AFFINE CRYSTALS, MACDONALD POLYNOMIALS, 
AND COMBINATORIAL MODELS 
EXTENDED ABSTRACT

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Abstract. Crystals are colored directed graphs encoding information about Lie algebra representations. Kirillov-Reshetikhin (KR) crystals correspond to certain finite-dimensional representations of affine Lie algebras. We present a combinatorial model which realizes tensor products of (column shape) KR crystals uniformly across untwisted affine types. A corollary states that the Macdonald polynomials (which generalize the irreducible characters of simple Lie algebras), upon a certain specialization, coincide with the graded characters of tensor products of KR modules. Some computational applications, as well as related work based on the present one, are also discussed.

1. Introduction

Kashiwara’s crystals [Kas91] are colored directed graphs encoding the structure of certain bases (called crystal bases) for certain representations of quantum groups $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$ as $q$ goes to zero; more precisely, the edges of the crystal, given by the so-called crystal operators, encode the action of the Chevalley generators of $U_q(\mathfrak{g})$ on the crystal basis. The first author and A. Postnikov [LP07, LP08] defined the so-called alcove model for highest weight crystals associated to a semisimple Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ (in fact, the model was defined more generally, for symmetrizable Kac-Moody algebras $\mathfrak{g}$). This model can be viewed as a discrete counterpart of the celebrated Littelmann path model [Lit94, Lit95].

We present a brief survey of our work [LNS+15a, LNS+14, LNS+15b]. One of the main objectives of this work is to show that a generalization of the alcove model, constructed in [LL15a] and called the quantum alcove model, uniformly describes tensor products of column shape Kirillov-Reshetikhin (KR) crystals [KR90], for all untwisted affine Lie types. (KR crystals correspond to certain finite-dimensional representations of affine algebras.) More precisely, the model realizes the crystal operators on the mentioned tensor product, and also gives an efficient formula for the corresponding energy function [HKO+99]. (The energy comes from solvable lattice models in statistical mechanics, and can be viewed as an affine grading on a tensor product of KR crystals, as explained below.) Furthermore, in [LL15b] the quantum alcove model is used to give a uniform realization of the combinatorial $R$-matrix (that is, the unique affine crystal isomorphism commuting factors in a tensor product of KR crystals).

The quantum alcove model is based on enumerating paths in the so-called quantum Bruhat graph of the corresponding finite Weyl group. This graph originates in the quantum cohomology theory for flag varieties [FW04], and was first studied in [BFP99]. The path enumeration is determined by the choice of a certain sequence of alcoves (an alcove path or, equivalently, a $\lambda$-chain of roots), like in the classical alcove model. If we restrict to paths in the Hasse diagram of the Bruhat order, we recover the classical alcove model. In fact, in [LNS+14] we present a second uniform model for tensor products of column shape KR crystals: the so-called quantum Lakshmibai-Seshadri (LS) path model, which is based on piecewise-linear paths and the parabolic analogue of the quantum Bruhat graph. A crystal isomorphism between the two models is also given in [LNS+14].
We note that combinatorial models for all nonexceptional KR crystals were given in [FOS09] in terms of tableau models; these are type-specific, and are based on certain fillings of Young diagrams. The advantage of the quantum alcove model lies in the fact that it is a uniform model. Moreover, the tableau models are more involved beyond $A$, and certain computations (related to the energy function and the combinatorial $R$-matrix) were only worked out in special cases, whereas they are now available in the quantum alcove model in full generality. However, the tableau models have an advantage too: they are more explicit. Thus, it is important to relate the two types of models, by making the corresponding crystal isomorphism explicit. In this way, we can translate certain information (for instance, a statistic expressing the energy function, see below) from the quantum alcove model to the tableau models. Such isomorphisms/translations have been exhibited in types $A, C$, and $B$ in [Len12, LS13, LL15a, BL]. Below we describe in detail the specialization of the quantum alcove model to type $A$, and the construction of the affine crystal isomorphism between this specialization and the corresponding tableau model.

Our work has an important application to the theory of symmetric Macdonald polynomials $P_\lambda(x; q, t)$, which are a vast generalization of the irreducible characters of simple Lie algebras depending on two parameters $q, t$. More precisely, we prove that the graded character of a tensor product of column shape KR modules, denoted $X_\lambda(x; q)$, coincides with the specialization $P_\lambda(x; q, t = 0)$ of the corresponding Macdonald polynomial. This is a corollary of our realization of KR crystals in terms of the quantum alcove model and the Ram-Yip formula for Macdonald polynomials [RY11]. An extension of the $P = X$ result to the nonsymmetric Macdonald polynomials $E_\mu(x; q, t)$ is also presented.

The context of the above $P = X$ result has its origins in Ion’s observation [Ion03] that, when the affine simple root $\alpha_0$ is short (which includes the duals of untwisted affine root systems), $P_\lambda(x; q, 0)$ is the character of a Demazure module for an affine Lie algebra. (Demazure modules are submodules of highest weight ones determined by a Borel subalgebra acting on an extremal weight vector.) On the other hand, Fourier and Littelmann [FL06] showed that, for simply-laced untwisted affine Lie algebras, these Demazure characters are graded characters of tensor products of KR modules. Combining [Ion03] and [FL06], one deduces the equality $P = X$ in the simply-laced untwisted cases. While the extension of both cited results to types $B_n^{(1)}, C_n^{(1)}, F_4^{(1)}, G_2^{(1)}$ is problematic, we prove the mentioned equality for all untwisted types by different methods.

We also mention interesting connections that our work highlights, as well as recent developments it has led to. These are related to: $q$-Whittaker functions, the quantum $K$-theory of flag varieties, various properties of KR crystals, Weyl modules for current algebras, and a categorification of Macdonald polynomials.

