

# THOMPSON'S GROUP IS DISTORTED IN THE THOMPSON-STEIN GROUPS

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ABSTRACT. We show that the inclusion map of the generalized Thompson groups  $F(n_i)$  is exponentially distorted in the Thompson-Stein groups  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  whenever  $k > 1$ . One consequence of this is that  $F$  is exponentially distorted in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  for  $k > 1$  whenever  $n_i = 2^m$  for some  $m$  (whenever no  $i, m$  exist such that  $n_i = 2^m$ , there is no obviously “natural” inclusion map of  $F$  into  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ ). This is the first known example in which the natural embedding of one of the Thompson-type groups into another is not quasi-isometric.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In this paper, we use some of the motivating ideas behind the proofs of the metric properties developed in [18] to show that the inclusion map of the generalized Thompson groups  $F(n_i)$  into  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  is exponentially distorted for  $k > 1$ . A quasi-isometric embedding of a subgroup into a larger group induces a metric on the subgroup that is equivalent to subgroup metric. In contrast, when an embedding is not quasi-isometric, the subgroup distortion measures the extent to which this metric is distorted by the embedding map (for formal definitions, see section 4).

The results of this paper give the first known example of the natural embedding of one Thompson-type group being distorted inside another. Burillo, Cleary and Stein showed that  $F(n)$  is quasi-isometrically embedded into  $F(m)$  for all  $n, m \in \mathbb{N} - \{1\}$  (see [7]), and along with Taback, that  $F$  is quasi-isometrically embedded in Thompson's group  $T$  (see [8]). Burillo, Cleary, Taback, Guba, and Sapir have used different methods to show that  $F^n \times \mathbb{Z}^m$  is quasi-isometrically embedded in  $F$  for all  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  (see [6], [11], [13], and [14]). Since the development of the main theorem of this paper, Burillo and Cleary have used similar methods as those described here to prove that the canonical embeddings of Thompson's groups  $F$  and  $V$  are also distorted in the higher dimensional Thompson's group  $nV$  (see [9]).

Robert Thompson introduced Thompson's groups  $F \subset T \subset V$  in the early 1960s (see [17]). These three groups have provided many interesting group theoretic counterexamples:  $T$  and  $V$  were the first known infinite, simple, finitely-presented groups, and  $F$  was the first known example of a torsion-free infinite-dimensional  $FP_\infty$  group. For more information about  $F$ ,  $T$  and  $V$ , see [10].

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$F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  is a generalization of the group  $F$  which was first explored in depth by Melanie Stein in [16]. Her work is related to the work of Higman, Brown, Geoghegan, Brin, Squier, Guzmán, Bieri and Strebel, who have all explored general classes in this family of groups, each of which can be considered to be a generalization of the Thompson groups (see [15], [5], [4], [2], [3], and [1] for details).

**Definition 1.1** (Thompson-Stein group  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ ). *The Thompson-Stein group  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ , where  $n_1, \dots, n_k \in \{2, 3, 4, \dots\}$ ,  $n_i$  and  $n_j$  are relatively prime for all  $i, j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ , and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , is the group of piecewise-linear orientation-preserving homeomorphisms of the closed unit interval with finitely-many breakpoints in  $\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{n_1 \dots n_k}]$  and slopes in the group  $\langle n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k \rangle$  in each linear piece.  $F = F(2)$ .*

In [16], Stein explored the homological and simplicity properties of  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ ; she showed that they are of type  $FP_\infty$  and finitely presented, and gave a technique for computing infinite and finite presentations. In [18], using Stein's presentations, we developed the theory of tree-pair diagram representation for elements of  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ , gave a unique normal form, and calculated sharp upper and lower bounds on the metric in terms of the number of leaves in the minimal tree-pair diagram representative. The proofs in this paper use the normal form results and some of the same motivating ideas behind the metric approximations used in [18].

