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IDENTIFYING CONGRUENCE SUBGROUPS OF THE MODULAR GROUP

TIM HSU

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ABSTRACT. We exhibit a simple test (Theorem 2.4) for determining if a given (classical) modular subgroup is a congruence subgroup, and give a detailed description of its implementation (Theorem 3.1). In an appendix, we also describe a more "invariant" and arithmetic congruence test.

1. NOTATION

We describe (conjugacy classes of) subgroups $\Gamma \subset \mathbf{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ in terms of permutation representations of $\mathbf{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$, following Millington [11, 12] and Atkin and Swinnerton-Dyer [1].

We recall that a conjugacy class of subgroups of $\mathbf{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ is equivalent to a transitive permutation representation of $\mathbf{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$. Such a representation can be defined by transitive permutations E and V which satisfy the relations

(1.1)
$$1 = E^2 = V^3.$$

The relations (1.1) are fulfilled by

(1.2)
$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad V = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Alternately, such a representation can be defined by transitive permutations L and R which satisfy

(1.3)
$$1 = (LR^{-1}L)^2 = (R^{-1}L)^3,$$

with the relations being fulfilled by

(1.4)
$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

One can also use permuations E and L such that

(1.5)
$$1 = E^2 = (L^{-1}E)^3,$$

with E and L corresponding to the indicated matrices in (1.2) and (1.4), respectively.

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The various notations can be translated using the following conversion table:

(1.6)
$$E = LR^{-1}L, \qquad V = R^{-1}L,$$

(1.7)
$$L = EV^{-1}, \qquad R = EV^{-2},$$

(1.8)
$$R = E^{-1}L^{-1}E$$

Example 1.1. The permutations

(1.9)
$$E = (1 \ 2)(3 \ 4)(5 \ 6)(7 \ 8)(9 \ 10),$$
$$V = (1 \ 3 \ 5)(2 \ 7 \ 4)(6 \ 8 \ 9),$$

or, alternately,

(1.10)
$$\begin{aligned} L &= (1 \ 4)(2 \ 5 \ 9 \ 10 \ 8)(3 \ 7 \ 6), \\ R &= (1 \ 7 \ 9 \ 10 \ 6)(2 \ 3)(4 \ 5 \ 8), \end{aligned}$$

describe a conjugacy class of subgroups of index 10 in $\mathbf{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$.

Remark 1.2. Note that any concrete method of specifying a modular subgroup can easily be converted to permutation form. For instance, one way in which a modular subgroup Γ might be specified is by a list of generators. Such a list can be converted into permutations as follows: First, use the Euclidean algorithm to express each generator matrix as a product of L's and R's, where L and R are the elements in (1.4). Then enumerate the cosets of Γ in terms of these generators and presentation (1.3). This coset enumeration is easily converted into appropriate permutations L and R. Similarly, any reasonable membership test for Γ can be used to enumerate the cosets of Γ , with the same results as before.

2. Congruence subgroups and the level

We recall the following definitions.

Definition 2.1. $\Gamma(N)$ is defined to be the group

(2.1)
$$\{\gamma \in \mathbf{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z}) \mid \gamma \equiv \pm I \pmod{N}\}.$$

 $\Gamma(N)$ is the kernel of the natural projection from $\mathbf{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ to $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/N)/\{\pm I\}$. We say that a modular subgroup Γ is a *congruence subgroup* if Γ contains $\Gamma(N)$ for some integer N. Otherwise, we say Γ is a *non-congruence subgroup*.

An important invariant of (conjugacy classes of) modular subgroups is the following.

Definition 2.2. The *level* of a modular subgroup Γ , as specified by permutations L and R, is defined to be the order of L (or the order of R, since L is conjugate to R^{-1}).

We need the following result, sometimes known as Wohlfahrt's Theorem (Wohlfahrt [13]).

Theorem 2.3. Let N be the level of a modular subgroup Γ . Γ is a congruence subgroup if and only if it contains $\Gamma(N)$.

