I. INTRODUCTION

Understanding phases of matter is one of the central problems in condensed matter physics. Landau symmetry-breaking theory [1,2], as a systematic theory of phases and phase transitions, becomes a cornerstone of condensed matter theory. However, at zero temperature, the symmetry-breaking states described by local order parameters are basically direct product states. It is hard to believe that various direct product states can describe all possible quantum phases of matter.

Based on adiabatic evolution, one can show that gapped quantum phases at zero temperature correspond to the equivalence classes of local unitary (LU) transformations generated by finite-time evolutions of local Hermitian operators $H(t)$ [3–7]

$$|\Phi\rangle \sim |\Phi'\rangle \quad \text{iff} \quad |\Phi\rangle = e^{i \int dt H(t)} |\Phi\rangle. \quad (1)$$

It turns out that there are many gapped quantum states that cannot be transformed into direct product states through LU transformations. Those states are said to have a long-range entanglement. Thus, the equivalence classes of LU transformations, and hence the quantum phases of matter, are much richer than direct product states and much richer than what the symmetry-breaking theory can describe. Different patterns of long-range entanglement correspond to different quantum phases that are beyond the symmetry-breaking/order-parameter description [8] and direct-product-state description. The patterns of long-range entanglement really correspond to the topological orders [9,10] that describe the new kind of orders in quantum spin liquids and quantum Hall states [11–19].

In the absence of translation symmetry, the above LU transformation can be expressed as a quantum circuit, which corresponds to a discretized LU transformation. The discretized LU transformation is more convenient to use. The gapped quantum phases can be more effectively studied and even be classified through the discretized LU transformations [6,7,20–22].

After discovering more and more kinds of topological orders, it becomes important to gain a deeper understanding of topological order under a certain mathematical framework. We know that symmetry-breaking orders can be understood systematically under the mathematical framework of group theory. Can topological orders be also understood under some mathematical framework? From the systematic construction of topologically ordered states based on string nets [20] and the systematic description of non-Abelian statistics [23], it appears that tensor category theory may provide the underlying mathematical framework for topological orders [24].

However, the string-net and the LU transformation approaches [6,7,20] only provide a systematic understanding for topological orders in qubit systems (i.e., quantum spin systems or local boson systems). Fermion systems can also have nontrivial topological orders. In this paper, we will introduce a systematic theory for topological orders in interacting fermion systems (with interacting boson systems as special cases). Our approach is based on the LU transformations generated by local Hermitian operators that contain an even number of fermion operators. It allows us to classify and construct a large class of topological orders in fermion systems. The mathematical framework developed here may be related to the theory of enriched categories [25], which can be viewed as a generalization of the standard tensor category theory [26,27].

To gain a systematic understanding of topological order in fermion systems, we first need a way to label those fermionic topological orders. In this paper, we show that a large class of fermionic topological orders (which include bosonic topological orders as special cases) can be labeled by a set of tensors: $(N^{ij}_{k}, F_{k,\alpha\beta}, F^{ij\alpha\beta}_{m,\alpha\beta}, d_i)$. Certainly not every set of tensors corresponds to a valid fermionic topological order. We show that only the tensors that satisfy a set of nonlinear equations correspond to valid fermionic topological orders. The set of nonlinear equations obtained here is a generalization of the nonlinear equations (such as the pentagon identity) in a tensor category theory. So our approach is a generalization of tensor category theory and the string-net approach for bosonic topological orders. We would like to point out that the framework developed here not only leads to a classification of fermionic topological orders, but also leads to a more general classification of bosonic topological orders than the string-net and the related approaches [6,20].
From a set of the data \((A^{ij}_k, F^{ij}_k, E^{ijm}_{k,n,x}, d_i)\), we can obtain the parent Hamiltonian as a sum of projectors. We believe that the Hamiltonian is unfrustrated. Its zero-energy ground state realizes the fermionic/bosonic topological order described by the data.

In Sec. II, we give a careful discussion on what is a local fermion system. In Sec. III, we introduce fermionic local unitary transformations. We then use fermionic local unitary transformations to define quantum phases for local fermion systems and fermionic topological orders. In Sec. IV, we use fermionic local unitary transformations to define a wave-function renormalization flow for local fermion systems. In Sec. V, we discuss the fixed points of the wave-function renormalization flow for local fermion systems. In Appendix A, we use fermionic local unitary transformations to define quantum phases for local fermion systems. In Sec. VI, we comment on its relation to categorical framework. In Sec. VII, we give a few simple examples. In Appendix A, we discuss the definition of branching structure for a trivalent graph. In Appendix B, we first discuss the fermionic structure of the support space. We then derive the ideal Hamiltonian from the data that characterize the fermionic/bosonic topological orders.

II. LOCAL FERMION SYSTEMS

Local boson systems (i.e., local qubit systems) and local fermion systems have some fundamental differences. To reveal those differences, in this section, we are going to define local fermion systems. To contrast local fermion systems with local boson systems, let us first review the definition of local boson systems.

A. Local bosonic operators and bosonic states in a local boson model

A local boson quantum model is defined through its Hilbert space \(V\) and its local boson Hamiltonian \(H\). The Hilbert space \(V\) of a local boson quantum model has a structure \(V = \otimes V_i\) where \(V_i\) is the local Hilbert space on the site \(i\). A local bosonic operator is defined as an operator that acts within the local Hilbert space \(V_i\), or as a finite product of local bosonic operators acting on nearby sites. A local boson Hamiltonian \(H\) is a sum of local bosonic operators. The ground state of a local boson Hamiltonian \(H\) is called a bosonic state.

B. Local fermionic operators and fermionic states in a local fermion model

Now, let us try to define local fermion systems. A local fermion quantum model is also defined through its Hilbert space \(V\) and its local fermion Hamiltonian \(H_f\). First let us introduce fermion operator \(c^\alpha_i\) at site \(i\) as operators that satisfy the anticommutation relation

\[
\{c^\alpha_i, c^\beta_j\} = -\delta^\alpha_\beta c^\alpha_i c_j, \quad \{c^\alpha_i\}^\dagger = -\{c^\alpha_i\},
\]

for all \(i \neq j\) and all values of the \(\alpha, \beta\) indices. We also say \(c^\alpha_i\) acts on the site \(i\). The fermion Hilbert space \(V\) is the space generated by the fermion operators and their Hermitian conjugate

\[
V = \{[\{c^\alpha_i \}^\dagger, \ldots] | 0 \}.
\]

Due to the anticommutation relation (2), \(V\) has a form \(V = \otimes V_i\) where \(V_i\) is the local Hilbert space on the site \(i\). We see that the total Hilbert space of a fermion system has the same structure as a local boson system.

Using the Hilbert space \(V = \otimes V_i\), an explicit representation of the fermion operator \(c^\alpha_i\) can be obtained. First, each local Hilbert space can be split as \(V_i \equiv V_i^0 \oplus V_i^1\). We also choose an ordering of the site label \(i\). Then \(c^\alpha_i\) has the following matrix representation:

\[
c^\alpha_i = C_i^a \prod_{j < i} \Sigma^3_j, \quad C_i^a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & A_i^a \\ B_i^a & 0 \end{pmatrix},
\]

\[
\Sigma^3_j = \begin{pmatrix} I_{j}^0 & 0 \\ 0 & -I_{j}^1 \end{pmatrix},
\]

where \(I_{j}^0\) is the identity matrix acting in the space \(V_i^0\) and \(I_{j}^1\) is the identity matrix acting in the space \(V_i^1\). The matrix \(C_i^a\) maps a state in \(V_i^0\) to a state in \(V_i^1\), and vice versa. We note that

\[
C_i^a \Sigma^3_i = -\Sigma^3_i C_i^a.
\]

We see that a fermion operator is not a local bosonic operator. The product of an odd number of fermion operators and any number of local bosonic operators on nearby sites is called a local fermionic operator.

Let us write the eigenvalue of \(\Sigma^3_i\) as \((-)^{s_i}\). The states in \(V_i^0\) have \(s_i = 0\) and are called bosonic states. The states in \(V_i^1\) have \(s_i = 1\) and are called fermionic states. We can view \(s_i\) as the fermion number on site \(i\).

A local fermion Hamiltonian \(H_f\) is a sum of terms \(H = \sum_p O_p\), where \(\sum_p\) sums over a set of regions. Each term \(O_p\) is a product of an even number of local fermion operators and any number of local bosonic operators on a finite region \(P\). Such kinds of terms are called pseudolocal bosonic operators acting on the region. In other words, a local fermion Hamiltonian is a sum of pseudolocal bosonic operators. The ground state of a local fermion Hamiltonian \(H_f\) is called a fermionic state.

Note that, beyond one dimension, a pseudolocal bosonic operator is in general not a local bosonic operator. So a local fermion Hamiltonian \(H_f\) (beyond one dimension) in general is not a local boson Hamiltonian defined in the last subsection. In this sense, a local boson system and a local fermion system are fundamentally different despite the fact that they have the same Hilbert space. When viewed as a boson system, a local fermion Hamiltonian corresponds to a nonlocal boson Hamiltonian (beyond one dimension). Thus classifying the quantum phases of local fermion systems corresponds to classifying the quantum phases of a particular kind of nonlocal boson systems.

