

TEICHMÜLLER SPACES OF NONORIENTABLE 3-DIMENSIONAL FLAT MANIFOLDS

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ABSTRACT. The various deformation spaces associated with maximal geometric structures on closed oriented 3-manifolds was studied in [2], leaving out the geometry of \mathbb{R}^3 . In this paper, we study the Weil spaces and Teichmüller spaces of non-orientable 3-dimensional flat Riemannian manifolds. In particular, we find the Teichmüller spaces are homeomorphic to the Euclidean spaces \mathbb{R}^4 or \mathbb{R}^3 depending on the holonomy group \mathbb{Z}_2 or $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ respectively.

1. Introduction

The group of affine motions on the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n is $\text{Aff}(n) = \mathbb{R}^n \rtimes \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$.

The group law is

$$h(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{A}) \cdot (\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}),$$

and it acts on \mathbb{R}^n by

$$(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{a}$$

for $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{A}), (\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{B}) \in \text{Aff}(n)$ and $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ denote the group of isometries of \mathbb{R}^n . So

$$\text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n) = \mathbb{R}^n \rtimes \text{O}(n) \subset \text{Aff}(n),$$

where $\text{O}(n)$ is the n -dimensional orthogonal group. A subgroup π of $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is said to be *crystallographic* if π is compact and discrete. If a crystallographic group π is torsion free, we say π is a *Bieberbach*

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subgroup of $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$. If π is a Bieberbach subgroup of $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, then the quotient space \mathbb{R}^n/π is a Riemannian manifold of sectional curvature $\kappa = 0$. Conversely, a flat closed Riemannian manifold of dimension n is necessarily a quotient of \mathbb{R}^n by a Bieberbach subgroup of $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ [4].

The following Bieberbach's second theorem says that if two flat Riemannian manifolds are homotopy equivalent, then they are affinely diffeomorphic (see [3]).

THEOREM 1.1 (Bieberbach). *Two crystallographic groups are isomorphic if and only if they are conjugate by an element of the affine group.*

It is known that there are only 10 affine diffeomorphism classes of connected closed 3-dimensional flat manifolds. Six of them are orientable and the others are not. The authors studied the Weil spaces and Teichmüller spaces of the six orientable 3-dimensional flat Riemannian manifolds in [1]. In this paper, those of nonorientable case will be investigated. We use the notation \mathcal{I} for the isometry group $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^3)$ through this paper. So,

$$\mathcal{I} = \text{Isom}(\mathbb{R}^3) = \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \text{O}(3).$$

2. Preliminaries

For a Bieberbach group π , we define the space of discrete representations of π into \mathcal{I} , *the Weil space*, as follows:

$\mathcal{R}(\pi; \mathcal{I}) =$ the space of all injective homomorphisms θ of π into \mathcal{I} such that $\theta(\pi)$ is discrete in \mathcal{I} and $\mathcal{I}/\theta(\pi)$ is compact.

If $\theta, \theta' \in \mathcal{R}(\pi; \mathcal{I})$, then $\mathbb{R}^3/\theta(\pi)$ and $\mathbb{R}^3/\theta'(\pi)$ are affinely diffeomorphic. For $g \in \mathcal{I}$, $\mu(g)$ denotes the conjugation by g . The group $\mathbf{Inn}(\mathcal{I})$ of inner automorphisms of \mathcal{I} acts on the space $\mathcal{R}(\pi, \mathcal{I})$ from the left by

$$\mathbf{Inn}(\mathcal{I}) \times \mathcal{R}(\pi, \mathcal{I}) \rightarrow \mathcal{R}(\pi, \mathcal{I}).$$

$$(\mu(g), \theta) \longmapsto \mu(g) \circ \theta$$

The orbit space of this action is called the *Teichmüller space*. That is,

$$\mathcal{T}(\pi, \mathcal{I}) = \mathbf{Inn}(\mathcal{I}) \setminus \mathcal{R}(\pi, \mathcal{I}).$$

