# Purely infinite simple Leavitt path algebras 

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Abstract
We give necessary and sufficient conditions on a row-finite graph E so that the Leavitt path algebra $\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{E})$ is purely infinite simple. This result provides the algebraic analog to the corresponding result for the Cuntz-Krieger $\mathrm{C}^{*}$-algebra $\mathrm{C}^{*}(\mathrm{E})$ given in [7].

Keywords: purely infinite; path algebra; Leavitt algebra; Cuntz Krieger C*-algebra.
An idempotent $e$ in a ring $R$ is called infinite if $e R$ is isomorphic as a right $R$-module to a proper direct summand of itself. $R$ is called purely infinite in case every right ideal of $R$ contains an infinite idempotent. Much recent attention has been paid to the structure of purely infinite simple rings, from both an algebraic (see e.g. [3], [4], [5]) as well as an analytic (see e.g. [7], [8], [11]) point of view. The Leavitt path algebra $L(E)$ of a graph $E$ is investigated in [1]. $L(E)$ is the algebraic counterpart of the Cuntz-Krieger algebra $C^{*}(E)$; furthermore, the class of algebras of the form $L(E)$ significantly broadens the collection of algebras studied by Leavitt in his seminal papers [9] and [10]. In [1] the authors give necessary and sufficient conditions on $E$ so that $L(E)$ is simple. In the current article we provide necessary and sufficient conditions on $E$ so that $L(E)$ is purely infinite simple (Theorem 11).

We recall the definition of the Leavitt path algebra $L(E)$.
Definitions 1. A (directed) graph $E=\left(E^{0}, E^{1}, r, s\right)$ consists of two countable sets $E^{0}, E^{1}$ and functions $r, s: E^{1} \rightarrow E^{0}$. The elements of $E^{0}$ are called vertices and the elements of $E^{1}$ edges. Let $K$ be a field. The path $K$-algebra over $E$ is the free associative $K$-algebra $K\left[E^{0} \cup E^{1}\right]$ with relations given by: $v_{i} v_{j}=\delta_{i j} v_{i}$ for every $v_{i}, v_{j} \in E^{0}$, and $e_{i}=e_{i} r\left(e_{i}\right)=s\left(e_{i}\right) e_{i}$ for every $e_{i} \in E^{1}$. The extended graph of $E$ is the graph $\widehat{E}=\left(E^{0}, E^{1} \cup\left(E^{1}\right)^{*}, r^{\prime}, s^{\prime}\right)$, where $\left(E^{1}\right)^{*}=\left\{e_{i}^{*}: e_{i} \in E^{1}\right\}$ and the functions $r^{\prime}$ and $s^{\prime}$ are defined as: $\left.r^{\prime}\right|_{E^{1}}=r,\left.s^{\prime}\right|_{E^{1}}=s, r^{\prime}\left(e_{i}^{*}\right)=s\left(e_{i}\right)$, and $s^{\prime}\left(e_{i}^{*}\right)=r\left(e_{i}\right)$. We call the elements of $E^{1}$ (resp., $\left.\left(E^{1}\right)^{*}\right)$ the real edges (resp., the ghost edges) of $E$.

Now suppose that $E$ is row-finite (i.e., that $s^{-1}(v)$ is finite for all $v \in E^{0}$.) The Leavitt path algebra of $E$ with coefficients in $K$, denoted by $L_{K}(E)$ (or $L(E)$ when

[^0]appropriate), is defined as the path $K$-algebra over the extended graph $\widehat{E}$, satisfying the so-called Cuntz-Krieger relations:
(CK1) $e_{i}^{*} e_{j}=\delta_{i j} r\left(e_{j}\right)$ for every $e_{j} \in E^{1}$ and $e_{i}^{*} \in\left(E^{1}\right)^{*}$, and
(CK2) $v_{i}=\sum_{\left\{e_{j} \in E^{1}: s\left(e_{j}\right)=v_{i}\right\}} e_{j} e_{j}^{*}$ for every $v_{i} \in E^{0}$ for which $s^{-1}\left(v_{i}\right) \neq \emptyset$.

## Examples 2.

(i) Let $E$ be the "finite line" graph defined by $E^{0}=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}, E^{1}=\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n-1}\right\}$, $s\left(y_{i}\right)=v_{i}$, and $r\left(y_{i}\right)=v_{i+1}$ for $i=1, \ldots, n-1$. Then $L(E) \cong M_{n}(K)$, via the map $v_{i} \mapsto e_{i i}, y_{i} \mapsto e_{i i+1}$, and $y_{i}^{*} \mapsto e_{i+1 i}$ (where $e_{i j}$ denotes the standard $(i, j)$-matrix unit in $M_{n}(K)$ ).
(ii) Let $n \geq 2$. Let $E$ be the "rose with $n$ leaves" graph defined by $E^{0}=\{*\}, E^{1}=$ $\left\{y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\}$. Then $L(E) \cong L(1, n)$, the Leavitt algebra investigated in [10]. Specifically, $L(E)$ is isomorphic to the free associative $K$-algebra with generators $\left\{x_{i}, y_{i}: 1 \leq\right.$ $i \leq n\}$ and relations

$$
\text { (1) } x_{i} y_{j}=\delta_{i j} \text { for all } 1 \leq i, j \leq n \text {, and (2) } \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} x_{i}=1 \text {. }
$$

