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FINITE GROUPS WHOSE ALL PROPER SUBGROUPS ARE $\mathcal{C}\text{-}\mathrm{GROUPS}$

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Abstract. A group G is said to be a C-group if for every divisor d of the order of G, there exists a subgroup H of G of order d such that H is normal or abnormal in G. We give a complete classification of those groups which are not C-groups but all of whose proper subgroups are C-groups.

Keywords: normal subgroup; abnormal subgroup; minimal non-C-group

MSC 2010: 20D10, 20E34

1. INTRODUCTION

In this paper, only finite groups are considered and our notation is standard.

Let \mathfrak{F} be a class of groups. A group G is called a minimal non- \mathfrak{F} -group or \mathfrak{F} critical group if G does not belong to \mathfrak{F} , but all proper subgroups belong to \mathfrak{F} . It seems clear that a detailed knowledge of minimal non- \mathfrak{F} -groups can give some insight into what makes a group belong to \mathfrak{F} . Moreover, arguments by induction or a minimal counterexample where one wants to prove that a group belongs to \mathfrak{F} can benefit from a detailed description of the minimal non- \mathfrak{F} -groups. Many scholars have introduced in the past finite groups with this property for some particular classes. For example, Miller and Moreno in [7] considered the minimal non-abelian groups,

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Schmidt in [9] analysed the minimal non-nilpotent groups and Doerk in [3] studied the minimal non-supersolvable groups. Some related topics can be found in [1], [2].

Recall that a subgroup H of a group G is said to be abnormal in G if $g \in \langle H, H^g \rangle$ for all g in G. Recently, Liu, Li and He in [6] called a group G a C-group if for each divisor d of the order of G, G contains a subgroup H of order d such that H is either normal or abnormal in G, and gave the structure of this kind of groups. In this paper, we will give the classification of minimal non-C-groups.

2. Preliminaries

In this section we show some lemmas which are required in Section 3.

Lemma 2.1. Let H be a subgroup of a group G. Then the following statements are true:

- (a) Suppose that $H \leq K \leq G$. If H is abnormal in G, then H is abnormal in K and K is abnormal in G.
- (b) If H is abnormal in G, then H is self-normalizing in G.
- (c) Let $N \leq G$ and $N \leq H$. Then H is abnormal in G if and only if H/N is abnormal in G/N.

Proof. Statements (a) and (b) hold by [4], Chapter 1, 6.20. We can obtain that Statement (c) follows by a routine check. \Box

Lemma 2.2 ([6], Theorem 3.1). The following statements for a group G are equivalent:

- (a) G is a C-group.
- (b) Either G is nilpotent or G satisfies the following three conditions:
 - (b1) G is supersolvable,
 - (b2) G/F(G) is cyclic of order p, where p is the smallest prime divisor of the order of G, and
 - (b3) $G/O_p(G)$ is a Frobenius group whose Frobenius complement $P/O_p(G)$ is cyclic of order p, where P is a Sylow p-subgroup of G.

Lemma 2.3 ([8], 13.4.3). Let α be a power automorphism of an abelian group A. If A is a p-group of finite exponent, then there is a positive integer l such that $a^{\alpha} = a^{l}$ for all a in A. If α is nontrivial and has order prime to p, then α is fixed-point-free.

Lemma 2.4 ([3]). Let G be a minimal non-supersolvable group. Then:

- (1) G is solvable.
- (2) G has a unique normal Sylow p-subgroup P.

- (3) $P/\Phi(P)$ is a minimal normal subgroup of $G/\Phi(P)$, and $P/\Phi(P)$ is non-cyclic.
- (4) If $p \neq 2$, then the exponent of P is p.
- (5) If P is non-abelian and p = 2, then the exponent of P is 4.
- (6) If P is abelian, then the exponent of P is p.

Lemma 2.5. If G is a minimal non-C-group, then G is solvable and $|\pi(G)| \in \{2,3\}$.

