# AUTOMORPHISMS OF SURFACES IN A CLASS OF WEHLER K3 SURFACES WITH PICARD NUMBER 4 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we find the group of automorphisms (up to finite index) for K3 surfaces in a class of Wehler K3 surfaces with Picard number 4. In doing so, we demonstrate a variety of techniques, both general and ad hoc, that can be used to find the group of automorphisms of a K3 surface, particularly those with small Picard number.


Introduction. Given an algebraic K3 surface $\mathcal{X}$ defined over a number field $k$, what is its group of automorphisms $\mathcal{A}=\operatorname{Aut}(\mathcal{X} / k)$ ? In this paper, we offer some ideas of how to answer this natural question, and demonstrate these ideas by applying them to a particular example. This paper grew out of a talk given at the Banff International Research Station in December 2008.

There are three main general tools. (1) Every automorphism $\sigma$ induces a linear action on the Picard lattice $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$ that preserves the intersection pairing; (2) the intersection pairing on the Picard lattice is a Lorentz product, so induces a hyperbolic structure on $\mathbb{H}=\mathcal{L}^{+} / \mathbb{R}^{+}$, where $\mathcal{L}^{+}$is the light cone; and (3) a fundamental result due to Pjateckii-S $\breve{\text { Sapiro }}$ and Safarevič, which establishes a correspondence between $\mathcal{A}$ and a particular subgroup of the lattice preserving isometries of $\mathbb{H}$.

We apply these results, together with some ad hoc results, to a class of K3 surfaces, and come up with a group of finite index in $\mathcal{A}$. Though not complete, we consider this answer to be sufficient; completing the problem likely depends on the arithmetic and not the geometry, i.e., it depends on $\mathcal{X}$ and not just on $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$.

[^0]It is clear to the author that these techniques are applicable to many classes of K3 surfaces, particularly those with small Picard number. The hyperbolic space $\mathbb{H}$ of a surface with Picard number $n$ is $n-1$ dimensional, hence the difficulty of dealing with surfaces with large Picard number includes our difficulty imagining hyperbolic spaces of large dimension.

1. Background. Let $\mathcal{X} / k$ be a K3 surface defined over a number field $k$. Let $n$ be the dimension of the $\operatorname{Picard}$ lattice $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$, and let $\left\{D_{1}, \ldots, D_{n}\right\}$ be a basis over $\mathbb{Z}$, so

$$
\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})=D_{1} \mathbb{Z} \oplus \cdots \oplus D_{n} \mathbb{Z}
$$

Let $J=\left[D_{i} \cdot D_{j}\right]$ be the intersection matrix for the basis $\mathcal{D}$. By the Hodge index theorem, $J$ has signature ( $1, n-1$ ), i.e., it has one positive eigenvalue and $n-1$ negative eigenvalues. It therefore defines a Lorentz product, so $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathbb{R}$ is a Lorentz space. Let $D$ be an ample divisor in $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$. We define the light cone to be the set

$$
\mathcal{L}^{+}=\{x \in \operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathbb{R}: x \cdot x>0, x \cdot D>0\} .
$$

The space $\mathbb{H}=\mathcal{L}^{+} / \mathbb{R}^{+}$, together with the distance $|A B|$ defined by

$$
\|A\|\|B\| \cosh |A B|=A \cdot B
$$

is an $n-1$ dimensional hyperbolic geometry. (By $\|x\|$, we mean $\sqrt{x \cdot x}$.)
An automorphism $\sigma \in \mathcal{A}=\operatorname{Aut}(\mathcal{X} / k)$ acts linearly on the Picard lattice via the pull back map $\sigma^{*}$. We are therefore interested in the linear automorphisms of the Picard lattice, the group

$$
\mathcal{O}=\left\{T \in M_{n \times n}(\mathbb{Z}): T^{t} J T=J\right\}
$$

In this group is the subgroup of index two that preserves the light cone,

$$
\mathcal{O}^{+}=\left\{T \in \mathcal{O}: T \mathcal{L}^{+}=\mathcal{L}^{+}\right\}
$$

which is a discrete group of isometries on $\mathbb{H}$. It is an arithmetic group, and its fundamental domain has finite volume.

A divisor $E$ is called effective if we can write

$$
E=\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i} C_{i}
$$

where $a_{i} \geq 0$ and the $C_{i}$ 's are divisors represented by curves on $\mathcal{X}$. A divisor $D \in \operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathbb{R}$ is called ample if $D \cdot E>0$ for all effective divisors $E$. The ample cone $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathcal{L}^{+}$is the set of all ample divisors in $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathbb{R}$.