The results of this article hold for all groups of the form  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  which satisfy the condition  $n_1 - 1 | n_j - 1$  for all  $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ ; for the duration of this paper, when we refer to the group  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ , this divisibility criteria will be implied. Groups which do not satisfy this criteria will have a significantly different group presentation, and therefore require alternate normal form and metric techniques than those presented here or in [18]. Much of the introductory material in this paper is summarized from [18]; more detail can be found there.

## 2. REPRESENTING ELEMENTS USING TREE-PAIR DIAGRAMS

The proofs in this paper depend heavily on the representation of elements of  $F(m)$  and  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  by tree-pair diagrams; see [18] and [19] for more details.

**Definition 2.1** ( $n$ -ary caret, tree, tree-pair diagram). *An  $n$ -ary caret, or caret of type  $n$ , is a graph which has  $n + 1$  vertices joined by  $n$  edges: one vertex has degree  $n$  (the parent) and the rest have degree 1 (the children).*

*An  $(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ -ary tree is a graph formed by joining a finite number of carets by identifying the child vertex of one caret with the parent vertex of another so that every caret in the tree has a type in  $\{n_1, \dots, n_k\}$ . An  $(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ -ary tree-pair diagram is an ordered pair of  $(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ -ary trees with the same number of leaves.*

If a vertex in a tree has degree 1, it is referred to as a *leaf*.

An  $(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ -ary tree represents a subdivision of  $[0, 1]$  using the following recursive process, which assigns a subinterval of  $[0, 1]$  to each leaf in the tree: the root vertex represents the interval  $[0, 1]$ ; for a given  $n$ -ary caret in the tree with parent vertex representing  $[a, b]$ , the  $n$  child vertices represent the subintervals  $[a, a + \frac{1}{n}]$ ,  $[a + \frac{1}{n}, a + \frac{2}{n}]$ , ...,  $[b - \frac{1}{n}, b]$  respectively.

Every element of  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  can be represented by an  $(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ -ary tree-pair diagram and vice versa. We number the leaves in a tree beginning with zero, in increasing order from left to right; a leaf's placement in this order is determined by the relative position of the subinterval within  $[0, 1]$  which it represents. Once

the leaves of each tree in a tree-pair diagram are numbered, then the element of  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  which it represents is the map which takes the subinterval of  $[0, 1]$  represented by the  $i$ th leaf in the domain tree to the subinterval of  $[0, 1]$  represented by the  $i$ th leaf in the range tree. Because every element of  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  is a piecewise-linear map with fixed endpoints, it can be determined solely by the ordered subintervals in the domain and range. For example, the element given in Figure 1 is just the map:  $\left\{ \left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right], \left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}\right], \left[\frac{3}{4}, 1\right] \right\} \rightarrow \left\{ \left[0, \frac{1}{3}\right], \left[\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right], \left[\frac{2}{3}, 1\right] \right\}$ .

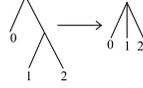


FIGURE 1. An example element of  $F(2, 3)$

**2.1. Equivalence and Minimality of Tree-Pair Diagrams.** We will analyze properties of  $F(m)$  and  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  by identifying each group element with an equivalence class of tree-pair diagrams, so we must have criteria for equivalence. And because our metric is based on using a minimal tree-pair diagram representative for an element, we also give minimality criteria.

**Definition 2.2** (equivalent trees and tree-pair diagrams). *Two trees are equivalent if they represent the same subdivision of the unit interval; two tree-pair diagrams are equivalent if they represent the same element of  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ .*

An *exposed caret pair* in a tree-pair diagram is a pair of carets of the same type, one in each tree, such that all the child vertices of each caret are leaves, and both sets of leaves have identical leaf index numbers. Exposed caret pairs can be canceled in a tree-pair diagram to produce an equivalent tree-pair diagram with fewer leaves. Analogously, we can add a pair of identical carets to a tree-pair diagram to the leaves with the same index number in each tree and obtain an equivalent tree-pair diagram.