Throughout this article all graphs will be assumed to be row-finite. We briefly establish some graph-theoretic notation. For each edge $e, s(e)$ is the source of $e$ and $r(e)$ is the range of $e$. A vertex $v$ for which $s^{-1}(v)=\emptyset$ is called a sink. A graph $E$ is finite if $E^{0}$ is a finite set. A path $\mu$ in a graph $E$ is a sequence of edges $\mu=\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{n}$ such that $r\left(\mu_{i}\right)=s\left(\mu_{i+1}\right)$ for $i=1, \ldots, n-1$. In such a case, $s(\mu):=s\left(\mu_{1}\right)$ is the source of $\mu$ and $r(\mu):=r\left(\mu_{n}\right)$ is the range of $\mu$. For vertices we define $r(v)=v=s(v)$. We define a preorder $\leq$ on $E^{0}$ given by: $v \leq w$ in case $w=v$ or there is a path $\mu$ such that $s(\mu)=v$ and $r(\mu)=w$. If $s(\mu)=r(\mu)$ and $s\left(\mu_{i}\right) \neq s\left(\mu_{j}\right)$ for every $i \neq j$, then $\mu$ is a called a cycle. $E$ is acyclic if $E$ contains no cycles. The set of paths of length $n>0$ is denoted by $E^{n}$. The set of all paths (and vertices) is $E^{*}:=\cup_{n \geq 0} E^{n}$. It is shown in [1] that $L(E)$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-graded $K$-algebra, spanned as a $K$-vector space by $\left\{p q^{*} \mid p, q\right.$ are paths in $\left.E\right\}$. By [1, Lemma 1.6], $L(E)$ is unital if and only if $E$ is finite; otherwise, $L(E)$ is a ring with set of local units consisting of sums of distinct vertices.

If $\alpha \in L(E)$ and $d \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$, then we say that $\alpha$ is representable as an element of degree $d$ in real (resp. ghost) edges in case $\alpha$ can be written as a sum of monomials from the aforementioned spanning set of $L(E)$, in such a way that $d$ is the maximum length of a path $p$ (resp. $q$ ) which appears in such monomials. We note that an element of $L(E)$ may be representable as an element of different degrees in real (resp. ghost) edges, depending on the particular representation used for $\alpha$.

Lemma 3. Let $E$ be a finite acyclic graph. Then $L(E)$ is finite dimensional.
Proof: Since the graph is row-finite, the given condition on $E$ is equivalent to the condition that $E^{*}$ is finite. The result now follows from the previous observation that $L(E)$ is spanned as a $K$-vector space by $\left\{p q^{*} \mid p, q\right.$ are paths in $\left.E\right\}$.

Lemma 3 is precisely the tool we need to establish the following key result.
Proposition 4. Let $E$ be a graph. Then $E$ is acyclic if and only if $L(E)$ is a union of a chain of finite dimensional subalgebras.

Proof: Assume first that $E$ is acyclic. If $E$ is finite, then Lemma 3 gives the result. So now suppose $E$ is infinite, and rename the vertices of $E^{0}$ as a sequence $\left\{v_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$. We now define a sequence $\left\{F_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ of subgraphs of $E$. Let $F_{i}=\left(F_{i}^{0}, F_{i}^{1}, r, s\right)$ where $F_{i}^{0}:=$ $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i}\right\} \cup r\left(s^{-1}\left(\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i}\right\}\right), F_{i}^{1}:=s^{-1}\left(\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i}\right\}\right)\right.$, and $r, s$ are induced from $E$. In particular, $F_{i} \subseteq F_{i+1}$ for all $i$. For any $i>0, L\left(F_{i}\right)$ is a subalgebra of $L(E)$ as follows. First note that we can construct $\phi: L\left(F_{i}\right) \rightarrow L(E)$ a $K$-algebra homomorphism because the Cuntz-Krieger relations in $L\left(F_{i}\right)$ are consistent with those in $L(E)$, in the following way: Consider $v$ a $\operatorname{sink}$ in $F_{i}$ (which need not be a $\operatorname{sink}$ in $E$ ), then we do not have CK2 at $v$ in $L\left(F_{i}\right)$. If $v$ is not a sink in $F_{i}$, then there exists $e \in F_{i}^{1}:=s^{-1}\left(\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i}\right\}\right)$ such that $s(e)=v$. But $s(e) \in\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i}\right\}$ and therefore $v=v_{j}$ for some $j$, and then $F_{i}^{1}:=s^{-1}\left(\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{i}\right\}\right)$ ensures that all the edges coming to $v$ are in $F_{i}$, so CK2 at $v$ is the same in $L\left(F_{i}\right)$ as in $L(E)$. The other relations offer no difficulty. Now, with a similar construction and argument to that used in [1, Proof of Theorem 3.11] we find $\psi: L(E) \rightarrow L\left(F_{i}\right)$ a $K$-algebra homomorphism such that $\psi \phi=\left.I d\right|_{L\left(F_{i}\right)}$, so that $\phi$ is a monomorphism, which we view as the inclusion map. By construction, each vertex in $E^{0}$ is in $F_{i}$ for some $i$; furthermore, the edge $e$ has $e \in F_{j}^{1}$, where $s(e)=v_{j}$. Thus we conclude that $L(E)=\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} L\left(F_{i}\right)$. (We note here that the embedding of graphs $j: F_{i} \hookrightarrow E$ is a complete graph homomorphism in the sense of [6], so that the conclusion $L(E)=\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} L\left(F_{i}\right)$ can also be achieved by invoking [6, Lemma 2.1].)

Since $E$ is acyclic, so is each $F_{i}$. Moreover, each $F_{i}$ is finite since, by the row-finiteness of $E$, in each step we add only finitely many vertices. Thus, by Lemma $3, L\left(F_{i}\right)$ is finite dimensional, so that $L(E)$ is indeed a union of a chain of finite dimensional subalgebras.