Proof. This amounts to proving that, for congruence subgroups, our definition of the level is the same as the classical definition of the level. See Wohlfahrt [13]. \Box

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Theorem 2.4. Let Γ be a modular subgroup of level N, and let

$$(2.2) \qquad \langle L, R | r_1, r_2, \ldots \rangle$$

be a presentation for $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/N)/\{\pm I\}$ which is compatible with (1.4). Then Γ is a congruence subgroup if and only if the representation of $\mathbf{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ induced by Γ respects the relations $\{r_i\}$.

Proof. From Theorem 2.3, we only need to check if Γ contains $\Gamma(N)$. Now, since $\Gamma(N)$ is normal in $\mathbf{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$, Γ contains $\Gamma(N)$ if and only if the normal kernel of Γ contains $\Gamma(N)$. However, the normal kernel of Γ is exactly the kernel of the representation induced by Γ , and since the relations $\{r_i\}$ generate $\Gamma(N)$ as their normal closure, the theorem follows.

Compare Magnus [9, Ch. III], Britto [4], Wohlfahrt [13], and Larcher [8]. Lang, Lim, and Tan [7] have also developed a congruence test; see the related paper Chan, Lang, Lim, and Tan [5].

Example 2.5. Suppose Γ is the conjugacy class of subgroups specified by (1.10). Since *L* has order 30, we need to use a presentation for $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/30)/\{\pm I\}$. We find that $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/30)/\{\pm I\}$ has a presentation with defining relations

(2.3)
$$1 = L^{30},$$

(2.4)
$$1 = [L^2, R^{15}] = [L^3, R^{10}] = [L^5, R^6]$$

in addition to the relations in (1.3). (The commutator [x, y] is defined to be $x^{-1}y^{-1}xy$, so 1 = [x, y] means "x commutes with y".) Only the commutator relations (2.4) need to be checked. However,

(2.5)
$$L^2 = (2 \ 9 \ 8 \ 5 \ 10)(3 \ 6 \ 7),$$

which does not commute with

$$(2.6) R^{15} = (2 \ 3),$$

so Γ is a non-congruence subgroup. (It is worth mentioning that Larcher's results also imply that Γ is non-congruence, since L does not contain a 30-cycle.)

Remark 2.6. The results in this section extend essentially verbatim to the Bianchi groups $\mathbf{SL}_2(O_d)$, where O_d is the ring of algebraic integers of an imaginary quadratic field $\mathbf{Q}[\sqrt{-d}]$ with class number 1. (See Fine [6] for more on the Bianchi groups.) However, for practical use, one needs a uniform presentation of $\mathbf{SL}_2(O_d)/\mathfrak{A}$ for \mathfrak{A} any ideal of O_d .

3. Implementation

To assure the reader that the procedure described by Theorem 2.4 is practical, we provide the following detailed algorithm. Suppose we are given a subgroup Γ of finite index in $\mathbf{PSL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$.

1. Describe Γ in terms of permutations L and R. If necessary, use conversion (1.7), conversion (1.8), or another similar conversion. (See also Remark 1.2.)

2. Let N be the order of L, and let N = em, where e is a power of 2 and m is odd.

3. We have three cases:

(a) N is odd: Γ is a congruence subgroup if and only if the relation

(A)
$$1 = (R^2 L^{-\frac{1}{2}})^3$$

is satisfied, where $\frac{1}{2}$ is the multiplicative inverse of 2 mod N.

(b) N is a power of 2: Let $S = L^{20}R^{\frac{1}{5}}L^{-4}R^{-1}$, where $\frac{1}{5}$ is the multiplicative inverse of 5 mod N. Γ is a congruence subgroup if and only if the relations

 $^{-1}$

(B)

$$(LR^{-1}L)^{-1}S(LR^{-1}L) = S$$

$$S^{-1}RS = R^{25},$$

$$1 = (SR^{5}LR^{-1}L)^{3}$$

are satisfied.

