

C*-Algebras Associated With One Dimensional Almost Periodic Tilings

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Abstract: For each irrational number, $0 < \alpha < 1$, we consider the space of one dimensional almost periodic tilings obtained by the projection method using a line of slope α . On this space we put the relation generated by translation and the identification of the “singular pairs.” We represent this as a topological space X_α with an equivalence relation R_α . On R_α there is a natural locally Hausdorff topology from which we obtain a topological groupoid with a Haar system. We then construct the C*-algebra of this groupoid and show that it is the irrational rotation C*-algebra, A_α .

Given a topological space X and an equivalence relation R on X , one can form the quotient space X/R and give it the quotient topology. It frequently happens however that the quotient topology has very few open sets. For example let X be the unit circle, which we shall write as $[0,1]$ with the endpoints identified and the group law given by addition modulo 1. Fix α , irrational, $0 < \alpha < 1$, and let $R = \{(x, y) \mid x - y \in \mathbb{Z} + \alpha\mathbb{Z}\}$. Since each equivalence class of R is dense in X , the only open sets in X/R are \emptyset and X/R .

However the equivalence relation R has the structure of a groupoid and if we can put a topology on R , (usually not the product topology of $X \times X$), so that R becomes a topological groupoid:

- (i) $R \ni (x, y) \mapsto (y, x) \in R$ is continuous, and
- (ii) $R^2 \ni ((x, y), (y, z)) \mapsto (x, z) \in R$ is continuous,

and we can find a compatible family $\{\mu^x\}$ of measures (μ^x is a measure on $R^x = \{(x, y) \mid x \sim y\}$), called a Haar system (see Renault [7, Definition I.2.2]), one can construct a C*-algebra, $C^*(R, \mu)$, by completing $C_{oo}(R)$, the continuous functions on R with compact support in a suitable norm.

In the example above of the relation R on the unit circle S^1 , suppose $(x, y) \in R$, so there is $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $(x + n\alpha) - y \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let $\mathcal{U} \subseteq S^1$ be a neighbourhood

of x , then a basic neighbourhood of (x, y) in R is given by $\{(a, a + n\alpha) \mid a \in \mathcal{U}\}$. On $R^\times = \{(x, x + n\alpha) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ we put the counting measure. With this information one can construct the C^* -algebra of this topological groupoid by completing $C_{oo}(R)$ in a C^* -norm; see Renault [7, Definition II.1.12].

In this paper we shall show how this same C^* -algebra arises as the “non-commutative” space of a set of one dimensional almost periodic tilings of \mathbb{R} .

For each irrational number α , $0 < \alpha < 1$, let T_α be the space of tilings obtained from the projection method using a line of slope α . We shall classify the tilings in T_α as follows. Given $\mathbf{T} \in T_\alpha$ we choose a tile t in \mathbf{T} and construct in an explicit way a sequence (x_i) in $X_\alpha = \{(x_i) \mid x_i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, a_i\} \text{ and } x_{i+1} = 0 \text{ whenever } x_i = a_i\}$, where $\alpha = [0; a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots]$ is the continued fraction expansion of α . The sequence of X_α constructed from (t, \mathbf{T}) depends on the choice of the tile t . So we put on X_α the smallest equivalence relation so that the sequence obtained from (t, \mathbf{T}) is equivalent to the sequence obtained from (t', \mathbf{T}) for any other tile $t' \in \mathbf{T}$. By putting a topology and a Haar system on this relation we construct a C^* -algebra and show that it is the irrational rotation C^* -algebra A_α .

A number of authors have considered C^* -algebras associated with almost periodic tilings. This paper was motivated by the observation of Connes [3, II.3] that the space of Penrose tilings are classified by the space $\{(x_i) \mid x_i \in \{0, 1\} \text{ and } x_{i+1} = 0 \text{ whenever } x_i = 1\}$ ($= X_{\frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}}$ in our notation) modulo the equivalence relation of tail equivalence. Connes then shows that the C^* -algebra of this equivalence relation is the simple AF C^* -algebra $AF_{\frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}}$ with $K_0 = \mathbb{Z} + \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}\mathbb{Z}$ (as an additive subgroup of \mathbb{R}) and positive cone $(\mathbb{Z} + \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}\mathbb{Z})_+$. In [5] J. Kellendonk considers C^* -algebras associated with almost periodic tilings, however the algebras constructed are the C^* -crossed products associated with an action of \mathbb{Z} on a Cantor set and thus have $K_1 = \mathbb{Z}$. In [1] Anderson and Putnam consider C^* -algebras associated with substitution tilings. While our tilings are also substitution tilings, the substitution rule will (in general) change at each iteration; thus the tilings considered here are different from those analysed by Anderson and Putnam.

An interesting feature of our construction is that there is a sub-relation $\mathcal{R}_\alpha \subseteq R_\alpha$. $\mathcal{R}_\alpha = \{(x, y) \in X_\alpha \times X_\alpha \mid x \text{ is tail equivalent to } y\}$. The topology of R_α restricted to \mathcal{R}_α is a Hausdorff topology and \mathcal{R}_α is a principal r -discrete groupoid. We shall show that $C^*(\mathcal{R}_\alpha)$ is a simple AF-algebra with the same ordered K_0 group as A_α .

Let us now describe in detail the plan of the paper. In Sect. 1 we give a brief overview of the tilings under consideration; full details will be published separately [6].

In Sect. 2 we put a topology on the relation \mathcal{R}_α , of tail equivalence on X_α , and show that it yields a principal r -discrete groupoid whose C^* -algebra is AF and we show that its ordered K_0 is $(\mathbb{Z} + \alpha\mathbb{Z}, (\mathbb{Z} + \alpha\mathbb{Z})_+)$ with the class of the identity equal to 1.

In Sect. 3 we describe an isomorphism φ between $S^1_{N\alpha}$ and X_α , where $S^1_{N\alpha}$ is the Cantor set obtained by disconnecting the circle S^1 along the forward orbit of $0: \{0, \alpha, 2\alpha, 3\alpha, \dots\}$. On the space $S^1_{N\alpha}$ there is the partial homeomorphism of adding α modulo 1 with domain $S^1_{N\alpha} \setminus \{-\alpha\}$. We construct a partial homeomorphism Θ on X_α , such that φ intertwines Θ and the partial homeomorphism on $S^1_{N\alpha}$. The relation $x \sim \Theta(x)$ on X_α is exactly tail equivalence.

In Sect. 4 we put a topology on the relation R_α and construct a continuous onto map $\Phi: R_\alpha \rightarrow S^1 \rtimes_\alpha \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\Phi^*: C_{oo}(S^1 \rtimes_\alpha \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ is an isomorphism

of vector spaces, where $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ is the space of functions whose support is the closure of a compact set.

In Sect. 5 we construct a Haar system $\{\mu^x\}$ on R_α and use this to put the structure of a $*$ -algebra on $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$. Then we show that Φ^* is a $*$ -homomorphism. This then implies that $C^*(R_\alpha, \mu)$ is isomorphic to A_α .

1. The Tilings

The tilings we consider are doubly infinite sequences $\{t_i\}_{i=-\infty}^\infty$, where $t_i \in \{\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}\}$ and which satisfy three axioms.

(A₁): the letter **a** is isolated: if $t_i = \mathbf{a}$ then $t_{i-1} = t_{i+1} = \mathbf{b}$.

(A₂): there is an integer n such that between **a**'s there are either n or $n+1$ **b**'s.

A sequence which satisfies (A₁) and (A₂) is *composable*. Given a composable sequence \mathbf{T} we can produce a new sequence \mathbf{T}' by *composition*: each segment beginning with an **a** and followed by n **b**'s gets replaced by a **b**, and each segment beginning with an **a** and followed by $n+1$ **b**'s gets replaced by **ba**.

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{a} \mathbf{b} \mathbf{b} \dots \mathbf{b}}_n \mapsto \mathbf{b} \quad \text{and} \quad \underbrace{\mathbf{a} \mathbf{b} \mathbf{b} \dots \mathbf{b}}_{n+1} \mapsto \mathbf{ba}$$

Axioms (A₁) and (A₂) are exactly what are needed in order to compose a sequence. The third axiom is then:

(A₃): each composition of the sequence produces a composable sequence.

We shall call a sequence satisfying axioms (A₁), (A₂), and (A₃) a *cutting sequence*, following C. Series [6].

A cutting sequence may be constructed by choosing a slope α and a y -intercept β for a line $\mathbf{L}: y = \alpha x + \beta$. We mark by an **a** each intersection of the line \mathbf{L} with the horizontal lines $y = i$ for $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ and by a **b** the intersection of \mathbf{L} with the vertical line $x = j$ for $j \in \mathbb{Z}$. This produces along \mathbf{L} a sequence of **a**'s and **b**'s.

If a line \mathbf{L} passes through a point (m, n) in \mathbb{Z}^2 we call it *singular* for at (m, n) an **a** and a **b** coincide. Such a line produces a *singular pair*: two cutting sequences \mathbf{T}^+ and \mathbf{T}^- . In the upper sequence \mathbf{T}^+ all coinciding **a**'s and **b**'s are written with the **a** preceding the **b**; in \mathbf{T}^- all coinciding **a**'s and **b**'s are written with the **a** following the **b**.

Via composition we may associate with a cutting sequence a real number $0 < \alpha < 1$ which we call the *slope* of the tiling. Let \mathbf{T} be a cutting sequence. Let \mathbf{T}_2

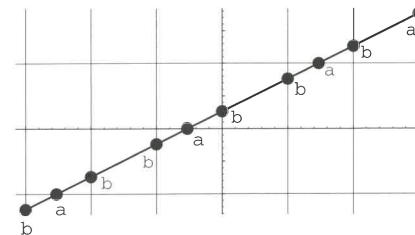


Fig. 1.

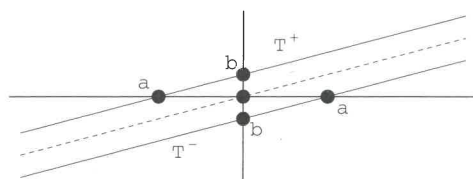


Fig. 2.

be the cutting sequence obtained from $T_1 = T$ by composition. In general, let T_{k+1} be the cutting sequence obtained from T_k by composition. For each i there is, by axiom (A_2) , an integer n_i such that in T_i there are between adjacent **a**'s either n_i or n_{i+1} **b**'s. This produces a sequence of non-negative integers $\{n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots\}$. Let α be the real number with continued fraction expansion $[0; n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots]$, adopting the convention that a trailing sequence of 0's is dropped. Let T_α be the set of cutting sequences of slope α .

A line of slope α will produce a cutting sequence of slope α , moreover for each cutting sequence of slope α there is a β (not unique) such that the line $y = \alpha x + \beta$ will produce the given cutting sequence.

Motivated by the classification (see [3]) of Penrose tilings by sequences of 0's and 1's where a 1 must be followed by a 0, modulo tail equivalence, we can classify the cutting sequences of slope α by sequences of integers. If α is rational then there is up to translation only one cutting sequence and it is periodic.

Suppose that $0 < \alpha < 1$ and α is irrational. Let $[0; a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots]$ be the continued fraction expansion of α . Let $X_\alpha = \{(x_i)_{i=1}^\infty \mid x_i \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, a_i\} \text{ and } x_i = a_i \text{ implies } x_{i+1} = 0\}$. We give X_α the topology it inherits as a subspace of $\prod_{i=1}^\infty \{0, 1, 2, \dots, a_i\}$ with the product topology. X_α becomes a separable totally disconnected metrizable space, i.e. a Cantor set. When $\alpha = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$, X_α is the space which classifies the Penrose tilings.

Suppose $T \in T_\alpha$ is a cutting sequence of slope α and t is a letter in T . Let $T_1 = T$, and T_i be the sequence of cutting sequences obtained by composition. The letter $t \in T$ will be absorbed into a letter t_2 of T_2 , this letter t_2 will be absorbed into a letter t_3 of T_3 .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \underbrace{ab\bar{b}b\dots b}_{\downarrow} & t_i & \in T_i \\ ba\bar{b}ab & t_{i+1} & \in T_{i+1} \end{array}$$

Letting $t_1 = t$ we obtain a sequence $\{t_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ with $t_i \in T_i$. The sequence $(x_i) \in X_\alpha$ associated with the pair (T, t) is constructed as follows. If $t_i = a$ then $x_i = 0$, if $t_i = b$ then x_i is the number of **b**'s between t_i and the first **a** to the left of t_i . In the example above $x_i = 1$ and $x_{i+1} = 0$. This describes a map from $\{(T, t) \mid t \in T \in T_\alpha\}$ to X_α . If t and t' are in T then we will obtain two sequences (x_i) and (x'_i) in X_α which will be in general different. If T is not singular then (x_i) and (x'_i) will be *tail equivalent*, i.e. there is an integer k such that $x_i = x'_i$ for $i > k$. If α is irrational and T is singular, this may not happen.

Let us denote by $0^+ = (0, a_2, 0, a_4, \dots)$, $0^- = (a_1, 0, a_3, 0, \dots)$, and $-\alpha = (a_1 - 1, a_2 - 1, a_3 - 1, a_4 - 1, \dots)$ three sequences in X_α . If T is a T^+ then each (x_i) will be tail equivalent to either 0^+ or $-\alpha$. If T is a T^- then each (x_i) will be tail equivalent to either 0^- or $-\alpha$.

Suppose now that on the set of cutting sequences with slope α , T_α , we say that T_1 is equivalent to T_2 , if by shifting T_1 a finite number of letters to the left or right it agrees with T_2 and that we decree that the upper and lower sequences for a singular line are equivalent (as in fact they only differ by a single transposition of an **a** and a **b** at the one singular point). Transferring this relation to X_α it becomes the relation R_α generated by tail equivalence and $0^+ \sim 0^- \sim -\alpha$.

In [6] we prove that the map from T_α to X_α is onto and tail equivalence plus $0^+ \sim 0^- \sim -\alpha$ classifies the tilings of slope α .

2. $K_0(C^*(\mathcal{R}))$

In this section we calculate K_0 of the AF C*-algebra $C^*(\mathcal{R})$ and show that it is equal to $(\mathbb{Z} + \alpha\mathbb{Z}, (\mathbb{Z} + \alpha\mathbb{Z})_+, [1])$. The equivalence relation \mathcal{R} defines an AF groupoid, and thus this C*-algebra is AF (see Renault [7, Proposition III.1.5]). We shall follow the construction given by Connes [3, II.3].

Let $0 < \alpha < 1$ be irrational and $[0; a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots]$ be its continued fraction expansion. Let $X_\alpha = \{(x_i)_{i=1}^\infty \mid x_i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, a_i\} \text{ and } x_i = a_i \text{ implies } x_{i+1} = 0\}$ and $\mathcal{R}_\alpha = \{(x, y) \in X_\alpha \times X_\alpha \mid \text{there is } k \text{ such that } x_i = y_i \text{ for } i > k\}$. To simplify the notation we shall write X for X_α and \mathcal{R} for \mathcal{R}_α , as α will be fixed throughout this section.

We construct a topology on \mathcal{R} as follows. Suppose $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}$ for each k such that $x_i = y_i$ for $i > k$ we construct a basic neighbourhood $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) = \{(a, b) \in \mathcal{R} \mid a_i = x_i \text{ and } b_i = y_i \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq k \text{ and } a_i = b_i \text{ for } i > k\}$.

Suppose $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}$, and $x_i = y_i$ for $i > k$, also $(x', y') \in \mathcal{R}$ and $x'_i = y'_i$ for $i > k'$, and $k' > k$. Then either $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$ and $\mathcal{U}(x', y', k')$ are disjoint or $\mathcal{U}(x', y', k') \subseteq \mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$. For suppose $(a, b) \in \mathcal{U}(x, y, k) \cap \mathcal{U}(x', y', k')$. Then $a_i = x_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ and $a_i = x'_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k'$. Hence $x_i = x'_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Similarly $y_i = y'_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Since $a_i = b_i$ for $i > k$, we have $x'_i = y'_i$ for $i > k$. Thus $(x', y') \in \mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$, so $\mathcal{U}(x', y', k') \subseteq \mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$. Thus the set $\{\mathcal{U}(x, y, k)\}$ forms a base for a topology of \mathcal{R} .

