# Multiserial and special multiserial algebras and their representations ${ }^{2 \pi}$ 

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#### Abstract

In this paper we study multiserial and special multiserial algebras. These algebras are a natural generalization of biserial and special biserial algebras to algebras of wild representation type. We define a module to be multiserial if its radical is the sum of uniserial modules whose pairwise intersection is either 0 or a simple module. We show that all finitely generated modules over a special multiserial algebra are multiserial. In particular, this implies that, in analogy to special biserial algebras being biserial, special multiserial algebras are multiserial. We then show that the class of symmetric special multiserial algebras coincides with the class of Brauer configuration algebras, where the latter are a generalization of Brauer graph algebras. We end by showing that any symmetric algebra with radical cube zero is special multiserial and so, in particular, it is a Brauer configuration algebra.


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## 1. Introduction

In the study of the representation theory of finite dimensional algebras, the introduction of presentations of algebras by quiver and relations has led to major advances in the field. Such presentations of algebras combined with another combinatorial tool that has proven powerful, the Auslander-Reiten translate and the Auslander-Reiten quiver, have led to many significant advances in the theory, to cite but a selection of these, see for example $[14,27,28,41]$ or for an overview see $[7,45,46,8]$. The addition of special properties such as semi-simplicity, self-injectivity, Koszulness, finite and tame representation type, and finite global dimension, to name a few, have led to structural results and classification theorems. For example, the Artin-Wedderburn theorems for semi-simple algebras [33], the classification of hereditary algebras of finite representation type [10], Koszul duality [40], classification of Nakayama algebras [8], covering theory of algebras [15], the study of tilted algebras $[17,31]$ and more recently, the study of cluster-tilted algebras beginning with [18,20,6].

Biserial and special biserial algebras have been the object of intense study at the end of the last century. Many aspects of the representation theory of these algebras are well-understood, for example, to cite but a few of the earlier results, the structure of the indecomposable representations [42,29,50], almost split sequences [19], maps between indecomposable representations [22,37], and the structure of the Auslander-Reiten quiver [24]. Recently there has been renewed interested in this class of algebras. On the one hand this interest stems from its connecting with cluster theory. In [5] the authors show that the Jacobian algebras of surface cluster algebras are gentle algebras, and hence a subclass of special biserial algebras. This class has been extensively studied since, see [21,35] for examples of the most recent results. On the other hand with the introduction of $\tau$-tilting and silting theory $[2,3]$, there has been a renewed interested in special biserial algebras and symmetric special biserial algebras, in particular, see [1,38,51,52].

For self-injective algebras, Brauer tree and Brauer graph algebras have been useful in the classification of group algebras and blocks of group algebras of finite and tame representation type $[13,16,32,23]$ and the derived equivalence classification of self-injective algebras of tame representation type, see for example in $[4,47]$ and the references within. In these classifications biserial and special biserial algebras have played an important role.

In this paper, we study two classes of algebras, multiserial and special multiserial algebras introduced in [49], that are mostly of wild representation type. These algebras generalize biserial and special biserial algebras. In fact, they contain the classes of biserial and special biserial algebras and we will see that they also contain the class of symmetric algebras with radical cube zero. One common feature of these classes is that their representation theory is largely controlled by the uniserial modules. The same is true for multiserial and special multiserial algebras.

We say that a module $M$ over some algebra is multiserial if the radical of $M$ is a sum of uniserial modules $U_{1}, \ldots U_{l}$ such that, if $i \neq j$, then $U_{i} \cap U_{j}$ is either (0) or a
simple module. An algebra $A$ is multiserial if, as a right and left module, $A$ is multiserial. For the definition of a special multiserial algebra see Definition 2.2. We note that the definition of multiserial algebra as well as that of special multiserial algebra first appears in [49]. Subsequently multiserial algebras and rings have been studied in [36] with a focus on hereditary multiserial rings, and with a slightly more general definition of multiserial algebra, they appear in $[34,39,12]$.

One of the main results of this paper is that any module $M$ over a special multiserial algebra is multiserial. As a consequence, a special multiserial algebra is a multiserial algebra, generalizing the work of [48] on special biserial algebras. Since special multiserial algebras are, in general, wild, such a general result on the structure of modules is surprising.

Theorem A. Let $K$ be a field and let $A$ be a special multiserial $K$-algebra. Then every finitely generated $A$-module is a multiserial module.

Corollary. Any special multiserial algebra is a multiserial algebra.
In Section 3, we introduce the concept of a ring having an arrow-free socle. We show that every self-injective finite dimensional algebra has an arrow-free socle. For an algebra with an arrow-free socle, we show that a number of conditions are equivalent to the algebra being special multiserial.

In [30], Brauer configuration algebras were introduced. Their construction is based on combinatorial data, called a Brauer configuration, which generalizes Brauer graphs which in turn generalize Brauer trees. A Brauer configuration algebra is a finite dimensional symmetric algebra. Our next result shows that, over an algebraically closed field, Brauer configuration algebras and symmetric special multiserial algebras coincide.

Theorem B. Let $K$ be an algebraically closed field and let $A$ be a $K$-algebra. Then $A$ is a symmetric special multiserial algebra if and only if $A$ is a Brauer configuration algebra.

Another well-studied class of finite dimensional symmetric algebras is that of symmetric algebras with radical cube zero $[9,11,25,26]$. We prove that every symmetric algebra, over an algebraically closed field, with radical cube zero is a Brauer configuration algebra.

Theorem C. Let $K$ be an algebraically closed field. Then every symmetric $K$-algebra with Jacobson radical cube zero is a special multiserial algebra and, in particular, it is a Brauer configuration algebra.

In proving Theorems A, B and C, we obtain many structural results on multiserial and special multiserial algebras.

The paper is outline as follows. In Section 2, we define multiserial modules, multiserial algebras and special multiserial algebras. We show that a module over a special multiserial algebra is multiserial. In Section 3 we define algebras with arrow-free socle
and show properties of such algebras. Section 4 is on symmetric special multiserial algebras and we prove that an algebra is symmetric special multiserial if and only if it is a Brauer configuration algebra. Finally, in Section 5, we show that symmetric algebras with radical cube zero are special multiserial and hence, they are Brauer configuration algebras.

## 2. Modules over special multiserial algebras

Let $K$ be a field and let $A$ be a $K$-algebra. Unless explicitly stated otherwise, all modules considered are finitely generated right modules. Furthermore, let $K Q / I$ be a finite dimensional algebra, for a quiver $Q$ and an admissible ideal $I$. Denote by $Q_{0}$ the set of vertices of $Q$ and by $Q_{1}$ the set of arrows in $Q$. By abuse of notation we sometimes view an element in $K Q$ as an element in $K Q / I$ if no confusion can arise.

Recall that a $K$-algebra $A$ is biserial if for every indecomposable projective left or right module $P$, there are uniserial left or right modules $U$ and $V$, such that $\operatorname{rad}(P)=U+V$ and $U \cap V$ is either zero or simple.

The algebra $A$ is special biserial if it is Morita equivalent to an algebra of the form $K Q / I$ where $K Q$ is a path algebra and $I$ is an admissible ideal such that the following properties hold
(S1) For every arrow $a$ in $Q$ there is at most one arrow $b$ in $Q$ such that $a b \notin I$ and at most one arrow $c$ in $Q$ such that $c a \notin I$.
(S2) At every vertex $v$ in $Q$ there are at most two arrows in $Q$ starting at $v$ and at most two arrows ending at $v$.

In particular, property (S2) implies that at every vertex there are at most two incoming and two outgoing arrows. A special multiserial algebra, as defined below, does not satisfy this property instead it only satisfies property (S1).

We now give the definitions of the two main concepts studied in this paper, namely multiserial algebras and special multiserial algebras (Definitions 2.1 and 2.2). These algebras were first defined and studied in [49].

Definition 2.1. Let $A$ be a $K$-algebra.

1) We say that a left or right $A$-module is multiserial if $\operatorname{rad}(M)$ can be written as a sum of uniserial modules $U_{1} \ldots U_{l}$ such that, if $i \neq j$, then $U_{i} \cap U_{j}$ either (0) or a simple module.
2) The algebra $A$ is multiserial if $A$, as a left or right $A$-module is multiserial.

Furthermore, we remark that a multiserial algebra, that satisfies the additional property that the radical is a sum of at most two uniserial module whose intersection is zero or simple (on the left and on the right) is a biserial algebra.

Recall from [49] the definition of special multiserial algebras.

Definition 2.2. Let $A$ be a finite dimensional algebra. We say that $A$ is a special multiserial algebra if $A$ is Morita equivalent to a quotient $K Q / I$ of a path algebra $K Q$ by an admissible ideal $I$ such that the following property holds
(M) For every arrow $a$ in $Q$ there is at most one arrow $b$ in $Q$ such that $a b \notin I$ and at most one arrow $c$ in $Q$ such that $c a \notin I$.

We note that the definition of an algebra being special multiserial is left-right symmetric. The following is the main result of this section.

Theorem 2.3. Let $K$ be a field, $A$ a special multiserial $K$-algebra, and $M$ a finitely generated $A$-module. Then $M$ is multiserial.

Theorem 2.3 has as an immediate consequence the following corollary.
Corollary 2.4. Let $A$ be a special multiserial $K$-algebra. Then $A$ is a multiserial algebra.
In the case that $A$ is a biserial algebra, we obtain as a Corollary to Theorem 2.3 the following result due to Skowroński and Waschbüsch.

Corollary 2.5. [48] Let $A$ be a special biserial $K$-algebra. Then $A$ is a biserial algebra.

Before proving Theorem 2.3, we present a series of Lemmas that we will use in its proof. We start with a very general Lemma.

Lemma 2.6. Let $W, T, U, V$ be $\Lambda$-modules for a ring $\Lambda$ such that there is a commutative exact diagram


Then $W \supseteq \operatorname{soc}(T)$. In particular, if $W$ is semisimple then $W=\operatorname{soc}(T)$.

Proof. Let $S$ be a simple submodule of $T$. Suppose that $f(S) \neq 0$. Then $g(S) \nsubseteq \operatorname{soc}(V)$. But $g(S)$ is a simple submodule of $V$, and hence in $\operatorname{soc}(V)$, a contradiction.

From now on let $A=K Q / I$ be a special multiserial algebra. For $a, b \in Q_{1}$ such that the vertex at which $a$ ends equals the vertex at which $b$ starts, we use the convention that $a b$ is the path starting with $a$ followed by $b$. If $M$ is a right $A$-module, we say that an element $m \in M$ is right uniform, if there is some vertex $v \in Q_{0}$ such that $m e_{v}=m$ where $e_{v}$ is the trivial path at vertex $v$.