III. FERMIONIC LOCAL UNITARY TRANSFORMATION AND TOPOLOGICAL PHASES OF FERMION SYSTEMS

Similar to the local boson systems, the finite-time evolution generated by a local fermion Hamiltonian defines an equivalence relation between gapped fermionic states

\[
|\psi(1)\rangle \sim |\psi(0)\rangle \quad \text{iff} \quad |\psi(1)\rangle = T \{ e^{\int_0^1 dg R_i(g)} |\psi(0)\rangle \},
\]

where \(T\) is a spacetime translation.
where $T$ is the path-ordering operator and $H(g) = \sum_i O_i(g)$ is a local fermion Hamiltonian [i.e., $O_i(g)$ is a pseudolocal bosonic operator which is a product of even local fermionic operators]. We will call $T[e^{i \int_{\mathbb{R}}^m dg \tilde{H}_f(g)}]$ a fermion local unitary (fLU) evolution. We believe that the equivalence classes of such an equivalence relation are the universality classes of the gapped quantum phases of fermion systems.

The finite-time fLU evolution introduced here is closely related to fermion quantum circuits with finite depth. To define fermion quantum circuits, let us introduce piecewise fermion local unitary operators. A piecewise fermion local unitary operator has a form $U_{\text{pwl}} = \prod_i e^{i H_f(i)}$, where $\{H_f(i)\}$ is a Hermitian operator which is a pseudolocal bosonic operator that acts on a region labeled by $i$. Note that regions labeled by different $i$’s are not overlapping, $U_i = e^{i H_f(i)}$ is called a fermion unitary operator. The size of each region is less than some finite number $l$. The unitary operator $U_{\text{pwl}}$ defined in this way is called a fermion piece-wise local unitary operator with range $l$. A fermion quantum circuit with depth $M$ is given by the product of $M$ fermion piece-wise local unitary operators $U_{\text{pwl}}^M = U_{\text{pwl}}^{(1)} U_{\text{pwl}}^{(2)} \cdots U_{\text{pwl}}^{(M)}$. We believe that finite time fLU evolution can be simulated with a constant depth fermion quantum circuit and vice versa. Therefore, the equivalence relation Eq. (6) can be equivalently stated in terms of constant depth fermion quantum circuits

$$|\psi(1)\rangle \sim |\psi(0)\rangle \quad \text{iff} \quad |\phi(1)\rangle = U_{\text{cinc}}^M |\phi(0)\rangle,$$

where $M$ is a constant independent of system size. Because of their equivalence, we will use the term “fermion local unitary transformation” to refer to both the fermion local unitary evolution and constant depth fermion quantum circuit in general.

Just like boson systems, the equivalence classes of fermionic local unitary transformations correspond to the universality classes that define phases of matter. Since here we do not include any symmetry, the equivalence classes actually correspond to topologically ordered phases. Such topologically ordered phases will be called fermionic topologically ordered phases.

**IV. FERMIONIC LOCAL UNITARY TRANSFORMATION AND WAVE FUNCTION RENORMALIZATION**

After defining the fermionic topological orders as the equivalence classes of many-body wave functions under fLU transformations, we would like to use the fLU transformations, or more precisely the generalized fermion local unitary (gfLU) transformation, to define a wave-function renormalization procedure. The wave-function renormalization can remove the nonuniversal short-range entanglement and make generic complicated wave functions flow to some very simple fixed-point wave functions. The simple fixed-point wave functions can help us to classify fermionic topological orders.

Let us first define the gfLU transformation $U_g$ more carefully. Consider a state $|\psi\rangle$. Let $\rho_A$ be the entanglement density matrix of $|\psi\rangle$ in region $A$. $\rho_A$ may act in a subspace of the Hilbert space in region $A$. The subspace is called the support space $\tilde{V}_A$ of region $A$ [see Fig. 1(a)]. Let $|\phi_i\rangle$ be a basis of this support space $\tilde{V}_A$, and $|\phi_i\rangle$ be a basis of the full Hilbert space $V_A$ of region $A$. The gfLU transformation $U_g$ is the projection from the full Hilbert space $V_A$ to the support space $\tilde{V}_A$. So up to some unitary transformations, $U_g$ is a Hermitian projection operator

$$U_g = U_1 P_g U_2, \quad P_g^2 = P_g, \quad P_g^1 = P_g,$$

$$U_1 U_1 = 1, \quad U_2 U_2 = 1.$$

The matrix elements of $U_g$ are given by $\langle \phi_i | \phi_j \rangle$. We will call such a gfLU transformation a primitive gfLU transformation. A generic gfLU transformation is a product of several primitive gfLU transformations which may contain several Hermitian projectors and unitary transformations, for example, $U_g = U_1 P_g U_2 P_g U_3$.

To understand the fermionic structure of $U_g$, we note that the support space $\tilde{V}_A$ has a structure $\tilde{V}_A = \tilde{V}_{A}^0 \oplus \tilde{V}_{A}^1$ (see Appendix B1), where $\tilde{V}_{A}^0$ has even numbers of fermions and $\tilde{V}_{A}^1$ has odd numbers of fermions. This means that $U_g$ contains only even numbers of fermionic operators (i.e., $U_g$ is a pseudolocal bosonic operator).

We also regard the inverse of $U_g$, $U_g^+$, as a gfLU transformation. An fLU transformation is viewed as a special case of gfLU transformations where the degrees of freedom are not changed. Clearly $U_1 U_2 = P$ and $U_1 U_1^+ = P^?$ are two Hermitian projectors. The action of $P$ does not change the state $|\psi\rangle$ [see Fig. 1(b)]. Thus despite the degrees of freedom that can be reduced under the gfLU transformations, no quantum information of the state $|\psi\rangle$ is lost under the gfLU transformations.

We note that the gfLU transformations can map one wave function to another wave function with fewer degrees of freedom. Thus it can be viewed as a wave-function renormalization group flow. If the wave-function renormalization leads to fixed-point wave functions, those fixed-point wave functions can be much simpler, which can provide an efficient or even one-to-one labeling scheme of fermionic topological orders.
V. WAVE-FUNCTION RENORMALIZATION 
AND A CLASSIFICATION OF FERMIONIC TOPOLOGICAL ORDERS

As an application of the above fermionic wave-function renormalization, in this section, we will study the structure of fixed-point wave functions under the wave-function renormalization. This will lead to a classification of fermionic topological orders.

A. Quantum state on a graph

Since the wave-function renormalization may change the lattice structure, we will consider quantum state defined on a generic trivalent graph $G$. The graph has a branching structure as described by Appendix A: Each edge has an orientation and each vertex has two incoming or one incoming edges. Each edge has $N + 1$ states, labeled by $i = 0, \ldots, N$. Each vertex also has physical states. The number of the states depends on the states on the connected edges and they are labeled by $\alpha = 1, \ldots, N^{ij}_k$ or $\beta = 1, \ldots, N^{ij}_k$ for vertices with two incoming(outgoing) and one outgoing(incoming) edges. (see Fig. 2).

Despite the similar look between $\alpha$ index and $\beta$ index, the two indices are very different. $\alpha$ index labels the vertices while $\beta$ index labels the state on a vertex. In this paper, we very often use $\alpha$ to label states on vertex $\alpha$.

The states on the edge are always bosonic. However, the states on the vertices may be fermionic. We introduce, for example, $F_{ij}^k$ to indicate the number of fermionic states on the vertex: $\alpha = 1, \ldots, N^{ij}_k$ or $\beta = 1, \ldots, N^{ij}_k$ for vertices with two incoming(outgoing) and one outgoing(incoming) edges. Here

$$B_{ij}^k = N_{ij}^k - F_{ij}^k$$

is the number of bosonic states on the vertex. Similarly, we can introduce $N_{ij}^k$ and $F_{ij}^k$ to indicate the number of states and fermionic states on vertices with one incoming edge and two outgoing edges. In this paper, we will assume that

$$N_{ij}^k = N_{ij}^k, \quad B_{ij}^k = B_{ij}^k, \quad F_{ij}^k = F_{ij}^k, \quad \text{(10)}$$

as required by unitarity.

We introduce $s_{ij}^k(\alpha)$ to indicate whether a vertex state labeled by $\alpha$ is bosonic or fermionic: $s_{ij}^k(\alpha) = 0$ if the $\alpha$ state is bosonic and $s_{ij}^k(\alpha) = 1$ if the $\alpha$ state is fermionic. Here the vertex connects to three edges $i, j,$ and $k$ (see Fig. 2). Each graph with a given $\alpha, \beta, \ldots, i, j, \ldots$, labeling (see Fig. 2) corresponds to a state and all such labeled graphs form an orthonormal basis. Our fixed-point state is a superposition of those basis states

$$|\psi_{\text{fix}}\rangle = \sum_{\text{all conf.}} \psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \text{graph 1} \\ \text{graph 2} \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}. \quad \text{(11)}$$

In the string-net approach, we make a very strong assumption that the above graphic states on two graphs are the same if the two graphs have the same topology. However, since different vertices and edges are really distinct, a generic graph state does not have such an topological invariance. To consider more general states, in this paper, we would like to weaken such a topological requirement. We will consider vertex-labeled graphs (v-graphs) where each vertex is assigned an index $\alpha$. Two v-graphs are said to be topologically the same if one graph can be continuously deformed into the other in such a way that the vertex labeling of the two graphs matches. In this paper, we will consider the graph states that depend only on the topology of the v-graphs. Those states are more general than the graph states that depend only on the topology of the graphs without vertex labeling. Such a generalization is important in obtaining interesting fermionic fixed-point states on graphs.

