# TWO GENERATORS FOR THE MAPPING CLASS GROUP OF A SURFACE 

## Bronislaw Wajnryb

Department of Mathematics
Technion-Israel Institute of Technology
Haifa 32000

Israel

Max-Planck-Institut für Mathematik
Gottfried-Claren-Straße 26
D-53225 Bonn

Germany

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Bronislaw Wajnryb ${ }^{1}$


#### Abstract

Let $F$ be an orientable surface of genus $g \geq 1$, either closed or with one boundary component. Let $M$ be the mapping class group of $F$. Then $M$ can be generated by two elements.


## 1. Introduction.

Let $F_{n, r}$ be a compact orientable surface of genus $n$ with $r$ boundary components. Let $M_{n, r}$ be the mapping class group of $F_{n, r}$, i.e. the group of isotopy classes of orientation preserving homeomorphisms of $F_{n, r}$ which leave the boundary pointwise fixed. We shall only consider the case of $r=0$ or $r=1$. Dehn proved in [D] that $M_{n, r}$ is generated by twists with respect to simple closed curves (see definition 1.) Lickorish proved in [L1] that twists with respect to curves $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{2 n}$, $\delta_{2}, \delta_{3}, \ldots, \delta_{n}$ (Fig.1) suffice. He also proved that if we do not require the generators to be twists then four generators suffice. In fact it is easy to find three generators for $M_{n, r}$. We can find homeomorphisms $S$ (defined later) and $E$, a "rotation", such that the conjugation by $S$ acts transitively on Dehn twists with respect to $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{2 n}$ and the conjugation by $E$ acts transitively on Dehn twists with respect to $\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}, \delta_{3}, \ldots, \delta_{n}\left(\delta_{1}=\alpha_{1}\right.$.) Thus $S, E$, and the twist with respect to $\alpha_{1}$ generate $M_{n, r}$. Humphries proved in [ H ] that $M_{n, r}$ can be generated by $2 n+1$ twists with respect to curves $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{2 n}, \delta_{2}$ and that this is the minimal number of twist generators for $M_{n, r}$.

In this paper we prove that $M_{n, r}$ can be generated by two elements.
Theorem. Let $F$ be a compact orientable surface of genus $n$, either closed or with one boundary component. Let $M$ be the mapping class group of $F$. Then $M$ can be generated by two elements.

The result is known for $n \leq 2$. For $n=0$ the group $M$ is trivial. For $n=1$ the group $M$ is generated by twists with respect to curves $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$. For $n=2$ the group $M$ is a quotient of the braid group $B_{6}$ (see $[\mathrm{B}]$ ) and hence can be generated by two elements. So it suffices to prove the Theorem for $n \geq 3$.

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## 2. Deflnitions and notation.

We assume that $n \geq 3$ and that $F$ is a surface of genus $n$ represented on Fig. 1. The curve $\Delta$ on the right side of the picture is either the boundary of $F$ or $F$ is closed and $\Delta$ bounds a disk on $F . F$ is oriented in such a way that the part of $F$ facing us has the usual orientation of the plane. On an oriented surface we have the notion of left and right. If we move along a curve in some direction and $u$ is the velocity vector and $v$ is a normal vector then $v$ is to the right of $u$ if the pair $(u, v)$ is negatively oriented.


Figure 1
Definition 1. A (positive) Dehn twist with respect to a simple closed curve $\alpha$ (or along $\alpha$ ) is an isotopy class of a homeomorphism $h$ of $F$, supported in a tubular neighbourhood $N$ of $\alpha$, obtained as follows: we cut $F$ along $\alpha$, we rotate one side of the cut by 360 degrees to the right (clockwise) and then glue the surface back together damping the rotation to the identity at the boundary of $N$. If $\beta$ is a curve on $F$ which meets $\alpha$ transversely at one point and if $\beta^{\prime}$ is the image of $\beta$ under the twist then $\beta^{\prime}$ is obtained by splitting $\alpha \cup \beta$ at the intersection point and reglueing it together into one simple closed curve, where $\beta$ extends to the right into $\alpha$ (Fig. 2). If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ meet at the far side of $F$, where the curves are denoted by broken lines, then $\beta^{\prime}$ turns "left" into $\alpha$, which means right according to the orientation of the far side of $F$. For the inverse of a twist we have to interchange left and right.


Figure 2
A Dehn twist with respect to $\alpha$ depends on the orientation of the surface $F$ but not on the orientation of the curve $\alpha$. The twist along $\alpha$ will be denoted $T_{\alpha}$.

By a curve we always mean a simple closed curve on $F$. We shall say that curves are equal if they are isotopic on $F$.

We compose homeomorphisms from left to right and we write the symbol of a homeomorphism on the right side of the curve on which it acts. A conjugate of $A$ by $B$ is denoted ( $A$ ) $B=B^{-1} A B$.

