

RESEARCH ARTICLE



Primitive Representations and the Modular Group

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Abstract

Objectives: Primitive representations are useful to explore the modular group action on real quadratic field. **Methods/Statistical Analysis:** By using primitive representations structure of G-orbit are obtained. **Finding:** Conditions on n and a, b, c are determined when $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G, \alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G, \alpha^G = (-\alpha)^G, \alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G = (-\alpha)^G$ and $\alpha^G \neq (\bar{\alpha})^G \neq (-\bar{\alpha})^G \neq (-\alpha)^G$, where $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}$ with $b = \frac{a^2-n}{c}$ is real quadratic irrational number. We also find some elements of modular group $PSL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ that moves α to $\bar{\alpha}, \alpha$ to $-\bar{\alpha}$ and α to $-\alpha$. **Applications:** By using these conditions, we can construct the structure of the G-orbit. These results are verified by suitable examples.

Keywords: Primitive Representations; coset diagram; modular group; quadratic field

1 Introduction

Binary quadratic form is one of the subjects treated in elementary number theory. Another subject treated in elementary number theory is the possibility of representing a positive integer as a sum of two squares and difference of two squares. The representations $n = x^2 + y^2$ and $n = x^2 - y^2$ which are of our interest are special cases of general binary quadratic form $f(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$ and the representation $n = x^2 + y^2$ is primitive representation if $(x, y) = 1$.

Let $n = k^2 m$, where $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and m is a square free positive integer. Take $Q^*(\sqrt{n}) = \left\{ \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} : a, b = \frac{a^2-n}{c}, c \in \mathbb{Z}, c \neq 0 \text{ and } (a, b, c) = 1 \right\}$ and

$Q_{red}^*(\sqrt{n}) = \left\{ \alpha \in Q^*(\sqrt{n}) : \alpha > 1 \text{ and } -1 < \bar{\alpha} < 0 \right\}$. Then

$(Q(\sqrt{m}) \setminus Q) = \cup_{k \in \mathbb{N}} Q^*(\sqrt{k^2 m})$ contain $Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ and $Q_{red}^*(\sqrt{n})$ as G-subset and subsets respectively.

If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$, if α and $\bar{\alpha}$ have different signs, then α is said to be an ambiguous number. A quadratic irrational number α is said to be reduced if $\alpha > 1$ and $-1 < \bar{\alpha} < 0$. The modular group $PSL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ is the group of all linear fractional transformations $z \rightarrow \frac{sz+t}{uz+v}$ with $sv - tu = 1$, where s, v, t, u are integers.

This group can be presented as $G = \langle x, y : x^2 = y^3 = 1 \rangle$, where $x : z \rightarrow \frac{-1}{z}, y : z \rightarrow \frac{z-1}{z}$

Modular group can be written in the matrix form as it is the set of 2×2 matrices with integral entries and determinant 1. It is generated by two matrices $X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $Y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ of orders 2 and 3 respectively.

Now the product of two transformations is the same as the product of corresponding matrices. For the sake of simplicity, we use matrices instead of transformations.

A coset diagram is a graph consisting of vertices and edges. It depicts a permutation representation of the modular group G , the 3-cycles of y are denoted by three vertices of a triangle permuted anticlockwise by y and the two vertices which are interchanged by x are joined by an edge.

In [1, 2], types of length 4, 6 satisfying exactly one of the conditions namely $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G$, $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$, $\alpha^G = (-\alpha)^G$, $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G = (-\alpha)^G$ have been determined.

In [3, 4] formula for total numbers of ambiguous numbers in $Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ is determined. In [5] it is explored that if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ then $(\lfloor \sqrt{p} \rfloor + \sqrt{p})^G$ include circuit of length 2 and in which $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G = (-\alpha)^G$. In [6] it is describe that if $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ then $(\lfloor \sqrt{p} \rfloor + \sqrt{p})^G$ contains circuit of length 2 and in which $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$.

2 Materials and Methods

Lemma 2.1 [7] Let $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}$ be an ambiguous number. Then $x(\alpha)$, $y(\alpha)$, $y^2(\alpha)$ are always ambiguous numbers.

Lemma 2.2 [8] If a natural number n can be written as sum of two squares of two rational numbers, then n can be written as sum of two squares of two integers.

Lemma 2.3 [9] Any two elements of the same order are conjugate in a group G .

Lemma 2.4 [6] $g(\bar{\alpha}) = \overline{g(\alpha)}$ for all $g \in G$ and $\alpha \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$.

3 Results and Discussion

For $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$, the elements α , $\bar{\alpha}$, $-\alpha$ and $-\bar{\alpha}$ play an important role in the study of modular group action on $Q(\sqrt{n}) \mid Q = U_{k \in N} Q^*(\sqrt{k^2 n})$.

