

London Mathematical Society Lecture Note Series. 42

Topics in the Theory of Group Presentations

D. L. Johnson

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Preface

These notes arose from a course of lectures given to final-year and postgraduate students at the University of Nottingham, and comprise a substantially revised and extended version of my earlier contribution to this series. As before, the emphasis is on concrete examples of groups exhibited in their natural settings and thus to demonstrate at a modest level some of the pervasive connections between group theory and other branches of mathematics. Such is the current rate of progress (both upwards and outwards) in combinatorial group theory that no attempt at completeness is feasible, though it is hoped to bring the reader to within hailing distance of the frontiers of research in one or two places.

My thanks are due to a host of colleagues, students and friends whose names, too numerous to mention here, may be found scattered through the ensuing pages. It is a pleasure to acknowledge a special debt of gratitude to Professor Sandy Green for introducing me to research mathematics, to Dr E.F. Robertson for his encouragement and for help in correcting the proofs, and to Dr H.R. Morton for much valuable advice on the final chapter. My thanks also go to Professor I.M. James for keeping a paternal eye on things, to Mrs Anne Towndrow for typing half the manuscript, and to the staff of Cambridge University Press for their speed and skill in setting the text (especially the other half).

Contents

Preface	vii
Chapter I. Free groups and free presentations	1
§1. Elementary properties of free groups	1
§2. The Nielsen-Schreier theorem	9
§3. Free presentations of groups	23
§4. Elementary properties of presentations	32
Chapter II. Examples of presentations	42
§5. Some popular groups	43
§6. Finitely-generated abelian groups	51
Chapter III. Groups with few relations	62
§7. Metacyclic groups	63
§8. Interesting groups with three generators	70
§9. Cyclically-presented groups	74
Chapter IV. Presentations of subgroups	85
§10. A special case	86
§11. Coset enumeration	98
§12. The Reidemeister-Schreier rewriting process	106
§13. A method for presenting subgroups	119
Chapter V. The triangle groups	130
§14. The Euclidian case	131
§15. The elliptic case	136
§16. The hyperbolic case	141
Chapter VI. Extensions of groups	147
§17. Extension theory	147
§18. Teach yourself cohomology of groups	161
§19. Local cohomology and p -groups	175
§20. Presentations of group extensions	186
§21. The Golod-Safarevič theorem	198
§22. Some minimal presentations	202

Chapter VII. Small cancellation groups	212
§23. van Kampen diagrams	213
§24. From Euler's formula to Dehn's algorithm	218
§25. The existence of non-cyclic free subgroups	230
§26. Some infinite Fibonacci groups	238
Chapter VIII. Groups from topology	245
§27. Surfaces	245
§28. Knots	258
§29. Braids	272
§30. Tangles	283
Guide to the literature and references	291
Index of notation	301
Index	307

1. Free groups and free presentations

The words are all there ready; now we've got to get them in the right order. (Python)

A group G is generated by a subset X if each of its elements can be expressed as a product of members of $X^{\pm 1}$. Such a product is called a word, and a relation is an equation between two words. A set R of relations that hold in G defines the group if every relation that holds in G is a consequence of R . When this happens, we say that G is presented by X and R . This definition is made rigorous using the concept of a free group (essentially, a group having a set of generators between which there are no non-trivial relations), which is defined using a universal property. Having developed some elementary but important properties of free groups (such as their existence), we proceed to the fundamental theorem of §2, where Schreier's proof is given in detail and Nielsen's original method in outline. In §3, the definition of group presentation is made rigorous, and this is used to clarify the proof of the Nielsen-Schreier theorem by means of an annotated example. §4 explains how to pass from a group multiplication table to a presentation and from one presentation to another, as well as describing a presentation for a direct product of two groups.

§1. Elementary properties of free groups

The fundamental notion used in defining presentations of groups is that of a free group. As the definition suggests, the idea of freeness is applicable in algebraic situations other than group theory.

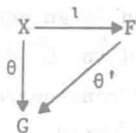
Definition 1. A group F is said to be *free* on a subset $X \subseteq F$ if, for any group G and any mapping $\theta : X \rightarrow G$, there is a

unique homomorphism $\theta' : F \rightarrow G$ such that

$$x\theta' = x\theta \quad (1)$$

for all $x \in X$. The cardinality of X is called the rank of F .

