

# Subword complexity in free groups

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## From the monoid to the group

$A$  alphabet (always finite in this talk)

$A^* = \{\text{words written with letters in } A\}$  is the free monoid on  $A$  (product by concatenation).

$A^*$  embeds into  $F(A)$ , the free group on  $A$ .

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# The free group on $A$

To describe  $F(A)$ , we need the alphabet  $A^{\pm 1} = A \cup A^{-1}$ . An element of  $F(A)$  is a *reduced* word on  $A^{\pm 1}$  (no  $aa^{-1}$  or  $a^{-1}a$ )

The product is concatenation/reduction. Every element has an inverse:  $(aba^{-2}b^3)^{-1} = b^{-3}a^2b^{-1}a^{-1}$ .

## Automorphisms of free groups

A key difference between  $A^*$  and  $F(A)$ : the group is much more symmetric.

A free group  $F$  has a large group of automorphisms  $\text{Aut}(F)$ .

Example:  $a \mapsto ab^{-1}$ ,  $b \mapsto a^{-1}$  is an automorphism (with inverse  $a \mapsto b^{-1}$ ,  $b \mapsto a^{-1}b^{-1}$ ).

To apply an automorphism to a word, apply it to each letter and reduce:  $a^{-1}ba \mapsto ba^{-1}a^{-1}ab^{-1} = ba^{-1}b^{-1}$ .

The study of  $\text{Aut}(F)$  and  $\text{Out}(F) = \text{Aut}(F)/\text{Inn}(F)$  (where  $\text{Inn}(F)$  is the group of inner automorphisms  $i_x : g \mapsto xgx^{-1}$ ) is a very active topic.

For instance, Bestvina-Feighn-Handel proved a Tits alternative: every subgroup  $H \subset \text{Out}(F)$  either contains a nonabelian free group or has an abelian subgroup of finite index.

In particular, either  $H$  contains  $\alpha, \beta$  satisfying no relation, or  $\alpha^N \beta^N = \beta^N \alpha^N$  for all  $\alpha, \beta \in H$  (with  $N$  depending only on the rank of  $F$ ).

## Abstract free groups

Other point of view on the symmetry of free groups: like a vector space, a free group  $F$  may exist as an abstract object, with no preferred basis  $A$  (e.g. a subspace/subgroup).

An element of  $F$  is represented by a word once we choose a basis. Different bases give words that differ by an automorphism (“transition matrix”).

We are interested in *intrinsic* properties of elements of  $F$ .

Two equivalent viewpoints:

- view  $F$  as abstract, look for properties independent of the basis  $A$  chosen to make  $F$  concrete
- view  $F$  as  $F(A)$ , look for properties of words which are invariant under automorphisms.

I'll focus on *length* and *complexity*.

## Length

Given a basis  $A$  of a free group  $F$ , the (word) length  $\ell_A(g)$  of any  $g \in F$  is the length of the reduced word in  $A^{\pm 1}$  representing  $g$ , e.g.  $\ell_A(aba^{-2}b) = 5$ .

If  $B$  is another basis,  $\ell_A$  and  $\ell_B$  are Lipschitz-equivalent:  $\exists M$  (depending on  $A, B$ ) such that

$$\frac{1}{M} \leq \frac{\ell_A(g)}{\ell_B(g)} \leq M \quad \forall g$$

(applying an automorphism does not change length of words too much).

In particular, statements like  $\ell(g_n) = O(n^2)$ , or  $\frac{\ell(g_n)}{\ell(h_n)} \rightarrow \infty$ , make sense.

## A digression: groups as geometric objects

If  $G$  is an arbitrary group, with a finite generating set  $A$ , define  $\ell_A(g)$  as the minimal length of a word in  $A^{\pm 1}$  representing  $g$ .

