# GROUPS GENERATED BY TWO PARABOLIC LINEAR FRAGTIONAL TRANSFORMATIONS 

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0. Introduction and summary. We are interested in the structure of a group $\mathbf{G}$ of linear fractional transformations of the extended complex plane that is generated by two parabolic elements $A$ and $B$, and, particularly, in the question of when such a group $\mathbf{G}$ is free. We shall, as usual, represent elements of $\mathbf{G}$ by matrices with determinant 1 , which are determined up to change of sign. Two such groups $\mathbf{G}$ will be conjugate in the full linear fractional group, and hence isomorphic, provided they have, up to a change of sign, the same value of the invariant $\tau=\operatorname{Trace}(A B)-2$. We put aside the trivial case that $\tau=0$, where $\mathbf{G}$ is abelian. In the study of these groups, two normalizations have proved convenient. Sanov (17) and Brenner (3) took the generators in the form

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & \mu \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\mu & 1
\end{array}\right),
$$

while Chang, Jennings, and Ree (4) took them in the form

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 2 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\lambda & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

These parameters are connected by the relations $\tau=\mu^{2}=2 \lambda$. We shall reserve the letters $\tau, \mu$, and $\lambda$ for this meaning.

Sanov showed that $\mathbf{G}$ is free for $\mu=2$, and characterized explicitly the matrices representing elements of $\mathbf{G}$. From the fact that $\mathbf{G}$ is free for any $\mu$ at all, it follows immediately that $\mathbf{G}$ is free for all transcendental $\mu$. Brenner showed that $\mathbf{G}$ is free provided $|\mu| \geqq 2$. From this it follows immediately that $\mathbf{G}$ is free provided $\mu$ is an algebraic number with an algebraic conjugate $\mu^{*}$ such that $\left|\mu^{*}\right| \geqq 2$. In particular, algebraic numbers $\mu$ such that $\mathbf{G}$ is free are dense in the complex plane. Ree (15) has shown that the $\mu$ for which $\mathbf{G}$ is not free are dense in the circle $|\mu|<1$, and in a domain in the plane containing the open intervals joining -2 to 2 and $-i \sqrt{ } 2$ to $i \sqrt{ } 2$. Hirsch (7) raised the question of which algebraic numbers $\mu$, for example with $-2<\mu<2$, yield free groups $\mathbf{G}$. We do not yet know of any rational value of $\mu$ in this interval for which $\mathbf{G}$ is free. Brenner's sufficient condition for $\mathbf{G}$ to be free, that $|\mu| \geqq 2$, is equivalent to the condition $|\lambda| \geqq 2$. Chang, Jennings, and Ree improved this to the weaker condition that all of $|\lambda|,|\lambda-1|$, and $|\lambda+1|$ are at least 1.

[^0]Let $F$ be the set of values of $\lambda$ for which $\mathbf{G}$ is free, and $R$ the set of values for which $\mathbf{G}$ is not free. In Corollary 3 we show that $\lambda \in R$ implies that $R$ is dense in some neighbourhood of $\lambda$. It then follows that there is a largest region, say $F^{*}$, contained in $F$. A region is the closure of an open set, and in this case $F^{*}$ is the closure of the interior points of $F$. The complement of $F^{*}$, say $R^{*}$, is the smallest open region containing $R$. An open region is the interior of a region, and in this case, $R^{*}$ is the interior of the closure of $R$.

In § 1 we further improve results aimed at determining $F^{*}$, in particular we improve on the result of Chang, Jennings, and Ree, weakening their condition in two independent directions.

In § 2 we examine values of $\lambda$ which are not free, making several additions to known results. It should be remarked that the largest known region in $F^{*}$ and the largest known open region in $R^{*}$ do not exhaust the complex plane: a substantial part of the annulus $\frac{1}{2} \leqq|\lambda|<2$ remains in doubt. The known results are summarized in a diagram which follows the statement of Theorem 4. Section 3 contains a few tentative observations about the structure of $\mathbf{G}$ for real $\lambda$.

1. Groups that are free. In proving their result, Chang, Jennings, and Ree used an instance of a classical argument, which Ford (5) called "the method of combination" and Fricke and Klein (6) called "the method of composition". Macbeath (12) formulated a general statement of this argument. After stating Macbeath's result in a slightly different formulation, which we have proved and used elsewhere (11), we restate and reprove the result of Chang, Jennings, and Ree.

Theorem 1 (Macbeath). Let $\mathbf{G}$ be a group of permutations of an infinite set $\Omega$. Let $\mathbf{G}$ be generated by two of its subgroups $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$, at least one of which has order greater than 2 . Let $\Gamma$ and $\Delta$ be disjoint non-empty subsets of $\Omega$. Suppose now that $1 \neq A \in \mathbf{A}$ implies $A \Gamma \subseteq \Delta$ and $1 \neq B \in \mathbf{B}$ implies $B \Delta \subseteq \Gamma$. Then $\mathbf{G}$ is the free product of its subgroups $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$.

A proof is given in (11).
If $S$ is any set in the extended complex plane, we write $S^{N}$ for the interior of the complement of $S$. Note that if $S$ is an open region (interior of its own closure), then $S^{N}$ also is an open region, and $\left(S^{N}\right)^{N}=S$.

Corollary 1. Let $\lambda$ be any complex number, and let $\mathbf{G}$ be the group of linear fractional transformations of the complex plane $\Omega$ generated by the two elements

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 2 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\lambda & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Let

$$
J=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad T=J B J
$$

Let $\Gamma$ be an open region in $\Omega$, neither empty nor all of $\Omega$, and let $\Sigma=J \Gamma^{N}$. Now $\mathbf{G}$ is a free group, freely generated by $A$ and $B$, provided that
(1) $A^{k} \Gamma \cap \Gamma=\emptyset$ for all $k \neq 0$,
(2) $T^{k} \Sigma \cap \Sigma=\emptyset$ for all $k \neq 0$.

To prove this, let $\Delta=\Gamma^{N}$. Then (2) is equivalent to ( $2^{\prime}$ ): $B^{k} \Delta \cap \Delta=\emptyset$ for all $k \neq 0$. Now (1) implies that, for $k \neq 0$, the open set $A^{k} \Gamma$ is contained in the complement $\tilde{\Gamma}$ of $\Gamma$, hence in the interior $\Delta$ of $\tilde{\Gamma}$. Similarly, ( $2^{\prime}$ ) implies that $B^{k} \Delta \subset \Gamma$ for $k \neq 0$.