Proof. Since every proper subgroup of G is a C-group, G is supersolvable or minimal non-supersolvable by Lemma 2.2, which implies that G is solvable by Lemma 2.4.

Let $\{P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n\}$ be a Sylow system of G with $p_1 < p_2 < \ldots < p_n$, where p_i is a prime dividing $|P_i|$. If n = 1, then G is nilpotent and Lemma 2.2 means that G is a C-group, and this contradiction forces $n \ge 2$. Suppose that $n \ge 4$. We can see that $P_2P_3P_4 \ldots P_n$, $P_1P_3P_4 \ldots P_n$, $P_1P_2P_4 \ldots P_n$ and $P_1P_2P_3P_5 \ldots P_n$ are C-groups, and so they are supersolvable by Lemma 2.2 again. This implies that G contains four supersolvable subgroups. Applying a theorem of Doerk (see [3], Satz 4) we can see that G is supersolvable.

By hypothesis, $P_2P_3P_4 \ldots P_n$, $P_1P_2P_4 \ldots P_n$ and $P_1P_2P_3$ are C-groups, so $P_2 \times P_3 \times P_4 \times \ldots \times P_n$ is a nilpotent normal subgroup of G by Lemma 2.2. Hence $F(G) = O_{p_1}(G)P_2P_3P_4 \ldots P_n$ and G/F(G) is cyclic of order p_1 . Set $\overline{G} = G/O_{p_1}(G)$. Then $\overline{G} = \overline{P_1} \ltimes F(\overline{G})$. By hypothesis and Lemma 2.2, we have that \overline{G} is not a Frobenius group and so there exists a p'_1 -element \overline{x} in $F(\overline{G})$ such that $C_{\overline{G}}(\overline{x}) \not\subseteq F(\overline{G})$, then $\overline{G} = C_{\overline{G}}(\overline{x})F(\overline{G})$ and thus $C_{\overline{G}}(\overline{x})$ contains a Sylow p_1 -subgroup $\overline{P_1}$ of \overline{G} . Thus $[\overline{P_1}, \overline{x}] = 1$. By hypothesis, P_1P_i is a C-group for $2 \leq i \leq n$. Suppose that P_1 is normal in P_1P_i for all $i \in \{2, \ldots, n\}$. Then P_1P_i is nilpotent for all $i \in \{2, \ldots, n\}$ and so P_1 is normal in G. This would imply that G is nilpotent, against the hypothesis. Therefore there exists an $i \in \{2, \ldots, n\}$ such that P_1 is abnormal in P_1P_i . Hence P_1 is abnormal in H for every Hall subgroup H of G such that $P_1P_i \in H < G$ by Lemma 2.1. Consequently, P_1 is abnormal in G. On the other hand, by Lemma 2.1 and the above argument, we can see that $\overline{P_1}$ is abnormal in \overline{G} , a contradiction. Hence $|\pi(G)| \in \{2,3\}$.

Lemma 2.6 ([5]). Suppose that a p'-group H acts on a p-group G. Let

$$\Omega(G) = \begin{cases} \Omega_1(G), & p > 2, \\ \Omega_2(G), & p = 2. \end{cases}$$

If H acts trivially on $\Omega(G)$, then H acts trivially on G as well.

3. Main results

In this section, we classify all minimal non-C-groups. Our first result is about $|\pi(G)| = 2$.

Theorem 3.1. Let G be a minimal non-C-group with $|\pi(G)| = 2$. Then G is exactly of one of the following types:

(I) $G = \langle x, y \colon x^p = y^{q^n} = 1, y^{-1}xy = x^i \rangle$, where $n \ge 2$, $i^q \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $i^{q^2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ with 1 < i < p.

(II) $G = P \rtimes Q$, where $P = \langle a, b \rangle$ is an elementary abelian *p*-group of order p^2 , $Q = \langle y \rangle$ is cyclic of order $q^n > 1$. Define [a, y] = 1, $b^y = b^i$, where *i* is a primitive *q*th root of unity modulo *p* with 1 < i < p.

