F-Thompson's Group

amenability and idempotent means on free magmas

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Introduction

Abstract:

Our goal is to study J. T. Moore's ideas and construction in his demonstration attempt at answering the question "Is the F-Thompson's group amenable or not?"

This paper is a gateway into this 40 years old question and doesn't require any prior knowledge of amenability theory.

In this paper, we will consider the use of paradoxical decompositions onto trees in order to solve sustainably mankind future energy crisis.¹

Mathematically speaking, we will work on the F-Thompson's group. Defined in 1965 by Richard Thompson, this group is a rather singular one. It is non-abelian, finitely generated yet infinite and doesn't contain any non-abelian free group. It as been conjectured in 1979 by Geoghegan that F is not amenable, but interestingly, if the question is still open after 40 years, there is no consensus in the mathematical community.

In either case, proving that F is amenable or not would grant us an example of finitely generated group amenable (or not) that doesn't contain the free group on 2 elements.

To jump into this problem, we will use as a guideline the demonstration attempt that F is amenable by Justin Tatch Moore, professor at Cornell University. This work is divided into three parts, building on each others:

- Magmas is a part principally centred on giving the fundamental family of tree we will study a proper definition, because they are the central object of this work.
- F-Thompson's Group is where we will properly defined F and prove many of its very interesting properties.
- Amenability on F-Thompson's Group is the fun part. It will study very fundamental notions of amenability (means) and idempotence on then.

Have a nice reading.

¹No, I take no shame in this blatant green-washing

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Chapter 1

Magmas

1.1 Definitions

Definition 1 (Magmas).

Let M be any set and let $*: M \times M \to M$ be any function.

We call the couple (M,*) a magma or a binary system.

Furthermore, we call * the composition law of the magma.

Remark 2. A magma (M, *) can be seen as a group, whose composition law doesn't follow any of the group axioms.

Definition 3 (Magma homomorphisms).

Let (M,*) and (N,*) be any two magmas. Let also $f: M \to N$ be any function. We call f a **magma homomorphism** if $\forall a, b \in M$:

$$f(a * b) = f(a) \star f(b)$$

Furthermore, if f is bijective such that the inverse function $f^{-1}: N \to M$ is also a magma homomorphism. we call f a **magma isomorphism**.

Definition 4 (Homomorphism sets).

Let (M,*) and (N,*) be any two magmas. We define the set of magma homomorphism

 $Hom(M, N) = \{f : M \to N \mid f \text{ is a magma homomorphism}\}$

Proposition 5.

Let (M, *), (N, *) and (P, \land) be any 3 magmas. Let also $f \in Hom(M, N)$, $g \in Hom(N, P)$. Then, we have the following properties:

- $\forall (M, *), id_M \in Hom(M, M)$
- $g \circ f \in Hom(M, P)$

Proof of Proposition 5:

- $\forall a, b \in M, id(a * b) = a * b = id(a) * id(b)$
- $\forall a, b \in M, g \circ f(a * b) = g(f(a) \star f(b)) = g(f(a)) \land g(f(b)) = g \circ f(a) \land g \circ f(b)$

 \Box 5

Remark 6. Using the previous definition, we get that the magmas form a category, Mag

$$Ob(\underline{\mathbf{Mag}}) = \{(M, *) \text{ a magma}\}\$$

$$\underline{\mathbf{Mag}}\Big((M,*),(N,\star)\Big) = \ \mathrm{Hom}(M,N)$$

1.2 Free magmas

Definition 7 (Free magmas).

Let X be any set. We define $(M_X, *)$ the **free magma** on the set X inductively as follows:

$$X_1 = X, \ X_n = \bigsqcup_{p+q=n} X_p \times X_q$$

$$M_X = \bigsqcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*} X_n$$

Consider $a \in X_p, b \in X_q$ the composition law on M_X is given by

$$*: M_X \times M_X \to M_X$$

$$a * b = (a, b) \in X_{p+q}$$

We also define the standard injection $i_X: X \hookrightarrow M_X$, $i_X(x) = x \in X_1$

Definition 8 (width of an element).

We define the **width** of an element in $(M_X, *)$ as follow

$$w: M_X \to \mathbb{N}^*$$

$$w(x) = p \text{ such that } x \in X_p$$

Furthermore, using the definition of M_X , we have that $w \in Hom(M_X, \mathbb{N}^*)$.

Proposition 9 (Universal freedom property).

Let X be any set and $(M_X, *)$ the free magma on the set X with i_X the standard injection. Then $(M_X, *)$ follows the universal freedom property:

 $\forall (N, \star) \text{ a magma and } f: X \to N, \text{ then } \exists ! \tilde{f} \in Hom(M_X, N) \text{ such that } \tilde{f} \circ i_X = f. \text{ (i.e the following diagram commute)} \qquad X \xrightarrow{i_X} M_X$

Proof of Proposition 9:

Let's define \tilde{f} recessively :

$$\forall a, b \in M_X : \tilde{f}|_{X_1} = f \text{ and } \tilde{f}(a * b) = \tilde{f}(a) \star \tilde{f}(b),$$

Then, due to the structure of M_X , this is a magma homomorphism and $\tilde{f} \circ i_X = \tilde{f}|_{X_1} = f$.

Now, let's show uniqueness the of \tilde{f} . Consider $g: M_X \to N$, $g \circ i_X = f$, $g \neq \tilde{f}$. So $\exists x \in M_X, g(x) \neq \tilde{f}(x)$. Let's consider \mathbf{x} such that $w(\mathbf{x}) = q$ is minimal for the property $g(x) \neq \tilde{f}(x)$. Then:

- if q > 1: Then $\mathbf{x} = a * b$, $a \in X_n$, $b \in X_m$, m + n = q. Due to minimality of q, $\tilde{f}(a) = g(a)$, $\tilde{f}(b) = g(b)$ and thus $g(\mathbf{x}) = g(a * b) = g(a) \star g(b) = \tilde{f}(a) \star \tilde{f}(b) = \tilde{f}(a * b) = \tilde{f}(\mathbf{x})$. This is a contradiction.
- if q = 1: then $\mathbf{x} \in X$ so $g(\mathbf{x}) = g \circ i_X(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) = \tilde{f} \circ i_X(\mathbf{x}) = \tilde{f}(\mathbf{x})$. This is also a contradiction.

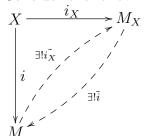
Thus, $\tilde{f} = g$ and we have proved the uniqueness of \tilde{f} . Thus, the free magma is indeed free

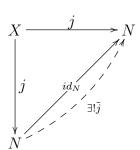
Corollary 10 (Unicity of free magma).

Let (M, \star) be a magma, $i: X \hookrightarrow M$ be an injection such that (M, \star) follows the universal freedom property. Then (M, \star) is isomorphic to $(M_X, *)$

Proof of Corollary 10:

Consider the following diagrams:





For the first diagram, $\tilde{i_X} \circ i = i_X$, $\tilde{i} \circ i_X = i$. Thus $\tilde{i_X} \circ \tilde{i}$ is such that $\tilde{i_X} \circ \tilde{i} \circ i_X = i_X$. Then, as it is showed in the second diagram, because id_{M_X} also has this property and due to uniqueness, this imply that $\tilde{i} \circ \tilde{i_X} = id_{M_X}$. Similarly, $\tilde{i} \circ \tilde{i_X} = id_M$.

Thus i_X is an isomorphism between M_X and M.

 \square 10

1.3 Representation of free magmas

1.3.1 Ordered Rooted Binary Trees

Definition 11 (Ordered Rooted Binary Trees).

We define a **Rooted Binary Tree** T = (V(T), E(T)) as a finite tree (i.e a connected and acyclic finite graph) such that:

- 1. T is a simple vertex tree (i.e $T = (\{v_0\}, \emptyset)$). OR
- 2. (a) T has a vertex $v_0 \in V(T)$ such that $d(v_0) = 2$. Its edges are called **left edge** of v_0 , $e_{v_0}^l$ and the **right edge** of v_0 , $e_{v_0}^r$.
 - (b) $\forall v \in G(T), v \neq v_0, d(v) > 1$, then d(v) = 3. We name the edge that is in p_{v,v_0} the unique path between v and v_0 the **top edge of** v e_v^t . The other two are named **left edge of** v e_v^t and the **right edge of** v e_v^t .
 - (c) $\forall l \in G(T), l \neq v_0, d(l) = 1$, we call l a leaf and its only edge is called the **top** edge of v e_v^t .

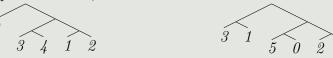
We say that a leaf l_1 is at the left of the leaf l_2 (or l_2 is at the right of l_1) if when considering p_{v_0,l_1} and p_{v_0,l_2} , the first edges $e_1 \in p_{v_0,l_1}, e_2 \in p_{v_0,l_2}$ that differ are such that $e_1 = e_v^l$ and $e_2 = e_v^r$.

Furthermore, we say that T is an **Ordered Rooted Binary Tree** if there exists a left-to-right ordering $<_{l,r}$ on the leaves of T, Leaf (T).

Remark 12. If T is a simple vertex tree, we also defined the root v_0 as the leaf.

Example 13. The following examples are ORBT: 0 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

The following examples are RBT, but not ordered:



The following example is not rooted:



The following examples are not binary:





Proposition 14.

Every rooted binary tree T can be ordered.

Proof of Proposition 14:

For all $l \in \text{Leaf}(T)$, consider $p_{v_0,l}$ the unique path between v_0 and l.

Then $p_{v_0,l}=(e_{v_0}^{a_0},e_{v_1}^{a_1},\cdots,e_{v_n}^{a_n})$ with a_i being either l (left) or r (right) and this sequence is unique for l (because T is a tree).

Consider $m = \max_{l \in \text{Leaf}(T)} \text{length}(p_{v_0,l})$. We define the following injective function

$$p: \text{ Leaf } (T) \hookrightarrow \{0,1,2\}^m$$

$$p(\mathbf{l}) = (\delta_i)_{i=0}^{m-1}$$

$$\delta_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } a_i = l \\ 1 & \text{if } a_i = r \\ 2 & \text{if } a_i \text{ is not defined because } p_{v_0, l} \text{ is shorter} \end{cases}$$

We now equip $\{0,1,2\}^m$ with the lexicographical well ordering $<_{lex}$ and consider $<_{l,r}$ its retraction using p on Leaf(T).

(i.e
$$p(l_1) <_{lex} p(l_2) \iff l_1 <_{l,r} l_2$$
).

Then, $<_{l,r}$ is a left-to-right well ordering on Leaf(T). Indeed, if l_1 is at the left of l_2 , then $p(l_1) = (\delta_i^1)_{i=0}^{m-1}$, $p(l_2) = (\delta_i^2)_{i=0}^{m-1}$ such that the (j-1)-th first terms are the same and then $\delta_j^1 = 0$, $\delta_j^2 = 1$. Thus $p(l_1) <_{lex} p(l_2)$.

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1.3.2 Colored Ordered Rooted Binary Trees

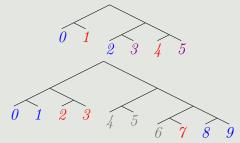
Definition 15 (Colored Ordered Rooted Binary Trees).

Let T be an ORBT and let C be any color set. A Colored Ordered Rooted Binary Tree is the binome (T, ρ) with

$$\rho: Leaf(T) \to C$$

Example 16.

The following exemples are 3 colors CORBT:



The following exemple is a 6 colors CORBT:



Remark 17. We can see every ORBT as a CORBT on 1 color.

Definition 18 (Useful notions on CORBT).

We will define a few useful notions on CORBT. Let (T, ρ) be any CORBT on the color set X.

• The **length** of a vertex. Consider $v \in V(T)$

$$l(v) = length of p_{v_0,v}$$

• The **height** of T

$$h(T) = \max_{v \in V(t)} l(v)$$

• The width of T

$$w(T) = |Leaf(T)|$$

 \bullet The **right** of T

$$R(T) = \{v \in T | p_{v_0,v} \text{ is constructed only with right edges}\}$$

• The **left** of T

$$L(T) = \{v \in T | p_{v_0,v} \text{ is constructed only with left edges}\}$$

We also denote the set of all CORBT on the color set X as CORBT(X) and ORBT = CORBT(1)

• We define the standard bijection of the color set X in CORBT(X) as

$$\nu_X: X \cong CORBT(X)$$

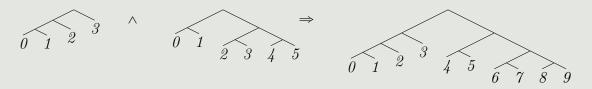
$$\nu_X(x) = \left(\left(\{v_0\}, \varnothing \right), \rho(v_0) = x \right)$$

• We will also define the following binary function on CORBT(X). Consider $(T_1, \rho_1), (T_2, \rho_2) \in CORBT(X)$ with respective roots v_0^1 and v_0^2 .

$$\wedge: CORBT(X) \times CORBT(X) \to CORBT(X)$$

$$(T_1, \rho_1) \wedge (T_2, \rho_2) = \left(\left(V(T_1) \cup V(T_2) \cup \{w\}, E(T_1) \cup E(T_2) \cup \left\{ (w, v_0^1), (w, v_0^2) \right\} \right) p_1 \sqcup p_2 \right)$$

Example 19.



Proposition 20.

- \(\) is well defined
- $h(T_1 \wedge T_2) = max \{h(T_1, T_2)\} + 1$
- $Leaf(T_1 \wedge T_2) = Leaf(T_1) \sqcup Leaf(T_2)$
- $L(T) \cap R(T) = \{v_0\}$
- $L(T_1 \wedge T_2) = L(T_1) \cup \{w\}, R(T_1 \wedge T_2) = R(T_2) \cup \{w\}$

Proof of Proposition 20:

We can easily see that $T_1 \wedge T_2$ is still a tree.

- Let's consider the case where $w(T_1), w(T_2) > 1$ Consider $v \in T_1 \wedge T_2$.
 - If $v \in V(T_1) \cup V(T_2) \setminus \{v_0^1, v_0^2\}$. Then d(v) in $T_1 \wedge T_2$ is equal to d(v) in T_i
 - If $v = v_0^i$, then in $T_1 \wedge T_2$, d(v) = 3
 - If v = w, then d(v)=2 and thus w is the root of $T_1 \wedge T_2$

From this, we get that Leaf $(T_1 \wedge T_2) = \{v \in V(T_1 \wedge T_2) | d(v) = 1\} = \{v \in V(T_1) | d(v) = 1\} \sqcup \{v \in V(T_2) | d(v) = 1\} = \text{Leaf } (T_1) \sqcup \text{Leaf } (T_2) \text{ Thus } \rho_1 \sqcup \rho_2 \text{ is well defined.}$

• Now, suppose $w(T_1) = 1$. Then $T_1 = \{v_0^1\}, d(v_0^1) = 0$ in T_1 and thus $d(v_0^1) = 1$ in $T_1 \wedge T_2$ and thus v_0^1 is still a leaf. we conserve the property that Leaf $(T_1 \wedge T_2) = \text{Leaf } (T_1) \sqcup \text{Leaf } (T_2)$ and thus $\rho_1 \sqcup \rho_2$ is well defined.

