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NONEXISTENCE OF CONTINUOUS (4,3)-GROUPS ON  $\mathbb{R}$

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Abstract. In this paper we show that continuous (4,3)-groups on  $\mathbb{R}$  do not exist.

0. Introduction. Let  $m, n, k=n-m$  be positive integers. A set  $G \neq \emptyset$  together with a map  $[ ]: G^n \rightarrow G^m$  is called an  $(n,m)$ -group if:

$$(1) \quad [[x_1^n] x_{n+1}^{n+k}] = [x_1^i [x_{i+1}^{i+n}] x_{i+n+1}^{n+k}] \text{ for each } 1 \leq i \leq k; \text{ and}$$

$$(2) \text{ For given } a_1^k, b_1^k \in G^k, c_1^m \in G^m, \text{ there exist } x_1^m, y_1^m \in G^m$$

such that  $[a_1^k x_1^m] = c_1^m = [y_1^m b_1^k]$  (see [1], where this notion was introduced). Above,  $x_1^t$  denotes the vector  $(x_1, \dots, x_t) \in G^t$ , and  $[x_1^n]$  denotes the image of  $x_1^n$  under the map  $[ ]$ . We will denote by  $\overset{t}{a}$  the vector  $(a, a, \dots, a) \in G^t$ .

We say that  $(G; [ ])$  is a continuous  $(n,m)$ -group, if:  $G$  is a topological space;  $(G; [ ])$  is an  $(n,m)$ -group; and the map  $[ ]$  is continuous, where  $G^n, G^m$  are equipped with the product topology.

If  $(G; [ ])$  is a  $(2m,m)$ -group, then  $(G^m, \bullet)$  where  $x_1^m \bullet y_1^m = [x_1^m y_1^m]$ , is a group with identity element  $\overset{m}{e}$ , for some  $e \in G$  (see [2]). We say that  $e$  is the identity of the  $(2m,m)$ -group  $(G; [ ])$ . A  $(2m,m)$ -group  $(G; [ ])$  is called a topological  $(2m,m)$ -group, if  $G$  is a topological space and  $(G^m, \bullet)$  is a topological group.

If  $(G; [ ])$  is an  $(m+1,m)$ -group, then  $(G; [ ]')$  where  $[x_1^{2m}]' = [x_1^{2m}]$ , is a  $(2m,m)$ -group, induced by  $(G; [ ])$ . So, if  $(G; [ ])$  is an  $(m+1,m)$ -group, then there exists an element  $e \in G$ , such that  $[x_1^m \overset{m}{e}] = [\overset{m}{e} x_1^m] = x_1^m$ , and moreover  $[x \overset{m}{e}] = [\overset{m}{e} x]$

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(see [3]). We say that an  $(m+1, m)$ -group is a topological  $(m+1, m)$ -group if its induced  $(2m, m)$ -group is a topological  $(2m, m)$ -group.

In [5] it was shown that continuous  $(3, 2)$ -groups on  $R$  (where  $R$  is the set of the real numbers equipped with the usual topology) do not exist, but in [4] it was shown that topological  $(4, 2)$ -groups on  $R$  do exist. The examples produced in [4] were obtained using Lie groups and Lie algebras.

In this paper we give an elementary proof that continuous  $(4, 3)$ -groups on  $R$  do not exist. Also, we will give a sketch of a proof, that topological  $(4, 3)$ -groups on  $R$  do not exist, using Lie groups and Lie algebras. Although the second result is a consequence of the first one, we include its proof, because of its method, which may be used for answering the existence question about topological  $(m+1, m)$ -groups for  $m \geq 4$ . Similar methods were used in [4].

### 1. Elementary algebraic results

We need several elementary results about  $(4, 3)$ -groups, which are in fact, special cases of more general results about  $(m+1, m)$ -groups. Let  $(G, [ \ ])$  be a  $(4, 3)$ -group, with identity element  $e \in G$ .

