# FINITE ONE-RELATOR PRODUCTS OF TWO CYCLIC GROUPS WITH THE RELATOR OF ARBITRARY LENGTH 

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#### Abstract

In this paper we consider the groups $G=G(\alpha, n)$ defined by the presentations $$
\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{n}=a b^{-1} a b\left(a b a b^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle .
$$

We derive a formula for $\left[G^{\prime}: G^{\prime \prime}\right]$ and determine the order of $G$ whenever $n \leq 7$. We show that $G$ is a finite soluble group if $n$ is odd, but that $G$ can be infinite when $n$ is even, $n \geq 8$. We also show that $G(6,10)$ is a finite insoluble group involving $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$, and that the group $H$ with presentation $$
\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{10}, a b^{-1} a b\left(a b a b^{-1}\right)^{5} a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle
$$


is a finite group of deficiency zero of order at least $114,967,210,176,000$.
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## 1. Introduction

In this paper, we consider certain one relator products of cyclic groups. In general, a one-relator product of groups $\left\{A_{i}: i \in I\right\}$ is a quotient $\left(* A_{i}\right) / N(R)$ where $\left(* A_{i}\right)$ is the free product of the groups $A_{i}(i \in I), R$ is a cyclically reduced word, and $N(R)$ is the normal closure of $R$ in $\left(* A_{i}\right)$. We are particularly interested here in the case where the $A_{i}$ are finite cyclic groups, especially in the case where $|I|=2$. In that case, if $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are cyclic of orders $m$ and $n$ respectively, we have a presentation of the form

$$
\left\langle a, b: a^{m}=b^{n}=R(a, b)=1\right\rangle .
$$

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We shall normally assume that $R(a, b)$ is a word of the form

$$
a^{i(1)} b^{j(1)} \cdots a^{i(r)} b^{j(r)}
$$

where $r \geq 2,0<i(p)<m$ for all $p$ and $0<j(q)<n$ for all $q$. If $R=S^{k}$ is a proper power, then we have a generalized triangle group, and such a group is infinite if $(1 / m)+(1 / n)+(1 / k) \leq 1$ by [2]; this was proved independently and generalized in [19]. On a connected theme, it was shown in [32] that a group $X$ defined by a presentation of the form

$$
\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}: W\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=W\left(x_{2}, x_{3}\right)=\cdots=W\left(x_{m}, x_{1}\right)=1\right\rangle
$$

with $m \geq 4$ is either cyclic or infinite. Given that result, it is natural to ask what happens if $m=2$ or $m=3$.

A group such as $X$ is an example of a cyclically presented group, and admits an automorphism of order dividing $m$ which permutes the $x_{i}$ in a cycle of length $m$. Such groups are of particular interest, in that many of the known finite groups of deficiency zero (that is finite groups with a presentation in which there is an equal number of generators and relators) are of this type; see [25] for a general survey. Forming the semi-direct product of $X$ with a cyclic group $\langle a\rangle$ of order $m$ yields the presentation

$$
\left\langle a, b: a^{m}=W\left(b, a^{-1} b a\right)=1\right\rangle
$$

which can be rewritten in the form $\left\langle a, b: a^{m}=1, b^{n}=R(a, b)\right\rangle$, where $b$ has exponent sum zero in $R(a, b)$. If the corresponding group is finite, then the group defined by the presentation

$$
\left\langle a, b: a^{m}=b^{n}=R(a, b)=1\right\rangle
$$

is also finite. So we would like to know what happens when we have a presentation of the form $\left\langle a, b: a^{m}=1, b^{n}=R(a, b)\right\rangle$ or of the form $\left\langle a, b: a^{m}=b^{n}=R(a, b)=1\right\rangle$, where $R$ is not necessarily a proper power. In the latter case, we shall assume that $n>0$, and we shall normally assume that $b$ has exponent sum zero in $R(a, b)$. We concentrate on the case $m=2$.

If we have a presentation of the form $\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{n}=a b^{i} a b^{-i}=1\right\rangle$, then the corresponding group is easily seen to be abelian of order $2 n$ or else infinite. On the other hand, the structure of a group defined by a presentation of the form $\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{n}=a b^{i} a b^{j} a b^{k}=1\right.$ 〉 was determined in [4], and further results on these, and the related deficiency zero groups defined by the presentations of the form $\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=a b^{i} a b^{j} a b^{k}=1\right\rangle$, may be found in $[8,9,10,11,31]$. The structure of the groups $G(n ; h, i, j, k)$ defined by the presentations

$$
\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{n}=a b^{h} a b^{i} a b^{j} a b^{k}=1\right\rangle
$$

with $h+i+j+k=0$ and $h, i, j, k \in\{ \pm 1, \pm 2\}$ was determined in [14], and further results on such groups may be found in [13, 18]. Returning to the theme of cyclically presented groups, the Fibonacci group $F=F(2, n)$ is defined by the presentation

$$
\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}: x_{1} x_{2}=x_{3}, x_{2} x_{3}=x_{4}, \ldots, x_{n} x_{1}=x_{2}\right\rangle
$$

see [35] for a recent survey of these and related groups. It is known [17] that $F(2,1)$ and $F(2,2)$ are trivial, $F(2,3)$ is the quaternion group of order 8 , $F(2,4)$ is cyclic of order $5, F(2,5)$ is cyclic of order 11 and that $F(2,6)$ is infinite. Also, $F(2,7)$ is cyclic of order $29[3,16,21]$ and $F(2, n)$ is infinite for $n \geq 8[3,27,29]$; see also [23,34]. Forming a semi-direct product of $F$ with a cyclic group $\langle b\rangle$ of order $n$ permuting the generators cyclically yields the group $E=E(2, n)$ with presentation $\left\langle x, b: x b^{2}=b x^{2}, b^{n}=1\right\rangle$. If $n$ is even, then the relation $x^{n}=1$ also holds, since $\left(x^{-1} b^{2}\right)^{-1} b^{2}\left(x^{-1} b^{2}\right)=$ $b^{-2} x b^{2} x^{-1} b^{2}=b^{-1} x b^{2}=x^{2}$. If we add the relation $x^{n}=1$ in any case, and then the automorphism $a$ of order 2 interchanging $b$ and $x$, we get the group with presentation $\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{n}=a b^{-1} a b a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle$. This has been shown [12,14] to be metabelian of order $2 n g_{n}$ if $n$ is odd, where $\left(g_{n}\right)$ is the sequence of Lucas numbers defined by $g_{1}=1, g_{2}=3$ and $g_{n}=g_{n-1}+g_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 3$. (Since it contains $F(2, n)$ as a subgroup of index $2 n$ for $n$ even, the group is infinite if $n=2 m \geq 6$.)

