

Chapter 3

Free Groups

We allow our groups to be infinite. Recall that a monoid is a set with an associative multiplication and an identity, e.g., the set of all endomorphisms of a graph, or any group.

3.1 Reduced Walks

We consider walks in directed graphs. A walk is a sequence of vertices, and a walk is *reduced* if it does not contain any subsequence of the form vwv . If vwv is a subwalk of the walk α , the operation of replacing it by w is an *elementary reduction*. The reverse operation is *elementary expansion*. Two walks α and β are *equivalent* if one can be obtained from the other by a sequence of elementary reductions and expansions. We use $[\alpha]$ to denote the equivalence class of α .

3.1.1 Theorem. *If α and β are equivalent reduced walks in X , they are equal.*

Assume $v \in V(X)$ and define a graph on the reduced walks in X that start at v , where two walks are adjacent if one is a maximal subwalk of the other. (This is a graph even if X is not.)

3.1.2 Theorem. *The graph on the reduced walks in X based at v is a tree.*

Proof. If α is reduced walk, let $t(\alpha)$ denote its last vertex. If $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k$ is a sequence of reduced walks with consecutive terms adjacent, then the

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sequence of vertices

$$t(\alpha_1), \dots, t(\alpha_k)$$

determines the sequence of reduced walks, and is equal to α_k . It follows that two sequences of reduced closed walks with the same starting and finishing points must be equal. \square

We call this tree the *walk tree* of X based at v , and denote it by $T(X, v)$.

3.1.3 Theorem. *The reduced closed walks that start at the vertex v in the graph X form a group, the elements of which induce a semiregular group of automorphisms of $T(X, v)$.*

Proof. If X is a graph, then each reduced closed walk at v has a multiplicative inverse. The multiplication operation is concatenation followed by reduction, and the difficulty is to show that this operation is associative.

If β is a reduced walk starting at v and α is a closed walk on v , then the product $\alpha\beta$ is a (reduced) walk starting at v . We see that reduced walks β and γ (starting at v) are adjacent if and only if $\alpha\beta$ and $\alpha\gamma$ are adjacent. Hence left multiplication by α gives an automorphism of the tree on reduced walks from v ; not that this automorphism determines α and if $\alpha \neq 1$, it does not fix a vertex or an edge of the tree. \square

The group formed by the reduced closed walks at v is called the *fundamental group* of X based at v , and is denoted $\pi_1(X, v)$. For each vertex w of X , the reduced walks that start at v and finish at w are an orbit for $\pi_1(X, v)$ and the quotient of the walk tree over this orbit partition is X .

3.2 Cayley Graphs

Let M be a monoid and let \mathcal{C} be a subset of M . The directed Cayley graph $X(M, \mathcal{C})$ has vertex set M and arc set consisting of the pairs (g, cg) for $g \in M$ and $c \in \mathcal{C}$. If both c and c^{-1} belong to \mathcal{C} , then we have an edge $\{g, cg\}$ for each g in M .

If $e \in \mathcal{C}$, then there is a loop on each vertex of $X(G, \mathcal{C})$, but we will normally assume that $e \notin \mathcal{C}$. We view an edge as a pair of oppositely directed arcs, so $\{a, b\}$ is an edge if and only if ba^{-1} and ab^{-1} both lie in \mathcal{C} . If

$$\mathcal{C}^{-1} = \{c^{-1} : c \in \mathcal{C}\}$$

then X is a graph if and only if $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}^{-1}$. We do not require \mathcal{C} to generate G ; note that \mathcal{C} generates M if and only if $X(M, \mathcal{C})$ is weakly connected. Each element of M determines an endomorphism of X . Note that a monoid may contain idempotent elements apart from the identity, and these will give rise to loops if they belong to \mathcal{C} .

If S is a subset of the group G and $S \cap S^{-1} = \emptyset$, we say that G is the free group on the set S if the Cayley graph $X(G, S \cup S^{-1})$ is a tree.

