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OPERATOR ALGEBRAS ASSOCIATED
WITH HNN-EXTENSIONS
by
Erik Bédos

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## Introduction

In $[1]$, we studied some properties of the reduced group $C^{\star}$ digebra and of the group von Neumann aigebra associated with free products of groups with amalgamation. One of the princpal tools in obtaining these results was the implicit use of the natural underlying bipolar structure of free products of groups with amalgamation. $A$ theorem of Stallings [8], in the generalized version of Lyndon-Schupp $[5, p .210]$, states that a group has a bipolar structure if and only if it is either a non-trivial free product with amalganation (possibly an ordinary free product) or an HNN-extengion. So, as conjectured to us by P. de la Harpe, it should be natural to expect that our work in [1] could be pushed to include Hewextensions.

The maln purpose of this note is to establish the following: Wheorem: Let $B=\left\langle H, t ; t^{-1} A t=B, \Phi\right\rangle$ be an HNN-extension and suppose that $H$ has an element $z$ such that:
(*) $\quad z A z^{-1} \cap A=\{1\}$ and $z \notin B$

Then $C_{r}^{*}(G)$ is simple with a unique tracial state and $U(G)$
is a $\quad$-factor which does not possess property $\Gamma$ of Murray and von Neumann.

One should note that the conclusion of the theorem does not need to hold for all HNN-extensions: for example the group $G=$ <s, $\left.t ; t^{-1} s t=s\right\rangle$ is abelian and so $C_{r}^{\star}(G)$ is certainly not simple, neither is $U(G)$ a factor. However, the conclusion of the theorem is true when $G$ is a group having a presentation with at least 3 generators and a single defining relation; this follows because,
as shown in $[5: 8 I V .5$ and $0.299-294]$, one can always view such a $G$ as an Hivuextension of a one relator group $H$ which possess an element $z$ satisfying a slightly stronger condition than (*).

In a recent work [2], de la karpe introduces the notion of a Powers group as a possibly more natural definition than the one of a group satisfying Powers property". We conclude this note by indicating how the groups considsted in this note and in [1] can be seer to be Powerg groups.

For notation not specified in the sequel, we refer to [1]. which we also refex to for fuxther references and some more inforHetion on the subject. See also [3].

We dre very much indebted to $B$. de la karpe for his suggestions and for sending us a preliminary version of [2].

## Ereliminaries

Our basic reference about hNH-extenstons is [5]. from which We quote here some derinitions and results.

Let $H$ be a group and let $A$ and $B$ be subgroups of $H$ With ©: $A \rightarrow B$ an isomoiphism. The bindextension of $H$ relative to $A, B$ and $\Phi$ is the group $G$ given by

$$
G=\left\langle H, t ; t^{-1} a t=\Phi(a), a \in A\right\rangle
$$

Which we denote by $G=\left\langle H, t: t^{-1} A t=B_{6} \Phi\right\rangle$

In the note, the letter $h(o r k)$, with or without subscripts, will denote an element of $H$. If $h$ is thought of as a word, it is a word on the generators of $H$ : that is $h$ contains no occurences of $t^{ \pm 1}$. The letter $\varepsilon$ (or $\delta$ ), with or without subscripts, will denote 1 or -1 .

A sequence $h_{0}, t^{\varepsilon}, h_{1} \ldots . t^{\varepsilon} n \cdot h_{n} \quad(n \geqslant 0)$ is said to be Feduced if there is no consecutive subsequence $t^{-1}, h_{i}, t$ with $h_{i} \in A$ or $t, h_{j}, t^{-1}$ with $h_{j} \in B$.