Within $\mathcal{O}^{+}$, the reflections through -2 divisors play a special role. Let $C$ be a divisor such that $C \cdot C=-2$. The map $R_{C}$ defined by

$$
R_{C}(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}+(C \cdot \mathbf{x}) C
$$

which is a reflection through the hyperplane $C \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$, is an isometry in $\mathcal{O}^{+}$. Let $\mathcal{O}^{\prime}$ be the group generated by all such divisors. Note that, for $T \in \mathcal{O}^{+}$,

$$
R_{T C}=T^{-1} R_{C} T
$$

so

$$
\mathcal{O}^{\prime} \triangleleft \mathcal{O}^{+} .
$$

If $\sigma \in \mathcal{A}$ and $E$ is effective, then $\sigma_{*} E=\left(\sigma^{-1}\right)^{*} E$ is effective. Thus, $\sigma^{*} D \cdot E=D \cdot \sigma_{*} E>0$ for all effective $E$ and ample $D$, so $\sigma^{*} D$ is ample. We therefore define

$$
\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}=\left\{T \in \mathcal{O}^{+}: T \mathcal{K}=\mathcal{K}\right\},
$$

since the pullback map sends $\mathcal{A}$ into $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$. Pjateckii-S̆Sapiro and S̆afarevič prove that the pullback map of $\mathcal{A}$ to $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$ has finite kernel and cokernel [6], and that $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime} \cong \mathcal{O}^{+} / \mathcal{O}^{\prime}$.

The interplay of $\mathcal{A}$ and the groups $\mathcal{O}^{+}, \mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$ and $\mathcal{O}^{\prime}$ is quite pretty, as we will see in our example. We note that, given an arbitrary $J$, finding $\mathcal{O}^{+}$is a non-trivial problem.

Remark 1.1. Let $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ be a hyperplane through the origin in $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathbb{R}$. Reflection through this hyperplane is given by

$$
R_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}-2 \operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{x}=\mathbf{x}-2 \frac{(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{n}) \mathbf{n}}{\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n}}
$$

Thus, if $\mathbf{n} \in \operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$ (so has integer entries) and $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n}= \pm 1$ or $\pm 2$, then $R_{\mathrm{n}} \in \mathcal{O}$. Since the intersection pairings for K3 surfaces are always even (see the adjunction formula), we only ever have $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n}= \pm 2$. If $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n}=-2$, then the plane intersects $\mathbb{H}$, and we get a reflection through a hyperline in $\mathbb{H}$. These are the reflections through -2 curves mentioned above. If $\mathbf{n} \in \operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$ and $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n}=2$, then the hyperplane does not intersect $\mathbb{H}$
and $-R_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathcal{O}^{+}$. This is inversion through $\mathbf{n}$, which, when $n=3$, is just rotation by $\pi$ about $\mathbf{n}$. This can be used to find elements of $\mathcal{O}^{+}$.
2. A specific example. Let $\mathcal{X}$ be a surface described by a smooth $(2,2,2)$ form in $\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1}$. Such surfaces are sometimes known as Wehler K3 surfaces, so named since Wehler showed that they are K3 surfaces [8]. Such a surface can be expressed as the zero locus of

$$
F(X, Y, Z)=X_{0}^{2} F_{0}(Y, Z)+X_{0} X_{1} F_{1}(Y, Z)+X_{1}^{2} F_{2}(Y, Z)
$$

where $X=\left(X_{0}, X_{1}\right) \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$, and $F_{i}(Y, Z)$ is a $(2,2)$ form in $\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1}$ for all $i$. Since a smooth $(2,2)$ form in $\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1}$ is an elliptic curve, $\mathcal{X}$ is fibered by elliptic curves in each of the three directions.

Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{1}: \mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1} & \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{1} \\
(X, Y, Z) & \longmapsto X
\end{aligned}
$$

be the projection onto the first component, and similarly define $p_{2}$ and $p_{3}$. Let $D_{i}=p_{i}^{-1} H$ be the pullback of a point $H \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$ for $i=1,2$ and 3.

A generic surface $\mathcal{X}$ in this class has Picard lattice $D_{1} \mathbb{Z} \oplus D_{2} \mathbb{Z} \oplus D_{3} \mathbb{Z}$ and intersection matrix

$$
J=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
0 & 2 & 2 \\
2 & 0 & 2 \\
2 & 2 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

The generic Wehler K3 surfaces have been studied by Wang [7], Billard [4], and the author [1]. They contain no -2 curves, and their group of automorphisms is well understood [8]. Explicit examples are given in [3].