By the left-right symmetry of the definition of special multiserial it is sufficient to prove Theorem 2.3 for right modules. The following result was proved, in the special case of modules of the form $a A$ where $a$ is an arrow, in [49].

Lemma 2.7. Let $M$ be an $A$-module and let $m \in M$ be right uniform. For $a \in Q_{1}$, the module generated by ma is uniserial.

Proof. If $m a=0$ the result follows. If $m a \neq 0$ there exists at most one arrow $b$ such that $m a b \neq 0$. If $m a b \neq 0$, there exists at most one arrow $c$ such that $m a b c \neq 0$. Continuing in this fashion we see that the submodule generated by $m a$ is uniserial.

We note that for a general algebra $\Lambda$ if $M$ is a $\Lambda$-module such that $\operatorname{rad}^{2}(M)=0$ then $\operatorname{rad}(M)$ is semisimple and thus $M$ is a multiserial module.

Lemma 2.8. Let $M$ be an $A$-module with $\operatorname{rad}^{2}(M) \neq 0$. Then there exist right uniform elements $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{t}$ in $\operatorname{rad}(M) \backslash \operatorname{rad}^{2}(M)$ such that

1) $u_{i}=m_{i} a_{i}$ for some right uniform elements $m_{i} \in M \backslash \operatorname{rad}(M)$ and $a_{i} \in Q_{1}$,
2) $u_{i} A$ is a uniserial module,
3) $\sum_{i=1}^{t} u_{i} A=\operatorname{rad}(M)$,
4) $\operatorname{rad}(M) / \operatorname{rad}^{2}(M) \simeq \bigoplus \pi\left(u_{i}\right)(A / \operatorname{rad}(A))$ where $\pi: \operatorname{rad}(M) \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M) / \operatorname{rad}^{2}(M)$ is the canonical surjection.

Proof. Choose a set of right uniform generators of $M$. Right multiplying these elements by arrows in $Q$ yields a generating set of $\operatorname{rad}(M)$ consisting of right uniform elements.

Applying $\pi$ to this set we get a generating set of $\operatorname{rad}(M) / \operatorname{rad}^{2}(M)$, so we may select $u_{1}, \ldots, u_{t}$ so that $\pi\left(u_{1}\right), \ldots, \pi\left(u_{t}\right)$ is a minimal generating set of $\operatorname{rad}(M) / \operatorname{rad}^{2}(M)$ which is a semi-simple module.

Each $u_{i}=m_{i} a_{i}$ for some right uniform $m_{i} \in M \backslash \operatorname{rad}(M)$ and $a_{i} \in Q_{1}$. By Lemma 2.7 $u_{i} A$ is a uniserial module. Parts (3) and (4) are clear from the construction.

Define the following partial order on the set of paths in $Q$. For $p, p^{\prime}$ paths in $Q$, we say $p \geq p^{\prime}$, if $p=q p^{\prime}$ for some path $q$ in $Q$. The following Lemma follows directly from condition (M).

Lemma 2.9. Let $p$ and $p^{\prime}$ be paths in $Q$ and $a \in Q_{1}$. If $p a \neq 0$ and $p^{\prime} a \neq 0$ then either $p \geq p^{\prime}$ or $p^{\prime}>p$. Hence $p$ and $p^{\prime}$ are comparable.

For $M$ an $A$-module, let $\ell(M)$ be the number of non-zero terms in a composition series of $M$. We introduce the set of short exact sequences satisfying the properties P 1$)-\mathrm{P} 3$ ) which are defined below. Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{S}_{M}=\left\{\varepsilon: 0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i} U_{i} \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M) \rightarrow 0 \mid\right. & \varepsilon \text { is a short exact sequence } \\
& \text { satisfying P1)-P3) defined below }\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

P1) Each $U_{i}$ is a uniserial submodule of $\operatorname{rad}(M)$.
P2) $\sum_{i} U_{i}=\operatorname{rad}(M)$.
P3) The map $\bigoplus U_{i} / \operatorname{rad}\left(U_{i}\right) \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M) / \operatorname{rad}^{2}(M)$ induced from the map $\bigoplus U_{i} \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{rad}(M)$ is an isomorphism.

Note that by Lemma 2.8, the set $\mathcal{S}_{M}$ is not empty. Let

$$
\alpha=\min \left\{\ell(L) \mid 0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i} U_{i} \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M) \rightarrow 0 \in \mathcal{S}\right\}
$$

and let

$$
\mathcal{S}_{M}^{*}=\left\{\varepsilon \in \mathcal{S}_{M} \mid \ell(L)=\alpha\right\} .
$$

For a general ring $\Lambda$ and $\Lambda$-modules $N_{1}, \ldots, N_{t}$, the support of an element $n$, where $n=\sum n_{i} \in \bigoplus_{i} N_{i}$, with $n_{i} \in N_{i}$, is the set of all $i$ such that $n_{i} \neq 0$ and is denoted by $\operatorname{supp}(n)$. The cardinality $|\operatorname{supp}(n)|$ of $\operatorname{supp}(n)$ is the number of components for which $n_{i} \neq 0$.

Lemma 2.10. Let $0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i} U_{i} \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M) \rightarrow 0 \in \mathcal{S}_{M}^{*}, x \in L$ with $x=\sum \lambda_{i} u_{i} p_{i}$, $\lambda_{i} \neq 0 \in K, u_{i} \in U_{i} \backslash \operatorname{rad}\left(U_{i}\right)$ and $p_{i}$ a non-zero path in $A$, for all $i$. If for some $i$ and $j$ with $i \neq j, p_{i} \geq p_{j}$ then there exists, $0 \rightarrow L^{\prime} \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i} U_{i}^{\prime} \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M) \rightarrow 0 \in \mathcal{S}_{M}^{*}$ such that the following diagram commutes

where $g$ and $f$ are isomorphisms and where $|\operatorname{supp}(g(x))|<|\operatorname{supp}(x)|$. Note that if $x \notin$ $\operatorname{soc}(L)$ then $g(x) \notin \operatorname{soc}\left(L^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof. Let $p_{i} \geq p_{j}$ for some $i$ and $j$. Then $p_{i}=q p_{j}$ for some path $q$. Set $u_{l}^{\prime}=u_{l}$ for all $l \neq j$. Then set $u_{j}^{\prime}=u_{j}+\frac{\lambda_{i}}{\lambda_{j}} u_{i} q$. Let $U_{l}^{\prime}=u_{l}^{\prime} A$ for all $l$. It is immediate that $\oplus_{l} U_{l}=\oplus_{l} U_{l}^{\prime}$. In fact, $\sum \gamma_{l} u_{l} x_{l}=\sum \gamma_{l} u_{l}^{\prime} x_{l}-\gamma_{j} \frac{\lambda_{i}}{\lambda_{j}} u_{i}^{\prime} q x_{j}$ where $\gamma_{l} \in K$ and $x_{l}$ are paths. Define a map $f: \bigoplus U_{l} \rightarrow \bigoplus U_{l}^{\prime}$ given by $f\left(\sum \gamma_{l} u_{l} x_{l}\right)=\sum \gamma_{l} u_{l}^{\prime} x_{l}-\gamma_{j} \frac{\lambda_{i}}{\lambda_{j}} u_{i}^{\prime} q x_{j}$ where $\gamma_{l} \in K$ and
$x_{l}$ are paths. Then $f$ just changes generating sets and hence is an isomorphism. Now $f(x)=f\left(\sum \lambda_{l} u_{l} p_{l}\right)=\sum \lambda_{l} u_{l}^{\prime} p_{l}-\lambda_{i} u_{i}^{\prime} p_{i}=\sum_{l \neq i} \lambda_{l} u_{l}^{\prime} p_{l}$. Hence $|\operatorname{supp}(f(x))|<|\operatorname{supp}(x)|$. Since $g$ is a restriction of $f, x \in L$ and $g(x) \in L^{\prime}$, we have $|\operatorname{supp}(g(x))|<|\operatorname{supp}(x)|$. The statement on the socles follows from the fact that $g$ is an isomorphism.

Our final lemma is the following:

Lemma 2.11. Suppose there exists a short exact sequence

$$
0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i} U_{i} \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M) \rightarrow 0
$$

in $\mathcal{S}_{M}$, in particular, this implies that the $U_{i}$ are uniserial submodules of $M$ satisfying $\mathrm{P} 1)-\mathrm{P} 3)$ above. Suppose further that $L$ is semisimple. Then $M$ is multiserial.

Proof. If $M$ is not a multiserial module, then for every choice of uniserial modules $U_{1}, \ldots, U_{t}$ such that $\sum_{i} U_{i}=\operatorname{rad}(M)$, for some $i \neq j, U_{i} \cap U_{j}$ is neither 0 nor a simple module.

But $U_{i} \cap U_{j}$ is isomorphic to a submodule of the kernel of the canonical surjection $\bigoplus_{i} U_{i} \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M)$. Hence, since $U_{i} \cap U_{j}$ is a submodule of a uniserial module, it follows that $\operatorname{rad}\left(U_{i} \cap U_{j}\right)$ is nonzero. Thus, the kernel of any map $\bigoplus_{i} U_{i} \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M)$ is never semisimple. The result follows.

Proof of Theorem 2.3: Without loss of generality, we may assume that $M$ is indecomposable. If $\operatorname{rad}^{2}(M)=0$, we have seen that the result is true. Assume that $\operatorname{rad}^{2}(M) \neq 0$. If there exists $0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i} U_{i} \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M) \rightarrow 0 \in \mathcal{S}_{M}^{*}$ such that $L$ is semi-simple then the result follows from Lemma 2.11.

Suppose no such $L$ exists, that is, $L$ is not semi-simple for every short exact sequence in $\mathcal{S}_{M}^{*}$. We will now show that this leads to a contradiction. Consider the set

$$
\mathcal{X}=\left\{x \mid \text { there is a s.e.s } 0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i} U_{i} \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M) \rightarrow 0 \text { in } \mathcal{S}_{M}^{*} \text { and } x \in L \backslash \operatorname{soc}(L)\right\}
$$

Let $\mathcal{X}_{\text {min }}=\{x \in \mathcal{X}| | \operatorname{supp}(x) \mid$ is minimal in $\{|\operatorname{supp}(y)|, y \in \mathcal{X}\}\}$.
Let $x \in \mathcal{X}_{\text {min }}$ where $0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow \bigoplus_{i} U_{i} \rightarrow \operatorname{rad}(M) \rightarrow 0$ and $x \in L \backslash \operatorname{soc}(L)$. Then $x=\sum \lambda_{i} u_{i} p_{i}$ with $\lambda_{i} \in K$ and with $u_{i} \in U_{i} \backslash \operatorname{rad}\left(U_{i}\right)$. Note that by choice of $x$ the number of non-zero $\lambda_{i} u_{i} p_{i}$ is as small as possible.