In this section we determine the elements of G and conditions on a , b , c when $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G$, $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$.

In the following theorem, we describe the elements of G that moves real quadratic irrational numbers to their conjugates.

Theorem 3.1: If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ is such that $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G$, then the element g of G such that $g(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$ is of the form $g = (g_1)^{-1} x g_1$ for some $g_1 \in G$.

Proof: Let $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ be such that $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G$, then there exists an element $g = \begin{bmatrix} s & t \\ u & v \end{bmatrix}$ in G , which satisfy

$$\frac{s\alpha+t}{u\alpha+v} = \bar{\alpha}.$$

That is $s\alpha + t = (u\alpha + v)\bar{\alpha}$.

This implies that $s\alpha + t = u\alpha\bar{\alpha} + v\bar{\alpha}$.

This can be written as $s\left(\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}\right) + t = u\left(\frac{a^2-n}{c^2}\right) + v\left(\frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{-c}\right)$.

This gives $as + ct = bu + av$, $s = -v$.

So, we have $g = \begin{bmatrix} s & t \\ \frac{2as+ct}{b} & -s \end{bmatrix}$.

Then

$$g^2 = \begin{bmatrix} s & t \\ \frac{2as+ct}{b} & -s \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s & t \\ \frac{2as+ct}{b} & -s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s^2 + \frac{2ast+ct^2}{b} & 0 \\ 0 & s^2 + \frac{2ast+ct^2}{b} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$$

Since g is an element of order 2, but any two elements of same order are conjugate by lemma 2.3. So, g is of the form $g = (g_1)^{-1} x g_1$.

Example 3.1: If $\alpha = \frac{-3+\sqrt{29}}{-10}$, then $\bar{\alpha} = \frac{3+\sqrt{29}}{10}$. The elements which moves α to $\bar{\alpha}$ are y^2xy and $(xy)^4x(y^2x)^4$ see Figure 1.

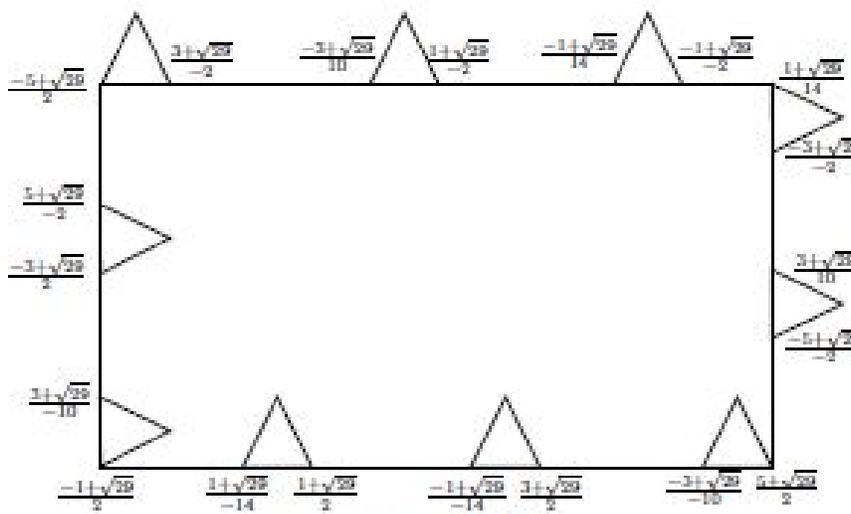


Figure 1: Orbit $(\frac{1+\sqrt{29}}{2})^G$

Fig 1. Orbit

But both elements can be written as $y^2xy = y^{-1}xy$ and $(xy)^4x(y^2x)^4 = ((y^2x))^{-4}x(y^2x)^4$. Both elements of G are in $C_x = \{g^{-1}xg : g \in G\}$.

Corollary 3.2: If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$, then $x(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$ if and only if $b = -c$.

Proof: As $x(\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}) = \frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{-c}$ implies that $\frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{b} = \frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{-c}$. So, $b = -c$.

Conversely, if $b = -c$, then $x(\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}) = \frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{b} = \frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{-c}$.

Corollary 3.3: If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$, then $x(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$ if and only if n has a primitive representation.

Proof: It has been proved in [5], that $x(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$ if and only if $n = a^2 + c^2$. It remains only to show that this representation is primitive.

As $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$, then $(a, b, c) = 1$. Now by Lemma 3.2, $x(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$ if and only if $b = -c$. Thus $(a, b, c) = (a, -c, c) = (a, c) = 1$. As required.

Remark 3.4 Corollary 3.3 holds only when n has primitive representation.

