# Colored brackets and 2-manifolds 

David A. Richter*<br>Mathematics Department, Southeast Missouri State University, Cape Girardeau, MO 63701, USA

Received 11 April 2000


#### Abstract

Frequently, although a set of matrix differential operators will not be closed under, say, a Lie bracket, it might be closed under more general Lie $\Gamma$-graded brackets. Some of these operator products are defined using commutation factors for $\Gamma$. The classification of commutation factors, and hence Lie $\Gamma$-graded brackets, is one of the stepping stones in an attempt to classify algebras of matrix differential operators, generalizing a question outline in [Am. J. Math. 114 (6) (1992) 1163]. Many examples of Lie superalgebras of matrix differential operators exist, but there is still a question of what other possible algebra products may close a space of matrix differential operators. Studying Lie color algebras and Lie color superalgebras represents an attempt in this direction. It is a curious fact that commutation factors for groups of the form $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$ coincide with homeomorphism-equivalence classes of connected compact 2-manifolds, so this coincidence is also given in Section 4 of this paper. © 2001 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.


MSC: 17B75; 57Nxx
Subj. Class.: Lie groups; Lie algebras
Keywords: Lie color algebras; Lie color superalgebras; Commutation factors; 2-manifolds

## 1. Introduction

This note contains a complete classification of commutation factors for groups of the form $\Gamma \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$. In his classification of Lie superalgebras, [1], the author asks the question of classifying the "generalized" superalgebras, those graded by a group of the form $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$, instead of merely $\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}$. However, before one can answer this question, one must first determine what possible Lie $\Gamma$-graded structures might exist, and to answer this one must classify commutation factors for $\Gamma$. The authors of [3] obtain this classification for $\Gamma \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$, but using slightly different terminology and notation. This note aims

[^0]to clarify this classification in the terms of [4] and to relate this to the classification of connected compact 2 -manifolds. As it turns out, once one defines a particular equivalence relation on the set of commutation factors for $\Gamma \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$, the equivalence classes, also referred in this paper to as reduced commutation factors, correspond exactly with homeomorphism-equivalence classes of connected compact 2-manifolds.

The terminology "color" comes from [3]. Since every commutation factor gives rise to a Lie $\Gamma$-graded bracket, sometimes we refer to commutation factors as colored brackets.

## 2. Generalities

First we need to discuss the general framework around commutation factors. These are some results which follow very easily from the definitions.

Definition 2.1. Let $\Gamma$ be an abelian group. A commutation factor is a map $\epsilon: \Gamma \times \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{+}$ satisfying

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \epsilon(a, b) \epsilon(b, a)=1, \\
& \epsilon\left(a_{1}+a_{2}, b\right)=\epsilon\left(a_{1}, b\right) \epsilon\left(a_{2}, b\right), \\
& \epsilon\left(a, b_{1}+b_{2}\right)=\epsilon\left(a, b_{1}\right) \epsilon\left(a, b_{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $a, a_{1}, a_{2}, b, b_{1}, b_{2} \in \Gamma$. The diagonal map $\delta: \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{+}$associated with $\epsilon$ is the map

$$
\delta: a \mapsto \epsilon(a, a)
$$

Proposition 2.2. Let $\Gamma$ be an abelian group and let $\epsilon$ be a commutation factor. Then (a) $\epsilon(g, 0)=\epsilon(0, g)=1$ for all $g \in \Gamma$, (b) the diagonal map $\delta$ is a homomorphism, and (c) the image of $\delta$ lies in the two-element group $C_{2}=\{ \pm 1\}$.

Proof. (a) Notice that the map $a \mapsto \epsilon(a, g)$, by definition, is a homomorphism. Thus, we have

$$
\epsilon(0, g)=\epsilon(0+0, g)=\epsilon(0, g) \epsilon(0, g)
$$

(b) Since $\epsilon(0, g) \neq 0$, we may divide to obtain $\epsilon(0, g)=1$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\delta(a+b) & =\epsilon(a+b, a+b)=\epsilon(a, a+b) \epsilon(b, a+b) \\
& =\epsilon(a, a) \epsilon(a, b) \epsilon(b, a) \epsilon(b, b)=\epsilon(a, a) \epsilon(b, b)=\delta(a) \delta(b)
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) Follows from (b) and the fact that $\delta(a)^{2}=1$.

