Leavitt path algebras: Something for everyone

algebra, analysis, graph theory, number theory

Gene Abrams



University of New Mexico Mathematics Colloquium

April 10, 2015



Overview

- 1 Leavitt path algebras: Introduction and Motivation
- 2 Algebraic properties
- 3 Projective modules
- 4 Connections and Applications

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An early theorem from undergraduate years:

Dimension Theorem for Vector Spaces. Every nonzero vector space V has a basis. Moreover, if \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{B}' are two bases for V, then $|\mathcal{B}| = |\mathcal{B}'|$.

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Dimension Theorem for Vector Spaces. Every nonzero vector space V has a basis. Moreover, if \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{B}' are two bases for V, then $|\mathcal{B}| = |\mathcal{B}'|$.

Note: V has a basis $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, b_2, ..., b_n\} \Leftrightarrow V \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathbb{R}$ as vector spaces. So:

Dimension Theorem, Rephrased:

$$\bigoplus_{i=1}^n \mathbb{R} \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^m \mathbb{R} \iff m = n.$$



The same Dimension Theorem holds for K any division ring.

For a module P over a ring R we can still talk about a *basis* for P. (Note: in general, not all modules *have* bases; those that do are called *free* R-modules.)

 $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} R$ always has a basis having n elements, e.g.,

{
$$e_1 = (1, 0, 0, ..., 0), e_2 = (0, 1, 0, ..., 0), ..., e_n = (0, 0, 0, ..., 1)$$
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Example: Consider the ring S of linear transformations from an infinite dimensional \mathbb{R} -vector space V to itself.

Think of V as $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{R}$. Then think of S as $RFM(\mathbb{R})$.

Intuitively, S and $S \oplus S$ have a chance to be "the same".

 $M\mapsto (\operatorname{Odd} \operatorname{numbered} \operatorname{columns} \operatorname{of} M, \operatorname{Even} \operatorname{numbered} \operatorname{columns} \operatorname{of} M)$

Easy to find matrices Y_1 , Y_2 for which this map is $M \mapsto (MY_1, MY_2)$.

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Similarly, we should be able to 'go back' from pairs of matrices to a single matrix, by interweaving the columns.

Easy to find matrices X_1, X_2 for which this map is $(M_1, M_2) \mapsto M_1 X_1 + M_2 X_2$.



These equations are easy to verify:

$$Y_1X_1 + Y_2X_2 = I,$$
 $X_1Y_1 = I = X_2Y_2, \text{ and } X_1Y_2 = 0 = X_2Y_1.$

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Using these, we get inverse maps:

$$S o S \oplus S$$
 via $M \mapsto (MY_1, MY_2)$, and

$$S \oplus S \rightarrow S$$
 via $(M_1, M_2) \mapsto M_1X_1 + M_2X_2$.

For example:

$$M \mapsto (MY_1, MY_2) \mapsto MY_1X_1 + MY_2X_2 = M \cdot I = M.$$



Using exactly the same idea, let R be ANY ring which contains four elements y_1, y_2, x_1, x_2 satisfying

$$y_1x_1 + y_2x_2 = 1_R$$

$$x_1y_1 = 1_R = x_2y_2$$
, and $x_1y_2 = 0 = x_2y_1$.

Then $R \cong R \oplus R$.



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Easily:

$$R \cong R \oplus R \Rightarrow \bigoplus_{i=1}^{m} R \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^{n} R \text{ for all } m, n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

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Does there exist R with, e.g., $R \cong R \oplus R \oplus R$, but $R \ncong R \oplus R$?

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$\mathsf{Theorem}$

(William G. Leavitt, Trans. Amer. Math. Soc., 1962)

For every $m < n \in \mathbb{N}$ and field K there exists a K-algebra $R = L_K(m, n)$ with $\bigoplus_{i=1}^m R \cong \bigoplus_{i=1}^n R$, and all isomorphisms between free left R-modules result precisely from this one. Moreover, $L_K(m, n)$ is universal with this property.