B. Structure of a fixed-point wave function

Before describing the wave-function renormalization, we examine the structure of entanglement of a fixed-point wave function $\psi_{\text{fix}}$ on a v-graph. First let us introduce the concept of support space with a fixed boundary state.

We examine the wave function on a patch, for example, $\text{Fig. 2.}$ (Color online) The lattice is a graph (described by the blue lines) with branching structure. The black lines describe the dual lattice. The state on the vertices are labeled by $i, j, k, m, n = 0, \ldots, N$. The state on the vertices are labeled by $\alpha, \beta$. The vertices are labeled by $\alpha, \beta$. The $\alpha$ vertex has two incoming edges and $\alpha$ has a range $\alpha = 1, \ldots, N^{ij}_k$. The $\beta$ vertex has two outgoing edges and $\beta$ has a range $\beta = 1, \ldots, N^{ij}_k$.

The fixed-point wave function $\psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \text{graph 1} \\ \text{graph 2} \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$ (only the relevant part of the graph is drawn) can be viewed as a function of $\alpha, \beta, m$: $\phi_{ijkl}^{\Gamma}(\alpha, \beta, m) = \psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \text{graph 1} \\ \text{graph 2} \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$ if we fix $i, j, k, l$, and the indices on the other part of the graph. (Here the indices on the other part of the graph are summarized by $\Gamma$.). As we vary the indices $\Gamma$ on the other part of the graph (still fixed $i, j, k, l$), the wave function of $\alpha, \beta, m, \phi_{ijkl}^{\Gamma}$, may change. All those $\phi_{ijkl}^{\Gamma}$ form a linear space of dimension $D_{i}^{jk}$. $D_{ij}^{jk}$ is an important concept that will appear later. We note that the two vertices $\alpha$ and $\beta$ and the edge $m$ form a region surrounded by the edges $i, j, k, l$. So we will call the dimension-$D_{ij}^{jk}$ space the support space $V_{ij}^{jk}$ and $D_{ij}^{jk}$ the support dimension for the state $\psi_{\text{fix}}$ on the region surrounded by a fixed boundary state $i, j, k, l$. 

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We note that in the fixed-point wave function \( \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \), the number of choices of \( \alpha, \beta, m \) is \( N_{ij}^{jk} = \sum_{m=0}^N N_{ijm} N_{lm}^m \). Thus the support dimension \( D_{ij}^{jk} \) satisfies \( D_{ij}^{jk} \leq N_{ij}^{jk} \). Here we will make an important assumption—the saturation assumption: The fixed-point wave function saturates the inequality

\[
D_{ij}^{jk} = N_{ij}^{jk} \equiv \sum_{m=0}^N N_{ijm} N_{lm}^m. \tag{12}
\]

In general, we will make the similar saturation assumption for any tree graphs. We will see that the entanglement structure described by such a saturation assumption is invariant under the wave-function renormalization.

Similarly, we can define \( D^k_i \) as the support dimension of the \( \Phi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k) \) on a region bounded by links \( i, j, k \). Since the region contains only a single vertex \( \chi \), we have \( D^k_i \leq N_i^{ij} \). The saturation assumption requires that

\[
D^k_i = N_i^{ij}. \tag{13}
\]

In fact, this is how \( N_i^{ij} \) is defined.

We note that under the saturation assumption, the structure of the support dimensions for tree graphs is encoded in the \( N_i^{ij} \) tensor. Here \( N_i^{ij} \) plays a similar role as the pattern of zeros in a classification of fractional quantum Hall wave functions [28].

\[\text{C. First type of wave-function renormalization: F-move}\]

Our wave-function renormalization scheme contains two types of renormalization. The first type of renormalization does not change the degrees of freedom and corresponds to a local unitary transformation. It corresponds to locally deforming the v-graph \( i \to j \) to \( k \). (The parts that are not drawn are the same.) The fixed-point wave function on the new v-graph is given by \( \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \). Again, such a wave function can be viewed as a function of \( \chi, \delta, n; \phi_{ijkl, r}(\chi, \delta, n) = \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \) if we fix \( i, j, k, l \), and the indices on the other part of the graph. The support dimension of the state \( \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \) on the region surrounded by \( i, j, k, l \) is \( \tilde{D}_{ij}^{jk} \). Again \( \tilde{D}_{ij}^{jk} \leq \tilde{N}_{ij}^{jk} \), where \( \tilde{N}_{ij}^{jk} = \sum_{m=0}^N N_{ijm}^{jk} N_{ljm}^m \) are the number of choices of \( \chi, \delta, n \). The saturation assumption implies that \( \tilde{N}_{ij}^{jk} = \tilde{D}_{ij}^{jk} \).

The two fixed-point wave functions \( \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \) and \( \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \) are related via a local unitary transformation. Thus

\[
D_{ij}^{jk} = D_{ij}^{jk}, \tag{14}
\]

which implies

\[
\sum_{m=0}^N N_{ijm}^{jk} N_{ljm}^m = \sum_{n=0}^N N_{jin}^{kn} N_{nij}^k. \tag{15}
\]

We note that the support space of \( \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \) and \( \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \) should have the same number of fermionic states. Thus Eq. (15) can be split as

\[
\sum_{m=0}^N B_{ijm}^{jk} B_{ljm}^m = \sum_{n=0}^N B_{ijn}^{kn} F_{nj}^{in}, \tag{16}
\]

\[
\sum_{m=0}^N B_{ijm}^{jk} F_{ljm}^m + F_{ijn} = \sum_{n=0}^N B_{ijn}^{kn} F_{nj}^{in} + F_{nj}^{in}. \tag{17}
\]

We express the above unitary transformation in terms of the tensor \( F_{kmn}^{ijkl} \), where \( i, j, k, l, \ldots, = 0,\ldots,N \), and \( \alpha = 1, \ldots, N_i^k \), and so on,

\[
\phi_{ijkl, r}(\alpha, \beta, m) \simeq \sum_{n=0}^N \sum_{\chi=1}^N \sum_{\delta=1}^N F_{kmn}^{ijkl} \phi_{ijkl, r}(\chi, \delta, n), \tag{18}
\]

or graphically as

\[
\psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \simeq \sum_{n, \chi, \delta} \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l). \tag{19}
\]

where the vertices carrying the states labeled by \( (\alpha, \beta, \chi, \delta) \) are labeled by \( (\alpha, \beta, \chi, \delta) \) (see Fig. 2). Here \( \simeq \) means equal up to a constant phase factor. (Note that the total phase of the wave function is unphysical.) We will call such a wave function renormalization step an F-move.

There is a subtlety in Eq. (19). Since some values of \( \alpha, \beta, \ldots \), indices correspond to fermionic states, the sign of the wave function depends on how those fermionic states are ordered. In Eq. (19), the wave functions \( \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \) and \( \psi_{\text{fix}}(i,j,k,l) \) are obtained by assuming the fermionic states are ordered in a
particular way:

\[
\psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \frac{i}{m} \beta \frac{j}{l} \right) = \sum \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) \left| \alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots \right\rangle \alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots.
\]

\[
\psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) = \sum \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\chi \delta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) \left| \chi \delta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots \right\rangle \chi \delta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots.
\]

where \( \sum \) runs over all the indices on the vertices and edges. \( \eta_1 \) are indices on other vertices. Here \( |\alpha\beta\eta_1\cdots\rangle \) is a graph state where the \( \alpha \) vertex is in the \( |\alpha\rangle \) state, the \( \beta \) vertex is in the \( |\beta\rangle \) state and so on. We note that \( |\beta\alpha\eta_1\cdots\rangle \) is also a graph state where the \( \alpha \) vertex is in the \( |\alpha\rangle \) state, the \( \beta \) vertex is in the \( |\beta\rangle \) state. But if the \( |\alpha\rangle \) state and the \( |\beta\rangle \) state are fermionic (i.e., \( s_0^{l_\alpha}(\alpha) = s_0^{l_\beta}(\beta) = 1 \)), \( |\alpha\beta\eta_1\cdots\rangle \) is a graph state, and \( |\beta\alpha\eta_1\cdots\rangle \) is a graph state, which will differ by a sign since in \( |\alpha\beta\eta_1\cdots\rangle \), the fermion on the \( \beta \) vertex is created before the fermion on the \( \alpha \) vertex is created, while in \( |\beta\alpha\eta_1\cdots\rangle \), the fermion on the \( \alpha \) vertex is created before the fermion on the \( \beta \) vertex is created. In general we have

\[
|\alpha\beta\eta_1\cdots\rangle = (-1)^{\nu(\alpha)\nu(\beta)}|\beta\alpha\eta_1\cdots\rangle,
\]

We see that subscript \( \alpha \beta \), ..., is important to properly describe such an order dependent sign. Similarly, we must add the superscript in the wave function as well, as in \( \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) \), since the amplitude of the wave function depends on both the labeled graph \( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \) and the ordering of the vertices \( \alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots \). Such a wave function has the following sign dependence:

\[
\psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) = (-1)^{s_0^{l_\alpha}(\alpha)s_0^{l_\beta}(\beta)} \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right).
\]

Thus Eq. (19) should be more properly written as

\[
\psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) \approx \sum_{\eta_3 \eta_4} \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\chi \delta \eta_3 \eta_4 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right),
\]

where the superscripts \( \alpha \beta \), ..., and \( \chi \delta \), ..., describing the order of fermionic states are added in the wave function.