By defining $r(x, y) = (x, x)$ and $d(x, y) = (y, y)$, \mathcal{R} becomes an r -discrete principal groupoid in the sense of Renault [7, I.Sect. 1 and I.Sect. 2]. The sets $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$ are compact open \mathcal{R} -sets in that both r and d are one-to-one when restricted to $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$.

$C^*(\mathcal{R})$ will be the completion of the space of continuous functions on \mathcal{R} with compact support with respect to a norm that we will presently construct.

Let $\mathcal{R}^{(k)} = \{(x, y) \in X \times X \mid x_i = y_i \text{ for } i > k\}$. Then $\mathcal{R} = \bigcup_k \mathcal{R}^{(k)}$. If $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ then $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k') \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ for some $k' \leq k$. So $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ is an open subset of \mathcal{R} . If $x_i \neq y_i$ for some $i > k$ then $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k')$ is disjoint from $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$, where $k' (> k)$ is such that $x_i = y_i$ for $i > k'$. Hence $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ is also closed in \mathcal{R} . Since $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ we see that \mathcal{R} has the inductive limit topology associated with the sequence

$$\mathcal{R}^{(0)} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{(1)} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{(2)} \subseteq \dots \subseteq \mathcal{R}.$$

Let us show that each $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ is compact. In doing so we shall see that $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ is an elementary groupoid in the terminology of Renault [7, p. 123]. First we develop some notation. Let $X^{(k)} = \{(x_i)_{i=k+1}^\infty \mid x_i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, a_i\} \text{ and } x_i = a_i \text{ implies } x_{i+1} = 0\}$, and $\tilde{X}^{(k)}$ be the subset of $X^{(k)}$ consisting of those sequences which begin with 0: $\tilde{X}^{(k)} = \{x \in X^{(k)} \mid x_{k+1} = 0\}$, $X^{(0)} = X$. Give $X^{(k)}$ and $\tilde{X}^{(k)}$ the product topology.

Each $X^{(k)}$ and each $\tilde{X}^{(k)}$ is compact. Let $X_{(k)} = \{(x_1, \dots, x_k) \mid x_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, a_k\} \text{ and } x_{i+1} = 0 \text{ whenever } x_i = a_i\}$. Let $\mathcal{R}_{(k)} = \{(x, y) \in X_{(k)} \times X_{(k)} \mid x_k = y_k\}$. Give $X_{(k)}$ and $\mathcal{R}_{(k)}$ the discrete topology. Write $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ as the disjoint union of two groupoids $\mathcal{R}^{(k)} \cup \mathcal{R}^{(k)\sim}$: $\mathcal{R}^{(k)} = \{(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}_{(k)} \mid x_k \neq a_k\}$ and $\mathcal{R}^{(k)\sim} = \{(x, y) \mid x_k = a_k\}$. We shall next show that $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ is homeomorphic to the Cartesian product of a finite set and $X^{(k)}$. In the following lemma we put the product topology on each of $\mathcal{R}^{(k)} \times X^{(k)}$ and $\mathcal{R}^{(k)\sim} \times \tilde{X}^{(k)}$, and denote by $\mathcal{R}^{(k)} \times X^{(k)} \cup \mathcal{R}^{(k)\sim} \times \tilde{X}^{(k)}$ their topological disjoint sum.

Lemma 2.1. *The map*

$$(*) \quad (x, y) \mapsto ((x_1, \dots, x_k), (y_1, \dots, y_k), (x_{k+1}, x_{k+2}, \dots))$$

is a homeomorphism from $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ to $\mathcal{R}^{(k)} \times X^{(k)} \cup \mathcal{R}^{(k)\sim} \times \tilde{X}^{(k)}$. So $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ is compact.

Proof. The map is one-to-one as, for $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ we have $x_{k+1} = y_{k+1}$, $x_{k+2} = y_{k+2}, \dots$. If $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}^{(k)\sim}$ and $z \in X_{(k)}$ then $(x_1, \dots, x_k, z_{k+1}, \dots)$ and $(y_1, \dots, y_k, z_{k+1}, \dots)$ are in X as neither x_k nor y_k is equal to a_k . Also given $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}^{(k)\sim}$ and $z \in \tilde{X}^{(k)}$ the sequences $(x_1, \dots, x_k, z_{k+1}, z_{k+2}, \dots) = (x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}, a_k, 0, z_{k+2}, \dots)$ and $(y_1, \dots, y_k, z_{k+1}, \dots) = (x_1, \dots, y_{k-1}, a_k, 0, z_{k+2}, \dots)$ are in X . Thus the map is onto. The map also takes the basic open sets $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k')$ (for $k' > k$) for the topology of $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$ to basic open sets in $\mathcal{R}^{(k)} \times X^{(k)} \cup \mathcal{R}^{(k)\sim} \times \tilde{X}^{(k)}$. Hence $(*)$ is a homeomorphism.

$\mathcal{R}_{(k)}$ is a finite equivalence relation. Let A_k be the C^* -algebra of $\mathcal{R}_{(k)}$; i.e. A_k is the complex vector space with basis $\{e_{(x,y)} \mid (x,y) \in \mathcal{R}_{(k)}\}$, with involution $e_{(x,y)}^* = e_{(y,x)}$ and product $e_{(x,y)}e_{(x',y')} = e_{(x,y')}$ if $y = x'$ and 0 otherwise. The product and involution are extended to all of A_k by linearity. We shall also find it convenient to think of $e_{(x,y)}$ as the characteristic function of the set $\{(x,y)\}$. For each k and $0 \leq i \leq a_k$ let m_i^k be the number of sequences of $X^{(k)}$ ending in i .

Lemma 2.2.

$$A_k \simeq M_{m_0^k}(\mathbb{C}) \oplus \dots \oplus M_{m_{a_k}^k}(\mathbb{C}).$$

Proof. For each $x \in X^{(k)}$ we have a projection $e_{(x,x)} \in A_k$. Moreover $e_{(x,x)} \sim e_{(y,y)}$ if and only if $x_k = y_k$. Hence $e_{(x,x)}$ and $e_{(y,y)}$ are centrally disjoint if $x_k \neq y_k$. Hence A_k has $1 + a_k$ central summands. Also for each $j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, a_k\}$, $\{e_{(x,x)} \mid x_k = j\}$ is a set of pairwise orthogonal pairwise equivalent projections which sum to the central support for the j^{th} summand ($0 \leq j \leq a_k$). Hence the size of the j^{th} summand is m_j^k .

Define $\psi_k : A_k \otimes C(X^{(k)}) \rightarrow C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)})$ by

$$\psi_k(a \otimes f)(x, y) = a((x_1, \dots, x_k), (y_1, \dots, y_k))f(x_{k+1}, x_{k+2}, \dots).$$

By Lemma 2 ψ_k is an isomorphism when restricted to the ideal

$$M_{m_0^k}(C(X^{(k)})) \oplus \dots \oplus M_{m_{a_k-1}^k}(C(X^{(k)})) \oplus M_{m_{a_k}^k}(C(\tilde{X}^{(k)})) \subseteq A_k \otimes C(X^{(k)}).$$

Let $C_{oo}(\mathcal{R})$ be the continuous functions on \mathcal{R} with compact support. If $f \in C_{oo}(\mathcal{R})$, then there is k such that the support of f is contained in $\mathcal{R}^{(k)}$, since $\{\mathcal{R}^{(k)}\}_k$ is an open cover of \mathcal{R} . Thus f is in the subspace $C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)})$. Hence $C_{oo}(\mathcal{R}) = \bigcup_k C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)})$. Thus \mathcal{R} is what Renault [7, p. 123] calls an AF groupoid.

Next we shall recall the $*$ -algebra structure on $C_{oo}(\mathcal{R})$. Suppose f and g are in $C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)})$. We define $f^* \in C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)})$ by $f^*(x, y) = \overline{f(y, x)}$ and $f * g$ in $C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)})$ by $f * g(x, y) = \sum_{(x,z) \in \mathcal{R}^{(k)}} f(x, z)g(z, y)$. The sum is finite because, for given x and k , $\{z \in X \mid (x, z) \in \mathcal{R}^{(k)}\}$ is finite. Each subspace $C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)})$ is a $*$ -subalgebra.

$A_k \otimes C(X^{(k)})$ has a unique C^* -norm, and thus so does

$$M_{m_0^k}(C(X^{(k)})) \oplus \dots \oplus M_{m_{a_k-1}^k}(C(X^{(k)})) \oplus M_{m_{a_k}^k}(C(\tilde{X}^{(k)})).$$

Hence $C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)})$ has a unique C^* -norm. Thus $C_{oo}(\mathcal{R})$ has a unique C^* -norm.

Definition 2.3. *$C^*(\mathcal{R})$, the C^* -algebra of the equivalence relation \mathcal{R} , is the completion of $C_{oo}(\mathcal{R})$ with respect to its unique norm.*

To calculate the K_0 group of $C^*(\mathcal{R})$ we have to carefully analyse the inclusion maps $i : C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)}) \rightarrow C(\mathcal{R}^{(k+1)})$ in terms of the maps ψ_k . For $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}_{(k)}$ let $S(x, y) = \{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \mid (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in \mathcal{R}_{(k+1)} \text{ and } x_i = \tilde{x}_i, y_i = \tilde{y}_i \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq k\}$. Define $\varphi_k : A_k \otimes C(X^{(k)}) \rightarrow A_{k+1} \otimes C(X^{(k+1)})$ by

$$\varphi_k(e_{(x,y)} \otimes f)(a_{k+2}, a_{k+3}, \dots) = \sum_{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in S(x,y)} e_{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})} f(\tilde{x}_{k+1}, a_{k+2}, \dots).$$

Lemma 2.4. *The diagram*

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)}) & \xrightarrow{i} & C(\mathcal{R}^{(k+1)}) \\ \psi_k \uparrow & & \uparrow \psi_{k+1} \\ A_k \otimes C(X^{(k)}) & \xrightarrow[\varphi_k]{} & A_{k+1} \otimes C(X^{(k+1)}) \end{array}$$

is commutative.

Proof. It is enough to check commutativity on the elementary tensors: $e_{(x,y)} \otimes f \in A_k \otimes C(X^{(k)})$. For $(a, b) \in \mathcal{R}$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \psi_{k+1}(\varphi_k(e_{(x,y)} \otimes f))(a, b) \\ &= \begin{cases} \sum_{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in S(x,y)} e_{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})}((a_1, \dots, a_{k+1}), (b_1, \dots, b_{k+1}))f(\tilde{x}_{k+1}, a_{k+2}, \dots) & \text{when } a_i = b_i \text{ for } i > k+1 \text{ and} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} f(\tilde{x}_{k+1}, a_{k+2}, \dots) & a_i = x_i, b_i = y_i \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq k+1 \\ & \text{and } a_i = b_i \text{ for } i > k+1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} f(a_{k+1}, a_{k+2}, \dots) & a_i = x_i, b_i = y_i \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq k \\ & \text{and } a_i = b_i \text{ for } i > k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ &= \psi_k(e_{(x,y)} \otimes f)(a, b). \end{aligned}$$

Note that φ_k carries $A_k \otimes 1$ into $A_{k+1} \otimes 1$. It is these maps that will enable us to calculate $K_0(C^*(\mathcal{R}))$. For we shall denote by A the limit of the inductive sequence

$$A_1 \xrightarrow{\varphi_1} A_2 \xrightarrow{\varphi_2} A_3 \xrightarrow{\varphi_3} \dots$$

and show that $A \simeq C^*(\mathcal{R})$ and then use the maps $\{\varphi_k\}$ to calculate $K_0(A)$. So we shall identify, where convenient, A_k with $A_k \otimes 1$. With this identification we have a sequence of commutative diagrams:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} C(\mathcal{R}^{(1)}) & \xrightarrow{i} & C(\mathcal{R}^{(2)}) & \xrightarrow{i} & \dots & \longrightarrow & C^*(\mathcal{R}) \\ \uparrow \psi_1 & & \uparrow \psi_2 & & & & \uparrow \psi \\ A_1 & \xrightarrow{\varphi_1} & A_2 & \xrightarrow{\varphi_2} & \dots & \longrightarrow & A \end{array}$$

Lemma 2.5. ψ is an isomorphism.

Proof. We shall show that the range of $\psi: \bigcup_k A_k \rightarrow C_{oo}(\mathcal{R})$ is dense. Let $f \in C(X^{(k)})$ and $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. For each $x \in X^{(k)}$ choose j_x such that on $O(x, j_x) = \{a \in X^{(k)} \mid a_i = x_i \text{ for } k \leq i \leq k + j_x - 1\}$, f varies by less than ε , i.e. $|f(y) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ for $y \in O(x, j_x)$. Then by the compactness of $X^{(k)}$, we may cover $X^{(k)}$ by a finite number of these sets $\{O(x_1, j_{x_1}), \dots, O(x_N, j_{x_N})\}$; since these sets are open and closed we may re-arrange them into a cover $\{O_1, \dots, O_K\}$ of pairwise disjoint open and closed sets, with $O_j \subseteq O(x_{i(j)}, j_{x_{i(j)}})$. Thus

$$\left\| f - \sum_{1 \leq j \leq K} f(x_{i(j)}) \chi_{O_j} \right\| < \varepsilon.$$

Let $j_{\max} = \max\{j_{x_1}, \dots, j_{x_N}\}$. Now $\varphi_{j_{\max}-1} \circ \dots \circ \varphi_k(1_{A_k} \otimes \chi_{O_j}) \in A_{j_{\max}} \otimes 1 \subseteq A_{j_{\max}} \otimes C(X^{(j_{\max})})$. Thus $\varphi_{j_{\max}-1} \circ \dots \circ \varphi_k(e(x, y) \otimes \chi_{O(x, j_x)})$ is within ε of an element of $A_{j_{\max}} \otimes 1$. Hence for each element $f \in C(\mathcal{R}^{(k)})$ and $\varepsilon > 0$ there is j and $\tilde{f} \in A_j \otimes 1$ such that $\|f - \psi_j(\tilde{f})\| < \varepsilon$. Hence the range of ψ is dense.

Each central projection in A_k produces one copy of \mathbb{Z} in $K_0(A_k)$. Thus $K_0(A_k) \simeq \mathbb{Z}^{1+a_k}$ with positive cone $\mathbb{Z}_+^{1+a_k} = \{(z_0, \dots, z_{a_k} \mid z_i \geq 0)\}$.

Lemma 2.6. Under the identification of $K_0(A_k)$ with \mathbb{Z}^{1+a_k} ,

$$[\varphi_k]: K_0(A_k) \rightarrow K_0(A_{k+1})$$

is represented by the $1 + a_{k+1} \times 1 + a_k$ matrix

$$T_k = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \dots & 1 & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \dots & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\text{i.e. } T_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & j < 1 + a_k \text{ or } i = 1 \\ 0 & j = 1 + a_k \text{ and } i > 1. \end{cases}$$

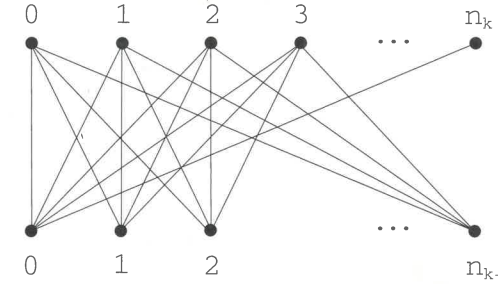


Fig. 3. The Bratteli diagram for the inclusion of A_k into A_{k+1} .

Proof. We only have to show that there is a map of multiplicity one from each central summand of A_k to each central summand of A_{k+1} with the exception of the last summand $M_{m_{a_k}}^k(\mathbb{C})$ of A_k . In the latter case we must show that $M_{m_{a_k}}^k(\mathbb{C})$ gets mapped only to the first summand $M_{m_0}^{k+1}(\mathbb{C})$ of A_{k+1} and that this map has multiplicity one.