Example 3.5: Consider $n = 2^2 + 6^2$, then this representation is not primitive. By using corollary 3.3, we have $\alpha = \frac{2+\sqrt{40}}{6}$ corresponding this representation. Then $x(\alpha) = x(\frac{2+\sqrt{40}}{6}) = \frac{-2+\sqrt{40}}{-6} = \bar{\alpha}$. But $\alpha = \frac{2+\sqrt{40}}{6} = \frac{1+\sqrt{10}}{3} \notin Q^*(\sqrt{40})$

Corollary 3.6 : If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ and $x(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$. Then $x(-\alpha) = -\bar{\alpha}$.

Proof: If $x(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$ then by lemma 3.2 $b = -c$.
 Now $x(-\alpha) = x(\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{-c}) = \frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{\frac{a^2-n}{-c}} = \frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{-b} = \frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{c} = -\bar{\alpha}$.

Corollary 3.7 : If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ and $x(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$. Then $(\frac{c+\sqrt{n}}{a})x = \frac{-c+\sqrt{n}}{-a}$.

Proof: It has been proved in [5], that $x(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$ if and only if $n = a^2 + c^2$.
 Also $n = c^2 + a^2$ if and only if $x(\frac{c+\sqrt{n}}{a}) = \frac{-c+\sqrt{n}}{-a}$.

Corollary 3.8: If $\alpha = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$, then $x(\alpha) \neq \bar{\alpha}$.

Proof: We prove this result by contradiction.

On contrary, we suppose that $(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$.

Then, $x\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{c}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{-c}$. This implies that $\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{c}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{-c}$.

That is, $\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{c}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{-c}$.

Thus $n = c^2$, a contradiction. So, $(\alpha) \neq \bar{\alpha}$.

Example 3.9: If $\alpha = \sqrt{2}$, then $\bar{\alpha} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{-1}$ and $x(\sqrt{2}) \neq \frac{\sqrt{2}}{-1}$.

Corollary 3.10: If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ and $x(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$, then $\exists \gamma \in \alpha^G$ such that $x(\gamma) = \bar{\gamma}$.

Proof: If $x(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$, then by theorem 3.1, the elements of G which moves α to $\bar{\alpha}$ are x and $g^{-1}xg$ see example 3.1. One element is in anticlockwise direction, other element is in clockwise direction and g depends on the type of circuit of α^G . Now $g^{-1}xg(\alpha) = \bar{\alpha}$ this implies that $xg(\alpha) = g(\bar{\alpha})$. By substituting $g(\alpha) = \gamma$ and using Lemma 2.4, we have $x(\gamma) = \bar{\gamma}$.

In the following theorem we determine condition on b, c when $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$ and this result is verified by a suitable example.

Theorem 3.2: If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ is such that either $\frac{-2a}{b}$ or $\frac{-2a}{c}$ is integer, then $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$.

Proof: Case I. If $\frac{-2a}{c} \in \mathbb{Z}$, we show $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$.

Consider $(yx)^{\frac{-2a}{c}}(\alpha) = \alpha - \frac{2a}{c}$ because $(yx)^l(\alpha) = \alpha + l$.

This implies that, $(yx)^{\frac{-2a}{c}}(\alpha) = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} - \frac{2a}{c}$.

That is, $(yx)^{\frac{-2a}{c}}(\alpha) = \frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{c} = -\bar{\alpha}$. So, $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$.

Case II. If $\frac{-2a}{b} \in \mathbb{Z}$, we show $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$.

Consider $(y^2x)^{\frac{-2a}{b}}(\alpha) = \frac{\alpha}{\frac{-2a(\alpha)}{b} + 1}$ because $(y^2x)^l(\alpha) = \frac{\alpha}{l\alpha + 1}$.

That is

$$(y^2x)^{\frac{-2a}{b}}(\alpha) = \frac{\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}}{\frac{-2a}{b}\left(\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}\right) + 1}$$

After simplification, we have

$$(y^2x)^{\frac{-2a}{b}}(\alpha) = \frac{b(a+\sqrt{n})}{-2a^2 - 2a\sqrt{n} + bc}$$

After rationalization, we have

$$(y^2x)^{\frac{-2a}{b}}(\alpha) = \frac{b(-2a^3 + abc + 2an + bc\sqrt{n})}{(-2a^2 + bc)^2 - 4a^2n}$$

This can be written as

$$(y^2x)^{\frac{-2a}{b}}(\alpha) = \frac{b(-2a(a^2 - n) + abc + bc\sqrt{n})}{4a^4 + b^2c^2 - 4a^2bc - 4a^2n}$$

After simplification, we have

$$(y^2x)^{\frac{-2a}{b}}(\alpha) = \frac{b(-abc + bc\sqrt{n})}{b^2c^2} = \frac{-a + \sqrt{n}}{c} = -\bar{\alpha}. \text{ So, } \alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$$

Following corollary is an immediate consequence of the above result.

Corollary 3.11: If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ is such that b or c divides $-2a$, then $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$.

