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# On the condensation property of the Lamplighter groups and groups of intermediate growth<sup>1</sup>

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ABSTRACT. The aim of this short note is to revisit some old results about groups of intermediate growth and groups of the lamplighter type and to show that the Lamplighter group  $L = \mathbb{Z}_2 \wr \mathbb{Z}$  is a condensation group and has a minimal presentation by generators and relators. The condensation property is achieved by showing that L belongs to a Cantor subset of the space  $\mathcal{M}_2$  of marked 2-generated groups consisting mostly of groups of intermediate growth.

### 1. Introduction

The modern development of group theory requires significant use of methods of geometry, topology, probability and measure theory, the theory of models etc. The space  $\mathcal{M}_k$  of marked k-generated groups, introduced in [Gri84] plays an important role in this development. It is a compact totally disconnected metrizable space and it is important to know which groups belong to its perfect kernel (or condensation part), which is homeomorphic to a Cantor set. Groups in the perfect kernel are called *condensation* groups. The aim of this note is to revisit some results of [Gri84] and to use them to show that the so called Lamplighter group  $L = \mathbb{Z}_2 \wr \mathbb{Z}$ , which is a popular object of study (see for example [GZ01, GK12]) belongs to a Cantor set and hence is a condensation group.

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Let  $\Omega = \{0, 1, 2\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  be the set of all infinite sequences over  $\{0, 1, 2\}$  with the product (Tychonoff) topology.

**Main Theorem.** There exists a subset  $\mathcal{L} = \{(L_{\omega}, T_{\omega}) \mid \omega \in \Omega\} \subset \mathcal{M}_2$ with the following properties:

- a)  $\mathcal{L}$  is homeomorphic to  $\Omega$  (and hence is a Cantor set),
- b) If  $\omega \in \Omega$  is not eventually constant, then  $L_{\omega}$  has intermediate growth.
- c) If  $\omega \in \Omega$  is a constant sequence then  $L_{\omega} \cong L$ .
- d) All groups in  $\mathcal{L}$  are condensation groups.

A simple argument shows that a group possessing an infinite minimal presentation is a condensation group. Surprisingly, it was observed in [BCGS14] that there are finitely generated groups which do not have a minimal presentation. It follows from [Bau61] that groups of the form  $H \wr G$  where H and G are infinite and finitely generated are not finitely presented and it was observed in [Cor11] that such groups are condensation groups. It is probably well known (as indicated in [BCGS14]) that the standard presentation

$$L = \left\langle s, t \mid s^2, [s, s^{t^i}] \mid i \ge 1 \right\rangle$$

is minimal. A proof of this fact using ideas of [Bau61] is presented for completeness. This provides an alternative proof of the fact that L is a condensation group.

An effective way to build large families of condensation groups is to construct closed subsets  $X \subset \mathcal{M}_k, k \ge 2$  homeomorphic to a Cantor set. Such families were constructed in [Gri84, Gri85, Cha00, Nek07]. It will be interesting to produce such families based on new ideas.

#### 2. Preliminaries

For a topological space X, let X' denote its set of accumulation points. For any ordinal  $\alpha$  define the spaces  $X^{(\alpha)}$  inductively as follows:  $X^{(0)} = X, X^{(\alpha+1)} = (X^{(\alpha)})'$  and  $X^{(\lambda)} = \bigcap_{\beta < \lambda} X^{(\beta)}$  if  $\lambda$  is a limit ordinal.

If X is a Polish space, (i.e., a completely metrizable, separable space) for some countable ordinal  $\alpha_0$  we will have  $X^{(\alpha_0)} = X^{(\alpha)}$  for all  $\alpha \ge \alpha_0$  (see [Kec95, Theorem 6.1]). The least ordinal with this property is called the Cantor-Bendixon rank of X and will be denoted by  $rk_{CB}(X)$ . The set  $X^{(\alpha_0)}$  is called the *perfect kernel* (or condensation part) of X which will be denoted by  $\kappa(X)$ . Note that if nonempty,  $\kappa(X)$  is homeomorphic to a Cantor set and  $\kappa(X)$  is empty if and only if X is countable. Points in  $\kappa(X)$  are called condensation points and can be characterized as points for which every open neighborhood is uncountable (see [Kec95, I.6]).