Since the sign of the wave function depends on the ordering of fermionic states, the \( F \) tensor may also depend on the ordering. In this paper, we choose a particular ordering of fermionic states to define the \( F \) tensor as described by \( \bar{\alpha} \bar{\beta} \), ..., and \( \bar{\chi} \bar{\delta} \), ..., in Eq. (23). In such a canonical ordering, we create a fermion on the \( \beta \) vertex before we create a fermion on the \( \alpha \) vertex. Similarly, we create a fermion on the \( \delta \) vertex before we create a fermion on the \( \chi \) vertex.

We have seen that, to describe a given fermionic state, the fermionic wave function \( \psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) \) depends on the order of the fermions on the graph. Different choices of fermion orders lead to different fermionic wave functions even for the same fermionic state. To avoid such order dependence of the fermionic wave function (even for the same fermionic state), in the following, we would like to introduce one Majorana number \( \theta_\alpha \) on each vertex \( \alpha \) to rewrite a wave function that does not depend on the ordering of fermionic states on vertices.

The Majorana numbers satisfy

\[
\theta_\alpha^2 = 1, \quad \theta_\alpha \theta_\beta = -\theta_\beta \theta_\alpha \quad \text{for any } \alpha \neq \beta,
\]

\[
\theta_\alpha^1 = \theta_\alpha, \quad (\theta_\alpha \theta_\beta \theta_\gamma) = \theta_\alpha \theta_\beta \theta_\gamma.
\]

We introduce the following wave function with Majorana numbers:

\[
\psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) = \left[ \theta_\alpha^{s_0^{l_\alpha}(\alpha)} \theta_\beta^{s_0^{l_\beta}(\beta)} \cdots \right] \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right)
\]

\[
\psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) = \left[ \theta_\alpha^{s_0^{l_\alpha}(\alpha)} \theta_\beta^{s_0^{l_\beta}(\beta)} \cdots \right] \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right)
\]

where the order of the Majorana numbers \( (\theta_\alpha \theta_\beta \theta_\gamma) \) is tied to the order \( \alpha \beta \gamma \). The superscript \( (\theta_\alpha \theta_\beta \theta_\gamma) \) does not depend on the order of the fermionic states, and this is why the Majorana wave function \( \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \) does not carry the superscript \( (\theta \bar{\alpha} \bar{\beta} \cdots) \).

We would like to mention that \( \theta \xi \gamma \) are treated as different Majorana numbers even when, for example, \( \alpha \) and \( \chi \) take the same value. This is because \( \alpha \) and \( \chi \) label different vertices regardless if \( \alpha \) and \( \chi \) have the same value or not. So a more accurate notation should be

\[
\psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) = \left[ \theta_\alpha^{s_0^{l_\alpha}(\alpha)} \theta_\gamma^{s_0^{l_\gamma}(\gamma)} \cdots \right] \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right)
\]

\[
\psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right) = \left[ \theta_\alpha^{s_0^{l_\alpha}(\alpha)} \theta_\gamma^{s_0^{l_\gamma}(\gamma)} \cdots \right] \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta_1 \eta_2 \cdots} \left( \frac{i}{m} \frac{j}{l} \right)
\]

where \( \theta_\alpha \) and \( \theta_\gamma \) are different even when \( \alpha = \chi \). But in this paper, we will drop the \( \bar{\theta} \) and hope that it will not cause any confusion.
Let us introduce the $F$ tensor with Majorana numbers
\[ F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta} \equiv \theta_{l\alpha}^{\rho_{\alpha}}(\rho_{\beta}^{\rho_{\beta}}(\rho_{\beta}^{\beta})\theta_{m\alpha}^{\alpha}(\chi) F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta} \]  
We can rewrite Eq. (23) as
\[ \psi_{\text{fix}}(i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}) \approx \sum_{m_{\alpha}\beta} \mathcal{F}_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta} \psi_{\text{fix}}(i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}) \]  
Such an expression is valid for any ordering of the fermion states.

From the graphic representation (23), We note that
\[ F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta} = 0 \] when
\[ N_{ij}^{m} < 1 \text{ or } N_{ij}^{m} = 1 \text{ or } N_{ij}^{m} = 2 \] or
\[ s_{i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}}^{\alpha} (\alpha) + s_{i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}}^{\beta} (\beta) = s_{i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}}^{\gamma} (\gamma) + s_{i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}}^{\epsilon} (\epsilon) + 1 \mod 2. \]

When $N_{ij}^{m} < 1$, the left-hand side of Eq. (23) is always zero. Thus $F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta} = 0$ when $N_{ij}^{m} < 1$. When $N_{ij}^{m} < 1$, wave function on the right-hand side of Eq. (23) is always zero. So we can choose $F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta} = 0$ when $N_{ij}^{m} < 1$. Also, $F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta}$ represents a pseudolocal bosonic operator which contains even number of fermionic operators. Therefore $F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta}$ is nonzero only when
\[ \phi_{i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}}^{\alpha} (\alpha) + \phi_{i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}}^{\beta} (\beta) = \phi_{i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}}^{\gamma} (\gamma) + \phi_{i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}}^{\epsilon} (\epsilon) + 1 \mod 2. \]

For fixed $i, j, k, l$, and $m$, the matrix $F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta}$ with matrix elements ($F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta}$) is a matrix of dimension $N_{ij}^{m}$ [see Eq. (15)]. Here we require the mapping $\phi_{ijm,\alpha\beta}(\chi, \delta, n) \rightarrow \phi_{ijm,\alpha\beta}(\chi, \delta, n)$ generated by the matrix $F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta}$ to be unitary. Since, as we change $\Gamma$, $\phi_{ijm,\alpha\beta}(\chi, \delta, n)$ and $\phi_{ijm,\alpha\beta}(\chi, \delta, n)$ span two $N_{ij}^{m}$ dimensional spaces. Thus we require $F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta}$ to be an $N_{ij}^{m}$ $\times$ $N_{ij}^{m}$ unitary matrix
\[ \sum_{n_{\epsilon\gamma}} F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta}(F_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta})^{*} = \delta_{m_{\alpha\beta}}, \delta_{\epsilon\gamma}. \]
In this way, the F-move represents an fLU transformation. It is easy to see that the unitarity condition implies
\[ \psi_{\text{fix}}(i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}) \approx \sum_{m_{\alpha\beta}} \mathcal{F}_{klm,\alpha\beta}^{ijm,\alpha\beta} \psi_{\text{fix}}(i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}). \]

The F-move (28) can be viewed as a relationship between wave functions on different v-graphs that only differ by a local transformation. Since we can locally transform one v-graph to another v-graph through different paths, the F-move (28) must satisfy certain self-consistent conditions. For example, the v-graph $\chi \rightarrow \psi_{\text{fix}}$ can be transformed through two different paths; one contains two steps of local transformations and another contains three steps of local transformations as described by Eq. (28). The two paths lead to the following relations between the wave functions:

\[ \psi_{\text{fix}}(i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}) \approx \sum_{q_{\beta\epsilon}} \mathcal{F}_{1pq,\alpha\gamma}^{mn,\beta\epsilon} \psi_{\text{fix}}(i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}) \]
\[ \approx \sum_{q_{\beta\epsilon}} \mathcal{F}_{1pq,\alpha\gamma}^{mn,\beta\epsilon} \mathcal{F}_{1pq,\alpha\gamma}^{mn,\beta\epsilon} \psi_{\text{fix}}(i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}}). \]

The consistence of the above two relations leads to a condition on the $F$ tensor.

