

# Notes on the partition of $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$ which arises in construction of isomorphisms between matrix rings over Leavitt algebras

(prepared by Gene Abrams, March 2015.)

Let  $L_K(1, n)$  denote the Leavitt algebra of order  $n$ ; so  $R = L_K(1, n)$  has the property that  ${}_R R \cong {}_R R^n$  as left  $R$ -modules. In [1] it is shown that

$$L_K(1, n) \cong M_d(L_K(1, n)) \Leftrightarrow \text{g.c.d.}(d, n - 1) = 1.$$

This yields as an easy consequence that for positive integers  $d, d'$  we have

$$M_d(L_K(1, n)) \cong M_{d'}(L_K(1, n)) \Leftrightarrow \text{g.c.d.}(d, n - 1) = \text{g.c.d.}(d', n - 1).$$

Indeed, when the appropriate conditions are satisfied then the isomorphisms may be explicitly constructed. As one consequence of this isomorphism result, E. Pardo was able to answer a decades-old question of Higman regarding a class of infinite finitely presented simple groups [2].

The key to constructing such isomorphisms lies in considering a partition of  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$  into two nonempty disjoint subsets  $S_1 \sqcup S_2$ , described as follows.

Suppose  $n$  is an integer having  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, n - 1) = 1$ . Write  $n = qd + r$  with  $1 \leq r \leq d$ . As  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, n - 1) = 1$  we get  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, r - 1) = 1$ .

For purposes of this note we forget the original integer  $n$ , and focus only on  $r$ . Note we have  $r \geq 1$ . Let  $s = d - (r - 1)$ . Since  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, r - 1) = 1$  we easily see  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, s) = 1$ . Now consider the sequence  $\Sigma^{d,r}$ , given by

$$\Sigma^{d,r} = 1, 1 + s, 1 + 2s, \dots, 1 + (d - 1)s$$

of  $d$  integers, interpreted mod  $d$ . (Here we interpret  $0 \bmod d$  as  $d \bmod d$ .) Since  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, s) = 1$ , elementary number theory gives that, as a set, the elements of  $\Sigma^{d,r}$  form a complete set of residues mod  $d$ .

In particular, for some  $i_r$  ( $1 \leq i_r \leq d$ ) we have  $1 + (i_r - 1)s \equiv r - 1 \pmod{d}$ .

Now consider these two sequences:

$$\Sigma_1^{d,r} = 1, 1 + s, \dots, 1 + (i_r - 1)s \quad \Sigma_2^{d,r} = 1 + i_r s, 1 + (i_r + 1)s, \dots, 1 + (d - 1)s.$$

So  $\Sigma_1^{d,r}$  is just the first  $i_r$  elements of  $\Sigma^{d,r}$ , and  $\Sigma_2^{d,r}$  is the remaining  $d - i_r$  elements.

We can also consider the partition  $S^{d,r} = S_1^{d,r} \sqcup S_2^{d,r}$  of  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$  which corresponds to the elements of these two sequences:

$$S_1^{d,r} = \{1, 1 + s, \dots, 1 + (i_r - 1)s\} \quad S_2^{d,r} = \{1 + i_r s, 1 + (i_r + 1)s, \dots, 1 + (d - 1)s\}$$

So in particular  $|S_1^{d,r}| = i_r$  and  $|S_2^{d,r}| = d - i_r$ . Clearly  $S_1^{d,r} \neq \emptyset$ . But  $S_2^{d,r} \neq \emptyset$  as well, because  $d \in S_2^{d,r}$ . This is because the first element  $1 + i_r s$  of  $S_2^{d,r}$  is always  $d$ , as  $1 + i_r s = (1 + (i_r - 1)s) + s = (r - 1) + (d - (r - 1)) = d$ .

For notational convenience, if  $d, r$  are fixed then we drop the superscript  $d, r$  in the sequences and subsets.

**Example 1.** The case  $d = 3, r = 2$ .  $\text{g.c.d.}(3, 2-1) = 1$ .  $r-1 = 1, s = d-(r-1) = 3-1 = 2$ .

The sequence  $\Sigma$  starts at 1, and increases by  $s = 2$  each step, and we interpret mod 3 ( $1 \leq i \leq 3$ ). So we get the sequence  $\Sigma = 1, 3, 2$ . Since  $r-1 = 1$ , we get

$$\Sigma_1 = 1 \quad \Sigma_2 = 3, 2$$

and so

$$S_1 = \{1\}, \quad S_2 = \{2, 3\}.$$

**Example 2.** The case  $d = 3, r = 3$ .  $\text{g.c.d.}(3, 3-1) = 1$ .  $r-1 = 2, s = d-(r-1) = 3-2 = 1$ .

The sequence  $\Sigma$  starts at 1, and increases by  $s = 1$  each step, and we interpret mod 3 ( $1 \leq i \leq 3$ ). So we get the sequence  $\Sigma = 1, 2, 3$ . Since  $r-1 = 2$ , we get

