The Wigner-Weyl-Moyal Formalism on Algebraic Structures

Frank Antonsen
University of Copenhagen
Niels Bohr Institute
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Abstract

We first introduce the Wigner-Weyl-Moyal formalism for a theory whose phase-space is an arbitrary Lie algebra. We also generalize to quantum Lie algebras and to supersymmetric theories. It turns out that the non-commutativity leads to a deformation of the classical phase-space: instead of being a vector space it becomes a manifold, the topology of which is given by the commutator relations. It is shown in fact that the classical phase-space, for a semi-simple Lie algebra, becomes a homogenous symplectic manifold. The symplectic product is also deformed. We finally make some comments on how to generalize to $C^*$-algebras and other operator algebras too.

1 Introduction

The very powerful Wigner-Weyl-Moyal (WWM) formalism is a way to associate with each operator describing a state, observable or transition, a function on phase space. This function is known as the Weyl symbol, or the Weyl transform of the corresponding operator. In this way the wave function (or rather the density matrix) is associated with a pseudo-distribution function known as the Wigner function. This function, denote it by $F$, is the closest analogue of the classical phase-space distribution,
which enters for instance in the Boltzmann equation. It can, however, be non-positive, and is hence not a proper distribution function – in most cases the Heisenberg uncertainty relations forbids the existence of such a proper distribution function. As first pointed out by Moyal, the Weyl transform generates a deformation, on the phase-space, of the classical Poisson brackets and of the usual commutative product, \((f(q, p), g(q, p)) \rightarrow f(q, p)g(q, p) = (fg)(q, p)\). The deformed product is denoted by * and is called the twisted product. It is in general non-commutative. The deformation of the Poisson bracket is what is known as the Moyal bracket

\[
[f(q, p), g(q, p)]_M = f(q, p)*g(q, p) - g(q, p)*f(q, p) = i\hbar\{f(q, p), g(q, p)\}_{PB} + O(\hbar^2)
\]

It is this method we want to extend to a phase-space which is not just that of quantum mechanics, but can be an arbitrary (finite or infinite dimensional) Lie algebra or, as will be shown later, a super-Lie algebra, a quantum-Lie algebra or a \(C^*\)-algebra.¹

We will first review the standard WWM approach to the quantum mechanical phase-space, i.e. to the Lie algebra, \(h_n\), of the Heisenberg group in \(n\) dimensions. This will be done in terms of certain translation operators. This formalism will then be carried over into a second quantized formulation by introducing a new basis, namely that of creation and annihilation operators. This will at once show us how to extend the formalism in two directions: (1) to an arbitrary Lie algebra, and (2) to fermionic degrees of freedom. These can then be combined to give a WWM formalism for super-Lie algebras. The way we derive the standard WWM approach will show some connection with quantum groups, and hence we will also be commenting on how to extend this formalism even further, into the realm of quantum deformed Lie algebras – quantum-Lie algebras. Finally we will study general operator algebras, and

¹Some abuse of notation is used here. When we say that a quantum mechanical phase-space is given by (or simply is) some Lie algebra, what we mean is that any quantum physical observable is some function of the generators of this algebra, hence the quantum phase space is really the universal enveloping algebra, \(U\), of the Lie algebra in question. It is, however, straightforward to go from the Lie algebra to its universal enveloping algebra – the algebra of formal power series with elements from the Lie algebra. Furthermore, one could just as well consider the skew field, \(P\), of fractions of \(U\), \(P = \{u^{-1}v \mid u, v \in U\}\). This would correspond to an algebra of formal Laurent series (i.e. functions possibly with singularities), and the corresponding classical phase space would then consists of meromorphic functions.
we will show that our method can be generalized to $C^*$-algebras. We finish off with some comments on further generalizations and applications.

2 The WWM Approach to the Standard Phase-Space

The standard phase-space of quantum mechanics is given by $2n$ generators $\hat{q}_i, \hat{p}_i$ satisfying (we’ll only treat bosons for now, we will, however, return to fermions later)

$$[\hat{q}_i, \hat{p}_j] = i\delta_{ij} \text{ with } i, j = 1, \ldots, n$$

in units where $\hbar = 1$.

We know that these commutation relations can only be represented faithfully in terms of operators on some Hilbert space, leading to the standard formulation of quantum theory. We’re interested in a phase-space formulation which as closely as possible resembles that of classical statistical mechanics, and we thus need a correspondence between observables represented by operators on the Hilbert space $H = L^2(X)$ ($X$ is the coordinate space, $q$-space, i.e. an $n$ dimensional vector space) and functions on a $2n$-dimensional symplectic space, phase-space, i.e. we want a map, the Weyl map, $\hat{A} \mapsto A_W(q, p)$, where $\hat{A}$ is an operator on $H$ and $A_W$ is some function on the classical phase-space. Quantization as a general formalism related to the introduction of such symbols for operators was first extensively studied by Berezin, I think, [32]. Following Grossmann, Royer and Dahl, [1, 2, 3] (see also Li [14]), we introduce operators

$$\Pi(u, v) = \exp(i(u \cdot \hat{p} - v \cdot \hat{q}))$$

these satisfy

$$\Pi(u, v)\Pi(u', v') = \Pi(u + u', v + v')Q(u, v; u', v')$$

where

$$Q(u, v; u', v') = e^{i\frac{1}{2}(uv' - vu')}$$

is a C-number function. This shows then that $\Pi(u, v)$ constitutes a ray representation of the Euclidean group $\mathbb{R}^{2n}$, the group of translations in the
One easily proves

$$\Pi(u,v)\hat{p}\Pi(u,v)^{-1} = \hat{p} - v$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

$$\Pi(u,v)\hat{q}\Pi(u,v)^{-1} = \hat{q} - u$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

which gives us a physical picture of what these operators do: they are translations in phase-space. It also shows us that $u$ acts like a C-number version of the Q-number $\hat{q}$ and $v$ as a C-number version of the Q-number $\hat{p}$, this shows that $\{(u,v)\}$ can be identified with the *classical* phase-space. There are no restrictions imposed upon $u,v$, hence the classical phase-space becomes simply $\mathbb{R}^{2n}$.

We can use the operator $\Pi(u,v)$ to construct our map $\hat{A} \mapsto A_W(u,v)$ as follows. To each operator describing an observable we associate a function given by

$$A_W(u,v) = \text{Tr}(\Pi(u,v)\hat{A})$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

this can be inverted to give

$$\hat{A} = \int A_W(u,v)\Pi(u,v)dudv$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

Actually, this map is only an isomorphism when $\hat{A}$ lies in the space $\mathcal{B}^2(H)$ of Hilbert-Schmidt operators. And we thus have an isomorphism between the space of Hilbert-Schmidt operators on $L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and the function space $L^2(\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n)$. The function corresponding to the density matrix $\rho$ is known as the *Wigner function* (strictly speaking this is only the symplectic Fourier transform of the proper Wigner function). For a pure state $\psi$ we have $\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ and hence

$$F(u,v) = \text{Tr}(\Pi(u,v)|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) = \langle\psi|\Pi(u,v)|\psi\rangle$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

which gives a geometric interpretation of the Wigner function: it is the expectation value of a reflection operator (the symplectic Fourier transform of

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2I use the following notation for the most important sets of numbers: $\mathbb{N}$ is the natural numbers, $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \ldots\}$, $\mathbb{Z}$ denotes the integers, $\mathbb{Q}$ the rationals, $\mathbb{R}$ the reals, $\mathbb{C}$ the complex numbers and $\mathbb{H}$ the quaternions. A general field (or even division ring) will be denoted by $\mathbb{F}$, while $\mathbb{T}$ denotes the torus, $\mathbb{T} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1\} \simeq S^1$.

Commumators and anticommutators will be denoted by $[\cdot, \cdot]$ and $\{\cdot, \cdot\}$, while Moyal and Poisson brackets will be characterized by subscripts $M$ and $PB$ respectively.
the translation operator $\Pi$ is a reflection operator). This Wigner function is
the closest quantum cousin of the classical distribution function $f(q,p)$, it is,
however, in general non-positive.
The *Weyl-map* $\hat{A} \mapsto A_W$ generates an algebra structure on $L^2(\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R})$ via
\[(\hat{A}\hat{B})_W \equiv A_W \ast B_W\] (10)
This product is known as the *twisted product*, it is non-commutative but
associative, hence with this product $L^2(\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R})$ becomes a non-abelian Banach algebra (a Hilbert-algebra even). One can show
\[f \ast g = f(u, v) \exp\left(-\frac{i}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial u}\right)g(u, v)\] (11)
where $\partial / \partial v$ is understood always to act on $f(u, v)$ and the other derivative
always to act on $g$. We have reinserted $\hbar$ for clarity.
As the twisted product is non-commutative we can introduce a kind of com-
mmutator, known as the *Moyal bracket*
\[[f(u, v), g(u, v)]_M \equiv f \ast g - g \ast f\] (12)
One easily sees that
\[(\hat{A}, \hat{B})_W = [A_W, B_W]_M\] (13)
Furthermore
\[[f, g]_M = 2if \sin\left(\frac{1}{2} \hbar \triangle\right)g\] (14)
where we have introduced the *bi-differential operator*
\[f \triangle g \equiv \frac{\partial f}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial u} - (u \leftrightarrow v) = \{f, g\}_{PB}\] (15)
which is the bi-differential operator defining the classical Poisson brackets,
$\{\cdot, \cdot\}_{PB}$. Hence
\[(\hat{A}, \hat{B})_W = [A_W, B_W]_M = i\hbar \{A_W, B_W\}_{PB} + O(\hbar^2)\] (16)
thus the Moyal bracket is a deformation of the classical Poisson bracket. Such
deformations of classical Poisson structures have also been studied in their
\[\text{3A few papers have been written in the mathematics literature dealing with twisted}
\text{products for some classical groups, see e.g. [3].}\]
own right in the mathematics literature, I refer to [33]. Also note that this relation clarifies the usual Heisenberg quantization rule

$$\{\cdot, \cdot\}_{\text{PB}} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\hbar} \{\cdot, \cdot\}$$

One should note that the Wigner function considered as a mapping $B^2 \rightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R}^{2n})$ is not unique, one can modify the definition by the inclusion of an arbitrary function, see Cohen [20]. Each such function corresponds to a different prescription for the ordering of operator products. The Wigner function is, however, the simplest of these functions, and the only one for which we do not need a “dual” for going the other way $L^2(\mathbb{R}^{2n}) \rightarrow B^2$. I refer to [21, 20] for further details.

Furthermore, one could just as well use a translation operator based on all the generators of the Lie algebra, i.e. using

$$\Pi_{\text{alt}}(u, v, w) \equiv \exp\left( iu \hat{p} - iv \hat{q} + iw \hat{1} \right)$$

and the classical “phase-space” is now apparently three-dimensional (parametrized by $u, v, w$), but one should note that $\hat{1}$ lies in the center of the algebra (the Heisenberg algebra is a central extension of the algebra of translations $\mathbb{R}^2$), hence including it simply amounts to multiplying the functions by a phase:

$$\Pi_{\text{alt}}(u, v, w) = e^{iw}\Pi(u, v)$$

and can thus be ignored. These comments will turn out to be useful when the generalization to arbitrary Lie algebras is attempted.

Fascinating as all this is we nonetheless have to move on. We want to generalize the above outlined beautiful formalism to the case where the phase-space is not just the Heisenberg algebra $h_n$, but any Lie algebra $g$.

## 2.1 Creation and Annihilation Operators

We need one more step, before we can safely generalize to arbitrary Lie algebras. All physical processes can be described in terms of creation and annihilation operators. For a simple (bosonic) quantum mechanical system we know that these are given in terms of the operators $\hat{q}, \hat{p}$ by

$$\hat{a} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{p} + i\hat{q})$$

$$\hat{a}^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{p} - i\hat{q})$$

(17)
i.e. by a simple rotation of the quantum phase-space. We know that these operators satisfy

\[
\begin{align*}
[\hat{a}, \hat{a}^\dagger] &= 1 \\
[\hat{n}, \hat{a}] &= -\hat{a} \\
[\hat{n}, \hat{a}^\dagger] &= \hat{a}^\dagger
\end{align*}
\]

(19) (20) (21)

where \( \hat{n} = \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \) is the number operator.

We introduce a new family of operators

\[
\tilde{\Pi}(\alpha, \beta) \equiv \exp(-i(\alpha \cdot \hat{a}^\dagger - \beta \cdot \hat{a}))
\]

(22)

Then

\[
\tilde{\Pi}(\alpha, \beta)\tilde{\Pi}(\alpha', \beta') = \tilde{\Pi}(\alpha + \alpha', \beta + \beta')\tilde{Q}(\alpha, \beta; \alpha' \beta')
\]

(23)

where

\[
\tilde{Q}(\alpha, \beta; \alpha' \beta') = \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}(\alpha \beta' - \beta \alpha')\right)
\]

(24)

Thus we once again have the same structure as before – not surprisingly, the transformation \((q, p) \rightarrow (a^\dagger, a)\) is merely a rotation – but note the absence of the imaginary unit in \(\tilde{Q}\), this is of course due to the absence of an \(i\) in the fundamental commutator relations in this basis.

The importance of this example is the following:

- Fermions can be described by a similar algebra, but with anti-commutators; the quantities \(\alpha, \beta\) then become Grassmann numbers. (This will be shown later.)
- We can treat fields by letting the operators carry a continuous index (an element in some vector space or manifold) and inserting delta-functions where appropriate.
- Any Lie algebra, finite or infinite dimensional, can be written in a form with creation and annihilation operators together with “number operators” (a root decomposition).

We should proceed with caution here. The algebra now consists of \(3n + 1\) generators, namely \(\hat{a}, \hat{a}^\dagger, \hat{n}, 1\), and while \(1\) belongs to the center, and thus can be ignored, this is by now means the case for \(\hat{n}\). Why not use

\[
\Psi(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \equiv \exp(-i\alpha \cdot \hat{a}^\dagger + i\beta \cdot \hat{a} - i\gamma \cdot \hat{n})
\]
instead? This would clearly alter the relations:

\[ \Psi(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \Psi(\alpha', \beta', \gamma') = \exp \left( -i(\alpha + \alpha') \cdot \hat{a}^\dagger + i(\beta + \beta') \cdot \hat{a} - i(\gamma + \gamma') \cdot \hat{n} - \right. \\
\left. \frac{1}{2}(\alpha \cdot \beta' - \alpha' \cdot \beta) + (\alpha \cdot \gamma' - \alpha' \cdot \gamma)\hat{a}^\dagger - (\beta \cdot \gamma' - \beta' \cdot \gamma)\hat{a} + ... \right) \]

We note one thing: To any order the term involving the extra generator \( \hat{n} \) looks like \( i(\gamma + \gamma') \cdot \hat{n} \), there are no higher order terms. Nor does it alter the symplectic product. The new generator only modifies the expression for the deformed addition, i.e. the terms involving \( \hat{a}, \hat{a}^\dagger \). The \( \gamma, \gamma' \) appears more or less as some arbitrary parameters. The problem can be traced back to the fact that \( \hat{n} \) is not and independent quantity. Dependent quantities will be elements of the universal enveloping algebras, i.e. polynomials in the generators, and should thus not be included among the basic quantities – they should be non-linear functions of the classical phase-space variables, and not independent coordinates. This distinction will become clearer as we consider semisimple Lie algebras in the sequel.

### 2.1.1 Some Comments: Quantum Planes and Fibres

We elaborate a little bit on the structure involved in the WWM formalism as outlined above. The essential quantity was seen to be the operator \( \Pi(u, v) \). This then lead to a deformation of the classical Poisson structure and to an isomorphism between the Hilbert-Schmidt operators and the functions on phasespace. Now, this deformation can also come about in another way. Define

\[ X = e^{\hat{a}} \quad Y = e^{\hat{p}} \]

then

\[ XY = qYX \] (26)

where \( q = \exp(i\hbar) \). Hence \( X, Y \) makes up a non-commutative geometry, known as the quantum plane \( \mathbb{R}^2_q \) [4], which is a deformation of the classical space \( \mathbb{R}^2 \). The automorphism group of this quantum plane is then what is known as a quantum group, a deformed version of a classical Lie group.

Define now

\[ X(u) = e^{u\hat{a}} \quad Y(u) = e^{u\hat{p}} \] (27)

then we have what we could call a quantum fibre bundle where the base space is \( \mathbb{R} \) and the fiber at \( u \) is a copy of the quantum plane. The deformation
parameter $q$ develops a $u$-dependency, so we have different deformations at different points (the fibres are of course still isomorphic, though). We further note the non-local “folding”

$$X(u)Y(v) = q(u,v)Y(v)X(u)$$

(28)

which holds even when $u \neq v$. Let us finally note that $\Pi(u,v)$ is essentially just $X(v)Y(u)$. These arguments then indicate that quantum groups will indeed appear upon quantization of classical theories. In fact, the entire formalism as presented here is very intimately related to the study of quantum groups, see e.g. [33] for a related study of deformation of Poisson-Lie algebras.

3 An Arbitrary Lie Algebra

We now want to generalize the WWM approach to the case where the given quantum phase-space is an arbitrary Lie algebra. Two special cases are particularly important, namely abelian and semisimple algebras, and will be treated first. Then we will comment on how to generalize to non-abelian, non-semisimple Lie algebras.

3.1 Abelian Lie Algebras

For each natural number $n$ there exists just one (up to isomorphism) abelian Lie algebra $\mathfrak{a}$ with $\dim \mathfrak{a} = n$. And this Lie algebra is isomorphic to $\mathbb{F}^n$, where $\mathbb{F}$ is the base-field (e.g. the reals or the complex numbers). The universal enveloping algebra $U(\mathfrak{a})$ can then be identified with the ring of formal power series in $n$ (commuting) variables:

$$U(\mathfrak{a}) = \mathbb{F}[[X_1, \ldots, X_n]]$$

(29)

Thus we simply take the vector space $\mathbb{F}^n$ to be our classical phase space $\Gamma^0_\mathfrak{a}$

$$\Gamma^0_\mathfrak{a} \equiv \mathbb{F}^n \simeq \mathfrak{a}$$

(30)

Note, however, that the name “phase-space” is somewhat inappropriate as $\Gamma^0_\mathfrak{a}$ will in general not be a symplectic space - in fact it will only be so if $n$ is
even, in which case we have the canonical symplectic form

$$\omega_0(X, X') \equiv X \wedge X' \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} \left( X_i X_{i+n/2} - X_{i+n/2} X_i \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (31)$$

All the same, for simplicity we will stick to the name phase-space even in the case where \( n = \dim \mathfrak{a} \) is odd.

We should notice that \( \Gamma^0_\mathfrak{a} \) is a flat manifold (it is a vector space). It will turn out that non-abelian Lie algebras have non-flat phase-spaces. In the abelian case \( C(\Gamma^0_\mathfrak{a}) \) is simply the space of all functions which have a formal Taylor expansion. In general, this will of course not be true.