Remark 1. There are various ways of expressing the property (1). We may say that θ' extends θ or that θ' agrees with θ on X or, letting $\iota : X \rightarrow F$ denote inclusion, that the following diagram is commutative:



In general, a diagram involving sets and mappings is called commutative if any two composite mappings, beginning at the same place and ending at the same place in the diagram, are equal. In this case, this boils down to the single assertion that $\iota\theta' = \theta$.

Remark 2. There is an analogy between this situation and a familiar one encountered in linear algebra; let V be a vector space over a field k and B a basis for V . Then for any vector space W over k and any mapping $\tau : B \rightarrow W$, there is a unique k -linear transformation $\tau' : V \rightarrow W$ extending τ . This property is known as 'extension by linearity' and can be used to define the notion of basis.

Remark 3. If we write 'abelian group' in place of 'group' in the two places where this word appears in Definition 1, we obtain the definition of a free abelian group. A free abelian group of rank ω is just the direct sum of ω infinite cyclic groups (proved for finite ω in Theorem 6.2).

Remark 4. By convention, we take E (the trivial group) to be free of rank 0, the subset X being empty. The infinite cyclic group $\{x^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is free of rank 1. We denote it by \mathbb{Z} as it

is just the multiplicative version of the additive group of integers. Take $X = \{x\}$, and given

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \theta : X \rightarrow G \\ x \mapsto y \end{array} \right\} ,$$

simply define for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$x^n \theta' = y^n .$$

θ' is obviously a homomorphism extending θ , while if θ'' is another,

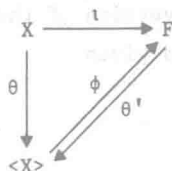
$$x^n \theta'' = (x \theta'')^n = y^n = (x \theta')^n = x^n \theta' ,$$

proving that θ' is unique.

Remark 5. There are one or two things to check before this definition can have any value. One can show for example that there does exist a free group of any given rank, and that the rank of a free group is well defined. These together with other elementary properties of free groups form the content of our first four theorems.

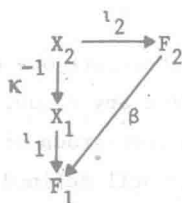
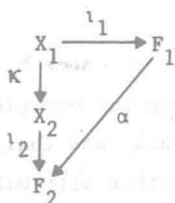
Theorem 1. (i) If F is free on X , then X generates F .
 (ii) Two free groups of the same rank are isomorphic.
 (iii) Free groups of different ranks are not isomorphic.

Proof. (i) Recall that if X is a subset of a group G , the intersection of all subgroups of G containing X is called the subgroup generated by X and written $\langle X \rangle$. We leave it as an exercise to show that this coincides with the set of all finite products of members of X and their inverses. Returning to the case in hand, we let $\langle X \rangle$ play the role of G in Definition 1, taking θ to be inclusion. Letting ϕ denote the inclusion of $\langle X \rangle$ in F , we have the following picture:



Since this diagram commutes, we have $\iota\theta'\phi = \theta\phi = \iota$, so that $\theta'\phi : F \rightarrow F$ extends ι . But so does 1_F , and so by the uniqueness part of Definition 1 (with ι, F in place of θ, G), we have $\theta'\phi = 1_F$, whence ϕ is onto and $\langle X \rangle = F$, as required.

(ii) Let F_j be free on X_j and let $\iota_j : X_j \rightarrow F_j$ denote inclusion, $j = 1, 2$. Assume that $|X_1| = |X_2|$, so that there is a bijection $\kappa : X_1 \rightarrow X_2$. Let α, β be the homomorphisms extending $\kappa\iota_2, \kappa^{-1}\iota_1$ as in the following diagrams:



Now $\iota_1\alpha\beta = \kappa\iota_2\beta = \kappa\kappa^{-1}\iota_1 = \iota_1$, so that $\alpha\beta : F_1 \rightarrow F_1$ extends ι_1 . But 1_{F_1} also extends ι_1 , so uniqueness implies $\alpha\beta = 1_{F_1}$. Similarly, $\beta\alpha = 1_{F_2}$, and α is the required isomorphism.

(iii) Let F be free on a subset X with $|X| = \omega$, and let G be any group. Then it is the burden of Definition 1 that the mappings: $X \rightarrow G$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the homomorphisms: $F \rightarrow G$. Thus, there are exactly 2^ω homomorphisms from F to Z_2 . Since this number is invariant under isomorphism, we see that 2^ω , and hence the rank ω , is determined by the isomorphism class of F .