As is the case with the category of Lie algebras, there is a universal object which plays a rôle similar to that of $\mathfrak{g l}_{n} \mathbb{C}$ for Lie algebras. That is, there is a "general linear" $\Gamma$ graded algebra for every commutation factor $\epsilon$. We construct this as follows. Suppose $\epsilon$ is a
commutation factor for $\Gamma$ and let $V$ be a $\Gamma$-graded vector space,

$$
V=\underset{a \in \Gamma}{\oplus} V_{a} .
$$

The general linear $\Gamma$-graded algebra for $\epsilon$ is the space

$$
\mathfrak{g l}(V, \epsilon)=\underset{a \in \Gamma}{\oplus} \mathfrak{g l}(V, \epsilon)_{a},
$$

where for each $a \in \Gamma$,

$$
\mathfrak{g l}(V, \epsilon)_{a}=\underset{b \in \Gamma}{\oplus} \operatorname{Hom}\left(V_{b}, V_{a+b}\right)
$$

equipped with the bracket

$$
\langle u, v\rangle=u \circ v-\epsilon(a, b) v \circ u
$$

for $u \in \mathfrak{g l}(V, \epsilon)_{a}$ and $v \in \mathfrak{g l}(V, \epsilon)_{b}$.
In this paper, we do not wish to study Lie $\Gamma$-graded algebras in much detail, but, due to a generalization of Ado's theorem, [4], we may give the following definition of Lie $\Gamma$-algebras.

Definition 2.3. Suppose $\epsilon$ is a commutation factor for $\Gamma$. A space $\mathfrak{g}$ equipped with a bracket is a Lie $\Gamma$-graded algebra for $\epsilon$ if there is a vector space $V$ and a map

$$
\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g l}(V, \epsilon) .
$$

If $\mathfrak{g}=\oplus_{a \in \Gamma} \mathfrak{g}_{a}$ is a Lie $\Gamma$-graded algebra associated with $\epsilon$, then the expected identities hold, $\Gamma$-graded skew-symmetry

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle u, v\rangle+\epsilon(a, b)\langle v, u\rangle=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the $\Gamma$-graded Jacobi identity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon(c, a)\langle\langle u, v\rangle, w\rangle+\text { cyclic }=0 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $u \in \mathfrak{g}_{a}, v \in \mathfrak{g}_{b}$ and $w \in \mathfrak{g}_{c}$. Similarly, one may give the definition of a Lie $\Gamma$-graded algebra in the opposite direction. That is, one may say that a Lie $\Gamma$-graded algebra is a space $\mathfrak{g}$ equipped with a bracket satisfying the two identities (1) and (2). If one chooses this path, then one will quickly see that the function $\epsilon$ must necessarily be a commutation factor. However, since in this paper we are primarily aiming at determining a particular classification of commutation factors, we do not wish to spend much time on this question and instead refer the reader to [4].

Notice that for every commutation factor, either ker $\delta=\Gamma$ or ker $\delta$ is a subgroup of index two in $\Gamma$. We have some terminology to distinguish the types of Lie $\Gamma$-graded algebras which result. In the former case, $\mathfrak{g}$ is called a "Lie color algebra" and in the latter case $\mathfrak{g}$ is a "Lie color superalgebra".

## 3. The cases $\Gamma=(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$

As the question was posed in [1], throughout this discussion we assume that $\Gamma$ is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$ for some $n$. In particular, we give here a classification of commutation factors for such groups. First of all, when we assume $\Gamma$ is one of these groups, we have some strong constraints on the image of $\epsilon$.

Proposition 3.1. Suppose $\Gamma$ is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$ for some $n$ and suppose $\epsilon$ is a commutation factor. Then (a) the image of $\epsilon$ lies in the two element group $C_{2}=\{ \pm 1\}$ and (b) $\epsilon(a, b)=\epsilon(b, a)$ for all $a, b \in \Gamma$.

Proof. (a) As before, the map $a \mapsto \epsilon(a, g)$, by definition, is a homomorphism, so every element $x$ in the image of $\epsilon$ must satisfy $x^{2}=1$. The solution set to this equation is $\{ \pm 1\}$. (b) Suppose $\epsilon(a, b)=1$. Then we must have $\epsilon(b, a)=1$ because $\epsilon(a, b) \epsilon(b, a)=1$ by definition. Similarly, if $\epsilon(a, b)=-1$, we must have $\epsilon(b, a)=-1$.

