# On Subgroups of the Special Linear Group Containing the Special Orthogonal Group 

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## Introduction

Let $V$ be an $n$-dimensional vector space over a field $K$ of characteristic not 2 and as usual let $G L_{n}(K)$ and $S L_{n}(K)$ be the general and special linear groups of $V$. Let $Q$ be a quadratic form of Witt index $v \geqslant 1$ on $V$ whose associated symmetric bilinear form, given by

$$
B(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})=Q(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y})-Q(\mathbf{x})-Q(\mathbf{y}), \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V,
$$

is non-degenerate, and let $O_{n}(K), S O_{n}(K)$ and $G O_{n}(K)$ be the orthogonal, special orthogonal and general orthogonal groups of $Q$.

In [5], Dye showed that if $n$ is even and if $\tilde{K}$ is a field of characteristic 2 , then considered as a subgroup of the symplectic group $S p_{n}(\tilde{K}), O_{n}(\tilde{K})$ is maximal in $S p_{n}(\tilde{K})$ if and only if $\tilde{K}$ is perfect. In [6], he proved the maximality in $S L_{n}(K)$ of $S L_{n}(K) \cap G S p_{n}(K)$ (for $n \geqslant 4$ ); he denoted the latter group by $S G S p_{n}(K)$. In this paper we consider a situation that may be considered analogous to both of these results. Ideally one would like to prove the maximality in $S L_{n}(K)$ of $S O_{n}(K)$. However, $S O_{n}(K)$ is usually properly contained in its normaliser in $S L_{n}(K)$; the normaliser is $G O_{n}(K) \cap$ $S L_{n}(K)$ which we denote by $S G O_{n}(K)$ (adapting Dye's notation) and call the special general orthogonal group of $Q$. It will follow from Lemma 1 that $S G O_{n}(K)$ is the stabilizer in $S L_{n}(K)$ of the set of singular 1-dimensional subspaces of $V$. In Sections 2 and 3 we prove the theorems stated below. In Section 4 we give conditions for $G O_{n}(K)$ to be maximal in $G L_{n}(K)$ and for $S O_{n}(K)$ to be maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$ (Theorems III and V).

[^0]We also consider the projective groups $\operatorname{PSGO}_{n}(K)$ and $\mathrm{PSO}_{n}(K)$ and give conditions for them to be maximal in $P S L_{n}(K)$.

Theorem I. If $n \geqslant 3$, then any proper subgroup of $S L_{n}(K)$ containing $S O_{n}(K)$ lies in $S G O_{n}(K)$.

A Corollary to this theorem is that $S G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$ when $n \geqslant 3$. We are then also able to determine the subgroups of $S L_{n}(K)$ containing $S O_{n}(K)$. Unfortunately, the theorem cannot be extended to the case $n=2$ as $\mathrm{SO}_{2}(\mathrm{~K})$ stabilizes each of two 1 -dimensional subspaces; there thereby arise two reducible subgroups containing $\mathrm{SO}_{2}(\mathrm{~K})$ that don't lie in $S G O_{2}(K)$. Although for finite fields of order $>11$ it is clear from [2] or [12] that any proper subgroup of $S L_{2}(\mathrm{~K})$ containing $\mathrm{SO}_{2}(\mathrm{~K})$ lies either in $\mathrm{SGO}_{2}(\mathrm{~K})$ or one of the given reducible subgroups, it is not clear that this can be extended to infinite fields. However, in most cases, we can still prove the maximality of $S G O_{2}(K)$ in $S L_{2}(K)$.

Theorem II. If $n=2$, then $S G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$, except when $K=G F(q)$ with $q \leqslant 11$.

Dye comments in [5] that his result there is unusual in that it is "geometric" but not true for all fields of characteristic 2. In contrast, when the characteristic is not 2 there are only exceptions for very small fields. One reason for this difference is that any element of a field of characteristic not 2 may be expressed as the difference between two squares, whereas in the characteristic 2 case the same may only be said of perfect fields.

Our approach is geometric in nature, although there are differences between the cases $n \geqslant 3$ and $n=2$. We show that any subgroup of $S L_{n}(K)$ properly containing $S O_{n}(K)$ but not lying in $S G O_{n}(K)$ (properly containing $S G O_{n}(K)$ if $n=2$ ) contains a generating set of transvections for $S L_{n}(K)$. In the proof of Theorem II we use the known maximality of $\mathrm{SGO}_{2}(\mathrm{~K})$ in $S L_{2}(K)$ for finite $K$ (see Result 1). The maximality of $S G O_{3}(K)$ in $S L_{3}(K)$ is also known for finite $K$ (see Result 2), although the case $K=G F(3)$ is the only one that we assume.

## 1. Further Notation and Preliminary Results

Our notation mostly follows [4]. We note only that the conjugate of a subspace $U$ will be written $U^{\prime}$ and that when $U$ is non-isotropic and $E_{n}(K)$ is a subgroup of $G O_{n}(K)$, the subgroup of $E_{n}(K)$ consisting of those elements that fix each vector in $U^{\prime}$ will be denoted by $E(U)$.

The following results are stated in terms of our notation; we follow standard practice in writing, for example, $S L_{n}(K)=S L_{n}(q)$ when $K=G F(q)$.

Result 1 (Dickson [2]). If $K=G F(q)$, then $S G O_{2}(q)$ is maximal in $S L_{2}(q)$ except when $q \leqslant 11$.
Dickson actually lists the subgroups of $P S L_{2}(q)$ (rather than those of $\left.S L_{2}(q)\right)$ and the exceptional cases are more neatly described in this form; that the exceptional cases may be considered by reference to $P S L_{2}(q)$ follows from the fact that $\mathrm{SGO}_{2}(K)$ contains the centre of $S L_{2}(K)$. It may be seen from Dickson's list that

$$
\begin{gathered}
P S G O_{2}(3)<V_{4}<P S L_{2}(3) \\
P S G O_{2}(5)<A_{4}<P S L_{2}(5) \\
P S G O_{2}(7)<S_{4}<P S L_{2}(7) \\
P S G O_{2}(9)<S_{4}<P S L_{2}(9) \\
P S G O_{2}(11)<A_{5}<P S L_{2}(11),
\end{gathered}
$$

where $V_{4}$ is the four group and $A_{4}, A_{5}$ and $S_{4}$ are alternating and symmetric groups. In each case, the given group is maximal in $P S L_{2}(q)$ and contains $\mathrm{PSGO}_{2}(q)$ as a maximal subgroup.

Result 2 (Mitchell [9]). If $K=G F(q)$, then $\mathrm{SGO}_{3}(q)$ is maximal in $S L_{3}(q)$.

A transvection in $S L_{n}(K)$ is a map of the form

$$
: \mathbf{v} \mapsto \mathbf{v}+\rho(\mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{x},
$$

where $\mathbf{x}$ is a non-zero vector in $V$ and $\rho$ is a linear form on $V$ with $\rho(\mathbf{x})=0$; it is said to be centred on $\mathbf{x}$ and to have axis $\rho^{-1}(0)$. For each pair of subspaces $P \subseteq H$ of dimension 1 and $n-1$, respectively, the subgroup of $S L_{n}(K)$ generated by all transvections with $\mathbf{x} \in P$ and $\rho{ }^{1}(0)=H$ will be denoted by $X(P, H)$; this subgroup is sometimes known as a subgroup of root type. If a group generated by transvections contains $X(P, H)$, then $P$ and $H$ are said to be respectively a centre and an axis for that group. As McLaughlin pointed out in [8], the following result is true for any $K$, even though originally stated only for $G F(2)$.

Result 3 (McLaughlin [8]). If $\hat{F}$ is an irreducible subgroup of $S L_{n}(K)$ generated by subgroups of root type and if $X\left(P, H_{1}\right), X\left(P, H_{2}\right) \leqslant \widehat{F}$ for some $P$ and for distinct axes $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$, then $\hat{F}=S L_{n}(K)$.