If θ and $\theta' \in \mathcal{R}(\pi, \mathcal{I})$ represent the same point in $\mathcal{T}(\pi, \mathcal{I})$, then $\theta' = \mu(g) \circ \theta$ for some $g \in \mathcal{I}$. This implies

$$g \cdot \theta(\alpha)(x) = (g \cdot \theta(\alpha) \cdot g^{-1}) \cdot g(x) = \theta'(\alpha) \cdot g(x) \sim g(x)$$

for all $\alpha \in \pi$. Thus an isometry g of \mathbb{R}^3 induces an isometry $\bar{g} : \mathbb{R}^3/\theta(\pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3/\theta'(\pi)$ for which the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R}^3 & \xrightarrow{g} & \mathbb{R}^3 \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \mathbb{R}^3/\theta(\pi) & \xrightarrow{\bar{g}} & \mathbb{R}^3/\theta'(\pi). \end{array}$$

The next theorem, which says that there are only four 3-dimensional nonorientable manifolds, is in [4]. For the convenience we restate here.

THEOREM 2.1. [4] *There are just 4 affine diffeomorphism classes of compact connected nonorientable flat 3-dimensional Riemannian manifolds. They are represented by the manifolds \mathbb{R}^3/π where π is one of the 4 groups \mathfrak{B}_i ($1 \leq i \leq 4$) given below. Here \mathbf{t}_1 , \mathbf{t}_2 and \mathbf{t}_3 are translations by \mathbf{a}_1 , \mathbf{a}_2 and \mathbf{a}_3 respectively, and $\Phi = \pi/\mathbb{Z}^3$ is the holonomy.*

(1) \mathfrak{B}_1 is generated by $\{\mathbf{t}_1, \mathbf{t}_2, \mathbf{t}_3, \epsilon\}$ where $\epsilon^2 = \mathbf{t}_1$, $\epsilon\mathbf{t}_2\epsilon^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_2$ and $\epsilon\mathbf{t}_3\epsilon^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_3^{-1}$; \mathbf{a}_1 and \mathbf{a}_2 are orthogonal to \mathbf{a}_3 while $\epsilon = (\mathbf{t}_{\mathbf{a}_1/2}, E)$ with $E(\mathbf{a}_1) = \mathbf{a}_1$, $E(\mathbf{a}_2) = \mathbf{a}_2$, $E(\mathbf{a}_3) = -\mathbf{a}_3$.

(2) \mathfrak{B}_2 is generated by $\{\mathbf{t}_1, \mathbf{t}_2, \mathbf{t}_3, \epsilon\}$ where $\epsilon^2 = \mathbf{t}_1$, $\epsilon\mathbf{t}_2\epsilon^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_2$ and $\epsilon\mathbf{t}_3\epsilon^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_1\mathbf{t}_2\mathbf{t}_3^{-1}$; the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{a}_3 on the $(\mathbf{a}_1\mathbf{a}_2)$ -plane is $\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{a}_2)$, and $\epsilon = (\mathbf{t}_{\mathbf{a}_1/2}, E)$ with $E(\mathbf{a}_1) = \mathbf{a}_1$, $E(\mathbf{a}_2) = \mathbf{a}_2$ and $E(\mathbf{a}_3) = \mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{a}_2 - \mathbf{a}_3$.