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2. Background

2.1. Root systems. Let $\mathfrak{g}$ be a complex semisimple Lie algebra, and $\mathfrak{h}$ a Cartan subalgebra, whose rank is $r$. Let $\Phi \subset \mathfrak{h}^*$ be the corresponding irreducible root system, $\mathfrak{h}_\mathbb{R}^+ \subset \mathfrak{h}$ the real span of the roots, and $\Phi^+ \subset \Phi$ the set of positive roots. Let $\Phi^- := \Phi \setminus \Phi^+$. For $\alpha \in \Phi$ we will say that $\alpha > 0$ if $\alpha \in \Phi^+$, and $\alpha < 0$ if $\alpha \in \Phi^-$. The sign of the root $\alpha$, denoted $\text{sgn}(\alpha)$, is defined to be 1 if $\alpha \in \Phi^+$, and $-1$ otherwise. Let $|\alpha| = \text{sgn}(\alpha) \alpha$. Let $\rho := \frac{1}{2} (\sum_{\alpha \in \Phi^-} \alpha)$. Let $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r \in \Phi^+$ be the corresponding simple roots, and $s_i := s_{\alpha_i}$ the corresponding simple reflections. We denote $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ the nondegenerate scalar product on $\mathfrak{h}_\mathbb{R}^*$ induced by the Killing form. Given a root $\alpha$, we consider the corresponding coroot $\alpha^\vee := 2\alpha/\langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle$ and reflection $s_\alpha$. If $\alpha = \sum_i c_i \alpha_i$, then the height of $\alpha$, denoted by $\text{ht}(\alpha)$, is given by $\text{ht}(\alpha) := \sum_i c_i$. We denote by $\tilde{\alpha}$ the highest root in $\Phi^+$; we let $\theta = \alpha_0 := -\tilde{\alpha}$ and $s_0 := s_{\theta}$.
Let $W$ be the corresponding Weyl group and $w_0$ its longest element. The length function on $W$ is denoted by $\ell(\cdot)$. The Bruhat order on $W$ is defined by its covers $w < ws_\alpha$, for $\alpha \in \Phi^+$, if $\ell(ws_\alpha) = \ell(w) + 1$. Define $w < ws_\alpha$, for $\alpha \in \Phi^+$, if $\ell(ws_\alpha) = \ell(w) - 2\h(\alpha') + 1$. The quantum Bruhat graph [FW04] is the directed graph on $W$ with edges labeled by positive roots
\begin{equation}
    w \xrightarrow{\alpha} ws_\alpha \quad \text{for } w < ws_\alpha \text{ or } w < ws_\alpha; \tag{1}
\end{equation}
see Example 5.2.

The weight lattice $\Lambda$ is given by
\begin{equation}
    \Lambda := \{ \lambda \in h_\mathbb{R}^\vee : \langle \lambda, \alpha \rangle \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ for any } \alpha \in \Phi \}.
\end{equation}
The weight lattice $\Lambda$ is generated by the fundamental weights $\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_r$, which form the dual basis to the basis of simple coroots, i.e., $\langle \omega_i, \alpha_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$. The set $\Lambda^+$ of dominant weights is given by
\begin{equation}
    \Lambda^+ := \{ \lambda \in \Lambda : \langle \lambda, \alpha \rangle \geq 0 \text{ for any } \alpha \in \Phi^+ \}.
\end{equation}
Let $\mathbb{Z}[\Lambda]$ be the group algebra of $\Lambda$. It has a $\mathbb{Z}$-basis of formal exponents $\{x^\lambda : \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ with multiplication $x^\lambda \cdot x^\mu = x^{\lambda+\mu}$, i.e., $\mathbb{Z}[\Lambda] = \mathbb{Z}[x^{\pm \omega_1}, \ldots, x^{\pm \omega_r}]$ is the algebra of Laurent polynomials in $r$ variables.

Given $\alpha \in \Phi$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, we denote by $s_{\alpha,k}$ the reflection in the affine hyperplane
\begin{equation}
    H_{\alpha,k} := \{ \lambda \in h_\mathbb{R}^\vee : \langle \lambda, \alpha \rangle = k \}.
\end{equation}
These reflections generate the affine Weyl group $W_{\text{aff}}$ for the dual root system $\Phi^\vee := \{ \alpha^\vee | \alpha \in \Phi \}$. The hyperplanes $H_{\alpha,k}$ divide the real vector space $h_\mathbb{R}^\vee$ into open regions, called alcoves. The fundamental alcove $A_0$ is given by
\begin{equation}
    A_0 := \{ \lambda \in h_\mathbb{R}^\vee | 0 < \langle \lambda, \alpha \rangle < 1 \text{ for all } \alpha \in \Phi^+ \}.
\end{equation}

2.2. Kirillov-Reshetikhin (KR) crystals. A $g$-crystal (for a symmetric Kac-Moody algebra $g$) is a nonempty set $B$ together with maps $e_i, f_i : B \rightarrow B \cup \{0\}$ for $i \in I$ ($I$ indexes the simple roots, as usual, and $0 \notin B$), and $w : B \rightarrow \Lambda$. We require $b' = f_i(b)$ if and only if $b = e_i(b')$, and $w(f_i(b)) = w(b) - \alpha_i$. The maps $e_i$ and $f_i$ are called crystal operators and are represented as arrows $b \rightarrow b' = f_i(b)$ colored $i$; thus they endow $B$ with the structure of a colored directed graph. For $b \in B$, we set $\varepsilon_i(b) := \max\{k | e_i^k(b) \neq 0\}$, and $\varphi_i(b) := \max\{k | f_i^k(b) \neq 0\}$.

Given two $g$-crystals $B_1$ and $B_2$, we define their tensor product $B_1 \otimes B_2$ as follows. As a set, $B_1 \otimes B_2$ is the Cartesian product of the two sets. For $b = b_1 \otimes b_2 \in B_1 \otimes B_2$, the weight function is simply $w(b) := w(b_1) + w(b_2)$. The crystal operators are given by
\begin{equation}
    f_i(b_1 \otimes b_2) := \begin{cases} f_i(b_1) \otimes b_2 & \text{if } \varepsilon_i(b_1) \geq \varphi_i(b_2) \\ b_1 \otimes f_i(b_2) & \text{otherwise}, \end{cases}
\end{equation}
and similarly for $e_i$. The highest weight crystal $B(\lambda)$ of highest weight $\lambda \in \Lambda^+$ is a certain crystal with a unique element $u_{\lambda}$ such that $e_i(u_{\lambda}) = 0$ for all $i \in I$ and $w(t(u_{\lambda})) = \lambda$. It encodes the structure of the crystal basis of the $U_q(g)$-irreducible representation with highest weight $\lambda$ as $q$ goes to $0$.

A Kirillov-Reshetikhin (KR) crystal [KR90] is a finite crystal $B^{r,s}$ for an affine algebra, associated to a rectangle of height $r$ and width $s$, where $r \in I \setminus \{0\}$ and $s$ is any positive integer.

We refer, throughout, to the untwisted affine types $A_{n-1}^{(1)} - G_2^{(1)}$, and only consider column shape KR crystals $B^{r,1}$.

We now describe the tableau model for KR crystals $B^{r,1}$ of type $A_{n-1}^{(1)}$, where $r \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n-1\}$. As a classical type $A_{n-1}$ crystal, the KR crystal $B^{r,1}$ is isomorphic to the corresponding $B(\omega_r)$. Therefore, we can use the corresponding tableau model, as mentioned below.