Let  $\mathcal{M}_k$  denote the space marked groups consisting of pairs (G, S)where G is a group and S is an ordered set of (not necessarily distinct) set of k generators. Two marked groups (G, S) and (H, T) in  $\mathcal{M}_k$  are identified whenever the map  $s_i \mapsto t_i, i = 1, \ldots, k$  extends to an isomorphism. Two points (G, S) and (H, T) are of distance  $\leq 2^{-N}$  if the Cayley graphs of (G, S) and (H, T) have isomorphic balls of radius N. This (ultra) metric makes  $\mathcal{M}_k$  into a compact, totally disconnected, separable space. It follows from the definition that a sequence  $(G_n, S_n) \in \mathcal{M}_k$  converges to  $(G, S) \in \mathcal{M}_k$ , if and only if, for every element  $w \in F_k$  (the free group of rank k), there exists  $N = N_w \geq 0$ , such that the the relation w = 1holds in G if and only if it holds in  $G_n$  for  $n \geq N$ .

An important problem of geometric group theory (raised in [Gri05]) is the identification of  $rk_{CB}(\mathcal{M}_k)$  for  $k \ge 2$ . It follows from [Cor11] that the lower bound  $rk_{CB}(\mathcal{M}_k) > \omega^{\omega}, k \ge 2$  holds. By a classical result of B.H. Neumann [Neu37] there exists uncountably many non-isomorphic 2generated groups. Therefore  $\kappa(\mathcal{M}_k)$  is a Cantor set for all  $k \ge 2$ . A finitely generated group G is called a *condensation group*, if for some generating set S of size k the pair (G, S) belongs to  $\kappa(\mathcal{M}_k)$ . It follows that this property does not depend on the generating set (see [dCGP07, Lemma 1]).

In [Gri84] the second author constructed Cantor sets  $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{M}_k$  consisting essentially of groups of intermediate growth. Clearly, groups belonging to these families lie in the condensation part of  $\mathcal{M}_k$ . In general, it is a challenging problem to identify which groups are in the condensation part. It is expected that every group of intermediate growth is a condensation group. In contrast, it is easy to observe that virtually nilpotent groups are not condensation. In [Cor11, BCGS14] condensation properties of metabelian groups were considered and it was proven that restricted wreath products  $H \wr G$  of two finitely generated infinite groups are condensation groups [Cor11, Proposition 8.1]. Also, by [Cha00] every non-elementary hyperbolic groups is a condensation group.

Let us briefly recall the groups constructed in [Gri84]. Although the original definition is in terms of measure preserving transformations of the unit interval, we will give here a definition in terms of automorphisms of rooted trees. Let  $\Omega$  denote the set all infinite sequences over the alphabet

 $\{0, 1, 2\}$ . We identify  $\Omega$  with the product  $\{0, 1, 2\}^{\mathbb{N}}$  and endow it with the product topology. Let  $\tau : \Omega \to \Omega$  be the shift transformation, i.e.,  $\tau(\omega)_n = \omega_{n+1}$ . For each  $\omega \in \Omega$  we will define a subgroup  $G_{\omega}$  of  $Aut(\mathcal{T}_2)$ , where the latter denotes the automorphism group of the binary rooted tree  $\mathcal{T}_2$  whose vertices are identified with the set of finite sequences  $\{0, 1\}^*$ . Each group  $G_{\omega}$  is the subgroup generated by the four automorphisms denoted by  $a, b_{\omega}, c_{\omega}, d_{\omega}$  whose actions onto the tree is as follows.