Finally, the ordering is given by 14. Thus \wedge is well defined and the other properties are direct consequences of it.

Remark 21. \wedge is not associative, nor commutative and it doesn't have a neutral element. So $(CORBT(X), \wedge)$ is a magma.

Proposition 22.

Let $(T, \rho) \in CORBT(X)$, w(T) > 1. Then $\exists ! T_1, T_2 \in CORBT(X)$ such that $T_1 \wedge T_2$

Proof of Proposition 22:

Let v_0 be the root of T. We defined $T_l = \{v \in T | p_{v_0,v} \text{ start with the left edge }\}$ and $T_r = \{v \in T | p_{v_0,v} \text{ start with the right edge }\}$. Those are still trees.

Indeed, because they are subset of a tree, they are still acyclique.

Furthermore, consider $v_l \in T_l$, $e_{v_0}^l = (v_0, v_l)$ and take $x, y \in T_l$, then $p_{v_0,x}$ and $p_{v_0,y}$ pass by v_l . By taking the concatenation of p_{x,v_0} and $p_{v_0,y}$, we get a path in T_l . Same for T_r

We can also see that v_l (respectively v_r) are the new roots of T_l , (respectively T_r) and those tree are still binary. We use as color of T_l (respectively T_r) $\rho_l = \rho|_{T_l}$ ($\rho_r = \rho|_{T_r}$) Then, it is easy to see that $T_l \wedge T_r = T$

 \square 22

Consequence 23. Consider $CORBT(X)_p = \{(T, \rho) \in CORBT(X) | w(T) = p\}, \ p > 1$. Then $\forall n > 1$ $p, q \in \mathbb{N}^*$

$$CORBT(X)_n = \bigsqcup_{n=p+q} CORBT(X)_p \wedge CORBT(X)_q$$

Lemma 24.

Let X be any set.

$$(M_X, *) \cong (CORBT(X), \wedge)$$

Proof of Lemma 24:

Consider $\tilde{\nu}_X: M_X \to CORBT(X)$ given by the freedom property. We define recursively

$$j_X: CORBT(X) \to M_X$$

$$j_X(\{v_0\}, p(v_0) = x) = x, \quad j_X(T_1 \wedge T_2) = (J_X(T_1), J_X(T_2))$$

Let's show by recursion that $\tilde{\nu}_X \circ j_X = id_{CORBT(X)}, j_X \circ \tilde{\nu}_X = id_{M_X}$

• $\forall x \in X_1, j_X \circ \tilde{\nu}_X(x) = j_X(\{v_0\}, p(v_0) = x) = x$, so $j_X \circ \tilde{\nu}_X|_{X_1} = id_{X_1}$.

- $\forall \big(\{v_0\}, p(v_0) = x\big) \in CORBT(X)_1 \ \tilde{\nu}_X \circ j_X \big(\{v_0\}, p(v_0) = x\big) = \tilde{\nu}_X \big(x\big) = (\{v_0\}, p(v_0) = x), \text{ so } \tilde{\nu}_X \circ j_X|_{CORBT(X)_1} = id.$
- $-x \in X_n$, then x = a * b, $a \in X_p$, $b \in X_q$, p + q = n. Then $j_X \circ \tilde{\nu}_X(x) = j_X \circ \tilde{\nu}_X(a) * j_X \circ \tilde{\nu}_X(b) = a * b = x$
 - $-T \in CORBT(X)_n$, then $T = T_1 \wedge T_2$, $T_1 \in CORBT(X)_p$, $T_2 \in CORBT(X)_q$, p + q = n. Then $\tilde{\nu}_X \circ j_X(T) = \tilde{\nu}_X \circ j_X(T_1) \wedge \tilde{\nu}_X \circ j_X(T_2) = T_1 \wedge T_2 = T$

 \square 24

Chapter 2

F-Thompson Group

This part is inspired from the [1] first, second and third chapters, although the proves have been extended.

2.1 Group

Definition 25 (Dyadic number).

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, we say that a is **dyadic** if $\exists p, k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a = \frac{p}{2^k}$

We can easily see that the sum and the product of dyadic numbers are still dyadic numbers.

$$\frac{a}{2^p} * \frac{b}{2^q} = \frac{ab}{2^{p+q}}$$

$$\frac{a}{2^p} + \frac{b}{2^q} = \frac{2^{m-p} \cdot a + 2^{m-q} \cdot b}{2^m}$$
 with $m = \max\{p, q\}$

Definition 26 (*F*-Thompson set).

Let F be the set of all function $f:[0,1] \to [0,1]$ such that:

- 1. f is an homeomorphism (bijective and continuous (for standard topology)).
- 2. f is finitely piecewise linear. (i.e $[0,1] = \bigcup_{j=1}^{n} I_j$, I_j are closed intervals such that $f|_{I_j}(x) = a_j.x + b_j$)

3. f is differentiable except on finitely many dyadic numbers and such that on intervals of differentiability, the derivate is equal to 2^k , $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

From this, we can see that f is increasing and f(0) = 0, f(1) = 1

Example 27.

The following functions are in F

$$id_{[0,1]} ; A(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2} & 0 \leqslant x \leqslant \frac{1}{2} \\ x - \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} \leqslant x \leqslant \frac{3}{4} \\ 2x - 1 & \frac{3}{4} \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \end{cases} ; B(x) = \begin{cases} x & 0 \leqslant x \leqslant \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{x}{2} + \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} \leqslant x \leqslant \frac{3}{4} \\ x - \frac{1}{8} & \frac{3}{4} \leqslant x \leqslant \frac{7}{8} \\ 2x - 1 & \frac{7}{8} \leqslant x \leqslant 1 \end{cases}$$

Proposition 28.

 (F, \circ) is a subgroup group of $(Homeo([0, 1]), \circ)$

We name (F, \circ) the F-Thompson's group

Proof of Proposition 28:

Consider $f \in F$ and let $0 = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = 1$ be the points at which f is not differentiable. Consider $I_i = [x_i, x_{i+1}]$. Then $f|_{I_i}$ is differentiable and thus it muss be linear on I_i .

Furthermore, let's show that $\forall i = 0, \dots, n, f(x_i)$ is a dyadic number.

- $f(x_0) = 0$ a dyadic number.
- Suppose $f(x_n)$ is a dyadic number. x_n is dyadic and knowing that $f|_{[x_n,x_{n+1}]} = 2^k.x + b_n$, we get that $b_n = f(x_n) 2^kx_n$ a sum and a product of dyadic numbers. Thus, b_n is dyadic.

Now, knowing that x_{n+1} is dyadic, $f(x_{n+1}) = 2^k \cdot x_{n+1} + b_n$ and is thus also dyadic.

Now, let's show that (F, \circ) is indeed a subgroup.

- $id_{[0,1]} \in F$.
- Let $f \in F$ with respective non-differentiable points $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^n$. Then consider f^{-1} it's inverse function. This is an homeomorphism. Because $(f^{-1}(x))' = \frac{1}{f' \circ f^{-1}(x)}$, it's non-differentiable points are the dyadic point $\{f(x_i)\}_{i=0}^n$. Then

$$f^{-1}|_{[f(x_i),f(x_{i+1})]} = (f|_{[x_i,x_{i+1}]})^{-1} = (2^{k_i}.x + b_i)^{-1} = (\frac{1}{2^{k_i}}.x - \frac{b_i}{2^{k_i}})$$

So f^{-1} is finitely piecewise linear.

Thus $f^{-1} \in F$

• Let $f, h \in F$ with respective non-differentiable points $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^n, \{y_j\}_{j=0}^m$. $f \circ h$ is still an homeomorphism. $(f \circ h)'(x) = f'(h(x)).h'(x)$. So $f \circ h(x)$ is not differentiable $\Rightarrow x = y_j$ or $x = h^{-1}(x_i)$, all dyadic numbers. We order $\{y_j\}_{j=0}^m$ and $\{h^{-1}(x_i)\}_{i=0}^n$ from smallest to biggest into $\{z_i\}$.

$$f \circ h|_{[z_l, z_{l+1}]} = (2^{k_i}.(2^{k_j}.x + d_j) + b_i) = (2^{k_i + k_j}.x + (2^{k_i}d_j + b_i))$$

So $f \circ h$ is still is finitely piecewise linear.

Thus $f \circ h \in F$

 \square 28

Example 29.

We define $\{X_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\in F$:

$$X_0 = A$$
, $X_n = A^{-(n-1)} \circ B \circ A^{(n-1)}$

2.2 Standard dyadic partitions & T-Trees

Definition 30 (Standard dyadic intervals).

We define a **standard dyadic interval in** [0,1] to be a interval of the form $\left[\frac{a}{2^n}, \frac{a+1}{2^n}\right]$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $a < 2^n - 1$

Definition 31 (standard dyadic partitions).

Let $0 = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_n = 1$ be a partition [0,1]. We name $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ the **intervals** of the partition.

We say that $0 = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_n = 1$ is a **standard dyadic partition of** [0,1] if all intervals of the partition are standard dyadic interval in [0,1].

Example 32.

The following partitions are standard dyadic partitions of [0,1]:

$$0 < 1, \quad 0 < \frac{1}{2} < \frac{3}{4} < 1, \quad 0 < \frac{1}{8} < \frac{5}{32} < \frac{3}{16} < \frac{2}{8} < 1$$

The following partitions are NOT standard dyadic partitions of [0,1]:

$$0 < \frac{1}{4} < \frac{3}{4} < 1, \quad 0 < \frac{1}{8} < \frac{5}{32} < \frac{2}{8} < 1$$

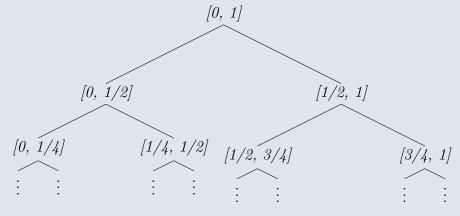
Definition 33 (Tree of standard dyadic intervals and T-tree).

Let's consider $V = \{I \subset [0,1] | I \text{ is a standard dyadic interval in } [0,1]\}$. We define the **tree of standard dyadic intervals** as

$$\mathbb{T} = (V, E)$$

 $(I,J) \in E \iff I \text{ is the left half of } J(\text{ then we say that } (I,J) \text{ is a left edge})$ OR I is the right half of J(then we say that (I,J) is a right edge)

The tree \mathbb{T} is as such:

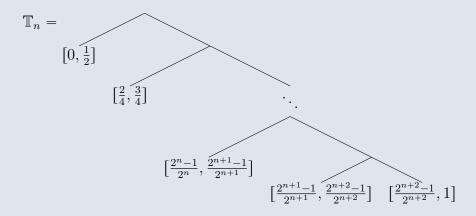


 \mathbb{T} is an infinite rooted binary tree.

We define a \mathbb{T} -tree T as a finite ordered rooted binary sub-tree of \mathbb{T} with root [0,1]. As a matter of fact, they is an equality between ORBT and the set of all \mathbb{T} -tree. We call the \mathbb{T} -tree with one vertex the trivial \mathbb{T} -tree.

Definition 34 (\mathbb{T}_n Trees).

We define a family of \mathbb{T} -Tree $\{\mathbb{T}_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$



Proposition 35.

Let T be a T-tree, $v \in T$. then the corresponding interval $I_v = \left[\frac{a}{2^{l(v)}}, \frac{a+1}{2^{l(v)}}\right], a \in \mathbb{Z}$

Proof of Proposition 35:

This is a proof by induction on l(v)

- If l(v) = 0, then $v = v_0$ and $I_v = [0, 1]$
- l(v) = n. Consider $w \in T$ such that $(v, w) = e_v^t$. Then l(w) = n 1, so $I_w = \left[\frac{b}{2^{l(w)}}, \frac{b+1}{2^{l(w)}}\right]$. Because there exists (v, w), this means that I_v is the left or the right half of I_w and thus

$$I_v = \left[\frac{b}{2^{l(w)+1}}, \frac{b+1}{2^{l(w)+1}}\right] \text{ or } I_v = \left[\frac{b+1}{2^{l(w)+1}}, \frac{b+2}{2^{l(w)+1}}\right]$$

So
$$I_v = \left[\frac{a}{2^{l(v)}}, \frac{a+1}{2^{l(v)}} \right]$$

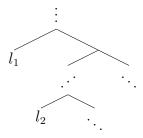
Proposition 36.

Let T be a \mathbb{T} -tree, $l_1, l_2 \in Leaf(T)$ such that l_1 is the left neighbour of l_2 . Consider $I_1 = \left[\frac{a}{2^k}, \frac{a+1}{2^k}\right], I_2 = \left[\frac{b}{2^u}, \frac{b+1}{2^u}\right]$ the corresponding standard dyadic interval. Then $\frac{a+1}{2^k} = \frac{b}{2^u}$

Proof of Proposition 36:

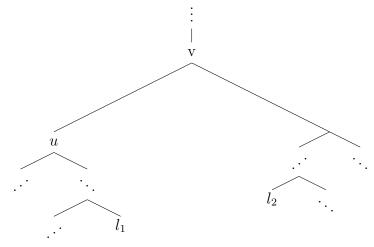
This proof is done by disjointing of cases:

• Case 1: l_1 is a left leaf. i.e:



with l_2 the leftmost possible. Then take $0 \leqslant k = l(l_2) - l(l_1)$. We have $I_1 = \left[\frac{a}{2^{l(l_1)}}, \frac{a+1}{2^{l(l_1)}}\right]$. By definition, I_2 is the smallest 2^k -subdivision of $\left[\frac{a+1}{2^{l(l_1)}}, \frac{a+2}{2^{l(l_1)}}\right]$. So $I_2 = \left[\frac{a+1}{2^{l(l_1)}}, \frac{a+1}{2^{l(l_1)}} + \frac{1}{2^{l(l_2)}}\right]$ which proves the proposition.