By Lemma 2.10 and minimality of $|\operatorname{supp}(x)|$, all the $p_{i}$ are incomparable in the partial order on the paths in $K Q$ defined earlier. Since $x \notin \operatorname{soc}(L)$, there exists an arrow $a \in Q_{1}$ such that $x a \neq 0$.

Since $x a \neq 0$ there exists $u_{i} p_{i} a \neq 0$ for some $i$. If for some $j \neq i, u_{j} p_{j} a \neq 0$ then $p_{i} a \neq 0$ and $p_{j} a \neq 0$ and hence by Lemma 2.9, $p_{i}$ is comparable to $p_{j}$. Then by Lemma 2.10 we obtain a contradiction to the minimality of $|\operatorname{supp}(x)|$. Hence $x a=\lambda_{i} u_{i} p_{i} a$. So we have $x a \in L \cap U_{i}$ for exactly one $i$.

Now consider
(2)


Since the short exact sequence in line (2) is in $\mathcal{S}_{M}^{*}$, clearly the one in line (1) is in $\mathcal{S}_{M}$. But $\ell\left(L /\left(L \cap U_{i}\right)<\ell(L)\right.$ thus contradicting the minimality of $L$ and so the assumption that $L$ is not semi-simple is false and the result follows.

More structural results on the uniserial modules over a special multiserial algebra. Due to the importance of uniserial modules, we end this section with a few structural results about such modules over a special multiserial algebra. In Section 4 we show that a symmetric special multiserial algebra is a Brauer configuration algebra. In this case, further structural results on the uniserial modules can be found in [30].

Let $A=K Q / I$ be a finite dimensional special multiserial algebra, let $J$ be the ideal in $K Q$ generated by the arrows in $Q$, and let $N \geq 2$ be an integer such that $J^{N} \subseteq I \subseteq J^{2}$. If $x \in K Q$, we denote its image in $A$ by $\bar{x}$. If $p$ is a path in $Q$, the length $\ell(p)$ of $p$ is the number of arrows in $p$.

For every arrow in $Q$, we now define a set of paths starting or ending with that arrow. Let $a$ be an arrow in $Q$ and let $i$ be a non-negative integer. We set $p_{0}(a)=a$ and we define $p_{i}(a)=a q$ where $q$ is the unique path in $Q$ of length $i$ such that $a q \notin I$ if such a path $q$ exists. If no such path exists, then $p_{i}(a)$ is not defined. Thus $p_{1}(a)=a b$ for a unique arrow $b$ such that $a b \notin I$ if such an arrow $b$ exists and $p_{2}(a)=a b c$ for a unique arrows $b$ and $c$ such that $a b c \notin I$ if such $b$ and $c$ exist. Now define $p_{-j}(a)=q a$ where $q$ is the unique path of length $j$ in $Q$ such that $q a \notin I$ if such a $q$ exists. Again the uniqueness of $q$, if it exists, follows from (M). Let $t(a)$ denote the largest non-negative integer $i$ such that $p_{i}(a) \notin I$. Let $s(a)$ be the largest non-negative integer $j$ such that $p_{-j}(a) \notin I$. Note that $0 \leq s(a), t(a) \leq N-1$. Furthermore, $\overline{p_{t(a)}(a)}$ is in the right socle of $A$ and $\overline{p_{-s(a)}(a)}$ is in the left socle of $A$.

The next lemma provides a number of results about these paths.

Lemma 2.12. Let $A=K Q / I$ be a special multiserial $K$-algebra.
(1) Suppose that $q, q^{\prime}$ are paths in $K Q$ and $a$ is an arrow in $Q$ such that qaq' $\notin I$. Then $q a=p_{-\ell(q)}(a)$ and $a q^{\prime}=p_{\ell\left(q^{\prime}\right)}(a)$.
(2) Suppose that $q=a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{i-1} a_{i} a_{i+1} \cdots a_{r}$ and $q^{\prime}=b_{1} \cdots b_{i-1} a_{i} b_{i+1} \cdots b_{r}$ are paths in $K Q$ such that $q \notin I$ and $q \neq q^{\prime}$. Then $q^{\prime} \in I$.
(3) For $0 \leq i \leq j \leq t(a), p_{i}(a) q=p_{j}(a)$, for some path $q$.
(4) For $0 \leq i \leq j \leq s(a) q p_{-i}(a)=p_{-j}(a)$, for some path $q$.

Proof. The proof is just repeated applications of condition (M).

We now examine the structure of uniserial modules defined by an arrow in $Q$.

Lemma 2.13. Let $A=K Q / I$ be a special multiserial algebra and let a be an arrow in $Q$. Set $U_{a}=a A$. Then
(1) The $A$-module $U_{a}$ is uniserial.
(2) The $A$-module $U_{a} / \operatorname{soc}\left(U_{a}\right)$ is uniserial.
(3) We have $\operatorname{soc}\left(U_{a}\right)=U_{a} \cap \operatorname{soc}(A)$.
(4) We have $\operatorname{rad}(A)=\sum_{b \in Q_{1}} U_{b}$.
(5) The set $\left\{\overline{p_{0}(a)}, \overline{p_{1}(a)}, \ldots, \overline{p_{t(a)}(a)}\right\}$ is a K-basis of $U_{a}$.

Proof. Let $a \in Q_{1}$. If $U_{a}$ is a simple $A$-module, part (1) follows. Assume that $U_{a}$ is not a simple module. By condition (M), there is at most one arrow $b$ such that $a b \notin I$. It follows that $U_{a} / U_{a} \operatorname{rad}(A)$ and $U_{a} \operatorname{rad}(A) / U_{a} \operatorname{rad}^{2}(A)$ are both simple modules. Continuing in this fashion proves part (1).

Part (2) follows from part(1).
Part (3) follows from the observation that $p_{t(a)}(a)$ is in the right socle of $A$ and that it is also in the socle of $U_{a}$.

Part (4) holds since $\sum_{b \in Q_{1}} U_{b}$ is the right submodule of $A$ generated by all arrows in $Q$. Hence $\sum_{b \in Q_{1}} U_{b}=J / I=\operatorname{rad}(A)$, where $J$ is the ideal in $K Q$ generated by the arrows of $Q$.

We now prove part (5). It is clear that $\left\{\overline{p_{0}(a)}, \overline{p_{1}(a)}, \ldots, \overline{p_{t(a)}(a)}\right\}$ generates $U_{a}$. So we are left to show that if $\sum_{i=0}^{t(a)} \lambda_{i} p_{i}(a) \in I$, with $\lambda_{i} \in K$, then $\lambda_{i}=0$ for all $i$. Suppose for contradiction that there is an integer $i, 0 \leq i \leq t(a)$ such that $\lambda_{i} \neq 0$. Let $i_{0}$ be the smallest such $i$.

By Lemma $2.12(4), p_{j}(a)=p_{i_{0}}(a) q_{j}$, for $j \geq i_{0}$ and some path $q_{j}$ of length $j-i_{0}$ starting at the vertex, $w$, at which $p_{i_{0}}(a)$ ends. Thus

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{t(a)} \lambda_{i} p_{i}(a)=p_{i_{0}}(a) \sum_{j=i_{0}}^{t(a)} \lambda_{j} q_{j}
$$

Let $e_{w}$ be the idempotent in $K Q$ associated to $w$. Then, noting that if $j=i_{0}, q_{j}$ is of length 0 and hence $q_{j}=e_{w}$, we have

$$
\sum_{j=i_{0}}^{t(a)} \lambda_{j} q_{j}=\lambda_{i_{0}} e_{w}+\sum_{j=i_{0}+1}^{t(a)} \lambda_{j} q_{j}
$$

Let $x=\sum_{j=i_{0}+1}^{t(a)} \lambda_{j} q_{j}$. We have $x \in J$ and since $J^{N} \subset I$, there is some $y \in K Q$ such that

$$
\left(\lambda_{i_{0}} e_{w}+x\right) y+I=e_{w}+I
$$

where $y$ is obtained as follows: $\left(\lambda_{i_{0}} e_{w}+x\right)\left(\lambda_{i_{0}}^{-1} e_{w}-x\right)=e_{w}-x^{2}$. Then $\left(e_{w}-x^{2}\right)\left(e_{w}+x^{2}\right)=$ $e_{w}-x^{4}$ and continuing in this fashion we finally obtain $\left(\lambda_{i_{0}} e_{w}+x\right)\left(\lambda_{i_{0}}^{-1} e_{w}-x\right)\left(e_{w}+\right.$ $\left.x^{2}\right)\left(e_{w}+x^{4}\right) \cdots=e_{w}-x^{2 n}$ and $x^{2 n} \in I$. Hence

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{t(a)} \lambda_{i} p_{i}(a) y+I=p_{i_{0}}(a)+I
$$

But by assumption $\sum_{i=0}^{t(a)} \lambda_{i} p_{i}(a) \in I$ and hence $p_{i_{0}}(a) \in I$, a contradiction. This completes the proof.

## 3. Algebras with arrow-free socles

In this section we introduce the concept of an algebra with arrow-free socle. We show that the socle of a self-injective algebra of radical series with length at least 3 is arrow-free. We also show that for an algebra with arrow-free socle, condition (M) is equivalent to a stronger condition ( $\mathrm{M}^{\prime}$ ) defined below.

We fix the following notation. We let $A=K Q / I$ be an indecomposable finite dimensional algebra with $I$ an admissible ideal in the path algebra $K Q$. Denote by $\pi: K Q \rightarrow A$ the canonical surjection and let $\bar{a}=\pi(a)$, for $a \in Q_{1}$.

Definition 3.1. We say that the socle of $A$ is arrow-free if, for each $a \in Q_{1}$, we have $\bar{a} \notin \operatorname{soc}\left({ }_{A} A\right)$ and $\bar{a} \notin \operatorname{soc}\left({ }_{A} A\right)$ where ${ }_{A} A$ denotes the left $A$-module $A$ and $A_{A}$ the right $A$-module $A$.

We first show that the socle of a self-injective algebra is arrow-free.
Proposition 3.2. Let $A$ be self-injective and $\operatorname{rad}^{2}(A) \neq 0$. Then the socle of $A$ is arrowfree.

