## 4. Free subgroups of $\mathrm{GL}(2, \mathrm{R})$ and of $\mathrm{GL}(2, \mathrm{C})$

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also elliptic, the foot of the perpendicular from the fixed point of $g$ onto the invariant line of $g$ would be fixed by $g$, and this cannot be. If $g$ was at the same time elliptic with fixed point $a \in H^{n+1}$ and parabolic with fixed point $b \in \mathbf{S}^{n}$, the line from $a$ towards $b$ would have two points at infinity $b$ and $b^{\prime}$ both fixed by $g$, and this cannot be.

That any $g \in G M(n)_{0}$ belongs to one of the three classes follows for example from Brouwer's fixed point theorem. (See also 4.9.3 in [Th].)

Observe that an hyperbolic isometry $g \in G M(n)_{0}$ has a unique invariant line $\delta$. Suppose indeed that there are two of them, say $\delta$ and $\delta^{\prime}$. If $\delta \cap \delta^{\prime} \neq \phi$, the intersection point (which is unique) is fixed by $g$, and this cannot be. If $\delta \cap \delta^{\prime}$ $=\phi$ and if $\delta, \delta^{\prime}$ have no common point at infinity, there is a unique line perpendicular to both $\delta$ and $\delta^{\prime}$; but this line intersects $\delta$ in a point fixed by $g$, and this cannot be. Assume finally that $\delta \cap \delta^{\prime}=\phi$ and that $\delta$ and $\delta^{\prime}$ have a common point at infinity; choose some number $\rho>0$ and consider the set $C_{\rho}$ of points in $H^{n+1}$ at a distance of $\rho$ from $\delta^{\prime}$; the intersection $C_{\rho} \cap \delta$ is a point fixed by $g$, and again this cannot be. One may consequently also define an isometry $g \in G M(n)_{0}$ to be
elliptic if $d(a, g(a))=0$ for some $a \in H^{n+1}$,
parabolic if $\inf d(a, g(a))=0$, with the infimum over $a \in H^{n+1}$ not attained,
hyperbolic if inf $d(a, g(a))>0$ (and the infimum is then attained exactly on the
invariant line of $g$ ).
We shall need below the following dynamical description. An hyperbolic isometry $g \in G M(n)_{0}$ has on $\mathbf{S}^{n}$ one attracting point $P_{a}$ and one repulsing point $P_{r}$. This means that, for any neighborhood $U$ of $P_{a}$ in $\mathbf{S}^{n}$ and for any compact subset $K$ of $S^{n}-\left\{P_{r}\right\}$, one has $g^{k}(K) \subset U$ for $k$ large enough. (And similarly with $g^{-1}$ instead of $g$ when exchanging $P_{a}$ and $P_{r}$.) Consider now a parabolic isometry $g \in G M(n)_{0}$ with fixed point $P \in \mathbf{S}^{n}$. Let $U$ be a neighborhood of $P$ in $\mathbf{S}^{n}$ and let $K$ be compact in $S^{n}-\{P\}$; then $g^{k}(K) \subset U$ for any $k \in \mathbf{Z}$ with $|k|$ large enough. (This is obvious when $g$ is a translation in $\mathbf{R}^{n} \times \mathbf{R}_{+}^{*}$ by some vector in $\mathbf{R}^{n}$, and any parabolic isometry of $H^{n+1}$ is conjugate to such a translation.)

## 4. Free subgroups of $G L(2, \mathbf{R})$ and of $G L(2, \mathbf{C})$

We show in this section that a subgroup of the proper Mœbius group $G$ $=P G L(2, \mathbf{R})$ which is not almost solvable contains free groups; the same fact for $G L(2, \mathbf{R})$ follows straightforwardly. We discuss also the case of $G L(2, \mathbf{C})$.

Proposition. Let $g, h \in G-\{1\}$ be without any common fixed point in $H^{2} \cup \mathbf{S}^{1}$. Then the group $\Gamma$ generated by $g$ and $h$ contains free groups, up to two exceptions.