As \( \mathfrak{a} \) is abelian so is \( U(\mathfrak{a}) \) and hence so is \( C(\Gamma^0_\mathfrak{a}) \), i.e. the twisted product is just the usual product of functions

$$f(X) \ast g(X) = f(X)g(X)$$  \hspace{1cm} (32)$$

There is an analogy with the case of abelian \( C^* \)-algebras here: the famous Gel’fand theorem [16, 27] states that any abelian \( C^* \)-algebra is isomorphic to either the space \( C_0(X) \) of continuous functions vanishing at infinity or the space \( C_b(X) \) of bounded functions on some locally compact Hausdorff space \( X \). We will later come across suggestions that this relationship between the WWM-formalism for Lie algebras as proposed here and the Gel’fand theory for \( C^* \)-algebras goes deeper than this.

We can collect the above in the following

**Proposition 1** Let \( \mathfrak{a} \) be an abelian Lie algebra with \( n = \dim \mathfrak{a} < \infty \) over some field \( F \), then

1. the classical phase-space becomes \( \Gamma^0_\mathfrak{a} \equiv F^n \simeq \mathfrak{a} \), when \( n \) is even this is a symplectic space,

2. \( C(\Gamma^0_\mathfrak{a}) \simeq F[[X_1, \ldots, X_n]] \) is the set of all formal power series in \( n \) variables, and

3. the twisted product on \( C(\Gamma^0_\mathfrak{a}) \) becomes trivial \( f \ast g = fg \)

### 3.2 Semisimple Lie algebras

Many models in physics use not only the Heisenberg algebra but also some finite or infinite dimensional Lie algebra \( \mathfrak{g} \). The obvious examples are Yang-Mills theories, \( \sigma \)-models, current algebras, conformal field theory, and string
theory. In a Yang-Mills theory the fields $A_\mu$ (and their conjugate momenta $\pi_\mu$) are elements of some Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$: $A_\mu = A_\mu^k \lambda_k$ where $[\lambda_k, \lambda_l] = ic_{kl}^m \lambda_m$.

The same goes for $\sigma$-models, in current algebras we have commutator relations between the various components of the currents, $[J^k_\mu(x), J^l_\mu(x')] = i\delta(x - x')\eta^m \epsilon^{kl} J^m_\mu(x)$. In conformal field theory we have a family of fields $\phi_i(z, \bar{z})$ depending on two complex variables and satisfying the so-called conformal bootstrap

\[ \phi_i(z, \bar{z}) = d_{ij}^k(z, \bar{z}, w, \bar{w}) \phi_j(w, \bar{w}) \]

A similar situation arises in string theory. As we can see, this is more or less the generic situation in modern physics, and hence we need to extend our WWM formalism to phase-spaces extending the Heisenberg algebra.

For clarity we will first develop the formalism for finite dimensional semisimple Lie algebras, and then we will make the (rather straightforward) generalization to their loop algebras and (affine) Kac-Moody algebras.

From basic Lie algebra theory (see e.g. [5, 6]) we know that we can choose a convenient basis $\{E_\alpha, H_i\}$ for the semisimple Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ such that

\[
\begin{align*}
[H^i, H^j] &= 0 \\
[H^i, E_\alpha] &= \alpha^i E_\alpha \\
[E_\alpha, E_\beta] &= \begin{cases} 
N_{\alpha,\beta} E_{\alpha+\beta} & \alpha + \beta \text{ a non-zero root} \\
\alpha_i H^i & \alpha + \beta = 0 \\
0 & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]

where $N_{\alpha,\beta}$ are some constants. The elements $H^i, i = 1, ..., l$ span the Cartan subalgebra $\mathfrak{h}$ of $\mathfrak{g}$ and act as number operators. The remaining elements $E_\alpha$ act as creation and annihilation operators (depending on the sign of the root $\alpha$). When $\alpha$ is a root, so is $-\alpha$, hence we can divide the elements $E_\alpha$ into pairs $E_{\pm\alpha}$. We thus suggest the following generalization ($\alpha$ positive):

\[ a_i \mapsto E_{-\alpha} \quad a_i^\dagger \mapsto E_{+\alpha} \quad n_i \mapsto H^i \]

As our basic translation operator $\Pi(u, v)$ ($u, v$ are now $r$-dimensional vectors, where $\dim \mathfrak{g} = n = 2r + l, l = \text{rank } \mathfrak{g} = \dim \mathfrak{h}$) we will thus use

**Definition 1** If $\mathfrak{g}$ is a semisimple Lie algebra of finite dimension and $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}_0 + \sum_{\alpha > 0} (\mathfrak{g}_\alpha + \mathfrak{g}_{-\alpha})$ is a root decomposition with respect to the Cartan subalgebra $\mathfrak{g}_0$ then we define the Weyl map in terms of

\[ \Pi(u, v) = \exp(iu^\alpha E_{+\alpha} - iv^\alpha E_{-\alpha} + i\lambda^i(u, v) H_j) \]
summing over positive roots.

In general we cannot \textit{a priori} omit the Cartan element (it would in general not give rise to a bijective map), so we have to include them explicitly, but, on the other hand, they are the analogues of the number operators and should thus not be counted as “independent” quantities, i.e. the parameters $\lambda^i$ should not be independent coordinates but instead $\lambda^i = \lambda^i (u, v)$. These dependent coordinates $\lambda^i$ are related to an imbedding of the phase-space which is $n - l = 2r$ dimensional into a $n$ dimensional vector space.

We cannot, however, simply take over the relation

$$
\Pi(u, v)\Pi(u', v') = \Pi(u + u', v + v')Q(u, v; u', v')
$$

instead it will turn out that the vector sum $u + u', v + v'$ gets deformed, as does the symplectic product $\xi \wedge \xi' = uv' - vu'$. Hence we can write ($\xi \equiv (u, v)$)

$$
\Pi(\xi)\Pi(\xi') = \Pi(\xi \oplus \xi')Q(\xi \times \xi')
$$

(37)

Here $Q$ depends only upon central and Cartan elements (for $g$ semisimple, and only upon elements in the maximal abelian subalgebra otherwise, as will be explained later).

The extra non-commutativity of the phase-space leads to a deformation of the vector-space structure of $\mathbb{R}^{2r}$ the deformed vector sum being $\oplus$. The explicit form for $\xi \oplus \xi'$ is found by using the Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff formula, but for simplicity we will wait until the example $g = su_2$ below before we will write it out explicitly. Note that this deformation of the vector space structure on $\mathbb{R}^{2r}$ implies that the classical phase-space ($(u, v)$-space) might not be a vector space, but just a manifold. We will denote it by $\Gamma$ or $\Gamma_g$ when we wish to emphasize which algebra it belongs to. The symplectic product $\wedge$ gets deformed to $\times$.

The corresponding twisted product can be written in terms of a kernel $\Delta$ like

$$
(f \ast g)(\xi) = \int_{\Gamma} \Delta(\xi; \xi', \xi'') f(\xi') g(\xi'') d\xi' d\xi''
$$

(38)

\footnote{We should also be aware of the fact that using the matrix trace is perhaps not the most general procedure, instead one could define an abstract trace as a linear functional $\chi$ with the property $\chi(AB) = \chi(BA)$, as this implies $\chi([A, B]) = 0$ we see that the number of such possible generalizations can be labeled by elements of the first cohomology class $H^1(g)$ of the Lie algebra $g$. There will in general be essentially two, namely $\chi(AB) = \text{Tr} A\text{Tr} B$ and $\chi(AB) = \text{Tr} (AB)$. The first of these must be discarded as it would imply $A_{W} \propto \text{Tr} A$ for all $A$, which is clearly unsatisfactory, hence only the second alternative is usable.}
where

\[
\Delta(\xi, \xi', \xi'') = \text{Tr} \left( \Pi(u, v) \Pi(u', v') \Pi(u'', v'') \right) \\
= \text{Tr} \left( e^{i\langle \xi \oplus \xi' \oplus \xi'' \rangle, E} e^{i\langle \xi \times (\xi' \oplus \xi'') \rangle + \xi' \times \xi'' \cdot H} \right)
\]

(39)

where we have defined

\[
\langle \xi, E \rangle = u^\alpha E_{+\alpha} - v^\alpha E_{-\alpha}
\]

\[
(x, H) = x_j H^j
\]

In order to satisfy the same relations as for the Heisenberg algebra, we must demand that \( \text{Tr}(\Pi(\xi)\Pi(\xi')) \equiv K(\xi, \xi') \) is a reproducing kernel for \( L^2(\Gamma) \).

This is seen by inserting the definitions of \( A_W, B_W \) in

\[
\int_\Gamma A_W(\xi) B_W(\xi) d\xi = \text{Tr}(AB)
\]

which allow us to express expectation values in terms of integrals over the classical phase-space (let for instance \( B = \rho \), the density matrix).

We have proven the following

**Proposition 2** Let \( g \) be as in Definition 1 above, then

1. \( \dim \Gamma = \dim g - \dim g_0 = n - l \)

2. writing \( \xi = (u, v) \) we have \( \Pi(\xi)\Pi(\xi') = \Pi(\xi \oplus \xi')Q(\xi \times \xi') \) with \( Q \) only involving the Cartan elements

3. the deformed addition is given by

\[
\left( \begin{array}{c}
  u \\
  v \\
  \lambda(u, v)
\end{array} \right) \oplus \left( \begin{array}{c}
  u' \\
  v' \\
  \lambda(u', v')
\end{array} \right) = \left( \begin{array}{c}
  u + u' + \text{higher order terms} \\
  v + v' + \text{higher order terms} \\
  \lambda(u, v) + \lambda(u', v')
\end{array} \right)
\]

whereas the deformed symplectic product is

\[
\xi \times \xi' = \omega_0(u, v, u', v') + \text{higher order terms}
\]

with

\[
\omega(u, v, u', v') \equiv \sum_{\alpha > 0} (u^\alpha v'_\alpha - u'_\alpha v^\alpha)
\]
Concerning the nature of $C(\Gamma)$ and products of $\Pi$ with itself we can say

**Proposition 3** Let $\Pi$ be the “translation” operator defining the Weyl map, then the twisted product of two functions $f, g \in C(\Gamma)$ can be written in terms of a kernel $\Delta$

$$(f * g)(\xi) = \int f(\xi')g(\xi'')\Delta(\xi, \xi', \xi'')d\xi'd\xi''$$

where $d\xi$ is a measure invariant under the action of the corresponding Lie group. The kernel is given by

$$\Delta(\xi, \xi', \xi'') = \text{Tr } \Pi(\xi)\Pi(\xi')\Pi(\xi'')$$

Furthermore, $K(\xi, \xi')$ given by

$$K(\xi, \xi') = \text{Tr } \Pi(\xi)\Pi(\xi')$$

is a reproducing kernel for $L^2(\Gamma)$.

Before continuing with Kac-Moody algebras, let me comment on the suggested formalism and its relations with other authors’ proposals. Several authors have studied the natural symplectic structure associated with a Lie algebra, see for instance [15], this symplectic structure is based on the coadjoint orbit action. Given a Lie group $G$, we construct the symplectic space $O_m = \{m' = \text{Ad}^*(g)m \mid g \in G\}$, where $m$ is some point. The symplectic structure is given by the Kirilov-Kostant Poisson bracket

$$\{f, g\}_{KKP}(m) \equiv \langle m, [df(m), dh(m)] \rangle$$

here $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the pairing between $g$, the Lie algebra of $G$, and its dual $g^*$. Kasperkowitz [7] have applied this symplectic structure to the WWM formalism. These proposals are relevant when the “coordinate manifold” is a Lie algebra and one then needs to find a phase-space. For an arbitrary coordinate manifold $M$ (i.e. $q$-space) the associated phase-space is the cotangent bundle $T^*M$, so even if the global momentum space ($p$-space) is not defined, the phase-space is well-defined. It is this construction the coadjoint orbit formalism generalizes for $M$ replaced by an arbitrary Lie algebra. But, *a priori*, systems do exist for which the phase-space cannot be rewritten as a cotangent bundle, i.e. phase-spaces do exist for which we can define neither a
global coordinate manifold nor a global momentum space. Darboux’ theorem asserts, though, that we can always define coordinates \( p,q \) locally satisfying the usual Poisson bracket relations. The generalization of the WWM formalism proposed here, is able to handle this situation easily as it is based directly on the phase-space manifold and not on the coordinate manifold.

What we, in this paper, are essentially doing is to reconstruct a topological space \( \Gamma \) by a ring of continuous functions \( C(\Gamma) \) on it (i.e. essentially “pointless topology”, or perhaps rather “point-less differential geometry”).

Before the example, which will hopefully clarify the formalism somewhat, let me just briefly mention infinite dimensional Lie algebras. Given a finite dimensional Lie algebra \( g \) with generators \( \lambda^k \), we can construct the corresponding infinite dimensional Lie algebra of maps \( S^1 \to g \), this algebra is known as the loop algebra of \( g \), and will be denoted by \( g_{\text{loop}} \). A basis for this Lie algebra is \( \lambda^k_m = \lambda^k z^m \) where \( z \) is a complex number of modulus 1. The commutator relations are

\[
[\lambda^k_m, \lambda^l_n] = ic^{klh} \lambda^h_{m+n} \tag{40}
\]

This is probably the simplest way of generating infinite dimensional Lie algebras. The more general class of Kac-Moody algebras is based on a relaxation of the restraints on the Cartan matrix \( A_{ij} \), interestingly this too leads to infinite dimensional Lie algebras. An important subclass of these algebras, the so-called affine Kac-Moody algebras (defined by demanding the Cartan matrix to be positive semi-definite) can be viewed as a non-trivial central extension of a loop algebra, and a basis can be chosen such that

\[
\begin{align*}
[H^i_m, H^j_n] &= mG^{ij}\delta_{m+n,0} K \\
[H^i_m, E^\alpha_n] &= \alpha^i E^\alpha_{m+n} \\
[E^\alpha_m, E^\beta_n] &= N_{\alpha\beta} E^{\alpha+\beta}_{m+n} \\
[E^\alpha_m, E^{-\alpha}_{-n}] &= \alpha_i H^i_m + mK
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \alpha, \beta \) are roots, \( N_{\alpha\beta} = 0 \) if \( \alpha + \beta \) is not a root, \( G^{ij} \) is some matrix and \( K \) is the central generator. The eigenvalue of \( K \) is known as the level. Notice that the generators with \( m = n = 0 \) span a subalgebra, which is an ordinary Lie algebra. Affine Kac-Moody algebras can be included in our formalism by making the substitution \( u_i \mapsto u^m_i, i = 1, 2, ..., r; m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, ... \) so each
gets replaced by an entire sequence leading to an infinite dimensional classical phase-space. In order to deal with non-affine Kac-Moody algebras, we will have to go back to the general commutator relations, as no particular representation in terms of other algebras are known. If we just treat $A^{ij}$ as an arbitrary matrix we can include also these kinds of Kac-Moody algebras in our formalism – in principle at least.

4 An Example: $su_2 = so_3$

To really see the formalism at work, we will consider the simplest non-trivial example, namely $g = su_2$. For simplicity we will work in the $s = 1/2$ representation only (later we will show that the result is independent of the choice of representation), the generators can then be chosen to be the Pauli matrices $\sigma_i$, from which we can define

$$\sigma_\pm = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\sigma_1 \pm i\sigma_2)$$

But it will be just as easy to work directly with $\sigma_i$ instead and we will do this.

The “translation” operator is then

$$\Pi(u,v) = \exp(iu\sigma_1 - iv\sigma_2 + i\lambda(u,v)\sigma_3)$$

which can be rewritten as (using the familiar properties of the Pauli matrices)

$$\Pi(u,v) = \cos \sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2} + i(u\sigma_1 - v\sigma_2 + \lambda\sigma_3) \frac{\sin \sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2}}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2}}$$

The most important ingredient is the deformed addition and symplectic product. Defining $\xi = (u, v)$ and

$$\xi \wedge \xi' \equiv uv' - vu'$$

the usual $h_n$-case would read

$$\Pi(\xi)\Pi(\xi') = \Pi(\xi + \xi')Q(\xi \wedge \xi')$$

with

$$Q(\xi \wedge \xi') = e^{i\xi \wedge \xi'}$$

16
This gets deformed to
\[ \Pi(\xi)\Pi(\xi') = \Pi(\xi \oplus \xi')Q(\xi \times \xi') \] (48)
where \( \oplus \) is the deformed vector sum and \( \times \) the deformed symplectic product
\[
\begin{align*}
\xi \oplus \xi' & = \xi + \xi' + \text{cubic terms} \quad (49) \\
\xi \times \xi' & = \xi \wedge \xi' + \text{quartic terms} \quad (50)
\end{align*}
\]
Computing the first corrections we get
\[ \xi \oplus \xi' = \xi + \xi' + \frac{1}{3}(\xi \wedge \xi')(\xi' - \xi) + \text{higher order terms} \] (51)

Now, it follows from the properties of the Pauli matrices
\[ e^{i\sigma_j u} = \cos u + i\sigma_j \sin u \]
that the function \( \Pi \) can be expressed in terms of trigonometric functions so we must demand periodicity in the arguments. This implies that the classical phase space, \( \Gamma \), can be one of two spaces (upto diffeomorphism), namely the torus \( S^1 \times S^1 \) or the sphere \( S^2 \). It is the commutator relations which determines which of the two spaces we have. Our phase-space cannot be written as a product space \( U \times V \), where \( u \in U, v \in V \), as \( [\sigma_+, \sigma_-] = 2\sigma_3 \notin Z(g) \) (\( Z(g) \) denotes the center of the Lie algebra) and hence the classical phase-space must be \( S^2 \), as we would expect \[13\]. The torus would correspond to a Lie algebra
\[
\begin{align*}
[E_+, E_-] & = 0 \\
[H, E_+] & = aE_+ \\
[H, E_-] & = -bE_-
\end{align*}
\]
where \( a, b \) are arbitrary positive numbers. A more rigorous argument is given in the section on general properties.

The requirement \( Tr(AB) = \int_{\Gamma} A_W B_W d\xi \) together with \( Tr(A) < \infty \) for all \( A \) in the universal enveloping algebra of \( su_2 \), implies that \( \| A_W \|_2^2 = \int_{\Gamma} |A_W|^2 d\xi < \infty \) for all \( A_W \in C(\Gamma) \). Thus \( C(\Gamma) \simeq L^2(S^2) \).

