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NORMAL SUBGROUPS OF HECKE GROUPS ON SPHERE AND TORUS*

İsmail Naci Cangül & Osman Bizim

Abstract

We use regular map theory to obtain all normal subgroups of Hecke groups of genus 0 and 1. The existence of a regular map corresponding uniquely to every normal subgroup of Hecke groups $H(\lambda_q)$ is a result of Jones and Singerman, and it is frequently used here to obtain normal subgroups. It is found that when q is even, $H(\lambda_q)$ has infinitely many normal subgroups on the sphere, while for odd q , this number is finite. The total number of normal subgroups of $H(\lambda_q)$ on a torus is found to be either 0 or infinite. The latter case appears iff q is a multiple of 4. Finally, a result of Rosenberger and Kern-Isberner is reproved here.

Keywords: Hecke groups, genus, regular maps

1. Introduction

Hecke groups $H(\lambda_q)$ are the discrete subgroups of $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbf{R})$ generated by two linear fractional transformations $R(z) = -1/z$ and $T(z) = z + \lambda_q$, where $\lambda_q = 2 \cos(\pi/q)$, $q \in \mathbf{N}$, $q \geq 3$. Let $S(z) = RT(z)$. Then R and S are elliptic elements (rotations) of orders 2 and q , respectively, and T is parabolic. $H(\lambda_q)$ is a Fuchsian group of the first kind with signature $(0; 2, q, \infty)$, and therefore can be considered as a triangle group with a parabolic generator.

* This work is partly based on the first author's PhD Thesis

The study of subgroups of Hecke groups, specially, of those which are normal, has been done in [1]. One of the ways of studying them is to make use of regular map theory. A map M is an embedding (without crossings) of a finite connected graph G into a compact connected surface S without boundary such that $S - G$ is a union of 2-cells. If m and n are the ℓ .c.m.s of the valencies of the faces and vertices, respectively, we then say M has type $\{m, n\}$. An automorphism of M is an orientation-preserving homeomorphism of S preserving the incidence relations. If the set of automorphisms of M is transitive on the set of edges, then M is called *regular*. All regular maps of genus ≤ 7 are known (see [2], [3] and [4]).

In [5], Jones and Singerman proved the existence of a 1:1 correspondence between regular maps and normal subgroups of certain triangle groups including Hecke groups. If N is a normal subgroup of $H(\lambda_q)$ corresponding to a regular map of type $\{m, n\}$, then n corresponds to the level of N , i.e. the least positive integer so that $T^n \in N$. This correspondence can be used to prove many results concerning normal subgroups of $H(\lambda_q)$. For example, as all regular maps of genus less than 8 are classified, we can easily find all normal subgroups of genus < 8 of $H(\lambda_q)$. Another nice application of regular map theory is the determination of the normal subgroups of $g=0$ and $g=1$ of Hecke groups. First we consider the case of $g=0$:

2. Normal Genus 0 Subgroups of $H(\lambda_q)$

Let N be a normal subgroup of genus 0 in $H(\lambda_q)$. Then $H(\lambda_q)/N$ is a group of automorphisms of \hat{U}/N where $\hat{U} = U \cup \mathbf{Q} \cup \{\infty\}$. This gives a regular map on the sphere so that $H(\lambda_q)/N$ is isomorphic to one of the finite triangle groups. These are known to be isomorphic to A_4 , S_4 , A_5 , C_n and D_n , for $n \in \mathbf{N}$. Now considering each of these groups as a quotient group of $H(\lambda_q)$, whenever possible, we can find all genus 0 normal subgroups of Hecke groups.

Let us begin with the cyclic group C_n of order n . If we map R to identity and S to the generator α of C_n where $n|q$, we obtain a homomorphism of $H(\lambda_q)$ to C_n . For each such n , we can obtain a normal subgroup N of genus 0 as the kernel of this homomorphism. By the permutation method, [1], N has the signature $(0; 2^{(n)}, q/n, \infty)$, i.e. it is isomorphic to the free product of n cyclic groups of order 2 and a cyclic group

of order q/n . Corresponding regular maps are called star maps. They consist of a vertex surrounded by a number of edges (see Figure 1).

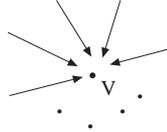


Figure 1.

