## Some Siegel Threefolds with a Calabi-Yau Model II

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Abstract. In a previous paper, we described some Siegel modular threefolds which admit a Calabi-Yau model. Using a different method we give in this paper an enlarged list of such varieties. Basic for this method is a paper of van Geemen and Nygaard. They study a variety $X$ that is the complete intersection of four quadrics in $\mathbb{P}^{7}(\mathbb{C})$. This is biholomorphic equivalent to the Satake compactification of $\mathscr{H}_{2} / \Gamma^{\prime}$ for a certain subgroup $\Gamma^{\prime} \subset \operatorname{Sp}(2, \mathbb{Z})$ and it will be the starting point of our investigation. It has been pointed out that a (projective) small resolution of this variety is a rigid Calabi-Yau manifold $\tilde{X}$. Then we will consider the action of quotients of modular groups on $X$ and study possible resolutions that admits a Calabi-Yau model in the category of complex spaces.

## 1. Introduction

In the paper [7] we described some Siegel modular threefolds which admit a Calabi-Yau model. Using a different approach, we give in this paper an enlarged list of such varieties. Basic for the new approach is the paper [12] of van Geemen and Nygaard. In this paper they prove that the complete intersection $\mathcal{X}$ in $P^{7}(\mathbb{C})$, defined by the equations
$x:$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Y_{0}^{2}=X_{0}^{2}+X_{1}^{2}+X_{2}^{2}+X_{3}^{2}, \\
& Y_{1}^{2}=X_{0}^{2}-X_{1}^{2}+X_{2}^{2}-X_{3}^{2}, \\
& Y_{2}^{2}=X_{0}^{2}+X_{1}^{2}-X_{2}^{2}-X_{3}^{2}, \\
& Y_{3}^{2}=X_{0}^{2}-X_{1}^{2}-X_{2}^{2}+X_{3}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

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is biholomorphic equivalent to the Satake compactification of $\mathbb{H}_{2} / \Gamma^{\prime}$ for a certain subgroup $\Gamma^{\prime} \subset \operatorname{Sp}(2, \mathbb{Z})$. This variety has 96 singularities which correspond to certain zero-dimensional cusps and these singularities are ordinary double points (nodes). In the paper [4] it has been pointed out that the results of [12] imply that a (projective) small resolution of this variety is a rigid Calabi-Yau manifold $\tilde{X}$.

We describe the basic occurring groups: We use the standard notations, $M=\left(\begin{array}{ll}A & B \\ C & D\end{array}\right):$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Gamma_{n}[l] & =\operatorname{kernel}(\operatorname{Sp}(n, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Sp}(n, \mathbb{Z} / l \mathbb{Z})), \\
\Gamma_{n}[l, 2 l] & =\left\{M \in \Gamma_{n}[l] ; \quad A^{t} B / l \text { and } C^{t} D / l \text { have even diagonal }\right\}, \\
\Gamma_{n, 0}[l] & =\left\{M \in \Gamma_{n} ; \quad C \equiv 0 \bmod l\right\}, \\
\Gamma_{n, 0, \vartheta}[l] & =\left\{M \in \Gamma_{n} ; \quad C \equiv 0 \bmod l, \quad C^{t} D / l \text { has even diagonal }\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The group $\Gamma_{n, 0}[l]$ can be extended by the Fricke involution

$$
J=J_{l}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & E / \sqrt{l} \\
-\sqrt{l} E & 0
\end{array}\right) \quad\left(J Z=-(l Z)^{-1}\right)
$$

We denote this extension (of index 2) by

$$
\hat{\Gamma}_{n, 0}[l]=\Gamma_{n, 0}[l] \cup J \Gamma_{n, 0}[l] .
$$

The group $\Gamma^{\prime}$, which belongs to van Geemen's and Nygaard's variety, is a subgroup of index two of the group

$$
\Gamma_{2}[2,4] \cap \Gamma_{2,0, \vartheta}[4]=\left\{M \in \Gamma_{2}[2,4] ; \quad C \equiv 0 \bmod 4, C / 4 \text { has even diagonal }\right\},
$$

namely

$$
\Gamma^{\prime}=\left\{M \in \Gamma_{2}[2,4] \cap \Gamma_{2,0, \vartheta}[4] ; \quad \operatorname{det} D \equiv \pm 1 \bmod 8\right\}
$$

In [7] we introduced a certain subgroup $\Gamma_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ of index two of $\Gamma_{2,0}[2]$ as kernel of a certain character $\chi_{\mathfrak{n}}$. This character is the product of the unique non-trivial character of the full Siegel modular group and the character

$$
\mathrm{i}^{\alpha+\beta+\gamma}, \quad C^{t} D=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\alpha & \beta \\
\beta & \gamma
\end{array}\right), \quad\left(M=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
A & B \\
C & D
\end{array}\right) \in \Gamma_{2,0}[2]\right) .
$$

The group $\Gamma^{\prime}$ is contained in $\Gamma_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ as normal subgroup of index $6144=2^{11} \cdot 3$.
The character $\chi_{\mathfrak{n}}$ extends to a character $\hat{\chi}_{\mathfrak{n}}$ of $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$ by means of

$$
\hat{\chi}_{\mathfrak{n}}(J)=1 .
$$

We denote its kernel by $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. This is an extension of index two of $\Gamma_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. The group $\Gamma^{\prime}$ is contained in $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ as normal subgroup of index $12288=2^{12} \cdot 3$. The main result of this paper is:

Theorem 1.1. The Siegel modular threefold, which belongs to a group between $\Gamma^{\prime}$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$, admits a Calabi-Yau model in the following weak sense: There exists a desingularization in the category of complex spaces of the Satake compactification which admits a holomorphic three-form without zeros and whose first Betti number vanishes.
It has been pointed out to the authors by van Geemen that it is not always possible to get a projective model. A positive result in this direction is:
Supplement 1.2. There exists a group $\Gamma^{\prime \prime}$ between $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ and $\Gamma^{\prime}$ such that $\left[\Gamma^{\prime \prime}: \Gamma^{\prime}\right]=8$ and such that $X(\Gamma)$ admits for every $\Gamma$ between $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ and $\Gamma^{\prime \prime}$ a (projective) Calabi-Yau model. Actually we will obtain for each $\Gamma$ a distinguished model by an explicit construction.

We shall describe $\Gamma^{\prime \prime}$ in the last section. It is a subgroup of $\Gamma_{2,0}[4] \cap \Gamma_{2}[2]$ of index 4. Hence the supplement extends results that have been proved in [7] using different method. In [5] we show that the method of [7] can be used to construct also an explicit projective Calabi-Yau model for all groups between $\Gamma_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ and $\Gamma_{2,0}[4] \cap \Gamma_{2}[2]$. So in this range we have two explicit constructions for a Calabi-Yau model. We do not know whether these models are isomorphic.

We shall develop a method to compute the divisor class number cl (rank of the group of divisor classes) and the Euler number for the intermediate groups. In the case of a projective manifold, they determine the Hodge numbers, the Picard number and the Euler number are

$$
\text { pic }=\mathrm{cl}=h^{11}, \quad e=2\left(h^{11}-h^{12}\right) .
$$

For a small resolution $\tilde{X}$ of the variety of van Geemen and Nygaard $X$ they are known [12], $[4], \mathrm{cl}=32, e=64$. To get it for other groups, one needs the action of the group $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ on the group of divisor classes of $X$. We will determine this action in section 6 . The result of this section allow in principle to compute the numbers for all intermediate groups. There are thousands of conjugacy classes of intermediate groups.

In section 7 we treat some simple examples, namely all subgroups of order two of $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}} / \Gamma^{\prime}$.

We are grateful for helpful disussions with Bert van Geemen and also for useful comments to a preliminary version of our paper from Philip Candelas. He brought our attention to the paper [1] of Borisov and Hua, where other examples of complete intersections of 4 quadrics in $P^{7}(\mathbb{C})$ that lead to Calabi-Yau manifolds with big fundamental groups are described.

## 2. Weak Calabi-Yau manifolds

Usually Calabi-Yau manifolds are assumed to be Kählerian. But in our context this is too restrictive. So we introduce the following notion.

Definition 2.1. A weak Calabi-Yau threefold is a connected compact complex
manifold of dimension 3 that admits a holomorphic differential form of degree three without zeros and such that the first Betti number is 0 .
Two compact complex spaces $X, Y$ are called bimeromorphic equivalent if there exists a joint modification $Z \rightarrow X, Z \rightarrow Y$. It is known and easy to prove that two bimoromorphic equivalent compact complex manifolds have the same first Betti number. For weak Calabi-Yau manifolds there is a far better result.

Remark 2.2. Two bimeromorphic weak Calabi-Yau threefolds have the same Betti numbers. If they are projective, even the Hodge numbers $h^{p q}$ coincide.

This follows from the result of Kollar that two such manifolds are related by flops and that the Betti numbers are invariant under flops. In the projective case this is true also for the Hodge numbers. ([11], Theorem 4.9 and Corollary 4.12).

We need the notion of a crepant resolution for certain normal three dimensional complex spaces $X$.