We let

$$
S=T_{\alpha_{1}} T_{\alpha_{2}} \ldots T_{\alpha_{2 n}} \quad \text { and } \quad R=T_{\delta_{n-1}} T_{\delta_{n}}^{-1}
$$

We denote by $G$ the subgroup of $M$ generated by $R$ and $S$.

## 3. Proof of the Theorem.

We assume as before that $n \geq 3$. In order to prove the Theorem it suffices to prove the following proposition
Proposition. $G=M$, i.e. the group $M$ is generated by $R$ and $S$.
Lemma 1. If $\alpha$ is a curve, $h$ is a homeomorphism and $\alpha^{\prime}=(\alpha) h$ then $T_{\alpha^{\prime}}=\left(T_{\alpha}\right) h$.
Proof: Homeomorphism $h^{-1}$ takes a neighbourhood $N^{\prime}$ of $\alpha^{\prime}$ onto a neighbourhood $N$ of $\alpha$. Then $T_{\alpha}$ twists $N$ along $\alpha$ and $h$ takes $N$ back to $N^{\prime}$.

Lemma 2. Let $\alpha$ and $\beta$ be simple closed curves on $F$.
(i) If $\alpha$ does not meet $\beta$ then $T_{\alpha} T_{\beta}=T_{\beta} T_{\alpha}$.
(ii) If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ meet transversely at one point then $T_{\alpha} T_{\beta} T_{\alpha}=T_{\beta} T_{\alpha} T_{\beta}$.

Proof: The first case is obvious. The second case is equivalent to $T_{\alpha}^{-1} T_{\beta} T_{\alpha}=$ $T_{\beta} T_{\alpha} T_{\beta}^{-1}$. By Lemma 1 this is equivalent to the fact that the curves $(\beta) T_{\alpha}$ and $(\alpha) T_{\beta}^{-1}$ are equal, which is clear from definition 1 .

Lemma 3. $\left(T_{\alpha_{i}}\right) S=T_{\alpha_{i-1}}$ for $i=2,3, \ldots, 2 n$.
Proof: By Lemma $2\left(T_{\alpha_{i}}\right) T_{\alpha_{j}}=T_{\alpha_{i}}$ for $|i-j|>1$ and $\left(T_{\alpha_{i+1}}\right) T_{\alpha_{i}}=\left(T_{\alpha_{i}}\right) T_{\alpha_{i+1}}^{-1}$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, 2 n-1$. Lemma 3 follows .

Lemma 4. $\left(\delta_{n}\right) S^{m}=\sigma_{2 n-m}$ for $m=0,1, \ldots, 2 n-1$ (Fig.3.)
Proof: For $m=0$ we have $\delta_{n}=\sigma_{2 n}$ (Fig. 3.) Suppose ( $\delta_{n}$ ) $S^{m}=\sigma_{2 n-m}$ for some m . Let us apply $S$. For $j<2 n-m$ the curve $\sigma_{2 n-m}$ is disjoint from $\alpha_{j}$ so $\left(\sigma_{2 n-m}\right) T_{\alpha_{j}}=\sigma_{2 n-m}$. Clearly $\left(\sigma_{2 n-m}\right) T_{\alpha_{2 n-m}}=\sigma_{2 n-m-1}$ by definition 1, and $\sigma_{2 n-m-1}$ is disjoint from $\alpha_{j}$ for $j>2 n-m$, thus $\left(\delta_{n}\right) S^{m+1}=\sigma_{2 n-m-1}$. Lemma 4 follows by induction.


Figure 3
Lemma 5. $\left(\delta_{n-1}\right) S^{2 n-2}=\rho_{2} \quad$ and $\quad\left(\delta_{n-1}\right) S^{2 n-4}=\rho_{4}$ (Fig.4.)


Figure 4

Proof: Let $\theta_{a, r}=\left(\delta_{n-1}\right) S^{a} T_{\alpha_{1}} T_{\alpha_{2}} \ldots T_{\alpha_{r}}$ for $a=0,1, \ldots, 2 n-3$ and $r=$ $1,2, \ldots, 2 n . \theta_{a, 2 n}=\left(\delta_{n-1}\right) S^{a+1}$.

For $k=0,1 \ldots, n-2$ we define curves $\lambda_{k, 1}, \lambda_{k, 2}, \lambda_{k, 3}$ (Fig. 5a) and curves $\mu_{k, 1}$, $\mu_{k, 2}, \mu_{k, 3}$ (Fig. 5 b for $k<n-2$ and Fig. 5 c for $k=n-2$.) We prove by induction on $k$ that
(a) $\theta_{2 k, 2 n-2 k-3+i}=\lambda_{k, i}$ for $i=1,2,3$.
(b) $\theta_{2 k+1,2 n-2 k-4+i}=\mu_{k, i}$ for $i=1,2,3$.
(c) $\left(\delta_{n-1}\right) S^{2 k+2}=\mu_{k, 3}$.