This shows that, although the classical phase-space inherits an addition making it locally isomorphic to the vectorspace \( \mathbb{R}^{2r} \), this isomorphism will in general only be local. Thus 

\textit{the classical phase-space will be some 2r-dimensional}
real, symplectic manifold. The global topological structure of this manifold could (a priori) be representation dependent – we will return to this point later – but the example suggests that only the commutator relations matter. The essential point is

\[ \text{non-commutativity} \rightarrow \text{non-flatness} \]

We can write the “translation” operator \( \Pi \) as

\[ \Pi(u, v) = f_0(u, v) + \sigma \cdot f(u, v) \]  

with

\[
\begin{align*}
    f_0(u, v) &= \cos \sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2} \\
    f_1(u, v) &= iu \frac{\sin \sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2}}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2}} \\
    f_2(u, v) &= -iv \frac{\sin \sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2}}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2}} \\
    f_3(u, v) &= i\lambda \frac{\sin \sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2}}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2}}
\end{align*}
\]

The Weyl maps of the generators become

\[
(1)_W = 2f_0(u, v) \quad (53)
\]

\[
(\sigma_i)_W = 2f_i(u, v) \quad (54)
\]

The factors of two can be removed by multiplying the trace by \( 1/(2s+1) \). We must demand \( f_0 \equiv \text{const} \), which is the same as requiring \( u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2 = \text{const} \), i.e. we once again get \( \Gamma \simeq S^2 \). Normalizing such that \( (1)_W = 1 \) we get

\[ u^2 + v^2 + \lambda^2 = \arccos^2 \frac{1}{2} \]  

which, then gives \( \lambda \) as a function of \( u, v \).

We notice that, had we taken \( \lambda = 0 \) we would have arrived at the most unfortunate result \( (\sigma_3)_W = 0 \), i.e. we would map the non-abelian algebra

\[ ^{5}\text{This actually only holds with some slight modifications as will be explained later.} \]
su_2 onto an abelian one. Instead we have \( \lambda = \pm \sqrt{\text{const}^2 - u^2 - v^2} \neq 0 \).
We note that to lowest order the generators \( \sigma_1, \sigma_2 \) (or equivalently \( \sigma_\pm \)) gets mapped to \( u, v \), whereas \((\sigma_3)_W \) is quadratic, to lowest order, in \((u, v)\). This is
because the Cartan subalgebra of a semisimple Lie algebra can be obtained from the root spaces \( g_{\pm a} = FE_{\pm a} \) as \([g_a, g_{-a}] \subseteq g^0 = h\). The Cartan elements are in this way not truly independent quantities.

The reproducing kernel \( K(u, v; u', v') \) and the kernel of the twisted product \( \Delta \) becomes
\[
\frac{1}{2}K = 1 - f_j(u, v) f_k(u', v') \delta^{jk} \tag{56}
\]
\[
\frac{1}{2} \Delta = 1 - f_j(u, v) f_k(u', v') \delta^{jk} - f_j(u, v) f_k(u'', v'') \delta^{jk} + \sum_{ijk} f_i(u, v) f_j(u', v') f_k(u'', v'') \delta^{ijk} \tag{57}
\]

The proposed WWM-formalism has a very beautiful representation in terms of wellknown quantities. For the sake of generality we will work in a general irreducible representation corresponding to an angular momentum \( l \). The translation operator can be expanded
\[
\Pi(u, v) = \sum_{mm'} \Pi_{mm'}(u, v)|lm\rangle \langle lm'| \tag{58}
\]
where
\[
\Pi_{mm'}(u, v) \equiv \langle lm'| \Pi(u, v) |lm \rangle = \langle lm'| e^{iu \sigma_1 - iv \sigma_2 + i\lambda \sigma_3} |lm \rangle \equiv D_{m'm}^l(R_{u,v}) \tag{59}
\]
where \( R_{u,v} \) is the rotation given by the angles \( u, v \). The \( D_{mm'}^l(R) \) is the usual representation matrices for rotations [22]. For \( g = h_n \), the Heisenberg algebra, \( \Pi(\xi) \) constituted a (ray-) representation of the group of translations, whereas for \( g = su_2 \) we get a (proper) representation of the group of rotations, the phase-space became the orbits of these groups, i.e. the plane and the sphere respectively.

The Weyl map of an “operator” (i.e. a \((2l + 1) \times (2l + 1)\)-matrix) \( A \) becomes
\[
A_W(u, v) = \sum_{mm'} D_{mm'}^l(R_{u,v}) \langle lm | A | lm' \rangle \equiv \sum_{mm'} D_{mm'}^l A_{mm'} \tag{60}
\]

A very beautiful result. At this point we should notice that our WWM-formalism is slightly different from the “standard approach” developed by
Várilly and Gracia-Bondía. Our formulas are slightly simpler, as we do not have Clebsch-Gordon coefficients occurring explicitly. Their “translation”-operator, which they denote by $\Delta^l$, is essentially our translation operator $\Pi$, in fact $\Delta^{1/2} \sim Y_{00} + \Pi$.

The inverse Weyl-map of a function is also interesting to compute. Let $f(u, v) = \sum_m f_m(u, v)|lm\rangle$ be some function in $C(S^2)$, then the corresponding operator, which we will denote by $f^W$ is simply

$$f^W = \sum_{mm'} \int D^l_{mm'}(R(u,v))f_m(u,v)d\Omega|lm\rangle\langle lm'|$$

(61)

where $d\Omega$ denotes the measure on $S^2$.

We can also use the rotation matrices $D^l_{mm'}$ to write

$$\Delta(\xi, \xi', \xi'') = \text{Tr} \; \Pi(\xi)\Pi(\xi')\Pi(\xi'') = \sum_m D^l_{mm'}(R_\xi R_{\xi'} R_{\xi''})$$

(62)

Let us finish this subsection by making a comment on the measure on $\Gamma$. Clearly this measure $d\mu$ has to satisfy a few requirements: (1) it must be a Borel measure (the $\sigma$-algebra must be given by the topology, such that continuous functions are measurable), (2) it must be a Radon measure, i.e. the measure of a bounded set is bounded, and finally (3) it must be invariant under the group $G$ (i.e. Haar), which the operators $\Pi(\xi)$ constitute a representation of. For the Heisenberg algebra this implies that $d\mu$ is the usual Lebesgue-measure, as this is the only translation invariant Radon measure (upto a multiplicative constant), whereas for $su_2$ it implies that $d\mu = d\Omega$, the usual solid angle measure.

### 4.1 The Corresponding Loop and Kac-Moody Algebras

Let us also consider the corresponding loop algebra $(su_2)_{\text{loop}}$, which will be our first example of an infinite dimensional Lie algebra. The commutator relations are

$$[\sigma^n_j, \sigma^m_k] = 2i \varepsilon_{jk}^l \sigma^{n+m}_l$$

(63)

where $\sigma^n_j = \sigma_j z^n$ with $z \in S^1$. Let $\bar{\sigma}_j$ denote the sequence $\{\sigma^n_j\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ and define $\bar{u} = \{u_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$. We then introduce our, by now familiar, translation operator

$$\Pi_{\text{loop}}(\bar{u}, \bar{v}) \equiv \exp \left(i \left(\bar{u} \cdot \bar{\sigma}_+ - \bar{v} \cdot \bar{\sigma}_- + \bar{\lambda} \cdot \bar{\sigma}_3\right)\right)$$

(64)
where
\[ \sigma_n^\pm \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\sigma_1^n \pm i \sigma_2^n) \] (65)
with the obvious notation
\[ \bar{u} \cdot \bar{\sigma}_j \equiv \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} u_n \sigma_j^n \]
In terms of the basis \( \{\sigma_n^\pm, \sigma_3^m\} \) the commutator relations are
\[ [\sigma_n^+, \sigma_m^-] = 2 \sigma_3^{n+m}, \quad [\sigma_n^-, \sigma_m^+] = \pm \sigma_3^{n+m} \]
and we have
\[ \Pi_{\text{loop}}(\xi) \Pi_{\text{loop}}(\xi') = \Pi_{\text{loop}}(\xi \oplus \xi') Q_{\text{loop}}(\xi \times \xi') \] (66)
Now
\[ \bar{u} \cdot \bar{\sigma}_j \equiv \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} u_n \sigma_j^n = \left( \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} u_n z^n \right) \sigma_j \equiv u(z) \sigma_j \] (67)
so the translation operator for the loop algebra can be expressed in terms of that of the basic Lie algebra as
\[ \Pi_{\text{loop}}(\xi) = \Pi(\xi(z)) \] (68)
where \( \xi(z) = \sum_n \xi_n z^n \) is an analytic function \( S^1 \to \Gamma = S^2 \). This is a general result. The classical phase-space of the loop algebra is the space of functions \( S^1 \to \Gamma \), where \( \Gamma \) is the classical phase-space belonging to the original Lie algebra. Symbolically
\[ \Gamma(\mathfrak{g}_{\text{loop}}) \equiv \Gamma(C^\infty(S^1 \to \mathfrak{g})) \simeq C^\infty(S^1 \to \Gamma(\mathfrak{g})) \] (69)
The deformation function \( Q_{\text{loop}} \) can be expressed in terms of \( Q \) as
\[ Q_{\text{loop}}(\xi \times \xi') = Q(\xi(z) \times \xi'(z)) \] (70)
where
\[ \xi(z) \times \xi'(z) \equiv \sum_{n,m=-\infty}^{\infty} (u_n v'_m - v_n u'_m) z^{n+m} \] (71)
Thus the generalization to the loop algebra of a given Lie algebra is trivial. The Kac-Moody algebra $\hat{su}_2$ at level $k$ can be obtained from the loop algebra as

$$
\left[ \sigma^n_3, \sigma^m_3 \right] = km \delta_{n,-m}
$$

$$
\left[ \sigma^n_3, \sigma^m_{\pm} \right] = \pm \sigma^{n+m}_{\pm}
$$

$$
\left[ \sigma^n_3, \sigma^m_- \right] = 2\sigma^{n+m}_3 + km
$$

The translation operator is defined to be

$$
\Pi_{KM}(\xi) = \Pi_{\text{loop}}(\xi)
$$

but with this new non-trivial central extension it satisfies

$$
\Pi_{KM}(\xi)\Pi_{KM}(\xi') = \Pi_{KM}(\xi \oplus \xi')Q_{KM}(\xi \times \xi')
$$

The deformation function $Q_{KM}$ differs from $Q$ by terms proportional to $k$, its $\sigma^3_3$ term is identical to that of the loop algebra, which means that $Q_{KM}$ differs from $Q$ by a C-number function:

$$
Q_{KM}(\xi \times \xi') = Q_k(\xi, \xi')Q(\xi(z) \times \xi'(z))
$$

Explicitly

$$
Q_k(\xi, \xi') = 1 - k \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} n(u_nv'_n - u'_nv_n) + O(k^2)
$$

This is also a general result; for an arbitrary Lie algebra $g$ each element $u_n, v_n$ would be $r$-dimensional, $u_n = (u^1_n, ..., u^r_n)$ etc., and we have to include a sum over this extra index in the above formula too, but otherwise the analysis holds.

We have now seen how the proposed formalism works for a simple example, $g = su_2$. Furthermore, we have seen how to relate the WWM formalism for a loop algebra or a Kac-Moody algebra to that of the original algebra, by which these infinite dimensional algebras are generated.

As a final comment we should note that the relationship (72) implies that the two classical phase-spaces, $\Gamma_{\text{loop}}, \Gamma_{KM}$, will be identical, the correspondence rules (the Weyl maps) will be different though, and, in the language of an earlier subsection, so would their corresponding quantum fibre bundles. We can summarize this in the following
Proposition 4 Let \( g \) be a finite dimensional semisimple Lie algebra, and denote by \( g_{\text{loop}} \) and \( \hat{g}_k \) its corresponding loop and affine Kac-Moody algebra at level \( k \) respectively. The corresponding classical phase-spaces are denoted by \( \Gamma_g, \Gamma(g_{\text{loop}}) \) and \( \Gamma(\hat{g}_k) \) respectively and their “translation” operators by \( \Pi, \Pi_{\text{loop}} \) and \( \Pi_{\text{KM}} \), then

1. \( \Gamma(g_{\text{loop}}) \cong C^\infty(S^1 \to \Gamma_g) \)

2. \( \Pi_{\text{loop}}(\xi) = \Pi(\xi(z)) \) and \( \mathcal{Q}_{\text{loop}}(\xi \times \xi') = \mathcal{Q}(\xi(z) \times \xi'(z)) \) with \( z \in S^1 \) and
   \[
   \xi(z) \times \xi'(z) = \sum_{n,m=-\infty}^{\infty} (u_n v'_m - u'_n v_m) z^{n+m} + \text{higher order terms}
   \]

3. \( \Gamma(\hat{g}_k) \cong \Gamma(g_{\text{loop}}) \)

4. \( \Pi_{\text{KM}}(\xi) = \Pi_{\text{loop}}(\xi) \) and \( \mathcal{Q}_{\text{KM}}(\xi \times \xi') = \mathcal{Q}_k(\xi,\xi') \mathcal{Q}_{\text{loop}}(\xi \times \xi') \) where \( \mathcal{Q}_k \) depends on the level \( k \) as
   \[
   \mathcal{Q}_k(\xi,\xi') = 1 - k \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} n(u_n v'_n - u'_n v_m) + O(k^2)
   \]

There is an immediate generalization of the loop algebras to the gauging of any finite dimensional Lie algebra. The algebra of local gauge transformations is locally\(^6\)

\[
\tilde{g}(M) = C^\infty(M \to g) = C^\infty(M) \otimes g
\]

wherefrom

\[
\Pi_{\tilde{g}(M)}(u,v) = \Pi_g(u(x),v(x)) \quad x \in M
\]

and we have the following

Corollary 1 With \( g \) a semisimple Lie algebra of finite dimension and \( M \) any manifold we have

\[
\Gamma(C^\infty(M) \otimes g) \cong C^\infty(M \to \Gamma) = C^\infty(M) \otimes \Gamma(g)
\]

Borrowing a word from the theory of \( C^* \)-algebras we could call \( C^\infty(M) \otimes g \) the suspension of \( g \). The result above then reads: The phase-space of a suspension is the suspension of the phase-space.

\(^6\)The group is not given by this simple formula globally, since we do not take the principal bundle structure into account; globally, the correct group is the group preserving the corresponding principal bundle, see e.g. \( \cite{31} \). For simplicity, though, we will consider only this particular group, \( C^\infty(M) \otimes g \), also sometimes denoted by Map(\( M, g \)).
5 The structure of the Classical Phase-Space

Now, the classical phase-space was constructed from a map \( \Pi(u, v) \), and clearly it is closely related to the Lie groups with \( g \) as their Lie algebra. In fact, had \( \lambda \) been independent of \((u, v)\) we would have gotten a local Lie group \( [24] \). Let \( G \) be the smallest connected Lie group with \( g \) as its Lie algebra (note, that \( G \) might not be simply-connected), this then acts transitively on \( \Gamma \), and thus, \( [25, 26] \), \( \Gamma \simeq G/H_0 \), where \( H_0 \) is some subgroup. Hence the classical phase-space is a homogenous space. From the construction it follows that \( H_0 \) is essentially a Lie group with \( h \), the Cartan subalgebra, as its Lie algebra, it is not, however, identical to simply \( \exp(h) \) as we have to subtract the center. Hence \( H_0 = H \setminus Z \) where \( H \) is the smallest connected Lie group with \( h \) as its Lie algebra. Very often we have only a trivial center, so often \( H_0 = H \). For \( g = su_2 = so_3 \) we thus have \( G = SO_3 \) and \( H = SO_2 \), whereby (trivial center)

\[
\Gamma_{su_2} \simeq \Gamma_{so_3} \simeq SO_3/SO_2 \simeq SU_2/U_1 \simeq S^2
\]
as we saw earlier.

We notice that for \( g \) semisimple, \( h \), and thus also \( H \), will be abelian, whereas for a more general Lie algebra it will just be nilpotent. We can consider \( H \) as the subgroup spanned by the diagonal matrices, when \( G \) is a matrix group. The case of semisimple Lie algebras simplifies enormously by the abelianess of the Cartan group, since any abelian Lie group has the form \( F^n \times T^m \), where \( F \) is the base field and \( T \) is the torus (\( T = S^1 \), i.e. essentially \( SO_2 \) or \( U_1 \)). Hence for compact Lie groups \( H = T^l \).

We should furthermore notice that a homogenous space is symplectic if it is of the form \( G/H_\omega \) where \( H_\omega \) is the connected component of the kernel of some antisymmetric two-form \( \omega \), \( [24] \). An obvious such 2-form is

\[
\omega_0(u, v, \lambda, u', v', \lambda') = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \wedge \begin{pmatrix} u' \\ v' \end{pmatrix}
\]

where \( \wedge \) is the canonical symplectic product on \( \mathbb{R}^{2r} \). Clearly \( H = \text{Ker} \, \omega_0 \). As we have seen, \( \omega_0 \) gets deformed to another antisymmetric 2-form \( \omega \), which can be found order by order from the Baker-Campbell-Hausdorff theorem. This new 2-form will again vanish on \( H \) and nowhere else, and hence \( \Gamma \) is indeed a symplectic manifold when \( g \) is semisimple. Thus
Proposition 5  For \( g \) a semisimple Lie algebra with \( n = \dim g < \infty \) with Cartan subalgebra \( g_0 \) we have \( \Gamma \simeq G/H \) where \( G, H \) are the smallest, connected Lie groups with \( g, g_0 \) as their Lie algebras. Furthermore, \( \Gamma \) is symplectic.

