# Geometric Group Theory 

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## 1 Free groups

### 1.1 Free groups and freely generating sets

Definition 1.1 (Free groups). Let $S$ be a set, called an alphabet, and let $S^{-1}$ be the set of formal inverses of elements of $S$, i.e. $S^{-1}=\left\{s^{-1}, s \in S\right\}$. A word in the alphabet $S$ is a finite sequence
of elements of $S \cup S^{-1}$ (with repetitions allowed), or the empty word. A word is said to be reduced if it does not contain occurrences of $s^{-1}$ or $s^{-1} s$ for some $s \in S$. Given a word, we can reduce it by repeatedly removing any such subword. This induces an equivalence relation such that there is a unique reduced word in each class.

We introduce the notations $b b=b^{2}$, etc.
The free group on the set $S$, denoted by $F(S)$, is the set of reduced words in $S$, together with the operation of concatenation (followed by reduction if necessary).

The cardinality of $S$ is called the rank of $F(S)$ and denoted by $\operatorname{rk} F(S)$.
Theorem 1.2 (Universal property of free groups). Let $F(S)$ be the free group on $S$, and let $\iota: S \hookrightarrow$ $F(S)$ be the natural inclusion. Whenever $G$ is a group and $\varphi: S \rightarrow G$ is a function (of sets), there is a unique group homomorphism $\bar{\varphi}: F(S) \rightarrow G$ extending $\varphi$, i.e. making the following diagram commute:


In other words, homomorphisms $F(S) \rightarrow G$ are in one-to-one correspondance with functions $S \rightarrow G$.
Proof. Given $\varphi: S \rightarrow G$, define $\bar{\varphi}: F(S) \rightarrow G$ by

$$
\bar{\varphi}\left(s_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots s_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}\right)=\varphi\left(s_{1}\right)^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots \varphi\left(s_{n}\right)^{\alpha_{n}} .
$$

Corollary 1.3. If $|S|=|T|$, then $F(S) \cong F(T)$.
Proof. If $|S|=|T|$, then there is a bijection $\theta: S \rightarrow T$. By the universal property of free groups, the composite $\iota \circ \theta: S \rightarrow F(T)$ induces a group homomorphism $\bar{\theta}: F(S) \rightarrow F(T)$ making the following diagram commute:


Similarly, there is a group homomorphism $\overline{\theta^{-1}}: F(T) \rightarrow F(S)$ such that $\overline{\theta^{-1}} \circ \iota=\iota \circ \theta^{-1}$. Now the homomorphism $\overline{\theta^{-1}} \circ \bar{\theta}: F(S) \rightarrow F(S)$ extends $\iota: S \rightarrow F(S)$, so by uniqueness in the universal property, it must be equal to $\mathrm{id}_{F(S)}$. This proves that $\overline{\theta^{-1}} \circ \bar{\theta}=\operatorname{id}_{F(S)}$, and likewise $\bar{\theta} \circ \overline{\theta^{-1}}=\operatorname{id}_{F(T)}$.

Notation 1.4. We write $F_{n}$ for the isomorphism class of $F(S)$ with $|S|=n$.
Proposition 1.5. $F_{m} \cong F_{n}$ if and only if $m=n$.
Corollary 1.6. Every group is a quotient of a free group.
Proof. Given a group $G$, consider the free group $F(G)$. By the universal property, there is a homomorphism $\pi: F(G) \rightarrow G$ extending $\operatorname{id}_{G}: G \rightarrow G$, i.e. such that $\pi \circ \iota=\mathrm{id}_{G}$. This implies that $\pi$ is onto, and therefore $G \cong F(G) / \operatorname{Ker} \pi$.

Definition 1.7 (Subgroup generated by a subset). Given a group $G$ and a subset $A \subseteq G$, the subgroup generated by $A$, denoted by $\langle A\rangle$, is the intersection of all subgroups of $G$ containing $A$, i.e. the unique smallest subgroup containing $A$.

We say that $G$ is generated by $A$, or that $A$ is a generating set for $G$, if $\langle A\rangle=G$.
We say that $G$ is finitely generated if it has a finite generating set.
We shall write $\left\langle a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\rangle$ for $\left\langle\left\{a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right\}\right\rangle$, given $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in G$.

Example 1.8. (i) $\mathbb{Z}_{n}=\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbb{Z}$ can be generated by one element only (they are called cyclic).
(ii) $\mathbb{Z}^{n}$ can be generated by $n$ elements (and no less).
(iii) $F_{2}=\langle a, b\rangle=\langle a, a b\rangle$.

Note that generating sets are not unique.
Definition 1.9 (Freely generated group). A group $F$ is freely generated by a subset $S \subseteq F$ if for any group $G$ and any map $\varphi: S \rightarrow G$, there is a unique homomorphism $\widetilde{\varphi}: F \rightarrow G$ extending $\varphi$.

Lemma 1.10. If a group $F$ is freely generated by a subset $S$, then $F$ is generated by $S$.

### 1.2 Subgroups of free groups

Remark 1.11. We wish to understand subgroups of free groups.

- Given any $w \in F_{n} \backslash\{e\},\langle w\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}$.
- Given $T \subseteq S,\langle T\rangle$ is a free subgroup of $F(S)$ of rank $|T|$.
- If $S=\{a, b\}$, the set $\left\{a^{-n} b a^{n}, n \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ freely generates a subgroup of $F_{2}$ that is isomorphic to $F_{\infty}$.

Note that the last example shows that subgroups of finitely generated groups are not necessarily finitely generated.

Proposition 1.12. If $Y \subseteq X$ is a closed and simply connected of a "nice" space $X$, then

$$
\pi_{1} X \cong \pi_{1}(X / Y)
$$

Corollary 1.13. The fundamental group of a graph with $v$ vertices and e edges is a free group of rank $(e-v+1)$.

Proof. If $X$ is a graph, then it has a maximal spanning tree $T$. Since $T$ is a tree, it has $v$ vertices and $v-1$ edges. Now $X / T$ is a bouquet of circles, with one circle for each edge of $X \backslash T$, i.e. $(e-v+1)$ edges in total. By Proposition 1.12, $\pi_{1} X \cong \pi_{1}(X / T) \cong F_{e-v+1}$.

Theorem 1.14 (Nielsen-Schreier). Let $H$ be a subgroup of the free group $F_{n}$. Then $H$ is free; moreover, if $H$ has finite index in $F_{n}$, then

$$
(\operatorname{rk} H-1)=\left(\operatorname{rk} F_{n}-1\right)\left[F_{n}: H\right] .
$$

Proof. Let $X$ be a bouquet of $n$ circles and let $\widetilde{X}$ be the universal cover of $X$, i.e. an infinite tree where each vertex has degree $2 n$. We have $\pi_{1} X \cong F_{n}$. By the Galois Correspondance, there exists a covering space $\bar{X}$ over $X$ such that $\pi_{1} \bar{X} \cong H$. Since $X$ is a graph, $\bar{X}$ is also a graph. Therefore, Corollary 1.13 implies that $H$ is free.

Now if $\left[F_{n}: H\right]<\infty$, then the degree of $\bar{X}$ as a covering space is $\left[F_{n}: H\right]$, so $\bar{X}$ has $\left[F_{n}: H\right]$ vertices. Moreover, each vertex in $\bar{X}$ has degree $2 n$ (because the only vertex of $X$ has degree $2 n$ ), so the number of edges of $\bar{X}$ is $\frac{1}{2}\left(2 n \cdot\left[F_{n}: H\right]\right)=n\left[F_{n}: H\right]$. It follows that

$$
\operatorname{rk} H=n\left[F_{n}: H\right]-\left[F_{n}: H\right]+1=\left(\operatorname{rk} F_{n}-1\right)\left[F_{n}: H\right]+1 .
$$

Remark 1.15. If we define the rank of a group as the cardinality of a minimal generating set, then for any finitely generated group $G$ and for any finite index subgroup $H$, we can prove that $(\operatorname{rk} H-1) \leqslant(\operatorname{rk} G-1)[G: H]$.

## 2 Group presentations and constructions

### 2.1 Group presentations

Definition 2.1 (Normal closure). If $G$ is a group, the normal closure of a subset $A \subseteq G$ is the unique smallest normal subgroup of $G$ containing $A$, denoted by $\langle\langle A\rangle\rangle$ or $\langle\langle A\rangle\rangle^{G}$.

It is the subgroup of $G$ generated by $\left\{g^{-1} a g, g \in G, a \in A\right\}$.
Definition 2.2 (Presentation of a group). Given a free group $F(S)$ and a set $R \subseteq F(S)$, we define

$$
\langle S \mid R\rangle=F(S) /\langle\langle R\rangle\rangle .
$$

The elements of $S$ are called generators and the elements of $R$ are called relators.
A presentation of a group $G$ is an isomorphism of $G$ with a group of the form $\langle S \mid R\rangle$. We say that $G$ is finitely presented if it admits a presentation $\langle S \mid R\rangle$ with $S, R$ finite.

Example 2.3. (i) $\langle S \mid \varnothing\rangle \cong F(S)$.
(ii) $\left\langle a \mid a^{n}\right\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n}$.
(iii) $\left\langle a, b \mid a b a^{-1} b^{-1}\right\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}^{2}$.
(iv) More generally, finitely generated abelian groups are always finitely presented.

This is also true of nilpotent groups, i.e. groups $G$ such that the lower central series defined by $G_{i+1}=\left[G_{i}, G\right]$ terminates in a finite number of steps in the trivial group.
Proof. (iii) Note that $\mathbb{Z}^{2}=\left\{c^{m} d^{n}, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$, where $c=(1,0)$ and $d=(0,1)$. There is a surjective homomorphism $\varphi: F(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{2}$ defined by $a \mapsto c$ and $b \mapsto d$. It is clear that $\left\langle\left\langle a b a^{-1} b^{-1}\right\rangle\right\rangle \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} \varphi$ because $c d=d c$. Therefore, there is a surjection $\left\langle a, b \mid a b a^{-1} b^{-1}\right\rangle \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{2}$. But $\left\langle a, b \mid a b a^{-1} b^{-1}\right\rangle$ is 2generated and abelian, so the classification of finitely generated abelian groups allows us to conclude that it has to be isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}^{2}$ (otherwise it could not surject to $\mathbb{Z}^{2}$ ).

Remark 2.4. We have $\left\langle a, b \mid a b a^{-1} b^{-2}, a^{-2} b^{-1} a b\right\rangle=\{1\}$.
It is difficult in general to tell which group is given by a particular presentation. Indeed, there does not exist an algorithm that, upon input of a presentation, can determine whether the corresponding group is trivial.

This is called the word problem; it was introduced by Dehn in the early twentieth century, and the classes of groups for which it does have a solution are often geometric.

Remark 2.5. There are uncountably many isomorphism classes of finitely generated (or even 2generated) groups (c.f. [4]) but only countably many isomorphism classes of finitely presented groups.
Theorem 2.6. Given a (not necessarily finite) presentation $\langle S \mid R\rangle$ of a finitely presented group $G$, there exists a finite subset $S_{0} \subseteq S$ and a finite set $\widetilde{R}$ of elements of the free group $F\left(S_{0}\right)$ such that $\left\langle S_{0} \mid \widetilde{R}\right\rangle$ is a finite presentation of $G$.