Proof. Suppose $\bar{a} \in \operatorname{soc}\left(A_{A}\right)$ and suppose that $a$ is an arrow from a vertex $v$ to a vertex $w$ in $Q$. If $v=w$ then $A$ is isomorphic to $K[x] /\left(x^{2}\right)$ since $A$ is self-injective.

Now suppose that $v \neq w$. If there is another arrow starting at $v$, by multiplying by arrows we would obtain a path $p \neq a$ such that $\bar{p}$ is a non-zero element in $\operatorname{soc}\left(A_{A}\right)$. Since $A$ is self-injective we get $p-\lambda a \in I$, for some non-zero $\lambda \in K$, contradicting that $I$ is admissible. Thus $a$ is the only arrow starting at $v$. Suppose that $b$ is an arrow ending at $v$. If $b a \notin I$ then $\overline{b a} \in \operatorname{soc}\left(A_{A}\right)$ and hence, for some $\lambda \neq 0$, we have $b a-\lambda a \in I$, which contradicts that $I$ is admissible. Thus $b a \in I$ and $\bar{b} \in \operatorname{soc}\left(A_{A}\right)$. Continuing in this fashion, since $A$ is indecomposable, we see that every arrow is in $\operatorname{soc}\left(A_{A}\right)$ and thus $\operatorname{rad}^{2}(A)=0$.

We note that the converse does not hold in general.
The following Lemma follows immediately from the definition of arrow-free.

Lemma 3.3. If the socle of $A$ is arrow-free then for all arrows a in $Q$ there are arrows $b$ and $c$ such that $a b \notin I$ and $c a \notin I$.

From condition (M) it follows that understanding the paths of length 2 is crucial. Set

$$
\Pi=\left\{a b \mid a, b \in Q_{1}, a b \notin I\right\}
$$

We say that a cycle $C$ is basic if there are no repeated arrows in $C$. We say that a set $\left\{C_{1}, \ldots, C_{r}\right\}$ of basic cycles is special if the following conditions hold
(1) for each arrow $a$ in $Q, a$ occurs in exactly one $C_{i}, i=1, \ldots r$,
(2) the path $a b$ is in $\Pi$ if and only if $a b$ is a subpath of some cycle $C_{i}=c_{1} \ldots c_{n}$ where we consider $c_{n} c_{1}$ a subpath of $C_{i}$.

We show that for an algebra with arrow-free socle the following condition is equivalent to condition (M). Set condition
( $\mathrm{M}^{\prime}$ ) For every arrow $a$ in $Q$ there exists exactly one arrow $b$ in $Q$ such that $a b \notin I$ and exactly one arrow $c$ in $Q$ such that $c a \notin I$.

Proposition 3.4. Let $A=K Q / I$ be a finite dimensional indecomposable algebra with $I$ an admissible ideal of $K Q$. Suppose that the socle of $A$ is arrow-free. Then the following are equivalent
(1) Condition ( $M$ ) holds, that is, $A$ is special multiserial.
(2) Condition ( $M^{\prime}$ ) holds.
(3) The map $\varphi: \Pi \rightarrow Q_{1}$ given by $\varphi(a b)=a$ is bijective.
(4) The map $\psi: \Pi \rightarrow Q_{1}$ given by $\psi(a b)=b$ is bijective.
(5) There exists a special set of cycles.

Proof. The implication (1) implies (2) follows from Lemma 3.3.
To see that (2) implies (3), let $a b \in \Pi$. Then by $\left(\mathrm{M}^{\prime}\right), b$ is unique and hence $\varphi$ is one-to-one and well-defined. Again by ( $\mathrm{M}^{\prime}$ ), given $a \in Q_{1}$ there exists $b \in Q_{1}$ such that $a b \in \Pi$ and hence $\varphi$ is onto.

For the implication (3) implies (2), let $a \in Q_{1}$. By (3) there exists a unique arrow $b$ such that $a b \notin I$. Now by Lemma 3.3 there exists an arrow $c_{1}$ such that $c_{1} a \notin I$. Again by Lemma 3.3 there exists an arrow $c_{2}$ such that $c_{2} c_{1} \notin I$. Continue in this way until the first repeat of an arrow, that is, we have some path $c_{n} \ldots c_{s} \ldots c_{1} c_{0}$ where $c_{0}=a$. If the first repeat is $c_{n}=c_{s}$, we show that $s=0$. If not then since $\varphi$ is bijective, we have $c_{n-1}=c_{s-1}$, a contradiction. It now follows that $c_{1}$ is unique and (2) follows.

That (2) is equivalent to (4) is similar to the equivalence between (2) and (3).
Next we show that (2) implies (5). Let $a=a_{0} \in Q_{1}$. Then there exists a unique $a_{1} \in Q_{1}$ such that $a_{0} a_{1} \notin I$ and there exists a unique $a_{2} \in Q_{1}$ such that $a_{1} a_{2} \notin I$. Continue in this way until the first repeat of an arrow to obtain a sequence of arrows $a_{0} \ldots a_{n}$. As above we have $a_{n}=a_{0}$. So $a_{0} \ldots a_{n-1}$ is a basic cycle $C_{1}$. If there is some arrow $b_{0}$ such $b_{0} \neq a_{i}$, for $i=1, \ldots, n$, then continue in the same fashion to obtain a cycle $C_{2}=b_{0} \ldots b_{m}$. By uniqueness, no $b_{i}=a_{j}$. Either all the arrows occur in $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ or we can continue this process and construct a $C_{3}$. Eventually one obtains a special set $\left\{C_{1}, \ldots, C_{r}\right\}$ of special cycles.

Finally we prove that (5) implies (1). Let $a \in Q_{1}$. By the definition of a special set of cycles $\left\{C_{1}, \ldots, C_{r}\right\}$, there exists an $i$ such that $a \in C_{i}$. The second part of the definition of a special set of cycles implies that there exists unique arrows $b$ and $c$ such that $a b \notin I$ and $c a \notin I$.

Remark 3.5. (1) The above Proposition does neither assume that the algebra is selfinjective nor that it is special multiserial.
(2) Suppose that $A$ is special multiserial and arrow-free. If there are paths $p, q$ in $K Q$ with $\ell(p) \geq \ell(q)$ and $a \in Q_{1}$ such that $p a \notin I$ and $q a \notin I$ then there exists a unique path $r$ such that $r q=p$.

## 4. Symmetric special multiserial algebras and Brauer configuration algebras

In this section we study special multiserial algebras that have the additional property of being symmetric algebras. In the case of symmetric special biserial algebras, it is proved in $[43,44]$ that the class of symmetric special biserial algebras coincides with the class of Brauer graph algebras. We will show in this section that an analogous results holds for symmetric special multiserial algebras. Namely, the main result of this section is to show that the class of symmetric special multiserial algebras coincides with the class of Brauer configuration algebras. Brauer configuration algebras have been defined in [30] and they can be seen as generalizations of Brauer graph algebras. We will recall their definition below. Note that in the present paper, we assume all Brauer configurations to be reduced.

Before recalling definitions and further analysing the structure of symmetric special multiserial algebras, we first state the main result of this section.

Theorem 4.1. Let $A=K Q / I$ be an indecomposable finite dimensional algebra over an algebraically closed field $K$ such that $I$ is an admissible ideal and $\operatorname{rad}(A)^{2} \neq 0$. Then $A$ is a symmetric special multiserial algebra if and only if $A$ is a Brauer configuration algebra.

### 4.1. Definition of Brauer configuration algebras

We recall from [30] the definition of a (reduced) Brauer configuration algebra. We start with the definition of a Brauer configuration, which generalizes a Brauer graph. A Brauer configuration $\Gamma$ is a tuple $\left(\Gamma_{0}, \Gamma_{1}, \mu, \mathfrak{o}\right)$, where
(1) $\Gamma_{0}$ is a finite set of elements called vertices.
(2) $\Gamma_{1}$ is a finite collection of finite multisets of vertices which are called polygons. Recall that a multiset is a set where elements can occur multiple times.
(3) $\mu: \Gamma_{0} \rightarrow\{1,2,3, \ldots\}$ is a set function called the multiplicity function.
(4) A vertex $\alpha$ is called truncated if it occurs once in exactly one polygon and $\mu(\alpha)=1$. The sum over the polygons $V \in \Gamma_{1}$ of the number of times a vertex $\alpha$ occurs in $V$ is denoted $\operatorname{val}(\alpha)$. We say $\mathfrak{o}$ is an orientation which means that, for each nontruncated vertex $\alpha$, there is a chosen cyclic ordering of the polygons that contain $\alpha$, counting repetitions. See the example and the discussion below.

We require that $\Gamma=\left(\Gamma_{0}, \Gamma_{1}, \mu, \mathfrak{o}\right)$ satisfies

C1. Every vertex in $\Gamma_{0}$ is a vertex in at least one polygon in $\Gamma_{1}$.
C2. Every polygon in $\Gamma_{1}$ has at least two vertices.
C3. Every polygon in $\Gamma_{1}$ has at least one vertex $\alpha$ such that $\operatorname{val}(\alpha) \mu(\alpha)>1$.
C4. If $\alpha$ is a vertex in polygon $V$ and $\operatorname{val}(\alpha) \mu(\alpha)=1$, that is, $\alpha$ is truncated then $V$ is a 2 -gon.

We note that C 4 does not occur in the definition of a Brauer configuration in [30]. In that paper a Brauer configuration was called reduced if it satisfied C4. In this paper, all Brauer configurations are "reduced".

Example 4.2. We give an example of a Brauer configuration. Let $\Gamma_{0}=\{1,2,3,4\}, \Gamma_{1}=$ $\left\{V_{1}, V_{2}, V_{3}\right\}$ where $V_{1}=\{1,1,2,3,3\}, V_{2}=\{2,2,3\}$ and $V_{3}=\{2,4\}$, and $\mu(i)=1$, except that $\mu(1)=3$ and $\mu(4)=2$. To give an orientation, for each nontruncated vertex, we need to be given a cyclic order of the polygons that contain the vertex. If a vertex occurs in a polygon more than once, we will use superscripts to denote these occurrences. Thus for vertex 1 , we need to order $V_{1}^{(1)}, V_{1}^{(2)}$, for vertex 2 , we must order $V_{1}, V_{2}^{(1)}, V_{2}^{(2)}, V_{3}$, for
vertex 3 we must order $V_{1}^{(1)}, V_{1}^{(2)}, V_{2}$, etc. So for vertex 1 we must have $V_{1}^{(1)}<V_{1}^{(2)}$, and to make it cyclic, we implicitly have $V_{1}^{(2)}<V_{1}^{(1)}$. For vertex 2 , there are many choices of cyclic orderings, and for example, we will use $V_{1}<V_{3}<V_{2}^{(1)}<V_{2}^{(2)}$, and to make it cyclic, we implicitly have $V_{2}^{(2)}<V_{1}$. Note that equivalently we could have taken any cyclic permutation of $V_{1}<V_{3}<V_{2}^{(1)}<V_{2}^{(2)}$. For vertex 3, take $V_{1}^{(1)}<V_{1}^{(2)}<V_{2}$ or a cyclic permutation of this; vertex 4 , since $\mu(4)=2$ is not truncated and we take the cyclic ordering to be just $V_{3}$ (with implicitly $V_{3}<V_{3}$ ).