Similar to the (1,2) situation above:

 $R \cong R^n$ if and only if there exist

$$x_1, x_2, ..., x_n, y_1, y_2, ..., y_n \in R$$

for which

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 $L_K(1, n)$ is the quotient

$$K < X_1, X_2, ..., X_n, Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_n > / < (\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i X_i) - 1_K; X_i Y_j - \delta_{i,j} 1_K >$$

Note: RFM(K) is much bigger than $L_K(1,2)$.

As a result, we have: Let S denote $L_K(1, n)$. Then

$$S^a \cong S^b \Leftrightarrow a \equiv b \mod(n-1).$$

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Simplicity means:

$$\forall \ 0 \neq r \in R, \exists \ \alpha_i, \beta_i \in R \text{ with } \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i r \beta_i = 1_R.$$

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Actually, Leavitt proved that $L_K(1, n)$ satisfies a stronger property:

$$\forall \ 0 \neq r \in L_K(1, n), \exists \ \alpha, \beta \in L_K(1, n) \text{ with } \alpha r \beta = 1_{L_K(1, n)}.$$

Many standard algebras can be built (essentially) as follows:

if S is a semigroup (written multiplicatively) and K is a field, form the semigroup algebra KS.

Symbols: finite sums $\sum_{s \in S} k_s s$.

Multiplication: Extend $ks \cdot k's' = kk'(ss')$.

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More Examples: matrix rings, group rings, incidence rings, multivariable polynomial rings, ...



General path algebras

Let E be a directed graph. (We will assume E is finite for this talk, but analysis can be done in general.) $E = (E^0, E^1, r, s)$

$$\bullet \xrightarrow{e} \bullet \xrightarrow{r(e)}$$

The path algebra of E with coefficients in K is the K-algebra KS

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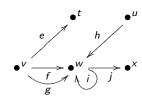
In particular, in KE,

for each edge
$$e$$
, $s(e) \cdot e = e = e \cdot r(e)$ for each vertex v , $v \cdot v = v$
$$1_{\mathit{KE}} = \sum_{e \in F^0} v.$$

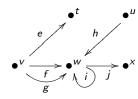


Start with E, build its double graph \widehat{E} .

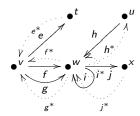
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(CK2)
$$v = \sum_{\{e \in E^1 | s(e) = v\}} ee^*$$
 for each (non-sink) vertex v in E .

Building Leavitt path algebras

Construct the path algebra $K\widehat{E}$. Consider these relations in $K\widehat{E}$:

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Definition

The Leavitt path algebra of E with coefficients in K

$$L_{K}(E) = K\widehat{E} / \langle (CK1), (CK2) \rangle$$

Some sample computations in $L_{\mathbb{C}}(E)$ from the Example:

$$\widehat{E} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \bullet^{t} & \bullet^{u} \\ \bullet^{e} & h \end{pmatrix}}_{e^{e}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h & h \\ h & h \end{pmatrix}}_{h^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*} \end{pmatrix}}_{g^{*}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} h^{*} & h^{*} \\ h^{*} & h^{*$$

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$$ff^* = \dots$$
 (no simplification) Note: $(ff^*)^2 = f(f^*f)f^* = ff^*$



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$$E = \bullet^{v_1} \xrightarrow{e_1} \bullet^{v_2} \xrightarrow{e_2} \bullet^{v_3} \cdots \bullet^{v_{n-1}} \xrightarrow{e_{n-1}} \bullet^{v_n}$$

Then $L_K(E) \cong M_n(K)$.

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Then $L_K(E) \cong M_n(K)$.

$$E = \bullet^{v} \bigcirc x$$

Then $L_K(E) \cong K[x, x^{-1}]$.



$$E=R_n=$$

Then $L_K(E) \cong L_K(1, n)$.



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 $L_K(1, n)$ has generators and relations:

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while $L_K(R_n)$ has these SAME generators and relations, where we identify y_i^* with x_i .

1962: Leavitt gives construction of $L_K(1, n)$.



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1980's: Cuntz, Krieger, and others generalize the \mathcal{O}_n construction to directed graphs, and produce the graph C*-algebras C*(E).

June 2004: Some algebraists attend the CBMS lecture series

"Graph C^* -algebras: algebras we can see",

held at University of Iowa, given by Iain Raeburn.