Proof. See [4].

### 2.2 Finite index subgroups of finitely presented groups

Remark 2.7. We now aim to prove that finite index subgroups of finitely generated (resp. presented) groups are finitely generated (resp. presented).

Definition 2.8 (Schreier transversal). Let $F(S)$ be a free group and $H \leqslant F(S)$ be a subgroup. A (right) Schreier transversal for $H$ in $F(S)$ is a set $J$ of reduced words such that each right coset of $H$ in $G$ contains exactly one word of $J$ (called a representative of this class) and all initial segments of these words are also in $J$ (for instance, if $a b a^{-1} b^{2} \in J$, then $a, a b, a b a^{-1}, \cdots \in J$ ).

In this setting, for each $g \in F(S)$, we denote by $\bar{g}$ the element of $J$ such that $H g=H \bar{g}$.

Theorem 2.9. Let $H \leqslant F(S)$.
(i) There is a Schreier transversal $J$ for $H$.
(ii) Moreover, $H$ is freely generated by the set $\left\{t s(\overline{t s})^{-1}, t \in J, s \in S\right.$, ts $\left.(\overline{t s})^{-1} \neq 1\right\}$.

Proof. Let $X$ be a bouquet of circles indexed by $S$, so that $\pi_{1} X \cong F(S)$. Let $\bar{X}$ be the cover of $X$ corresponding to the subgroup $H \leqslant F(S)$. Hence, $\pi_{1} \bar{X} \cong H$, and $\bar{X}$ is a graph. The vertices of $\bar{X}$ correspond to cosets of $H$ in $F(S)$, and choosing a path from a fixed basepoint to a vertex gives a coset representative for that coset.

Now pick a maximal spanning tree $T$ in $\bar{X}$. Choosing the unique paths to each vertex in $T$ gives coset representatives such that initial segments are also such paths. The group $H \cong \pi_{1} \bar{X}$ is freely generated by the set of loops with exactly one edge not in $T$, which corresponds to $\left\{t s(\overline{t s})^{-1}, t \in J, s \in S, t s(\overline{t s})^{-1} \neq 1\right\}$.
Remark 2.10. The above proof shows that the set of Schreier transversals for $H \leqslant F(S)$ is in bijection with the set of maximal spanning trees in $\bar{X}$.

Remark 2.11. Let $H \leqslant F(S)$. For $t \in J$ and $s \in S$, we write $\gamma(t, s)=t s(\overline{t s})^{-1}$; hence, the set $B=\{\gamma(t, s), t \in J, s \in S, \gamma(t, s) \neq 1\}$ freely generates $H$. Now given $h \in H$ written as $s_{1} s_{2} \cdots s_{n}$, with $s_{i} \in S \cup S^{-1}$, we can rewrite

$$
h=\gamma\left(1, s_{1}\right) \gamma\left(\overline{s_{1}}, s_{2}\right) \cdots \gamma\left(\overline{s_{1} \cdots s_{n-1}}, s_{n}\right),
$$

because $\gamma\left(t, s^{-1}\right)=\gamma\left(\overline{t s^{-1}}, s\right)^{-1}$. This is called the Reidermeister-Schreier rewriting process.
Theorem 2.12. Let $G$ be a group with a presentation $\langle S \mid R\rangle$ and let $\varphi: F(S) \rightarrow G$ be the homomorphism corresponding to this presentation.

Let $G_{1} \leqslant G$ and let $H$ be the subgroup of $F(S)$ containing $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi$ such that $\varphi(H)=G_{1}$. Then $G_{1}$ has the presentation

$$
G_{1} \cong\left\langle\gamma(t, s), t \in J, s \in S, \gamma(t, s) \neq 1 \mid t r t^{-1}, t \in J, r \in R\right\rangle
$$

where $J$ is a Schreier transversal for $H$ in $F(S)$.
Proof. We have $G_{1}=H /\langle\langle R\rangle\rangle^{F(S)}$ but we would like to have $G_{1}=H /\langle\langle R\rangle\rangle^{H}$. By Theorem 2.9, $\{\gamma(t, s), t \in J, s \in S\}$ freely generates $H$. Now the subgroup $\langle\langle R\rangle\rangle^{F(S)}$ is generated by the set $\left\{g r g^{-1}, g \in G, r \in R\right\}$. Each $g \in G$ may be written as $h_{g} \bar{g}$ with $h_{g} \in H$ and $\bar{g} \in J$. Hence,

$$
g r g^{-1}=\left(h_{g} \bar{g}\right) r\left(h_{g} \bar{g}\right)^{-1}=h_{g} \bar{g} r \bar{g}^{-1} h_{g}^{-1},
$$

and therefore $\langle\langle R\rangle\rangle^{F(S)}=\left\langle\left\langle t r t^{-1}, t \in J, r \in R\right\rangle\right\rangle^{H}$.
Corollary 2.13. A finite index subgroup of a finitely generated (resp. finitely presented) group is finitely generated (resp. finitely presented).

Proof. If $G_{1} \leqslant_{f i} G$, then $H \leqslant_{f i} F(S)$, so the Schreier transversal $J$ is finite.

### 2.3 Free products and the Ping-pong Lemma

Definition 2.14 (Free product of groups). Given groups $A, B$ such that $A \cap B=\{1\}$, $a$ normal form is an expression of the form $g_{1} \cdots g_{n}$ where $n \geqslant 0, g_{i} \in A \cup B \backslash\{1\}$, and consecutive elements $g_{i}, g_{i+1}$ do not lie in the same group. We call $n$ the length of the normal form. We define a multiplication of normal forms by induction on the length:

- $\left(g_{1} \cdots g_{n}\right) \cdot 1=1 \cdot\left(g_{1} \cdots g_{n}\right)=g_{1} \cdots g_{n}$,
- For $m, n \geqslant 2$,

$$
\left(g_{1} \cdots g_{m}\right)\left(h_{1} \cdots h_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}g_{1} \cdots g_{m} h_{1} \cdots h_{n} & \text { if } g_{m}, h_{1} \text { in different groups } \\ g_{1} \cdots\left(g_{m} h_{1}\right) \cdots h_{n} & \text { if } g_{m}, h_{1} \text { in the same group and } g_{m} h_{1} \neq 1 \\ \left(g_{1} \cdots g_{m-1}\right)\left(h_{2} \cdots h_{n}\right) & \text { if } g_{m}, h_{1} \text { in the same group and } g_{m} h_{1}=1\end{cases}
$$

The set of normal form with this multiplication is a group $A * B$, called the free product of $A$ and $B$.
Remark 2.15. Let $A, B$ be groups with $A \cap B=\{1\}$.
(i) The groups $A, B$ embed naturally into $A * B$.
(ii) If $A, B$ are subgroups of a group $G$ such that any $g \neq 1$ can be represented in a unique way as a product $g=g_{1} \cdots g_{n}$ with $g_{i} \in A \cup B \backslash\{1\}$ and consecutive $g_{i}, g_{i+1}$ not in the same group, then $G=A * B$.

Theorem 2.16. If $A=\left\langle S_{A} \mid R_{A}\right\rangle$ and $B=\left\langle S_{B} \mid R_{B}\right\rangle$ with $S_{A} \cap S_{B}=\varnothing$, then

$$
A * B=\left\langle S_{A} \cup S_{B} \mid R_{A} \cup R_{B}\right\rangle
$$

Proof. Let $\varphi_{A}: F\left(S_{A}\right) \rightarrow A$ and $\varphi_{B}: F\left(S_{B}\right) \rightarrow B$ be the homomorphisms corresponding to the given presentations. Let $\theta: F\left(S_{A} \cup S_{B}\right) \rightarrow A * B$ be the unique homomorphism coinciding with $\varphi_{A}$ on $S_{A}$ and with $\varphi_{B}$ on $S_{B}$. We need to show that $\left.\operatorname{Ker} \theta=\left\langle\left\langle R_{A} \cup R_{B}\right\rangle\right\rangle\right\rangle^{F\left(S_{A} \cup S_{B}\right)}$. The inclusion ( $\supseteq$ ) is clear. For $(\subseteq)$, consider $g=g_{1} \cdots g_{n} \in \operatorname{Ker} \theta$, with $g_{i} \in F\left(S_{A}\right) \cup F\left(S_{B}\right) \backslash\{1\}$ and consecutive $g_{i}, g_{i+1}$ not in the same group (we use here the fact that $F\left(S_{A} \cup S_{B}\right)=F\left(S_{A}\right) * F\left(S_{B}\right)$. Hence

$$
1=\theta(g)=\theta\left(g_{1}\right) \cdots \theta\left(g_{n}\right) .
$$

By definition of $A * B$, there must therefore exist $i$ such that $\theta\left(g_{i}\right)=1$, and so $g_{i} \in\left\langle\left\langle R_{A}\right\rangle\right\rangle^{F\left(S_{A}\right)} \cup$ $\left\langle\left\langle R_{B}\right\rangle\right\rangle^{F\left(S_{B}\right)} \subseteq\left\langle\left\langle R_{A} \cup R_{B}\right\rangle\right\rangle^{F\left(S_{A} \cup S_{B}\right)}$. Now $\theta\left(g_{1} \cdots g_{i-1} g_{i+1} \cdots g_{n}\right)=1$, so by induction on $n, g_{1} \cdots g_{n} \in$ $\left\langle\left\langle R_{A} \cup R_{B}\right\rangle\right\rangle^{F\left(S_{A} \cup S_{B}\right)}$.

Example 2.17. The group $D_{\infty}$ of graph automorphisms of the infinite line $D_{\infty}$ has the presentation

$$
D_{\infty}=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{2}=1, a^{-1} b a=b^{-1}\right\rangle .
$$

Note that $D_{\infty}$ is generated by a and $c=b a$. We can check that $(c a)^{n},(c a)^{n} c, a(c a)^{n} c, a(c a)^{n}$ all give different elements of $D_{\infty}$. By Remark 2.15,

$$
D_{\infty}=\left\langle a, c \mid a^{2}=c^{2}=1\right\rangle \cong\left\langle a \mid a^{2}\right\rangle *\left\langle c \mid c^{2}\right\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2} * \mathbb{Z}_{2} .
$$

In fact, $\mathbb{Z}_{2} * \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ is the only free product of nontrivial groups that does not contain a nonabelian free subgroup. For instance, $F_{2} \cong\left[\mathbb{Z}_{2}, \mathbb{Z}_{3}\right] \leqslant \mathbb{Z}_{2} * \mathbb{Z}_{3}$.

Theorem 2.18 (Ping-pong Lemma). Let $G$ be a group acting on a set $X$. Let $H_{1}, H_{2} \leqslant G$ such that $\left|H_{1}\right| \geqslant 3,\left|H_{2}\right| \geqslant 2$ and let $H=\left\langle H_{1}, H_{2}\right\rangle$. Suppose that there are nonempty sets $X_{1}, X_{2} \subseteq X$ with $X_{2} \nsubseteq X_{1}$ such that

$$
\forall h_{1} \in H_{1} \backslash\{e\}, h_{1}\left(X_{2}\right) \subseteq X_{1}, \quad \text { and } \quad \forall h_{2} \in H_{2} \backslash\{e\}, h_{2}\left(X_{1}\right) \subseteq X_{2}
$$

Then $H \cong H_{1} * H_{2}$.
Proof. Let $w$ be a nonempty reduced word in the alphabet $\left(H_{1} \backslash\{e\}\right) \amalg\left(H_{2} \backslash\{e\}\right)$. We need to show that the element defined by $w$ in $G$ is not $e$.