Now, this was based on the assumption that \( g \) was semisimple. For an arbitrary Lie algebra, this will not be the case. In general the Cartan subalgebra is defined as a maximal nilpotent subalgebra which is its own normalizer, i.e.

\[
[g, [g, ..., [g, g]...]] = 0 \quad \text{(for a sufficiently large} \ n) \tag{80}
\]

\[
\{x \in g \mid [x, h] \subseteq h\} = h \tag{81}
\]

For any representation \( \rho : g \to gl(V) \), where \( V \) is some vector space, we can then write \( V = \oplus_{i=1}^{r} V^{\lambda_i} \) where

\[
V^{\lambda} = \{ v \in V \mid \exists m \in \mathbb{N} : (\rho(x) - \lambda(x))^m v = 0 \} \tag{83}
\]

The quantities \( \lambda \) are linearly independent functionals on \( h \), i.e. \( \Phi_\rho = \{\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_r\} \subseteq h^* \); they are the weights. A root is then defined as a non-zero weight in the adjoint representation, i.e. \( \Delta = \Phi_{ad}\setminus\{0\} \). We still have a root decomposition

\[
g = h \oplus (\oplus_{\alpha \in \Delta} g_\alpha) \tag{84}
\]

and

\[
[g_\alpha, g_\beta] = \begin{cases} 
\subseteq g_{\alpha+\beta} & \alpha + \beta \in \Phi \\
= 0 & \alpha + \beta \not\in \Phi
\end{cases} \tag{85}
\]

\[
B(g_\alpha, g_\beta) = 0 \quad \alpha + \beta \neq 0 \tag{86}
\]

where \( B(\cdot, \cdot) \) is the Killing form. Hence we still have some degree of orthogonality of the different root spaces. Unfortunately it no longer holds that \( \alpha \in \Delta \Rightarrow -\alpha \in \Delta \), so the roots no longer come in pairs. Thus the classical phase-space, which we can still define as we do have a root decomposition, will no longer be even-dimensional, and a fortiori not symplectic, in the general case. Hence

\[
g \text{ semisimple} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Gamma_g \text{ symplectic}
\]
The use of the Cartan algebra as suggested above would constitute one generalization to non-semisimple algebras, but I would like to propose another one, which I think is more appropriate. The reason for the success of the formalism in the semisimple case can be traced back to the fact that for such algebras the maximal nilpotent and the maximal abelian subalgebra coincide: that the Cartan algebra becomes abelian. So it was actually the abelianness of \( h \) that was used. Furthermore, while Cartan algebras of semisimple Lie algebras are fairly unique (they are conjugate) this will not in general hold for Cartan subalgebras of general Lie algebras, whereas abelian Lie algebras are characterized completely by the dimension and thus are unique (up to isomorphism). So what I propose to do is consider not a maximal nilpotent Lie subalgebra \( h \), but a maximal abelian subalgebra \( a \). Now, clearly abelian Lie algebras are also nilpotent so we can use the above decomposition (which actually only holds for complex Lie algebras and not in general for real ones) for any (real or complex or otherwise) Lie algebra \( g \). The dimensionality \( s = \text{dim } a \) will not, however, be equal to the rank \( l \) of the Lie algebra. Let us call this number for the abelian rank, written \( a - \text{rank } (g) \). Obviously

\[
1 + \text{dim } Z(g) \leq a - \text{rank } (g) \leq \text{rank } (g) \quad (87)
\]

Let \( \Phi \) denote the set of weights \( \lambda_i \) in the adjoint representation, and let \( \Delta = \Phi \setminus \{0\} \), then we once more have a decomposition

\[
g = g_0 \oplus (\oplus_{\alpha \in \Delta} g_{\alpha}) \quad (88)
\]

with \( a = g_0 \) and

\[
[g_\alpha, g_\beta] = \begin{cases} 
0 & \alpha + \beta \in \Phi \\
\subseteq g_{\alpha+\beta} & \alpha + \beta \notin \Phi
\end{cases} \quad (89)
\]

\[
[g_0, g_\alpha] \subseteq g_\alpha \quad (90)
\]

We should notice that this construction implies that two Lie algebras have the same classical phase space if and only if one is the central extension of the other or the one can be written as the direct sum of the other and an abelian algebra. In other words abelian algebras get mapped to the singleton set \( \{0\} \). This of course differs from the definition of \( \Gamma^0 \) for an abelian algebra given earlier, but agrees with our calculations for \( su_2 \). In fact, this is the reason why we inserted the superscript 0 in the definition of the abelian
case. Furthermore, this implies that our formalism assigns the same classical phase-space (upto isolated points, which can always be discarded on physical grounds) to two algebras \( g_1, g_2 \) (\( \dim g_2 \geq \dim g_1 \), say) which differ by the addition of an abelian algebra \( a \) (i.e. \( g_2 = g_1 + a \)) such that \( [a, g_1] \subseteq Z(g_2) \), for instance when \( g_2 \) is a central extension of \( g_1 \) or when the sum is direct. The only exception to this is when \( g_1 \), say, is itself abelian, then \( \Gamma_{g_2} \simeq \Gamma^0_{g_1} \), so the formalism is consistent with our choice of phase-space for an abelian Lie algebra – an example is of course the Heisenberg algebra, which is a central extension of \( \mathbb{R}^{2n} \). Note, however, that even though the classical phase-space coincide, their correspondence rules given by the operators \( \Pi_{1,2}, Q_{1,2} \) differ as will their quantum fibre bundles.

**Proposition 6** Two finite dimensional Lie algebras \( g_1, g_2 \) have the same classical phase-spaces upto isolated points if and only if one is the semidirect sum of an abelian algebra \( a \) and the other, say \( g_2 = g_1 + a \), with \( [a, g_1] \subseteq Z(g_2) \). A special case is when \( g_2 \) is a central extension of \( g_1 \).

### 5.1 Nilpotent and Solvable Lie Algebras

Some particular important cases of non-semisimple Lie algebras are the nilpotent and solvable algebras. Let us make a few comments on the WWM formalism of these. Recall that a Lie algebra, \( g \), is solvable if its derived series, \( (g^{(i)}) \), with \( g^{(i)} = [g^{(i-1)}, g^{(i-1)}] \) for \( i \geq 1 \) and \( g^{(0)} = g \), becomes trivial after a certain number of steps, i.e. \( g^{(i)} = 0 \) for some value of \( i \). Similarly, a Lie algebra is nilpotent if the series \( (g_{(i)}) \) with \( g_{(i)} = [g, g_{(i-1)}] \) becomes trivial after a certain number of steps. A nilpotent Lie algebra is also solvable, and any Lie algebra can be written as the semidirect sum of a solvable and a semisimple Lie algebra (Levi-decomposition). Hence once we know how to deal with solvable algebras we can in principle handle any Lie algebra.

As far as solvmanifolds (i.e. homogenous spaces of a solvable Lie group) are concerned, let me just mention that both the Möbius band and the Klein bottle are both solvmanifolds, and that any solvmanifold can be written as a fibre bundle over a compact solvmanifold with fibre \( \mathbb{R}^k \) for some \( k \) (see \[25\]). When the manifold is even a nilmanifold (i.e. when \( G \) is nilpotent), then this fibre bundle can be trivialized. Indeed, if \( M \) is any nilmanifold, then \[25\]

\[
M \simeq M^* \times \mathbb{R}^n
\]  

(91)
where \( M^* \) is a compact nilmanifold. If \( M = G/H \), then \( M^* = {}^aH/H \), where \( {}^aH \) denote the algebraic closure (i.e. the closure in the Zariski topology) of \( H \). Hence, when \( H \) comes from the maximal abelian subalgebra of \( g \), the Lie algebra of \( G \), then \( {}^a\mathfrak{h} = \mathfrak{h} \), so \( {}^aH/H \) is discrete, i.e.

\[
\Gamma \simeq \mathbb{R}^n \times \text{discrete group} \quad n = \dim \mathfrak{g} - \dim \mathfrak{h}
\]

(92)

This makes the case of nilpotent Lie algebras very simple (as we already noticed when we dealt with the Heisenberg algebra).

One should notice, that we can obtain solvable Lie algebras from nilpotent ones by the following exact sequence

\[
0 \to \mathfrak{g}' \to \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{g}' \to 0
\]

(93)

When \( \mathfrak{g} \) is solvable, then \( \mathfrak{g}' \) is the nil-radical, i.e. the largest nilpotent subalgebra. Thus solvable Lie algebras can be gotten as extensions of nilpotent Lie algebras by abelian ones. We will return to extensions when we deal with \( C^* \)-algebras.

Now, a priori the suggested WWM-map will not be a bijection for non-semisimple Lie algebras, as we do not a priori have \( \mathfrak{g}_0 \subseteq \cup_{\alpha, \beta \in \Delta} [\mathfrak{g}_\alpha, \mathfrak{g}_\beta] \). Algebras for which this does happen will be referred to as good algebras, whereas the rest will be termed deficient. The deficiency can be labeled by an integer \( \delta(\mathfrak{g}; \mathfrak{g}_0) = \dim \{ x \in \mathfrak{g}_0 \mid \forall \alpha, \beta \in \Delta : x \notin [\mathfrak{g}_\alpha, \mathfrak{g}_\beta] \} \). For semisimple Lie algebras we have \( \delta = 0 \). For deficient algebras it can happen that for some representations the proposed WWM-map is bijective whereas for others it is not. The task of classifying good/deficient algebras and “good” representations for deficient ones will not be undertaken here; my main interest lies with semisimple algebras. For the remaining of this paper, then, only good algebras will be considered. A priori, different copies of the maximal abelian subalgebra could have different deficiencies. It is always understood that the one which minimizes \( \delta(\mathfrak{g}; \mathfrak{g}_0) \) is to be chosen, i.e. we chose the one with the maximal overlap with the derived algebra. This is summarized in the following

**Definition 2** Let \( \mathfrak{g} \) be a finite dimensional Lie algebra and let \( \mathfrak{g}_0 \) be the maximal abelian subalgebra (unique upto ismorphisms). The deficiency is

\[
\delta(\mathfrak{g}; \mathfrak{g}_0) = \dim \{ x \in \mathfrak{g}_0 \mid \forall \alpha, \beta \in \Delta : x \notin [\mathfrak{g}_\alpha, \mathfrak{g}_\beta] \}
\]
where $\delta$ denotes the set of roots in a decomposition w.r.t. $g_0$. It is always understood that the copy of $g_0$ which minimizes $\delta$ is to be used. With this, writing $\Delta = \Delta_+ \cup \Delta_-$ where $\Delta_+$ consists of positive roots, $\Delta_-$ of negative roots, the “translation” operator becomes

$$\Pi(u, v) = \exp(i \sum_{\alpha \in \Delta_+} u_\alpha E_\alpha - i \sum_{\alpha \in \Delta_-} v_\alpha E_\alpha + i \lambda^j(u, v) H_j)$$

where $H_j$ generate $g_0$.

6 Some Further Examples

We saw that the classical phase-space of $su_2 = so_3$ turned out to be $S^2$. Let us now consider a few more examples very briefly.

Let us start with the Lie algebra of the non-compact group $SU(1,1)$, it consists of traceless $2 \times 2$ matrices (in the fundamental representation) which obey

$$XJ = -JX^\dagger$$
$$J = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \sigma_3$$

(94)

The commutator relations are

$$[H, X_1] = -2X_2$$
$$[H, X_2] = -2X_1$$
$$[X_1, X_2] = -2iH$$

(95) (96) (97)

And a representation is

$$X_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$X_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix} = -\sigma_2$$
$$H = iJ = i\sigma_3$$

We can get from a representation of $su_2$ to one of $su_{1,1}$ by making the transformation (a “Wick rotation”)

$$\sigma_1 \mapsto \sigma_1 = X_1 \quad \sigma_2 \mapsto -\sigma_2 = X_2 \quad \sigma_3 \mapsto i\sigma_3 = H$$

(98)
Inserting this in $\Pi(u, v)$ we get

$$\Pi_{su_{1,1}}(u, v) = e^{i\sigma_1 + iv\sigma_2 - \lambda \sigma_3} \quad (99)$$

For the $su_2$-case we could introduce spherical coordinates for $(u, v, \lambda)$, here it turns out that we get the following coordinates

$$u = z \cos \alpha \cosh \beta$$
$$v = z \sin \alpha \cosh \beta$$
$$\lambda = z \sinh \beta$$

allowing us to write

$$\Pi_{su_{1,1}}(u, v) = \cos z + i(\cos \alpha \cosh \beta \sigma_1 + \sin \alpha \cosh \beta \sigma_2 + i \sinh \beta \sigma_3) \sin z \quad (100)$$

And the classical phase space becomes

$$\Gamma(su_{1,1}) \simeq \{(u, v, \lambda) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid u^2 + v^2 - \lambda^2 = \text{const.}\} \equiv S^{1,1} \quad (101)$$

i.e. a hyperboloid.

Now, from $su_2$ and $su_{1,1}$ we can construct a number of important Lie algebras, by noting $[25]$ $so_4 = su_2 \oplus su_2, so_{2,2} = su_{1,1} \oplus su_{1,1}$ and $u_2^*(H) = su_2 \oplus su_{1,1}$ where $H$ denote the ring of quaternions. The Lie algebra $so_{3,1}$, the Lorentz algebra, can also be constructed by noting $so_{3,1} = sl_2(C)_R = su_2 \oplus i \cdot su_2 = su_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}$, where $sl_2(C)_R$ means $sl_2(C)$ considered as a real algebra. These Lie algebras consists of $4 \times 4$ matrices of the form

$$so_4 \simeq su_2 \oplus su_2 \quad \begin{pmatrix}
0 & \alpha & \beta & \gamma \\
-\alpha & 0 & a & b \\
-\beta & -a & 0 & c \\
-\gamma & b & -c & 0
\end{pmatrix} \quad (a, b, c), (\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$so_{3,1} \simeq sl_2(C)_R \quad \begin{pmatrix}
0 & i\alpha & i\beta & i\gamma \\
-i\alpha & 0 & a & b \\
-i\beta & -a & 0 & c \\
-i\gamma & -b & -c & 0
\end{pmatrix} \quad (a, b, c), (\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \in \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$so_{2,2} \simeq su_{1,1} \oplus su_{1,1} \quad \begin{pmatrix}
0 & x & i\alpha & i\beta \\
x & 0 & i\gamma & i\delta \\
-i\alpha & i\gamma & 0 & z \\
-i\beta & -i\delta & -z & 0
\end{pmatrix} \quad x, z \in \mathbb{R}, \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \in \mathbb{R}$$
\[ u_2^*(H) \cong su_2 \oplus su_{1,1} \]
\[
\begin{pmatrix}
0 & x & a & b \\
-x & 0 & b & d \\
-a & -b & 0 & \bar{x} \\
-b & -d & -\bar{x} & 0
\end{pmatrix}
\]
\[ x, b \in \mathbb{C}, a, d \in \mathbb{R} \]

We must thus find an expression for \( \Gamma_{g_1 \oplus g_2} \). Let us start with \( so_4 = su_2 \oplus su_2 \).

We simply get
\[
\Pi_{so_4}(u_1, v_1, u_2, v_2) = \Pi_{su_2}(u_1, v_1)\Pi_{su_2}(u_2, v_2) \quad (102)
\]
\[
Q_{so_4}(u_1, v_1, u_2, v_2) = Q_{su_2}(u_1, v_1)Q_{su_2}(u_2, v_2) \quad (103)
\]

This is a general result:

**Proposition 7** If \( g_1, g_2 \) denote two Lie algebras then

\[
\Pi_{g_1 \oplus g_2} = \Pi_{g_1}\Pi_{g_2} \quad (104)
\]
\[
Q_{g_1 \oplus g_2} = Q_{g_1}Q_{g_2} \quad (105)
\]

Similarly, if \( g \) can be written as the sum of two Lie algebras with \([g_1, g_2] \in Z(g)\) then

\[
\Pi_g = \Pi_{g_1}\Pi_{g_2}
\]
\[
Q_g = Q_{g_1}Q_{g_2}q_Z
\]

where \( q_Z \) some element in \( \exp(Z(g)) \). It also follows from this that

\[
\Pi_g = \Pi_{g/h}\Pi_h \quad (106)
\]

when \( h \) is any ideal in \( g \). Thus the classical phase-spaces become

\[
\Gamma_{g_1 \oplus g_2} = \Gamma_{g_1} \times \Gamma_{g_2} \quad (107)
\]
\[
\Gamma_{g_1 + g_2} = \Gamma_{g_1} \times \Gamma_{g_2} \quad (\text{when} \ [g_1, g_2] \in Z(g)) \quad (108)
\]

We should emphasize once more that the classical phase-spaces of an algebra and its central extensions are isomorphic (upto isolated points), the correspondence between algebra and functions on phase-space is different, though, and hence so are the corresponding quantum fibre bundles. Such central extensions are of great importance when \( g_1 = g_2 \), the algebra \( g \) is then a **Heisenberg double of \( g_1 \)**.

\[\text{In a typical gauge theory, for instance, we have two set of }\]

\[\text{Heisenberg double of } g_1\]
operators $\phi_k, \pi_k$ which both of them span some Lie algebra $g_1$ at each point $x$ and each instant $t$. The algebra is not just the gauging of $g_1 \oplus g_1$, but a central extension of it as we have to impose $[\phi_k(x,t), \pi_j(x',t')]_{t=t'} = i\delta(x-x')\delta_{jk}$, the canonical relation.

For the algebras just mentioned we have at once

$$\Gamma_{so_4} = S^2 \times S^2$$
$$\Gamma_{so_2,2} = S^{1,1} \times S^{1,1}$$
$$\Gamma_{u^*_2(H)} = S^2 \times S^{1,1}$$

The Lorentz algebra is somewhat more complicated. It arises as a complexification of $su_2$, and there is thus a non-trivial automorphism exchanging the real and complex parts of a Lie element. This means that

$$\Gamma_{so_{3,1}} = \frac{SO_3 \times SO_3}{SO_2 \times SO_2}$$

where $SO_2 \times SO_2$ is imbedded in some non-trivial way in $SO_3 \times SO_3$ because of this automorphism. But noting that $so_{3,1}$ is thus a complexification of $su_2$, i.e. $so_{3,1} = su_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}$, we get

$$\Gamma_{so_{3,1}} = \Gamma_{su_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}} \simeq \Gamma_{su_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}} = S^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}$$

i.e. we can view the phase-space of a complexification as a kind of “complexification” of the original phase-space.