In type $A_{n-1}^{(1)}$, an element $b \in B^{r,1}$ is represented by a strictly increasing filling of a height $r$ column, with entries in $[n] := \{1, \ldots, n\}$. We will now describe the crystal operators on a tensor product of type $A_{n-1}^{(1)}$ KR crystals $B^{r,1}$ in terms of the so-called signature rule, which is just a translation of the tensor product rule (6). To apply $f_i$ (or $e_i$) on $b := b_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes b_k$ in
consider the word with letters $i$ and $i+1$, if $1 \leq i \leq n-1$ (resp., the letters $n$ and 1, if $i=0$) formed by recording these letters in $b_1, \ldots, b_k$, which are scanned from left to right and bottom to top; we make the convention that if $i = 0$ and a column contains both 1 and $n$, then we discard this column. We replace the letter $i$ with the symbol $+$ and the letter $i+1$ with $-$ (resp., $n$ with $+$ and 1 with $-$, if $i=0$). Then, we remove from our binary word adjacent pairs $++$, as long as this is possible. At the end of this process, we are left with a word
\[
\rho_i(b) = + + \ldots + - \ldots - ,
\]
called the $i$-signature of $b$.

**Definition 2.1.** (1) If $y > 0$, then $e_i(b)$ is obtained by replacing in $b$ the letter $i+1$ which corresponds to the leftmost $-$ in $\rho_i(b)$ with the letter $i$ (resp., the letter 1 with $n$, after which we sort the column, if $i = 0$). If $y = 0$, then $e_i(b) = 0$.

(2) If $x > 0$, then $f_i(b)$ is obtained by replacing in $b$ the letter $i$ which corresponds to the rightmost $+$ in $\rho_i(b)$ with the letter $i+1$ (resp., the letter $n$ with 1, after which we sort the column, if $i = 0$). If $x = 0$, then $f_i(b) = 0$.

**Example 2.2.** Let $n = 3$, $b = \begin{array}{ccc} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{cc} 2 & \overline{1} \\ 3 & \overline{2} \end{array} \otimes \begin{array}{cc} 1 & \end{array}$ and has $+++ - -$ as its 0-signature. So we have $f_0 \left( \begin{array}{c} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{array} \right) = \begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{array}$.

We refer again to (column shape) KR crystals of arbitrary (untwisted) type. Given a composition $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \ldots, p_k)$, we define the tensor product of KR crystals
\[
B = B^{\otimes \mathbf{p}} := \bigotimes_{i=1}^k B^{p_i \cdot 1}.
\]

**Remarks 2.3.** (1) It is known that $B$ is connected as an affine crystal, but disconnected as a classical crystal (i.e., with the 0-arrows removed); see Example 2.8.

(2) Let $\mathbf{p}'$ be a composition obtained from $\mathbf{p}$ by permuting its parts. There is an affine crystal isomorphism between $B^{\otimes \mathbf{p}}$ and $B^{\otimes \mathbf{p}'}$, which is unique by the previous remark. This isomorphism is called the combinatorial $R$-matrix.

We need to distinguish certain arrows in $B$, which are related to affine Demazure crystals, as we shall explain.

**Definition 2.4.** An arrow $b \rightarrow f_i(b)$ in $B$ is called a Demazure arrow if $i \neq 0$, or $i = 0$ and $\varepsilon_0(b) \geq 1$. An arrow $b \rightarrow f_i(b)$ in $B$ is called a dual Demazure arrow if $i \neq 0$, or $i = 0$ and $\varphi_i(b) \geq 2$.

**Remarks 2.5.** (1) By Fourier-Littelmann [FL06], in simply-laced types, the tensor product of KR crystals $B$ is isomorphic, as a classical crystal (discard the affine 0-arrows) with a certain Demazure crystal for the corresponding affine algebra. (Recall that Demazure modules are submodules of highest weight ones determined by a Borel subalgebra acting on an extremal weight vector.) Moreover, by [FSS07], the 0-arrows in the latter correspond precisely to the Demazure arrows in $B$.

(2) In the case when all of the tensor factors in $B$ are perfect crystals [HK00], $B$ remains connected upon removal of the non-Demazure (resp. non-dual Demazure) 0-arrows.

(3) In classical types, $B^{k \cdot 1}$ is perfect as follows: in types $A_{n-1}^{(1)}$ and $D_n^{(1)}$ for all $k$, in type $B_n^{(1)}$ only for $k \neq n$, and in type $C_n^{(1)}$ only for $k = n$ (using the standard indexing of the Dynkin diagram); in other words, for all the Dynkin nodes in simply-laced types, and only for the nodes corresponding to the long roots in non-simply-laced types, see [FOS10]. It was conjectured in [HKO+99] that the same is true in the exceptional types. In type $G_2^{(1)}$ this was confirmed in [Yam98]. For the other exceptional types, see Section 7.
The energy function \( D = D_B \) is a function from \( B \) to the integers, defined by summing the so-called local energies of all pairs of tensor factors; it is used to express one-dimensional configuration sums in statistical mechanics [HKO+02, HKO+99]. We will only refer here to the so-called left energy [LNS+14], so we will not make this specification. (There are two conventions in defining the local energy of a pair of tensor factors: commuting the right one towards the head of the tensor product, or the left one towards the tail; the left energy corresponds to the second choice, and the right energy to the first.) We will only need the following property of the energy function, which defines it as an affine grading on \( B \).

**Theorem 2.6.** [NS08, ST12] The energy is preserved by the classical crystal operators \( f_i \), i.e., \( i \neq 0 \). If \( b \to f_0(b) \) is a dual Demazure arrow, then \( D(f_0(b)) = D(b) - 1 \).

**Remark 2.7.** Theorem 2.6 shows that the energy is determined up to a constant on the connected components of the subgraph of the affine crystal \( B \) containing only the dual Demazure arrows. See also Remark 2.5 (2).

**Example 2.8.** The crystal \( B^{\otimes (1,1,1)} = (B^{1,1})^{\otimes 3} \) in type \( A^{(1)}_2 \) is plotted in Figure 1, using the tableau model. All the arrows labeled 1 and 2 are displayed, but only some arrows labeled 0; the dotted arrows are non-dual Demazure arrows, as they are at the end of a 0-string. One can see that the \( 3^3 = 27 \) vertices of the crystal are divided into four classical components, in which the energy is 0, \(-1\), \(-2\), and \(-3\), by Theorem 2.6.

**Figure 1.** The crystal \( B^{\otimes (1,1,1)} \)

3. THE QUANTUM ALCOVE MODEL

In this section we recall from [LL15a] the construction of the quantum alcove model and its main properties.
3.1. \(\lambda\)-chains and admissible subsets. We say that two alcoves are adjacent if they are distinct and have a common wall. Given a pair of adjacent alcoves \(A\) and \(B\), we write \(A \xrightarrow{\beta} B\) if the common wall is of the form \(H_{\beta,k}\) and the root \(\beta \in \Phi\) points in the direction from \(A\) to \(B\).

**Definition 3.1.** [LP07] An alcove path is a sequence of alcoves \((A_0, A_1, \ldots, A_m)\) such that \(A_{j-1}\) and \(A_j\) are adjacent, for \(j = 1, \ldots, m\). We say that an alcove path is reduced if it has minimal length among all alcove paths from \(A_0\) to \(A_m\).

