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CONJUGACY SEPARABILITY OF GROUPS OF INTEGER MATRICES

PETER F. STEBE

ABSTRACT. An element g of a group G is conjugacy distinguished if and only if given any element h of G either g is conjugate to h or there is a homomorphism ξ of G onto a finite group such that $\xi(g)$ is not conjugate to $\xi(h)$. Following A. W. Mostowski, a group is conjugacy separable if every one of its elements is conjugacy distinguished. Let GL(n, Z) be the group of $n \times n$ integer matrices with determinant ± 1 . Let SL(n, Z) be the subgroup of GL(n, Z) consisting of matrices with determinant +1. It is shown that GL(n, Z) and SL(n, Z) are conjugacy separable if and only if n=1 or 2. The groups SL(n, Z) are also called unimodular groups. Let $GL(n, Z_p)$ be the group of invertible p-adic integer matrices and $SL(n, Z_p)$ be the group of p-adic integer matrices with determinant 1. It is shown that $GL(n, Z_p)$ and $SL(n, Z_p)$ are conjugacy separable for all p and all p.

1. Introduction. A. W. Mostowski [4] defined conjugacy separable groups (see the abstract to this paper) and showed that the conjugacy problem is solvable in finitely presented conjugacy separable groups. It has been shown [6] that the free products of conjugacy separable groups are conjugacy separable and the elements of infinite order in a finite extension of a free group are conjugacy distinguished:

According to H. S. M. Coxeter and W. O. J. Moser [2, p. 85], the group GL(2, Z) has the presentation $(x, y, z; x^2=y^2=z^2=1, (xy)^3=(xz)^2, (xz)^4=1)$. Clearly GL(2, Z) is the free product of the groups $G_1=(x, y; x^2=y^2=1, (xy)^6=1)$ and $G_2=(v, z; v^2=z^2=1, (vz)^4=1)$ with amalgamating relations x=v and $(vz)^2=(xy)^3$. Thus an abelian subgroup of order 4 is amalgamated. The group SL(2, Z) is a subgroup of index 2 in GL(2, Z) and has the presentation $(x, y; x^2=y^3, x^4=1)$. These presentations will be used to show that GL(2, Z) and SL(2, Z) are conjugacy separable.

2. Conjugacy separability of $GL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ and $SL(2, \mathbb{Z})$.

THEOREM 1. The group $GL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ is conjugacy separable.

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PROOF. By the remarks in the Introduction, there is a free group F such that $[SL(2,Z); F] < \infty$ and $[GL(2,Z):SL(2,Z)] < \infty$. Thus $[GL(2,Z):F] < \infty$ ∞ . According to [6, Theorem 2], every element of infinite order in GL(2, Z) is conjugacy distinguished in GL(2, Z). It follows from [3, Corollary 4.9.1] that the elements of finite order in $GL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ are conjugate to elements of the factors G_1 and G_2 described in the Introduction. Thus, to show that GL(2, Z) is conjugacy separable we need only show that the conjugates of elements of G_1 and G_2 are conjugacy distinguished. Let g be an element of $GL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ conjugate to an element of G_1 or G_2 . Let h be any element of GL(2, Z) not conjugate to g. If h has infinite order in GL(2, Z), h is conjugacy distinguished in $GL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ so there is a homomorphism ξ of $GL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ onto a finite group such that $\xi(g)$ is not conjugate to $\xi(h)$ in $\xi(GL(2, Z))$. Thus we need only consider h of finite order in GL(2, Z)and hence h conjugate to an element of G_1 or G_2 . Clearly, to show that there is a homomorphism ξ of $GL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ onto a finite group such that $\xi(g)$ is not conjugate to $\xi(h)$ in GL(2, Z) we can replace g and h by their conjugates in G_1 or G_2 , and by representatives of their conjugacy classes in these subgroups. The elements 1, x, y, xy, $(xy)^2$ and $(xy)^3$ are a complete set of conjugacy class representatives for the subgroup G_1 . Note that the defining relation $(xy)^3 = (xz)^2$ implies that yxyxy = zxz. Since x, y and z are of order 2, x is conjugate to y in GL(2, Z). Also, the elements 1, v, z, vz and $(vz)^2$ are a complete set of conjugacy class representatives for the subgroup G_2 . Using the identifications x=v and $(vz)^2=(xy)^3$ we conclude that every element of finite order in GL(2, Z) is conjugate to one of the elements of the set $\{1, x, z, xz, (xz)^2, xy, (xy)^2\}$. The orders of those elements are, respectively $\{1, 2, 2, 4, 2, 6, 3\}$.