Let us now move on to a Lie algebra of rank two, namely $su_3$, represented by the Gell-Mann matrices $\lambda_i, i = 1, \ldots, 8$. We would expect the classical phase space to have a dimensionality of $8 - 2 = 6$. The key ingredient in the $su_2$ case was the useful relation $\sigma_i \sigma_j = i\epsilon_{ijk} \sigma_k$, which allowed us to get a nice expression for $\Pi(u,v)$ in terms of trigonometric functions. For $su_3$ we can use

$$[\lambda_a, \lambda_b] = if_{abc} \lambda_c$$
$$\{\lambda_a, \lambda_b\} = \frac{4}{3} \delta_{ab} + 2d_{abc} \lambda_c$$

where $f_{abc}$ is totally antisymmetric, whereas $d_{abc}$ is totally symmetric. From this it follows that

$$\lambda_a \lambda_b = if_{abc} \lambda_c + \frac{2}{3} \delta_{ab} + d_{abc} \lambda_c$$
Thus any function $f$ of the generators can be written as

$$f(\lambda) = f_0 + \lambda a^a$$  \hspace{1cm} (117)$$

where $f_0, f^a$ are complex numbers, independent of the generators. These can be obtained from $f$ by taking traces:

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{3} \text{Tr } f(\lambda)$$
$$f^a = \frac{1}{3} \text{Tr}(f(\lambda)\lambda^a)$$

Particularly useful for us are monomials $(u \cdot \lambda)^n$, we write

$$(u \cdot \lambda)^n = a_n(u) + \lambda a b_n(u)$$  \hspace{1cm} (118)$$

the coefficients satisfying

$$a_{n+1} = \frac{2}{3} u \cdot b_n$$  \hspace{1cm} (119)$$
$$b_{n+1}^a = a_n u^a + u^b b_n^c d^a_{bc}$$  \hspace{1cm} (120)$$

with $a_0 = 1, a_1 = 0, b_0^a = 0, b_1^a = u^a$. Explicitly, the kernel $\Delta$ and the translation operator $\Pi$ becomes

$$\Pi(u) = c_0(u) + \lambda^a c_a(u)$$  \hspace{1cm} (121)$$
$$\Delta(u, v, w) = c_0(u)c_0(v)c_0(w) + \frac{2}{3} \delta^{ab} \sum_{\text{perm}} c_a(u)c_b(v)c_0(w) +$$
$$\frac{2}{3}(d_{abc} + if_{abc})c^a(u)c^b(v)c^c(w)$$  \hspace{1cm} (122)$$

where

$$c_0(u) \equiv \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} a_n(u)$$
$$c^a(u) \equiv \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} b_n^a(u)$$

The product of two translation operators becomes

$$\Pi(u)\Pi(v) = c_0(u)c_0(v) + \frac{2}{3} \delta^{ab} c_a(u)c_b(v) +$$
$$\lambda^c \left( c_0(u)c_c(v) + c_c(u)c_0(v) + (if_{ab}^c + d_{ab}^c)c_a(u)c_b(v) \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (123)$$
whereby the reproducing kernel, in this representation, reads
\[ K(u, v) = c_0(u)c_0(v) + \frac{2}{3}\delta^{ab}c_a(u)c_b(v) \]  
(124)
The classical phase-space becomes
\[ \Gamma_{su_3} = SU_3/S(U_1 \times U_1 \times U_1) = SU_3/U_1 \times U_1 \]  
(125)
In general
\[ \Gamma_{su_n} = SU_n/S(U_1^n) = SU_n/U_1^{n-1} \]  
(126)
with \( U_1^k = U_1 \times \ldots \times U_1 \) (\( k \) factors). I do not think these homogenous spaces have any name.
We can get some insight into the structure of \( \Gamma_{su_3} \) by evaluating the Weyl symbols of the generators. Using (116) and the fact that the generators are traceless, one easily sees (the factor of two can of course be removed by a suitable normalization of the trace)
\[ (1)_W = 2c_0(u) \]  
(127)
\[ (\lambda_a)_W = 2c_a(u) \]  
(128)
thus we must once more demand \( c_0 = const \), which imposes a constraint on the variable \( u^a \), deforming the phase-space from simply \( \mathbb{R}^6 \) to some 6-manifold, just like for \( su_2 \) where the requirement \( f_0 = const \) implied \( \Gamma_{su_2} \simeq S^2 \).
Furthermore, the symbol of a product becomes
\[ (\lambda_a\lambda_b)_W = 2c_0(u)\delta_{ab} + 2(i f_{ab} c + d_{ab} c) c_a(u) \]  
(130)
comparing this with
\[ (c_a \ast c_b)(u) = \int c_a(v)c_b(w)\Delta(u, v, w)dvdw \]  
(131)
we get
\[ \delta_{ab} = \frac{3}{2}c_0^2 \int c_a(v)dv\int c_b(w)dw + \delta^{cd}\int c_c(v)c_a(v)dv\int c_d(w)c_b(w)dw \]  
(132)
\[ (d_{ab} c + if_{ab} c) = \frac{1}{3}c_0\int (c_c(v) + c_c(w))c_a(v)c_b(w)dvdw + \frac{1}{3}(d_{a'b} c + if_{a'b} c)\int c_{a'}(v)c_{a'}(w)c_a(v)c_b(w)dvdw \]  
(133)
which gives us some insight into the nature of the functions $c_a(u)$. As an example of an infinite dimensional Lie algebra we can consider the Witt algebra, i.e. the algebra of diffeomorphisms of the circle. The commutator relations are

$$[A_n, A_m] = (m - n)A_{m+n} \quad n, m \in \mathbb{Z} \quad (134)$$

Our largest abelian subalgebra is the one generated by $A_0$, hence

$$\Pi(u, v) = \exp \left( i \sum_{n>0} (u_n A_n - v_n A_{-n}) + i \lambda A_0 \right) \quad (135)$$

Now, from $A^\dagger_n = A_{-n}$ we see that $\bar{u}_n = v_n$, hence the classical phase-space consists of sequences $(u_n, v_n)$ of complex numbers such that $\bar{u}_n = v_n$ and $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$. These can be represented just as well by sequences $(x_n)$ with $x_n \in \mathbb{C}, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying $x_0 = 0$ and $\bar{x}_n = x_{-n}$, which again can be interpreted as a Fourier series, i.e.

$$\Gamma_{\text{Witt}} = \{ f \in C^\infty(S^1) \mid f(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (c_n e^{in\theta} + c_{-n} e^{-in\theta}) \} \quad (136)$$

This contains also the spaces of $L^p$ functions on $S^1$ which vanish at $\theta = 0$. The deformed sum is seen to be

$$\left( \begin{array}{c} u_k \\ v_k \end{array} \right) \oplus \left( \begin{array}{c} u'_k \\ v'_k \end{array} \right) =$$

$$\left( \begin{array}{c} u_k + u'_k + \frac{1}{2} i \sum_{n=1}^{k-1} (k - 2n) u_k u'_{k-n} - \frac{1}{2} i k (u_k \lambda' - u'_k \lambda) + \frac{1}{2} i k \sum_{n=1}^{k-1} (u_n v'_{n-k} - v_{n-k} u'_n) + \ldots \\ v_k + v'_k + \frac{1}{2} i \sum_{n=1}^{k-1} (k - 2n) v_k v'_{k-n} + \frac{1}{2} i k (v_k \lambda - v'_k \lambda) - \frac{1}{2} i k \sum_{n=1}^{k-1} (v_n u'_{n-k} - u_{n-k} v'_n) + \ldots \end{array} \right) \quad (138)$$

and the deformed symplectic product to be

$$\left( \begin{array}{c} u \\ v \end{array} \right) \times \left( \begin{array}{c} u' \\ v' \end{array} \right) = \sum_k k (v_k u'_{k} - u_k v'_{k}) + \ldots \quad (139)$$

similar to the result we found for the loop and Kac-Moody algebras.

Now, the Virasoro algebra

$$[L_n, L_m] = (m - n)L_{n+m} + \delta_{n,-m} c_n \quad (140)$$
is just a central extension of the Witt algebra and will hence have the same
classical phase-space. We have seen earlier that also the classical phase-spaces
of the loop algebras of semi-simple Lie algebras and their corresponding Kac-
Moody algebras could be interpreted as function spaces over the unit circle
$S^1$. We will encounter more function spaces when we move on to consider
$C^*$-algebras aswell.

Let us also briefly consider a deficient Lie algebra. The simplest algebra
in which $g_0 \cap g' = \emptyset$ is the two-dimensional solvable Lie algebra $[h, x] = x$,
here the only weight is $\alpha = 1$. A simple representation is $h = x \frac{d}{dx}, x = x$.
The dimensionality of the classical phase-space is one, and from the non-
commutativity we see that we can take $\Gamma \simeq S^1$. This algebra has been
considered by Isham et al., [29], in the context of developing a general quan-
tization algorithm for non-trivial phase-spaces.

Some final important examples are the Poincaré algebra $iso(3, 1)$ and the
Galilei algebra $gal_3$. The Poincaré algebra is the semidirect sum of $\mathbb{R}^4$ and
$so(3, 1) = su_2 \otimes \mathbb{C}$. Clearly $\mathbb{R}^4$ is the maximal abelian subalgebra, and we
get a classical phase-space of dimension $10 - 4 = 6$. In fact the space must
essentially be $SU_2 \cdot SU_2 \simeq S^3 \cdot S^3$, where the dot denotes some kind of prod-
uct. It is rather surprising that the dimensionality becomes six and not eight
as one would have expected and, furthermore, that it is a kind of product
of two compact manifolds. For the Galilei algebra we get similarly a six di-
mensinoal phase-space (as it in this case was to be expected), but this time
$SU_2 \cdot \mathbb{R}^3 \simeq S^3 \cdot \mathbb{R}^3$, i.e. the limit $c \to \infty$ which leads from the Galilei algebra
from the Poincaré algebra ($c$ is the velocity of light), leads to an “unwrap-
ping” of one $S^3$, or, equivalently, that the finiteness of the velocity of light
leads to a compactification of $\mathbb{R}^3$. This suggests that Inönü-Wigner contrac-
tions leads to a “decompactification” of the classical phase-space.

We have succeeded in obtaining Lie algebras yielding a number of two di-
ensional manifolds as their classical phase-spaces as shown in table 1. We
would like to suggest that any surface can be obtained in this way, and as an
example we will construct a Lie algebra with the Möbius band as its classical
phase-space. The algebras in table 1 exhaust all non-trivial three dimensional
Lie algebras, hence the dimensionality of the wanted Lie algebra must be at
least four. Since the Möbius band is a solvmanifold but not a nilmanifold, this
\footnote{This might be due to the mass-shell constraint $p^2 = m^2$ for the four-momentum
together with the requirement that the particle move along a time-like geodesic, though.}
algebra must be solvable but not nilpotent. On the other hand, the cylinder and the Möbius band differ only in the latter being a non-trivial bundle, but otherwise they both have the same local structure $\mathbb{R} \times_{\text{loc}} S^1$, where the subscript on $\times_{\text{loc}}$ is there to remind us that the product is only local in general. So let us start with the algebra behind the cylinder

$$[h, e] = e \quad [h, f] = [e, f] = 0$$

and let us add a fourth generator $g$ mixing $e, f$,

$$[g, e] = \alpha f \quad [g, f] = \beta e$$

The Jacobi identity then implies $\alpha = 0$. We furthermore find $g' = \{e\}$, i.e. $g'' = 0$ so the algebra is solvable, while $g^n = g'$ so the algebra is not nilpotent. The largest abelian subalgebra is $h = \text{span} \{h, g\}$, and hence the dimensionality of the classical phase-space is indeed two. Since $\Gamma$ is a solvmanifold of dimension two it has the form of a (non-trivial) fibre bundle with fiber $\mathbb{R}$ over some compact, one dimensional manifold $M_1$

$$\Gamma \simeq \mathbb{R} \times_{\text{loc}} M_1$$

and it is easy to see that the only possibility is $M_1 = S^1$, wherefrom we get

$$\Gamma \simeq \text{Möbius band} \quad (141)$$

One could then go on to find Lie algebras corresponding to surfaces of genus more than one, and, furthermore, to relate the topological characteristics (Euler number, Stiefel-Whitney classes) to algebraic properties of the Lie algebras – a kind of generalized index theorem – a point I plan to return to in a sequel paper.

### 7 Fermionic Degrees of Freedom

Fermions are described by *anticommuting* creation and annihilation operators

$$\{a_i, a_j^\dagger\} = \{a_i^\dagger, a_j^\dagger\} = 0 \quad (142)$$

$$\{a_i, a_j\} = \delta_{ij} \quad (143)$$
We have no classical phase-space at our disposal. So we cannot construct an isomorphism between an algebra of operators and a Hilbert space of functions on some vector-space (or manifold), i.e. as a space of functions with C-number arguments. Rather, we have to define Grassmann numbers (which we will also refer to as G-numbers), abstract quantities satisfying

\[
\{\theta_i, \theta_j\} = \{\bar{\theta}_i, \bar{\theta}_j\} = \{\theta_i, \bar{\theta}_j\} = 0
\]

We can treat these as “coordinates” and their corresponding differential operators \(\partial_i, \bar{\partial}_i\) as the “momentum” variables.

The generalization is now straightforward.

**Definition 3** For fermionic creation- and annihilation-operators \(a, a^\dagger\) we put

\[
\Pi(\theta, \eta) \equiv \exp(i\theta a^\dagger - i\eta a)
\] (144)

where \(\theta, \eta\) are G-numbers anticommuting with the second quantization operators as well.

This operator will be our basis for developing a WWM-formalism for fermionic degrees of freedom. The following proposition is trivial:

**Proposition 8** The “translation” operator satisfies

\[
\Pi(\theta, \eta)\Pi(\theta', \eta') = \Pi(\theta + \theta', \eta + \eta')Q(\theta, \eta; \theta', \eta')
\] (145)

where

\[
Q(\theta, \eta; \theta', \eta') = \exp(\theta \eta' + \eta \theta')
\] (146)

We notice that this is in fact a C-number, being the product of two G-numbers. We also note that the sign in this G-symplectic product differs from the symplectic product of two C-numbers. No deformation of the sum or the symplectic product occurs here as the G-numbers are nilpotent \(\theta^2 = \eta^2 = 0\).

The Wigner function which follows from this has been derived independently by Abe [12].

We easily get

\[
a_W = i\theta
\] (147)

\[
(a^\dagger)_W = -i\eta
\] (148)
thus the conjugation of functions becomes

\[ (f(\theta, \eta))^* = \bar{f}(\eta, \theta) \]  

(149)

where the bar denotes Grassmann conjugation and the twisted product becomes

\[
(f * g)(\theta, \eta) = 2(f_4g_4 + 3f_3g_2 - f_2g_3 + 2f_1g_4 + 2f_4g_1) + \\
2(2f_1g_2 - 2f_2g_1 - 3f_2g_4 - 3f_4g_2)\theta + \\
2(2f_3g_1 - 2f_4g_3 - f_3g_4 - f_4g_3)\eta + \\
2(2f_4g_2 - 6f_3g_2 + 2f_2g_3)\theta\eta
\] 

(150)

where we have written \( f = f_1 + f_2\theta + f_3\eta + f_4\theta\eta \) and similar for \( g \). Contrasting this formula for the twisted product with the usual product

\[
(fg)(\theta, \eta) = f_1g_1 + (f_1g_2 + f_2g_1)\theta + (f_1g_3 + f_3g_1)\eta + \\
(f_4g_4 + f_4g_1 + f_2g_3 - f_3g_2)\theta\eta
\]

we see that the WWM-formalism introduces even more non-commutativity.

With fermionic degrees of freedom within reach, the extension to super-Lie algebras \([10, 11]\) is straightforward.

### 7.1 Clifford and Spin Algebras

I do not know of any concrete examples where the quantum phase-space is a Clifford algebra, except of course the already treated case of \( \mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{su}_2 \). Nevertheless it might be interesting to have a look at the WWM-formalism for such algebras. Now, a Clifford algebra \( \mathbb{C}(r,s) \) is by definition an algebra in \( n = r + s \) generators \( \gamma_a \) satisfying

\[
\{\gamma_a, \gamma_b\} = 2g_{ab}
\]  

(151)

where \( g_{ab} \) is a metric with signature \( (r, s) \). We will simply assume

\[
g_{ab} = \eta_{ab} \equiv \text{diag}(1,1,\ldots,1,-1,\ldots,-1) \]  

(152)

Note, that the definition implies \( (\gamma_a)^2 = \pm 1 \), hence \( \text{dim } \mathbb{C}(r,s) = 2^{r+s} \). The case of \( \mathfrak{su}_2 \) corresponds to \( r = 2, s = 0 \) with \( \gamma_1 = \sigma_1, \gamma_2 = \sigma_2, \sigma_3 = \frac{1}{2}\gamma_1\gamma_2 \).
Our “classical coordinates” $\xi_i$ will be taken to be G-numbers anticommuting with the $\gamma$-matrices, $\{\xi_i, \gamma_j\} = 0$. This would give a new representation of a classical phase-space of this algebra, in other words, $su_2$ as a Lie algebra must be treated differently from $su_2$ as a Clifford algebra.

Let me just sketch the results for the usual Clifford algebra $C(1,3)$, the Dirac algebra. The translation operator is defined in the most natural way as

**Definition 4** Let $\Gamma^I$ denote the generators of the Clifford algebra $C(r,s)$, then

$$\Pi(\xi) = e^{i\xi_I\Gamma^I}$$

where $\xi_I$ are G-numbers anticommuting with the Clifford generators.

For $r = 3, s = 1$ – the Dirac algebra – we have

$$\Pi(\xi) \equiv \exp(i\xi_01 + i\tilde{\xi}_0\gamma_5 + i\xi_m\gamma^m + i\tilde{\xi}_m\gamma_5\gamma^m + i\xi_{mn}\sigma^{mn})$$

It has the decomposition (as do any function on a Clifford algebra)

$$\Pi(\xi) = \Pi_0(\xi) + \Pi_0(\xi)\gamma_5 + \Pi_i(\xi)\gamma^i + \Pi_i(\xi)\gamma^i\gamma_5 + \Pi_{ij}(\xi)\sigma^{ij}$$

with

- $\Pi_0(\xi) \equiv \frac{1}{4}\text{Tr}\Pi(\xi)$ (scalar)
- $\Pi_0(\xi) \equiv \frac{1}{4}\text{Tr}(\Pi(\xi)\gamma^5)$ (pseudoscalar)
- $\Pi_i(\xi) \equiv \frac{1}{4}\text{Tr}(\Pi(\xi)\gamma_i)$ (vector)
- $\Pi_i(\xi) \equiv \frac{1}{4}\text{Tr}(\Pi(\xi)\gamma_i\gamma_5)$ (axial vector)
- $\Pi_{ij}(\xi) \equiv \frac{1}{4}\text{Tr}(\Pi(\xi)\sigma^{ij})$ (tensor)

But, as the coefficients are G-numbers we have quite simply

- $\Pi_0(\xi) = 1 + i\xi_0$
- $\Pi_0(\xi) = \tilde{\xi}_0$
- $\Pi_m(\xi) = \xi_m$
- $\Pi_m(\xi) = \tilde{\xi}_m$
- $\Pi_{mn}(\xi) = \xi_{mn}$

Thus

$$\gamma_m W = \Pi_m(\xi) = i\xi_m$$

while

$$(1)_W = \Pi_0(\xi) = 1 + i\xi_0$$
and so on. It follows from this that it is natural to demand \( \xi_0 = 0 \), which will lead to a dimensionality of \( \Gamma \) of \( \dim C(r, s) - 1 = 2^{r+s} - 1 \). Thus

**Proposition 9** Let \( \Gamma \) denote the classical phase-space of a Clifford algebra \( C(r, s) \) then

\[
\dim \Gamma = \dim C(r, s) - 1 = 2^{r+s} - 1
\]
as a Grassmann space.

One should note that this always gives an odd-dimensional space for any values of \( r, s \). For the Clifford algebra \( su_2 \) we thus have an alternative classical phase space, namely a 3-dimensional Grassmann space.