$$\Sigma_1 = 1, 2 \quad \Sigma_2 = 3$$

and so

$$S_1 = \{1, 2\} \quad S_2 = \{3\}.$$

**Example 3.** The case  $d = 13, r = 9$ .  $\text{g.c.d.}(13, 9-1) = 1$ .  $r-1 = 8, s = d-(r-1) = 13-8 = 5$ .

The sequence  $\Sigma$  starts at 1, and increases by  $s = 5$  each step, and we interpret mod 13 ( $1 \leq i \leq 13$ ). So we get the sequence  $\Sigma = 1, 6, 11, 3, 8, 13, 5, 10, 2, 7, 12, 4, 9$ . Since  $r-1 = 8$ , we get

$$\Sigma_1 = 1, 6, 11, 3, 8 \quad \Sigma_2 = 13, 5, 10, 2, 7, 12, 4, 9$$

and so

$$S_1 = \{1, 3, 6, 8, 11\} \quad S_2 = \{2, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13\}.$$

By solving the congruence  $1 + (i_r - 1)s \equiv r - 1 \pmod{d}$ , we easily get

**Lemma 4.**  $i_r \equiv (r-1)^{-1} \pmod{d}$ .

In particular, if we have  $1 \leq r \neq r' \leq d$  for which  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, r-1) = 1 = \text{g.c.d.}(d, r'-1)$ , then the two partitions  $S_1^{d,r} \sqcup S_2^{d,r}$  and  $S_1^{d,r'} \sqcup S_2^{d,r'}$  of  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$  are necessarily different (since 1 is in  $S_1$ , and the sizes of  $S_1^{d,r}$  and  $S_1^{d,r'}$  are unequal).

Given  $d$ , there exist  $\varphi(d)$  (Euler  $\varphi$ -function) remainders which are relatively prime to  $d$ . So there exist  $\varphi(d)$  distinct partitions of  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$  which arise as  $S_1^{d,r} \sqcup S_2^{d,r}$  for some  $r$  having  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, r-1) = 1$ .

We note that for any  $d$  we always get these two partitions arising in the form  $S^{d,r}$ :

$$\{1\} \sqcup \{2, 3, \dots, d\} = S^{d,2}, \quad \text{and} \quad \{1, 2, \dots, d-1\} \sqcup \{d\} = S^{d,d}.$$

It is easy to see that there are  $(2^d - 2)/2 = 2^{d-1} - 1$  ways to partition the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$  into two nonempty subsets  $S_1 \sqcup S_2$  for which  $1 \in S_1$ . Since  $\varphi(d) < 2^{d-1} - 1$  for  $d \geq 3$ , we see that not all such two-nonempty-set partitions of  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$  can arise as  $S_1^{d,r} \sqcup S_2^{d,r}$  for some

$r$  having  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, r - 1) = 1$ . For example, when  $d = 3$ , the partition  $\{1, 3\} \sqcup \{2\}$  of  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  does not arise in this way.

**Question 1:** For fixed  $d, r$  having  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, r - 1) = 1$ , do the sequences  $\Sigma_1^{d,r}$  and  $\Sigma_2^{d,r}$  arise in other contexts?

**Question 2:** Do the  $\varphi(d)$  partitions of  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$  of the form  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\} = S_1^{d,r} \sqcup S_2^{d,r}$  (for some  $r$  having  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, r - 1) = 1$ ) arise in other contexts?

**Remark 5.** Referring back to how these sequences and partitions arose in the context of [1], in that setting we start with  $d, n$  having  $\text{g.c.d.}(d, n - 1) = 1$ , write  $n = qd + r$  with  $1 \leq r \leq d$ , and then consider the partition  $S_1^{d,r} \sqcup S_2^{d,r}$  of  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$ . We then use this partition of  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$  to build a partition of  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  by simply extending the partition  $S_1^{d,r} \sqcup S_2^{d,r}$ , mod  $d$ . So, for instance, if  $n = 5$ ,  $d = 3$  then we get  $5 = 1 \cdot 3 + 2$ . We then consider the partition  $\{1, 2, 3\} = S_1^{3,2} \sqcup S_2^{3,2} = \{1\} \sqcup \{2, 3\}$ , as described in Example 1. This then yields the partition  $\{1, 4\} \sqcup \{2, 3, 5\}$  of  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  by simply extending mod 3.

Specifically, in [1] we do not seem to use the ordering properties of the sequences  $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$ , we only use the partition  $S_1^{d,r} \sqcup S_2^{d,r}$  of  $\{1, 2, \dots, d\}$

## REFERENCES

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- [2] E. PARDO, The isomorphism problem for Higman-Thompson groups. *J. Algebra* **344** (2011), 172 – 183.