Definition 2.3. Let $X$ be a connected three dimensional normal complex space with singular locus $S$. Assume that for each point $a \in X$ there exists an open neighborhood $U$ and holomorphic three form $\alpha$ on $U-S$ without zeros. A crepant resolution $f: \tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ is a holomorphic map of a connected (smooth) complex manifold $\tilde{X}$ onto $X$, such that $\tilde{X}-f^{-1}(S) \rightarrow X-S$ is biholomorphic and such that $\alpha$ extends to a holomorphic three form without zeros on the inverse image $\tilde{U}=f^{-1}(U)$.

The existence of a crepant desingularization is only a local question (in the threedimensional case). A lemma of Roan [14] states the following.
Lemma 2.4. Under the assumptions of 2.3 the following holds: The existence of a crepant desingularization is granted if there exists an open covering $U_{i} \subset X$, such that each $U_{i}$ admits a crepant desingularization.

We reproduce the argument of Roan. The singular locus is a curve $S$. Over the generic point of $S$ the crepant resolution is unique. For this reason one can choose the crepant resolutions over the finitely many singular points of $S$ arbitrarily and glue them to a global resolution. Of course such a resolution needs not to be projective even if $X$ is projective.

We shall use a consequence of a general result about the existence of a resolutions of quotient singularities:

Theorem 2.5. Let $X$ be a complex threefold and let $G$ be a finite group of automorphisms of it. Assume that every point of $X / G$ admits an open neighborhood (in the analytic topology) such that on its regular locus there exists a three-form without zeros. Then $X / G$ admits a crepant desingularization.

We refer to [13] (especially section 5) for historical comments and basic results. Of
course such a desingularization is not unique. Actually one can find for quasiprojective $X$ a quasiprojective resolution. Even more, there is canonical construction using the $G$-Hilbert scheme. We refer to [3] and also to [7], Theorem 2.6, for more details.

## 3. The variety of van Geemen and Nygaard

We recall some basic facts about Siegel modular varieties. For details, we refer to [8]. The symplectic group $\operatorname{Sp}(n, \mathbb{R})$ acts on the Siegel upper half plane

$$
\mathbb{H}_{n}:=\left\{Z \in \mathbb{C}^{(n, n)} ; \quad Z={ }^{t} Z=X+\mathrm{i} Y, Y>0 \text { (positive definite) }\right\}
$$

by means of the formula $M Z=(A Z+B)(C Z+D)^{-1}$. For any subgroup $\Gamma \subset$ $\operatorname{Sp}(n, \mathbb{R})$ that is commensurable with $\operatorname{Sp}(n, \mathbb{Z})$, the quotient $\mathbb{H}_{n} / \Gamma$ carries a natural structure as quasi projective algebraic variety. The Satake compactification $\bar{H}_{n} / \Gamma$ is a projective variety which is closely related to Siegel modular forms. The Satake compactification can be identified with the projective variety associated to a graded algebra of modular forms. We recall briefly its definition. A modular form $f$ of weight $r / 2, r \in \mathbb{Z}$, is a holomorphic function $f$ on $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ with the transformation property

$$
f(M Z)=v(M) \sqrt{\operatorname{det}(C Z+D)}^{r} f(Z)
$$

for all $M \in \Gamma$. In the case $n=1$ a regularity condition at the cusps has to be added. Here $v(M)$ is system of complex numbers of absolute valued one, called the multiplier system. It has to fulfil an obvious cocycle condition. We denote this space by $[\Gamma, r / 2, v]$. Fixing some starting weight $r_{0}$ and a multiplier system $v$ for it, we define the ring

$$
A(\Gamma):=\bigoplus_{r \in \mathbb{Z}}\left[\Gamma, r r_{0} / 2, v^{r}\right] .
$$

This turns out to be a finitely generated graded algebra and its associated projective variety proj $A(\Gamma)$ can be identified with the Satake compactification. The ring depends on the starting weight and the multiplier system but the associated projective variety does not. Usually, the Satake compactification is a very singular variety. Of course there exist non-singular models.

Lemma 3.1. The first Betti number of a nonsingular model $X$ of a Siegel modular variety of genus $\geq 2$ is 0 .
Proof. By Hodge theory, one has to show that every holomorphic differential form of degree 1 vanishes. Actually one knows that each $\Gamma$-invariant holomorphic differential form on $\mathbb{H}_{n}$ of degree 1 is 0 .

Basic examples of modular forms are given be theta series with respect to characteristics. By definition, a theta characteristic is an element $m=\binom{a}{b}$ from $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{2 n}$.

Here $a, b \in(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{n}$ are column vectors. The characteristic is called even if ${ }^{t} a b=0$ and odd otherwise. The group $\operatorname{Sp}(n, \mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})$ acts on the set of characteristics by

$$
M\{m\}:={ }^{t} M^{-1} m+\binom{\left(A^{t} B\right)_{0}}{\left(C^{t} D\right)_{0}}
$$

Here $S_{0}$ denotes the column built of the diagonal of a square matrix $S$. It is well-known that $\operatorname{Sp}(n, \mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})$ acts transitively on the subsets of even and odd characteristics. Recall that for any characteristic the theta function

$$
\vartheta[m]=\sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}^{n}} e^{\pi \mathrm{i}\left(Z[g+a / 2]+t^{t}(g+a / 2)\right)} \quad\left(Z[g]={ }^{t} g Z g\right)
$$

can be defined. Here we use the identification of $\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}$ with the subset $\{0,1\} \subset \mathbb{Z}$. It vanishes if and only if $m$ is odd. Recall also that the formula

$$
\vartheta[M\{m\}](M Z)=v(M, m) \sqrt{\operatorname{det}(C Z+D)} \vartheta[m](Z)
$$

holds for $M \in \Gamma_{n}$, where $v(M, m)$ is a rather delicate $8^{\text {th }}$ root of unity which depends on the choice of the square root. Sometimes we will use the notation

$$
\vartheta[m]=\vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
a_{1} a_{2} \\
b_{1} b_{2}
\end{array}\right] \quad \text { for } \quad m=\left(\begin{array}{l}
a_{1} \\
a_{2} \\
b_{1} \\
b_{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Following van Geemen and Nygaard, we consider the 8 functions

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
00 \\
00
\end{array}\right](Z), & \vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
00 \\
10
\end{array}\right](Z), & \vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
00 \\
01
\end{array}\right](Z), \\
\vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
00 \\
00
\end{array}\right](2 Z), & \vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
10 \\
11
\end{array}\right](Z), & \vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
01 \\
00
\end{array}\right](2 Z),
\end{array} \vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
11 \\
00
\end{array}\right](2 Z) .
$$

If we denote them by $Y_{0}, \ldots, Y_{3}, X_{0} \ldots, X_{3}$, then classical theta relations show that the relations listed at the beginning of the introduction hold. The classical theta transformation formalism shows that the eight forms are modular forms of weight $1 / 2$ for the group $\Gamma^{\prime}$ introduced in the introduction and that their multipliers on this group agree. Since this is standard, we only give a short sketch of the proof. The theta series $X_{i}$ are the so-called theta series of second kind. One knows classically that they have the same multipliers $\kappa(M)$ on the group $\Gamma_{2}[2,4]$. By conjugation with the transformation $Z \mapsto 2 Z$ one shows that the $Y_{i}$ have the same multipliers $\tilde{\kappa}(M)$ on the group $\Gamma_{2,0, \vartheta}[2]$. We have to find the subgroup $\Gamma^{\prime}$ of $\Gamma_{2}[2,4] \cap \Gamma_{2,0, \vartheta}[2]$, where $\kappa$ and $\tilde{\kappa}$ agree. This just means that $\vartheta[0](Z) \vartheta[0](2 Z)$ and $\vartheta[0](2 Z)^{2}$ have the same multipliers. But these are the standard thetas series with respect to the binary forms $\binom{10}{0}$ and $\binom{20}{0}$. The advantage of binary forms is that they have an even number of variables and standard formula can be used, for example [9], 7.1.

We can express this in saying that the $Y_{0}, \ldots, X_{3}$ are contained in the ring

$$
A\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right):=\bigoplus_{r \in \mathbb{Z}}\left[\Gamma^{\prime}, r / 2, \kappa^{r}\right] .
$$

The precise result, slightly extending results of [12], states:
Proposition 3.2. Let be

$$
\Gamma^{\prime}=\left\{M \in \Gamma_{2}[2,4] ; \quad C \equiv 0 \bmod 4, \operatorname{diag} C \equiv 0 \bmod 8, \operatorname{det} D \equiv \pm 1 \bmod 8\right\}
$$

The ring $A\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)$ is generated by the eight theta series above. The relations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Y_{0}^{2}=X_{0}^{2}+X_{1}^{2}+X_{2}^{2}+X_{3}^{2} \\
& Y_{1}^{2}=X_{0}^{2}-X_{1}^{2}+X_{2}^{2}-X_{3}^{2} \\
& Y_{2}^{2}=X_{0}^{2}+X_{1}^{2}-X_{2}^{2}-X_{3}^{2}, \\
& Y_{3}^{2}=X_{0}^{2}-X_{1}^{2}-X_{2}^{2}+X_{3}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

are defining relations. They define a subvariety $X$ of $P^{7}(\mathbb{C})$ which can be identified with the Satake compactification of $\mathbb{H}_{2} / \Gamma^{\prime}$.