• Case 2: l_1 is a right leaf. i.e:



where u is the vertex in T such that the edge $(u, v) \in p_{l_1,v_0}$ is the first left edge. Such a vertex exists because otherwise l_1 would be the rightmost leaf, but it is left to l_2 . Then, by forgetting all graph under u, we find ourselves in the case 1, with u a left leaf and thus $I_u = \left[\frac{a}{2^u}, \frac{a+1}{2^u}\right], I_2 = \left[\frac{b}{2^v}, \frac{b+1}{2^v}\right], \frac{a+1}{2^u} = \frac{b}{2^v}$. Now, we consider $0 < k = l(l_1) - l(u)$. I_1 is the biggest 2^k subdivision of I_u , so $I_1 = \left[\frac{a+1}{2^u} - \frac{1}{2^{l(l_1)}}, \frac{a+1}{2^u}\right]$ and that proves the proposition.

 \square 36

Lemma 37.

Consider $S \in \mathbb{T}$ -Trees, Q a standard dyadic partitions of [0,1]. There is a bijection:

 \mathbb{T} -Trees \cong standard dyadic partitions of [0,1]

$$S \to P_S$$

$$T_Q \leftarrow Q$$

Proof of Lemma 37:

- Let T be any \mathbb{T} -Tree. Consider $\{I_i\}_{i=0}^n$ the dyadic interval corresponding to the leaves of T, order from left to right. Then using the previous proposition, we get $\forall i, I_i < I_{i+1}, I_i \cap I_{i+1} = \{x_i\}$. Furthermore, considering I_0 , because it is the leftmost leaf, then $I_0 = [0, x_1]$. Similarly because I_n is the rightmost leaf, then $I_n = [x_n, 1]$. Thus $0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_n < 1 = P_T$ is a standard dyadic partition of [0, 1].
- Consider $0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_n < 1$ is a standard dyadic partition of [0,1]. Then consider $\{l_i\}_{i=0}^n$ the vertices of \mathbb{T} corresponding to $\{I_i = [x_i, x_{i+1}]\}_{i=0}^n$. We then define $T = \bigcup_{i=0}^n p_{[0,1],l_i}$. T is connected by definition, acyclique by restriction and finite due to the nature of paths. Thus T is still a finite tree. Now, let's show that $\operatorname{Leaf}(T) = \{l_i\}_{i=0}^n$ and that T is binary.
 - If T is the trivial \mathbb{T} -tree, then it is binary and the leaves are [0,1] by definition.
 - Suppose l_i is not a leaf. Then there is l_j such that $l_i \in p_{[0,1],l_j}$. But, by definition of \mathbb{T} , this mean that $I_j \subset I_i$, which contradict the fact that this is a partition. Now, consider $v \notin \{l_i\}_{i=0}^n$. Then $v \in p_{[0,1],l_k}$ and it is not in either extremity. Thus $d(v) \geq 2$ and it is not a leaf.
 - Consider $[0,1] \in T$. consider l_0 and l_n . because $0 \in I_0, 1 \in I_n$, $p_{[0,1],l_0}$ consist only of left edges and $p_{[0,1],l_n}$ consist only of right edges. Thus d([0,1]) = 2. Now consider $v \in T, v \notin \{l_i\}_{i=0}^n, v \neq [0,1]$ Then $d(v) \geq 2$ with a top edge and either a left or a right edge e

- * if e is right. Then consider l_i the leftmost leaf such that $e \in p_{[0,1],l_i}$. l_i is not leftmost leaf of T because it take a right turn, so there exists l_{i-1} the left neighbour of l_i . Let m be the middle of I_v , then $m < I_i$. Now, suppose $v \notin p_{[0,1],l_{i-1}}$, then $I_{i-1} \cap I_v = \{x\}$ or \emptyset . But this mean that $x_i < m \le x_i$. Thus $v \in p_{[0,1],l_{i-1}}$. But $e \notin p_{[0,1],l_{i-1}}$ due to l_i been the leftmost leaf such that $e \in p_{[0,1],l_i}$. So $p(v) \ge 3 \Rightarrow p(v) = 3$.
- * if e is left. Then consider l_i the rightmost leaf such that $e \in p_{[0,1],l_i}$. l_i is not rightmost leaf of T because it take a left turn, so there exists l_{i+1} the right neighbour of l_i . Let m be the middle of I_v , then $m > I_i$. Now, suppose $v \notin p_{[0,1],l_{i+1}}$, then $I_{i+1} \cap I_v = \{x\}$ or \emptyset . But this mean that $x_i \ge m > x_i$. Thus $v \in p_{[0,1],l_{i+1}}$. But $e \notin p_{[0,1],l_{i+1}}$ due to l_i been the rightmost leaf such that $e \in p_{[0,1],l_i}$. So $p(v) \ge 3 \Rightarrow p(v) = 3$.

Thus $T = T_P$ is a \mathbb{T} -tree

Now, It is easy to see that those two ways are mutual inverses.

☐ 37

2.3 F-Thompson's group and tree diagrams

Lemma 38.

Let $f \in F$. Then there exists a standard dyadic partition $0 = x_0 < \cdots < x_n = 1$ such that f is linear on every interval of the partition and $0 = f(x_0) < \cdots < f(x_n) = 1$ is also a standard dyadic partition.

Proof of Lemma 38:

Let $0 = a_0 < a_1 < \cdots < a_n = 1$ be the partition P of [0,1] by the non-differentiable point of f. Consider $f|_{[a_i,a_{i+1}]}(x) = 2^{-k}.x + b_i$. Because $a_i, a_{i+1}, f(a_i), f(a_{i+1})$ are dyadic numbers, $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}, m+k \geq 0$ such that $2^m a_i, 2^m a_{i+1}, 2^{m+k} f(a_i) \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $2^{m+k} f(a_{i+1}) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Then, we define the standard dyadic partition P'_i of $[a_i, a_{i+1}]$ as

$$a_i < a_i + \frac{1}{2^m} < a_i + \frac{2}{2^m} < \dots < a_{i+1}$$

Now, because $f(x) = 2^{-k} \cdot x + b_i$, $f(a_i + \frac{p}{2^m}) = f(a_i) + \frac{p}{2^{m+k}}$. Thus the partition given by f,

$$f(P'_i) = f(a_i) < f(a_i) + \frac{1}{2^{m+k}} < f(a_i) + \frac{2}{2^{m+k}} < \dots < f(a_{i+1})$$

 $f(P_i)$ is also a standard dyadic partition on $[f(a_i), f(a_{i+1})]$.

Consider $P' = \bigcup_{i=0}^{n-1} P'_i$ and f(P'). Those are standard dyadic partitions proving the lemma.

☐ 38

Definition 39 (Tree diagrams).

Let (T,S) be a pair of \mathbb{T} -trees such that w(T)=w(S). We call (T,S) a **tree diagram** and denoted it

$$T \to S$$

We call T the **domain tree** and S the **range tree** of the diagram.

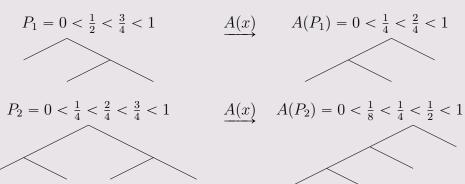
Consequence 40. Let $f \in F$. Then, by using the lemma 38, there exists P, Q standard dyadic partitions of [0,1], f(P) = Q. Then there exists $T_P \to T_Q$ a tree diagram that represent f.

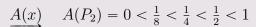
We denote such a tree diagram $T_f \to S_f$

Remark 41. Those standard dyadic partitions are not unique. Consider A(x), then

$$P_1 = 0 < \frac{1}{2} < \frac{3}{4} < 1$$

$$A(P_1) = 0 < \frac{1}{4} < \frac{2}{4} < 1$$







Lemma 42.

In the other way, let $T \to S$ be any tree diagram. Then, $\exists ! f \in F$ such that $T \to S$ represent f (i.e. $T \to S = T_f \to S_f$).

We denote such a function $f_{T,S}$

Proof of Lemma 42:

Consider P_T and P_S two standard dyadic partitions, $P_T = 0 = \alpha_0 < \alpha_1 < \cdots < \alpha_n < \alpha_{n+1} = 1$, $P_S = 0 = \beta_0 < \beta_1 < \cdots < \beta_n < \beta_{n+1} = 1$. Because those are standard dyadic partitions, $\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i = 2^{p_i}$, $\beta_{i+1} - \beta_i = 2^{q_i}$

Then we construct the function $f_{T,S}$ on $[\alpha_i, \alpha_{i+1}]$.

$$f_{T,S}|_{[\alpha_i,\alpha_{i+1}]} = \frac{\beta_{i+1} - \beta_i}{\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i} x + \frac{\alpha_{i+1}\beta_i - \alpha_i\beta_{i+1}}{\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i} = 2^{q_i - p_i} . x + \frac{\alpha_{i+1}\beta_i - \alpha_i\beta_{i+1}}{2^{p_i}}$$

Then $f_{T,S}(\alpha_i) = \beta_i$ and f is increasing. $f_{T,S}$ is a homeomorphism piecewise linear whose derivate are power of 2. Then $f_{T,S} \in F$. because $f_{T,S}(P_T) = P_S$ then $f_{T,S}$ is represented by $T_{P_T} = T \to S = T_{P_S}$

For the uniqueness, consider $g \in F$ such that $T \to S$ represent g. Then $g(P_T) = P_S$, so g linear on $[\alpha_i, \alpha_{i+1}], g(\alpha_i) = \beta_i = f_{T,S}(\alpha_i)$. Then

$$g'|_{[\alpha_i,\alpha_{i+1}]} = \frac{g(\alpha_{i+1}) - g(\alpha_i)}{\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i} = \frac{\beta_{i+1} - \beta_i}{\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i} = f'|_{[\alpha_i,\alpha_{i+1}]}$$
Thus $\forall i, \ g|_{[\alpha_i,\alpha_{i+1}]} = f|_{[\alpha_i,\alpha_{i+1}]} \Rightarrow g = f$

 \square 42

Proposition 43.

Let $T \to S, S \to R$ be any tree diagrams. Then we have the following properties

$$f_{T,T} = id$$

$$f_{T,S}^{-1} = f_{S,T}$$

$$f_{S,R} \circ f_{T,S} = f_{T,R}$$

Proof of Proposition 43:

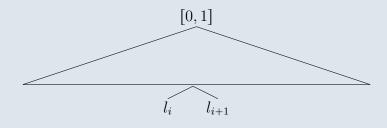
Consider P_T , P_S , P_R the standard dyadic partitions equivalent to T, S, R.

- $\forall x \in [0,1], f'_{T,T}(x) = 1$. So $f_{T,T}$ is linear on [0,1]. $f_{T,T}(x) = 2^k \cdot x + b, f_{T,T}(0) = 0, f_{T,T}(1) = 1 \Rightarrow f_{T,T} = id$
- $f_{T,S}(P_T) = P_S$, so $f_{T,S}^{-1}(P_S) = P_T$, so $f_{T,S}^{-1}$ can be represented as $S \to T$, so $f_{S,T} = f_{T,S}^{-1}$
- $f_{T,S}(P_T) = P_S$ and thus $f_{S,R} \circ f_{T,S}(P_T) = f_{S,R}(P_S) = P_R$. Thus $f_{S,R} \circ f_{T,S}$ can be represented as a tree diagram as $T \to R$, so $f_{S,R} \circ f_{T,S} = f_{T,R}$

☐ 43

Definition 44 (Carets).

Let T be any \mathbb{T} -tree and let l_1, l_2 be 2 neighbour leaves of T. We say that (l_1, l_2) form a caret writen $C(l_1, l_2)$ if



Definition 45 (Reduced tree diagrams).

Consider $T \to S$ a tree diagram. We say that $T \to S$ is a **reduced tree diagram** if $\forall t_i \in Leaf(T), \forall s_i \in Leaf(S)$ both ordered from left to right, we have not the following case:

 (t_i, t_{i+1}) form a caret in T AND (s_i, s_{i+1}) also form a caret in S

Otherwise, we say that $T \to S$ is a reducible tree diagram.

Remark 46. If $T \to S$ is reduced, then so is $S \to T$

Definition 47 (the reduced of a tree diagram).

Let $T \to S$ be any tree diagram. Then we define $\overline{T \to S}$ the reduced of $T \to S$ using the following algorithm:

- $IMPUT : (T \rightarrow S)$
- ALGO:
 - **While** $(T \rightarrow S)$ is not reduced, consider (t_i, t_{i+1}) and (s_i, s_{i+1}) such that they both form caret:

$$T = \underbrace{ \begin{bmatrix} [0,1] \\ \vdots \\ t_i \end{bmatrix}}_{S_i} = S$$

- Define $T' \to S'$

$$T' = T \setminus C(t_i, t_{i+1}), S' = S \setminus C(s_i, s_{i+1})$$

$$T' = \underbrace{ \begin{bmatrix} [0,1] \\ \end{bmatrix}} = S'$$

Note that w(T') = w(T) - 1 = w(S) - 1 = w(S')

- $-T \rightarrow S \ becomes T' \rightarrow S'$
- $OUTPUT: T \rightarrow S$

Note that this algorithm end at some point because w(T) is finite.

Lemma 48.