Algebraic analogs of graph C*-algebras are defined and investigated starting Fall 2004.

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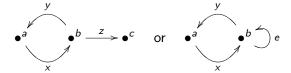
1. A cycle





A cycle

An exit for a cycle.



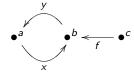
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Note $L_K(E)$ is simple for

$$E = \bullet \longrightarrow \bullet \longrightarrow \bullet \text{ since } L_K(E) \cong M_n(K)$$

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$$E = R_n = \bigvee_{y_1}^{y_3} y_2$$
 since $L_K(E) \cong L_K(1, n)$

but not simple for

$$E = R_1 = \bullet^{\nu} \bigcirc \times \text{ since } L_{\kappa}(E) \cong \kappa[x, x^{-1}]$$

Theorem

(A -, Aranda Pino, 2005) $L_K(E)$ is simple if and only if:

- 1 Every vertex connects to every cycle and to every sink in E, and
- 2 Every cycle in E has an exit.



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Note: No role played by K.



Other ring-theoretic properties of Leavitt path algebras

We know precisely the graphs E for which $L_K(E)$ has various other properties, e.g.:

- 1 one-sided chain conditions
- 2 prime
- 3 von Neumann regular
- 4 two-sided chain conditions
- 5 primitive

Many more.



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Additional examples: Rf where f is idempotent (i.e., $f^2 = f$), since $Rf \oplus R(1 - f) = R^1$.

So, for example, in $R = \mathrm{M}_2(\mathbb{R})$, $P = \mathrm{M}_2(\mathbb{R})e_{1,1} = \begin{pmatrix} * & 0 \\ * & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is a finitely projective R-module. Note $P \ncong R^n$ for any n.

The monoid $\mathcal{V}(R)$

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So $L_K(E)$ contains projective modules of the form $L_K(E)ee^*$ for each edge e of E.



 $\mathcal{V}(R)$ denotes the isomorphism classes of finitely generated projective (left) R-modules. With operation \oplus , this becomes an abelian monoid. Note R itself plays a special role in $\mathcal{V}(R)$.

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Remarks:

- (1) Given a ring R, it is in general not easy to compute $\mathcal{V}(R)$.
- (2) $K_0(R)$ is the universal group of V(R).



The monoid M_E

Here's a 'natural' monoid arising from any directed graph E.



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Associate to E the abelian monoid $(M_E, +)$:

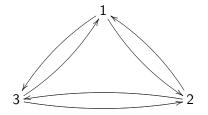
$$M_E = \{ \sum_{v \in E^0} n_v a_v \}$$

with $n_v \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ for all $v \in E^0$.

Relations in M_E are given by: $a_v = \sum_{\{e \mid s(e) = v\}} a_{r(e)}$.

The monoid M_E

Example. Let *F* be the graph

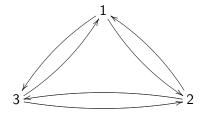


So
$$M_F$$
 consists of elements $\{n_1a_1 + n_2a_2 + n_3a_3\}$ $(n_i \in \mathbb{Z}^+)$, subject to: $a_1 = a_2 + a_3$; $a_2 = a_1 + a_3$; $a_3 = a_1 + a_2$.



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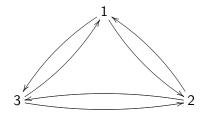
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The monoid M_E

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So M_F consists of elements $\{n_1a_1 + n_2a_2 + n_3a_3\}$ $(n_i \in \mathbb{Z}^+)$, subject to: $a_1 = a_2 + a_3$; $a_2 = a_1 + a_3$; $a_3 = a_1 + a_2$. It's not hard to get: $M_F = \{0, a_1, a_2, a_3, a_1 + a_2 + a_3\}$. In particular, $M_F \setminus \{0\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Example:

$$E = R_n = \bigvee_{y_1}^{y_3} y_2$$

Then M_E is the set of symbols of the form

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So here, $M_E = \{0, a_v, 2a_v, ..., (n-1)a_v\}.$

In particular, $M_E \setminus \{0\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n-1}$.

Theorem

(P. Ara, M.A. Moreno, E. Pardo, 2007) For any row-finite directed graph E,

$$\mathcal{V}(L_K(E)) \cong M_E$$
.