Theorem 2 (Chang, Jennings, and Ree). Let $\lambda$ be a complex number lying in none of the open discs of radius 1 with centres $-1,0,+1$. Then the group $\mathbf{G}$ generated by

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 2 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\lambda & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

is a free group, freely generated by $A$ and $B$.
We proceed by making choices for the sets $\Gamma, \Delta$, and $\Sigma$ in Corollary 1. We choose for $\Gamma$ the set $|\operatorname{Re} z|<1$. The set $\Gamma^{N}$ then consists of the set $\Delta_{1}, \operatorname{Re} z>1$, and $\Delta_{2}, \operatorname{Re} z<-1$, so that $\Delta=\Delta_{1} \cup \Delta_{2}$. The set $\Sigma=J \Delta=$ $J \Delta_{1} \cup J \Delta_{2}=\Sigma_{1} \cup \Sigma_{2}$, where $\Sigma_{1}$ is the disc $\left|z-\frac{1}{2}\right|<\frac{1}{2}$, and $\Sigma_{2}$ is the disc $\left|z+\frac{1}{2}\right|<\frac{1}{2}$. It is immediate that (1) is satisfied for this choice of $\Gamma$, and (3) will be satisfied if the discs $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$ are disjoint from the translated discs $T^{k} \Sigma_{1}$ and $T^{k} \Sigma_{2}$ for all $k \neq 0$. Now all of these discs have radius $\frac{1}{2}$ and centres of the form $k \lambda \pm \frac{1}{2}$. The condition that all these centres are at least a distance one apart is precisely the hypothesis of the theorem.

Theorem 3. Let $K$ be the convex hull of the set consisting of the circle $|z|=1$ together with the two points $z= \pm 2$. If the complex number $\lambda$ is not in the interior of $K$, then $\mathbf{G}$, as above, is freely generated by $A$ and $B$.

Let $\Sigma$ be, as before, the region bounded by the two circles $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ of radius $\frac{1}{2}$ with centres $\pm \frac{1}{2}$, and let $\lambda$ satisfy the hypothesis of Theorem 2. Then we know that $T^{k} \Sigma \cap \Sigma=\emptyset$ for all $k \neq 0$. For arbitrary $u \neq 0$, let

$$
U=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
u & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

and let

$$
\Sigma^{*}=U \Sigma \quad \text { and } \quad T^{*}=U T U^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
1 & u \lambda \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

It follows that $T^{* k} \Sigma^{*} \cap \Sigma^{*}=\emptyset$ for all $k \neq 0$. Let $\Delta^{*}=J \Sigma^{*}$ and $\Gamma^{*}=\left(\tilde{\Delta}^{*}\right)_{i}$. The group $G^{*}$ generated by $A$ and

$$
J T^{*} J=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
u \lambda & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

will be free provided $A^{k} \Gamma^{*} \cap \Gamma^{*}=\emptyset$ for all $k \neq 0$.

Now $\Gamma^{*}$ is an oblique strip bounded by the two parallel lines $L_{1}=J U C_{1}$ and $L_{2}=J U C_{2}$, symmetric in the origin. The desired condition will hold provided $L_{1}$ passes through the point +1 and hence $L_{2}$ passes through -1 . If $L$ is the line $\operatorname{Re} z=1$, then $C_{1}=J L$, and $L_{1}=J U J L=V L$ for

$$
V=J U J=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
u^{-1} & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Now +1 on $V L$ is equivalent to $V^{-1}(+1)=u$ lying on $L$, that is, to $\operatorname{Re} u=1$.
This shows that if $\lambda$ satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem 2 , then $\mathbf{G}$ is free for all $\lambda_{1}=u \lambda$, where $u$ ranges over the line $\operatorname{Re} u=1$; equivalently, $\mathbf{G}$ is free for all $\lambda_{1}$ lying on the line through $\lambda$ that is perpendicular to the line from $\lambda$ through the origin. With this, the conclusion of Theorem 3 follows immediately from that of Theorem 2.

Theorem 4. Let $\lambda$ be a complex number such that $\left|\lambda \pm \frac{1}{2} i\right| \geqq \frac{1}{2}$ and $|\lambda \pm 1| \geqq 1$. Then $\mathbf{G}$, defined as above, is freely generated by $A$ and $B$.

Before beginning the proof, we offer a comment and an illustrative figure. First, we remark that the set of $\lambda$ for which $\mathbf{G}$ is free is symmetric with respect to reflection in both the real and the imaginary axes. It is immediate that if $\mathbf{G}$ is free for a complex number $\lambda$ it is also free for the complex conjugate $\tilde{\lambda}$ of $\lambda$. Furthermore, replacing $\lambda$ by $-\lambda$ has the effect of replacing the generators $A$ and $B$ for $\mathbf{G}$ by the generators $A$ and $B^{-1}$, and thus does not affect the question of whether $\mathbf{G}$ is free on the given generators. In view of this symmetry, we may confine our figure to the first quadrant.

In the figure, the region $F_{1}$ consists of those $\lambda$ with $|\lambda| \geqq 2$, for which Brenner showed that $\mathbf{G}$ is free. The result of Chang, Jennings, and Ree, shows that $\mathbf{G}$ is free also for $\lambda$ in the additional region $F_{2}$. Theorems 3 and 4 show that, further, $\mathbf{G}$ is free for $\lambda$ in the additional regions $F_{3}$ and $F_{4}$. By way of contrast, the quarter disc $R$ is an open set in which values of $\lambda$ for which $\mathbf{G}$ is not free are dense. Among the radial spines emanating from $R$ (which will be described in Theorem 5) along which values of $\lambda$ for which $\mathbf{G}$ is not free are dense, are the segment of the real axis from 0 to +2 and the segment of the imaginary axis from 0 to $+i$.

The plan of the proof is as follows. In view of earlier remarks, we may suppose that $\lambda$ lies inside the open curvilinear triangular region $F_{4}$. We start as in the proof of Theorem 2 by taking $\Gamma$ to be the strip $|\operatorname{Re} z|<1$ and $\Sigma$ to be $J \Gamma^{N}$. For these choices, (1) holds but (2) fails, with $\Sigma$ overlapping $T^{-1} \Sigma$ and $T \Sigma$. To restore (2) we replace $\Sigma$ by a smaller set $\Sigma^{1}$. Now, however, $\Gamma^{1}=J \Sigma^{1 N}$ is larger than $\Gamma$, and (1) fails, with $\Gamma^{1}$ overlapping $A^{-1} \Gamma^{1}$ and $A \Gamma^{1}$. To restore (1) we replace $\Gamma^{1}$ by a smaller set $\Gamma^{2}$. Now $\Sigma^{2}=J \Gamma^{2 N}$ is larger than $\Sigma^{1}$, but we find that, nonetheless, (2) remains valid. The conclusion now follows from Corollary 1 applied to $\Gamma^{2}$ and $\Sigma^{2}$.

