n.$$

This implies that $A_{\lambda\mu}$ vanishes for $\lambda \neq \mu$, that is, $\mathbf{P}_\lambda(\mathbf{x}; p)$ are eigenvectors of Q_c .

This implies that $[Q_c, Q_d] = 0$ on V , which implies that the integral kernel of the commutator vanishes.

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Concluding remark

We have not been able to extend the **applications** of Q -operators due to Belousov et al.

Main problem is to relate n -particle and $(n + 1)$ -particle system in elliptic case.

Macdonald polynomials are stable,

$$P_{\lambda}(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0) = P_{\lambda}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

but we don't know any similar property of elliptic Macdonald polynomials.

Maybe a better **combinatorial** understanding of elliptic Macdonald polynomials would be useful.



Happy birthday, Paul!