Let $f \in F$ and $T_f \to S_f$ the corresponding tree diagram. Let $\overline{T_f \to S_f}$ be the reduced of $T_f \to S_f$. Then:

$$f_{\overline{T_f,S_f}}=f$$

Proof of Lemma 48:

To prove this lemma, it suffice to show that:

$$f_{T_f',S_f'} = f_{T_f,S_f}$$

The only difference between $f_{T'_f,S'_f}$ and f_{T_f,S_f} can lie on I_i , I_{i+1} and $I'_i = I_i \cup I_{i+1}$ the interval referring respectively to t_i , t_{i+1} and t'_i , the i-th and i+1-th leaf of T_f and the i-th of T'_f . They are such that $\exists C(t_i,t_{i+1})$ We denote note the corresponding leaves in S and S' s_i,s_{i+1},s'_i ($\exists C(s_i,s_{i+1})$) and intervals $J_i,J_{i+1},J'_i=J_i\cup J_{i+1}$.

$$I_{i} = [\alpha_{i}, \alpha_{i+1}], I_{i+1} = [\alpha_{i+1}, \alpha_{i+2}], I'_{i} = [\alpha_{i}, \alpha_{i+2}],$$
$$J_{i} = [\beta_{i}, \beta_{i+1}], J_{i+1} = [\beta_{i+1}, \beta_{i+2}], J'_{i} = [\beta_{i}, \beta_{i+2}]$$

$$T = \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} [0,1] \\ t_i \\ t_{i+1} \end{array}}_{I_{i+1}} \rightarrow \underbrace{\begin{array}{c} [0,1] \\ s_i \\ s_{i+1} \end{array}}_{S_{i+1}} = S$$

$$f_{T_f,S_f}|_{I_{i+1}} = \frac{\beta_{i+1} - \beta_i}{\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i} x + \frac{\alpha_{i+1}\beta_i - \alpha_i\beta_{i+1}}{\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i}$$

$$f_{T_f,S_f}|_{I_{i+2}} = \frac{\beta_{i+2} - \beta_{i+1}}{\alpha_{i+2} - \alpha_{i+1}} x + \frac{\alpha_{i+2}\beta_{i+1} - \alpha_{i+1}\beta_{i+2}}{\alpha_{i+2} - \alpha_{i+1}}$$

Because $\exists C(t_i, t_{i+1}), C(s_i, s_{i+1})$ Then:

$$(\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i = \alpha_{i+2} - \alpha_{i+1}), \quad (\beta_{i+2} - \beta_{i+1} = \beta_{i+1} - \beta_i)$$
Thus
$$\frac{\beta_{i+1} - \beta_i}{\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i} = \frac{\beta_{i+2} - \beta_{i+1}}{\alpha_{i+2} - \alpha_{i+1}} = \frac{\beta_{i+2} - \beta_i}{\alpha_{i+2} - \alpha_i}$$

$$\frac{\alpha_{i+1}\beta_i - \alpha_i\beta_{i+1}}{\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i} = \frac{\alpha_{i+2}\beta_i - \alpha_i\beta_{i+2}}{\alpha_{i+2} - \alpha_i}$$

Thus f_{T_f,S_f} is derivable on α_{i+1} So it is linear on $I_i \cup I_{i+1} = I_i'$

$$f_{T_f,S_f}|_{I_i'} = \frac{\beta_{i+1} - \beta_i}{\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i} x + \frac{\alpha_{i+1}\beta_i - \alpha_i\beta_{i+1}}{\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i} = \frac{\beta_{i+2} - \beta_i}{\alpha_{i+2} - \alpha_i} x + \frac{\alpha_{i+2}\beta_i - \alpha_i\beta_{i+2}}{\alpha_{i+2} - \alpha_i} = f_{T_f',S_f'}|_{I_i'}$$

So $f_{T_f,S_f} = f_{T_f',S_f'}$ which prove the lemma

 \square 48

Theorem 49.

There exists a bijection

$$\overline{(-)_T}: F \to reduced tree diagram$$

$$\overline{(-)_T}(f) = \overline{T_f \to S_f}$$

with inverse fonction

$$f_{-}: reduced tree diagram \rightarrow F$$

$$f_{-}(T \rightarrow S) = f_{T,S}$$

Proof of Theorem 49:

First, if f_- is well defined, we still have to prove that $\overline{(-)_T}$ is well defined. This mean consider P_1 , Q_1 , P_2 and Q_2 standard dyadic partition of [0,1] such that $f(P_1) = Q_1$, $f(P_2) = Q_2$. We have $\overline{T_{P_1} \to T_{Q_1}} = \overline{T_{P_2} \to T_{Q_2}}$.

Let's show that if $T \to S$ is a reduced tree diagram for f (i.e $f_{T,S} = f$), then $T \to S$ is unique.

- Let I be a standard dyadic interval in \mathbb{T} such that I is either a leaf or not in T. Then $\exists I_i \in \text{Leaf}(T)$ such that $I \subset I_i$. Then $f = f_{T,S}$, so f is linear on I because and it is on I_i with derivate 2^k . Then I = [a, b], $b - a = 2^{-p} f(I) = [f(a), f(b)]$ with f(a), f(b) dyadic numbers and $f(b) - f(a) = 2^{k-p}$. So f(I) is a dyadic interval.
- Consider $I_1 = [x_1, x_2] = [\frac{a}{2^{p_1}}, \frac{a+1}{2^{p_1}}]$ and $I_2 = [x_2, x_3] = [\frac{b}{2^{p_2}}, \frac{b+1}{2^{p_2}}]$, 2 neighbour leaves of T and there image by f $J_1 = [f(x_1), f(x_2)]$ and $J_2 = [f(x_2), f(x_3)]$. suppose f is linear on $I_1 \cup I_2$. This implies that $f'|_{I_1} = f'|_{I_2} = 2^k$ and thus

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = 2^k(x_2 - x_1), f(x_3) - f(x_2) = 2^k(x_3 - x_2)$$

Now suppose $I_1 \cup I_2$ is a standard dyadic interval, thus $\exists q \in \mathbb{N}, \frac{1}{2^d} = x_3 - x_1 = (x_3 - x_2) + (x_2 - x_1) = \frac{1}{2^{p_1}} + \frac{1}{2^{p_2}}$ and this is possible only if $p_1 = p_2$ and thus, due to the nature of $\mathbb{T}, l(I_1) = l(I_2)$. This mean that $x_3 = \frac{a+2}{2^{p_1}}$ and $\left[\frac{a}{2^{p_1}}, \frac{a+2}{2^{p_1}}\right]$ is a standard dyadic interval, so a is even and thus I_1 is a left edge. because I_2 is neighbour and of same length, we get that $\exists C(I_1, I_2) \subset T$. This means that

$$I_1 \cup I_2$$
 is a standard dyadic interval $\iff \exists C(I_1, I_2)$

Using the same proof, we get that $J_1 \cup J_2$ is a standard dyadic interval $\Rightarrow \exists C(J_1, C_2) \subset S$. We can also see that if f is linear on $I_1 \cup I_2$ is a standard dyadic interval, then $J_1 \cup J_2$ is also a standard dyadic interval.

• Now, let I be a standard dyadic interval in \mathbb{T} such that f is linear on I and f(I) is still a standard dyadic interval. Then either $I \in \text{Leaf}(T)$ or $I \notin T$. Indeed otherwise, consider l_1 the leaf of T under I ($I_1 \subset I$) such that $l(I_1)$ is maximal among other leaves under I. Because $\tilde{T} = \{J \in T | J \subset I\}$ is a ORBT, we get that $\exists l_2 \in \text{Leaf}(T)$ such that $\exists C(I_1, I_2) \subset T$ xor $C(I_2, I_1) \subset T$. (wlog, we can admit that $I_1 < I_2$)

Then, $I_1 \cup I_2$ is a standard dyadic interval and f is linear on $I_1 \cup I_2 \Rightarrow J_1 \cup J_2$ is a standard dyadic interval $\Rightarrow \exists C(J_1, C_2)$. So $\exists C(I_1, I_2) \subset T$ and $C(J_1, J_2) \subset S$ But this contradicts the fact that $T \to S$ is reduced.

Thus, $I \in \text{Leaf}(T)$ or $I \notin T$.

Thus, Let's consider $T \to S$, $T' \to S'$ 2 reduced tree diagrams such that $f_{T,S} = f_{T',S'} = f$. Consider $\operatorname{Leaf}(T) = \{I_i\}_{i=0}^n$, $\operatorname{Leaf}(T') = \{J_j\}_{j=0}^m$ with n < m. Then for the standard dyadic set I_0 , f is linear. Thus using the previous point and because $0 \in I_0$, we have that $I_0 \subseteq J_0$. Similarly, $J_0 \subseteq I_0$, so $I_0 = J_0$. Now consider I_1 , because $I_1 \not\subseteq I_0$ and $I_1 \cap I_0 \neq \emptyset$, we get that $I_1 \subset J_1 \cdots$

At the end, we get n=m and $\{I_i\}_{i=0}^n=\{J_j\}_{j=0}^m\Rightarrow \operatorname{Leaf}(T)=\operatorname{Leaf}(T')\Rightarrow T=T'$ and $\operatorname{Leaf}(S)=\operatorname{Leaf}(S')\Rightarrow T\to S=T'\to S'$. So a reduced tree diagram for f is unique.

Now, we have finally proven that $\overline{(-)_T}: F \to \text{ reduced tree diagram}$ is well defined.

- $\forall T \to S \text{ a reduced tree diagram}, \overline{(-)_T} \circ f_-(T \to S) = \overline{(-)_T}(f_{T,S}) = \overline{T \to S} = T \to S$
- By the previous lemma $\forall f \in F, f_- \circ \overline{(-)_T}(f) = f_-(\overline{T_f} \to S_f) = f_{\overline{TS}} = f$

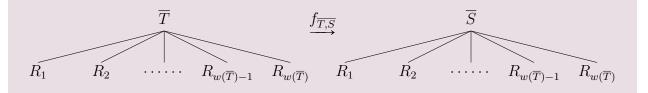
 \square 49

Corollary 50.

Consider

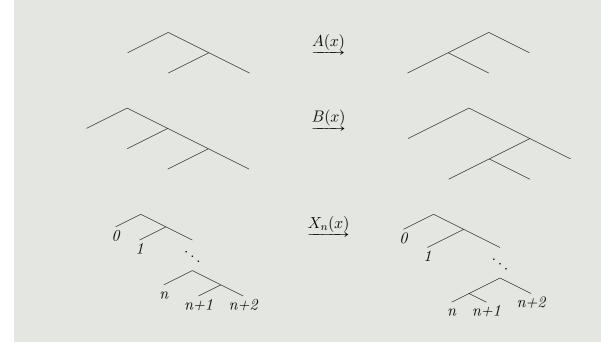
$$\overline{(-)}$$
: Tree diagrams \rightarrow Reduced tree diagrams $\overline{(-)}(T \rightarrow S) = \overline{T \rightarrow S}$

Then it's fibers $\overline{(-)}^{-1}(\overline{T \to S})$ are of the following form:



with $\{R_i\}_{i=1}^{w(\overline{T})}$ being ORBT.

Examples 51. A few examples of this bijection:



2.4 Representation of F

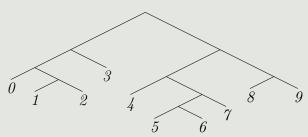
Definition 52 (The exponents of an \mathbb{T} -tree). Let T be a \mathbb{T} -tree, Leaf $(T) = \{I_i\}_{i=0}^n$, p be a path of T and let P_i be the following set:

 $P_i = \{ p \in T | p \text{ start in } I_i, \text{ is composed only of left edges and doesn't end in } R(T) \}$

 $\forall \ 0 \leq k \leq n$, we define a_k , the exponent of I_k as follows

$$a_k = \max_{p \in P_k} (l(p)), \quad a_k = 0 \text{ if } P_k = \emptyset$$

Example 53.



Its exponents are 2, 1, 0, 0, 1, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0.

In fact, due to their definition, we have that for any tree, the last 2 exponents are always 0.

Theorem 54.

Let $T \to S$ be any tree diagram with w(T) = n + 3. Let a_0, \dots, a_{n+2} , be the exponents of T, b_0, \dots, b_{n+2} be the exponents of S. Then

$$f_{T,S} = X_0^{b_0} X_1^{b_1} \cdots X_n^{b_n} X_n^{-a_n} \cdots X_2^{-a_2} X_1^{-a_1} X_0^{-a_0}$$

Proof of Theorem 54:

Consider $T \to \mathbb{T}_n$ and $\mathbb{T}_n \to S$. Then $f_{T,S} = f_{\mathbb{T}_n,S} \circ f_{T,\mathbb{T}_n}$

Let's show $f_{T,\mathbb{T}_n} = X_n^{-a_n} \cdots X_2^{-a_2} X_1^{-a_1} X_0^{-a_0}$. We will prove this by induction on $a = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i$

• If a = 0, then $\forall i, a_i = 0$. Then consider $I_0 \in T$. $I_0 \in L(T)$, It is link to T using $e_0 = (I_0, v)$ a left edge. but because $a_0 = 0$, then $v \in R(T) \cap L(T) = v_0$. So

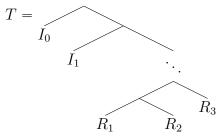
$$T = I_0$$
 $= I_0$ U

Then consider I_1 . It is link to U using $e_1 = (I_1, w)$ also a left edge. Then $I_1 \in L(U) \Rightarrow w \in L(U)$ and $a_1 = 0 \Rightarrow w \in R(U)$. So

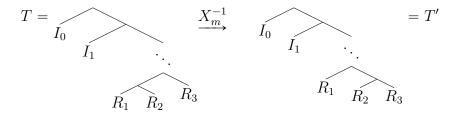
$$T = I_0 = I_0$$

We use the same argument up until n. Then $I_{n+2} \in R(T)$ and because I_n was left, then I_{n+1} muss be left too. So $T = \mathbb{T}_n$. Then $f_{\mathbb{T}_n,\mathbb{T}_n} = id = X_n^0 \cdots X_2^0 X_1^0 X_0^0$

• a > 0. Let $m = \min\{n \in \mathbb{N} | a_n > 0\}$. Then using the same argument than a = 0, we get that



with R_1, R_2, R_3 being ORBT, I_m is the leftmost leaf of R_1 . We apply X_m^{-1} on T



Consider a'_i the exponents of T'.

- If i < m, then $a'_i = 0 = a_i$.
- If i = m, then we have shorten the maximal path by 1, so $a'_m = a_m 1$.
- If i > m, then if $I_i \in R_j$, its maximal path was lying in R_j and it still the case in T'. Thus $a'_i = a_i$.

Using the induction hypothesis, we have that

$$f_{T',\mathbb{T}_n} = X_n^{-a'_n} \cdots X_2^{-a'_2} X_1^{-a'_1} X_0^{-a'_0} = X_n^{-a'_n} \cdots X_m^{-a'_m}$$

$$f_{T,\mathbb{T}_n} = f_{T',\mathbb{T}_n} \circ f_{T,T'} = X_n^{-a'_n} \cdots X_m^{-a'_m} \circ X_m^{-1} = X_n^{-a_n} \cdots X_m^{-a_m} = X_n^{-a_n} \cdots X_1^{-a_1} X_0^{-a_0}$$

$$f_{\mathbb{T}_n,S} = {}^{1} (f_{S,\mathbb{T}_n})^{-1} = (X_n^{-b_n} \cdots X_1^{-b_1} X_0^{-b_0})^{-1} = X_0^{b_0} X_1^{b_1} \cdots X_n^{b_n}$$

$$f_{T,S} = f_{\mathbb{T}_n,S} \circ f_{T,\mathbb{T}_n} = X_0^{b_0} X_1^{b_1} \cdots X_n^{b_n} X_n^{-a_n} \cdots X_2^{-a_2} X_1^{-a_1} X_0^{-a_0}$$

□ 54

Corollary 55.

$$F = \langle X_i |_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \rangle.$$

But because $X_n = A^{-(n-1)}BA^{n-1}$, $F = \langle A, B \rangle$.

