# $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ AS AN IMAGE OF THE EXTENDED MODULAR GROUP WITH APPLICATIONS TO GROUP ACTIONS ON SURFACES 

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## 1. Introduction

The modular group $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z})$, which is isomorphic to a free product of a cyclic group of order 2 and a cyclic group of order 3, has many important homomorphic images. In particular, Macbeath [7] showed that $P S L(2, q)$ is an image of the modular group if $q \neq 9$. (Here, as usual, $q$ is a prime power.) The extended modular group $P G L(2, \mathbb{Z})$ contains $\operatorname{PSL}(2, \mathbb{Z})$ with index 2 . It has a presentation

$$
\left\langle U, V, W \mid U^{2}=V^{2}=W^{2}=(U V)^{2}=(V W)^{3}=I\right\rangle,
$$

the subgroup $P S L(2, \mathbb{Z})$ being generated by $U V$ and $V W$.
A simple group which is an image of $P G L(2, \mathbb{Z})$ is also an image of $P S L(2, \mathbb{Z})$. For many reasons connected with $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ actions on surfaces (which we discuss in Section 4) it is important to know when $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ is also an image of $\operatorname{PGL}(2, \mathbb{Z})$. We will prove

Theorem 1. $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ is a homomorphic image of the extended modular group for all $q$ except for $q=7,11$ and $3^{n}$, where $n=2$ or $n$ is odd.

The case where $q$ is a prime $\equiv 1 \bmod 4$ or $q=2^{m}$ were proved in [5] and [3]. Some other cases appear in [4].

## 2. Antipodal generating sets

Theorem 1 follows from a result, given in Theorem 2, which applies to a wider class of groups, namely groups with two generators $A, B$ with $A^{2}=I$ (i.e. images of Hecke groups). We call $\{A, B\}$ an antipodal generating set if there exists $Z \in G=g p\langle A, B\rangle$ such that

$$
Z^{2}=(A Z)^{2}=(B Z)^{2}=I
$$

[^0](The motivation for this terminology appears in Section 4.)
It is useful to note the following:
Lemma A. Let $B$ have order 3 so that $G$ is an image of the modular group. If $\{A, B\}$ is an antipodal generating set then $G$ is an image of the extended modular group.

Proof. If $\{A, B\}$ is an antipodal generating set then $G$ is generated by $A, B, Z$ obeying

$$
A^{2}=B^{3}=Z^{2}=(A Z)^{2}=(B Z)^{2}=I
$$

so that $U \rightarrow A Z, V \rightarrow Z, W \rightarrow B Z$ extends to a homomorphism from $\operatorname{PGL}(2, \mathbb{Z})$ onto $G$.

Now suppose that $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ is generated by $A, B$ with $A^{2}=I$. Then by conjugating we may assume that

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

(representing the elements of $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ by matrices in the usual way).
Let

$$
B=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x & y \\
z & w
\end{array}\right), x w-y z=1 \text { so that } A B=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
z & w \\
-x & -y
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Write $z+w=\beta, z-y=\gamma$. Then following Macbeath [7] we associate to the pair $\{A, B\}$ the quadratic form

$$
Q(\xi, \eta, \zeta)=\xi^{2}+\eta^{2}+\zeta^{2}+\beta \xi \eta+\gamma \xi \zeta .
$$

(More generally there is a term in $\eta \zeta$ whose coefficient is the trace of $A$.)
If $q$ is not a power of 2 then the discriminant of this form is

$$
\Delta=\Delta(A, B)=\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & \beta / 2 & \gamma / 2 \\
\beta / 2 & 1 & 0 \\
\gamma / 2 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right|=1-\beta^{2} / 4-\gamma^{2} / 4 .
$$

We then have:
Theorem 2. Let $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q),\left(q \neq 2^{n}\right)$, be generated by $A, B$ as above. Then $\{A, B\}$ is an antipodal generating set if and only if $\Delta$ is a square in $G F(q)$.