(3) \mathfrak{B}_3 is generated by $\{\mathbf{t}_1, \mathbf{t}_2, \mathbf{t}_3, \alpha, \epsilon\}$ where $\alpha^2 = \mathbf{t}_1, \epsilon^2 = \mathbf{t}_2, \epsilon\alpha\epsilon^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_2\alpha, \alpha\mathbf{t}_2\alpha^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_2^{-1}, \alpha\mathbf{t}_3\alpha^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_3, \epsilon\mathbf{t}_1\epsilon^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_1$ and $\epsilon\mathbf{t}_3\epsilon^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_3^{-1}$; The \mathbf{a}_i are mutually orthogonal and

$$\alpha = (\mathbf{t}_{\mathbf{a}_1/2}, A) \text{ with } A(\mathbf{a}_1) = \mathbf{a}_1, A(\mathbf{a}_2) = -\mathbf{a}_2, A(\mathbf{a}_3) = -\mathbf{a}_3,$$

$$\epsilon = (\mathbf{t}_{\mathbf{a}_2/2}, E) \text{ with } E(\mathbf{a}_1) = \mathbf{a}_1, E(\mathbf{a}_2) = \mathbf{a}_2, E(\mathbf{a}_3) = -\mathbf{a}_3.$$

(4) \mathfrak{B}_4 is generated by $\{\mathbf{t}_1, \mathbf{t}_2, \mathbf{t}_3, \alpha, \epsilon\}$ where $\alpha^2 = \mathbf{t}_1, \epsilon^2 = \mathbf{t}_2, \epsilon\alpha\epsilon^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_2\mathbf{t}_3\alpha, \alpha\mathbf{t}_2\alpha^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_2^{-1}, \alpha\mathbf{t}_3\alpha^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_3^{-1}, \epsilon\mathbf{t}_1\epsilon^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_1, \epsilon\mathbf{t}_3\epsilon^{-1} = \mathbf{t}_3^{-1}$; the \mathbf{a}_i are mutually orthogonal and

$$\alpha = (\mathbf{t}_{\mathbf{a}_1/2}, A) \text{ with } A(\mathbf{a}_1) = \mathbf{a}_1, A(\mathbf{a}_2) = -\mathbf{a}_2, A(\mathbf{a}_3) = -\mathbf{a}_3,$$

$$\epsilon = (\mathbf{t}_{(\mathbf{a}_2+\mathbf{a}_3)/2}, E) \text{ with } E(\mathbf{a}_1) = \mathbf{a}_1, E(\mathbf{a}_2) = \mathbf{a}_2, E(\mathbf{a}_3) = -\mathbf{a}_3.$$

Let $X = [\mathbf{x}_1 \ \mathbf{x}_2 \ \mathbf{x}_3]$ be a 3×3 matrix of which three column vectors are $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$ and \mathbf{x}_3 . The (i, j) -entry of the symmetric matrix $X^T X$ is the inner product $\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \rangle$ of two column vectors \mathbf{x}_i and \mathbf{x}_j of X . In this work the symmetric matrix $X^T X$ is useful because;

LEMMA 2.2. *Let A be an orthogonal matrix. For any invertible matrix X , the conjugate XAX^{-1} of A by X is orthogonal if and only if $X^T X$ and A are commutative.*

Proof. The fact that XAX^{-1} is orthogonal means $(XAX^{-1})(XAX^{-1})^T = I$, which is equivalent to $XA(X^T X)^{-1} = X^{-T}A$. Therefore XAX^{-1} is orthogonal if and only if

$$(X^T X)A = A(X^T X).$$

□

Consider a 3×3 non-singular matrix A . Let $\mathcal{X}(A)$ be the space consisting of 3×3 non-singular matrices by which the conjugates of A are orthogonal., i.e.,

$$\mathcal{X}(A) = \{X \in \text{GL}(3, \mathbb{R}) \mid XAX^{-1} \text{ is orthogonal} \}.$$

Note that $\mathcal{X}(A)$ is not a subgroup of $\text{GL}(3, \mathbb{R})$ but we are concerned with the topology on $\mathcal{X}(A)$.