In this paper, we consider the groups $G=G(\alpha, n)$ defined by the presentations

$$
\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{n}=a b^{-1} a b\left(a b a b^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle
$$

for $n \geq 1$ and $\alpha \geq 1$. Clearly $\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]=2 n$, and we show that $\left[G^{\prime}: G^{\prime \prime}\right]=$ $v_{n}(\alpha)$, where $v_{n}=v_{n}(\alpha)$ is defined by $v_{0}=0, v_{1}=1$ and

$$
v_{n}=\alpha v_{n-1}+v_{n-2}+1+(-1)^{n-1}
$$

for $n \geq 2$, and we point out some connections between these groups and the groups $F(2, n)$. We also investigate the structure of the groups $G(\alpha, n)$ for small values of $n$, and we have

Theorem A. Let $G(\alpha, n)$ be the group defined by the presentation

$$
\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{n}=a b^{-1} a b\left(a b a b^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle
$$

where $n \geq 1$ and $\alpha \geq 1$. Then
(i) $G(\alpha, 2)$ is dihedral of order $4 \alpha$;
(ii) $G(\alpha, 3)$ is metabelian of order $6 v_{3}(\alpha)=6\left(\alpha^{2}+3\right)$ if $\alpha \equiv 0,1$ or $2(\bmod 4)$, but has order $12 v_{3}(\alpha)=12\left(\alpha^{2}+3\right)$ and derived length 3 if $\alpha \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$;
(iii) $G(\alpha, 4)$ is metabelian of order $8 v_{4}(\alpha)=8 \alpha\left(\alpha^{2}+4\right)$;
(iv) $G(\alpha, 5)$ is metabelian of order $10 v_{5}(\alpha)=10\left(\alpha^{4}+5 \alpha^{2}+5\right)$;
(v) $G(\alpha, 6)$ is metabelian of order $12 v_{6}(\alpha)=12 \alpha\left(\alpha^{2}+3\right)^{2}$ if $\alpha$ is even, is infinite of derived length 3 if $\alpha=1$, but has order $24((\alpha-1) / 2)^{3} v_{6}(\alpha)=$ $3(\alpha-1)^{3} \alpha\left(\alpha^{2}+3\right)^{2}$ and derived length 3 if $\alpha>1$ and $\alpha$ is odd;
(vi) $G(\alpha, 7)$ is metabelian of order $14 v_{7}(\alpha)=14\left(\alpha^{6}+7 \alpha^{4}+14 \alpha^{2}+7\right)$.

Part (i) of Theorem A is clear; we prove part (ii) in Section 3, parts (iii), (iv) and (vi) in Section 4, and part (v) in Section 5. The results given in Theorem A for $n$ odd are not atypical, as we also have

Theorem B. Let $G=G(\alpha, n)$ be the group defined by the presentation

$$
\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{n}=a b^{-1} a b\left(a b a b^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle,
$$

where $n \geq 1$ and $\alpha \geq 1$. When $n$ is odd, $G$ is a finite soluble group of derived length at most 3. If, in addition, $\left(g_{n}, \alpha-1\right)=1$, then $G(\alpha, n)$ is a metabelian group of order $2 n v_{n}(\alpha)$.

Theorem B is proved in Section 4. However, not all the groups $G(\alpha, n)$ are finite; we show in Sections 6 and 7 that some of the groups $G(\alpha, 8)$ and $G(\alpha, 10)$ are infinite. Also, not all the finite groups $G(\alpha, n)$ are soluble; for example, the group $G(6,10)$ is a finite insoluble group involving $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$ (see Proposition 7.1). We summarize some results we have obtained concerning the groups $G(\alpha, 8)$ and $G(\alpha, 10)$ for small values of $\alpha$ in the following table.

Table 1

| $\alpha$ | $G(\alpha, 8)$ | $G(\alpha, 10)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | metabelian order 9,216 | metabelian order 67,240 |
| 3 | metabelian order 75,504 | metabelian order $1,029,660$ |
| 4 | derived length 3, order 11, 197, 440 | metabelian order $9,302,480$ |
| 5 | metabelian of order $1,691,280$ | metabelian order 57, 002, 500 |
| 6 | infinite soluble group | finite group involving $P S U(3,4)$ |
| 7 | finite, derived length 4 or 5 | infinite group involving $H S$ |
| 8 | metabelian order 37,914,624 |  |
| 9 | metabelian order $84,321,360$ |  |
| 10 | infinite |  |
| 11 | infinite |  |

Here $H S$ denotes the Higman-Sims simple group of order 44,352,000. Subsequently, Newman and O'Brien [30] have extended our results and have shown that $G(7,8)$ is soluble of order $2^{11} \cdot 3^{5} \cdot 7 \cdot 17^{2} \cdot 53$ and derived length 5 and that $G(6,10)$ has order $20|\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)| v_{10}(6)=2^{9} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{3} \cdot 13 \cdot 1481^{2}$.

It is interesting to note that, if $G(\alpha, n)$ is finite, then certain related deficiency zero groups are also finite. For example, the group $H=H(\alpha, n)$ with presentation

$$
\left\langle a, b, z: a^{2}=b^{n}=z, a b^{-1} a b\left(a b a b^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle
$$

is finite, since $z^{\alpha+1} \in H^{\prime} \cap Z(H) \leq \Phi(H)$, where $\Phi(H)$ denotes the Frattini subgroup of $H$. So, for example, $H(6,10)$ is a finite group of deficiency zero involving $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$ of order at least $7|G(6,10)|$. (Subsequently, Newman and O'Brien [30] have shown that $H(6,10)$ has order $14|G(6,10)|=229,934,420,352,000$. Given that $G(7,8)$ has derived length 5 , we immediately see that $H(7,8)$ is a finite soluble group of deficiency zero with derived length at least 5 ; in fact, $H(7,8)$ has derived length precisely 5 and order $2^{4} \cdot 3 \cdot|G(7,8)|=2^{15} \cdot 3^{6} \cdot 7 \cdot 17^{2} \cdot 53$.)

The relationship explored in Section 4 between the groups $G(\alpha, n)$ and the Fibonacci groups $F(2, n)$ is of great help in determining which of the groups $G(\alpha, n)$ are finite. Also, the proofs of the above results show that $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$ and $H S$ are homomorphic images of $F(2,10)$. It was pointed out in [26] that every finite 2 -generator group $G$ (and therefore, in particular, every finite simple group-see $[1,33])$ is a homomorphic image of $F(2, n)$ for some value of $n$. However, while some results are known for specific groups as to which value of $n$ will suffice [ $5,18,36$ ], it does not seem to be easy, in general, to calculate the least value of $n$ that will suffice for a particular group $G$.