Proof: As in such cases $\frac{-2a}{b}$ or $\frac{-2a}{c}$ becomes integer.

Example 3.12: In the orbit $\left(\frac{2+\sqrt{6}}{1}\right)^G$ as shown in Figure 2 we have $\alpha = \frac{2+\sqrt{6}}{1}$ with $a = 2, c = 1, b = -2$.

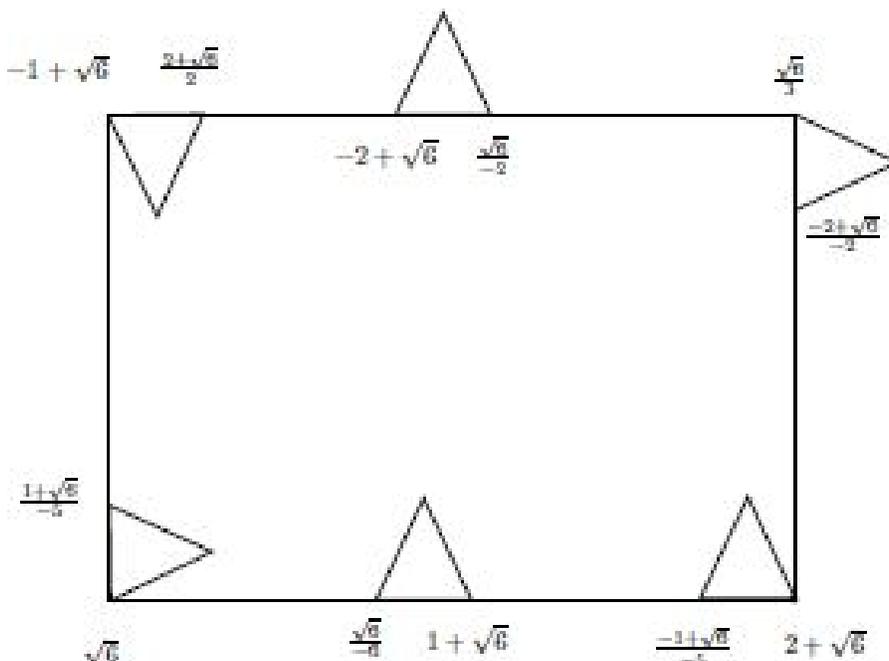


Figure 2: Orbit $(2 + \sqrt{6})^G$

Fig 2. Orbit

Now

$$\frac{-2a}{c} = \frac{-2(2)}{1} = -4. \text{ So, } \left(\frac{2 + \sqrt{6}}{1}\right)^G = \left(\frac{-2 + \sqrt{6}}{1}\right)^G$$

Similarly, for $\alpha = \frac{1 + \sqrt{6}}{-5}$ with $a = 1, c = -5, b = 1$.

As

$$\frac{-2a}{b} = \frac{-2(1)}{1} = -2, \text{ so } \left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{6}}{-5}\right)^G = \left(\frac{-1 + \sqrt{6}}{-5}\right)^G$$

In [1, 2] types of lengths 4, 6 have been determined in which all the four orbits $\alpha^G, (-\alpha)^G, (\bar{\alpha})^G$ and $(-\bar{\alpha})^G$ are distinct. The following corollary follows from theorem 3.2 and corollary 3.2.

Corollary 3.13: If $\alpha = \frac{a + \sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ is such that $\frac{-2a}{c}$ is integer and $b = -c$, then $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G = (-\alpha)^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$.

Example 3.14 : In the orbit $\left(\frac{2 + \sqrt{5}}{1}\right)^G$ as shown in Figure 3, we have $\alpha = \frac{2 + \sqrt{5}}{1}$ with $a = 2, c = 1, b = -1$.

Now $\frac{-2a}{c} = \frac{-2(2)}{1} = -4$ and $b = -c = -1$. So,

$$\left(\frac{2 + \sqrt{5}}{1}\right)^G = \left(\frac{-2 + \sqrt{5}}{1}\right)^G = \left(\frac{2 + \sqrt{5}}{-1}\right)^G = \left(\frac{-2 + \sqrt{5}}{-1}\right)^G$$