The first of these happens when $g^{2}=h^{2}=1$. The second when one element is an involution, say $g^{2}=1$, when $h$ is hyperbolic, and when $g$ exchanges the two fixed points of $h$ on $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}$. In these two cases, $\Gamma$ is the infinite dihedral group, and is thus solvable.

Proof. We check below in each of the non exceptional cases that $\Gamma$ contains a free group.

Case 1. One element, say $g$, is parabolic with fixed point $P \in \mathbf{S}^{1}$.
Consider the parabolic $k=h g h^{-1}$, with fixed point $Q=h(P) \neq P$ in $\mathbf{S}^{1}$. Let $S_{1}$ [respectively $S_{2}$ ] be a compact neighborhood of $P$ [resp. $\left.Q\right]$ in $\mathbf{S}^{1}$ with $S_{1} \cap S_{2}=\phi$. The end of section 3 shows that there exists a positive integer $n_{0}$ such that $g^{n}\left(S_{2}\right) \subset S_{1}$ and $k^{n}\left(S_{1}\right) \subset S_{2}$ for any $n \in \mathbf{Z}$ with $|n| \geqslant n_{0}$. It follows from Klein's criterium that $g^{n_{0}}$ and $k^{n_{0}}$ generate a free subgroup of $G$.

Case 2. Both $g$ and $h$ are hyperbolic.
Let $S_{1}$ [respectively $S_{2}$ ] be a compact neighborhood of the fixed points of $g$ [resp. of $h$ ] in $\mathbf{S}^{1}$ with $S_{1} \cap S_{2}=\phi$, and proceed as in case 1 .

Case 3. One of the elements, say $h$, is hyperbolic with fixed points $P, Q \in \mathbf{S}^{1}$ and $g$ does not exchange them, say $R=g(Q) \notin\{P, Q\}$.

If $g(P) \notin\{P, Q\}$ then $h$ and $g h g^{-1}$ are as in case 2 . We may thus assume that $g(P)=Q$. If $g(R) \neq P$ then $h$ and $g^{2} h g^{-2}$ are again as in case 2 . We may thus also assume $g(R)=P$. Consider then $h^{\prime}=g^{-1} h g$, an hyperbolic with fixed points $R$ and $P$, as well as $h^{\prime \prime}=g h g^{-1} h g h^{-1} g^{-1}$, an hyperbolic with fixed points $Q$ $=g h g^{-1}(Q)$ and $S=g h g^{-1}(P)$. One has $h(R) \neq Q$ and thus $S=g h(R) \neq g(Q)$ $=R$; one has also $h(R) \neq R$ and $S \neq g(R)=P$. Consequently $h^{\prime}$ and $h^{\prime \prime}$ are as in case 2.

Case 4. Both $g$ and $h$ are elliptic with $g^{2} \neq 1$.
Possibly after conjugation within $G$, one may assume that $g=r_{\alpha}$ is a rotation around the origin of the disc $H^{2}$ by some angle $\left.\alpha \in\right] 0,2 \pi[-\{\pi\}$. Then $k=h g h^{-1} \neq g$, otherwise $h$ would also fix the origin.

In the average, any point of $\mathbf{S}^{1}$ is rotated by $k$ of an angle $\alpha$. More precisely, if $\tilde{k}: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ is the lifting of $k$ to the universal covering of $\mathbf{S}^{1}$ with $0 \leqslant \tilde{k}(0)<1$, then $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n}\left(\tilde{k}^{n}(x)-x\right)$ exists for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$ and this limit is $\alpha$. Moreover

$$
\min _{x \in \mathbf{R}}(\widetilde{k}(x)-x) \leqslant \alpha \leqslant \max _{x \in \mathbf{R}}(\widetilde{k}(x)-x) .
$$

(See any exposition of the rotation number, for example chapter 17 in [CL] or section 1 in [Ka].) It follows that there exists $P \in \mathbf{S}^{1}$ with $k(P)=g(P)$, so that $g^{-1} k$ has a fixed point in $\mathbf{S}^{1}$ and one of the previous cases applies.