Suppose $x \in X_{(k)}$ and $x_k \neq a_k$. Then $S(x, x) = \{((x, 0), (x, 0)), \dots, ((x, a_k), (x, a_k))\}$; i.e. the sequence x in $X_{(k)}$ can be extended to a sequence (x, i) in $X_{(k+1)}$ by adding any $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, a_{k+1}\}$ to the end of x . Hence in the sum $\varphi_k(e_{(x, x)}) = \sum_{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}) \in S(x, x)} e_{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x})}$ there is one term in each of the $1 + a_{k+1}$ summands of A_{k+1} .

Suppose $x \in X_{(k)}$ and $x_k = a_k$. Then x can be extended only by adding a 0, so $S(x, x) = \{((x, 0), (x, 0))\}$. Thus the last summand of A_k only gets mapped into the first of A_{k+1} and with multiplicity one.

The Bratteli diagram for the inclusion of A_k into A_{k+1} can be described as follows. There are $1 + a_k$ vertices on level k and an edge between the i^{th} vertex of the k^{th} level to the j^{th} vertex of the $(k+1)^{\text{st}}$ level if a sequence in $X_{(k)}$ ending in i can be extended to one in $X_{(k+1)}$ by appending a j .

For each k let $\xi_1^{(k)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\xi_2^{(k)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ be vectors in \mathbb{Z}^{1+a_k} . Then

$$T_k \xi_1^{(k)} = \begin{pmatrix} a_k + 1 \\ a_k \\ \vdots \\ a_k \end{pmatrix} = a_k \xi_1^{(k+1)} + \xi_2^{(k+1)} \quad \text{and} \quad T_k \xi_2^{(k)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \xi_1^{(k+1)}.$$

So let $\mathcal{E}^k \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^{1+a_k}$ be the span of $\{\xi_1^{(k)}, \xi_2^{(k)}\}$. Since the rank of T_k is two, we see that \mathcal{E}^{k+1} is the range of T_k and $\mathbb{Z}^{1+a_k} = \ker(T_k) \oplus \mathcal{E}^k$. Let $P = \{(m, n) \mid m \xi_1^{(k)} + n \xi_2^{(k)} \in \mathcal{E}^k\} = \{(m, n) \mid m \geq 0 \text{ and } m + n \geq 0\}$. Define a map $\mathcal{E}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^2$ by $m \xi_1^{(k)} + n \xi_2^{(k)} \mapsto (m, n)$. The positive part of \mathcal{E}^k gets mapped to P . Relative to the standard basis $\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right\}$ of \mathbb{Z}^2 we have $T_k = \begin{pmatrix} a_k & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Hence we have a sequence

$$\mathbb{Z}^2 \xrightarrow{T_1} \mathbb{Z}^2 \xrightarrow{T_2} \mathbb{Z}^2 \xrightarrow{T_3} \dots$$

with positive cone P at each term. Recall that $A_1 = \overbrace{\mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{C}}^{1+a_k}$ and so the class of 1 in $K_0(A_1)$ is $\xi_1^{(1)} \in \mathcal{E}^1 \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^{1+n_1}$. Under the map from \mathcal{E}^1 to \mathbb{Z}^2 $\xi_1^{(1)}$ is

sent to $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$. We shall compute $K_0(C^*(\mathcal{R}))$ using the following diagram – where

$$S_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad S_1 = S_0^{-1} T_1^{-1}, \dots, S_k = S_0^{-1} T_1^{-1} \dots T_k^{-1}.$$

$$(**) \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{Z}^2 & \xrightarrow{T_1} & \mathbb{Z}^2 & \xrightarrow{T_2} & \mathbb{Z}^2 & \xrightarrow{T_3} & \dots \\ \downarrow S_0 & & \downarrow S_1 & & \downarrow S_2 & & \dots \\ \mathbb{Z}^2 & \xlongequal{\quad} & \mathbb{Z}^2 & \xlongequal{\quad} & \mathbb{Z}^2 & \xlongequal{\quad} & \dots \end{array}$$

Since $T_k \dots T_1 S_0 = \begin{pmatrix} p_k & q_k \\ p_{k-1} & q_{k-1} \end{pmatrix}$, where $p_0 = 0$, $p_1 = 1, \dots, p_{k+1} = a_{k+1} p_k + p_{k-1}$ and $q_0 = 1$, $q_1 = a_1, \dots, q_{k+1} = a_{k+1} q_k + q_{k-1}$, $S_k = (-1)^{k+1} \begin{pmatrix} q_{k-1} & -q_k \\ -p_{k-1} & p_k \end{pmatrix}$. Let $\eta_k = S_{k+1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = (-1)^k \begin{pmatrix} q_k \\ -p_k \end{pmatrix}$ and $\mu_k = S_{k+1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = (-1)^k \begin{pmatrix} q_k + q_{k+1} \\ -(p_k + p_{k+1}) \end{pmatrix}$. Let $P_\alpha = \{(m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \mid \alpha m + n > 0\}$.

Lemma 2.7. For all k , η_k and μ_k are in P_α , and P_α is generated by $\{\eta_k\}_k$.

Proof. Since $\frac{p_{2k}}{q_{2k}} < \alpha$, we have $\alpha q_{2k} + (-p_{2k}) > 0$; thus $\eta_{2k} \in P_\alpha$. Also since $\frac{p_{2k+1}}{q_{2k+1}} > \alpha$, we have $\alpha(-q_{2k+1}) + p_{2k+1} > 0$; thus $\eta_{2k+1} \in P_\alpha$. We apply the same argument to the inequalities $\frac{p_{2k}}{q_{2k}} < \frac{p_{2k+1} + p_{2k}}{q_{2k+1} + q_{2k}} < \frac{p_{2k+2}}{q_{2k+2}} < \alpha$ to conclude that $\mu_{2k} = \begin{pmatrix} q_{2k+1} + q_{2k} \\ -(p_{2k+1} + p_{2k}) \end{pmatrix} \in P_\alpha$. The inclusion of $\mu_{2k-1} = \begin{pmatrix} -(q_{2k} + q_{2k-1}) \\ p_{2k} + p_{2k-1} \end{pmatrix}$ is proved using the inequalities $\alpha < \frac{p_{2k+1}}{q_{2k+1}} < \frac{p_{2k} + p_{2k-1}}{q_{2k} + q_{2k-1}} < \frac{p_{2k-1}}{q_{2k-1}}$.

Finally let us show that P_α is generated by $\{\eta_k\}_k$. Since $\begin{pmatrix} m \\ n \end{pmatrix} = (mp_{2k+1} - nq_{2k+1})\eta_{2k} + (mp_{2k} + nq_{2k})\eta_{2k+1}$ it suffices to show that whenever (m, n) is in P_α there is large enough k so that $mp_{2k+1} + nq_{2k+1}$ and $mp_{2k} + nq_{2k}$ are positive. This can always be done; for if $m \geq 0$ choose k so that $\frac{-n}{m} < \frac{p_{2k}}{q_{2k}} < \alpha$, and if $m < 0$ choose k so that $\alpha < \frac{p_{2k+1}}{q_{2k+1}} < \frac{n}{-m}$.

Theorem 2.8.

$$(K_0(C^*(\mathcal{R}))K_0(C^*(\mathcal{R}))_+, [1]) \simeq (\mathbb{Z} + \alpha\mathbb{Z}, (\mathbb{Z} + \alpha\mathbb{Z})_+, 1).$$

Proof. By the diagram $(**)$ $K_0(A) \simeq \mathbb{Z}^2$. Under this mapping the positive cone gets sent to $\bigcup_k S_k(P)$. In Lemma 2.7 we have shown that this union is exactly P_α . The class of $1, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ in the upper left-hand corner of $(**)$ gets sent to $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ in \mathbb{Z}^2 . Thus $(K_0(A), K_0(A)_+, [1]) \simeq (\mathbb{Z}^2, P_\alpha, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix})$. Now map \mathbb{Z}^2 to \mathbb{R} by $(m, n) \mapsto \alpha m + n$. This order isomorphism sends $(\mathbb{Z}^2, P_\alpha, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix})$ onto $((\mathbb{Z} + \alpha\mathbb{Z}, (\mathbb{Z} + \alpha\mathbb{Z})_+, 1)$.

Remark 2.9. Let us conclude by showing how the Bratteli diagram for A may be given an order making it an ordered Bratteli diagram in the sense of Herman, Putnam, and Skau [4, Sect. 2] so that X is homeomorphic to the path space X . This ordered Bratteli diagram is not simple in that there are two minimal paths and one maximal path. In this case the Vershik transformation is a partial homeomorphism. Two paths are tail equivalent if and only if a power of the Vershik

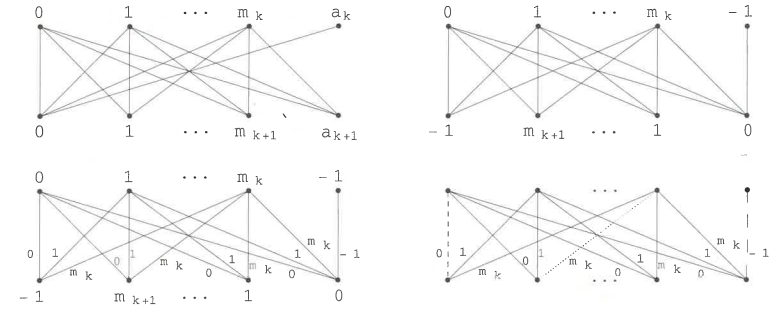


Fig. 4. Construction of the ordered Bratteli diagram for \mathcal{R} . In the figure $m_k = a_k - 1$. In the upper left we have the original diagram. In the upper right we have reversed the order of the lower row and changed the a_k 's to -1 's. In the lower left we have added the ordering to the edges. In the lower right we have marked $-\alpha$ with a dotted line and 0^- and 0^+ with dashed lines. Assuming that k is odd, 0^- is to the right.

transformation takes one of them to the other and thus \mathcal{R} is the equivalence relation arising from this partial homeomorphism. In the next section we shall show that there is a homeomorphism from X to $S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1$, the Cantor set obtained by cutting the circle along the forward orbit of 0 under rotation by $2\pi\alpha$, such that the Vershik transformation is exactly rotation by $2\pi\alpha$. To simplify the notation let $m_k = a_k - 1$ and $Y = \{(y_i)_{i=1}^\infty \mid y_i \in \{-1, 0, 1, \dots, m_k\} \text{ and } y_{i+1} = 0 \text{ whenever } y_i = -1\}$. X and Y are homeomorphic by rewriting all a_k 's as -1 's. Under our new notation the vertices of the k th row of our Bratteli diagram are $V_k = \{-1, 0, 1, \dots, m_k\}$ and the edges between V_k and V_{k+1} are $E_k = \{(i, j) \in V_k \times V_{k+1} \mid j = 0 \text{ whenever } i = -1\}$. We put an order on E_k by saying $(i_1, j) \leq (i_2, j)$ whenever $i_1 \leq i_2$. We set $V_0 = \{0\}$ and $E_0 = \{(0, i) \mid i \in V_1\}$. A path on this diagram is thus a sequence $\{(0, i_1), (i_1, i_2), (i_2, i_3), \dots\}$, i.e. a point of Y .

Denote by 0^- the path $(-1, 0, -1, 0, \dots)$, by 0^+ the path $(0, -1, 0, -1, \dots)$, and by $-\alpha$ the path (m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots) . Under the homeomorphism in Sect. 3, these points get sent to the points 0^- , 0^+ , and $-\alpha$ in $S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1$ respectively, hence our notation. In path notation $-\alpha = \{(0, m_1), (m_1, m_2), (m_2, m_3), \dots\}$. (m_i, m_{i+1}) is the maximal edge ending at m_{i+1} . So $-\alpha$ is maximal and must be the only maximal path. In path notation $0^- = \{(0, -1), (-1, 0), (0, -1), \dots\}$. $(-1, 0)$ is the minimal edge ending at 0 because -1 is the minimal index, and $(0, -1)$ is the minimal edge ending at -1 because there is no edge $(-1, -1)$. Thus 0^- is a minimal path and by the same argument 0^+ is another minimal path.

If $p = \{(0, i_1), (i_1, i_2), \dots\}$ is a minimal path then i_k is 0 or -1 . To be minimal then we must have -1 whenever possible, i.e. every other entry. Hence 0^- and 0^+ are the only minimal paths.

Let us recall the Vershik transformation. Suppose $y \in Y$ and $y \neq -\alpha$. Let k be the first k such that $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) = (m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots, m_k)$ and $y_{k+1} < m_{k+1}$. Then $(y_i) \mapsto (y'_i)$, where $y'_i = y_i$ for $i > k+1$, $y'_{k+1} = 1 + y_{k+1}$, and

$$(y'_1, y'_2, \dots, y'_k) = \begin{cases} (-1, 0, -1, \dots, -1, 0, -1) & \text{if } k \text{ is odd and } y_{k+1} = -1 \\ (0, -1, 0, \dots, 0, -1, 0) & \text{if } k \text{ is odd and } y_{k+1} \neq -1 \\ (-1, 0, \dots, -1, 0) & \text{if } k \text{ is even and } y_{k+1} \neq -1 \\ (0, -1, \dots, 0, -1) & \text{if } k \text{ is even and } y_{k+1} = -1, \end{cases}$$

i.e. $y'_k = -1$ if $y'_{k+1} = 0$ and $y'_k = 0$ otherwise, and we then extend backwards to y'_1 by an alternating sequence of 0's and -1 's.

3. The Space X_α

Suppose α is an irrational number between 0 and 1. Let $\alpha = [0; a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots]$ be the continued fraction expansion of α and let $m_i = a_i - 1$. For a real number x , $[x]$ denotes the unique integer such that $[x] \leq x < [x] + 1$. Note that $[-x] = -(1 + [x])$. Let $\{x\} = x - [x]$. Let

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_0 &= 1 \\ \alpha_1 &= \alpha \\ \alpha_2 &= 1 - a_1\alpha = \alpha\{\alpha^{-1}\} \\ \alpha_3 &= \alpha_1 - a_2\alpha_2 = \alpha_2\{\alpha_1\alpha_2^{-1}\} \\ &\vdots \\ \alpha_{n+1} &= \alpha_{n-1} - a_n\alpha_n = \alpha_n\{\alpha_{n-1}\alpha_n^{-1}\} \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} q_{-1} &= 0 & q_2 &= q_0 + a_2q_1 \\ q_0 &= 1 & & \vdots \\ q_1 &= q_{-1} + a_1q_0 & q_{n+1} &= q_{n-1} + a_{n+1}q_n, \end{aligned}$$

be the usual denominators of the convergents in the continued fraction expansion of α . Note that *modulo* 1 $\alpha_{i+1} = (-1)^i q_i \alpha$.

Let us construct the space $S_{N\alpha}^1$. $S_{N\alpha}^1$ is obtained by disconnecting the circle at the points of $N\alpha$. $S_{N\alpha}^1$ is an inverse limit $S_0 \leftarrow S_1 \leftarrow S_2 \leftarrow \dots \leftarrow S_{N\alpha}^1$. $S_0 = S^1$, $S_1 = S^1$ cut at the point 0α , i.e. as a topological space $S_1 = [0, 1]$ except we relabel the end points as 0^+ and 0^- respectively. S_2 is obtained by cutting S_1 at the point α , i.e. $S_2 = [0^+, \alpha^-] \cup [\alpha^+, 0^-]$. In general S_{n+1} is obtained from S_n by cutting S_n at the point $n\alpha$. As an alternative description S_n is the maximal ideal space of the C^* -algebra obtained by adjoining the projections $\chi_{[0, n\alpha]}$ to $C(S^1)$.