Proof of Corollary 55:

Let
$$f \in F$$
. Consider $\overline{T_f \to S_f}$. If $w(\overline{T}) < 3$, then $w(\overline{T}) = 1$ and $f = id_{[0,1]}$. Otherwise, using 54, we get that $f = f_{\overline{T_f},S_f} = X_0^{b_0} X_1^{b_1} \cdots X_n^{b_n} X_n^{-a_n} \cdots X_2^{-a_2} X_1^{-a_1} X_0^{-a_0}$.

2.5 Partial action of F

Definition 56 (Partial function).

Let X, Y be any sets. A partial fonction f from X to Y written

$$f: X \rightarrow Y$$

is a extension on the domain of a function. i.e. $\exists H \subset X, f|_H : H \to Y$ is a function.

Definition 57 (Partial group action).

Let G be any group with neutral element e and let X be any set. A **partial action** of G on X is a partial function

$$()_n: G \times X \rightarrow X$$

such that:

- 1. $\forall x \in X$, $\exists e \bigcirc_p x \text{ and } e \bigcirc_p x = x$
- 2. $\forall g \in G$, IF $\exists g \circlearrowleft_p x$, THEN $\exists g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (g \circlearrowleft_p x)$ and $g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (g \circlearrowleft_p x) = x$
- 3. $\forall f, g \in G$, $IF \exists g \circlearrowleft_p (f \circlearrowleft_p x)$, $THEN \exists (g \cdot f) \circlearrowleft_p x \ AND \ g \circlearrowleft_p (f \circlearrowleft_p x) = (g \cdot f) \circlearrowleft_p x$

Definition 58 (Another definition of partial group action).

Let G be any group with neutral element e and let X be any set. A **partial action** of G on X is a family of set $\{X_g\}_{g\in G}$ and a family of bijections $\{\delta_g: X_{g^{-1}} \cong X_g\}_{g\in G}$ such that:

- $X_e = X$ and $\delta_e = id_X$.
- $\forall g \in G \ \delta_q \ and \ \delta_{q^{-1}} \ are mutual inverses.$
- $\forall x \in X_g \cap X_{h^{-1}}$, then $\delta_g^{-1}(x) \in X_{(hg)^{-1}}$ and $\delta_h(x) = \delta_{hg}(\delta_g^{-1}(x))$.

Remark 59. Every standard group action can also be considered as a partial group action

Definition 60 (Standard partial action of F on M_1).

Consider M_1 the free magma on 1 element. We know that $M_1 \cong CORBT(1) = ORTP = \mathbb{T}$ -tree. So consider $x \in M_1$, $x \sim T_x$, its equivalent as a \mathbb{T} -tree.

We define the standard partial action of F on M_1 as follows:

$$F \circlearrowleft M_1 \to M_1$$
$$f \circlearrowleft x = y \sim f(T_x) \text{ if } \overline{T_f} \subset T_x$$

with $f(S) = T_{f(P_S)}$.

Proposition 61.

 $F \circlearrowleft M_1$ is indeed a partial action.

Proof of Proposition 61:

We can see that our action is well defined.

• Let f = id. Then f is linear on [0,1]. so it's reduced tree diagram is the trivial tree diagram $(\cdot \to \cdot)$ with \cdot being the trivial tree. Then, $\forall T, \cdot \subseteq T$ and id(T) = T. so $\forall x \in M_1, id \circlearrowleft x = x$

- Consider $f \in F$, $f = f_{\overline{T,S}}$, R a \mathbb{T} -tree such that $\overline{T} \subset R$, then $\overline{S} \subset f(R)$ and because $f = f_{\overline{T,S}}$, $f^{-1} = f_{\overline{ST}}$ and thus $f^{-1}(f(R)) = R$ is well defined.
- Consider $f \in F$, $f = \overline{T \to S}$, R a T-tree. Then:

$$\overline{T} \subset R \iff P_R \text{ and } f(P_R) \text{ are standard dyadic partitions of } [0,1]$$

Thus, consider
$$g \in F$$
, $g = \overline{U \to V}$, $g \circ f = \overline{P \to Q}$.

$$\overline{T} \subset R$$
 and $\overline{U} \subset f(R) \iff P_R, f(P_R)$ and $g \circ f(P_R)$ are standard dyadic partitions \Rightarrow

$$\Rightarrow P_R$$
 and $g \circ f(P_R)$ are standard dyadic partitions $\iff \overline{P} \subset R$

So,
$$\exists g \circlearrowleft (f \circlearrowleft x) \Rightarrow \exists (g \circ f) \circlearrowleft x$$
 and $g \circlearrowleft (f \circlearrowleft x) = g \circ f(T_x) = (g \circ f) \circlearrowleft x$

 \Box 61

Definition 62.

Consider $G
ightharpoonup_p X$ a partial group action, we define the following notions:

- $\forall x \in X$, we define **the domain of** x, $Dom(x) = \{g \in G | \exists g \circlearrowleft_p x\}$
- $\forall x \in X$, we define **the orbits of** x, $O_x = \{y \in X | \exists g \in G \text{ s.t. } \exists g \circlearrowleft_p x = y\}$. Furthermore, they still form a partition of X
- We say that $G \circlearrowleft_p X$ is a **partial free group action** if $\forall x \in X, \forall g \neq e$, if $\exists g \circlearrowleft_p x$, then $g \circlearrowleft_p x \neq x$

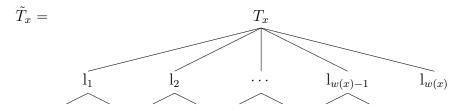
Proposition 63.

Consider $F
ightharpoonup M_1$ the standard partial action of F on M_1 . Then:

- $F \supset M_1$ is a free partial group action
- $\forall x \in M_1, O_x = X_{w(x)}$
- $\forall x \in M_1, \ Dom(x) \neq F$

Proof of Proposition 63:

- Consider $f \in F$, $f \neq id$ and $x \in M_1$ such that $\overline{T_f} \subset T_x$. because $f \neq id$, $\overline{T_f}$ is not the simple \mathbb{T} -tree and $\overline{S} \neq \overline{T}$. So $F(T_x) \neq T_x$
- Consider $x, y \in X_n$. Then $w(T_x) = n = w(T_y)$ so $T_x \to T_y$ is a tree diagram and $f_{T_x,T_y}(T_x) = T_y$. So $f_{T_x,T_y} \circlearrowleft x = y$. conversely $f \in F$ only send tree to other tree of same width.
- Consider T_x the equivalent of x as a \mathbb{T} -tree. Because $Dom(\cdot) = \{id\} \neq F$, we can assume $w(x) \geq 2$ We define \tilde{T}_x by adding to each leaves of T_x exempt $l_{w(x)}$ a caret:



We can see that by construction $\tilde{T}_x \nsubseteq T_x$ and also by construction, we get that

$$\tilde{T}_x \to \mathbb{T}_{2w(x)-4}$$
 is a reduced tree diagram.

Indeed, the only leaves in $\mathbb{T}_{2w(x)-4}$ that form a caret are the 2 rightmost ones but they don't form a caret in in \tilde{T}_x . Defining $g = f_{\tilde{T}_x, \mathbb{T}_{2w(x)-4}}$, we get that $g \notin \text{Dom}(x)$

☐ 63

Definition 64 (*G*-equivariant maps).

Let $G \circlearrowleft_p X$ and $G \circlearrowleft_p Y$ be two partial G-actions. Consider the following map:

$$f: X \to Y$$

f is called G-equivariant if:

1.
$$\forall g \in G, f(X_g) \subseteq Y_g$$

2.
$$\forall x \in X_q, f(q \circlearrowleft_p x) = g \circlearrowleft_p f(x)$$

Furthermore, if f is bijective and f^{-1} is also G-equivariant, then f is called an **equiva**lence of partial actions We sadly won't have the time to prove that the free group F_2 is not a subgroup of F (see chapter 4 of [1]). This result is interesting because it open F to be a counterexample of Von-Neumann conjecture (disproved in 1980 by Aleksandr Olshansky), that stated that

a group G is non-amenable $\iff F_2 \subseteq G$.

Chapter 3

Amenability on F-Thompson group

3.1 Definitions

This part is mostly a repetition of the course of Analysis on Group given by N.Monod at EPFL.

Definition 65 (Means).

Let X be any set. We define a mean on X as follows

$$\mu: \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0,1]$$

$$\mu(X) = 1$$

$$A, B \subset X, A \cap B = \emptyset \Rightarrow \mu(A \sqcup B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$$

We also define the **set of means on X** $\mathcal{M}(X)$

Remark 66. Means are finitely additive probability measure.

Proposition 67.

 $\mathcal{M}(X)$ is a compact Hausdorff convex set.

Proof of Proposition 67:

• $\mathcal{M}(X)$ is convex: Consider $t_1, \dots, t_n \ge 0$ with $\sum_{i=1}^n t_i = 1$ and $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n \in \mathcal{M}(X)$.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i \mu_i \in \mathcal{M}(X)$$

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} \mu_{i}(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} = 1$$

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} \mu_{i}(A \sqcup B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} (\mu_{i}(A) + \mu_{i}(B)) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} \mu_{i}(A) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_{i} \mu_{i}(B)$$

- $\mathcal{M}(X)$ is Hausdorff: Because [0,1] is Hausdorff, we get by product conservation that $[0,1]^{\mathcal{P}(X)}$ is Hausdorff. because $\mathcal{M}(X) \subset [0,1]^{\mathcal{P}(X)}$, we get $\mathcal{M}(X)$ is Hausdorff.
- $\mathcal{M}(X)$ is compact: Because [0,1] is compact, we get using Tychonoff's theorem that $[0,1]^{\mathcal{P}(X)}$ is compact. Now, we have to show that $\mathcal{M}(X)$ is a closed subset of $[0,1]^{\mathcal{P}(X)}$. But

$$\mathcal{M}(X) = \left\{ \mu \in [0, 1]^{\mathcal{P}(X)} | \ \mu(X) = 1 \right\} \cap \bigcap_{A \cap B = \emptyset} \left\{ \mu \in [0, 1]^{\mathcal{P}(X)} | \ \mu(A \sqcup B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B) \right\}$$

and all those parts are closed. So $\mathcal{M}(X)$ is compact.

□ 67

Definition 68 (Dirac mass).

Let X be any set. we define the **Dirac mass**

$$\delta: X \hookrightarrow \mathcal{M}(X)$$

$$\delta(x) = \delta_x$$

$$\delta_x(A) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Definition 69 (Ultra-filters).

Let X be any set. An ultra-filter on X is $\mathcal{F} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ such that:

- 1. $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{F}$
- 2. $A \subset B$ and $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow B \in \mathcal{F}$
- 3. $A, B \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{F}$
- 4. $A \in \mathcal{F} \iff X \backslash A \notin \mathcal{F}$

Lemma 70.

Let X be any set. Consider $\beta X = \overline{\delta(X)}$ the Stone-Cech compactification. Then, there exists a bijection

Ultra-filters on $X \cong \beta X$

Proof of Lemma 70:

First, let's show that $\beta X = \{ \mu \in \mathcal{M}(X) | \mu(A) = 0 \text{ or } 1 \}.$

Consider U an open in the topological basis of $[0,1]^{\mathcal{P}(X)}$. $U = \prod_{A \in \mathcal{P}(X)} U_A$, U_A open in [0,1] and $U_A = [0,1]$ except on finitely many cases. We will be using that

 $x \in \overline{V} \iff \forall O \text{ in the topological basis, } x \in O \Rightarrow O \cap V \neq \emptyset$

• \supseteq : Consider μ , $\mu(A) = 0$ or 1. Let U be an open in the topological basis of $[0,1]^{\mathcal{P}(X)}$, $\mu \in U$. Let $\{U_{A_i}\}_{i=0}^n$ be the non trivial open part of U. Because $\mu \in U$, then either 0 or 1 is in U_{A_i} (because $\mu(A_i) = 0$ or 1).

Then consider $J = \{i = 0, \dots, n \mid \mu(A_i) = 1\}$ and let $J' = \{0, \dots, n\} \setminus J$. At least one of them is non-empty. We define the sets

$$A = \bigcap_{j \in J} A_j, \quad B = \bigcup_{j \in J'} A_j$$

whenever J or J' is non empty. Otherwise, they are respectively X and \emptyset .

Because it is a finite intersection, $\mu(A) = 1$. Similarly, $\mu(B) = 0$ and thus $\mu(X \backslash B) = 1$ so $\mu(A \backslash B) = \mu(A \cap X \backslash B) = 1$, so $A \backslash B \neq \emptyset$.

Take $x \in A \backslash B$. Then $\delta_x \in U$. Indeed $x \in A_j \iff j \in J$.

• \subseteq Consider $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$ such that $\mu(Y) = \alpha \neq 0, 1$. Then consider the open set $U = \prod_{A \in \mathcal{P}(X)} U_A$, $U_Y = (\frac{\alpha}{2}, \frac{1+\alpha}{2})$, $U_A = [0, 1]$ otherwise. Then $\mu \in U$, but if $\delta_x \in U$, then $\delta_x(Y) \neq 0, 1$. So $U \cap \delta(X) = \emptyset$

Now, consider $\mu \in \beta X$, We define the following ultra-filter

$$\mathcal{F}_{\mu} = \{ A \in \mathcal{P}(X) \mid \mu(A) = 1 \}$$

This is indeed an ultra-filter¹

- 1. $\mu(\emptyset) = 0 \Rightarrow \emptyset \notin \mathcal{F}_{\mu}$
- 2. $A \subseteq B$ and $A \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu}$. Thus $\mu(A) = 1$, so $\mu(B) = 1$, so $B \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu}$
- 3. $A, B \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu}$. i.e. $\mu(A) = \mu(B) = 1$ and thus

$$\mu(A \cap B) = \mu(A) + \mu(B) - \mu(A \cup B) = 2 - 1 = 1$$

and therefore $A \cap B \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu}$

4.
$$A \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu} \iff \mu(A) = 1 \iff \mu(X \backslash A) = 0 \iff {}^{2}X \backslash A \notin \mathcal{F}_{\mu}$$

Now, let \mathcal{F} be any ultra-filter on X. We define the following mean in βX

$$\mu_{\mathcal{F}}(A) = \begin{cases} 1 & \Longleftrightarrow A \in \mathcal{F}(A) \\ 0 & \Longleftrightarrow A \notin \mathcal{F}(A) \end{cases}$$

This is indeed a mean.