Exceptional cases. If $g^{2}=h^{2}=1$, then $g h$ generate an infinite cyclic subgroup of index 2 in $\Gamma$ and $\Gamma$ is isomorphic to the infinite dihedral group. If $h$ is hyperbolic and if $g$ exchanges its fixed points, then $g h g^{-1}=h^{-1}$ so that $g^{2}$ $=(g h)^{2}=1$ and $\Gamma$ is as in the previous case.

The proof is now complete.
The proposition above is well known, and may essentially be found in any of the following papers: [LU1], [Md], [Ro] (see corollary 1). One should also mention Magnus' surveys [Ms1], [Ms2].

As two elements of $G$ having a common fixed point in $H^{2} \cup \mathbf{S}^{1}$ generate a solvable subgroup, we have proved the 2 -generators particular case of the following fact.

Theorem 1. A subgroup $\Gamma$ of $G=P G L(2, \mathbf{R})$ (or of $G L(2, \mathbf{R})$ ) which is not solvable contains free groups.

Proof. We assume that $\Gamma$ does not contain free groups, and check that $\Gamma$ is solvable. If $\Gamma$ contains at least one parabolic isometry, this follows from case 1 of the proof above. If it contains at least one hyperbolic isometry, then all hyperbolics in $\Gamma$ have a common fixed point (see case 2 ) and then either all elements in $\Gamma$ have a common fixed point or $\Gamma$ is dihedral (see case 3 ). Finally, if $\Gamma$ is an elliptic group, it follows from case 4 that $\Gamma$ is abelian.

This covers in particular the case of Fuchsian groups. The next theorem covers that of Kleinian groups.

THEOREM 2. Let $\Gamma$ be a subgroup of $S L(2, \mathbf{C})$ which is not solvable. Assume moreover that $\Gamma$ is not relatively compact (or equivalently that $\Gamma$ is not conjugate to a subgroup of the maximal compact subgroup $S U(2)$ of $S L(2, \mathbf{C})$ ). Then $\Gamma$ contains free groups.

In particular, a discrete subgroup of $\operatorname{PGL}(2, \mathbf{C})$ which is not almost solvable contains free groups.

Proof. The group $\Gamma$ acts on $\mathbf{C}^{2}$; as $\Gamma$ is not solvable, the representation is irreducible. Easy arguments à la Burnside show that $\Gamma$ does not contain elliptic elements only; indeed, $\Gamma$ does contain a hyperbolic element (see [CG], or corollary 1.8 in [B]). The first statement follows now as theorem 1.

The second follows from this: a discrete subgroup of $\operatorname{PGL}(2, \mathbf{C})$ containing elliptic elements only is finite. Indeed, such a group is periodic. If $\Gamma$ is a priori
known to be finitely generated, then $\Gamma$ is finite by a theorem of Schur ( $\S 36$ in [CR]) so that the hyperbolic subspace $F(\Gamma)=\left\{x \in H^{3} \mid \Gamma x=\{x\}\right\}$ is non empty. In general, to any finitely generated subgroup $\Gamma_{\mathfrak{l}}$ of $\Gamma$ corresponds a non empty subspace $F_{\mathfrak{l}} \subset H^{n}$; it is easy to check that $F(\Gamma)=\cap F_{1}$ is non empty so that $\Gamma$ lies in a compact subgroup of the Mœbius group; it follows again that $\Gamma$ is finite.