For the converse, let $p \in E^{*}$ be a cycle in $E$. Then $\left\{p^{m}\right\}_{m=1}^{\infty}$ is a linearly independent infinite set, so that $p$ is not contained in any finite dimensional subalgebra of $L(E)$.

We note that when $E$ is finite and acyclic then $L(E)$ can be shown to be isomorphic to a finite direct sum of full matrix rings over $K$, and, for any acyclic $E, L(E)$ is a direct limit of subalgebras of this form. The proof follows along the same lines as that given in $[8$, Corollary 2.2 and 2.3].

The description of the simple Leavitt path algebras given in [1] will play a key role here,
so we briefly review the germane ideas. An edge $e \in E^{1}$ is an exit to the path $\mu=\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{n}$ if there exists $i$ such that $s(e)=s\left(\mu_{i}\right)$ and $e \neq \mu_{i}$. A vertex $w \in E^{0}$ connects to $v \in E^{0}$ if $w \leq v$. A subset $H \subseteq E^{0}$ is hereditary if $w \in H$ and $w \leq v$ imply $v \in H ; H$ is saturated if whenever $s^{-1}(v) \neq \emptyset$ and $\{r(e): s(e)=v\} \subseteq H$, then $v \in H$. The main result of [1] is the following

Theorem 5. [1, Theorem 3.11] Let $E$ be a graph. Then $L(E)$ is simple if and only if:
(i) The only hereditary and saturated subsets of $E^{0}$ are $\emptyset$ and $E^{0}$, and
(ii) Every cycle in $E$ has an exit.

The following Proposition will play an important role in the proof of our main result (Theorem 11).

Proposition 6. Let $E$ be a graph with the property that every cycle has an exit. Then for every nonzero $\alpha \in L(E)$ there exist $a, b \in L(E)$ such that $a \alpha b \in E^{0}$.

Proof: Let $\alpha$ be representable by an element having degree $d$ in real edges. If $d=0$, then by [1, Corollary 3.7] we are done. So suppose $d>0$. By [1, Lemma 1.5], given a monomial which is not a vertex, either it begins with a real edge or all its edges are ghost edges. Thus we can write

$$
\alpha=\sum_{n=1}^{m} e_{i_{n}} \alpha_{e_{i_{n}}}+\beta
$$

where $m \geq 1, e_{i_{n}} \alpha_{e_{i_{n}}} \neq 0$ for every $n$, each $\alpha_{e_{i_{n}}}$ is representable as an element of degree less than that of $\alpha$ in real edges, and $\beta$ is a polynomial in only ghost edges (possibly zero). We will present a process by which we will find $\widehat{a}, \widehat{b}$ such that $\widehat{a} \alpha \widehat{b} \neq 0$ and is representable as an element having degree less than $d$ in real edges.

For an arbitrary edge $e_{j} \in E^{1}$, we have two cases:
Case 1: $j \in\left\{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{m}\right\}$. Then $e_{j}^{*} \alpha=\alpha_{e_{j}}+e_{j}^{*} \beta$. If this element is nonzero then by choosing $\widehat{a}=e_{j}^{*}$ and $\widehat{b}$ a local unit for $\alpha$ we would be done. For later use, we note that if $e_{j}^{*} \alpha$ is zero, then $\alpha_{e_{j}}=-e_{j}^{*} \beta$, and therefore $e_{j} \alpha_{e_{j}}=-e_{j} e_{j}^{*} \beta$.

Case 2: $j \notin\left\{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{m}\right\}$. Then $e_{j}^{*} \alpha=e_{j}^{*} \beta$. If $e_{j}^{*} \beta \neq 0$, then with $\widehat{b}$ as before we would have $e_{j}^{*} \alpha \widehat{b}$ is a nonzero polynomial which is representable as an element having degree $0<d$ in real edges, and again we would be done. For later use, we note that if $e_{j}^{*} \beta=0$, then in particular we have $0=-e_{j} e_{j}^{*} \beta$.

So we may assume that we are in the latter possibilities of both Case 1 and 2 ; i.e., we may assume that $e^{*} \alpha=0$ for all $e \in E^{1}$. We show that this situation cannot happen. First, suppose $v$ is a sink in $E$. Then we may assume $v \beta=0$, as follows. Multiplying the
displayed equation by $v$ on the left gives $v \alpha=v \sum_{n=1}^{m} e_{i_{n}} \alpha_{e_{i_{n}}}+v \beta$. Since $v$ is a sink we have $v e_{i_{n}}=0$ for all $1 \leq n \leq m$, so that $v \alpha=v \beta$. But if $v \beta \neq 0$ then $\widehat{a}=v$ and $\widehat{b}$ as above would yield a nonzero element in only ghost edges and we would be done as in Case 2.

Now let $S_{1}=\left\{v_{j} \in E^{0}: v_{j}=s\left(e_{i_{n}}\right)\right.$ for some $\left.1 \leq n \leq m\right\}$, and let $S_{2}=\left\{v_{k_{1}}, \ldots, v_{k_{t}}\right\}$ where $\left(\sum_{i=1}^{t} v_{k_{i}}\right) \beta=\beta$. We note that $w \beta=0$ for every $w \in E^{0}-S_{2}$. Also, by definition there are no sinks in $S_{1}$, and by a previous observation we may assume that there are no sinks in $S_{2}$. Let $S=S_{1} \cup S_{2}$. Then in particular we have $\left(\sum_{v \in S} v\right) \beta=\beta$.

