On superalgebras

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Abstract

In this article we introduce the definition of associative superalgebras, basic characteristics, and give some examples.

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1 Introduction

In the last few decades one of the most active and fertile subjects in algebra is recently developed theory of graded algebras and so called superalgebras. In [12] Kac wrote that the interest of the field of superalgebras appeared in physic in the contest of "supersimetry". A lot of results about superalgebras and graded algebras has been written by Kac, Martinez, Zelmanov, Wall, Shestakov and others (see for example [7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15]). The main goal of this paper is to introduce a definition of associative superalgebras, give some examples, and present some basic properties.

By an algebra we shall mean an associative algebra over the field Φ . We will assume that the definitions of algebra, module, and ideal is well known. However we shall write some definitions and explain some basic properties of an algebra. An algebra \mathcal{A} is *simple*, if $\mathcal{A}^2 \neq 0$ and the only ideals of \mathcal{A} are 0 and \mathcal{A} . We say that an algebra \mathcal{A} is *prime* if the product of two nonzero ideals is nonzero. This is equivalent to the following implication: if $a\mathcal{A}b = 0$ for some $a, b \in \mathcal{A}$, it follows that either a = 0 or b = 0. The example of a prime algebra is $M_n(\mathbb{C})$, the algebra of all $n \times n$ complex matrices. The algebra is called *semiprime* if it has no nonzero nilpotent ideals (an ideal \mathcal{I} of an algebra \mathcal{A} is called *nilpotent*, if $\mathcal{I}^n = 0$ for some number $n \in \mathbb{N}$). This is equivalent to the property that $a\mathcal{A}a = 0$ for some $a \in \mathcal{A}$ implies that a = 0. Every prime algebra is semiprime algebra. It turns out that the converse is in general not true. Namely, if $0 \neq \mathcal{A}$ is prime algebra, then $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A}$ is semiprime algebra, which is not prime.

2 Superalgebras

Dear readers, in the following chapter we invite you to the world of superalgebras. We will introduce some basic definitions and present some examples of associative superalgebras.

A superalgebra is a \mathbb{Z}_2 -graded algebra. This means that there exist Φ submodules \mathcal{A}_0 and \mathcal{A}_1 of \mathcal{A} such that $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_0 \oplus \mathcal{A}_1$ and $\mathcal{A}_0 \mathcal{A}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{A}_0$ (that means \mathcal{A}_0 is a subalgebra of \mathcal{A}), $\mathcal{A}_0 \mathcal{A}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{A}_1$, $\mathcal{A}_1 \mathcal{A}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{A}_1$ and $\mathcal{A}_1 \mathcal{A}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{A}_0$. We say that \mathcal{A}_0 is the even, and \mathcal{A}_1 is the odd part of \mathcal{A} .

An associative superalgebra \mathcal{A} is an associative \mathbb{Z}_2 -graded algebra. We say that \mathcal{A} is a *trivial superalgebra*, if $\mathcal{A}_1 = 0$. If $a \in \mathcal{A}_k$, k = 0 or k = 1, then we say that a is homogeneous of degree k and we write |a| = k.

A graded Φ -submodule \mathcal{B} of an associative superalgebra \mathcal{A} is such submodule of an algebra \mathcal{A} that

 $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{A}_0 \oplus \mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{A}_1.$

In this case we write $\mathcal{B}_0 = \mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{A}_0$ and $\mathcal{B}_1 = \mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{A}_1$. That means $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{B}_0 \oplus \mathcal{B}_1$. If \mathcal{B} is a graded subalgebra of \mathcal{A} , than \mathcal{B} is also an associative superalgebra. A graded ideal (or superideal) \mathcal{I} of a superalgebra \mathcal{A} is an ideal of \mathcal{A} , which is also a graded Φ -submodule. That is $\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{I} \cap \mathcal{A}_0 \oplus \mathcal{I} \cap \mathcal{A}_1$ or $\mathcal{I} = \mathcal{I}_0 \oplus \mathcal{I}_1$.

