# SOME INFINITE FIBONACCI GROUPS 

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The Fibonacci groups are a special case of the following class of groups first studied by G. A. Miller (7). Given a natural number $n$, let $\theta$ be the automorphism of the free group $F=\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \mid\right\rangle$ of rank $n$ which permutes the subscripts of the generators in accordance with the cycle ( $1,2, \ldots, n$ ). Given a word $w$ in $F$, let $R$ be the smallest normal subgroup of $F$ which contains $w$ and is closed under $\theta$. Then define $G_{n}(w)=F / R$ and write $A_{n}(w)$ for the derived factor group of $G_{n}(w)$. Putting, for $r \geqq 2, k \geqq 1$,

$$
w=x_{1} \ldots x_{r} x_{r+k}^{-1}
$$

with subscripts reduced modulo $n$, we obtain the groups $F(r, n, k)$ studied in (1) and (2), while the $F(r, n, 1)$ are the ordinary Fibonacci groups $F(r, n)$ of (3), (5) and (6). To conform with earlier notation, we write $A(r, n, k)$ and $A(r, n)$ for the derived factor groups of $F(r, n, k)$, and $F(r, n)$ respectively.

Our purpose in the present note is threefold: firstly to explain the connection between the two apparently different formulae for $|A(r, n)|$ given in (5) (numbered (3) and (6)), secondly to derive necessary and sufficient conditions for $A_{n}(w)$ to be infinite, and finally to apply this to the groups $A(r, n, k)$ by way of example. The second item is the analogue of a result of Dunwoody (4), while the third extends Theorems 6 and 7 of (1) and at the same time complements Theorem 1 of (2).

The symbol | . | will stand indiscriminately for the order of an element of a group, the order of a group or the absolute value of a complex number, it being clear from the context which is intended. $\mathbf{Z}[x]$ denotes the ring of polynomials over the integers $\mathbf{Z}$, while $\mathbf{Z}\left\langle x \mid x^{n}\right\rangle$ is the integral group ring of a cyclic group of order $n$, so that

$$
Z\left\langle x \mid x^{n}\right\rangle \cong Z[x] /\left(x^{n}-1\right)
$$

as rings. Finally, we observe the usual conventions with regard to empty sums (for example, formula (1) below when $s=0$ ) and empty products (for example, the definition of $f * g$ when $f$ is a constant polynomial).

The $n$-generator, $n$-relation presentation given above for $\boldsymbol{F}(r, n)$ shows that a relation matrix for $A(r, n)$ is the circulant matrix $C$ whose first row is

$$
\underbrace{k+1, \ldots, k+1,}_{s} k-1, \underbrace{k, \ldots, k}_{n-s-1}
$$

where,

$$
r=k n+s, \quad 0 \leqq s<n
$$

Thus we obtain formula (6) of (5), viz.

$$
\begin{equation*}
|A(r, n)|= \pm \operatorname{det} C= \pm \prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{s}(k+1) \omega_{i}^{j-1}+(k-1) \omega_{i}^{s}+\sum_{j=s+2}^{n} k \omega_{i}^{j-1}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\omega_{1}, \ldots, \omega_{n}$ are distinct $n$th roots of unity. We can express this more conveniently as follows: let $b_{i-1}$ be the exponent-sum of $x_{i}$ in $w=x_{1} \ldots x_{r} x_{r+1}^{-1}$ and put

$$
f(x)=b_{0}+b_{1} x+\ldots+b_{n-1} x^{n-1}
$$

Writing

$$
g(x)=x^{n}-1
$$

formula (1) reduces to

$$
\begin{equation*}
|A(r, n)|=\prod_{g(\xi)}|f(\xi)| \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The presentation for $F(r, n)$ on $r$ generators ( $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}$ ) obtained using Tietze transformations in the obvious way, leads to the relation matrix

$$
M^{n}-I
$$

for $A(r, n)$, where $M$ is the companion matrix of the polynomial

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=x^{r}-x^{r-1}-\ldots-x-1
$$

Thus we have another expression for $|A(r, n)|$ :

$$
|A(r, n)|=\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left|\xi_{i}^{n}-1\right|
$$

where $\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{r}$ are the zeros of $f^{\prime}(x)$, in other words

$$
\begin{equation*}
|A(r, n)|=\prod_{f^{\prime}(\xi)=0}|g(\xi)| \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we have

$$
-f^{\prime}(x)=\left(1+x^{n}+\ldots+x^{(k-1) n}\right)\left(1+x+\ldots+x^{n-1}\right)+x^{k n}\left(1+x+\ldots+x^{s-1}-x^{s}\right)
$$

so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f+f^{\prime} \equiv 0(\bmod (g)) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition. Let $f, g \in \mathbf{Z}[x]$ and define $f * g \in \mathbf{Z}$ to be the product of the values of $g$ on the complex zeros of $f$.

The following easily-proved theorem now shows that (2) and (3) are in fact the same formula.

Theorem 1. For polynomials $f, g, f^{\prime} \in \mathbf{Z}[x]$, we have
(i) $f * g= \pm g * f$, if $f$ and $g$ are monic,
(ii) $g * f=g * f^{\prime}$, if $f \equiv f^{\prime}(\bmod g)$,
(iii) $g * f^{\prime}=(g * f)\left(g * f^{\prime}\right)$.