One way to state the Normal Form Theorem for HNN-extensions
is the following:
i.) The group $H$ is embedded in $G$ by the map $h \rightarrow h$.
ii) If $h_{0} t^{\varepsilon} \ldots t^{\varepsilon} n h_{n}=1$ in $G$ where $n \geqslant 1$, then
$h_{0}, t^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon} \ldots . t^{\varepsilon}{ }^{n}, h_{n}$ is not reduced.
It is usual to be rather sloppy in formally distinguishing between a sequence $h_{0}, t^{\varepsilon}, \ldots, t^{\varepsilon} n_{n} h_{n}$ and the product $h_{0} t^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon} \ldots$ $\ldots{ }^{\varepsilon}{ }^{n} h_{n}$. Sos, if $w$ is an element of $G$, a normal form of $w$ is any sequence $h_{0} t^{\varepsilon}, \ldots t^{\varepsilon}{ }^{n} h_{n}=w$ such that $h_{0, t}{ }^{\varepsilon}, \ldots, t^{\varepsilon}{ }^{n}, h_{n}$ is reduced.

From the Normal Form Theorem one obtains that, if $u$ and $v$ in $G$ have normal forms $u=h_{0} t^{\varepsilon} 1 \ldots t^{\varepsilon} n h_{n}$ and $v=k_{0} t^{\delta} \ldots$ $\ldots{ }^{\delta}{ }^{r_{k_{m}}}$ such that $u=v$ in $G$, then $n=m$ and $\varepsilon_{i}=\delta_{i}$, $i=1, \ldots . \mathrm{n}$. This allows to define the length of $w$, written $|w|$, for each element $w$ of $G$, as the number of occurences of $t^{ \pm 1}$ in any normal form of $w$. If $w \in H$, then $|w|=0$.

At last, if $u$ and $v$ in $G$ have normal forms $u=$ $h_{0} t^{\varepsilon^{\varepsilon}} \ldots t^{\varepsilon} n h_{n}$ and $v=k_{0} t^{\delta} \ldots t^{\delta} m_{k_{m}}$, one says that there is cancellation in forming the product uv if either $\varepsilon_{n}=-1$, $h_{n} k_{0} \in A$, and $\delta_{1}=1$, or if $\varepsilon_{n}=1, h_{n} k_{0} \in B_{0}$ and $\delta_{1}=-1$.

## Proof of the theorem

Let $G=\left\langle H, t: t^{-1} A t=B, \Phi\right\rangle$ and suppose that $H$ has an slement such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
z A z^{-1} \cap A=\{1\} \quad \text { and } \quad z \notin B \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observe first that ( $($ ) implies that $z \notin A$. Indeed, if $z \in A$, ther $z A z^{-1} \cap A=\{1\}$ implies that $A=\{1\}$, so $z=1$ which is rot compatible with $z \& B$.

We now define $E \subseteq G$ by

$$
\begin{gathered}
E=\{g \in G-A\} \text { if } g \text { has a normal Eorm } g=h_{0} t^{\varepsilon} 1 \ldots t^{\varepsilon} n_{h}, \ldots \text {, } \\
\text { then } \left.h_{0} \in H-A \text {, or } h_{0} \in A \text { and } \varepsilon_{1}=-1\right\} \text {, }
\end{gathered}
$$

and further, for $\ell=1,2, \ldots$, we define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& c_{\ell} \in G \text { and } Z_{\ell} \subseteq G \text { by } \\
& c_{\ell}=t(t z)^{-\ell}=t\left(z^{-1} t^{-1}\right) \ldots\left(z^{-1} t^{-1}\right) \text { and } \\
& z_{\ell}=\left\{g \in G \mid c_{\ell} g \in E\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We are going to show that the $Z_{\ell}$ 's are pairwise disjoint subsets of $G$ and that the following is true:

For every finite subset $F$ of $G-\{1\}$ and for every natural number $N \geqslant 1$ one has that $b_{\ell} f b_{\ell}^{-1} y \in z_{\ell}$, for all $f \in F, Y \in G-Z_{\ell}, \ell \in\{1, \ldots, N\}$, where, for $j=\underset{f \in E}{ }+\underset{f \in \max }{ } \mid$, we have defined $b_{l}$ as
$b_{\ell}=(t z)^{\ell} t^{-1}(z t)^{j}, \ell=1,2, \ldots, N$.

This will show that $G$ possess Powers property ([1],[3]) which in turn will show the first assertion of the theorem.