Theorem 2. *There exists a free group of any given rank.*

Proof. We construct the 'group of words' $F = F(X)$ on a given set X , and prove that it is free of rank $|X|$. The free group F on a given set X is constructed as follows. Let $\hat{X} = \{\hat{x} | x \in X\}$ be any set in one-to-one correspondence with, and disjoint from, X and put $T = X \cup \hat{X}$. If T^n denotes the n th Cartesian power of T ($n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$), put $W = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} T^n$, the set of words in X . A word $w \in T^n$ is said to have length n , and the single element of T^0 is called the empty word and denoted by e . A word $w = (t_1, \dots, t_n)$ in W is called reduced if there is no i between 1 and $n-1$ such that $\hat{t}_i = t_{i+1}$, interpreting $\hat{s} = s$. Letting F be the set of reduced words, it is clear that $e \in F$ and $X \subseteq F$. The product of two reduced words of positive length

$$a = (x_1, \dots, x_m), b = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$$

is defined to be

$$(x_1, \dots, x_{m-k}, y_{k+1}, \dots, y_n),$$

where k is the largest integer such that none of the words

$$(x_m, y_1), \dots, (x_{m-r+1}, y_r)$$

are reduced, while $ew = w$ for any word w . It is clear that this defines a binary operation on F for which e is an identity and $(x_1, \dots, x_m)^{-1} = (\hat{x}_m, \dots, \hat{x}_1)$. The tricky bit, surprisingly enough, is the proof of the associative law. Now take three words in F :

$$a = (x_1, \dots, x_\ell), b = (y_1, \dots, y_m), c = (z_1, \dots, z_n).$$

If any of ℓ, m, n are zero, we clearly have $(ab)c = a(bc)$, so assume they are all positive. Supposing that the lengths of ab and bc are $\ell+m-2r$ and $m+n-2s$ respectively, we distinguish three cases. First, if $r+s < m$, both $(ab)c$ and $a(bc)$ are

equal to the reduced word

$$(x_1, \dots, x_{\ell-r}, y_{r+1}, \dots, y_{m-s}, z_{s+1}, \dots, z_n) ;$$

secondly, if $r+s = m$, both are equal to $\alpha \epsilon$, where

$$\alpha = (x_1, \dots, x_{\ell-r}), \epsilon = (z_{s+1}, \dots, z_n) .$$

Finally, in the case $r+s > m$, we define

$$\beta = (x_{\ell-r+1}, \dots, x_{\ell-m+s}) = (y_{m-s+1}, \dots, y_r)^{-1} = (z_{m-r+1}, \dots, z_s) ,$$

$$\gamma = (x_{\ell-m+s+1}, \dots, x_\ell) = (y_1, \dots, y_{m-s})^{-1} ,$$

$$\delta = (z_1, \dots, z_{m-r}) = (y_{r+1}, \dots, y_m)^{-1} .$$

Thus, $a = \alpha\beta\gamma$, $b = \gamma^{-1}\beta^{-1}\delta^{-1}$, $c = \delta\beta\epsilon$, since the brackets can safely be ignored by the first case handled above. Now by the rule for forming products,

$$(ab)c = (\alpha\delta^{-1})(\delta\beta\epsilon) = \alpha(\beta\epsilon) , \text{ and}$$

$$a(bc) = (\alpha\beta\gamma)(\gamma^{-1}\epsilon) = (\alpha\beta)\epsilon ,$$

and again by the first case, these both coincide with the reduced word $(x_1, \dots, x_{\ell-m+s}, z_{s+1}, \dots, z_n)$.

We now simplify the notation by dropping the commas and brackets and writing x^{-1} for \hat{x} ($x \in X \cup \hat{X}$), so that if ι is the inclusion of X in F , all we have to do is check Definition 1 verbatim. If G is a group and $\theta : X \rightarrow G$ a mapping, define

$$e\theta' = e , x^{-1}\theta' = (x\theta)^{-1} ,$$

$$(x_1 \dots x_n)\theta' = x_1\theta' \dots x_n\theta' ,$$

for any $x \in X$ and any reduced word $x_1 \dots x_n$. It is a routine

matter to check that θ' is a homomorphism extending θ . If θ'' is another, it must agree with θ' on X , and since X plainly generates F , we must have $\theta' = \theta''$.