- If $w=a_{1} b_{1} a_{2} b_{2} \cdots b_{k-1} a_{k}$ with $a_{i} \in H_{1} \backslash\{e\}$ and $b_{i} \in H_{2} \backslash\{e\}$, then

$$
w\left(X_{2}\right)=a_{1} b_{1} a_{2} b_{2} \cdots b_{k-1} a_{k}\left(X_{2}\right) \subseteq a_{1} b_{1} a_{2} b_{2} \cdots b_{k-1}\left(X_{1}\right) \subseteq \cdots \subseteq a_{1}\left(X_{2}\right) \subseteq X_{1}
$$

Since $X_{2} \nsubseteq X_{1}$, it follows that $w \neq e$ in $G$.

- If $w=b_{1} a_{2} b_{2} \cdots a_{k} b_{k}$, apply the first case to $a w a^{-1}$, with $a \in H_{1} \backslash\{e\}$.
- If $w=a_{1} b_{1} a_{2} b_{2} \cdots a_{k} b_{k}$, apply the first case to $a w a^{-1}$, with $a \in H_{1} \backslash\left\{e, a_{1}^{-1}\right\}$.
- If $w=b_{1} a_{2} b_{2} \cdots a_{k}$, apply the first case to $a w a^{-1}$, with $a \in H_{1} \backslash\left\{e, a_{k}\right\}$.

Example 2.19. $S L_{2} \mathbb{Z} \geqslant\left\langle\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1\end{array}\right)\right\rangle *\left\langle\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)\right\rangle \cong F_{2}$.
Actually, $F_{2}$ has finite index in $S L_{2} \mathbb{Z}$.
Proof. Consider $H_{1}=\left\langle\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1\end{array}\right)\right\rangle$ and $H_{2}=\left\langle\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)\right\rangle$. Make $S L_{2} \mathbb{Z}$ act on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ in the usual way. Set

$$
X_{1}=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2},|x|<|y|\right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad X_{2}=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2},|y|<|x|\right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{2}
$$

Check that $\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1\end{array}\right)^{n}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}1 & 0 \\ 2 n & 1\end{array}\right) X_{2} \subseteq X_{1}$ and similarly $\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)^{n}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}1 & 2 n \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right) X_{1} \subseteq X_{2}$, and apply the Ping-pong Lemma.

### 2.4 Amalgamated free products and HNN extensions

Definition 2.20 (Amalgamated free product). Let $A \leqslant G, B \leqslant H$ be subgroups with $\varphi: A \xlongequal{\cong} B$. The free product of $G$ and $H$ with amalgamation of $A$ (via $\varphi$ ) is the group

$$
G *_{A} H=(G * H) /\left\langle\left\langle\varphi(a) a^{-1}, a \in A\right\rangle\right\rangle .
$$

The groups $G, H$ embed as subgroups of $G *_{A} H$, and each element of $G *_{A} H$ has a normal form.
If $G=\left\langle S_{G} \mid R_{G}\right\rangle$ and $H=\left\langle S_{H} \mid R_{H}\right\rangle$, then

$$
G *_{A} H=\left\langle S_{G} \cup S_{H} \mid R_{G} \cup R_{H} \cup\left\{\varphi(a) a^{-1}, a \in A\right\}\right\rangle .
$$

The notion of amalgamated free product corresponds to gluing $G$ and $H$ along $A$.
Example 2.21. $S L_{2} \mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{4} *_{\mathbb{Z}_{2}} \mathbb{Z}_{6}$.
Definition 2.22 (HNN extension). Let $A, B \leqslant G$ be subgroups, with $\varphi: A \xlongequal{\cong} B$. The HNN extension of $G$ (with respect to $A, B, \varphi$ ) is

$$
G *_{\varphi}=(G *\langle t\rangle) /\left\langle\left\langle t^{-1} a t \varphi(a)^{-1}, a \in A\right\rangle\right\rangle .
$$

The group $G$ embeds as a subgroup of $G *_{\varphi}$, and each element of $G *_{\varphi}$ has a normal form.
If $G=\langle S \mid R\rangle$, then

$$
G *_{\varphi}=\left\langle S \cup\{t\} \mid R \cup\left\{t^{-1} a t \varphi(a)^{-1}, a \in A\right\}\right\rangle .
$$

Example 2.23. The fundamental group of a surface bundle over $\mathbb{S}^{1}$ is a HNN extension.

### 2.5 Semidirect products and wreath products

Definition 2.24 (Semidirect product). Let $G, N, H$ be groups. We say that $G$ is the semidirect product of $N$ by $H$ if one of the following equivalent conditions is satisfied:
(i) $H, N \leqslant G$ and $N \cap H=\{e\}$ and $G=N H$.
(ii) $H \leqslant G$ and there is a surjective homomorphism $\varphi: G \rightarrow H$ s.t. $\operatorname{Ker} \varphi=N \geqslant H$.
(iii) There is an exact sequence $1 \rightarrow N \rightarrow G \xrightarrow{\pi} H \rightarrow 1$ that splits, i.e. there exists $\psi: H \rightarrow G$ such that $\pi \circ \psi=\operatorname{id}_{H}$.

We then write $G=N \rtimes H$.
Let $H, N$ be two groups with a morphism $\alpha: H \rightarrow \operatorname{Aut}(N)$. The semidirect product $N \rtimes_{\alpha} H$ is the group whose underlying set is $N \times H$, and with multiplication defined by

$$
\left(n_{1}, h_{1}\right)\left(n_{2}, h_{2}\right)=\left(n_{1} \cdot \alpha\left(h_{1}\right)\left(n_{2}\right), h_{1} h_{1}\right) .
$$

The subgroups $N \times 1$ and $1 \times H$ then satisfy the conditions above. Conversely, given a semidirect product $G=N \rtimes H$ as above, we can recover $G$ as $N \rtimes_{\alpha} H$ by setting $\alpha(h)(n)=h n h^{-1}$.
Example 2.25. (i) A direct product is also a semidirect product.
(ii) $D_{2 n} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
(iii) The fundamental group of the Klein bottle is a direct product $\mathbb{Z} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}$.
(iv) More generally, a group extension is a group $G$ together with an exact sequence $1 \rightarrow N \rightarrow$ $G \rightarrow H \rightarrow 1$.

Remark 2.26. An exact sequence $1 \rightarrow N \rightarrow G \rightarrow H \rightarrow 1$ always splits if $H$ is free.
However, not all exact sequence splits. For instance, $1 \rightarrow 2 \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{2} \rightarrow 1$ doesn't.
Definition 2.27 (Wreath product). Given two groups $G, H$, the wreath product of $G$ and $H$ is

$$
G \imath H=\left(\bigoplus_{h \in H} G\right) \rtimes H
$$

where we think of $\oplus_{h \in H} G$ as the group of finitely-supported functions $H \rightarrow G$, and $H$ acts on it by

$$
(h \cdot f)\left(h_{1}\right)=f\left(h^{-1} h_{1}\right) .
$$

Example 2.28. The lamplighter group is $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \backslash \mathbb{Z}$. It is not finitely presented.
Theorem 2.29 (Kaloujnine-Krasner). If $D, Q$ are two groups with $Q$ finite, then $D \imath Q$ contains an isomorphic copy of every extension of $D$ by $Q$ (i.e. every group $G$ with an exact sequence $1 \rightarrow D \rightarrow$ $G \rightarrow Q \rightarrow 1)$.
Proof. Consider an exact sequence $1 \rightarrow D \rightarrow G \xrightarrow{\pi} Q \rightarrow 1$, and view $D=\operatorname{Ker} \pi$ as a subgroup of $G$. We choose a transversal (i.e. a set of coset representatives) for $D$ in $G$, which we view as a map $T: Q \rightarrow G$ such that $\pi \circ T=\operatorname{id}_{Q}$ (but $T$ may not be a group homomorphism). For $a \in G$, define a map $f_{a}: Q \rightarrow D$ by

$$
f_{a}(x)=T(x)^{-1} a T\left(\pi(a)^{-1} x\right) .
$$

Since $\pi \circ f_{a}=1$, we have indeed $\operatorname{Im} f_{a} \subseteq \operatorname{Ker} \pi=D$. Now for $a, b \in G$ and $x \in Q$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{a}(x)\left(\pi(a) \cdot f_{b}\right)(x) & =f_{a}(x) f_{b}\left(\pi(a)^{-1} x\right) \\
& =T(x)^{-1} a T\left(\pi(a)^{-1} x\right) T\left(\pi(a)^{-1} x\right)^{-1} b T\left(\pi(b)^{-1} \pi(a)^{-1} x\right) \\
& =T(x)^{-1} a b T\left(\pi(a b)^{-1} x\right)=f_{a b}(x),
\end{aligned}
$$

so $f_{a}\left(\pi(a) \cdot f_{b}\right)=f_{a b}$. Therefore, the map

$$
\varphi: a \in G \longmapsto\left(f_{a}, \pi(a)\right) \in D \imath Q=\left(\bigoplus_{q \in Q} D\right) \rtimes Q
$$

is a group homomorphism. This map is injective: if $a \in \operatorname{Ker} \varphi$, then in particular $a \in \operatorname{Ker} \pi=D$, and also $f_{a}=1$, from which it follows that $a=1$. Hence, $\phi$ is an embedding $\left.G \hookrightarrow D\right\} H$.

Remark 2.30. The proof of Theorem 2.29 would also work when $Q$ is infinite if one replaces the direct sum by a direct product in the definition of the wreath product.

### 2.6 Bass-Serre Theory

Theorem 2.31. Let $G=G_{1} *_{A} G_{2}$. Then $G$ acts without inversion of edges on a tree $X$ such that the quotient graph $G \backslash X$ is a segment. Moreover, this segment lifts to a segment of $X$ such that the stabilisers of its vertices are $G_{1}, G_{2}$ and the stabiliser of the edge is $A$.

Sketch of proof. Define a graph $X$ by

$$
V(X)=\left(G / G_{1}\right) \amalg\left(G / G_{2}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \vec{E}(X)=G / A,
$$

with the edge $g A$ going from $g G_{1}$ to $g G_{2}$. Then $G \curvearrowright X$ by left multiplication.
To prove that $X$ is connected, it suffices to show that $g G_{1}$ is connected to $G_{1}$ for all $g$ (then $G_{1}$ has a direct edge to $G_{2}$, which is connected to $h G_{2}$ for all $h$ ). Express $g$ as $g_{1} \cdots g_{n}$, with $g_{i} \in G_{1} \amalg G_{2}$, and $g_{i}, g_{i+1}$ not in the same group. Then either $g_{1} \cdots g_{n} G_{1}=g_{1} \cdots g_{n-1} G_{1}$ or $g_{1} \cdots g_{n} G_{2}=g_{1} \cdots g_{n-1} G_{2}$; in both cases, $g_{1} \cdots g_{n} G_{1}$ is connected to $g_{1} \cdots g_{n-1} G_{1}$. By induction on $n, g G_{1}$ is connected to $G_{1}$ and therefore $X$ is connected.