Moreover, $L_K(E)$ is universal with this property.



Theorem

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Moreover, $L_K(E)$ is universal with this property.

One (very nontrivial) consequence: Let S denote $L_K(1, n)$. Then

$$V(S) = \{0, S, S^2, ..., S^{n-1}\}.$$



Historical Note, Part 2

So we can think of Leavitt path algebras in two ways:

- 1) the "quotient of a path algebra" approach, and
- 2) the "universal algebra which supports M_E as its V-monoid" approach.

These were developed in parallel.

The two approaches together have complemented each other in the development of the subject.

Here's a property (likely unfamiliar to most of you ...)

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We call a unital simple ring *R purely infinite simple* if:

- (1) R is not a division ring, and
- (2) for every $r \neq 0$ in R there exists α, β in R for which

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Equivalent to: every left ideal contains an *infinite idempotent*:

If
$$0 \neq e = e^2 \in R$$
, then $Re = Rf \oplus Rg$ with $Re \cong Rf$ and $g \neq 0$.

Purely infinite simplicity for rings was introduced by Ara / Goodearl / Pardo in 2002.



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 $L_K(E)$ is simple, and E contains a cycle \Leftrightarrow
 $M_E \setminus \{0\}$ is a group $(\cong K_0(L_K(E)))$

Moreover, in this situation, we can easily calculate $V(L_K(E))$ using the Smith normal form of the matrix $I - A_E$.



- 1 Leavitt path algebras: Introduction and Motivation
- 2 Algebraic properties
- 3 Projective modules
- 4 Connections and Applications

Ten Year Update

In addition to "expected" types of results, over the past ten years Leavitt path algebras have played an interesting / important role outside the subject per se.

- Kaplansky's question on prime non-primitive von Neumann regular algebras.
- The realization question for von Neumann regular rings.
- **3** Connections to Lie algebras.
- Connections to noncommutative geometry

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- Kaplansky's question on prime non-primitive von Neumann regular algebras.
- The realization question for von Neumann regular rings.
- 3 Connections to Lie algebras.
- Connections to noncommutative geometry
- 5 Connections to various C*-algebras, including real C*-algebras

One such connection:

Let
$$R = L_{\mathbb{C}}(1, n)$$
. So ${}_RR \cong {}_RR^n$.

So this gives in particular $R \cong M_n(R)$ as rings.

Which then (for free) gives some additional isomorphisms, e.g.

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for any i > 1.

Also, $RR \cong RR^n \cong RR^{2n-1} \cong RR^{3n-2} \cong ...$ which also in turn yield ring isomorphisms

$$R \cong \mathrm{M}_n(R) \cong \mathrm{M}_{2n-1}(R) \cong \mathrm{M}_{3n-2}(R) \cong ...$$



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For instance, if R = L(1,4), then it's not hard to show that $R \cong \mathrm{M}_2(R)$ as rings (even though $R \ncong_R R^2$ as modules).

Idea: 2 and 4 are nicely related, so these eight matrices inside $\mathrm{M}_2(\mathit{L}(1,4))$ "work":

$$X_1=\begin{pmatrix}x_1&0\\x_2&0\end{pmatrix},\ X_2=\begin{pmatrix}x_3&0\\x_4&0\end{pmatrix},\ X_3=\begin{pmatrix}0&x_1\\0&x_2\end{pmatrix},\ X_4=\begin{pmatrix}0&x_3\\0&x_4\end{pmatrix}$$

together with their duals

$$Y_1 = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 & y_2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ Y_2 = \begin{pmatrix} y_3 & y_4 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ Y_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{pmatrix}, \ Y_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ y_3 & y_4 \end{pmatrix}$$



In general, using this same idea, we can show that:

if $d|n^t$ for some $t \in \mathbb{N}$, then $L(1, n) \cong \mathrm{M}_d(L(1, n))$.

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On the other hand ...

If R = L(1, n), then the "type" of R is n - 1. (Think: "smallest difference"). Bill Leavitt showed the following in his 1962 paper:

The type of
$$M_d(L(1, n))$$
 is $\frac{n-1}{g.c.d.(d, n-1)}$.