For each $n$ we have the problem of classifying commutation factors for $\Gamma \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{b}$. Obviously, every such commutation factor is determined by the values $\epsilon\left(a_{i}, a_{j}\right)$ for a basis $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$ of $\Gamma$, so this helps to formulate a notion of equivalence.

Definition 3.2. Suppose $\epsilon_{1}$ and $\epsilon_{2}$ are two commutation factors for $\Gamma \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$. Then $\epsilon_{1}$ and $\epsilon_{2}$ are equivalent if there are bases $\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right\}$ for $\Gamma$ such that $\epsilon_{1}\left(a_{i}, a_{j}\right)=\epsilon_{2}\left(b_{i}, b_{j}\right)$ for all $i$ and $j$.

If $\epsilon$ is an arbitrary commutation factor for $\Gamma$, there may be some "redundancies" which we wish to eliminate. That is, if we think of commutation factors for $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$ as particular symmetric matrices with entries from $\{ \pm 1\}$, then we would like to ignore those with more than one row or column filled with all 1 s , as these can be reduced. Elaborating on this, we have the following definition.

Definition 3.3. Given $\Gamma$ and a commutation factor $\epsilon$, let

$$
\Gamma_{0}=\{a \in \Gamma: \epsilon(a, b)=1 \text { for all } b \in \Gamma\}
$$

If $\Gamma_{0}$ consists of exactly one element, then $\epsilon$ is called a reduced commutation factor.
Evidently $\Gamma_{0}$ is a subgroup of $\Gamma$. Accordingly, we can obtain a new commutation factor for the group $\Gamma / \Gamma_{0}$ by setting

$$
\epsilon_{0}\left(a+\Gamma_{0}, b+\Gamma_{0}\right)=\epsilon(a, b)
$$

and it is also clear that such a commutation factor $\epsilon_{0}$ is reduced.
It is clear that if $\epsilon_{1}$ and $\epsilon_{2}$ are equivalent, then so are their reductions. We say that two pairs $\left(\Gamma_{1}, \epsilon_{1}\right)$ and $\left(\Gamma_{2}, \epsilon_{2}\right)$ of groups and corresponding commutation factors are equivalent if the reductions of $\epsilon_{1}$ and $\epsilon_{2}$ are equivalent. Let $\mathbb{E}$ denote the set of equivalence
classes of these pairs. As we have seen, for each element of $\mathbb{E}$, there is a "representative" reduced commutation factor, and vice versa. For this reason, we may speak of the elements of $\mathbb{E}$ either as equivalence classes of pairs $(\Gamma, \epsilon)$ or simply as reduced commutation factors. Thus our problem of classifying commutation factors reduces to that of classifying reduced commutation factors. To obtain this classification, we need a couple key lemmas.

Lemma 3.4. Suppose $\epsilon(a, b)=1$ for all $a, b \in \operatorname{ker}(\delta)$ with $a$ and $b$ distinct and non-zero. Then $\epsilon$ is a non-reduced commutation factor.

Proof. This is trivial if $\operatorname{ker} \delta=\Gamma$, so we assume there are elements $c \in \Gamma$ with $\delta(c)=-1$. The proof is by contradiction. Suppose $a, b \in \operatorname{ker} \delta$ is any such pair described in this lemma. If $\epsilon$ were reduced then we would have $\epsilon(a, c)=\epsilon(b, c)=-1$ for every element $c \in \Gamma$ with $\delta(c)=-1$. That is, the homomorphisms $c \mapsto \epsilon(a, c)$ and $c \mapsto \epsilon(b, c)$ would be non-trivial. Since $a$ and $b$ are distinct and non-zero, we would therefore have $\epsilon(a+b, c)=1$ for all $c \in \Gamma$. Since $a+b$ is non-zero, $\epsilon$ would be non-reduced, leading to a contradiction.

The contrapositive of this lemma yields the following corollary.
Corollary 3.5. If $\epsilon$ is reduced and $\operatorname{rank}(\operatorname{ker} \delta) \geq 2$, then there is a pair $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}\right\} \subset \Gamma$ with $\delta\left(a_{i}\right)=1$ and $\epsilon\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=-1$.