Instead of the assumption of theorem 2, assume the following: there exists $g \in \Gamma$ with two distinct eigenvalues of same modulus, say $\mu_{1}=\rho \exp \left(i \theta_{1}\right)$ and $\mu_{2}=\rho \exp \left(i \theta_{2}\right)$ where $\rho, \theta_{1}, \theta_{2} \in \mathbf{R}$ satisfy $\rho>0$ and $\theta_{1} \not \equiv \theta_{2}(\bmod 2 \pi)$, and there exists an automorphism $\alpha$ of $\mathbf{C}$ with $\left|\alpha\left(\mu_{1}\right)\right| \neq\left|\alpha\left(\mu_{2}\right)\right|$. Then $\alpha$ induces an automorphism $\tilde{\alpha}$ of $G L(2, \mathbf{C})$ and the proof applies to $\tilde{\alpha}(\Gamma)$. But this procedure has its limits, because there exist complex numbers $\mu$ (such as $\frac{1}{5}(3+4 i)$, see the remark below) such that $|\alpha(\mu)|=1$ for any automorphism $\alpha$ of $\mathbf{C}$ but which are not roots of 1 ; then the argument above fails ${ }^{1}$ ) for example for $g=\left(\begin{array}{cc}\mu & 0 \\ 0 & \mu^{-1}\end{array}\right)$.

Something is true however: let $k$ be a finitely generated field of characteristic 0 , let $\mu \in k-\{0\}$ and assume $\mu$ is not a root of 1 . Then there exists a locally compact field $k^{\prime}$ endowed with an absolute value $\omega$ and there exists a homomorphism $\sigma: k \rightarrow k^{\prime}$ such that $\omega(\sigma(\mu)) \neq 1$; this is lemma 4.1 of [T]. It follows that the argument above may be recuperated, but one has to consider other fields than subfields of $\mathbf{C}$.

For self-consistency, let us end with the announced remark. For any automorphism $\alpha$ of $\mathbf{C}$, one has clearly

$$
\left|\alpha\left(\frac{3+4 i}{5}\right)\right|=\left|\frac{3 \pm 4 i}{5}\right|=1
$$

we check now that $\frac{3+4 i}{5}$ is not a root of one.
Let $p, q$ be coprime integers and let $\mu=\exp \left(i 2 \pi \frac{p}{q}\right)$ be a root of 1 . Then $\mu$ is an algebraic number of degree $\varphi(q)$, where $\varphi$ is Euler's function. It follows that $\cos \left(2 \pi \frac{p}{q}\right)$ is an algebraic number of degree $d \geqslant \frac{1}{2} \varphi(q)$ : because if $F$ is a polynomial of degree $d$ in $Z[X]$ with $F\left(\cos \left(2 \pi \frac{p}{q}\right)\right)=0$, then $\mu$ is a root of

[^0]$X^{d} F\left(\frac{1}{2} X+\frac{1}{2} X^{-1}\right)$, which is of degree $2 d$ in $Z[X]$, so that $2 d \geqslant \varphi(q)$. If $q \in\{1,2,3,4,6\}$, one checks easily that $\exp \left(i 2 \pi \frac{p}{q}\right) \neq \frac{3+4 i}{5}$. If $q=5$ or if $q \geqslant 7$, then $\varphi(q)>2$ so that $\cos \left(2 \pi \frac{p}{q}\right)$ is not rational. Thus the root of unity $\mu$ cannot be equal to $\frac{3+4 i}{5}$.

## 5. Some other cases of Tits' theorem

Let $n$ be an integer with $n \geqslant 2$.
Define a subgroup $\Gamma$ of $G L(n, \mathbf{C})$ [respectively of $\operatorname{PGL}(n, \mathbf{C})$ ] to be irreducible if any linear subspace of $\mathbf{C}^{n}$ [resp. of $P_{\mathbf{C}}^{n-1}$ ] invariant by $\Gamma$ is trivial, and not almost reducible if any subgroup of $\Gamma$ of finite index is irreducible. When referring to the Zariski topology on $\operatorname{PGL}(n, \mathbf{C})$, we use below the letter $Z$.

Reduction. Tits' theorem for complex linear groups is equivalent to the following statements (one for each $n \geqslant 2$ ):

Let $\Gamma$ be a subgroup of $P G L(n, \mathbf{C})$ which is not almost solvable. Assume that
(i) is not almost reducible;
(ii) the $Z$-closure $G$ of $\Gamma$ in $\operatorname{PGL}(n, \mathbf{C})$ is $Z$-connected. Then $\Gamma$ contains free groups.