Let $\pi : S_{N\alpha}^1 \rightarrow S^1$ be the canonical map, i.e. the map which sends $m\alpha^\pm$ to $m\alpha$ and leaves the other points alone. We shall also need the larger space $S_{\mathbb{Z}\alpha}^1$, which is constructed in the same way as $S_{N\alpha}^1$ except that we cut along all the points of the orbit of α .

Given $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $y \in S_{\mathbb{Z}\alpha}^1$ we define

$$x + y = \begin{cases} \pi(x + y)^+ & \text{if } y = \pi(y)^+ \\ \pi(x + y)^- & \text{if } y = \pi(y)^- \end{cases},$$

$$xy = \begin{cases} \pi(xy)^+ & \text{if } y = \pi(y)^+ \text{ and } x > 0 \text{ or } y = \pi(y)^- \text{ and } x < 0 \\ \pi(xy)^- & \text{if } y = \pi(y)^- \text{ and } x > 0 \text{ or } y = \pi(y)^+ \text{ and } x < 0 \end{cases}.$$

We shall also write $-m\alpha^+$ to mean $(-m\alpha)^+$; on the other hand $-(m\alpha^+) = -m\alpha^-$.

Recall that $X_\alpha = \{(x_i)_{i=1}^\infty \mid x_i \in \{0, 1, \dots, a_i\} \text{ and if } x_i = a_i \text{ then } x_{i+1} = 0\}$. We shall define a map $\varphi : S_{N\alpha}^1 \rightarrow X_\alpha$ as follows. To do this we first extend the floor map to \mathbb{R} cut along $\mathbb{Z} : [n^+] = n, [n^-] = n - 1$.

Given $\beta \in S_{N\alpha}^1$ let, $\beta_1 = \beta$ and $x_1 = [\beta_1/\alpha_1]$, then

$$\beta_2 = \begin{cases} (1 + x_1)\alpha_1 - \beta_1 & x_1 < a_1 \\ \alpha_0 - \beta_1 & x_1 = a_1 \end{cases},$$

and $x_2 = [\beta_2/\alpha_2]$. Supposing β_1, \dots, β_n and x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} to be already defined we let $x_n = [\beta_n/\alpha_n]$ and

$$\beta_{n+1} = \begin{cases} (1 + x_n)\alpha_n - \beta_n & x_n < a_n \\ \alpha_{n-1} - \beta_n & x_n = a_n \end{cases}.$$

Note that if $x_n = a_n$ then $a_n\alpha_n \leq \beta_n < \alpha_{n-1} = a_n\alpha_n + \alpha_{n+1}$ so $\beta_{n+1} = \alpha_{n-1} - \beta_n < \alpha_{n+1}$. Hence $x_{n+1} = 0$. Thus $(x_i) = \varphi(\beta) \in X_\alpha$.

Examples 3.1.

(i) Let $\beta = 1 - \alpha = \alpha_0 - \alpha_1$. Then $x_1 = a_1 - 1$ and so $\beta_2 = a_1\alpha_1 - \beta_1 = \alpha_1 - \alpha_2$. Suppose $\beta_k = \alpha_{k-1} - \alpha_k$. Then $x_k = [\beta_k/\alpha_k] = [\alpha_{k-1}/\alpha_k] - 1 = a_k - 1$, and $\beta_{k+1} = (1 + x_k)\alpha_k - \beta_k = a_k\alpha_k - (\alpha_{k-1} - \alpha_k) = \alpha_k - (\alpha_{k-1} - a_k\alpha_k) = \alpha_k - \alpha_{k+1}$. Hence by induction $x_k = a_k - 1$ for all k .

(ii) Let $\beta = 0^+$. Then $x_1 = 0$, $\beta_2 = \alpha_1^-$, $x_2 = [\alpha_1/\alpha_2] = a_2$, and $\beta_3 = 0^+$. If $\beta_{2k-1} = 0^+$ then $x_{2k-1} = 0$, $\beta_{2k} = \alpha_{2k-1} - \beta_{2k-1} = \alpha_{2k-1}^-$, $x_{2k} = [\alpha_{2k-1}/\alpha_{2k}] = a_{2k}$, and $\beta_{2k+1} = \alpha_{2k-1} - \beta_{2k} = 0^+$. Thus $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots) = (0, a_2, 0, a_4, \dots)$.

(iii) Let $\beta = 0^- = \alpha_0^-$. Then $x_1 = a_1$, $\beta_2 = \alpha_0 - \beta_1 = 0^+$, $x_2 = 0$, and $\beta_3 = \alpha_2^-$. Suppose $\beta_{2k-1} = \alpha_{2k-2}^-$. Then $x_{2k-1} = a_{2k-1}$, $\beta_{2k} = \alpha_{2k-2} - \beta_{2k-1} = 0^+$, $x_{2k} = 0$, and $\beta_{2k+1} = \alpha_{2k} - \beta_{2k} = \alpha_{2k}^-$.

$S_{N\alpha}^1$ has the inductive limit topology and X_α has the product topology; thus both are Cantor sets. We shall show that φ is a homeomorphism such that

- (i) $\varphi(m\alpha^+)$ is tail equivalent to $(0, a_2, 0, a_4, \dots)$,
- (ii) $\varphi(m\alpha^-)$ is tail equivalent to $(a_1, 0, a_3, 0, \dots)$,
- (iii) $\varphi(-n\alpha)$ is tail equivalent to $(a_1 - 1, a_2 - 1, a_3 - 1, \dots)$.

To prove this we shall adopt (with a small modification) the notation of Sinai [9, Lecture 9]. If $x, y \in S_{N\alpha}^1$, $[x, y]$ means the oriented interval which begins at x and ends at y where $S_{N\alpha}^1$ has the usual counter-clockwise orientation.

Let

$$\Delta_1^{-1} = [0^+, 0^-],$$

$$\Delta_1^n = \begin{cases} [q_n\alpha^+, 0^-] & n \text{ odd} \\ [0^+, q_n\alpha^-] & n \text{ even} \end{cases},$$

$$\Delta_i^n = \begin{cases} [(i-1+q_n)\alpha^+, (i-1)\alpha^-] & n \text{ odd} \\ [(i-1)\alpha^+, (i-1+q_n)\alpha^-] & n \text{ even} \end{cases}.$$

These are intervals in $S_{N\alpha}^1$. If we apply π to these intervals we obtain the closure of the intervals in S^1 used by Sinai. The same arguments apply to $S_{N\alpha}^1$ and thus:

Theorem 3.2 (Sinai [9, Lecture 9, Theorem 1]).

(i) For each n ,

$$\mathcal{P}_n = \{\Delta_1^{n-1}, \dots, \Delta_{q_n}^{n-1}, \Delta_1^n, \dots, \Delta_{q_{n-1}}^n\}$$

is a partition of $S_{N\alpha}^1$ into disjoint open and closed sets.

(ii) For each n and $1 \leq i \leq q_n$,

$$\Delta_i^{n-1} = \Delta_{i+q_{n-1}}^n \cup \Delta_{i+q_{n-1}+q_n}^n \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{i+q_{n-1}+m_{n+1}q_n}^n \cup \Delta_i^{n+1}$$

and the sets in this partition are disjoint.

Let us show that the sequence (x_i) constructed above can be obtained from the partitions $\{\mathcal{P}_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$.

Theorem 3.3. For $\beta \in S_{N\alpha}^1$, x_n and β_{n+1} can be computed using the partition

$$\mathcal{P}_{n-1} = \{\Delta_1^{n-2}, \dots, \Delta_{q_{n-1}}^{n-2}, \Delta_1^{n-1}, \dots, \Delta_{q_{n-2}}^{n-1}\}$$

to decompose $S_{N\alpha}^1$ as follows.

(i) If $\beta \in \Delta_i^{n-1} = [s^+, t^-]$ for $1 \leq i \leq q_{n-2}$ then $x_n = 0$ and

$$\beta_{n+1} = \begin{cases} \beta - s & n \text{ even} \\ t - \beta & n \text{ odd} \end{cases}.$$

(ii) If $\beta \in \Delta_i^{n-2}$ for $1 \leq i \leq q_{n-1}$ then write (by Theorem 3.2) $\Delta_i^{n-2} = \Delta_i^n \cup (\bigcup_{j=0}^{m_n} \Delta_{i+q_{n-2}+jq_{n-1}}^{n-1})$.

(a) If $\beta \in \Delta_{i+q_{n-2}+jq_{n-1}}^{n-1} = [s^+, t^-]$, then $x_n = j$ and

$$\beta_{n+1} = \begin{cases} \beta - s & n \text{ even} \\ t - \beta & n \text{ odd} \end{cases}.$$

(b) If $\beta \in \Delta_i^n = [s^+, t^-]$ then $x_n = a_n$ and

$$\beta_{n+1} = \begin{cases} \beta - s & n \text{ even} \\ t - \beta & n \text{ odd} \end{cases}.$$

Proof. For $n = 1$ we use $\mathcal{P}_0 = \{\Delta_1^{-1}\}$. This excludes case (i). So we write (since $q_{-1} = 0$)

$$\Delta_1^{-1} = \Delta_1^0 \cup \Delta_{1+q_0}^0 \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{1+m_1q_0}^0 \cup \Delta_1^1.$$

If $\beta \in \Delta_{1+jq_0}^0 = [j\alpha^+, (j+1)\alpha^-]$ then $j\alpha^+ \leq \beta \leq (j+1)\alpha^-$ so $j \leq [\beta/\alpha] < j+1$. Hence $x_1 = j$, and $\beta_2 = (1+j)\alpha - \beta = t - \beta$. If $\beta \in \Delta_1^1 = [a_1\alpha^+, 0^-] = [a_1\alpha^+, 1^-]$, $a_1\alpha^+ \leq \beta \leq 1^-$ and so $a_1 \leq [\beta/\alpha]$, thus $x_1 = a_1$ and $\beta_2 = 1 - \beta = t - \beta$.

Now suppose the theorem holds for $n = k$. Let us prove it for $n = k+1$. To compute x_{k+1} we use the partition $\mathcal{P}_k = \{\Delta_1^{k-1}, \dots, \Delta_{q_k}^{k-1}, \Delta_1^k, \dots, \Delta_{q_{k-1}}^k\}$.

(i) Suppose $\beta \in \Delta_i^k$ for some $1 \leq i \leq q_{k-1}$. Then

$$\beta \in \Delta_i^k \subseteq \Delta_i^{k-2} = \Delta_i^k \cup \Delta_{i+q_{k-2}}^{k-1} \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{i+q_{k-2}+m_kq_{k-1}}^{k-1}.$$

So by the induction hypothesis $x_k = a_k$, hence $x_{k+1} = 0$ as required. To prove the claim about β_{k+2} there are two cases to consider: k even or k odd.

Let us suppose k is even. Then $\Delta_i^k = [(i-1)\alpha^+, (i-1+q_k)\alpha^-]$ and $\beta_{k+1} = \beta - (i-1)\alpha$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_{k+2} &= \alpha_{k+1} - \beta_{k+1} = (-1)^k q_k \alpha - \beta + (i-1)\alpha \\ &= (i-1+q_k)\alpha^- - \beta = t - \beta, \end{aligned}$$

as required.

If k is odd then $\Delta_i^k = [(i-1+q_k)\alpha^+, (i-1)\alpha^-]$ and $\beta_{k+1} = (i-1)\alpha - \beta$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_{k+2} &= \alpha_{k+1} - \beta_{k+1} = (-1)^k q_k \alpha + \beta - (i-1)\alpha \\ &= \beta - (i-1+q_k)\alpha = \beta - s, \end{aligned}$$

as required.

(ii) Suppose $\beta \in \Delta_i^{k-1}$ for some $1 \leq i \leq q_k$.

(a) Suppose $\beta \in \Delta_{i+q_{k-1}+jq_k}^k$ for $0 \leq j \leq m_{k+1}$, again there are two cases depending on the parity of k . First suppose k is even. Then $\Delta_i^{k-1} = [(i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha^+, (i-1)\alpha^-]$ and $\beta_{k+1} = \beta - (i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha$. Since

$$x_{k+1} = [\beta_{k+1}/\alpha_{k+1}] = [\beta_{k+1}/q_k\alpha]$$

we have

$$(x_{k+1}q_k)\alpha^+ \leq \beta_{k+1} \leq (1+x_{k+1})q_k\alpha^-,$$

i.e.

$$(i-1+q_{k-1}+x_{k+1}q_k)\alpha^+ \leq \beta \leq (i-1+q_{k-1}+(1+x_{k+1})q_k)\alpha^-,$$

hence $\beta \in \Delta_{i+q_{k-1}+x_{k+1}q_k}^k$ as required and

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_{k+2} &= (1+x_{k+1})\alpha_{k+1} - \beta_{k+1} \\ &= (-1)^k (1+x_{k+1})q_k\alpha + (i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha - \beta \\ &= (i-1+q_{k-1}+(1+x_{k+1})q_k)\alpha - \beta = t - \beta \end{aligned}$$

as required. Suppose k is odd. Then $\Delta_i^{k-1} = [(i-1)\alpha^+, (i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha^-]$ and $\beta_{k+1} = (i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha - \beta$. Since

$$x_{k+1} = [\beta_{k+1}/\alpha_{k+1}] = [\beta_{k+1}/-q_k\alpha],$$

we have

$$-x_{k+1}q_k\alpha^+ \leq \beta_{k+1} \leq -(1+x_{k+1})q_k\alpha^-,$$

thus

$$-(i-1+q_{k-1}+x_{k+1}q_k)\alpha^+ \leq -\beta \leq -(i-1+q_{k-1}+(1+x_{k+1})q_k)\alpha^-,$$

hence

$$-(i-1+q_{k-1}+(1+x_{k+1})q_k)\alpha^+ \leq \beta \leq (i-1+q_{k-1}+x_{k+1}q_k)\alpha^-,$$

i.e.

$$\beta \in \Delta_{i+q_{k-1}+x_{k+1}q_k}^k$$

as required, and

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_{k+2} &= (1 + x_{k+1})\alpha_{k+1} - \beta_{k+1} \\ &= \beta - (i - 1 + q_{k-1} + (1 + x_{k+1})q_k)\alpha = \beta - s,\end{aligned}$$

as required.

(b) Suppose $\beta \in \Delta_i^{k+1}$ $1 \leq i \leq q_k$. Again we consider the two cases; k even and k odd. Suppose k is even. Then $\Delta_i^{k-1} = [(i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha^+, (i-1)\alpha^-]$ and $\beta_{k+1} = \beta - (i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha$. As $\Delta_i^{k+1} = [(i-1+q_{k+1})\alpha^+, (i-1)\alpha^-]$ we have $(i-1+q_{k+1})\alpha^+ \leq \beta \leq (i-1)\alpha^-$, i.e. $(i-1+q_{k-1}+a_{k+1}q_k)\alpha^+ \leq \beta$, hence

$$a_{k+1}\alpha_{k+1}^+ = a_{k+1}q_k\alpha^+ \leq \beta - (i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha = \beta_{k+1}.$$

Thus $a_{k+1} \leq [\beta_{k+1}/\alpha_{k+1}] = x_{k+1}$. So $x_{k+1} = a_{k+1}$ as required. Also

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_{k+2} &= \alpha_k - \beta_{k+1} = -q_{k-1}\alpha - \beta + (i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha \\ &= (i-1)\alpha - \beta = t - \beta,\end{aligned}$$

as required.

Finally, let us consider the case of k odd. As before $\Delta_i^{k-1} = [(i-1)\alpha^+, (i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha^-]$, $\beta_{k+1} = (i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha - \beta$. As $\Delta_i^{k+1} = [(i-1)\alpha^+, (i-1+q_{k+1})\alpha^-]$ we have $(i-1)\alpha^+ \leq \beta \leq (i-1+q_{k+1})\alpha^- = (i-1+q_{k-1}+a_{k+1}q_k)\alpha^-$. So $(i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha - \beta_{k+1} \leq (i-1+q_{k-1}+a_{k+1}q_k)\alpha^-$, i.e. $a_{k+1}\alpha_{k+1}^+ = -a_{k+1}q_k\alpha^+ \leq \beta_{k+1}$, so $x_{k+1} = a_{k+1}$ as required. Also

$$\begin{aligned}\beta_{k+2} &= \alpha_k - \beta_{k+1} = q_{k-1}\alpha - (i-1+q_{k-1})\alpha + \beta \\ &= \beta - (i-1)\alpha = \beta - s\end{aligned}$$

as required.