This allows us to state the following lemma.
Lemma 3.6. Choose $a_{1}, a_{2} \in \Gamma$ such that $\delta\left(a_{i}\right)=1$ for both $i$ and $\epsilon\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=-1$ and suppose $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, b_{3}, \ldots, b_{n}\right\}$ is a basis for $\Gamma$. For each $i=3,4, \ldots, n$ define elements $a_{i} \in \Gamma$ by

$$
a_{i}= \begin{cases}b_{i} & \text { if } \epsilon\left(a_{1}, b_{i}\right)=1, \epsilon\left(a_{2}, b_{i}\right)=1 \\ b_{i}+a_{1} & \text { if } \epsilon\left(a_{1}, b_{i}\right)=1, \epsilon\left(a_{2}, b_{i}\right)=-1 \\ b_{i}+a_{2} & \text { if } \epsilon\left(a_{1}, b_{i}\right)=-1, \quad \epsilon\left(a_{2}, b_{i}\right)=1, \\ b_{i}+a_{1}+a_{2} & \text { if } \epsilon\left(a_{1}, b_{i}\right)=-1, \quad \epsilon\left(a_{2}, b_{i}\right)=-1 .\end{cases}
$$

Then (a) the set $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}$ is a basis for $\Gamma$ and $(b) \epsilon\left(a_{i}, a_{j}\right)=1$ for $i=1,2$ and $j=3,4, \ldots, n$.

Proof. Part (a) is true because each $a_{i}$ is obtained by elementary row operations and part (b) is true by construction.

There is a useful interpretation of this lemma, but for this we first need to define a tensor product of commutation factors, analogous to the tensor products of matrices. Suppose $\Gamma_{1} \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n_{1}}$ and $\Gamma_{2} \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n_{2}}$ and that $\epsilon_{1}$ and $\epsilon_{2}$ are accompanying commutation factors. Then the tensor product $\epsilon_{1} \otimes \epsilon_{2}$ is a commutation factor for the direct sum $\Gamma_{1} \oplus \Gamma_{2}$
and is given by the following formula:
$\left(\epsilon_{1} \otimes \epsilon_{2}\right)\left(\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right),\left(b_{1}, b_{2}\right)\right)=\epsilon_{1}\left(a_{1}, b_{1}\right) \epsilon_{2}\left(a_{2}, b_{2}\right)$
for $a_{i}, b_{i} \in \Gamma_{i}$. We sometimes omit the $\otimes$ symbol when writing a tensor product. Also, there is a reduced commutation factor which serves as the identity, namely the identity map itself $I: \mathrm{Id} \times \mathrm{Id} \rightarrow \mathrm{Id}$. The tensor product on $\mathbb{E}$, induced in the obvious way from the tensor product between commutation factors, is commutative and associative, and this helps to justify our omission of the symbol $\otimes$ when writing tensor products.

There are a couple of non-trivial reduced commutation factors which are important enough to be named. We call them $A$ and $B$ and they can be given by the following tables:

| $A$ |  | $B$ | 0 | 01 | 10 | 11 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $A$ | 0 | 1 | 00 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 01 | 1 | 1 | -1 | -1 |
| 1 | 1 | -1 | 10 | 1 | -1 | 1 | -1 |
|  |  |  | 11 | 1 | -1 | -1 | 1 |

Evidently we associate $A$ with $\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}$ and $B$ with the Klein 4-group $K_{4}=(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}) \oplus(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})$. Now we can interpret the preceding Lemma 3.6 as follows.

Corollary 3.7. Suppose $\epsilon$ is a reduced commutation factor for $\Gamma$ such that $\operatorname{rank}(\operatorname{ker} \delta) \geq$ 2. Then there is a reduced commutation factor $\epsilon^{\prime}$ for $\Gamma / K_{4}$ such that $\epsilon$ and $\epsilon^{\prime} \otimes B$ are equivalent.

Finally, as a corollary to this we obtain the classification of reduced commutation factors.
Theorem 3.8. Suppose $\epsilon$ is a reduced $\epsilon$ commutation factor for $\Gamma=(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$. Then (a) if $\operatorname{ker} \delta=\Gamma$, then $\epsilon$ is equivalent to $B^{n / 2}$, (b) if $\operatorname{ker} \delta \cong \Gamma /(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})$ and $n$ is odd, then $\epsilon$ is equivalent to $A B^{(n-1) / 2}$, or $(c)$ if $\operatorname{ker} \delta \cong \Gamma /(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})$ and $n$ is even, then $\epsilon$ is equivalent to $A^{2} B^{(n-2) / 2}$.