## 2. The groups $G(\alpha, n)$

Throughout this section, let $G=G(\alpha, n)$ be the group defined by the presentation

$$
\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{n}=a b^{-1} a b\left(a b a b^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle,
$$

where $n \geq 1$ and $\alpha \geq 1$. Let $c:=a b a$ and $N$ be the normal subgroup $\langle b, c\rangle$ of $G$. We see that $[G: N]=2$, and $N$ has presentation

$$
\left\langle b, c: b^{n}=c^{n}=c^{-1} b\left(c b^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} c^{2} b^{-2}=b^{-1} c\left(b c^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} b^{2} c^{-2}=1\right\rangle .
$$

Introduce a new generator $e:=c b^{-1}$, delete the generator $c=e b$, and then
introduce the generator $d:=b e b^{-1}$, to get

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left\langle b, d, e: b^{n}=(e b)^{n}=1, b^{-1} d b=e, b^{-1} e b=e^{\alpha} d\right. \\
\left.b^{-1} e b d^{-1} e^{-1}=d^{-1} e^{-1} b^{-1} e b\right\rangle
\end{gathered}
$$

The last relation is equivalent to $e^{\alpha} d d^{-1} e^{-1}=d^{-1} e^{-1} e^{\alpha} d$ via the fourth, that is to $\left[d, e^{\alpha-1}\right]=1$, and so we have the presentation

$$
\left\langle b, d, e: b^{n}=(e b)^{n}=\left[d, e^{\alpha-1}\right]=1, b^{-1} d b=e, b^{-1} e b=e^{\alpha} d\right\rangle
$$

So $G^{\prime}=\langle d, e\rangle$. If $\alpha=2$, the relation $[d, e]=1$ holds, and we have

## Proposition 2.1. $G(2, n)$ is metabelian.

## We also have

Proposition 2.2. If $G=G(\alpha, n)$, then $\left[G^{\prime}, G^{\prime \prime}\right]=v_{n}(\alpha)$.
In the proof of Proposition 2.2, we may assume that $G^{\prime}$ is abelian, so that $[d, e]=1$, and

$$
b^{-1} d b=e, \quad b^{-2} d b^{2}=d e^{\alpha}, \quad b^{-3} d b^{3}=e\left(d e^{\alpha}\right)^{\alpha}=d^{\alpha} e^{\alpha^{2}+1}, \quad \text { etc. }
$$

In general, we have $b^{-k} d b^{k}=d^{u_{k-1}} e^{u_{k}}$, where the sequence $\left(u_{n}\right)$ is defined by $u_{0}=0, u_{1}=1$ and $u_{n}=\alpha u_{n-1}+u_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$. The relation $(e b)^{n}=1$ may be replaced by $\left(d^{-1} b^{-1}\right)^{n}=1$, which, since $b^{n}=1$, may be rewritten as $d^{-1}\left(b^{-1} d^{-1} b\right)\left(b^{-2} d^{-1} b^{2}\right)\left(b^{-3} d^{-1} b^{3}\right) \cdots\left(b^{-(n-1)} d^{-1} b^{n-1}\right)=1$, which becomes $d^{-1} e^{-1}\left(d e^{\alpha}\right)^{-1}\left(d^{\alpha} e^{\alpha^{2}+1}\right)^{-1} \cdots\left(d^{u_{n-2}} e^{u_{n-1}}\right)^{-1}=1$. Let $\left(w_{n}\right)$ be the sequence defined by $w_{0}=0, w_{1}=1$ and $w_{n}=\alpha w_{n-1}+w_{n-2}+1$ for $n \geq 2$. Since $[d, e]=1$, we may collect terms and invert to get $d^{I} e^{J}=1$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& I:=1+u_{1}(\alpha)+u_{2}(\alpha)+u_{3}(\alpha)+\cdots+u_{n-2}(\alpha)=1+w_{n-2}(\alpha) \\
& J:=u_{1}(\alpha)+u_{2}(\alpha)+u_{3}(\alpha)+\cdots+u_{n-2}(\alpha)+u_{n-1}(\alpha)=w_{n-1}(\alpha)
\end{aligned}
$$

by [7, Corollary 9]. We now have the following presentation for the largest metabelian quotient of $N$

$$
\left\langle b, d, e: b^{-1} d b=e, b^{-1} e b=d e^{\alpha}, b^{n}=[d, e]=1, d^{I} e^{J}=1\right\rangle
$$

Since $b^{-n} d b^{n}=d^{K} e^{L}$, where $K:=u_{n-1}(\alpha)$ and $L:=u_{n}(\alpha)$ the relation $b^{n}=1$ gives that $d^{K} e^{L}=d$, and we have

$$
\left\langle b, d, e: b^{-1} d b=e, b^{-1} e b=d e^{\alpha}, b^{n}=[d, e]=d^{I} e^{J}=d^{K-1} e^{L}=1\right\rangle
$$

The normal abelian subgroup $G^{\prime}$ of index $n$ in $N$ is then seen to have order

$$
\left|\begin{array}{cc}
I & J \\
K-1 & L
\end{array}\right|=\left|\begin{array}{cc}
w_{n-2}(\alpha)+1 & w_{n-1}(\alpha) \\
u_{n-1}(\alpha)-1 & u_{n}(\alpha)
\end{array}\right|
$$

Replacing the first row of the determinant by the sum of the two rows, it follows from [7, Corollary 9 and Proposition 10] that the determinant has value $v_{n}(\alpha)$, and Proposition 2.2 follows.

## 3. The groups $G(\alpha, 3)$

In this section, we describe the structure of the groups $G=G(\alpha, 3)$. Here we have the presentation $\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{3}=a b^{-1} a b\left(a b a b^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle$ for $G$, and, as in Section 2, the presentation

$$
\left\langle b, d, e: b^{3}=(e b)^{3}=\left[d, e^{\alpha-1}\right]=1, b^{-1} d b=e, b^{-1} e b=e^{\alpha} d\right\rangle
$$

for the normal subgroup $N:=\langle b, a b a\rangle$ of index 2 in $G$. The relation $(e b)^{3}=1$ is equivalent to $d^{-1} b^{-1} d^{-1} b b^{-2} d^{-1} b^{2}=1$, that is $d^{-1} e^{-1}\left(e^{\alpha} d\right)^{-1}$ $=1$, which, given that $e^{\alpha-1}$ is central in $\langle d, e\rangle$, is equivalent to the relation $(e d)^{2}=e^{-(\alpha-1)}$. So $e^{\alpha} d=(e d)^{-2} e d=d^{-1} e^{-1}$, and we have the presentation

$$
\left\langle b, d, e: b^{3}=\left[d, e^{\alpha-1}\right]=1,(e d)^{2}=e^{-(\alpha-1)}, b^{-1} d b=e, b^{-1} e b=d^{-1} e^{-1}\right\rangle
$$

We let $f$ denote $b^{-2} d b^{2}$, and we have the following presentation for $G^{\prime}=$ $\langle d, e, f\rangle$

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left\langle d, e, f:\left[d, e^{\alpha-1}\right]=\left[e, f^{\alpha-1}\right]=\left[f, d^{\alpha-1}\right]=f e d=1,(e d)^{2}=e^{-(\alpha-1)}\right. \\
\left.(f e)^{2}=f^{-(\alpha-1)},(d f)^{2}=d^{-(\alpha-1)}\right\rangle
\end{array}
$$