**Definition 2.3** (minimal tree-pair diagrams). *An  $(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ -ary tree-pair diagram is minimal if it has the smallest number of leaves of any tree-pair diagram in the equivalence class representing a given element of  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ . In  $F(m)$ , a tree-pair diagram is minimal iff it contains no exposed caret pairs.*

**Definition 2.4** (leaf valence,  $\mathbf{v}(l)$ ). *For any given  $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ , the  $n_j$ -valence of a leaf  $l \in T$  is the number of  $n_j$ -ary carets which have an edge on the path from the root vertex to  $l$ ; it is denoted by  $v_{n_j}(l)$ . If we refer to just the valence of  $l$ , or  $\mathbf{v}(l)$ , this refers to the vector  $\langle v_{n_1}(l), \dots, v_{n_k}(l) \rangle$ .*

**Theorem 2.1** (Wladis, [18]). *The  $(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ -ary trees  $T$  and  $S$  are equivalent iff  $L(T) = L(S)$  and  $\mathbf{v}(l_i) = \mathbf{v}(k_i)$  for all leaves  $l_i \in T$ ,  $k_i \in S$ .*

**2.2. Tree-pair diagram composition.** To find  $ba$  for  $b, a \in F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ ,  $b = (T_-, T_+)$  and  $a = (S_-, S_+)$ , we need to make  $S_+$  equivalent to  $T_-$ . This is accomplished by adding carets to  $T_-$  and  $S_+$  (and by extension to the leaves with the same index numbers in  $T_+$  and  $S_-$  respectively) until the valence of all leaves of both  $T_-$  and  $S_+$  are the same. If we let  $T_-^*, T_+^*, S_-^*, S_+^*$  denote  $T_-, T_+, S_-, S_+$ , respectively, after this addition of carets; then the (possibly nonminimal) product is  $(S_-^*, T_+^*)$  (see Figure 2). The process of tree-pair diagram composition always terminates (see [18]).

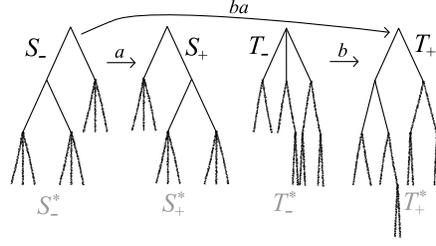


FIGURE 2. Composition of two elements of  $F(2,3)$ . Solid lines indicate the carets present in the original elements  $a$  and  $b$ , and hatched lines indicate carets that must be added during composition. The tree-pair diagram representative of  $ba$  is the pair which contains the domain tree of  $a$  and the range tree of  $b$ , with both hatched and solid line carets included.

### 3. THE METRIC IN $F(n)$ AND $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$

3.0.1. *Standard Finite Presentation.* In [16] Stein gave a method for finding the finite presentations for the groups  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ ; in [18] we computed the exact finite presentations explicitly. For the sake of simplicity, we give the presentation for  $F(2,3)$  only here. For presentations for  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  more generally, see [18].

**Theorem 3.1** (Finite Presentation of Thompson's group  $F(2,3)$ , [16], [18]). *Thompson's group  $F(2,3)$  has the following finite presentation (see Figure 3.1):*

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_0, y_0, z_0, x_1, y_1, z_1, \dots \\ \gamma_j x_i = x_i \gamma_{j+1}, \gamma_j z_i = z_i \gamma_{j+2} \text{ when } i < j \text{ for } \gamma = x, y, z; \\ y_{i+1} z_i = y_i x_{i+1} x_i; x_i z_{i+1} z_i = z_i x_{i+2} x_{i+1} x_i \text{ for all } i \end{array} \right\}$$

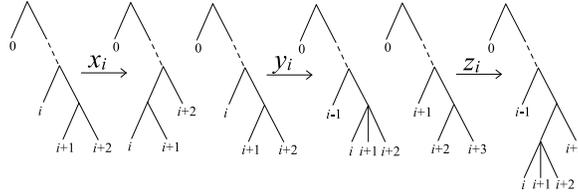


FIGURE 3. Infinite generators for  $F(2,3)$ .