- 1. $X \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \mu(X) = 1$
- 2. Let $A, B \subseteq X$, $A \cap B = \emptyset$. then $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow B \notin \mathcal{F}$ and inversely. So if either A or $B \in \mathcal{F}$, then $\mu(A \cup B) = 1 = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$.

Now, let $A, B \notin \mathcal{F}$, then so does $A \cup B$ and thus $\mu(A \cup B) = 0 = \mu(A) + \mu(B)$.

¹In fact, this construction is generalisable to any $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$ and we would get a filter (i.e. an ultra-filter without the 4th axiom)

²using the fact that $\mu(A) \neq 1 \iff \mu(A) = 0$

Then, by definition $\mathcal{F}_{\mu_{\mathcal{F}}} = \mathcal{F}$ and $\mu_{\mathcal{F}_{\mu}} = \mu$. So we have proven the bijection.

 \square 70

Definition 71 (Fonction on means).

Let $f: X \to Y$ be any fonction. This induce a fonction

$$f_*: M(X) \to M(Y)$$

$$f_*(\mu)(A) = \mu(f^{-1}(A))$$

Definition 72 (Action on means).

Let $G \circlearrowleft X$ be any group action. This induce a action on M(X)

$$G \circlearrowleft \mathcal{M}(X)$$

$$g \circlearrowleft \mu(A) = \mu(g^{-1} \circlearrowleft A)$$

Definition 73 (Amenability).

Let $G \circlearrowleft X$ be any group action. This action is said **amenable** if $G \circlearrowleft \mathcal{M}(X)$ admits an orbit of cardinality 1.

$$\exists \mu \in \mathcal{M}(X), \forall g \in G, g \circlearrowleft \mu = \mu$$

If $G \bigcirc G$ the standard action by multiplication is amenable, we say that G is amenable

Proposition 74.

Let $m \in l^{\infty}(X)^*$. Any two of those propositions imply the third:

- 1. $m \ge 0$
- $2. \|m\| = 1$
- 3. $m(1_X) = 1$

Proof of Proposition 74:

• $(1) + (2) \Rightarrow (3)$: Using (2), we know that $m(1_X) \leq 1$. Now, suppose $m(1_X) < 1$. Then, because (2), $\exists f \in l^{\infty}(X), f \leq 1$ s.t. $|m(f)| > |m(1_X)|$. Furthermore, using (1), we can take f > 0. Then $1 \geq 1_X - f > 0$ and thus

$$m(f) > m(1_X) = m(1_X - f) + m(f) \ge m(f)$$

- $(2) + (3) \Rightarrow (1)$: Suppose $\exists f \in l^{\infty}(X), 0 < f \leq 1, m(f) < 0$. Then $1_X f < 1$ and $m(1_X f) = m(1_X) m(f) > 1$ which contradicts (2).
- (1) + (3) \Rightarrow (2): Using (1), we have that $||m|| = \sup_{0 < f \le 1} m(f)$ and $\forall 0 < f \le 1$, $f \le 1_X$, thus $m(f) \le m(1_X)$. So $||m|| = m(1_X) = 1$

 \Box 74

Definition 75 (Linearisation on $\mathcal{M}(X)$).

Let X be any non-empty set

$$\mathcal{M}'(X) = \left\{ m \in l^{\infty}(X)^* | m > 0, ||m|| = 1, m(1_X) = 1 \right\}$$

We give $\mathcal{M}'(X)$ a topology as a restriction of the weak* topology on $l^{\infty}(X)^*$

Theorem 76.

$$\mathcal{M}(X) \cong \mathcal{M}'(X)$$

3.2 Extension of amenability to partial actions

Definition 77 (Partial action on means).

Let $G
ightharpoonup_p X$ be any partial action. This induce a partial map on $\mathcal{M}(X)$

$$\star: G \times \mathcal{M}(X) \rightharpoonup \mathcal{M}(X)$$

$$g \star \mu(A) = \frac{1}{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})} \mu(g^{-1} \circlearrowright_p (A \cap X_g)) \text{ if } \mu(X_{g^{-1}}) \neq 0$$

with $g \circlearrowleft_p: X_{g^{-1}} \cong X_g$ and $g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p: X_g \cong X_{g^{-1}}$ mutual inverses given by the partial action

Proposition 78.

 $-\star - is$ well defined

Proof of Proposition 78: $g \star \mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$

•
$$g \star \mu(X) = \frac{1}{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})} \mu(g^{-1} \circlearrowright_p (X_g)) = \frac{1}{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})} \mu(X_{g^{-1}}) = 1$$

•
$$A, B \subseteq X, A \cap B = \emptyset$$
. Then ³

$$g \star \mu(A \cup B) = \frac{1}{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})} \mu(g^{-1} \bigcirc_p ((A \sqcup B) \cap X_g))$$

$$= \frac{1}{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})} \mu(g^{-1} \bigcirc_p ((A \cap X_g) \sqcup (B \cap X_g)))$$

$$= \frac{1}{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})} \mu(g^{-1} \bigcirc_p ((A \cap X_g) \sqcup g^{-1} \bigcirc_p (B \cap X_g)))$$

$$= \frac{1}{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})} \Big(\mu(g^{-1} \bigcirc_p ((A \cap X_g))) + \mu(g^{-1} \bigcirc_p (B \cap X_g)) \Big)$$

$$= g \star \mu(A) + g \star \mu(B)$$

 \square 78

³We are using here the fact that the image of a disjoint union by a bijection is still disjoint

Proposition 79.

• If $\exists g \star \mu$, then $\exists g^{-1} \star (g \star \mu)$.

$$g^{-1} \star (g \star \mu)(A) = \frac{1}{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})} \mu(A \cap X_{g^{-1}})$$

• If $\exists g \star \mu$ and $\exists h \star (g \star \mu)$, then $\exists (h.g) \star \mu$ but we don't always have the equality

$$\begin{array}{lll} (h.g) \star \mu(A) & = & \frac{1}{\mu(X_{(hg)^{-1}})} \mu((hg)^{-1} \circlearrowright_p (A \cap X_{(hg)}) \\ h \star (g \star \mu)(A) & = & \frac{1}{\mu(g^{-1}\circlearrowright_p (X_h^{-1} \cap X_g))} \mu\Big(g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (h^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (A \cap X_h) \cap X_g)\Big) \\ & = & \frac{1}{\mu(g^{-1}\circlearrowright_p (X_h^{-1} \cap X_g))} \mu\Big(\big((hg)^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p A\big) \cap g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p \big(X_{h^{-1}} \cap X_g\big)\Big) \end{array}$$

• If $G \bigcirc_p X$ is a standard group action, then \star coincide with the induce action on means.

Proof of Proposition 79:

This comes from the definition. See that:

•
$$g \star \mu(X_g) = \frac{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})}{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})} = 1$$

• $\exists g \star \mu$ and $\exists h \star (g \star \mu)$ means that $\mu(X_{g^{-1}}) \neq 0$ and $g \star \mu(X_{h^{-1}}) = \frac{\mu(g^{-1} \bigcirc_p (X_{h^{-1}} \times X_g))}{\mu(X_{g^{-1}})} \neq 0$. Because $g^{-1} \bigcirc_p (X_{h^{-1}} \times X_g) \subset X_{(hg)^{-1}}$, then $\mu(X_{(hg)^{-1}}) \neq 0$ and thus $\exists (hg) \star \mu$

☐ 79

Definition 80 (G-stable means).

Let $G \circ_p X$ be any partial action, $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$. We say that μ is a G-stable means if and only if $\forall g \in G$

$$\mu(X_g) \neq 0 \Rightarrow g \star \mu = \mu$$

Proposition 81.

Let μ being a G-stable mean. Then

1.
$$\mu(X_g) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \mu(X_{g^{-1}}) \neq 0$$

2.
$$\mu(X_q) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \mu(X_q) = 1$$

3.
$$A \subseteq X$$
 and $\mu(X_g) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \mu(A) = \mu(A \cap X_g)$

4.
$$\mu(X_q) \neq 0, \mu(X_h) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \mu(X_{hq}) \neq 0$$

Proof of Proposition 81:

1. Let $\mu(X_q) \neq 0$. Then

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mu(X_{g^{-1}}) & = & g^{-1} \star \mu(X_{g^{-1}}) \\ & = & \frac{1}{\mu(X_g)} \mu\big(g \circlearrowright_p (X_{g^{-1}} \cap X_{g^{-1}})\big) \\ & = & \frac{1}{\mu(X_g)} \mu(X_g) = 1 \end{array}$$

So
$$\mu(X_{q^{-1}}) \neq 0$$

- 2. From the previous point, $\mu(X_g) \neq 0 \Rightarrow \mu(X_{g^{-1}}) = 1$, so by taking g^{-1} , $\mu(X_g) = g^{-1} \star \mu(X_g) = 1$
- 3. Let $A \subset X$ and $\mu(X_g) \neq 0$. then $\mu(A) = g^{-1} \star (g \star \mu)(A) = \mu(A \cap X_g)$ because $\mu(X_{g^{-1}}) = 1$
- 4. $\mu(X_g) = 1, \mu(X_h) = 1$, then $\mu(X_{h^{-1}}) = 1$ and thus $\mu(X_g \cap X_{h^{-1}}) = 1$.

$$1 = \mu(X_q \cap X_{h^{-1}}) = g \star \mu(X_q \cap X_{h^{-1}}) = \mu(g^{-1} \triangleright_p (X_q \cap X_{h^{-1}}))$$

$$g^{-1} \circlearrowright_p (X_q \cap X_{h^{-1}}) \subset X_{(hq)^{-1}}$$
. Therefore

$$\mu(X_{(hg)^{-1}})=1\Rightarrow \mu(X_{hg})=1$$

□ 81

Definition 82 (Amenable partial action).

Let $G \circlearrowleft_p X$ be any partial action. We say that $G \circlearrowleft_p X$ is **amenable** if and only if there exists μ , a G-stable mean such that $\forall g \in G, \mu(X_g) \neq 0$

Lemma 83.

Let $G \circlearrowleft_p X$ be any partial action, G finitely generated (i.e. $G = \langle g_1, \cdots, g_n \rangle$). Then

$$G \circlearrowleft_p X \text{ is amenable} \iff \exists \mu, \ \mu \Big(\bigcap_{i=1}^n X_{g_i^{-1}} \Big) = 1 \text{ and } g_i \star \mu = \mu$$

Proof of Lemma 83:

- \Rightarrow : By definition
- \leq : Let $\nu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$

- Let
$$g \in G$$
, $\nu(X_{g^{-1}}) = 1$, $g \star \nu = \nu$. Then $\nu(X_g) = g \star \nu(X_g) = \nu(X_{g^{-1}}) = 1$ and $\mu(X \setminus X_{g^{-1}}) = 0$

Thus,
$$\forall A \subset X$$

$$g^{-1} \star \nu(A) = g^{-1} \star (g \star \nu(A))$$

$$= \nu(A \cap X_{g^{-1}})$$

$$= \nu(A) - \nu(A \cap (X \setminus X_{g^{-1}})) = \nu(A)$$
So $e^{-1} \cdot \nu$

– Let $g, h \in G$, $\nu(X_{g^{-1}}) = \nu(X_{h^{-1}}) = 1$, $g \star \nu = h \star \nu = \nu$. Then $\nu(X_g \cap X_{h^{-1}}) = 1$. Thus

$$1 = g \star \nu(X_g \cap X_{h^{-1}}) = \nu(g^{-1} \circlearrowright_p (X_g \cap X_{h^{-1}}))$$
 and because $g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (X_g \cap X_{h^{-1}}) \subseteq X_{(hg)^{-1}},$
$$\nu(X_{(hg)^{-1}}) = 1$$

$$\nu(X_{(hg)^{-1}}) = 1$$

$$\nu(X_{(hg)^{-1}} \setminus g^{-1} \setminus D_p (X_g \cap X_{h^{-1}})) = \nu(U) = 0.$$

Thus,
$$\forall A \subset X$$

$$(h.g) \star \nu(A) = \nu((hg)^{-1} \circlearrowright_p (A) \cap X_{(hg)^{-1}})$$

$$= \nu((hg)^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (A) \cap g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (X_g \cap X_{h^{-1}})) + \nu((hg)^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (A) \cap U)$$

$$= \nu((hg)^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (A) \cap g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (X_g \cap X_{h^{-1}})) = h \star (g \star \nu(A)) = \nu(A)$$
So $(h.g) \star \nu = \nu$

Because $\mu(\bigcap_{i=1}^n X_{g_i^{-1}}) = 1$, this imply that for all i, $\mu(X_{g_i^{-1}}) = 1$. Using the fact that any element of G can is given by a combination of g_i and g_i^{-1} and the previous 2 points on μ , we get that $\forall g \in G$, $\mu(X_g^{-1}) = 1$ and $g \star \mu = \mu$. Thus $G \circlearrowleft_p X$ is amenable

□ 83

Corollary 84.

$$F \circlearrowleft M_1 \text{ is amenable } \iff \exists \mu \in \mathcal{M}(M_1), \ \mu(M_{A^{-1}} \cap M_{B^{-1}}) = 1, \ A \star \mu = B \star \mu = \mu$$

Proposition 85.

Let $G \bigcirc_p X$ and $G \bigcirc_p Y$ be two G-partial actions and let $f: X \to Y$ be a G-equivariant map. Then

$$G \circlearrowright_p X \ amenable \Rightarrow G \circlearrowleft_p Y \ amenable$$

Proof of Proposition 85:

Let $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$ such that that $\forall g \in G$, $\mu(X_g) = 1$ and $g \star \mu = \mu$. Then, consider $f_*\mu$.