We will study the class of Wehler K3 surfaces with Picard number 4 and such that $F_{2}(Y, Z)$ factors into linear terms, i.e., $F_{2}(Y, Z)=$ $L_{1}(Y, Z) L_{2}(Y, Z)$ where $L_{i}(Y, Z)$ is a $(1,1)$ form in $\mathbb{P}^{1} \times \mathbb{P}^{1}$. Then $\mathcal{X}$ contains the curve $((0,1), Y, Z)$ such that $L_{1}(Y, Z)=0$, which is rational and hence a -2 curve on $\mathcal{X}$. Let $D_{4}$ be the divisor class for this curve. The surface $\mathcal{X}$ also contains the -2 curve $((0,1), Y, Z)$ such that $L_{2}(Y, Z)=0$, and its divisor is $D_{1}-D_{4}$. It is clear that $D_{1} \cdot D_{4}=0$, and $D_{2} \cdot D_{4}=D_{3} \cdot D_{4}=1$, so $\mathcal{D}=\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}, D_{4}\right\}$ is a
basis of $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathbb{R}($ since $\mathcal{X}$ has Picard number 4$)$, and in this basis,

$$
J=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & 2 & 2 & 0 \\
2 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\
2 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & -2
\end{array}\right]
$$

Since the elements of the basis $\mathcal{D}$ are in $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$, the lattice $D_{1} \mathbb{Z} \oplus$ $D_{2} \mathbb{Z} \oplus D_{3} \mathbb{Z} \oplus D_{4} \mathbb{Z}$ is a sublattice of $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$.

Lemma 2.1. The basis $\mathcal{D}$ of $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes \mathbb{R}$ is a basis of $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$ over $\mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Suppose that there exists an element $C \in \operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$ such that $C$ is not in the lattice generated by $\mathcal{D}$. Then there exists a $C^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$ such that $C^{\prime}$ is in the polytope generated by the elements of $\mathcal{D}$, i.e.,

$$
C^{\prime}=c_{1} D_{1}+c_{2} D_{2}+c_{3} D_{3}+c_{4} D_{4}
$$

with $0 \leq c_{i}<1$. Let $a_{i}=C^{\prime} \cdot D_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbf{a}=\left[a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right]$. Then $\mathbf{a}=J \mathbf{c}\left(\right.$ where $\left.\mathbf{c}=\left[c_{1}, c_{2}, c_{3}, c_{4}\right]\right)$, so $0 \leq a_{1}<4,0 \leq a_{2}<5,0 \leq a_{3}<5$ and $-2<a_{4}<2$. Thus, there are only a finite number of cases to check, which is easily done via computer. We find that the only other possibility for $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$ is the lattice spanned by $\left\{D_{1} / 2, D_{2}, D_{3}, D_{4}\right\}$. Since $D_{1}$ represents an elliptic curve, it cannot be decomposed into elliptic curves, so $\mathcal{D}$ is a basis for $\operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$ over $\mathbb{Z}$.

Remark 2.2. In the above proof, we appealed to the geometry of the K3 surface. This could not be avoided since, by a result due to Morrison [5], there exists a K3 surface with Picard lattice isomorphic to the lattice spanned by $\left\{D_{1} / 2, D_{2}, D_{3}, D_{4}\right\}$.
3. The automorphisms. Because of its quadratic nature, $\mathcal{X}$ has several obvious automorphisms. Let us fix $Y$ and $Z$, so that $F(X, Y, Z)$ is a quadratic in $X$ with two roots $X$ and (say) $X^{\prime}$. Then the map

$$
\sigma_{1}:(X, Y, Z) \longmapsto\left(X^{\prime}, Y, Z\right)
$$

is an automorphism of $\mathcal{X}$. The pull back $\sigma_{1}^{*}$ has several obvious relations: $\sigma_{1}^{*} D_{2}=D_{2}$ and $\sigma_{1}^{*} D_{3}=D_{3}$ which, together with $\sigma_{1}^{2}=\mathrm{Id}$,
lead to some obvious intersections, such as:

$$
\sigma_{1}^{*} D_{1} \cdot D_{2}=D_{1} \cdot \sigma_{1 *} D_{2}=D_{1} \cdot \sigma_{1}^{*} D_{2}=D_{1} \cdot D_{2}=2
$$

The only difficult intersections are $\sigma_{1}^{*} D_{1} \cdot D_{1}=8, \sigma_{1}^{*} D_{1} \cdot D_{4}=4$ and $\sigma_{1}^{*} D_{4} \cdot D_{4}$. Let us fix a curve $C$ in the divisor class $D_{1}$. The image $\sigma_{1} C$ intersects $C$ wherever $F(X, Y, Z)=0$ has a double root, as well as at values of $X$ where both $F=0$ and $\partial_{X} F=0$. This is the intersection of two $(2,2)$ forms, so $\sigma_{1}^{*} D_{1} \cdot D_{1}=8$.