We now argue that in this situation $\alpha$ must be zero. To this end,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha & =\sum_{n=1}^{m} e_{i_{n}} \alpha_{e_{i_{n}}}+\beta=\sum_{n=1}^{m}-e_{i_{n}} e_{i_{n}}^{*} \beta+\beta \quad(\text { by Case 1) } \\
& =\sum_{n=1}^{m}-e_{i_{n}} e_{i_{n}}^{*} \beta-\left(\sum_{\substack{j \notin\left\{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{m}\right\} \\
s\left(e_{j}\right) \in S}} e_{j} e_{j}^{*}\right) \beta+\beta
\end{aligned}
$$

(by Case 2, the newly subtracted terms equal 0 )
$=-\left(\sum_{v \in S} v\right) \beta+\beta \quad($ no sinks in $S$ implies that CK2 applies at each $v \in S)$ $=-\beta+\beta=0$.

As we have assumed $\alpha \neq 0$ we have reached the desired contradiction. Thus we are always able to find $\widehat{a}, \widehat{b}$ such that $\widehat{a} \alpha \widehat{b}$ is nonzero, and is representable in degree less than $d$ in real edges. By repeating this process enough times $(d$ at most $)$, we can find $\widehat{a_{k}} \ldots \widehat{a_{1}}, \widehat{b_{1}} \ldots \widehat{b_{k}}$ such that we can represent $\widehat{a_{k}} \ldots \widehat{a_{1}} \alpha \widehat{b_{1}} \ldots \widehat{b_{k}} \neq 0$ by an element of degree zero in real edges. Thus [1, Corollary 3.7] applies, and finishes the proof.

A closed simple path based at $v_{i_{0}}$ is a path $\mu=\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{n}$, with $\mu_{j} \in E^{1}, n \geq 1$ such that $s\left(\mu_{j}\right) \neq v_{i_{0}}$ for every $j>1$ and $s(\mu)=r(\mu)=v_{i_{0}}$. Denote by $\operatorname{CSP}\left(v_{i_{0}}\right)$ the set of all such paths. We note that a cycle is a closed simple path based at any of its vertices, but not every closed simple path based at $v_{i_{0}}$ is a cycle. We define the following subsets of $E^{0}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V_{0}=\left\{v \in E^{0}: \operatorname{CSP}(v)=\emptyset\right\} \\
& V_{1}=\left\{v \in E^{0}:|\operatorname{CSP}(v)|=1\right\} \\
& V_{2}=E^{0}-\left(V_{0} \cup V_{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 7. Let $E$ be a graph. If $L(E)$ is simple, then $V_{1}=\emptyset$.
Proof: For any subset $X \subseteq E^{0}$ we define the following subsets. $H(X)$ is the set of all vertices that can be obtained by one application of the hereditary condition at any of
the vertices of $X$; that is, $H(X):=r\left(s^{-1}(X)\right)$. Similarly, $S(X)$ is the set of all vertices obtained by applying the saturated condition among elements of $X$, that is, $S(X):=\{v \in$ $\left.E^{0}: \emptyset \neq\{r(e): s(e)=v\} \subseteq X\right\}$. We now define $G_{0}:=X$, and for $n \geq 0$ we define inductively $G_{n+1}:=H\left(G_{n}\right) \cup S\left(G_{n}\right) \cup G_{n}$. It is not difficult to show that the smallest hereditary and saturated subset of $E^{0}$ containing $X$ is the set $G(X):=\bigcup_{n \geq 0} G_{n}$.

Suppose now that $v \in V_{1}$, so that $C S P(v)=\{p\}$. In this case $p$ is clearly a cycle. By Theorem 5 we can find an edge $e$ which is an exit for $p$. Let $A$ be the set of all vertices in the cycle. Since $p$ is the only cycle based at $v$, and $e$ is an exit for $p$, we conclude that $r(e) \notin A$. Consider then the set $X=\{r(e)\}$, and construct $G(X)$ as described above. Then $G(X)$ is nonempty and, by construction, hereditary and saturated.

Now Theorem 5 implies that $G(X)=E^{0}$, so we can find $n=\min \left\{m: A \cap G_{m} \neq \emptyset\right\}$. Take $w \in A \cap G_{n}$. We are going to show that $w \geq r(e)$. First, since $r(e) \notin A$, then $n>0$ and therefore $w \in H\left(G_{n-1}\right) \cup S\left(G_{n-1}\right) \cup G_{n-1}$. Here, $w \in G_{n-1}$ cannot happen by the minimality of $n$. If $w \in S\left(G_{n-1}\right)$ then $\emptyset \neq\{r(e): s(e)=w\} \subseteq G_{n-1}$. Since $w$ is in the cycle $p$, there exists $f \in E^{1}$ such that $r(f) \in A$ and $s(f)=w$. In that case $r(f) \in A \cup G_{n-1}$ again contradicts the minimality of $n$. So the only possibility is $w \in H\left(G_{n-1}\right)$, which means that there exists $e_{i_{1}} \in E^{1}$ such that $r\left(e_{i_{1}}\right)=w$ and $s\left(e_{i_{1}}\right) \in G_{n-1}$.

We now repeat the process with the vertex $w^{\prime}=s\left(e_{i_{1}}\right)$. If $w^{\prime} \in G_{n-2}$ then we would have $w \in G_{n-1}$, again contradicting the minimality of $n$. If $w^{\prime} \in S\left(G_{n-2}\right)$ then, as above, $\left\{r(e): s(e)=w^{\prime}\right\} \subseteq G_{n-2}$, so in particular would give $w=r\left(e_{i_{1}}\right) \in G_{n-2}$, which is absurd. So therefore $w^{\prime} \in H\left(G_{n-2}\right)$ and we can find $e_{i_{2}} \in E^{1}$ such that $r\left(e_{i_{2}}\right)=w^{\prime}$ and $s\left(e_{i_{2}}\right) \in G_{n-2}$.