The general orthogonal group is defined by $G O_{n}(K)=\left\{g \in G L_{n}(K)\right.$ : $\left.Q(g \mathbf{x})=\lambda_{g} Q(\mathbf{x}), \forall \mathbf{x} \in V\right\}$ where $\lambda_{g} \in K$ is dependent on $g$ and is called the multiplicator of $g$. The set of all $\lambda_{g}$ is a subgroup $M(Q)$ of the multiplicative group $K^{*}$ of $K$. The elements in $G O_{n}(K)$ with multiplicator 1 form $O_{n}(K)$, and the elements in $O_{n}(K)$ with determinant 1 form $S O_{n}(K)$. As $G O_{n}(K)$ contains the centre of $G L_{n}(K)$, it follows that $\left(K^{*}\right)^{2} \leqslant M(Q)$; if
$n$ is odd, then $M(Q)=\left(K^{*}\right)^{2}$ (cf. [4, p. 77]). If $n$ is even, then the structure of $M(Q)$ is not known in general, but is known in particular cases: if $K=\mathbb{C}$, then $M(Q)=K^{*}$; if $K=\mathbb{R}$, then $M(Q)=K^{*}$ when $\nu=n / 2$ and $\left(K^{*}\right)^{2}$ otherwise; if $K$ is finite, then $M(Q)=K^{*}$.

Lemma 1. $G O_{n}(K)$ is the stabilizer in $G L_{n}(K)$ of the set of singular 1 -dimensional subspaces of $V$.
Proof. We need only show that if $g \in G L_{n}(K)$ stabilizes the set of singular 1-dimensional subspaces, then $g \in G O_{n}(K)$. Let $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in V$ be singular vectors such that $B(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})=1$. As $g(\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{b})$ must be non-singular, $\langle g(\mathbf{a}), g(\mathbf{b})\rangle$ is hyperbolic and, multiplying $g$ by an appropriate element of $O_{n}(K)$ if necessary, we may assume that $g(\mathbf{a})=\mathbf{a}$ and $g(\mathbf{b})=\lambda \mathbf{b}$ for some $\lambda \in K^{*}$; thus $Q(g(\mathbf{v}))=\lambda Q(\mathbf{v})$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in\langle\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}\rangle$. For $\mathbf{c} \in\langle\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}\rangle^{\prime}$, neither $\langle g(\mathbf{c}), \mathbf{a}\rangle$ nor $\langle g(\mathbf{c}), \mathbf{b}\rangle$ can be hyperbolic, so $g(\mathbf{c}) \in\langle\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}\rangle^{\prime}$. Now $\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{a}-$ $Q(\mathbf{c}) \cdot \mathbf{b}$ is singular, so $Q(g(\mathbf{c}))=\lambda Q(\mathbf{c})$. Hence $g \in G O_{n}(K)$ with multiplicator $\lambda$. 【

Let us now write $G=S G O_{n}(K)$ and $G_{0}=S O_{n}(K)$ and let $F \leqslant S L_{n}(K)$ such that $G_{0}<F$ but $F \leqslant G$ if $n \geqslant 3$ and $G<F$ if $n=2$; we show that $F=S L_{n}(K)$. As $G$ does not act transitively on the 1 -dimensional subspaces of $V$, it is clear that $G \neq S L_{n}(K)$.

## 2. The Case $n \geqslant 3$

We assume throughout this section that $n \geqslant 3$.
Proposition 1. There exists $f \in F \backslash(F \cap G)$ and a non-zero singular vector $\mathbf{x} \in V$ such that $f(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}$.

Proof. We begin by proving the statement of the proposition when $n=3$ and use it for $n \geqslant 4$. As Witt's theorem (cf. [1, p. 71]) may be amended to show that $G_{0}$ acts transitively on the non-zero singular vectors, it will suffice to find $f$ and $\mathbf{x}$ such that $f(\mathbf{x})$ is singular.
Suppose that $n=3$ and let $h \in F \backslash(F \cap G)$; then $h$ does not normalise $G_{0}$. Let $l$ be the central element of $O_{3}(K)$ taking $\mathbf{v}$ to $-\mathbf{v}$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$, then as $O_{3}(K)$ is generated by its symmetries (cf. [3]), $\{\tau \sigma: \sigma$ a symmetry $\}$ is a generating set for $G_{0}$. Thus for some symmetry $\sigma, h^{-1} \sigma h \notin G_{0}$; moreover $\tau h^{-1} \sigma h \notin G$ because otherwise the fixed space of $h^{-1} \sigma h$, having dimension 2, would contain a non-singular vector implying that $h^{-1} \sigma h$ and therefore $i h^{-1} \sigma h$ has multiplicator 1, i.e., that $h^{-1} \sigma h \in G_{0}$, a contradiction. Let $W$ be the fixed space of $h^{-1} \sigma h$. If $W$ contains a non-zero singular vector, then we may take $f=t h^{-1} \sigma h$. Otherwise $W$ is anisotropic and hence non-isotropic.

Let $\sigma_{1}$ be the symmetry centred on $W^{\prime}$ and let $h_{1}=\sigma_{1} h^{-1} \sigma h \in F \backslash(F \cap G)$, then $W$ is the fixed space of $h_{1}$ which must therefore be a transvection centred on a vector in $W$. Let $\mathbf{v} \in W^{\prime} \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}$, write $h_{1}(\mathbf{v})=\mathbf{v}+\mathbf{w}$ where $\mathbf{w} \in W$ and let $\mathbf{u} \in\langle\mathbf{w}\rangle^{\prime} \cap W\{\mathbf{0}\}$; then $\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\}$ is an orthogonal base for $V$. Let $\mathbf{u}_{0} \in\langle\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\rangle\left\langle\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle\right.$ such that $\mathbf{u}_{0}+\mathbf{w}$ is singular; except when $K=G F(3)$ and $Q(\mathbf{w})=Q(\mathbf{u})=-Q(\mathbf{v})$ (in which case, as $\mathbf{v}+\mathbf{w}$ and $\mathbf{v}+2 \mathbf{w}=h_{1}(\mathbf{v}+\mathbf{w})$ are both singular, we may take $f=h_{1}$ and $x=\mathbf{v}+\mathbf{w}$ ) $\mathbf{u}_{0}$ exists because either $\langle\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\rangle$ is hyperbolic and therefore contains a vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ with $Q(\hat{\mathbf{u}})=-Q(\mathbf{w})$ or $\langle\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\rangle$ is anisotropic in which case $v \geqslant 1$ implies that $\langle\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\rangle$ contains a vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ with $Q(\hat{\mathbf{u}})=-Q(\mathbf{w})$, and except when $K=G F(3)$ and $\langle\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\rangle$ is hyperbolic (where if $Q(\mathbf{w})=-Q(\mathbf{u})$ we may take $\mathbf{u}_{0}=\mathbf{u}$ ) the irreducibility of the action of $O(\langle\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\rangle)$ on $\langle\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\rangle$ ensures that there is a vector in $\langle\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\rangle \backslash\langle\hat{\mathbf{u}}\rangle$ with the properties of $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$. Now let $\sigma_{0}$ be the symmetry centred on $\mathbf{u}_{0}$; then $h_{1} l \sigma_{0} h_{1} l \sigma_{0}$ is a non-trivial transvection centred on $\mathbf{w}$ and having fixed space $\left\langle\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u}_{0}\right\rangle$. Thus we may take $f=h_{1} l \sigma_{0} h_{1} l \sigma_{0}$ and $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{w}+\mathbf{u}_{0}$.