Similarly, for each $n|q$, we obtain a normal subgroup N of genus 0 in $H(\lambda_q)$ such that $H(\lambda_q)/N \cong D_n$, the dihedral group of order $2n$. In that case, N has signature $(0; q/n, q/n, \infty^{(n)})$ and therefore is isomorphic to the free product of two cyclic groups of order q/n with $n-1$ infinite cyclic groups. Corresponding regular maps are regular polygons on the sphere.

The above classes of normal genus 0 subgroups of $H(\lambda_q)$ occur for any q . There are some more normal genus 0 subgroups whose existence completely depend on q . Recall that $A_4 \cong (2, 3, 3)$, $S_4 \cong (2, 3, 4)$ and $A_5 \cong (2, 3, 5)$. Now, if $3|q$, then $H(\lambda_q) \cong (2, q, \infty)$ can be mapped to A_4, S_4 and A_5 homomorphically. If $4|q$ ($5|q$, respectively), it can only be mapped to $S_4(A_5$, respectively). When $H(\lambda_q)/N$ is isomorphic to A_4 , then the corresponding regular map is a tetrahedron. If $H(\lambda_q)/N \cong (2, 3, 4)$ we obtain an octahedron and when it is $(2, 4, 3)$, a cube is obtained. Finally, when it is isomorphic to $(2, 3, 5)$ ($(2, 5, 3)$, respectively) an icosahedron (dodecahedron) is obtained.

There are also duals of regular polygons on the sphere corresponding to dihedral quotients $H(\lambda_q)/N \cong D_n \cong (2, 2, n)$. This class of genus 0 normal subgroups is obtained only when q is even. As for each $n \in \mathbf{N}$, we can obtain a normal subgroup, this class contains infinitely many normal genus 0 subgroups of $H(\lambda_q), q$ even. Therefore we have the following theorem.

Theorem 1. (i) *If q is odd then $H(\lambda_q)$ has finitely many normal subgroups of genus 0; their number is given by*

$$(a) \quad 2d(q) \quad \text{if } (q, 15) = 1,$$

- (b) $2d(q) + 3$ if $(q, 15) = 3$,
- (c) $2d(q) + 1$ if $(q, 15) = 5$,
- (d) $2d(q) + 4$ if $(q, 15) = 15$,

where $d(q)$ denotes the number of divisors of q .

(ii) If q is even then $H(\lambda_q)$ has infinitely many normal genus 0 subgroups.

Proof. We only prove (i) (b), i.e. we let q be odd such that $(q, 15) = 3$. As $H(\lambda_q)$ has signature $(2, q, \infty)$ it is only possible to map it to $(1, m, n)$ or $(2, m, n)$ where $m|q$ and $n \in \mathbf{N}$. Former ones give degenerate regular maps and therefore are omitted. As $m|q$, and as we are interested in the normal subgroups of genus 0, m is 3. This is because when q is odd we can only map $H(\lambda_q)$ to A_4, S_4 or A_5 to obtain normal subgroups corresponding to non-degenerate regular maps. This gives 3 normal genus 0 subgroups. There is also $d(q)$ of them corresponding to cyclic quotients and $d(q)$ of them corresponding to dihedral quotients. Therefore the result follows.

Other parts of the proof are similar and therefore omitted. □

3. Normal Genus 1 Subgroups of $H(\lambda_q)$

It is well-known that all regular maps of genus one are those of type $\{4, 4\}$, $\{3, 6\}$ or $\{6, 3\}$. They are classified in [2] and [5] as $\{4, 4\}_{r,s}$, $\{3, 6\}_{r,s}$ and $\{6, 3\}_{r,s}$ for non-negative integers r and s , not both 0.

In [7], Kern-Isberner and Rosenberger proved some results on genus 1 normal subgroups of certain free products. Their method of proof was number theoretical. As Hecke groups are free products, Theorems 2 to 6 of this section can also be deduced from Theorems 1, 2 and 3 of this paper. Here we use the 1:1 correspondence mentioned and used above to find all genus 1 normal subgroups of Hecke groups. The proofs are direct results of this correspondence. We first have the following theorems.

Theorem 2. $H(\lambda_q)$ has a normal subgroup of genus 1 iff $q \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ or $q \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$.