We call $V_{i_{1}}<V_{i_{2}}<\cdots V_{i_{m}}$ a successor sequence of $V_{i_{1}}$ at $\alpha$ if $\alpha$ is a vertex in $\Gamma_{0}$ and $V_{i_{1}}<V_{i_{2}}<\cdots V_{i_{m}}$ is a cyclic ordering, obtained from the orientation $\mathfrak{o}$, of the polygons containing $\alpha$ as an element. In this case, we say the $V_{i_{j+1}}$ is the successor of $V_{i_{j}}$ at $\alpha$, for $j=1, \ldots, m$ where $V_{i_{m+1}}=V_{i_{1}}$.

Fix a field $K$. We now define the Brauer configuration algebra $A$, associated to a Brauer configuration $\Gamma=\left(\Gamma_{0}, \Gamma_{1}, \mu, \mathfrak{o}\right)$ via a quiver with relations. That is, we will define a quiver $Q$ and a set of relations $\rho$ in the path algebra $K Q$ such that $A$ is isomorphic to $K Q / I$, where $I$ is the ideal generated by $\rho$. The vertex set of $Q$ is in one-to-one correspondence with $\Gamma_{1}$, the set of polygons of $\Gamma$. If $V$ is a polygon in $\Gamma_{1}$, we will denote the associated vertex in $Q$ by $v$. If the polygon $V$ is a successor to the polygon $V^{\prime}$ at $\alpha$, there is an arrow from $v$ to $v^{\prime}$, where $v$ is the vertex in $Q$ associated to $V$ and $v^{\prime}$ is the vertex in $Q$ associated to $V^{\prime}$ in $Q$. This gives a one-to-one correspondence between the set of successors in $\Gamma$ and the arrow set in $Q$.

Example 4.3. The quiver $Q$ of Example 4.2 is


Here $a_{1}$ corresponds to $V_{1}^{(2)}$ being a successor of $V_{1}^{(2)}$ and $a_{2}$ corresponds to $V_{1}^{(1)}$ being a successor of $V_{1}^{(2)}$. The arrows labelled $b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3}, b_{4}$ correspond to the successor sequence at vertex 2 of $\Gamma$. The arrows labelled $c_{1}, c_{2}, c_{3}$ correspond to the successor sequence at vertex 3 of $\Gamma$. Finally, the arrow labelled $d$ corresponds to the successor sequence at vertex 4 of $\Gamma$.

Before we define a generating set for the ideal of relations of $A$, we introduce the definition of a special $\alpha$-cycle at $v$, for a nontruncated vertex $\alpha$ in $\Gamma_{0}$ and vertex $v \in$ $\left(Q_{\Gamma}\right)_{0}$. Let $V_{1}<V_{2}<\ldots<V_{\operatorname{val}(\alpha)}$ be the successor sequence of $V_{1}$ at $\alpha$. For each $j$, let $C_{j}=a_{j} a_{j+1} \cdots a_{\operatorname{val}(\alpha)} a_{1} \cdots a_{j-1}$ be the cycle in $\mathcal{Q}_{\Gamma}$, where the arrow $a_{r}$ corresponds to the polygon $V_{r+1}$ being the successor of the polygon $V_{r}$ at the vertex $\alpha$. Let $V$ be the polygon in $\Gamma_{1}$ associated to the vertex $v \in\left(Q_{\Gamma}\right)_{0}$ and suppose that $\alpha$ occurs $t$ times in $V$, with $t \geq 1$. Then there are $t$ indices $i_{1}, \ldots, i_{t}$ such that $V=V_{i_{j}}$. We define the special $\alpha$-cycles at $v$ to be the cycles $C_{i_{1}}, \ldots, C_{i_{t}}$. We remark that each $C_{i_{j}}$ is a cycle in $Q_{\Gamma}$, beginning and ending at the vertex $v$. Note that if $\alpha$ occurs only once in $V$, then there is only one special $\alpha$-cycle at $v$. Furthermore, if $V^{\prime}$ is a polygon consisting of $n$ vertices, counting repetitions, then there are a total of $n$ different special $\alpha^{\prime}$-cycles at $v^{\prime}$, for $\alpha^{\prime} \in\left(Q_{\Gamma}\right)_{0}$. We will sometimes write special $\alpha$-cycle (omitting the vertex) or simply special cycle omitting both $\alpha$ and $v$, when no confusion can arise.

Example 4.4. Continuing the example, the special 1-cycles at $v_{1}$ are $a_{1} a_{2}$ and $a_{2} a_{1}$, the special 2 -cycle at $v_{1}$ is $b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} b_{4}$, the special 3 -cycles at $v_{1}$ are $c_{1} c_{2} c_{3}$, and $c_{3} c_{1} c_{2}$, and there are no special 4 -cycles at $v_{1}$. There are no special 1-cycles at $v_{2}$, the special 2 -cycles at $v_{2}$ are $b_{3} b_{4} b_{1} b_{2}$ and $b_{4} b_{1} b_{2} b_{3}$, the special 3 -cycle at $v_{2}$ is $c_{2} c_{3} c_{1}$, and there are no special 4 -cycles at $v_{2}$. Finally there are no special $i$-cycles at $v_{3}$ for $i=1,3$. The special 2 -cycles at $v_{3}$ is $b_{2} b_{3} b_{4} b_{1}$ and the special 4 -cycle at $v_{3}$ is $d$.

There are three types of relations forming the generating set of relations $\rho_{\Gamma}$.
Relations of type one. For each polygon $V=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right\} \in \Gamma_{1}$ and each pair of nontruncated vertices $\alpha_{i}$ and $\alpha_{j}$ in $V, \rho_{\Gamma}$ contains all relations of the form $C^{\mu\left(\alpha_{i}\right)}-$ $\left(C^{\prime}\right)^{\mu\left(\alpha_{j}\right)}$ or $\left(C^{\prime}\right)^{\mu\left(\alpha_{j}\right)}-C^{\mu\left(\alpha_{i}\right)}$ where $C$ is a special $\alpha_{i}$-cycle at $v$ and $C^{\prime}$ is a special $\alpha_{j}$-cycle at $v$.

Relations of type two. The type two relations are all paths of the form $C^{\mu(\alpha)} a_{1}$ where $C=a_{1} \cdots a_{m}$ is a special $\alpha$-cycle for some vertex $\alpha$.

Relations of type three. These relations are quadratic monomial relations of the form $a b$ in $K Q_{\Gamma}$ where $a b$ is not a subpath of any cycle $C$ where $C$ is a special cycle.

Definition 4.5. Let $K$ be a field and $\Gamma$ a Brauer configuration. The Brauer configuration algebra $\Lambda_{\Gamma}$ associated to $\Gamma$ is defined to be $K Q_{\Gamma} / I_{\Gamma}$, where $Q_{\Gamma}$ is the quiver associated to $\Gamma$ and $I_{\Gamma}$ is the ideal in $K Q_{\Gamma}$ generated by the set of relations $\rho_{\Gamma}$ of types one, two and three.

Example 4.6. Continuing our example, some type one relations are $\left(a_{1} a_{2}\right)^{3}-\left(a_{2} a_{1}\right)^{3}$, $\left(a_{1} a_{2}\right)^{3}-b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} b_{4},\left(a_{2} a_{1}\right)^{3}-b_{1} b_{2} b_{3} b_{4},\left(a_{1} a_{2}\right)^{3}-c_{1} c_{2} c_{3}, c_{1} c_{2} c_{3}-c_{3} c_{1} c_{2}, b_{2} b_{3} b_{4} b_{1}-d^{2}$. Some type two relations are $\left(a_{1} a_{2}\right)^{3} a_{1},\left(a_{2} a_{1}\right)^{3} a_{2}, b_{1} \cdots b_{4} b_{1}, c_{1} c_{2} c_{3} c_{1}$, and $d^{3}$. Some type three relations are any $a_{i} b_{j}, b_{j} a_{i}, a_{i} c_{k}, a_{i} d, d b_{j}$, for $1 \leq i \leq 2,1 \leq j \leq 4,1 \leq k \leq 3$. The set of relations of types one, two, and three generate the ideal of relations, but this set contains a large number of redundant relations and the set is usually not a minimal generating set for the ideal of relations.

### 4.2. Properties of symmetric special multiserial algebras

Before proving Theorem 4.1, we analyse the structure of symmetric special multiserial algebras in more detail. For this we do not necessarily need to assume that $K$ is algebraically closed.

From now on and for the remainder of Section 4, in addition to our previous assumptions, we always assume that all $K$-algebras considered are indecomposable. In fact we assume for the rest of this subsection, unless otherwise stated, that $A=K Q / I$ is an indecomposable symmetric special multiserial algebra where $I$ is an admissible ideal and where $\operatorname{rad}(A)^{2} \neq 0$.

Remark 4.7. Since $A$ is symmetric, it is self-injective, and therefore by Proposition 3.2 its socle is arrow-free. So in particular, the condition ( $\mathrm{M}^{\prime}$ ) holds for A .

For the special multiserial algebra $A$, the additional property of being symmetric implies the existence of a permutation on the set of arrows of $Q$. Namely, let $\pi: K Q \rightarrow A$ be the canonical surjection. Suppose that $a$ is an arrow in $Q$. Since $\operatorname{rad}(A)^{2} \neq 0$ and $A$ is symmetric, $\pi(a) \notin \operatorname{soc}(A)$ and hence there is some arrow $b$ such that $a b \notin I$. By condition (M), $b$ is unique. This leads to the following definition.

Definition 4.8. Let $A=K Q / I$ be an indecomposable symmetric special multiserial algebra where $I$ is an admissible ideal and such that $\operatorname{rad}(A)^{2} \neq 0$. Letting $\sigma(a)$ denote the unique arrow such that $a \sigma(a) \notin I$, the assignment $\sigma: Q_{1} \rightarrow Q_{1}$ given by $a \mapsto \sigma(a)$ defines a permutation on the set of arrows $Q_{1}$ of $Q$. We call it the permutation induced by $I$.