Proof. Proposition 2.5 of [12] says that this complete intersection is the Satake compatification for some subgroup of $\operatorname{Sp}(2, \mathbb{Z})$. Necessarily this must be a subgroup of what we called $\Gamma^{\prime}$. An index computation gives that they agree. The equality of the complete intersection and the Satake compactification shows that $A\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)$ must be the normalization of the factor ring $\mathbb{C}\left[X_{0}, \ldots, Y_{3}\right]$ by the ideal generated by the above 4 relations. Using Serre's criterion for normality, it follows that this ring is normal. This proves 3.2.

In [12] the modular form of weight 3

$$
T=\vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
10 \\
00
\end{array}\right](Z) \vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
10 \\
01
\end{array}\right](Z) \vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
01 \\
00
\end{array}\right](Z) \vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
01 \\
10
\end{array}\right](Z) \vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
11 \\
00
\end{array}\right](Z) \vartheta\left[\begin{array}{l}
11 \\
11
\end{array}\right](Z)
$$

has been introduced. The differential form

$$
\omega=T d z_{0} \wedge d z_{1} \wedge d z_{2}, \quad Z=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
z_{0} & z_{1} \\
z_{1} & z_{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

is invariant under $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. (The invariance under $\Gamma_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ has been proved in [7]. The behavior under the Fricke involution can be derived from the following explicit formula.)

Lemma 3.3. In terms of the coordinates $X_{0}, \ldots X_{3}, Y_{0} \ldots, Y_{3}$ we have that, up to a multiplicative constant, $\omega$ equals

$$
\frac{X_{2}^{4}}{Y_{0} Y_{1} Y_{2} Y_{3}} d\left(X_{0} / X_{2}\right) \wedge d\left(X_{1} / X_{2}\right) \wedge d\left(X_{3} / X_{2}\right)
$$

Proof. This is essentially the form of $\omega$, which has been derived in [7] (see Theorem 4.5 and the formulae before it).

The invariance of the differential form $\omega$ implies its vanishing along the ramification locus of $\mathbb{H}_{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{H}_{2} / \hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. From [7], we know that the zero locus of $\omega$ in $\mathbb{H}_{2}$ consists of the fixed point sets of all $M \in \Gamma_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ which are conjugate inside $\Gamma_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ to the diagonal matrix with diagonal $(1,-1,1,-1)$. This matrix and hence the conjugates are contained in $\Gamma^{\prime}$. Hence we obtain the following result:

Proposition 3.4. The differential form $\omega$ defines a holomorphic differential form without zeros on the smooth variety $\mathbb{H}_{2} / \Gamma^{\prime}$. It is invariant under $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. The natural projection $X\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow X\left(\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}\right)$ is unramified in codimension one.
Corollary 3.5. The differential form $\omega$ defines a holomorphic differential form without zeros on the regular locus of $X(\Gamma)$ for each group $\Gamma$ between $\Gamma^{\prime}$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$.

## 4. Automorphisms of the variety of van Geemen and Nygaard

We shall see that the group $\Gamma^{\prime}$ is normal in $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$. Hence this group acts on the variety of van Geemen and Nygaard. We want to describe this action. We shall see that this action can be described by a linear action on the variables $Y_{0}, \ldots, X_{3}$, more precisely by a finite subgroup of $\operatorname{PGL}(8, \mathbb{C})$. Recall that $\Gamma_{2,0}[2]$ is generated by the matrices of the form

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
E & S \\
0 & E
\end{array}\right), \quad\left(\begin{array}{cc}
U^{\prime} & 0 \\
0 & U^{-1}
\end{array}\right), \quad\left(\begin{array}{cc}
E & 0 \\
2 S & E
\end{array}\right) \quad\left(S=S^{\prime} \text { integral }\right) .
$$

Let $M \in \hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$. For $f \in\left[\Gamma^{\prime}, 1 / 2, v_{\vartheta}\right]$ we set

$$
f \mid M(Z)=\sqrt{\operatorname{det}(C Z+D)}^{-1 / 2} f(M Z)
$$

The map $f \mapsto f \mid M$ is an automorphism $\varphi_{M}$ of the 8-dimensional space spanned by $Y_{0}, \ldots, X_{3}$. It depends on the choice of a square root of $\operatorname{det}(C Z+D)$. Hence $\pm \varphi_{M}$ is well defined. Using standard theta transformation formulae we can compute these
automorphisms for the generators. It is sufficient to take the following 4.

$$
\text { matrix } \quad \text { corresponding transformation }
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\begin{array}{cc}
{ }^{t} U & 0 \\
0 & U^{-1}
\end{array}\right), U=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\left(Y_{0}, Y_{1}, Y_{3}, Y_{2}, X_{0}, X_{3}, X_{2}, X_{1}\right) \\
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
{ }^{t} U & 0 \\
0 & U^{-1}
\end{array}\right), U=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
1 & 1
\end{array}\right) & \left(Y_{0}, Y_{3}, Y_{2}, Y_{1}, X_{0}, X_{1}, X_{3}, X_{2}\right) \\
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
E & 0 \\
S & E
\end{array}\right), S=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right) & \left(Y_{0},-\mathrm{i} Y_{1}, Y_{2},-\mathrm{i} Y_{3}, X_{1}, X_{0}, X_{3}, X_{2}\right) \\
J & \text { (Fricke involution) } \\
\sqrt{2} \cdot\left(X_{0}, X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, Y_{0} / 2, Y_{1} / 2, Y_{2} / 2, Y_{3} / 2\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Lemma 4.1. The group $\Gamma^{\prime}$ is normal in $\Gamma_{2,0}[2]$. The group $\mathcal{G}$ generated by the transformations $\pm \varphi_{M}, M \in \hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$, is already generated by the above four transformations. It has order $98304=2^{15} \cdot 3$. The map $M \mapsto \pm \varphi_{M}$ defines a homomorphism

$$
\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2] \longrightarrow \mathcal{G} / \pm
$$

The group $\mathcal{G}$ contains the subgroup $\mathcal{Z}$ of order 4 which is generated by multiplication with i. The above homomorphism induces an isomorphism

$$
\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2] / \Gamma^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathcal{G} / \mathcal{Z} \quad\left(\text { order } 24576=2^{13} \cdot 3\right)
$$

Proof. Since the generators of $\Gamma_{2,0}[2]$ act on $X$, the group $\Gamma^{\prime}$ must be a normal subgroup. The rest follows by comparing indices.

## 5. The stabilizer of a node

The variety $X$ has 96 singularities which all are ordinary double points (nodes). They are zero dimensional boundary points, but not each zero dimensional boundary is singular. In coordinates, the singularities can be described as follows. One node is given by

$$
P=[\sqrt{2}, 0, \sqrt{2}, 0,1,1,0,0] .
$$

Changing signs, it produces 8 nodes which are characterized by the property $Y_{1}=$ $Y_{3}=X_{2}=X_{3}=0$. Similarly, one gets 8 nodes with $Y_{1}=Y_{3}=X_{0}=X_{1}=0$. So one has 16 nodes with $Y_{1}=Y_{3}=0$. In the same way one gets 16 nodes with the property $Y_{i}=Y_{j}=0$ for each other pair $0 \leq i<j \leq 3$. This gives $96=6 \cdot 16$ nodes. It is easy to check by hand that they exhaust all singular points. This description of the nodes also shows.

Lemma 5.1. The group $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$ acts on the 96 nodes transitively.

The following matrices

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
M_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\
2 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right), & M_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \\
M_{3}=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right), & M_{4}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \\
M_{5}=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right), & M_{6}=\left(\begin{array}{lllc}
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \circ J
\end{array}
$$

are contained in $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$ and stabilize the node $P$. We consider the group, which is generated by them and $\Gamma^{\prime}$. One can check that the factor group mod $\Gamma^{\prime}$ has order $128=2^{7}$. Together with 5.1 we obtain:
Proposition 5.2. The stabilizer $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{P}$ of the standard node $P$ is generated by $\Gamma^{\prime}$ and the matrices $M_{1}, M_{2}, \ldots, M_{6}$.
In a neighborhood of $P$ we can use the affine coordinates

$$
\begin{gathered}
\eta_{0}=Y_{0} / X_{1}, \eta_{1}=Y_{1} / X_{1}, \eta_{2}=Y_{2} / X_{1}, \eta_{3}=Y_{3} / X_{1} \\
\xi_{0}=X_{0} / X_{1}, \quad \xi_{2}=X_{2} / X_{1}, \xi_{3}=X_{3} / X_{1}
\end{gathered}
$$