In the proof we assume that $\lambda$ is in $F_{4}$. We also use the fact that both $|\lambda|$ and $\operatorname{Im} \lambda$ attain their minima on the closure $\bar{F}_{4}$ of $F_{4}$ at the lowest vertex, $(2+4 i) / 5$, whence we have $|\lambda|>2 / \sqrt{ } 5$ and $\operatorname{Im} \lambda>4 / 5$.


To begin the proof we repeat that $\Gamma$, defined by $|\operatorname{Re} z|<1$, satisfies condition (1). As in the proof of Theorem $2, \Sigma=J \Gamma^{N}$ is the union of two discs $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$ of radius $\frac{1}{2}$ and with centres at $-\frac{1}{2}$ and $+\frac{1}{2}$. Now $T^{k} \Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$ have centres $-\frac{1}{2}+k \lambda$ and $+\frac{1}{2}$, and will be disjoint provided their centres are at a distance $|k \lambda-1| \geqq 1$. But it is clear geometrically that the hypotheses $|\lambda-1|>1$ and $\operatorname{Re} \lambda>0$ imply that $|k \lambda-1|>1$ for all $k \neq 0$. Similarly, $T^{k} \Sigma_{i}$ and $\Sigma_{i}$ will be disjoint provided $|k \lambda| \geqq 1$. Since $|\lambda|>2 / \sqrt{ } 5>\frac{1}{2}$, this will be the case provided $|k| \geqq 2$. It follows that, if we form $\Sigma^{1}$ from $\Sigma$ by deleting the closures of $\Sigma_{1} \cap T^{-1} \Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2} \cap T \Sigma_{2}$, then $\Sigma^{1}$ will satisfy condition (2).

From the definition of $\Sigma^{1}$, it follows that $\Gamma^{1}=J \Sigma^{1 N}$ is the union of $\Gamma_{1}{ }^{1}=\Gamma_{1} \cup J T^{-1} \Sigma_{1}$ and $\Gamma_{1}{ }^{2}=\Gamma_{2} \cup J T \Sigma_{2}$. Examination shows that $J T \Sigma_{2}$ lies in the fourth quadrant, while $J T^{-1} \Sigma_{1}$ lies in the second quadrant. When we have shown, in the next paragraph, that the common diameter of these two discs is less than two, it will follow that $A^{k} \Gamma^{1} \cap \Gamma^{1}=\emptyset$ for $|k| \geqq 2$, and also that
$\Gamma^{1} \cap A \Gamma^{1}=\Gamma^{1} \cap A J T^{-1} \Sigma_{1}=P_{2}$ and $\Gamma^{1} \cap A^{-1} \Gamma^{1}=\Gamma^{1} \cap A^{-1} J T \Sigma_{2}=P_{1}$.
The boundary of $T \Sigma_{2}$ is the circle $C:|z-v|=\frac{1}{2}$, where $v=\lambda+\frac{1}{2}$. Thus $J T \Sigma_{1}$ has boundary $J C$ with equation $|1 / z-v|=\frac{1}{2}$, or $|z|=2|v| \cdot|z-1 / v|$. Generally, for $h>0$, the circle $|z-a|=h|z-b|$ has diameter

$$
d=\left|\frac{2 h(a-b)}{h^{2}-1}\right| .
$$

Thus $J C$ has diameter

$$
d=\left|\frac{4}{4\left|v^{2}\right|-1}\right| .
$$

Since $v=\lambda+\frac{1}{2}$ with $\operatorname{Re} \lambda>0$, we have $|v|>\frac{1}{2}$, and the denominator is positive. Thus $d<2$ is equivalent to $\left|v^{2}\right|>\frac{3}{4}$. Since $\left|v^{2}\right|=|\lambda|^{2}+\operatorname{Re} \lambda+\frac{1}{4}$, it suffices that $|\lambda|^{2}>\frac{1}{2}$, which follows from $|\lambda|>2 / \sqrt{ }$.

It is immediate from the foregoing that $\Gamma^{2}=\Gamma^{1}-\left(\bar{P}_{1} \cup \bar{P}_{2}\right)$ will satisfy (1). To complete the proof, it remains to show that $\Sigma^{2}=J \Gamma^{2 N}$ satisfies condition (2). From the definition of $\Gamma^{2}$ it follows that $\Sigma^{2}=\Sigma^{1} \cup D_{1} \cup D_{2}$, where $D_{1}=J A^{-1} J T \Sigma_{2}$ and $D_{2}=J A J T^{-1} \Sigma_{1}$. We know already that $T^{k} \Sigma^{1} \cap \Sigma^{1}=\emptyset$ for $k \neq 0$, whence it suffices to show that $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ are disjoint from $T^{k} \Sigma^{2}$ for $k \neq 0$. By symmetry, it is enough to show that $D_{1}$ is disjoint from $T^{k} \Sigma^{2}$ for $k \neq 0$. If $k<0$, then $T^{k} \Sigma^{2}$ lies in the lower half plane, and is disjoint from $D_{1}$, which lies in the upper half plane. It remains to show $D_{1}$ disjoint from $T^{k} \Sigma^{2}$ for $k>0$.

We have noted that $D_{1}$ lies in the upper half plane. Also, $D_{1}$ meets $\Sigma_{1}$, which lies entirely in the left half plane. Therefore, to show that $D_{1}$ lies entirely in the second quadrant, it suffices to show that the boundary of $D_{1}$ does not meet $Y$, the imaginary axis. If $C$ is the boundary of $T \Sigma_{2}$, then $D_{1}$ has boundary $J A^{-1} J C$, and the condition $J A^{-1} J C \cap Y=\emptyset$ is equivalent to the condition $C \cap J A J Y=\emptyset$. Now $J Y=Y$, whence $A J Y=A Y$ is the line $\operatorname{Re} z=2$, and $J A J Y$ is the circle $\left|z-\frac{1}{4}\right|=\frac{1}{4}$. Since $C$ is the circle with centre $\lambda-\frac{1}{2}$ and radius $\frac{1}{2}$, it suffices to show that the distance $\left|\lambda-\frac{1}{4}\right|$ between the centres exceeds $\frac{3}{4}$, the sum of the radii. For this it is easily verified that the minimum value of $\left|\lambda-\frac{1}{4}\right|$ on $\bar{F}_{4}$ is attained at the vertex $(2+4 i) / 5$, where it exceeds $\frac{3}{4}$.
We have shown that $D_{1}$ lies in the left half plane. By symmetry, $D_{2}$ lies in the right half plane. Since $\Sigma_{2}{ }^{1}$, as a subset of $\Sigma_{2}$, lies in the right half plane, so does $\Sigma_{2}{ }^{2}=\Sigma_{2}{ }^{1} \cup D_{2}$, and with it $T^{k} \Sigma_{2}{ }^{2}$ for all $k>0$. Thus $D_{1} \cap T^{k} \Sigma_{2}{ }^{2}=\emptyset$ for all $k>0$.