PROPOSITION 1. The following conditions are equivalent:

- (1)  $|G|=1$ , i.e.  $G$  has only one element;
- (2)  $[x \overset{3}{e}] = \overset{3}{e}$ , for some  $x \in G$ ;
- (3)  $[x y \overset{3}{e}] = \overset{3}{e}$ , for some  $x, y \in G$ ; and
- (4)  $[x y \overset{3}{e}] = [z \overset{3}{e}]$ , for some  $x, y, z \in G$ .

Proof. It is obvious that (1)  $\implies$  (2), (1)  $\implies$  (3) and (1)  $\implies$  (4). If  $[x \overset{3}{e}] = \overset{3}{e}$  for some  $x \in G$ , then  $xyz = [xyz \overset{3}{e}] = [x \overset{3}{e} yz] = [\overset{3}{e} yz] = [yz \overset{3}{e}] = [yzx \overset{3}{e}] = yzx$ , for each  $y, z \in G$ , implies that  $|G|=1$ ; hence (2)  $\implies$  (1). If  $[xy \overset{3}{e}] = \overset{3}{e}$  for some  $x, y \in G$ , then

$[xyxz] = [xy\overset{3}{e}xz] = [\overset{3}{e}xz] = [xz\overset{3}{e}] = [xzxy\overset{3}{e}] = [xzxy]$ , for each  $z \in G$ , implies that  $z=y$ , i.e.  $|G|=1$ ; hence (3)  $\implies$  (1). If  $[xy\overset{3}{e}] = [z\overset{3}{e}]$  for some  $x, y, z \in G$ , then  $xyz = [xyz\overset{3}{e}] = [xyxy\overset{3}{e}] = [xy\overset{3}{e}xy] = [z\overset{3}{e}xy] = zxy$ , implies that  $z=x$ , and so,  $[y\overset{3}{e}] = \overset{3}{e}$ . Hence (4)  $\implies$  (2). ■

For given  $x, y \in G$ , let  $\alpha_x \beta_x \gamma_x$ ,  $\alpha_{xy} \beta_{xy} \gamma_{xy}$  denote the vectors  $[x\overset{3}{e}]$  and  $[xy\overset{3}{e}]$  respectively.

PROPOSITION 2. The following conditions are equivalent:

- (1)  $|G|=1$ ;
- (2)  $\alpha_x = x$  or  $\gamma_x = x$  for some  $x \in G$ ;
- (3)  $\alpha_x = \gamma_y$  for some  $x, y \in G$ ;
- (4)  $\alpha_{xy} = x$  or  $\gamma_{xy} = y$  for some  $x, y \in G$ ;
- (5)  $\alpha_x \beta_x = \beta_y \gamma_y$  for some  $x, y \in G$ ;
- (6)  $\alpha_{xy} \beta_{xy} = \beta_{zt} \gamma_{zt}$  for some  $x, y, z, t \in G$ ;
- (7)  $\alpha_x \beta_x = \alpha_{xy} \beta_{xy}$  or  $\beta_x \gamma_x = \beta_{yx} \gamma_{yx}$  for some  $x, y \in G$ .

