

Common Right Multiples in $\mathbb{K}P$ of Linear Combinations of Generators of the Positive Monoid P of Thompson's Group F

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Abstract

We show that any two elements of $\mathbb{K}P$ which can be written as a linear combination of generators of the positive monoid P of the group F have nonzero common right multiples in $\mathbb{K}P$.

1 Introduction

Let S be a semigroup, and let $B(S)$ denote the set of all bounded, real valued functions on S . For each $f \in B(S)$ and for each $a \in S$, define $f_a \in B(S)$ by $f_a(x) = f(ax)$ for each $x \in S$. We say that S is *left amenable* if there exists a function $\mu : B(S) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for all $f, g \in B(S)$, for each $a \in S$, and for all $r \in \mathbb{R}$:

1. $\sup_{x \in S} f(x) \geq \mu(f) \geq \inf_{x \in S} f(x)$
2. $\mu(f_a) = \mu(f)$
3. $\mu(f + g) = \mu(f) + \mu(g)$
4. $\mu(rf) = r\mu(f)$.

We say that a group G is *amenable* if it is left amenable.

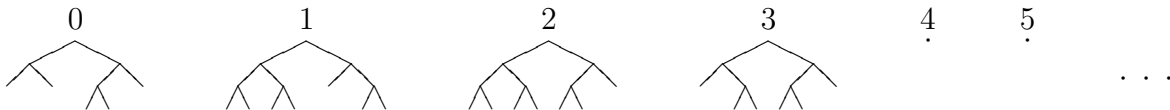
We say that a semigroup S has *common right multiples* if for each pair of elements $b_1, b_2 \in S$, there exist elements $d_1, d_2 \in S$ such that $b_1d_1 = b_2d_2$. One can analogously define the notion of *common right multiples* in a ring. A theorem of Ore states that if M is a cancellative monoid which has common right multiples, then M embeds as a submonoid into a group G such that the following two conditions are satisfied:

- (i) For each $g \in G$, there exists $x, y \in M$ such that $g = xy^{-1}$.
- (ii) If M has monoid presentation $\langle A \mid R \rangle$, then G is isomorphic to the group defined by the presentation $\langle A \mid R \rangle$.

The group G is called the *group of right fractions* of M , and M is called the *positive monoid* of G . We define Richard Thompson's group F to be the group of right fractions of the monoid P which is given by the presentation

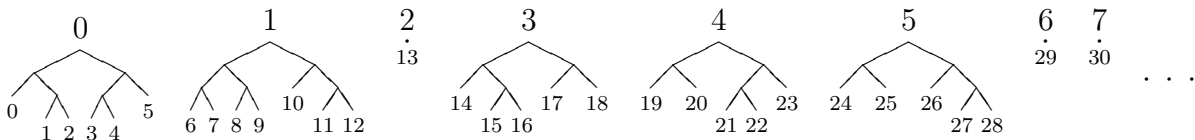
$$\langle x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots \mid x_n x_m = x_m x_{n+1} \text{ for } n > m \rangle.$$

We define a (k, m) -*binary forest* \mathcal{F} to be a sequence (starting the count at zero) of rooted binary trees such that \mathcal{F} has a total of exactly m carets, and such that for each $i \geq k + 1$, the i^{th} tree of \mathcal{F} is the trivial tree, which consists of just a single point. The following is an example of a $(3, 21)$ -binary forest.

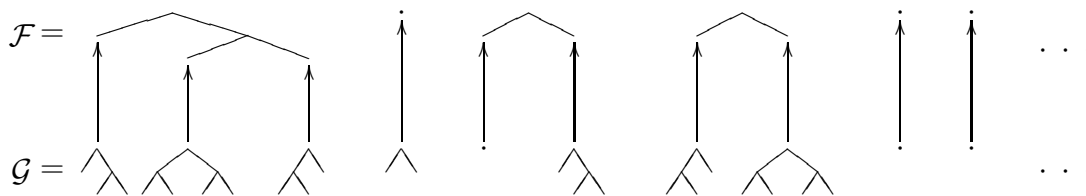


The set of all (k, m) -binary forests is denoted by $S_{k,m}$. If \mathcal{F} is a binary forest, then we denote the i^{th} tree of \mathcal{F} by $\tau_{\mathcal{F}}(i)$.