The product of two “translation” operators is then

\[
\Sigma(\xi, \xi') \equiv \Pi(\xi) \Pi(\xi') = \Sigma_0 + \Sigma_0 \gamma^5 + \Sigma_i \gamma^i + \tilde{\Sigma}_i \gamma^i \gamma^5 + \Sigma_{ij} \sigma^{ij}
\]

where

\[
\begin{align*}
\Sigma_0 &= \tilde{\xi}_0 \tilde{\xi}'_0 - 4i(\eta^{mp} \eta^{nq} - \eta^{nq} \eta^{mp}) \xi_{mn} \xi'_{pq} \\
\tilde{\Sigma}_0 &= -4i \varepsilon^{mpq} \xi_{mn} \xi'_p \\
\Sigma_m &= -\tilde{\xi}_0 \xi'_m + \tilde{\xi}_m \xi'_{0} + 4i(\eta^{mp} \delta^q_m - \eta^{nq} \delta^p_m)(\xi_{np} \xi'_q + \xi_{pq} \xi'_n) - 4i \varepsilon^{mpq} \xi_{np} \xi'_q + \xi_{pq} \xi'_n \\
\tilde{\Sigma}_m &= -\xi_0 \xi'_m + \xi_m \xi'_{0} + 4i(\eta^{mp} \delta^q_m - \eta^{nq} \delta^p_m)(\xi_{np} \xi'_q + \xi_{pq} \xi'_n) + 4i \varepsilon^{mpq} \xi_{np} \xi'_q - \xi_{pq} \xi'_n \\
\Sigma_{mn} &= 4i \varepsilon^{mpq} \xi_{np} \xi'_q + \xi_{pq} \xi'_n + 4i(\eta^{pq} \eta^{rs} \delta^m_n - \eta^{mr} \delta^p_n \delta^q_m) \xi_{pq} \xi'_{rs} + 4i(\eta^{pq} \eta^{rs} \delta^m_n - \eta^{mr} \delta^p_n \delta^q_m) \xi_{pq} \xi'_{rs}
\end{align*}
\]

The reproducing kernel \( K(\xi, \xi') \) becomes

\[
K(\xi, \xi') \equiv \frac{1}{4} \text{Tr}(\Pi(\xi) \Pi(\xi')) = \frac{1}{4} \Sigma_0(\xi, \xi')
\]

\[
= \tilde{\xi}_0 \tilde{\xi}'_0 - 4i(\eta^{mp} \eta^{nq} - \eta^{nq} \eta^{mp}) \xi_{mn} \xi'_{pq}
\]

While the kernel for the twisted products takes the form

\[
\Delta(\xi, \xi', \xi'') \equiv \frac{1}{4} \text{Tr}(\Pi(\xi) \Pi(\xi') \Pi(\xi''))
\]

\[
= K(\xi, \xi') + K(\xi', \xi'') + K(-\xi, \xi'')
\]
Now, any Clifford algebra can be written

\[ C(r, s) \equiv C_0(r, s) \oplus C_1(r, s) \oplus C_2(r, s) \oplus ... \oplus C_n(r, s) \]  
(166)

\[ \equiv C_{\text{even}}(r, s) \oplus C_{\text{odd}}(r, s) \]  
(167)

where \( C_k(r, s) \) consists of all powers of \( k \) different generators, i.e. \( C_0 \) consists of the scalars, \( C_1 \) of the generators, \( C_2 \) of products of the form \( \gamma_i \gamma_j \) and so on, while \( C_{\text{even}}, C_{\text{odd}} \) consists of all linear combinations of products with an even an odd number of generators respectively. To each such Clifford algebra two Lie groups are defined, namely\[ ^9 \]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Pin}(r, s) &= < C_1 > \\
\text{Spin}(r, s) &= \text{Pin}(r, s) \cap C_{\text{even}}(r, s)
\end{align*}
\]  
(168)
(169)

and \( \text{Pin}(r, s) \) is homomorphic to \( O(r, s) \). It furthermore turns out that the corresponding Lie algebra \( \text{spin}(r, s) \) is isomorphic to \( so(r, s) \), so we do not get any new classical phase-spaces from that, even though the corresponding Lie groups \( \text{Spin}(r, s) \) are inequivalent to any classical matrix group in all but a few cases, see [23], as \( \text{Spin}(r, s) \) is a covering group of \( SO(r, s) \). If, on the other hand, we do not consider \( \text{spin}(r, s) \) as a classical Lie algebra, but instead considers it as the Lie algebra of the non-classical Lie group \( \text{Spin}(r, s) \), which is built from the Clifford algebra \( C(r, s) \), then we can get new phase-spaces, namely Grassmann spaces. This leads, then, to an alternative for the classical Lie algebras \( so(r, s) \), as we have already seen for \( su_2 = so(3) \). By construction, we must also have morphisms between the two alternatives, the classical differentiable manifold \( SO(r, s)/H \) and the Grassmann spaces, thus allowing for the translation of problems of analysis on \( SO(r, s)/H \) into problems involving G-numbers, a possibility which should be of quite some practical importance. One important difference is that, considering \( so_{r,s} \) as a Lie algebra, we get a symplectic manifold, whereas considering it as a Clifford algebra we get an odd-dimensional Grassmann space.

\[ ^9 \text{The symbol } < C_1 > \text{ denotes the group generated by all the unit vectors in } C_1, \text{ i.e. the group of products of generators } \gamma_i. \]
8 Quantum-Lie Algebras, Intermediate Statistics etc.

We will make some very brief comments on the extension of the above method to quantum groups. Given a (semisimple) Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ we can form its corresponding quantum universal algebra $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$ [5], which is a deformed Lie algebra. A basis for this can be chosen in analogy with the ordinary Lie algebra case such that it satisfies

\[
\begin{align*}
[H^i, H^j] &= 0 \\
[H^i, E^j_\pm] &= \pm A^{ji} E^j_\pm \\
[E^i_+, E^j_-] &= \delta^{ij} [H^i]
\end{align*}
\]

where the only new thing is the appearance of

\[ [H^i] = [H^i]_q \equiv \frac{q^{\frac{1}{2}H^i} - q^{-\frac{1}{2}H^i}}{q^\frac{1}{2} - q^{-\frac{1}{2}}}. \]

on the right hand side above. It is here the quantum deformation $q$ enters. We see that we can carry the formalism developed above for an arbitrary Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ over to its quantum universal algebra $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$ by making the substitution

\[ H^i \to [H^i] \]

in the definition of $Q(u, v; u', v')$ but not in $\Pi$. The logarithm of $Q$ would then be a highly non-linear function of $H^i$ (it will be linear in $[H^i]$, though) and this non-linearity will be a measure of the deformation. The corresponding quantum fibre bundle will now involve a double deformation of a classical vector bundle. Would “second quantized fibre bundle” be a good name for such a structure?

We will just make some very brief comments on some further generalizations. Bosons are described in terms of commutators and fermions in terms of anti-commutators. Introducing the spin $s$ of the underlying field (integral for bosons, half-integral for fermions), we can write this as

\[ [a_k, a_l^\dagger]_s \equiv a_k a_l^\dagger - (-1)^{2s+1} a_l^\dagger a_k = \delta_{kl} \quad (170) \]
An obvious generalization is to allow \( s \) to be any rational or even real number, we can then define statistics interpolating between Bose-Einstein and Fermi-Dirac statistics. Now, given two fermionic operators \( a, a^\dagger \) we can define bosonic ones by defining

\[
A = \alpha a \quad A^\dagger = \beta a^\dagger
\]

requiring that \((\alpha, \beta)\) are G-numbers which anticommute with the Fermi operators, we have \([A, A^\dagger] = \alpha \beta\), so when \(\beta = \bar{\alpha}\) and \(\alpha\) is normalized to unity, then \(A, A^\dagger\) are ordinary Bose-operators. We can do a similar trick here by formally defining “numbers” which satisfy

\[
[\alpha, \beta]_s = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha \beta = (-1)^{2s+1} \beta \alpha
\]

This will give us an ordinary Lie algebra in the formal operators \(A_k, A_k^\dagger\) and we know the WWM formalism for these, hence we can extend it to these intermediate statistics aswell by using this little trick. The symplectic product would then read

\[
(\alpha, \beta) \wedge (\alpha', \beta') = \alpha \beta' - (-1)^{2s+1} \beta \alpha' \tag{171}
\]

This leads to an alternative for quantum Lie algebras. If we have relations like

\[
a_k a_l^\dagger = q R_{k l}^{\nu' \nu} a_{l'}^\dagger a_{k'} \tag{172}
\]

then we need coordinates satisfying

\[
x_k y_l = q R_{k l}^{\nu' \nu} y_{l'} x_{k'} \tag{173}
\]

\[
x_k x_l = x_k x_l \tag{174}
\]

\[
y_k y_l = y_l y_k \tag{175}
\]

So \(\Gamma\) would become a *braided space* or a quantum-space. We can thus establish morphisms between ordinary manifolds (\(g\) considered as a Lie algebra, or \(U_q(g)\) considered as a deformation of \(g\)), Grassmann manifolds (\(g = so(r, s)\) considered as a spin algebra) and braided spaces (\(U_q(g)\) considered as an algebra of transformations on such spaces). Such morphism are of interest in their own right as they show relationships between what would otherwise appear as unrelated areas of mathematics.

44
One could further consider general non-linear algebras, i.e. algebraic structures satisfying
\[ [\lambda_i, \lambda_j] = i F_{ij}(\lambda) \] (176)
of which a quantum Lie algebra is but a particular case. As always, we will have different options for the classical phase-space dependent upon how we interpret this algebraic structure (i.e. as a deformation of an ordinary (super-)Lie algebra, or as an algebra of automorphisms of some non-commutative structure à la braided spaces). One could study parafermions and parabosons in this way, for instance.

9 Comment on Finite Groups

All our emphasis so far has been on “continous” structures, Lie algebras and structures derived therefrom, before we move on to discuss operator algebras it is therefore appropriate to make a few comments on finite groups. Given a finite group \( G \), we can construct its algebra \( C(G) \), this is the set of formal linear combinations \( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i g_i \) with \( \alpha_i \in \mathbb{F} \) and \( G = \{ g_i \mid i = 1, \ldots, n = |G| \} \). The coefficients \( \alpha_i = \alpha(g_i) \) are thus functions \( G \rightarrow \mathbb{F} \), and we can assume \( G \) is a topological groups with \( \alpha_i \) continous, which explains the reason for the terminology \( C(G) \).

The idea is again, of course, to use

**Definition 5** Let \( G = \{ e, g_1, \ldots, g_{n-1} \} \) be a finite group, we define
\[
\Pi(u) = \exp(i \sum_{j=1}^{n'} u_j g_j - i \sum_{j=n'+1}^{n-1} \lambda_j(u) g_j) \] (177)

where \( n = |G|, n' = |G| - |Z \setminus \{ e \}| = |G| - |Z| + 1 \), with \( Z \) denoting the center, and where we have supposed \( g_0 = e \), the neutral element, which is not to be included as a proper generator.

This function \( \Pi \) is considered as a formal power series, and the coefficients \( u_j, \lambda(u_j) \) can in general be non-commutative (they are just formal quantities).

\(^{19}\)The natural topology is the discrete one, of course, making all sets open and all functions continous.
In the case where we have an identification of $G$ with a group of transformations over some finite field (or division ring or even just principal ideal domain), such as the Chevalley groups $A_k(F)$, $B_k(F)$, $C_k(F)$, $D_k(F)$ which generalize the usual Lie algebras of the same names, see [28], it would be natural to let $u_j, \lambda_j$ belong to this finite field (or division ring) $F$. Thus there is an ambiguity in the definition for finite groups, as we have no \textit{a priori} candidate for $F$, the field (or even just ring) to which the coefficients in the algebra $C(G)$ of $G$ belongs. Choosing an infinite field like $F = \mathbb{R}$ or $F = \mathbb{C}$ would just give us ordinary Lie algebras, whereas infinite field such as $\mathbb{Q}$, $\mathbb{Q}(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_n)$, with $\alpha_i$ transcendent over $\mathbb{Q}$, would lead to something slightly different, of use, perhaps, in Galois theory, while choosing a finite field $F = \mathbb{Z}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$, $p$ a prime, or $F = GF(p^n)$, (the so-called Galois field), would lead to something very different, namely a finite, discrete set (i.e. a kind of lattice) as the classical phase-space.

Let us furthermore notice that for finite groups we have $g^n = e$ for any element $g$ of the group, and so the exponential is well-defined, and can in fact be “decomposed” as

$$\Pi(u) = 1 + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \pi_j(u) g_j$$

(178)

For the cases $su_2$, $su_3$ and Clifford algebras we had a similar decomposition which was very useful for practical calculations. The functions $\pi_j(u)$ are Taylor series if the field has characteristic zero, and polynomials otherwise.

Before we look at some examples let us notice that the phase-space of a Galois extension $F(\alpha)$ can be obtained from that of the original field $F$ in a simple manner. Let $F(\alpha)$ have dimension $n$ as a vector space over $F$, i.e. $|F(\alpha) : F| = n$, then $F(\alpha) = F \oplus \alpha F \oplus ... \oplus \alpha^{n-1} F$, so any element in the Galois extension can be written as $u = u_0 + u_1 \alpha + ... + u_{n-1} \alpha^{n-1}$. So the transition $F \to F(\alpha)$ can be written $u \mapsto u(\alpha) = u_0 + u_1 \alpha + ... + u_{n-1} \alpha^{n-1}$. We have thus proven

\textbf{Proposition 10} \ Let $F$ be any field and let $\alpha$ be transcendent over $F$, for any Chevalley algebra $g$ over $F$ we then have

$$\Gamma_g(F(\alpha)) = \Gamma_g(F) \otimes F(\alpha)$$

(179)

A result very similar to the ones for loop algebras or complexifications we saw earlier.
9.1 Examples of Finite Groups

To develop the formalism I will just give a two examples the permutation group $S_3$ and the Chevalley group $A_1(F)$, $F$ some field (finite or infinite). For the permutation groups $S_3, A_3$ we have the multiplication table as shown in table 2, with $A_3$ being the subgroup made up by $\{ e, g_1, g_4, \}$, which is also the largest abelian subgroup. From this we get

$$
\Pi(u) \equiv e^{-i\lambda_1 g_1 + iu_2g_2 + iu_3g_3 - i\lambda_2 g_4 + iu_5 g_5} = 1 + \pi_0(u)e + \sum_{i=1}^{5} \pi_i(u)g_i
$$

(180)

where

$$
\pi_i(u) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{i^n}{n!} \alpha_i^{(n)} \quad i = 0, 1, ..., 5
$$

(182)

with the coefficients $\alpha_i^{(n)}$ given by the recursion relations

$$
\begin{align*}
\alpha_0^{(n+1)} &= \alpha_0^{(n)} \alpha_0^{(1)} + \alpha_1^{(n)} \alpha_4^{(1)} + \alpha_2^{(n)} \alpha_2^{(1)} + \alpha_3^{(n)} \alpha_3^{(1)} + \alpha_4^{(n)} \alpha_1^{(1)} + \alpha_5^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)} \\
\alpha_1^{(n+1)} &= \alpha_0^{(n)} \alpha_1^{(1)} + \alpha_1^{(n)} \alpha_0^{(1)} + \alpha_2^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)} + \alpha_3^{(n)} \alpha_2^{(1)} + \alpha_4^{(n)} \alpha_4^{(1)} + \alpha_5^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)} \\
\alpha_2^{(n+1)} &= \alpha_0^{(n)} \alpha_2^{(1)} + \alpha_1^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)} + \alpha_2^{(n)} \alpha_0^{(1)} + \alpha_3^{(n)} \alpha_1^{(1)} + \alpha_4^{(n)} \alpha_3^{(1)} + \alpha_5^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)} \\
\alpha_3^{(n+1)} &= \alpha_0^{(n)} \alpha_3^{(1)} + \alpha_1^{(n)} \alpha_2^{(1)} + \alpha_2^{(n)} \alpha_4^{(1)} + \alpha_3^{(n)} \alpha_0^{(1)} + \alpha_4^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)} + \alpha_5^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)} \\
\alpha_4^{(n+1)} &= \alpha_0^{(n)} \alpha_4^{(1)} + \alpha_1^{(n)} \alpha_1^{(1)} + \alpha_2^{(n)} \alpha_3^{(1)} + \alpha_3^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)} + \alpha_4^{(n)} \alpha_0^{(1)} + \alpha_5^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)} \\
\alpha_5^{(n+1)} &= \alpha_0^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)} + \alpha_1^{(n)} \alpha_3^{(1)} + \alpha_2^{(n)} \alpha_1^{(1)} + \alpha_3^{(n)} \alpha_4^{(1)} + \alpha_4^{(n)} \alpha_2^{(1)} + \alpha_5^{(n)} \alpha_5^{(1)}
\end{align*}
$$

(183)-(188)

subject to

$$
\alpha_0^{(1)} = 0 \quad \alpha_i^{(1)} = u_i \text{ for } i = 2, 3, 5 \text{ and } \alpha_1^{(1)} = -\lambda_1 \quad \alpha_4^{(1)} = -\lambda_2
$$

(189)

The dimensionality of the "phase-space" (with a field of characteristic zero as underlying field) is then $|G| - |A_3| = 6 - 3 = 3$. The deformed addition is rather complicated, namely

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
u_2 \\ u_3 \\ u_5 
\end{pmatrix} \oplus \begin{pmatrix}
u_2' \\ u_3' \\ u_5'
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
u_2 + u_2' - u_3\lambda_1' - \lambda_2u_3' - u_5\lambda_2' - \lambda_1u_5' \\ u_3 + u_3' - \lambda_2u_2' - u_2\lambda_2' - \lambda_2u_5' - u_5\lambda_1' \\ u_5 + u_5' - \lambda_1u_3' - u_2\lambda_1' - u_3\lambda_2' - \lambda_2u_2'
\end{pmatrix}
$$

(190)

47
The “undeformed”, or “zero’th order” antisymmetric two-form $\omega_0$ is the coefficient, to the lowest order, of the Cartan elements, hence (for a general Lie algebra, with root-decomposition as in the text)

$$\omega_0(u, v, u', v') = \sum_\alpha (u_\alpha v'_\alpha - u'_\alpha v_\alpha)$$

(191)

this is then the analogue of the Poisson bracket when dim $\Gamma$ is even. For our case it is similarly

$$\omega_0(u, u') = u_2u'_5 - u_2u_5 + u_3u'_2 - u'_3u_2 + u_5u'_3 - u'_5u_3$$

(192)

The Chevalley group of $A_1(F)$ over any field (finite or infinite), $F$, is defined from the relations

$$[e, f] = h \quad [h, e] = e \quad [h, f] = -f$$

(193)

letting $A_1(Z)$ denote the $Z$-linear span of these elements we get a Lie algebra, for any field $F$ we then put

$$A_1(F) \equiv A_1(Z) \otimes F$$

(194)

For $F = R$ we get $sl_2(R) = so_3 = su_2$ whereas for $F = C$ we get their respective complexifications. For a finite field $F = GF(p^n)$ (with $GF(p) = Z_p$) we get something completely new, and for $F = Q$ we get $sl_2(Q)$. Let us concentrate upon $F = Z_p$ for now. The phase-space cannot simply, as for the infinite fields $R, C$, be diffeomorphic to \{\(x, y, z \in F \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1\)\} as spheres of different radii will contain an unequal number of points in the discrete case.

The subgroup $H$ is just the diagonal subgroup, and hence is isomorphic to $F^\times$, where $F^\times$ denotes the set of invertible elements in $F$ (for $F$ a field and not just a division ring, this is $F\setminus\{0\}$). Hence, since the group with Lie algebra $A_1(F)$ is $PSL_2(F)$ (see Carter [58])

$$\Gamma_{A_1}(F) \simeq PSL_2(F)/F^\times$$

(195)

For an infinite field such as $Q$ or one of its Galois extensions, this is a “manifold” of dimension 2, as for $F = R, C$, whereas for finite fields it is a finite
set of points. For $F = GF(p^n)$ for some prime $p$ and some integer $n$, we have

$$|\Gamma| = \frac{1}{(2, p^n - 1)}p^{2n}(p^{2n} - 1) - (p^n - 1)$$  \hfill (196)

where we have used $|GF(p^n)| = p^n$ and where $(a, b)$ denotes the greatest common divisor of $a, b$. In the special case $n = 1$, in which case $GF(p) \simeq \mathbb{Z}_p$, we thus get a set consisting of 11 points for $p = 2$, 34 for $p = 3$ and so on.