We must show that $D_{1} \cap T^{k} \Sigma_{1}{ }^{2}=\emptyset$ for all $k>0$. Since $\Sigma_{1}{ }^{2}=\Sigma_{1}{ }^{1} \cup D_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{1}{ }^{1} \subset \Sigma_{1}$, this splits into showing that $D_{1} \cap T^{k} \Sigma_{1}=\emptyset$ and $D_{1} \cap T^{k} D_{1}=\emptyset$ for all $k>0$. We begin by showing that $D_{1} \cap T \Sigma_{1}=\emptyset$. Let

$$
U=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

then $A=U^{2}, T \Sigma_{2}=U T \Sigma_{1}$, and $D_{1}=J U^{-2} J U T \Sigma_{1}$. Setting

$$
W=J U^{-2} J U=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
1 & 1 \\
-2 & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

we must show that $W T \Sigma_{1} \cap T \Sigma_{1}=\emptyset$. Now $W$ is an involution with fixed points $p, p^{\prime}=(-1 \pm i) / 2$. Since $T \Sigma_{1}$ has centre $\lambda-\frac{1}{2}$ and radius $\frac{1}{2}$, the hypothesis that $\left|\lambda-\frac{1}{2} i\right|>\frac{1}{2}$ implies that $p$ does not lie in $T \Sigma_{1}$. Let $E$ be the
disc with the same centre as $T \Sigma_{1}$ and with $p$ on its boundary $B$; then it suffices to show that $W E \cap E=\emptyset$. Since $W$ is a non-Euclidean half turn about $p$, $B$ and $W B$ are externally tangent at $p$, and it suffices to show that $W E$ is the finite region bounded by $W B$, that is, that $\infty$ is not in $W E$. Since $\operatorname{Im} \lambda>\frac{1}{2}$, the centre $\lambda-\frac{1}{2}$ of $E$ lies above the horizontal line through $p$, and therefore is nearer to $p$, on its boundary, than to $-\frac{1}{2}$. Thus $-\frac{1}{2}$ is not in $E$, and $W\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)=\infty$ is not in $W E$.

To show that $D_{1} \cap T^{k} \Sigma_{1}=\emptyset$ for $k>1$, it suffices to observe that $T \Sigma_{1}$ lies above the common tangent line $H$ separating $E$ from $W E$, and that, since $\operatorname{Im} \lambda>0, T^{k} \Sigma_{1}$ will lie above $H$ for all $k \geqq 1$, while $D_{1} \subset W E$ will lie below $H$.

To complete the proof we must show that $D_{1} \cap T^{k} D_{1}=\emptyset$ for all $k>0$. This amounts to showing that $D_{1}$ has diameter $d<|\lambda|$. From the fact that $D_{1}=J A^{-1} J T \Sigma_{2}$ and our knowledge of $T \Sigma_{2}$, we conclude that the boundary of $D_{1}$ has an equation of the form $\left|z+\frac{1}{2}\right|=2|\lambda| \cdot\left|z+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4} \lambda\right|$. A formula used earlier gives $d=1 /\left|4 r^{2}-1\right|$, where $r=|\lambda|$. Since $r>\frac{1}{2}$, we have $d=1 /\left(4 r^{2}-1\right)$, and the condition $d>r$ becomes $1<4 r^{3}-r$, or that $f(r)=4 r^{3}-r-1$ be positive. It is routine to check that this is true for all $r>2 / \sqrt{ } 5$. This completes the proof of Theorem 4 .
2. Points where $\mathbf{G}$ is not free. We remark that, for $\mu \neq 0$, if $\mathbf{G}$ is not freely generated by

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & \mu \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
\mu & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

then $\mathbf{G}$ is not a free group. For it is a special case of a well-known result that if a free group is generated by two elements but not freely, then it has rank less than two, and hence is abelian. But, for $\mu \neq 0$,

$$
A B=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1+\mu^{2} & \mu \\
\mu & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

is not equal to

$$
B A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & \mu \\
\mu & 1+\mu^{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

The following theorem is about groups $\mathbf{G}$ that are not free. This theorem and Corollary 3 are slight extensions of results of Ree (15).

Theorem 5. Let $\mu_{0}$ be a complex number such that $\mu_{0}{ }^{2 n}=-4$ for some positive integer $n$. Then values of $\mu$ for which the group $\mathbf{G}$ generated by

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & \mu \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\mu & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

is not free are dense on the line segment joining $\mu_{0}$ to the origin.
The proof consists in showing that, for a dense set of values of $\mu$ on the
described segment, a certain commutator has finite order. Let $T$ be any unimodular matrix and $T^{\prime}=[A, T]=A T A^{-1} T^{-1}$. We write

$$
T=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

and calculate the entries of

$$
T^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a^{\prime} & b^{\prime} \\
c^{\prime} & d^{\prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

in terms of those of $T$. Now,

$$
A T=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & \mu \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a+c \mu & b+d \mu \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

and

$$
A^{-1} T^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & -\mu \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
d & -b \\
-c & a
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
d+c \mu & -b-a \mu \\
-c & a
\end{array}\right),
$$

whence, using $a d-b c=1$,

$$
T^{\prime}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1+a c \mu+c^{2} \mu^{2} & * \\
c^{2} \mu & 1-a c \mu
\end{array}\right)
$$

We see, in particular, that $c^{\prime}=c^{2} \mu$, whence $c^{\prime} \mu=(c \mu)^{2}$, and that $T^{\prime}$ has trace $t^{\prime}=2+c^{2} \mu^{2}=2+c^{\prime}$.