The fact that $X$ is acyclic follows from the uniqueness of the normal form in amalgamated free products; therefore $X$ is a tree.

Remark 2.32. Bass-Serre Theory gives a correspondance as follows:

- Given a group $G$, there is an action $G \curvearrowright X$ on a tree without inversion of edges.
- Given an amalgamated free product $G=G_{1} *_{A} G_{2}, G \backslash X$ is a segment.
- Given a $H N N$ extension $G=H *_{\varphi}, G \backslash X$ is a loop.
- Given a group $G, G \backslash X$ is a graph such that $G$ is the fundamental group $\pi_{1}(\mathbb{G}, Y)$ of a graph of loops.

Corollary 2.33 (Kuvosh Subgroup Theorem). Let $G=A * B$. Then any subgroup of $G$ can be written as the free product of a free group, some conjugates of subgroups of $A$, and some conjugates of subgroups of $B$.

## 3 Cayley graphs

### 3.1 Cayley graphs and word metrics

Definition 3.1 (Cayley graph). Let $G$ be a group together with a finite generating set $S \subseteq G$. The Cayley graph of $G$ with respect to $S$ is the graph Cay $(G, S)$ given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S))=G \\
& E(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S))=\{(g, g s), g \in G, s \in S\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark 3.2. (i) $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is a $2|S|$-regular graph.
(ii) $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is connected if $G=\langle S\rangle$.
(iii) Relators in $S$ give rise to cycles in $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$.
(iv) Paths from e to $g$ in $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ correspond to words in $S$ representing $g$.

Definition 3.3 (Word metric). Let $G$ be a group with a finite generating set $S$. The word metric $d_{S}$ is defined as follows: $d_{S}(g, h)$ is the length of a shortest path in $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ from $g$ to $h$. We also have a word length defined by $|g|=d_{S}(e, g)$.

Remark 3.4. $G \curvearrowright \operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ isometrically by left multiplication.
It follows that $d_{S}(g, h)=\left|g^{-1} h\right|$.
Theorem 3.5. Cay $(F(S), S)$ is a tree.
Remark 3.6. Let $\bar{X}$ be the covering space of a bouquet $X$ of $|S|$ circles corresponding to the normal subgroup $N \unlhd F(S)$. Then $\bar{X}$ is exactly Cay $(F(S) / N, \pi(S)$ ), where $\pi$ is the projection $F(S) \rightarrow$ $F(S) / N$.

Remark 3.7. - Non-isomorphic groups can have the same Cayley graph, e.g. $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{6},\{2,3\}\right)$ and $\left(\mathfrak{S}_{3},\{(12),(123)\}\right)$.

- There can be non-isomorphic Cayley graphs for a group $G$ with (minimal) generating sets, e.g. $\left(\mathfrak{S}_{3},\{(12),(23)\}\right)$ and $\left(\mathfrak{S}_{3},\{(12),(123)\}\right)$.


### 3.2 Quasi-isometry

Definition 3.8 (Quasi-isometry). Let $\left(X, d_{X}\right)$ and $\left(Y, d_{Y}\right)$ be metric spaces. A map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a quasi-isometric embedding if there exists $\lambda \geqslant 1$ and $c \geqslant 0$ such that, for all $x, x^{\prime} \in X$,

$$
\frac{1}{\lambda} d_{X}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)-c \leqslant d_{Y}\left(f(x), f\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right) \leqslant \lambda d_{X}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)+c .
$$

We say that $f$ is a quasi-isometry (or a ( $\lambda, c, D$ )-quasi-isometry) if in addition there exists $D \geqslant 0$ such that

$$
\forall y \in Y, \exists x \in X, d_{Y}(f(x), y) \leqslant D
$$

We then write $X \simeq_{q i} Y$.
Intuitively, quasi-isometry preserves the large-scale structure of our space.
Proposition 3.9. Quasi-isometry is an equivalence relation on metric spaces.
Example 3.10. (i) A non-empty bounded metric space is quasi-isometric to a point.
(ii) $\mathbb{R} \times[0,1] \simeq_{q i} \mathbb{R}$.
(iii) if $\mathbb{Z}^{n}=\langle S\rangle$, then $\operatorname{Cay}\left(\mathbb{Z}^{n}, S\right) \simeq_{q i} \mathbb{R}^{n}$.
(iv) The 3 -regular tree $T_{3}$ is quasi-isometric to the 4 -regular tree $T_{4}$ (colour the edges of $T_{3}$ with three different colours and contract all edges of one specific colour).

Example 3.11. To prove that two spaces are not quasi-isometric, we often use quasi-isometry invariants.
(i) $\mathbb{R} \not \chi_{q i}\{*\}$ because boundedness is a quasi-isometry invariant.
(ii) $\mathbb{R} \not \chi_{q i}[0, \infty)$.
(iii) $\mathbb{R}^{2} \not 千_{q i} \mathbb{R}$.
(iv) $T_{3} \not \chi_{q i} \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. (ii) We shall actually prove the following (stronger) result: $\mathbb{R}$ does not quasi-isometrically embed into $[0, \infty)$. Suppose there is a $(\lambda, c)$-quasi-isometric embedding $\varphi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow[0, \infty)$. Note that

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \varphi(t)=\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \varphi(t)=\infty
$$

Hence, for any $x \in[0, \infty)$, we can define

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{x} & =\max \{n \in \mathbb{Z}, \varphi(n)<x\}, \\
N_{x} & =\min \{n \in \mathbb{Z}, \varphi(n)<x\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

So we have $\varphi\left(M_{x}\right)<x \leqslant \varphi\left(M_{x}+1\right)$ and $\varphi\left(N_{x}\right)<x \leqslant \varphi\left(N_{x}-1\right)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
d_{[0, \infty)}\left(\varphi\left(M_{x}\right), \varphi\left(N_{x}\right)\right) & \leqslant d_{[0, \infty)}\left(\varphi\left(M_{x}\right), x\right)+d_{[0, \infty)}\left(x, \varphi\left(N_{x}\right)\right) \\
& \leqslant d_{[0, \infty)}\left(\varphi\left(M_{x}\right), \varphi\left(M_{x}+1\right)\right)+d_{[0, \infty)}\left(\varphi\left(N_{x}-1\right), \varphi\left(N_{x}\right)\right) \\
& \leqslant \lambda d_{\mathbb{R}}\left(M_{x}, M_{x}+1\right)+c+\lambda d_{\mathbb{R}}\left(N_{x}-1, N_{x}\right)+c \\
& =2 \lambda+2 c .
\end{aligned}
$$

But we can check that $d_{\mathbb{R}}\left(M_{x}, N_{x}\right) \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\longrightarrow} \infty$. This is a contradiction.
Proposition 3.12. Let $G$ be a finitely generated group and $S, S^{\prime \prime}$ be two finite generating sets for $G$. Then

$$
\operatorname{Cay}(G, S) \simeq_{q i} \operatorname{Cay}\left(G, S^{\prime}\right)
$$

Proof. Let $\varphi:\left(G, d_{S}\right) \rightarrow\left(G, d_{S^{\prime}}\right)$ be the identity map. Let

$$
\lambda=\max _{a \in S}|a|_{S^{\prime}} \quad \text { and } \quad \lambda^{\prime}=\max _{b \in S^{\prime}}|b|_{S}
$$

Then $d_{S^{\prime}}(\varphi(g), \varphi(h)) \leqslant \lambda d_{S}(g, h)$, and similarly $d_{S}(g, h) \leqslant \lambda^{\prime} d_{S^{\prime}}(\varphi(g), \varphi(h))$.

### 3.3 The fundamental theorem of geometric group theory

Definition 3.13 (Proper and geodesic metric spaces). A metric space is called proper if all closed balls are compact. It is called geodesic if for any two points, there is a path realising the distance between them.

Definition 3.14 (Proper action). An action $G \curvearrowright X$ is called proper if for any compact set $K \subseteq X$, the set

$$
\{g \in G, g K \cap K \neq \varnothing\}
$$

is finite. This implies that $X / G$ is Hausdorff and locally compact.
Theorem 3.15 (Švarc-Milnor). Let $X$ be a proper geodesic metric space and let $G \curvearrowright X$ properly by isometries on $X$ with compact quotient. Then $G$ is finitely generated, and picking $x_{0} \in X$ defines a quasi-isometry

$$
\varphi_{x_{0}}: \left\lvert\, \begin{aligned}
& G \longrightarrow X \\
& g \longmapsto g x_{0}
\end{aligned} .\right.
$$

In particular, $G \simeq_{q i} X$.
Proof. Since the action is cocompact, there exists a closed ball $\bar{B}=\bar{B}\left(x_{0}, D\right)$ such that $G \bar{B}=X$. Since $X$ is proper, $\bar{B}$ is compact. Define

$$
S=\{s \in G \backslash\{e\}, s \bar{B} \cap \bar{B} \neq \varnothing\} .
$$

The set $S$ is finite since the action is proper. For $A, B \subseteq X$, define $d(A, B)=\inf _{(a, b) \in A \times B} d_{X}(a, b)$, and consider

$$
2 d=\inf _{g \in G \backslash(S \cup\{e\})} d(\bar{B}, g \bar{B}) .
$$

Pick some $h_{1} \in G \backslash(S \cup\{e\})$ and let $R=d\left(\bar{B}, h_{1} \bar{B}\right)>0$. Let

$$
H=\{h \in G \backslash(S \cup\{e\}), d(\bar{B}, h \bar{B}) \leqslant R\} \subseteq\left\{g \in G, g \bar{B}\left(x_{0}, D+R\right) \cap \bar{B}\left(x_{0}, D+R\right) \neq \varnothing\right\}
$$

so $H$ is finite since the action is proper, and nonempty because $h_{1} \in H$. And

$$
2 d=\inf _{g \in G \backslash(S \cup\{e\})} d_{X}(\bar{B}, g \bar{B})=\inf _{h \in H} d(\bar{B}, g \bar{B}),
$$

so the infimum is achieved at some $h_{0} \in H$. Note that, if $d(\bar{B}, g \bar{B})<2 d$, then $g \in S \cup\{e\}$.
To prove that $G=\langle S\rangle$, take $g \in G$ and consider a geodesic segment $\left[x_{0}, g x_{0}\right]$. Let $k=$ $\left\lfloor\frac{1}{d} d_{X}\left(x_{0}, g x_{0}\right)\right\rfloor$. Take a sequence $x_{0}=y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}, y_{k+1}=g x_{0}$ in $\left[x_{0}, g x_{0}\right]$ such that $d_{X}\left(y_{i}, y_{i+1}\right) \leqslant d$ for all $i$. Take a sequence $e=h_{0}, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{k}, h_{k+1}=g$ in $G$ such that $y_{i} \in h_{i} \bar{B}$ for all $i$. Now we have

$$
d\left(h_{i} \bar{B}, h_{i+1} \bar{B}\right) \leqslant d_{X}\left(y_{i}, y_{i+1}\right) \leqslant d
$$

so $d\left(\bar{B}, h_{i}^{-1} h_{i+1} \bar{B}\right) \leqslant d$ and therefore $h_{i}^{-1} h_{i+1} \in S \cup\{e\}$. Hence,

$$
g=\prod_{i=0}^{k}\left(h_{i}^{-1} h_{i+1}\right) \in\langle S\rangle .
$$

This shows that $G=\langle S\rangle$.
Now we equip $G$ with $d_{S}$ (using the fact that all word metrics on $G$ are quasi-isometric, c.f. Proposition 3.12). It is clear that the $2 D$-neighbourhood of the image of $\varphi_{x_{0}}: x \mapsto g x_{0}$ is $X$, so it remains to show that $\varphi_{x_{0}}$ is a quasi-isometric embedding. The above implies that

$$
|g|_{S} \leqslant k+1 \leqslant \frac{1}{d} d_{X}\left(x_{0}, g x_{0}\right)+1 .
$$