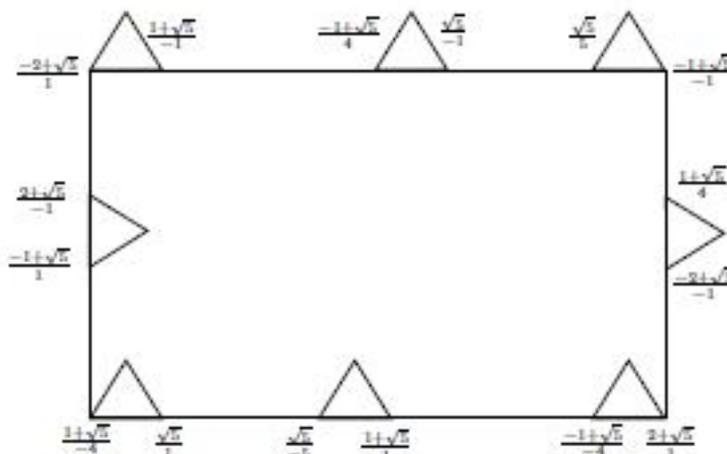


Figure 3: Orbit $(2 + \sqrt{5})^G$

Fig 3. Orbit

Corollary 3.15 : If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ is such that $\frac{-2a}{c} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b=-c$, then the element of G which moves α to $-\alpha$ is of the form $x(yx)^{\frac{-2a}{c}}$.

Proof: In theorem 3.2, it is derived that if $\frac{-2a}{c} \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $(yx)^{\frac{-2a}{c}}(\alpha) = \frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{c}$. This implies that $x(yx)^{\frac{-2a}{c}}(\alpha) = x\left(\frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{c}\right) = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{b} = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{-c}$. As required.

Corollary 3.16 : If $\alpha = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ then the element g which moves α to $-\alpha$ is of the form $g = (g_1)^{-1}xg_1$ for some $g_1 \in G$.

Proof: If $\alpha = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ then in this case $\bar{\alpha} = -\alpha$, so by theorem 3.1 the element g which moves α to $-\alpha$ is of the form $g = (g_1)^{-1}xg_1$ for some $g_1 \in G$.

Corollary 3.17 : If $\alpha = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ is such that $\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{c}\right)^G = \left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{-c}\right)^G$, then $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G = (-\alpha)^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$.

Proof: Here $\alpha = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{c}$ then $\frac{-2a}{c} = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so by theorem 3.2, we have $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$. Also $\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{c}\right)^G = \left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{-c}\right)^G$, then $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G = (-\alpha)^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$.

Converse of above result is not hold because

$$\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^G = \left(\frac{-1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^G = \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{-2}\right)^G = \left(\frac{-1+\sqrt{5}}{-2}\right)^G$$

But the orbit does not contain these ambiguous numbers $\frac{\sqrt{5}}{1}, \frac{\sqrt{5}}{-1}, \frac{\sqrt{5}}{5}$ and $\frac{\sqrt{5}}{-5}$.

Corollary 3.18: If the orbit α^G is such that $\alpha^G \neq (\bar{\alpha})^G \neq (-\alpha)^G \neq (-\bar{\alpha})^G$, then all ambiguous numbers which lies on G -circuit neither satisfy $\frac{-2a}{c} \in \mathbb{Z}$ nor $b = -c$.

Proof: By taking contrapositive to corollary 3.13, we get this result.

It has been proved in [5], that $(\alpha)x = \bar{\alpha}$ if and only if $n = a^2 + c^2$. In the following theorem, we generalize this result. In particular, we describe the condition on n when $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G$.

Theorem 3.3: If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ is such that $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G$, then n can be written as the sum of two squares and this representation is primitive.

Proof: Let $\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ be such that $\alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G$, then there exists an element $g = \begin{bmatrix} s & t \\ u & v \end{bmatrix}$ in G , which satisfy $\frac{s\alpha+t}{u\alpha+v} = \bar{\alpha}$.

That is $s\alpha + t = (u\alpha + v)\bar{\alpha}$.

This implies that $s\alpha + t = u\alpha\bar{\alpha} + v\bar{\alpha}$.

This can be written as

$$s \left(\frac{a + \sqrt{n}}{c} \right) + t = u \left(\frac{a^2 - n}{c^2} \right) + v \left(\frac{-a + \sqrt{n}}{-c} \right)$$

This gives $as + ct = bu + av$, $s = -v$.

Combining both equations, we have $as + ct = ub - as$.

After simplification, we obtain $-t = \frac{2as-ub}{c}$.

But $sv - tu = 1$.

By substitution, we have $-s^2 + \frac{(2as-ub)u}{c} = 1$.

This can be written as $-cs^2 + 2asu - bu^2 = c$.

After substituting, the value of b , we have

$$-cs^2 + 2asu - \left(\frac{a^2 - n}{c} \right) u^2 = c.$$

After simplification, we obtain

$$-cs^2 + 2asu - \frac{a^2 u^2}{c} + \frac{nu^2}{c} = c.$$

This can be written as

$$n = \left(\frac{c}{u} \right)^2 + \left(-a + \frac{cs}{u} \right)^2 \tag{1}$$

In this expression $u \neq 0$, because if $u = 0$ then $s = -v$ and $sv - tu = 1$ implies that $s^2 = -1$ which is not possible.