- $\forall g \in G, f_*\mu(Y_g) = \mu\Big(f^{-1}(Y_g)\Big) \geqslant \mu\Big(f^{-1}\big(f(X_g)\big)\Big) = \mu(X_g) = 1$ Then $f_*\mu\big(Y_g\backslash f(X_g)\big) = 0$
- $\forall q \in G, \forall A \subset Y$

$$f^{-1}\Big(g \, \circlearrowright_p \big(A \cap f(X_{g^{-1}})\big)\Big) = \begin{cases} x \in X | f(x) \in g \, \circlearrowleft_p A \cap f(X_{g^{-1}}) \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} x \in X | g^{-1} \, \circlearrowleft_p f(x) \in A \cap f(X_{g^{-1}}) \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} x \in X | f(g^{-1} \, \circlearrowleft_p x) \in A \cap f(X_{g^{-1}}) \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} x \in X | g^{-1} \, \circlearrowleft_p x \in f^{-1}(A) \cap X_{g^{-1}} \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} x \in X | x \in g \, \circlearrowleft_p (f^{-1}(A) \cap X_{g^{-1}}) \end{cases}$$

$$= g \, \circlearrowleft_p (f^{-1}(A) \cap X_{g^{-1}})$$

Using this result, we get

$$g \star (f_*\mu)(A) = f_*\mu \Big(g^{-1} \circlearrowright_p (A \cap Y_g)\Big)$$

$$= f_*\mu \Big(g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (A \cap f(X_g)) \sqcup g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (A \cap Y_g \backslash f(X_g))\Big)$$

$$= f_*\mu \Big(g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (A \cap f(X_g))\Big) + f_*\mu \Big(g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (A \cap Y_g \backslash f(X_g))\Big)$$

$$= f_*\mu \Big(g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (A \cap f(X_g))\Big) + 0$$

$$= \mu \Big(f^{-1}\Big(g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (A \cap f(X_g))\Big)\Big)$$

$$= \mu \Big(g^{-1} \circlearrowleft_p (f^{-1}(A) \cap X_g)\Big)$$

$$= g \star \mu \Big(f^{-1}(A)\Big)$$

$$= \mu \Big(f^{-1}(A)\Big)$$

$$= f_*\mu(A)$$

So $f_*\mu$ gives us that $G \circlearrowright_p Y$ is amenable.

□ 85

Corollary 86.

 $F \circlearrowleft M_1$ is amenable $\Rightarrow F$ is amenable

Proof of Corollary 86:

Consider the following map:

$$\Phi: M_1 \longrightarrow F$$

$$\Phi(x) = f_{\mathbb{T}_{n-3}, T_x} \text{ if } w(x) = n \geqslant 3$$

$$\Phi(x) = id \text{ otherwise.}$$

Let's show Φ is a F-equivariant map.

- $\forall f \in F, F_f = F$. So by definition $\Phi(M_f) \subseteq F$
- If $\exists g \circlearrowleft x, w(x) \geq 3$ then

$$\Phi(g \circlearrowright x) = f_{\mathbb{T}_n, g(T_x)}$$

$$= f_{T_x, g(T_x)} \circ f_{\mathbb{T}_n, T_x} \quad \text{using 43}$$

$$= g \circ f_{\mathbb{T}_n, T_x} \quad \text{because } T \to g(T) \text{ represent } g$$

$$= g \circlearrowleft \Phi(x)$$

If w(x) < 3, then $Dom(x) = \{id\}$ and this still works.

Thus, using 85, we get our result.

□ 86

Lemma 87.

F is amenable $\Rightarrow F \circlearrowleft M_1$ is amenable

Proof of Lemma 87:

We can not use the same technique to prove this lemma. Indeed, there is no F-equivariant map φ from F to M_1 . Indeed, because $\forall f \in F, F_f = F$, we get that $\forall f \in F, \varphi(F) \subseteq M_f$ and therefore

$$\varphi(F) \subseteq \bigcap_{f \in F} M_f = \emptyset$$

because using 63, we have that $\forall x \in X, \exists g \in F \text{ such that } x \notin X_g$.

So this result is not obvious and we won't have the time to do it in this report. Although, a prove of it can be found in [2]. This proof is using Følner and marginal sets.

□ 87

3.3 Idempotent means

This part is inspired by J. T. Moore papers [3] and [4] and many theorem's proves are just extended versions of his.

3.3.1 General properties

Definition 88 (expectancy by a mean).

Let $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$, $f \in l^{\infty}(X)$. We define the **expectancy of** f by μ

$$\int_{x \in X} f(x) d\mu(x)$$

1. If f is simple, that is $f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i \cdot 1_{A_i}, \ a_i \geqslant 0$ then

$$\int_{x \in X} f(x)d\mu(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i \mu(A_i)$$

2. If f > 0. Then

$$\int_{x \in X} f(x) d\mu(x) = \sup \left\{ \int_{x \in X} \varphi(x) d\mu(x) \mid \varphi \leqslant f \text{ and simple } \right\}$$

3. $\forall f \in l^{\infty}(X), f = f_{+} - f_{-} \text{ both positive function. then}$

$$\int_{x \in X} f(x) d\mu(x) = \int_{x \in X} f_{+}(x) d\mu(x) - \int_{x \in X} f_{-}(x) d\mu(x)$$

Proposition 89.

Let $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$, $f, h \in l^{\infty}(X)$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Here is a non exhaustive list of property of the expectancy by a mean:

1. Consider $A \subseteq X$ $f = 1_A$, then

$$\int_{x \in X} f(x) d\mu(x) = \mu(A)$$

2.

$$f \leqslant h \Rightarrow \int_{x \in X} f(x) d\mu(x) \leqslant \int_{x \in X} h(x) d\mu(x)$$

3.

$$\int_{x \in X} \left(f(x) + h(x) \right) d\mu(x) = \int_{x \in X} f(x) d\mu(x) + \int_{x \in X} h(x) d\mu(x)$$

4.

$$\int_{x \in X} \lambda . f(x) d\mu(x) = \lambda \int_{x \in X} f(x) d\mu(x)$$

5.

$$\int_{x \in X} - d\mu(x) \in l^{\infty}(X)^*$$

6. Let $\{\mu_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence such that $\forall A\subseteq X$, $\lim \mu_n(A)=\mu(A)$. Then

$$\lim \int_{x \in X} - d\mu_n(x) = \int_{x \in X} - d\mu(x)$$

Definition 90 (Induced composition law on $\mathcal{M}(X)$).

Let (X, *) be any magma, $f \in l^{\infty}(X)$. The existence of this law induce a composition law on $\mathcal{M}(X)$

$$*: \mathcal{M}(X) \times \mathcal{M}(X) \to \mathcal{M}(X)$$

$$\mu * \nu(f) = \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} f(s * t) \ d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s)$$

Proposition 91.

The composition law * on $\mathcal{M}(X)$ is well defined.

Proof of Proposition 91:

• $\mu * \nu \in l^{\infty}(X)^*$:

$$\begin{split} \mu * \nu((\lambda.f) + h) &= \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} \lambda.f(s*t) + h(s*t) \ d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s) \\ &= \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} \lambda.f(s*t) + \int_{t \in X} h(s*t) \ d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s) \\ &= \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} \lambda.f(s*t) \right) d\mu(s) + \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} h(s*t) \ d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s) \\ &= \lambda. \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} f(s*t) \right) d\mu(s) + \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} h(s*t) \ d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s) \\ &= \lambda.\mu * \nu(f) + \mu * \nu(h) \end{split}$$

$$\mu * \nu(f) = \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} f(s * t) d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s)$$

$$\leq \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} \|f\|_{\infty} 1_X(s * t) d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s)$$

$$= \int_{s \in X} \|f\|_{\infty} 1_X(s) d\mu(s)$$

$$= \|f\|_{\infty}$$

• $\mu * \nu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$. Let $f \ge 0$

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \mu * \nu(1_X) & = & \int_{s \in X} \bigg(\int_{t \in X} 1_X(s*t) \ d\nu(t) \bigg) d\mu(s) \\ & = & \int_{s \in X} \bigg(\int_{t \in X} 1_X(s) \cdot 1_X(t) \ d\nu(t) \bigg) d\mu(s) \\ & = & \int_{s \in X} 1_X(s) . \nu(X) \ d\mu(s) \\ & = & \mu(X) \\ & = & 1 \end{array}$$

$$\mu * \nu(f) = \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} f(s * t) \, d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s)$$

$$\geqslant \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} 0 \, d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s)$$

$$= 0$$

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Proposition 92.

Let (X, *) be any magma, $\mu, \nu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$ and $A, B \subset X$. Then

$$\mu * \nu(A * B) = \mu(A)\nu(B)$$

Proof of Proposition 92:

We have that $1_{A*B}(a*b) = 1_A(a).1_B(b)$. Thus $\mu*\nu(A*B) = \mu*\nu(1_{A*B}) = \int_{s\in X} \left(\int_{t\in X} 1_{A*B}(s*t) \ d\nu(t)\right) d\mu(s)$ $= \int_{s\in X} \left(\int_{t\in X} 1_A(s)1_B(t) d\nu(t)\right) d\mu(s)$ $= \left(\int_{s\in X} 1_A(s) d\mu(s)\right) \cdot \left(\int_{t\in X} 1_B(t) d\nu(t)\right)$ $= \mu(A)\nu(B)$

Proposition 93.

Let (X,*) be any magma, $A \subseteq X$, $\nu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$ and $c \in [0,1]$ such that $\forall s \in X$, $\nu(\{t \in X \mid s * t \in A\}) = c$. Then $\forall \mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$

$$\mu * \nu(A) = c$$

Proof of Proposition 93:

$$\mu * \nu(A) = \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} 1_A(s * t) \ d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s)$$

$$= \int_{s \in X} \nu(\{t \in X \mid s * t \in A\}) d\mu(s)$$

$$= \int_{s \in X} c \ d\mu(s)$$

$$= c$$

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Proposition 94.

Let (X, *) be any magma, Then the restriction of the induced composition law on βX is closed. That is $\forall \mu, \nu \in \beta X, \mu * \nu \in \beta X$

Proof of Proposition 94:

Consider $\mathcal{F}_{\nu}, \mathcal{F}_{\mu}$ the ultra-filters equivalent to ν, μ . Remember that

$$\beta X = \left\{ \mu \in \mathcal{M}(X) | \forall A \subseteq X, \mu(A) = \{0, 1\} \right\}$$

$$\mu * \nu(A) = \int_{s \in X} \left(\int_{t \in X} 1_A(s * t) \, d\nu(t) \right) d\mu(s)$$

$$= \int_{s \in X} \nu \left(\{ t \in X \mid s * t \in A \} \right) d\mu(s)$$

$$= \int_{s \in X} 1_{\{ \{ t \in X \mid s * t \in A \} \in \mathcal{F}_{\nu} \}} (s) \, d\mu(s)$$

$$= \mu \left(\left\{ s \in X \middle| \{ t \in X \mid s * t \in A \} \in \mathcal{F}_{\nu} \right\} \right) \in \{0, 1\}$$

We have therefore the form of $\mathcal{F}_{\mu*\nu}$

$$A \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu * \nu} \iff \left\{ s \in X | \left\{ t \in X \mid s * t \in A \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\nu} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu}$$

Furthermore, using previous proposition, if $A \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu}, B \in \mathcal{F}_{\nu}$, then $\mu * \nu(A * B) = \mu(A)\nu(B) = 1$, so $A * B \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu*\nu}$. Thus

$$\mathcal{F}_{\mu} * \mathcal{F}_{\nu} \subset \mathcal{F}_{\mu * \nu}$$

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Definition 95 (Idempotent means).

Let (X, *) be any magma, $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$. We say that a mean is **idempotent** if

$$\mu * \mu = \mu$$

Lemma 96.

Let (X, *) be any magma with * associative (i.e. a semigroup). Then the induced composition law on βX is also associative.

$$\eta * (\mu * \nu) = (\eta * \mu) * \nu$$
$$\mathcal{F}_{\eta * (\mu * \nu)} = \mathcal{F}_{(\eta * \mu) * \nu}$$

Proof of Lemma 96: We will do this proof without any form of subtlety

$$A \in \mathcal{F}_{\eta*(\mu*\nu)} \iff \left\{ s \in X | \left\{ t \in X | s * t \in A \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu*\nu} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\eta}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left\{ s \in X | \left\{ u \in X | \left\{ v \in X | u * v \in \left\{ t \in X | s * t \in A \right\} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\nu} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\eta}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left\{ s \in X | \left\{ u \in X | \left\{ v \in X | s * u * v \in A \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\nu} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\eta}$$

$$A \in \mathcal{F}_{(\eta*\mu)*\nu} \iff \left\{ s \in X | \left\{ t \in X | s * t \in A \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\nu} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\eta*\mu}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left\{ u \in X | \left\{ v \in X | u * v \in \left\{ s \in X | \left\{ t \in X | s * t \in A \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\nu} \right\} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\eta}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left\{ u \in X | \left\{ v \in X | \left\{ t \in X | u * v * t \in A \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\nu} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu} \right\} \in \mathcal{F}_{\eta}$$

Theorem 97 (Ellis-Numakura lemma).

Let (X,*) be a non-empty semigroup with \mathcal{T} a topology such that X is compact, T_1 and the maps $-*x: y \to y*x$ are continuous for all $x \in X$. Then, (X,*) has a nilpotent element

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$$\exists p \in X \text{ such that } p * p = p$$

Proof of Theorem 97:

Let \mathcal{E} be the following family of subset of X.

$$\mathcal{E} = \left\{ A \subseteq X | A \neq \emptyset, \text{compact and } A * A \subseteq A \right\}$$

and let \mathcal{E} be a poset under the following partial order relation $A \leq B \iff B \subseteq A$. $X \in \mathcal{E}$.

Now, consider any chain \mathcal{C} in \mathcal{E} . It has an upper bound. Indeed, consider $V = \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{C}} A$. Because A are closed in a compact space and with non empty finite intersection ⁴, by compacity of X, V is also a non empty compact space. Furthermore:

$$V * V = \left(\bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{C}} A\right) * \left(\bigcap_{B \in \mathcal{C}} B\right) = \bigcap_{A,B \in \mathcal{C}} A * B \subseteq \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{C}} A * A \subseteq \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{C}} A = V$$

Thus, $V \in \mathcal{E}$ and $\forall A \in \mathcal{C}, A \leq V$. So V is the upper bound of \mathcal{C} and thus (\mathcal{E}, \leq) is an inductive poset.

Using **Zorn's lemma** (a.k.a the greatest lemma), we get that there exists a maximal in (\mathcal{E}, \leq) , named A.

Now, let $r \in A$ and consider A * r. Because it is the image of a compact space by a continuous function, it is itself a non empty compact subset of X. Furthermore:

$$A*r \subseteq A*A \subseteq A$$
$$(A*r)*(A*r) \subseteq ((A*r)*A)*r \subseteq (A*A)*r \subseteq A*r$$

Thus, $A \leq A * r$ so by maximality A = A * r. Thus there exists $p \in A$, p * r = r.