Suppose now that $n \geqslant 4$ and let $h \in F \backslash(F \cap G)$; then $h$ does not normalise $G_{0}$. As $G_{0}$ is generated by involutions with fixed space dimension $n-2$ (cf. [3]), there is such an element $g$ for which $h^{-1} g h \notin G_{0}$. Any element of $G$ whose fixed space is not totally singular fixes a non-singular vector, i.e., has multiplicator 1 and therefore lies in $G_{0}$; as the fixed space of $h^{-1} g h$ has dimension $n-2$, it can only be totally singular if $n-2 \leqslant v \leqslant n / 2$, i.e., $n=4$ and $v=2$, so with the one possible exception, $h^{-1} g h \notin G$. If $n=4$ and $v=2$, then a refinement of the argument is required: another generating set for $G_{0}$ is the set of hyperbolic rotations, i.e., elements whose fixed spaces are the conjugates of hyperbolic 2-dimensional subspaces (cf. [3]), which in this case implies that the fixed spaces are themselves hyperbolic 2-dimensional subspaces. Suppose that $h^{-1} G_{0} h \leqslant G$ and that $g_{1}$ is a hyperbolic rotation with $h^{-1} g_{1} h \notin G_{0}$, and let $P$ be the fixed space of $g_{1}$; then $h^{-1} P$, the fixed space of $h^{-1} g_{1} h$, must be totally singular. For any $g_{2} \in G_{0}, h^{-1} g_{2} h \in G$ implies that $h^{-1} g_{2} h \cdot h^{-1} P=h^{-1} g_{2} P$ is totally singular; as $G_{0}$ acts transitively on the hyperbolic 2-dimensional subspaces (from Witt's theorem) it follows that $h^{-1} P_{2}$ is totally singular for any hyperbolic 2-dimensional subspace $P_{2}$. But any vector lies in a hyperbolic 2 -dimensional subspace (cf. [4]) implying that every vector of $h^{-1} V$ is singular, which is absurd. Hence $h^{-1} G_{0} h \leqslant G$ and we may choose an involution $g$ as above with $h^{-1} g h \notin G$.

Let $h_{1}=h^{-1} g h$ and let $W$ be the fixed space of $h_{1}$; then $\operatorname{dim} W=n-2$ and $h_{1}$ is an involution. If $W$ contains a non-zero singular vector then we may take $\mathbf{x}$ to be such a vector and take $f=h_{1}$. Otherwise $W$ is anisotropic, hence non-isotropic, and $V=W \oplus W^{\prime}$. Let $\mathbf{u} \in W, \mathbf{v} \in W^{\prime}$ be non-zero vectors such that $\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}$ is singular (such exist since not every singular vector can lie in $\left.W^{\prime}\right)$; then $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are non-isotropic, and $h_{1}(\mathbf{v})=$ $-\mathbf{v}+\mathbf{w}$ for some $\mathbf{w} \in W$ (as $h_{1}$ is an involution). Let $l \in G_{0}$ be the map with fixed space $W$ taking $\mathbf{z}$ to $-\mathbf{z}$ for all $\mathbf{z} \in W^{\prime}$, let $h_{2}=i h_{1}$, let $U_{1}$ be a

2-dimensional subspace of $W$ containing $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{w}$ ( $U_{1}$ is necessarily nonisotropic) and let $U=U_{1}+\langle\mathrm{v}\rangle$; then $\operatorname{dim} U=3, U$ is non-isotropic but not anisotropic, and $h_{2} U=U$. Now consider the restriction $\widehat{h}_{2}$ of $h_{2}$ to $U ; \widehat{h}_{2}$ fixes each vector of $U_{1}$ and takes $\mathbf{v}$ to $\mathbf{v}+\mathbf{w}$, and so has determinant 1 . Let $\mathrm{SO}_{3}(\mathrm{~K})$ and $\mathrm{SGO}_{3}(\mathrm{~K})$ be respectively the special orthogonal and special general orthogonal groups of the restriction of $Q$ to $U$. If $\hat{h}_{2} \in S G O_{3}(K)$ then $\hat{h}_{2}(\mathbf{x})$ is singular for any singular vector $\mathbf{x} \in U$ so we may take $f=h_{2}$. Otherwise $\mathrm{SO}_{3}(\mathrm{~K})<\left\langle\mathrm{SO}_{3}(\mathrm{~K}), \widehat{h}_{2}\right\rangle \$ \mathrm{SGO}_{3}(\mathrm{~K})$ and we may apply the case $n=3$ with $\left\langle\mathrm{SO}_{3}(\mathrm{~K}), \hat{h}_{2}\right\rangle$ in place of $F$, giving an element $\hat{f}$ of $\left\langle\mathrm{SO}_{3}(\mathrm{~K}), \hat{h}_{2}\right\rangle$ (with $\hat{f} \notin \mathrm{SGO}_{3}(\mathrm{~K})$ ) that fixes a non-zero singular vector of $U$. As $\mathrm{SO}_{3}(\mathrm{~K})$ may be identified with the subgroup $S O(U)$ of $G_{0}$, it follows that $\hat{f}$ is the restriction of some $f \in\left\langle S O(U), h_{2}\right\rangle$ (with $f \notin G$ ), i.e., $f \in F \backslash(F \cap G)$ and $f$ fixes a non-zero singular vector, as required.

Proposition 2. If $K \neq G F(3)$ then there is a transvection in $F$ whose centre is a non-zero singular vector $\mathbf{x}$ and whose axis is $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}$.

Proof. Let $\mathbf{x}$ be a non-zero singular vector for which there exists $f \in F \backslash(F \cap G)$ such that $f(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}$. Let $\tilde{G}_{0}=\operatorname{Stab}_{\sigma_{0}}\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle$, let $\tilde{G}=\operatorname{Stab}_{G}\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle$ and let $\tilde{F}=\operatorname{Stab}_{F}\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle$; then $\tilde{F} 末 \tilde{G}$. We consider the orbits of $\tilde{F}$ acting on the 1 -dimensional subspaces of $V$. The orbits of $\tilde{G}_{0}$ other than $\{\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle\}$ lie in two classes, $\mathscr{C}_{1}$ and $\mathscr{C}_{2}$, consisting respectively of those inside and those outside $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle$ '. By Witt's theorem there is one orbit $\Omega$ of singular 1-dimensional subspaces in $\mathscr{C}_{2}$ and one orbit of non-singular 1-dimensional subspaces for each element of $K^{*} /\left(K^{*}\right)^{2}$, i.e., if $\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are non-singular vectors outside $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}$, then $\langle\mathbf{u}\rangle$ and $\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle$ are in the same orbit of $\widetilde{G}_{0}$ if and only if $Q(\mathbf{u}) / Q(\mathbf{v})$ is a square in $K$; any hyperbolic 2 -dimensional subspace containing $\mathbf{x}$ but not lying in $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}$ contains a representative of each orbit in $\mathscr{C}_{2}$. In $\mathscr{C}_{1}$ we need only note that if $\mathbf{v} \in\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime} \backslash\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle$, then $\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle$ and $\langle\mathbf{v}+\lambda \mathbf{x}\rangle$ are in the same orbit of $\widetilde{G}_{0}$ for all $\lambda \in K$ and that if $v \geqslant 2$, then there is one orbit $\Delta$ of singular 1 -dimensional subspaces, except when $n=4$ in which case there are two, $\Delta_{1}$ and $\Delta_{2}$, corresponding to the totally singular 2 -dimensional subspaces of $V$ containing $\mathbf{x}$. We show that under $\tilde{F}$ the orbit $\Omega$ is joined to another orbit of $\mathscr{C}_{2}$.
Suppose first that $\tilde{F}$ does not fix $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}$, i.e., for some $h \in \tilde{F}$ and some $\mathbf{v} \in\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle \backslash\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle, h(\mathbf{v}) \notin\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime} ;$ then $h\langle\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{x}\rangle=\langle h(\mathbf{v}), \mathbf{x}\rangle$ is hyperbolic. Thus the 1 -dimensional subspaces $\langle\mathbf{v}+\lambda \mathbf{x}\rangle(\lambda \in K)$ lie in the same orbit of $\tilde{G}_{0}$, and $\{h\langle\mathbf{v}+\lambda \mathbf{x}\rangle: \lambda \in K\}$ is a subset of $\mathscr{C}_{2}$ containing a representative of each orbit of $\mathscr{C}_{2}$. Hence under $\tilde{F}$, the orbit of $\widetilde{G}_{0}$ containing $\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle$ is joined to each orbit of $\mathscr{C}_{2}$, from which it follows that all the orbits in $\mathscr{C}_{2}$ are joined under $\tilde{F}$.
Suppose now that $\tilde{F}$ fixes $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime} ;$ then $\tilde{F}$ fixes $\mathscr{C}_{1}$ and $\mathscr{C}_{2}$. If $v=1$ then $\Omega \cup\{\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle\}$ is the set of all singular 1-dimensional subspaces of $V$ and by