LEMMA 2.3. *If two orthogonal matrices A and B are similar, then $\mathcal{X}(A)$ and $\mathcal{X}(B)$ are homeomorphic.*

Proof. Let P be the 3×3 invertible matrix, with $B = PAP^{-1}$. It is obvious that the correspondence from $X \in \mathcal{X}(A)$ to $XP^{-1} \in \mathcal{X}(B)$ is a homeomorphism. \square

3. Main Results

We start with looking at a notation of the topological space obtained from two subgroups H_1 and H_2 of G , i.e.,

$$H_1 \cdot H_2 = \{h_1 \cdot h_2 \mid h_1 \in H_1, \text{ and } h_2 \in H_2\}.$$

Note that $H_1 \cdot H_2$ need not be a subgroup but a subspace of G . Of course H_1 and H_2 may have a nontrivial subgroup in common.

A Bieberbach group π contains a unique maximal normal abelian subgroup \mathbb{Z}^3 , fitting the following commutative diagram of groups with exact rows

$$(3.1) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{Z}^3 & \longrightarrow & \pi & \longrightarrow & \Phi & \longrightarrow & 1 \\ & & \downarrow & & \theta \downarrow & & \downarrow & & \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{R}^3 & \longrightarrow & \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes O(3) & \longrightarrow & O(3) & \longrightarrow & 1, \end{array}$$

where Φ is called the *holonomy group* of π . It is a finite group and $\Phi \rightarrow O(3)$ is injective.

The following theorem says that two 3-dimensional Bieberbach groups with isomorphic holonomies yield the same Weil spaces.

THEOREM 3.1. *Let M be a 3-dimensional nonorientable flat manifold with $\pi_1(M) = \pi$. Then the Weil space $\mathcal{R}(\pi; \mathcal{I})$ is 8-dimensional. Specifically.*

(1) *If $\Phi = \mathbb{Z}_2$, then $\mathcal{R}(\pi; \mathcal{I}) = \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes (O(3) \cdot (GL(2, \mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{R}^*)) / (\mathbb{R}\mathbf{e}_1 \oplus \mathbb{R}\mathbf{e}_2) \rtimes \{1\}$,*

(2) *If $\Phi = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$, then $\mathcal{R}(\pi; \mathcal{I}) = \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes (O(3) \cdot (\mathbb{R}^*)^3) / \mathbb{R}\mathbf{e}_1 \rtimes \{1\}$.*

Proof. In each case there are four steps to obtain the Weil space

step 1 Find an embedding θ_0 of π into \mathcal{I} . As mentioned in Theorem 1.1, if θ_0 and θ are two embeddings of a Bieberbach group π into \mathcal{I} , then their images $\theta_0(\pi)$ and $\theta(\pi)$ are conjugate by an affine motion. That is, there exists an element $\xi \in \text{Aff}(3) = \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes GL(3, \mathbb{R})$ such that $\theta(\pi) = \xi \cdot \theta_0(\pi) \cdot \xi^{-1}$. So,

step 2 Find all members ξ of $\text{Aff}(\mathbb{R}^3)$ which conjugates $\theta_0(\pi)$ into \mathcal{I} . Note that this fact depends only on the matrix part of ξ . For a holonomy group $\Phi \subset O(3)$, let

$$\mathcal{X}(\Phi) = \{X \in GL(3, \mathbb{R}) \mid XAX^{-1} \text{ is orthogonal for all } A \in \Phi\}.$$

Observe that $\mathcal{X}(\Phi)$ does not have to be a group. But we need only its 'topological' structure. In fact, the space of all such $\xi \in \text{Aff}(\mathbb{R}^3)$ is

$$\{\xi \in \text{Aff}(3) \mid \theta(\pi) = \xi \cdot \theta_0(\pi) \cdot \xi^{-1}\} = \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi).$$

step 3 Find the centralizer $\mathcal{C}_{\text{Aff}(3)}(\theta_0(\pi))$ of $\theta_0(\pi)$ in the group $\text{Aff}(3)$. The action of Φ on \mathbb{Z}^3 is induced from the exactness of the top row of the above diagram (3.1). It is known that the centralizer $\mathcal{C}(\theta_0(\pi))$ is the fixed point set $(\mathbb{R}^3)^\Phi$ of the Φ action on \mathbb{R}^3 . It is a normal subgroup of $\mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi)$. For $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi)$ and $\zeta \in \mathcal{C}(\theta_0(\pi))$,