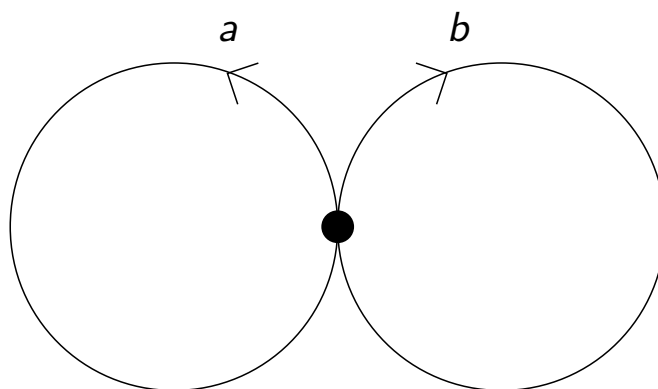
Different generating sets give Lipschitz-equivalent length functions ( $\rightarrow$  growth of groups).

$G$  may be viewed as a metric space, with distance  $d_A(g, h) = \ell_A(g^{-1}h)$ .

The large-scale geometry of  $G$  is independent of  $A$ . This is a key idea of geometric group theory (Gromov).

## Back to free groups: geometric interpretation of length

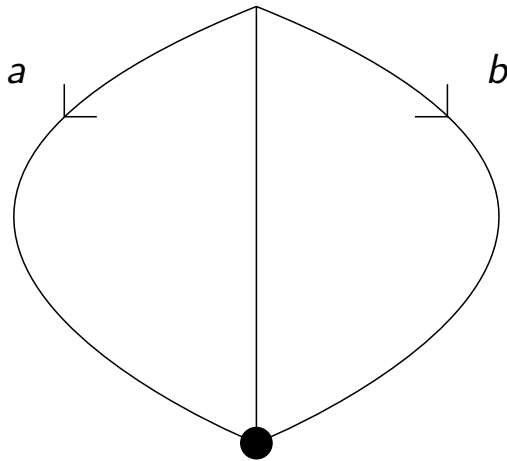
The length of  $g$  is the length of the non-backtracking loop representing it.



$a, b$  have length 1

$a^2, ab, a^{-1}b$  have length 2.

Using a different graph with the same fundamental group gives a Lipschitz-equivalent length function.

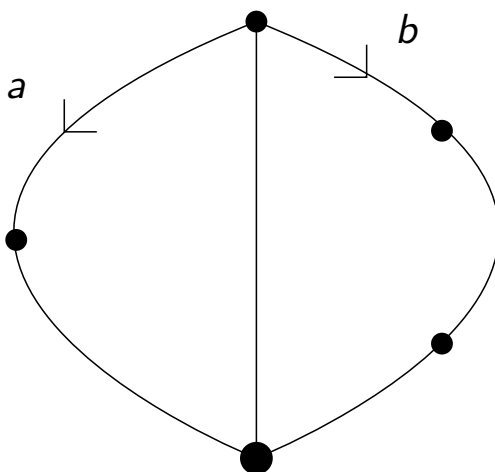


$$\ell(a) = \ell(b) = 2$$

$$\ell(ab) = \ell(ba^{-1}) = 4$$

$$\ell(a^{-1}b) = 2$$

One may also assign variable lengths to edges (e.g. subdivide).



$$\ell(a) = 3, \ell(b) = 4$$

$$\ell(ab) = \ell(ba^{-1}) = 7$$

$$\ell(a^{-1}b) = 5$$

A right-infinite word on an alphabet has a complexity function  $p(n)$ , counting subwords of length  $n$ .

Right-infinite reduced words on  $A^{\pm 1}$  form the boundary of  $F(A)$ .

A free group  $F$  has an intrinsic boundary  $\partial F$  (space of ends, Gromov boundary), like a plane has a “circle at infinity”. It describes the “ways to go to infinity” in  $F$ .

(It is a Cantor set compactifying  $F$ , with an action of  $\text{Aut}(F)$  by homeomorphisms.)

If  $A$  is a basis of  $F$ , any  $X \in \partial F$  is represented by a right-infinite reduced word  $X_A$  in  $A^{\pm 1}$ . If  $B$  is another basis,  $X_A$  and  $X_B$  differ by an automorphism of  $F$ .

$X_A$  has a complexity function  $p_A(n)$ , so a given  $X \in \partial F$  has a complexity function  $p_A(n)$  depending on the basis  $A$ .