To obtain such a condition, let us fix $i, j, k, l, p$, and view $\psi_{\text{fix}}(i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}})$ as a function of $\alpha, \beta, \chi, m, n$: $\phi(\alpha, \beta, \chi, m, n) = \psi_{\text{fix}}(i_{\alpha j_{k}^{m}_{l}})$. As we vary indices on the other part of graph, we obtain different wave functions $\phi(\alpha, \beta, \chi, m, n)$ which form a dimension $D_{ijkl}^{m}$ space. In other words, $D_{ijkl}^{m}$ is the support dimension of the state $\psi_{\text{fix}}$ on the region $\alpha, \beta, \chi, m, n$ with boundary.
state $i,j,k,l,p$ (see the discussion in Sec. V B). Since the number of choices of $\alpha, \beta, \chi, m,n$ is $N_{ijkl}^{ijkl} = \sum_{m,n} N_{ij}^{ij} N_{mk}^{mk} N_{nl}^{nl}$, we have $N_{ij}^{ij} \leq N_{ij}^{ijkl}$. Here we require a similar saturation condition as in Eq. (12)

$$N_{ijkl}^{ijkl} = D_p^{ijkl}. \quad (34)$$

Similarly, the number of choices of $\delta, \phi, \gamma, q, s, \epsilon$ in

$$\psi_{\text{fix}} \left( i, j, k, l, p \right)$$

is also $N_{ijkl}^{ijkl}$. Here we again assume

$$D_p^{ijkl} = N_{ijkl}^{ijkl},$$

where $D_p^{ijkl}$ is the support dimension of

$$\psi_{\text{fix}} \left( i, j, k, l, p \right)$$

on the region bounded by $i,j,k,l,p$.

So the two relations (33) and (32) can be viewed as two relations between a pair of vectors in the two $D_p^{ijkl}$-dimensional vector spaces. As we vary indices on the other part of graph (still keeping $i,j,k,l,p$ fixed), each vector in the pair can span the full $D_p^{ijkl}$-dimensional vector space. So the validity of the two relations (33) and (32) implies that

$$\sum_{t} \sum_{\eta} \sum_{\kappa} N_{ij}^{ij} N_{kl}^{kl} F_{ijm,\alpha\beta}^{\epsilon} F_{klp,\gamma\delta}^{\epsilon} F_{jk,\alpha\beta}^{\epsilon} F_{lj,\gamma\delta}^{\epsilon} = 1$$

which is the fermionic generalization of the famous pentagon identity. The above expression actually contains many different pentagon identities, one for each labeling scheme of the vertices in

$$\begin{array}{c}
\begin{array}{cccc}
i & j & k & l \\
p & p & p & p \\
\end{array}
\end{array}$$

and

$$\begin{array}{c}
\begin{array}{cccc}
i & j & k & l \\
p & p & p & p \\
\end{array}
\end{array}$$

We obtain

$$\sum_{t} \sum_{\eta} \sum_{\kappa} N_{ij}^{ij} N_{kl}^{kl} F_{ijm,\alpha\beta}^{\epsilon} F_{klp,\gamma\delta}^{\epsilon} F_{jk,\alpha\beta}^{\epsilon} F_{lj,\gamma\delta}^{\epsilon} = 1$$

The above fermionic pentagon identity (38) is a set of nonlinear equations satisfied by the rank-10 tensor $F_{ijklm,ab}^{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta}$. The above consistency relations (38) are equivalent to the requirement that the local unitary transformations described by Eq. (28) on different paths all commute with each other up to a total phase factor.

### D. Second type of wave-function renormalization: O-move

The second type of wave-function renormalization does change the degrees of freedom and corresponds to a generalized local unitary transformation. One way to implement the second type of renormalization is to reduce $\sum_{i}^{N_{ij}}$ to $\sum_{i}^{1}$, so that we still have a trivalent graph. This requires that the support dimension $D_i$ of the fixed-point wave function $\psi_{\text{fix}}(i)$ is given by

$$D_i = \delta_{ii'}.$$

This implies that

$$\psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \begin{array}{c}
i \\
i'
\end{array} \right) = \delta_{ii'} \psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \begin{array}{c}
i \\
i'
\end{array} \right).$$

The second type of renormalization can now be written as (since $D_i = 1$)

$$\psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \begin{array}{c}
i \\
i'
\end{array} \right) \simeq O_i^{jk,\alpha\beta}(\psi_{\text{fix}}(ij)) \cdot \left( \begin{array}{c}
i \\
i'
\end{array} \right). \quad (41)$$

where the ordering of the vertices is described by $a \beta n \eta \ldots$. We will call such a wave-function renormalization step an O-move. Here $O_i^{jk,\alpha\beta}$ satisfies

$$\sum_{k,j} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N_i^{ij}} \sum_{\beta=1}^{N_i^{ij}} O_i^{jk,\alpha\beta}(O_i^{jk,\alpha\beta})^* = 1 \quad (42)$$

and

$$O_i^{jk,\alpha\beta} = 0, \text{ if } N_i^{ij} < 1 \text{ or } s_i^{jk}(\alpha) + s_i^{jk}(\beta) = 1 \mod 2 \quad (43)$$

The condition (42) ensures that the two wave functions on the two sides of Eq. (41) have the same normalization. We note that the number of choices for the four indices $(j,k,\alpha,\beta)$ in $O_i^{jk,\alpha\beta}$ must be equal or greater than 1

$$D_i = \sum_{jk} (N_i^{ij})^2 \geq 1. \quad (44)$$

In fact, we should have a stronger condition: The number of choices for the four indices $(j,k,\alpha,\beta)$ that correspond to
bosonic states must be equal to or greater than 1
\[ D_i = \sum_{jk} (B_{jk}^i)^2 + (K_{jk}^i)^2 \geq 1. \] (45)

The wave functions in Eq. (41) are defined with respect to the ordering of the fermionic states described by \( \alpha \beta \eta, \ldots \). Let us introduce
\[
\Psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j_k \\ k \end{array} \right) = \left[ \theta_{\alpha \beta}^{i,j_k} \theta_{\alpha \beta}^{j_k,k} \theta_{\alpha \beta}^{k,j} \ldots \right] \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta, \ldots} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j_k \\ k \end{array} \right),
\]
\[
\Psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j_k \end{array} \right) = \left[ \theta_{\alpha \beta}^{i,j} \ldots \right] \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta, \ldots} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j \end{array} \right)
\]
(46)

and
\[
O_{i,j,k,\alpha \beta}^{k,\alpha \beta} = \theta_{\alpha \beta}^{i,j} \theta_{\alpha \beta}^{j,k} O_{i,j,k,\alpha \beta}.
\] (47)

We can rewrite Eq. (41) as
\[
\Psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j_k \\ k \end{array} \right) \simeq O_{i,j,k,\alpha \beta}^{i,j,k,\alpha \beta} \Psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j_k \\ k \end{array} \right)
\]
(48)
which is valid for any ordering of the fermionic states.

E. Third type of wave-function renormalization: Y-move

The third type of wave-function renormalization also changes the degrees of freedom. The support space of \( i,j \) is one dimensional, while the support space of \( k \sum_k N_{ij}^k \) is \( \sum_k (N_{ij}^k)^2 \) dimensional. So the wave function \( \Psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j_k \end{array} \right) \) is a particular vector in the support space of \( i,j,k \). Thus, the third type of wave-function renormalization takes the following form:
\[
\sum_{k,\alpha \beta} Y_{i,j,k,\alpha \beta} \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta, \ldots} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j \end{array} \right) \simeq \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta, \ldots} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j \end{array} \right)
\]
(49)
where the ordering of the vertices is described by \( \alpha \beta \eta, \ldots \). We will call such a wave-function-renormalization step a Y-move. We can choose
\[
Y_{i,j,k,\alpha \beta} = 0, \quad \text{if } N_{ij}^k < 1 \text{ or } s_k^i(\alpha) + s_k^j(\beta) = 1 \mod 2.
\] (50)

The wave functions in Eq. (49) are defined with respect to the ordering of the fermionic states described by \( \alpha \beta \eta, \ldots \). Let us introduce
\[
\Psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j \end{array} \right) = \left[ \theta_{\alpha \beta}^{i,j} \ldots \right] \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta, \ldots} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j \end{array} \right),
\]
\[
\Psi_{\text{fix}} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j \end{array} \right) = \left[ \theta_{\alpha \beta}^{i,j} \ldots \right] \psi_{\text{fix}}^{\alpha \beta \eta, \ldots} \left( \begin{array}{c} i \\ j \end{array} \right)
\]
(51)

and
\[
Y_{i,j,k,\alpha \beta} = \theta_{\alpha \beta}^{i,j} \theta_{\alpha \beta}^{j,k} Y_{i,j,k,\alpha \beta}.
\] (52)
We can rewrite Eq. (49) as

$$
\sum_{k,\alpha,\beta} \gamma^{ij}_{k,\alpha,\beta} \Psi_{\text{fix}} (i, k) \simeq \Psi_{\text{fix}} (i) \tag{53}
$$

which is valid for any ordering of the fermionic states.