After $n$ steps we will have found a path $q=e_{i_{n}} \ldots e_{i_{1}}$ with $r(q)=w$ and $s(q)=r(e)$. In particular we have $w \geq s(e)$, and therefore there exists a cycle based at $w$ containing the edge $e$. Since $e$ is not in $p$ we get $|C S P(w)| \geq 2$. Since $w$ is a vertex contained in the cycle $p$, we then get $|C S P(v)| \geq 2$, contrary to the definition of the set $V_{1}$.

Lemma 8. Suppose $A$ is a union of finite dimensional subalgebras. Then $A$ is not purely infinite. In fact, A contains no infinite idempotents.

Proof: It suffices to show the second statement. So just suppose $e=e^{2} \in A$ is infinite. Then $e A$ contains a proper direct summand isomorphic to $e A$, which in turn, by definition and a standard argument, is equivalent to the existence of elements $g, h, x, y \in A$ such that $g^{2}=g, h^{2}=h, g h=h g=0, e=g+h, h \neq 0, x \in e A g, y \in g A e$ with $x y=e$ and $y x=g$. But by hypothesis the five elements $e, g, h, x, y$ are contained in a finite dimensional subalgebra $B$ of $A$, which would yield that $B$ contains an infinite idempotent, and thus contains a non-artinian right ideal, which is impossible.

Proposition 9. Let $E$ be a graph. Suppose that $w \in E^{0}$ has the property that, for every $v \in E^{0}, w \leq v$ implies $v \in V_{0}$. Then the corner algebra $w L(E) w$ is not purely infinite.

Proof: Consider the graph $H=\left(H^{0}, H^{1}, r, s\right)$ defined by $H^{0}:=\{v: w \leq v\}$, $H^{1}:=s^{-1}\left(H^{0}\right)$, and $r, s$ induced by $E$. The only nontrivial part of showing that $H$ is a well defined graph is verifying that $r\left(s^{-1}\left(H^{0}\right)\right) \subseteq H^{0}$. Take $z \in H^{0}$ and $e \in E^{1}$ such that $s(e)=z$. But we have $w \leq z$ and thus $w \leq r(e)$ as well, that is, $r(e) \in H^{0}$.

Using that $H$ is acyclic, along with the same argument as given in Theorem 4, we have that $L(H)$ is a subalgebra of $L(E)$. Thus Proposition 4 applies, which yields that $L(H)$ is the union of finite dimensional subalgebras, and therefore contains no infinite idempotents by Lemma 8. As $w L(H) w$ is a subalgebra of $L(H)$, it too contains no infinite idempotents, and thus is not purely infinite.

We claim that $w L(H) w=w L(E) w$. To see this, given $\alpha=\sum p_{i} q_{i}^{*} \in L(E)$, then $w \alpha w=\sum p_{i_{j}} q_{i_{j}}^{*}$ with $s\left(p_{i_{j}}\right)=w=s\left(q_{i_{j}}\right)$ and therefore $p_{i_{j}}, q_{i_{j}} \in L(H)$. Thus $w L(E) w$ is not purely infinite as desired.

We thank P. Ara for indicating the following result, which will provide the direction of proof for our main theorem. A right $A$-module $T$ is called directly infinite in case $T$ contains a proper direct summand $T^{\prime}$ such that $T^{\prime} \cong T$. (In particular, the idempotent $e$ is infinite precisely when $e A$ is directly infinite.) Recall that a ring $A$ has local units if for every finite subset $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\} \subseteq A$ there exists $e=e^{2} \in A$ with $x_{i} \in e A e$ for every $i=1, \ldots, n$.

Proposition 10. Let $A$ be a ring with local units. The following are equivalent:
(i) A is purely infinite simple.
(ii) $A$ is simple, and for each nonzero finitely generated projective right $A$-module $P$, every nonzero submodule $C$ of $P$ contains a direct summand $T$ of $P$ for which $T$ is directly infinite. (In particular, the property 'purely infinite simple' is a Morita invariant of the ring.)
(iii) $w A w$ is purely infinite simple for every nonzero idempotent $w \in A$.
(iv) $A$ is simple, and there exists a nonzero idempotent $w$ in $A$ for which $w A w$ is purely infinite simple.
(v) $A$ is not a division ring, and $A$ has the property that for every pair of nonzero elements $\alpha, \beta$ in $A$ there exist elements $a, b$ in $A$ such that $a \alpha b=\beta$.
Proof: (i) $\Leftrightarrow$ (ii). Suppose $A$ is purely infinite simple. Let $P$ be any nonzero finitely generated projective right $A$-module. Then $P$ is a generator for $\operatorname{Mod}-A$, as follows. Since $A$ generates $\operatorname{Mod}-A$ and $P$ is finitely generated we have an integer $n$ such that $P \oplus P^{\prime} \cong A^{n}$
as right $A$-modules. Again using that $P$ is finitely generated, and using that $A$ has local units, we have that $P$ is isomorphic to a direct summand of a right $A$-module of the form $f_{1} A \oplus \ldots \oplus f_{t} A$, where each $f_{i}$ is idempotent. But this gives $H o m_{A}\left(P, f_{1} A \oplus \cdots \oplus f_{t} A\right) \neq 0$, which in turn gives $0 \neq \operatorname{Hom}_{A}\left(P, A^{t}\right) \cong\left(\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(P, A)\right)^{t}$, so that $\operatorname{Hom}_{A}(P, A) \neq 0$. But $\Sigma\left\{a \in A \mid a=g(p)\right.$ for some $p \in P$ and some $\left.g \in \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(P, A)\right\}$ is then a nonzero twosided ideal of $A$, which necessarily equals $A$ as $A$ is simple. Now let $e=e^{2} \in A$. Then $e=\sum_{i=1}^{r} g_{i}\left(p_{i}\right)$ for some $p_{i} \in P$ and $g_{i} \in \operatorname{Hom}_{A}(P, A)$, which gives that $\lambda_{e} \circ \oplus g_{i}$ : $P^{r} \rightarrow A \rightarrow e A$ is a surjection. Since $P$ generates $e A$ for each idempotent $e$ of $A$, we conclude that $P$ generates $\operatorname{Mod}-A$.