Then substituting the affine version of the third equation in the fourth we get

$$
\eta_{1}^{2}-\eta_{3}^{2}=2\left(\xi_{2}^{2}-\xi_{3}^{2}\right)
$$

Setting

$$
x_{1}=\eta_{1}-\eta_{3}, \quad x_{4}=\eta_{1}+\eta_{3}, \quad x_{2}=\sqrt{2}\left(\xi_{2}-\xi_{3}\right), \quad x_{3}=\sqrt{2}\left(\xi_{2}+\xi_{3}\right)
$$

the relation gets the simple form

$$
x_{1} x_{4}=x_{2} x_{3} .
$$

So we have lead to consider the quadric

$$
Q:=\left\{\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right) \in \mathbb{C}^{4} ; \quad x_{1} x_{4}=x_{2} x_{3}\right\}
$$

This is a three dimensional affine variety with a unique singularity at the origin. The above construction gives an étale map of germs

$$
(X, P) \longrightarrow(Q, 0)
$$

Sometimes we write the elements of $\mathbb{C}^{4}$ as matrices

$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right)
$$

Then $Q$ is defined by $\operatorname{det} X=0$. The group $\operatorname{GL}(2, \mathbb{C}) \times \operatorname{GL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ acts on the quadric by means of

$$
X \longmapsto A X^{t} B
$$

In this way we can consider $(\mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{C}) \times \mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{C})) / \mathbb{C}^{*}$ as subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}(4, \mathbb{C})$. Another transformation, which leaves the quadric invariant, is $X \mapsto{ }^{t} X$. We also can consider it as element of $\operatorname{GL}(4, \mathbb{C})$. We consider the transformations

$$
\begin{aligned}
m_{1}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right) & =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{4} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{1}
\end{array}\right), & m_{2}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right) & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-\mathrm{i} x_{1} & -x_{2} \\
x_{3} & -\mathrm{i} x_{4}
\end{array}\right) \\
m_{3}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right) & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-x_{1} & \mathrm{i} x_{2} \\
\mathrm{i} x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right), & m_{4}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right) & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-x_{1} & -x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right) \\
m_{5}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right) & =\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{3} \\
x_{2} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right), & m_{6}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right) & =\left(\begin{array}{cc}
x_{2} & x_{1} \\
x_{4} & x_{3}
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

They are contained in the extension of index two of the image of the group $\mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{C}) \times \mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ which is generated by $X \mapsto^{t} X$. Hence this subgroup acts on $Q$.

Lemma 5.3. The transformations

$$
m_{1}, m_{2}, m_{3}, m_{4}, m_{5}, m_{6}
$$

generate a group $G$ of order $256=2^{8}$. It contains the map $X \mapsto-X$.
Since the proofs of this Lemma and the following Proposition can be given by computation, we omit them. We just mention that $m_{2}^{2} m_{3}^{2}$ acts as $X \mapsto-X$.

Proposition 5.4. The assignment

$$
M_{i} \longmapsto m_{i} \quad(1 \leq i \leq 6)
$$

induces an isomorphism

$$
\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{P} / \Gamma^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\sim} G .
$$

The described identification of germs $\left(X\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right), P\right)$ and $(Q, 0)$ is equivariant.
We are interested in the subgroup of index two $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. We have to intersect it with the stabilizer. It is easy to check that the elements

$$
M_{2}^{2}, M_{3}^{2}, M_{2} M_{1}, M_{3} M_{1}, M_{4} M_{1}, M_{5} M_{1}, M_{6} M_{1}
$$

are contained in $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. One also can check that the elements

$$
m_{2}^{2}, m_{3}^{2}, m_{2} m_{1}, m_{3} m_{1}, m_{4} m_{1}, m_{5} m_{1}, m_{6} m_{1}
$$

generate a group $H$ of order $128=2^{7}$. In this way one obtains:
Proposition 5.5. The stabilizer of $P$ in $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ is a subgroup of index two of $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{P}$. The restriction of 5.4 induces an isomorphism

$$
\left(\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{P} \cap \hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}\right) / \Gamma^{\prime} \xrightarrow{\sim} H
$$

## 6. Quotients of an ordinary double point with a crepant resolution

We will study the node $(Q, 0)$ and some of its quotients. This is related to work of Davis [6], where also several quotients have been considered.
Lemma 6.1. The restriction of

$$
\alpha=\frac{1}{x_{1}^{2}-x_{4}^{2}}\left(x_{1} d x_{1}+x_{4} d x_{4}\right) \wedge d x_{2} \wedge d x_{3}
$$

is a holomorphic differential form of degree three on $Q-\{0\}$ without zeros. If one identifies a small neighborhood of the origin in $Q$ with a small neighborhood of $P \in X\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)$, we have $\omega=h \alpha$, where $h$ is a holomorphic invertible function on this neighborhood.
Proof. We cover $Q$ by 4 charts corresponding to $x_{i} \neq 0$. For example the part $x_{1} \neq 0$ is the image of

$$
\left\{\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in \mathbb{C}^{3} ; x_{1} \neq 0\right\} \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}^{4}, \quad\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \longmapsto\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{2} x_{3} / x_{1}\right)
$$

Pulling back $\alpha$ we get

$$
\frac{1}{x_{1}^{2}-\left(x_{2} x_{3} / x_{1}\right)^{2}}\left(x_{1} d x_{1}-x_{2}^{2} x_{3}^{2} / x_{1}^{3} d x_{1}\right) \wedge d x_{2} \wedge d x_{3}=\frac{d x_{1} \wedge d x_{2} \wedge d x_{3}}{x_{1}}
$$

This is holomorphic and without zeros on this chart. The other charts are treated in a similar way. Since $\alpha$ and $\omega$ both are 3 -forms without zeros outside the singularity, we get $\omega=h \alpha$, where $h$ is a holomorphic function without zeros outside the singularity. Since isolated singularities of analytic functions in more than one variable cannot exist, $h$ and $h^{-1}$ are holomorphic also at the singularity.

The following result can be found in [10].
Proposition 6.2. The quadric $Q$ admits a small desingularization $\tilde{Q} \rightarrow Q$. This means that $\tilde{Q}$ is a smooth connected variety, the inverse image of the node 0 is a curve and the map from the complement of this curve maps biholomorphically onto $Q-\{0\}$. Such a desingularization is crepant.
A small resolution is not unique. Actually there exist two different isomorphy classes
of such small resolutions. They can be obtained by blowing up the ideals $\left(x_{1}, x_{3}\right)$ or $\left(x_{1}, x_{4}\right)$ in $\mathbb{C}\left[x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right] /\left(x_{1} x_{4}-x_{2} x_{3}\right)$. From this explicit description one can derive:

Lemma 6.3. The elements of the image of $\mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{C}) \times \mathrm{GL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ extend to biholomorphic transformations of any small resolution, but the transformation

$$
X \longmapsto{ }^{t} X
$$

which is also an automorphism of $Q$, does not.
The group $G$ (see 5.4) is not contained in the image of GL $(2, \mathbb{C}) \times \operatorname{GL}(2, \mathbb{C})$. The intersection with this group defines a subgroup $G_{0} \subset G$ of index two. It is generated by the elements $m_{1} m_{5}, m_{2}, m_{3}, m_{4}, m_{6}$. One checks that these elements have determinant 1 (considered in $\operatorname{GL}(4, \mathbb{C})$ ). Hence $G_{0}$ also can be defined as intersection of $G$ with $\operatorname{SL}(4, \mathbb{C})$. We denote by $H_{0}$ the intersection of $H$ and $G_{0}$. This is a group of order $64=2^{6}$.

Lemma 6.4. The groups $H$ and $H_{0}$ have the same center. It is the group of order 2 generated by the transformation $X \mapsto-X$.
We omit the proof, since it can be done by simple computation.
Lemma 6.5. The differential form $\alpha$ on $\mathbb{C}^{4}$ (s. 6.1) is invariant under $H$. Hence also the function $h$ in 6.1 is $H$-invariant.
Proof. The invariance can be checked directly for the generators.
Theorem 6.6. Let $K$ be any subgroup of $H$. Then the quotient $Q_{0}:=Q / K$ admits a crepant desingularization. For the proof we have to differ between 4 types of subgroups $K$.

1) $K$ is contained in the subgroup $H_{0}$.
2) $K$ contains the transformation $X \mapsto-X$.
3) $K$ contains one of the two transformations

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right) \longmapsto\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-x_{1} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & -x_{4}
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { or } \quad\left(\begin{array}{cc}
x_{1} & -x_{2} \\
-x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right)
$$

in its center.
4) $K$ is a the cyclic subgroup of order 4 that is conjugated to one of the two following (given by a generator of order 4):

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} & x_{2} \\
x_{3} & x_{4}
\end{array}\right) \longmapsto\left(\begin{array}{ll}
x_{2} & x_{4} \\
x_{1} & x_{3}
\end{array}\right) \quad \text { or } \quad\left(\begin{array}{cc}
x_{2} & \mathrm{i} x_{4} \\
-\mathrm{i} x_{1} & x_{3}
\end{array}\right)
$$

These classes are not disjoint. But each subgroup of $H$ is contained in at least one of the 4 classes. This can be checked by hand or quicker by means of a computer.