Delete the generator $f=d^{-1} e^{-1}$ to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left\langle d, e:\left[d, e^{\alpha-1}\right]=\left[e,(e d)^{\alpha-1}\right]=[e,\right.\left.d^{\alpha-1}\right]=1,(e d)^{2}=e^{-(\alpha-1)} \\
&\left.d^{-2}=\left(d^{-1} e^{-1}\right)^{-(\alpha-1)}, e^{-2}=d^{-(\alpha-1)}\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $e^{-2}=d^{-(\alpha-1)}$, the relation $\left[e, d^{\alpha-1}\right]=1$ is redundant, and, since $(e d)^{2}=e^{-(\alpha-1)}$, we have that $\left[e d, e^{\alpha-1}\right]=1$, so that $\left[d, e^{\alpha-1}\right]=1$ is also redundant. Since $d^{-2}=\left(d^{-1} e^{-1}\right)^{-(\alpha-1)}$, we have that $\left[d,(e d)^{\alpha-1}\right]=1$, and so $\left[d(e d)^{-1},(e d)^{\alpha-1}\right]=1$, so that $\left[e,(e d)^{\alpha-1}\right]=1$ is redundant. We now have the presentation

$$
\left\langle d, e:(e d)^{2}=e^{-(\alpha-1)}, d^{-2}=\left(d^{-1} e^{-1}\right)^{-(\alpha-1)}, e^{-2}=d^{-(\alpha-1)}\right\rangle
$$

Since $d^{\alpha-1}, e^{\alpha-1}$ and $(e d)^{\alpha-1}$ are central in $G^{\prime}, e^{-1} d e d^{-1}=e^{-2}(e d)^{2} d^{-2}$ is also ce al, and hence $z:=e^{-1} d e d^{-1}=d^{-1} e^{-1} d e$ is central. Now $(e d)^{2}=e(d e) d=e(e d z) d=e^{2} d^{2} z$, and so we have

$$
\left\langle d, e, z: z=d^{-1} e^{-1} d e, d^{2} z=e^{-(\alpha+1)}, d^{-2}=\left(d^{-1} e^{-1}\right)^{-(\alpha-1)}, \quad e^{-2}=d^{-(\alpha-1)}\right\rangle
$$

As $d^{2}$ is central, we have that

$$
z^{2}=\left(d^{-1} e^{-1} d e\right)\left(e^{-1} d e d^{-1}\right)=d^{-1} e^{-1} d^{2} e d^{-1}=d^{-1} e^{-1} e d^{-1} d^{2}=1
$$

The relation $d^{-2}=\left(d^{-1} e^{-1}\right)^{-(\alpha-1)}$ is equivalent to $d^{-2}=(e d)^{(\alpha-1)}=$ $e^{\alpha-1} d^{\alpha-1} z^{(\alpha-1)(\alpha-2) / 2}$, so that we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\langle d, e, z: z=d^{-1} e^{-1} d e, z^{2}=1, d^{2} z=e^{-(\alpha+1)} \\
&\left.d^{-(\alpha+1)}=e^{\alpha-1} z^{(\alpha-1)(\alpha-2) / 2}, e^{-2}=d^{-(\alpha-1)}\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

We may modify the fourth relation via the fifth to get

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left\langle d, e, z: z=d^{-1} e^{-1} d e, z^{2}=1, d^{2} z=e^{-(\alpha+1)}, d^{-2}=e^{\alpha+1} z^{(\alpha-1)(\alpha-2) / 2}\right. \\
\left.e^{-2}=d^{-(\alpha-1)}\right\rangle
\end{array}
$$

and then replace the fourth relation, using the second and third, by $z=$ $z^{(\alpha-1)(\alpha-2) / 2}$. If $\alpha \equiv 1$ or $\alpha \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$, we immediately have that $z=1$, and $G(\alpha, 3)$ is metabelian of order $6 v_{3}(\alpha)$. If $\alpha \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$, then $\alpha+1$ is odd, and, as $e^{-(\alpha+1)}=d^{2} z$ and $e^{2}$ are central, we have that $e$ is central, and so $z=1$, so that $G(\alpha, 3)$ is metabelian of order $6 v_{3}(\alpha)$. So assume that $\alpha \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, in which case the relation $z=z^{(\alpha-1)(\alpha-2) / 2}$ is redundant via $z^{2}=1$. We now have

$$
\left\langle d, e, z: z=d^{-1} e^{-1} d e, z^{2}=1, d^{2} z=e^{-(\alpha+1)}, e^{-2}=d^{-(\alpha-1)}\right\rangle
$$

Since $e^{-(\alpha+1)}=d^{2} z$, we have that $e^{-(\alpha+1)(\alpha-1) / 2}=\left(d^{2} z\right)^{(\alpha-1) / 2}=d^{\alpha-1} z^{(\alpha-1) / 2}$ $=e^{2} z$, so that $e^{\left(\alpha^{2}+3\right) / 2}=z$ and $e^{\alpha^{2}+3}=1$. Given this, $d^{-(\alpha-1)}=\left(d^{2}\right)^{-(\alpha-1) / 2}$ $=\left(e^{-(\alpha+1)} z\right)^{-(\alpha-1) / 2}=e^{\left(\alpha^{2}-1\right) / 2} z=e^{\alpha^{2}+1}=e^{-2}$, and the last relation is redundant. So we have

$$
\left\langle d, e, z: z=d^{-1} e^{-1} d e, e^{\left(\alpha^{2}+3\right) / 2}=z, z^{2}=1, d^{2} z=e^{-(\alpha+1)}\right\rangle
$$

We replace the relation $d^{2} z=e^{-(\alpha+1)}$ by $d^{2}=e^{\left(\alpha^{2}+3\right) / 2-(\alpha+1)}=e^{\left(\alpha^{2}-2 \alpha+1\right) / 2}$; we then replace the relation $z^{2}=1$ by $e^{\alpha^{2}+3}=1$ to get

$$
\left\langle d, e, z: z=d^{-1} e^{-1} d e, e^{\left(\alpha^{2}+3\right) / 2}=z, e^{\alpha^{2}+3}=1, d^{2}=e^{(\alpha-1)^{2} / 2}\right\rangle
$$

The relation $z=d^{-1} e^{-1} d e$ is equivalent to $d^{-1} e d=e z=e^{\left(\alpha^{2}+5\right) / 2}$. We now delete the redundant generator $z$ to get

$$
\left\langle d, e: d^{-1} e d=e^{\left(\alpha^{2}+5\right) / 2}, e^{\alpha^{2}+3}=1, d^{2}=e^{(\alpha-1)^{2} / 2}\right\rangle
$$

Since $\alpha \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, we have that

$$
\left(\frac{\alpha^{2}+5}{2}\right)^{2} \equiv 1 \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{(\alpha-1)^{2}}{2} \frac{\left(\alpha^{2}+5\right)}{2} \equiv \frac{(\alpha-1)^{2}}{2} \quad\left(\bmod \alpha^{2}+3\right),
$$

and so $M$ is metabelian of order $2\left(\alpha^{2}+3\right)=2 v_{3}(\alpha)$. This completes the proof of Theorem A (ii).