This observation allows us to argue exactly as in the proof of [5, Lemma 1.4 and Proposition 1.5] that if $e=e^{2} \in A$, then there exists a right $A$-module $Q$ for which $e A \cong P \oplus Q$. Since $A$ is purely infinite, there exists an infinite idempotent $e \in A$. The indicated isomorphism yields that any submodule $C$ of $P$ is isomorphic to a submodule $C^{\prime}$ of $e A$, so that by the hypothesis that $A$ is purely infinite we have that $C^{\prime}$ contains a submodule $T^{\prime}$ which is directly infinite, and for which $T^{\prime}$ is a direct summand of $e A$. But by a standard argument, any direct summand of $e A$ is equal to $f A$ for some idempotent $f \in A$, so that $T^{\prime}=f A$ for some infinite idempotent $f$ of $A$. Let $T$ be the preimage of $T^{\prime}$ in $P \oplus Q$ under the isomorphism. Then $T$ is directly infinite, and since $f A$ is a direct summand of $e A$ we have that $T$ is a direct summand of $P \oplus Q$ which is contained in $P$, and hence $T$ is a direct summand of $P$.

By [2, Proposition 3.3], the lattice of two-sided ideals of Morita equivalent rings are isomorphic, so that any ring Morita equivalent to a simple ring is simple. Therefore, since the indicated property is clearly preserved by equivalence functors, we have that 'purely infinite simple' is a Morita invariant.

For the converse, let $I$ be a nonzero right ideal of $A$. We show that $I$ contains an infinite idempotent. Let $0 \neq x \in I$, so that $x A \leq I$. But $x=e x$ for some $e=e^{2} \in A$, so $x A \leq e A$. So by hypothesis, $x A$ contains a nonzero direct summand $T$ of $e A$, where $T$ is directly infinite. But as noted above we have that $T=f A$ for $f=f^{2} \in A$, where $f$ is infinite. Thus $f \in T \leq x A \leq I$ and we are done.
(ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii). Since we have established the equivalence of (i) and (ii), we may assume $A$ is purely infinite simple. Then the simplicity of $A$ gives that $A w A=A$ for any nonzero idempotent $w \in A$, which yields by [2, Proposition 3.5] that $A$ and $w A w$ are Morita equivalent, so that (iii) follows immediately from (ii).
(iii) $\Rightarrow$ (iv). It is tedious but straightforward to show that if $A$ is any ring with local units, and $w A w$ is a simple (unital) ring for every nonzero idempotent $w$ of $A$, then $A$ is simple.
(iv) $\Rightarrow$ (i). Since $A$ is simple we get $A w A=A$, so that $A$ and $w A w$ are Morita
equivalent by the previously cited [2, Proposition 3.5].
Thus we have established the equivalence of statements (i) through (iv).
(i) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{v})$. Suppose $A$ is purely infinite simple. Then $A$ is not left artinian, so that $A$ cannot be a division ring. Now choose nonzero $\alpha, \beta \in A$. Then there exists a nonzero idempotent $w \in A$ such that $\alpha, \beta \in w A w$. But $w A w$ is purely infinite simple by (i) $\Leftrightarrow$ (iii), so by [5, Theorem 1.6] there exist $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime} \in w A w$ such that $a^{\prime} \alpha b^{\prime}=w$. But then for $a=a^{\prime}, b=b^{\prime} \beta$ we have $a \alpha b=\beta$. Conversely, suppose $A$ is not a division ring, and that $A$ satisfies the indicated property. Since $A$ is not a division ring and $A$ is a ring with local units, there exists a nonzero idempotent $w$ of $A$ for which $w A w$ is not a division ring. Let $\alpha \in w A w$. Then by hypothesis there exist $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}$ in $A$ with $a^{\prime} \alpha b^{\prime}=w$. But since $\alpha \in w A w$, by defining $a=w a^{\prime} w$ and $b=w b^{\prime} w$ we have $a \alpha b=w$. Thus another application of [5, Theorem 1.6] (noting that $w$ is the identity of $w A w$ ) gives the desired conclusion.
$(\mathrm{v}) \Rightarrow$ (iv). The indicated multiplicative property yields that any nonzero ideal of $A$ will contain a set of local units for $A$, so that $A$ is simple. Since $A$ is not a division ring and $A$ has local units there exists a nonzero idempotent $w$ of $A$ such that $w A w$ is not a division ring. Let $\alpha, \beta \in w A w$; in particular, $w \alpha w=\alpha$ and $w \beta w=\beta$. By hypothesis there exists $a, b \in A$ such that $a \alpha b=\beta$. But then $(w a w) \alpha(w b w)=w \beta w=\beta$, which yields that $w A w$ is purely infinite simple by [5, Theorem 1.6].