We remark that a similar construction has been observed by S. Ladkani in the context of Brauer configuration algebras.

Let $\sigma$ be the permutation induced by $I$. Note that if $b \neq a$, then $\sigma(a) \neq \sigma(b)$ since there is at most one arrow $c$ such that $c \sigma(a) \notin I$. Thus $\sigma$ is bijective and $\sigma^{-1}(a)$ is the unique arrow such that $\sigma^{-1}(a) a \notin I$. Since $\sigma$ is an isomorphism, $Q_{1}$ is partitioned into the orbits of $\sigma$, which we denote by $\left\{O_{1}, \ldots, O_{m}\right\}$. These orbits will play an important role in what follows. Note that if $O$ is an orbit and $a$ is an arrow in $O$, then $O=$ $\left\{a, \sigma(a), \sigma^{2}(a), \ldots, \sigma^{s}(a)\right\}$ where the cardinality $|O|$ of $O$ is $s+1$.

Since $A$ is symmetric, by definition, there is a non-degenerate $K$-linear form $f: A \rightarrow K$ such that, for all $x, y \in A, f(x y)=f(y x)$ (that is, the form $f$ is symmetric) and $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ contains no nonzero two-sided ideals of $A$. Furthermore, the fact that $A$ is symmetric implies that $A$ is self-injective, and (since $A$ is basic) the left socle of $A$ is equal to the right socle of $A$ and they are both equal to the two-sided socle of $A$. Note that $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ contains no nonzero two-sided ideals if and only if $\operatorname{ker}(f) \cap \operatorname{soc}(A)=\{0\}$.

We now prove a technical lemma about the orbits of $\sigma$.

Lemma 4.9. Let $A=K Q / I$ be an indecomposable symmetric special multiserial $K$-algebra with $\operatorname{rad}(A)^{2} \neq 0$ and let $\sigma$ be the permutation on $Q$ induced by $I$. Given a $\sigma$-orbit $O$ and an arrow $a$ in $O$, we set

$$
c_{a}=a \sigma(a) \sigma^{2}(a) \ldots \sigma^{|O|-1}(a)
$$

Then the following hold:
(1) The path $c_{a}$ is a cycle in $Q$.
(2) The paths $c_{\sigma^{i}(a)}$ are cycles in $Q$, for $0 \leq i \leq|O|-1$.
(3) There is an integer $m_{a}>0$ such that $\overline{c_{a}^{m_{a}}}$ is a nonzero element in $\operatorname{soc}(A)$.
(4) We have $m_{a}=m_{\sigma^{i}(a)}$ and $\overline{\left(c_{\sigma^{i}(a)}\right)^{m_{a}}}$ is a nonzero element in $\operatorname{soc}(A)$, for $0 \leq i \leq$ $|O|-1$.
(5) We have $f\left(\overline{c_{a}^{m_{a}}}\right)=f\left(\overline{\left(c_{\sigma^{i}(a)}\right)^{m_{a}}}\right)$, for $0 \leq i \leq|O|-1$, where $f$ is the symmetric linear form defined above.

Proof. By definition, $\overline{\sigma^{i}(a) \sigma^{i+1}(a)} \neq 0$, for $1 \leq i \leq|O|-1$. Therefore $c_{a}$ is a path in $Q$. Since $\sigma^{|O|}(a)=a$, the arrow $\sigma^{|O|-1}(a)$ ends at the same vertex at which $a$ starts. Thus $c_{a}$ is a cycle and (1) is proved.

Statement (2) follows from (1) by replacing $a$ by $\sigma^{i}(a)$.
By the definition of $\sigma$, there must be an integer $s$ such that $\overline{a \sigma(a) \cdots \sigma^{s-1}(a)}$ is a non-zero element in $\operatorname{soc}(A)$. Since $\sigma^{|O|}(a)=a$, there exists an integer $m_{a}$ such that

$$
a \sigma(a) \cdots \sigma^{s-1}(a)=\left(c_{a}^{m_{a}-1}\right) a \cdots \sigma^{i}(a)
$$

for $1 \leq i \leq|O|-1$. Now there are two cases. Firstly, if $i=|O|-1$, then (3) directly follows. Secondly, suppose $i<|O|-1$. We will show that this is not possible since it leads to a contradiction, thus proving (3). So if $i<|O|-1$ then $f\left(\overline{\left(c_{a}^{m_{a}-1}\right) a \cdots \sigma^{i}(a)}\right) \neq 0$. But $\overline{\sigma^{i}(a) a}=0$ since $a \neq \sigma^{i+1}(a)$. Thus $\overline{\sigma^{i}(a)\left(c_{a}^{m_{a}-1}\right) a \cdots \sigma^{i-1}(a)}=0$. But $f\left(\overline{\left(c_{a}\right)^{m_{a}-1} a \cdots \sigma^{i}(a)}\right)=f\left(\overline{\sigma^{i}(a)\left(c_{a}^{m_{a}-1}\right) a \cdots \sigma^{i-1}(a)}\right)$, a contradiction.

We now prove (4). Suppose that $\overline{c_{a}^{m_{a}}}$ is a non-zero element in $\operatorname{soc}(A)$. It suffices to show $\overline{c_{\sigma(a)}^{m_{a}}} \in \operatorname{soc}(A)$. First note that, using $f(x y)=f(y x)$, for any $x, y \in A$, we see that $f\left(\overline{c_{a}^{m_{a}}}\right)=f\left(\overline{c_{\sigma(a)}^{m_{a}}}\right)$. Hence $\overline{c_{\sigma(a)}^{m_{a}}} \neq 0$. Suppose for contradiction that $\overline{c_{\sigma(a)}^{m_{a}}} \notin \operatorname{soc}(A)$, then $\overline{a c_{\sigma(a)}^{m_{a}}} \neq 0$ since $a$ is the only arrow such that $\overline{a \sigma(a)} \neq 0$. But

$$
a c_{\sigma(a)}^{m_{a}}=c_{a}^{m_{a}} a
$$

and hence $\bar{a} \overline{c_{\sigma(a)}^{m_{a}}}=0$ since $\overline{c_{\sigma(a)}^{m_{a}}}$ is in the (left) socle of $A$, a contradiction.
Part (5) follows since $f(x y)=f(y x)$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
c_{a}^{m_{a}}=\left(a \cdots \sigma^{i-1}(a)\right)\left(c_{\sigma^{i}(a)}^{m_{a}-1} \sigma^{i}(a) \cdots \sigma^{|O|-1}\right) \text { and } \\
c_{\sigma^{i}(a)}^{m_{a}}=\left(c_{\sigma^{i}(a)}^{m_{a}-1} \sigma^{i}(a) \cdots \sigma^{|O|-1}\right)\left(a \cdots \sigma^{i-1}(a)\right) .
\end{gathered}
$$

Lemma 4.10. Let $A=K Q / I$ be an indecomposable symmetric special multiserial $K$-algebra and let $f: A \rightarrow K$ be a non-degenerate symmetric $K$-linear form such that $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ contains no two-sided ideals in $A$. Let e be a primitive idempotent in $A$ and let $p$ and $p^{\prime}$ be nonzero elements in e $\operatorname{soc}(A) e$ such that $f(p)=f\left(p^{\prime}\right)$. Then $p=p^{\prime}$.

Proof. Since ker $f$ contains no non-zero two-sided ideals and since $\operatorname{dim}_{K}(e \operatorname{soc}(A) e)=1$, we have that $f$ restricted to $e \operatorname{soc}(A) e$ is an isomorphism. The result follows.

For the next result we need to assume that the field $K$ is algebraically closed. Keeping the notations as above, we have the following.

Proposition 4.11. Let $K$ be an algebraically closed field, let $A$ be a basic indecomposable symmetric special multiserial $K$-algebra, and let $Q$ be the quiver of $A$. Then there exists a surjection $\pi: K Q \rightarrow A$ such that
(1) $\operatorname{ker}(\pi)$ is admissible, and
(2) if $a$ and $b$ are arrows starting at a vertex $v$ in $Q$, then $\pi\left(c_{a}^{m_{a}}\right)=\pi\left(c_{b}^{m_{b}}\right)$.

Proof. Since $A$ is assumed to be finite dimensional and basic, there exists a surjection $\pi^{\prime}: K Q \rightarrow A$ such that $\operatorname{ker}\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)$ is admissible. Let $f: A \rightarrow K$ be a non-degenerate symmetric $K$-linear form with no two sided ideal in its kernel. We now construct a surjection $\pi: K Q \rightarrow A$ by defining, for each arrow $a$ in $Q$, a non-zero constant $\lambda_{a} \in K$ such that by setting $\pi(a)=\lambda_{a} \pi^{\prime}(a)$ the desired properties hold. Since $\operatorname{ker}\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)$ is admissible, clearly $\operatorname{ker}(\pi)$ is admissible.

We show that (2) holds one $\sigma$-orbit at a time. Let $O$ be a $\sigma$-orbit and $a \in O$. Fix a nonzero element $k \in K$ and consider the cycle $c_{a}$. Then by Lemma 4.9 (1) and (3), $\pi^{\prime}\left(c_{a}^{m_{a}}\right) \in e_{v} \operatorname{soc}(A) e_{v}$ where $v$ is the vertex at which the arrow $a$ starts and $e_{v}$ is the associated primitive idempotent in $A$. We know that $f\left(\pi^{\prime}\left(c_{a}^{m_{a}}\right)\right) \neq 0$. Let $\lambda_{a}=$ $\left(\frac{k}{f\left(\pi^{\prime}\left(c_{a}^{m a}\right)\right)}\right)^{1 / m_{a}}$. Note that if we set $\pi(a)=\lambda_{a} \pi^{\prime}(a)$ and $\pi\left(\sigma^{i}(a)\right)=\pi^{\prime}\left(\sigma^{i}(a)\right)$, for $1 \leq$ $i \leq|O|-1$, then $f\left(\pi\left(c_{a}^{m_{a}}\right)\right)=k$. By Lemma 4.9(5), $f\left(\pi\left(c_{\sigma^{i}(a)}^{m_{a}}\right)\right)=k$ for $1 \leq i \leq|O|-1$. That is, we define $\lambda_{b}=1$ if $b \in O$ and $b \neq a$.

Let $\pi: Q \rightarrow A$ be the resulting surjection from the construction above carried out for every $\sigma$-orbit. Then we have that for each arrow $a$ in $Q, f\left(\pi\left(c_{a}^{m_{a}}\right)\right)=k$. Applying Lemma 4.10, we get the desired result.