In particular, if g.c.d.(d, n-1) > 1, then $L(1, n) \ncong M_d(L(1, n))$.

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(Note:
$$d|n^t \Rightarrow g.c.d.(d, n-1) = 1.$$
)



Smallest interesting pair: Is $L(1,5) \cong M_3(L(1,5))$?

We are led "naturally" to consider these five matrices (and their duals) in $M_3(L(1,5))$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 0 & 0 \\ x_2 & 0 & 0 \\ x_3 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} x_4 & 0 & 0 \\ x_5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & x_1^2 \\ 0 & 0 & x_2x_1 \\ 0 & 0 & x_3x_1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & x_4x_1 \\ 0 & 0 & x_5x_1 \\ 0 & 0 & x_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & x_3 \\ 0 & 0 & x_4 \\ 0 & 0 & x_5 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Everything went along nicely... **except**, we couldn't see how to generate the matrix units $e_{1,3}$ and $e_{3,1}$ inside $M_3(L(1,5))$ using these ten matrices.



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Instead, this set (together with duals) works:

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Theorem

(A-, Ánh, Pardo; Crelle's J. 2008) For any field K,

$$L_K(1,n) \cong \mathrm{M}_d(L_K(1,n)) \Leftrightarrow g.c.d.(d,n-1) = 1.$$

Indeed, more generally,

$$\mathrm{M}_d(L_K(1,n)) \cong \mathrm{M}_{d'}(L_K(1,n')) \Leftrightarrow$$

 $n=n' \ \ \text{and} \ \ g.c.d.(d,n-1)=g.c.d.(d',n-1).$

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Along the way, some elementary (but new?) number theory ideas come into play.



Given n, d with g.c.d.(d, n-1) = 1, there is a "natural" partition of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ into two disjoint subsets.

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Here's what made this second set of matrices work. Using this partition in the particular case n = 5, d = 3, then the partition of $\{1,2,3,4,5\}$ turns out to be the two sets

$$\{1,4\}$$
 and $\{2,3,5\}$.

The matrices that "worked" are ones where we fill in the last columns with terms of the form $x_i x_1^j$ in such a way that i is in the same subset as the row number of that entry.

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Brief description: www.uccs.edu/gabrams



Corollary. (Matrices over the Cuntz C*-algebras)

$$\mathcal{O}_n \cong \mathrm{M}_d(\mathcal{O}_n) \Leftrightarrow g.c.d.(d, n-1) = 1.$$

(And the isomorphisms are explicitly described.)

An important recent application:

For each pair of positive integers n, r, there exists an infinite, finitely presented simple group $G_{n,r}^+$. (G. Higman, 1974.)

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Proof. Show that $G_{n,r}^+$ can be realized as an appropriate subgroup of the invertible elements of $M_r(L_{\mathbb{C}}(1,n))$, and then use the explicit isomorphisms provided in the A -, Ánh, Pardo result.

(1)
$$L_K(E) \cong L_K(F) \Leftrightarrow ???$$

Ideas from symbolic dynamics come into play here. Using some results on flow equivalence, we have been able to show:

Theorem. (A -, Louly, Pardo, Smith, 2011) If $L_K(E)$ and $L_K(F)$ are purely infinite simple Leavitt path algebras such that

$$(K_0(L_K(E)), [1_{L_K(E)}]) \cong (K_0(L_K(F)), [1_{L_K(F)}]),$$

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 then
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Question: Can we drop the determinant hypothesis?



In particular, if

$$E_4 = \bigcirc \bullet^{v_1} \bigcirc \bullet^{v_2} \bigcirc \bullet^{v_3} \bigcirc \bullet^{v_4} \bigcirc$$

is
$$L_{\mathbb{C}}(E_4) \cong L_{\mathbb{C}}(1,2)$$
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 ?

The answer will be interesting, however it plays out.

"Algebraic Kirchberg-Phillips Question"



(2) For any graph E there is an intimate relationship between $L_{\mathbb{C}}(E)$ and $C^*(E)$. There are many theorems of the form:

 $L_{\mathbb{C}}(E)$ has algebraic property $\mathcal{P}\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{C}^*(E)$ has analytic property \mathcal{P}

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 $L_{\mathbb{C}}(E)$ has algebraic property $\mathcal{P}\Leftrightarrow C^*(E)$ has analytic property \mathcal{P}

but the proofs are not direct! They all are based on showing that the two properties are both equivalent to

E has graph property Q.