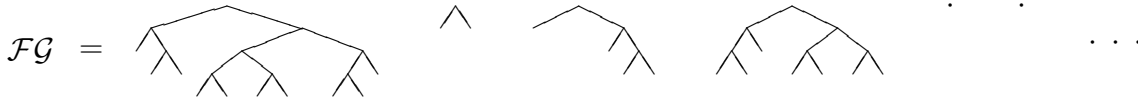
We enumerate the leaves of a binary forest \mathcal{F} from left to right. The following example shows the enumeration on the leaves of a $(5, 23)$ -binary forest.



Using this enumeration on the leaves of a binary forest, we define a multiplication on the set of all binary forests. Given two binary forests \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{G} , construct the binary forest $\mathcal{F}\mathcal{G}$ by attaching the i^{th} tree of \mathcal{G} to the i^{th} leaf of \mathcal{F} . For example, we multiply a $(3, 4)$ -binary forest \mathcal{F} with a $(7, 15)$ -binary forest \mathcal{G} :



to get the following binary forest \mathcal{FG} :



With this multiplication, the set of all binary forests forms a monoid which is isomorphic to the monoid P . More specifically, for $n \geq 0$, the generator x_n of P is the binary forest all of whose trees are trivial except for the n^{th} tree, which consists of a single caret.

In [7], Tamari proves the following theorem. A proof is also given by Engel in [4].

Theorem 1. *Let M be a left amenable, cancellative monoid, and let \mathbb{K} be a field. Then for each pair of nonzero elements $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{K}M$ there exist nonzero elements $\gamma, \rho \in \mathbb{K}M$ such that $\alpha\gamma = \beta\rho$.*

Geoghegan has conjectured that the group F is an example of a finitely presented, nonamenable group which has no free subgroup on two generators [5]. In [1], Brin and Squier show that F has no free subgroup on two generators. However, the question of whether or not the group F is amenable is still open, and has resisted the efforts of mathematicians for over twenty years [2]. Thus, one can ask if for any field \mathbb{K} , does the group ring $\mathbb{K}F$ have nonzero common right multiples, thereby satisfying the conclusion of Theorem 1. In Section 2, we show that the group ring $\mathbb{K}F$ has nonzero common right multiples if and only if the monoid ring $\mathbb{K}P$ has nonzero common right multiples. In Section 4 we show that any two nonzero elements $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{K}P$ which can be written as a linear combination of generators of the positive monoid P have nonzero common right multiples in $\mathbb{K}P$. Moreover, we show that that if $\gamma, \rho \in \mathbb{K}P$ are such that $\alpha\gamma = \beta\rho$, then γ and ρ are linear combinations of elements from $S_{k+1,m}$.

2 The Relationship Between $\mathbb{K}G$ and $\mathbb{K}M$

Throughout this section, we assume that M is a cancellative monoid which has common right multiples, that G is the group of right fractions of the monoid M , and that \mathbb{K} is a field such that $\mathbb{K}M$ has no zero divisors. Using induction on $|H|$, together with the fact that G is the group of right fractions of the monoid M , one can show that if H is a finite subset of G , then there exists $q \in M$ such that $Hq \subseteq M$. The proof of the following lemma is left to the reader.

Lemma 1. *Let G be the group of right fractions of a monoid M . Let $z_1, \dots, z_n \in \mathbb{K}G$. Then there exists $q \in M$ such that for each $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, we have that $z_i q \in \mathbb{K}M$.*

Lemma 2. *Let G be the group of right fractions of a monoid M . Then $\mathbb{K}G$ has nonzero common right multiples if and only if $\mathbb{K}M$ has nonzero common right multiples.*

Proof. Assume that $\mathbb{K}G$ has nonzero common right multiples. Let z_1 and z_2 be nonzero elements of $\mathbb{K}M$. Since $\mathbb{K}M \subseteq \mathbb{K}G$, and since $\mathbb{K}G$ has nonzero common right multiples, then there exist $u_1, u_2 \in \mathbb{K}G$ such that $z_1 u_1 = z_2 u_2 \neq 0$. By Lemma 1, there exists $q \in M$ such that $u_1 q, u_2 q \in \mathbb{K}M$. Since $z_1 u_1 \neq 0$, $z_2 u_2 \neq 0$, and $q \neq 0$, and since $\mathbb{K}G$ has no zero divisors, then $z_1 u_1 q \neq 0$ and $z_2 u_2 q \neq 0$. Thus, $u_1 q$ and $u_2 q$ are elements of $\mathbb{K}M$ such that $z_1(u_1 q) = z_2(u_2 q) \neq 0$. Hence, $\mathbb{K}M$ has nonzero common right multiples.