Proof. It is obvious that (1)  $\implies$  (k) for each  $k=2, \dots, 7$ . If  $\alpha_x = x$  or  $\gamma_x = x$ , then  $[\beta_x \gamma_x \overset{3}{e}] = \overset{3}{e}$  or  $[\alpha_x \beta_x \overset{3}{e}] = \overset{3}{e}$ , which implies that  $|G|=1$ , by P.1; hence (2)  $\implies$  (1). If  $\alpha_x = \gamma_y$ , then  $\alpha_y \beta_y x = [\alpha_y \beta_y x \overset{3}{e}] = [\alpha_y \beta_y \alpha_x \beta_x \gamma_x] = [\alpha_y \beta_y \gamma_y \beta_x \gamma_x] = [y \overset{3}{e} \beta_x \gamma_x] = y \beta_x \gamma_x$ , implies that  $x = \gamma_x$ ; hence (3)  $\implies$  (2). If  $\alpha_{xy} = x$  or  $\gamma_{xy} = y$ , then  $[\beta_{xy} \gamma_{xy} \overset{3}{e}] = [y \overset{3}{e}]$  or  $[\alpha_{xy} \beta_{xy} \overset{3}{e}] = [x \overset{3}{e}]$ , which implies that  $|G|=1$  by P.1; hence (4)  $\implies$  (1). If  $\alpha_x \beta_x = \beta_y \gamma_y$ , then  $[\alpha_y x \overset{3}{e}] = [\alpha_y \alpha_x \beta_x \gamma_x] = [\alpha_y \beta_y \gamma_y \gamma_x] = [y \overset{3}{e} \gamma_x] = [y \gamma_x \overset{3}{e}]$  implies that  $x = \gamma_x$ ; hence (5)  $\implies$  (2). If  $\alpha_{xy} \beta_{xy} = \beta_{zt} \gamma_{zt}$ , then  $\alpha_{zt} x y = [\alpha_{zt} x y \overset{3}{e}] = [\alpha_{zt} \alpha_{xy} \beta_{xy} \gamma_{xy}] = [\alpha_{zt} \beta_{zt} \gamma_{zt} \gamma_{xy}] = [z t \overset{3}{e} \gamma_{xy}] = z t \gamma_{xy}$ , implies that  $y = \gamma_{xy}$ ; hence (6)  $\implies$  (4). If  $\alpha_x \beta_x = \alpha_{xy} \beta_{xy}$ , then  $\alpha_{xy} \beta_{xy} \gamma_{xy} = [x y \overset{3}{e}] = [\overset{3}{e} x y] = [\alpha_x \beta_x \gamma_x y] = [\alpha_{xy} \beta_{xy} \gamma_x y]$  implies that  $[\gamma_{xy} \overset{3}{e}] = [\gamma_x y \overset{3}{e}]$ , which implies that  $|G|=1$ , by P.1; hence (7)  $\implies$  (1). ■

**PROPOSITION 3.** The element  $\alpha_e \beta_e \gamma_e$  is in the centre of the group  $(G^3, \cdot)$  (where  $xyz \cdot uvw = [xyzuvw]$ ), if and only if  $|G|=1$ .

**Proof.** If  $\alpha_e \beta_e \gamma_e \cdot xyz = xyz \cdot \alpha_e \beta_e \gamma_e$  for each  $xyz \in G^3$ , then  $[exyz] = [xyze]$  for each  $x, y, z \in G$ . For  $x=e$ , this implies  $eyz = yze$  i.e.  $y=z=e$ ; hence  $|G|=1$ . ■

## 2. Nonexistence of continuous (4,3)-groups on R.

We start with the assumption that there is a continuous (4,3)-group on R, and denote it by  $(R; [ \ ])$ . We denote by  $[ \ ]_1, [ \ ]_2, [ \ ]_3$  the components of  $[ \ ]$ , i.e.

$$[xyzt] = [xyzt]_1 [xyzt]_2 [xyzt]_3.$$

Since  $[ \ ]$  is continuous, it follows that  $[ \ ]_i, i=1,2,3$ , are also continuous. In the following several steps, the assumption that  $(R; [ \ ])$  is a continuous group will bring us to a contradiction.

**Step 1.** Let  $\phi: R^3 \rightarrow R$  be defined by  $\phi(xyz) = [xyze]_1 - x$ . Since  $[ \ ]_1$  and  $-$  are continuous, it follows that  $\phi$  is also continuous.

**Fact 1.**  $\phi^{-1}(0) \neq \emptyset$ , i.e. there exists  $xyz \in R^3$ , such that  $\phi(xyz) = 0$ , where 0 is the zero in R.