By Lemma 2.2 if a natural number n can be written as sum of two squares of two rational numbers, then n can be written as sum of squares of two integers. It is enough to prove this representation is primitive.

Let $d = \left(\frac{c}{u}, -a + \frac{cs}{u} \right)$. Then $d | \frac{c}{u}$ and $d | \left(-a + \frac{cs}{u} \right)$.

This shows that $ud | c$ and $ud | (-au + cs)$. That is $ud | cs$ and $ud | (-au + cs)$.

This implies that $ud | (-au + cs - cs)$. So, $d | a$.

Also, $d | c$ and $d^2 | n$ From equation 1. Thus, $d^2 | (a^2 - bc)$, as $d^2 | a^2$.

This implies that $d^2 | bc$, but $d | c$. So, $d | b$.

Thus $d | (a, b, c)$, but $(a, b, c) = 1$. So, $d = 1$.

Example 3.19 :

In the orbit $\left(\frac{-1+\sqrt{13}}{-6} \right)^G$, the element of G which moves $\frac{-1+\sqrt{13}}{-6}$ to $\frac{1+\sqrt{13}}{6}$ is $y^2 xy$ as shown in Figure 4 .

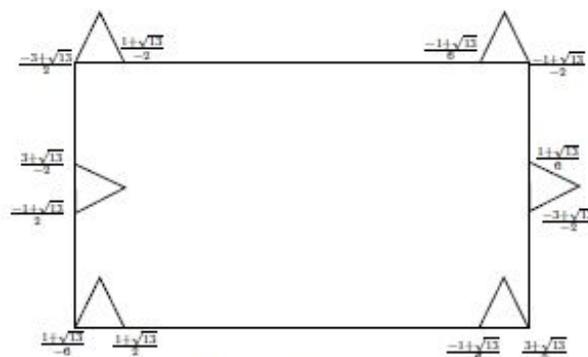


Figure 4-Orbit $\left(\frac{-1+\sqrt{13}}{-6} \right)^G$

Fig 4. Orbit

Now corresponding element in matrix form is given by:

$$y^2xy = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here $s = -1$, $t = 1$, $u = -2$, $v = 1$ and $a = -1$, $c = -6$, $b = 2$.

Now $n = \left(\frac{c}{u}\right)^2 + \left(-a + \frac{cs}{u}\right)^2$.

After substituting the values of s , t , u , v , a , b , c , we get

$$n = \left(\frac{-6}{-2}\right)^2 + \left(-(-1) + \frac{(-6)(-1)}{-2}\right)^2 = 3^2 + 2^2.$$

As required.

In the following theorem, we generalize the results of [5]. In particular, we describe the condition on n when $\alpha^G = (-\alpha)^G$.

Theorem 3.4: If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ is such that $\alpha^G = (-\alpha)^G$, then n can be written as the sum of two squares and this representation is primitive.

Proof: Let $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ be such that $\alpha^G = (-\alpha)^G$, then there exists an element $g = \begin{bmatrix} s & t \\ u & v \end{bmatrix}$ in G , which satisfy $\frac{s\alpha+t}{u\alpha+v} = -\alpha$.

That is $s\alpha + t = -(u\alpha + v)\alpha$.

This implies that $s\alpha + t = -u\alpha^2 - v\alpha$.

This can be written as

$$s\left(\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}\right) + t = -u\left(\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}\right)^2 - v\left(\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}\right).$$

Which gives $\frac{as}{c} + t = \frac{-u(a^2+n)}{c^2} - \frac{va}{c}$ and $cs = -2au - vc$.

Combining both equations, we have

$$\frac{as}{c} + t = \frac{-u(a^2+n)}{c^2} - a\left(\frac{-s}{c} - \frac{2au}{c^2}\right)$$

After simplification, we obtain $\frac{as}{c} + t = \frac{acs - au + a^2u}{c^2}$.

This implies that $-t = \frac{-ub}{c}$. But $sv - tu = 1$.

By substituting the value of v and t , we have $s\left(\frac{-2au}{c} - s\right) - \frac{u^2b}{c} = 1$.

After substituting the value of b , we obtain $-s^2 - \frac{2aus}{c} - \frac{u^2(a^2-n)}{c^2} = 1$.

After some simplification, we have $u^2n = c^2s^2 + 2acus + u^2a^2 + c^2$.

This can be written as

$$n = \left(\frac{c}{u}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{cs+au}{u}\right)^2 \tag{2}$$

In this expression $u \neq 0$, because if $u = 0$ then $s = -v$ and $sv - tu = 1$ implies that $s^2 = -1$ which is not possible.

By Lemma 2.2 if a natural number n can be written as sum of two squares of two rational numbers then n can be written as sum of two squares of two integers. It is enough to prove this representation is primitive.