Proof. We suppose first that $\{A, B\}$ is an antipodal generating set. Then there exists $Z \in \operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ with

$$
Z^{2}=(A Z)^{2}=(B Z)^{2}=I .
$$

An element of $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ of order 2 has zero trace so that trace $Z=\operatorname{trace} A Z=\operatorname{trace} B Z=0$. From trace $Z=$ trace $A Z=0$ we get

$$
Z=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
a & b \\
b & -a
\end{array}\right), \quad a^{2}+b^{2}=-1
$$

and trace $B Z=0$ gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(x-w)+b(y+z)=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus $b^{2}(y+z)^{2}=\left(-1-b^{2}\right)(x-w)^{2}$ and hence $b^{2}\left((y+z)^{2}+(x-w)^{2}\right)=-(x-w)^{2}$.
Using $x w-y z=1$ we obtain

$$
b^{2}\left((w+x)^{2}+(y-z)^{2}-4\right)=-(x-w)^{2}
$$

so that

$$
b^{2}\left(\beta^{2}+\gamma^{2}-4\right)=-(w-x)^{2}
$$

and thus

$$
4 b^{2} \Delta=(w-x)^{2}
$$

Therefore if $b \neq 0, \Delta$ is a square in $G F(q)$.
If $b=0$ then $a^{2}=-1$ so that -1 is a square. From (2), $x=w$ which gives

$$
\Delta=1-x^{2}-\frac{(z-y)^{2}}{4}=-\frac{1}{4}(y+z)^{2}
$$

and as -1 is a square, $\Delta$ is a square.
For the converse we suppose that $\Delta$ is a square in $G F(q)$. As $A$ and $B$ generate $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ it follows by Theorem 2 of [7] that $\Delta \neq 0$. To prove the existence of a matrix $Z$ with $Z^{2}=(A Z)^{2}=(B Z)^{2}=I$ we need to find $a, b \in G F(q)$ such that $a^{2}+b^{2}=-1$ and (1) holds.

We assume first that $x \neq w$. Then we can find $a_{1}, b_{1} \in G F(q)$ such that

$$
a_{1}(x-w)+b_{1}(y+z)=0, \quad\left(b_{1} \neq 0\right)
$$

Then

$$
\frac{a_{1}^{2}+b_{1}^{2}}{b_{1}^{2}}=\frac{(x-w)^{2}+(y+z)^{2}}{(x-w)^{2}}=\frac{-4 \Delta}{(x-w)^{2}}
$$

so that $d=-\left(a_{1}^{2}+b_{1}^{2}\right)$ is a non-zero square.

Let $a=a_{1} / \sqrt{ } d, b=b_{1} / \sqrt{ } d$, then

$$
a^{2}+b^{2}=-1, \quad a(x-w)+b(y+z)=0
$$

as required.
If $x=w$ then

$$
\Delta=\frac{-(y+z)^{2}}{4}
$$

and as $\Delta$ is a square, -1 is also a square. Then

$$
Z=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
a & 0 \\
0 & -a
\end{array}\right) \in \operatorname{PSL}(2, q)
$$

and obeys $Z^{2}=(A Z)^{2}=(B Z)^{2}=1$. Thus in both cases $\{A, B\}$ is an antipodal generating set.

We have a corresponding result for $p=2$. We now use the quadratic form directly.
Theorem 3. Let $\operatorname{PSL}\left(2,2^{n}\right)$ be generated by $\{A, B\}$ with $A^{2}=I$. Then $\{A, B\}$ is an antipodal generating set.

Proof. By [7] Theorem 2, the quadratic form

$$
Q(\xi, \eta, \zeta)=\xi^{2}+\eta^{2}+\zeta^{2}+\beta \zeta \eta+\gamma \xi \gamma
$$

is non-singular. Now the form is singular if and only if there is a factorization

$$
Q(\xi, \eta, \zeta)=(\xi+v \eta+u \zeta)\left(\xi+v^{-1} \eta+u^{-1} \zeta\right)
$$

where if necessary $u, v$ lie in the quadratic extension of $G F\left(2^{n}\right)$.
If $\beta=\gamma$ then such a factorization is possible

$$
\xi^{2}+\eta^{2}+\zeta^{2}+\beta \xi \eta+\beta \xi \gamma=(\xi+u \eta+u \zeta)\left(\xi+u^{-1} \eta+u^{-1} \zeta\right)
$$

where $u+u^{-1}=\beta$, so that for a non-singular form with coefficients in $G F\left(2^{n}\right), \beta \neq \gamma$ and hence $x-w \neq y+z$. We can now find $a_{1}, b_{1} \in G F\left(2^{n}\right)$ satisfying

$$
a_{1}(x-w)+b_{1}(y+z)=0, \quad a_{1} \neq b_{1} .
$$

As $a_{1}^{2}+b_{1}^{2}=d$ is a non-zero square (as all elements of $G F\left(2^{n}\right)$ are squares) we let $a=$ $a_{1} / \sqrt{ } d, b=b_{1} / \sqrt{ } d$. Then

$$
a(x-w)+b(y+z)=0, \quad a^{2}+b^{2}=-1
$$

which, as we have seen, shows that $\{A, B\}$ is an antipodal generating set.