Conversely, assume that $\mathbb{K}M$ has nonzero common right multiples. Let y_1 and y_2 be nonzero elements of $\mathbb{K}G$. By Lemma 1, there exists $b \in M$ such that $y_1 b, y_2 b \in \mathbb{K}M$. Since $y_1 b, y_2 b \in \mathbb{K}M$, and since $\mathbb{K}M$ has nonzero common right multiples, then there exist $v_1, v_2 \in \mathbb{K}M \subseteq \mathbb{Z}G$ such that $y_1 b v_1 = y_2 b v_2 \neq 0$. Hence, $\mathbb{K}G$ has nonzero common right multiples. \square

3 Properties of $S_{k,m}$

The set $S_{0,m}$ is essentially the set of all rooted binary trees, each of which has exactly m carets. It is well known that the number of elements in this set is the m^{th} catalan number $\frac{(2m)!}{m!(m+1)!}$ [6]. The following lemma is proven in [3].

Lemma 3. *Let $m \geq 0$.*

$$(i) \quad |S_{1,m}| = |S_{0,m+1}|.$$

$$(ii) \quad \text{For each } k \geq 1, \quad |S_{k+1,m}| = |S_{k,m+1}| - |S_{k-1,m+1}|.$$

Theorem 2. *For each $k \geq 0$, and for each $m \geq 0$, $|S_{k,m}| = \frac{(k+1)(2m+k)!}{(m+k+1)!m!}$.*

Proof. We prove this by induction on k . If $k = 0$, then we see that

$$|S_{0,m}| = \frac{(2m)!}{m!(m+1)!} = \frac{(0+1)(2m+0)!}{m!(m+0+1)!}$$

Assume that $k = 1$. It follows by Lemma 3 that $|S_{1,m}| = |S_{0,m+1}|$. Thus, we see that

$$|S_{1,m}| = |S_{0,m+1}| = \frac{(2(m+1))!}{(m+1)!(m+1+1)!} = \frac{(2m+2)!}{(m+1)!(m+2)!}.$$

Since

$$2 = 2 \left(\frac{m+1}{m+1} \right) = \frac{2m+2}{m+1} = \frac{(2m+2)(2m+1)!m!}{(m+1)(2m+1)!m!} = \frac{(2m+2)!m!}{(2m+1)!(m+1)!}$$

then

$$\frac{(2m+2)!}{(m+1)!} = \frac{2(2m+1)!}{m!}$$

which implies that

$$|S_{1,m}| = \frac{(2m+2)!}{(m+1)!(m+2)!} = \frac{2(2m+1)!}{m!(m+2)!} = \frac{(1+1)(2m+1)!}{(m+1+1)!m!}.$$

Now assume that there exists $k \geq 1$, such that for each $j \in \{0, \dots, k\}$ and for each $m \geq 0$,

$$|S_{j,m}| = \frac{(j+1)(2m+j)!}{(m+j+1)!m!}$$

Since $k \geq 1$, then it follows by Lemma 3 that $|S_{k+1,m}| = |S_{k,m+1}| - |S_{k-1,m+1}|$. Thus, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} |S_{k+1,m}| &= |S_{k,m+1}| - |S_{k-1,m+1}| \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(2(m+1)+k)!}{((m+1)+k+1)!(m+1)!} - \frac{((k-1)+1)(2(m+1)+(k-1))!}{((m+1)+(k-1)+1)!(m+1)!} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(2m+k+2)! - (k)(2m+k+1)!(m+k+2)}{(m+k+2)!(m+1)!} \\ &= \frac{(2m+k+1)!(km+k+2m+2)}{(m+k+2)!m!(m+1)} \\ &= \frac{(2m+k+1)!(k+2)(m+1)}{(m+k+2)!m!(m+1)} \\ &= \frac{((k+1)+1)(2m+(k+1))!}{(m+(k+1)+1)!m!}. \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 3. For each $k \geq 0$, $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{k+1,m}|}{|S_{k,m}|} = \frac{2(k+2)}{k+1}$.