### 4.3. Proof of Theorem 4.1

We are now able to prove Theorem 4.1, which states that a Brauer configuration algebra is a special multiserial algebra and conversely, that every symmetric special multiserial algebra is a Brauer configuration algebra.

Proof of Theorem 4.1. First assume that $A=K Q / I$ is symmetric special multiserial. By Proposition 4.11 we can assume that there is a surjection $\pi: K Q \rightarrow A$ with $I=\operatorname{ker} \pi$
such that if $a$ and $b$ are arrows in $Q$ starting at the same vertex then $\pi\left(c_{a}^{m_{a}}\right)=\pi\left(c_{b}^{m_{b}}\right)$ where $c_{a}, m_{a}, c_{b}, m_{b}$ are as defined in Lemma 4.9.

Let $\sigma: Q_{1} \rightarrow Q_{1}$ be the permutation induced by $I$. For each $\sigma$-orbit $O$, choose an arrow $a \in O$, and let $L_{O}$ denote the multiset consisting of the vertices occurring in $c_{a}$, counting repetitions. More precisely, if $c_{a}=a \sigma(a) \cdots \sigma^{|O|-1}(a)$ and if $\sigma^{i}(a)$ is an arrow from $v_{j_{i}}$ to $v_{j_{i+1}}$ then $L_{O}=\left\{v_{j_{0}}, v_{j_{1}}, \ldots v_{j_{|O|-1}}\right\}$. Note, for $i=0, \sigma^{0}(a)=a$ is an arrow from $v_{j_{0}}$ to $v_{j_{1}}$ and $\sigma^{|O|-1}(a)$ is an arrow from $v_{j_{|O|-1}}$ to $v_{j_{0}}$; that is, $v_{j_{|O|}}=v_{j_{0}}$. By construction, the set $L_{O}$ is independent of the choice of $a \in O$ since if $a^{\prime} \in O$, then $c_{a^{\prime}}$ is a cyclic permutation of the arrows of $c_{a}$.

We now construct the desired Brauer configuration algebra which we denote by $\Gamma$. We begin with a set $\Gamma_{0}^{*} \subset \Gamma_{0}$ which is in one-to-one correspondence with the set of $\sigma$-orbits $\mathcal{O}=\left\{O_{1}, \ldots, O_{m}\right\}$ of $\sigma$. We let $\Gamma_{0}^{*}=\left\{\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{m}\right\}$ where $\alpha_{i}$ corresponds to $O_{i}$. These will be the nontruncated vertices of $\Gamma$. The polygons of $\Gamma$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the vertices of $Q$ such that if $Q_{0}=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ then we set $\Gamma_{1}=\left\{V_{1}, \ldots, V_{n}\right\}$ where the polygon $V_{i}$ corresponds to the vertex $v_{i}$ of $Q$.

We need to describe the truncated vertices in $\Gamma_{0}$, the elements that occur in each polygon $V_{i}$, the multiplicity function $\mu$ and the orientation $\mathfrak{o}$. We begin fixing $\alpha \in \Gamma_{0}^{*}$, $V \in \Gamma_{1}$ and determine how many times $\alpha$ occurs as an element in $V$. Suppose that $\alpha$ corresponds to the $\sigma$-orbit $O$ and $V$ corresponds to $v \in Q_{0}$. Then $\alpha$ occurs in $V$ the number of times $v$ occurs in $L_{O}$.

Next we define the set of truncated vertices in $\Gamma$. For each polygon $V$ that consists of exactly one nontruncated vertex, say $\alpha$, we add a new vertex $\alpha_{V}$ to the vertex set $\Gamma_{0}$ and to $V$. Thus $V=\left\{\alpha, \alpha_{V}\right\}$. We set $\mu\left(\alpha_{V}\right)=1$ and hence $\alpha_{V}$ is a truncated vertex of $\Gamma$. In this way, we have defined the truncated vertices and we see that condition C3 is satisfied. We also see that condition C2, namely that $|V| \geq 2$, is satisfied. From this construction it is clear that $\Gamma$ satisfies condition C4.

For each $\alpha \in \Gamma_{0}^{*}$, let $\mu(\alpha)=m_{a}$, where $a$ is an arrow in the $\sigma$-orbit corresponding to $\alpha$. By Lemma 4.9(4), $\mu$ is independent of the choice of $a$. We have defined $\mu$ to be 1 on truncated vertices and hence, we have completed the definition of the multiplicity function $\mu$.

Finally, we need to describe the orientation $\mathfrak{o}$. For this, we let $\alpha$ be a vertex in $\Gamma_{0}^{*}$ and assume that $\alpha$ corresponds to the $\sigma$-orbit $O=\left\{a, \sigma(a), \sigma^{2}(a), \ldots, \sigma^{|O|-1}(a)\right\}$. Then, as above, $\sigma^{i}(a)$ is an arrow from $v_{j_{i}}$ to $v_{j_{i+1}}$, for $0 \leq i \leq|O|-1$ and $v_{j_{|O|}}=v_{j_{0}}$. If $V_{j_{i}}$ is the polygon corresponding to the vertex $v_{j_{i}}$, then we let $V_{j_{0}}<\cdots<V_{j_{|O|-1}}$ be the successor sequence at $\alpha$. Varying $\alpha \in \Gamma_{0}^{*}$ yields an orientation $\mathfrak{o}$.

We have now constructed a Brauer configuration $\Gamma=\left(\Gamma_{0}, \Gamma_{1}, \mu, \mathfrak{o}\right)$. Let $\Lambda$ be the Brauer configuration algebra associated to $\Gamma$. We show that $\Lambda$ is isomorphic to $A$. Let $Q_{\Lambda}$ be the quiver of $\Lambda$. We begin by showing that there is an isomorphism of quivers from $Q_{\Lambda}$ to $Q$. By our construction of the quiver of $Q_{\Lambda}$ given in the beginning of this section, we see that the vertices of $Q_{\Lambda}$ correspond to the polygons in $\Gamma$, which in turn correspond to the vertices of $Q$. Thus, we get a one-to-one correspondence between the vertices of $Q_{\Lambda}$ and the vertices of $Q$. Again by our construction of the quiver of $Q_{\Lambda}$
given in the beginning of this section, the arrows of $Q_{\Lambda}$ correspond to successors in the successor sequences of $\Gamma$. But the successor sequences in $\Gamma$ correspond to the $\sigma$-orbits and each arrow in $Q$ occurs once, in exactly one $\sigma$-orbit. Thus, the quivers $Q_{\Lambda}$ and $Q$ are isomorphic.

An isomorphism from $Q_{\Lambda}$ to $Q$ induces an isomorphism of path algebras $K Q_{\Lambda} \rightarrow K Q$. Thus, we obtain a surjection $\varphi: K Q_{\Lambda} \rightarrow A$. It is straightforward to see that relations of types one, two and three are all in $\operatorname{ker}(\varphi)$. Hence $\varphi$ induces a surjection from $\Lambda$ to $A$. To complete the proof, we consider the uniserial modules in both algebras, that is in the Brauer configuration algebra $\Lambda$ and in $A$. We now apply the results from Section 3 in [30] on uniserial modules in a Brauer configuration algebra and the results from Section 2 of this paper on uniserial modules in a symmetric special multiserial algebra. It follows that the uniserial $\Lambda$-modules $U$ such that $U$ is not a projective $\Lambda$-module and such that $U$ is maximal with this property, correspond to the uniserial $A$-modules $U^{\prime}$ such that $U^{\prime}$ is not a projective $A$-module and such that $U^{\prime}$ is maximal with this property. Thus the dimensions of $\operatorname{rad}(\Lambda)$ and $\operatorname{rad}(A)$ are equal. It follows that the surjection from $\Lambda$ to $A$ is an isomorphism and we are done.

The converse immediately follows from Proposition 2.8 in [30].

## 5. Symmetric algebras with radical cube zero are special multiserial

In this section we show that the class of special multiserial algebras contains another class of well-studied algebras. Namely that of symmetric algebras with radical cube zero. We show that basic symmetric algebras with radical cube zero are special multiserial and hence that they are Brauer configuration algebras. We remark that in [30], it is proved that the class of symmetric algebras with radical cube zero associated to a symmetric matrix with non-negative integer coefficients is the same as the class of Brauer configuration algebras in which the polygons have no repeated vertices. Our main results of this section show that dropping this restriction on polygons classifies all symmetric algebras with radical cube zero.

More precisely, we prove the following result.
Theorem 5.1. Let $K$ be an algebraically closed field and let $A \cong K Q / I$ be a finite dimensional indecomposable $K$-algebra. Assume that $\operatorname{rad}^{3}(A)=0$ but $\operatorname{rad}^{2}(A) \neq 0$. Then the following statements are equivalent.
(1) $A$ is a symmetric $K$-algebra.
(2) $A$ is a symmetric multiserial $K$-algebra.
(3) $A$ is a symmetric special multiserial $K$-algebra.
(4) $A$ is isomorphic to an indecomposable Brauer configuration algebra.

Proof. Clearly (2) implies (1). We see that (3) implies (2) by Theorem 2.3. By Theorem 4.1, (3) holds if and only if (4) holds. It remains to show that (1) implies (4). For
this we start with some preliminary results, culminating in Theorem 5.6, which is the desired result.

For the remainder of this section, we let $A=K Q / I$ be an indecomposable symmetric $K$-algebra such that $\operatorname{rad}^{3}(A)=0$ but $\operatorname{rad}^{2}(A) \neq 0$. We assume that $I$ is an admissible ideal and let $f: A \rightarrow K$ be a non-degenerate symmetric linear form such that $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ does not contain a two-sided ideal of $A$. If $M$ is a right $\Lambda$-module, then the Loewy length of $M$ is $n$ if $M \operatorname{rad}^{n-1}(A) \neq 0$ and $M \operatorname{rad}^{n}(A)=0$. We fix a surjection $\pi: K Q \rightarrow A$ with kernel $I$ and if $x \in K Q$, we will write $\bar{x}$ for $\pi(x)$. More generally, we will write $\bar{a}$ for elements in $A$.

The next result is well-known but we include a proof for completeness.
Lemma 5.2. Keeping the notations and assumptions above, every indecomposable projective $A$-module has Loewy length 3.