Conversely, if $|g|_{S}=m$, write $g=t_{1} \cdots t_{m}$ with $t_{i} \in S$. Then

$$
d\left(x_{0}, g x_{0}\right) \leqslant \sum_{i=1}^{m} d\left(t_{1} \cdots t_{i-1} x_{0}, t_{1} \cdots t_{i} x_{0}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \underbrace{d\left(x_{0}, t_{i} x_{0}\right)}_{\leqslant 2 D} \leqslant 2 D m=2 D|g|_{S},
$$

where the inequality $d\left(x_{0}, t_{i} x_{0}\right) \leqslant 2 D$ comes from the fact that $\bar{B}\left(x_{0}, D\right) \cap \bar{B}\left(t_{i} x_{0}, D\right) \neq \varnothing$ by definition of $S$. Thus,

$$
d \cdot d_{S}(e, g)-d \leqslant d_{X}\left(x_{0}, g x_{0}\right) \leqslant 2 D \cdot d_{S}(e, g)
$$

By left-invariance of $d_{S}$ and $d_{X}$ under the action of $G, \varphi_{x_{0}}$ is a quasi-isometric embedding.
Example 3.16. (i) If $M$ is a compact connected Riemannian manifold, then $\pi_{1} M$ is finitely generated and quasi-isometric to the universal cover $\widetilde{M}$.
(ii) If $G$ is a connected real Lie group and $\Gamma$ is a cocompact lattice in $G$, then $\Gamma$ is finitely generated and quasi-isometric to $G$.

Definition 3.17 (Commensurable groups). Two groups $G, H$ are said to be commensurable if there exist subgroups of finite index $K_{1} \leqslant_{f i} G$ and $K_{2} \leqslant_{f i} H$ such that $K_{1} \cong K_{2}$.

Corollary 3.18. Let $G$ be a finitely generated group.
(i) If $H$ is a finite index subgroup of $G$, then $H \simeq_{q i} G$.
(ii) If $N \unlhd G$, then $G \simeq_{q i} G / N$.
(iii) If $G, H$ are commensurable finitely generated groups, then $G \simeq_{q i} H$.

Proof. (i) Apply Theorem 3.15 to $H \curvearrowright \operatorname{Cay}(G)$.(ii) Apply Theorem 3.15 to $G \curvearrowright \operatorname{Cay}(G / N)$. (iii) Use (i).

Corollary 3.19. All finitely generated free groups are commensurable, hence quasi-isometric.
Proof. Note that $F_{n}$ embeds as a subgroup of finite index of $F_{2}$ for all $n \geqslant 2$.

### 3.4 Rigidity properties

Example 3.20. Consider

$$
G=\mathbb{Z}_{4} \backslash \mathbb{Z} \quad \text { and } \quad H=\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}\right) \backslash \mathbb{Z}
$$

Then $G$ and $H$ are quasi-isometric but not commensurable.
Proof. Not commensurable. Note that the only elements of finite order in any finite index subgroup of $H$ are of order 2 . On the other hand, any finite index subgroup $K \leqslant_{f i} G$ necessarily contains elements of order 4: indeed,

$$
\left[\bigoplus_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}_{4}: K \cap \bigoplus_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}_{4}\right]=\left[K \oplus \bigoplus_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}_{4}: K\right]<\infty
$$

so $K \cap \bigoplus_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}_{4}$ is a finite index subgroup in $\bigoplus_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}_{4}$.
Quasi-isometric. Take

$$
S_{G}=\left\{(\overline{0}, 1),\left(f_{1}, 0\right),\left(f_{2}, 0\right),\left(f_{3}, 0\right)\right\},
$$

where $\overline{0}$ is the zero function, thinking of $\oplus_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Z}_{4}$ as functions $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4}$, and $f_{i}: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{4}$ is given by $f_{i}(0)=i$ and $f_{i}(n)=0$ for $n \neq 0$. Similarly, let

$$
S_{H}=\left\{(\overline{0}, 1),\left(f_{(1,0)}, 0\right),\left(f_{(0,1)}, 0\right),\left(f_{(1,1)}, 0\right)\right\} .
$$

Then Cay $\left(G, S_{G}\right)$ and Cay $\left(H, S_{H}\right)$ are in fact isometric.
Remark 3.21. We wish to find additional assumptions such that quasi-isometry implies commensurability.

Definition 3.22 (Virtually). A group is virtually $P$ it if has a finite index subgroup that is $P$.
Example 3.23. (i) $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}$ is virtually $\mathbb{Z}$.
(ii) $S L_{2} \mathbb{Z}$ is virtually free.

Theorem 3.24. Let $G$ be a finitely generated group. If $G \simeq_{q i} \mathbb{Z}$, then $G$ is virtually $\mathbb{Z}$.
Proof. To construct an element of infinite order in $G$, we will find $g \in G$ and $A \subseteq G$ such that $g A \subsetneq A$; it will follow that $g^{n} \neq e$ for all $n$. Let $\varphi: G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a quasi-isometry (because $\mathbb{Z} \simeq_{q i} \mathbb{R}$ ). Since $G \curvearrowright \operatorname{Cay}(G)$ by isometries, any $g \in G$ determines a quasi-isometry $\psi_{g}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ making the diagram

commute. Consider $[0, \infty) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then $\psi_{g}([0, \infty))$ is either at a bounded distance from $\left[\psi_{g}(0), \infty\right)$ or from $\left(-\infty, \psi_{g}(0)\right]$. In the first case for example, set

$$
A=\varphi^{-1}([0, \infty)) \subseteq G
$$

If $\psi_{g}(0) \gg 0$, then $g A \subsetneq A$.
Therefore, we need to find $g$ such that $\psi_{g}([0, \infty))$ is at a bounded distance from $\left[\psi_{g}(0), \infty\right)$ and $\psi_{g}(0) \gg 0$. To find such a $g$, take $h, k \in G$ such that $e, h, k$ are far apart in $G$ (or equivalently, $\varphi(e), \varphi(h), \varphi(k)$ are far apart in $\mathbb{R})$. Consider images of $[0, \infty)$ under $\psi_{e}, \psi_{h}, \psi_{k}$ - at least two of these images will be at a bounded distance from each other, so at least two of $A, h A, k A$ are nested; therefore, we can take $g$ to be one of the elements $h^{ \pm 1}, k^{ \pm 1},\left(h^{-1} k\right)^{ \pm 1},\left(k^{-1} h\right)^{ \pm 1}$.

Now let $H=\langle g\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}$. We want $[G: H]<\infty$. We have $\lim _{n \rightarrow \pm \infty} d\left(e, g^{n}\right)=\infty$ and $d\left(g^{m}, g^{n}\right)=$ $d\left(e, g^{n-m}\right)$. Using the quasi-isometry $\varphi: G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we define $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$
f(n)=\varphi\left(g^{n}\right)
$$

The map $f$ has the following properties:
(i) $\exists M \geqslant 0, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z},|f(n)-f(n-1)| \leqslant M$.
(ii) $\forall r \geqslant 0, \exists k \in \mathbb{N}, \forall m, n \in \mathbb{Z},|f(m)-f(n)| \leqslant r \Longrightarrow|m-n| \leqslant k$.

We can check that the image of a map satisfying the above has the properties that there exists $C>0$ such that for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $|x-f(n)| \leqslant C$, and hence there exists $C^{\prime}>0$ such that for all $g^{\prime} \in G$, there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, such that $d\left(g^{\prime}, g^{n}\right) \leqslant C^{\prime}$. This shows that $[G: H]$ is finite.

Example 3.25. Examples of rigidity properties:
(i) If both groups are virtually abelian, quasi-isometry implies commensurability.

This is also true, though much deeper, if only one of the groups is assumed to be virtually abelian.
(ii) If both groups are virtually free, quasi-isometry implies commensurability (in this case, the two groups are in fact always commensurable).
This is also true, though much deeper, if only one of the groups is assumed to be virtually free.

## 4 Geometric properties of groups

### 4.1 Growth

Notation 4.1. Given $f, g: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (with $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ ), we write $f \preccurlyeq g$ if there exist $a, b>0$ and $x_{0} \in X$ such that, for all $x \geqslant x_{0}$,

$$
f(x) \leqslant a g(b x)
$$

If $f \preccurlyeq g$ and $g \preccurlyeq f$, we write $f \asymp g$.
Definition 4.2 (Growth function). Let $X$ be a discrete metric space with a basepoint $x_{0} \in X$. The growth function of $X$ at $x_{0}$ is the function $\beta_{X, x_{0}}: \mathbb{R}_{+} \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{+}$given by

$$
\beta_{X, x_{0}}(r)=\left|\bar{B}_{X}\left(x_{0}, r\right)\right|,
$$

where $\bar{B}_{X}\left(x_{0}, r\right)$ is the closed ball of radius $r$ centred at $x_{0}$ in $X$.
Lemma 4.3. Let $G$ be a group with a finite generating set $S$.
(i) If $g, h \in G$, then $\beta_{\operatorname{Cay}(G, S), g}=\beta_{\operatorname{Cay}(G, S), h}$; this will be denoted by $\beta_{G, S}$.
(ii) The equivalence class under $\asymp$ of $\beta_{G, S}$ is a quasi-isometry invariant. We write $\beta_{G}$ for the equivalence class of $\beta_{G, S}$.

Proposition 4.4. Let $G$ be a group with a finite generating set $S$.
(i) If $G$ is infinite, then $\beta_{G, S_{\mid \mathbb{N}}}$ is strictly increasing.
(ii) $\beta_{G, S}(r+t) \leqslant \beta_{G, S}(r) \beta_{G, S}(t)$.
(iii) $\beta_{G, S}(r) \leqslant(2|S|)^{r}$.

Lemma 4.5 (Fekete). If $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$ is a subadditive sequence of real numbers, then $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n}}{n}$ exists.
Corollary 4.6. If $G$ is a group with a finite generating set $S$, then $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta_{G, S}(n)^{1 / n}$ exists and is at least 1 .

Definition 4.7 (Exponential and polynomial growth). Let $G$ be a finitely generated group.
(i) $G$ is said to have exponential growth if $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta_{G}(n)^{1 / n}>1$. Otherwise, $G$ has subexponential growth.
(ii) $G$ is said to have polynomial growth if there exists $d$ such that $\beta_{G}(r) \preccurlyeq r^{d}$.