Proof. We see that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{k+1,m}|}{|S_{k,m}|} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left(\frac{(k+2)(2m+k+1)!}{(m+k+2)!m!}\right)}{\left(\frac{(k+1)(2m+k)!}{(m+k+1)!m!}\right)} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(k+2)(2m+k+1)}{(k+1)(m+k+2)} = \frac{2(k+2)}{k+1}.$$

□

Theorem 4. For each $k \geq 0$, $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{k,m}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = (k+1)2^k$.

Proof. We prove this by induction on k . When $k = 0$, we see that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = 1 = (0+1)2^0$$

Assume that there exists $k \geq 1$ such that $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{k,m}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = (k+1)2^k$. Thus, by Lemma 3, together with our induction hypothesis, we see that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{k+1,m}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = \left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{k+1,m}|}{|S_{k,m}|}\right) \left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{k,m}|}{|S_{0,m}|}\right) = \left(\frac{2(k+2)}{k+1}\right) ((k+1)2^k) = (k+2)(2^{k+1}).$$

□

Theorem 5. For each $k \geq 0$, $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m+k}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = 4^k$.

Proof. We prove this by induction on k . When $k = 0$, we see that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m+0}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = 1 = 4^0.$$

Assume that $k = 1$. Then we see that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m+1}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left(\frac{(2(m+1))!}{(m+1)!(m+2)!}\right)}{\left(\frac{(2m)!}{m!(m+1)!}\right)} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4m^2 + 6m + 2}{m^2 + 3m + 2} = 4 = 4^1.$$

Now assume that there exists $k \geq 1$ such that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m+k}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = 4^k.$$

As $m \rightarrow \infty$, then $(m+k) \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore, by the base case for $k = 1$, we see that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m+k+1}|}{|S_{0,m+k}|} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m+1}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = 4.$$

Hence, we see that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m+k+1}|}{|S_{0,m}|} = \left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m+k+1}|}{|S_{0,m+k}|} \right) \left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0,m+k}|}{|S_{0,m}|} \right) = (4)(4^k) = 4^{k+1}.$$

□

4 The Main Theorem

The following theorem is a version of Theorem 1. However, we have reworded the statement of the theorem to fit the context here more appropriately. In particular, we do not assume that the monoid M is amenable, but instead focus on one specific nonempty, finite subset H of M . Note that if M is amenable, then the theorem can be applied to any nonempty, finite subset of M . The proof is identical to that of Theorem 1. However, we include the proof here for the sake of completeness.

Theorem 6. *Let M be a monoid, and let H be a nonempty, finite subset of M . Assume that H consists precisely of the z elements h_1, \dots, h_z . Let α and β be nonzero elements of $\mathbb{K}M$ such that $\alpha = \sum_{k=1}^z a_k h_k$ and $\beta = \sum_{k=1}^z b_k h_k$, where for each $k \in \{1, \dots, z\}$, we have that $a_k, b_k \in \mathbb{K}$. If there exists a nonempty, finite subset $E \subseteq M$ such that $|HE| < 2|E|$, then there exist nonzero elements $\gamma, \rho \in \mathbb{K}M$ such that $\alpha\gamma = \beta\rho$.*

Proof. Assume that there exists a nonempty, finite subset $E \subseteq M$ such that $|HE| < 2|E|$. Let $r = |E|$, and let $t = |HE|$. Let HE consist of the elements g_1, g_2, \dots, g_t . We assume that the order of these elements is fixed. Since $|HE| < 2|E|$, then $t < 2r$. We need to show that there exist nonzero elements $\gamma, \rho \in \mathbb{K}M$ such that $\alpha\gamma = \beta\rho$. Let E consist precisely of the r elements e_1, e_2, \dots, e_r . Again, we assume that the order of these elements is fixed. Let $\gamma = \sum_{l=1}^r u_l e_l$ and $\rho = \sum_{l=1}^r w_l e_l$, where for each $l \in \{1, \dots, r\}$, the coefficients u_l and w_l are unknown.