Define $T_{n}$ recursively by taking

$$
T_{0}=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
0 & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } T_{n+1}=\left[A, T_{n}\right] .
$$

Note that, although $T_{0}$ need not belong to $\mathbf{G}$, we have $T_{1}=A T_{0} A^{-1} T_{0}{ }^{-1}=A B$, so that $T_{n}$ is in $\mathbf{G}$ for all $n \geqq 1$. Let

$$
T_{n}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a_{n} & b_{n} \\
c_{n} & d_{n}
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad t_{n}=\operatorname{Tr} T_{n}
$$

Now $c_{0}=1$ and $c_{n+1} \mu=\left(c_{n} \mu\right)^{2}$ implies that $c_{n} \mu=\mu^{2^{n}}$, whence $t_{n}=2+c_{n} \mu=$ $2+\mu^{2^{n}}$.

Suppose that $\mu=r \mu_{0}$, where $\mu_{0^{2}}=-4$ and $0 \leqq r \leqq 1$. Then $t_{n}=2-4 r^{2^{n}}$. If $t_{n}=2 \cos \theta$, for $\theta$ a rational multiple of $\pi$, then $T_{n}$ has finite order. Now numbers $t=2 \cos \theta$ for $\theta$ a rational multiple of $\pi$ are dense in the interval $[-2,+2]$. Since the map carrying $r$ into $t_{n}$ is a homeomorphism from the interval $[0,1]$ onto $[-2,2]$, it follows that the values of $r$ for which $\mathbf{G}$ is not free are dense in the interval $[0,1]$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

We remark that Ree has shown that the two open segments joining -2 to 2 and $(1+i)$ to $-(1+i)$ arising in Theorem 5 are contained in a connected set that is open in the topology of the plane, and in which the values of $\mu$ for which $\mathbf{G}$ is not free are dense.

Corollary 2 (Ree). Values of $\mu$ for which $\mathbf{G}$ is not free are dense in the unit disc.

Corollary 3. Let $R^{\prime}$ be the set of $\mu$ for which $\mathbf{G}$ is not free. If $\mu_{0} \in R^{\prime}$, then a neighbourhood of $\mu_{0}$ lies in $\overline{R^{\prime}}$.

Proof. We treat $\mu$ as an indeterminate. If $\mu_{0} \in R^{\prime}$, then there is a matrix $\left(p_{21}^{*}(\mu) \quad{ }_{*}^{*}\right)$ generated by $A$ and $B$, such that $p_{21}(\mu)$ is not the zero polynomial, and that $p_{21}\left(\mu_{0}\right)=0$. Using this matrix for $T_{0}$ in the proof of Theorem 5 , we find that $t_{n}=2+\left(\mu p_{21}(\mu)\right)^{2^{n}}$. The set where $\left|\mu p_{21}(\mu)\right|<1$, say $D$, is an open set containing $\mu_{0}$. If $\mu^{\prime} \in D$, then in every neighbourhood of $\mu^{\prime}$ there is some value, say $\mu^{\prime \prime}$, and a value of $n$, such that $t_{n}=2 \cos \theta$ for $\theta$ a rational multiple of $\pi$. Thus $T_{n}$ has finite order, and $\mu^{\prime \prime} \in R^{\prime}$. This completes the proof.

Remark. For the extreme values of $\mu$, satisfying $\mu^{2^{n}}=-4, \mathbf{G}$ is free provided $n=1$ or $n=2$, but $\mathbf{G}$ need not be free for such $\mu$ if $n=3$.

If $n=1$, then $\mu^{2}=-4$, whence $2 \lambda=\mu^{2}=-4$, and $\lambda=-2$. If $n=2$, then $\mu^{4}=-4, \mu^{2}= \pm 2 i, 2 \lambda=\mu^{2}= \pm 2 i$, and $\lambda= \pm i$. That $\mathbf{G}$ is free for such $\mu$ follows from Theorem 1 .

Let $n=3$. Four of the roots of $\mu^{8}=-4$, including that with smallest angle, satisfy the equation $\mu^{4}-2 \mu^{2}+2=0$. We show that $\mathbf{G}$ is not free for $\mu$ satisfying this equation. More explicitly, we note that

$$
T_{3}=[A,[A, B]]=A\left(A B A^{-1} B^{-1}\right) A^{-1}\left(B A B^{-1} A^{-1}\right)
$$

is conjugate to $S=\left[A^{-1}, B\right][A, B]$. Write

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & \alpha \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\beta & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Then

$$
A B=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1+\alpha \beta & \alpha \\
\beta & 1
\end{array}\right), \quad A^{-1} B^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1+\alpha \beta & -\alpha \\
-\beta & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

and

$$
[A, B]=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1+\alpha \beta+\alpha^{2} \beta^{2} & -\alpha^{2} \beta \\
\alpha \beta^{2} & 1-\alpha \beta
\end{array}\right)
$$

Now

$$
S=\left[A^{-1}, B\right][A, B]=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1-\mu^{2}+\mu^{4} & -\mu^{3} \\
* & *
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
* & -\mu^{3} \\
* & 1-\mu^{2}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
* & b \\
* & *
\end{array}\right),
$$

where $b=-\mu^{3}\left(2-2 \mu^{2}+\mu^{4}\right)=0$. That $\mathbf{G}$ is not free now follows from the fact that the affine group stabilizing a point in $\mathrm{PSL}_{2}(\mathbf{C})$ is metabelian. More explicitly, computation shows that

$$
B^{\prime}=S B S^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\nu & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

for some $\nu$, whence $B^{\prime}$ commutes with $B$.
We remark that the solution of $\mu^{8}=-4$ with smallest angle yields $\lambda=\frac{1}{2}(1+i)$, well away from the free regions discussed in $\S 1$.

The method used above can be given a more general formulation; this raises some interesting questions, but has not enabled us to gain much additional information. For this, we again view $\mu$ as an indeterminate. Then any word $W(\mu)=A^{a_{1}} B^{b_{1}} \ldots A^{a_{n}} B^{b_{n}}$ is given by a matrix whose entries are polynomials in $\mu$ with coefficients depending on $a_{1}, b_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{n}$. Write

$$
W(\mu)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1+p_{11}(\mu) & p_{12}(\mu) \\
p_{21}(\mu) & 1+p_{22}(\mu)
\end{array}\right) .
$$