Lemma 1 cannot therefore be fixed by $\tilde{F}$, so $\Omega$ must be joined to some other orbit in $\mathscr{C}_{2}$. If $v \geqslant 2$ and $n>4$ (resp. $v=2$ and $n=4$ ) and $\Delta$ (resp. $\Delta_{1} \cup \Delta_{1}$ ) is fixed by $\widetilde{F}$, then as $\Omega \cup \Delta \cup\{\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle\}$ (resp. $\Omega \cup \Delta_{1} \cup \Delta_{2} \cup\{\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle\}$ ) is the set of singular 1-dimensional subspaces of $V$, it follows that $\tilde{F}$ does not fix $\Omega$ and so joins $\Omega$ to some other orbit in $\mathscr{C}_{2}$. If $h \in \tilde{F}$ and $\langle v\rangle \in \Delta$ (resp. $\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle \in \Delta_{1} \cup \Delta_{2}$ ) such that $h\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle \notin \Delta$ (resp. $h\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle \notin \Delta_{1} \cup \Delta_{2}$ ), then there is a singular vector $\mathbf{w}$ such that $B(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \neq 0$ but $B(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w})=0$. All but one (i.e., at least three) of the 1 -dimensional subspaces of $\langle\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\rangle$ lie in $\Omega$, but as $h(\mathbf{v})$ is non-singular, $h\langle\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\rangle$ has at most two singular 1-dimensional subspaces, so $h$ maps an element of $\Omega$ to a non-singular 1-dimensional subspace, i.e., $\tilde{F}$ joins $\Omega$ to another orbit in $\mathscr{C}_{2}$.

Let $f_{1} \in \tilde{F}$ and let $\mathbf{y}$ be a singular vector outside $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}$ such that $f_{1}(\mathbf{y})$ is non-singular and outside $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}$. Then $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$ and $\left\langle\mathbf{x}, f_{1}(\mathbf{y})\right\rangle=f_{1}\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$ are both hyperbolic, so by Witt's theorem there exists $g_{1} \in G_{0}$ such that $g_{1} f_{1}\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle=\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$; there further exists $g \in \operatorname{Stab}_{G_{0}}\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$ such that $g g_{1} f_{1}(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}$. We can now write $g g_{1} f_{1}(\mathbf{y})=\alpha \mathbf{x}+\beta \mathbf{y}$ with $\alpha, \beta \neq 0$ (as $f_{1}(\mathbf{y})$ is non-singular). Let $\xi \in K \backslash\{0,1,-1\}$, let $g_{2} \in S O(\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle)$ be the map $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \mapsto\left(\xi \mathbf{x}, \xi^{-1} \mathbf{y}\right)$ and let $f_{2}=g_{2}^{-1}\left(g g_{1} f_{1}\right)^{-1} g_{2} g g_{1} f_{1}$; then $f_{2}(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}$, $f_{2}(\mathbf{y})=\mathbf{y}+\xi^{-1}\left(\xi-\xi^{-1}\right) \alpha \mathbf{x}$ and for $\mathbf{z} \in\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle^{\prime}, f_{2}(\mathbf{z})=\mathbf{z}+\gamma \mathbf{x}+\delta \mathbf{y}$ where $\gamma, \delta \in K$ depend on $\mathbf{z}$. Let $l \in S O(\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle)$ be the $\operatorname{map}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \mapsto(-\mathbf{x},-\mathbf{y})$ and let $f_{3}=1 f_{2} t f_{2} ;$ then $f_{3}(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}, f_{3}(\mathbf{y})=\mathbf{y}+2 \xi^{-1}\left(\xi-\xi^{-1}\right) \alpha \mathbf{x}$ and for $\mathbf{z} \in\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle^{\prime}, f_{3}(\mathbf{z})=\mathbf{z}+\eta \mathbf{x}$ where $\eta \in K$ depends on $\mathbf{z}$. Let $f_{4}=\imath f_{3} f_{3}$; then $f_{4}(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}, f_{4}(\mathbf{y})=\mathbf{y}+4 \xi^{-1}\left(\xi-\xi^{-1}\right) \alpha \mathbf{x}$ and $f_{4}(\mathbf{z})=\mathbf{z}$ for all $\mathbf{z} \in\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle^{\prime}$. As $4 \xi^{-1}\left(\xi-\xi^{-1}\right) \alpha \neq 0, f_{4}$ is a transvection whose centre is $\mathbf{x}$ and whose axis is $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}$.

Proposition 3. If $K \neq G F(3)$, then $F=S L_{n}(K)$.
Proof. Let $\tau$ be a transvection in $F$ with centre $\mathbf{x}$ (non-zero and singular) and axis $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}$, let $\mathbf{y}$ be a singular vector such that $B(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})=1$ and write $\tau(\mathbf{y})=\mathbf{y}+\lambda \mathbf{x}$ where $\lambda \in K \backslash\{0\}$. For $\mu \in K^{*}$, let $\tau_{\mu}$ be the transvection with centre $\mathbf{x}$ and axis $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}$ that takes $\mathbf{y}$ to $\mathbf{y}+\mu \lambda \mathbf{x}$, and let $K_{1}=\left\{\mu \in K^{*}\right.$; $\left.\tau_{\mu} \in F\right\} \cup\{0\}$; then as $\tau_{\mu}^{-1}=\tau_{-\mu}$ and $\tau_{\mu_{1}} \tau_{\mu_{2}}=\tau_{\mu_{1}+\mu_{2}}, K_{1}$ is an additive subgroup of $K$. For $\xi \in K^{*}$, let $g_{\xi} \in S O(\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle)$ be the map ( $\left.\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\right) \mapsto\left(\xi \mathbf{x}, \xi^{-1} \mathbf{y}\right)$; then $g_{\xi} \tau g_{\xi^{-1}}=\tau_{\xi^{2}} \in F$, so $K_{1}$ contains every square in $K$. As any element of $K$ may be written as the difference of two squares, it follows that $K_{1}=K$. Hence $F$ contains every transvection with centre $\mathbf{x}$ and axis $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}$, i.e., $X\left(\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle,\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}\right) \leqslant F$.

As $G_{0}$ acts transitively on the non-zero singular vectors of $V$ and as $g X\left(\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle,\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}\right) g^{-1}=X\left(\langle g(\mathbf{x})\rangle,\langle g(\mathbf{x})\rangle^{\prime}\right)$, it follows that $F$ contains every transvection whose centre is singular and whose axis is conjugate to the centre. Thus if $F_{1}$ is the subgroup of $F$ consisting of all the elements that fix $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$ and fix every vector in $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle^{\prime}$, then $F_{1}$ contains $X\left(\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle,\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}\right)$ and
$X\left(\langle\mathbf{y}\rangle,\langle\mathbf{y}\rangle^{\prime}\right)$. Thus $F_{1}$ acts transitively on the 1-dimensional subspaces of $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$ and if $\mathbf{w} \in\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}$, then $F$ contains $X\left(\langle\mathbf{w}\rangle,\langle\mathbf{w}\rangle+\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle^{\prime}\right)=$ $f X\left(\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle,\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle^{\prime}\right) f^{-1}$ where $f \in F_{1}$ such that $f\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle=\langle\mathbf{w}\rangle$. Choose any non-singular vector $\mathbf{v} \in\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$ ', let $\mathbf{u} \in\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$ such that $Q(\mathbf{u})=Q(\mathbf{v})$, let $\mathbf{w} \in\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle \cap\langle\mathbf{u}\rangle^{\prime} \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}$ and let $g_{1} \in S O(\langle\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}\rangle)$ be the map $(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \mapsto(-\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u})$; then $g_{1} X\left(\langle\mathbf{w}\rangle,\langle\mathbf{w}\rangle+\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle^{\prime}\right) g_{1}^{-1} \leqslant F$ and is a subgroup of root type with centre $\langle\mathbf{w}\rangle$ and axis $g_{1}\left(\langle\mathbf{w}\rangle+\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle^{\prime}\right) \neq\langle\mathbf{w}\rangle+\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle^{\prime}$. Hence if $\hat{F}$ is the subgroup of $F$ generated by the subgroups of root type of $F$, then $\langle\boldsymbol{w}\rangle$ is a centre for $\hat{F}$ with more than one axis.
By Result 3, to show that $\hat{F}=S L_{n}(K)$ and hence that $F=S L_{n}(K)$, it remains to show that $\hat{F}$ is irreducible. Let $U$ be a non-zero subspace of $V$ fixed by $\hat{F}$; then as for any non-zero singular vector $\mathbf{a}, X\left(\langle\mathbf{a}\rangle,\langle\mathbf{a}\rangle^{\prime}\right)$ fixes $U$ if and only if either $\mathbf{a} \in U$ or $U \subseteq\langle\mathbf{a}\rangle^{\prime}$, every singular vector in $V$ lies in either $U$ or $U^{\prime}$. As the singular vectors span $V$, dimensional considerations imply that $U$ is non-isotropic, so $V=U \oplus U^{\prime}$; moreover $U$ cannot be anisotropic. As the sum of non-zero singular vectors of $U$ and $U^{\prime}$ would be a singular vector lying outside both, $U^{\prime}$ must be anisotropic and so every singular vector lies in $U$. Hence $U=V$ and $F=S L_{n}(K)$.