**Proof.** Consider  $\phi(xee) = \alpha_x - x$ ,  $\phi(\alpha_x \beta_x \gamma_x) = \alpha_{xe} - \alpha_x$  and  $\phi(\alpha_{xe} \beta_{xe} \gamma_{xe}) = x - \alpha_{xe}$ . If  $\phi(\alpha_x \beta_x \gamma_x) = 0$ , then  $\phi^{-1}(0) \neq \emptyset$ . So suppose that  $\phi(\alpha_x \beta_x \gamma_x) \neq 0$ . Since  $|R| > 1$ , P.2. implies that  $\phi(xee) \neq 0$  and  $\phi(\alpha_{xe} \beta_{xe} \gamma_{xe}) \neq 0$ . It is not possible all of the  $\alpha_x - x$ ,  $\alpha_{xe} - \alpha_x$ ,  $x - \alpha_{xe}$  to have the same sign, since their sum is equal to 0. So, two of them have different signs. This, together with the facts that  $\phi$  is continuous and R is connected, implies that  $\phi^{-1}(0) \neq \emptyset$ . ■

**Step 2.** Let  $c, a, b \in R$  be such that  $\phi(cab) = 0$ , i.e.  $[cabe] = cucv$  for some  $u, v \in R$ . This implies that  $[ab^2] = uve$ ,  $[ab^3] = [uv^2]$

and  $abe = [uve]^3$ , i.e.  $\alpha_{uv} = a$ ,  $\beta_{uv} = b$ ,  $\gamma_{uv} = e$ . Now, let  $\psi: R^2 \rightarrow R$  be defined by  $\psi(xy) = [xye]^2_1 - x$ . Again, since  $[ ]_1$  and  $-$  are continuous, it follows that  $\psi$  is continuous.

Fact 2.  $\psi^{-1}(0) \neq \emptyset$ , i.e. there exists  $xy \in R^2$  such that  $\psi(xy) = 0$ .

Proof. Consider  $\psi(uv) = \alpha_{ab} - u$  and  $\psi(ab) = u - a$ . Since the map  $\eta: R^2 \rightarrow R$  defined by  $\eta(xy) = [xye]^2_1 - x$  is continuous,  $|R| > 1$  and  $R$  is connected, P.2. implies that  $\alpha_{xy} < x$  for each  $x, y \in R$ , or  $\alpha_{xy} > x$  for each  $x, y \in R$ . If  $u = a$ , then  $\psi^{-1}(0) \neq \emptyset$ . If  $u - a < 0$ , i.e.  $u < a = \alpha_{uv}$ , then  $\alpha_{xy} > x$  for each  $x, y \in R$ . So  $\alpha_{ab} - u > a - u > 0$ , i.e.  $\psi(uv) > 0$ . This, together with  $\psi(ab) < 0$ , implies that  $\psi^{-1}(0) \neq \emptyset$ . If  $u - a > 0$ , i.e.  $u > a = \alpha_{uv}$ , then  $\alpha_{xy} < x$  for each  $x, y \in R$ . So  $\alpha_{ab} - u < a - u < 0$ , i.e.  $\psi(uv) < 0$ . This, together with  $\psi(ab) > 0$ , implies that  $\psi^{-1}(0) \neq \emptyset$ .

Step 3. Let  $p, q \in R$  be such that  $\psi(pq) = 0$ , i.e.  $[pqe]^2 = prs$  for some  $r, s \in R$ . This implies that  $[rse]^3 = qe^2$ , i.e.  $\beta_{rs}\gamma_{rs} = e^2$ .

Step 4. Symmetrically, there exist  $z, w \in R$  such that  $\alpha_{zw}\beta_{zw} = e^2$ . (When we say symmetrically, we mean: change  $[xyze]^2_1 - x$  in Step 1, by  $[exyz]^3_3 - z$  and  $[xye]^2_1 - x$  in Step 2, by  $[exy]^2_3 - y$ .)

Now, Step 3, Step 4 and P.2. imply that  $|R| = 1$ , which is a contradiction.