Proof. Let $P$ be an indecomposable projective $A$-module of Loewy length 2. Then $P$ is the projective cover of a simple $A$-module $S$. Since $A$ is symmetric, $P$ has simple top and simple socle isomorphic to $S$ and these are the only composition factors of $P$. Thus $P$ is an extension of $S$ by $S$ and if $S$ is the simple at vertex $v$ in $Q$ then there is a loop at $v$ in $Q$. Furthermore, there is no other arrow leaving $v$. Since $A$ is symmetric, $P$ is also the injective hull of $S$ and so there is no arrow entering $v$. Thus there is a loop at $v$ and no other arrow entering or leaving $v$. Thus there is a factor $K[x] /\left(x^{2}\right)$ of $A$, contradicting the indecomposability of $A$.

Lemma 5.3. Keeping the notations and assumptions above, let $e_{v}$ be the idempotent at a vertex $v$ in $K Q$ and let $x$ be a linear combination of paths of length 2 such that $e_{v} x e_{v}=x$. Then $x \in I$ if and only if $f(\bar{x})=0$.

Proof. Suppose $x \notin I$. Then $\bar{x}$ is a nonzero element of the socle of $A$. If $f(\bar{x})=0$ then the $K$-span of $\bar{x}$ is in $\operatorname{ker}(f)$. Since $\operatorname{soc}(A)$ is semisimple and each simple $A$-module is one dimensional, we obtain a two sided ideal in $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ which is a contradiction. Hence $f(\bar{x}) \neq 0$. Next suppose that $x \in I$. Then $\bar{x}=0$ and we conclude that $f(\bar{x})=0$.

Our next lemma shows the special nature of symmetric algebras with radical cube zero.

Lemma 5.4. Keeping the notations and assumptions above, let $a$ and $b$ be arrows in $Q$. Then the following statements are equivalent:
(1) $a b \notin I$.
(2) $b a \notin I$.
(3) $\overline{a b}$ is a nonzero element of $\operatorname{soc}(A)$.
(4) $\overline{b a}$ is a nonzero element of $\operatorname{soc}(A)$.
(5) $f(\overline{a b}) \neq 0$.
(6) $f(\overline{b a}) \neq 0$.

Proof. Note that since $A$ is symmetric, if $a$ and $b$ are arrows with $\overline{a b} \in \operatorname{soc}(A)$ and $\overline{a b} \neq 0$, then there is a vertex $v$ such that $e_{v} a b e_{v}=a b$ where $e_{v}$ is the corresponding idempotent in $K Q$. Using Lemma 5.3 and that $f(\overline{a b})=f(\overline{b a})$, it is clear that parts (1), (2), (5), and (6) are equivalent. Using that $\operatorname{ker}(f)$ cannot contain any non-zero two-sided ideals and that $\operatorname{rad}^{3}(A)=0$, we obtain that part (3) is equivalent to part (1) and part (4) is equivalent part (2).

The next result shows that in general, for a basic indecomposable symmetric $K$-algebra $A$ such that $\operatorname{rad}^{3}(A)=0 \operatorname{but}_{\operatorname{rad}^{2}}(A) \neq 0$ there is a special way of presenting $A$ as $K Q / I$. For this we define a set $A r r$ whose $K$-span equals the $K$-span of the image of the arrows in $Q$ and such that Arr satisfies a tight set of multiplicative properties.

Proposition 5.5. Let $K$ be an algebraically closed field and let $A$ be a basic indecomposable symmetric $K$-algebra such that $\operatorname{rad}^{3}(A)=0$ but $\operatorname{rad}^{2}(A) \neq 0$.

Then there is a K-linearly independent set $\operatorname{Arr} \subset \operatorname{rad}(A)$ with the following properties.
(1) Arr generates $\operatorname{rad}(A)$ as a two-sided ideal.
(2) If $\bar{x}$ is a nonzero linear combination of elements in Arr then $\bar{x} \notin \operatorname{rad}^{2}(A)$.
(3) If $\bar{a} \in$ Arr is such that $\bar{a}^{2} \neq 0$, then $\overline{a b}=0$ for all $\bar{b} \in \operatorname{Arr}, \bar{b} \neq \bar{a}$.
(4) If $\bar{a}, \bar{b} \in$ Arr with $\bar{a} \neq \bar{b}$ and $\overline{a b} \neq 0$, then $\overline{a c}=0=\overline{b c}$ for all $\bar{c} \in$ Arr with $\bar{c} \neq \bar{a}, \bar{b}$.
(5) For each $\bar{a}, \bar{b} \in$ Arr, not necessarily distinct, if $\overline{a b} \neq 0$ then $f(\overline{a b})=1$.

Proof. The assumption that the simple $A$-modules are one dimensional implies there is a surjection $\pi: K Q \rightarrow A$ such that $Q$ is the quiver of $A$ and that $\operatorname{ker}(\pi)$ is an admissible ideal. Let $f: A \rightarrow K$ be a linear form obtained from $A$ being symmetric.

Let $\operatorname{Arr}=\pi\left(Q_{1}\right)$. It follows that Arr is linearly independent over $K$ and generates $\operatorname{rad}(A)$. Moreover $\operatorname{Arr}$ satisfies property (2). If $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{b}$ are in Arr, then we set $\gamma_{a, b}=$ $f(\overline{a b})$.

Let $Y=\operatorname{Span}_{K}(A r r)$. Note that $A r r$ is a $K$-basis of $Y$. We begin by making a series of linear changes of bases starting with the basis Arr of $Y$. Suppose that there is an element $\bar{a} \in \operatorname{Arr}$ such that $\bar{a}^{2} \neq 0$. Then consider the change of basis with $\bar{a}$ remaining unchanged and if $\bar{b} \in \operatorname{Arr}$ with $\bar{b} \neq \bar{a}$, replace $\bar{b}$ by $\bar{b}-\frac{\gamma_{a, b}}{\gamma_{a, a}} \bar{a}$. Note that after this change of basis, if $\bar{b} \neq \bar{a}, f\left(\bar{a}\left(\bar{b}-\frac{\gamma_{a, b}}{\gamma_{a, a}} \bar{a}\right)\right)=0$ and hence, in the new basis, $\overline{a b}=0$ by Lemma 5.4. By abuse of notation, we still call the new basis Arr.

If there is another $\bar{b} \in \operatorname{Arr}$ such that $\bar{b}^{2} \neq 0$, perform the same change of basis for $\bar{b}$ instead of $\bar{a}$. Note that under this change of basis, $\bar{a}$ remains unchanged since $\gamma_{a, b}=0$. Continuing in this fashion, we arrive at a basis, again called Arr, such that if $\bar{a}$ is an element in Arr and $\bar{a}^{2} \neq 0$, then, for all $\bar{b} \neq \bar{a}$, we have $\overline{b a}=0$ and $\overline{a b}=0$.

Now let $\bar{a}$ be an element in $\operatorname{Arr}$ with $\bar{a}^{2}=0$. Then by Lemma 5.2 there must be an element $\bar{b}$ in $A r r, \bar{b} \neq \bar{a}$, such that $\overline{a b} \neq 0$. Note that $\bar{b}^{2}=0$, since if not, $\overline{a b}$ would equal 0 . Consider the change of basis that leaves $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{b}$ unchanged, and where if $\bar{c}$ is an element in Arr different from $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{b}$, we replace $\bar{c}$ by $\bar{c}-\frac{\gamma_{b, c}}{\gamma_{a, b}} \bar{a}-\frac{\gamma_{a, c}}{\gamma_{a, b}} \bar{b}$. Applying $f$ to the new basis, we see that $\overline{a b} \neq 0, \overline{a c}=0=\overline{b c}$ for all $\bar{c}$ different from $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{b}$. Note that if $\bar{c}$ is an element of Arr with $\bar{c}^{2}=0$, then $\bar{c}$ remains unchanged since $\gamma_{a, c}=0=\gamma_{b, c}$. Continuing in this fashion, we obtain a new basis of $Y$, which we call again Arr satisfying properties (3) and (4).

For each pair $\bar{a}, \bar{b}$ satisfying (4) above, choose either $\bar{a}$ or $\bar{b}$ and call it a chosen element. We make one final change of basis of $Y$. For each $\bar{a} \in \operatorname{Arr}$ such that $\bar{a}^{2} \neq 0$, replace $\bar{a}$ by $\left(1 /\left(\gamma_{a, a}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right) \bar{a}$. For each pair $\bar{a}, \bar{b}$ satisfying (4) above, replace the chosen element, say $\bar{a}$, by $\left(1 / \gamma_{a, b}\right) \bar{a}$ and leave $\bar{b}$ unchanged. We then obtain a basis of $Y$, which we call again Arr, satisfying properties (1)-(5) and we take this to be the desired set.

We remark that it follows from the proof of Proposition 5.5 that the canonical surjection $\pi: K Q \rightarrow A$ maps the arrows of $Q$ bijectively to Arr.

We now present the final result needed to finish the proof of Theorem 5.1.
Theorem 5.6. Let $K$ be an algebraically closed field and let $A=K Q / I$ be a finite dimensional basic indecomposable $K$-algebra. Suppose that $A$ is symmetric and that $\operatorname{rad}^{3}(A)=0$ but $\operatorname{rad}^{2}(A) \neq 0$. Then $A$ is isomorphic to a Brauer configuration algebra.

Proof. Let Arr be a set satisfying properties (1)-(5) in Proposition 5.5. Recall that if $x \in K Q$ then $\bar{x}$ will denote the image of $x$ in $A$ under the canonical surjection $K Q \rightarrow A$ where the arrows of $Q$ are mapped bijectively to Arr. We show that property (M) holds. Let $a$ be an arrow in $Q$ and $\bar{a}$ its image in Arr. First we show that there is at most one arrow $b$ such that $a b \notin I$. If $a^{2} \notin I$, that is if $\bar{a}^{2} \neq 0$, then Proposition 5.5(3) yields the result. If $a^{2} \in I$, that is, if $\bar{a}^{2}=0$, then Proposition 5.5(4) shows that if $a b \notin I$ for some arrow $b$, then $a d \in I$ for all $d \neq a$ or $b$. But $a^{2} \in I$ and hence there is at most one arrow $b$ such that $a b \notin I$.

Given an arrow $a$ of $Q$, by Lemma 5.4 we have that $a b \notin I$ for some arrow $b$ if and only if $b a \notin I$. By the first part of the proof above $b$ is unique if it exists. Therefore, it follows directly that if $a b \notin I$ then $b a \notin I$ and there is no other arrow $c$ with $c \neq b$ such that $c a \notin I$. Note that this also holds if $b$ is equal to $a$.

Thus ( $M$ ) holds and hence $A$ is a symmetric special multiserial algebra. The result then follows from Theorem 4.1.

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