Proposition 4. If $K=G F(3)$, then $F=S L_{n}(K)$.
Proof. We argue by induction on $n$. If $n=3$, then, given that $S G O_{3}(K)=S O_{3}(K)$ for $K=G F(3), F=S L_{n}(K)$ by Result 2 . This means that if $n \geqslant 4$ and if we could find a non-isotropic ( $n-1$ )-dimensional subspace $U$ of $V$ and an element of $F \backslash(F \cap G)$ fixing $U$ and every vector in $U^{\prime}$, then $F$ would contain $S L_{n-1}(K)$ acting as the special linear group on $U$ and as the identity on $U^{\prime}$. Thus there would be a centre for $F$ in $U$ with more than one axis containing $U^{\prime}$; moreover $F$ would act transitively on the 1 -dimensional subspaces of $V$, so proceeding as in the proof of Proposition 2, Result 3 would imply that $F=S L_{n}(K)$. Notice that $S G O_{n}(K)=S O_{n}(K)$ when $n$ is odd and $S O_{n}(K)$ is a subgroup of $S G O_{n}(K)$ of index 2 when $n$ is even.
Suppose that $n \geqslant 4$ and that the statement of the proposition is true for spaces of dimension $<n$. As in the proof of Proposition 2, there exists $f \in F$ such that $f(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}$ and $f(\mathbf{y})=\alpha \mathbf{x}+\beta \mathbf{y}$, where $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ are singular vectors such that $B(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \neq 0$ and where $\alpha, \beta \in K^{*}$; we may assume that $B(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})=1$. We first show that there exists a non-singular vector $\mathbf{v}$ and an element $h \in F \backslash(F \cap G)$ such that $h$ fixes $\mathbf{v}$ but $\operatorname{not}\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}$. If $\alpha=\beta=-1$, then we may take $\mathbf{v}=\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}$ and $h=t f$ where $\imath \in S O(\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle)$ takes $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ to $-\mathbf{x}$ and $-\mathbf{y}$, respectively; if $\alpha=1, \beta=-1$, then we may take $\mathbf{v}=\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}$ and $h=1 f$ with $\imath$ as above. If $\beta=1$, if $\rho \in G_{0}$ is the product of symmetries centred on $\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}$ and a non-singular vector in $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle^{\prime}$ and if $h=$ $(\rho f \rho)^{-1} f(\rho f \rho)=\rho f^{-1} \rho f \rho f \rho$ then $h(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y})=(\alpha-1) \mathbf{x}-\alpha \mathbf{y}$ and $h(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y})=$
$-(\alpha+1) \mathbf{x}-\alpha \mathbf{y}$; thus if $\alpha=1$ we may take $v=\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}$ and if $\alpha=-1$ we may take $\mathbf{v}=\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}$, and $\mathbf{v}$ and $h$ have the required properties.

Now consider the map $\hat{h}$ on $\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}$ obtained by letting $\hat{h}(\mathbf{w})\left(\mathbf{w} \in\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}\right)$ be the $\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}$ component of $h(\mathbf{w})$, and let $\hat{G}_{0}, \hat{G}$ and $\hat{H}$ be respectively the special orthogonal, special general orthogonal and special linear groups on $\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}$ (with respect to the restriction of $Q$ where appropriate); then $\bar{h} \in \hat{H}$ and $\hat{G}_{0}$ has the same action as $S O\left(\langle v\rangle^{\prime}\right)$.

If $\hat{h} \in \hat{G}_{0}$, then we can multiply $h$ by an element of $S O\left(\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}\right)$ to obtain a non-trivial transvection $h_{1}$ centred on $\mathbf{v}$; we may now find a non-singular vector $\mathbf{u} \in\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}$ that lies in the axis of $h_{1}$, so that if $U=\langle\mathbf{u}\rangle^{\prime}$, then $U$ is an ( $n-1$ )-dimensional non-isotropic subspace fixed by $h_{1} \in F \backslash(F \cap G)$ with each vector in $U^{\prime}$ fixed by $h_{1}$; as indicated above, this leads to the conclusion that $F=S L_{n}(K)$.

If $\hat{h} \in \widehat{G} \backslash \widehat{G}_{0}$, then as $\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}$ is spanned by non-zero singular vectors and as $\hat{G}_{0}$ acts transitively on those non-zero singular vectors, there is such a vector $\mathbf{w}$ with $h(\mathbf{w}) \notin\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}$ and there is an element $\hat{g} \in \hat{G}_{0}$ (corresponding to some $g \in S O\left(\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}\right)$ ) such that $\hat{g} \hat{h}(\mathbf{w})=\mathbf{w}$, i.e., $g h(\mathbf{w})=\mathbf{w}+\lambda \mathbf{v}$ with $\lambda= \pm 1$. But now $(g h)^{2}$ fixes $\mathbf{v}$ without fixing $\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}$ (so $(g h)^{2} \notin G$ ), and the corresponding element of $\hat{H}$ is $(\hat{g} h)^{2}$ which lies in $\hat{G}_{0}$. Thus we can now apply the argument from the previous case, with $(g h)^{2}$ in place of $h$.

Finally, if $\hat{h} \notin \hat{G}$, then by induction $\left\langle\hat{h}, \hat{G}_{0}\right\rangle=\hat{H}$. Thus given an orthogonal base $\left\{\mathbf{v}_{1}, \mathbf{v}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{n-1}\right\}$ for $\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}$ with $Q\left(\mathbf{v}_{1}\right)=-Q\left(\mathbf{v}_{2}\right)=Q(\mathbf{v}$; there exists $\hat{h}_{1} \in\left\langle\hat{h}, \hat{G}_{0}\right\rangle$, corresponding to some $h_{1} \in\left\langle h, S O\left(\langle\mathbf{v}\rangle^{\prime}\right)\right\rangle$, such that $\hat{h}_{1}\left(\mathbf{v}_{1}\right)=\mathbf{v}_{2}, \hat{h}_{1}\left(\mathbf{v}_{2}\right)=-\mathbf{v}_{1}$ and $\hat{h}_{1}\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)=\mathbf{v}_{i}$ for $i \geqslant 3$. It follows that $h_{1}(\mathbf{v})=\mathbf{v}, h_{1}\left(\mathbf{v}_{1}\right)=\mathbf{v}_{2}+\lambda_{1} \mathbf{v}, h_{1}\left(\mathbf{v}_{2}\right)=-\mathbf{v}_{1}+\lambda_{2} \mathbf{v}$ and $h_{1}\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)=\mathbf{v}_{i}+\lambda_{i} \mathbf{v}(i \geqslant 3)$ for some $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n-1} \in K$. Therefore $h^{3}(\mathbf{v})=\mathbf{v}, h^{3}\left(\mathbf{v}_{1}\right)=-\mathbf{v}_{2}+\lambda_{2} \mathbf{v}$, $h^{3}\left(\mathbf{v}_{2}\right)=\mathbf{v}_{1}-\lambda_{1} \mathbf{v}, h^{3}\left(\mathbf{v}_{i}\right)=\mathbf{v}_{i}(i \geqslant 3)$ and $\mathbf{v}+\mathbf{v}_{2}$ is singular but $h^{3}\left(\mathbf{v}+\mathbf{v}_{2}\right)=$ $\left(1-\lambda_{1}\right) \mathbf{v}+\mathbf{v}_{1}$ is non-singular, so $h^{3} \notin G$. We now take $U=\left\langle\mathbf{v}_{n-1}\right\rangle^{\prime}$. The subspace $U$ is non-isotropic of dimension $n-1$, and $h^{3}$ fixes $U$ and every vector in $U^{\prime}=\left\langle\mathbf{v}_{n-1}\right\rangle$, so as indicated at the beginning of the proof, an induction argument leads to the conclusion that $F=S L_{n}(K)$.