## 3. The proof of Theorem 1

Our deduction depends heavily on the results of Macbeath's paper [7]. The question answered there was to find the subgroup generated by two non-identity elements $A$, $B \in \operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ and in particular to see when $A, B$ generate the whole group. Because of our interests we shall assume that $A$ has order 2 and $B$ has order 3 (so that trace $A=0$ and trace $B= \pm 1$ ). In Theorem 6 of [7] it is shown that if $q \neq 9$ then such a generating pair exists. In the case when $q$ is a power of 2 , Theorem 1 now follows from Theorem 3 and Lemma A. From now on we will assume that $q$ is not a power of 2 so we can consider the discriminant $\Delta(A, B)=\frac{1}{4}\left(3-\gamma^{2}\right)$.

In [7] it is shown that either
(i) $A B$ has order $2,3,4$, or 5 ; or
(ii) $\Delta(A, B)=0$; or
(iii) $A, B$ generate a projective subgroup of $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$.
(i) and (ii) correspond to the exceptional and singular cases of Macbeath's classification and in (iii) the projective subgroup is isomorphic to either $\operatorname{PSL}\left(2, q_{1}\right)$ or $P G L\left(2, q_{2}\right)$ where $q_{1}$ and $q_{2}$ divide $q$.

We need to know when $A, B$ generate the whole of $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$. This occurs if $\gamma=$ trace $A B$ does not belong to a proper subfield of $G F(q)$ and if $\gamma^{2}$ is not a non-square in $G F(\sqrt{ } q)$. This final condition only makes sense, of course, if $q$ is a square. It is included because if $\gamma$ does not belong to a proper subfield of $G F(q)$ but $\gamma^{2}$ is a non-square in $G F(q)$ then $A, B$ may generate a subgroup isomorphic to $P G L(2, \sqrt{q})$.

Now (i) and (ii) can be formulated in terms of the trace $\gamma$. For $A B$ has order 2, 3, 4 or 5 if and only if $\gamma^{2}=0,1,2$ or $\gamma^{2} \pm \gamma-1=0$ respectively and $\Delta(A, B)=0$ if and only if $\gamma^{2}=3$.

Let us call an element $\gamma \in G F(q)$ admissible if
(a) $\gamma^{2} \neq 0,1,2,3$ or $\gamma^{2} \pm \gamma-1 \neq 0$,
(b) $\gamma$ does not belong to a proper subfield of $G F(q)$,
(c) $\gamma^{2}$ is not a non-square in $G F(\sqrt{ } q)$.

Given an admissible $\gamma \in G F(q)$ we know by Theorem 1 of [7] that there exist $A, B \in \operatorname{PGL}(2, q)$ with $A^{2}=B^{3}=I$ and trace $A B=\gamma$ and then $A, B$ generate $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$. Furthermore, by Theorem $2,\{A, B\}$ is an antipodal generating set if and only if $4 \Delta(A, B)=3-\gamma^{2}$ is a square in $G F(q)$. By Lemma A we deduce

Lemma B. $P S L(2, q)$ is an image of the extended modular group if there exists $A, B \in P S L(2, q)$ with $A^{2}=B^{3}=I, \gamma=$ trace $A B$ is admissible and $3-\gamma^{2}$ is a square where $\gamma=$ trace $A B$.

Corollary ([5]). If $p \equiv 1 \bmod 4$ is prime then $\operatorname{PSL}(2, p)$ is an image of the extended modular group.

Proof. By reduction $\bmod p$ of the "standard" generators of $P S L(2, \mathbb{Z})$ we know that

$$
A=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
0 & 1 \\
-1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad B=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
0 & -1 \\
1 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

generate $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ with $A^{2}=B^{3}=I$. As $\gamma=\operatorname{trace} A B=2,3-\gamma^{2}=-1$ which is a square in $G F(p)$ as $p \equiv 1 \bmod 4$. Also 2 is admissible in $G F(p)($ for $p \equiv 1 \bmod 4)$ except when $p=5$; but in this case $A^{2}=B^{3}=(A B)^{5}=I$ so that $A, B$ generate $\operatorname{PSL}(2,5) \cong A_{5}$. The result follows from Lemma B.