Lemma 1: The Z 's are pairwise disjoint.

Proof: Suppose $\ell, \ell^{\prime} \in N, \ell^{\prime}=\ell+n$ where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $y \in Z_{\ell}$. Then $c_{\ell}, y=t(t z)^{-\ell} y=t(t z)^{-n} t^{-1} t(t z)^{-\ell} y=t(t z)^{-n} t^{-1} c_{\ell} y$.

Since $y \in z_{\ell}$, i.e. $c_{\ell} y \in E$ there can be no cancellation in forming the product of $t(t z)^{-n} t^{-1}$ and $c_{\ell} y$, so $c_{\ell}, y$ has a normal form $c_{\ell}, y=t h_{1} \ldots t^{\varepsilon} m_{h_{m}}$, i.e. $c_{\ell}, y \notin E$, i.e. $y \notin z_{\ell}$, .

To ease our exposition we make the following definition:
Let $w \in G$. If $w$ has a normal form of the following type:
(1) $z t h_{1} \cdots h_{n-1} t^{-1} z^{-1}, n \geqslant 2$.
(resp. (2) $(z t)^{p}=z t z t \ldots z t$ for a $p \in \mathbb{N}$ ),
(resp. (3) $(z t)^{-p}=t^{-1} z^{-1} t^{-1} z^{-1} \ldots t^{-1} z^{-1}$ for a $p \in \mathbb{N}$ ),
(resp. (4) $(z t)^{P_{h}}=z t \ldots z t h \quad$ for $a \quad p \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\left.a \quad h \in H-A\right)$,
(resp. (5) $h(z t)^{-p}=h t^{-1} z^{-1} \ldots t^{-1} z^{-1}$ for $a \quad p \in \mathbb{N}$ and a $h \in H-A)$,
(resp. (6) $h$, where $h \in H-A$ ),
then we say that
$w$ is of type 1. (resp. type 2), (resp. type 3),
(resp. type 4), (resp. type 5), (resp. type 6).

Lemma 2: Let $w \in G$. If $w$ is of one of the types 1-6, then $w(z t)^{-1}$ (resp. ( $\left.z t\right) w$ ) is of one of the types $1-6$ unless $w=z t$ (resp. $w=(z t)^{-1}$ ).

Proof: If $w$ is of type 1 (resp. type 3 ), (resp. type 5), then $w(z t)^{-1}$, then $w$ is clearly of type 1 (resp. type 3 ), (resp. type 5).

If $w$ is of type 6, then $w(z t)^{-1}$ is of type 5 .
If $w$ is of type 4, i.e. $w=(z t)^{p_{h}}=(z t) \ldots(z t) h$ for a $p \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a h \in H-A$, then

$$
w(z t)^{-1}=(z t) \ldots(z t) h t^{-1} z^{-1}
$$

If $h \in H-B$, then $w(z t)^{-1}$ is of type 1 .
otherwise if $h \in B-\{1\}$, let $\tilde{h}=\Phi^{-1}(h)=t h t^{-1} \in A-\{1\}$. Then (*) implies that $z \tilde{h} z^{-1} \in H-A$, which gives that $w(z t)^{-1}$ is of type 6 if $p=1$ or of type 4 otherwise.

If $w$ is of type 2 , then $w(z t)^{-1}$ is of type 2 unless $w=z t$. We can proceed in the same way for ( zt ) w.

Lemma 3: Let $r=z t \in G$. For $m \in \mathbb{N} \cup\{0\}$, let $P(m)$ be the Eollowing assertion: for all $g \in G-\{1\}$, such that $|g|=m$, one has that $r^{m+1} g r^{-(m+1)}$ is of one of the types $1-6$. Then $P(m)$ is true for all $m \in \mathbb{N} U\{0\}$.