Let $d = \left(\frac{c}{u}, a + \frac{cs}{u}\right)$. Then $d|\frac{c}{u}$ and $d|(a + \frac{cs}{u})$.

This shows that $ud|c$ and $ud|(au + cs)$. This can be written $ud|cs$ and $ud|(au + cs)$.

This implies that $ud|(au + cs - cs)$. So, $d|a$.

Also, $d|c$ and $d^2|n$ From equation 2. Thus $d^2|(a^2 - bc)$, as $d^2|a^2$.

This implies that $d^2|bc$, but $d|c$. So, $d|b$.

Thus $d|(a, b, c)$, but $(a, b, c) = 1$. So, $d = 1$.

Example 3.20:

In the orbit $\left(\frac{3+\sqrt{17}}{2}\right)^G$, the element of G which moves $\frac{3+\sqrt{17}}{2}$ to $\frac{3+\sqrt{17}}{-2}$ is $x(y^2x)^3yxy^2x$ as shown in Figure 5.

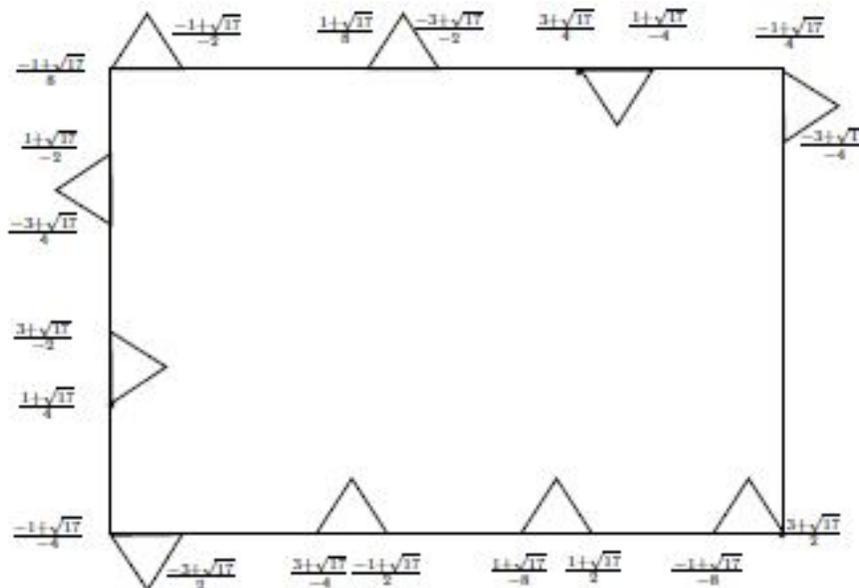


Figure 5: Orbit $(\frac{11+\sqrt{17}}{2})^G$

Fig 5. Orbit

Now corresponding element in matrix form is given by:

$$x(y^2x)^3xy^2x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & -4 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here $s = -7$, $t = -4$, $u = 2$, $v = 1$ and $a = 3$, $c = 2$, $b = -4$.

Now $n = (\frac{c}{u})^2 + (a + \frac{cs}{u})^2$.

After substituting the values of s , t , u , v , a , b , c , we get

$$n = \left(\frac{2}{2}\right)^2 + \left((3) + \frac{(2)(-7)}{2}\right)^2 = 1^2 + 4^2.$$

As required.

Theorem 3.5 If $\alpha = \frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ is such that $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$, then n can be written as the difference of two squares of two rational numbers.

Proof: Let $\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c} \in Q^*(\sqrt{n})$ be such that $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G$, then there exists an element $g = \begin{bmatrix} s & t \\ u & v \end{bmatrix}$ in G , which satisfy $\frac{s\alpha+t}{u\alpha+v} = -\bar{\alpha}$.

That is $s\alpha + t = -(u\alpha + v)\bar{\alpha}$.

This implies that $s\alpha + t = -u\alpha\bar{\alpha} - v\bar{\alpha}$.

This can be written as

$$s\left(\frac{a+\sqrt{n}}{c}\right) + t = -u\left(\frac{a^2-n}{c^2}\right) - v\left(\frac{-a+\sqrt{n}}{-c}\right).$$

This gives $as + ct = -bu - av$, $s = v$.

Combining both equations, we have $2as + ct + ub = 0$.

After simplification, we obtain $-t = \frac{2as+ub}{c}$.

But $sv - tu = 1$. By substitution, we have $s^2 + \frac{(2as+ub)u}{c} = 1$.

This can be written as $cs^2 + 2asu + bu^2 = c$.

After substituting, the value of b , we have

$$cs^2 + 2asu + \left(\frac{a^2 - n}{c}\right)u^2 = c.$$

After simplification, we obtain

$$cs^2 + 2asu + \frac{a^2 u^2}{c} - \frac{nu^2}{c} = c.$$

This can be written as

$$n = \left(a + \frac{cs}{u}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{c}{u}\right)^2$$

If $u = 0$, then $t \neq 0$. Otherwise $g = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

In the similar way, by eliminating s and u we can obtain $n = \left(a + \frac{bv}{t}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{b}{t}\right)^2$. As required.