We have proved that if $F \leqslant S L_{n}(K)$ and $G_{0} \leqslant F$ but $F \leqslant G$, then $F=S L_{n}(K)$. In other words, any proper subgroup of $S L_{n}(K)$ containing $S O_{n}(K)$ lies in $S G O_{n}(K)$. Thus we have proved Theorem I.

Let $M_{1}$ be the subgroup of $M(Q)$ consisting of the multiplicators of elements of $S G O_{n}(K)$.

Corollary to Theorem I. If $n \geqslant 3$, then $S G O_{n}(K)$ is a maximal subgroup of $S L_{n}(K)$, and the proper subgroups of $S L_{n}(K)$ containing $S O_{n}(K)$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the subgroups of $M_{1}$.

Proof. The maximality of $S G O_{n}(K)$ in $S L_{n}(K)$ is immediate from Theorem I.

Let $\theta: G \rightarrow M_{1}$ be the map taking $g$ to its multiplicator; then $\theta$ is an epimorphism with kernel $G_{0}$, so that the subgroups of $G$ containing $G_{0}$ are in one-to-one correspondence with the subgroups of $M_{1}$. By Theorem I, the proper subgroups of $S L_{n}(K)$ containing $G_{0}$ lie in $G$, and the result follows.

## 3. The Case $n=2$

We now assume that $n=2$; then $G<F$. Let $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ be singular vectors such that $B(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})=1$; we shall write the clements of $S L_{2}(K)$ as $2 \times 2$ matrices with respect to the base $\{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\}$ of $V$. Let

$$
h_{\lambda}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\lambda & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \quad g_{\lambda}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\lambda & 0 \\
0 & \lambda^{-1}
\end{array}\right), \quad g=\left(\begin{array}{rr}
0 & 1 \\
-1 & 0
\end{array}\right),
$$

where $\lambda \in K \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}$; then any element of $G$ may be written as either $g_{\lambda}$ or $g g_{\lambda}$ for some $\lambda \in K \backslash\{0\}$ and $h_{\lambda}$ normalises $G$. Alternatively $G$ may be characterised as the subgroup of $S L_{2}(K)$ consisting of the matrices with two zero entries.

Proposition 5. $F$ contains a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$, except when $|K| \leqslant 11$.

Proof. Let $f \in F \backslash G$. If $f$ has a zero entry, then by multiplying $f$ by suitable elements of $G$ we may readily construct a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$, so we may suppose that all the entries of $f$ are non-zero. Writing $f=\left(f_{i i}\right)$, if $f_{11}=\beta$, then we may replace $f$ by $g_{\beta}^{-1} f$ and thus assume that $f_{11}=1$. Let $\gamma=f_{12}$; then $h_{\gamma}^{-1} F h_{\gamma}$ contains a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$ if and only if $F$ does, so we could replace $F$ by $h_{\gamma}^{-1} F h_{\gamma}$ and $f$ by $h_{\gamma}^{-1} f h_{\gamma}$. Thus we may assume that $f_{11}=f_{12}=1$, so

$$
f=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
\alpha & \alpha+1
\end{array}\right)
$$

for some $\alpha \in K \backslash\{0,-1\}$. Let $K_{0}$ be the prime subfield of $K$ and let $K_{0}(\alpha)$ be the minimal subfield of $K$ containing $\alpha$; then $S G O_{2}\left(K_{0}(\alpha)\right)$ and $S L_{2}\left(K_{0}(\alpha)\right)$ may be embedded in $G$ and $S L_{2}(K)$, respectively, as groups of matrices with respect to the base $\{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\}$. Hence we need only construct a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$ in $\left\langle f, S G O_{2}\left(K_{0}(\alpha)\right)\right\rangle$. Suppose that $K_{0} \neq G F(3)$ and that $\alpha \neq-4,-2,1,3$ and let

$$
f^{*}=f^{-1} g_{(2 / \alpha)} f^{-1} g_{(\alpha+4 / \alpha+2)} f g_{3 / 4} f^{-1} g_{(\alpha-1 / \alpha-3)} f g g_{(\alpha+1) / 2} f .
$$

Then writing $f^{*}=\left(f_{i j}^{*}\right)$ we claim that $f_{22}^{*}=0$ and that $f_{11}^{*}=0$ if and only if $p(\alpha)=0$ for some non-zero polynomial $p(t) \in K_{0}[t]$. First note that in proving the claim we may replace elements $g_{\gamma / \delta}$ by

$$
\hat{g}_{\gamma / \delta}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\gamma^{2} & 0 \\
0 & \delta^{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Next let $f_{1}=f^{-1} \hat{g}_{(2 / \alpha)} f^{-1} \hat{g}_{(\alpha+4 / \alpha+2)}$ and let $f_{2}=f \hat{g}_{3 / 4} f^{-1} \hat{g}_{(x-1 / \alpha-3)}$ $f g \hat{g}_{(\alpha+1) / 2} f$; then

$$
f_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
(\alpha+4)^{2}\left(\alpha^{3}+4 \alpha^{2}+8 \alpha+4\right) & -(\alpha+2)^{4} \\
-\alpha(\alpha+4)^{2}(\alpha+2)^{2} & \alpha(\alpha+4)(\alpha+2)^{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

and

$$
f_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
-(\alpha-1)^{4}(9-7 \alpha)+7(\alpha-3)^{2}\left(4 \alpha^{2}-(\alpha+1)^{3}\right) \\
7 \alpha(\alpha+1)(\alpha-1)^{4}+(7 \alpha+16)(\alpha-3)^{2}\left(4 \alpha^{2}-(\alpha+1)^{3}\right) \\
12(\alpha+1)(\alpha-1)^{2}(\alpha-3) \\
12(\alpha+1)(\alpha-1)^{2}(\alpha-3)(\alpha+4)
\end{array}\right) .
$$

As $f_{1} f_{2}$ is a scalar multiple of $f^{*}$ we see that indeed $f_{22}^{*}=0$ and that $f_{11}^{*}=0$ if and only if $p(\alpha)=0$ where $p(t) \in K_{0}[t]$ and $p(0)=-2^{8} \cdot 3^{2}$. In fact

$$
p(t)=32\left[3 t^{6}+9 t^{5}-4 t^{4}-23 t^{3}-241 t^{2}-228 t-72\right]
$$

but we don't need this.
Hence if $K_{0} \neq G F(3)$, then $f^{*}$ has exactly one zero entry and so $F$ contains a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$, except when $\alpha=-4,-2,1,3$ or a root of $p(t)$.