### 3. The Lie groups and Lie algebras method

Now we will give a sketch of a proof, via Lie groups and Lie algebras, that topological  $(4,3)$ -groups on  $R$  do not exist. If  $(R; [ ])$  is a topological  $(4,3)$ -group, then  $(R^3, \cdot)$  (where  $xyz \cdot uvw = [xyzuvw]$ ) is a topological group. Using the positive answer to the Fifth Hilbert Problem [8] we obtain that  $(R^3, \cdot)$  is a Lie group on  $R^3$ . The element  $\alpha_e \beta_e \gamma_e \in R^3$  in this Lie group has the following properties:  $(\alpha_e \beta_e \gamma_e)^3 = \alpha_e \beta_e \gamma_e \cdot \alpha_e \beta_e \gamma_e \cdot \alpha_e \beta_e \gamma_e = e^3$ ;  $\alpha_e \beta_e \gamma_e \neq e^3$ ; and  $\alpha_e \beta_e \gamma_e$  is not in the centre of  $(R^3, \cdot)$ , by P.2 and P.3. We will prove that in arbitrary Lie group on  $R^3$  there does not exist an element  $x$  satisfying these properties.

Suppose that  $(R^3, *)$  is a Lie group, with the identity element  $e$ , and,  $x \in R^3$  such that  $x^3 = e$ ,  $x \neq e$  and  $x$  is not in the centre of  $(R^3, *)$ . The map  $\psi: R^3 \rightarrow R^3$  defined by  $\psi(y) = x*y*x^{-1}$  is an automorphism of  $R^3$  of order 3, i.e.  $\psi^3 = \text{id}_{R^3}$  and  $\psi \neq \text{id}_{R^3}$ . Since  $R^3$  is simply-connected manifold, there exists a bijection between the automotphisms of the Lie group and the automorphisms of its corresponding Lie algebra [6]. So,  $\psi$  corresponds to an automorphism, again denoted by  $\psi$ , of the corresponding Lie algebra on  $R^3$ , such that  $\psi^3 = \text{id}$  and  $\psi \neq \text{id}$ .

It is easy to check that if  $\psi$  is an autmorphism of a Lie algebra on  $R^3$  of order 3, then there is a vector  $X \in R^3$  such that  $X, \psi(X) = Y$  and  $\psi^2(X) = Z$  is a basis for the vector space  $R^3$ . Let the bracket on the Lie algebra be defined on  $X, Y$  by  $[X, Y] = aX + bY + cZ$ , for some  $a, b, c \in R$ . This implies that  $[Y, Z] = cX + aY + bZ$ ,  $[Z, X] = bX + cY + aZ$ . The Jacobi identity implies that  $(b-a)(a+b+c) = 0$ . So, the Lie algebras on  $R^3$  with such an automorphism, can be classified into two classes:

Class 1, when  $a=b$ ; and

Class 2, when  $a+b+c=0$ .

We will show that for each Lie algebra from these classes, which is a corresponding Lie algebra to a Lie group on  $R^3$ , in the Lie group there does not exist an element  $x$  such that  $x \neq e$ ,  $x^3 = e$ . This will complete the proof that topological  $(4,3)$ -groups on  $R$  do not exist, via this method.

If  $a=b=c=0$ , then the corresponding Lie group, up to isomorphism, is  $(R^3, +)$  where  $+$  is the usual addition of vectors. So if  $x^3 = e$ , then  $x = e$ .

Now, let  $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 \neq 0$ .

Case 1. Consider the Lie algebras from the class 1, i.e. when  $a=b$ . If  $c \neq a$  and  $c \neq -2a$ , then each such Lie algebra is simple. It is known (see [7] p. 429) that there are only two

3-dimensional simple Lie groups up to a local isomorphism. So there are only two non-isomorphic simple Lie algebras on  $R^3$ . The following two Lie algebras:

- 1)  $a=b=1, c=0$ ; and
- 2)  $a=b=0, c=1$

on  $R$  are simple. They are not isomorphic, because the first one contains a 2-dimensional Lie subalgebra (generated by  $X$  and  $Y$ ), and second does not, since in the second, the product-bracket is the usual vector-product on  $R^3$ . The second Lie algebra (i.e.  $a=b=0, c=1$ ) is semisimple compact Lie algebra (see [7], p. 453). The Weyl's theorem ([7], p. 444), says that a connected Lie group with a semisimple compact Lie algebra must be compact. So there does not exist a Lie group on  $R^3$  whose corresponding Lie algebra is isomorphic to the Lie algebra 2) i.e.  $a=b=0, c=1$ .