The following result is known as Sabidussi's lemma:

3.2.1 Lemma. *If the group G acts regularly on the graph X , then X is a Cayley graph for G .* \square

3.2.2 Theorem. *If the group G acts semiregularly on the connected graph X , then G acts regularly on some contraction of X .*

Proof. Since G is semiregular, each orbit admits a bijection onto G . Since X is connected, its quotient over the orbit partition is connected and so X contains a subgraph H that is connected, acyclic and contains exactly one vertex from each orbit. As the action of G is semiregular, the distinct translates Hg for g in G partition $V(X)$. It follows that G acts regularly on the graph we get by contracting each translate to a vertex. \square

3.2.3 Corollary. *Let X be a graph, let v be a vertex of X and let T be a spanning tree for the connected component of X that contains v . Let \mathcal{C} be the set of arcs coming from the chords of T . Then $\pi_1(X, v)$ is free on \mathcal{C} .*

Proof. In the previous section we say that $\pi_1(X, v)$ acts semiregularly on a tree T , and so there is a contraction of T on which $\pi_1(X, v)$ acts regularly. Since T is a tree, this contraction is also a tree, and it follows that $\pi_1(X, v)$ is freely generated by the chords of T . \square

3.2.4 Theorem. *If \mathcal{F} is a free group, then all subgroups of \mathcal{F} are free.*

Proof. Assume \mathcal{F} is free relative to the generating set \mathcal{C} and set $X = X(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{C})$. If $H \leq \mathcal{F}$, then H acts semiregularly on X and therefore it acts regularly on a contraction of X . Since \mathcal{F} is free, X is a tree and, since X is tree, each contraction of X is a tree. Hence X has a Cayley graph which is a tree, and therefore H is free. \square

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Consider the case where $|\mathcal{C}| = d$ and $|\mathcal{F} : H| = m$. Then the tree T contains exactly $m - 1$ edges, and so there are $md - m + 1$ edges joining vertices in T to vertices not in T . Therefore the quotient tree has degree $md - m + 1$.

3.2.5 Corollary. *If H is a subgroup of index m in the free group on d generators, then H is free on $md - m + 1$ generators.* \square

3.3 Free Groups and Initial Objects

An object A in a category is *initial* if for each object B , there is a unique arrow $A \rightarrow B$. The trivial group in the category of groups provides an example. Dually we have *terminal objects*, and the trivial group in the category of groups is again an example.

Let k be a fixed positive integer. Let \mathcal{C} be the category whose objects are ordered pairs (G, σ) where G is a group and σ is a sequence of k elements from G . An arrow from (G, σ) to (H, τ) is a homomorphism $\phi : G \rightarrow H$ such that $\phi(\sigma_i) = \tau_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$. The free group \mathcal{F}_k on k generators is an initial object in this category. This means that there are elements x_1, \dots, x_k in \mathcal{F}_k and, for each object (G, σ) , there is a unique homomorphism $\phi : \mathcal{F}_k \rightarrow G$ such that $\phi(x_i) = \sigma_i$. Additionally, if there is an arrow ρ from (G, σ) to (H, τ) , and the composition of this with the arrow from \mathcal{F}_k to (G, σ) is equal to the arrow from \mathcal{F}_k to (H, τ) . Of course now you will need to look up the definitions of category and initial object, but the effort will be repaid on many occasions.

In more concrete terms, \mathcal{F}_k is free on $S = \{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$ if for each group G and each map $f : S \rightarrow G$, there is a homomorphism from \mathcal{F}_k to G that agrees with f on S .

We offer another example. Let X and Y be two fixed graphs. Consider the category whose objects are triples (Z, f, g) , where Z is a graph and f and g are homomorphisms from Z to X and Y respectively and where the arrows are graph homomorphisms compatible with the maps to X and Y . Then a terminal object in this category is the direct product of X and Y .

3.4 Covers

A graph homomorphism $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a *covering map* if it is a *local isomorphism*, that is, the restriction of f to the neighbours of a vertex u is an isomorphism from $N_X(u)$ to $N_Y(f(u))$.

3.4.1 Lemma. *The fundamental group $\pi_1(X, a)$ acts semiregularly on $T(X, a)$. Its orbits are the fibres of a covering map from $T(X, a)$ to X .*

Proof. Suppose α and β are reduced walks in X from a to b . Then $\alpha\beta^{-1}$ is a closed walk in X and $(\alpha\beta^{-1})\beta = \alpha$. Thus two reduced walks from a are in the same orbit of $\pi_1(X, a)$ if and only if they end at the same vertex. \square

The tree $T(X, a)$ is the *universal cover* of X , based at a .

If we view the edges of our graphs as pairs of oppositely directed arcs and if we label the arcs of X , then this determines a labelling of the arcs of $T(X, a)$. For the moment, this does not matter.