The standard presentation for  $F$  (see [4]) is:

$$F = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots | x_j x_i = x_i x_{j+1} \text{ for } i < j\}$$

3.0.2. *The Metric.* It is well known that the metric in  $F$  and  $F(n)$  is quasi-isometric to the number of carets (or equivalently to the number of leaves) in the minimal tree-pair diagram representative of a given group element. However, this does not hold for  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  when  $k > 1$ ; it is this fact which will be exploited to show that  $F$  is distorted in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ .

**Notation 3.1** ( $|x|_{F(n)}$ ,  $|x|_{F(n_1, \dots, n_k)}$ ). *The notation  $|x|_{F(n)}$  and  $|x|_{F(n_1, \dots, n_k)}$  will be used to represent the length of the element  $x$  in  $F(n)$  and  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  respectively, with respect to the standard finite generating set.*

**Notation 3.2** ( $L(T)$ ,  $L(T_-, T_+)$ ,  $L(x)$ ). *The notation  $L(T)$ ,  $L(T_-, T_+)$ , and  $L(x)$  denotes the number of leaves in the tree  $T$ , in either tree of the tree-pair diagram  $(T_-, T_+)$ , and in either tree of the minimal tree-pair diagram for  $x$  respectively.*

We note that both trees in a tree-pair diagram have the same number of leaves.

**Theorem 3.2** (Cleary and Fordham [12]; Burillo, Cleary, and Stein [7]). *For  $x \in F(n)$ ,  $|x|_{F(n)}$  is quasi-isometric to  $L(x)$  (see Definition 4.1 for formal definition).*

**Theorem 3.3** (Wladis, [18]). *There exist fixed  $B, C \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\forall x \in F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$*

$$\log_B L(x) \leq |w|_{F(n_1, \dots, n_k)} \leq CL(w)$$

The bounds given in Theorem 3.3 are sharp; see [18] for details.

3.0.3. *Normal Form.* A unique normal form exists for  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  with respect to the standard infinite presentations. This normal form essentially provides an algorithm for converting a tree-pair diagram into an algebraic expression in the normal form and vice versa. For the main proofs of this paper, we will introduce several elements for which we will give both an algebraic expression in the normal form and a tree-pair diagram representative. To understand the proofs that follow, one need only consider the tree-pair diagrams, and one need not see explicitly how the algebraic expression comes from the tree-pair diagram representative, so for the sake of space and simplicity of presentation, we have omitted a full explanation of how to write out the normal form for a given element in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ ; however, full details on this algorithm can be found in [18].

#### 4. QUASI-ISOMETRY AND SUBGROUP DISTORTION

A quasi-isometrically embedded subgroup has a metric that is equivalent to the induced metric within the larger group. In contrast, an embedding which is not quasi-isometric can be said to be distorted, and the type of this distortion measures the extent to which the metric is distorted by the embedding map.

**Definition 4.1** (quasi-isometric embedding, distortion function). *The groups  $X$  and  $Y$  are quasi-isometric iff there exist fixed  $c_1, c_2 > 0$  and an embedding  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  such that:*

$$\frac{1}{c_1}|x|_X - c_2 \leq |f(x)|_Y \leq c_1|x|_X + c_2$$

where  $|x|_X$  and  $|x|_Y$  are the lengths of  $x \in X$  and  $x \in Y$  respectively, with respect to a fixed finite generating set. When  $X \subset Y$ , the embedding  $f$  will be assumed to be the inclusion map, so we often omit explicit mention of the embedding itself. Let  $x \in X \subset Y$ . Then the distortion function is:

$$D(r) = \frac{1}{r} \max \left\{ |x|_X, |x|_Y \mid |x|_Y < r \right\}$$

For finitely generated groups, the distortion function is bounded if and only if the inclusion map of  $X$  into  $Y$  is a quasi-isometric embedding. When  $D(r)$  is a function that grows without bound as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , then we say that  $X$  is distorted in  $Y$ ; the function type of  $D(r)$  determines the type of the distortion (i.e. we say that a subgroup with exponential  $D(r)$  is exponentially distorted). We will use the notation  $\sim$  to denote quasi-isometry. We note that the property of quasi-isometry is transitive; whenever  $X \sim Y$  and  $Y \sim Z$ ,  $X \sim Z$ .