Let V_γ denote the $r \times 1$ vector whose entries are the unknown coefficients u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r of γ . That is,

$$V_\gamma = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_r \end{bmatrix}$$

Given $g_i \in HE$, then there exist $h_{k_i} \in H$ and $e_{l_i} \in E$ such that $g_i = h_{k_i}e_{l_i}$. Let $\mathcal{M}_\gamma = [m_{i,j}]$ be the $t \times r$ matrix whose ij^{th} entry $m_{i,j}$ is given by

$$m_{i,j} = \begin{cases} a_{k_i} & \text{if } g_i = h_{k_i}e_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Similarly, let V_ρ denote the $r \times 1$ vector whose entries are the unknown coefficients w_1, w_2, \dots, w_r of ρ . That is,

$$V_\rho = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_r \end{bmatrix}$$

Also, let $\mathcal{M}_\rho = [q_{i,j}]$ be the $t \times r$ matrix whose ij^{th} entry $q_{i,j}$ is given by

$$q_{i,j} = \begin{cases} b_{k_i} & \text{if } g_i = h_{k_i}e_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Since $\mathcal{M}_\gamma V_\gamma = \mathcal{M}_\rho V_\rho$ is a linear system with t equations and $2r$ unknowns, and since $t < 2r$, then it has a nontrivial solution. Thus, we have coefficients $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_r, d_1, d_2, \dots, d_r$, not all of which are zero, such that for each $i \in \{1, \dots, t\}$,

$$\sum_{h_{k_i}e_j=g_i} a_{k_i}c_j = \sum_{h_{k_i}e_j=g_i} b_{k_i}d_j$$

Thus, we have elements $\gamma, \rho \in \mathbb{K}P$ such that $\gamma = \sum_{l=1}^r c_l e_l$ and $\rho = \sum_{l=1}^r d_l e_l$, and moreover, that $\alpha\gamma = \left(\sum_{k=1}^z a_k h_k\right) \left(\sum_{l=1}^r c_l e_l\right) = \sum_{i=1}^z \sum_{l=1}^r (a_k c_l) h_k e_l = \sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{h_{k_i}e_j=g_i} (a_{k_i} c_j) g_i = \sum_{i=1}^t \sum_{h_{k_i}e_j=g_i} (b_{k_i} d_j) g_i = \sum_{i=1}^z \sum_{l=1}^r (b_k d_l) h_k e_l = \left(\sum_{k=1}^z b_k h_k\right) \left(\sum_{l=1}^r d_l e_l\right) = \beta\rho.$

□

Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Let $A_k = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k\}$.

Theorem 7. *Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then for each $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $m \geq 0$, we have that $A_k S_{k+1,m} = S_{k,m+1}$.*

Proof. Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $m \geq 0$. Let $y \in A_k S_{k+1,m}$. Thus, there exist $x_i \in A_k$ and $z \in S_{k+1,m}$ such that $y = x_i z$. We form the product $x_i z$ by attaching a caret λ to the forest z from above by attaching the left leaf of λ to the root of the i^{th} tree $\tau_z(i)$ of z , and by attaching the right leaf of λ to the root of the $(i + 1)^{st}$ tree $\tau_z(i + 1)$ of z .

z . Since z has a total of m carets overall, and since we get $x_i z$ by attaching a single caret to z , then $x_i z$ has a total of $m + 1$ carets overall. The i^{th} and $(i + 1)^{\text{st}}$ trees $\tau_z(i)$ and $\tau_z(i + 1)$, respectively, of z become subtrees of the i^{th} tree $\tau_{x_i z}(i)$ of $x_i z$. The roots of these trees become the left and right children of the root caret λ of $\tau_{x_i z}(i)$. Moreover, for each $j \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $j \geq i + 2$, the j^{th} tree $\tau_z(j)$ of z becomes the $(j - 1)^{\text{st}}$ tree $\tau_{x_i z}(j - 1)$ of $x_i z$. Since for each $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $b \geq k + 2$, the b^{th} tree $\tau_z(b)$ of z is trivial, then for each $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $b \geq k + 1$, the b^{th} tree $\tau_{x_i z}(b)$ of $x_i z$ is trivial. Therefore, $x_i z \in S_{k, m+1}$. Thus, $A_k S_{k+1, m} \subseteq S_{k, m+1}$.