3.4.2 Lemma. *If X is connected and X covers a tree T , then X is isomorphic to T .* \square

Consider the category whose objects are the covers of a fixed graph F ; thus the objects are pairs (Y, f) where Y is a graph and f is a local isomorphism from Y to X ; the arrows are local isomorphisms. We construct a product for this category.

If (Y, f) and (Z, g) are covers of X , we define $Y \vee Z$ to be the subgraph of $Y \times Z$ induced by the vertices

$$\{(y, z) : f(y) = g(z)\}.$$

(Equivalently it is the preimage relative to the map $(f, g) : Y \times Z \rightarrow X \times X$ of the diagonal in $X \times X$.) You may show that $Y \vee Z$ covers Y , Z , and X .

Now suppose that Y and T both cover X and T is a tree. Then any connected component of $Y \vee T$ covers T , and so it must be isomorphic to T . Therefore T covers Y and you may show that T is an initial object in the category of covers of X . We say that T is the *universal cover* of X . We note that the walk tree is a tree that covers X , so each graph has a universal cover.

3.5 Explicit Examples

We present three constructions of free groups; they occur more frequently than one might expect.

The Linear Fractional Group $PGL(2, \mathbb{C})$

For the first example, we work in the linear fractional group over \mathbb{C} : if

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix},$$

define the map τ on $\mathbb{C} \cup \infty$ by

$$\tau_A(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d}.$$

Note that τ_A is invertible if and only if A is. Now set

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and let α and β denote τ_A and τ_B respectively.

We claim that $\Gamma = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$ is free on $\{\alpha, \beta\}$. To see this observe that any nonzero power of α maps the interior of the unit circle $|z| = 1$ to the exterior, and any nonzero power of β maps the exterior to the nonzero elements of the interior. Using this it is not hard to show that no word of the form

$$\alpha^{k_1} \beta^{\ell_1} \dots \alpha^{k_{r-1}} \beta^{\ell_{r-1}} \alpha^r$$

with all exponents positive can be trivial. Now use conjugacy and inverses to cover the remaining cases. Accordingly no nontrivial reduced word in α and β is equal to the identity, and hence Γ is free on $\{\alpha, \beta\}$.

It also follows that the matrices A and B generate a subgroup of $GL(2, \mathbb{C})$ that is free on $\{A, B\}$.

The Orthogonal Group $O(3, \mathbb{R})$

We outline a construction of a free group on two generators as a subgroup of the group of real orthogonal matrices of order 3×3 . The matrices are

$$A = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & 0 \\ -4 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & -4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

These matrices are orthogonal, with determinant 1. Our claim is that there is no non-empty word in A, A^{-1}, B, B^{-1} that is equal to I .

Consider the matrices

$$5A, 5A^{-1}, 5B, 5B^{-1}.$$

We view these matrices as matrices over $GF(5)$, and note that over this field all four matrices have rank one. Their column spaces are spanned respectively by the vectors

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}.$$

and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{im}(5A) &= \ker(5A^{-1})^\perp, \\ \text{im}(5A^{-1}) &= \ker(5A)^\perp, \\ \text{im}(5B) &= \ker(5B^{-1})^\perp, \\ \text{im}(5B^{-1}) &= \ker(5B)^\perp. \end{aligned}$$

Using this you may show that the only reduced word in these these matrices that is equal to I is the trivial word, and hence the matrices A and B generate a free group.

The existence of such free subgroups in the 3-dimensional orthogonal group leads to the Banach-Tarski paradox. (See <https://www.math.ucla.edu/~tao/preprints/Expository/banach-tarski.pdf> for more details.)

The technique we have used to establish freeness in this and in the previous example is sometimes referred to as a “ping-pong” argument.

Subdirect Product

If G is a finite group and $a, b \in G$, we refer to (G, a_1, a_2) as a triple. Two triples (G, a_1, a_2) and (H, b_1, b_2) are isomorphic if there is an isomorphism from G to H that sends (a_1, a_2) to (b_1, b_2) . Let \mathcal{S} be a sequence of triples (G, a_1, a_2) that contains exactly one triple from each possible isomorphism class, let α_1 be the sequence of group elements occurring as a_1 in a triple and let α_2 be the sequence of group elements occurring as a_2 . Prove that $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$ is free. [The simplest approach here is to prove that this group is initial in the appropriate category.]