Theorem 3. Let F be a group and X a subset of F ; then F is free on X if and only if the following two conditions hold:

- (i) X generates F ,
- (ii) there is no non-trivial relation between the elements of X , that is, if for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $x = x_1 \dots x_n$ where for all i , either $x_i \in X$ or $x_i^{-1} \in X$, and for all i with $1 \leq i \leq n-1$, $x_i x_{i+1} \neq e$, then $x \neq e$.

Proof. First suppose that F is free on X , so that X generates F by Theorem 1(i). Now let $X' = \{x' \mid x \in X\}$ be an abstract copy of X and consider the group of words $F(X')$ as constructed in the proof of Theorem 2. By Definition 1, the priming map $: X \rightarrow F(X')$ extends to a homomorphism $: F \rightarrow F(X')$ under which any reduced word $x \in F$ is mapped to a reduced word in $F(X')$ of the same length. Thus no reduced word in F of length $n \leq 1$ can be e , since this certainly holds in $F(X')$.

For the converse, note that conditions (i) and (ii) imply that every member of F is uniquely expressible as a reduced word in $X \cup X^{-1}$. The freeness of F on X is now verified in just the same way as that of $F(X)$ on X in the final part of the proof of Theorem 2.

Theorem 4. If X is a set of generators for a group G and $F(X)$ is the group of words in X , then there is an epimorphism $\theta: F(X) \rightarrow G$ fixing X elementwise. Every group is a homomorphic image of some free group.

Proof. The required epimorphism is just the (unique) extension to the free group $F(X)$ of the inclusion $: X \rightarrow G$; it is onto because $X \subseteq \text{Im } \theta \leq G$ and $\langle X \rangle = G$. The second assertion now follows from the simple observation that any group G has a set of generators, for example, $G = \langle G \rangle$.

EXERCISE 1. Let X be a subset of a group G . Prove that $\langle X \rangle$ is equal to the set of all finite products of members of X and their inverses. Deduce that if two homomorphisms from G to a group H agree on a set X of generators of G (i.e. $\langle X \rangle = G$), then they are equal.

EXERCISE 2. Given groups G and H , a subset X of G and a homomorphism $\theta: G \rightarrow H$, prove that $\langle X\theta \rangle = \langle X \rangle\theta$. Defining

$$d(G) = \min\{|X| \mid X \subseteq G, \langle X \rangle = G\},$$

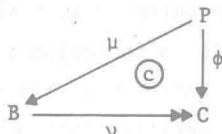
prove that for any homomorphic image H of G , $d(H) \leq d(G)$.

EXERCISE 3. Given a subset X of a group G , define the normal closure \bar{X} of X to be the intersection of all *normal* subgroups of G containing X . Prove that \bar{X} is just the set of all finite products of conjugates of members of X and their inverses. If H is a group and $\theta: G \rightarrow H$ an epimorphism, show that $\overline{X\theta} = \bar{X}\theta$.

EXERCISE 4. Let F be a free group of rank ω and G a group isomorphic to F . Prove that G is free of rank ω .

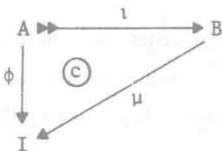
EXERCISE 5. A group G has a normal subgroup N such that G/N is free. Prove that G has a subgroup F such that $FN = G$ and $F \cap N = E$. (Such an F is called a *complement* for N in G .)

EXERCISE 6. Call a group P *projective* if given any epimorphism $\nu: B \rightarrow C$ of groups and any homomorphism $\phi: P \rightarrow C$, there is a homomorphism $\mu: P \rightarrow B$ such that $\phi = \mu\nu$:



Prove that P is projective if and only if P is free.

EXERCISE 7. Call a group I *injective* if given any monomorphism $\iota: A \rightarrow B$ of groups and any homomorphism $\phi: A \rightarrow I$, there is a homomorphism $\mu: B \rightarrow I$ such that $\phi = \iota\mu$:



Prove that I is injective if and only if I is trivial. (Hint (D.B.A. Epstein): Assume that the free group $A = F(x,y)$ is a subgroup of a group $B = \langle x,y,z \rangle$ in which $z^{-1}xz = y$, $z^{-1}yz = x$, $z^2 = e$.)