Definition 3.4. In the formula for β_{n+1} given above, β_{n+1} is the distance of β from the left (n even) or right (n odd) of an interval in the partition P_n . Call this element of \mathcal{P}_n the n^{th} interval of β .

Lemma 3.5.

- (i) \mathcal{P}_{n+1} is a refinement of \mathcal{P}_n .
- (ii) If $a \leq m < q_{n-1} + q_n$ then $m\alpha^-$ and $m\alpha^+$ are in different partition elements of \mathcal{P}_n .
- (iii) For each n let $P_n \in \mathcal{P}_n$ be the n^{th} interval of β . Then $\{\beta\} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n$.

Proof. (i) This follows from Theorem 3.2(ii).

(ii) If $0 \leq m < q_{n-1} + q_n$ and n is odd then

$$\begin{aligned}\text{either } \Delta_{m+1}^n &= [s^+, m\alpha^-] & \text{if } m < q_{n-1}, \\ \text{or } \Delta_{m+1-q_n}^{n-1} &= [s^+, m\alpha^-] & \text{if } q_{n-1} \leq m < q_{n-1} + q_n,\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\text{either } \Delta_{m+1}^{n-1} &= [m\alpha^+, t^-] & \text{if } m < q_n, \\ \text{or } \Delta_{m+1-q_n}^n &= [m\alpha^+, t^-] & \text{if } m \geq q_n.\end{aligned}$$

So we have three cases:

- (a) If $m < q_{n-1}$, then $m\alpha^- \in \Delta_{m+1}^n$ and $m\alpha^+ \in \Delta_{m+1}^{n-1}$.
- (b) If $q_{n-1} \leq m < q_n$, then $m\alpha^- \in \Delta_{m+1-q_n}^{n-1}$ and $m\alpha^+ \in \Delta_{m+1}^{n-1}$.
- (c) If $q_n \leq m < q_{n-1} + q_n$, then $m\alpha^- \in \Delta_{m+1-q_{n-1}}^{n-1}$ and $m\alpha^+ \in \Delta_{m+1-q_n}^n$.

By Theorem 3.2(i), in all three cases, these intervals are disjoint.

If n is even then

$$\begin{aligned}\text{either } \Delta_{m+1}^{n-1} &= [s^+, m\alpha^-] & \text{if } m < q_n, \\ \text{or } \Delta_{m+1-q_n}^n &= [s^+, m\alpha^-] & \text{if } q_n \leq m < q_{n-1} + q_n;\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\text{either } \Delta_{m+1}^n &= [m\alpha^+, t^-] & \text{if } m < q_{n-1}, \\ \text{or } \Delta_{m+1-q_{n-1}}^{n-1} &= [m\alpha^+, t^-] & \text{if } q_{n-1} \leq m < q_{n-1} + q_n.\end{aligned}$$

We can apply the same analysis to conclude that $m\alpha^+$ and $m\alpha^-$ are separated in \mathcal{P}_n .

(iii) By construction $\beta \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n$. Also the diameter of $\pi(P_n) \rightarrow 0$. Thus $\pi(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n) = \{\pi(\beta)\}$. If $\beta \notin \mathbb{N}\alpha$ then $\beta = \pi(\beta)$ and we are done. If $\beta \in \mathbb{N}\alpha$ then by part (ii) of this lemma $m\alpha^+$ and $m\alpha^-$ eventually lie in different intervals so we cannot have $m\alpha^+$ and $m\alpha^-$ in $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n$. Thus $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n = \{\beta\}$.

Theorem 3.6. The map $\varphi : S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1 \rightarrow X_\alpha$ given by $\varphi(\beta) = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$ is a homeomorphism.

Proof. Since $S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1$ and X_α are both compact metric spaces we only have to show that φ is continuous, one-to-one, and onto.

Suppose $P \in \mathcal{P}_n$, and $\beta \in P$. Then $\varphi(P) = \{(y_i) \mid y_i = \varphi(\beta)_i, 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. So φ takes basic open sets to basic open sets. So φ is continuous. If $\varphi(\beta_1) = \varphi(\beta_2)$ then for each n , β_1 and β_2 have the same n^{th} interval P_n . So $\beta_1, \beta_2 \in \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} P_n$. By Lemma 3.5 $\beta_1 = \beta_2$; hence φ is one-to-one. Specifying a sequence $\{x_i\} \in X_\alpha$, specifies a path $P_n \in \mathcal{P}_n$ on the partition tree which must have non-empty intersection by the compactness of $S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1$. Thus φ is onto.

We want to consider next the connection between $\varphi(\beta)$ and $\varphi(\beta + \alpha)$. As before let $\beta \in S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1$ and $\varphi(\beta) = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$. Recall that $m_i = a_i - 1$.

Lemma 3.7.

- (i) $\beta \in \Delta_{q_k}^{k-1}$ if and only if $x_1 = m_1, \dots, x_k = m_k$,
- (ii) $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2k-1}$ if and only if $x_1 = a_1, x_2 = 0, \dots, x_{2k-1} = a_{2k-1}, x_{2k} = 0$,
- (iii) $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2k}$ if and only if $x_1 = 0, x_2 = a_2, x_3 = 0, \dots, x_{2k} = a_{2k}, x_{2k+1} = 0$.

Proof. (i) We shall prove this by induction on k . It is clear for $k = 1$. Suppose it is true for $1 \leq k \leq n$ and prove it for $k = n + 1$. This means we must show that $\beta \in \Delta_{q_n}^n$ if and only if $x_1 = m_1, \dots, x_{n+1} = m_{n+1}$. By the induction hypothesis we have $x_1 = m_1, \dots, x_n = m_n$ if and only if $\beta \in \Delta_{q_n}^{n-1}$. So we only have to show that if $\beta \in \Delta_{q_n}^{n-1}$ then, $x_{n+1} = m_{n+1}$ if and only if $\beta \in \Delta_{q_n}^n$. Now to compute x_{n+1} we use the partition $\mathcal{P}_n = \{\Delta_1^{n-1}, \dots, \Delta_{q_n}^{n-1}, \Delta_1^n, \dots, \Delta_{q_n}^n\}$. We are already assuming

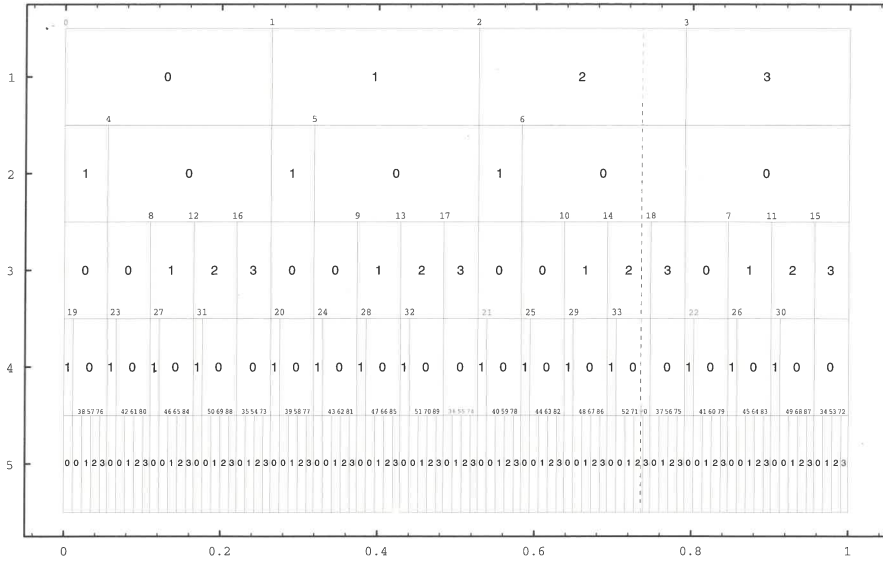


Fig. 5. The decomposition of $S_N^1 \alpha$ is shown along the horizontal axis and the first five terms of X_α are shown on the vertical axis. In this example $\alpha = \frac{\sqrt{21}-3}{6} = [0; 3, 1, 3, 1, \dots]$. The expansion of $-\alpha$ is shown by the dashed line.

that $\beta \in \Delta_{q_n}^{n-1}$, so by Theorem 3.3 we decompose $\Delta_{q_n}^{n-1}$ as

$$\Delta_{q_n+q_{n-1}}^n \cup \Delta_{q_n+q_{n-1}+q_n}^n \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{q_n+q_{n-1}+m_{n+1}q_n}^n \cup \Delta_{q_n}^{n+1}.$$

Now $x_{n+1} = m_{n+1}$ if and only if $\beta \in \Delta_{q_n+q_{n-1}+m_{n+1}q_n}^n = \Delta_{q_{n+1}}^n$, as required.

(ii) We prove this by induction on k . For $k = 1$ we must show that $\beta \in \Delta_1^1$ if and only if $x_1 = a_1$ and $x_2 = 0$. This is straightforward. Suppose that we have proved the claim for $1 \leq k \leq n$, and we shall prove it for $k = n + 1$. So by the induction hypothesis $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2n-1}$ if and only if $x_1 = a_1$, $x_2 = 0, \dots, x_{2n-1} = a_{2n-1}$, and $x_{2n} = 0$. So we only have to show that for $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2n-1}$, $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2n+1}$ if and only if $x_{2n+1} = a_{2n+1}$ (and hence $x_{2n+2} = 0$). To compute x_{2n+1} we use the partition $\mathcal{P}_{2n} = \{\Delta_1^{2n-1}, \dots, \Delta_{q_{2n}}^{2n-1}, \Delta_1^{2n}, \dots, \Delta_{q_{2n-1}}^{2n}\}$. Since $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2n-1}$ we decompose Δ_1^{2n-1} as

$$\Delta_{1+q_{2n-1}}^{2n} \cup \Delta_{1+q_{2n-1}+q_{2n}}^{2n} \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{1+q_{2n-1}+m_{2n+1}q_{2n}}^{2n} \cup \Delta_1^{2n+1}.$$

By Theorem 3.3, $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2n+1}$ if and only if $x_{2n+1} = a_{2n+1}$ as required.

(iii) We shall again prove this by induction. For $k = 0$ we must show that $\beta \in \Delta_1^0 = [0^+, \alpha^-]$ if and only if $x_1 = 0$; but this is clear from the definitions.

Suppose we have proved the claim for $1 \leq k \leq n$ and we shall prove it for $k = n + 1$. Since we have that $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2n}$ if and only if $x_1 = 0$, $x_2 = a_2, \dots, x_{2n} = a_{2n}$, $x_{2n+1} = 0$, we only have to show that for $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2n}$, $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2n+2}$ if and only if $x_{2n+2} = a_{2n+2}$. To compute x_{2n+2} we use the partition $\mathcal{P}_{2n+1} = \{\Delta_1^{2n}, \dots, \Delta_{q_{2n+1}}^{2n}, \Delta_1^{2n+1}, \dots, \Delta_{q_{2n}}^{2n+1}\}$. We are assuming that

$$\beta \in \Delta_1^{2n} = \Delta_{1+q_{2n}}^{2n+1} \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{1+q_{2n}+m_{2n+2}q_{2n+1}}^{2n+1} \cup \Delta_1^{2n+2}.$$

By Theorem 3.3, $\beta \in \Delta_1^{2n+2}$ if and only if $x_{2n+2} = a_{2n+2}$, as required.

Theorem 3.8. Let $-\alpha \neq \beta \in S_{N\alpha}^1$, $\varphi(\beta) = (x_1, x_2, \dots)$ and $\varphi(\beta + \alpha) = (y_1, y_2, \dots)$. If $(x_1, \dots, x_k) = (m_1, \dots, m_k)$ but $x_{k+1} \neq m_k$ then

$$(y_1, \dots, y_{k+1}) = \begin{cases} (0, a_2, 0, a_4, \dots, 0, a_{k-2}, 0, a_k, 0) & x_{k+1} = a_{k+1} \text{ and } k \text{ even} \\ (a_1, 0, a_3, 0, \dots, 0, a_{k-2}, 0, a_k, 0) & x_{k+1} = a_{k+1} \text{ and } k \text{ odd} \\ (a_1, 0, a_3, 0, \dots, 0, a_{k-1}, 0, 1 + x_{k+1}) & x_{k+1} < m_{k+1} \text{ and } k \text{ even} \\ (0, a_2, 0, a_4, \dots, 0, a_{k-1}, 0, 1 + x_{k+1}) & x_{k+1} < m_{k+1} \text{ and } k \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

and $y_i = x_i$ for $i > k + 1$.

Proof. Suppose $x_{k+1} = a_{k+1}$. By Lemma 3.7,

$$\beta \in \Delta_{q_k}^{k-1} = \Delta_{q_k+q_{k-1}}^k \cup \Delta_{q_k+q_{k-1}+q_k}^k \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{q_k+q_{k-1}+m_{k+1}q_k}^k \cup \Delta_{q_k}^{k+1}.$$

By Theorem 3.3, $\beta \in \Delta_{q_k}^{k+1}$. Thus

$$\beta + \alpha \in \Delta_{1+q_k}^{k+1} \subseteq \Delta_1^k = \Delta_{1+q_k}^{k+1} \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{1+q_k+m_{k+2}q_{k+1}}^{k+1} \cup \Delta_1^{k+2},$$

and so by Theorem 3.3 again $y_{k+1} = 0$. By Lemma 3.7

$$(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) = \begin{cases} (0, a_2, 0, a_4, \dots, 0, a_k) & k \text{ even} \\ (a_1, 0, a_3, 0, \dots, 0, a_k) & k \text{ odd} \end{cases}.$$

If $\Delta_{q_k}^{k+1} = [s^+, t^-]$ then $\Delta_{1+q_k}^{k+1} = [(s + \alpha)^+, (t + \alpha)^-]$. As

$$\beta_{k+2} = \begin{cases} \beta - s & k + 1 \text{ even} \\ t - \beta & k + 1 \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

and

$$(\beta + \alpha)_{k+2} = \begin{cases} \beta + \alpha - (s + \alpha) & k + 1 \text{ even} \\ (t + \alpha) - (\beta + \alpha) & k + 1 \text{ odd} \end{cases},$$

we see that β_{k+2} is unchanged and hence $y_i = x_i$ for $i > k + 1$.

Now suppose $x_{k+1} < m_{k+1}$. By Lemma 3.7,

$$\beta \in \Delta_{q_k}^{k-1} = \Delta_{q_k+q_{k-1}}^k \cup \Delta_{q_k+q_{k-1}+q_k}^k \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{q_k+q_{k-1}+m_{k+1}q_k}^k \cup \Delta_{q_k}^{k+1}.$$

Since $x_{k+1} < m_{k+1}$, $\beta \in \Delta_{q_{k-1}+(1+x_{k+1})q_k}^k$. Thus

$$\beta + \alpha \in \Delta_{1+q_{k-1}+(1+x_{k+1})q_k}^k \subseteq \Delta_1^{k-1} = \Delta_{1+q_{k-1}}^k \cup \Delta_{1+q_{k-1}+q_k}^k \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{1+q_{k-1}+m_{k+1}q_k}^k \cup \Delta_1^{k+1}.$$

Hence $y_{k+1} = 1 + x_{k+1}$ and since $\beta + \alpha \in \Delta_1^{k-1}$, we have by Lemma 3.7 that

$$(y_1, \dots, y_k) = \begin{cases} (a_1, 0, a_3, 0, \dots, a_{k-1}, 0) & k \text{ even} \\ (0, a_2, 0, a_4, \dots, a_{k-1}, 0) & k \text{ odd} \end{cases}.$$

Writing $\Delta_{q_{k-1}+(1+x_{k+1})q_k}^k$ as $[s^+, t^-]$ we have $\Delta_{1+q_{k-1}+(1+x_{k+1})q_k}^k = [(s+\alpha)^+, (t+\alpha)^-]$. As

$$\beta_{k+1} = \begin{cases} \beta - s & k+1 \text{ even} \\ t - \beta & k+1 \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

and

$$(\beta + \alpha)_{k+2} = \begin{cases} (\beta + \alpha) - (s + \alpha) & k+1 \text{ even} \\ (t + \alpha) - (\beta + \alpha) & k+1 \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

we see that $\beta_{k+2} = (\beta + \alpha)_{k+2}$ and hence $x_i = y_i$ for $i > k+1$.