Suppose that $K_{0}=\mathbb{Q}$, let $\lambda \in K \backslash\{0,1,-1\}$ such that $\lambda(\alpha+1)-\lambda^{-1} \alpha$, $\lambda^{-1}(\alpha+1)-\lambda \alpha \neq 0$ and let $\mu=\left(\lambda(\alpha+1)-\lambda^{-1} \alpha\right)$; then

$$
f^{-1} g_{\lambda} f=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\lambda(\alpha+1)-\lambda^{-1} \alpha & \left(\lambda-\lambda^{-1}\right)(\alpha+1) \\
-\left(\lambda-\lambda^{-1}\right) \alpha & \lambda^{-1}(\alpha+1)-\lambda \alpha
\end{array}\right)
$$

so $g_{\mu}^{-1} f^{-1} g_{\lambda} f \in F \backslash G$. As at the beginning of this proof we may consider $h_{\eta} g_{\mu}^{-1} f^{-1} g_{\lambda} f h_{\eta}^{-1}$ in place of $g_{\mu}^{-1} f^{-1} g_{\lambda} f$ and $h_{\eta} F h_{\eta}^{-1}$ in place of $F$, where $\eta=\mu\left[\left(\lambda-\lambda^{-1}\right)(\alpha+1)\right]^{-1}$. Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h_{\eta} g_{\mu}^{-1} f^{-1} g_{\lambda} f h_{\eta}^{-1} \\
& \quad=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
-\left(\lambda-\lambda^{-1}\right)^{2} \alpha(\alpha+1) & 1-\left(\lambda-\lambda^{-1}\right)^{2} \alpha(\alpha+1)
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

so we may construct a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$ in $h_{\eta} F h_{\eta}^{-1}$ (and thus also in $F$ ) unless $-\left(\lambda-\lambda^{-1}\right)^{2} \alpha(\alpha+1)$ is one of $-4,-2,1,3$ or is a root of $p(t)$.

But there are an infinite number of possible values of $\left(\lambda-\lambda^{-1}\right)^{2}$. Hence $F$ contains a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$.

If $K_{0}$ is finite of characteristic $>11$ and if $\alpha=-4,-2,1,3$ or a root of $p(t)$, then $K_{0}(\alpha)$ is finite. By Result $1, S G O_{2}\left(K_{0}(\alpha)\right)$ is therefore maximal in $S L_{2}\left(K_{0}(\alpha)\right)$, so $\left\langle f, S G O_{2}\left(K_{0}(\alpha)\right)\right\rangle$ contains a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$. Similarly if $K_{0}=G F(5), G F(7)$ or $G F(11)$ and either $K$ is finite, or $\alpha$ is a root of $p(t)$ but $\alpha \notin K_{0}$, then we can apply Result 1 . Suppose that $5 \leqslant\left|K_{0}\right| \leqslant 11$, that $\alpha \in K_{0}$ and that $K$ is infinite; then there exists $\lambda \in K$ such that $\left[K_{0}(\lambda): K_{0}\right]>4$. Noting that $\lambda(\alpha+1)-\lambda^{-1} \alpha, \lambda^{-1}(\alpha+1)-\lambda \alpha \neq 0$, we may construct $h_{\eta} g_{\mu}^{-1} f^{-1} g_{\lambda} f h_{\eta}^{-1}$ as in the case $K_{0}=\mathbb{Q}$. Then since $-\left(\lambda-\lambda^{-1}\right)^{2} \alpha(\alpha+1) \notin K_{0}, h_{\eta} F h_{\eta}^{-1}$ (and thus also $F$ ) contains a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$.
Finally, suppose that $K_{0}=G F(3)$. If $K$ is finite, then $F$ contains a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$, by Result 1 . If $K$ is infinite, then as above, for some $\lambda \in K,\left[K_{0}(\lambda): K_{0}\right]>4$ and so if $\alpha \in K_{0}$, then $-\left(\lambda-\lambda^{-1}\right)^{2} \alpha(\alpha+1) \notin K_{0}$. Thus we may assume that $\alpha \notin K_{0}$. Let

$$
f^{* *}=f^{-1} g_{(\alpha-1 / \alpha+1)} f g_{\alpha} f .
$$

Then $f_{11}^{* *}=0$; and $f_{22}^{* *}=0$ if and only if

$$
\alpha^{4}-\alpha^{3}+\alpha^{2}+1=0 .
$$

Hence $f^{* *}$ has exactly one zero entry and so $F$ contains a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$, except when $\alpha$ is a root of the polynomial

$$
p_{1}(t)=t^{4}-t^{3}+t^{2}+1 .
$$

Now $p_{1}(t)$ is irreducible over $K_{0}$, so if $\alpha$ is a root of $p_{1}(t)$, then $K_{0}(\alpha)$ is a finite field of order 81; hence by Result $1,\left\langle f, S G O_{2}\left(K_{0}(\alpha)\right)\right\rangle$ contains a transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$.

Remark. In the proof of Proposition 5, there appears a product of twelve matrices; this approach could be simplified or avoided in many cases, but would still appear necessary when $K$ is a field of characteristic 0 in which -1 is a non-square.

Proof of Theorem II. By Proposition 5, there is a transvection $\tau \in F$ centred on $\mathbf{x}$. An argument used in the proof of Proposition 3 may now be applied: as $F$ contains $g_{\xi} \operatorname{tg}_{\xi}^{-1}$ for each $\xi \in K \backslash\{0\}$ and as every element of $K$ may be expressed as the difference of two squares, $F$ contains every transvection centred on $\mathbf{x}$. Therefore $\operatorname{Stab}_{F} \mathbf{x}$ acts transitively on the 1 -dimensional subspaces of $V$ other than $\langle\mathbf{x}\rangle$, so $F$ acts transitively on the 1 -dimensional subspaces of $V$, and hence $F$ contains every transvection in $S L_{2}(K)$. As $S L_{2}(K)$ is generated by its transvections, it follows that $F=S L_{2}(K)$, so $G$ is maximal in $S L_{2}(K)$.

## 4. Related Results

In this section we consider some groups associated with $S G O_{n}(K)$, namely, $G O_{n}(K), P G O_{n}(K), P S G O_{n}(K), S O_{n}(K)$ and $P S O_{n}(K)$, and consider when they may be maximal in $G L_{n}(K), P G L_{n}(K), P S L_{n}(K), S L_{n}(K)$ and $P S L_{n}(K)$, respectively. We state conditions for maximality and interpret these conditions for algebraically closed fields and for $\mathbb{R}$ and $G F(q)$. We denote the centre of $G L_{n}(K)$ by $Z$ and recall that it lies inside $G O_{n}(K)$.

Let $J$ be the subgroup of $K^{*}$ consisting of the determinants of elements of $G O_{n}(K)$. If $J<K^{*}$, then $G O_{n}(K)$ cannot be maximal in $G L_{n}(K)$, being contained in the subgroup $\left\{g \in G L_{n}(K)\right.$ : $\left.\operatorname{det} g \in J\right\}$ of $G L_{n}(K)$. If $J=K^{*}$ and if $G O_{n}(K)<E \leqslant G L_{n}(K)$, then $S G O_{n}(K)<E \cap S L_{n}(K)$, so that $G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $G L_{n}(K)$ if $S G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$; in the five exceptional cases of Theorem II, close inspection of Dickson's list of subgroups of $P S L_{2}(q)$ (cf. [2]) or of Wagner's clearer description of these subgroups (cf. [12]) yields the maximality of $P G O_{2}(q)$ in $P G L_{2}(q)$ when $q=7,9$ or 11, but shows that $\mathrm{PGO}_{2}(3)<D_{4}<P G L_{2}(3)$ and that $P G O_{2}(5)<S_{4}<$ $P G L_{2}(5)$, where $D_{4}$ is the dihedral group of order 8 . We now need to determine when $J=K^{*}$. If $n$ is odd, then $G O_{n}(K)=Z \cdot S O_{n}(K)$, so $J$ consists of the $n$th powers of elements of $K^{*}$. If $n$ is even, say, $n=2 m$, then $J$ consists of the elements $\pm \lambda^{m}$ with $\lambda \in M(Q)$ (cf. [4]). Thus from Theorems I and II, we have

Theorem III. If $n$ is odd, then $G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $G L_{n}(K)$ if and only if

$$
\left\{\lambda^{n}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\}=K^{*}
$$

If $n$ is even, with $n=2 m$, and if $K \neq G F(3), G F(5)$ when $n=2$, then $G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $G L_{n}(K)$ if and only if

$$
\left\{\lambda^{m},-\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in M(Q)\right\}=K^{*}
$$

As $Z \leqslant G O_{n}(K)$, the following result is immediate.