We are going to discuss the 4 cases. We begin with the First type. Because of 6.3 in this case the action of $K$ extends to a small resolution $\tilde{Q} \rightarrow Q$. The differential form $\alpha$ extends to a holomorphic differential form without zeros on $\tilde{Q}$, since singularities or zeros can only occur in codimension one on a smooth variety. By 2.5 the variety $\tilde{Q} / K$ admits a crepant resolution. Hence $Q / K$ also admits one.
Second type. We start to blow up the origin of $\mathbb{C}^{4}$. The group $K$ still acts biholomorphically on this blow up. A typical chart of the blow up is the $\mathbb{C}^{4}$ with the coordinates

$$
\left(t_{1}, t_{2}, t_{3}, x_{4}\right)=\left(x_{1} / x_{4}, x_{2} / x_{4}, x_{3} / x_{4}, x_{4}\right)
$$

We consider in the blow up of $\mathbb{C}^{4}$ the closed smooth subvariety $\tilde{Q}$, which is defined in this chart by $t_{1}=t_{2} t_{3}$. Its image in $\mathbb{C}^{4}$ is $Q$. Hence $\tilde{Q} \rightarrow Q$ is just a desingularization of $Q$. (Actually it is the blow-up of $Q$ at the origin.) The chart of $\tilde{Q}$, which we consider, is a $\mathbb{C}^{3}$ with the coordinates $t_{2}, t_{3}, x_{4}$. The differential form $\alpha$ in these coordinates can be computed. Up to a constant factor it is

$$
x_{4} d t_{2} \wedge d t_{3} \wedge d x_{4}
$$

So it gets a zero of order one along $x_{4}=0$. The transformation $x \rightarrow-x$ just changes the sign of each variable $x_{i}$. Hence it acts on $t_{2}, t_{3}, x_{4}$ as reflection, which changes the sign of the third variable only. The quotient is a $\mathbb{C}^{3}$ with the coordinates

$$
\left(t_{2}, t_{3}, t_{4}\right)=\left(x_{2} / x_{4}, x_{3} / x_{4}, x_{4}^{2}\right)
$$

Hence $\tilde{Q} / \pm$ is a smooth variety, the affine piece in consideration a $\mathbb{C}^{3}$ with coordinates $t_{2}, t_{3}, t_{4}$. In these coordinates $\alpha$ appears as holomorphic differential form without zeros. By the general theorem 2.5, the quotient $\tilde{Q} / K$ and hence $Q / K$ admits a crepant resolution.
Third type. The two cases are equivalent, hence we can assume that

$$
\sigma\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)=\left(x_{1},-x_{2},-x_{3}, x_{4}\right)
$$

is in the center of $K$. The ideal $\left(x_{2}, x_{3}\right)$ is invariant under $K$, since it describes the fixed point locus of $\sigma$ which is in the center of $K$. Hence the action of $K$ extends to an action by biholomorphic transformations on the blow up $\mathcal{C}$ of $\mathbb{C}^{4}$ along this ideal. The manifold $\mathcal{C}$ can be covered by two $\mathbb{C}^{4}$ using the coordinates $\left(x_{1}, x_{2} / x_{3}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)$ and $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3} / x_{2}, x_{4}\right)$. We take the quotient of $\mathcal{C}$ by $\sigma$. The quotient $\mathcal{C} / \sigma$ is covered by two $\mathbb{C}^{4}$ with coordinates

$$
\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, u_{4}\right)=\left(x_{1}, x_{2} / x_{3}, x_{3}^{2}, x_{4}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad\left(v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}\right)=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}^{2}, x_{3} / x_{2}, x_{4}\right)
$$

We consider the subvariety $Q^{\prime} \subset \mathcal{C} / \sigma$ that in the two affine pieces is given by $u_{1} u_{4}=u_{2} u_{3}$ and $v_{1} v_{4}=v_{2} v_{3}$. This variety has two singular points which correspond to the origins of the affine pieces and which are ordinary double points. There is a natural projection $Q^{\prime} \rightarrow Q / \sigma$. The group $K$ acts on $Q^{\prime}$. We need the stabilizers
of the two singularities. Claim. The stabilizer of the singularity $u_{1}=\cdots=u_{4}=0$ acts by substitutions of the form

$$
U \longmapsto C U^{t} D, \quad \text { where } \quad U=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
u_{1} & u_{2} \\
u_{3} & u_{4}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Proof of the Claim. We consider an element of the stabilizer. It might be of the form

$$
X \longmapsto X \longmapsto A X^{t} B \quad \text { or } \quad X \longmapsto A^{t} X^{t} B
$$

We have to use now that this transformation commutes with $\sigma$. In each case this means that $A$ and $B$ both are of the form $\binom{* 0}{0}$ or both are of the form $\binom{0 *}{* 0}$. Both cases are similar. For simplicity we take the case $A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & 0 \\ 0 & d\end{array}\right)$ and $B=\left(\begin{array}{ll}\alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \delta\end{array}\right)$. Then the transformation $A X^{t} B$ corresponds to $C U^{t} D$, where

$$
C=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & d^{2} \alpha / a
\end{array}\right), \quad D=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a \alpha & 0 \\
0 & a \delta / d \alpha
\end{array}\right)
$$

But the transformation $A^{t} X^{t} B$ interchanges the $u$ - and $v$-chart and especially the two singularities are interchanged. Hence this transformation is not contained in the stabilizer. Now we consider the holomorphic map

$$
Q^{\prime} / \mathcal{K} \longrightarrow Q / \mathcal{K}
$$

which is induced by $Q^{\prime} \rightarrow Q / \sigma$. The differential form $\alpha$ can be considered as meromorphic differential form on $\mathcal{C} / \sigma$. One checks that in the coordinates $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, u_{4}$ it is given by the same equation as the original $\alpha$, just replacing the letters $x$ by $u$. The same is true for the coordinates $v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}$. Hence $\alpha$ gives a holomorphic differential form without zeros on the regular locus of $Q^{\prime}$. The claim shows that $\mathcal{K}$ extends to a suitable chosen small resolution $\tilde{Q}^{\prime}$ of $Q^{\prime}$. To be concrete one can blow up the irreducible surface, which is defined in the $u$-coordinates by the ideal $\left(u_{2}, u_{3}\right)$ and in the $v$-coordinates by $\left(v_{2}, v_{3}\right)$. Then the group $K$ acts on $\tilde{Q}^{\prime}$. The differential form $\alpha$ extends to a holomorphic differential form on $\tilde{Q}^{\prime}$ without zeros and is invariant under $\mathcal{K}$.

Fourth type. We consider the first case, $\sigma\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right)=\left(x_{2}, x_{4}, x_{1}, x_{3}\right)$, the second is similar. It is better then to use the coordinates

$$
y_{1}=x_{1}+x_{4}, y_{2}=x_{1}-x_{4}, y_{3}=x_{2}+x_{3}, y_{4}=x_{2}-x_{3}
$$

The quadric then takes the equation $y_{1}^{2}+y_{4}^{2}=y_{2}^{2}+y_{3}^{2}$. We blow up the ideal $\left(y_{2}, y_{4}\right)$. We denote by $\mathcal{C}$ the blow up of $\mathbb{C}^{4}$ along this ideal. One chart of the blow up is $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}, y_{4} / y_{2}\right)$. Taking quotient by $\sigma^{2}$ gives the chart

$$
\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, u_{4}\right)=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}^{2}, y_{3}, y_{4} / y_{2}\right) .
$$

Now the the quadric $y_{1}^{2}+y_{4}^{2}=y_{2}^{2}+y_{3}^{2}$ gets the form

$$
u_{1}^{2}+u_{2}\left(u_{4}^{2}-1\right)-u_{3}^{2}=0
$$

This 3 -fold has two singular points, $(0,0,0,1)$ and $(0,0,0,-1)$. Take the first one. For this point one can take as local parameter

$$
v_{4}:=u_{4}^{2}-1 \quad\left(=\left(u_{4}-1\right)\left(u_{4}+1\right)\right)
$$

Now the 3 -fold is given by $u_{1}^{2}+u_{2} v_{4}-u_{3}^{2}=0$. Hence the singularity is an ordinary double point. This consideration shows that the transform of the quadric appears in $\mathcal{C} / \sigma^{2}$ as 3 -fold with two singular points, which are nodes. The transformation $\sigma$ interchanges the two nodes and hence acts without fixed points. The rest of the proof is analogously to the third case. Now the general result 2.5 shows that $\tilde{Q}^{\prime} / \mathcal{K}$ admits a crepant resolution. This gives a crepant resolution of $Q / \mathcal{K}$.