Let us write something about the gradation. The natural question is how to make a decision about \mathbb{Z}_2 -gradation? Given an associative superalgebra $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_0 \oplus \mathcal{A}_1$, we define $\sigma : \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{A}$ by $(a_0 + a_1)^{\sigma} = a_0 - a_1$. Note that σ is an automorphism of \mathcal{A} such that $\sigma^2 = id$. Conversely, given an algebra \mathcal{A} and an automorphism σ of \mathcal{A} with $\sigma^2 = id$, \mathcal{A} then becomes a superalgebra by defining $\mathcal{A}_0 = \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid \sigma(a) = a\}$ and $\mathcal{A}_1 = \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid \sigma(a) = -a\}$ (indeed, any element $a \in \mathcal{A}$ can be written as $a = \frac{a+a^{\sigma}}{2} + \frac{a-a^{\sigma}}{2}$ and $\frac{a+a^{\sigma}}{2} \in \mathcal{A}_0$, $\frac{a-a^{\sigma}}{2} \in \mathcal{A}_1$). That is to say, the \mathbb{Z}_2 -grading can be characterized via the automorphism with square *id*.

A submodule \mathcal{B} of a superalgebra \mathcal{A} is graded if and only if $\mathcal{B}^{\sigma} = \mathcal{B}$. Let the center $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{A})$ of a superalgebra \mathcal{A} be the usual center of an algebra \mathcal{A} , that is $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{A}) = \{a \in \mathcal{A} \mid ab = ba \; \forall b \in \mathcal{A}\}$. The center is graded, since automorphism maps the center into itself. That means $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{A}) = \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{A})_0 \oplus \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{A})_1$.

In what follows we shall present some examples of associative superalgebras.

Example 2.1 Let \mathcal{A} be an algebra and let $c \in \mathcal{A}$ be an invertible element. Further, let σ be an automorphism of an algebra \mathcal{A} , which is defined by $x^{\sigma} = cxc^{-1}$ for all $x \in \mathcal{A}$. We see that $\sigma^2 = id$ if and only if $c^2 \in \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{A})$. It follows that $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_0 \oplus \mathcal{A}_1$ is a superalgebra, where $\mathcal{A}_0 = \{x \in \mathcal{A} \mid xc = cx\}$ and $\mathcal{A}_1 = \{x \in \mathcal{A} \mid xc = -cx\}$.

In particular, let $\mathcal{A} = M_{r+s}(\Phi)$ be an algebra of all $(r+s) \times (r+s)$ matrices over Φ , $r, s \in \mathbb{N}$. For the element c we can choose a matrix $\begin{bmatrix} I_r & 0\\ 0 & -I_s \end{bmatrix}$, where I_r is an identity matrix of $M_r(\Phi)$ and I_s is an identity matrix of $M_s(\Phi)$. Then the even and odd parts are given by

$$\mathcal{A}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} M_r(\Phi) & 0\\ 0 & M_s(\Phi) \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{in } \mathcal{A}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & M_{r,s}(\Phi)\\ M_{s,r}(\Phi) & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

where $M_{r,s}(\Phi)$ is the set of $r \times s$ matrices. This algebra is an associative superalgebra and it is usually written as M(r|s).

Example 2.2 Let A be an algebra over Φ and let $\mathcal{A} = A \times A$. Furthermore, let σ be an automorphism on \mathcal{A} , defined by $\sigma(a, b) = (b, a), a, b \in A$. Then we have $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_0 \oplus \mathcal{A}_1$, where the even part is written in the form $\mathcal{A}_0 = \{(a, a) \mid a \in A\}$ and the odd part in the form $\mathcal{A}_1 = \{(b, -b) \mid b \in A\}$. It turns out that $\mathcal{A} \cong \{ \begin{bmatrix} C & D \\ D & C \end{bmatrix} \mid C, D \in A \}$,

$$\mathcal{A}_0 \cong \{ \begin{bmatrix} C & 0 \\ 0 & C \end{bmatrix} \mid C \in A \} \text{ and } \mathcal{A}_1 \cong \{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & D \\ D & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mid D \in A \}.$$

In this case we say that the superalgebra \mathcal{A} is given by the exchange automorphism.

Example 2.3 Let $\mathcal{A} = Q(\alpha, \beta)$ be a 4-dimensional algebra over Φ with a base $\{1, uv, u, v\}$ and let the multiplication be defined as follows $u^2 = \alpha \in \Phi$, $v^2 = \beta \in \Phi$, uv = -vu. In particular \mathcal{A} is the algebra of quaternions over \mathbb{R} . Let us write $\mathcal{A}_0 = \Phi 1 + \Phi uv$ and $\mathcal{A}_1 = \Phi u + \Phi v$. Then it follows that $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_0 \oplus \mathcal{A}_1$ is an associative superalgebra which is called the superalgebra of quaternions.