I will leave the discussion of finite groups at this point to give a summary of properties derived so far, and then go on to operator algebras. The further development of a WWM-formalism for finite groups will certainly be of interest in its own right (applications to pure algebra, Galois theory and algebraic geometry spring to mind), but I do not know of any physical situation which could serve as a motivation.

## 10 Summary of Properties

We will finish off this discussion with a summary of the algebraic properties of the WWM-formalism we have been developing. The formalism consists basically of (1) $\Pi$ and $Q$, the maps defining the Weyl transformation and its algebraic properties, (2) the set $C(\Gamma)$ of functions $\Gamma \to \mathbb{C}$, where $\Gamma$ is the classical phase-space. The basic correspondence is

$$A_W(\xi) \equiv \text{Tr} \; \Pi(\xi) \hat{A} \quad \hat{A} \equiv \int_\Gamma \Pi(\xi)A_W(\xi)d\mu$$

where the Weyl transform $\hat{A} \mapsto A_W$ is an isomorphism $U(g) \to C(\Gamma)$.\footnote{This only holds, of course, for “good” algebras, such as for instance semisimple or abelian, in general we might only have a homomorphism.} The operator-valued function $\Pi$ can be viewed as a “translation” operator and satisfies

$$\Pi(\xi)\Pi(\xi') = \Pi(\xi \oplus \xi')Q(\xi \times \xi')$$

The operations $\oplus, \times$ were referred to as the deformed addition and symplectic product respectively. For an abelian algebra $\xi \oplus \xi' = \xi + \xi'$ and thus the deformation is a measure of the non-commutativity. Furthermore, the classical phase-space $\Gamma$ is a vector space if the algebra is abelian and a symplectic
manifold if $\mathfrak{g}$ is semisimple or obtained from a semisimple Lie algebra by a central extension or by adding an abelian algebra. Its dimensionality is

$$\dim \Gamma = \dim \mathfrak{g} - \text{rank } \mathfrak{g} \equiv n - l$$

and for $n = \dim \mathfrak{g} < \infty$ we have

$$\Gamma_g = G/H$$

where $G$ is the smallest connected Lie group having $\mathfrak{g}$ as its Lie algebra, while $H$ is similar but for the Cartan subalgebra of $\mathfrak{g}$.

We discovered some very nice properties of $(\Pi, Q, \Gamma)$, namely

$$\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}_1 \oplus \mathfrak{g}_2 \Rightarrow \Pi_{\mathfrak{g}} = \Pi_{\mathfrak{g}_1} \Pi_{\mathfrak{g}_2} \text{ and } Q_{\mathfrak{g}} = Q_{\mathfrak{g}_1} Q_{\mathfrak{g}_2}$$
$$\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}_1 + \mathfrak{g}_2 \Rightarrow \Pi_{\mathfrak{g}} = \Pi_{\mathfrak{g}_1} \Pi_{\mathfrak{g}_2} \text{ and } Q_{\mathfrak{g}} = Q_{\mathfrak{g}_1} Q_{\mathfrak{g}_2} q z \text{ if } [\mathfrak{g}_1, \mathfrak{g}_2] \subseteq Z(\mathfrak{g})$$
$$\mathfrak{h} \text{ ideal in } \mathfrak{g} \Rightarrow \Pi_{\mathfrak{g}} = \Pi_{\mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{h}} \Pi_{\mathfrak{h}} \text{ and } Q_{\mathfrak{g}} = Q_{\mathfrak{g}/\mathfrak{h}} Q_{\mathfrak{h}}$$

which allows us to study central extension very easily (for instance to express the WWM-formalism for an affine Kac-Moody algebra in terms of the WWM-formalism for a loop algebra). Another very important property was

$$\Gamma(\mathfrak{g} \otimes C^\infty(M)) = \Gamma(C^\infty(M \to \mathfrak{g})) \simeq \Gamma(\mathfrak{g}) \otimes C^\infty(M) = C^\infty(M \to \Gamma(\mathfrak{g}))$$

which allows to gauge an algebra and extend or WWM-formalism easily, in particular we can go to the loop algebra $M = S^1$. A similar results hold for Galois extensions of the base field $F \to F(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$

$$\Gamma_g(F(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)) \simeq \Gamma(\mathfrak{g}) \otimes F(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n)$$

For $F = \mathbb{R}, \alpha = \pm i$ we get a result about complexifications.

A final result relates to morphisms $\phi : \mathfrak{g}_1 \to \mathfrak{g}_2$, i.e. structure-preserving maps between algebras (homomorphisms for Lie algebras; Jordan maps, i.e linear maps preserving the anticommutator, for fermions; super-Lie homomorphisms for super-Lie algebras and so on). Any such morphism induces a map $\Phi : C(\Gamma_1) \to C(\Gamma_2)$ where $\Gamma_i$ is the phase-space of $\mathfrak{g}_i$. Consider the commutative diagram

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
U(\mathfrak{g}_1) & \xrightarrow{\phi} & U(\mathfrak{g}_2) \\
\Pi_1 \downarrow & & \downarrow \Pi_2 \\
C(\Gamma_1) & \xrightarrow{\Phi} & C(\Gamma_2)
\end{array}
$$

50
using that $\Pi_1$ is an isomorphism we can define

$$\Phi = \Pi_2 \circ \phi \circ \Pi_1^{-1}$$

and then $\Phi$ is well defined and unique.

We can use this to carry topological and algebraic structure form $g$ through $U(g)$ to $C(\Gamma)$. Suppose for instance that $g$ is a normed or semi-normed space, i.e. it is endowed with a map $\rho : g \to \mathbb{R}$ which is sublinear ($\rho(A + B) \leq \rho(A) + \rho(B)$) and positive homogenous ($\rho(\alpha A) = |\alpha|\rho(A)$ with $\alpha$ a scalar). Noting that $\Gamma(\mathbb{R}) = \{0\}$, i.e. $C(\Gamma(\mathbb{R})) \simeq \mathbb{R}$ (similar for $C$, of course) we have the commutative diagram

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
g & \overset{\rho}{\to} & \mathbb{R} \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \\
C(\Gamma) & \underset{\tilde{\rho}}{\to} & C(\Gamma(\mathbb{R})) \simeq \mathbb{R}
\end{array}
$$

thus $C(\Gamma)$ is a normed or semi-normed space whenever $g$ is. Hence $C(\Gamma)$ is a Banach space if and only if $g$ is, and the mapping $\Pi$ becomes an isometry in this case. Similarly, if $g$ comes equipped with an inner product, i.e. a sesquilinear map $g \times g \to \mathbb{C}$, then $\Pi$ induces a sesquilinear form on $C(\Gamma)$, which then becomes Hilbert if and only if $g$ is a Hilbert space. The diagram is

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
g & \to & g \times g & \to & \mathbb{C} \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
C(\Gamma) & \to & C(\Gamma) \times C(\Gamma) & \to & \mathbb{C}
\end{array}
$$

We should note that semisimple Lie algebras come with a natural non-degenerate bilinear form and will thus give pre-Hilbert spaces.

Let us also note that this shows that our construction is in fact independent of the representation: considering $g_1, g_2$ to be two faithful irreducible representations of a given Lie algebra $g$, i.e. we have isomorphisms $\rho_i : g \to g_i \subseteq gl_{n_i}$, this induces an isomorphism $g_1 \to g_2$ and hence their two classical phase-
spaces will be equivalent. The diagram is

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
U(g_1) & \xrightarrow{\rho_2 \circ \rho_1^{-1}} & U(g_2) \\
\Pi_1 & \xleftarrow{\bar{\rho}_1} & \downarrow \Pi \\
U(g) & \downarrow \Pi & C(\Gamma) \\
\bar{\rho}_1 & \xrightarrow{\rho_2 \circ \rho_1^{-1}} & \bar{\rho}_2 \\
C(\Gamma_1) & \xrightarrow{\rho_2 \circ \rho_1^{-1}} & C(\Gamma_2)
\end{array}
\]

with

\[
\rho_2 \circ \rho_1^{-1} = \bar{\rho}_2 \circ \bar{\rho}_1^{-1}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (197)

Furthermore, any diffeomorphism \( \alpha : \Gamma_1 \to \Gamma_2 \) induces a map \( \alpha_* : C(\Gamma_1) \to C(\Gamma_2) \), which then leads to a map \( \bar{\alpha} : U(g_1) \to U(g_2) \), which allows us to study the group of maps \( \alpha \) of one manifold onto another in a new, more algebraic way.

We have

**Proposition 11** If \( g \) is a normed algebra then so is \( C(\Gamma) \), if \( g \) has an inner product then so does \( C(\Gamma) \). Thus if \( g \) is Hilbert or Banach, then so is \( C(\Gamma) \).

All of the above holds for a very large class of algebraic structures as we have seen.

### 11 \( C^* \)-Algebras

It would be interesting to go on to an even larger class of algebras such as \( C^* \)-algebras. The general idea is to construct an isomorphism

\[
\mathcal{A} \to C(\Gamma)
\]

between a \( C^* \)-algebra and an algebra of functions on some manifold \( \Gamma \). For *abelian* algebras such an isomorphism is already known (the Gel’fand theorem [13, 27])

\[
\mathcal{A} \simeq C_0(X)
\]
where \( C_0 \) denotes the functions vanishing at infinity and \( X \) is some locally compact Hausdorff space (the spectrum or maximal ideal space of \( A \)) which is compact if and only if \( A \) contains the identity. Our WWM formalism would then provide us with a \textit{non-abelian Gel’fand theorem}. One should note that the basic ingredient in Gel’fand’s theorem is the concept of a \textit{character} on an abelian \( C^* \)-algebra, i.e. a linear map \( \chi : A \to \mathbb{C} \) such that \( \chi(AB) = \chi(A)\chi(B) \), \( X \) is the space of such maps, and is hence a subset of the dual \( A^* \) of \( A \). The WWM formalism gives a natural generalization of this: \( \chi(A) = A_W \), the product rule then reads \( \chi(AB) = \chi(A) * \chi(B) \) and we could refer to the Weyl transform as a \textit{generalized character}. The major problem is the construction of \( \Gamma \) (the abelian case uses \( A \subset A^{**} \) and \( X \subset A^* \), hence \( A \) can be viewed as functions on \( X \), it then relies on the Stone-Weierstrass theorem to prove the isomorphism, and this is difficult to generalize to non-abelian algebras).

Any non-abelian \( C^* \)-algebra is isomorphic to a subalgebra of the algebra \( \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) \) of bounded operators on some separable Hilbert space \( \mathcal{H} \). The method developed in the previous sections can thus be seen as a special case, namely the case of finite dimensional \( C^* \)-algebras, and we now want to go further. A particular important subalgebra \( \mathcal{B} \) is \( \mathcal{K} = \mathcal{B}_0(\mathcal{H}) \) of \textit{compact operators}, i.e. the operators for which the image of the unit ball \( \{ x \in \mathcal{H} \mid \| x \|^2 \leq 1 \} \) is compact. The elements of this subalgebra can be approximated by finite matrices, in fact [18, 27] \( \mathcal{K} = \lim \xrightarrow{\rightarrow} gl_n(\mathbb{C}) \)

where the \( \lim \xrightarrow{\rightarrow} \) is understood as the \textit{inductive limit}, hence \( \mathcal{K} \) is the completion (in norm-topology) of \( gl_\infty(\mathbb{C}) \). This suggest that the case of compact operators is the next simplest case to treat. And in fact we can use the very definition of inductive limit to construct directly the corresponding classical phase-space. Recall that the inductive limit requires a \textit{directed system} \( \{ A_i, \Phi_{ij} \}_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \), i.e. a family of objects \( A_i \) indexed by an upward filtering index set \( \mathcal{I} \) (i.e. a set \( \mathcal{I} \) such that whenever \( i, j \in \mathcal{I} \) a \( k \in \mathcal{I} \) exists such that \( k > i \) and \( k > j \)) and with a morphism \( \Phi_{ij} : A_j \to A_i \) whenever \( j > i \). The inductive limit \( A_\infty \) is then the object \( \bigcup_\mathcal{I} A_i \) with morphisms \( \Phi_i : A_i \to A_\infty \)

\[ \text{[12]} \] A \( C^* \)-algebra which can be obtained as the inductive limit of matrix algebras is known as an \textit{AF-algebra}, an “approximately finite dimensional” algebra. Thus our methods can be generalized to these.
such that

\[ \begin{array}{ccc}
A_j & \xrightarrow{\phi_j} & A_{\infty} \\
\Phi_{ij} & & \\
A_j & \downarrow & \\
\end{array} \]

commutes.

Denoting by \( \Pi_n \) the WWM-map from \( M_n = gl_n(\mathbb{C}) \) into \( C(\Gamma_n) \), where \( \Gamma_n \) is the classical phase-space corresponding to \( M_n \), we get the following diagram

\[ \begin{array}{ccc}
M_n & \xrightarrow{\Phi_{mn}} & M_m \\
\Pi_n & & \Pi_m \\
\Phi_m & & \\
C(\Gamma_n) & \xrightarrow{\tilde{\Phi}_m} & C(\Gamma_m) \\
\end{array} \]

Expressed in formulas we have

\[ C(\Gamma(K)) = C(\Gamma(\infty)) = \lim_{n \to \infty} C(\Gamma_n) \]  \hspace{1cm} (198)

The map \( \Pi_{\infty} \) is given by

\[ \Pi_{\infty}(A) \equiv \lim_{n \to \infty} \Pi_n(P_n A P_n) \]  \hspace{1cm} (199)

where \( \Pi_n \) is, as in the diagram, the Weyl map for \( gl_n \) and where \( P_n \) is the projection \( K \to gl_n \), these constitute an approximate unit for \( K \) (i.e. \( P_n A \to A \) \( \forall A \in K \)) and the above construction is then well-defined.

If we could extend our scheme to \( B(\mathcal{H}) \) then we were able to treat any \( C^* \)-algebra, thus our next problem is to find out how to go from \( K = B_0 \) to \( B \). One way is to write down an exact sequence

\[ 0 \to K \to B \to B/K \to 0 \]

\(^{13}\) A sequence \( A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \) is said to be exact if the kernel of \( \beta \) is the image of \( \alpha \), i.e. going twice \( (\beta \circ \alpha) \) gives zero, and this is the only way of getting zero. Hence \( 0 \to A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \) is exact if and only if \( \alpha \) is injective, and \( A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \to 0 \) is exact if and only if \( \alpha \) is surjective.

This notion is easily generalized to longer sequences, we simply demand the kernel of one map to be equal to the image of the previous one.

54
where $\mathcal{B}/\mathcal{K}$ is known as the Calkin algebra, this shows that $\mathcal{B}$ is an extension of the algebra $\mathcal{K}$ by the Calkin algebra. There is another way of obtaining $\mathcal{B}$ from $\mathcal{K}$, namely by the use of what is known as the multiplier algebra $\mathcal{M}(A)$ of a $C^*$-algebra, this is defined as the largest unitization of $A^{[14]}$, and can be constructed as follows. Suppose $A$ acts non-degenerately on some Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}_1$ (this is always possible to arrange), then $A \subseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1)$ and we put

$$\mathcal{M}(A) = \{ x \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1) \mid xA \subseteq A \wedge Ax \subseteq A \}$$

(200)
equivalently, $\mathcal{M}(A)$ is the completion in the topology induced by the semi-norms $x \mapsto \| xa \|$ and $x \mapsto \| ax \|$ where $x \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1)$ and $a \in A$ (this topology is known as the strict topology). The basic result is

$$\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{K}) = \mathcal{B}$$

(201)

Thus if we can find a way of extending the WWM-formalism for a given $C^*$-algebra $A$ consisting of compact operators ($A \subseteq \mathcal{K}$), to its multiplier algebra $\mathcal{M}(A)$ then we have extended our WWM-formalism to all $C^*$-algebras. Another interesting possibility, closely related to this, is the study of the WWM-formalism for arbitrary extensions of $A$. This would also be an interesting exercise in the case of Lie algebras, as would the study of Inönü-Wigner contractions.

Before doing this let us look at the simplest (smallest) unitization $A^+$ of $A$, when $A$ is not itself unital then $A^+ \simeq A + 1\mathbb{C}$, i.e. $x = a + \lambda, x \in A^+, a \in A, \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ with a natural product $(a + \lambda)(b + \mu) = ab + \lambda b + \mu a + \lambda \mu$. Any morphism $\phi : A \to B$ between $C^*$-algebras induces a morphism $\phi^+ : A^+ \to B^+$ given by

$$\phi^+(a + \lambda) \equiv \phi(a) + \lambda$$

Letting $B = C(\Gamma)$ and $\phi = \Pi$ we get

$$C(\Gamma^+) = C(\Gamma(A^+)) \simeq C(\Gamma) \times \mathbb{C}$$

(202)

any function in $C(\Gamma^+)$ is thus a pair $(f(x), \lambda)$ where $f : A \to \mathbb{C}$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. This implies that $\Gamma(A^+) \equiv \Gamma^+$ is constructed by the adjoining of a point to $\Gamma(A) = \Gamma$; the scalar $\lambda$ is then the value assigned to $f$ at this extra point, i.e.

\footnote{i.e. the largest algebra constructed from $A$ containing $A$ itself and a unit element $1$}
we can consider $\Gamma^+$ to be the one-point compactification of $\Gamma$, in standard symbols:

\[ \Gamma^+ = \alpha \Gamma \]  

(203)

For $C^*$-algebras the adjoining of a unit does not lead to the old phase-space plus some isolated point, as we always have sequences $e_n \to 1$, $e_n \in A$ (approximate units), so the new phase-space, which is again the old one with some point added, must be just as connected as the original one, thus leading to a compactification as argued above. For Lie algebras we do not have any sequences corresponding to approximate units, and hence get isolated points. Now, the Gelfand theory for abelian $C^*$-algebras give exactly this relationship too, which seems to imply that our scheme is indeed in some sense the non-commutative version of Gelfand's. Similarly we can see that any unitization of $A$ leads to a compactification of $\Gamma$:

\[ \text{unitization of } A \longrightarrow \text{compactification of } \Gamma \]

Let $A_1, A_2$ be two different unitizations of $A$, then $A_1 \subseteq A_2$ implies $\Gamma_1 \subseteq \Gamma_2$, where $\Gamma_i = \Gamma(A_i)$. Now, the smallest unitization should thus correspond to the smallest compactification (which we also saw that it did) and the largest unitization, the multiplier algebra $\mathcal{M}(A)$, to the largest compactification $\beta \Gamma$, the Stone-\v{C}ech compactification. Thus

\[ \Gamma_{\mathcal{M}(A)} = \beta \Gamma_A \]  

(204)

and the corona algebra $\mathcal{M}(A)/A$ becomes isomorphic to \( C(\beta \Gamma)/C(\Gamma) \cong C(\beta \Gamma \setminus \Gamma) \).