**F. Relation between \( O_{ij}^{K,ab} \) and \( \gamma^{ij}_{k,ab} \)**

We find that the following wave function has two ways of reduction:

$$
\sum_{\beta, \gamma} \gamma^{jk}_{i,\beta,\gamma} \Psi_{\text{fix}} (j, \gamma) \simeq \Psi_{\text{fix}} (i) \tag{54}
$$

$$
\simeq \sum_{\beta, \gamma} \gamma^{jk}_{i,\beta,\gamma} O_{i,\gamma,\alpha} \Psi_{\text{fix}} (i) \tag{55}
$$

The two reductions should agree, which leads to the condition

$$
O_{i,\gamma,\alpha} = \sum_{\beta, \gamma} \gamma^{jk}_{i,\beta,\gamma} O_{i,\gamma,\alpha} \tag{56}
$$

**G. “Gauge” freedom**

We note that the following transformation changes the wave function, but does not change the fixed-point property and the phase described by the wave function

$$
\Psi_{\text{fix}} (i, k) \rightarrow \sum_{\beta} f^{ij}_{k,\beta} \Psi_{\text{fix}} (i, k) \tag{57}
$$

where \( f^{ij}_{k,\beta} \) is a unitary matrix

$$
\sum_{\beta} f^{ij}_{k,\beta} (f^{ij}_{k,\beta})^{*} = \delta_{\alpha\alpha'} \tag{58}
$$

Similarly, we have a unitary transformation \( f^{ij}_{k,\beta} \) for vertices with two incoming edges and one outgoing edge. Such transformations correspond to a choice of basis and should be regarded as an equivalent relation.

The above transformation induces the following transformation on \((f^{ij}_{k,\alpha,\beta}, O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab})\):

$$
O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} \rightarrow f_{i,k,\alpha}^{j,k,\beta} O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} \tag{59}
$$

$$
\gamma^{ij}_{k,\alpha,\beta} \rightarrow (f_{k,\alpha}^{ij,\alpha})^{*} \gamma^{ij}_{k,\alpha,\beta} \tag{59}
$$

$$
F_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} \rightarrow f_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} \tag{59}
$$

We can use the above “gauge” degree of freedom to choose

$$
O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} = O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} \delta_{\alpha\beta}, \quad O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} \geq 0 \tag{60}
$$

\( O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} \) is chosen to be a real number.

Then Eq. (56) implies that \( \gamma^{ij}_{k,\alpha,\beta} \simeq 1/O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} \), and we can choose the phase of \( \gamma^{ij}_{k,\alpha,\beta} \) to make

$$
\gamma^{ij}_{k,\alpha,\beta} = 1/O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} \tag{61}
$$

**H. Dual F-move and a relation between \( O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} \) and \( F_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} \)**

We also find another wave function that can have two ways of reduction as well:

$$
\Psi_{\text{fix}} (i, k) \rightarrow \sum_{\beta, \gamma} f^{jk}_{i,\beta,\gamma} \Psi_{\text{fix}} (i) \tag{62}
$$

$$
\simeq \sum_{\beta, \gamma} f^{jk}_{i,\beta,\gamma} O_{i,\gamma,\alpha} \Psi_{\text{fix}} (i) \tag{63}
$$

$$
\simeq \sum_{\beta, \gamma} f^{jk}_{i,\beta,\gamma} O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} \Psi_{\text{fix}} (i) \tag{64}
$$

All the edges have a canonical orientation from up to down, and \( F_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} \), the dual so-called F-move, can be expressed as

$$
F_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} = \delta_{\alpha\alpha'} \delta^{km}(\gamma) \delta^{lp}(m) \delta^{\mu\tau}(l) F_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} \tag{65}
$$

This allows us to obtain another condition

$$
F_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} = F_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} (O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab})^{-1} \tag{66}
$$

We require \( F_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} \) to be unitary, which leads to

$$
\sum_{\mu, \tau} (F_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab})^{*} F_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{jm,ab} O_{i,\gamma,\alpha}^{k,ab} \tag{67}
$$

$$
= \delta_{\alpha\alpha'} \delta^{km}(\gamma) \delta^{lp}(m) \delta^{\mu\tau}(l) \tag{68}
$$
or
\[ \sum_{\mu \tau} \left( \frac{F_{jkl,\mu \tau}^{jkl,\mu \tau} \ast F_{jkl,\mu \tau}^{jkl,\mu \tau}}{O_{i}^{jlm,\rho \sigma}} \right)^{2} = \frac{\delta_{\rho \sigma} \delta_{\chi \chi^{'}} \delta_{\omega \omega}}{O_{p}^{jlm,\rho \sigma} O_{i}^{jlm,\rho \sigma}}. \]  
(66)

The above condition can be satisfied by the following ansatz
\[ O_{k}^{jlm,\rho \sigma} = \frac{d_{i} d_{j}}{D d_{k} d_{l}}, \quad D = \sum d_{i}^{2}, \quad d_{i} > 0, \]  
(67)

where \( d_{i}^{j} = 1 \) for \( N_{i}^{j} > 0 \) and \( d_{i}^{j} = 0 \) for \( N_{i}^{j} = 0 \). From Eq. (42), we find that \( d_{i} \) satisfies
\[ \sum_{ij} d_{i} d_{j} N_{i}^{j} = d_{i} D, \quad D = \sum d_{i}^{2}. \]  
(68)

The solution of such an equation gives us the quantum dimension \( d_{i} \).

I. H-move and an additional constraint between \( O_{i}^{jlm,\rho \sigma} \) and \( F_{jln,\chi \delta} \)

Let us consider a new type of move — the \( H \)-move.

\[ \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ m \\ k \\ l \end{pmatrix} \simeq \sum_{n,\chi,\delta} H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ m \\ k \\ l \end{pmatrix}. \]  
(69)

Again, we use the convention that all vertices have a canonical ordering from up to down. Similar to the \( F \)-move, \( H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \) can be expressed as
\[ H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} = \theta_{\alpha}^{i}(\omega) \theta_{\beta}^{i}(\rho) \theta_{\gamma}^{i}(\chi) \theta_{\delta}^{i}(\chi^{'}) H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta}. \]  
(70)

In the following, we will show how to compute the coefficients \( H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \) from \( F_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \) and \( d_{i} \).

First, by applying the Y-move, we have
\[ \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ m \\ k \\ l \end{pmatrix} \simeq \sum_{n,\chi,\delta} H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ m \\ k \\ l \end{pmatrix}. \]  
(71)

Next, by applying an inverse \( F \)-move, we obtain
\[ \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ m \\ k \\ l \end{pmatrix} \simeq \sum_{\alpha^{'},\beta^{'}, \chi^{'}} F_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ m \\ k \\ l \end{pmatrix}. \]  
(72)

Finally, by applying the O-move, we end up with
\[ \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} i \\ k \\ m \\ l \end{pmatrix} \simeq O_{i}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \delta_{\chi \chi^{'}} \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} i \\ k \\ m \\ l \end{pmatrix}. \]  
(73)

All together, we find
\[ H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} = \sum_{\alpha^{'},\beta^{'}, \chi^{'}} F_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \ast O_{i}^{kim,\alpha \beta}. \]  
(74)

Under the proper gauge choice Eq. (60), we can further express the coefficients \( H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \) as
\[ H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} = (F_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta})^{*} O_{i}^{kim,\alpha \beta}. \]  
(75)

The unitarity condition for \( H \)-move requires that
\[ \sum_{n,\chi,\delta} F_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} O_{i}^{kim,\alpha \beta} = \delta_{\alpha \alpha'} \delta_{\beta \beta'} \delta_{\chi \chi'} (O_{i}^{kim,\alpha \beta})^{2}. \]  
(76)

With the special ansatz Eq. (67), we can further simplify the above expressions as
\[ H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} = \sqrt{d_{i} d_{l}} (F_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta})^{*}. \]  
(77)

and
\[ \sum_{n,\chi,\delta} d_{i} d_{l} F_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} (O_{i}^{kim,\alpha \beta})^{2} = \delta_{\alpha \alpha'} \delta_{\beta \beta'} (O_{i}^{kim,\alpha \beta})^{2}. \]  
(78)

Similarly, we can also construct the dual-\( H \) move
\[ \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} i \\ k \\ m \\ l \end{pmatrix} \simeq \sum_{n,\chi,\delta} H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} i \\ k \\ m \\ l \end{pmatrix}. \]  
(79)

and we can express \( H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \) as
\[ H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} = \theta_{\alpha}^{i}(\omega) \theta_{\beta}^{i}(\rho) \theta_{\gamma}^{i}(\chi) \theta_{\delta}^{i}(\chi^{'}) H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta}, \]  
(80)

where the coefficients \( H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \) can be expressed as
\[ H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} = Y_{\chi,\delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} O_{i}^{im,\beta}. \]  
(81)

Again, with the special ansatz Eq. (67), we have
\[ H_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta} \equiv \frac{d_{i} d_{l}}{d_{k} d_{l}} F_{jln,\chi \delta}^{kim,\alpha \beta}. \]  
(82)

It is easy to see that the unitarity condition for dual \( H \)-move is automatically satisfied if the \( H \)-move is unitary.
To provide a conceptual understanding of our generalization of string-net model, we discuss briefly the categorical picture which underlies earlier algebraic manipulations. Such a mathematical framework will provide more examples for our fermionic string-net Hamiltonians in Appendix B 2.

A string-net or Levin-Wen Hamiltonian can be easily constructed using $6j$ symbols from a unitary fusion category $\mathcal{C}$. The elementary excitations of the model form a unitary modular tensor category (UMTC) $\mathcal{E}$, which turns out to be the quantum double $Z(\mathcal{C})$ of the input category $\mathcal{C}$. A priori, the output modular category $\mathcal{E}$ is not necessarily related to the input category $\mathcal{C}$. Therefore, it is conceivable that similar Hamiltonians can be constructed from some other algebraic data where the elementary excitations still form a UMTC, which is not necessarily a quantum double. This is explored in Ref. [6]. In the preceding sections, we generalize the string-net model by including fermionic degrees of freedom.