Corollary 3.9. Suppose $\beta, \gamma \in S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1$ and $\varphi(\beta) = \{x_i\}$ and $\varphi(\gamma) = \{y_i\}$. Let P and Q in \mathcal{P}_k be the k^{th} intervals of β and γ respectively.

(i) If there is k such that $x_i = y_i$ for $i > k$ then there is $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\beta = \gamma + n\alpha$ and $|n| < q_k + q_{k-1}$. Moreover if $|P| \leq |Q|$ then $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) = \{(\varphi(\mu), \varphi(v)) \mid \mu \in P \text{ and } v = \mu + n\alpha\}$ (see the third paragraph of Sect. 2 for the definition of \mathcal{U}).

(ii) If $\pi(\beta) \notin \mathbb{Z}\alpha$ and there is $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\beta = \gamma + n\alpha$, then there is k such that $x_i = y_i$ for $i \geq k$.

(iii) If $\pi(\beta) = m\alpha$ and $\pi(\gamma) = n\alpha$ and either $m, n \geq 0$ and β and γ have the same sign, or $m, n < 0$ then there is k such that $x_i = y_i$ for $i \geq k$.

Proof. (i) Since $x_i = y_i$ for $i > k$, $\beta_{k+1} = \gamma_{k+1}$; so the distance of β and γ from the corresponding endpoints (left for k even, right for k odd) of P and Q will be equal.

Suppose P and Q are of the same length. If $P = \Delta_p^{k-1}$ and $Q = \Delta_q^{k-1}$, then $1 \leq p, q \leq q_k$ and so $\beta = \gamma + (p - q)n$ with $|n| \leq q_k < q_k + q_{k-1}$. If $P = \Delta_p^k$ and $Q = \Delta_q^k$ then the same argument applies except we then have $|n| \leq q_{k-1}$.

Suppose P and Q are of different lengths. Say $P = \Delta_p^{k-1}$ and $Q = \Delta_q^{k-1}$ with $1 \leq p \leq q_k$ and $1 \leq q \leq q_{k-1}$. We know that $\beta_{k+1} = \gamma_{k+1} \leq \alpha_{k+1}$; so $x_{k+1} = 0$. Now decomposing

$$\Delta_p^{k-1} = \Delta_{p+q_{k-1}}^k \cup \Delta_{p+q_{k-1}+q_k}^k \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{p+q_{k-1}+m_{k+1}q_k}^k \cup \Delta_p^{k+1},$$

we see that $\beta \in \Delta_{p+q_{k-1}}^k$. Thus for $n = q - (p + q_{k-1})$ we have $\beta = \gamma + n\alpha$ and $|n| < q_k + q_{k-1}$ as $p + q_{k-1} \leq q_k + q_{k-1}$ and $q \geq 1$.

For the second assertion suppose $|P| \leq |Q|$. Let $a = \varphi(\mu)$ and $b = \varphi(v)$. Then $\mu \in P$ if and only if $a_i = x_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ and $v \in Q$ if and only if $b_i = y_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. If $(a, b) \in \mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$ then $\mu \in P$ and $\varphi(\mu)_i = \varphi(v)_i$ for $i > k$. Hence $v = \mu + n\alpha$. Conversely if $\mu \in P$ and $v = \mu + n\alpha$ then $v \in Q$, so $a_i = x_i$ and $b_i = y_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Also if $p = \Delta_p^k$ and $Q = \Delta_q^{k-1}$, then $P + n\alpha \subseteq Q$ so $a_i = b_i$ for $i > k$.

(ii) and (iii) Theorem 3.8 showed that as long as $-\alpha \notin \{\gamma, \gamma + \alpha, \gamma + 2\alpha, \dots, \gamma + (n-1)\alpha\}$ then for $1 \leq i \leq n$, $\varphi(\gamma + (i-1)\alpha)$ and $\varphi(\gamma + i\alpha)$ agree from some point onwards.

4. The Relation R_α

Suppose again that $0 < \alpha < 1$ is irrational with continued fraction expansion $a = [0; a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots]$. Let X_α be the Cantor set constructed in Sect. 2. $R_\alpha \subseteq X_\alpha \times$

X_α will be the equivalence relation on X_α generated by tail equivalence and $(a_1, 0, a_3, 0, \dots) \sim (0, a_2, 0, a_4, \dots) \sim (a_1 - 1, a_2 - 1, a_3 - 1, \dots)$. In this section we shall construct a locally Hausdorff topology on R_α and a surjective continuous map $\Phi : R_\alpha \rightarrow S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}$ such that

(i) the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R_\alpha & \xrightarrow{\Phi} & S^1 \times \mathbb{Z} \\ p_1 \downarrow & & \downarrow p_1 \\ X_\alpha & \xrightarrow{\pi} & S^1 \end{array}$$

commutes where p_1 is the projection onto the first factor; and

(ii) $\Phi^* : C(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C(R_\alpha)$ is a linear bijection.

Recall that $S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1$ is S^1 cut along the forward orbit of α . Rotating by α is a partial homeomorphism on $S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1$, defined on $S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1 \setminus \{-\alpha\}$. Let us denote this partial homeomorphism by Θ . In Theorem 3.8 we showed that there is a partial homeomorphism on X_α and that the bijection $\varphi : S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1 \rightarrow X_\alpha$ intertwines the actions. Therefore we shall denote by Θ as well, the partial homeomorphism on $X_\alpha : \varphi \circ \Theta \circ \varphi^{-1}$.

We shall find it convenient to identify, via φ , points of $S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1$ with their corresponding sequences in X_α . In particular

$$0^+ = (0, a_2, 0, a_4, \dots)$$

$$0^- = (a_1, 0, a_3, 0, \dots)$$

$$-\alpha = (m_1, m_2, m_3, m_4, \dots)$$

recalling that in Sect. 2, m_i was defined to be $a_i - 1$ (and the computations in Example 2.1).

Definition 4.1.

(i) For $x, y \in X_\alpha$, x and y are tail equivalent, $x \sim_t y$, if there is k such that $x_i = y_i$ for $i > k$.

(ii) R_α is the smallest equivalence relation on X_α containing $\{(x, y) \mid x \sim_t y\} \cup \{(0^+, 0^-), (0^-, -\alpha)\}$.

Remark 4.2. Explicitly $(x, y) \in R_\alpha$ if either, x and y are tail equivalent, or each of x and y are tail equivalent to one of $\{0^+, 0^-, -\alpha\}$.

The topology on R_α will be constructed from a basis made from three families of sets. The first family is the one constructed in Sect. 2 giving the topology on $\mathcal{R}_\alpha : \{\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) \mid (x, y) \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha\}$. These form a neighbourhood base for the points of \mathcal{R}_α . For points in $R_\alpha \setminus \mathcal{R}_\alpha$ we will introduce two new families; basic neighbourhoods of points of the form $(m\alpha^\pm, n\alpha^\mp)$ with $m, n \geq 0$ will be denoted $\mathcal{V}(n\alpha^\pm, m\alpha^\mp, k)$, and basic neighbourhoods of points of the form $(m\alpha^\pm, -n\alpha)$ or $(-n\alpha, m\alpha^\pm)$ for $m \geq 0$ and $n > 0$ will be denoted by $\mathcal{W}(m\alpha^\pm, -n\alpha, k)$ or $\mathcal{W}(-n\alpha, m\alpha^\pm, k)$ as the case demands. To describe \mathcal{V} we need to construct some open sets in \mathcal{R}_α . $\mathcal{U}^o(x, y, k)$ is an open subset of $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$ and should be thought of as being constructed by removing both endpoints of the interval – if $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$ were equal to $[a, b]$, then $\mathcal{U}^o(x, y, k)$ would be (a, b) .

Definition 4.3. Suppose $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha$ and let β and γ in $S_{\mathbb{N}\alpha}^1$ be the pre-images of x and y respectively, with $\beta = \gamma + n\alpha$ for $|n| < q_k + q_{k-1}$ (as in Corollary 3.9). Let $P_1 = [s_1^+, t_1^-]$ and $P_2 = [s_2^+, t_2^-]$ be the intervals in \mathcal{P}_k containing β and γ respectively.

If $|P_1| \leq |P_2|$ let $\mathcal{U}^o(x, y, k) = \{(\varphi(\mu), \varphi(v)) \mid \mu \in (s_1^+, t_1^-) \text{ and } \mu = v + n\alpha\}$. If $|P_2| \leq |P_1|$ let $\mathcal{U}^o(x, y, k) = \{(\varphi(\mu), \varphi(v)) \mid v \in (s_2^+, t_2^-) \text{ and } \mu = v + n\alpha\}$.

Definition 4.4. Suppose $x = m\alpha^\pm$, $y = n\alpha^\pm$ for $m, n \geq 0$ and k is large enough that $m, n < q_{k-1} + q_k$. Let $\mathcal{V}(x, y, k) = \mathcal{U}^o(m\alpha^+, n\alpha^+, k) \cup \mathcal{U}^o(m\alpha^-, n\alpha^-, k) \cup \{(x, y)\}$.

Before constructing \mathcal{W} we shall make some preparations.

Lemma 4.5.

- (i) $\Theta((\Delta_{q_{k+1}}^k \cup \Delta_{q_k}^{k+1}) \setminus \{-\alpha\}) = (\Delta_1^{k+1} \cup \Delta_1^k) \setminus \{0^+, 0^-\}$.
(ii)

$$\Theta(\Delta_{q_k}^{k-1} \setminus \{-\alpha\}) = (\Delta_{1+q_k+q_{k-1}}^k \cup \Delta_{1+2q_k+q_{k-1}}^k \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{1+q_{k-1}+m_{k+1}q_k}^k \cup \Delta_1^{k+1} \cup \Delta_1^k) \setminus \{0^+, 0^-\}.$$

- (iii) If $0 \leq n < q_k$ and $1 \leq m < q_k$ then

$$\Delta_{q_k-(m-1)}^{k-1} \cap \{-\alpha, -2\alpha, \dots, -(m+n-1)\alpha\} = \{-m\alpha\}.$$

Proof. (i) Suppose k is even

$$(\Delta_{q_{k+1}}^k \cup \Delta_{q_k}^{k+1}) \setminus \{-\alpha\} = [(q_{k+1} - 1)\alpha^+, -\alpha) \cup (-\alpha, (q_{k+1} + q_k - 1)\alpha^-] \cup [(q_{k+1} + q_k - 1)\alpha^+, (q_k - 1)\alpha^-].$$

Thus

$$\Theta(\Delta_{q_{k+1}}^k \setminus \{-\alpha\} \cup \Delta_{q_k}^{k+1}) = [q_{k+1}\alpha^+, 0^-) \cup (0^+, q_k\alpha^-] = \Delta_1^{k+1} \setminus \{0^-\} \cup \Delta_1^k \setminus \{0^+\}.$$

The proof is the same for k odd.

(ii)

$$\Delta_{q_k}^{k-1} \setminus \{-\alpha\} = \Delta_{q_k+q_{k-1}}^k \cup \Delta_{2q_k+q_{k-1}}^k \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{m_{k+1}q_k+q_{k-1}}^k \cup \Delta_{q_{k+1}}^k \setminus \{-\alpha\} \cup \Delta_{q_k}^{k+1}.$$

So by (i)

$$\Theta(\Delta_{q_k}^{k-1} \setminus \{-\alpha\}) = \Delta_{1+q_k+q_{k-1}}^k \cup \Delta_{1+q_{k-1}+2q_k}^k \cup \dots \cup \Delta_{1+q_{k-1}+m_{k+1}q_k}^k \cup (\Delta_1^{k+1} \cup \Delta_1^k) \setminus \{0^+, 0^-\}.$$

(iii) As $m < q_k$, $-m\alpha \in \Delta_{q_k-(m-1)}^{k-1}$ and $\Delta_{q_k-(m-1)}^{k-1}$ is disjoint from $\{-\alpha, -2\alpha, \dots, -(m-1)\alpha\}$. Thus we are reduced to showing that $\Delta_{q_k-(m-1)}^{k-1}$ is disjoint from $\{-(m+1)\alpha, \dots, -(m+n-1)\alpha\}$. If $-j\alpha \in \Delta_{q_k-(m-1)}^{k-1}$ for some $m+1 \leq j \leq m+n-1$ then $-(j-1)\alpha \in \Delta_{q_k-(m-1)}^{k-1}$. So we may assume that $m=1$. Thus we must show that $\Delta_{q_k}^{k-1}$ is disjoint from $\{-2\alpha, \dots, -n\alpha\}$ which is true as long as $n < q_k$.

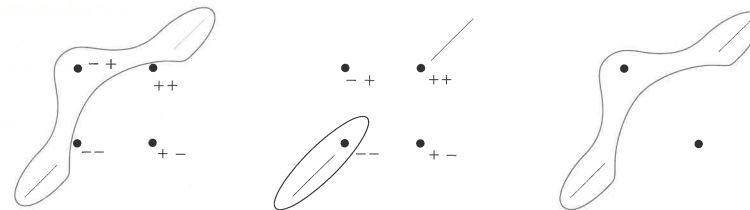


Fig. 6. From left to right: the neighbourhoods \mathcal{V} , \mathcal{U} , and \mathcal{W} .

Definition 4.6. Given positive integers m and n , choose k such that $m, n < q_k + q_{k-1}$; let $\mathcal{W}(-m\alpha, n\alpha^\pm, k) = \{(a, b) \mid a \in \Delta_{q_k-(m-1)}^{k-1} \setminus \{-m\alpha\} \text{ and } b = \Theta^{m+n}(a)\} \cup \{(-m\alpha, n\alpha^\pm)\}$. By Lemma 4.7(iii) Θ^{m+n} is defined on $\Delta_{q_k-(m-1)}^{k-1} \setminus \{-m\alpha\}$ and so the definition makes sense. We let $\mathcal{W}(n\alpha^\pm, -m\alpha, k) = \mathcal{W}(-m\alpha, n\alpha^\pm, k)^{-1}$, where $(x, y)^{-1} = (y, x)$ for any $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha$. We let $\mathcal{W}^o(-m\alpha, n\alpha^\pm, k)$ be the subset of $\mathcal{W}(-m\alpha, n\alpha^\pm, k)$ obtained by deleting the endpoints of $\Delta_{q_k-(m-1)}^{k-1}$ in the construction above.

Lemma 4.7. If $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$ meets $\mathcal{W}(x', y', k')$ then

- (i) $\mathcal{W}(x', y', k') \subseteq \mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$ if $k \leq k'$, or
(ii) $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) \subseteq \mathcal{W}(x', y', k')$ if $k' \leq k$ and x' is not in the k^{th} set of x , or
(iii) $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) \cap \mathcal{W}(x', y', k') = \mathcal{W}(x', y', k)$ if $k' \leq k$ and x' is in the k^{th} set of x .