(c) Both e and m are greater than 1:

- (i) Let $\frac{1}{2}$ be the multiplicative inverse of 2 mod m, and let $\frac{1}{5}$ be the multiplicative inverse of 5 mod e.
- (ii) Let c be the unique integer mod N such that $c \equiv 0 \pmod{e}$ and $c \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$, and let d be the unique integer mod N such that $d \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$ and $d \equiv 1 \pmod{e}$.
- (iii) Let $a = L^c$, $b = R^c$, $l = L^d$, $r = R^d$, and let $s = l^{20} r^{\frac{1}{5}} l^{-4} r^{-1}$.
- (iv) Γ is a congruence subgroup if and only if the relations

$$1 = [a, r],$$

$$1 = (ab^{-1}a)^{4},$$

$$(ab^{-1}a)^{2} = (b^{-1}a)^{3},$$

$$(ab^{-1}a)^{2} = (b^{2}a^{-\frac{1}{2}})^{3},$$

$$(lr^{-1}l)^{-1}s(lr^{-1}l) = s^{-1},$$

$$s^{-1}rs = r^{25},$$

$$(lr^{-1}l)^{2} = (sr^{5}lr^{-1}l)^{3}$$

are satisfied.

Theorem 3.1. The above procedure determines if Γ is a congruence subgroup.

Before proving Theorem 3.1, we need an algebraic trick (Lemma 3.2) and some known results (Lemma 3.3, due to Behr and Mennicke [2]; and Lemma 3.4, due to Mennicke [10]).

Lemma 3.2 (Braid trick). Let x and y be elements which generate a group G and satisfy the relation

$$(3.1) (xyx)^2 = (yx)^3.$$

Then the element $(xyx)^2 = (yx)^3$ is central in G. Furthermore,

and

$$(3.3) (xyx)^{-1}x(xyx) = y.$$

We call this the "braid trick" because (3.2) is the defining relation for the 3-string braid group.

Proof. The elements X = xyx and Y = yx also generate G, and the element $Z = (xyx)^2 = (yx)^3 = X^2 = Y^3$ commutes with both X and Y, so Z is central. (3.2) and (3.3) follow from cancellation in xyxxyx = yxyxyx.

Lemma 3.3. Let m be an odd integer, and let $\frac{1}{2}$ be the multiplicative inverse of 2 mod m. $SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/m)$ is isomorphic to

$$G = \left\langle a, b \right|$$

(3.4)
$$1 = a^m,$$
 $1 = (-1)^{4}$

(3.5)
$$1 = (ab^{-1}a)^4,$$

(3.6)
$$(ab^{-1}a)^2 = (b^{-1}a)^3,$$

(3.7)
$$(ab^{-1}a)^2 = (b^2a^{-\frac{1}{2}})^3 \rangle.$$

Relations (3.4)–(3.7) are fulfilled by $a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/m)$.

Proof. G is equivalent to Behr and Mennicke's presentation [2, (2.12)] by the following Tietze transformations. Add generators A = b and $B = ab^{-1}a$. Applying the braid trick to (3.6), we get that B^2 is central, and from (3.2), we also get that

$$BA = b^{-1}a$$

(3.8) implies that a = ABA, which means that we can eliminate a and b. Using (3.3), (3.8), and the centrality of B^2 , we see that (3.4)–(3.6) become

(3.9)
$$1 = A^m = B^4,$$

(3.10)
$$B^2 = (AB)^3$$
,

so it remains to convert (3.7) to Behr and Mennicke's form. However, applying (3.3), we have

(3.11)
$$B^{2} = (b^{2}a^{-\frac{1}{2}})^{3} = (A^{2}B^{-1}A^{\frac{1}{2}}B)^{3},$$

so, using $1 = B^8$ and the centrality of B^2 ,

(3.12)
$$1 = (A^2 B^{-1} A^{\frac{1}{2}} B)^3 B^6 = (A^2 B A^{\frac{1}{2}} B)^3. \square$$

Lemma 3.4. Let $e = 2^n$, let $\frac{1}{5}$ be the multiplicative inverse of 5 mod e, and let $s = l^{20}r^{\frac{1}{5}}l^{-4}r^{-1}$. **SL**₂(**Z**/e) is isomorphic to

$$G = \left\langle l, r \right|$$

(3.13)
$$1 = l^e,$$

$$(3.14) 1 = (lr^{-1}l)^4,$$

(3.15)
$$(lr^{-1}l)^2 = (r^{-1}l)^3,$$

(3.16)
$$(lr^{-1}l)^{-1}s(lr^{-1}l) = s^{-1},$$

(3.17)
$$s^{-1}rs = r^{25},$$

(3.18)
$$(lr^{-1}l)^2 = (sr^5lr^{-1}l)^3$$

Relations (3.13)–(3.18) are fulfilled by $l = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $r = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, and $s = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{5} \end{pmatrix}$ in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/e)$.