## 4. The connection with the Fibonacci groups

Let $G=G(\alpha, n)$. With presentation for $N$ as in Section 2, we add a new generator $y:=e^{\alpha-1}$ to get

$$
\left\langle b, d, e, y: b^{n}=(e b)^{n}=[d, y]=1, e^{\alpha-1}=y, b^{-1} d b=e, b^{-1} e b=y e d\right\rangle .
$$

Clearly $y$ is central in $G^{\prime}=\langle d, e\rangle$. Since [ $G^{\prime}: G^{\prime \prime}$ ] is finite by Proposition 2.2, $y^{i} \in G^{\prime \prime}$ for some $i \geq 1$, and then $y^{i} \in G^{\prime \prime} \cap Z\left(G^{\prime}\right)$. Thus $G^{\prime}$ is a stem extension of $G^{\prime} /\left\langle y^{i}\right\rangle$, and hence $G^{\prime}$ is finite if and only if $G^{\prime} /\left\langle y^{i}\right\rangle$ is finite; thus $G^{\prime}$ is finite if and only if $G^{\prime} /\langle y\rangle$ is finite. Since $\langle y\rangle$ is central in $G^{\prime}$, which is normal in $N$,

$$
Y:=\langle y\rangle^{N}=\left\langle y, b^{-1} y b, \ldots, b^{-(n-1)} y b^{n-1}\right\rangle
$$

is a finitely generated abelian group. So $G^{\prime}$ is finite if and only if $G^{\prime} / Y$ is finite, and hence $N$ is finite if and only if $N / Y$ is finite. So we have

Proposition 4.1. $G(\alpha, n)$ is finite if and only if the group $\bar{N}$ with presentation

$$
\left\langle\beta, \delta, \varepsilon: \beta^{n}=(\varepsilon \beta)^{n}=\varepsilon^{\alpha-1}=1, \beta^{-1} \delta \beta=\varepsilon, \beta^{-1} \varepsilon \beta=\varepsilon \delta\right\rangle
$$

is finite.
The relation $(\varepsilon \beta)^{n}=1$ is equivalent to $(\delta \beta)^{n}=1$ via $\beta^{-1} \delta \beta=\varepsilon$, and hence to $\left(\beta^{-1} \delta^{-1}\right)^{n}=1$. If we introduce $\gamma:=\delta^{-1}$ and $\eta:=\varepsilon^{-1}$, and then delete $\delta=\gamma^{-1}$ and $\varepsilon=\eta^{-1}$, we get the presentation

$$
\left\langle\beta, \gamma, \eta: \beta^{n}=\left(\beta^{-1} \gamma\right)^{n}=\eta^{\alpha-1}=1, \beta^{-1} \gamma \beta=\eta, \beta^{-1} \eta \beta=\gamma \eta\right\rangle .
$$

The relation $\eta^{\alpha-1}=1$ is equivalent to $\gamma^{\alpha-1}=1$ via $\beta^{-1} \gamma \beta=\eta$. Now use the relation $\beta^{-1} \gamma \beta=\eta$ to delete the generator $\eta$ and get

$$
\left\langle\beta, \gamma: \beta^{n}=\left(\beta^{-1} \gamma\right)^{n}=\gamma^{\alpha-1}=1, \beta^{-2} \gamma \beta^{2}=\gamma \beta^{-1} \gamma \beta\right\rangle
$$

Introduce a new generator $\tau:=\gamma^{-1} \beta$, and then delete $\gamma=\beta \tau^{-1}$, to get

$$
\left\langle\beta, \tau: \beta^{n}=\tau^{n}=\left(\beta \tau^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1}=1, \beta^{-1} \tau^{-1} \beta^{2}=\beta \tau^{-2} \beta\right\rangle
$$

So we have proved part (i) of the following result.
Proposition 4.2. (i) $G(\alpha, n)$ is finite if and only if the group $\bar{N}$ with presentation

$$
\left\langle\beta, \tau: \beta^{n}=\tau^{n}=\left(\beta \tau^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1}=1, \tau \beta^{2}=\beta \tau^{2}\right\rangle
$$

is finite,
(ii) if $\bar{N}$ has derived length $t$, then $G(\alpha, n)$ has derived length $t$ or $t+1$.

To prove (ii), note that, if $\bar{N}$ has derived length $t$, then $\bar{N}^{\prime}=\langle\delta, \varepsilon\rangle$ has derived length $t-1$, so that the subgroup $\langle d, e\rangle$ of $N^{\prime}$ has derived length $t-1$ or $t$. But $\langle d, e\rangle=G^{\prime}$, so that $G$ has derived length $t$ or $t+1$.

If $n$ is odd, we adjoin the automorphism $\theta$ of order 2 interchanging $\beta$ and $\tau$ to the presentation of Proposition 4.2 (i) to get the group $K$ with presentation

$$
\left\langle\theta, \beta: \theta^{2}=\beta^{n}=\left(\theta^{-1} \beta^{-1} \theta \beta\right)^{\alpha-1}=\theta \beta \theta \beta^{2} \theta \beta^{-2} \theta \beta^{-1}=1\right\rangle,
$$

which is a homomorphic image of the group $H$ with presentation

$$
\left\langle\theta, \beta: \theta^{2}=\beta^{n}=\theta \beta \theta \beta^{2} \theta \beta^{-2} \theta \beta^{-1}=1\right\rangle
$$

Now $H^{\prime}$ is abelian of index $2 n$ in $H$ (for $n$ odd) by either [12] or [14], so that $\langle\delta, \varepsilon\rangle$ is an abelian subgroup of $N / Y$, and, using the same argument as in the proof of Proposition 4.2 (ii), we see that $\langle d, e\rangle$ is a metabelian subgroup of $N$. Since $G^{\prime}=\langle d, e\rangle$, we have proved the first part of Theorem B. Now [12] shows that $H^{\prime}$ is abelian of order $g_{n}$ by finding the presentation $\left\langle x, y: x^{f_{n-3}+2} y^{f_{n-2}-1}=x^{f_{n-2}-1} y^{f_{n-1}+1}=[x, y]=1\right\rangle$ for $H^{\prime}$, where $\left(f_{n}\right)$ is the sequence of Fibonacci numbers. Applying the same argument to $K$ gives the following presentation for $K^{\prime}$.

$$
\left\langle x, y: x^{f_{n-3}+2} y^{f_{n-2}-1}=x^{f_{n-2}-1} y^{f_{n-1}+1}=x^{\alpha-1}=y^{\alpha-1}=[x, y]=1\right\rangle
$$

So, if $\left(g_{n}, \alpha-1\right)=1$, then $\left|K^{\prime}\right|=1$ and the proof of Theorem B is complete.
If $n=2 m$ is even, then, given $\beta^{n}=1$ and $\tau \beta^{2}=\beta \tau^{2}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tau^{2 m} & =\left(\beta^{-1} \tau \beta^{2}\right)^{m}=\left(\beta^{-2} \beta \tau^{2} \tau^{-1} \beta^{2}\right)^{m} \\
& =\left(\beta^{-2} \tau \beta^{2} \tau^{-1} \beta^{2}\right)^{m}=\left(\tau^{-1} \beta^{2}\right)^{-1} \beta^{2 m}\left(\tau^{-1} \beta^{2}\right)=1
\end{aligned}
$$

so that the relation $\tau^{n}=1$ is redundant in Proposition 4.2 (i), and we have

Proposition 4.3. If $n$ is even, then $G(\alpha, n)$ is finite if and only if the group $\bar{N}$ with presentation $\left\langle\beta, \tau: \beta^{n}=\left(\beta \tau^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1}=1, \tau \beta^{2}=\beta \tau^{2}\right\rangle$ is finite.