For  $v \in \{0, 1\}^*$ 

$$a(0v) = 1v \text{ and } a(1v) = 0v$$

$$\begin{aligned} b_{\omega}(0v) &= & 0\beta(\omega_1)(v) \quad c_{\omega}(0v) = & 0\zeta(\omega_1)(v) \quad d_{\omega}(0v) = & 0\delta(\omega_1)(v) \\ b_{\omega}(1v) &= & 1b_{\tau(\omega)}(v) \quad c_{\omega}(1v) = & 1c_{\tau\omega}(v) \quad d_{\omega}(1v) = & 1d_{\tau\omega}(v), \end{aligned}$$

where

$\beta(0) = a$	$\beta(1) = a$	$\beta(2) = e$
$\zeta(0) = a$	$\zeta(1) = e$	$\zeta(2) = a$
$\delta(0) = e$	$\delta(1) = a$	$\delta(2) = a$

and e denotes the identity.

Note that from the definition, the following relations are immediate:

$$a^2 = b_{\omega}^2 = c_{\omega}^2 = d_{\omega}^2 = b_{\omega}c_{\omega}d_{\omega} = e$$

Denoting by  $S_{\omega} = \{a, b_{\omega}, c_{\omega}, d_{\omega}\}$ , we obtain a subset  $\{(G_{\omega}, S_{\omega}) \mid \omega \in \Omega\} \subset \mathcal{M}_4$ . In [Gri84] it was observed that this subset is not closed. It was also shown in [Gri84] that modifying countably many groups in this family, one obtains a closed subset  $\mathcal{G} = \{(G_{\omega}, S_{\omega}) \mid \omega \in \Omega\}$  with the following properties:

**Theorem 1** ([Gri84]).

- 1)  $\mathcal{G}$  is homeomorphic to  $\Omega$  via the map  $\omega \mapsto (G_{\omega}, S_{\omega})$ ,
- 2) If in  $\omega \in \Omega$  all symbols  $\{0, 1, 2\}$  appear infinitely often, then  $G_{\omega}$  is a 2-group,
- 3) For  $\omega \in \Omega$  which is not eventually constant (i.e., is not constant after some point),  $G_{\omega}$  has intermediate growth,
- 4) If  $\omega \in \Omega$  is eventually constant, then  $G_{\omega}$  is virtually metabelian of exponential growth.

#### 3. Proof of the Main Theorem

We start with the following basic lemma:

**Lemma 1.** Suppose that  $\{(G_n, S_n)\}$  is a sequence in  $\mathcal{M}_k$  converging to (G, S). Let  $F_k$  be the free group of rank k, with basis  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_k\}$  and let  $\pi : F_k \to G$ ,  $\pi_n : F_k \to G_n$  be the canonical maps. Given  $w_1, \ldots, w_m \in F_k$ , let  $T = \{\pi(w_1), \ldots, \pi(w_m)\}$ ,  $T_n = \{\pi_n(w_1), \ldots, \pi_n(w_m)\}$  and  $H = \langle T \rangle \leq G, H_n = \langle T_n \rangle \leq G_n$ . Then the sequence  $\{(H_n, T_n)\}$  converges to (H, T) in  $\mathcal{M}_m$ .

*Proof.* Let  $F_m$  be the free group of rank m with basis  $\{y_1, \ldots, y_m\}$  and let  $\gamma : F_m \to H$  and  $\gamma_n : F_k \to H_n$  be the canonical maps. Also, let  $p : F_m \to F_k$  be the group homomorphism defined by  $p(y_i) = w_i$ ,  $i = 1, \ldots, m$ . Note that we have the following:

$$\gamma_n = \pi_n \circ p$$
 for every  $n$ 

and

$$\gamma = \pi \circ p$$

It follows that, given  $w \in F_m$ , w = 1 in H if and only if p(w) = 1 in G. This shows that the sequence  $\{(H_n, T_n)\}$  converges to (H, T) in  $\mathcal{M}_m$ .  $\Box$ 

The following is a description of the structure of the group  $G_{000...}$ .

**Theorem 2.** The group  $G_{000...}$  is isomorphic to the group  $L \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_2$  where  $L = \mathbb{Z}_2 \wr \mathbb{Z}$  is the Lamplighter group given by presentation  $\langle s, t | s^2, [s, s^{t^i}], i \ge 1 \rangle$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  acts on L by the automorphism

$$s \mapsto s^t$$
$$t \mapsto t^{-1}$$

*Proof.* Let us denote  $G_{000...}$  by G and denote its canonical generators by a, b, c, d. Let H be the subgroup of G generated by the elements  $b, c, d, b^a, c^a, d^a$ . There exists an embedding (see [Gri84])

Let  $D = \langle \langle d \rangle \rangle$  be the normal closure of d in G. By induction on word length one can see that D is an abelian group (see [Gri84, Lemma 6.1]).