Let \(A_\lambda = A_o + \lambda\) be the translation of the fundamental alcove \(A_o\) by the weight \(\lambda\).

**Definition 3.2.** [LP07] The sequence of roots \((\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m)\) is called a \(\lambda\)-chain if

\[
A_0 = A_o \xrightarrow{-\beta_1} A_1 \xrightarrow{-\beta_2} \cdots \xrightarrow{-\beta_m} A_m = A_{-\lambda}
\]

is a reduced alcove path.

We now fix a dominant weight \(\lambda\) and an alcove path \(\Pi = (A_0, \ldots, A_m)\) from \(A_0 = A_o\) to \(A_m = A_{-\lambda}\). Note that \(\Pi\) is determined by the corresponding \(\lambda\)-chain \(\Gamma := (\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_m)\), which consists of positive roots. A specific choice of a \(\lambda\)-chain, called a lex \(\lambda\)-chain, is given in [LP08, Proposition 4.2]; this choice depends on a total order on the simple roots. We let \(r_i := s_{\beta_i}\), and let \(\tilde{r}_i\) be the affine reflection in the hyperplane containing the common face of \(A_{i-1}\) and \(A_i\), for \(i = 1, \ldots, m\); in other words, \(\tilde{r}_i := s_{\beta_i,-l_i}\), where \(l_i := |\{j < i; \beta_j = \beta_i\}|\). We define \(\tilde{l}_i := (\lambda, \beta_i) - l_i = |\{j \geq i; \beta_j = \beta_i\}|\).

**Example 3.3.** Consider the dominant weight \(\lambda = 3\epsilon_1 + 2\epsilon_2\) in the root system \(A_2\) (cf. Section 5 and the notation therein). A \(\lambda\)-chain is \(\Gamma = (\alpha_{23}, \alpha_{13}, \alpha_{23}, \alpha_{12}, \alpha_{13})\). The corresponding \(l_i\) are \((0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 2)\) and \(\tilde{l}_i\) are \(\{2, 3, 1, 2, 1, 1\}\). The alcove path is shown in Figure 2a; here \(A_o\) is shaded, and \(A_{-\lambda}\) is the alcove at the end of the path.

![Figure 2](image)

\(\alpha_{23}\)  \(\alpha_{13}\)  \(\alpha_{12}\)
\(\epsilon_2\)
\(\epsilon_1\)
\(\lambda\)

(a) \(\Gamma\) for \(\lambda = 3\epsilon_1 + 2\epsilon_2\)

(b) \(\Gamma(J)\) for \(J = \{1, 2, 3, 5\}\)

Let \(J = \{j_1 < j_2 < \cdots < j_k\}\) be a subset of \([m]\). The elements of \(J\) are called folding positions. We fold \(\Pi\) in the hyperplanes corresponding to these positions and obtain a folded path, see Example 3.6 and Figure 2b. Like \(\Pi\), the folded path can be recorded by a sequence of roots, namely \(\Gamma(J) = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \ldots, \gamma_m)\), where

\[
\gamma_k := r_{j_1} r_{j_2} \cdots r_{j_p}(\beta_k),
\]

with \(j_p\) the largest folding position less than \(k\). We define \(\gamma_{\infty} := r_{j_1} r_{j_2} \cdots r_{j_p}(\rho)\). Upon folding, the hyperplane separating the alcoves \(A_{k-1}\) and \(A_k\) in \(\Pi\) is mapped to

\[
H_{|\gamma_k|,-l'_k} = \tilde{r}_{j_1} \tilde{r}_{j_2} \cdots \tilde{r}_{j_p}(H_{\beta_{k-1},-l_k}),
\]

for some \(l'_k\), which is defined by this relation.
Given $i \in J$, we say that $i$ is a **positive folding position** if $\gamma_i > 0$, and a **negative folding position** if $\gamma_i < 0$. We denote the positive folding positions by $J^+$, and the negative ones by $J^-$. We call $\text{wt}(J) := -\tilde{r}_{j_1}\tilde{r}_{j_2}\cdots\tilde{r}_{j_s}(-\lambda)$ the **weight** of $J$. We define the **height** and **coheight** of $J$ by

$$
\text{ht}(J) := \sum_{j \in J^-} \tilde{t}_j , \quad \text{cht}(J) := \sum_{j \in J^-} t_j.
$$

**Definition 3.4.** A subset $J = \{j_1 < j_2 < \cdots < j_s\} \subseteq [m]$ (possibly empty) is an **admissible subset** if we have the following path in the quantum Bruhat graph on $W$:

$$
1 \xrightarrow{\beta_1} r_{j_1} \xrightarrow{\beta_2} r_{j_1}r_{j_2} \cdots \xrightarrow{\beta_{j_s}} r_{j_1}r_{j_2}\cdots r_{j_s} =: \phi(J).
$$

We call $\Gamma(J)$ an **admissible folding**, and $\phi(J)$ its **final direction**. We let $\mathcal{A}(\Gamma)$ be the collection of admissible subsets.

**Remarks 3.5.** (1) Positive and negative folding positions correspond to up and down steps (in Bruhat order) in the chain (12), respectively.

(2) If we restrict to admissible subsets for which the path (12) has no down steps, we recover the classical alcove model in [LP07, LP08].

**Example 3.6.** We continue Example 3.3. Let $J = \{1, 2, 3, 5\}$, then $\Gamma(J) = (\alpha_{23}, \alpha_{12}, \alpha_{31}, \alpha_{23}, \alpha_{21}, \alpha_{13})$. The folded path is shown in Figure 2b. We have $J^+ = \{1, 2\}$, $J^- = \{3, 5\}$, $\text{wt}(J) = -\varepsilon_3$, $\text{ht}(J) = l_3 + l_5 = 1 + 1 = 2$, and $\text{cht}(J) = l_3 + l_5 = 1 + 0 = 1$. In Section 5 we will describe an easy way to verify that $\Gamma$ is admissible.