## Proof:

i) Let $9 \in H-\{1\}$. Then $\mathrm{rgr}^{-1}=\operatorname{ztgt}^{-1} \mathrm{z}^{-1}$ is of type 1 if $g \in H-B$. If $g \in B$, then set $\tilde{g}=\Phi^{-1}(g)=\operatorname{tgt}^{-1} \in A-\{1\}$; (*) implies tha $\tilde{t} \mathrm{zgz}^{-1} \in \mathrm{H}-\mathrm{A}$, which gives that $\mathrm{rgr}^{-1}$ is of type 6. Thus $P(0)$ is true.
ii) Suppose $g \in G-\{i\}$ has a normal form $g=k_{0} t k_{1}$, so

$$
x^{2} g r^{-2}=z t z t k_{0} t k_{1} t^{-1} z^{-1} t^{-1} z^{-1}
$$

If $k, H-B$, then $r^{2} \mathrm{gr}^{-2}$ is clearly of type 1.
Suppose so that $k_{1} \in B$ and set $\tilde{k}_{1}=\Phi^{-1}\left(K_{1}\right)=t k_{1} t^{-1} \in A$.
Define then $g^{\prime}=k_{0} t k_{1} t^{-1} z^{-1}=k_{0} \tilde{k}_{1} z^{-1} \in H$.
If $g^{\prime}=1$ then $r^{2} g r^{-2}=z t$, i.e. of type 2 , else as in i). we obtain that $z t g^{\prime-1} z^{-1}$ is of type 1 or of type 6 which gives that $r^{2} \mathrm{gr}^{-2}=\mathrm{ztzt} \mathrm{g}^{\prime} \mathrm{t}^{-1} \mathrm{z}^{-1}$ is of type 1 or of type 4 , If we suppose so that $g \in G-\{1\}$ has a normal form $g=$ $k_{0} t^{-1} k_{1}$, we can proceed in the same way and obtain that $r^{2} \mathrm{gr}^{-2}$ is either of type 1 , type 3 of type 5.

Thus $P(1)$ is true.
iiii) Suppose $P(m)$ is true for $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $g \in G-\{1\}$, $|g|=m+1$, have a normal form $g=k_{0} t^{\varepsilon} l_{k_{1}} \ldots k_{m}^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon+1}{ }_{k_{m+1}}$. We consider
$r^{m+2} g x^{-(m+2)}=x^{m} \frac{g}{z_{z} t k_{0} t^{\varepsilon} \hat{k}_{1} \cdots k^{\prime}{ }^{\varepsilon}{ }^{\varepsilon+1} k_{m+1} t^{-1} z^{-1} t^{-1} z^{-1} r^{-m} .}$
If there is no cancellation in forming the product (zt)g and in forming the product $g\left(v^{-1} z^{-1}\right)$, then $r^{m+2} \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{r}^{-(\mathrm{m}+2)}$ is clearly of type 1.

- If there is cancellation in forming $(z t) g$, that is we have $\varepsilon_{1}=-1$ and $k_{0} \in B$, then set $\tilde{k}_{0}=\Phi^{-1}\left(k_{0}\right)=t k_{0} t^{-1} \in A$ and detine $k^{\prime}=z t k_{0} t^{-1} k_{1}=z \tilde{k}_{0} k_{1} \in \mathrm{H}$. Furthermore, define $g^{\prime}=k^{\prime \prime} t^{\varepsilon}{ }^{2} \ldots t^{\varepsilon}{ }^{m+1} k_{m+1}=(z t) g \in G$, so $\left|g^{\prime}\right|=m$ and $g^{\prime} \neq 1$. Now we can use that $P(m)$ is supposed to be true to obtain that $r^{m+1} g^{n} x^{-(m+1)}$ is of one of the types $1-6$. Since $|g| \geqslant 2$ and $r^{m+2} g r^{-(m+2)}=\left(r^{m+1} g^{\prime} r^{-(m+1)}\right)(z t)^{-1}$, it follows from Lemma 2 that $r^{m+2} g r^{-(m+2)}$ is of one of the types 1-6.
- If there is cancellation in forming $g\left(t^{-1} z^{-1}\right)$, we can define $g^{\prime \prime}=g\left(t^{-1} z^{-1}\right)$ and proceed in the same way.