That one may assume (i) without loss of generality is an easy exercise on reducibility, and one may assume (ii) because the $Z$-closure of any subgroup of $\operatorname{PGL}(n, \mathbf{C})$ has finitely many Z-connected components. (The hypothesis of the reduced statement are redundant: (i) and (ii) imply by Lie's theorem that $G$ is not solvable, so that $\Gamma$ is not almost solvable!)

Now let $g \in P G L(n, \mathbf{C})$ and choose a representative $\tilde{g} \in G L(n, \mathbf{C})$ of $g$. Let us define $g$ to be
elliptic if $\tilde{g}$ is semi-simple with all eigenvalues of equal moduli,
parabolic if $\tilde{g}$ is not semi-simple and has all its eigenvalues of equal moduli, hyperbolic if $\tilde{g}$ has at least two eigenvalues of distinct moduli.

These definitions are obviously independent on the choice of $\tilde{g}$. They generalize those of section 3 as follows from [Gr]. The meaning of "hyperbolic" fits with current use in dynamical systems theory (see e.g. definition 5.1 in [Sh]).

Let $g$ be hyperbolic and let $\tilde{g}$ be as above. Let $\widetilde{A}(g)$ respectively $\left.\tilde{A}^{\prime}(g)\right]$ be the direct sum of the nilspaces of $\tilde{g}$ corresponding to all eigenvalues of maximal modulus [resp. to all other eigenvalues] of $\tilde{g}$. Let $A(g)$ [resp. $\left.A^{\prime}(g)\right]$ be the canonical image of $\tilde{A}(g)-\{0\}$ [resp. $\left.\tilde{A}^{\prime}(g)-\{0\}\right]$ in $\mathbf{P}=P_{\mathrm{c}}^{n-1}$. Then $A(g) \cap A^{\prime}(g)=\emptyset$ and the smallest linear subspace of $\mathbf{P}$ containing both $A(g)$ and $A^{\prime}(g)$ is $\mathbf{P}$ itself. Tits calls $A(g)\left[\right.$ resp. $\left.A\left(g^{-1}\right)\right]$ the attracting space [resp. repulsing space] of $g$. We say that $g$ is sharp if $A(g)$ is a point and that $g$ is very sharp if both $A(g)$ and $A\left(g^{-1}\right)$ are points. For each $k \in\{1,2, \ldots, n-1\}$, the fundamental representation of $G L(n, C)$ in $\wedge^{k} \mathbf{C}^{n}$ induces an injection

$$
\left.\lambda_{k}: P G L(n, \mathbf{C}) \rightarrow P G L\binom{n}{k}, \mathbf{C}\right) ;
$$

as $g$ is hyperbolic, $\lambda_{k}(g)$ is sharp for some $k$. We also say that two hyperbolic elements $g, h \in \operatorname{PGL}(n, \mathbf{C})$ are in general position if

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A(g) \cup A\left(g^{-1}\right) \subset \mathbf{P}-\left\{A^{\prime}(h) \cup A^{\prime}\left(h^{-1}\right)\right\} \\
& A(h) \cup A\left(h^{-1}\right) \subset \mathbf{P}-\left\{A^{\prime}(g) \cup A^{\prime}\left(g^{-1}\right)\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Observe that any hyperbolic element of $\operatorname{PGL}(2, \mathbf{C})$ is very sharp, and that two hyperbolic elements of $P G L(2, \mathbf{C})$ are in general position if and only if they do not have any common fixed point on $\mathbf{S}^{2}$.

Recall that an element of $\operatorname{PGL}(n, \mathbf{C})$ is semi-simple if its inverse image in $G L(n, \mathbf{C})$ contains diagonalisable matrices.

Lemma 1. Let $\Gamma$ be an irreducible subgroup of $\operatorname{PGL}(n, \mathbf{C})$ having a $Z$ connected Z-closure. If $\Gamma$ contains a sharp semi-simple element $g$, then $\Gamma$ contains a very sharp element.