Proof. By taking inverses, if necessary, we may assume that $x' = -m\alpha$. Let P and Q be respectively the k^{th} sets of x and y with $|P| \leq |Q|$. Suppose $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) = \{(u, v) \mid u \in P, v = \Theta^n(u)\}$. Then P and $\Delta_{q_{k'}-(m-1)}^{k'}$ meet, and $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) \cap \mathcal{W}(x', y', k') = \{(u, v) \mid u \in P \cap \Delta_{q_{k'}-(m-1)}^{k'} \setminus \{-m\alpha\} \text{ and } v = \Theta^n(u)\}$. So if $k \leq k'$ then $\Delta_{q_{k'}-(m-1)}^{k'} \subseteq P$ and $\mathcal{W}(x', y', k') \subseteq \mathcal{U}(x, y, k)$. If $k' \leq k$ and $x' \notin P$ then $P \subseteq \Delta_{q_{k'}-(m-1)}^{k'} \setminus \{-m\alpha\}$ and thus $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) \subseteq \mathcal{W}(x', y', k')$. If $k' \leq k$ and $x' \in P$ then $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) \cap \mathcal{W}(x', y', k') = \{(u, v) \mid u \in P \setminus \{-m\alpha\} \text{ and } v = \Theta^n(u)\} = \mathcal{W}(x', y', k)$. The case when $|Q| \leq |P|$ is handled similarly.

Theorem 4.8. The sets $\{\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W}\}$ form a basis for a locally Hausdorff topology on \mathcal{R}_α .

Proof. The sets $\{\mathcal{U}\}$ are a basis of \mathcal{R}_α . By construction $\{\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W}\}$ covers $\mathcal{R}_\alpha \setminus \mathcal{R}_\alpha$ so we just have to show that the intersection of two subsets of $\{\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W}\}$ is an open subset of \mathcal{R}_α or is a neighbourhood of type \mathcal{V} or \mathcal{W} . A \mathcal{V} neighbourhood is the union of two \mathcal{U}^o 's and a point not in \mathcal{R}_α . Thus any intersection of the form $\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{V}$ is an open subset of \mathcal{R}_α .

By Lemma 4.7 the intersection of a \mathcal{W} and a \mathcal{U} -type neighbourhood must be a \mathcal{U} neighbourhood or a \mathcal{W} neighbourhood. Also if $\mathcal{V}(x, y, k)$ meets $\mathcal{W}(x', y', k')$, then the intersection must be a union of \mathcal{U} -type neighbourhoods since no point $(-n\alpha, m\alpha^\pm)$ or $(m\alpha^\pm, -n\alpha)$ is in any \mathcal{V} -neighbourhood nor is any $(m\alpha^\pm, n\alpha^\pm)$ in any \mathcal{W} -neighbourhood. The intersection of two \mathcal{V} neighbourhoods (or \mathcal{W} neighbourhoods) is either a \mathcal{V} neighbourhood (respectively a \mathcal{W} neighbourhood) or an open set in \mathcal{R}_α , i.e. a \mathcal{U}^o neighbourhood or the union of two \mathcal{U}^o neighbourhoods. Thus the family $\{\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W}\}$ forms a basis for a topology of \mathcal{R}_α .

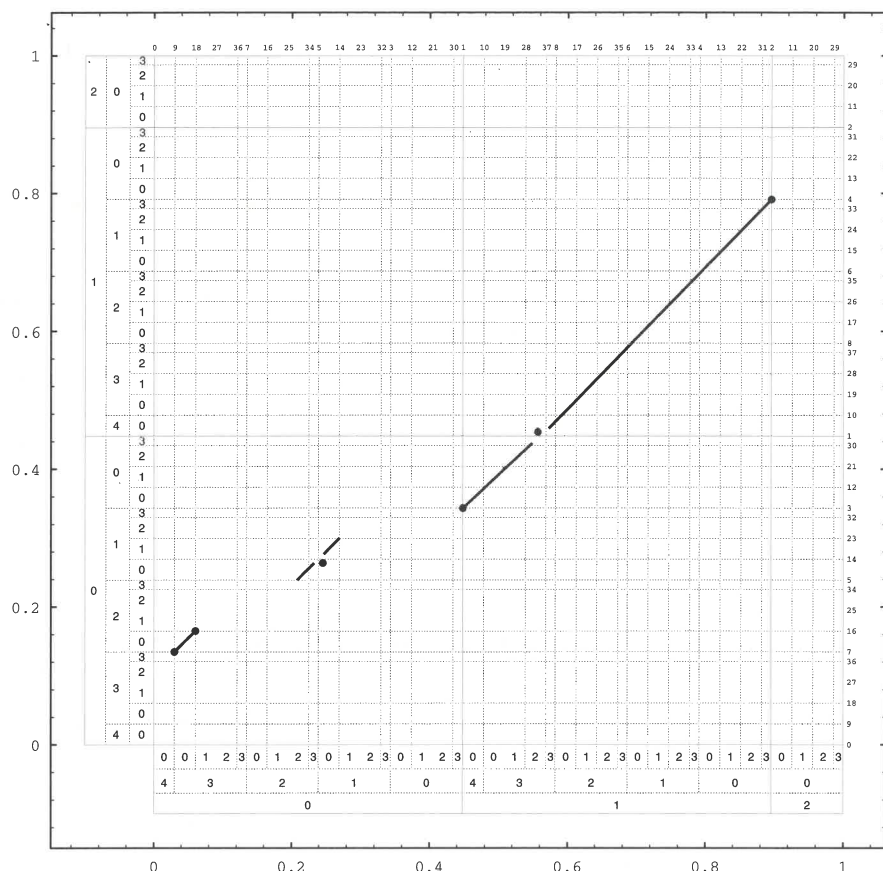


Fig. 7. The diagram shows some sub-basic neighbourhoods of $R_\alpha \subseteq X_\alpha \times X_\alpha$. In this example $\alpha = [0; 2, 4, 3, \dots]$. From left to right are shown $\mathcal{U}(9\alpha^+, 7\alpha^+, 3)$, $\mathcal{V}(5\alpha^+, 14\alpha^-, 2)$, and $\mathcal{W}(-\alpha, \alpha^+, 1)$.

Each \mathcal{U} neighbourhood is Hausdorff, thus each point of \mathcal{R}_α has a Hausdorff neighbourhood. Hence each \mathcal{V} neighbourhood is Hausdorff, being the union of a point and two \mathcal{U}^o neighbourhoods. If $(x, y) \in \mathcal{W}(-m\alpha, n\alpha^\pm, k)$ and $(x, y) \neq (-m\alpha, n\alpha^\pm)$, then we may choose $k' > k$ large enough that x and $-m\alpha$ lie in different elements of \mathcal{P}_k . Thus $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k')$ and $\mathcal{W}(-m\alpha, n\alpha^\pm, k')$ will be disjoint. Since any other two points of $\mathcal{W}(-m\alpha, n\alpha^\pm, k)$ lie in \mathcal{R}_α , they can be separated. So we can conclude that $\mathcal{W}(-m\alpha, n\alpha^\pm, k)$ is also Hausdorff. Hence the topology just constructed is locally Hausdorff.

Definition 4.9. Define $\Phi : R_\alpha \rightarrow S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}$ as follows:

If $x \sim_t y$, in which case there is $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $y = \Theta^n(x)$, then let $\Phi(x, y) = (\pi(x), n)$.

If $m, n \geq 0$, let $\Phi(m\alpha^+, n\alpha^-) = \Phi(m\alpha^-, n\alpha^+) = (m\alpha, n - m)$.

If $m > 0$ and $n \geq 0$, let $\Phi(-m\alpha, n\alpha^+) = \Phi(-m\alpha, n\alpha^-) = (-m\alpha, m + n)$ and $\Phi(n\alpha^+, -m\alpha) = \Phi(n\alpha^-, -m\alpha) = (n\alpha, -(m + n))$.

Proposition 4.10. If $\Phi(x, y) \neq \Phi(x', y')$ then (x, y) and (x', y') can be separated by disjoint open sets.

If $\Phi(x, y) = \Phi(x', y')$ but $(x, y) \neq (x', y')$ then there is an open set containing (x, y) but not (x', y') ; however (x, y) and (x', y') cannot be separated by disjoint open sets.

Proof. Suppose $\Phi(x, y) = (\pi(x), n)$ and $\Phi(x', y') = (\pi(x'), n')$. If $n \neq n'$ then every basic neighbourhood of (x, y) will be disjoint from every basic neighbourhood of (x', y') . If $\pi(x) \neq \pi(x')$ we may choose k large enough so that the basic neighbourhoods of (x, y) and (x', y') are defined and the elements of \mathcal{P}_k containing $\{\pi(x)^+, \pi(x)^-\}$ are disjoint from the elements of \mathcal{P}_k containing $\{\pi(x')^+ \text{ and } \pi(x')^-\}$. The basic neighbourhoods of (x, y) and (x', y') will be disjoint.

Suppose $\Phi(x, y) = \Phi(x', y')$. There are two cases. First $(x, y), (x', y') \in \{(m\alpha^+, (n - m)\alpha^+), (m\alpha^+, (n - m)\alpha^-), (m\alpha^-, (n - m)\alpha^+), (m\alpha^-, (n - m)\alpha^-)\}$. The basic \mathcal{V} -neighbourhoods contain exactly one of the two points, $(-, -), (+, +)$. So there are basic neighbourhoods which contain one of the four points but none of the other three. Also the basic \mathcal{V} -neighbourhoods of each of these points (for any k) all meet the basic \mathcal{U} neighbourhoods, so these points cannot be separated by disjoint open sets.

The second case is that $(x, y), (x', y') \in \{(-m\alpha, (m + n)\alpha^+), (-m\alpha, (m + n)\alpha^-)\}$ (after taking inverses if necessary). The basic \mathcal{W} -neighbourhoods contain only one of these two points but any two of them meet. Thus one can find an open set containing a given point but not the other, but one cannot separate these points with disjoint open sets.

Proposition 4.11. $\Phi : R_\alpha \rightarrow S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}$ is continuous.

Proof. Let $T \subseteq S^1$ be open and $(x, y) \in \Phi^{-1}(T \times \{n\})$.

First suppose $\pi(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}\alpha$. Then there is k and $P \in \mathcal{P}_k$ such that $\pi(P) \subseteq T$. Suppose $y \in Q \in \mathcal{P}_k$. Then $\Phi(\mathcal{U}(x, y, k))$ is either $\pi(P) \times \{n\}$ or $\pi(\Theta^{-n}(Q)) \times \{n\}$ whichever is smaller. Hence $\mathcal{U}(x, y, k) \subseteq \Phi^{-1}(T \times \{n\})$.

Secondly suppose $\pi(x), \pi(y) \in \mathbb{N}\alpha$. Then choose k such that there are $P, P' \in \mathcal{P}_k$ with $\pi(P), \pi(P') \subseteq T$ and $\pi(x)^+ \in P$ and $\pi(x)^- \in P'$. Then $\mathcal{U}(\pi(x)^+, \pi(y)^+, k), \mathcal{U}(\pi(x)^-, \pi(y)^-, k) \subseteq \Phi^{-1}(T \times \{n\})$. Hence $\mathcal{V}(x, y, k) \subseteq \Phi^{-1}(T \times \{n\})$.

Thirdly suppose $x = -m\alpha$ for some $m > 0$. Then choose k such that there is $P \in \mathcal{P}_k$ with $x \in P$ and $\pi(P) \subseteq T$. Then $\mathcal{W}(x, y, k) \subseteq \Phi^{-1}(T \times \{n\})$.

Since neighbourhoods of the form $T \times \{n\}$, with T open in S^1 form a base for the topology, the proposition is proved.

Proposition 4.12. If $\Phi(x, y) = \Phi(x', y')$ then $f(x, y) = f(x', y')$ for all continuous functions $f : R_\alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$.

Proof. Let $c = f(x, y)$ and $c' = f(x', y')$ and suppose $c \neq c'$. Then there are neighbourhoods \mathcal{U} of (x, y) and \mathcal{U}' of (x', y') such that

$$|f(x, y) - f(u, v)| < \frac{|c - c'|}{2} \quad \text{for } (u, v) \in \mathcal{U}$$

and

$$|f(x', y') - f(u', v)| < \frac{|c - c'|}{2} \quad \text{for } (u', v) \in \mathcal{U}'.$$

By Proposition 4.10 $\mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{W}'$ is not empty. Suppose $(u, v) \in \mathcal{U} \cap \mathcal{W}'$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} |c - c'| &= |f(x, y) - f(x', y')| \\ &\leq |f(x, y) - f(u, v)| + |f(u, v) - f(x', y')| \\ &\leq \frac{|c - c'|}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

This contradiction shows that we must have $c = c'$.

Theorem 4.13. $\Phi^* : C(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow C(R_\alpha)$ is a linear bijection.

Proof. Φ^* is injective since Φ is surjective. Suppose $f \in C(R_\alpha)$. By Proposition 4.12 there is $\tilde{f} : S^1 \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, such that $f = \tilde{f} \circ \Phi$.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and $(\pi(x), n) \in S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}$ be given. We shall show that \tilde{f} is continuous at $(\pi(x), n)$. Suppose first that $\pi(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}\alpha$ and choose y such that $(x, y) \in R_\alpha$. Choose k such that $|f(x, y) - f(x', y')| < \varepsilon$ for $(x', y') \in \mathcal{U}^o(x, y, k)$. Now $\Phi(\mathcal{U}^o(x, y, k))$ is open and for $(t, n) \in \Phi(\mathcal{U}^o(x, y, k))$, $|\tilde{f}(\pi(x), n) - \tilde{f}(t, n)| < \varepsilon$. Thus \tilde{f} is continuous at $(\pi(x), n)$.

Now suppose $\pi(x) \in \mathbb{N}\alpha$, choose y such that $(x, y) \in R_\alpha \setminus \mathcal{R}_\alpha$ and k such that $|f(x, y) - f(x', y')| < \varepsilon$ for $(x', y') \in \mathcal{V}(x, y, k)$. Again $\Phi(\mathcal{V}(x, y, k))$ is open and for $(t, n) \in \Phi(\mathcal{V}(x, y, k))$, $|\tilde{f}(\pi(x), n) - \tilde{f}(t, n)| < \varepsilon$. Thus \tilde{f} is continuous at $(\pi(x), n)$.

Finally suppose $\pi(x) \in -\mathbb{N}\alpha$. Choose y such that $(x, y) \in R_\alpha$ and k such that $|f(x, y) - f(x', y')| < \varepsilon$ for $(x', y') \in \mathcal{W}^o(x, y, k)$. Since $\Phi(\mathcal{W}^o(x, y, k))$ is open we have again that \tilde{f} is continuous at $(\pi(x), n)$.

Remark 4.14. As shown in Proposition 4.10, the topology on R_α is not Hausdorff. By a compact subset of R_α we mean a set satisfying the Borel-Lebesgue axiom: every open cover has a finite subcover. These sets are called *quasi-compact* by Bourbaki [1, Chapter 1, Sect. 9]. The set $\{(x, x) | x \in X_\alpha\}$ is an open compact subset of R_α which is not closed and whose closure is not compact.

Lemma 4.15. For each compact $J \subseteq S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}$, the inverse image $\Phi^{-1}(J) \subseteq R_\alpha$ is the closure of the compact set $\Phi^{-1}(J) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$.

Proof. We may suppose that J has no isolated points. Let $K = \Phi^{-1}(J) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$. K is a compact subset of \mathcal{R}_α and thus a compact subset of R_α . Let $x \in \Phi^{-1}(J) \setminus K$.

Suppose that x (or x^{-1}) is of the form $(m\alpha^+, n\alpha^-)$ for $m, n \geq 0$. Then $\mathcal{V}(m\alpha^+, n\alpha^-, k) \setminus \{x\} \subseteq \mathcal{R}_\alpha$ and $\Phi(\mathcal{V}(m\alpha^+, n\alpha^-, k))$ must meet $J \setminus \{\Phi(x)\}$, as $\Phi(\mathcal{V}(m\alpha^+, n\alpha^-, k))$ is open. Hence $\mathcal{V}(m\alpha^+, n\alpha^-, k)$ meets K . The same argument applies to the case when x (or x^{-1}) is of the form $(m\alpha^+, -n\alpha)$ for $m \geq 0$ and $n > 0$, as Φ carries \mathcal{W}^o neighbourhoods into open subsets of $S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}$. In either case $x \in K^-$.

