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SQUARE ROOTS OF FINITE GROUPS – II

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Square Roots of Finite Groups — II

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Abstract

A subset R of a finite group G is a square root of G if $R^2 = G$. If R is a square root of G for which $|R|^2 = |G|$, then R is referred to as a perfect square root of G . It can be shown using character theory that perfect square roots do not exist. The purpose of this paper is to work toward an elementary proof of this result.

1 Introduction

A subset R of a finite group G is a **square root** of G if $R^2 = G$. If R is a square root of G for which $|R|^2 = |G|$, then R is referred to as a **perfect square root** of G . Dimovski [2] has shown, using character theory, that no finite (non-trivial) group can have a perfect m -th root for $m \geq 2$. The purpose of this technical report is to continue the search, begun by Abhyankar and Grossman [1], for an elementary proof that perfect square roots do not exist.

2 Facts About Groups With Perfect Square Roots

Throughout this section R denotes a perfect square root of the finite group G .

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Fact 1 *Let $a, b, c, d \in R$. If $a \neq c$ and $b \neq d$, then $ab \neq cd$.*

PROOF: If $ab = cd$, then $|R^2| < |R|^2$ and $R^2 \neq G$; i.e., there can be no 'repeated products' in R^2 .

Fact 2 *Let $a, b \in R$. If $a \neq b$, then a is not in the centralizer of b .*

PROOF: If a is in the centralizer of b , then there is a repeated product in R^2 : $ab = ba$.

The next three facts are immediate corollaries of Fact 2.

Fact 3 *The intersection of R with the center of G is trivial. In particular, the identity is not in R .*

Fact 4 *If $a, a^{-1} \in R$, then $a = a^{-1}$.*

Fact 5 *R contains a unique involution.*

PROOF: Since $1 \in R^2$, there exist $x, y \in R$ such that $xy = 1$; i.e., $x = y^{-1}$. It follows from Fact 4 that $x = y$, so x is an involution. If R contains two involutions a and b , then R^2 contains the repeated product $aa = bb$.

Fact 6 *The order G is divisible by 36.*

PROOF: It suffices to show that $2 \mid |G|$ and $3 \mid |G|$ because $|G|$ is a perfect square and 2 and 3 are distinct primes. That $2 \mid |G|$ follows from Fact 5.

To show that $3 \mid |G|$, first note that for all $x, y, z \in G$,

$$xyz = 1 \Leftrightarrow yzx = 1 \Leftrightarrow zxy = 1.$$

Now consider

$$P = \{\{a, b, c\} \subseteq R \mid abc = 1\}.$$

- $\emptyset \notin P$
- Let $a \in R$ be given. Since R is a square root, there exist $b, c \in R$ such that $bc = a^{-1}$. Then $abc = 1$, $\{a, b, c\} \in P$, and $a \in \bigcup_{X \in P} X$. Since $a \in R$ was arbitrary, $R \subseteq \bigcup_{X \in P} X$.
- Let $X = \{a, b, c\}, Y = \{a, d, f\} \in P$ be such that $X \cap Y \neq \emptyset$. We may assume without loss of generality that $abc = 1 = adf$. But then $bc = a^{-1} = df$. By Fact 1, we may conclude that $b = d$ and $c = f$. Thus $X = Y$.

These three points imply that P is a partition of R . Now, suppose that there exists $\{a, b\} \in P$ (so, $c = a$ or $c = b$). We may assume that $aba = 1$. Then $ab = a^{-1} = ba$, and by Fact 1, we conclude that $a = b$. Therefore, each element of P has cardinality one or three. If all elements of P have 3 elements, then $3 \mid |R|$ and therefore $3 \mid |G|$. If there exists $\{a\} \in P$, then $a^3 = 1$; i.e. $3 \mid |G|$.

As a corollary to this fact we have

Fact 7 *No p -group has a perfect square root.*

Fact 8 *The number of elements of order four in R is odd.*

PROOF: Consider $I = \{a \in G \mid a^2 = 1\}$. The cardinality of I is even because $|G|$ is even and $|G - I|$ is even (each element may be paired with its distinct inverse). Now, for all $a, b \in R$, $ab \in I$ implies $ba \in I$, since ab and ba have the same order. There is exactly one element of order 2 in R and this element squared will yield an element in I . All products of distinct $a, b \in R$ will yield either 0 or 2 elements of I . Therefore, there must be an odd number of elements $c \in R$ such that $c^2 \in I$. Each of these elements has order 4.

Fact 9 *If $a \in G - 1$, then $Ra \cap R = \emptyset$ or $aR \cap R = \emptyset$.*

PROOF: Let $a \in G$ be given and assume that $Ra \cap R \neq \emptyset$ and $aR \cap R \neq \emptyset$. Then there exist $b, c \in R$ such that $ba \in R$ and $ac \in R$. Now put $x = ba$, $y = ac$ and observe that $bac = by = xc$. By Fact 1 we conclude that $b = x$ and that $y = c$. Thus $b = x = ba$, and we find that $a = 1$. Since $a \in G$ was arbitrary, we have the desired result.

In a similar way it can be shown that;

- i) if $a \in G - 1$, $Ra \cap R = \emptyset$ or $a^{-1}R \cap R = \emptyset$,
- ii) if $a \in G - 1$, $aR \cap R = \emptyset$ or $Ra^{-1} \cap R = \emptyset$.

Fact 10 For $g \in G$, gRg^{-1} is a perfect square root of G .

PROOF: $(gRg^{-1})(gRg^{-1}) = gR^2g^{-1} = gGg^{-1} = G$.

Fact 11 For $a \in R$, $aRa^{-1} \cap R = \{a\}$.