If η is a finite representation of GL(2, Z) faithful on the factors G_1 and G_2 of GL(2, Z), the images of two elements of different order will not be conjugate in $\eta(GL(2, Z))$. According to B. H. Neumann [5, p. 532], such a representation exists. Thus we need only consider g and h conjugate to different elements of the set $(x, z, (xz)^2)$. Let ξ be the representation of GL(2, Z) induced by imposing the relation y=x. The image of GL(2, Z) is generated by $u=\eta(x), w=\eta(z)$ with relations $u^2=w^2=(uw)^2=1$. Clearly $\eta(x) \not\sim \eta(z), \ \eta(x) \not\sim \eta((xz)^2)=1$ and $\eta(z) \not\sim \eta((xz)^2)=1$.

THEOREM 2. The group $SL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ is conjugacy separable.

PROOF. Since SL(2, Z) has the presentation $(x, y; x^2 = y^3, x^4 = 1)$, it is the free product of a cyclic group of order 4 and a cyclic group of order 6 with amalgamation. Every element of finite order in SL(2, Z) is conjugate to an element of a factor of SL(2, Z), so that an element of finite order in SL(2, Z) is conjugate to a power of x or y. Let η be the homomorphism of

SL(2, Z) onto the cyclic group of order 12 $(u; u^{12}=1)$ given by $\eta(x)=u^3$, $\eta(y)=u^2$. The conjugacy class representatives of the elements of finite order in SL(2, Z) are the elements $(1, x, x^2, x^3, y, y^2, y^4, y^5)$. Their η images are, respectively, $(1, u^3, u^6, u^9, u^2, u^4, u^8, u^{10})$. Thus if g and h are any two elements of finite order in SL(2, Z), either g is conjugate to h or $\eta(g)$ is not conjugate to $\eta(h)$. Let g and h be any two nonconjugate elements of SL(2, Z). Since SL(2, Z) has a free subgroup of finite index, every element of infinite order in SL(2, Z) is conjugacy distinguished. Hence to prove conjugacy separability, we may assume that g and g are of finite order. Then g is not conjugate to g is conjugacy distinguished. Hence SL(2, Z) is conjugacy separable.

3. The groups GL(n, Z) and SL(n, Z). Let A and B be the matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 17(11) + 1 & 25(11) \\ 11^2 & 16(11) + 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 17(11) + 1 & 11 \\ 25(11)^2 & 16(11) + 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

EXAMPLE 1. The matrices A and B have the following properties:

- (i) determinant A = determinant B = 1;
- (ii) neither A nor B has eigenvalue 1;
- (iii) if n is an integer there is an integer matrix T_n such that $T_nA \equiv BT_n \mod (n)$ and determinant $T_n=1$;
- (iv) there is no 2×2 integer matrix T such that TA = BT and determinant $T = \pm 1$.

Argument. Properties (i) and (ii) follow from a simple computation. To obtain (iii) we need a lemma.

LEMMA 1. Let T be a 2×2 integer matrix. Let n be an integer. If determinant $T \equiv 1 \mod n$ there is an integer matrix U such that determinant U=1 and $U\equiv T \mod n$.

PROOF. Let $T=(t_{i,j})$, i=1, 2, j=1, 2. Let d be the greatest common divisor of t_{11} and t_{12} . Let $t_{11}=t_{11}^*d$, $t_{12}=t_{12}^*d$, so that t_{11}^* and t_{12}^* are relatively prime integers. Thus there are integers a and b such that $at_{12}^*-bt_{11}^*=1$. Let determinant T=1+rn. Let U be the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} t_{11} + n(a + ct_{11}) & t_{12} + n(b + ct_{12}) \\ t_{21} + n dt_{11}^* & t_{22} + n dt_{12}^* \end{bmatrix}$$

with $c=bt_{21}-at_{22}-r$, d=-cr. Clearly $U\equiv T \mod n$ and it follows from evaluation that determinant U=1.

The matrix U was suggested by Edward A. Bender.

Lemma 1 implies that (iii) is shown if we can show that for each n there

is a matrix T_n such that $T_n A \equiv BT_n \mod n$ and determinant $T_n \equiv 1 \mod n$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, we can restrict our attention to n a power of a prime p.