4.1.  $F$  is exponentially distorted in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ . We begin by proving that the inclusion map of  $F(n_i)$  is exponentially distorted in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  whenever there exists  $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$  such that  $n_i - 1 | n_j - 1$  by constructing a distorted element in  $F(n_i)$  explicitly. Then, in the next section, we will generalize this result to all  $i \in \{1, \dots, l\}$ .

**Definition 4.2** (balanced tree). *We say that a tree is balanced if  $\mathbf{v}(l_i) = \mathbf{v}(l_j)$  for all leaves  $l_i, l_j \in T$ .*

**Theorem 4.1.**  $F(n_i)$  is exponentially distorted in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  for  $k > 1$  whenever there exists  $n_j$  such that  $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ ,  $i \neq j$ , and  $n_i - 1 | n_j - 1$ .

*Proof.* For the sake of readability, we will restrict all the explicit details of this proof to the canonical embedding of  $F$  into  $F(2, 3)$  since this is the simplest case. However, this proof holds for all  $F(n_i)$  that meet the stated conditions of the theorem; at key points in this proof, we will indicate what adjustments need to be made to generalize the results to the general case.

We will show that  $w = y_0^{-n} x_0 y_0^n$  is such that  $|w|_F \geq \frac{1}{A} 3^n$  for some  $A \in \mathbb{N}$  by showing that  $L(w) \geq \frac{1}{A} 3^n$ . We consider the product of the representative tree-pair diagrams given in Figure 4.1. In order to perform this composition, a

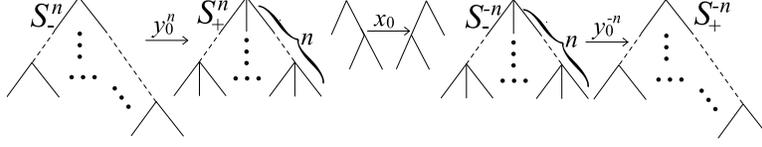


FIGURE 4. The product  $w = y_0^{-n} x_0 y_0^n$ .

binary caret must be added to every leaf in  $S_-^n$  and  $S_+^n$ , to produce  $(S_-^n)^1$  and  $(S_+^n)^1$  respectively. Then a second binary caret must be added to the leaves with index numbers  $3^n, \dots, 2 \cdot 3^n - 1$  in both  $(S_-^n)^1$  and  $(S_+^n)^1$  to produce  $(S_-^n)^2$  and  $(S_+^n)^2$  respectively. Then a balanced  $n$ -level tertiary tree (identical to  $S_+^n$ ) must be added to each leaf of  $T_-$  and  $T_+$ . And finally, a binary caret must be added to each leaf in  $S_-^{-n}$  and  $S_+^{-n}$  to produce  $(S_-^{-n})^1$  and  $(S_+^{-n})^1$  respectively, and then another binary caret must be added to the leaves with index numbers  $0, \dots, 3^n - 1$  in  $(S_-^{-n})^1$  and  $(S_+^{-n})^1$  to produce  $(S_-^{-n})^2$  and  $(S_+^{-n})^2$  respectively. It is clear then that  $((S_-^n)^2, (S_+^n)^2)$  is a tree-pair diagram for  $w$  whose number of leaves is  $2 \cdot 3^n - 1$ . However,  $((S_-^n)^2, (S_+^n)^2)$  may not be minimal. In fact, there exist exposed caret pairs in  $((S_-^n)^2, (S_+^n)^2)$ , but not enough to significantly reduce the number of leaves in the tree-pair diagram; to see this, we list the leftmost leaf index number of every exposed caret in  $((S_-^n)^2, (S_+^n)^2)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (S_-^n)^2 : & \quad 0, 2, 4, \dots, 3^n - 3, \text{ (even)} \\ & \quad \mathbf{3^n, 3^n + 2, 3^n + 4, \dots, 2 \cdot 3^n - 1, 2 \cdot 3^n + 1, 2 \cdot 3^n + 3, \dots, 3 \cdot 3^n - 2} \text{ (odd)} \\ (S_+^n)^2 : & \quad 0, 2, 4, \dots, 3^n - 3, \mathbf{3^n - 1, 3^n + 1, 3^n + 3, \dots, 2 \cdot 3^n - 2}, \text{ (even)} \\ & \quad 2 \cdot 3^n + 1, 2 \cdot 3^n + 3, 2 \cdot 3^n + 5, \dots, 3 \cdot 3^n - 2 \text{ (odd)} \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that all exposed carets with leftmost leaf number in bold cannot cancel, because these leaves in the domain tree have odd index numbers and these leaves in the range tree have even index numbers. So  $L(w) \geq (2 \cdot 3^n - 2) - (3^n - 1) = 3^n + 1$ ,