### 3.2. Crystal operators

In this section we define the crystal operators on $\mathcal{A}(\Gamma)$. Given $J \subseteq [m]$ and $\alpha \in \Phi$, we will use the following notation:

$$
I_{\alpha} = I_{\alpha}(J) := \{i \in [m] : \gamma_i = \pm \alpha\} , \quad \hat{I}_{\alpha} = \hat{I}_{\alpha}(J) := I_{\alpha} \cup \{\infty\},
$$

and $l_{\alpha} = \langle \text{wt}(J), \text{sgn}(\alpha)\alpha^\vee \rangle$. The following graphical representation of the heights $l_i^j$ for $i \in I_{\alpha}$ and $l_{\alpha}^\infty$ is useful for defining the crystal operators. Let

$$
\hat{I}_{\alpha} = \{i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_n < i_{n+1} = \infty\} \quad \text{and} \quad \varepsilon_i := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \notin J \\ -1 & \text{if } i \in J \end{cases}.
$$

If $\alpha > 0$, we define the continuous piecewise linear function $g_{\alpha} : [0, n + \frac{1}{2}] \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$
g_{\alpha}(0) = -\frac{1}{2}, \quad g_{\alpha}(x) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{sgn}(\gamma_{ik}) & \text{if } x \in (k - 1, k - \frac{1}{2}), k = 1, \ldots, n \\ \varepsilon_{ik}\text{sgn}(\gamma_{ik}) & \text{if } x \in (k - \frac{1}{2}, k), k = 1, \ldots, n \\ \text{sgn}(\gamma_{\infty}, \alpha^\vee) & \text{if } x \in (n, n + \frac{1}{2}). \end{array} \right.
$$

If $\alpha < 0$, we define $g_{\alpha}$ to be the graph obtained by reflecting $g_{-\alpha}$ in the x-axis. By [LP08, Propositions 5.3 and 5.5], for any $\alpha$ we have

$$
\text{sgn}(\alpha)l_{\alpha}^j = g_{\alpha}\left(k - \frac{1}{2}\right), k = 1, \ldots, n, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{sgn}(\alpha)l_{\alpha}^\infty := \langle \text{wt}(J), \alpha^\vee \rangle = g_{\alpha}\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right).
$$

**Example 3.7.** We continue Example 3.6. The graphs of $g_{\alpha_2}$ and $g_{\theta}$ are given in Figure 3.

Let $J$ be an admissible subset. Let $\delta_{i,j}$ be the Kronecker delta function. Fix $p$ in $\{0, \ldots, r\}$, so $\alpha_p$ is a simple root if $p > 0$, or $\theta$ if $p = 0$. Let $M$ be the maximum of $g_{\alpha_p}$. Let $m$ be the minimum index $i$ in $\hat{I}_{\alpha_p}$ for which we have $\text{sgn}(\alpha_p)l_{i}^j = M$. It turns out that, if $M \geq \delta_{p,0}$, then we have either $m \in J$ or $m = \infty$; furthermore, if $M > \delta_{p,0}$, then $m$ has a predecessor $k$ in $\hat{I}_{\alpha_p}$, and we have $k \notin J$. We define

$$
f_{p}(J) := \begin{cases} (J \setminus \{m\}) \cup \{k\} & \text{if } M > \delta_{p,0} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases}
$$

Now we define $e_p$. Again let $M := \max g_{\alpha_p}$. Assuming that $M > \langle \text{wt}(J), \alpha_p^\vee \rangle$, let $k$ be the maximum index $i$ in $I_{\alpha_p}$ for which we have $\text{sgn}(\alpha_p)l_{i}^j = M$, and let $m$ be the successor of $k$.
in ˆI_{α_p}. Assuming also that M ≥ δ_{p,0}, it turns out that we have k ∈ J, and either m ∉ J or m = ∞. Define
\[
e_p(J) := \begin{cases} (J \setminus \{k\}) \cup \{m\} & \text{if } M > \langle \text{wt}(J), \alpha_p^\vee \rangle \text{ and } M \geq \delta_{p,0} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
\]
In the above definitions, we use the convention that J \setminus \{\infty\} = J \cup \{\infty\} = J.

Example 3.8. We continue Example 3.7. We find f_2(J) by noting that ˆI_{α_2} = \{1, 4, 6\}. From g_{α_2} in Figure 3 we can see that the heights l^J_i and l^\infty_i corresponding to these positions are 0, 0, 1, so k = 4, m = 6, and f_2(J) = J \cup \{4\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}. We can see from Figure 3 that the maximum of g_{θ} = 1, hence f_0(J) = 0. To compute e_0(J) observe that ˆI_{θ} = \{3, 6\} with k = 3 and m = 6. So e_0(J) = (J \setminus \{k\}) \cup \{m\} = \{1, 2, 5, 6\}.

The following theorem is the main result of [LL15a].

Theorem 3.9. [LL15a]
(1) If J is an admissible subset and if f_p(J) ≠ 0, then f_p(J) is also an admissible subset. Similarly for e_p(J). Moreover, f_p(J) = J′ if and only if e_p(J′) = J.
(2) We have wt(f_p(J)) = wt(J) - \alpha_p. Moreover, if M ≥ \delta_{p,0}, then
\[\varphi_p(J) = M - \delta_{p,0}, \quad \varepsilon_p(J) = M - \langle \text{wt}(J), \alpha_p^\vee \rangle,\]
while otherwise \(\varphi_p(J) = \varepsilon_p(J) = 0\).

4. Main results

We summarize the main results in [LNS+14], cf. also [LNS15a, LL15b]. The setup is that of untwisted affine root systems.

Theorem 4.1. [LNS+14, LL15b] Consider a composition p = (p_1, \ldots, p_k) and the corresponding crystal B := \bigotimes_{i=1}^k B^{p_i}. Let λ := \omega_{p_1} + \ldots + \omega_{p_k}, and let Γ be any λ-chain (see Section 3).
(1) The (combinatorial) crystal A(Γ) is isomorphic to the subgraph of B consisting of the dual Demazure arrows, via a specific bijection which preserves the weights of the vertices.
(2) If the vertex b of B corresponds to J under the isomorphism in part (1), then the energy is given by D_B(b) - D_B^{\text{ext}} = -\text{ht}(J), where D_B^{\text{ext}} is a global constant.

The proof proceeds as follows. Based on earlier work of Naito and Sagaki [NS05, NS06, NS08] on crystal bases for tensor products of column-shape KR modules (also called level-zero fundamental representations), we first derive a combinatorial model for the entire crystal B above (including the dual Demazure arrows), in terms of so-called quantum Lakshmibai-Seshadri (LS) paths; these are piecewise-linear paths constructed in terms of the parabolic analogue of the quantum Bruhat graph. In order to achieve this, we also rely on the results in [LNS+15a] related to the quantum Bruhat graph and its parabolic analogue. Then we exhibit a crystal isomorphism from the quantum alcove model to the quantum LS path model based on the lex λ-chain. In fact, this map is a very natural one, as it is the “forgetful map” on the quantum
alcove model (whose structure is richer than that of quantum LS paths). The passage between the quantum alcove models based on the lex $\lambda$-chain and an arbitrary $\lambda$-chain is investigated in [LL15b], and is discussed below.

Remarks 4.2. (1) Based on the above crystal isomorphism between the quantum LS path model and the quantum alcove model, we can construct the non-dual Demazure arrows in the latter. However, this construction is considerably more involved than (15)-(16).

(2) Although the quantum alcove model so far misses the non-dual Demazure arrows, it has the advantage of being a discrete model. Therefore, combinatorial methods are applicable, for instance in the realization of the combinatorial $R$-matrix, see below. This should be compared with the continuous arguments used for the similar purpose in the Littelmann path model [Lit95].