Proof. As the reader may verify, the relations (3.13)-(3.18) and $s = l^{20}r^{\frac{1}{5}}l^{-4}r^{-1}$ are satisfied in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/e)$, so it suffices to show that G is a homomorphic image of Mennicke's presentation [10, p. 210]. Add generators A = r, $B = lr^{-1}l$, and T = s. Applying the braid trick to (3.15), we get that B^2 is central, $BA = r^{-1}l$, and l is conjugate to A^{-1} . As in the proof of the previous lemma, we can then eliminate generators l and r. Then (3.13), (3.14), (3.15), (3.16), (3.17), and (3.18) become Mennicke's relations (X), (Y), (P), (Z), (Q), and (R), respectively.

For Lemma 3.5, we consider the following relations:

$$(3.19) 1 = L^N,$$

- (3.20) 1 = [a, r],
- (3.21) 1 = [b, l],
- $(3.22) 1 = (ab^{-1}a)^4,$
- (3.23) $(ab^{-1}a)^2 = (b^{-1}a)^3,$ (2.24) $(ab^{-1}a)^2 = (b^2a^{-\frac{1}{2}})^3$

(3.24)
$$(ab^{-1}a)^2 = (b^2a^{-\frac{1}{2}})^3$$

- $(3.25) 1 = (lr^{-1}l)^4,$
- $(3.26) (lr^{-1}l)^2 = (r^{-1}l)^3,$
- $(3.27) (lr^{-1}l)^{-1}s(lr^{-1}l) = s^{-1},$
- (3.28) $s^{-1}rs = r^{25},$
- (3.29) $(lr^{-1}l)^2 = (sr^5lr^{-1}l)^3.$

All notation is as described in (2) and (3c)(i–iii) of the algorithm. Note that $1 = L^N$ implies that L = al and R = br.

Lemma 3.5. $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/N)$ has a presentation with generators L and R, and defining relations (3.19)–(3.29). The relations are fulfilled by $L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/N)$.

Proof. The Chinese Remainder Theorem implies that

(3.30)
$$\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/N) \cong \mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/m) \times \mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/e)$$

It also follows from the Chinese Remainder Theorem that, if $L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/N)$, the $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/m)$ factor is precisely $\langle a, b \rangle$ and the $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/e)$ factor is precisely $\langle l, r \rangle$. Therefore, the above relations are satisfied in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/N)$.

On the other hand, since (3.19) implies (3.4) and (3.13), comparison with Lemmas 3.3 and 3.4 shows that the above presentation is the direct product of $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/m)$ and $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/e)$. The lemma follows.

Proof of Theorem 3.1. After steps 1 and 2 of the procedure, we know that the relations

$$(3.31) 1 = L^N,$$

- $(3.32) 1 = (LR^{-1}L)^2,$
- $(3.33) 1 = (R^{-1}L)^3$

must be satisfied. From Theorem 2.4, we see that if (3.31)-(3.33) and (A) (resp. (B), (C)) are defining relations for $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/N)/\{\pm I\}$ when N is odd (resp. N is a power of 2, and e and m are greater than 1), then Theorem 3.1 follows. Comparing (A) and Lemma 3.3, with a = L and b = R, and comparing (B) and Lemma 3.4, with l = L and r = R, the first two cases follow easily, so it remains to check the third.

Comparing (C) and (3.19)-(3.29), we see that it is enough to show that given (3.31)-(3.33) and (3.19)-(3.29), the relations (3.21), (3.25), and (3.26) are redundant. First, (3.31), (3.32), (3.20), and (3.21) give us

(3.34)
$$1 = (LR^{-1}L)^{4}$$
$$= (alr^{-1}b^{-1}al)^{4}$$
$$= (ab^{-1}a)^{4}(lr^{-1}l)^{4},$$

which means that (3.22) implies (3.25). Similarly, (3.31), (3.32), (3.33), (3.20), and (3.21) imply

(3.35)
$$(LR^{-1}L)^2 = (R^{-1}L)^3, (ab^{-1}a)^2(lr^{-1}l)^2 = (b^{-1}a)^3(r^{-1}l)^3$$

which means that (3.23) implies (3.26). Finally, since (3.32), (3.33), and the braid trick (3.3) imply that L is conjugate to R^{-1} , we can eliminate (3.21), since it is implied by (3.20).