Example 3.21: In the orbit $\left(\frac{2+\sqrt{8}}{1}\right)^G$, the element of G which moves $\frac{2+\sqrt{8}}{1}$ to $\frac{-2+\sqrt{8}}{1}$ is y^2 as shown in Figure 6.

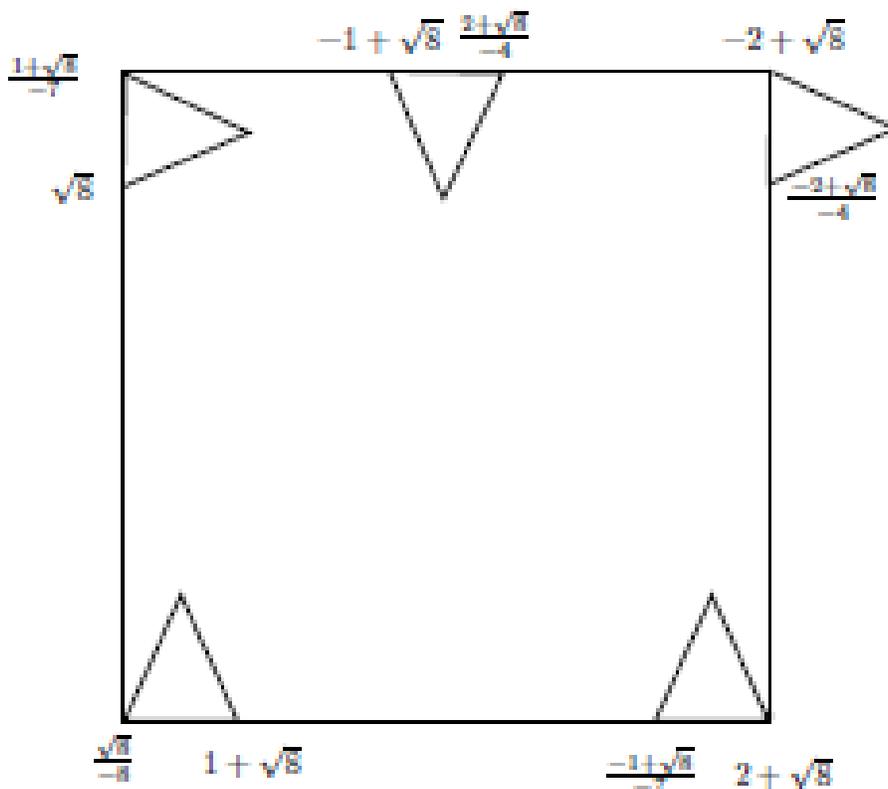


Figure 6: Orbit $(2 + \sqrt{8})^G$

Fig 6. Orbit

Now corresponding element in matrix form is given by $y^2x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Here $s = 1, t = 0, u = 1, v = 1$ and $a = 2, c = 1, b = -4$.

Now $n = \left(a + \frac{cs}{u}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{c}{u}\right)^2$.

After substituting the values of s, t, u, v, a, b, c in equation 3, we get

$$n = \left(2 + \frac{(1)(1)}{1}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1}\right)^2 = 3^2 - 1^2. \text{ As required.}$$

The element of G which moves $\frac{1+\sqrt{8}}{1}$ to $\frac{-1+\sqrt{8}}{1}$ is xyx^2xyx as shown in Figure 6.

Now corresponding element in matrix form is given by

$$xyx^2xyx = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Here $s = 2, t = 3, u = 1, v = 2$ and $a = 1, c = 1, b = -7$.

Now $n = \left(a + \frac{cs}{u}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{c}{u}\right)^2$.

After substituting the values of s, t, u, v, a, b, c in equation 3, we get

$$n = \left(1 + \frac{(1)(2)}{1}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{1}\right)^2 = 3^2 - 1^2$$

As required.

4 Conclusion

The idea of study the elements that moves α to $\bar{\alpha}, \alpha$ to $-\bar{\alpha}$ and α to $-\alpha$ given in this paper is new and original. We have determined the conditions on n and a, b, c when $\alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G, \alpha^G = (-\alpha)^G, \alpha^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G, \alpha^G = (-\bar{\alpha})^G = (-\alpha)^G = (\bar{\alpha})^G$ and $\alpha^G \neq (-\bar{\alpha})^G \neq (-\alpha)^G \neq (\bar{\alpha})^G$, where $\alpha \in \mathcal{Q}^*(\sqrt{n})$ under the action of modular group G . These results are verified by some suitable examples.

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