ξ and $\xi \cdot \zeta$ yield the same representation, because $\mu(\xi \cdot \zeta)(\theta_0(\alpha)) = \mu(\xi)\mu(\zeta)(\theta_0(\alpha)) = \mu(\xi)(\theta_0(\alpha))$.

step 4 Factor out $\mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi)$ by $\mathcal{C}(\theta_0(\pi)) = (\mathbb{R}^3)^\Phi$. The space of representations is thus the orbit space

$$\mathcal{R}(\pi; \mathcal{I}) = \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi) / (\mathbb{R}^3)^\Phi.$$

(1) Case of $\Phi = \mathbb{Z}_2$. Take the embedding $\theta_0 : \pi \rightarrow \mathcal{I}$ as a homomorphism defined by

$$\theta_0(\mathbf{t}_i) = (\mathbf{e}_i, I) \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq 2,$$

$$\theta_0(\epsilon) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{e}_1, E\right) \text{ where } E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

and if π is isomorphic to \mathfrak{B}_1 of Theorem 2.1 then

$$\theta_0(\mathbf{t}_3) = (\mathbf{e}_3, I),$$

and if π is isomorphic to \mathfrak{B}_2 of Theorem 2.1 then

$$\theta_0(\mathbf{t}_3) = \left(\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2) + \mathbf{e}_3, I\right).$$

The defining condition $X \in \mathcal{X}(\Phi)$ is $XAX^{-1} \in O(3)$. It is equivalent to $(X^T X)E = E(X^T X)$ by Lemma 2.2. This implies that the third column vector \mathbf{x}_3 of X is orthogonal to the other column vectors \mathbf{x}_1 and \mathbf{x}_2 of X . Hence the space

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{X}(\Phi) &= \{X = [\mathbf{x}_1 \ \mathbf{x}_2 \ \mathbf{x}_3] \in \text{GL}(3, \mathbb{R}) \mid \mathbf{x}_1 \perp \mathbf{x}_3 \text{ and } \mathbf{x}_2 \perp \mathbf{x}_3\} \\ &= O(3) \cdot \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} A & O \\ O & b \end{bmatrix} \mid A \in \text{GL}(2, \mathbb{R}) \text{ and } b \in \mathbb{R}^* \right\} \\ &= O(3) \cdot (\text{GL}(2, \mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{R}^*). \end{aligned}$$

where \mathbb{R}^* means the set of all non-zero real numbers. Note that a 3-dimensional space $O(3)$ and a 5-dimensional space $\text{GL}(2, \mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{R}^*$ intersects the common space $O(2) \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ which is 1-dimensional, and

$\mathcal{X}(\Phi)$ has 4-components. And so $O(3) \cdot (GL(2, \mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{R}^*)$ is 7-dimensional. A brief computation shows that the centralizer is given by

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbb{R}^3)^\Phi &= \{(\mathbf{c}, I) \in \text{Aff}(3) \mid \mathbf{c} = [* \ * \ 0]^T\} \\ &= \mathbb{R}\mathbf{e}_1 \oplus \mathbb{R}\mathbf{e}_2. \end{aligned}$$

This concludes the result (1).