We start with $k=0(a=0)$ and apply the consecutive factors of $S$ to $\delta_{n-1}$. For $j<2 n-2$ curve $\alpha_{j}$ is disjoint from $\delta_{n-1}$ so $\left(\delta_{n-1}\right) T_{\alpha_{j}}=\delta_{n-1}$. By definition 1 $\left(\delta_{n-1}\right) T_{\alpha_{2 n-2}}=\lambda_{0,1}$ (Fig. 5a) so $\theta_{0,2 n-2}=\lambda_{0,1}$ as required. Suppose that for some $k \leq n-2$ we have $\theta_{2 k, 2 n-2 k-2}=\lambda_{k, 1}$. Clearly $\left(\lambda_{k, 1}\right) T_{\alpha_{2 n-2 k-1}}=\lambda_{k, 2}$ and $\left(\lambda_{k, 2}\right) T_{\alpha_{2 n-2 n}}=\lambda_{k, 3}$ so the equations (a) are true by the definition of $\theta_{a, r}$. For $j>2 n-2 k$ curve $\alpha_{j}$ is disjoint from $\lambda_{k, 3}$ so $\left(\delta_{n-1}\right) S^{2 k+1}=\lambda_{k, 3}$. We apply again the consecutive factors of $S$. For $j<2 n-2 k-3$ curve $\alpha_{j}$ is disjoint from $\lambda_{k, 3}$. Now we apply $T_{\alpha_{2 n-2 k-3}}$ to $\lambda_{k, 3}$. If $k<n-2$ we get the curve $\mu_{k, 1}$ on Fig. 5b. If $k=n-2$ then $2 n-2 k-3=1$ so we apply $T_{\alpha_{1}}$ to $\lambda_{n-2,3}$. It is easy to see that we get the curve $\mu_{n-2,1}$ on Fig. 5 c . Thus $\mu_{k, 1}=\left(\delta_{n-1}\right) S^{2 k+1} T_{\alpha_{1}} \ldots T_{\alpha_{2 n-2 k-3}}=$ $\theta_{2 k+1,2 n-2 k-3}$ as required. Clearly $\left(\mu_{k, 1}\right) T_{\alpha_{2 n-2 k-2}}=\mu_{k, 2}$ and $\left(\mu_{k, 2}\right) T_{\alpha_{2 n-2 k-1}}=$ $\mu_{k, 3}$ so equations (b) are satisfied. For $j>2 n-2 k-1$ curve $\alpha_{j}$ is disjoint from $\mu_{k, 3}$ so $\left(\delta_{n-1}\right) S^{2 k+2}=\mu_{k, 3}$ which proves (c). If $k<n-2$ we go on and apply again the consecutive factors of $S$ to $\mu_{k, 3}$. For $j<2 n-2 k-4$ curve $\alpha_{j}$ is disjoint from $\mu_{k, 3}$. It is easy to see that when we apply $T_{\alpha_{2 n-2 k-4}}$ to $\mu_{k, 3}$ we get $\lambda_{k+1,1}$. Thus $\theta_{2 k+2,2 n-2 k-4}=\theta_{2(k+1), 2 n-2(k+1)-2}=\lambda_{k+1,1}$. This completes the induction step. From (c) we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\delta_{n-1}\right) S^{2 n-4}=\mu_{n-3,3}=\rho_{4}(\text { Fig. } 5 \mathrm{~b} \text { and Fig. } 4) \\
& \left(\delta_{n-1}\right) S^{2 n-2}=\mu_{n-2,3}=\rho_{2}(\text { Fig. } 5 \mathrm{c} \text { and Fig. } 4 .)
\end{aligned}
$$



Figure 5a


Figure 5b


Figure 5c
Lemma 6. $\left(\gamma_{i}\right) S^{2}=\delta_{i-1}$ for $i=2,3, \ldots, n$ (Fig. 1.)
Proof: This is an easy exercise for a reader who followed the proof of Lemma 5.

Let $U=(R) S^{2 n-2}$. Then $U \in G$ and by Lemmas 4 and $5 U=T_{\rho_{2}} T_{\sigma_{2}}^{-1}$.
Lemma 7. $\left(\delta_{k}\right) U=\gamma_{k}$ for $k=2,3, \ldots, n$ (Fig.1.)
Proof: Fig. 6a shows curves $\delta_{k}$ and $\rho_{2}$. Clearly $\left(\delta_{k}\right) T_{\rho_{2}}=\nu_{1}$ (Fig. 6b .) Now in $\left(\nu_{1}\right) T_{\sigma_{2}}^{-1}$ (Fig. 6b) most of the picture "contracts" and we are left with $\gamma_{k}$.