Example 4.8. (i) $\beta_{\mathbb{Z}^{k}}(r) \asymp r^{k}$, so $\mathbb{Z}^{k}$ has polynomial growth.
(ii) $\beta_{F_{k}}(r) \asymp(2 k)^{r}$, so $F_{k}$ has exponential growth.

Proposition 4.9. Let $G$ be a finitely generated group.
(i) If $H$ is a finitely generated subgroup of $G$, then $\beta_{H} \preccurlyeq \beta_{G}$.
(ii) If $H$ is a finite index subgroup of $G$, then $\beta_{H} \asymp \beta_{G}$.
(iii) If $N \unlhd G$, then $\beta_{G / N} \preccurlyeq \beta_{G}$.
(iv) If $N \unlhd G$ with $N$ finite, then $\beta_{G / N} \asymp \beta_{G}$.

Proof. (ii) and (iv) are easy consequences of Lemma 4.3 and the Švarc-Milnor Lemma (Theorem 3.15).
(i) Take $H=\langle T\rangle$ with $T$ finite, and let $S \supseteq T$ such that $G=\langle S\rangle$. Then Cay $(H, T)$ is a subgraph of $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$, so $d_{S}(e, h) \leqslant d_{T}(e, h)$ for all $h \in H$, and therefore $\bar{B}_{\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)}(e, r) \supseteq \bar{B}_{\operatorname{Cay}(H, T)}(e, r)$.
(iii) Take $G=\langle S\rangle$ with $S$ finite, and let $T=\{s N, s \in S \backslash N\}$. Then $G / N=\langle T\rangle$ and $\pi: G \rightarrow G / N$ maps $\bar{B}_{\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)}(e, r)$ onto $\bar{B}_{\operatorname{Cay}(G / N, T)}(e, r)$.

### 4.2 Groups of polynomial growth

Remark 4.10. Since $\mathbb{Z}^{k}$ has polynomial growth, finitely generated virtually abelian groups have polynomial growth.

Proposition 4.11. Let $G$ be a 2-step finitely generated nilpotent group, i.e.

$$
G \geqslant[G, G] \geqslant[G,[G, G]]=\{e\} .
$$

Then $G$ has polynomial growth.

Proof. Suppose $G=\left\langle g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m}\right\rangle$. Since $G$ is 2-step nilpotent, $[G, G]$ is central in $G$. Note that, given $g, h \in G$, we have

$$
g h=h g g^{-1} h^{-1} g h=h g[g, h] .
$$

Therefore, given a product of $n$ generators, we can exchange two of the generators and produce a commutator on the right. Since commutators lie in the centre, we can move them to the right at no cost, thus arranging the generators in order. After at most $n^{2}$ such moves, we get

$$
g_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots g_{m}^{\alpha_{m}} C
$$

where $C$ is a product of at most $n^{2}$ commutators. But note that, in this case, $[G, G]$ is finitely generated by commutators $\left[g_{i}^{ \pm 1}, g_{j}^{ \pm 1}\right]$; since $[G, G]$ is also abelian, it has polynomial growth, say of degree $d$ (by Remark 4.10). This implies that $G$ has polynomial growth of degree at most $m+2 d$.

Theorem 4.12. All finitely generated virtually nilpotent groups have polynomial growth.
Proof. Induction on nilpotency step.
Definition 4.13 (Solvable group). A group $G$ is solvable if the derived series $\left(G^{(n)}\right)_{n \geqslant 0}$ terminates in a finite number of steps, where $G^{(0)}=G$ and $G^{(n+1)}=\left[G^{(n)}, G^{(n)}\right]$ for all $n \geqslant 0$.

Note that abelian implies nilpotent, which implies solvable.
Remark 4.14. There do exist solvable groups of exponential growth, for instance the lamplighter group $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \backslash \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem 4.15 (Gromov, 1981). A finitely generated group has polynomial growth if and only if it is virtually nilpotent.

Proof. Uses asymptotic cones, as well as the Tits alternative. See for example Wilkie-Van der Dries, or Kleiner, or Ozawa. There is also a recent proof by Tao using approximate groups. For more on asymptotic cones, see Druțu-Kapovich.

Corollary 4.16. Being virtually nilpotent is a quasi-isometry invariant.
Theorem 4.17 (Grigorchuk, 1983). There exists a finitely generated group $G$, together with constants $0<\alpha_{1}<\alpha_{2}<1$, such that

$$
2^{r^{\alpha_{1}}} \preccurlyeq \beta_{G}(r) \preccurlyeq 2^{r^{\alpha_{2}}} .
$$

Proof. See de la Harpe.

### 4.3 Ends

Definition 4.18 (Proper map). A map $f: X \rightarrow Y$ between topological spaces is said to be proper if $f^{-1}(C) \subseteq X$ is compact whenever $C \subseteq Y$ is compact.

Definition 4.19 (Rays). $A$ ray in a topological space $X$ is a continuous proper map $r:[0, \infty) \rightarrow X$.
Two rays $r_{1}, r_{2}:[0, \infty) \rightarrow X$ are said to converge to the same end if for every compact $C \subseteq X$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ large enough so that $r_{1}([N, \infty))$ and $r_{2}([N, \infty))$ are contained in the same path-component of $X \backslash C$.

This defines an equivalence relation on rays; the set of equivalence classes is called the set of ends of $X$, denoted by $\operatorname{Ends}(X)$. Given a ray $r$, we write end $(r)$ for the class of $r$ in $\operatorname{Ends}(X)$.

If $|\operatorname{Ends}(X)|=m$, we say that $X$ has $m$ ends.
If $\left(r_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$ and $r$ are rays in $X$, we say that end $\left(r_{n}\right) \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{ } \operatorname{end}(r)$ if for all $C \subseteq X$ compact, there exists a sequence $\left(N_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$ of natural numbers such that for all $n$ sufficiently large, $r_{n}\left(\left[N_{n}, \infty\right)\right)$ and $r\left(\left[N_{n}, \infty\right)\right)$ lie in the same path-component of $X \backslash C$. This defines a topology on $\operatorname{Ends}(X)$.

Definition 4.20 ( $k$-path). A $k$-path from $x$ to $y$ in a metric space $X$ is a sequence of points $x=$ $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}=y$ such that $d\left(x_{i-1}, x_{i}\right) \leqslant k$ for all $i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$.

Lemma 4.21. Let $X$ be a proper geodesic metric space. We denote by $\mathcal{G}_{x_{0}}(X)$ the set of geodesic rays in $X$ starting at $x_{0} \in X$.
(i) Given two rays $r_{1}, r_{2}$ in $X$, and $k>0$, we have end $\left(r_{1}\right)=\operatorname{end}\left(r_{2}\right)$ if and only if for all $R>0$, there exists $T>0$ such that for all $t \geqslant T, r_{1}(t)$ can be connected to $r_{2}(t)$ by a $k$-path in $X \backslash B\left(x_{0}, R\right)$.
(ii) The natural map $\mathcal{G}_{x_{0}}(X) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ends}(X)$ is surjective.

Sketch of proof. (i) Every compact subset of $X$ is contained in an open ball about $x_{0}$ and vice-versa. Moreover, given a $k$-path, we can concatenate geodesics from $x_{i-1}$ to $x_{i}$ to get a continuous path from $x$ to $y$.
(ii) Let $r:[0, \infty) \rightarrow X$ be a ray. Let $c_{n}:\left[0, d_{n}\right] \rightarrow X$ be a geodesic from $x_{0}$ to $r(n)$. We can extend $c_{n}$ to $[0, \infty)$ by setting $c_{n}(t)=r(t)$ for $t \geqslant d_{n}$. By Arzelà-Ascoli, there is a convergent subsequence of $\left(c_{n}\right)_{n \geqslant 1}$, with limit $c:[0, \infty) \rightarrow X$, a geodesic ray with $\operatorname{end}(c)=\operatorname{end}(r)$.

Lemma 4.22. Let $X$ be a metric space. Given $f, g: X \rightarrow X$, we say that $f \sim g$ if

$$
\sup _{x \in X} d_{X}(f(x), g(x))<\infty .
$$

The set of equivalence classes of quasi-isometries $X \rightarrow X$ forms a group denoted by $\mathrm{QI}(X)$, and any quasi-isometry $\varphi: X \rightarrow Y$ induces an isomorphism

$$
\varphi_{*}: \mathrm{QI}(X) \stackrel{\cong}{\leftrightarrows} \mathrm{QI}(Y) .
$$

Proposition 4.23. Let $f: X \rightarrow Y$ be a quasi-isometry between proper geodesic metric spaces. Then $f$ induces a homeomorphism

$$
\bar{f}: \operatorname{Ends}(X) \xrightarrow{\cong} \operatorname{Ends}(Y) .
$$

Moreover, the map $\operatorname{QI}(X) \rightarrow$ Homeo (Ends $(X))$ given by $f \mapsto \bar{f}$ is a group homomorphism.
Proof. Given a geodesic ray $r$ in $X$ from $x_{0}$, let $f_{*} r$ be the ray in $Y$ obtained by concatenating some choice of geodesic segments $[f(r(n)), f(r(n+1))]$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $f$ is a quasi-isometry, $f_{*} r$ is a ray and end $\left(f_{*} r\right)$ is independent of the choices of geodesic segments.

This allows one to define $\bar{f}: \operatorname{Ends}(X) \rightarrow \operatorname{Ends}(Y)$ by end $(r) \mapsto \operatorname{end}\left(f_{*} r\right)$. The image of a $k$-path under $f$ is a $(\lambda k+c)$-path, so $\bar{f}$ is well-defined, and continuous by Lemma 4.21.(i). Moreover, Lemma 4.21.(ii) ensures that $\bar{f}$ is defined on all of $\operatorname{Ends}(X)$.

Definition 4.24 (Ends of a group). Given a finitely generated group $G$, we define

$$
\operatorname{Ends}(G)=\operatorname{Ends}(\operatorname{Cay}(G))
$$

Theorem 4.25. Let $G$ be a finitely generated group.
(i) G has zero, one, two, or infinitely many ends.
(ii) $G$ has zero end iff $G$ is finite.
(iii) $G$ has two ends iff $G$ is virtually $\mathbb{Z}$.
(iv) $G$ has infinitely many ends iff $G$ can be expressed as $A *_{C} B$ or $A *_{C}$, with $C$ finite, $[A: C] \geqslant 3$ and $[B: C] \geqslant 3$.