Thus we have show that $P(m+1)$ is true and the proof of the lemma is achieved by induction.

Lemma 4: Let $F$ be a finite subset of $G-\{1\}$ and let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& j=1+\max |f| \text {. Then }(z t)^{j} f(z t)^{-j} \text { is of one of the types } 1-6 \text {. } \\
& \text { for all } f \in F .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof: If $f=(z t)^{p}$ (resp. $\left.f=(z t)^{-p}\right) \in F$ for a $p \in \mathbb{N}$, then $(z t)^{j} f(z t)^{-j}$ is obviously of type 2 (resp. type 3). Otherwise, the result follows easily from Lemma 3 and repeated use of Lemma 2 .


























Let now $g \in \mathbb{E}_{0}$ so $g$ hav a normal form $g=h_{0} t^{\varepsilon}{ }_{1} \ldots t^{\varepsilon} n_{h_{n}}$ where $h_{0} \in H-A_{0}$ or $h_{0} \in A$ and $\varepsilon_{1}=-1$.
We want to show that

$$
\alpha g \alpha^{-1}, \beta g \beta^{-1}, \beta^{-1} \alpha g \alpha^{-1} \beta \notin \mathrm{E}
$$

which will imply that

$$
\left(\alpha E \alpha^{-1}\right) \cap E=\phi_{s} \quad\left(\beta E \beta^{-1}\right) \cap E=\phi \quad \text { and } \quad\left(\alpha E \alpha \alpha^{-1}\right) \cap\left(\beta E \beta^{-1}\right)=\varnothing .
$$

i.e. ii) is true.

The clue here is to observe chat, sace $a, \beta$ and $\beta^{-1} \alpha=$ $\left(t t^{-1} z^{-1} t^{-1}\right)\left(t z t^{-1}\right)=t t^{-1} t^{-1}$ wal three "end" with $t^{-1}$, there can be no cancellation in foming ay $\beta \mathrm{g}$ or ( $\beta^{-1}$ a) g. Furthermore, the cancellations that may ovent in ago-1, $\beta g^{-1}$ or $\beta^{-1} \operatorname{cog}^{-1} \beta$ will alwaye stop besome "etiting up" the whole thing. Since $a_{s} \beta$ and $\beta^{-1} a$ all three "pegin" with $t$, so will $\alpha g^{-1}$, $\beta g \beta^{-1}$ and $\beta^{-1} \alpha g \alpha^{-1} \beta$ and we are done.
As a sample, we show that $\beta \operatorname{cin}^{-1}$ \& $E$
If $g=h_{0} \in H-A_{0}$, then $\beta g^{-1}$ has a nomal form $\beta g \beta^{-1}=$ $\operatorname{tatz} z^{-1} t^{-1} h_{0} t z t^{-1} z^{-1} z^{-1}$ s so $\beta g \beta^{-1} q E_{\text {. }}$
Suppose $|g|=n \geqslant 1$.
We have that

$$
\beta g \beta^{-1}=t z t z^{-1} t^{-1} h_{0} t^{\varepsilon} h_{1} \ldots h_{n-1} t^{\varepsilon} h_{n}+z t^{-1} z^{-1} t^{-1}
$$

As pointed out above, eince $h_{0} \in H-A_{0}$ or $h_{0} \in A$ and $\varepsilon_{1}=-1$, there can be no cancellation in foming $\beta g$.
If there is no cancellation in foming $\beta^{-1}$ either, then clearly $\beta g \beta^{-1} \in \mathrm{E}$.