Let V(x, y) be the polynomial matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ 11y & 25x - y \end{bmatrix}.$$

By a computation we obtain V(x, y)A = BV(x, y). Thus, if for each prime power p^z we can obtain integers x and y such that determinant $V(x, y) \equiv 1 \mod p^z$, we have shown (iii). Since determinant $V(x, y) = 25x^2 - xy - 11y^2$ we must solve the congruence $25x^2 - xy - 11y^2 \equiv 1 \mod p^z$. If $p \neq 5$, a solution is y = 0, x such that $5x \equiv 1 \mod p^z$. If p = 5, -11 is a quadratic residue mod 5^z for all z. Thus for p = 5, a solution is x = 0, y such that $-11y^2 \equiv 1 \mod 5^z$.

Consider now (iv). Let $T=(t_{ij})$ be an integer matrix such that TA=BT. These linear relations imply that $t_{12}=25t_{11}-t_{22}$ and $t_{21}=11t_{12}$. The determinant of T is ± 1 if and only if $t_{11}t_{22}-t_{21}t_{12}=\pm 1$, which is equivalent to $25t_{11}^2-t_{11}t_{12}=\pm 1$. Thus to show (iv) we will show that the equations $25x^2-xy-11y^2=\pm 1$ have no integral solution. Now $25x^2-xy-11y^2=-1$ has no integral solution for it is unsolvable modulo 3. Thus we consider only $25x^2-xy-11y^2=1$. Note that if x and y satisfy the equation, y is relatively prime to 5.

Applying the quadratic formula, (x, y) is an integral solution only if $1101y^2+100$ is a perfect square. We will show that all solutions (u, y) of the Pell equation $u^2=1101y^2+100$ have the property that y is a multiple of 5, and hence $25x^2-xy-11y^2=1$ has no integral solution.

First we obtain the minimal positive solution of $r^2=1101s^2+1$. We expand $(1101)^{1/2}$ into a continued fraction of the form

$$a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \cdots}}$$

and obtain $a_0=33$, $a_1=5$, $a_2=1$, $a_3=1$, $a_4=16$, $a_5=22$, $a_6=16$, $a_7=1$, $a_8=1$, $a_9=5$, $a_{10}=66$, $a_{n+10}=a_n$ for n>0. From these values it follows that the convergents P_i/Q_i to $(1101)^{1/2}$ are given by the table below.

If (u, y) is a solution to the equation $u^2 = 1101y^2 + 1$, $u^2 - 1$ is divisible by 1101 = 3(367). Hence $P_9 = 24313015$ is the least possible candidate for a solution. We have

$$P_9 + 1 = 24313016 = 367(8)(8281) = 367(8)(91)^2,$$

 $P_9 - 1 = 24313014 = 6(4052169) = 6(2013)^2,$

i	$Q_i = a_i Q_{i-1} + Q_{i-2}$	$P_i = a_i P_{i-1} + P_{i-2}$	$P_i \mod 367$	$P_i \mod 3$
0	1	33	33	0
1	5	166	166	1
2	6	199	199	1
3	11	365	-2	-1
4	182	6039	167	0
5	4015	133223	2	—1
6	64422	2137607	199	— 1
7	68437	2270830	201	1
8	132859	4408437	33	0
9	732732	24313015	-1	1

so that

$$P_9^2 - 1 = (367)(3)(16)(91)^2(2013)^2 = 1101(4(91)(2013))^2$$

and (P_9, Q_9) is the minimum positive solution to $u^2 = 1101y^2 + 1$.

Let $a=P_9+(1101)^{1/2}Q_9$. If (u_1, y_1) is a particular solution to $u^2=1101y^2+100$, every (x, y) satisfying $x+y(1101)^{1/2}=(u_1+(1101)^{1/2}y_1)a^n$ is also a solution, and this formula yields a class of solutions containing (u_1, y_1) . If we set b=a/(a-1), it is well known that there is a representative (u_1, y_1) of each class satisfying

$$0 \le u_1 \le \left(\frac{bP_9 + 1}{2} \cdot 100\right)^{1/2}.$$

We compute $0 \le u_1 \le 34866$. Since $0 \le y_1 < u_1/33$ we have $0 \le y_1 \le 1057$. Using a computer to test all values of y in this range, we find only the two solutions $y_1=0$, $u_1=10$ and $y_1=55$, $u_1=1825$. Thus there are just two classes of solutions, and if u, y is any solution to $u^2=1101y^2+100$, then 5 divides y. Thus the equation $25x^2-xy-11y^2=1$ has no integral solution.

Example 2. Let k be an integer greater than 2. There are two $k \times k$ integer matrices A_k and B_k with determinant +1 such that:

- (i) For each integer n there is an integer matrix $T_{n,k}$ with determinant +1 such that $T_{n,k}A_k \equiv B_kT_{n,k} \mod n$.
- (ii) There is no integer matrix T such that $TA_k = B_k T$ and determinant $T = \pm 1$.