Let us now consider the curve $C$ in $D_{1}$ given by $X=(0,1)$. As $D_{4}$ is a component of $C$, the image $\sigma_{1} C$ intersects $D_{4}$ wherever $X=(0,1)$ is a double root, as well as where $\partial_{X} F=0$ and $L_{1}=0$, which is the intersection of a $(2,2)$ form and a $(1,1)$ form. Thus, $\sigma_{1}^{*} D_{1} \cdot D_{4}=4$. The last intersection is more difficult still, so let us assign it a variable: $\sigma_{1}^{*} D_{4} \cdot D_{4}=a$. Then,

$$
J \sigma_{1}^{*}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
8 & 2 & 2 & 4 \\
2 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\
2 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\
4 & 1 & 1 & a
\end{array}\right]
$$

Using $\sigma_{1}^{* 2}=\mathrm{Id}$, we get $a=0$ or 4 , so $\sigma_{1}^{*}=T_{1}$ or $S_{1} T_{1}$, where

$$
T_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
-1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\
2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
2 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { and } \quad S_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Since $S_{1}$ is the isometry that sends $D_{4}$ to $D_{1}-D_{4}$, it is clearly a symmetry of the ample cone $\mathcal{K}$. Thus, both $T_{1}$ and $S_{1} T_{1}$ are in $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$, and there is no need to resolve the ambiguity for $a$.

In a similar fashion, we can define $\sigma_{2}(X, Y, Z)=\left(X, Y^{\prime}, Z\right)$ and $\sigma_{3}(X, Y, Z)=\left(X, Y, Z^{\prime}\right)$, and their pullbacks $\sigma_{2}^{*}$ and $\sigma_{3}^{*}$. We note that $\sigma_{2}^{*} D_{1}=D_{1}$ and $\sigma_{2}^{*} D_{3}=D_{3}$. As before, the intersection $\sigma_{2}^{*} D_{2} \cdot D_{2}=8$. Looking at the action of $\sigma_{2}$ on the curve $X=(0,1)$, which includes $D_{4}$, we see $\sigma_{2}^{*} D_{4}=D_{1}-D_{4}$, from which we get $\sigma_{2}^{*} D_{2} \cdot D_{4}=D_{2} \cdot\left(D_{1}-D_{4}\right)=1$ and $\sigma_{2}^{*} D_{4} \cdot D_{4}=\left(D_{1}-D_{4}\right) \cdot D_{4}=2$.

Thus,

$$
J \sigma_{2}^{*}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 2 & 2 & 0 \\
2 & 8 & 2 & 1 \\
2 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 2
\end{array}\right], \quad \text { so } \quad \sigma_{2}^{*}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

By symmetry, $\sigma_{3}^{*}=S_{2} \sigma_{2}^{*} S_{2}$ where

$$
S_{2}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

To see whether we have the full group of automorphisms of $\mathcal{X}$, we turn our attention to the action of $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$ on $\mathbb{H}$. We can send $\mathbb{H}$ to the Poincaré ball model in the following way. There exists an orthonormal basis with change of basis matrix $Q$ that diagonalizes $J$. Let us write $J=Q^{t} A^{t} J_{0} A Q$, where $J_{0}$ has $(-1,-1,-1,1)$ along the diagonal, $A$ has $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right)$ along the diagonal, and $-a_{1}^{2},-a_{2}^{2},-a_{3}^{2}$ and $a_{4}^{2}$ are the eigenvalues of $J$. Then, for a point $P \in \mathcal{L}^{+}$, the point $P^{\prime}=A Q P /\|P\|$ is a point on the surface $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}-x_{4}^{2}=-1$. Let $\pi(P)$ be the stereographic projection of $P^{\prime}$ onto the plane $x_{4}=0$ through the point $(0,0,0,-1)$ (see Figure 1). Then $\pi$ is a map from $\mathbb{H}$ to the Poincaré ball model of hyperbolic geometry.