The mathematical framework for such a generalization is the theory of enriched categories [25]. An enriched category is actually not a category, just like a quantum group is not a group. We will consider only special enriched categories, which we call projective super fusion categories. The ordinary unitary fusion categories are enriched categories over the category of Hilbert spaces, while projective super fusion categories are enriched categories over the category of super Hilbert spaces up to projective even unitary transformations.

To the physically inclined readers, the use of category theory in condensed matter physics seems to be unjustifiably abstract. We would argue that the abstractness of category theory is actually its virtue. Topological properties of quantum systems are independent of the microscopic details and are nonlocal. A framework to encode such properties is necessarily blind to microscopic specifics. Therefore, philosophically, category theory could be extremely relevant, as we believe.

### A. Projective supertensor category

We use supervector spaces to accommodate fermionic states, and generalize the composition of linear transformations to one only up to overall phases—a possibility allowed by quantum mechanics. The projective tensor category of vector spaces is the category of vector spaces and linear transformations composed up to overall phases, and the category of supervector spaces is the tensor category of $Z_2$-graded vector spaces and all even linear transformations.

In the categorical language, a fusion category is a rigid finite linear category with a simple unit. Equivalently, it can be defined using $6j$ symbols: An equivalence class of solutions of pentagons satisfying certain normalizations [27]. Fermionic $6j$ symbols $F^{ijm,ab}_{kln,\gamma\delta}$ in Eq. (28) with certain normalizations define a projective super fusion category if they satisfy fermionic pentagon equations Eq. (35). However, the setup used in this paper may only generate a subclass of projective super fusion category.

### B. Supertensor category from superquantum groups

The trivial example of a supertensor category is the category of $Z_2$-graded vector spaces and all linear transformations.
More interesting examples of supertensor categories can be constructed from the representation theory of superquantum groups.

Superquantum groups are deformations of Lie superalgebras \([31,32]\). Though a mathematical theory analogous to quantum group exists, the details have not been worked out enough for our application here. In the literature, the categorical formulation focuses on the invariant spaces of even entwiners, while for our purpose, we need to consider all entwiners. In particular, we are not aware of work on a finite group exists, the details have not been worked out enough for our application here. In the literature, the categorical formulation focuses on the invariant spaces of even entwiners, while for our purpose, we need to consider all entwiners. In particular, we are not aware of work on majorana-valued Clebsch-Gordon coefficients, therefore, we will leave the details to future publications.

VII. SIMPLE SOLUTIONS OF THE FIXED-POINT CONDITIONS

In this section, let us discuss some simple solutions of the fixed-point conditions \(83\), \(84\), \(85\), and \(86\) for the fixed-point sfLU transformations \((N_{ij}^{[1]}), F_{ij}^{[1]}, F_{kl}^{[1], \alpha \beta}, d_i)\).

A. Solutions from group cohomology

Many bosonic solutions can be constructed from a finite group \(G\). Here we treat the edge index \(i, j, k, \ldots\), as elements in the group: \(i, j, k \in G\) with group multiplications \(i \cdot j \in G\). We choose the fusion coefficient as

\[
N_{ij}^{[1]} = \begin{cases} 
1, & \text{if } i \cdot j = k, \\
0, & \text{if } i \cdot j \neq k, 
\end{cases}
\]

(87)

Since \(N_{ij}^{[1]} = 0, 1\), we can drop the indices \(\alpha, \beta\) on vertices. \(F_{kl}^{[1], \alpha \beta}\) that satisfies Eq. \(84\) is given by

\[
F_{kl}^{[1]} = \omega_3(i, j, k)N_{m}^{ij}N_{n}^{jk}N_{l}^{in}.
\]

(88)

where \(\omega_3(i, j, k)\) is the three-cocycle in the group cohomology class \(H^3(G, U(1))\) [33,34]. In this case, the self-consistent condition Eq. \(84\) for the \(F\) tensor becomes the cocycle condition for \(\omega_3(i, j, k)\):

\[
\omega_3(i, j, k)\omega_3(i, j, k, l)\omega_3(j, k, l) = \omega_3(i \cdot j, k, l)\omega_3(i, j, k, l).
\]

(89)

where \(d_i\) that satisfies Eq. \(85\) is given by

\[
d_i = 1.
\]

(90)

Such a solution describes a fermionic gauge theory in 2 + 1D, e.g., the recently proposed fermionic toric code [38].

B. Solutions from group supercohomology

Similarly, many fermionic solutions can be constructed from a finite group \(G\). Again we treat the edge index \(i, j, k, \ldots\), as elements in the group: \(i, j, k \in G\) with group multiplications \(i \cdot j \in G\). We choose the same fusion coefficient \(N_{ij}^{[1]}\) as for bosonic solutions, but with nonzero \(F_{k}^{[1]}\):

\[
N_{ij}^{[1]} = \begin{cases} 
1, & \text{if } i \cdot j = k, \\
0, & \text{if } i \cdot j \neq k, 
\end{cases}
\]

\[
F_{k}^{[1]} = n_2(i, j)N_{ij}^{[1]} \neq 0,
\]

(91)

where \(n_2(i, j) \in \mathbb{Z}_2\) valued on 0,1 is two-cocycle on the obstruction free subgroup of group cohomology class \(B^3[G, Z_2]\). By obstruction free, we mean that for any \(n_2(i, j)\) satisfying the two-cocycle condition

\[
n_2(i, j) + n_2(i \cdot j, k) = n_2(i, j \cdot k) + n_2(j, k),
\]

(92)

the following \pm 1-valued function

\[
(-)^{n_2(i, j)n_2(k, l)},
\]

(93)

must be a coboundary in \(B^3[G, U(1)]\) when we view it as a fourcocycle with the \(U(1)\) coefficient. Each element in \(B^3[G, Z_2]\) becomes a valid \(Z_2\)-graded structure for fermion systems.

On the other hand, since \(N_{ij}^{[1]} = 0, 1\), we can again drop the indices \(\alpha, \beta\) on vertices. \(F_{kl}^{[1], \alpha \beta}\) that satisfies Eq. \(84\) is given by

\[
F_{kl}^{[1]} = \omega_3(i, j, k)N_{m}^{ij}N_{n}^{jk}N_{l}^{in}.
\]

(94)

where \(\omega_3(i, j, k)\) is the three-supercocycle in the group supercohomology class \(H^3[G, U(1)]\) [33,34], which satisfies

\[
\omega_3(i, j, k)\omega_3(i, j, k, l)\omega_3(j, k, l) = (-)^{n_2(i, j)n_2(k, l)}\omega_3(i \cdot j, k, l)\omega_3(i, j, k, l).
\]

(95)

Again \(d_i\) that satisfies Eq. \(85\) is given by

\[
d_i = 1.
\]

(96)

Such a solution describes a fermionic gauge theory in 2 + 1D, e.g., the recently proposed fermionic toric code [38].

VIII. SUMMARY

Using string-net condensations and LU transformations (or in other words, unitary fusion category theory), we have obtained a classification of 2 + 1D topological orders with gappable edge in bosonic systems [6,20]. An interacting fermionic system is a nonlocal bosonic system. So classifying topological orders in fermion systems appears to be a very difficult problem.

In this paper, we introduce fLU and gfLU transformations, which allow us to develop a general theory for a large class of fermionic topological orders. We propose that 2 + 1D topological orders with gappable edge in fermionic systems can be classified by the data \((N_{ij}^{[1]}, F_{kl}^{[1]}, F_{kl}^{[1], \alpha \beta}, d_i)\) that satisfy a set of nonlinear algebraic equations \(83\), \(84\), \(85\), and \(86\). Such a result generalizes the string-net result [6,20] to fermionic cases. We hope our approach will be a starting point for establishing a mathematical framework for topological orders in interacting fermion systems.

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For a fermion system, the Hilbert space on a site, \( V_i \), has a structure: \( V_i = V_i^0 \oplus V_i^1 \), where the states in \( V_i^0 \) have even numbers of fermions and states in \( V_i^1 \) have odd numbers of fermions. The Hilbert space on the region \( A, V_A \), has a similar structure \( V_A = V_A^0 \oplus V_A^1 \), where states in \( V_A^0 \) have even number of fermions and states in \( V_A^1 \) have odd numbers of fermions. Let \( |\phi_{i,\alpha}⟩ \) be a basis of \( V_A^0 \). Similarly, the Hilbert space on the region outside of \( A, V_A \), also has a structure \( V_A^0 = V_A^0 \oplus V_A^1 \).