and because the metric in  $F$  is quasi-isometric to the number of leaves in the minimal tree-pair diagram representative of an element, there exists  $A \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|w|_F \geq \frac{1}{A}3^n$ . However, clearly  $|w|_{F(2,3)} \leq 2n + 1$ .

To generalize this proof for  $F(n_i)$  in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ , we begin by using the convention that  $(y_l)_l$  is the identity for all  $l \in \mathbb{N}$  (we recall that  $(y_i)_l$  is a generator only when  $i > 1$ ). We let

$$Y_{i,j} = (y_j)_0 (y_i)^{-1} \binom{n_j-1}{n_i-1}_{(n_i-1)} \cdots (y_i)^{-1}_{2(n_i-1)} (y_i)^{-1}_{n_i-1} (y_i)_0^{-1}$$

which is represented by the tree-pair diagram given in Figure 5(a). (In the case  $i = 1$ , we simply have  $Y_{i,j} = (y_j)_0$ .)

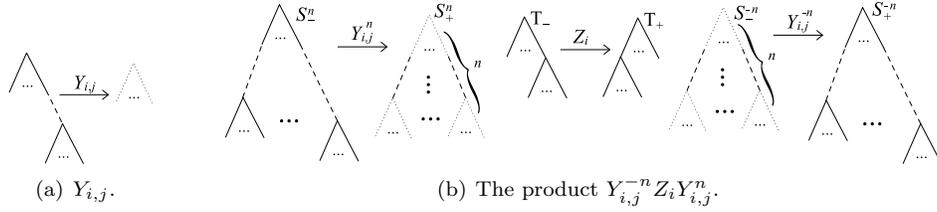


FIGURE 5. Solid carets are  $n_i$ -ary and dotted carets are  $n_j$ -ary.

Then we let  $Z_i = (y_i)_0 (z_i)_0 (y_i)^{-1}_{n_i-1} (y_i)_0^{-1}$  and we define  $w_{i,j,n} = Y_{i,j}^{-n} Z_i Y_{i,j}^n$ . We consider the product  $w_{i,j,n} = Y_{i,j}^{-n} Z_i Y_{i,j}^n$  given in Figure 5(b) the same we considered  $y_0^n x_0 y_0^{-n}$  for  $F$  in  $F(2,3)$  in Figure 4.1. After adding all carets to each tree-pair diagram in Figure 5(b) as necessary in order for composition to take place, the resulting tree-pair diagram  $((S_-^n)^2, (S_+^n)^2)$  for  $w_{i,j,n}$  will have exposed carets whose leftmost leaf index numbers are (\* below denotes “not divisible by  $n_i$ ”):