The Fibonacci group $F(2, n)$ admits an automorphism permuting the generators in a cycle of length $n$. Forming the semi-direct product of $F(2, n)$ with the cyclic group of order $n$ acting on $F(2, n)$ in this way yields the group $E(2, n)$ with presentation $\left\langle b, t: t^{n}=1, t b^{2}=b t^{2}\right\rangle$. Proposition 4.2 then gives

Proposition 4.4. If $F(2, n)$ is finite, then $G(\alpha, n)$ is finite for all $\alpha$.
We can say rather more. Recall that $Y:=\langle y\rangle^{N} \leq G^{\prime \prime} \cap Z\left(G^{\prime}\right) \leq \Phi\left(G^{\prime}\right)$. So, if $\bar{G}^{\prime}:=G^{\prime} / Y$ is cyclic, then $G^{\prime} / \Phi\left(G^{\prime}\right)$, and hence $G^{\prime}$, is cyclic. Now, in the homomorphism from $E(2, n)$ onto $\bar{N}, F(2, n)$ maps onto $\bar{G}^{\prime}$; hence, if $F(2, n)$ is cyclic, then $G^{\prime}$ is cyclic. Since $F(2, n)$ is cyclic for $n=4,5$ or 7 , this gives

Proposition 4.5. If $n=4,5$ or 7 , then $G(\alpha, n)$ is metabelian for all $\alpha$.

Combining Propositions 2.2 and 4.5 yields Theorem A (iii), (iv) and (vi). Now let $E:=E(2, n)$ and $F:=F(2, n)$. Notice that $E^{\prime}=F$ and, if $\theta: E \rightarrow \bar{N}$ is the natural homomorphism, then the kernel $K$ of $\theta$ is contained in $E^{\prime}$. So $\bar{N}^{\prime} \cong E^{\prime} / K=F / K$ and $F / K$ has presentation

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}: a_{1} a_{2}=a_{3}, a_{2} a_{3}=a_{4}, \ldots, a_{n-2} a_{n-1}=a_{n}, a_{n-1} a_{n}=a_{1}\right. \\
\left.a_{n} a_{1}=a_{2}, a_{1}^{\alpha-1}=a_{2}^{\alpha-1}=\cdots=a_{n}^{\alpha-1}=a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}=1\right\rangle
\end{array}
$$

For convenience, we replace each $a_{i}$ by $x_{n-i+1}^{-1}$ to get the presentation

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}: x_{2} x_{3}=x_{1}, x_{3} x_{4}=x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n-1} x_{n}=x_{n-2}, x_{n} x_{1}=x_{n-1}\right. \\
\left.x_{1} x_{2}=x_{n}, x_{1}^{\alpha-1}=x_{2}^{\alpha-1}=\cdots=x_{n}^{\alpha-1}=x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{n}=1\right\rangle
\end{array}
$$

This leads to the following result, which strengthens Proposition 4.4.
Proposition 4.6. $G(\alpha, n)$ is finite if and only if the homomorphic image $M(\alpha, n)$ of $F(2, n)$ with presentation

$$
\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}: \prod_{j=1}^{n} x_{j}=x_{i}^{\alpha-1}=1, x_{i}=x_{i+1} x_{i+2}\right\rangle
$$

is finite. Moreover, if $M(\alpha, n)$ is soluble of derived length $t$, then $G(\alpha, n)$ is soluble of derived length $t+1$ or $t+2$. If $n$ is even, then $M(\alpha, n)$ has presentation $\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}: x_{i}^{\alpha-1}=1, x_{i}=x_{i+1} x_{i+2}\right\rangle$.

## 5. The groups $G(\alpha, 6)$

In this section, we consider the group $G:=G(\alpha, 6)$ with presentation

$$
\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{6}=a b^{-1} a b\left(a b a b^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle .
$$

By Proposition 4.3, $G$ is finite if and only if the group $\bar{N}$ with presentation

$$
\left\langle\beta, \tau: \beta^{6}=\left(\beta \tau^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1}=1, \tau \beta^{2}=\beta \tau^{2}\right\rangle
$$

is finite. It is not difficult to check that $\bar{N}^{\prime}$ has presentation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}: a_{1}^{\alpha-1}=a_{2}^{\alpha-1}=a_{3}^{\alpha-1}=a_{4}^{\alpha-1}=a_{5}^{\alpha-1}=a_{6}^{\alpha-1}=1,\right. \\
& \left.\quad a_{1} a_{2}=a_{3}, a_{2} a_{3}=a_{4}, a_{3} a_{4}=a_{5}, a_{4} a_{5}=a_{6}, a_{5} a_{6}=a_{1}, a_{6} a_{1}=a_{2}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

We may delete the generators $a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{6}$ and $a_{5}$ in turn to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(a_{1}, a_{2}: a_{1}^{\alpha-1}=a_{2}^{\alpha-1}=\left(a_{1} a_{2}\right)^{\alpha-1}=\left(a_{1} a_{2}^{2}\right)^{\alpha-1}\right. & =\left(a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1}=\left(a_{2} a_{1}^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1} \\
& \left.=a_{1}^{-1} a_{2}^{2} a_{1} a_{2}^{2}=a_{1}^{2} a_{2} a_{1}^{2} a_{2}^{-1}=1\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

If $\alpha$ is even, so that $\alpha-1$ is odd, then the relations $a_{1}^{\alpha-1}=1$ and $a_{1}^{-1} a_{2}^{2} a_{1}=$ $a_{2}^{-2}$ give that $a_{2}^{2}=a_{1}^{-(\alpha-1)} a_{2}^{2} a_{1}^{\alpha-1}=a_{2}^{-2}$, and so we have that $a_{2}^{\alpha-1}=a_{2}^{4}=1$, and hence that $a_{2}=1$. By symmetry, $\bar{N}^{\prime}$ is trivial, and hence $\bar{N}$ is cyclic of order 6. So, with notation as in Section 4, we have that $N / Y$ is cyclic of order 6. Now $Y \leq\langle d, e\rangle=G^{\prime}$ and $\left[N: G^{\prime}\right]=6$, so that $Y=G^{\prime}$, and hence $G^{\prime}$ is abelian. Thus $G$ is metabelian of order $12 v_{6}(\alpha)$ by Proposition 2.2.