The Poincaré ball can, in turn, be unfolded into the Poincaré upper half space, using $D_{2}$ as the point at infinity. Note that $D_{2} \cdot D_{2}=0$, so it is on $\partial \mathbb{H}$, the boundary of $\mathbb{H}$. Let $G=\left\langle T_{1}, S_{1}, S_{2}, \sigma_{3}^{*}, R_{D_{4}}\right\rangle \leq \mathcal{O}^{+}$. The eigenspace for $S_{1}$ and the eigenvalue 1 is spanned by $\left\{D_{1}, D_{2}, D_{3}\right\}$, so $S_{1}$ is a reflection in this plane. The map $T_{1}$ is a reflection in a plane that includes $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ and is perpendicular to the plane through which $S_{1}$ reflects. That plane includes the point $D_{2}+D_{4}$. The map $S_{2}$ is reflection in a plane that includes $D_{1}$, and it sends $D_{2}$ to $D_{3}$. The plane through which it reflects is therefore represented by a hemisphere whose boundary is a circle through $D_{1}$ that is centered at $D_{3}$. The map $R_{D_{4}}$ is a reflection, it sends $D_{2}$ to $D_{2}+D_{4}$, and it fixes $D_{1}$, so it is a reflection through the hemisphere with boundary a circle centered at $D_{2}+D_{4}$ and through $D_{1}$. This is enough information to sketch the fundamental domain for $G$, which is shown in Figure 2. Though our sketch does not need to be too precise, we note that the angle between


Figure 1. The projection of $\mathbb{H}$ to the Poincaré ball.
the circle that represents $R_{D_{4}}$ and the line that represents $T_{1}$ is $\pi / 4$. To see this, note that the normal $\mathbf{n}_{1}$ to the plane through which $T_{1}$ reflects is $\mathbf{n}_{1}=-D_{1}+D_{2}+D_{3}$ (the eigenvector of $T_{1}$ associated to -1 ), and that

$$
\frac{D_{4} \cdot \mathbf{n}_{1}}{\left\|D_{4}\right\|\left\|\mathbf{n}_{1}\right\|}=\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}=\cos (\pi / 4)
$$

As can be seen, the fundamental domain has infinite volume. Since the fundamental domain of $\mathcal{O}^{+}$has finite volume, we know we are missing something.

To find another automorphism, we look at the second column of $J$, which is $\left[D_{2} \cdot D_{i}\right]=[2,0,2,1]$. Recall that $D_{2}$ is the divisor class given by the fibers over fixed $Y$, which are generically elliptic curves. Note that $D_{2} \cdot D_{4}=1$, so the rational curve represented by $D_{4}$ intersects each of these elliptic curves exactly once, i.e., we have a fibration of elliptic curves with section. Let $E$ be an elliptic curve in $D_{2}$, and let $O_{E}=E \cap D_{4}$ be its zero element.

We define a map $\sigma_{4}$ on $\mathcal{X}$ in the following way: For $P \in \mathcal{X}$, let $E$ be the unique elliptic curve in $D_{2}$ that contains $P$. Define $\sigma_{4}(P)=-P$, using the group law on $E$ with zero element $O_{E}$. Then $\sigma_{4}$ is an automorphism of $\mathcal{X}$. Since $\sigma_{4}(E)=E$, we know $\sigma_{2}^{*} D_{2}=D_{2}$ and, since $\sigma_{4}\left(O_{E}\right)=O_{E}$, we get $\sigma_{4}^{*} D_{4}=D_{4}$. We also note that $\sigma_{4}^{2}$ is the


Figure 2. The upper half-space representation of isometries in $\mathcal{O}^{+}$. Each line or circle represents the plane or hemisphere above it and is labeled with the isometry that is a reflection through that (hyperbolic) plane. A fundamental domain for $G$ is the region above the two hemispheres and bounded by the planes represented by the solid lines. This region has infinite volume. The fundamental domain for $G^{+}$is the region above the hemispheres and bounded by the four planes represented by the three solid lines and the dotted line. This region has finite volume.
identity. Thus, $\sigma_{4}^{*}$ is either the identity, rotation by $\pi$ about the line with endpoints $D_{2}$ and $D_{2}+D_{4}$, or reflection through a plane that includes that line.