(3) In a similar way to Theorem 4.1 (2), the right energy (see Section 2.2) is given by the coheight statistic. These two expressions have the advantage of using only the local combinatorial data indexing a crystal vertex, whereas the recursive calculation of energy in Theorem 2.6 is less efficient, especially for large crystals.

In [LL15b] we enhance the quantum alcove model in order to give a uniform realization of the combinatorial $R$-matrix. The construction is based on certain combinatorial moves called quantum Yang-Baxter moves, which generalize their alcove model versions defined in [Len07]. These moves are explicitly described in all Lie types by reduction to rank 2 root subsystems. Note that, as far as existing realizations of the combinatorial $R$-matrix are concerned, they are limited in scope and type-specific. For instance, in terms of the tableau model, there is an $n$-dimensional $R$-matrix. The construction is based on certain combinatorial moves called quantum Yang-Baxter moves, which generalize their alcove model versions defined in [Len07]. These moves are explicitly described in all Lie types by reduction to rank 2 root subsystems. Note that, as far as existing realizations of the combinatorial $R$-matrix are concerned, they are limited in scope and type-specific. For instance, in terms of the tableau model, there is a construction in type $A$ based on Schützenberger’s jeu de taquin (sliding algorithm) on two columns [Ful97], whereas the extensions of this procedure to types $B$ and $C$ are involved and not transparent. By contrast, our construction is easy to formulate, and is related to more general concepts (especially the shellability property of the quantum Bruhat graph [BFP99]). We also show that, like the alcove model, its quantum generalization does not depend on the choice of a $\lambda$-chain, cf. Theorem 4.1 (1); in fact, we identify $A(\Gamma)$ and $A(\Gamma')$ for two $\lambda$-chains $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma'$ based on quantum Yang-Baxter moves.

5. THE QUANTUM ALCOVE MODEL IN TYPE $A$

In this section we specialize the quantum alcove model to type $A$, and construct an affine crystal isomorphism between this specialization and the usual tableau model for the tensor products of type $A$ KR crystals (see Section 2.2). We start with the basic facts about the root system of type $A_{n-1}$. We can identify the space $b_2^*$ with the quotient $V := \mathbb{R}^n/\mathbb{R}(1,\ldots,1)$, where $\mathbb{R}(1,\ldots,1)$ denotes the subspace in $\mathbb{R}^n$ spanned by the vector $(1,\ldots,1)$. Let $\varepsilon_1,\ldots,\varepsilon_n \in V$ be the images of the coordinate vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$. The root system is $\Phi = \{\alpha_{ij} := \varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_j : i \neq j, 1 \leq i,j \leq n\}$. The simple roots are $\alpha_i = \alpha_{i,i+1}$, for $i = 1,\ldots,n-1$. The highest root $\alpha_n = \theta = \alpha_{n1}$. The weight lattice is $\Lambda = \mathbb{Z}^n/\mathbb{Z}(1,\ldots,1)$. The fundamental weights are $\omega_i = \varepsilon_1 + \ldots + \varepsilon_i$, for $i = 1,\ldots,n-1$. A dominant weight $\lambda \in \Lambda^+$ is identified with the partition $(\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \ldots \geq \lambda_n \geq 0)$ having at most $n-1$ parts. Note that $\rho = (n-1,n-2,\ldots,0)$. Considering the Young diagram of the dominant weight $\lambda$ as a concatenation of columns, whose heights are $\lambda'_1, \lambda'_2, \ldots$, corresponds to expressing $\lambda$ as $\omega_{\lambda'_1} + \omega_{\lambda'_2} + \ldots$ (as usual, $\lambda'$ is the conjugate partition to $\lambda$).

The Weyl group $W$ is the symmetric group $S_n$, which acts on $V$ by permuting the coordinate vectors $\varepsilon_1,\ldots,\varepsilon_n$. Permutations $\sigma \in S_n$ are written in one-line notation $\sigma = \sigma(1)\ldots\sigma(n)$. For simplicity, we use the same notation $(i,j)$ with $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ for the root $\alpha_{ij}$ and the reflection $s_{\alpha_{ij}}$, which is the transposition $t_{ij}$ of $i$ and $j$. We recall a criterion for the edges of the type $A$ quantum Bruhat graph. We need the circular order $\preceq_i$ on $[n]$ starting at $i$, namely $i \preceq_i i+1 \preceq_i \ldots \preceq_i n \preceq_i 1 \preceq_i \ldots \preceq_i i-1$. It is convenient to think of this order in terms of the numbers $1,\ldots,n$ arranged on a circle clockwise. We make the convention that, whenever we write $a \preceq b \preceq c \preceq \ldots$, we refer to the circular order $\preceq := \preceq_a$. 
Proposition 5.1. [Len12] For $1 \leq i < j \leq n$, we have an edge $w^{(i,j)} \rightarrow w_{(i,j)}$ if and only if there is no $k$ such that $i < k < j$ and $w(i) < w(k) < w(j)$.

Example 5.2. The quantum Bruhat graph of type $A_2$, i.e., on the symmetric group $S_3$, is indicated in Figure 4.

![Figure 4. The quantum Bruhat graph for $S_3$](image)

We now consider the specialization of the quantum alcove model to type $A$. For any $k = 1, \ldots, n - 1$, we have the following $\omega_k$-chain, from $A_0$ to $A_{-\omega_k}$, denoted by $\Gamma(k)$ [LP07]:

$$
(\begin{array}{c}
(k,k+1),
(k,k+2),
\ldots,
(k,n),
\vdots,
(k-1,k+1),
(k-1,k+2),
\ldots,
(k-1,n),
(1,k+1),
(1,k+2),
\ldots,
(1,n)
\end{array})
$$

(17)

Example 5.3. We specialize (17) to $n = 4$ and $k = 1, 2, 3$. It is best to visualize $\Gamma(k)$ based on a column of height $n$ broken into two pieces, with the top part of height $k$ and the bottom one of height $n - k$; then $\Gamma(k)$ is obtained by pairing row numbers in the top and bottom parts, in the prescribed order.

$$
\begin{array}{c}
1
2
3
4
\end{array},
\Gamma(1) = ((1,2),(1,3),(1,4));
\begin{array}{c}
1
2
3
\end{array},
\Gamma(2) = ((2,3),(2,4),(1,3),(1,4));
\begin{array}{c}
1
2
3
\end{array},
\Gamma(3) = ((3,4),(2,4),(1,4)).
$$

Fix a dominant weight/partition $\lambda$ for the remainder of this section. We construct a $\lambda$-chain $\Gamma = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_m)$ as the concatenation $\Gamma := \Gamma^1 \ldots \Gamma^\lambda$, where $\Gamma^j = \Gamma(\lambda^j)$. Let $J = \{j_1 < \cdots < j_s\}$ be a set of folding positions in $\Gamma$, not necessarily admissible, and let $T$ be the corresponding list of roots of $\Gamma$, also viewed as transpositions. The factorization of $\Gamma$ induces a factorization of $T$ as $T = T^1T^2 \ldots T^\lambda$, and of $\Delta = \Gamma(J)$ as $\Delta = \Delta^1 \ldots \Delta^\lambda$. Recalling that the roots in $\Delta$ were denoted $\gamma_k$, we use the notation $\gamma_k \in \Delta^q$ to indicate that the $k$th root in $\Delta$
falls in the segment $\Delta^g$ (rather than the fact that $\Delta^g$ contains a root equal to $\gamma_k$). We denote by $T^1 \ldots T^j$ the permutation obtained by composing the transpositions in $T^1, \ldots, T^j$ left to right. For $w \in W$, let $w_i = w(i)$. For $w$ written in one-line notation as $w = w_1 w_2 \ldots w_n$, let $w[i, j] = w_i \ldots w_j$.