We thus have

**Proposition 12** Let $A$ be a $C^*$ algebra and let $A^+ = A + 1\mathbb{C}$ denote the smallest possible unitization and $\mathcal{M}(A)$ the multiplier algebra. Suppose the classical phase-space of $A$ is $\Gamma$ then

\[ \Gamma(A^+) \cong \alpha \Gamma \text{ (one-point compactification)} \]

\[ \Gamma(\mathcal{M}(A)) \cong \beta \Gamma \text{ (Stone-\v{C}ech compactification)} \]

We are now through, $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{K}) = \mathcal{B}$, and as we mentioned, any non-abelian $C^*$-algebra sits as a subalgebra inside $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ for some Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$.
With the relationship between unitizations and compactification clarified we can go on to extensions. We say that \( B \) is an extension of \( A \) by \( C \) if

\[
0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \rightarrow 0
\]

is exact.

Now any morphism \( 0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \) induces a unique morphism \( B \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(A) \), in fact we have the following commutative diagram

\[
\begin{array}{c}
0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\alpha} B \xrightarrow{\beta} C \rightarrow 0 \\
\downarrow \sigma \quad \quad \downarrow \tau \\
0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(A)/A \rightarrow 0
\end{array}
\]

the morphism \( \tau \) is known as the Busby invariant, it characterizes the extension and is unique \cite{18}. We suppose we know the classical phase-spaces of \( A \) and \( C \) and we want to find it for the larger algebra \( B \subseteq A \oplus C \). It turns out, \cite{18}, that \( B \) can be constructed from \( \tau \) and \( A \) in the following way

\[
B \simeq \{ a \oplus c \in \mathcal{M}(A) \oplus C \mid \pi(a) = \tau(c) \} \tag{205}
\]

where \( \pi \) is the canonical quotient map \( \mathcal{M}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(A)/A \). We say that \( B \) is the pullback of \( \mathcal{M}(A)/A \) along \( \pi \) and \( \tau \). This implies that \( C(\Gamma_B) \) is a kind of “diagonal” subspace of \( C(\beta \Gamma_A) \oplus C(\Gamma_C) \), namely:

**Proposition 13** If \( A, B, C \) are \( C^* \)-algebras and if \( B \) is an extension of \( A \) by \( C \) then

\[
C(\Gamma_B) \simeq \{ f \oplus g \in C(\beta \Gamma_A) \oplus C(\Gamma_C) \mid \bar{\pi}(f) = \bar{\tau}(g) \in C(\beta \Gamma_A \setminus \Gamma_A) \} \tag{206}
\]

In this way we are able to construct the classical phase-space of an extension from its Busby invariant \( \tau \) and the classical phase-spaces of the other algebras. We see e.g. that \( C(\Gamma_A) \) has codimension one when \( C \) is an abelian \( C^* \)-algebra.

Admittedly, the WWM-formalism put forward in this paper is rather formal as far as \( C^* \)-algebras are concerned; we were only able to show how in principle one could construct classical phase-spaces, and we saw that \( \Gamma_\infty \), the classical phase-space of the algebra of compact operators, could be expressed
as a direct limit of $\Gamma_n = \Gamma(gl_n)$. We have not given explicit constructions
for other $C^*$-algebras though. The next natural step will be to study spe-
cific $C^*$-algebras, e.g. the irrational rotation algebras $A_\theta$, which correspond
closely to the Heisenberg algebra, the Toeplitz algebra (generated by the
shift-operator), which can be seen as a kind of limit of $so_l$ or $su_l$, it’s gener-
alization the so-called Cuntz algebras and so on. This will be sketched in the
next paragraph.

12 Examples of $C^*$-Algebras

We will begin with algebras generated by shift operators. First of all, we
will consider the Hilbert space $l^2(\mathbb{Z})$, i.e. the space of all square-summable
sequences of complex numbers with the set of integers as their index set. An
important operator on this space is the bilateral shift

$$S|n\rangle = |n + 1\rangle$$

where $\{|n\rangle\}, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ denotes an orthonormal basis. The adjoint operator $S^*$
similarly satisfies

$$S^*|n\rangle = |n - 1\rangle$$

and we see that $S$ is unitary. We can form the $C^*$-algebra $A = C^*(S)$
generated by $S$ (and thus also including $S^*$). Clearly $A$ is abelian and hence
isomorphic to $\mathbb{C}[X, \bar{X}]$, i.e. $\Gamma = \mathbb{C}$. A much more interesting case comes
about when we consider not the integers but only the natural numb-
ers $\mathbb{N}$ as index set. We then get the unilateral shift, which is only an isometry:
$S^*S = 1$ but $SS^* \neq 1$, in fact $SS^* = (1 - \delta_{n1}) = 1 - P_1$, where $P_1$ is the projection unto $|1\rangle$, i.e.

$$[S, S^*] = P_1$$

The corresponding $C^*$-algebra is known as the Toeplitz algebra and will be
denoted by $\mathcal{T}$. This algebra is one of the most well-studied an important $C^*$-
algebras. It can also be seen as an extension of $\mathcal{K}$, the compact operators,
by $C(S^1)$, the abelian $C^*$-algebra of continuous functions on the circle. Any
element in $\mathcal{T}$ can be written as $x = \sum_{n,m=0}^\infty x_{nm} S^n (S^*)^m = \sum_{n,m} x_{nm} T_{nm}$,
where $T_{nm} = S^n S^m$. The commutator of these generators is easily seen to be

$$[T_{nm}, T_{n'm'}] = \theta(n' - m) T_{n+n'-m,m'} + \theta(m - n') T_{n,m-n'+m'} - \ldots$$
\[ \begin{align*}
\theta(n - m')T_{n+n'-m',m} - \theta(m' - n)T_{n',m+m'-n} + 
\delta_{n'm}T_{nm'} - \delta_{nm'}T_{n'm}
\end{align*} \]  
\hspace{1cm} (210)

We note that \( \{T_{n0}\}, \{T_{0n}\} \) form two (isomorphic) abelian subalgebras. Any element of the classical phase-space will then be of the form

\[ \xi(x,y) = \sum_{nm} \xi_{nm} x^n y^m \]  
\hspace{1cm} (211)

with

\[ (\xi_{nm})^\dagger = \overline{\xi_{nm}} \]  
\hspace{1cm} (212)

Hence \( \Gamma_T \) consists of analytical functions \( S^1 \times S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \). The “translation-operator” \( \Pi \) has the form

\[ \Pi_T(\xi) = e^{i\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \xi_{nm} T_{nm} + i\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda_m(\xi) T_{m0}} \]  
\hspace{1cm} (213)

The only \textit{a priori} restriction on the coefficients \( \xi_{nm} \) is that \( \xi \in l_1(N_0 \times N) \), the set of absolute summable series indexed by \( N_0 \times N \) with \( N_0 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots\} \).

This can also be interpreted as functions in \( H^1(S^1 \times S^1) \), the Hardy space of absolute integrable functions \( f(x,y) \) such that \( f \) vanishes whenever \( x, y < 0 \), and we finally end up with

\[ \Gamma_T = H^1(S^1 \times S^1)/H^1(S^1) \simeq \{ f \in H^1(S^1 \times S^1) \mid f|_{\text{diag}} = 0 \} \equiv \tilde{H}^1(S^1 \times S^1) \]  
\hspace{1cm} (214)

The Toeplitz algebra can also be defined in another way, namely as the \( C^* \)-algebra generated by operators of the form \( x \mapsto T_{\phi} x = P(\phi x) \) where \( \phi \in C(S^1) \) and \( P \) is the projection \( L^2(S^1) \rightarrow H^2(S^1) \), so it is not surprising that the Hardy spaces \( H^p \) turn up. We get \( H^1 \) and not \( H^2 \) as we only have a norm and not a sesquilinear form on our operator algebra (if we could define a “Hilbert-Schmidt”-subalgebra, then it would be isomorphic to \( \tilde{H}^2 \), and we get the space \( S^1 \times S^1 \) and not just \( S^1 \) because we have to take \( S \) and \( S^* \) as independent quantities, thus giving rise to an underlying two-dimensional space.

The Toeplitz algebra is not abelian, so it is not surprising that we get an infinite dimensional phase-space, which we can then, represent as a space of functions. The elements in the Toeplitz algebra get represented by non-linear functionals in this manner.
The next obvious step is the so-called Cuntz algebra, $\mathcal{O}_n$, spanned by $n$ isometries, $S_i$, subject to
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} S_i S_i^* = 1 \] (215)
i.e. their range projections $S_i S_i^*$ cover the entire space. By analogy with the Toeplitz case we get
\[ \Gamma_{\mathcal{O}_n} = \tilde{H}^1(S^1 \times S^1 \times \cdots \times S^1) \] (216)

The next important case is $A_{\theta}$ the rotation algebras, where $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$, these are generated by two unitaries $u, v$ subject to
\[ uv = e^{i2\pi \theta} vu \] (217)

Let $T_{nm} = u^n v^m$ we quickly arrive at the algebra
\[
[T_{mn}, T_{m'n'}] = (\delta_{nm'}e^{-in2\pi \theta} - \delta_{n'm}e^{-in'2\pi \theta})T_{m+m',n+n'} + \theta(n - m')e^{-im'2\pi \theta}T_{m,n+n'-m'} + \theta(m' - n)e^{-in2\pi \theta}T_{m+m'-n,n'} - \\
\theta(n' - m)e^{-im2\pi \theta}T_{m',n+n'-m} - \theta(m - n')e^{-in'2\pi \theta}T_{m+m'-n}(218)
\]

Here $\theta(n)$ is the Heaviside step function. We see that, when $\theta$ is a rational number, we can choose $n, m, n', m'$ in a non-trivial way and still get a vanishing commutator (e.g. $n = m', n' = m$ and $n - m$ an even number), whereas for $\theta$ irrational this is not possible. Thus for $\theta \in \mathbb{Q}$ we can have either a larger maximal abelian subalgebra or we can imbed $l^1(\mathbb{Z})$ in more than two (inequivalent) ways. When the angle $\theta$ is irrational we get
\[ \Gamma_{A_{\theta}} = \tilde{l}^1(\mathbb{Z}^2) \] (219)

represented as a space of sequences, or equivalently as a space of functions
\[ \Gamma_{A_{\theta}} = \tilde{L}^1(S^1 \times S^1) \equiv \{ f \in L^1(S^1 \times S^1) \mid f|_{\text{diag}} = 0 \} \] (220)

Further examples can of course be thought of, but we will stop for now. The spaces we found are listed in table 3. The reason why we always had $\Gamma$ of the form $\mathcal{F}(\Gamma_0)$ where $\mathcal{F}$ denotes some class of functions with $\Gamma_0$ compact (indeed of the form $S^1 \times \cdots \times S^1$) was that we always had a finite number of generators.
13 Outlook: Towards a General Dequantization & Quantization Procedure

The method we have been developing in the previous sections constitute a general “dequantization” mechanism: to a given quantum phase-space we associate a classical phase-space and we identify the quantum operators with functions on this space. So far this formalism has been developed for Lie, super-Lie and quantum-Lie algebras aswell as $C^*$-algebras.

If we would like to include non-continuous functions, we would have to go to von Neumann algebras instead, and this would be the next natural step. Let me just sketch what one should probably do. A weight on a von Neumann algebra $\mathcal{A}$ is a linear map $\omega : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \cup \{\infty\} = [0, \infty]$, we call it a trace if $\omega(A^*A) = \omega(AA^*)$. Any von Neumann algebra possesses a trace which is semifinite (i.e. the subset of $\mathcal{A}$ given by $\omega(|A|) < \infty$ is dense in some specific topology). This should be the mapping that replaces the usual trace, and we could define

$$\mathcal{A}^p(\omega) \equiv \{A \in \mathcal{A} \mid \omega(|A|^p) < \infty\}$$

(221)

We then want a map $\Pi$ such that

$$\Pi : \mathcal{A}^p(\omega) \rightarrow L^p(\Gamma, d\mu_\omega)$$

is an isomorphism. Continuing as before we would write

$$A_W(\xi) = \omega(\Pi(\xi)A)$$

$$A = \int \Pi(\xi)A_W(\xi)d\mu_\omega$$

assuming that we can still use the same $\Pi(\xi)$ in both directions. The mapping $A \leftrightarrow A_W$ is then also denoted by $\Pi$ as before.

The elements of $\mathcal{A}$ which do not belong to any of the subspaces $\mathcal{A}^p$ would then, by extension of $\Pi$, be mapped into measurable, but not absolutely integrable functions (i.e. in none of the $L^p$-spaces), i.e.

$$\Pi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow M(\Gamma, d\mu_\omega)$$

\footnote{We mentioned the possibility of this more abstract definition already in the section on Lie algebras, but this is the first time we really do need it. For finite dimensional algebras any trace as defined above is just the usual matrix trace (upto a constant). A further generalization, suited for K-theoretic analysis, is to replace the trace by an arbitrary cyclic cocycle.}
where $M(\Gamma, d\mu)$ denotes the set of measurable functions on $\Gamma$. We can extend $\Pi$ to all of $\mathcal{A}$ by using its semifiniteness, and assuming $\Pi$ to be continuous in some given topology. We know, formally at least, that we can extend our WWM-formalism to von Neumann algebras as well, as these are, by definition, subalgebras of $\mathcal{B}(H)$ for some Hilbert space $H$, i.e. they lie inside some $C^*$-algebra. Similarly, given any $C^*$-algebra $A$ we can use the GNS-construction to obtain an isomorphism $\pi$ of $A$ unto a subalgebra of $\mathcal{B}(H)$ for some (in general huge) Hilbert space $H$, the algebra $B = \pi(A)'$ will then be a von Neumann algebra containing $A$, where $A''$ denotes the double commutant of an algebra (i.e. set of all elements which commutes with any element of $\mathcal{B}(H)$ commuting with all of $A$).

As far as operator algebras are concerned, one might also consider “regularizing” the trace, by replacing it by some cyclic cocycle cohomologous to it. Another important development would be the inverse of what we have been doing so far, namely constructing a general quantization mechanism, which, given a symplectic manifold deforms it and yields a non-abelian algebra of functions which is isomorphic to an operator algebra. Symbolically:

$$\{\cdot, \cdot\}_{PB} \rightarrow [\cdot, \cdot]_M \rightarrow [\cdot, \cdot]$$

This would allow us to quantize arbitrary classical theories. Some progress has been made over the past decades in this direction, it is for instance known that any symplectic manifolds admits a twisted product [17]. In this case we should probably make much more use of the symmetries of the classical phase-space, finding some way, this restricts the corresponding quantum phase-space’s algebraic structure.

An interesting application of this formalism would be to index theorems; as the WWM-formalism establishes a link between operators and functions, and thus between algebra, geometry and topology, it ought to be useful in this context. It also opens up the possibility of characterizing the topology of certain manifolds by purely algebraic means, and, on the other hand, to give geometrical/topological interpretations of otherwise purely algebraic concepts. What could turn out to be particularly useful is the various possible choices of phase-spaces for the algebras $so(r, s)$, depending on whether one looks upon them as Lie or Clifford algebras, or, indeed, as deformed algebras, establishing connections between ordinary manifolds, Grassmann spaces and braided spaces respectively. Especially for harmonic and/or functional analysis on these spaces, this relationship could very well prove itself
very powerfull.
As a final comment one should notice that WWM-quantization might help resolve problems of operator ordering (each WWM-map defined its own unique operator ordering prescription) and renormalization. The usual problems with renormalizability stems from the multiplication of distributions, and this is ill defined for ordinary products, but might be quite reasonable for twisted products, or by “regularizing” by replacing the trace by a cyclic cocycle cohomologous to it.

14 Conclusion

We have seen how we can generalize the Wigner-Weyl-Moyal formalism first to the case where the quantum phase-space is an arbitrary Lie algebra of finite or infinite dimension. We also saw how to relate the WWM formalism for a loop algebra, \( g_{\text{loop}} \) or a Kac-Moody algebra \( \hat{g}_k \) based on some ordinary, finite dimensional, semisimple Lie algebra \( g \) to the WWM formalism of \( g \) itself. We were furthermore able to treat fermionic degrees of freedom, i.e. anticommutators, and hence to include super-Lie algebras as well. Next, it was indicated how deformed Lie algebras, quantum Lie algebras, could be treated too, and how the WWM formalism of a q-deformed Lie algebra \( \hat{g}_q \), could be related to that of the original algebra. Some comments were also made on intermediate statistics. As our standard example we took \( su_2 \), and we saw how the corresponding classical phase-space turned out to be \( S^2 \). Naively, the classical phase-space corresponding to a Lie algebra of rank \( l \) and dimension \( n \) is \( \mathbb{R}^{n-l} \), but we realized that the non-commutativity of the algebra resulted in a deformation of this vector space, so in the end, the classical phase-space became only locally isomorphic to \( \mathbb{R}^{n-l} \), i.e. became an \((n-l)\)-dimensional real manifold. The curvature of this manifold was a measure of the non-commutativity of the Lie algebra. The algebra structure induced an addition and a symplectic product on the classical phase-space, which were deformations of the corresponding operations in the flat space. We should emphasize that although we have only used Lie algebras over the field of complex numbers, essentially the same analysis should be possible to carry out with any base-field, e.g. finite fields, thus giving us Chevalley algebras, or even just division rings (the quaternions, for instance). Some simplification do occur in our case, though, as \( \mathbb{C} \) is algebraically closed.
Carried over into the realm of $C^\ast$-algebras the WWM-formalism provides us with a kind of non-commutative Gel’fand theorem, which differs from the usual Gel’fand theorem in the abelian case, though. We also speculated about how to extend the scheme to include also von Neumann algebras. For reasons of space, we did not discuss the properties of the corresponding Wigner functions, this has to be left for future research.

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Table 1: Some particularly simple two-dimensional manifolds and their corresponding Lie algebras.

| space         | algebra            | algebra            |
|---------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| plane $\mathbb{R}^2$ | $[e, f] = h \quad [e, h] = [f, h] = 0$ | $h_1$ |
| cylinder $\mathbb{R} \times S^1$ | $[e, f] = [h, f] = 0 \quad [h, e] = e$ |
| torus $S^1 \times S^1$ | $[e, f] = 0 \quad [h, e] = ae \quad [h, f] = -bf$ |
| sphere $S^2$ | $[e, f] = h \quad [h, e] = e \quad [h, f] = -f$ |
| hyperboloid $S^{1,1}$ | $[e, f] = -h \quad [h, e] = e \quad [h, f] = -f$ | $su_2 = so_3 = sl_2$ |

$su_{1,1} = so_{2,1} = sl_{1,1}$

Table 2: The multiplication table of $G = S_3$
Table 3: The classical phase-spaces $\Gamma$ for a number of $C^*$-algebras.