§2. The Nielsen-Schreier theorem

The first step in proving the Basis Theorem for finitely-generated abelian groups (see §6 below) is to show, at least in the case of finite rank, that subgroups of free abelian groups are free abelian, and that the rank of the subgroup does not exceed the rank of the group. This is a classical result of Dedekind, and our purpose here is to prove its non-abelian analogue, taking care to point out that the assertion about ranks does *not* hold in the non-abelian case. We shall consider the free group $F = F(X)$ on an arbitrary set X , invoking the Axiom of Choice to assert that X can be well-ordered. The intuitionistic reader is free to assume that X is finite, since this is the only case of practical interest to us.

The proof we give is essentially due to Schreier, and is divided into a number of steps, the most important for the sequel (§12) being embodied in Lemma 3.

1. The ordering of F . Given that X is well-ordered, so is X^{-1} and so also is $T = X \cup X^{-1} = X^{\pm 1}$; for example, if $x, y \in X$, define $x < y^{-1}$; and

$$x^{-1} < y^{-1} \Leftrightarrow x < y .$$

Now the elements of F are words of the form

$$w = x_1 \dots x_n, \quad x_i \in T, \quad x_i x_{i+1} \neq e ;$$

we call n the *length* of the word w , $n = \ell(w)$, and take $\ell(e) = 0$. For $v, w \in F$, we define $v < w$ if $\ell(v) < \ell(w)$, and order words of equal length lexicographically, that is, if

$$v = x_1 \dots x_n \neq w = y_1 \dots y_n, \quad x_i, y_i \in T,$$

and m is least such that $x_m \neq y_m$, we define

$$v < w \Leftrightarrow x_m < y_m .$$

The result is easily seen to be a well-ordering of F . For example, if $X = \{x, y\}$, then with respect to the ordering $x < y < x^{-1} < y^{-1}$ of T , the first few elements of F are $e < x < y < x^{-1} < y^{-1} < x^2 < xy < xy^{-1} < yx < y^2 < yx^{-1} < x^{-1}y < x^{-2} < x^{-1}y^{-1} < y^{-1}x < y^{-1}x^{-1} < y^{-2} < x^3 < x^2y < x^2y^{-1} < xyx$. Note that in any subgroup H of F , the least element is always e (since this is least in F) and if, for example, $H = \langle xyx \rangle$, the least element of the coset Hxy^2 is $x^{-1}y$. That F is well-ordered is particularly easy to see in the case of finite rank, for then there are only finitely many words of any given length.

Lemma 1. *Let*

$$w = x_1 \dots x_n, \quad x_i \in T, \quad n \geq 1,$$

be a reduced word in F ; then, for $v \in F$,

$$v < x_1 \dots x_{n-1} \Rightarrow vx_n < w .$$

Proof. If $\ell(v) < n-1$, then $\ell(vx_n) \leq \ell(v) + 1 < n = \ell(w)$, and the result holds. Otherwise

$$v = y_1 \dots y_{n-1}, y_i \in T,$$

and there is a least m such that $y_m \neq x_m$ and then $y_m < x_m$. If $y_{n-1}x_n = e$, $\ell(v) = n-2 < n = \ell(w)$ and we are done. If not

$$vx_n = y_1 \dots y_{n-1}x_n,$$

and, since $\ell(vx_n) = \ell(w)$, $y_1 = x_1, \dots, y_{m-1} = x_{m-1}$ and $y_m < x_m$, we have $vx_n < w$, as required.

2. The Schreier transversal. We fix a subgroup H of F once and for all. Recall that a right coset of H in F is a subset of F of the form

$$Hx = \{hx \mid h \in H\}$$

for $x \in F$. The key property of cosets is that

$$Hx = Hy \text{ or } Hx \cap Hy = \emptyset, x, y \in F.$$

The cosets of H thus yield a partition of F , and we can find a subset U of F such that, for any $x \in F$, there is exactly one element $u \in U$ for which $x \in Hu$, that is,

$$F = \bigcup_{u \in U} Hu$$

Such a subset U is called a (right) transversal for H in F . The Schreier transversal (with respect to the given ordering of T) is obtained if the representative in U of each coset is taken to be the least element of that coset. Alternatively, we list the cosets Hx as x runs over F in ascending order, thus:

$$He, Hx_1, Hx_2, \dots$$