We recall that we defined a local étale map

$$
\left(X\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right), P\right)=(X, P) \longrightarrow(Q, 0)
$$

If $\Gamma$ is a group between $\Gamma^{\prime}$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ and $\mathcal{K}$ the corresponding subgroup of $\mathcal{G}$, we still get a local étale map

$$
(X(\Gamma), P) \longrightarrow(Q / \mathcal{K}, 0)
$$

Now we can prove the a basic result of this paper, formulated already in the introduction:

Theorem 6.7. The Siegel modular threefold which belongs to a group between $\Gamma^{\prime}$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ admits a Calabi-Yau model in the following weak sense: There exists a desingularization in the category of complex spaces of the Satake compactification which admits a holomorphic three-form without zeros and whose first Betti number vanishes.
Proof. The proof is completed.
By 2.5 there exists a crepant resolution of the complement of the (images of the) nodes in $X(\Gamma)$. As we have just seen (6.6), for each node there exists an open neighborhood which admits a crepant resolution. Hence we can apply 2.4 to obtain a (not necessarily projective) crepant resolution of $X(\Gamma)$. It is a natural question whether a group $\Gamma$ extends to a group of biholomorphic maps of a crepant resolution $\tilde{X}$. Such a resolution is not unique. There exists a projective one but there also exist some which are not projective. A necessary condition of $\Gamma$ to extend is that the stabilizers of the nodes extend as described in 6.3. This is a condition which can be checked. Assume that it is satisfied. Then we can choose one node $a$ and desingularization of this node. We can extend $\Gamma_{a}$ to this desingularization. Let now $g \in \Gamma$. The choice of the resolution of $a$ dictates us the choice of the resolution at
$g(a)$ and the assumption about $G_{a}$ makes this choice independent of the choice of $g$. In this way we resolve the whole orbit of $a$ and then in the same way the other orbits. In this way we obtain:
Lemma 6.8. Let $\Gamma$ be a group between $\Gamma^{\prime}$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. Assume that the stabilizer at an arbitrary node satisfies the local condition 6.3. Then there exists a (not necessarily projective) crepant resolution $\tilde{X} \rightarrow X$ in the category of complex spaces such that $\Gamma$ extends biholomorphically to $\tilde{X}$.

## 7. The Picard numbers

Since we have to consider also compact complex manifolds which are not projective, we have to be careful with the definition of the Picard number. Let $X$ be an irreducible normal complex space. A divisor in $X$ is a closed analytic subset of everywhere codimension one and such that additionally every irreducible component carries a multiplicity (a non-zero integer). The analytic set itself is called the support of the divisor. Every meromorphic function defines a divisor. The group of all divisor classes is denoted by $\mathrm{Cl}(X)$. Its rank is denoted by $\operatorname{cl}(X)$. If $X$ is a projective manifold, then $\mathrm{Cl}(X)$ is isomorphic to the Picard group (group of line bundles) and $\operatorname{cl}(x)=\operatorname{pic}(X)$ is the Picard number. Let $A \subset X$ be a closed analytic subset of codimension $\geq 2$. Then $\operatorname{cl}(X)=\operatorname{cl}(X-A)$.
Lemma 7.1. Two bimeromorphic equivalent weak Calabi-Yau manifolds have the same divisor class number.
This also follows from the fact that the two are related by flops [11].
We also mention the following simple result.
Lemma 7.2. Let $X$ be an irreducible compact complex space and $\tilde{X} \rightarrow X a$ desingularization. Then

$$
\operatorname{cl}(\tilde{X})=\operatorname{cl}(X)+m,
$$

where $m$ denotes the number of exceptional divisors.
In the following we consider a group $\Gamma$ between $\Gamma^{\prime}$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. We denote by $X(\Gamma)$ the Satake compactification of $\mathbb{H}_{2} / \Gamma$. We want to compute the divisor class number $\operatorname{cl}(\Gamma):=\operatorname{cl}(X(\Gamma))$ of this variety. From 3.4 we know

$$
\operatorname{Cl}\left(X(\Gamma) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}=\operatorname{Cl}\left(X\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)^{\Gamma} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}\right.\right.
$$

in [GN] the divisor class number has been computed for $\Gamma^{\prime}$ :

$$
\operatorname{cl}\left(\Gamma^{\prime}\right)=32
$$

The proof of van Geemen and Nygaard rests on counting numbers of points with values in some finite fields and making use of the Weil conjectures. Therefore it may be difficult to get from these computations the action of $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$ on $\mathrm{Cl}(X)$. For
this reason we need some explicit description of generating divisors. We use Igusa's cusp form $\chi_{35}$ of weight 35 for the full Siegel modular group.

Theorem 7.3. The group $\mathrm{Cl}(\mathcal{X})$ is generated by the irreducible components of the zero divisor of $\chi_{35}$.
The proof needs some computer calculation which rests on the following informations about the structure of $\chi_{35}$. First we recall that $\chi_{35}$ is the product

$$
\chi_{35}=\chi_{5} \cdot \chi_{30}
$$

of two forms of weight 5 and 30 , also for the full modular group but with respect to its non-trivial character. The form $\chi_{5}$ can be defined as the product of the ten theta constants. They can be produced as follows: One starts with the most trivial theta constant

$$
\vartheta[0](Z)=\sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}} e^{\pi \mathrm{i} Z[g]}
$$

and applies the full modular group to it. This gives 10 modular forms. Their product is $\chi_{5}$ (up to a constant factor). It can be checked that all 10 theta constants are modular forms for $\Gamma^{\prime}$ (with multipliers). Therefore their zero sets define divisors in $\mathcal{X}$. The form $\chi_{30}$ can be constructed in a similar way.

Lemma 7.4. If on applies the full modular group to $X_{0}=\vartheta[0](2 Z)$, on gets (up to constant factors) 60 modular forms (living on $\Gamma_{2}[2,4]$, all with the same multipliers). Their product up to a constant is $\chi_{30}$. Examples of forms in the orbit are

$$
\vartheta[0](Z / 2) \quad \text { and } \quad X_{0}, X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3} .
$$

The 60 modular forms can be written as linear combinations of $X_{0}, \ldots, X_{3}$.
The last statement is true, since the full modular group acts on the space generated by $X_{0}, \ldots, X_{3}$. This action has been studied in detail by Runge. So far we have seen that the zero locus of $\chi_{35}$, considered on $X$, splits into the sum of 70 pairwise different divisors. But these 70 divisors need not to be irreducible. Now computer algebra comes into the game. Since we know the equations of the 70 divisors in $P^{7}(\mathbb{C})$, we can decompose them into irreducibles by using the facility of computer algebra to compute the primary decomposition of an ideal. We have to be a little careful, since computer algebra works well not over $\mathbb{C}$ but only over a finitely generated field. Hence we have to use a number field $K$. We use $K=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{8}\right)$, where $\zeta_{8}$ is a primitive $8^{\text {th }}$ root of unity. We got the following result using MAGMA [2]:

Proposition 7.5. We consider $X$ as variety over $K=\mathbb{Q}\left(\zeta_{8}\right)$ (using the equations of van Geemen and Nygaard). The zero locus of $\chi_{35}$ is defined over this field. It splits over $K$ into 132 irreducible components. More precisely we have: 1) The theta constants $Y_{0}, Y_{1}, Y_{2}, Y_{3}$ have irreducible divisors. The zero locus of each of the remaining 6 theta constants decompose into two irreducibles. Hence $\chi_{5}$ contributes
with $16=4+2 \cdot 6$ irreducible components. 2) The forms $X_{0}, X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}$ have irreducible divisors. The other 56 factors of $\chi_{30}$ decompose into pairs of irreducibles. Hence $\chi_{30}$ contributes with $116=4+2 \cdot 56$ irreducible components.
We conjecture that these 132 components are irreducible over $\mathbb{C}$. But there was no need for us to check this. The proof of 7.3 now can be given as follows. Using Poincarè duality it is sufficient to construct a system of curves $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{m}$, which are complete and contained in the regular locus of $X$ (i.e. they don't contain one of the 96 nodes) and such that the intersection matrix between the 132 divisors and these curves has rank 32. The construction of these curves can be given (again by means of a computer) as follows: Take pairwise intersections of the 132 divisors above, decompose them into irreducibles and single out those components, which don't contain nodes. In this way 7.3 can be proved. This explicit description of the divisor class group allows us to describe the action of the group $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$ on it. The group $\mathcal{G}$ acts in a natural way on the ring $\mathbb{C}\left[Y_{0}, \ldots, Y_{3}, X_{0}, \ldots, X_{4}\right]$ and on its ideals. Hence we can describe the action of $\mathcal{G}$ on $\mathrm{Cl}(\mathcal{X})$ explicitly. Of course $\mathcal{Z}$ acts trivially. Using the ismomorphism $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2] / \Gamma^{\prime} \cong \mathcal{G} / \mathcal{Z}$ we get the action of $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$ on $\mathrm{Cl}(\mathcal{X})$. Using the character table for $\mathcal{G} / \mathcal{Z}$ which can be produced by computer algebra, we get the decomposition into irreducibles.
Theorem 7.6. The space $\operatorname{Cl}(\mathcal{X}) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}$ decomposes under $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$ into four irreducible components of dimensions $1,3,12,16$.
These numbers can be explained as follows:

1) The 1-dimensional component comes from the divisor of a modular form.
2) The 3 -dimensional space comes from the components of the 6 theta constants, which are different from $Y_{0}, \ldots, Y_{3}$.
3) The 56 factors of $\chi_{30}$, which are different from $X_{0}, \ldots, X_{3}$ decompose under $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}$ [2] into two orbits of 24 and 32 elements. Their irreducible components produce the spaces of dimension 12 and 16.