Proof. Using the tensor-product interpretation of our Lemma 3.6, we may inductively "factor" to obtain $\epsilon=\epsilon^{\prime} \otimes B^{r}$, where $\epsilon^{\prime}$ is a reduced commutation factor for a group of rank two or less. The three cases (a), (b), and (c) allow for the three possible structures that $\epsilon^{\prime}$ may have. If ker $\delta=\Gamma, \epsilon^{\prime}$ is equivalent to $B$, giving us part (a). If $n$ is odd, then, because $\epsilon$ is reduced, $\epsilon^{\prime}$ must be a non-trivial commutation factor for the group $\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}$, i.e. it must be equivalent to $A$. This gives us case (b). Finally, if $n$ is even and ker $\delta$ is a proper subgroup of $\Gamma$, implying that $\epsilon^{\prime}$ is not equivalent to $B$, then $\epsilon^{\prime}$ must be equivalent to $A^{2}$, giving us part (c).

There is a useful and interesting relation involving $A$ and $B$.
Proposition 3.9. $A \otimes A \otimes A$ and $A \otimes B$ are equivalent.
Proof. Suppose $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right\}$ is a basis for $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{3}$ such that $\epsilon\left(a_{i}, a_{i}\right)=-1$ for all $i$ and
$\epsilon\left(a_{i}, a_{j}\right)=1$ for all $i \neq j$. Then, by construction, $\epsilon$ is equivalent to $A \otimes A \otimes A$. Consider a new basis $\left\{b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3}\right\}$, where

$$
b_{1}=a_{2}+a_{3}, \quad b_{2}=a_{1}+a_{3}, \quad b_{3}=a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3} .
$$

It is easy to compute that the values $\epsilon\left(b_{i}, b_{j}\right)$ for this basis are given in the table:

| $\epsilon$ | $b_{1}$ | $b_{2}$ | $b_{3}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $b_{1}$ | 1 | -1 | 1 |
| $b_{2}$ | -1 | 1 | 1 |
| $b_{3}$ | 1 | 1 | -1 |

This exhibits $\epsilon$ as being equivalent to $A \otimes B$.
Because of this relation, we can restate the classification Theorem 3.8 more concisely.
Theorem 3.10. Every non-trivial reduced commutation factor is equivalent to either $A^{n}$ or $B^{n}$ for some positive integer $n$.

## 4. 2-Manifolds

As it turns out, the classification of reduced commutation factors coincides exactly with that for connected compact 2-manifolds. Let $\mathbb{M}$ denote the set of homeomorphismequivalence classes of connected compact 2-manifolds. For any two elements $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ in $\mathbb{M}$, we can form the connected sum $X_{1} \# X_{2}$. This is obtained cutting discs out of $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ and then identifying the resulting boundaries homeomorphic to $S^{1}$. This operation is commutative and associative and the sphere $S^{2}$ serves as an identity element. If $P=\mathbb{R} P^{2}$ denotes the real projective plane and $T=S^{1} \times S^{1}$ denotes the torus, then we have the following proposition, from [5].

Proposition 4.1. $P \# P \# P$ and $P \# T$ are homeomorphic.
We can now define a map $\varphi$ of $\mathbb{M}$ into $\mathbb{E}$
Proposition 4.2. There is a bijection $\varphi: \mathbb{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}$ which is uniquely determined by the conditions: $(a) \varphi(P)=A,(b) \varphi(T)=B$, and $(c) \varphi(X \# Y)=\varphi(X) \otimes \varphi(Y)$.

Proof. This follows from the complete classification of closed compact 2-manifolds. See [2].

Many readers should recognize that $\varphi$ merely delivers a kind of intersection matrix for these manifolds, and that the preservation of the "algebraic" relation is merely a reflection of the relationship of the connected sum with the intersection matrix. Thus, reduced commutation factors give a faithful invariant for compact connected 2-manifolds.

## References

[1] V.G. Kac, Lie superalgebras, Adv. Math. 26 (1) (1977) 8-96.
[2] J.J. Rotman, An Introduction to Algebraic Topology, Springer, New York, 1988.
[3] V. Rittenberg, D. Wyler, Generalized superalgebras, Nucl. Phys. B 139 (3) (1978) 189-202.
[4] M. Scheunet, Generalized Lie algebras, J. Math. Phys. 20 (4) (1979) 712-720.
[5] J. Stillwell, Classical Topology and Combinatorial Group Theory, Springer, New York, 1980.


[^0]:    * Tel.: +1-573-651-2773

    E-mail address: drichter@semovm.semo.edu (D.A. Richter).