We claim that  $D = \langle d^g | g \in \langle a, b \rangle \rangle$ . Let us denote the right hand side by *T*. Clearly *T* is contained in *D*. It suffices to show *T* is normal. Since bcd = 1 it is enough to show that  $(d^g)^c \in T$  for all  $g \in \langle a, b \rangle$ . By induction on *k* one can see that the following equality holds:

$$\psi(d^{(ab)^n}) = \begin{cases} (1, d^{(ab)^k}) &, n = 2k \\ (d^{(ab)^k a}, 1) &, n = 2k+1 \end{cases}$$

We will show by induction on |g| that  $(d^g)^c = (d^g)^b$ . Suppose |g| = 1, the case g = b is obvious since bcd = 1. If g = a, we have  $\psi((d^a)^b) = \psi((d^a)^c) = (d^a, 1)$  and hence  $(d^g)^c = (d^g)^b$ . Now assume |g| > 1. Since  $d^b = d$  we can assume that g starts with a. There are two cases, either  $g = (ab)^n$  or  $g = (ab)^n a$  for some n. In the first case (using induction assumption)

$$\psi((d^{(ab)^n})^c) = \begin{cases} (1, (d^{(ab)^k})^c) = (1, (d^{(ab)^k})^b) &, n = 2k \\ ((d^{(ab)^k a})^a, 1) = (d^{(ab)^k}, 1) &, n = 2k+1 \end{cases}$$

and in the second case

$$\psi((d^{(ab)^n a})^c) = \begin{cases} ((d^{(ab)^k})^a, 1) &, n = 2k \\ (1, (d^{(ab)^k a})^c) = (1, (d^{(ab)^k})^b) &, n = 2k+1 \end{cases}$$

In any case  $\psi((d^g)^c) = \psi((d^g)^b)$ . This shows T is normal and hence D = T.

Now letting

$$t_n = \begin{cases} d^{(ab)^n} & n \ge 0\\ d^{(ab)^{-n-1}a} & n < 0 \end{cases}$$

we see that  $T = \langle t_n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z} \rangle$ . Looking at  $\psi(t_n)$  we see that the  $t_n$  are mutually distinct, therefore  $T \cong \prod \mathbb{Z}_2$ .

Since  $\psi((ab)^2) = (ba, ab)$ , it follows that the element ab is of infinite order in G.

We will show that the subgroups D and  $\langle ab \rangle$  intersect trivially. Suppose not, then  $d^g = (ab)^n$  for some  $g \in \langle a, b \rangle$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Necessarily n has to be even since left hand side of  $d^g = (ab)^n$  has even number of a's. If n = 2k then  $\psi((ab)^{2k}) = ((ba)^k, (ab)^k)$  whereas  $\psi(d^g) = (d^h, 1)$  or  $(1, d^h)$ for some element  $h \in G$ . It follows that  $(ab)^k = 1$  which is a contradiction since ab has infinite order. Now the subgroup  $K = D \rtimes \langle ab \rangle$  is isomorphic to  $(\mathbb{Z}_2^{\infty}) \rtimes \mathbb{Z} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \wr \mathbb{Z}$ which is the Lamplighter group. This is true since we have

$$t_n^{ab} = t_{n+1}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

and hence the generator  $\langle ab \rangle$  acts on D by shifting its generators.

Conjugating the generators of K by the generators of G we see that K is a normal subgroup. The quotient G/D is isomorphic to the infinite dihedral group  $D_{\infty}$  (see [Gri84, Lemma 6.1]) and maps onto the quotient G/K. The kernel of this homomorphism contains the image of ab in G/D. From this It follows that K has index 2 in G. Hence we have  $G = K \rtimes \langle a \rangle \cong L \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_2$ . Identifying s = d, t = ab we see that conjugation by a gives the asserted automorphism of K.