Theorem 4.16. Suppose $f \in C(R_\alpha)$ and $g \in C(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})$ is the unique function such that $f = g \circ \Phi$. The support of f is the closure of a compact set if and only if the support of g is compact.

Proof. Suppose $\text{supp}(g)$ is compact. So $\text{supp}(g) \subseteq S^1 \times \{-n, \dots, n\}$ for some n . Since $\Phi^{-1}(S^1 \times \{-n, \dots, n\}) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$ is compact, $\Phi^{-1}(\text{supp}(g)) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$ is compact.

Now $\Phi^{-1}\{y | g(y) \neq 0\} \subseteq \Phi^{-1}(\{y | g(y) \neq 0\}^-) = \Phi^{-1}(\text{supp}(g))$. Thus $\text{supp}(f) = (\Phi^{-1}\{y | g(y) \neq 0\})^- \subseteq \Phi^{-1}(\text{supp}(g))$, and thus $\text{supp}(f) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$ is a closed subset of the compact set $\Phi^{-1}(\text{supp}(g)) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$.

Now suppose $x \in \text{supp}(f) \setminus \mathcal{R}_\alpha$. We have two cases to consider: $x = (m\alpha^+, n\alpha^-)$ (or its inverse) for $m, n \geq 0$, or $x = (m\alpha^\pm, -m\alpha)$ (or its inverse) for $m \geq 0$ and $n > 0$.

In the first case let $\tilde{x} = (m\alpha^+, n\alpha^+)$. Then $f(x) = f(\tilde{x})$. So if $f(x) \neq 0$ then $f \neq 0$ on some \mathcal{U} neighbourhood of \tilde{x} . Hence x has a \mathcal{V} neighbourhood which meets $\text{supp}(f) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$. If $f(x) = 0$ then every \mathcal{V} neighbourhood of x meets $\text{supp}(f) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$, since every \mathcal{V} neighbourhood of x contains a point y for which $f(y) \neq 0$ and such a point must be in \mathcal{R}_α as a \mathcal{V} neighbourhood only contains one point not in $\mathcal{R}_\alpha - x$ in our case. Thus $x \in (\text{supp}(f) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha)^-$.

In the second case we proceed similarly. If $f(x) \neq 0$ then $f \neq 0$ on some \mathcal{W} neighbourhood of x . x will be the only point of such \mathcal{W} neighbourhoods not in \mathcal{R}_α , so each \mathcal{W} neighbourhood of x meets $\text{supp}(f) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$. If $f(x) = 0$ then every \mathcal{W} neighbourhood of x meets $\text{supp}(f) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$, since every \mathcal{W} neighbourhood of x contains a point y for which $f(y) \neq 0$ and such a point must be in \mathcal{R}_α as a \mathcal{W} neighbourhood only contains one point not in $\mathcal{R}_\alpha - x$ in our case. Thus $x \in (\text{supp}(f) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha)^-$. Hence in either case $x \in (\text{supp}(f) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha)^-$, and thus $\text{supp}(f)$ is the closure of the compact set $\text{supp}(f) \cap \mathcal{R}_\alpha$.

Now suppose $\text{supp}(f) = (\Phi\{y | g(y) \neq 0\})^-$ is compact. Then $\Phi((\Phi^{-1}\{y | g(y) \neq 0\})^-) = \Phi(\text{supp}(f))$ is compact. Hence $\{y | g(y) \neq 0\}$ is a subset of the compact set $\Phi(\text{supp}(f))$, and thus $\text{supp}(g)$ is compact.

Definition 4.17. $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ is the space of continuous functions on R_α whose support is the closure of a compact set. By Theorem 4.13, $\Phi^*(C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})) = C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$, the continuous functions on $S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}$ with compact support.

5. The C*-Algebra $C^*(R_\alpha, \mu)$

We construct a Haar system μ on R_α and show that the C*-algebra $C^*(R_\alpha, \mu)$ is isomorphic to A_α the irrational rotation C*-algebra for the angle $2\pi\alpha$.

Definition 5.1. For $x \in X_\alpha$ let $R_\alpha^x = \{(x, y) | (x, y) \in R_\alpha\}$. Define a measure μ^x on R_α^x by setting $\mu^x(x, y) = 1$ if $y \notin \{m\alpha^\pm | m \geq 0\}$ and $\mu^x(x, y) = 1/2$ if $y \in \{m\alpha^\pm | m \geq 0\}$. Let $\mu = \{\mu^x\}_{x \in X_\alpha}$. We make $S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}$ into a groupoid in the usual way: $(x, m)(y, n) = (x, m + n)$ provided $y = x + m\alpha$ (modulo 1), $(x, n)^{-1} = (x + n\alpha, -n)$. Let ν^x be counting measure on $(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})^x = \{(x, n) | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. Then $\nu = \{\nu^x\}_{x \in S^1}$ is a Haar system on $S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}$.

We shall adopt the notation of Renault [7, Chapter 1, Definition 2.2]: for $f \in C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ and $x \in X_\alpha$ let

$$\mu(f)(x) = \sum_{(x, y) \in R_\alpha} f(x, y) \mu^x(x, y),$$

and for $g \in C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})$ and $y \in S^1$ let

$$\nu(g)(y) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} g(y, n).$$

Lemma 5.2. Given $g \in C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})$ let $f = g \circ \Phi$. For $x \in X_\alpha$,

$$\mu(f)(x) = v(g)(\pi(x)),$$

and $\mu(f)$ is continuous on X_α . Also μ is left invariant:

$$\sum_{(y_1, y_2) \in R_\alpha^{x_2}} f((x_1, x_2)(y_1, y_2)) \mu^{x_2}(y_1, y_2) = \sum_{(y_1, y_2) \in R_\alpha^{x_1}} f(y_1, y_2) \mu^{x_1}(y_1, y_2).$$

Proof. We shall break the proof into two cases.

(i) $\pi(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}\alpha$. Then $R_\alpha^x = \{(x, \Theta^n(x)) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, $\Phi: R_\alpha^x \rightarrow (S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})^{\pi(x)}$ is bijection and both μ^x and $v^{\pi(x)}$ are counting measures.

(ii) $\pi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}\alpha$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(f)(x) &= \sum_{(x, y) \in R_\alpha} f(x, y) \mu^x(x, y) \\ &= \sum_{m \geq 0} (f(x, m\alpha^+) \mu^x(x, m\alpha^+) + f(x, m\alpha^-) \mu^x(x, m\alpha^-)) \\ &\quad + \sum_{m > 0} f(x, -m\alpha) \mu^x(x, -m\alpha) \\ &= \sum_{m \geq 0} g(\pi(x), m) + \sum_{m > 0} g(\pi(x), m) \\ &= v(g)(\pi(x)). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\mu(f) = v(g) \circ \pi$ is continuous on X_α .

As for the last claim note that $\mu^x(x, y)$ depends only on y . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{(y_1, y_2) \in R_\alpha^{x_2}} f((x_1, x_2)(y_1, y_2)) \mu^{x_2}(y_1, y_2) &= \sum_{y_2 \sim x_2} f((x_1, x_2)(x_2, y_2)) \mu^{x_2}(x_2, y_2) \\ &= \sum_{y_2 \sim x_2} f(x_1, y_2) \mu^{x_2}(x_2, y_2) = \sum_{y_2 \sim x_2} f(x_1, y_2) \mu^{x_1}(x_1, y_2) \\ &= \sum_{(y_1, y_2) \in R_\alpha^{x_1}} f(y_1, y_2) \mu^{x_1}(y_1, y_2). \end{aligned}$$

Definition 5.3. We give $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ an involution and product by defining

$$f^*(x, y) = \overline{f(y, x)}$$

and

$$f_1 * f_2(x, z) = \sum_{y \sim x} f_1(x, y) f_2(y, z) \mu^x(x, y).$$

As the algebra of continuous functions on a topological groupoid $C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})$ has the involution and product:

$$g(y, n)^* = \overline{g(y + n\alpha, -n)}$$

and

$$g_1 * g_2(y, n) = \sum_{m \in \mathbb{Z}} g_1(y, m) g_2(y + m\alpha, n - m).$$

Since the functions have support the closure of a compact set the sums are always finite.

Proposition 5.4. Suppose f_1 and f_2 are in $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$, and g_1 and g_2 are in $C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})$ with $f_1 = g_1 \circ \Phi$ and $f_2 = g_2 \circ \Phi$. Then $f_1^* = g_1^* \circ \Phi$ and $f_1 * f_2 = (g_1 * g_2) \circ \Phi$. Hence Φ^* is a *-homomorphism.

Proof. Suppose $\Phi(x, z) = (\pi(x), m)$, then $\Phi(z, x) = (\pi(x) + m\alpha, -m)$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} g_1^*(\Phi(x, z)) &= g_1^*(\pi(x), m) = \overline{g_1(\pi(x) + m\alpha, -m)} \\ &= \overline{f_1(z, x)} = f_1^*(x, z). \end{aligned}$$

Hence Φ^* is a *-linear map.

To verify that Φ^* is a homomorphism we consider two cases.

(i) Suppose $\pi(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}\alpha$. Then $R_\alpha^x = \{(x, \Theta^n(x)) \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, μ^x is counting measure, and the restriction of Φ to R_α^x is one-to-one. Also there is $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $z = \Theta^m(x)$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} f_1 * f_2(x, z) &= f_1 * f_2(x, \Theta^m(x)) \\ &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} f_1(x, \Theta^n(x)) f_2(\Theta^n(x), \Theta^m(x)) \\ &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} g_1(\pi(x), n) g_2(\pi(x) + n\alpha, m - n) \\ &= g_1 * g_2(\pi(x), m) = g_1 * g_2(\Phi(x, z)). \end{aligned}$$

(ii) Suppose $\pi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}\alpha$, and $\Phi(x, z) = (\pi(x), m)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f_1 * f_2(x, z) &= \sum_{n \geq 0} (f_1(x, n\alpha^+) f_2(n\alpha^+, z) + f_1(x, n\alpha^-) f_2(n\alpha^-, z)) / 2 \\ &\quad + \sum_{n > 0} f_1(x, -n\alpha) f_2(-n\alpha, z) \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 0} g_1(\pi(x), n) g_2(\pi(x) + n\alpha, m - m) \\ &\quad + \sum_{n > 0} g_1(\pi(x), n) g_2(\pi(x) + n\alpha, m - n) \\ &= g_1 * g_2(\pi(x), m) = g_1 * g_2(\Phi(x, z)). \end{aligned}$$

Thus Φ^* is a *-homomorphism.

Definition 5.5. We give $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ the topology of uniform convergence on the closures of compact sets, and $C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})$ the topology of uniform convergence on compact sets.

Proposition 5.6. $\Phi^*: C_{oo}(R_\alpha) \rightarrow C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})$ is a homeomorphism.

Proof. Let $f_0 \in C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ and $g_0 = \Phi^*(f_0)$. A basic neighbourhood of f_0 is given by $\mathcal{U}(f_0, K, \varepsilon) = \{f \in C_{oo}(R_\alpha) \mid |f(x) - f_0(x)| < \varepsilon \text{ for } x \in K^-\}$, where $K \subseteq R_\alpha$ is compact and $\varepsilon > 0$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi^*(\mathcal{U}(f, K, \varepsilon)) &= \{g \in C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}) \mid |g(\Phi(x)) - g_0(\Phi(x))| < \varepsilon \text{ for } x \in K^-\} \\ &= \{g \in C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}) \mid |g(y) - g_0(y)| < \varepsilon \text{ for } y \in \Phi(K)\}. \end{aligned}$$

This is a basic neighbourhood of g_0 in $C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})$.

Conversely, given $J \subseteq S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}$ compact and $\varepsilon > 0$, let

$$\mathcal{U}(g_0, J, \varepsilon) = \{g \in C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}) \mid |g(y) - g_0(y)| < \varepsilon \text{ for } y \in J\}.$$

By Proposition 4.15 there is a compact set $K \subseteq R_\alpha$ such that $\Phi(K) = J$. So $\mathcal{U}(g_0, J, \varepsilon) = \Phi^*(\mathcal{U}(f_0, K, \varepsilon))$.

Definition 5.7. Following Renault [7, Definition 1.3] we define a norm $\|\cdot\|_I$ on $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ such that $\|f^*\|_I = \|f\|_I$ and $\|f_1 * f_2\| \leq \|f_1\|_I \|f_2\|_I$. Let

$$\|f\|_{I,r} = \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} \sum_{y \sim x} |f(x, y)| \mu^x(x, y),$$

$$\|f\|_{I,l} = \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} \sum_{y \sim x} |f(y, x)| \mu^x(x, y),$$

$$\|f\|_I = \max\{\|f\|_{I,r}, \|f\|_{I,l}\}.$$

Remark 5.8. Note that $\|f^*\|_{I,r} = \|f\|_{I,l}$, so $\|f^*\|_I = \|f\|_I$. Also

$$\begin{aligned} \|f_1 * f_2\|_{I,r} &= \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} \sum_{y \sim x} |f_1 * f_2| \mu^x(x, y) \\ &= \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} \sum_{y \sim x} \left| \sum_{z \sim x} f_1(x, z) f_2(z, y) \mu^x(x, z) \right| \mu^x(x, y) \\ &\leq \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} \sum_{y \sim x} \sum_{z \sim x} |f_1(x, z)| |f_2(z, y)| \mu^x(x, z) \mu^x(x, y) \\ &= \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} \sum_{z \sim x} |f_1(x, z)| \left(\sum_{y \sim x} |f_2(z, y)| \mu^x(x, y) \right) \mu^x(x, z) \\ &= \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} \sum_{z \sim x} |f_1(x, z)| \left(\sum_{y \sim x} |f_2(z, y)| \mu^z(z, y) \right) \mu^x(x, z) \\ &\leq \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} \sum_{z \sim x} |f_1(x, z)| \left(\sup_{z \in X_\alpha} \sum_{y \sim x} |f_2(z, y)| \mu^z(z, y) \right) \mu^x(x, z) \\ &\leq \|f_1\|_{I,r} \|f_2\|_{I,r}. \end{aligned}$$

Also

$$\|f_1 * f_2\|_{I,l} = \|f_2^* * f_1^*\|_{I,r} \leq \|f_2^*\|_{I,r} \|f_1^*\|_{I,r} = \|f_1\|_{I,l} \|f_2\|_{I,l}.$$

Hence $\|f_1 * f_2\|_I \leq \|f_1\|_I \|f_2\|_I$.

Definition 5.9. A $*$ -representation of $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is a continuous $*$ -homomorphism from $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ to $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ when $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ has the topology of uniform convergence on the closure of compact sets and $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ has the strong operator topology. A $*$ -representation π is bounded if $\|\pi(f)\| \leq \|f\|_I$ for all f in $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$. We place a C^* -norm on $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ by setting $\|f\| = \sup\{\|\pi(f)\| \mid \pi \text{ is a bounded } *$ -representation of $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)\}$. $C^*(R_\alpha, \mu)$ is the completion of $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ with respect to this norm.

Theorem 5.10.

$$C^*(R_\alpha, \mu) \simeq A_\alpha.$$

Proof. We have already shown that as topological $*$ -algebras Φ^* is a homeomorphic $*$ -isomorphism from $C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ to $C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})$. Let us show that Φ also preserves the norm $\|\cdot\|_I$. Let $f \in C_{oo}(R_\alpha)$ and $g = \Phi^*(f) \in C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z})$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|f\|_{I,r} &= \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} \sum_{y \sim x} |f(x, y)| \mu^x(x, y) = \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} \mu(|f|)(x) \\ &= \sup_{x \in X_\alpha} v(|\Phi^*(f)|)(\pi(x)) \quad (\text{by Lemma 5.2}) \\ &= \sup_{y \in S^1} v(|g|)(y) = \|g\|_{I,r}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\|\Phi^*(f)\|_I = \|f\|_I$. Since the completion of $(C_{oo}(S^1 \times \mathbb{Z}), \|\cdot\|_I)$ is A_α , the proof is complete.

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