### Proposition

If  $A$  and  $B$  are bases of  $F$ , the complexities of  $X$  are equivalent: there exists  $M$  (depending on  $A, B$ ) such that

$$p_A(n) \leq M p_B(Mn + M).$$

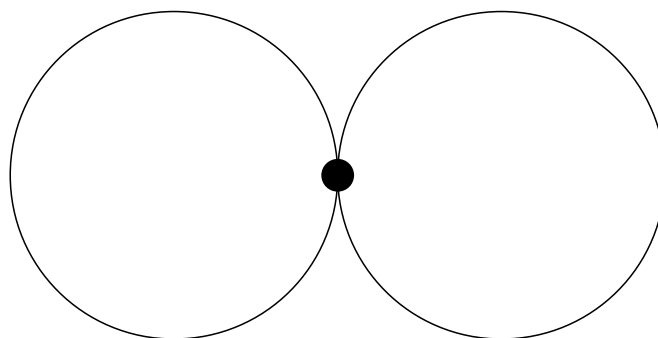
so the following make sense:

$X$  has linear (quadratic, exponential...) complexity

$\frac{p(n)}{n} \rightarrow 0 \implies p$  bounded, and  $X = \lim_n g^n$  for some  $g \in F$   
(sublinear complexity implies eventually periodic)

## Geometric interpretation

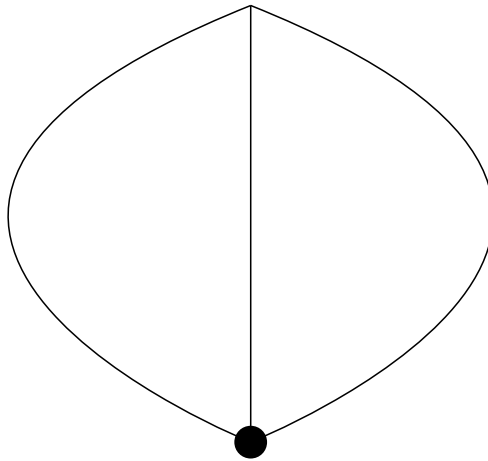
Geometrically,  $X$  is an infinite path on the graph, and  $p(n)$  is the number of subpaths of length  $n$ .





Complexity may be computed (up to equivalence) on any graph with the same fundamental group.

One may assign variable lengths to edges (e.g. subdivide).



## Automorphisms of free groups

Automorphisms of free groups, e.g.

$$a \mapsto ab^{-1}, b \mapsto a^{-1}$$

are :

- more general than substitutions (negative letters allowed)
- less general (invertibility required)

Common generalization: endomorphisms of free groups.

Here are 3 nice facts about substitutions:

- the length of  $\varphi^n(a)$  grows like  $n^d \lambda^n$  as  $n \rightarrow +\infty$   
e.g.  $a \mapsto ab \mapsto aba \mapsto abaab \mapsto \dots$   
 $b \mapsto a$
- after replacing  $\varphi$  by a power,  $\lim_n \varphi^n(a)$  is a fixed infinite word  $X$  (if  $\varphi^n(a)$  does grow)
- the complexity of  $X$  is severely restricted (Pansiot's theorem)

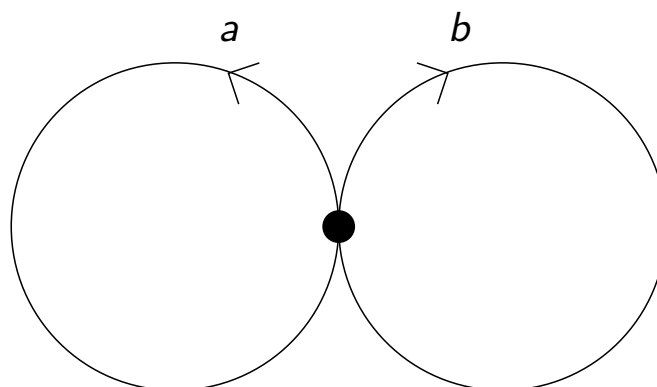
None of these facts is obvious for automorphisms of free groups, because of cancellation.

The key tool for studying automorphisms of free groups is *train tracks* (Bestvina, Feighn, Handel), a way to control cancellation.

Price to pay: forget words, think about graphs!

## Train tracks

Any automorphism  $\varphi$  of  $F$  is represented by a map on a graph with 1 vertex, with vertex going to vertex and edges going to edge-paths. For instance,  $a \mapsto a^2 b^{-1}$ ,  $b \mapsto a^{-1}$ .