PROOF: First, $a \in aRa^{-1} \cap R$ since $aaa^{-1} = a$. Second, if $b \in R$ and $b \in aRa^{-1}$ then $b = ara^{-1}$ for some $r \in R$. This would imply that $ba = ar$ for some $a, b, r \in R$ which would contradict the fact that R is a perfect square root (since $ba = ar$ would be a repeated product). Thus a is the only element in $aRa^{-1} \cap R$.

Fact 12 If G has a perfect square root R , then it has at least $|R|$ perfect square roots.

PROOF: For $a, b \in R$, $aRa^{-1} = bRb^{-1}$ implies that $R = a^{-1}bR(a^{-1}b)^{-1}$. But $R \cap a^{-1}bR(a^{-1}b)^{-1} = \{a^{-1}b\}$. Thus all conjugates of R by elements of R are different.

Fact 13 The set $\{aR : a \in R\}$ partitions G .

PROOF: For $g \in G$, there is a unique $\{a, r\} \subseteq R$ such that $g = ar$; i.e., $g \in aR$. If $g \in aR \cap bR$, then $g = ar_1 = br_2$ and R is not a perfect square root.

Fact 14 $RR^{-1} = \{a \in G \mid aR \cap R \neq \emptyset\}$ and $R^{-1}R = \{a \in G \mid Ra \cap R \neq \emptyset\}$

PROOF: Let $r \in RR^{-1}$ be given. Then there exist $x, y \in R$ such that $xy^{-1} = r$, and $ry = x$. Thus $rR \cap R \neq \emptyset$. Now, let $a \in \{a \in G \mid aR \cap R \neq \emptyset\}$ be given. Then there exist $x, y \in R$ such that $ay = x$ and $a = xy^{-1}$. Thus $a \in RR^{-1}$. The second result is analagous.

Fact 15 *If G and H have perfect square roots, then $G \times H$ has a perfect square root.*

PROOF: Say that R and S are perfect square roots of G and H respectively. Then $R \times S$ is a perfect square root of $G \times H$ because $(R \times S)^2 = R^2 \times S^2 = G \times H$ and $|G \times H| = |R \times S|^2$.

3 Small Square Roots

It is natural to ask for square roots which are as small as possible. For example, a square root of S_4 must have cardinality at least five. Does such a square root exist?

Fact 16 *There are 96 square roots of S_4 of cardinality 5.*

The fact which was established by computer (using Cayley, Magma, and C) raises the following question:

Is it possible to find a sequence of square roots $\{T_n\}$ such that $T_n^2 = S_n$ and $|T_n|/\sqrt{n!} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$?

Related results for cyclic and dihedral groups follow.

Fact 17 *There exists a sequence of cyclic groups $\{C_{i;2}\}$ and a sequence of square roots $\{T_{i;2}\}$ of these cyclic groups such that $|T_{i;2}|/i \leq 2$ for each positive integer i .*

PROOF: Consider $C_{i;j}$. One square root of $C_{i;j}$ is $\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{i-1}, x^i, x^{2i}, x^{3i}, \dots, x^{ji}\}$.

There are $j + i$ elements in this root. To maximize the ratio, let $j = i$.

Fact 18 *There exists a sequence of dihedral groups $\{D_{4i^2}\}$ and a sequence of roots of those groups $\{T_{4i^2}\}$ such that $|T_{4i^2}|/2\sqrt{2}i \leq \sqrt{2}$.*

PROOF: Consider $D_{i,j}$. One square root of $D_{i,j}$ is

$$\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{i-1}, y, yx, yx^2, yx^3, \dots, yx^{i-1}, yx^i, yx^{2i}, yx^{3i}, \dots, yx^{ji}\}$$

This root has $(2j + i)$ elements. To maximize the ratio, let $i = 2j$.

4 An upper bound on the cardinality of non-square roots

Fact 19 *Let T be a subset of a group G . If $|T| > |G|/2$, then $T^2 = G$.*

PROOF: Our strategy is to find subsets whose squares do not contain an element $x \in G$.

We will see that such a subset's size must be less than half the size of the group. To do this, we associate to each $x \in G$ a graph of G . Notice that for $a \in G$, there is a unique $b \in G$ such that $ab = x$, there is a unique c such that $bc = x$, and so on:

$$ab = x$$

$$bc = x$$

$$\vdots$$

$$fa = x$$

The list of elements a, b, c, \dots, f, \dots must cycle since G is finite: if $fb = x$, then $a = f$ since we already have $ab = x$. Each element of G belongs to exactly one of these 'cycles' and this set of cycles is the 'graph of G associated with x .' If a subset R contains a pair of

adjacent elements in a cycle, then R^2 contains x ($ab = x$). If R contains any element in a one-cycle, then R^2 contains x as well ($g^2 = x$).

If $|R| > |G|/2$, then R contains more than half of the elements in some cycle of the graph of G associated with x . Thus, it contains some pair of adjacent elements in a cycle or some one-cycle element which implies $x \in R^2$. This is true for all x in G , so $R^2 = G$.

Fact 20 *G has a subset R of size $|G|/2$ such that $R^2 \neq G$ if, and only if, the graph of G associated with some x in G has only even length cycles.*

PROOF: Suppose the graph of G associated with x has only even-sized cycles. We can choose alternating elements in each cycle. This will give $R \subset G$: $|R| = |G|/2$ and $x \notin R^2$. Suppose the graph of G associated with every x in G has some odd length cycle. It is impossible to choose exactly half of the elements of G without getting adjacent elements in a cycle or an element in a one-cycle.

References

- [1] Abhyankar, K. and Grossman, D. *Square roots of finite groups* Rose-Hulman Math. Tech. Report 94-03 (1994), 1-8.
- [2] Dimovski, Dončo *Groups with unique product structures* Journal of Algebra 146 (1992), 205-209.