Let us now consider the case where $\alpha=2 t+1$ is odd. In this case, $N$ has the presentation

$$
\left\langle b, d, e: b^{6}=(e b)^{6}=\left[d, e^{2 t}\right]=1, b^{-1} d b=e, b^{-1} e b=e^{2 t+1} d\right\rangle
$$

as in Section 2. We may delete the generator $e=b^{-1} d b=b^{5} d b^{-5}$, and then rewrite the presentation as

$$
\left\langle b, d: b^{6}=(d b)^{6}=\left[d,\left(b^{5} d b^{-5}\right)^{2 t}\right]=1, b^{4} d b^{-4}=\left(b^{5} d b^{-5}\right)^{2 t+1} d\right\rangle .
$$

If $d_{i}:=b^{i} d b^{-i}(0 \leq i \leq 5)$, then $G^{\prime}=\left\langle d_{0}, d_{1}, d_{2}, d_{3}, d_{4}, d_{5}\right\rangle$ has presen- tation

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle d_{0}, d_{1}, d_{2}, d_{3}, d_{4}, d_{5}: d_{0} d_{1} d_{2} d_{3} d_{4} d_{5}=\left[d_{0}, d_{5}^{2 t}\right]\right. \\
& \quad=\left[d_{1}, d_{0}^{2 t}\right]=\left[d_{2}, d_{1}^{2 t}\right]=\left[d_{3}, d_{2}^{2 t}\right] \\
& \quad=\left[d_{4}, d_{3}^{2 t}\right]=\left[d_{5}, d_{4}^{2 t}\right]=1, d_{4}=d_{5}^{2 t+1} d_{0}, d_{5}=d_{0}^{2 t+1} d_{1} \\
& \left.\quad d_{0}=d_{1}^{2 t+1} d_{2}, d_{1}=d_{2}^{2 t+1} d_{3}, d_{2}=d_{3}^{2 t+1} d_{4}, d_{3}=d_{4}^{2 t+1} d_{5}\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

We add new generators $z_{0}, z_{1}, \ldots, z_{5}$, where $z_{i}:=d_{i}^{2 t}$ for each $i$. Since $G^{\prime}=\left\langle d_{i+1}, d_{i}\right\rangle$ for any $i$, the relation $\left[d_{i+1}, d_{i}^{2 t}\right]=1$ simply expresses the fact that $z_{i}$ is central in $G^{\prime}$. We eliminate $d_{5}, d_{4}, d_{2}, d_{3}$ and $z_{5}$ in turn, and then simplify, to get

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left\langle d_{0}, d_{1}, z_{0}, z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, z_{4}: d_{0}^{2 t}=z_{0}, d_{1}^{2 t}=z_{1},\left(d_{1}^{-1} d_{0}\right)^{2 t}=z_{1}^{2 t} z_{2}\right. \\
z_{1}^{t} z_{4}^{t}=z_{0} z_{3}, z_{0}^{t} z_{1}^{-1} z_{2}^{2 t} z_{3}^{t} z_{4}^{2 t+1}=z_{0}^{t+1} z_{1} z_{3}^{t+1} z_{4}=d_{0}^{-1} d_{1}^{2} d_{0} d_{1}^{2} z_{1} z_{2}^{-2} z_{4}^{-1} \\
\left.=d_{1}^{-1} d_{0}^{2} d_{1} d_{0}^{2} z_{0} z_{1}^{-2} z_{3}^{-1}=1, z_{i} \text { central }(0 \leq i \leq 4)\right\rangle
\end{array}
$$

full details may be found in [6]. Since $d_{0}^{-1} d_{1}^{2} d_{0}=d_{1}^{-2} z_{1}^{-1} z_{2}^{2} z_{4}$ and $d_{1}^{-1} d_{0}^{2} d_{1}$ $=d_{0}^{-2} z_{0}^{-1} z_{1}^{2} z_{3}, A:=\left\langle d_{0}^{2}, d_{1}^{2}, z_{0}, z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, z_{4}, G^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle$ is a normal subgroup of index 4 in $G^{\prime}$. We may calculate that $A$ has presentation

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left\langle u, v, w, x, c, z_{0}, z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, z_{4}: u^{t}=v^{t}=z_{0}, w^{t}=x^{t}=z_{1}\right. \\
\quad\left(w^{-1} u\right)^{t} c^{t}=\left(x^{-1} v\right)^{t} c^{-t}=z_{1}^{2 t} z_{2}, z_{1}^{t} z_{4}^{t}=z_{0} z_{3}, z_{0}^{t} z_{1}^{-1} z_{2}^{2 t} z_{3}^{t} z_{4}^{2 t+1} \\
=z_{0}^{t+1} z_{1} z_{3}^{t+1} z_{4}=1, w x=x u w u^{-1}=x v w v^{-1}=z_{1}^{-1} z_{2}^{2} z_{4} \\
\left.v u=w u w^{-1} v=x u x^{-1} v=z_{0}^{-1} z_{1}^{2} z_{3}, c \text { central, } z_{i} \text { central }\right\rangle .
\end{gathered}
$$

It follows easily now that $A$ is abelian, and we then derive, after deleting $x$ and $v$, the presentation

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\left\langle u, w, c, z_{0}, z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, z_{4}: u^{t}=z_{0}, z_{0}^{-t-2} z_{1}^{2 t} z_{3}^{t}=1, w^{t}=z_{1}\right. \\
z_{1}^{-t-2} z_{2}^{2 t} z_{4}^{t}=z_{0}^{-2} z_{1}^{4 t+2} z_{2}^{2}=z_{0}^{t} z_{1}^{-1} z_{2}^{2 t} z_{3}^{t} z_{4}^{2 t+1}=z_{0}^{t+1} z_{1} z_{3}^{t+1} z_{4}=1 \\
\left.c^{t}=z_{0}^{-1} z_{1}^{2 t+1} z_{2}, z_{1}^{t} z_{4}^{t}=z_{0} z_{3}, A \text { abelian }\right\rangle
\end{array}
$$

If $t=0$, then $z_{i}=1$ for each $i$ and $A$ is isomorphic to $C_{\infty} \times C_{\infty} \times C_{\infty}$; so assume that $t \neq 0$. If $Z:=\left\langle z_{0}, z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, z_{4}\right\rangle$, then $A / Z$ is isomorphic to $C_{t} \times C_{t} \times C_{t}$, so that $A$ has order $t^{3}|Z|$, where $Z$ has presentation

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left\langle z_{0}, z_{1},\right. z_{2}, z_{3}, z_{4}: z_{0}^{-t-2} z_{1}^{2 t} z_{3}^{t}=1, z_{1}^{-t-2} z_{2}^{2 t} z_{4}^{t}=1, z_{0}^{-2} z_{1}^{4 t+2} z_{2}^{2}=1 \\
&\left.z_{1}^{t} z_{4}^{t}=z_{0} z_{3}, z_{0}^{t} z_{1}^{-1} z_{2}^{2 t} z_{3}^{t} z_{4}^{2 t+1}=z_{0}^{t+1} z_{1} z_{3}^{t+1} z_{4}=1, Z \text { abelian }\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\left[G^{\prime}: A\right]=4$, we see that $G^{\prime}$ has order $4 t^{3}|Z|$, which a routine, but tedious calculation, shows to be $24((\alpha-1) / 2)^{3} v_{6}(\alpha)$ as required; again, the details may be found in [6].