Figure 6a


Figure 6b
Lemma 8. $T_{\alpha_{1}} T_{\delta_{2}}^{-1}, T_{\alpha_{3}} T_{\gamma_{3}}^{-1}$ and $T_{\delta_{2}} T_{\delta_{3}}^{-1}$ belong to $G$.
Proof: By Lemmas 6 and 7 we have $\left(\delta_{k}\right) U S^{2}=\delta_{k-1}$ for $k=2,3, \ldots, n$. Thus $(R)\left(U S^{2}\right)^{n-3}=T_{\delta_{2}} T_{\delta_{3}}^{-1}$. Now by Lemma $7(R)\left(U S^{2}\right)^{n-3} U=T_{\gamma_{2}} T_{\gamma_{3}}^{-1}=T_{\alpha_{3}} T_{\gamma_{3}}^{-1}$. Applying $S^{2}$ we get, by Lemma $6, T_{\delta_{1}} T_{\delta_{2}}^{-1}$ which is equal to $T_{\alpha_{1}} T_{\delta_{2}}^{-1}$.

Lemma 9. $T_{\alpha_{1}} T_{\alpha_{3}} T_{\alpha_{3}} T_{\delta_{3}}=T_{\epsilon} T_{\delta_{2}} T_{\gamma_{3}}$ (Fig.1.)
Every factor on the left hand side commutes with every other factor in the relation.
Proof: When we cut $F$ along the curves $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{3}, \alpha_{5}$ and $\delta_{3}$ we get a disk with 3 holes (Fig. 7 .) The relation in Lemma 9 is the so called "lantern relation" . It was proven in $[J]$.


Figure 7
Let $W=T_{\alpha_{3}} T_{\gamma_{3}}^{-1} T_{\delta_{3}} T_{\delta_{2}}^{-1}$. By Lemma $8 W \in G$. By Lemma 9 $W=T_{\epsilon} T_{\alpha_{1}}^{-1} T_{\alpha_{s}}^{-1}$.
Let $V=(R) S^{2 n-4}$. Then $V \in G$ and by Lemmas 4 and $5 V=T_{\rho_{4}} T_{\sigma_{4}}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 .)
Lemma 10. $(\epsilon) V^{-1}=\delta_{3},\left(\alpha_{1}\right) V^{-1}=\alpha_{1},\left(\alpha_{5}\right) V^{-1}=\gamma_{3}$.
Proof: Clearly $(\epsilon) T_{\sigma_{4}}=\nu_{2}$ (Fig. 8a and Fig. 8b.) When we apply $T_{\rho_{4}}^{-1}$ to $\nu_{2}$ (Fig. 8b) most of the picture "contracts" and we are left with $\delta_{3}$.

Clearly $\alpha_{1}$ is disjoint from $\sigma_{4}$ and $\rho_{4}$ so $\left(\alpha_{1}\right) V=\alpha_{1}$.
Finally $\left(\alpha_{5}\right) T_{\sigma_{4}}=\nu_{3}$ (Fig. 8a and Fig. 8c .) When we apply $T_{\rho_{4}}^{-1}$ to $\nu_{3}$ again most of the picture "contracts" and we are left with $\gamma_{3}$.


Figure 8a


Figure 8b


Figure 8c
We can now complete the proof of the Proposition. By Lemma 1 and Lemma 10 we have $(W) V^{-1}=T_{\delta_{3}} T_{\alpha_{1}}^{-1} T_{\gamma_{3}}^{-1} \in G$. Now by Lemma 8

$$
\left(T_{\alpha_{1}} T_{\delta_{2}}^{-1}\right)\left(T_{\delta_{2}} T_{\delta_{3}}^{-1}\right)\left(T_{\delta_{3}} T_{\alpha_{1}}^{-1} T_{\gamma_{3}}^{-1}\right)\left(T_{\gamma_{3}} T_{\alpha_{3}}^{-1}\right)=T_{\alpha_{3}}^{-1} \in G .
$$

By Lemma $3 T_{\alpha_{i}} \in G$ for each $i$. In particular $T_{\alpha_{1}} \in G$. Now $T_{\delta_{2}} \in G$ by Lemma 8 and $G=M$ by the result of Humphries in [H]. This concludes the proof of the Proposition and of the Theorem.

Acknowledgements. This paper was completed when I was a guest of Max-Planck-Institute for Mathematics in Bonn. I wish to thank the Max-Planck-Institute for its hospitality. I also wish to thank Bernard Maskit who asked me about the minimal number of generators for the mapping class group and made me working on this problem.

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Max-Planck-Institut für Mathematik, Gottrried-Claren-Strasse 26, 53225 Bonn.

August 1994


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Technion, Haifa and Max-Planck-Institute, Bonn.