Conversely, assume that $w \in S_{k, m+1}$. Since w has at least one caret, then at least one of the trees $\tau_w(0), \tau_w(1), \dots, \tau_w(k)$ is nontrivial. Let $j \in \{0, \dots, k\}$ be such that the j^{th} tree $\tau_w(j)$ of w is nontrivial. Remove the top caret λ of $\tau_w(j)$ to get a forest which is equal to $x_j^{-1} w$. Since w has a total of $m + 1$ carets overall, and since we get $x_j^{-1} w$ by removing a single caret from w , then $x_j^{-1} w$ has a total of m carets overall. The subtrees of $\tau_w(j)$ whose roots are the left and right children of the root of $\tau_w(j)$ become the j^{th} and $(j + 1)^{\text{st}}$ trees $\tau_{x_j^{-1} w}(j)$ and $\tau_{x_j^{-1} w}(j + 1)$, respectively, of $x_j^{-1} w$. Also, for each $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $i \geq j + 1$, we have that $\tau_{x_j^{-1} w}(i + 1)$ and $\tau_w(i)$. Note that if $j \geq 1$, then for each $i \in \{0, \dots, j - 1\}$, we have that $\tau_{x_j^{-1} w}(i)$ and $\tau_w(i)$. Since for each $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $i \geq k + 1 \geq j + 1$, $\tau_w(i)$ is trivial then for each $d \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $d \geq k + 2$, $\tau_{x_j^{-1} w}(d)$ is trivial. Therefore $x_j^{-1} w$ is a forest which has a total of m carets overall such that for each $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $i \geq k + 2$, $\tau_{x_j^{-1} w}(i)$ is trivial. Thus, $x_j^{-1} w \in S_{k+1, m}$. Since $j \in \{0, \dots, k\}$, then $x_j \in A_k$. Since we get w by multiplying $x_j^{-1} w$ on the left by x_j , then $w \in A_k S_{k+1, m}$. Hence, $S_{k, m+1} \subseteq A_k S_{k+1, m}$. \square

Theorem 8. *Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. There exists $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $m \geq 0$, such that*

$$\frac{|A_k S_{k+1, m}|}{|S_{k+1, m}|} < 2.$$

Proof. By Theorems 4 and 5, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{k, m+1}|}{|S_{k+1, m}|} &= \left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{k, m+1}|}{|S_{0, m+1}|} \right) \left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0, m+1}|}{|S_{0, m}|} \right) \left(\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|S_{0, m}|}{|S_{k+1, m}|} \right) \\ &= ((k + 1)(2^k)) (4) \left(\frac{1}{((k + 1) + 1)(2^{k+1})} \right) < 2. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, there exists $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $b \geq 0$, such that

$$\frac{|S_{k, b+1}|}{|S_{k+1, b}|} < 2.$$

By Theorem 7, we see that $A_k S_{k+1, b} = S_{k, b+1}$. Thus, there exists $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $b \geq 0$, such that

$$\frac{|A_k S_{k+1, b}|}{|S_{k+1, b}|} < 2.$$

□

Let $\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^k a_j x_j$ and $\beta = \sum_{j=1}^k b_j x_j$, where for each $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, we have that $a_j, b_j \in \mathbb{K}$, and $x_j \in A_k$. Let $q = |S_{k+1,m}|$. By Theorem 8, there exists $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $m \geq 0$, such that $|A_k S_{k+1,m}| < 2|S_{k+1,m}|$. Thus, by Theorem 6, there exist $\gamma, \rho \in \mathbb{K}M$ such that $\alpha\gamma = \beta\rho$. Moreover, by Theorems 6 and 8, we see that $\gamma = \sum_{l=1}^q c_l z_l$, and $\rho = \sum_{l=1}^q d_l z_l$, where for each $l \in \{1, \dots, q\}$, we have that $c_l, d_l \in \mathbb{K}$, and $z_l \in S_{k+1,m}$.

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