We now recall from [Len12] the construction of the correspondence between the type $A$ quantum alcove model and tableau model.

**Definition 5.4.** Let $\pi_j = \pi_j(T) := T^1 \ldots T^j$. We define the filling map, which associates with each $J \subseteq [m]$ a filling of the Young diagram $\lambda$, by

$$\text{fill}(J) = \text{fill}(T) := C_1 \ldots C_{\lambda_1},$$

where $C_i := \pi_i[1, \lambda'_i]$, see the notation above. We define the sorted filling map $\text{sfill}(J)$ by sorting ascendingly the columns of $\text{fill}(J)$.

In other words, the $i$th column $C_i$ of $\text{fill}(J)$ consists of the first $\lambda'_i$ entries of the permutation $\pi_i$, written in one-line notation; see Example 5.5.

**Example 5.5.** Let $n = 3$ and $\lambda = (4, 3, 0)$, which is identified with $4\varepsilon_1 + 3\varepsilon_2 = 3\omega_2 + \omega_1$, and corresponds to the Young diagram $\begin{array}{cccc} & & & \\ & & 1 & \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \end{array}$. We have

$$\Gamma = \Gamma^1 \Gamma^2 \Gamma^3 \Gamma^4 = \Gamma(2) \Gamma(2) \Gamma(1) = (2, 3, (1, 3) \mid (2, 3), (1, 3) \mid (2, 3), (1, 3) \mid (1, 2), (1, 3)),$$

where we underlined the roots in positions $J = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 7\}$. Then

$$T = ((2, 3), (1, 3) \mid (2, 3) \mid (2, 3) \mid (1, 2)),$$

and

$$\Gamma(J) = \Delta = \Delta^1 \Delta^2 \Delta^3 \Delta^4 = ((2, 3), (1, 2) \mid (3, 1), (2, 3) \mid (1, 3), (2, 1) \mid (2, 3), (3, 1)).$$

where we again underlined the folding positions, and indicated the factorizations of $T$ and $\Delta$ by vertical lines. It is easy to check that $J$ is admissible; indeed, the sequence of permutations $(12)$ corresponding to $J$ is a path in the quantum Bruhat graph, cf. Proposition 5.1 and Example 5.2:

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \begin{array}{l} \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \\ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \ \downarrow \\
\end{array}
\end{array}$$

Here each permutation in $(12)$ is written vertically in one-line notation, with the entries in bold to be transposed; moreover, if the transposition to be applied lies in $\Gamma^i$, then the corresponding permutation is represented as a broken column with the top part of height $\lambda'_i$; see the structure of $\Gamma^i$ in (17) and Example 5.3. By considering the top part of the last column in each segment and by concatenating these columns left to right, we obtain $\text{fill}(J)$, i.e., $\text{fill}(J) = \begin{array}{cccc} 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 3 \\ \end{array}$.

We now state the main result of this section.

**Theorem 5.6.** [LL15a] The map $\text{fill}$ is an affine crystal isomorphism between $A(\Gamma)$ and the subgraph of $B^\otimes \lambda'$ consisting of the dual Demazure arrows. In other words, given $\text{fill}(J) = b$, there is a dual Demazure arrow $b \rightarrow f_p(b)$ if and only if $f_p(J) \neq 0$, and we have $f_i(b) = \text{sfill}(f_i(J))$.

**Remarks 5.7.** (1) The affine crystal isomorphism in Theorem 5.6 is unique, by Remarks 2.5 (2), (3).

(2) In [Len11] it was proved that the map $\text{fill}$ preserves weights. Furthermore, in [Len12] it was shown this map translates the height statistic to the Lascoux-Schützenberger charge statistic [LS79], which is known to express the energy function in the tableau model. This should be compared with Theorem 4.1 (2), where the constant $D_{\mu}^{\text{ext}}$ is 0 in this case.

(3) A similar affine crystal isomorphism in type $C$ (between the quantum alcove model and the corresponding tableau model, based on Kashiwara-Nakashima columns [KN94]) is also given in [LL15a]. The height statistic is translated to a type $C$ analogue of the charge statistic in [Len12, LS13] Type $B$ is under investigation in [BL].
6. Macdonald polynomials

The Macdonald polynomials [Ma95, Ma03] are a remarkable family of orthogonal polynomials associated to a finite root system, which depend on two parameters $q, t$; more precisely, they are polynomials in the group algebra of the weight lattice whose coefficients are rational functions in $q, t$. There are two families of Macdonald polynomials: the symmetric ones (under the Weyl group action) $P_\lambda(x; q, t)$, and the nonsymmetric ones $E_\mu(x; q, t)$; here $\lambda$ is a dominant weight (i.e., a partition in type $A$), and $\mu$ is an arbitrary weight (i.e., a composition in type $A$) — a convention we adopt for the rest of this paper. The symmetric Macdonald polynomials specialize to the Hall-Littlewood polynomials (or spherical functions for a Chevalley group over a $p$-adic field) upon setting $q = 0$. They further specialize to the corresponding irreducible characters upon setting $q = t = 0$. By contrast, the nonsymmetric Macdonald polynomials become the characters of Demazure modules when $q = t = 0$.

The importance of Macdonald polynomials is due to their deep connections to many areas of mathematics, such as: $p$-adic and real reductive groups, Kac-Moody algebras, double affine Hecke algebras, Hilbert schemes, integrable quantum systems, conformal field theory, harmonic analysis, special functions, multivariate statistics etc.