For hand calculations, and for further study, we note the following relations which occur in $SL_2(\mathbb{Z}/N)$:

(SL₂)
$$Z = (LR^{-1}L)^2 = (R^{-1}L)^3, \ 1 = Z^2,$$

(level) $1 = L^N = R^N,$

$$(ab \equiv 0 \pmod{N})$$

$$1 = [L^a, R^b],$$

$$(ab \equiv -1 \pmod{N})$$

$$(L^a R^b)^3 = Z,$$

$$(ab \equiv -2 \pmod{N})$$

$$(L^a R^b)^2 = Z.$$

It has been verified by coset enumeration that the relations (SL_2) , (level), and $(ab \equiv 0 \pmod{N})$ are defining relations when $N \mid 360$. This means that if the level N divides 360, the congruence test reduces to checking that the relations $(ab \equiv 0 \pmod{N})$ are satisfied.

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APPENDIX A. AN ARITHMETIC CONGRUENCE TEST

In this appendix, we present an arithmetic and "invariant" congruence test which uses the Ihara modular group $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}\begin{bmatrix}\frac{1}{p}\\p\end{bmatrix})$.

We begin by quoting the following result (Theorem A.1) of J. Mennicke [10]. (Note that Mennicke's Schur multiplier calculation and subsequent argument require the repairs described in F.R. Beyl [3, §5], but the main result still holds.) Let N be an integer, let p be a prime not dividing N, let R_N be the kernel in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}[\frac{1}{p}])$ resulting from reduction mod N, and let Q_N be the normal closure of L^N in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}[\frac{1}{p}])$.

Theorem A.1. $R_N = Q_N$.

Let Γ be a modular subgroup of level N and index m in $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$. Consider the commutative diagram in Figure A.1.



FIGURE A.1. Commutative diagram for Theorem A.2

Here, S_m is the symmetric group on m objects (the cosets of Γ in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$), r is reduction mod N, i is inclusion, and ρ is the permutation representation of $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z})$ induced by Γ . Note that f_2 exists if and only if Γ is a congruence subgroup, and that such an f_2 is uniquely determined.

The setup in Figure A.1 provides us with an invariant congruence test.

Theorem A.2. In the notation of Figure A.1, a map f_1 exists if and only if f_2 exists. In other words, Γ is congruence if and only if ρ can be factored through inclusion in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}\begin{bmatrix}\frac{1}{p}\end{bmatrix})$.

Proof. If f_2 exists, let $f_1 = f_2 r$. Conversely, if f_1 exists, since L^N is in the kernel of ρ , L^N must be in the kernel of f_1 , so in fact, f_1 is well defined on

(A.1)
$$\mathbf{SL}_2\left(\mathbf{Z}\left[\frac{1}{p}\right]\right) / Q_N = \mathbf{SL}_2\left(\mathbf{Z}\left[\frac{1}{p}\right]\right) / R_N \cong \mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/N),$$

which means that f_1 defines an appropriate map f_2 .

Corollary A.3. In Figure A.1, f_1 is determined uniquely if it exists.

One curious feature of Theorem A.2 is that if we know a given family of modular subgroups all have levels relatively prime to p, then we can handle all of them in a uniform manner. This is the principle behind Behr and Mennicke's presentation of $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}/N)$ for N odd, as these cases can be handled in $\mathbf{SL}_2(\mathbf{Z}[\frac{1}{2}])$.

We also note that if we fix the level N, then we can choose any p not dividing N to use in Theorem A.2. This leads to the following idea: For a given family of modular subgroups of level N, it seems plausible that one might be able to reduce the extensibility of ρ to the question of whether there exists a p which satisfies certain congruences mod N. Dirichlet's theorem might then be used to find a p which satisfies those congruences.

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY, PRINCETON, NEW JERSEY 08544 *E-mail address*: timhsu@math.princeton.edu

 $Current \ address:$ Department of Mathematics, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109

 $E\text{-}mail\ address: \texttt{timhsu@math.lsa.umich.edu}$