For  $\omega \in \Omega$  let  $L_{\omega} = \langle d_{\omega}, ab_{\omega} \rangle \leq G_{\omega}$ . By virtue of the relations  $a^2 = b_{\omega}^2 = c_{\omega}^2 = d_{\omega}^2 = b_{\omega}c_{\omega}d_{\omega} = 1$  we see that  $L_{\omega}$  is a normal subgroup of index 2 in  $G_{\omega}$  and hence share many properties with  $G_{\omega}$ . Let us denote by  $T_{\omega} = \{d_{\omega}, ab_{\omega}\}$  and  $\mathcal{L}_{\omega} = \{(L_{\omega}, T_{\omega}) \mid \omega \in \Omega\} \subset \mathcal{M}_2$ .

#### Proof of the main Theorem:

a) Consider the map  $\phi: \Omega \to \mathcal{L}$  given by  $\omega \mapsto (L_{\omega}, T_{\omega})$ .  $\phi$  is continuous since, if  $w_n$  converges to w, then by Theorem 1  $(G_{\omega_n}, S_{\omega_n})$  converges to  $(G_{\omega}, S_{\omega})$  and hence by Lemma 1  $(L_{\omega_n}, T_{\omega_n})$  converges to  $(L_{\omega}, T_{\omega})$ . To see that  $\phi$  is injective: By [Gri84, Section 5], the following is true: Given  $\omega_1 \neq \omega_2$  in  $\Omega$ , there exists  $u \in F_4$  (depending on  $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$ ), such that u is trivial in  $G_{\omega_1}$  and nontrivial in  $G_{\omega_2}$  (this amounts to saying that the map  $a \mapsto a, b_{\omega_1} \mapsto b_{\omega_2}, c_{\omega_1} \mapsto c_{\omega_2}, d_{\omega_1} \mapsto d_{\omega_2}$  does not extend to an isomorphism from  $G_{\omega_1}$  to  $G_{\omega_2}$  i.e.,  $(G_{\omega_1}, S_{\omega_1})$  and  $(G_{\omega_2}, S_{\omega_2})$  are distinct points in  $\mathcal{M}_4$ ). One observes that such u is a 2 power and (since  $L_{\omega}$ has index 2 in  $G_{\omega}$ ) its image in  $G_{\omega}$  lies in  $L_{\omega}$ . Therefore the image of u in  $L_{\omega_1}$  is trivial but its image in  $L_{\omega_2}$  is nontrivial which implies that  $(L_{\omega_1}, T_{\omega_1})$  and  $(L_{\omega_2}, T_{\omega_2})$  are distinct. This shows that  $\phi$  is injective and by compactness we have that  $\phi$  is a homeomorphism.

b) This follows from Theorem 1 and the fact that  $L_{\omega}$  has finite index in  $G_{\omega}$ .

c) By Theorem 2  $L_{000...}$  is isomorphic to L and it is immediate from the definition of the groups that  $G_{000...} \cong G_{111...} \cong G_{222...}$  and  $L_{000...} \cong L_{111...} \cong L_{222...}$ .

d) This follows from part a).

As a corollary we obtain the following:

**Corollary 1.** The Lamplighter group L is a condensation group.

#### 4. Minimal presentations of the Lamplighter groups

For a subset  $A \subset G$  of a group let  $\langle \langle A \rangle \rangle$  denote the normal subgroup generated by A. A presentation  $\langle X | R \rangle$  is called *minimal* if for every  $r \in R$  we have  $r \notin \langle \langle R \setminus \{r\} \rangle \rangle$ . The following is well known.

**Proposition 1.** Let  $\langle X | r_1, r_2, \ldots \rangle$  be an infinite minimal presentation where |X| = k. Then the marked group (G, X) lies in the condensation part of  $\mathcal{M}_k$ .