We now prove Theorem 1. We have already considered the case $p=2$ and we shall deal with $p=3$ later, so we assume that $q=p^{n}, p>3$. Now $3-\gamma^{2}$ is a square if and only if there exists $\mu \in G F(q)$ such that $\gamma^{2}+\mu^{2}=3$. Let $C$ denote the conic $x^{2}+y^{2}=3$ defined over $G F(q)$. By Dickson ( $[2], \S 64$ ) we find that $C$ has $s$ points on it where

$$
s= \begin{cases}q+1 & \text { if }-1 \text { is not a square in } G F(q) \\ q-1 & \text { if }-1 \text { is a square in } G F(q) .\end{cases}
$$

Now if 3 is not a square in $G F(q)$ then for each $\gamma$ such that $3-\gamma^{2}$ is a square there are two values of $\mu$ such that $(\gamma, \mu) \in C$. If 3 is a square then $(\sqrt{3}, 0),(-\sqrt{3}, 0) \in G F(q)$ and then for every value of $\gamma \neq \pm \sqrt{3}$ such that $3-\gamma^{2}$ is a square there are two values of $\mu$ such that $(\gamma, \mu) \in C$. Thus we find that the number of $\gamma \in G F(q)$ such that $3-\gamma^{2}$ is a square is

$$
t= \begin{cases}s / 2 & \text { if } 3 \text { is not a square in } G F(q) \\ 1+(s / 2) & \text { if } 3 \text { is a square in } G F(q)\end{cases}
$$

We thus obtain
Lemma C. The number of values of $\gamma \in G F(q)$ such that $3-\gamma^{2}$ is a square is

$$
\begin{cases}(q+1) / 2 & \text { if }-3 \text { is a square } \\ (q+3) / 2 & \text { if }-1 \text { is a non-square, } 3 \text { is a square } \\ (q-1) / 2 & \text { if }-1 \text { is a square, } 3 \text { is a non-square. }\end{cases}
$$

At any rate, the number of values of $\gamma$ such that $3-\gamma^{2}$ is a square is not less than $(q-1) / 2=\left(p^{n}-1\right) / 2$.

Now the number of values of $\gamma$ not obeying (a) is at most 11 , the number of values of $\gamma$ not obeying (b) is $p^{n-1}$ and the number of values of $\gamma$ not obeying (c) is $\varepsilon p^{n / 2}$ where $\varepsilon=1$ if $n$ is even and $\varepsilon=0$ if $n$ is odd. Thus the number of non-admissible $\gamma \in G F(q)$ is at most

$$
p^{n-1}+\varepsilon p^{n / 2}+11
$$

Hence by Lemmas B and C it follows that if

$$
\frac{p^{n}-1}{2}>p^{n-1}+\varepsilon p^{n / 2}+11
$$

then $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ is an image of the extended modular group. This is true for all values of $p^{n}>25$ except for 49 . As we are assuming that $p \neq 2$ or 3 and as we have dealt with the case when $q=p \equiv 1 \bmod 4$ in the corollary to Lemma $\mathbf{B}$ we need only consider the cases where $p^{n}=49,25,23$ or 19 . We do this in the table where, in each case, we list a point $(\gamma, \mu) \in C$, where $\gamma$ is admissible.

| $q$ | $(\gamma, \mu)$ |
| :---: | :--- |
| 49 | $(2-2 \sqrt{ } 5,3-\sqrt{ } 5)$ |
| 25 | $(1+2 \sqrt{2},-1+2 \sqrt{ } 2)$ |
| 23 | $(13,15)$ |
| 19 | $(6,9)$ |

We now deal with $q=3^{n}$. As $\operatorname{PSL}(2,3) \cong A_{4}$, all its involutions lie in the subgroup of order 4 so it is not an image of the extended modular group; nor is $\operatorname{PSL}(2,9)$, as it is not an image of the modular group ([7], Theorem 6) and it is simple. Thus we can assume that $n>2$. Then, as above, we see that there are many admissible $\gamma$ in $G F\left(3^{n}\right)$. Now $3-\gamma^{2}=-\gamma^{2}$ is a square if and only if -1 is a square. As the multiplicative group of $G F(q)$ is cyclic of order $q-1$ this occurs if and only if $q \equiv 1 \bmod 4$, i.e. $n$ is even.