Though there are infinitely many reflections that include a given line, there are significant limitations on what they can be. Let $R_{\mathbf{n}}$ be a reflection through the plane $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$. Then $\mathbf{n}$ is an eigenvector of $R_{\mathbf{n}}$ associated to the eigenvalue -1 . Since $R_{\mathbf{n}}$ has integer entries, we may choose $\mathbf{n}$ to have integer entries. Now suppose $R_{\mathbf{m}}$ is another reflection
in $\mathcal{O}^{+}$. Then the angle $\theta$ between the two planes (if they intersect) is given by

$$
\cos \theta=\frac{ \pm \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{m}}{\|\mathbf{n}\|\|\mathbf{m}\|}
$$

Thus,

$$
\frac{\cos 2 \theta+1}{2}=\cos ^{2} \theta=\frac{(\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{m})^{2}}{(\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n})(\mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{m})} \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

The composition of $R_{\mathrm{n}}$ and $R_{\mathrm{m}}$ is a rotation by $2 \theta$ (if the planes intersect), and since $\mathcal{O}^{+}$is an arithmetic group, we know $2 \theta$ is a rational multiple of $\pi$. Since $\operatorname{deg}(\cos 2 \pi / n)=\frac{1}{2} \phi(n)$, the only possibilities for $\cos 2 \theta$ are $0, \pm \frac{1}{2}, \pm 1$.

If $\sigma_{4}^{*}$ is a reflection with normal vector $\mathbf{n}$, then we can solve for $\mathbf{n}$ by noting $\mathbf{n} \cdot D_{2}=0, \mathbf{n} \cdot D_{4}=0$, and using the above argument with the reflection $S_{1}$. We get $\mathbf{n}=D_{1}+D_{2}-D_{3}$ or $\mathbf{n}=D_{1}-4 D_{2}-2 D_{4}$, which gives us $S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*}$ and

$$
T_{4}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
-1 & 0 & -2 & 0 \\
8 & 1 & 8 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
4 & 0 & 4 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

The rotation by $\pi$ about the line with endpoints $D_{2}$ and $D_{2}+D_{4}$ is the map $S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*} T_{4}$.

If $\sigma_{4}^{*}=\mathrm{Id}$ or $S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*}$, then it would appear that the discovery of $\sigma_{4}$ has given us nothing new. However, it did lead us to the discovery of $T_{4}$, which is an element of $\mathcal{O}^{+}$. Furthermore, the group $G^{+}=\left\langle T_{1}, S_{1}, S_{2}, \sigma_{3}^{*}, R_{D_{4}}, T_{4}\right\rangle$ has a fundamental domain with finite volume (see Figure 2), so $G^{+}$has finite index in $\mathcal{O}^{+}$. (In fact, $G^{+}=\mathcal{O}^{+}$, since this fundamental domain has no symmetries. We leave the proof to the reader, as the result is not a necessary component of the paper. First we show that such an isometry cannot interchange the cusps $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ and then we analyze where the other vertices of the fundamental domain can go.)

If $\sigma_{4}^{*}=T_{4}$ or $S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*} T_{4}$, then $T_{4} \in \mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$. It turns out the converse is also true.

Lemma 3.1. Suppose $T_{4} \in \mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$. Then $\sigma_{4}^{*}=T_{4}$ or $S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*} T_{4}$.

Proof. Select any five divisors $C_{i}=\left(S_{1} T_{4}\right)^{i} D_{4}$ from the infinite orbit of $D_{4}$ under the action of $\left\langle S_{1} T_{4}\right\rangle$. It is easy to see that this orbit is infinite since $S_{1} T_{4}$ is a translation on the boundary of the upper halfspace. Since $S_{1} T_{4}$ fixes $D_{2}$, we get

$$
C_{i} \cdot D_{2}=\left(S_{1} T_{4}\right)^{i} D_{4} \cdot D_{2}=D_{4} \cdot\left(T_{4} S_{1}\right)^{i} D_{2}=D_{4} \cdot D_{2}=1
$$

Note that $S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*}$ commutes with both $S_{1}$ and $T_{4}$ (they are reflections that are perpendicular to each other), so

$$
S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*} C_{i}=S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*}\left(S_{1} T_{4}\right)^{i} D_{4}=\left(S_{1} T_{4}\right)^{i}\left(S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*}\right) D_{4}=\left(S_{1} T_{4}\right)^{i} D_{4}=C_{i}
$$

And, of course, the image of $C_{i}$ under the identity is also $C_{i}$.
Finally, since $T_{4} \in O^{\prime \prime}$, each of the divisors $C_{i}$ are nodal, i.e., they each represent a rational curve. Let $E$ be an elliptic curve in $D_{2}$ that does not include any of the finite number of intersections given by the five $C_{i}$ 's taken in pairs, and let $P_{i}=C_{i} \cap E$, where we are now using $C_{i}$ to represent both a divisor class and (in this usage) the unique curve in that divisor class. Then, of course, $\sigma_{4}\left(P_{i}\right)=-P_{i}$. On the other hand, $\sigma_{4}\left(P_{i}\right)=\sigma_{4}\left(C_{i} \cap E\right)$, so is in $\sigma_{4}^{*} C_{i} \cap E$. But $\sigma_{4}^{*} C_{i}=C_{i}$, and since $C_{i} \cdot D_{2}=1$, there is only one point in this image, namely, $P_{i}$, i.e., $-P_{i}=\sigma_{4}\left(P_{i}\right)=P_{i}$ so $2 P_{i}=0$. But $E$ has at most four points $P$ such that $2 P=0$, giving us a contradiction. Thus, $\sigma_{4}^{*}$ cannot be the identity or $S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*}$, so it must be either $T_{4}$ or $S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*} T_{4}$.