Theorem IV. $P G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $P G L_{n}(K)$ if and only if $G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $G L_{n}(K) ; P S G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $P S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if $S G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$.

Now consider $S O_{n}(K)$. Clearly $S O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if $S G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$ and every element of $S G O_{n}(K)$ has multiplicator 1 . Noting the information given about $J$ above and noting that if $n=2$ and $K=G F(q)$, then $-1 \in M(Q)$, we have the following:

Theorem V. If $n$ is odd, then $S O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if 1 has no non-trivial nth roots in $K$.

If $n$ is even, with $n=2 m$, then $S O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if -1 has no $m$ th roots in $M(Q)$ and 1 has no non-trivial mth roots in $M(Q)$.

An equivalent formulation of the second part of Theorem V would be that if $n$ is even, then $S O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if 1 has no non-trivial $n$th roots in $M(Q)$.

A more interesting question is that of the maximality of $\mathrm{PSO}_{n}(K)$ in $P S L_{n}(K)$. Denoting $Z \cap S L_{n}(K)$ by $Z_{1}$, we consider the equivalent question of the maximality of $S O_{n}(K) \cdot Z_{1}$ in $S L_{n}(K)$, which then becomes a question of whether or not $S G O_{n}(K)=S O_{n}(K) \cdot Z_{1}$. If $n$ is odd, then the equality is immediate. Suppose that $n$ is even, say, $n=2 m$, and let $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ be the subgroups of $M(Q)$ consisting of the multiplicators of elements of $S G O_{n}(K)$ and $S O_{n}(K) \cdot Z_{1}$, respectively; then $M_{2} \leqslant\left(K^{*}\right)^{2}$. Given the structure of $J$, we may characterize $M_{1}$ as the subgroup of $M(Q)$ the $m$ th powers of whose elements are $\pm 1$, and we may characterize $M_{2}$ as the subgroup of $\left(K^{*}\right)^{2}$ the $m$ th powers of whose elements are 1 . If $g \in S G O_{n}(K)$ with multiplicator $\lambda$, then $g \in S O_{n}(K) \cdot Z_{1}$ if and only if $\lambda \in M_{2}$. Thus if $n=2 m$, then $S G O_{n}(K)=S O_{n}(K) \cdot Z_{1}$ if and only if -1 has no $m$ th roots in $M(Q)$ and every $m$ th root of 1 in $M(Q)$ is a square in $K^{*}$. As a direct consequence we have the following result, noting that $-1 \in M(Q)$ when $n$ is even and $K=G F(q)$.

Theorem VI. If $n$ is odd, then $\mathrm{PSO}_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $\mathrm{PSL}_{n}(K)$.
If $n$ is even, with $n=2 m$, then $\mathrm{PSO}_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $P S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if -1 has no mth roots in $M(Q)$ and every mth root of 1 in $M(Q)$ is a square in $K^{*}$.

We noted in Section 1 that if $K=\mathbb{C}$, then $M(Q)=K^{*}$; more generally, the same is true of any algebraically closed field. From Theorems III, V and VI we obtain

Theorem VII. Let $K$ be algebraically closed. Then
(i) $G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $G L_{n}(K)$;
(ii) $S O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if $n$ is a power of an odd prime $p$ and $K$ has characteristic $p$;
(iii) $P S O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $P S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if $n$ is odd.

If $K=\mathbb{R}$, then $M(Q)=K^{*}$ if $v=n / 2$ and $\left(K^{*}\right)^{2}$ otherwise. We deduce

Theorem VIII. Let $K=\mathbb{R}$. Then
(i) $G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $G L_{n}(K)$;
(ii) $S O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if $v<n / 2$;
(iii) $P S O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $P S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if $v<n / 2$.

Now suppose that $K=G F(q)$; then $K^{*}$ is cyclic of order $q-1$. Let $\alpha$ be a generator of $K^{*}$. For any positive integer $k$, there are no non-trivial $k$ th roots of 1 in $K^{*}$ if and only if $(k, q-1)=1$; equivalently $\left\{\lambda^{k}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\}=K^{*}$ if and only if $(k, q-1)=1$. Both these statements may be deduced from consideration of when the map $K^{*} \rightarrow K^{*}, \lambda \mapsto \lambda^{k}$ is a bijection. Suppose that $n$ is even, say, $n=2 m$; then $M(Q)=K^{*}$. Let $d=(m, q-1)$, $d_{2}=(m,(q-1) / 2)$. In determining when $\left\{\lambda^{m},-\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\}=K^{*}$, there are several possibilities to consider; note that $\left|\left\{\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\}\right|=(q-1) / d$. If $d>2$, then $d_{2}>1$ and $\left\{\lambda^{m},-\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\} \neq K^{*}$ because $2(q-1) / d<q-1$. If $d=2=d_{2}$, then $m / 2$ is odd, so $\left(\alpha^{(q-1) / 4}\right)^{m}=(-1)^{m / 2}=-1$, whence $\lambda^{m}=-\mu^{m}$ for some $\lambda, \mu \in K^{*}$ and so $\left\{\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\} \cap\left\{-\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\} \neq \varnothing$; thus $\left\{\lambda^{m},-\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\} \neq K^{*}$. If $d=2$ and $d_{2}=1$, then $(q-1) / 2$ is odd but $m$ is even, so -1 has no $m$ th roots in $K^{*}$, whence $\left\{\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\} \cap$ $\left\{-\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\}=\varnothing$, i.e., $\quad\left\{\lambda^{m},-\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\}=K^{*}$. If $d=1$, then $\left\{\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\}=K^{*}$, so certainly $\left\{\lambda^{m},-\lambda^{m}: \lambda \in K^{*}\right\}=K^{*}$. Thus $\left\{\lambda^{m},-\lambda^{m}\right.$ : $\left.\lambda \in K^{*}\right\}=K^{*}$ if and only if $d_{2}=1$. Next we note that, as $(2 m, q-1) \geqslant 2$, there will always be cither an $m$ th root of -1 in $M(Q)$ or a non-trivial $m$ th root of 1 in $M(Q)$. It remains to determine when, if ever, -1 has no $m$ th roots in $M(Q)$ and every $m$ th root of 1 in $M(Q)$ is a square in $K^{*}$. If $m / d_{2}$ is odd, then for $r=(q-1) / 2 d_{2},\left(\alpha^{r}\right)^{m}=(-1)^{m / d_{2}}=-1$, so -1 has an $m$ th root in $M(Q)$. If $m / d_{2}$ is even, then $(q-1) / 2 d_{2}$ is odd and with $r=(q-1) / 2 d_{2}, \alpha^{r}$ is non-square, but $\left(\alpha^{r}\right)^{m}=\left(\alpha^{q-1}\right)^{m / 2 d_{2}}=1$, so 1 has an $m$ th root that is a non-square. Hence it is never the case that -1 has no $m$ th roots in $M(Q)$ and that every $m$ th root of 1 in $M(Q)$ is a square in $K^{*}$. From Theorems III, V and VI, we deduce

Theorem IX. Let $K=G F(q)$ and let $n=2 m$ when $n$ is even. Then
(i) If $n$ is odd, then $G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $G L_{n}(K)$ if and only if $(n, q-1)=1$.
If $n$ is even, then $G O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $G L_{n}(K)$ if and only if ( $m,(q-1) / 2)=1$, and $q \neq 3$ or 5 when $n=2$.
(ii) $S O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if $n$ is odd and $(n, q-1)=1$.
(iii) $P S O_{n}(K)$ is maximal in $P S L_{n}(K)$ if and only if $n$ is odd.

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