Finally, we note that $\operatorname{PSL}(2,7)$ and $\operatorname{PSL}(2,11)$ are not images of the extended modular group. In both cases all points on the conic $x^{2}+y^{2}=3$ correspond to nonadmissible $\gamma$. For example, when $q=7$ we find that $\gamma=1,3,4,6$. As $1^{2}=6^{2}=1$ and $3^{2}=4^{2}=2$, we see that $(A B)^{3}=I$ or $(A B)^{4}=I$ so the whole group is not generated.

## 4. Applications to group actions on surfaces

(a) If $G$ is a finite group with generators $\{A, B\}$ satisfying $A^{2}=B^{m}=(A B)^{n}=I$ then there is a regular map $\mathscr{M}$ of type $\{m, n\}$ on a compact orientable surface $X$ which admits $G$ as a group of sense-preserving automorphisms. If $m=3$ then we can choose $\mathscr{M}$ be a triangulation. If $\{A, B\}$ is an antipodal generating set then there is also a regular map $\mathcal{N}$ on a non-orientable surface $Y$ which also admits $G$ as a group of automorphisms, ([1], §8.1). Here $X$ is the canonical two-sheeted orientable cover of $Y$ and $\mathscr{M}$ is the lift of $\mathscr{N}$ to $X$. The surface $X$ then admits a sense-reversing fixed-point free homeomorphism of order two (the covering transformation) which is also an automorphism of $\mathscr{M}$. The elements of $G$ commute with this covering transformation so that $C_{2} \times G$ is a group of automorphisms of $\mathscr{M}$.

An example of this situation is given by the icosahedron. This admits $A_{5} \cong P S L(2,5)$ as its automorphism group. By Theorem 1, $\operatorname{PSL}(2,5)$ has an antipodal generating set $\{A, B\}$ with $A^{2}=B^{3}=(A B)^{5}=I$ so that there is a regular map of type $\{3,5\}$ on the projective plane and the covering transformation is the antipodal map of the sphere which is a sense-reversing automorphism of order two of the icosahedron. By contrast, $A_{4} \cong P S L(2,3)$ does not admit any antipodal generating set $\{A, B\}$ with $A^{2}=B^{3}=I$. This corresponds to the tetrahedron not admitting a fixed-point free sense-reversing automorphism of order two. (It does admit a sense-reversing automorphism of order two which does have fixed points.) More generally all the groups of Theorem 1 give regular triangular maps on non-orientable surfaces, or equivalently, regular maps on
orientable surfaces which admit a sense-reversing fixed-point free automorphism of order two, which we can regard as a generalized antipodal map.
(b) If $G$ is a group of automorphisms of a regular map on an orientable surface $X$ then we can also regard $G$ as acting as a group of conformal automorphisms of some Riemann surface homeomorphic to $X$ ( $[9], \S 8$ ). The groups of Theorem 1 then give a class of Riemann surfaces admitting a fixed-point free anticonformal involution (or symmetry as it is called in [9]) and the groups then act as dianalytic automorphisms on the non-orientable Klein surfaces without boundary obtained as the quotient of $X$ by the symmetry. A particularly interesting case is that of the Hurwitz groups when $A$ has order $2, B$ has order 3 and $A B$ has order 7, for these act as groups of $84(g-1)$ conformal automorphisms of a surface of genus $g$, the maximum possible number. In [7], Theorem 8, it is proved that $\operatorname{PSL}(2, q)$ is a Hurwitz group if and only if $q=7$, $q=p \equiv \pm 1 \bmod 7$ or $q=p^{3}, p \equiv \pm 2, \pm 3 \bmod 7$. If $\{A, B\}$ generates such a group $G$ with $A^{2}=B^{3}=(A B)^{7}=I$ then by Theorem 2 we deduce that $G$ acts as a "maximal" group of dianalytic automorphisms of a non-orientable Klein surface without boundary iff 3- $\gamma^{2}$ is a square in $G F(q)$, a result already found by Wendy Hall in her Southampton thesis [6]. (Also see [8].) She used this result to show that this occurs if and only if $q=p \equiv 1$ or $13 \bmod 28$ or $q=p^{3}$, where $p=2$ or $p \equiv 5,9,17$ or $25 \bmod 28$.
(c) An image of the extended modular group for which the elements $U, V, W, U V, V W$ (in the presentation of Section 1) do not map to the identity is called an $M^{*}$-group. These groups occur as $12(g-1)$ dianalytic automorphisms of a bordered compact Klein surface of algebraic genus $g$, the maximum possible number ([3], [5]). All the groups of Theorem 1 are $M^{*}$-groups with the exception of $\operatorname{PSL}(2,2) \cong S_{3}$.

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