Otherwise, we must have that $\varepsilon_{n}=-1$ and $h_{n} \in A_{\text {, }}$ so let
$k_{n}^{\prime}=\phi\left(h_{n}\right)=t^{-i} h_{n} t$ and $h_{n}^{\prime}=h_{n=1} k_{n}^{\prime} z_{0}$
[Before going further it may be helptul to have the following picture in mind:

$n=2$


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$\operatorname{fg}^{-1}=\operatorname{tat}^{-1} t^{-1} \ln ^{4} t^{-1} z^{-1} t^{-1}=$
Suppose now $n \geqslant 2$.

then
pg ${ }^{-1}$ hes a normal wom

 $\operatorname{th}_{n-1}^{0} t^{-1}$ and $h_{n-1}^{0}=h_{n-2} n_{n-1}^{2} e^{-1}$

If $n=2$ then $\beta \beta^{-1}$ has 2 notmen tognt $\beta \beta^{-1}=\operatorname{tat}^{-1} t^{-1} h_{0}^{\prime} t^{-1}$.
Suppose at last $n \geqslant 3$.
If there is no canceilation in Eaming $t^{E} \operatorname{man}_{n-2} \tan ^{-1}$ then Bga-1 has a normal form

$$
\beta g^{-1}=\operatorname{tat}^{-1} t^{-1} h_{0^{2}}{ }^{5}
$$

Otherwise we must have $\varepsilon_{n-2}=1$ and $h_{n-2}^{\prime} \in B$, so let $k_{n-2}^{\prime}=\phi^{-1}\left(h_{n-2}^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{th}_{n-2}^{\prime} t^{-1}$ and $h_{n-3}^{\prime}=h_{n-3} k_{n-2}^{\prime}$. Then $\beta g \beta^{-1}$ has a normal form

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \beta \mathrm{g} \beta^{-1}=t z t z^{-1} t^{-1} h_{0}^{\prime} \text { if } n=3 \text { or } \\
& \beta g \beta^{-1}=t z t z^{-1} t^{-1} h_{0} t^{\varepsilon} \ldots t^{\varepsilon} n-3 h_{n-3}^{\prime} \text { if } n>3 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus in all the possible cases that may occur, we see that $\beta g \beta^{-1} \notin \mathrm{E}$.
[The corresponding pictures for $\alpha g^{-1}$ and $\beta^{-1} \alpha \mathcal{g}^{-1} \beta$ are as follows:

For $\alpha \alpha^{-1}$ :
$\underline{n=1} \quad t z t^{-1}, \stackrel{h_{0}{ }^{\varepsilon} I_{h_{1}}}{ } t z^{-1} t^{-1}$

$\underline{n=1} \quad t z t^{-1} t^{-1} \sqrt{h_{0}{ }^{\varepsilon} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{h}}} \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{tz}} \mathrm{B}^{-1} \mathrm{t}^{-1}$
$\underline{n=2} \quad t z t^{-1} t^{-1} \overbrace{h^{t},{ }^{\varepsilon} h_{1} t^{\varepsilon} h^{2} h_{2}} t t z^{-1}, t^{-1}$

(End of the proof of the theorem)

## Remarks:

1) We are also able to prove that the coonclusion of the theorem is true if we replace (*) by

$$
\left(*^{\prime}\right)\left(\mathrm{zAz}^{-1}\right) \cap B=\{1\}, \mathrm{z} \notin \mathrm{~A} \text { and } \mathrm{z} \notin \mathrm{~B} .
$$

Since the proof follows roughly the same lines as in the above, we just mention the following: Given a finite subset $F$ of $G-\{1\}$, then one can show that $(z t)^{j} g(z t)^{-j}$ has a normal form of one of the types $z t \ldots t^{-1} z^{-1},(z t)^{p}=z t \ldots z t$ or $(z t)^{-p}=t^{-1} z^{-1} \cdots t^{-1} z^{-1} \quad$ where $j=2+\max _{f \in F}|f|$; one then defines $E, c_{\ell}, Z_{\ell}$ and $b_{l}$ as before (with $j=2+\max |f|$ ); for the last part one defines $\alpha$ and $\beta$ as before and one shows that $G-\{1\}=E \cup\left((z t z)^{-1} E(z t z)\right)$.
2) A consequence of the theorem is that, invoquing [7, Prop.1.6], any group which may be described as in the theorem contains no non-trivial amenable normal subgroup. This generalizes a result of Karrass and Solitar in [4] where they show that a group having a presentation with at least 3 generators and a single defining relation, contains no non-trivial abelian normal subgroup.
3) A group $G$ is called a Powers group in [2] if it satisfies the following property:

Given a finite subset $F \subset G-\{1\}$ and $N \in \mathbb{N}$, there exist a partition $G=Y \not \perp Z$ and elements $b_{1}, \ldots, b_{N}$ in $G$ such that
a) $f Y \cap Y=\emptyset$ for all $f \in F$
b) $\mathrm{b}_{\mathrm{K}} \mathrm{Z} \cap \mathrm{b}_{\ell} \mathrm{z}=\varnothing$ for all $\mathrm{k}, \ell=1, \ldots, \mathrm{~N}$ with $\mathrm{k} \neq \ell$.

Clearly a Powers group is a group possessing Powers property (back to old notation with $z_{\ell}=b_{\ell} Z$ ).

Let now $G$ be a group given as in the theorem. We indicate how $G$ can be seen to be a Powers group. With the same notation as in the proof of the theorem, given a finite subset $F \subset$ $G-\{1\}$ one defines $Z=\left\{g \in G \mid(z t){ }^{j} g \in E\right\} \quad$ where $j=1+\max _{f \in F}|f|$,

$$
Y=G-Z \text { and } b_{\ell}=(t z)^{\ell} t^{-1}(z t)^{j} \text { for } \ell=1,2, \ldots
$$

Then a) follows easily from Lemma 4.
Further, if $\ell=k+n$, where $\ell, k, n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $b_{k}^{-1} b_{\ell}=$ $(z t)^{-j} t(t z)^{n} t^{-1}(z t)^{j}$, and thus $(z t)^{j} b_{k}^{-1} b_{l} g=t(t z)^{n} t^{-1}(z t)^{j}{ }_{g}$, $g \in G . S o$, if $g \in Z$, i.e. $(z t)^{j} g \in E$, there is no cancellation in forming the product $t^{-1}\left((z t)^{j} g\right)$. This gives that $(z t)^{j}\left(b_{k}^{-1} b_{\ell} g\right) \notin E$, i.e. $b_{k}^{-1} b_{\ell} g \notin Z$, and $\left.b\right)$ follows.
4) If $G=\underset{A}{H \star} K$ is an amalgam possessing a blocking pair for $A$ in one of the factors of $G$, we can also show, using a result of [1], that $G$ is a Powers group.

Suppose $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}$ is a blocking pair for $A$ in $K$ and $\alpha \in H-A$. Set $r=\alpha x_{1}$ and $s=\alpha x_{2}$. Given a finite subset $F \subset G-\{1\}$, define $Z=\left\{g \in G \mid s^{j} g\right.$ has a normal form which begins with an element of $H-A\}$ where $j=1+\max |f|, Y=G-Z$ and $b_{\ell}=r^{\ell} s^{2} r^{j}, \ell=1,2, \ldots$.

Then a) follows now from [1, Lemma 2] without difficulty. Further, if $\ell=k+n$, where $\ell, k, n \in N$, then $b_{k}^{-1} b_{\ell} g=$ $\left(x_{2}^{-1} x_{j}\right) \alpha r^{n-1} s r^{j} g, g \in G$. So, if $g \in Z, i . e . g$ has $a$ normal form $g=g_{1} \ldots g_{m}$ where $g_{1} \in H-A$, we see that $\operatorname{sr}^{j}\left(\mathrm{~b}_{\mathrm{k}}^{-1} \mathrm{~b}_{\ell} g\right)$ has a normal form which begins with $\mathrm{x}_{2}^{-1} \in \mathrm{~K}-\mathrm{A}$ (since $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}$ is a blocking pair for $A$ in $K$ ), so $b_{k}^{-1} b_{\ell} g \not G Z$ and b) follows.
5) Using a more geometrical approach, P. de la Harpe has obtained in [2] some results which are nearly related to those obtained in this note. He also gives other examples of Powers groups.

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