About the proof. Let $\tilde{g} \in G L(n, \mathbf{C})$ be some representative of $g$ having an eigenvalue of "large" modulus and all other eigenvalues with moduli "near" 1. For suitable $h, u \in \Gamma$ and for $j \in N$ large enough, one may hope that $g^{-j} h g^{j} h^{-1} u$ has a representative in $G L(n, \mathbf{C})$ with one eigenvalue of very large modulus (look at $h g^{j} h^{-1} u$ ), one eigenvalue of very small modulus (look at $g^{-j}$ ), and other eigenvalues of moduli "near" 1 . Section 3 of [T] shows that this hope is realistic. (See also below, after the theorem.)

Lemma 2. Let $\Gamma$ be an irreducible subgroup of $\operatorname{PGL}(n, \mathbf{C})$ having a $Z$ connected Z-closure. If $\Gamma$ contains a very sharp element, then $\Gamma$ contains two very sharp elements in general position.

Proof. Let $P_{1}, P_{2}$ be two linear subspaces of $\mathbf{P}$ with $P_{1} \neq \emptyset$ and $P_{2} \neq \mathbf{P}$. Then $\left\{x \in G \mid x\left(P_{1}\right) \notin P_{2}\right\}$ is obviously a $Z$-open subset of $G$. It is not empty:

Choose indeed $p \in P_{1}$; then the subspace of $\mathbf{P}$ spanned by the orbit $G p$ is stable under $G$ and must therefore coincide with $\mathbf{P}$; hence there exists $x \in G$ with $x(p) \notin P_{2}$ and, a fortiori, $x\left(P_{1}\right) \notin P_{2}$.

Let $g$ be a very sharp element in $\Gamma$. It follows from above that

$$
X=\left\{\begin{array}{l|l}
x \in G & \begin{array}{l}
A(g) \text { and } A\left(g^{-1}\right) \text { are not contained in any of } x A^{\prime}(g), \\
x A^{\prime}\left(g^{-1}\right), x^{-1} A^{\prime}(g), x^{-1} A^{\prime}\left(g^{-1}\right)
\end{array}
\end{array}\right\}
$$

is a non empty $Z$-open subset of $G$. Let $y \in X \cap \Gamma$. Then $g$ and $y g y^{-1}$ are both very sharp and are in general position.

For the next lemma, we choose as above $k$ with $1 \leqslant k \leqslant n-1$ and we consider the $k^{\text {th }}$ fundamental representation $\left.\lambda_{k}: S L(n, \mathbf{C}) \rightarrow S L\binom{n}{k}, \mathbf{C}\right)$ of $S L(n, \mathbf{C})$.

Lemma. Let $\Gamma$ be a group and let $\rho: \Gamma \rightarrow S L(n, \mathbf{C})$ be an irreducible representation. Then the $Z$-closure $G$ of $\rho(\Gamma)$ in $\operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbf{C})$ is semi-simple and the representation $\left.\sigma=\lambda_{k} \rho: \Gamma \rightarrow S L\binom{n}{k}, \mathbf{C}\right)$ is completely reducible.

Proof. We show first that $G$ is semi-simple. Consider the solvable radical $R$ of $G$. By Lie's theorem, there exists an eigenvector for $R$, namely there exist $v \in \mathbf{C}^{n}-\{0\}$ and $\alpha \in \operatorname{Hom}\left(R, \mathbf{C}^{*}\right)$ with $r(v)=\alpha(r) v$ for all $r \in R$. As $R$ is normal in $G$, any vector $g(v)(g \in G)$ is also an eigenvector for $R$. By irreductibility, any vector in $\mathbf{C}^{n}$ is also an eigenvector, so that $R$ is made up of dilations. But $R$ is connected and is in $\operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbf{C})$, so that $R=1$.