We now have all the necessary ingredients in hand to prove the main result of this article.
Theorem 11. Let $E$ be a graph. Then $L(E)$ is purely infinite simple if and only if $E$ has the following properties.
(i) The only hereditary and saturated subsets of $E^{0}$ are $\emptyset$ and $E^{0}$.
(ii) Every cycle in $E$ has an exit.
(iii) Every vertex connects to a cycle.

Proof: First, assume (i), (ii) and (iii) hold. By Theorem 5 we have that $L(E)$ is simple. By Proposition 10 it suffices to show that $L(E)$ is not a division ring, and that for every pair of elements $\alpha, \beta$ in $L(E)$ there exist elements $a, b$ in $L(E)$ such that $a \alpha b=\beta$. Conditions (ii) and (iii) easily imply that $\left|E^{1}\right|>1$, so that $L(E)$ has zero divisors, and thus is not a division ring.

We now apply Proposition 6 to find $\bar{a}, \bar{b} \in L(E)$ such that $\bar{a} \alpha \bar{b}=w \in E^{0}$. By condition (iii), $w$ connects to a vertex $v \notin V_{0}$. Either $w=v$ or there exists a path $p$ such that $r(p)=v$ and $s(p)=w$. By choosing $a^{\prime}=b^{\prime}=v$ in the former case, and $a^{\prime}=p^{*}, b^{\prime}=p$ in the latter, we have produced elements $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime} \in L(E)$ such that $a^{\prime} w b^{\prime}=v$.

An application of Lemma 7 yields that $v \in V_{2}$, so there exist $p, q \in C S P(v)$ with $p \neq q$. For any $m>0$ let $c_{m}$ denote the closed path $p^{m-1} q$. Using [1, Lemma 2.2], it is
not difficult to show that $c_{m}^{*} c_{n}=\delta_{m n} v$ for every $m, n>0$.
Now consider any vertex $v_{l} \in E^{0}$. Since $L(E)$ is simple, there exist $\left\{a_{i}, b_{i} \in L(E) \mid 1 \leq\right.$ $i \leq t\}$ such that $v_{l}=\sum_{i=1}^{t} a_{i} v b_{i}$. But by defining $a_{l}=\sum_{i=1}^{t} a_{i} c_{i}^{*}$ and $b_{l}=\sum_{j=1}^{t} c_{j} b_{j}$, we get

$$
a_{l} v b_{l}=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{t} a_{i} c_{i}^{*}\right) v\left(\sum_{j=1}^{t} c_{j} b_{j}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{t} a_{i} c_{i}^{*} v c_{i} b_{i}=v_{l} .
$$

Now let $s$ be a left local unit for $\beta$ (i.e., $s \beta=\beta$ ), and write $s=\sum_{v_{l} \in S} v_{l}$ for some finite subset of vertices $S$. By letting $\widetilde{a}=\sum_{v_{l} \in S} a_{l} c_{l}^{*}$ and $\widetilde{b}=\sum_{v_{l} \in S} c_{l} b_{l}$, we get

$$
\widetilde{a} v \widetilde{b}=\sum_{v_{l} \in S} a_{l} c_{l}^{*} v c_{l} b_{l}=\sum_{v_{l} \in S} v_{l}=s .
$$

Finally, letting $a=\widetilde{a} a^{\prime} \bar{a}$ and $b=\bar{b} b^{\prime} \widetilde{b} \beta$, we have that $a \alpha b=\beta$ as desired.
For the converse, suppose that $L(E)$ is purely infinite simple. By Theorem 5 we have (i) and (ii). If (iii) does not hold, then there exists a vertex $w \in E^{0}$ such that $w \leq v$ implies $v \in V_{0}$. Applying Proposition 9 we get that $w L(E) w$ is not purely infinite. But then Proposition 10 implies that $L(E)$ is not purely infinite, contrary to hypothesis.

## Examples 12.

(i) Let $E$ be the graph defined in Example 2 (i). Then $L(E) \cong M_{n}(K)$ which of course is simple, but not purely infinite since no vertex in $E^{0}$ connects to a cycle.
(ii) Let $n \geq 2$. Let $E$ be the graph defined in Example 2 (ii). Then $L(E) \cong L(1, n)$, the Leavitt algebra. Since $n \geq 2$ we see that all the hypotheses of Theorem 11 are satisfied, so that $L(1, n)$ is purely infinite simple.
(iii) Let $E$ be the graph having $E^{0}=\{v, w\}$ and $E^{1}=\{e, f, g\}$, where $s(e)=s(f)=v$, $r(e)=r(f)=w, s(g)=w, r(g)=v$. Then $E$ satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 11, so that $L(E)$ is purely infinite simple.

Let $L(1, n)$ denote the Leavitt algebra described in Example 2 (ii). We complete this article by providing a realization of the purely infinite simple algebra $M_{m}(L(1, n))$ as a Leavitt path algebra $L(E)$ for a specific graph $E$.

Proposition 13. Let $n \geq 2$ and $m \geq 1$. We define the graph $E_{n}^{m}$ by setting $E^{0}:=$ $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{m}\right\}, E^{1}:=\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{m-1}\right\}, r\left(f_{i}\right)=s\left(f_{i}\right)=v_{m}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, $r\left(e_{i}\right)=v_{i+1}$, and $s\left(e_{i}\right)=v_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq m-1$. Then $L\left(E_{n}^{m}\right) \cong M_{m}(L(1, n))$.