We, therefore, have an incentive to prove $T_{4}$ is in $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$.
The groups $\mathcal{O}^{\prime}$ and $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$ intersect at just the identity. Thus, an element $T \in \mathcal{O}^{+}$is in $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$ if and only if $T D$ is ample for any (and all) ample $D$. This gives us an incentive to find more ample divisors.

Lemma 3.2. Suppose $D \in \operatorname{Pic}(\mathcal{X})$ and $C_{0}$ is a nodal curve. Let $Q$ be the perpendicular projection (with respect to the intersection pairing) of $D$ onto the hyperplane $C_{0} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$. If $D$ is ample, then every point on the open line segment from $D$ to $Q$ is ample. If $D$ is on the boundary of the ample cone, $C_{0} \cdot D \neq 0$, and the line $D Q$ is not in a hyperplane $C \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ for any nodal curve $C$, then every point on the open line segment from $D$ to $Q$ is ample.

Proof. The ample cone is a polyhedral region bounded by the hyperplanes $C \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ where $C$ ranges over all nodal curves. If two
bounding hyperplanes $C_{1} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ and $C_{2} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ intersect, then the angle $\theta$ of intersection, as measured inside the ample cone, is given by $2 \cos \theta=C_{1} \cdot C_{2}$. Thus, $\theta=\pi / 2$ or $\pi / 3$ (corresponding to $C_{1} \cdot C_{2}=0$ or 1 ). If not all points between $D$ and $Q$ are ample, then the segment must cross the boundary of the ample cone, i.e., there must be a point $P$ on the line segment such that $P$ is on the hyperplane $C \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ for some nodal curve $C$. To arrive at a contradiction, we will construct a triangle whose angle sum is greater than $\pi$.

Let $U$ be the subspace spanned by $D, C_{0}$, and $C$, so the intersection of $U$ with $\mathbb{H}$ is a hyperbolic plane. Since $Q$ is in the space spanned by $D$ and $C, Q$ is in $U$. Note that the hyperplanes $C \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ and $C_{0} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ must intersect, for if they do not, then $C_{0} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ cannot bound the ample cone anywhere since the ample cone is on the other side of the hyperplane $C \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$. This contradicts $C_{0}$ being nodal. Let $R$ be the point of intersection of $C_{0} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0, C \cdot \mathbf{x}=0, U$, and $\mathbb{H}$. Consider $\triangle P Q R$. Note that $\angle P Q R=\pi / 2$, and $\angle Q R P$ is the supplement of the angle $\theta$ described above, since $P$ is outside the ample cone. Hence, $\angle Q R P \geq \pi / 2$, and the angle sum in $\triangle P Q R$ is greater than $\pi$, a contradiction, so $P$ could not exist.

If $D$ is on the boundary of the ample cone and $C_{0} \cdot D \neq 0$, then $C_{0} \cdot D>0$. If $D+\epsilon Q \notin \mathcal{K}$ for sufficiently small $\epsilon>0$, then there exists a nodal $C$ such that $C \cdot(D+\epsilon Q) \leq 0$ for all $\epsilon>0$ sufficiently small. If the line segment $D Q$ is not on $C \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$, then the inequality is strict. In particular, since $D \in \partial \mathcal{K}$, we have $C \cdot D=0$. If the hyperplanes $C \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ and $C_{0} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ do not intersect, then $C \cdot \mathbf{x}<0$ for all $\mathbf{x}$ such that $C_{0} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$, i.e., the hyperplane $C_{0} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ is not a bounding plane of $\mathcal{K}$, which cannot be the case. Thus, they must intersect and we can construct $R$ as before. If $R \neq Q$, then we arrive at a contradiction as before using the triangle $\triangle D Q R$. If $R=Q$, then the line segment $D Q$ lies on $C^{\prime} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$.

Thus, $D+\epsilon Q \in \mathcal{K}$ for sufficiently small $\epsilon>0$, and hence the open line segment joining $D+\epsilon Q$ and $Q$ lies in the ample cone. Since $\epsilon>0$ is arbitrary, the open line segment $D Q$ lies in the ample cone.