Next, we will give an example of a simple Lie group on a manifold homeomorphic to  $R^3$ , whose corresponding Lie algebra is isomorphic to the Lie algebra 1) i.e.  $a=b=1, c=0$ . Let  $D = \{z \in C : |z| < 1\}$  where  $C$  is the set of complex numbers, and  $| \cdot |$  is the module. The map  $z \rightarrow (1+z)/(1+\bar{z})$  from  $D$  into the set  $\{z : z \in C, z \neq -1, |z|=1\}$  is continuous. Hence, for each  $z \in D$ , there is a unique  $t \in (-\pi, \pi)$  such that  $\exp(it) = (1+z)/(1+\bar{z})$ , and we shall denote that number  $t$  by  $(-i) \ln((1+z)/(1+\bar{z}))$ . Define a binary operation on  $R \times D$  by:

$$(x, u) \cdot (y, v) = \left( x+u+t, \frac{u+v(\exp(2iy))}{(\exp(2iy))+u\bar{v}} \right),$$

where  $t = \frac{1}{2}(-i) \ln \frac{1+u\bar{v}(\exp(-2iy))}{1+\bar{u}v(\exp(2iy))}$ . Then  $(R \times D, \cdot)$  is a covering

group for  $SL(2)$ , and it is a semisimple Lie group (see [8], p.-417). In this group,  $(x, u)^3 = (0, 0)$  implies  $(x, u) = (0, 0)$ .

Now we consider the Lie algebras from Class 1, which are not simple. The Lie algebra for  $c = -2a$ , will be considered later as a Lie algebra from Class 2. So, we examine the Lie algebra for  $c = a$ , and hence  $a = b = c$ . The matrix group

$$G = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x & y \\ 0 & 1 & z \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} : x, y, z \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

can be considered as a Lie group on  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The corresponding Lie algebra is

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & x & y \\ 0 & 0 & z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} : x, y, z \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

where  $[A, B] = AB - BA$ , and the map

$$\phi(X) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1/a \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \phi(Y) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \phi(Z) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

is an isomorphism between this Lie algebra and the Lie algebra for  $a=b=c$ . In the matrix group  $G$ , if

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x & y \\ 0 & 1 & z \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ then } x=y=z=0.$$

Case 2. Now consider the Lie algebras from Class 2, i.e.  $a+b+c=0$ . Let us suppose that the numbers  $x, y, z, u, v, w \in \mathbb{R}$ , satisfy the conditions:  $x+y+z=u+v+w=0$ ,  $x^2+y^2+z^2 \neq 0 \neq u^2+v^2+w^2$  and  $(x, y, z) \neq t(u, v, w)$ . Then the vector product  $(x, y, z) \times (u, v, w) = (t, t, t)$  for  $t \neq 0$ . It is easy to verify that the subspace  $U$ , of the Lie algebra for  $a+b+c=0$ , generated by the vector  $xX+yY+zZ$  and  $uX+vY+wZ$  is an invariant subalgebra. Moreover, it is a commutative Lie algebra. Suppose that Lie algebra for  $a+b+c=0$ , is a corresponding Lie algebra for a Lie group on  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Then, this Lie group contains a commutative connected 2-dimensional Lie subgroup  $H$ , whose corresponding Lie algebra is  $U$  (see [8]). Since  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is simply-connected, it follows that  $\mathbb{R}^3/H$  is simply-connected Lie group (see [8], p. 255). Since  $\dim(\mathbb{R}^3/H)=1$ , it follows that  $\mathbb{R}^3/H$  is isomorphic to  $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ . Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $x^3=e$ , and  $x$  is not in the centre of the Lie group on  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Then  $(xH)^3=H$  and so  $xH=H$ , i.e.  $x \in H$ . Since  $H$  is a commutative subgroup, it follows that  $\psi(z)=z$  for each  $z \in H$ , and hence  $\psi(W)=W$  for each  $W \in U$ . Since  $X+Y+Z \notin U$ , and  $\psi(X+Y+Z)=Y+Z+X=X+Y+Z$ , it follows that  $\psi=id$ , hence  $x=e$ .



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