## 6. The groups $G(\alpha, 8)$

In this section, we mention some results about the groups $G(\alpha, 8)$. Some of these results were originally obtained by using a computer, and have subsequently been provided with hand proofs, and some still rely on the computer proofs. In general, we used a Todd-Coxeter program, to which the third author has added a Reidemeister-Schreier routine based on [20] and the Tietze transformation program described in [22].

The group $G(2,8)$ is metabelian of order $16 v_{8}(2)=9,216$ by Propositions 2.1 and 2.2. The group $G(3,8)$ is metabelian of order $16 v_{8}(3)=$ 75,504 and $G(5,8)$ is metabelian of order $16 v_{8}(5)=1,691,280$; this may be easily verified by means of Reidemeister-Schreier and Tietze transformation programs, and hand proofs are given in [6]. The group $G(4,8)$ is not metabelian, however, as $G(4,8)^{\prime \prime}$ is elementary abelian of order 27 , so that $G(4,8)$ has derived length 3 and order $16.27 . v_{8}(4)=11,197,440$; again, this may be verified using the programs mentioned above.

In contrast to the situation with $n \leq 7$, the groups $G(\alpha, 8)$ are not necessarily finite. For example, if $\alpha=6$, we have the group $G(6,8)$ defined by the presentation

$$
\left\langle a, b: a^{2}=b^{8}=a b^{-1} a b\left(a b a b^{-1}\right)^{5} a b^{2} a b^{-2}=1\right\rangle .
$$

We give a hand proof in [6] that $G(6,8)$ is infinite, though one can readily verify this using Proposition 4.3 and the computer programs mentioned above, which show that $\bar{N}$ is soluble of derived length 4 with derived factors $C_{8}, C_{5},\left(C_{2}\right)^{4}$ and $\left(C_{\infty}\right)^{5}$. Newman and O'Brien [30] have since pushed this further; they deduce that $G(6,8)$ has derived length 5 and that it has a polycyclic series with 5 infinite sections. Note that, by Proposition 4.4, this result gives yet another proof that $F(2,8)$ is infinite.

If $\alpha=7$, then $\bar{N}$ can be shown to have derived length 4 with derived factors $C_{8}, C_{3} \times C_{3}, C_{3}$ and $\left(C_{2}\right)^{6}$; so $G(7,8)$ has derived length 4 or 5 by Proposition 4.2 (ii); however, as we mentioned in the introduction, Newman and O'Brien [30] have since shown that $G(7,8)$ has derived length 5 , and full details of the computational techniques are included in their paper. On the other hand, if $\alpha=8$ or $\alpha=9$, then Todd-Coxeter shows that $\bar{N}$ is cyclic of order 8 in each case, so that $G(8,8)$ and $G(9,8)$ are metabelian of orders $16 v_{8}(8)=37,914,624$ and $16 v_{8}(9)=84,321,360$ respectively. We may
use similar computational techniques to show that the groups $G(10,8)$ and $G(11,8)$ are infinite.
7. The groups $G(\alpha, 10)$

In this section we mention some rather surprising results concerning the groups $G(\alpha, 10)$, and show that certain of these groups are insoluble. Now, by Proposition $4.3, G(\alpha, 10)$ is finite if and only if the group $\bar{N}$ with presentation $\left\langle\beta, \tau: \beta^{10}=\left(\beta \tau^{-1}\right)^{\alpha-1}=1, \tau \beta^{2}=\beta \tau^{2}\right\rangle$ is finite. If $\alpha=2,3,4$ or 5 , it is reasonably easy to check that $\bar{N}$ is cyclic of order 10 . However, if $\alpha=6$, then Reidemeister-Schreier yields the following presentation for $\bar{N}^{\prime}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle x, y: x^{5}=\right. & y^{5}=(x y)^{5}=\left(x y^{-1}\right)^{5}=\left(x^{2} y\right)^{5}=\left(x y^{-2}\right)^{5} \\
= & \left(x^{2} y x y\right)^{5}=\left(x y^{-1} x y^{-2}\right)^{5} \\
= & \left(x y^{2} x y^{-2}\right)^{5}=\left(x y x^{-1} y^{2} x^{-1} y x y^{-2}\right)^{5}=1 \\
& x^{2} y x y^{2} x^{-1} y x y^{-1} x y^{-1} x y x^{-1} y^{2} x y=1 \\
& \left.x^{2} y x^{2} y^{-1} x y^{-2} x y x^{-1} y^{2} x^{-1} y x y^{-2} x y^{-1}=1\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

A coset enumeration shows that $\bar{N}^{\prime}$ has order 62,400 , which is the same as that of $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$; it follows immediately from [24] that $\bar{N}^{\prime}$ is isomorphic to $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$. So we have

Proposition 7.1. If $\alpha=6, n=10$, then $\bar{N}$ is an extension of $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$ by $C_{10}$. In particular, $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$ is a homomorphic image of the Fibonacci group $F(2,10)$, and $G(6,10)$ is a finite insoluble group involving $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$.

We can relate this presentation of $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$ to previously obtained presentations, since a computer calculation shows that $\bar{N}^{\prime}=\langle u, v\rangle$, where $u$ := $y^{-1} x^{-1} y^{-2} x y^{-1} x^{-2} y^{-2} x y^{-1} x^{-1} y x^{-1} y^{3} x^{-1}$ and $v:=y x^{2} y$, and $\{u, v\}$ is a minimal generating pair for $\operatorname{PSU}(3,4)$ satisfying the relations $u^{2}=v^{3}=$ $(u v)^{15}=[u, v]^{5}=\left((u v)^{3}\left(u v^{-1}\right)^{3}\right)^{3}=\left(u v^{-1}(u v)^{5}\right)^{4}=1$ as detailed in [28]. Further details about $G(6,10)$ are provided in [30].

If we repeat the above computations with $\alpha=7$, we again get that $\bar{N}$ is an extension of a perfect group by $C_{10}$. This time, computer calculations show that there is a group $T$ of order $44,352,000$ which is a homomorphic image of $\bar{N}^{\prime}$, and $T$ acts as a permutation group on the cosets of a subgroup $\bar{K}$ of index 100 in $\bar{N}^{\prime}$. We have verified using Cayley [15] that $T$ is the HigmanSims simple group $H S$; however, the subgroup $\bar{K}$ has $\bar{K} / \bar{K}^{\prime}$ isomorphic to $C_{\infty}$, so that $G(7,10)$ is infinite.

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