$$\begin{aligned} (S_-^n)^2: & \quad 0, n_i, 2n_i, 3n_i, \dots, (c-1)n_i, \text{ for } c = \lfloor \frac{n_j^n}{n_i} \rfloor \text{ (divisible by } n_i) \\ & \quad \mathbf{(n_i-1)n_j^n}, \mathbf{(n_i-1)n_j^n + n_i}, \mathbf{(n_i-1)n_j^n + 2n_i}, \dots, (*) \\ & \quad \mathbf{(2n_i-1)n_j^n - (c+2)n_i}, \mathbf{2(n_i-1)n_j^n - (c+1)n_i}, \dots, \mathbf{(2n_i-1)n_j^n - n_i} (*) \\ (S_+^n)^2: & \quad 0, n_i, 2n_i, 3n_i, \dots, (c-1)n_i, \mathbf{cn_i}, \dots, \mathbf{(n_j^n-1)n_i}, \text{ (divisible by } n_i) \\ & \quad \mathbf{2(n_i-1)n_j^n - (c+1)n_i}, \mathbf{2(n_i-1)n_j^n - cn_i}, \dots, \mathbf{(2n_i-1)n_j^n - n_i} (*) \end{aligned}$$

Because  $n_i$  and  $n_j$  are relatively prime, the carets with leftmost leaf numbers in bold will not cancel.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } L(w_{i,j,n}) & \geq [(2n_i-1)n_j^n - (c+2)n_i] - [cn_i] = (2n_i-1)n_j^n - (2c-2)n_i \\ & > (2n_i-3)n_j^n - 2n_i > n_j^n - 2n_i \text{ (since } cn_i < n_j^n \text{ and } n_i \geq 2) \end{aligned}$$

However, for for  $d \geq 3$ :

$$\begin{aligned} |w_{i,j,n}|_{F(n_1, \dots, n_k)} & \leq |Y_{i,j}^{-n}|_{F(n_1, \dots, n_k)} + |Z_i|_{F(n_1, \dots, n_k)} + |Y_{i,j}^n|_{F(n_1, \dots, n_k)} \\ & \leq dn + 4 + dn = 2dn + 4 \end{aligned}$$

□

TABLE 1. See minimal tree-pair diagrams for  $A_2, Z_2$  in Fig. 7.

when $i = 2$	general form for arbitrary $i$
$A_2 = x_0 y_0^{-1}$	$A_i = (z_1)_0^{\frac{n_i-1}{n_1-1}-1} (y_i)_0^{-1}$
$Z_2 = y_1 z_1 y_3^{-1} y_1^{-1}$	$Z_i = (y_i)_{n_1-1} (z_i)_{n_1-1} (y_i)_{n_1+n_i-2}^{-1} (y_i)_{n_1-2}^{-1}$
$\lambda_2 = x_0 y_1^{-1}$ (see Fig. 6(b))	$\lambda_i$ is an element of the form given in Fig. 6(a)

4.2.  $F(n_i)$  is exponentially distorted in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ . We now extend the results of Section 4.1 to all  $n_i$  such that  $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ . We will again do this by explicitly constructing a product in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  that produces an element in  $F(n_i)$  so that the number of leaves in the product is logarithmic with respect to the number of factors in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ . Without the added condition that  $n_i - 1 | n_j - 1$  for some  $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ , this product will have to be more complex than the one constructed in the last section; however, the underlying structure will be similar. We begin by defining elements of  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  which will occur in our product. As in the previous section, for the sake of clarity we give our detailed proof for the embedding of  $F(3)$  into  $F(2, 3)$ , including notes indicating how this can be generalized for any  $F(n_i)$  into  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  that meet the conditions of Theorem 4.2.

**Notation 4.1.** For a fixed  $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$  we define  $A_i, Z_i, \lambda_i$  as given in Table 1.