Proof. It is enough to show that any open ball around (G, X) is uncountable. Let  $B = B((G, X), 2^{-N})$  be a ball of radius  $2^{-N}$  around (G, X). A marked group  $(H, T) \in \mathcal{M}_k$  lies in B if and only if for all  $w \in F_k$  such that  $|w| \leq 2N + 1$ , we have w = 1 in  $G \iff w = 1$  in H. Let  $A = \{w \in F_k \mid |w| \leq 2N + 1 \text{ and } w = 1 \text{ in } G\}$ . Choose  $M = M(N) \in \mathbb{N}$  large enough so that  $A \subset \langle \langle r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_M \rangle \rangle$ . For any subset  $U \subset \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\{1, 2, \ldots, M\} \subset U$ , let  $(G_U, X)$  be the group  $\langle X \mid r_i, i \in U \rangle$ . Clearly all  $(G_U, X) \in B$  and since the initial presentation is minimal all of them are distinct marked groups. Hence B is uncountable.  $\Box$ 

We will give an alternative proof of Corollary 1 by showing that the standard presentation of L is minimal.

For a group G and a subset  $S \subset G$  let

$$T_S = \{(s_1g, s_2g) \mid s_1, s_2 \in S, g \in G\} \subset G \times G$$

**Theorem 3** ([Bau61]). Let G and H be two groups and  $S \subset G$  be a subset. Then there exists a group W = W(H, G, S) (called the circle product of G and H with respect to S) with the following properties:

- W contains subgroups  $H_q, g \in G$  all isomorphic to H,
- W is generated by G and  $H_1$ ,
- The subgroup  $K = \langle H_g \mid g \in G \rangle$  is normal in Wand  $W = K \rtimes G$ ,
- For  $h_{g_1} \in H_{g_1}$  and  $g_2 \in G$  we have  $h_{g_1}^{g_2} \in H_{g_1g_2}$ ,
- $[H_{g_1}, H_{g_2}] = 1$  if and only if  $(g_1, g_2) \in T_S$ .

Note that W can also be realized by using graph products: Let  $\Gamma$  be the graph with vertex set G and edges  $T_S$ , and let K be the graph product where each vertex group is H. Clearly G acts on K and one can see that  $W \cong K \rtimes G$ .

**Proposition 2.** For every  $n \ge 2$ , the presentation

$$\left\langle s,t \mid s^n, [s,s^{t^i}] \ i \geqslant 1 \right\rangle$$

is a minimal presentation of  $\mathbb{Z}_n \wr \mathbb{Z}$ .

*Proof.* Clearly the relation  $s^n$  is not redundant. For  $i \ge 1$  let  $r_i = [s, s^{t^i}]$  and suppose that for some  $m \ge 1$   $r_m$  is redundant. Let

$$a_0 = 0$$
,  $a_{2j} = j(m+1) + (1 + \ldots + j)$   $j \ge 1$ 

and

$$a_{2j+1} = \begin{cases} a_{2j} + j + 1 & \text{if } j < m - 1 \\ a_{2j} + j + 2 & \text{if } j \ge m - 1 \end{cases}, \quad j \ge 0 .$$

Note that

$$a_{2j+1} - a_{2j} = \begin{cases} j+1 & \text{if } j < m-1\\ j+2 & \text{if } j \ge m-1 \end{cases}, \ j \ge 0$$

and

$$|a_k - a_\ell| > m$$
 if  $|k - \ell| \ge 2$ 

Finally let  $S = \{a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots\} \subset \mathbb{Z}$  and observe that the set  $S - S = \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{-m, m\}$ . Form the circle product  $W = W(\mathbb{Z}_n, \mathbb{Z}, S)$  with generators x, y. By the properties of W we have for  $i \ge 1$ 

$$[x, x^{y^i}] = 1 \iff (0, i) \in T_S \iff i \in S - S \iff i \neq m.$$

Therefore, under the assumption that  $r_m$  is redundant in  $\mathbb{Z}_n \wr \mathbb{Z}$ , the map  $s \mapsto x, t \mapsto y$  defines a homomorphism from  $\mathbb{Z}_n \wr \mathbb{Z}$  to W which contradicts the fact that  $r_m = 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n \wr \mathbb{Z}$  but  $[x, x^{y^m}] \neq 1$  in W.  $\Box$ 

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