Passing now to the $G_{n}(w)$, let $b_{i-1}$ be the exponent sum of $x_{i}$ in $w$ and define

$$
f(x)=b_{0}+b_{1} x+\ldots+b_{n-1} x^{n-1}
$$

as above, a member of $\mathrm{Z}[x]$. Call $f(x)$ the polynomial associated with $w$.

Dunwoody's Theorem (4) asserts that $G_{n}(w)$ is perfect if and only if the polynomial associated with $w$ is a unit in $Z\left\langle x \mid x^{n}\right\rangle$. Our next result is an analogue of this.

Theorem 2. Let $f(x)$ be the polynomial associated with the word $w$ in the free group of rank $n$, and let $g(x)=x^{n}-1$. The following three assertions are then equivalent:
(a) $G_{n}(w)$ has an infinite abelian factor group,
(b) $g * f=0$,
(c) $f(x)$ is a zero-divisor in $Z\left\langle x \mid x^{n}\right\rangle$.

Proof. We first prove the equivalence of $(a)$ and $(b)$. (a) is equivalent to the assertion that $A_{n}(w)$ is infinite. Now a relation matrix for $A_{n}(w)$ is the circulant matrix $C$ with first row ( $b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n-1}$ ), and so $A_{n}(w)$ is infinite if and only if $\operatorname{det} C=0$. But det $C= \pm g * f$, so the result follows. To show that (b) and (c) are equivalent, first note that $g * f=0$ if and only if $g$ and $f$ have a common zero, that is $f(\xi)=0$ for some $n$th root $\xi$ of unity. Let $\phi_{k}(x)$ be the cyclotomic polynomial of order $k$; (b) is equivalent to the assertion: $\phi_{k}(x)$ is a divisor of $f(x)$ for some $k$ dividing $n$. Since $\phi_{k}(x) \phi_{k}^{\prime}(x)=x^{n}-1$ for some $\phi_{k}^{\prime}(x) \in \mathbf{Z}[x]$, this condition is clearly equivalent to (c).

Thus we see that $A_{n}(w)$ is infinite if and only if the polynomial associated with $w$ vanishes on some $n$th root of unity. We apply this to the classification of the infinite members of the set $A(r, n, k)$, thereby generalising Theorems 6 and 7 of (1), as well as Corollary 2 of (5). Theorem 1 of (2) asserts that $F(r, n, k)$ is metacyclic of order $r^{n}-1$ provided that

$$
r \equiv 1(\bmod n) \quad \text { and } \quad(n, k)=1
$$

Our theorem shows that $\boldsymbol{F}(r, n, k)$ is infinite if

$$
r \equiv 1(\bmod n) \quad \text { and } \quad(n, k) \neq 1
$$

Theorem 3. $A(r, n, k)$ is infinite if and only if at least one of the following two conditions holds:
(i) $(r-1, k, n) \neq 1$,
(ii) $v_{2}(r+1)$ and $v_{2}(n)$ are each greater than $v_{2}(k-1)$,
where $v_{2}$ denotes the 2-part of a positive integer and $v_{2}(0)=\infty$.
Proof. By Theorem 2, $A(r, n, k)$ is infinite if and only if the polynomial

$$
1+x+\ldots+x^{r-1}-x^{r+k-1}
$$

vanishes on an $n$th root of unity. Since $r \geqq 2$, this is equivalent to the vanishing of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x^{r+k}-x^{r+k-1}\right)-\left(x^{r}-1\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

on some non-trivial $n$th root of unity. We first assume that some $n$th root $\xi$ of unity is a root of (5), so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi^{r+k}-\xi^{r+k-1}=\xi^{r}-1 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

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It follows that
so that either

$$
|\xi-1|=\left|\xi^{r}-1\right|
$$

$$
\xi^{r}=\xi \quad \text { or } \quad \xi^{r}=\xi^{-1}
$$

In the first case, substitution in (6) yields
so that

$$
\xi^{k}(\xi-1)=(\xi-1),
$$

$$
\xi \neq 1, \xi^{k}=1, \xi^{r-1}=1, \xi^{n}=1
$$

from which (i) follows. In the second case, substitution in (6) yields

$$
\xi^{k-1}-\xi^{k-2}=\xi^{-1}-1
$$

and multiplication of this by $\xi /(\xi-1)$ gives

$$
\xi^{k-1}=-1
$$

The conditions

$$
\xi \neq 1, \xi^{k-1}=-1, \xi^{r+1}=1, \xi^{n}=1
$$

now give condition (ii).
For the converse, let $h \neq 1$ be a common factor of $r-1, k$ and $n$. If $\xi$ is a primitive $h$ th root of unity, then $\xi \neq 1, \xi^{n}=1$ and (5) vanishes on $\xi$. If, on the other hand, (ii) holds, let $h=2 . v_{2}(k-1)$, so that $h$ is a divisor both of $r+1$ and $n$, and $h \neq 1$. Again let $\xi$ be a primitive $h$ th root of unity, so that again $\xi \neq 1, \xi^{n}=1$. Since $\xi^{2(k-1)}=1$ and $\xi^{k-1} \neq 1$, we must have $\xi^{k-1}=-1$ and $\xi$ is again a zero of (5), which completes the proof.

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