Ram and Yip [RY11] gave a combinatorial formula for both the symmetric and the nonsymmetric Macdonald polynomials in terms of alcove walks. The specialization of this formula upon setting $t = 0$ was worked out in [Len12] and [OS13], in the symmetric and nonsymmetric cases, respectively. More precisely, in the symmetric case we have the following formula in terms of the quantum alcove model, where $\Gamma$ is any $\lambda$-chain for a dominant weight $\lambda$.

\begin{align}
\text{Theorem 6.1. [RY11, Len12]} & \quad \text{We have} \\
& P_\lambda(x; q, 0) = \sum_{J \in \mathcal{A}(\Gamma)} q^{ht(J)} x^{wt(J)}.
\end{align}

Note also that, for $t = 0$, the symmetric Macdonald polynomial coincides with a particular nonsymmetric one (see [LNS+14]):

\begin{align}
(21) & \quad P_\lambda(x; q, 0) = E_{w_0} \lambda(x; q, 0). 
\end{align}

Now define the graded character corresponding to the KR crystal $B$ in (8) (see for example [HKO+02, HKO+99]) by

\begin{align}
(22) & \quad X_\lambda(x; q) := \sum_{b \in B} q^{D_B(b) - D_{ext} b} x^{wt(b)},
\end{align}

where $wt(b)$ is the weight of the crystal element $b$. From Theorems 4.1 and 6.1, we immediately derive one of our main results.

\begin{align}
\text{Corollary 6.2. [LNS+14]} & \quad \text{We have} \\
& P_\lambda(x; q^{-1}, 0) = X_\lambda(x; q).
\end{align}

We will now present another result which follows from our work (and the result in [OS13] mentioned above), namely a combinatorial formula for the specialization of a nonsymmetric Macdonald polynomial at $t = 0$ in terms of the quantum alcove model. This formula can be viewed as the nonsymmetric analogue of Theorem 6.1. Furthermore, it generalizes the formula for Demazure characters in terms of the alcove model in [Len07, Theorem 6.3].

Let $\lambda$ be a dominant weight, whose stabilizer is denoted by $W_\lambda$. Let $\mu = \nu(\lambda)$, where $\nu$ is assumed to be a lowest coset representative modulo $W_\lambda$. Given a Weyl group element $u$, we denote by $[u]$ the lowest coset representative of $uW_\lambda$. Consider also an arbitrary $\lambda$-chain $\Gamma$, and recall the relevant notation from Section 3.

\begin{align}
\text{Theorem 6.3. [LNS+15b]} & \quad \text{With the above notation, we have} \\
& E_\mu(x; q, 0) = \sum_{J \in \mathcal{A}(\Gamma), \phi(J) \leq \nu} q^{cht(J)} x^{wt(J)}.
\end{align}
A similar formula for $E_\mu(x;q,0)$ in terms of quantum LS paths is also given in [LNS+15b]. Furthermore, it is shown that this specialized nonsymmetric Macdonald polynomial can be interpreted as the graded character of a Demazure-type submodule of the tensor product of KR modules whose crystal is $B$ in (8).

7. Other applications and related developments

In this section, we summarize other applications of our work, some interesting connections that it highlights, as well as recent developments it has led to.

Braverman and Finkelberg [BF14b] have recently shown that, for simply-laced untwisted affine root systems, the characters of the duals of certain current algebra modules, called global Weyl modules, coincide with the characters $\Psi_\lambda(x;q)$ of the spaces of global sections of line bundles on quasi-maps spaces; in this case, it is also shown that the function $\Psi_\lambda(x;q)$ is equal to $P_\lambda(x;q,0)$ times an explicit product of geometric series whose ratios are powers of $q$, and these functions are called $q$-Whittaker functions due to their appearance in the quantum group version of the Kostant-Whittaker reduction of Etingof and Sevostyanov for the $q$-Toda integrable system. More precisely, the functions $\Psi_\lambda(x;q)$ are eigenfunctions of the $q$-Toda difference operators, and their generating function yields the $K$-theoretic $J$-function of Givental and Lee [BF14a]. Note, however, that in the non-simply-laced untwisted cases, the situation differs considerably: indeed, the proof in [BF14b] of the equality between $\Psi_\lambda(x;q)$ and $P_\lambda(x;q,0)$ times the explicit product above does not carry over; this is mainly because $X_\lambda(x;q)$ is not a single affine Demazure character. Finally, the quantum alcove model arises in Lenart and Postnikov’s conjectural description of the quantum product by a divisor in the quantum $K$-theory of flag varieties $G/B$ [LP07] (quantum $K$-theory is a $K$-theory analogue of quantum cohomology).

Note that, in principle, one can derive the structure constants in the quantum $K$-theory of $G/B$ from the $K$-theoretic $J$-function mentioned above, although this is hard. In Figure 5 we summarize the connections discussed above, as well as the related work of Ion [Ion03] and Fourier-Littelmann [FL06] mentioned in Section 1.

The quantum LS path model and the quantum alcove model were implemented in the computer algebra system Sage [Sage]. Using this implementation, we verified some conjectures related to KR crystals in the exceptional types (except for two Dynkin nodes for type $E_8^{(1)}$), see [LNS+14]; these conjectures, which had been previously proved only in the classical types in [FOS10], are concerned with the perfectness property of KR crystals [HKO+02], and with their graded classical decompositions [HKO+99].

![Figure 5. Connections highlighted by our work](https://example.com/figure5.png)
There have been several developments related to our work. Starting from our results, a combinatorial realization of the crystal basis of a level 0 extremal weight module and the corresponding Demazure modules (over a quantum affine algebra) is exhibited in [INS14, NS14], in terms of so-called semi-infinite LS paths. (An extremal weight module is generated by an extremal weight vector of some affine weight \( \lambda \); while for \( \lambda \) of positive or negative level, this is just the corresponding integrable highest, respectively lowest weight module, for \( \lambda \) of level 0 its structure is much more complicated.) As a corollary, a crystal-theoretic interpretation of the relation between local and global Weyl modules is given in [NS14].

A formula for the specialized Macdonald polynomial \( E_{w,\lambda}(x; q, t = \infty) \) in terms of quantum LS paths is given in [NNS15], by analogy with the one for \( E_{\mu}(x; q, 0) \) mentioned in Section 6. Furthermore, a representation-theoretic interpretation of \( E_{w,\lambda}(x; q, \infty) \) is given in terms of a Demazure submodule of the level 0 extremal weight module mentioned above. This is again somewhat similar to the representation-theoretic interpretation of \( E_{\mu}(x; q, 0) \) discussed in Section 6.

On another hand, our work was used in [CSS+14] to provide the character of a stable level-one Demazure module associated to type \( B_n^{(1)} \) as an explicit combination of suitably specialized Macdonald polynomials. In addition, our results were used in a crucial way by Chari and Ion in [CI15, Theorem 4.2] to show that Macdonald polynomials at \( t = 0 \) are characters of local Weyl modules for current algebras. Based on this, they prove a Bernstein-Gelfand-Gelfand (BGG) reciprocity theorem for the category of representations of a current algebra. In related work, Khoroshkin [Kho13] exhibits a categorification of Macdonald polynomials, by realizing them as the Euler characteristic of bigraded characters for certain complexes of modules over a current algebra. This realization simplifies considerably if BGG reciprocity holds (the mentioned complexes become actual modules concentrated in homological degree zero).

References