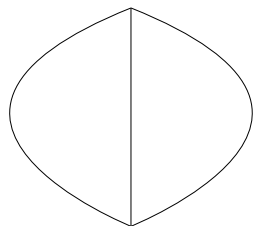


But this map may not be well-adapted (no control over cancellation).

Analogy: given an endomorphism of a vector space, there are bases in which the matrix is especially simple (diagonal, triangular...).

A (relative, completely split,...) train track map is a “nice” representative  $H$  of  $\varphi$  on a graph, which may have several vertices if  $\varphi$  is not a substitution (the topology of the graph is dictated by  $\varphi$ ).

Silly example:  $a \mapsto b$ ,  $b \mapsto a^{-1}b^{-1}$  is best viewed as permuting the edges of



A key fact about train track maps:

### Proposition

Given a finite path  $\gamma$ , there exists  $q$  such that, when applying powers of  $H$  to  $H^q(\gamma)$ , cancellation only occurs in:

- *Nielsen subpaths*  
 $a \mapsto ab, b \mapsto a^{-1}$   
 $bab^{-1}a^{-1} \mapsto a^{-1}abab^{-1}a^{-1} = bab^{-1}a^{-1} \mapsto \dots$
- *exceptional subpaths*  
 $a \mapsto ac, b \mapsto c^{-2}b, c \mapsto c$   
 $ab \mapsto acc^{-2}b = ac^{-1}b \mapsto \dots \mapsto ac^{-q}b \mapsto acc^{-q}c^{-2}b$
- *connecting subpaths*

## Results

Cancellation only occurs in slowly growing subpaths, so:

### Theorem

If  $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(F)$  and  $g \in F$ , the length of  $\varphi^n(g)$  grows like  $n^d \lambda^n$  as  $n \rightarrow +\infty$  (with  $d \geq 0$  and  $\lambda \geq 1$ ).

$\varphi^n(g)$  grows like some  $H^n(\gamma)$ , with  $\gamma$  a loop in a train track

We know how  $\varphi^n(g)$  grows, but what happens to it?

### Theorem (L.-Lustig)

*After replacing  $\varphi$  by a power, the following holds: given  $g \in F$ , either  $\varphi(g) = g$  or  $\lim_n \varphi^n(g) = X$  with  $X \in \partial F$  fixed by  $\varphi$ . (same behavior as for a substitution)*

The proof uses train tracks and geometric machinery, such as real trees.

## Pansiot's theorem

Any  $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(F)$  of infinite order has  $\varphi$ -periodic infinite words  $X$ . What about their complexity?

Recall Pansiot's theorem:

If  $\varphi$  is a substitution on  $A$ , and  $X = \lim \varphi^n(a)$  is a  $\varphi$ -fixed right-infinite word, its complexity function is Lipschitz-equivalent to one of the following 5 functions:

- 1 (bounded)
- $n$  (linear)
- $n^2$  (quadratic)
- $n \log n$
- $n \log \log n$

Examples (with invertible substitutions and  $X = \lim \varphi^n(a)$ ):

- $a \mapsto ab, b \mapsto b$  1
- $a \mapsto ab, b \mapsto a$   $n$
- $a \mapsto abc, b \mapsto bc, c \mapsto c$   $n^2$
- $a \mapsto a^2bc, b \mapsto a, c \mapsto cd, d \mapsto c$   $n \log n$
- $a \mapsto abc, b \mapsto a, c \mapsto cd, d \mapsto c$   $n \log \log n$

These examples show the stratified structure of a train track: edges of the graph are grouped into strata (colors), the set of strata is linearly ordered: red < blue < black, and the image of an edge contains no edge belonging to a higher stratum.

This allows inductive arguments.

### Theorem (Hilion-L.)

*Pansiot's theorem extends to the complexity of fixed infinite words  $X = \lim_n \varphi^n(g)$  in  $\partial F$ , for  $\varphi \in \text{Aut}(F)$ .*

Besides combinatorial arguments, the proof is based on the proposition controlling cancellation in iterated images of paths in train tracks.

The complexity of  $X$  depends on the nature of the strata involved.