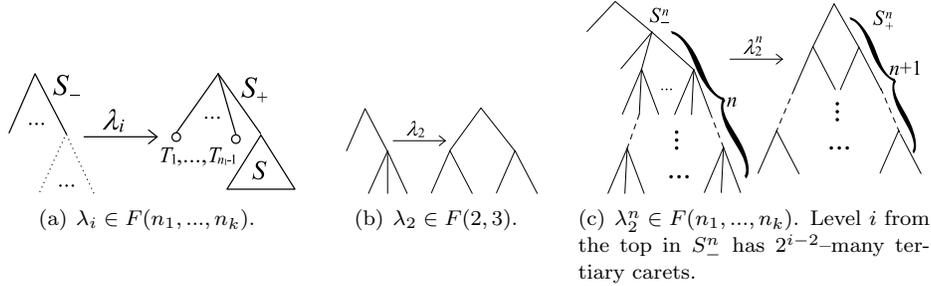


FIGURE 6.  $T_1, \dots, T_{n_1-1}$  are (possibly empty) subtrees of  $D(S)$ -many levels or less;  $S$  is a balanced  $n_1$ -ary tree where  $L(S) \leq n_i$ . Solid carets are  $n_1$ -ary and dotted carets are  $n_i$ -ary.

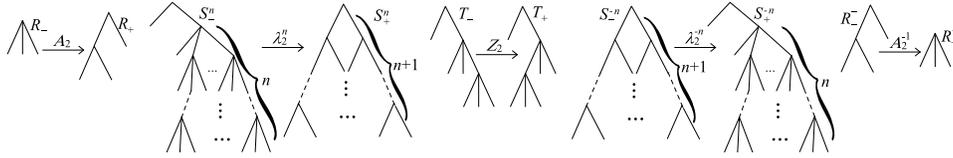
**Theorem 4.2.** The canonical embedding of  $F(n_i)$  is exponentially distorted in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ .

*Proof.* We will establish this by showing that the product

$$W_{2,n} = (\lambda_2^n A_2)^{-1} z_2 (\lambda_2^n A_2)$$

is an element of  $F(3)$ , and that it has a minimal tree-pair diagram representative whose number of leaves is of the order  $B^n$  for some fixed  $B > 1$ . All of the following steps generalize in a straightforward way to show the same result for  $F(n_i)$  in  $F(n_1, \dots, n_k)$  by simply replacing all the elements  $A_2, \lambda_2, Z_2$  with their general formulations.

It is clear that  $|W_{2,n}|_{F(2,3)} < 4n+8$  while  $|W_{2,n}|_{F(3)} \sim L(W_{2,n})$ . Straightforward computation of the product  $W_{2,n}$  (see Figure 7) shows that we must do the following:


 FIGURE 7. The product  $(\lambda_2^n A_2)^{-1} Z_2 (\lambda_2^n A_2)$ .

- 1) Add  $n$ -many levels of binary carets to each leaf in the trees  $T_-$  and  $T_+$  of  $Z_2$ ;
- 2) Add a tertiary caret to the  $2^n$ -many rightmost leaves of  $S_+^n$  and  $S_-^n$  (and by extension to the  $2^n$ -many rightmost leaves of  $S_+^{n+1}$  and  $S_-^{n+1}$ ), and then add a tertiary caret to the rightmost  $2^n$ -many leaves of these added tertiary carets in  $S_+^n$  (and  $S_-^n$  respectively) and to the leftmost  $2^n$ -many leaves of these added tertiary carets in  $S_-^n$  (and  $S_+^n$  respectively).

We can then see that the (not necessarily minimal) tree-pair diagram of the resulting product  $\lambda_2^{-n} Z_2 \lambda_2^n$  has  $3 \cdot 2^{n+1}$  leaves, and the only non-tertiary carets in each tree are the root carets. Conjugating this product by  $A_2$  then produces a tree-pair diagram for  $W_{2,n}$  with  $(3 \cdot 2^{n+1} + 1)$ -many leaves consisting entirely of tertiary carets (so clearly  $W_{2,n} \in F(3)$ ).

Now we need only show that a significant number of these leaves will not cancel. Using a similar argument to that in the proof of Theorem 4.1 where we tracked the leaf numbers and their divisors, it is easy to show that less than  $2^{n+1}$ -many leaves will cancel, so we can conclude that  $L(W_{2,n}) \geq 2^{n+1}$ .  $\square$

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