Let us write some basic properties of associative superalgebras. An associative superalgebra \mathcal{A} is *simple*, if it has no proper nonzero graded ideals. The only graded ideals are 0 and the whole superalgebra \mathcal{A} . Note that this does not mean that the simple superalgebra is simple as an algebra. If the product of two nonzero graded ideals of a superalgebra \mathcal{A} is nonzero, the superalgebra \mathcal{A} is called a *prime-superalgebra*. The superalgebra \mathcal{A} is nonzero the superalgebra, if it has no nonzero nilpotent graded ideals. As noted in [1], this is equivalent to the condition that $a\mathcal{A}b = 0$, where a and b are any *homogeneous elements* in \mathcal{A} , implies a = 0 or b = 0. In fact, the same conclusion holds true if we assume that only one of these two elements, say b, is homogeneous.

Let \mathcal{A} be a prime-superalgebra. The natural question that appears is: are the algebras \mathcal{A} in \mathcal{A}_0 prime algebras as well? The next two examples show that this is not always true.

Example 2.4 Let A be a prime algebra over Φ and let $\mathcal{A} = A \times A$ be a superalgebra with gradation defined as in the example 2.2. This algebra is a prime-superalgebra (the product of any two nonzero graded ideals is nonzero), which is not a prime algebra, since $(0 \times A)(A \times 0) = 0$.

Example 2.5 The superalgebra M(r|s) is a prime-superalgebra. The sets

$$\mathcal{I} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} C & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mid C \in M_r(\mathbb{F}) \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{J} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & D \end{bmatrix} \mid D \in M_s(\mathbb{F}) \right\}$$

are nonzero ideals of an algebra $M(r|s)_0$ such that the product of them is zero. Thus, the algebra $M(r|s)_0$ is not a prime algebra.

The answer about the connection between prime-superalgebra (or semiprimesuperalgebra) \mathcal{A} and prime algebras (or semiprime algebras) \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{A}_0 is: if \mathcal{A} is an associative semiprime-superalgebra, then \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{A}_0 are also semiprime algebras. In case \mathcal{A} is an associative prime-superalgebra, then either \mathcal{A} is prime algebra or \mathcal{A}_0 is prime algebra. The proof of those results we can find in [13].

3 Conclusion

The natural question that appears is how to generalize some classical structures. Let us briefly describe the background. For example: let \mathcal{A} be an associative algebra. Introducing a new product in \mathcal{A} , the so called Jordan product $a \circ b = ab + ba$, \mathcal{A} becomes a Jordan algebra, usually written as \mathcal{A}^+ . The question is what is the connection between the structural properties of algebras \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{A}^+ (for example, every ideal of an algebra \mathcal{A} is an ideal of \mathcal{A}^+ , is the converse true?). Such questions were considered by Herstein in the 1950's (see [10]). He considered mainly simple algebras. Lately his theory was generalized. On this field a lot of papers were written by Lanski, Martindale, McCrimmon, Miers, Montgomery and many others. In the similar way we can introduce Jordan superalgebras. Again, the natural question is: what is the connection between the structure of superalgebras and Jordan superalgebras? We refer the reader to see for example [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 13].

At the end let us write that we can extent superalgebras to \mathcal{G} -graded algebras, where \mathcal{G} is an Abelian group. An algebra is \mathcal{G} -graded, if there exist subspaces $\mathcal{A}_g, g \in \mathcal{G}$, of \mathcal{A} , such that $\mathcal{A} = \bigoplus_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \mathcal{A}_g$ and $\mathcal{A}_g \mathcal{A}_h \subseteq \mathcal{A}_{gh}$ for all $g, h \in \mathcal{G}$. Superagebras are actually a special case of \mathcal{G} -graded algebras. In that case $\mathcal{G} = \mathbb{Z}_2$. In the field of \mathcal{G} -graded algebras we can also define structures such as modules, ideals, graded prime algebras, ... And therefore new natural problems appear.

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