Now, consider $L = \{a \in A | a*r = r\}$. It is a non empty subset of A and because this is the preimage of a singleton in a T_1 topology, it is closed and thus compact. Furthermore, if $p, q \in L$, then (p*q)*r = p*(q*r) = p*r = r and thus $L*L \subseteq L$. So $A \leqslant L$ and by maximality L = A. Thus:

$$r * r = r$$

 \square 97

Corollary 98 (Idempotent ultrafilters).

Let (X, *) be a non-empty semigroup. Then $\exists \mu \in \beta X$ such that μ is idempotent.

Proof of Corollary 98:

We have already proven that $(\beta X, *)$ was a non-empty semigroup. Furthermore, because it is closure in $\mathcal{M}(X)$, a compact Haudorff set, so it is itself compact and T_1 . We just

⁴because this is a chain, in the finite case, ∃A maximal for ≤ and thus the intersection is non empty.

have to show that $\forall \nu \in \beta X$, $-*\nu$ is continuous on βX .

Let's show $\forall \nu \in \mathcal{M}(X)$, $-*\nu$ is continuous on $\mathcal{M}(X)$. Using weak* topology, let $\{\mu_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of means such that $\forall A\subseteq X$, $\lim \mu_n(A)=\mu(A)$. $\forall f\in l^\infty(X)$, we define $\Delta_f(s)=\int_{t\in X}f(s*t)d\nu(t)\in l^\infty(X)$. Then, $\forall f\in l^\infty(X)$,

$$\lim \mu_n * \nu(f) = \lim \int_{s \in X} \Delta_f(s) d\mu_n(s) = {}^5\int_{s \in X} \Delta_f(s) d\mu(s) = \mu * \nu(f)$$

Thus, $-*\nu$ is continuous.

Then, by using Ellis-Numakura lemma on $(\beta X, *)$, we get our nilpotent ultra-filter.

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3.3.2 From idempotent to amenable

Theorem 99.

 $\exists \mu \in \mathcal{M}(M_1) \ s.t. \ \mu \ idempotent \Rightarrow F \ is \ amenable$

Proof of Theorem 99:

Let μ be idempotent, then

$$\mu(\{1\}) = \mu(M_1 \setminus (M_1 * M_1)) = \mu(M_1) - \mu(M_1 * M_1) = 1 - \mu(M_1)\mu(M_1) = 0$$
$$\mu(\{1\} * M_1) = \mu(M_1 * \{1\}) = \mu(M_1)\mu(\{1\}) = 0$$

Now, using 50, we know the forms of $M_{A^{-1}}$, M_A , $M_{B^{-1}}$ and M_B .

$$M_{A^{-1}} = M_1 * (M_1 * M_1), M_A = (M_1 * M_1) * M_1$$

$$M_{B^{-1}} = M_1 * (M_1 * (M_1 * M_1)), M_{B^{-1}} = M_1 * ((M_1 * M_1) * M_1)$$

$$A \bigcirc \left(a * (b * c)\right) = (a * b) * c, B \bigcirc \left(a * (b * (c * d))\right) = a * ((b * c) * d)$$

Then
$$M_1\backslash M_{A^{-1}}=\{1\}\sqcup M_1*\{1\},\ M_1\backslash M_A=\{1\}\sqcup \{1\}*M_1,$$
 so
$$\mu(M_{A^{-1}})=\mu(M_A)=1.$$

⁵point 6 of 89

Furthermore, because μ is idempotent,

$$\mu = \mu * (\mu * \mu) = (\mu * \mu) * \mu$$

$$\mu = \mu * (\mu * (\mu * \mu)) = \mu * ((\mu * \mu) * \mu)$$

with a bit of computation, we see that

$$\mu * (\mu * \mu)(A) = \int_{x \in M_1} \int_{y \in M_1} \int_{z \in M_1} 1_A (x * (y * z)) d\mu(z) d\mu(y) d\mu(x)$$

$$(\mu * \mu) * \mu(A) = \int_{x \in M_1} \int_{y \in M_1} \int_{z \in M_1} 1_A ((x * y) * z) d\mu(z) d\mu(y) d\mu(x)$$
Thus,
$$\mu * (\mu * \mu)(E) = (\mu * \mu) * \mu(A^{-1} \circlearrowright (E \cap M_A))$$
And similarly,
$$\mu * (\mu * (\mu * \mu))(E) = \mu * ((\mu * \mu) * \mu)(B^{-1} \circlearrowleft (E \cap M_B)).$$

Then, $\forall E \subseteq M_1$,

$$\mu(E) = \mu(E \cap M_{A^{-1}})
= \mu(\{a * (b * c) \in E | a, b, c \in M_1\})
= \mu * (\mu * \mu)(E)
= (\mu * \mu) * \mu(A^{-1} \circlearrowright (E \cap M_A))
= \mu(A^{-1} \circlearrowright (E \cap M_A))
= A * \mu(E)$$

Thus, $\mu = A \star \mu$ and by the proof of 85, $\mu = A^{-1} \star \mu$.

Now, because $M_{B^{-1}} \subset M_{A^{-1}}$, we can see that

$$M_{A^{-1}}\backslash M_{B^{-1}}=M_1*(M_1*\{1\})$$

and thus, $A \circlearrowright (M_{A^{-1}} \backslash M_{B^{-1}}) = (M_1 * M_1) * \{1\}$

$$\mu(M_{1}\backslash M_{B^{-1}}) = \mu(M_{1}\backslash M_{A^{-1}}) + \mu(M_{1}\backslash M_{B^{-1}})$$

$$= 0 + A^{-1} \star \mu(M_{1}\backslash M_{B^{-1}})$$

$$= \mu((M_{1} * M_{1}) * \{1\})$$

$$\leqslant \mu(M_{1} * \{1\}) = 0$$

Thus, $\mu(M_{B^{-1}}) = 1$ (and similarly, $\mu(M_B) = 1$). Now, $\forall E \subseteq M_1$,

$$\mu(E) = \mu(E \cap M_{B^{-1}})$$

$$= \mu\left(\left\{a * (b * (c * d)) \in E | a, b, c, d \in M_1\right\}\right)$$

$$= \mu * (\mu * (\mu * \mu))(E)$$

$$= \mu * ((\mu * \mu) * \mu)(B^{-1} \circlearrowright (E \cap M_B))$$

$$= \mu(B^{-1} \circlearrowright (E \cap M_B))$$

$$= B * \mu(E)$$

Thus, $\mu = B \star \mu$.

Using 84 and 86, we get that F is amenable.

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3.3.3 Idempotent means on M_X

Lemma 100. Let $(M_X, *)$ be the free magma on X.

Then there is no idempotent ultra-filter on M_X

Proof of Lemma 100:

Suppose μ is an idempotent ultrafilter. We define by recursively the following function

$$\#: M_X \to \mathbb{N}$$

$$\#|_{X_1} = 0$$
 , $\#(a * b) = \#(a) + 1$

We define $X_e = \{ m \in M_X \mid \#(m) \text{ is even} \},$

 $X_o = M_X \backslash X_e = \{ m \in M_X \mid \#(m) \text{ is odd} \}.$

Due to the nature of M_X and $*, X_e * X = X_o$. Then

$$\mu(X_o) = \mu * \mu(X_e * X) = \mu(X_e).\mu(X) = \mu(X_e) = 1 - \mu(X_o)$$

So $\mu(X_o) = \frac{1}{2}$ but this is in contradiction with $\mu \in \beta X$

 \square 100

Definition 101 $(T_n \text{ sets})$.

Let $(M_X, *)$ be the free magma on X. $X_n = \{m \in M_X | w(m) = n\}$. We define recursively the family of set $\{T_n^k\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}^{k \in \mathbb{N}^*}$

$$\forall k, T_0^k = X_k$$

$$\forall n > 0, T_n^1 = \emptyset$$

$$T_{n+1}^k = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} \bigcap_{j=1}^{i-1} (X_i \backslash X_j * T_j^{i-j}) * T_n^{k-i}$$

We also befine $\{Z^k\}_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ *

$$Z^k = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} X_i * T_i^{k-i}$$

We finally define $\{T_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$, and Z:

$$T_n = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} T_n^k$$

$$Z = \bigcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} Z^k$$

Proposition 102.

 $\{T_n\}$ sets have a few interesting properties:

- 1. $\{T_n^k\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}^{k\in\mathbb{N}^*}$ are well defined
- 2. $\forall m \in T_n^k \text{ or } Z^k, w(m) = k$
- $3. \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, T_{n+1} = (M_X \backslash Z) * T_n$
- 4. $Z = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} X_n * T_n$
- 5. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, T_{n+1} \subseteq T_n$

Proof of Proposition 102:

- 1. We prove by recursively on n + k
 - n + k = 1. The only case is n = 0, k = 1. Then $T_0^1 = X_1 = X$
 - n + k = 2 Then either $T_1^1 = \emptyset$ or $T_0^2 = X_2 = X * X$
 - Now, $\forall n + k \leq m, T_n^k$ is defined. Consider n + k = m + 1. Then

$$T_{n}^{k} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} \bigcap_{j=1}^{i-1} \left(X_{i} \backslash X_{j} * T_{j}^{i-j} \right) * T_{n-1}^{k-i}$$

 T_n^k is well defined if the T_v^u defining it are too. But i - j + j = i < k < n + k and k - i + n - 1 < n + k. So they are all inferior to m, so they are all well defined. So $\forall n + k = m + 1$, T_n^k is well defined.

- 2. We prove by recursively on n + k
 - n + k = 1. The only case is n = 0, k = 1. Then $T_0^1 = X_1 = X$ and $\forall x \in X$, w(x) = 1
 - n + k = 2. Because $T_1^1 = \emptyset$, the only case is $T_0^2 = X_2 = X * X$ and $\forall x \in X$, w(x) = 1
 - $\forall n + k \leq m \ \forall x \in T_n^k, \ w(x) = k$. Then consider n + k = m + 1

$$T_n^k = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} \bigcap_{j=1}^{i-1} (X_i \backslash X_j * T_j^{i-j}) * T_{n-1}^{k-i}$$

 $\forall x \in T_n^k, x = a * b, a \in X_i, b \in T_{n-1}^k - i \text{ then } w(x) = w(a) + w(b) = i + k - i = k$

Similarly $m \in \mathbb{Z}^k = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} X_i * T_i^{k-i}$, so $m = a * b, a \in X_i, b \in T_i^{k-i}$. Then w(m) = w(a) + w(b) = i + k - i = k

3. First we can see that

$$T_{n+1}^k = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} \bigcap_{j=1}^{i-1} (X_i \backslash X_j * T_j^{i-j}) * T_n^{k-i} =$$

$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} \left(X_i \setminus \left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{i-1} X_j * T_j^{i-j} \right) * T_n^{k-i} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} \left(X_i \setminus Z^i \right) * T_n^{k-i} \right)$$

$$T_{n+1} = \bigsqcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} T_{n+1}^k = \bigsqcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} (X_i \backslash Z^i) * T_n^{k-i} = \bigsqcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} (X_i \backslash Z^i) * T_n^{k-i6} =$$

$$= \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \bigsqcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} (X_i \backslash Z^i) * T_n^{k-i} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} (X_i \backslash Z^i) * T_n = (M_X \backslash Z) * T_n$$

4.

$$Z = \bigsqcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} Z^k = \bigsqcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} \bigcup_{i=1}^{k-1} X_i * T_i^{k-i} = \bigsqcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}^*} X_i * T_i^{k-i} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}^*} \bigsqcup_{k \in \mathbb{N}^*} X_i * T_i$$

- 5. This is proved by recursion
 - Let n = 0, then $T_0 = M_X$ and by definition $T_1 \subseteq M_X$, so $T_1 \subseteq T_0$
 - Consider $T_n \subseteq T_{n-1}$. Then

$$T_{n+1} = (M_X \backslash Z) * T_n \subseteq (M_X \backslash Z) * T_{n-1} = T_n$$

□ 102

Theorem 103. Let $(M_X, *)$ be the free magma on X.

There exist no idempotent means on M_X .

Proof of Theorem 103:

Let $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(M_X)$ be an idempotent mean. We define $r = \mu(Z)$. Then, it has a few properties:

•
$$\mu(X) = \mu(X_1) = \mu(M_X \setminus (M_X * M_X)) = 1 - \mu(M_X * M_X) = 1 - \mu(M_X)\mu(M_X) = 0$$

•
$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, \mu(X_n) = \mu(\bigsqcup_{i+j=n} X_i * X_j) = \sum_{i+j=n} \mu(X_i) \mu(X_j)$$
 and thus by induction, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, \ \mu(X_n) = 0$

•
$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \mu(T_{n+1}) = \mu((M_X \setminus Z) * T_n) = (1-r)\mu(T_n) \text{ and } T_0 = M_X.$$
 Thus, by induction $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \mu(T_n) = (1-r)^n$

⁶whenever this is defined

Now, if r > 0, then $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}$, $(1 - r)^n < r$. Then

$$Z = \bigcup_{k < n} S_k * T_k \cup \bigcup_{k = n}^{\infty} S_k * T_k \subseteq \bigcup_{k < n} S_k * T_k \cup \bigcup_{k = n}^{\infty} S_k * T_n$$
So $r = \mu(Z) \leqslant \mu(\bigcup_{k < n} S_k * T_k) + \mu(\bigcup_{k = n}^{\infty} S_k * T_m) \leqslant$

$$\leqslant \sum_{k < n} \mu(S_k * T_k) + \mu(M_X * T_m) \leqslant (1 - r)^n$$

Thus $, r = \mu(Z) \leqslant (1-r)^n < r$ a contradiction. Now, if r = 0, then $\forall s \in M_X$

$$\mu(\{t \in M_X | s * t \in Z\}) = \mu(T_{w(s)}) = (1 - r)^{w(s)} = 1$$

Thus, $0 = \mu(Z) = \mu * \mu(Z) = 1$ using 93

Thus, Z can not have a value, which imply that μ can not be a idempotent mean. \square 103

Conclusion

So, we see that the idea to find an idempotent mean on M_1 to solve the question of the amenability on F is a dead end, due to there lack of existence. However, this attempt yields interesting results, such as our extension of amenability to partial actions as well as the the amenability equivalence between F and its action onto M_1 ; constructions that might find use in the future.

We will put here an end to this work, although it we can continue by taking a look at [1] to discover further properties of F and the others Thompson's group. [2], [3] and [4] are also very interesting reading, although those require some further notions of amenability.

I would like to thank Nicolas Monod for giving me this project and for his continious support despite the covid crisis, that upset our organisation.

Oh, and to answer our opening statement, we sadly can't use paradoxical decompositions onto trees because even in case of existence of those decompositions, they are highly non-constructible, and therefore sadly impractical in our world.

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