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GROUPS IN WHICH RAISING TO A POWER
IS AN AUTOMORPHISM

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For any group G and integer n , let $P_n: G \rightarrow G$ be the function defined by $P_n(g) = g^n$ for all $g \in G$. If G is abelian then P_n is a homomorphism for all n . Conversely, it is well known (and easy to show) that if P_2 or P_{-1} is a homomorphism then G is abelian. As the groups G_n described below show, for every n other than 2 and -1 there exist non-abelian groups for which P_n is a homomorphism.

In this note we derive some elementary consequences of the assumption that P_n is an automorphism for some particular value of n . One somewhat surprising result is that P_3 can be an automorphism only if G is abelian.

We begin with some simple lemmas. Let $H(G)$ be the set of integers n such that P_n is a homomorphism of G , and $A(G)$ the set of integers such that P_n is an automorphism of G . Since the composition of P_n and P_m is P_{mn} we have

(1) If $m, n \in H(G)$ then $mn \in H(G)$.

If $m \in A(G)$ then the identity $P_{mn} = P_m P_n$ may be multiplied by P_m^{-1} to give $P_n = P_m^{-1} P_{mn}$. Writing q for mn , this gives

(2) If $m \in A(G)$, $q \in H(G)$ and m divides q , then $q/m \in H(G)$.

We have $n \in H(G)$ if and only if $h^n g^n = (hg)^n$ for all $h, g \in G$. Setting $h = x^{-1}$, $g = y^{-1}$, so that $hg = (yx)^{-1}$, converts this identity into $x^{-n} y^{-n} = (yx)^{-n}$. Premultiplication by x and postmultiplication by y gives $x^{1-n} y^{1-n} = (xy)^{1-n}$. Therefore

(3) If $n \in H(G)$ then $1-n \in H(G)$.

Now suppose $n \in A(G)$. By (3), $1-n \in H(G)$, and hence by (1), $(1-n)^2 \in H(G)$. By (3) again, $1 - (1-n)^2 = 2n - n^2 \in H(G)$, and by (2), $2-n \in H(G)$. A final application of (3) gives $n-1 \in H(G)$ and we have proved

(4) If $n \in A(G)$ then $n-1 \in H(G)$.

COROLLARY. If P_3 is an automorphism then G is abelian (since P_2 is a homomorphism).

LEMMA. If both n and $n+1$ are in $H(G)$, then $k \in H(G)$ implies $k' \in H(G)$ for all $k' \equiv k \pmod{n}$.

Proof: By assumption, $g^{n+1} h^{n+1} = (gh)^{n+1} = (gh)^n gh = g^n h^n gh$ for all $g, h \in G$. Cancelling g^n on the left and h on the right gives $gh^n = h^n g$, which shows that all n -th powers are in the centre of G . Now suppose $g^k h^k = (gh)^k$ and let r be any integer. We have $g^{k+nr} h^{k+nr} = g^k h^k (g^n h^n)^r = (gh)^k ((gh)^n)^r = (gh)^{k+nr}$, using the facts that h^n, g^n are in the centre of G and that $n \in H(G)$.

THEOREM. If $n+1 \in A(G)$ then $H(G)$ consists of the union of congruence classes modulo n , and contains at least all integers congruent to 0 or 1 modulo n .

Proof: By (4) (with $n+1$ in place of n) the hypothesis of the lemma is satisfied. Obviously 0 and 1 are in $H(G)$ for any group G .

A sequence of examples G_n with $n+1 \in A(G_n)$ which exhibits some non-trivial possibilities for the set $H(G)$ may be defined as follows. The elements of G_n are triples (x, y, z) of integers modulo n (so G_n has order n^3) and multiplication is defined by $(x, y, z)(x', y', z') = (x+x', y+y', z+z' + 2xy')$. The group is non-abelian for $n > 2$. An easy induction shows that $(x, y, z)^k = (kx, ky, kz + k(k-1)xy)$. Thus P_{n+1} is the identity map and $n+1 \in A(G_n)$. Direct calculation shows that $k \in H(G_n)$ if and only if $k(k-1)$ is divisible by n , which is consistent with the conclusion of the theorem.

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