This explicit picture of the action of $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$ on $\mathrm{Cl}(\mathcal{X})$ allows to compute the number $\operatorname{cl}(\Gamma)$ for every group $\Gamma$ between $\Gamma^{\prime}$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$ and this can be done by means of a program.

## 8. Involutions

As we have seen, the group $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2] / \Gamma^{\prime} \cong \mathcal{G} / \mathcal{Z}$ has order $24576=2^{13} \cdot 3$. We are interested in its subgroups of order two. One can compute that there are 18 conjugacy classes of such subgroups, and one can show that 10 of them are in the image of $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. In the following we list them. There are two possibilities to define such a group. We could describe it by an element $M \in \hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]$, such that the image of $M$ in $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2] / \Gamma^{\prime}$ generates the group. In the case $M \in \Gamma_{2,0}[2]$ it is enough to consider its image in $\operatorname{Sp}(2, \mathbb{Z} / 8 \mathbb{Z})$, since $\Gamma^{\prime}$ contains $\Gamma_{2}[8]$. The other possibility is
to give a matrix $g \in \mathcal{G}$ such that its image in $\mathcal{G} / \mathcal{Z}$ generates the subgroup of $\mathcal{G} / \mathcal{Z}$. Such a $g$ is determined up to a power of i . We give the 10 groups the names $\mathcal{G 2} \mathrm{i}$, $1 \leq i \leq 10$.

Group $92 \_1\left(\begin{array}{cccc}3 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\right) \quad\left(Y_{0}, Y_{1}, Y_{2}, Y_{3},-X_{0},-X_{1},-X_{2},-X_{3}\right)$
Group $92 \_2\left(\begin{array}{llll}5 & 2 & 6 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 6 \\ 4 & 4 & 1 & 6 \\ 4 & 4 & 6 & 5\end{array}\right) \quad\left(Y_{0},-Y_{1},-Y_{2}, Y_{3}, X_{0},-X_{1},-X_{2}, X_{3}\right)$
Group $\mathcal{G} 2 \_3\left(\begin{array}{cccc}1 & 0 & 2 & 6 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\right) \quad\left(Y_{0}, Y_{1}, Y_{2}, Y_{3}, X_{0},-X_{1},-X_{2}, X_{3}\right)$
Group $\mathcal{G} 2 \_4\left(\begin{array}{cccc}3 & 6 & 4 & 2 \\ 4 & 7 & 6 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 4 & 2 & 7\end{array}\right) \quad\left(-Y_{0},-Y_{1}, Y_{2}, Y_{3}, X_{0}, X_{1},-X_{2},-X_{3}\right)$
Group S2_5 $\left(\begin{array}{llll}3 & 2 & 6 & 7 \\ 2 & 3 & 7 & 2 \\ 4 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 & 1\end{array}\right) \quad\left(-Y_{0},-Y_{1},-Y_{2}, Y_{3}, X_{0}, X_{1}, X_{2},-X_{3}\right)$
Group $\operatorname{\text {G2_6}}\left(\begin{array}{cccc}5 & 2 & 6 & 7 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 6 & 4 & 6 & 5\end{array}\right) \quad\left(-Y_{0},-Y_{1},-Y_{2}, Y_{3},-X_{0},-X_{1},-X_{2}, X_{3}\right)$
Group $\mathcal{G} 2_{-} 7\left(\begin{array}{cccc}7 & 4 & 7 & 6 \\ 0 & 7 & 2 & 3 \\ 6 & 4 & 5 & 0 \\ 4 & 6 & 4 & 5\end{array}\right) \quad\left(-Y_{3},-\mathrm{i} Y_{2},-\mathrm{i} Y_{1}, Y_{0}, X_{3}, \mathrm{i} X_{2}, \mathrm{i} X_{1},-X_{0}\right)$
Group $\mathcal{G} 2 \_8\left(\begin{array}{llll}3 & 7 & 5 & 2 \\ 6 & 1 & 2 & 6 \\ 0 & 6 & 1 & 6 \\ 2 & 0 & 7 & 3\end{array}\right) \quad\left(-Y_{1}, Y_{0},-\mathrm{i} Y_{2},-\mathrm{i} Y_{3}, X_{2},-\mathrm{i} X_{1},-X_{0}, \mathrm{i} X_{3}\right)$

Group $\operatorname{G2\_ 9}\left(\begin{array}{cccc}1 & 0 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 7\end{array}\right) \quad\left(-\mathrm{i} Y_{1}, Y_{0},-\mathrm{i} Y_{3}, Y_{2}, X_{1},-\mathrm{i} X_{0}, X_{3},-\mathrm{i} X_{2}\right)$
Group $\mathcal{G} 2 \_10$ Fricke involution $\sqrt{2} \cdot\left(X_{0}, X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, Y_{0} / 2, Y_{1} / 2, Y_{2} / 2, Y_{3} / 2\right)$

Proposition 8.1. The following table gives the divisor class numbers $\operatorname{cl}(\Gamma)$ for the groups $\Gamma$ corresponding to the groups $\mathcal{G} 2 \_i, 1 \leq i \leq 10$, and the dimension of the fixed point locus of the generating involution in each case. (Dimension -1 means that the locus is empty.)
divisor class number $\quad 16241616162020161618$
dimension
$-1 \begin{array}{lllllllll}-1 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1\end{array} 1$
We want to compute the divisor class and Euler number for a crepant resolution. The numbers of a small resolution $\tilde{X}$ of $\mathcal{X}$ are [12], [4]

$$
e=64, \quad \mathrm{cl}=32
$$

As we mentioned, there exist projective and non-projective resolutions. Each projective resolution is a rigid Calabi-Yau manifold.

Lemma 8.2. The action of the groups $\mathcal{G 2} i$ extends to a suitable crepant desingularization $\tilde{X}$ (which needs not to be projective and may depend on i).
The proof rests on Lemma 6.8. We omit details.
Each of the groups $\mathcal{G} 2 \_i$ is generated by an involution $\sigma_{i}$. We need information by the fixed point locus. It can be checked that there is no component of dimension two. We also know that the Calabi-Yau 3-form is invariant under $\sigma_{i}$. This implies that the action of $\sigma_{i}$ on the tangent space of a fixed point can be diagonalized with diagonal $(-1,-1,1)$. Since $\tilde{X} \rightarrow \tilde{X} / \mathcal{G} 2_{-} i$ is a covering of degree two, we obtain that the irreducible components of the singular locus of $\tilde{X} / \mathcal{G} 2 \_i$ are one-to-one correspondence with the irreducible components of the fix point set of $\sigma_{i}$, acting on $\tilde{X}$.

Lemma 8.3. The fixed point locus of $\sigma_{i}$ on $\tilde{X}$ is the disjoint union of smooth curves. They are in one to one correspondence with the irreducible components of the fixed point locus on $\tilde{X}$.
The fixed point locus on $X$ consists of curves and isolated points which are nodes. If a node occurs as isolated fixed point, then the exceptional line over it is in the fixed point locus on $\tilde{X}$. As a consequence the number of irreducible components of the fixed point locus of $\sigma_{i}$ acting on $X$ and $\tilde{X}$ is the same. We claim that in a crepant resolution over each component of the singular locus of $\tilde{X} / \mathcal{G} 2 \_i$ there is only one exceptional divisor. This follows from the local description of the involution. Locally around a fixed point, it can be described by $\left(w_{1}, w_{2}, w_{3}\right) \mapsto\left(-w_{1},-w_{2}, w_{3}\right)$. The crepant resolution of the quotient of $\mathbb{C}^{3}$ by this involution is easy to describe
(we did it in [7]) and one sees from this description that the exceptional divisor is smooth and connected. From 7.2 we obtain the following lemma.

Lemma 8.4. The divisor class number of a crepant resolution of $X / \mathcal{G} 2 \_i$ equals the sum of the divisor class number of $X / \mathcal{G} 2 \_i$ (see 8.1) and the number of irreducible components of the fixed point locus of $\sigma_{i}$ (considered in $\mathcal{X}$ is enough).
We also have to compute the Euler number of a crepant resolution of $\mathbb{X} / \mathcal{G} 2 \_i$. This is given by the string theoretic Euler number $e\left(\tilde{X}, \mathcal{G} 2 \_i\right)$. We refer to $[14,13]$ for some comments about this. We recall the definition of $e(M, G)$. Here $G$ is a finite group acting on a compact differentiable manifold $M$. One has to consider the subset of $G \times G$ of all commuting pairs $(g, h)$. Then the string theoretic Euler number is defined as

$$
e(M, G)=\frac{1}{\# G} \sum_{g h=h g} e\left(M^{\langle g, h\rangle}\right)
$$