(2) Case of $\Phi = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$. Let's take an embedding $\theta_0 : \pi \rightarrow \mathcal{I}$ as follows:

$$\theta_0(\mathbf{t}_i) = (\mathbf{e}_i, I) \quad (1 \leq i \leq 3),$$

$$\theta_0(\alpha) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{e}_1, A\right),$$

and if π is isomorphic to \mathfrak{B}_3 of Theorem 2.1 then

$$\theta_0(\epsilon) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{e}_2, E\right),$$

and if π is isomorphic to \mathfrak{B}_4 of Theorem 2.1 then

$$\theta_0(\epsilon) = \left(\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3), E\right),$$

where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$. We look for all

matrices X

such that XAX^{-1} and XEX^{-1} are orthogonal. It is equivalent to saying that $X^T X$ is diagonal. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{X}(\Phi) &= \{X \in GL(3, \mathbb{R}) \mid \mathbf{x}_i \perp \mathbf{x}_j \text{ if } i \neq j\} \\ &= O(3) \cdot (\mathbb{R}^*)^3. \end{aligned}$$

The 3-dimensional spaces $O(3)$ and $(\mathbb{R}^*)^3$ have intersection $(\mathbb{Z}_2)^3$, consisting of all diagonal matrices with entries ± 1 . Since this space is

0-dimensional, $\mathcal{X}(\Phi)$ is 6-dimensional. Clearly we get the centralizer

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbb{R}^3)^\Phi &= \{(\mathbf{c}, I) \in \text{Aff}(3) \mid \mathbf{c} = [* 0 0]^T\} \\ &= \mathbb{R}\mathbf{e}_1, \end{aligned}$$

and the Weil space

$$\mathcal{R}(\pi; \mathcal{I}) = \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes (\text{O}(3) \cdot (\mathbb{R}^*)^3) / \mathbb{R}\mathbf{e}_1 \rtimes \{I\}.$$

□

REMARK 0.1. *In each case of the above theorem, the (right) action of $(\mathbb{R}\mathbf{e}_1 \oplus \mathbb{R}\mathbf{e}_2) \rtimes \{I\} \cong \mathbb{R}^2$ or $\mathbb{R}\mathbf{e}_1 \rtimes \{I\} \cong \mathbb{R}$ on $\mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi)$ is twisted. In other words, one cannot write the orbit space as $(\mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi)) / \mathbb{R}^2 \rtimes \{I\} \approx \mathbb{R} \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi)$ or $(\mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi)) / \mathbb{R} \rtimes \{I\} \approx \mathbb{R}^2 \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi)$. However the action is free and proper so that the orbit space is a manifold.*

Finally we show that the Teichmüller space is homeomorphic to the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^4 or \mathbb{R}^3 depending on the holonomy group \mathbb{Z}_2 or $\mathbb{Z}^2 \times \mathbb{Z}^2$ respectively.

THEOREM 3.2. *Let M be a 3-dimensional nonorientable flat manifold with $\pi(M) = \pi$. Then the Teichmüller spaces are as follow:*

(1) *If $\Phi = \mathbb{Z}_2$, then $\mathcal{T}(\pi; \mathcal{I}) = (\text{O}(2) \setminus \text{GL}(2, \mathbb{R})) \times \mathbb{R}^+ \approx \mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}^+ \approx \mathbb{R}^4$.*

(2) *If $\Phi = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$, then $\mathcal{T}(\pi; \mathcal{I}) = (\mathbb{Z}_2)^3 \setminus (\mathbb{R}^*)^3 = (\mathbb{R}^+)^3 \approx \mathbb{R}^3$.*

Proof. The isometry group $\mathcal{I} = \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \text{O}(3)$ acts on $\mathcal{R}(\pi, \mathcal{I})$ on the left by conjugation, and the orbit space is the Teichmüller space of π . On the space $\mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \mathcal{X}(\Phi)$ level the action is just a multiplication from the left. From $\mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \{I\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3 \rtimes \text{O}(3)$, every orbit must contain whole \mathbb{R}^3 . Thus, the Teichmüller space is simply

$$\text{O}(3) \setminus \mathcal{X}(\Phi).$$

For a general fact, recall that $O(n)$ is a maximal compact subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$, and $O(n) \backslash GL(n, \mathbb{R}) \approx \mathbb{R}^{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}}$. Thus we have the following theorem. \square

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