It is easy to see, for example writing $A=I+\mu E_{12}$ and $B=I+\mu E_{21}$, that $p_{12}(\mu)=c_{1} \mu+c_{3} \mu^{3}+\ldots+c_{2 n-1} \mu^{2 n-1}$, an odd polynomial, where each coefficient $c_{2 k+1}$ is the sum of all products $a_{i_{1}} b_{j_{1}} \ldots a_{i_{k}} b_{j_{k}} a_{i_{k+1}}$ where the factors are, in order, a subsequence of the sequence $a_{1}, b_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{n}$. We note also that if $W$ is a non-trivial reduced word, that is, if $n>0$ and all $a_{i}, b_{j} \neq 0$, then $p_{12}$ is a non-constant polynomial with leading coefficient

$$
c_{2 n-1}=a_{1} b_{1} \ldots b_{n-1} a_{n} .
$$

The remaining $p_{i j}$ are analogous.
Proposition 1. A complex number $\mu$ determines a group $\mathbf{G}$ that is not free if and only if $\mu$ is a root of some polynomial $p(x)$ determined by a sequence $a_{1}, b_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}, b_{n}$ of non-zero integers in the following manner:

$$
p(x)=\sum c_{2 k+1} x^{2 k+1}
$$

odd, where each $c_{2 k+1}=\sum a_{i_{1}} b_{j_{1}} \ldots a_{i_{k}} b_{j_{k}} a_{i_{k+1}}$, sum over all

$$
i_{1} \leqq j_{1}<i_{2} \leqq j_{2}<\ldots \leqq j_{k}<i_{k+1}
$$

If $\mathbf{G}$ is not free, then for some non-trivial reduced $W$ we have $W(\mu)=I$, and hence $p_{12}(\mu)=0$. Conversely, if $p_{12}(\mu)=0$ for some non-trivial $p_{12}$, hence for some $W$ that is not a power of $B$, we have

$$
W(\mu)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
* & 0 \\
* & *
\end{array}\right)
$$

and, as before, $B^{\prime}=W B W^{-1}$ commutes with $B$.
We next apply the method indicated above to find a few more points for which $\mathbf{G}$ is not free.

Proposition 2. G is not free if $\mu=\sqrt{ }(2 / n)$ or $\mu=\sqrt[4]{ }(2 / n)$ for some positive integer $n$.

To see this, note that if the trace $t(\mu)$ of $W=A^{a_{1}} B^{b_{1}} \ldots A^{a_{n}} B^{b_{n}}$ vanishes, then $W^{2}=1$ and (assuming always $W$ reduced and non-trivial) $\mathbf{G}$ is not free. If $n=1$, then $t(\mu)=2+a_{1} b_{1} \mu^{2}$ with roots $\mu= \pm \sqrt{ }\left(2 / a_{1} b_{1}\right)$. If $n=2$, then $t(\mu)=2+k \mu^{2}+c \mu^{4}$, where $c=a_{1} a_{2} b_{1} b_{2}$ and $k=\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right)\left(b_{1}+b_{2}\right)$. To make $k=0$ take $a_{2}=-a_{1}$; then $t(\mu)$ has as roots the fourth roots of $2 / a_{1}{ }^{2} b_{2} b_{3}$.

The first half of the above proposition is contained in a more general result.
Proposition 3. If $\mu$ determines a group $\mathbf{G}$ that is not free, then so does $\mu^{\prime}=\mu \sqrt{ }(2 / n)$ for every non-zero integer $n$.

This is equivalent to the assertion that if $\lambda$ determines a group $\mathbf{G}$ that is not free, then so does $\lambda^{\prime}=\lambda / n$. But this follows from the fact that any relation between

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 2 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B^{\prime}=B^{n}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
n \lambda & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

is a fortiori a relation between $A$ and $B$.
Finally we explore the case, for $n=3$, where $W$ is periodic.
Proposition 4. If $\omega^{6}=+1$, then points where $W=A^{-1} B^{-2} A^{-1} B A^{2} B$ has finite order are dense on the line segment from $\omega$ to the origin. If $\omega^{6}=-1$, the same is true for $W=A B^{-2} A B A^{-2} B$.

Let $W=A^{a_{1}} B^{b_{1}} \ldots B^{b_{3}}$. To make the coefficient of $\mu^{2}$ in $t(\mu)$ vanish, we take $a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3}=0$. Now calculation shows that $t(\mu)=2+k \mu^{4}+c \mu^{6}$ with $k=-a_{2}{ }^{2} b_{1} b_{2}-a_{1}{ }^{2} b_{1} b_{3}-a_{3}{ }^{2} b_{2} b_{3}$ and $c=\prod a_{i} \Pi b_{i}$. To make $k=0$, we choose $a_{1}, a_{2}, b_{2}, b_{3}=1$ and $a_{3}=b_{1}=-2$. Then $t(\mu)=2+4 \mu^{6}$, and $t(\mu)$ ranges from +2 to -2 as $\mu^{6}$ ranges from 0 to -1 . Changing the signs of the $a_{i}$ gives similarly $t(\mu)=2-4 \mu^{6}$.
3. Structure of groups $\mathbf{G}$ for real $\mu$. From (3) we know that $\mathbf{G}$ is free for $|\mu| \geqq 2$. As noted, it follows that $\mathbf{G}$ is free if $\mu$ is transcendental or is algebraic with an algebraic conjugate $\mu^{\prime}$ such that $\left|\mu^{\prime}\right| \geqq 2$. We know of no real $\mu$ not falling under one of the above heads for which $\mathbf{G}$ is free. It is well known (see $\mathbf{9}$ ) that the only discontinuous $\mathbf{G}$ for $-2<\mu<+2$ are essentially the Hecke groups, which, although not free, are free products of cyclic groups. (From this it follows that no $\mathbf{G}$, for $-2<\mu<+2$ can be shown free by Macbeath's method, using for $\Gamma$ and $\Delta$ regions in the plane under its natural topology.) After examining the groups just mentioned, we find a few rational values of $\mu$, with $|\mu|<2$, for which we can show that $\mathbf{G}$ is not free; but we have not been able to settle even the case that $\mu=7 / 4$.

For certain values of $\mu$, the group $\mathbf{G}$ generated by

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & \mu \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\mu & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

although not free, is a free product of cyclic groups. It is well known that, for $\mu=1$, the two transvections $A$ and $B$ generate the unimodular group, $\mathbf{G}=\operatorname{PSL}_{2}(\mathbf{Z})$, and that this group is the free product of the cyclic groups generated by the two elements

$$
J=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
0 & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

of order 2 and

$$
S=A J=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
1 & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

of order 3 . For other values of $\mu$, the element $J$ need not belong to $\mathbf{G}$, and it is profitable to study the larger group $\mathbf{H}$ obtained by adjoining $J$ to $\mathbf{G}$. Since $B=J A^{-1} J$, the group $\mathbf{H}$ is generated by

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{lr}
1 & \mu \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad J=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
0 & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Among these groups, for $\mu$ real, the only groups acting discontinuously (on the upper half plane) are known to be the Hecke groups, where $\mu=2 \cos \theta$, $\theta$ a rational multiple of $\pi$, together with those for $|\mu| \geqq 2$.