Proof. (i) Fix a finite generating set $S$ for $G$. The action $G \curvearrowright \operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ is by isometries and therefore gives a homomorphism

$$
G \rightarrow \operatorname{Isom}(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)) \subseteq \mathrm{QI}(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)) \rightarrow \operatorname{Homeo}(\operatorname{Ends}(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)))
$$

by Proposition 4.23. Let $H \unlhd G$ be the kernel of the above composite.
Assume for contradiction that $\operatorname{Ends}(G)$ is finite but contains three distinct ends $\eta_{0}, \eta_{1}, \eta_{2}$. Fix geodesic rays $r_{1}, r_{2}:[0, \infty) \rightarrow \operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ with $r_{1}(0)=r_{2}(0)=e$ in $G$ and end $\left(r_{i}\right)=\eta_{i}$. Now the fact that $|\operatorname{Ends}(G)|<\infty$ implies that $[G: H]<\infty$, so there exists $\mu>0$ such that for all $g \in G$, there exists $h \in H$ with $d(g, h) \leqslant \mu$. Therefore, there is a ray $r_{0}:[0, \infty) \rightarrow \operatorname{Cay}(G, S)$ with end $\left(r_{0}\right)=\eta_{0}$, $r_{0}(n) \in H$ and $d\left(r_{0}(n), e\right) \geqslant n$ for all $n$. Set $h_{n}=r_{0}(n) \in H$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

There exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $r_{0}([N, \infty)), r_{1}([N, \infty)), r_{2}([N, \infty))$ lie in different path-components of $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S) \backslash B(e, N)$. If $t, t^{\prime}>2 N$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
d\left(r_{1}(t), r_{2}\left(t^{\prime}\right)\right)>2 N \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

since any path joining $r_{1}(t)$ and $r_{2}\left(t^{\prime}\right)$ must pass through $B(e, N)$. Moreover, $H$ acts trivially on Ends ${ }^{( } G$ ) by definition, so end $\left(h_{n} r_{i}\right)=$ end $\left(r_{i}\right)$ for all $i$. Let $n>3 N$. Then $h_{n} r_{i}(0)=h_{n}$ lies in a path-component of $\operatorname{Cay}(G, S) \backslash B(e, N)$ different from that of $r_{i}([N, \infty))$ for $i=1,2$, so $h_{n} r_{i}$ must pass through $B(e, N)$. Therefore, there exist $t, t^{\prime}>2 N$ such that $h_{n} r_{1}(t) \in B(e, N)$ and $h_{n} r_{2}\left(t^{\prime}\right) \in B(e, N)$. Since $H$ acts by isometries, $d\left(r_{1}(t), r_{2}\left(t^{\prime}\right)\right) \leqslant 2 N$, contradicting $(*)$.

Remark 4.26. (i) Being virtually free is a geometric property (equivalent to being quasi-isometric to a tree), c.f. Antolin.
(ii) Being finitely presentable is a geometric property, c.f. Bridson-Haefliger.

## 5 Amenability

### 5.1 Paradoxical decompositions

Definition 5.1 (Equidecompositions). Let $G$ be a group acting on a set $X$. Let $A, B \subseteq X$. We say that $A, B$ are (finitely) $G$-equidecomposable, and we write $A \sim B$, if there are partitions

$$
A=A_{1} \amalg A_{2} \amalg \cdots \amalg A_{n} \quad \text { and } \quad B=B_{1} \amalg B_{2} \amalg \cdots \amalg B_{n} \text {, }
$$

and there are $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{n} \in G$, such that $g_{i} A_{i}=B_{i}$ for all $i$.
If $A \sim C$ for some $C \subseteq B$, we write $A \lesssim B$.
$A$ realisation $h$ of $A \sim B$ is a bijection $h: A \rightarrow B$ such that there is a decomposition as above with $h\left(a_{i}\right)=g_{i} a_{i}$ for all $i$ and for all $a_{i} \in A_{i}$. Note that, if $h: A \rightarrow B$ is a realisation of $A \sim B$, then $S \sim h(S)$ for all $S \subseteq A$.

For fixed $G \curvearrowright X, \sim$ is an equivalence relation on $\mathcal{P}(X)$.
Theorem 5.2. Let $G \curvearrowright X$ and $A, B \subseteq X$. If $A \lesssim B$ and $A \gtrsim B$, then $A \sim B$.
Proof. Since $A \lesssim B$ and $A \gtrsim B$, there are realisations $f: A \rightarrow B_{1}$ and $g: A_{1} \rightarrow B$, with $A_{1} \subseteq A$ and $B_{1} \subseteq B$. Define inductively $C_{0}=A \backslash A_{1}$ and $C_{n+1}=g^{-1} f\left(C_{n}\right)$ for $n \geqslant 0$, and set

$$
C=\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} C_{n} .
$$

Then

$$
g(A \backslash C)=g\left(\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} A \backslash C_{n}\right) \subseteq \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} B \backslash g\left(C_{n}\right) \subseteq \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} B \backslash g\left(C_{n+1}\right)=\bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} B \backslash f\left(C_{n}\right)=B \backslash f(C)
$$

Similarly, $B \backslash f(C) \subseteq g(A \backslash C)$. It follows that $A \backslash C \sim B \backslash f(C)$ via $g$. Since we also have $C \sim f(C)$ via $f$, we get $A \sim B$.

Definition 5.3 (Paradoxical set). Let $G \curvearrowright X$. Then the following assertions are equivalent:
(i) There exist proper disjoint subsets $A, B \subseteq X$ such that $A \sim X \sim B$.
(ii) There exists a partition $X=A \amalg B$ such that $A \sim X \sim B$.

In this case, we say that $X$ is (finitely) $G$-paradoxical.
Proof. (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) Obvious.
(i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Since $X \sim B \subseteq X \backslash A$, we have $X \lesssim X \backslash A$. Moreover, the inclusion $X \backslash A \subseteq X$ implies that $X \backslash A \lesssim X$. It follows by Theorem 5.2 that $A \sim X \sim X \backslash A$.

Proposition 5.4. (i) $F_{2}$ is $F_{2}$-paradoxical (for the action of $F_{2}$ on itself by left multiplication).
(ii) If $F_{2} \curvearrowright X$ freely, then $X$ is $F_{2}$-paradoxical.

Proof. (i) Let $\{a, b\}$ be a freely generating susbet of $F_{2}$. Given $y \in F_{2}$, denote by $\mathcal{W}(y)$ the set of reduced words starting in $y$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{2} & =\{e\} \amalg \mathcal{W}(a) \amalg \mathcal{W}\left(a^{-1}\right) \amalg \mathcal{W}(b) \amalg \mathcal{W}\left(b^{-1}\right) \\
& =\mathcal{W}(a) \amalg a \mathcal{W}\left(a^{-1}\right) \\
& =\mathcal{W}(b) \amalg b \mathcal{W}\left(b^{-1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, if $A=\mathcal{W}(a) \amalg \mathcal{W}\left(a^{-1}\right)$ and $B=\mathcal{W}(b) \amalg \mathcal{W}\left(b^{-1}\right)$, then $A \sim X \sim B$ and $A, B$ are disjoint, so $F_{2}$ is $F_{2}$-paradoxical.
(ii) Let $M$ be a set of representatives of $F_{2}$-orbits of $X$ (note that we are using the Axiom of Choice). For $y \in F_{2}$, set

$$
X_{y}=\{z m, z \in \mathcal{W}(y), m \in M\}
$$

Then $X_{a}, X_{a^{-1}}, X_{b}, X_{b^{-1}}$ are disjoint (because the action is free), and

$$
X=X_{a} \amalg a X_{a^{-1}}=X_{b} \amalg b X_{b^{-1}},
$$

giving the desired decomposition.
Proposition 5.5. The matrices

$$
\sigma=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2 \sqrt{2}}{3} \\
0 & \frac{2 \sqrt{2}}{3} & \frac{1}{3}
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad \tau=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{1}{3} & -\frac{2 \sqrt{2}}{3} & 0 \\
\frac{2 \sqrt{2}}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

generate a free subgroup of rank 2 inside $S O(3, \mathbb{R})$.
Theorem 5.6 (Hausdorff Paradox). There is a countable set $D \subseteq \mathbb{S}^{2}$ such that $\mathbb{S}^{2} \backslash D$ is $S O(3, \mathbb{R})$ paradoxical.

Proof. Given $\varphi \in S O(3, \mathbb{R}) \backslash\{\operatorname{id}\}$, let $F(\varphi)=\left\{x \in \mathbb{S}^{2}, \varphi(x)=x\right\}$. Note that $|F(\varphi)|=2$ if $\varphi \neq \mathrm{id}$, and set

$$
D=\bigcup_{\varphi \in F_{2} \backslash\{1\}} F(\varphi),
$$

where $F_{2} \leqslant S O(3, \mathbb{R})$ as in Proposition 5.5. Then $F_{2}$ acts freely on $\mathbb{S}^{2} \backslash D$, so we are done by Proposition 5.4.

Proposition 5.7. If $D \subseteq \mathbb{S}^{2}$ is countable, then $\mathbb{S}^{2}$ and $\mathbb{S}^{2} \backslash D$ are $S O(3, \mathbb{R})$-equidecomposable.

Proof. Let $\ell$ be a line through 0 that does not intersect $D$. There exists $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for all $n \geqslant 1$, the image $\rho^{n}(D)$ of $D$ under the rotation $\rho^{n}$ by $n \theta$ about $\ell$ does not intersect $D$. Set $\bar{D}=\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \rho^{n}(D)$. Then

$$
\mathbb{S}^{2}=\bar{D} \amalg\left(\mathbb{S}^{2} \backslash \bar{D}\right) \sim \rho(\bar{D}) \amalg \rho\left(\mathbb{S}^{2} \backslash \bar{D}\right) \sim \rho(\bar{D}) \amalg \rho\left(\mathbb{S}^{2} \backslash \bar{D}\right) \sim \rho(\bar{D}) \amalg\left(\mathbb{S}^{2} \backslash \bar{D}\right)=\mathbb{S}^{2} \backslash D .
$$

Theorem 5.8 (Banach-Tarski). $\mathbb{S}^{2}$ is $S O(3, \mathbb{R})$-paradoxical.
Proof. This is a corollary of Theorem 5.6 and Proposition 5.7.
Remark 5.9. (i) We can prove similarly that if $E(3)$ is the group of isometries of $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, then any solid ball in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ is $E(3)$-paradoxical and so is $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ itself.
(ii) By the Banach-Tarski paradox, we cannot put a finitely-additive probability measure that is invariant under rotation on subsets of $\mathbb{S}^{2}$.

Theorem 5.10 (Tarski). Let $G \curvearrowright X$ and $E \subseteq X$. Then $E$ is not $G$-paradoxical if and only if there is a $G$-invariant finitely-additive measure $\mu: \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow[0, \infty]$ with $\mu(E)=1$.

### 5.2 Non-paradoxical groups and amenability

Definition 5.11 (Amenable group). Let $G$ be a discrete (or locally compact) group. A measure on $G$ is a finitely-additive measure $\mu$ on $\mathcal{P}(G)$ (or on the Borel $\sigma$-algebra of $G$ ) with $\mu(G)=1$ and which is $G$-invariant, i.e.

$$
\mu(g A)=\mu(A)
$$

for all $g \in G$ and $A \subseteq G$. If $G$ has such a measure, we say that $G$ is amenable.
Example 5.12. All finite groups are amenable.
Remark 5.13. If the action $G \curvearrowright G$ by left multiplication is paradoxical, then $G$ is not amenable. In particular, $F_{2}$ is not amenable, nor is any group containing $F_{2}$.

Conjecture 5.14 (Von-Neumann). All non-amenable groups contain $F_{2}$ as a subgroup.
Remark 5.15. The Von-Neumann Conjecture was disproved by Olshankii, using the example of the Tarski monster.