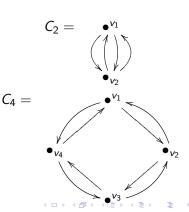
Why this happens is still a mystery.



(3) Compute M_E for various classes of graphs.

The Cayley graph C_n for \mathbb{Z}_n with generators $\{1, -1\}$:

$$C_1 = egin{pmatrix} \bullet^{v_1} & & & \\ & \bullet^{v_1} & & & \\ & & & & \end{pmatrix}$$



Gene Abrams

University of Colorado @ Colorado Springs

M_E for some Cayley graphs

Theorem:



M_E for some Cayley graphs

Theorem:

<i>n</i> (mod6)	1	2	3	4	5	6
$M_{C_n} \setminus \{0\} \cong$	{0}	\mathbb{Z}_3	$\mathbb{Z}_2 imes \mathbb{Z}_2$	\mathbb{Z}_3	{0}	$\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$

M_E for some Cayley graphs

Theorem:

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Other classes of Cayley-like graphs don't exhibit this sort of cyclic behavior in the corresponding graph monoids.



Questions?

Thanks to the Simons Foundation.



The partition of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ induced by d when g.c.d.(d, n-1) = 1

Suppose g.c.d.(d, n-1) = 1. Write

$$n = dt + r$$
 with $1 \le r \le d$.

Define
$$s := d - (r - 1)$$
.

Easy:
$$g.c.d.(d, n-1) = 1 \Rightarrow g.c.d.(d, s) = 1$$
.

Consider the sequence $\{h_i\}_{i=1}^d \subseteq \{1, 2, ..., d\}$, whose i^{th} entry is given by

$$h_i = 1 + (i - 1)s \pmod{d}$$
.



Because g.c.d.(d, s) = 1, basic number theory yields that the set of entries $\{h_1, h_2, ..., h_d\}$ equals the set $\{1, 2, ..., d\}$ (in some order).

Our interest lies in a decomposition of $\{1, 2, ..., d\}$ effected by the sequence $h_1, h_2, ..., h_d$, as follows.

Let d_1 denote the integer for which

$$h_{d_1}=r-1.$$

Define

$$\hat{S}_1 := \{h_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq d_1\}.$$

and
$$\hat{S}_2 := \{1, 2, ..., d\} \setminus \hat{S}_1$$
.

Construct a partition $S_1 \cup S_2$ of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ by extending mod d.

Computations when n = 5, d = 3.

$$gcd(3, 5-1) = 1$$
. Now $5 = 1 \cdot 3 + 2$, so that $r = 2, r - 1 = 1$, and define $s = d - (r - 1) = 3 - 1 = 2$.

Consider the sequence starting at 1, and increasing by s each step, and interpret mod d ($1 \le i \le d$). This will necessarily give all integers between 1 and d.

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Now break this set into two pieces: those integers up to and including r-1, and those after. Since r-1=1, here we get

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Now extend these two sets mod 3 to all integers up to 5.

 $\{1,4\} \cup \{2,3,5\}$



Example. Suppose n = 35, d = 13. Then gcd(13, 35 - 1) = 1.

$$35 = 2 \cdot 13 + 9$$
, so $r = 9$, $r - 1 = 8$, and $s = d - (r - 1) = 13 - 8 = 5$.

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Consider the sequence starting at 1, and increasing by s each step, and interpret mod d: 1, 6, 11, 3, 8, 13, 5, 10, 2, 7, 12, 4, 9.

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Now break $\{1,2,...,13\}$ into two pieces: those integers up to and including r-1, and those after. Since r-1=8, here we get

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

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Now extend to $\{1, 2, ..., 34, 35\} \mod 13$.

$$\{1,3,6,8,11,14,16,19,21,24,27,29,32,34\}\,\cup$$

 $\{2,4,5,7,9,10,12,13,15,17,18,20,22,23,25,26,28,30,31,33,35\}$