A standard proof that $\mathbf{H}$ is discontinuous also reveals the structure of $\mathbf{H}$ as a free product; for example, one can recognize $\mathbf{H}$ as the conformal subgroup of the Coxeter group generated by reflections in the sides of the hyperbolic triangle with vertices $\infty, i$, and $e^{2 \pi i / q}$. We indicate here a proof based on Macbeath's lemma.

Theorem 6. Let $\mathbf{H}$ be the group of linear fractional transformations generated by

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & \mu \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad J=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
0 & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $\mu=2 \cos (p / q) \pi$ for $p$ and $q$ relatively prime integers, $q>2$. Then $\mathbf{H}$ is the free product of the two cyclic groups generated by $J$, of order 2 , and the other by

$$
S=A J=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
\mu & -1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

of order $q$.
First, it is clear that $J$ and $S$ generate $\mathbf{H}$. Now $\mu=\zeta+\zeta^{-1}$, where $\zeta$ is a primitive $q$ th root of unity. Since all primitive $q$ th roots of unity are algebraic conjugates, $\mathbf{H}$ will be isomorphic to the group obtained by replacing $\zeta$ by the special choice $\zeta=e^{\pi i / q}$. Now $S$, as well as $J$, satisfies the special hypothesis (of having minimal angle of rotation) of the theorem in (11, §5). Moreover, $S J=A$ has the real fixed point $\infty$, whence it follows by that theorem that $\mathbf{H}$ is the free product of the groups generated by $J$ and by $S$.

Theorem 7. Let $\mathbf{G}$ be the group generated by

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & \mu \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
\mu & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

for $\mu$ as above. If $q$ is odd, then $\mathbf{G}$ coincides with $\mathbf{H}$, as above. If $q=2 n$, even, then $\mathbf{G}$ is a proper subgroup of $\mathbf{H}$, and is the free product of two cyclic groups generated by $A$, of infinite order, and by $A B^{-1}=S^{2}$, of order $n$.

We verify that $A=S J, B=S^{-1} J$, and $A B^{-1}=S^{2}$. If $S$ has odd order, it is contained in the group generated by $S^{2}$, whence $S$ is in $\mathbf{G}$ and also $J=S B$ is in $\mathbf{G}$, and it follows that $\mathbf{G}=\mathbf{H}$. Suppose now that $q=2 n$. Then $\left(A B^{-1}\right)^{n}=1$, and it remains to show that $A$ and $B$ satisfy no relation that is not a consequence of this one.

For this it will suffice to show that if $W=A^{a_{1}} B^{b_{1}} \ldots B^{b_{t}}$ is a non-trivial reduced word ( $t>0$ and all $a_{i}, b_{i} \neq 0$ ) that cannot be shortened by use of the relation $\left(A B^{-1}\right)^{n}=1$, then $W \neq 1$. We suppose then that $W=1$, and yet that $W$ does not contain any part $\left(A B^{-1}\right)^{n},\left(B^{-1} A\right)^{n},\left(B A^{-1}\right)^{n}$, or $\left(A^{-1} B\right)^{n}$; from this assumption we shall draw a contradiction. Form $W_{1}$ from $W$ by making the literal substitutions: $A \rightarrow S J, A^{-1} \rightarrow J S^{-1}, B \rightarrow S^{-1} J, B^{-1} \rightarrow J S$, and without making any cancellations in the resulting word. It is immediate that $W_{1}$ will contain no part $J J J$, and, from the fact that $W$ was reduced, that $W_{1}$ will contain no part $S S^{-1}, S^{-1} S, S J J S^{-1}$ or $S^{-1} J J S$. Let $W_{2}$ be obtained from $W_{1}$ by deleting all parts $J J$. Then $W_{2}$ will contain no part $J J, S S^{-1}$, or $S^{-1} S$. If $W_{2}$ contains no part $S^{q}$ or $S^{-q}$, then $W_{2}$ is the normal form for a nontrivial element in the free product $\mathbf{H}$, contrary to our assumption that $W=1$. We may suppose then that $W_{2}$ contains such a part, and, by symmetry, that $W_{2}$ contains a part $S^{q}$. Inspection shows that a sequence of $q$ consecutive etters $S$ in $W_{2}$ can arise only from a part of $W_{1}$ of the form

$$
(J S)(S J)(J S) \ldots(J S)(S J)
$$

and hence from a part $\left(B^{-1} A\right)^{n}$ of $W$. But this contradicts our assumption on $W$, completing the proof of the theorem.

Let $\mathbf{G}(\mu)$ be generated by $A$ and $B$, for $\mu=2 \cos (p / q) \pi,(p, q)=1, q \geqq 3$. From our knowledge of $\mathbf{G}(\mu)$, as a free product, it is easy to see that, if $h k>1$ (except $h k=2$ and $q=3$ ), $A^{h}$ and $B^{k}$ generate a free subgroup $\mathbf{G}^{\prime}$ of $\mathbf{G}(\mu)$, conjugate to $\mathbf{G}\left(\mu^{\prime}\right)$, where $\mu^{\prime}=\sqrt{ }(h k) \mu$. However, this gives us no new information, since $\mu^{\prime}$ has a conjugate $\mu_{0}^{\prime}=\sqrt{ }(h k) 2 \cos (\pi / q)$ with $\left|\mu_{0}{ }^{\prime}\right| \geqq 2$.

In considering the groups $\mathbf{G}$ defined by $\mu$ as above, it suffices to study those with $\mu=2 \cos (\pi / q), q>0$. We have excluded the case $q=1$, which gives Sanov's group, $\mu=2$. We have excluded also the case $q=2$, where $\mu=0$ and $\mathbf{G}$ is trivial. For $q=3$ we have $\mu=1$, and $\mathbf{G}$ is the unimodular group. For $q=4$, we have $\mu=\sqrt{ } 2$; it is easy to obtain an explicit description of this group.

Proposition 5. The group $\mathbf{G}$ generated by

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & \sqrt{ } 2 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
\sqrt{ } 2 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

consists of all

$$
T=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a & b \sqrt{ } 2 \\
c \sqrt{ } 2 & d
\end{array}\right)
$$

for $a, b, c$, and $d$ integers satisfying $a d-2 b c=1$.