Proof. The existence of such a subgroup completely depends on the divisibility of q by 3, 4 and 6, as all regular maps on a torus are of type $\{4, 4\}$, $\{3, 6\}$ and $\{6, 3\}$. For

example, if $4|q$, then $H(\lambda_q)$ has normal genus 1 subgroups corresponding to regular maps of type $\{4, 4\}$. Now if N is a normal subgroup of genus 1 in $H(\lambda_q)$, then $3|q$, $4|q$ or $6|q$ implying $q \equiv 0 \pmod 3$ or $q \equiv 0 \pmod 4$. Conversely, if $q \equiv 0 \pmod 3$ or $q \equiv 0 \pmod 4$, then either 3 or 4 divides q . In the first (second) case $H(\lambda_q)$ has a normal genus 1 subgroup corresponding to a regular map of type $\{3, 6\}$ ($\{4, 4\}$, respectively). \square

Theorem 3. *The total number of normal genus 1 subgroups of $H(\lambda_q)$ is either 0 or ∞ .*

Proof. If $H(\lambda_q)$ has a normal genus 1 subgroup, then it corresponds to either $\{4, 4\}_{r,s}$, $\{3, 6\}_{r,s}$ or $\{6, 3\}_{r,s}$ for a pair of non-negative integers r and s . As r and s can be chosen in infinitely many ways, the result follows. \square

We can characterize the freeness of a normal genus 1 subgroup of $H(\lambda_q)$ as follows:

Theorem 4. (i) *All normal subgroups of genus 1 of $H(\lambda_q)$ are free iff $q=3$ or 4 .*

(ii) *The only values of q such that $H(\lambda_q)$ has a normal free subgroup of genus 1 are 3, 4 and 6.*

Proof. To have a free normal subgroup, we must map $(2, q, \infty)$ to a subgroup of the triangle group $(2, q, n)$, where $n \in \mathbf{N}$. In that case the corresponding regular map will be type $\{q, n\}$. Because of $g=1$, q or n could only be 3, 4 or 6. Then result follows. \square

Now we want to calculate the number of normal genus 1 subgroups of $H(\lambda_q)$. Note that if N is a normal genus 1 subgroup of $H(\lambda_4)$, then it is also a normal genus 1 subgroup of every $H(\lambda_{4k})$, $k \in \mathbf{N}$. Similarly, if M is a normal genus 1 subgroup of $H(\lambda_6)$, then it is also a normal genus 1 subgroup of every $H(\lambda_{6\ell})$, $\ell \in \mathbf{N}$. Therefore if we can calculate the number of normal genus 1 subgroups of $H(\lambda_4)$ and $H(\lambda_6)$, then we can calculate this number for all q . Theorem 2 implies that if $(q, 12) < 3$ then $H(\lambda_q)$ has no normal genus 1 subgroups. Let us begin with $q=4$ case. If N is a normal genus 1 subgroup of $H(\lambda_4)$, then it corresponds, in a 1:1 way, to a regular map $M = \{4, 4\}_{r,s}$. Also,

$$|AutM| = |H(\lambda_4) : N| = \mu = 4(r^2 + s^2).$$

Note that we obtain N by mapping $H(\lambda_4)$ to a normal subgroup of $(2, 4, 4)$. This implies that the level of N is 4. Therefore

$$\mu = 4t,$$

where t is the parabolic class number of N . This implies that

$$t = r^2 + s^2.$$

Clearly, more than one pair (r, s) satisfy the last equation. We define an equivalence relation on these pairs: $(r_1, s_1) \approx (r_2, s_2)$ if $|r_1| = |r_2|$ or $|r_1| = |s_2|$, and $|s_1| = |r_2|$ or $|s_1| = |s_2|$ i.e. two pairs are equivalent if the entries of one can be transformed to the entries of the other by changing the signs and/or order. Now given $\mu = 4t$, $H(\lambda_4)$ has as many normal subgroups of genus 1 with index μ as the number of possible “non-equivalent” pairs (r, s) such that $r^2 + s^2 = t$. Note that for each pair (r, s) there are 3 more equivalent pairs. As each set of equivalent pairs gives a normal genus 1 subgroup N , we obtain the following result:

Theorem 5. *The number $N_4(\mu)$ of normal genus 1 subgroups of $H(\lambda_4)$ of index μ is*

$$N_4(\mu) = 1/4 \cdot \#\{(r, s) : r, s \in \mathbf{Z}, r^2 + s^2 = t\},$$

i.e. $N_4(\mu)$ is equal to a quarter of the number of representations of $t = \mu/4$ as the sum of two squares in \mathbf{Z} .