Now $\left.\lambda_{k}: G \rightarrow S L\binom{n}{k}, \mathbf{C}\right)$ is completely reducible; denote by $\lambda_{k, j}: G$ $\rightarrow S L\left(W_{j}\right)$ the components of a decomposition $\lambda_{k}=\underset{j \in J}{\oplus} \lambda_{k, j}$ and define $\sigma_{j}$ $=\lambda_{k, j} \rho(j \in J)$. One has clearly $\sigma=\underset{j \in J}{\oplus} \sigma_{j}$, and each $\sigma_{j}: \Gamma \rightarrow S L\left(W_{j}\right)$ is irreducible (this because $\lambda_{k, j}$ is irreducible and by Schur's lemma).

Theorem. Let $\Gamma$ be a subgroup of $\operatorname{PGL}(n, \mathbf{C})$ and assume
(i) $\Gamma$ is neither almost solvable nor almost reducible,
(ii) $\Gamma$ contains a semi-simple hyperbolic element.

Then $\Gamma$ contains free groups.
Proof. As one may consider instead of $\Gamma$ a subgroup of finite index, there is no loss of generality if we assume that the $Z$-closure of $\Gamma$ is $Z$-connected. We denote by $\tilde{\Gamma}$ the inverse image of $\Gamma$ in $S L(n, \mathbf{C})$. By (ii), there exists $k \in\{1, \ldots, n-1\}$ and a semi-simple element $\tilde{\gamma} \in \tilde{\Gamma}$ having eigenvalues $\mu_{1}, \ldots, \mu_{n}$ with $\left|\mu_{1}\right|=\ldots$ $=\left|\mu_{k}\right|>\left|\mu_{j}\right|$ for $j=k+1, \ldots, n$. Let $N=\binom{n}{k}$, and denote by $\lambda_{k}$ both the fundamental representation $G L(n, \mathbf{C}) \rightarrow G L(N, \mathbf{C})$ and the induced
homomorphism $\operatorname{PGL}(n, \mathbf{C}) \rightarrow P G L(N, \mathbf{C})$. Then $\lambda_{k}(\tilde{\gamma})$ has eigenvalues $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{N}$ with $\left|v_{1}\right|>\left|v_{j}\right|$ for $j=2, \ldots, N$. By lemma 3 , there exists a $\lambda_{k}(\tilde{\Gamma})$-irreducible subspace $W_{0}$ of $\mathbf{C}^{N}$, associated to a representation $\sigma_{0}: \tilde{\Gamma} \rightarrow G L\left(W_{0}\right)$, such that $v_{1}$ is an eigenvalue of $\sigma_{0}(\tilde{\gamma})$. As the $Z$-closure $\tilde{G}$ of $\tilde{\Gamma}$ in $S L(n, \mathbf{C})$ is semi-simple, the group $\tilde{G}$ is perfect and $\sigma_{0}(\tilde{\Gamma})$ lies in $S L\left(W_{0}\right)$. As $\left|v_{1}\right|>1$, one has $\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbf{C}} W_{0} \geqslant 2$.

Thus one may assume from the start that $\Gamma$ contains a sharp semi-simple element, and indeed by lemmas 1 and 2 two very sharp elements in general position. The conclusion follows as in case 2 of the proof of the proposition in section 4.

Now lemma 1 remains true without the hypothesis "semi-simple". This has been announced by Y. Guivarch', who uses ideas of H. Fürstenberg to show the following : given an appropriate subset $S$ of $\Gamma$ containing a sharp element, then almost any "long" word in the letters of $S$ is very sharp. Using this, one may replace (ii) in the theorem above by the following a priori weaker hypothesis
(ii') $\Gamma$ is not relatively compact.
Then, one first checks as for theorem 2 of section 4 that $\Gamma$ contains hyperbolic elements; one concludes as in the previous proof, with Guivarch's version of lemma 1.

For subgroups of $P U(n)$, one may repeat the discussion at the end of section 4 .

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ ) This shows that one point on page 50 of [D] is incorrect.