Since $D_{2}$ represents elliptic curves, it is on the boundary of the ample cone. Since $R_{D_{4}} D_{2}=D_{2}+D_{4}$, the projection of $D_{2}$ onto the plane $D_{4} \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ has the form $Q=D_{2}+a D_{4}$. Solving for $a$ in $D_{4} \cdot\left(D_{2}+a D_{4}\right)=0$, we get $a=1 / 2$. Thus, $D_{2}+c D_{4}$ is ample


Figure 3. The Poincaré ball and upper half-space models of $\mathcal{K} / \mathbb{R}^{+}$. Each circle represents a hyperbolic plane that bounds the region. The region is also a fundamental domain for $\mathcal{O}^{\prime}$.
for $c \in(0,1 / 2)$. In particular, $D_{2}+D_{4} / 4 \in \mathcal{K}$, and since it is in the eigenspace of $T_{4}$ with eigenvalue 1 , we get $T_{4} \in O^{\prime \prime}$. Hence, $\sigma_{4}^{*}=T_{4}$ or $S_{1} \sigma_{3}^{*} T_{4}$.

We therefore conclude $\left\langle\sigma_{1}^{*}, \sigma_{2}^{*}, \sigma_{3}^{*}, \sigma_{4}^{*}\right\rangle$ has finite index (of 1 or 2) in $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}=\left\langle T_{1}, \sigma_{2}^{*}, \sigma_{3}^{*}, \sigma_{4}^{*}, S_{2}\right\rangle=\left\langle T_{1}, \sigma_{2}^{*}, \sigma_{4}^{*}, S_{1}, S_{2}\right\rangle$, and that $\left\langle\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \sigma_{3}, \sigma_{4}\right\rangle$ has finite index in $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathcal{X})$. We also get

$$
\mathcal{O}^{\prime}=\left\langle R_{T D_{4}}: T \in \mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle
$$

4. The ample cone. The ample cone is the conal region bounded by the planes $C \cdot \mathbf{x}=0$ where $C$ ranges over all nodal curves, i.e., over the $O^{\prime \prime}$ orbit of $D_{4}$. Modulo $\mathbb{R}^{+}$, the ample cone $\mathcal{K}$ lies in $\mathbb{H}$, and is depicted in Figure 3 in the Poincaré ball and upper half-space models. The region $\mathcal{K} / \mathbb{R}^{+}$is also a fundamental domain for $\mathcal{O}^{\prime}$.

Associated to the ample cone is a fractal. Consider the sphere that represents the boundary of $\mathbb{H}$ at infinity in the Poincaré ball model. Every plane that bounds the ample cone $\mathcal{K}$ slices this sphere in two pieces. Remove the piece that represents the half space that does not include $\mathcal{K}$. After doing this for all bounding planes of $\mathcal{K}$, what is left is a fractal. The fractal is also known as the limit set of $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$ and can be thought of as the set of all points $x \in \partial \mathbb{H}$ such that, for any plane in $\mathbb{H}$ that does not have $x$ on its boundary, and any $P \in \mathbb{H}$, there exists $T \in O^{\prime \prime}$ such that $T(P)$ and $x$ are on the same side of the plane. Experimental calculations suggest the dimension of that fractal
is $1.415 \pm 0.003$. For a more detailed description of how the calculation is done, see [2].
5. Descent. One often uses a method of descent to navigate through a lattice. Setting up an appropriate height and algorithm for descent is sometimes difficult to accomplish and verify if viewed strictly algebraically. Geometrically, for a group $G=\left\langle R_{\mathbf{n}_{1}}, \ldots, R_{\mathbf{n}_{k}}\right\rangle$ consisting of reflections, the set up is trivially accomplished. Pick any ample divisor $D$ in the interior of the fundamental domain, and for each reflection $R_{\mathbf{n}_{i}}$, verify that $D \cdot \mathbf{n}_{i}>0$, replacing $\mathbf{n}_{i}$ with its negative, if necessary. Define $h(P)=D \cdot P$. For any $P$ not in the closure of the fundamental domain, there exists an $\mathbf{n}_{i}$ such that $\mathbf{n}_{i} \cdot P<0$. We descend by replacing $P$ with $R_{\mathbf{n}_{i}}(P)$, since clearly $h\left(R_{\mathbf{n}_{i}}(P)\right)<h(P)$. Descent ends when no such $\mathbf{n}_{i}$ exists, which means $P$ is in the closure of the fundamental domain.

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