Remark 1. *This number has been found in [7] using the multiplicativity of $N_4(\mu)$.*

Using a well-known number-theoretical result (see e.g. [6]), we can determine $N_4(\mu)$ more explicitly:

Theorem 6. *Let $t = 2^\alpha \prod_b P_b^{\ell_b} \prod_c q_c^{m_c}$ be the prime power decomposition of t , where $p_b \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $q_c \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Then*

$$N_4(\mu) = r(t)/4,$$

where $r(t)$ is the number of integer solutions of the Diophantine equation $x^2 + y^2 = t$ given by $r(t)=0$ if one of the m_c is odd, and by

$$r(t) = 4 \prod_b (\ell_b + 1)$$

if all m_c are even.

Remark 2. The first few values of $N_4(\mu)$ are given in the following table:

t	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
μ	4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40
$N_4(\mu)$	1	1	0	1	2	0	0	1	1	2

In a similar way to the case $q=4$ discussed above, we can find the number of normal genus 1 subgroups of $H(\lambda_6)$ as follows (there is a hint in [7] about how to prove Theorems 7 to 9. But the proofs we give here are completely different):

Theorem 7. (i) The number $N_6(\mu)$ of all normal subgroups of genus 1 of $H(\lambda_6)$ of index μ is

$$N_6(\mu) = 1/3 \cdot \#\{(r, s) : r, s \in \mathbf{Z}, r^2 + rs + s^2 = t/2\}.$$

(ii) $N_6(\mu)/2$ is the number of normal torsion (or torsion-free) subgroups of genus 1 of $H(\lambda_6)$ having index μ .

Again using a well-known result (see e.g. [6]), we can express $N_6(\mu)$ more explicitly:

Theorem 8. $N_6(\mu) = 2\varepsilon$, where ε is the number of divisors of $\mu/6$ of the form $3a+1$ subtracting the number of divisors of the form $3b+2$.

Remark 3. (i) The following table gives the first few values of $N_6(\mu)$:

t	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20
$\mu = 3t$	6	12	18	24	30	36	42	48	54	60
$N_6(\mu)$	2	0	2	2	0	0	4	0	2	0

(ii) $N_6(\mu)$ is always even.

We can now generalize all these to all values of q :

Theorem 9. *The number $N_q(\mu)$ of normal genus 1 subgroups of $H(\lambda_q)$ of index μ is*

$$N_q(\mu) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (q, 12) = 1 \text{ or } 12 \\ \beta/2 & \text{if } 3|q, q \text{ odd and } \mu = 3t_2 \\ 0 & \text{if } 3|q, q \text{ odd and } \mu \neq 3t_2 \\ \alpha & \text{if } 4|q, 3|q \text{ and } \mu = 4t_1 \\ 0 & \text{if } 4|q, 3|q \text{ and } \mu \neq 4t_1 \\ \beta & \text{if } 6|q, 4|q \text{ and } \mu = 3t_2 \\ 0 & \text{if } 6|q, 4|q \text{ and } \mu \neq 3t_2 \\ \alpha + \beta & \text{if } 12|q \text{ and } \mu = 3t_2 = 4t_1 \\ \alpha & \text{if } 12|q \text{ and } \mu = 3t_2 \neq 4t_1 \\ \beta & \text{if } 12|q \text{ and } \mu = 4t_1 \neq 3t_2 \\ 0 & \text{if } 12|q \text{ and } 3t_2 \neq \mu \neq 4t_1 \end{cases}$$

where t_1 and t_2 are such that $t_1 = r_1^2 + s_1^2$ and $t_2 = 2(r_2^2 + r_2s_2 + s_2^2)$ and also

$$\alpha = 1/4 \cdot \#\{(r_1, s_1) : r_1, s_1 \in \mathbb{Z}, t_1 = r_1^2 + s_1^2\}$$

and

$$\beta = 1/3 \cdot \#\{(r_2, s_2) : r_2, s_2 \in \mathbb{Z}, 2(r_2^2 + r_2s_2 + s_2^2)\}$$

Example 1. *Let $q = 84$. As $12|q$, total number of normal genus 1 subgroups is either $0, \alpha, \beta$ or $\alpha + \beta$. The first few values of $N_{84}(\mu)$ are given in the following table:*

μ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
$N_{84}(\mu)$	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
μ	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
$N_{84}(\mu)$	1	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0

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