That every element $T$ of $\mathbf{G}$ has this form follows from the fact that the diagonal elements in $W(\mu)$ are even polynomials in $\mu$, while the off-diagonal elements are odd polynomials. To show that every such $T$ belongs to $\mathbf{G}$, we first verify that, if $a, c \neq 0$, then, by a modified division algorithm, $|a|+|c|$ will be diminished in passing to one of $A^{ \pm 1} T$ or $B^{ \pm 1} T$. It remains to consider the case that $a=0$ or $c=0$. However, $a=0$ contradicts $a d-2 b c=1$. If $c=0$, then $a d=1$; we may suppose that $a=d=1$, and

$$
T=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & b \sqrt{ } 2 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)=A^{b}
$$

in $\mathbf{G}$.
The next case, $q=5$, has been studied from a somewhat different point of view by Rosen (16) and Leutbecher (10).

We conclude with some fragmentary remarks about the structure of $\mathbf{G}$ for rational $\mu$. These groups, for $\mu=1 / p, p$ a prime, have been studied by Ihara (8), and by Mennicke (13), who showed that $\mathbf{G}$ is the full unimodular group over the ring $R_{p}$ of rationals with denominator a power of $p$. There is some reason to suppose that, for general $\mu$, the polynomials $p_{12}{ }^{W}(\mu)$ associated with words $W$ will not tend to have common roots without good reason, for example unless $W_{1}$ and $W_{2}$ are in the normal closure of a third word $W_{3}$. One might expect then that the groups under consideration if not free might be free products of groups of a simple nature, perhaps with amalgamation. Since the present paper was submitted, the paper of $\operatorname{Behr}(\mathbf{1})$ has come to our attention, in which it is proved, inter alia, that $\mathbf{G}$, for $\mu=1 / p, p$ a prime, is finitely presented, as well as the paper of Behr and Mennicke (2) in which a finite presentation is obtained. However, we have not been able to derive from their presentation any insight into the structure of $\mathbf{G}$.

The group $\mathbf{G}$ for $\mu=1 / p$ of course contains the unimodular group, and therefore satisfies the two defining relations for the unimodular group when expressed in terms of the generators $A$ and $B$ of $\mathbf{G}$. In the case $\mu=\frac{1}{2}$, we have shown that $\mathbf{G}$ satisfies other relations that are not consequences of these two. The argument consists in first observing that if $\mathbf{G}$ were defined by these two relations alone, it would be the result of adjoining a square root $A$ (in the sense of Neumann (14)) to a certain element of the unimodular group $\mathbf{U}$, and, in that case, all involutions of $\mathbf{G}$ would be conjugates of those in U. However, by calculation, we find an involution of the form $A X$, with $X$ in $\mathbf{U}$, which cannot possibly be a conjugate of any element of $\mathbf{U}$.

In this connection we remark that we have shown (with H. Stark (oral communication) supplying the proof of an elementary lemma from number theory) that for $\mu=1 / p$, and $p$ prime, the group $\mathbf{G}$ has exactly two conjugacy classes of involutions if $p$ is of the form $p=4 k+3$, and exactly one conjugacy class otherwise.

Any relation among the generators of $\mathbf{G}$ for a given value of $\mu$ carries with it a relation for $\mu / n, n$ an arbitrary integer. Thus, in seeking such relations,
we are led to examine values $1<\mu<2$. Let $\mu=3 / 2$, and define $W_{0}=I$, $W_{1}=A^{a_{1}} W_{0}, W_{2}=B^{b_{1}} W_{1}, W_{3}=A^{a_{2}} W_{2}$, and so forth, for non-zero integers $a_{1}, b_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots$. We seek to choose these integers in such a way that

$$
W_{n}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
* & 0 \\
* & *
\end{array}\right)
$$

for some $n>0$. It will then follow as before that $B^{\prime}=W_{n}^{-1} B W_{n}$ commutes with $B$, and hence that $\mathbf{G}$ is not free.

Examination of the second columns of the $W_{i}$ shows that this reduces to the following problem. Given $\mu$, to find integers $h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots$ such that the recursive definition

$$
x_{0}=0, \quad x_{1}=1, \quad x_{n+2}=x_{n}+h_{n+1} \mu x_{n+1}
$$

leads to some $x_{n}=0, n>0$. The method of choosing the $h_{i}$ always to minimize $\left|x_{n+2}\right|$ works for $\mu=3 / 2,4 / 3,5 / 3,5 / 4$, but does not seem to work for $\mu=7 / 4$. We summarize our results for these cases.

Proposition 6. If $\mu=3 / 2,4 / 3,5 / 3,5 / 4$, then $\mathbf{G}$ is not free. Indeed, if we let $B^{\prime}=W^{-1} B W$, then for each value of $\mu$ above there is an appropriate choice of $W$ such that the corresponding $B^{\prime}$ will commute with $B$, thus yielding a relationship. For $\mu=3 / 2$ the choice of $W=A^{2} B^{-2} A B^{-1} A$ yields $B^{\prime}=B^{2^{6}} ;$ for $\mu=3 / 4$, the choice of $W=A^{-18} B^{2} A B^{-1} A$ yields $B^{\prime}=B^{3^{8}}$; for $\mu=5 / 3$ the choice of $W=A^{18} B^{-2} A B A^{2} B^{11} A^{2} B^{-1} A B^{-1} A$ yields $B^{\prime}=B^{20} ;$ for $\mu=5 / 4$ the choice of $W=A^{-8} B^{2} A^{5} B^{-3} A^{2} B^{-1} A$ yields $B^{\prime}=B^{4^{10}}$.

We note also that, for $\mu=3 / 2, \mathbf{G}$ is contained in the principal congruence group $\mathbf{U}(3)$ over $R_{2}$, and contains $\left(\begin{array}{cc}8 \\ 0 & 1 / 8\end{array}\right)$; but it does not appear to coincide with $\mathbf{U}(3)$. We repeat that $\mu=7 / 4$ is the simplest case of rational $\mu$ where we cannot decide whether $\mathbf{G}$ is free.

We state a final result concerning rational values of $\mu$ for which $\mathbf{G}$ is not free.
Proposition 7. If $\mu=p /\left(p^{2}+1\right)$, $p$ a positive integer, then $A^{h_{3}} B^{h_{2}} A=W$, with $h_{2}=-\left(p^{2}+2\right), h_{3}=-\left(p^{2}+1\right)^{2}$, has the form $\left(\begin{array}{c}* \\ * \\ *\end{array}\right)$. Thus $\mathbf{G}$ is not free for any of these values of $\mu$.

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[^0]:    Received July 5, 1968 and in revised form January 13, 1969. The authors gratefully acknowledge support of the National Science Foundation, Grants GP-6578 and GP-7264.