Definition 5.16 (Left-invariant mean). Let $G$ be a finitely generated group. A left-invariant mean on $G$ is a linear functional $M: \ell^{\infty}(G) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that
(i) If $\lambda(g) \geqslant 0$ for all $g \in G$, then $M(\lambda) \geqslant 0$,
(ii) $M\left(\mathbb{1}_{G}\right)=1$,
(iii) $M(g \cdot \lambda)=M(\lambda)$ for all $\lambda \in \ell^{\infty}(G)$ and $g \in G$, where $(g \cdot \lambda)(h)=\lambda(g h)$.

Proposition 5.17. $G$ is amenable if and only if $G$ admits a left-invariant mean.
Proof. $(\Rightarrow)$ If $\mu$ is a measure on $G$, define

$$
M(f)=\int_{G} f \mathrm{~d} \mu .
$$

$(\Leftarrow)$ If $M$ is a left-invariant mean on $G$, define $\mu(A)=M\left(\mathbb{1}_{A}\right)$.
Proposition 5.18. Let $G$ be an amenable group acting on a set $X$. Then there is a finitely-additive probability measure on $\mathcal{P}(X)$ that is $G$-invariant.

In particular, $X$ is not $G$-paradoxical.

Proof. Let $\mu$ be a measure on $G$ realising amenability. Fix $x_{0} \in X$ and define $\nu: \mathcal{P}(X) \rightarrow[0,1]$ by

$$
\nu(A)=\mu\left(\left\{g \in G, g\left(x_{0}\right) \in A\right\}\right) .
$$

Theorem 5.19. Let $G$ be a finitely generated group. Then the following assertions are equivalent.
(i) $G$ is amenable.
(ii) $G$ admits a left-invariant mean.
(iii) $G$ is not paradoxical.

Proposition 5.20. Let $G$ be a discrete (or locally compact) group.
(i) If $G$ is amenable, then every subgroup of $G$ is amenable.
(ii) If $G$ is amenable, then every quotient of $G$ is amenable.
(iii) If $N \unlhd G$ is such that $N$ and $G / N$ are amenable, then $G$ is amenable.
(iv) If $G=\lim _{\varlimsup_{j \in J}} G_{j}$, where $\left(G_{j}\right)_{j \in J}$ is a directed system of amenable groups, then $G$ is amenable.

Proof. (i) Let $\mu: \mathcal{P}(G) \rightarrow[0,1]$ be a $G$-invariant finitely-additive probability measure on $\mathcal{P}(G)$. Given a subgroup $H \leqslant G$, let $M$ be a right transversal of $H$ in $G$. Define $\nu: \mathcal{P}(H) \rightarrow[0,1]$ by $\nu(A)=\mu(A M)$.
(ii) Define $\lambda: \mathcal{P}(G / N) \rightarrow[0,1]$ by $\lambda(A)=\mu\left(\pi^{-1}(A)\right)$ where $\pi: G \rightarrow G / N$ is the projection.
(iii) Let $\nu_{1}: \mathcal{P}(N) \rightarrow[0,1]$ and $\nu_{2}: \mathcal{P}(G / N) \rightarrow[0,1]$ be invariant finitely-additive probability measures. For $A \subseteq G$, define

$$
f_{A}: g \in G \longmapsto \nu_{1}\left(N \cap g^{-1} A\right) \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Note that $f_{A}(g n)=f_{A}(g)$ for all $n \in N$. Therefore, $f_{A}$ induces $f_{A}: G / N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Now define $\mu: \mathcal{P}(G) \rightarrow[0,1]$ by

$$
\mu(A)=\int_{G / N} f_{A} \mathrm{~d} \nu_{2}
$$

this is a finitely-additive probability measure. To check left-invariance, note that, for $h \in G$,

$$
\mu(h A)=\int_{G / N} f_{h A}(g) \mathrm{d} \nu_{2}(g)=\int_{G / N} f_{A}\left(h^{-1} g\right) \mathrm{d} \nu_{2}(g)=\int_{G / N}\left(h^{-1} \cdot f_{A}\right) \mathrm{d} \nu_{2} .
$$

Now the action of $G$ on functions $G / N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is via $G / N$, i.e. $(h n)^{-1} \cdot f_{A}=h^{-1} \cdot f_{A}$ for $h \in G$ and $n \in N$. It follows that

$$
\mu(h A)=\int_{G / N}\left(h^{-1} \cdot f_{A}\right) \mathrm{d} \nu_{2}=\int_{G / N} f_{A} \mathrm{~d} \nu_{2}=\mu(A) .
$$

### 5.3 Geometric interpretation of amenability

Definition 5.21 (Følner condition). A finitely generated group $G$ satisfies the (left) Følner condition if for any finite subset $A \subseteq G$ and for any $\varepsilon>0$, there is a finite nonempty subset $F \subseteq G$ such that

$$
\frac{|a F \triangle F|}{|F|} \leqslant \varepsilon
$$

for all $a \in A$.
Theorem 5.22. A finitely generated group $G$ is amenable if and only if it satisfies the Følner condition.

Proof. ( $\Rightarrow$ ) See Druțu-Kapovich or Juschenko.
$(\Leftarrow)$ For $A \subseteq G$ finite and $\varepsilon>0$, define
$M_{A, \varepsilon}=\{\mu$ finitely-additive probability measure on $G, \forall B \subseteq G, \forall a \in A,|\mu(B)-\mu(a B)| \leqslant \varepsilon\}$.
Note that $M_{A, \varepsilon}$ is a closed subset of $[0,1]^{\mathcal{P}(G)}$ for the product topology. Moreover, if $F$ is a Følner set given by $A, \varepsilon$, and $\mu(B)=\frac{|B \cap F|}{|F|}$, then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\mu(B)-\mu(a B)| & =\left|\frac{|B \cap F|}{|F|}-\frac{|a B \cap F|}{|F|}\right|=\left|\frac{|B \cap F|}{|F|}-\frac{\left|B \cap a^{-1} F\right|}{|F|}\right| \\
& \leqslant \frac{\left|F \triangle a^{-1} F\right|}{|F|}=\frac{|a F \triangle F|}{|F|} \leqslant \varepsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

so $\mu \in M_{A, \varepsilon}$. Therefore, $\left(M_{A, \varepsilon}\right)_{A, \varepsilon}$ is a collection of nonempty closed subsets of $[0,1]^{\mathcal{P}(G)}$, such that the intersection of any finite subcollection is nonempty:

$$
\bigcap_{i=1}^{k} M_{A_{i}, \varepsilon_{i}} \supseteq M_{A_{1} \cup \ldots \cup A_{k}, \min \left\{\varepsilon_{1}, \ldots, \varepsilon_{k}\right\}} \supsetneq \varnothing .
$$

It follows by compactness of $[0,1]^{\mathcal{P}(G)}$ that $\bigcap_{A, \varepsilon} M_{A, \varepsilon} \neq \varnothing$; now any element $\mu \in \bigcap_{A, \varepsilon} M_{A, \varepsilon}$ is a finitely-additive $G$-invariant probability measure on $G$.

Definition 5.23 (Cheeger constant). Given a graph $X$, the Cheeger constant of $X$ is defined by

$$
h(X)=\inf _{\substack{A \subseteq V(X) \text { finite } \\ 1 \leqslant|A| \leqslant \frac{1}{2}|V(X)|}} \frac{|\partial A|}{|A|},
$$

where $\partial A=\{x \in V(X) \backslash A, \exists a \in A, x a \in E(X)\}$.
Remark 5.24. A finitely generated group $G$ satisfies the left Følner condition if and only if satisfies the right Følner condition: for any finite subset $A \subseteq G$ and for any $\varepsilon>0$, there is a finite nonempty subset $F \subseteq G$ such that $\frac{|F a \triangle F|}{|F|} \leqslant \varepsilon$ for all $a \in A$.
Proof. Given $A \subseteq G$ and $\varepsilon>0$, let $F$ be the Følner set corresponding to $A^{-1}=\left\{a^{-1}, a \in A\right\}$. Then $F^{-1}$ satisfies

$$
\frac{\left|F^{-1} a \triangle F^{-1}\right|}{\left|F^{-1}\right|}=\frac{\left|a^{-1} F \triangle F\right|}{|F|} \leqslant \varepsilon .
$$

Proposition 5.25. Given a finitely generated group $G$, the following assertions are equivalent:
(i) $G$ satisfies the Følner condition.
(ii) For any generating set $S, h(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S))=0$.
(iii) There is a generating set $S$ such that $h(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S))=0$.

Proof. (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) Obvious.
(i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) Let $S$ be a finite generating set for $G$. Let $\varepsilon>0$. Then there is a right Følner set $F$ corresponding to $S^{ \pm 1}$ and $\varepsilon$, i.e. $\frac{|F s \Delta F|}{|F|} \leqslant \varepsilon$ for all $s \in S^{ \pm 1}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
h(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)) & \leqslant \frac{|\partial F|}{|F|}=\frac{\left|\left\{g s, g \in G, s \in S^{ \pm 1}, g s \notin F\right\}\right|}{|F|} \\
& \leqslant \frac{1}{|F|}\left|\bigcup_{s \in S^{ \pm 1}}(F s \triangle F)\right| \leqslant \sum_{s \in S^{ \pm 1}} \frac{|F s \triangle F|}{|F|} \leqslant 2|S| \varepsilon .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, $h(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S))=0$.

Proposition 5.26. Having Cheeger constant equal to zero is a quasi-isometry invariant.
Corollary 5.27. Amenability is a quasi-isometry invariant.
Corollary 5.28. All finitely generated groups of subexponential growth are amenable.
Proof. Let $G$ be a group of subexponential growth with a finite generating set $S$. If there existed $\varepsilon>0$ such that $\frac{|B(k+1)|}{|B(k)|}>1+\varepsilon$ for all $k \geqslant 0$, then we would have $|B(k+1)|>(1+\varepsilon)^{k}|B(1)|$, contradicting the fact that $G$ has subexponential growth. Therefore, for all $\varepsilon>0$, there exists $k \geqslant 0$ such that $\frac{|B(k+1)|}{|B(k)|} \leqslant 1+\varepsilon$, so that

$$
h(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S)) \leqslant \frac{|\partial B(k)|}{|B(k)|}=\frac{|B(k+1)|-|B(k)|}{|B(k)|} \leqslant \varepsilon .
$$

Hence $h(\operatorname{Cay}(G, S))=0$.
Corollary 5.29. All solvable groups are amenable.
Proof. Corollary 5.28 implies that all abelian groups are amenable (because they have polynomial growth). Now Proposition 5.20 allows one to use an induction argument to show that all solvable groups are amenable.

Remark 5.30. Consider the closure of the class of finite groups and abelian groups under the operations of Proposition 5.20; this is called the class of elementary amenable groups. It is strictly contained within the class of all amenable groups (for example, Grigorchuk's group is non-elementary amenable).

It is an open question to know whether or not elementary amenability is a quasi-isometry invariant.

Definition 5.31 (Ponzi scheme). A Ponzi scheme on a metric graph $X$ is a map $\rho: X \rightarrow X$ such that:
(i) $\exists R \geqslant 0, \forall x \in X, d(x, \rho x) \leqslant R$,
(ii) $\forall x \in X,\left|\rho^{-1}(\{x\})\right| \geqslant 2$.

Proposition 5.32. A group $G$ has a Ponzi scheme if and only if it is non-amenable.

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