Let \(|\phi_{i,\alpha}⟩\) be a basis of \( V_A^0 \). In this case, \(|\psi⟩\) can be expanded as

\[
|\psi⟩ = \sum_{i,\alpha,\beta} C_{i,\alpha,\beta} |\phi_{i,\alpha}⟩ \otimes |\bar{\phi}_{i,\beta}⟩. \tag{B3}
\]

the matrix elements of \( \rho_A \) can now be expressed as

\[
(\rho_A)_{i,\alpha,j,\beta} = \sum_{\gamma,\delta} C_{i,\alpha,\gamma}^* C_{j,\beta,\gamma} \tag{B4}
\]

Since the fermion number mod 2 is conserved, we may assume that \( |\psi⟩ \) contains even numbers of fermions. This means \( C_{i,\alpha,\gamma} = 0 \) when \( \alpha + \gamma = 1 \) mod 2. Hence, we find that

\[
(\rho_A)_{i,\alpha,j,\beta} = 0, \quad \text{when } \alpha + \beta = 1 \text{ mod } 2. \tag{B5}
\]

Such a density matrix tells us that the support space \( \tilde{V}_A \) has a structure \( \tilde{V}_A = \tilde{V}_A^0 \oplus \tilde{V}_A^1 \), where \( \tilde{V}_A^0 \) has even numbers of fermions and \( \tilde{V}_A^1 \) has odd numbers of fermions. This means that \( U_g \) contains only even numbers of fermionic operators (i.e., \( U_g \) is a pseudolocal bosonic operator).

2. Compute the parent Hamiltonian

In Sec. V, we have constructed the fixed-point wave functions from the solutions \((N_i^0, E_i^0, F_{ijm,\alpha,\beta,\gamma}^0)\) of the self-consistent conditions. In this section, we will show that those fixed-point wave functions on a honeycomb lattice (see Fig. 4) are an exact gapped ground state of a local Hamiltonian

\[
\hat{H} = \sum_v (1 - \tilde{Q}_v) + \sum_p (1 - \tilde{B}_p), \tag{B6}
\]

where \( \sum_v \) sums over all vertices and \( \sum_p \) sums over all hexagons.

The Hamiltonian \( \hat{H} \) should act on the Hilbert space \( V_G \) formed by all the graph states. It turns out that it is more convenient to write down the Hamiltonian if we expand the Hilbert space by adding an auxiliary qubit to each vertex

\[
V_G^{ext} = V_G \otimes (\otimes_v V_{qubit}). \tag{B7}
\]

FIG. 4. A honeycomb lattice. The vertices are labeled by \( v \), hexagons by \( p \), and links by \( l \).
where $\otimes_v$ goes over all vertices and $V_{\text{qubit}}$ is the two-dimensional Hilbert space of an auxiliary qubit $|I\rangle$, $I=0,1$. So in the expanded Hilbert space $V_G^\alpha$, the states on a vertex $v$ are labeled by $|\alpha\rangle \otimes |I\rangle$, $I=0,1$. $V_G$ is embedded into $V_G^\alpha$ in the following way: Each vertex state $|\alpha\rangle$ in $V_G$ correspond to the following vertex state $|\alpha\rangle \otimes |\delta_{ij}(\alpha)\rangle$ in $V_G^\alpha$, where we assume that the states on the three links connecting to the vertex are $|i\rangle, |j\rangle, |k\rangle$. So the new auxiliary qubit $|I\rangle$ on a vertex is completely determined by $(i,j,k,\alpha)$ and does not represent an independent degree of freedom. It just tracks if the vertex state is bosonic or fermionic. The $|0\rangle$ state corresponds to bosonic vertex states and the $|1\rangle$ state corresponds to fermionic vertex states.

In the expanded Hilbert space, $\hat{Q}_v$ in $\hat{H}$ acts on the states on the three links that connect to the vertex $v$ and on the states $|\alpha\rangle \otimes |I\rangle$ on the vertex $v$:

$$\hat{Q}_v \begin{pmatrix} i^{\alpha} \psi \nu \\ k \end{pmatrix} \otimes |I\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} i^{\alpha} \psi \nu \\ k \end{pmatrix} \otimes |I\rangle \quad \text{if } N^{ij}_k > 0, \quad I = s^{ij}_k(\alpha),$$

$$\hat{Q}_v \begin{pmatrix} i^{\alpha} \psi \nu \\ k \end{pmatrix} \otimes |I\rangle = 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (B8)

Clearly, $\hat{Q}_v$ is a projector $\hat{Q}_v^2 = \hat{Q}_v$. The $\hat{B}_p$ operator in $\hat{H}$ acts on the states on the six links and the six vertices of the hexagon $p$ and on the six links that connect to the hexagon. However, the $\hat{B}_p$ operator will not alter the states on the six links that connect to the hexagon. Let us define the Majorana-number-valued matrix element $B_{a'\alpha,b'\beta,c'\gamma,d'\delta,e'\epsilon,f'\mu,\nu}(i,j,k,l,m,n)$ as

$$B_{a'\alpha,b'\beta,c'\gamma,d'\delta,e'\epsilon,f'\mu,\nu}(i,j,k,l,m,n) = \left\langle \text{fix} \begin{pmatrix} i & j & k & l & m & n \\ a & b & c & d & e & f \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta & \epsilon & \mu \end{pmatrix} | \hat{B}_p | \text{fix} \begin{pmatrix} i & j & k & l & m & n \\ a & b & c & d & e & f \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta & \epsilon & \mu \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle$$

(B9)

To compute $\mathcal{B}$, we consider the following local deformation:

$$\Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} j & i & k & l & m & n \\ a & b & c & d & e & f \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta & \epsilon & \mu \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \Psi_{\text{fix}} \begin{pmatrix} j & i & k & l & m & n \\ a & b & c & d & e & f \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta & \epsilon & \mu \end{pmatrix}$$

(B10)

We note that the self-consistent conditions satisfied by the $F$ tensor and $O$ tensor ensure that all those different ways to transform between the two above states lead to the same $\mathcal{B}$ matrix.

To understand how $\mathcal{B}$ acts on a state that is not in the support space, let us consider the dimension $D_{ijklmn}$ of the support space $V_{ijklmn}$ which can be calculated by deforming the $D_{ijklmn} \times D_{ijkmn}$ identity matrix. In the following let us compute the explicit form of $U_P$.

FIG. 5. $U_P$ is generated by an inverse H-move, an F-move, a dual H-move, an inverse F-move, and finally one O-move, which turns a hexagon graph into a tree graph. $(U_P)^+$ turns a tree graph into a hexagon graph.
As seen in Fig. 5, let us first apply an inverse H-move, an F-move, a dual H-move, an inverse F-move, and finally one O-move, thus we obtain

$$\Psi_{\text{fix}} = \sum_{\chi, \delta}(H_{fba, \alpha \beta})^{\dagger}\Psi_{\text{fix}}$$

$$= \sum_{\chi, \delta} \sum_{r, \eta}(H_{fba, \alpha \beta})^{\dagger} F_{cr \kappa \eta}^{\dagger} \Psi_{\text{fix}}$$

$$= \sum_{\chi, \delta} \sum_{r, \eta} \sum_{s, \rho \phi}(H_{fba, \alpha \beta})^{\dagger} F_{cr \kappa \eta}^{\dagger} D_{ds \rho \phi} \Psi_{\text{fix}}$$

$$= \sum_{\chi, \delta} \sum_{r, \eta} \sum_{s, \rho \phi} \sum_{\nu \mu \nu \epsilon}(H_{fba, \alpha \beta})^{\dagger} F_{cr \kappa \eta}^{\dagger} D_{ds \rho \phi} \tilde{O}_{fe \nu \epsilon} \Psi_{\text{fix}}$$

(B13)

Therefore, we finally derive

$$U_{p}^{a_{a}^{b} b_{a}^{c} c_{a}^{d} d_{a}^{e} e_{a}^{f}}(i, j, k, l, m, n) = (H_{fba, \alpha \beta})^{\dagger} F_{cr \kappa \eta}^{\dagger} D_{ds \rho \phi} \tilde{O}_{fe \nu \epsilon} \Psi_{\text{fix}}.$$  

(B14)

Also $U_{p}$, containing only one O-move (see Fig. 5), has a form $U_{p} = U_{1} P U_{2}$ where $U_{1,2}$ are unitary matrices and $P$ is a projection matrix. So the rank of $B$ is equal or less than $D_{ijklmn}$. Since it is the identity in the $D_{ijklmn}$-dimensional space $V_{ijklmn}$, the matrix $B$ is a Hermitian projection matrix onto the space $V_{ijklmn}$.

$$\sum_{a} \sum_{b} \sum_{c} \sum_{d} \sum_{e} \sum_{f} \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sum_{k} \sum_{l} \sum_{m} \sum_{n} (H_{fba, \alpha \beta})^{\dagger} F_{cr \kappa \eta}^{\dagger} D_{ds \rho \phi} \tilde{O}_{fe \nu \epsilon} \Psi_{\text{fix}}$$

(B15)

In the above calculation of the $B$, we first insert a bubble on the $a$ link. We may also calculate $B$ by first inserting a bubble on other lines. All those different calculations will lead to the same pair of states, they give rise to the same relation between the two states. Therefore $\hat{B}_{p}$ and $\hat{B}_{p}$ commute.

$$\hat{B}_{p} \hat{B}_{p} = \hat{B}_{p} \hat{B}_{p}.$$  

(B16)

We see that the corresponding Hamiltonian $\hat{H}$ is a sum of commuting projectors and is exactly soluble.

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