Here $M^{\langle g, h\rangle}$ denotes the common fixed point set of $g, h$. The string theoretic Euler number has the following basic property. Assume that $M$ is a weak Calabi Yau manifold and that $G$ acts by biholomorphic transformations which leave the CalabiYau 3-form invariant. Assume that for $a \in M$ the stabilizer $G_{a}$ acts on the tangent space as subgroup of the special linear group. Then there exists a crepant desingularization of $M / G$ and for each such desingularization its usual Euler number is $e(M, G)$. We apply this formula in the case, where the order of $G$ is two. There are 4 commuting pairs $(e, e),(\sigma, e),(e, \sigma),(\sigma, \sigma)$.
Lemma 8.5. The Euler number of a crepant resolution of $\tilde{X} / \mathcal{G} 2 \_i$ is

$$
e=32+\frac{3}{2} \sum_{C} e(C)
$$

where $C$ runs through the components of the fixed point locus of $\sigma_{i}$ in $\tilde{X}$.
The fixed point sets are easy to determine. The involution can be considered as a linear transformation $A: \mathbb{C}^{8} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{8}$, where $A^{2}=a E$. We want to consider the fixed point locus of $A$ on $P^{7}(\mathbb{C})$. It corresponds to the eigenspaces of $A$. The possible eigenvalues are the two square roots of $a$. We denote the two eigenspaces by $V^{+}$ and $V^{-}$. Hence $\mathbb{C}^{8}=V^{+} \oplus V^{-}$. The projective spaces $P\left(V^{+}\right)$and $P\left(V^{-}\right)$are two disjoint linear subspaces of $P^{7}(\mathbb{C})=P\left(\mathbb{C}^{8}\right)$. To get the fixed point set of $A$ inside the variety $X$ we have to intersect this variety with the two linear subspaces. Hence the fixed point set inside $X$ is the disjoint union of two parts, where each of the parts can be empty of course. Following these lines one gets:

Proposition 8.6. The following table describes fixed point sets of the involutions $\sigma_{i}, i \leq i \leq 11$, on $X$ and the divisor class and Euler numbers of a weak Calabi-Yau model of the quotient $X / \mathcal{G} 2 \_i$.

|  | fixed points | cl |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |$e$

The equations for the fixed point loci can be given explicitly. We just give as an example the 4 elliptic curves which describe the fixed point locus of $\sigma_{3}$ : They are described by the following 4 ideals:

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
\left(Y_{0}+Y_{1},\right. & Y_{2}+Y_{3}, & X_{1}, & X_{3}, & Y_{1}^{2}-X_{0}^{2}-X_{2}^{2}, & \left.Y_{3}^{2}-X_{0}^{2}+X_{2}^{2}\right) \\
\left(Y_{0}+Y_{1},\right. & Y_{2}-Y_{3}, & X_{1}, & X_{3}, & Y_{1}^{2}-X_{0}^{2}-X_{2}^{2}, & \left.Y_{3}^{2}-X_{0}^{2}+X_{2}^{2}\right) \\
\left(Y_{0}-Y_{1},\right. & Y_{2}+Y_{3}, & X_{1}, & X_{3}, & Y_{1}^{2}-X_{0}^{2}-X_{2}^{2}, & \left.Y_{3}^{2}-X_{0}^{2}+X_{2}^{2}\right), \\
\left(Y_{0}-Y_{1},\right. & Y_{2}-Y_{3}, & X_{1}, & X_{3}, & Y_{1}^{2}-X_{0}^{2}-X_{2}^{2}, & \left.Y_{3}^{2}-X_{0}^{2}+X_{2}^{2}\right) .
\end{array}
$$

## 9. Projectivity

It is usually not possible to get a projective Calabi-Yau model for $X(\Gamma)$. For example one can show that there are groups $\Gamma$ such that $G=\Gamma / \Gamma^{\prime}$ acts freely and has order 32. As van Geemen pointed out to the authors, it is not possible to get a projective Calabi-Yau model in this case. We sketch the proof. Since $X / G$ has only 3 nodes as singularities, the only way to produce a projective Calabi-Yau model is to blow up a suitable divisor in $X / G$. This divisor defines an $G$-invariant element of $\operatorname{Cl}(X)$. But it can be shown that $\operatorname{dim} \operatorname{Cl}(X)^{G} \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}=1$. This implies that a multiple of this divisor is Cartier close to each node. But then the blow up would be trivial. In 4.1 we introduced the group $\mathcal{G}$ which can be considered as a subgroup of $\operatorname{GL}(8, \mathbb{C})$. Its image in $\operatorname{PGL}(8, \mathbb{C})$ is denoted by $\overline{\mathcal{G}}$. It can be identified with the group $\mathcal{G} / \mathcal{Z}$ where $\mathcal{Z}$ is the group of order 4 generated by multiplication with i. We have subgroups $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{G}$ and $\overline{\mathcal{H}} \subset \overline{\mathcal{G}}$ of index 2 that correspond to the group $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$. The Calabi-Yau three form is invariant under $\overline{\mathcal{H}}$. The transformation

$$
\left(Y_{0}, \ldots, X_{3}\right) \longmapsto\left(Y_{0},-Y_{1}, Y_{2},-Y_{3}, X_{0}-X_{1},-X_{2},-X_{3}\right)
$$

is contained in $\mathcal{H}$. It has the property that it fixes the standard node and that that it acts in the introduced coordinates $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{4}\right)$ (introduced after 5.2) just by changing the sign. We consider the smallest normal subgroup $\mathcal{C}$ of $\mathcal{H}$ that contains this element and $\mathcal{Z}$. We denote it in image in $\overline{\mathcal{H}}$ by $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$.

Lemma 9.1. The group $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$ is isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{3}$. It is generated by the (images of) the sign changes of the variables $\left(Y_{0}, \ldots, X_{3}\right)$ by the following three sign vectors:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& ++++---- \\
& -++-+--+ \\
& -+-+--++
\end{aligned}
$$

For six elements $g \in \overline{\mathcal{C}}$ the fixed point set of $g$ consist of 16 nodes. These sets of 16 nodes are pairwise disjoint. Hence every node occurs once. One element of $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$ (given by the first one of the above three) has no fixed point at all. Hence the order of the stabilizer in $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$ of any node is two.
The proof is given by an easy calculation and omitted. Now we consider the blow up of the nodes of $X$ (not a minimal resolution)

$$
\hat{x} \longrightarrow x
$$

So $\hat{X}$ has 96 exceptional divisors that are biholomorphic equivalent to $P^{1} \mathbb{C} \times P^{1} \mathbb{C}$. This is not a Calabi-Yau manifold since the Calabi-Yau three form gets a zero (of order 1) along each exceptional divisor. The action of $\overline{\mathcal{G}}$ extends to $\hat{X}$. The group $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$ acts fixed point free outside the exceptional divisors. The action on the exceptional divisors is easy to describe. We did it already during the proof of 6.6 (case 2). The fact is that an element $g \in \overline{\mathcal{C}}$ which fixes a node acts as identity on the exceptional divisor. Hence the quotient $\hat{X} / \overline{\mathcal{C}}$ is smooth and the zero of the three form disappears on the quotient. So we get:
Theorem 9.2. The quotient variety $\hat{X} / \overline{\mathcal{C}}$ is a (smooth projective) Calabi-Yau manifold.
We also can consider the corresponding modular group $\Gamma^{\prime \prime}$.

$$
\Gamma^{\prime} \subset \Gamma^{\prime \prime} \subset \hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}
$$

The index of $\Gamma^{\prime}$ in $\Gamma^{\prime \prime}$ is 8 . Actually one has

$$
\Gamma_{2,0, \vartheta}[4] \cap \Gamma_{2}[2,4] \subset \Gamma^{\prime \prime} \subset \Gamma_{2,0}[4] \cap \Gamma_{2}[2]
$$

and both indexes are 4 . One can check:
Remark 9.3. The group $\Gamma^{\prime \prime}$ is generated by $\Gamma_{2,0, \vartheta}[4] \cap \Gamma_{2}[2,4]$ and by the two elements

$$
\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 4 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \quad\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\
4 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Using the theory of crepant resolutions of quotient singularities, we get.

Corollary 9.4. For any group $\Gamma$ between $\Gamma^{\prime \prime}$ and $\hat{\Gamma}_{2,0}[2]_{\mathfrak{n}}$ the variety $X(\Gamma)$ admits a projective Calabi-Yau model.
We compute the Hodge numbers of $\hat{X} / \overline{\mathrm{C}}$. Using the decomposition described in 7.6 one gets 16 as the divisor class number of the complement of the nodes of $\mathcal{X} / \overline{\mathrm{C}}$. There are $96 / 4$ exceptional divisors. Therefore we get $16+96 / 4=40$ as the Pi card number of the Calabi-Yau manifold $\hat{X} / \overline{\mathrm{C}}$. To compute the Euler number we start with the Euler number of $X$. This -32 by [12]. Hence the Euler number of the complement of the 96 nodes is -128 . The quotient of the complement by the freely acting $\overline{\mathcal{C}}$ has Euler number $-128 / 8=-16$. We have to add $96 / 4=24$ exceptional divisors of type $P^{1} \times P^{1}$. Hence the Euler number of $\hat{X} / \bar{\complement}$ computes as $-16+24 \cdot 4=80$. So we get:

Proposition 9.5. The Siegel modular variety $X\left(\Gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)$ has a projective Calabi-Yau model $\hat{X} / \overline{\mathrm{C}}$ that is rigid and has Hodge numbers $h^{11}=40, h^{12}=0 \quad(e=80)$.

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