Let I be the $(k-2) \times (k-2)$ identity matrix 0_1 the $(k-2) \times 2$ zero matrix and 0_2 the $2 \times (k-2)$ zero matrix. Let A and B be as in Example 1. For k>2 let

$$A_k = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0_1 \\ 0_2 & A \end{bmatrix}, \qquad B_k = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0_1 \\ 0_2 & B \end{bmatrix}.$$

To show (i), let

$$T_{n,k} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0_1 \\ 0_2 & T_n \end{bmatrix}$$

where T_n is a matrix satisfying Example 1, (iii).

Consider now (ii). If (ii) is false, there is an integer matrix T with determinant ± 1 such that $TA_k = B_k T$. Let $T = \begin{bmatrix} R & S \\ U & V \end{bmatrix}$ where R is $(k-2) \times (k-2)$, S is $(k-2) \times 2$, U is $2 \times (k-2)$ and V is 2×2 . Using block multiplication of matrices, $TA_k = B_k T$ implies

$$\begin{bmatrix} R & SA \\ U & VA \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R & S \\ BU & BV \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus SA=S and U=BU. Since neither A nor B has eigenvalue 1, $S=0_1$ and $U=0_2$. Then determinant V is a factor of determinant T so determinant V is ± 1 and VA=BV. By Example 1, (iv), V and hence T cannot exist.

THEOREM 3. The group $GL(k, \mathbb{Z})$ and $SL(k, \mathbb{Z})$ are conjugacy separable if and only if k=1 or 2.

PROOF. We have seen in Theorems 1 and 2 that $GL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ and $SL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ are conjugacy separable. The groups $GL(1, \mathbb{Z})$ and $SL(1, \mathbb{Z})$ are finite.

Now suppose SL(k, Z) is conjugacy separable. Since A_k is not conjugate to B_k in SL(k, Z), there is a normal subgroup N of finite index in SL(k, Z) such that A_k is not conjugate to B_k modulo N. For k > 2, it follows from a result of H. Bass, M. Lazard and J.-P. Serre [1], that N contains a congruence subgroup. Thus there is an integer n such that $TA_k \not\equiv B_k T \mod n$ for all integer matrices T with determinant +1. But this contradicts Example 2, (ii). Thus SL(k, Z) is not conjugacy separable for k > 2. Since SL(k, Z) is of index 2 in GL(k, Z), the result quoted from [1] also applies in GL(k, Z). But then the same argument shows that GL(k, Z) is not conjugacy separable for k > 2.

4. The groups $GL(n, Z_p)$ and $SL(n, Z_p)$. Now let Z_p be the ring of p-adic integers. For each m there is a naturally defined ring homomorphism $\xi_{p,m}$ from Z_p onto the ring $I_{p,m}$ of integers modulo p^m . If A is a p-adic integer matrix, let $A_m = \xi_{p,m}(A)$.

Now let A and B be elements of $\mathrm{GL}(n,Z_p)$ such that for all m, A_m is conjugate to B_m in $I_{p,m}$. Thus for each m we have an integer matrix T_m such that $T_m A_m \equiv B_m T_m \mod p^m$ and $\det T_m \not\equiv 0 \mod p^m$. Thus if $X = (x_{i,j})$ is an $n \times n$ matrix of indeterminates, the equations $XA_m \equiv B_m X$, $\det X + yp - k \equiv 0$, $k \in (1, \dots, p-1)$, are solvable mod p^m for X and Y. Since a solution mod P^m yields a solution mod P^m and there are but finitely many values of P^m , it follows that there is a single value of P^m such that P^m and the P^m for all P^m . It now follows by

standard methods that there is a p-adic integer matrix T such that TA = BT and $\xi_{p,1}$ det $T = k \neq 0$. But then T is invertible and $A \sim B$ in $GL(n, Z_p)$. Thus $GL(n, Z_p)$ is conjugacy separable.

If A and B are elements of $SL(n, Z_p)$ and we replace yp+k by -1 in the above argument, we obtain that $SL(n, Z_p)$ is conjugacy separable. We have proved Theorem 4.

THEOREM 4. The groups $SL(n, Z_p)$ and $GL(n, Z_p)$ are conjugacy separable for all n and primes p.

Note that Theorem 4 does not itself imply that the conjugacy problem is solvable in $SL(n, Z_p)$ and $GL(n, Z_p)$.

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