Proof: We define $\Phi: K\left[E^{0} \cup E^{1} \cup\left(E^{1}\right)^{*}\right] \rightarrow M_{m}(L(1, n))$ on the generators by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Phi\left(v_{i}\right)=e_{i i} \text { for } 1 \leq i \leq m \\
& \Phi\left(e_{i}\right)=e_{i i+1} \text { and } \Phi\left(e_{i}^{*}\right)=e_{i+1 i} \text { for } 1 \leq i \leq m-1 \\
& \Phi\left(f_{i}\right)=y_{i} e_{m m} \text { and } \Phi\left(f_{i}^{*}\right)=x_{i} e_{m m} \text { for } 1 \leq i \leq n
\end{aligned}
$$

and extend linearly and multiplicatively to obtain a $K$-homomorphism. We now verify that $\Phi$ factors through the ideal of relations in $L\left(E_{n}^{m}\right)$.

First, $\Phi\left(v_{i} v_{j}-\delta_{i j} v_{i}\right)=e_{i i} e_{j j}-\delta_{i j} e_{i i}=0$. If we consider the relations $e_{i}-e_{i} r\left(e_{i}\right)$ then we have $\Phi\left(e_{i}-e_{i} r\left(e_{i}\right)\right)=\Phi\left(e_{i}-e_{i} v_{i+1}\right)=e_{i i+1}-e_{i i+1} e_{i+1 i+1}=0$, and analogously $\Phi\left(e_{i}-s\left(e_{i}\right) e_{i}\right)=0$. For the relations $f_{i}-f_{i} r\left(f_{i}\right)$ we get $\Phi\left(f_{i}-f_{i} r\left(f_{i}\right)\right)=\Phi\left(f_{i}-f_{i} v_{m}\right)=$ $y_{i} e_{m m}-y_{i} e_{m m} e_{m m}=0$, and similarly $\Phi\left(f_{i}-s\left(f_{i}\right) f_{i}\right)=0$. With similar computations it is easy to also see that $\Phi\left(e_{i}^{*}-e_{i}^{*} r\left(e_{i}^{*}\right)\right)=\Phi\left(e_{i}^{*}-s\left(e_{i}^{*}\right) e_{i}^{*}\right)=\Phi\left(f_{i}^{*}-f_{i}^{*} r\left(f_{i}^{*}\right)\right)=$ $\Phi\left(f_{i}^{*}-s\left(f_{i}^{*}\right) f_{i}^{*}\right)=0$.

We now check the Cuntz-Krieger relations. First, $\Phi\left(e_{i}^{*} e_{j}-\delta_{i j} r\left(e_{j}\right)\right)=\Phi\left(e_{i}^{*} e_{j}-\right.$ $\left.\delta_{i j} v_{j+1}\right)=e_{i+1 i} e_{j j+1}-\delta_{i j} e_{j+1 j+1}=\delta_{i j} e_{i+1 j+1}-\delta_{i j} e_{j+1 j+1}=0$. Second, $\Phi\left(f_{i}^{*} f_{j}-\right.$ $\left.\delta_{i j} r\left(f_{j}\right)\right)=\Phi\left(f_{i}^{*} f_{j}-\delta_{i j} v_{m}\right)=x_{i} e_{m m} y_{j} e_{m m}-\delta_{i j} e_{m m}=0$, because of the relation (1) in $L(1, n)$. Finally, $\Phi\left(f_{i}^{*} e_{j}-\delta_{f_{i}, e_{j}} r\left(e_{j}\right)\right)=\Phi\left(f_{i}^{*} e_{j}-0 v_{j+1}\right)=\Phi\left(f_{i}^{*} e_{j}\right)=x_{i} e_{m m} e_{j j+1}=0$, and similarly $\Phi\left(e_{i}^{*} f_{j}-\delta_{e_{i}, f_{j}} r\left(f_{j}\right)\right)=0$.

With CK2 we have two cases. First, for $i<m, \Phi\left(v_{i}-e_{i} e_{i}^{*}\right)=e_{i i}-e_{i i+1} e_{i+1 i}=0$. And for $v_{m}$ we have $\Phi\left(v_{m}-\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_{i} f_{i}^{*}\right)=e_{m m}-\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i} e_{m m} x_{i} e_{m m}=0$, because of the relation (2) in $L(1, n)$.

This shows that we can factor $\Phi$ to obtain a $K$-homomorphism of algebras $\Phi: L\left(E_{n}^{m}\right) \rightarrow$ $M_{m}(L(1, n))$. We will see that $\Phi$ is onto. Consider any matrix unit $e_{i j}$ and $x_{k} \in$ $L(1, n)$. If we take the path $p=e_{i} \ldots e_{n-1} f_{k}^{*} e_{n-1}^{*} \ldots e_{j}^{*} \in L\left(E_{n}^{m}\right)$ then we get $\Phi(p)=$ $e_{i i+1} \ldots e_{n-1 n}\left(x_{k} e_{n n}\right) e_{n n-1} \ldots e_{j+1 j}=x_{k} e_{i j}$. Similarly $\Phi\left(e_{i} \ldots e_{n-1} f_{k} e_{n-1}^{*} \ldots e_{j}^{*}\right)=$ $y_{k} e_{i j}$. In this way we get that all the generators of $M_{m}(L(1, n))$ are in $\operatorname{Im}(\Phi)$.

Finally, using the same ideas as those presented in [1, Corollary 3.13 (i)], we see that $E_{n}^{m}$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 5, which yields the simplicity of $L\left(E_{n}^{m}\right)$. This implies that $\Phi$ is necessarily injective, and therefore an isomorphism.

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