(III) $G = P \rtimes Q$, where $Q = \langle y \rangle$ is cyclic of order $q^n > 1$, with $q \nmid p - 1$, and P is an irreducible Q-module over the field of p elements with kernel $\langle y^q \rangle$ in Q. (In this type, the restriction p > q is not necessary.)

(IV) $G = P \rtimes Q$, where P is a non-abelian special p-group of rank 2m, the order of p modulo q being 2m, $Q = \langle y \rangle$ is cyclic of order $q^n > 1$, y induces an automorphism in P such that $P/\Phi(P)$ is a faithful and irreducible Q-module, and y centralizes $\Phi(P)$. Furthermore, $|P/\Phi(P)| = p^{2m}$ and $|P'| \leq p^m$. (In this type, the restriction p > q is not necessary.)

(V) $G = P \rtimes Q$, where $P = \langle a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{q-1} \rangle$ is an elementary abelian *p*-group of order p^q , $Q = \langle y \rangle$ is cyclic of order q^n , q is the highest power of q dividing p-1 and n > 1. Define $a_j^y = a_{j+1}$ for $0 \leq j < q-1$ and $a_{q-1}^y = a_0^i$, where i is a primitive qth root of unity modulo p.

Proof. Let G = PQ, where $P \in Syl_p(G)$, $Q \in Syl_q(G)$. We can distinguish two cases:

Case 1. G is supersolvable and p > q.

(1.1) Assume that P and Q are cyclic.

Let $P = \langle x \rangle$ and $Q = \langle y \rangle$ with $|x| = p^m$ and $|y| = q^n$. Applying a result in [8], 10.1.10, we conclude that $y^{-1}xy = x^i$ with $i^{q^n} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^m}$, $1 < i < p^m$ and $(p^m, q^n(i-1)) = 1$. If $\langle y^q \rangle$ is normal in G, then $F(G) = P \times \langle y^q \rangle$. Set $\overline{G} = G/O_q(G)$, then $\overline{G} = \overline{P} \rtimes \overline{Q}$. It follows that \overline{Q} induces a power automorphism α of order q in \overline{P} . By Lemma 2.3, α is fixed-point-free, and so $G/O_q(G)$ is a Frobenius group. Thus, G is a \mathcal{C} -group, a contradiction. Hence $\langle y^q \rangle$ is normal in G. By hypothesis, $P\langle y^q \rangle$ is a \mathcal{C} -group. We can see that $\langle y^{q^2} \rangle$ is normal in $P\langle y^q \rangle$ due to Lemma 2.2. Thus $(y^q)^{-1}xy^q = x^{i^q} \neq x$, $(y^{q^2})^{-1}xy^{q^2} = x^{i^{q^2}} = x$, so that $i^q \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^m}$, $i^{q^2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^m}$. Surely, y^q induces a power automorphism of order q in P, and every proper subgroup of $\langle y^q \rangle$ is normal in G. If $x^p \neq 1$, then by Lemma 2.3, $\langle x^p \rangle \langle y^q \rangle \neq \langle x^p \rangle \times \langle y^q \rangle$. By hypothesis and Lemma 2.2, $\langle y^q \rangle$ is normal in $\langle x^p \rangle \langle y \rangle$ and so $\langle x^p \rangle \langle y^q \rangle = \langle x^p \rangle \times \langle y^q \rangle$, a contradiction. Therefore, G is of type (I).

(1.2) Assume that P is non-cyclic and Q is cyclic.

Since $P \trianglelefteq G$, there exists a chief series

$$1 \trianglelefteq \ldots \trianglelefteq R \trianglelefteq P \trianglelefteq \ldots \trianglelefteq G$$

of G. By Maschke's theorem [8], Theorem 8.1.2, there exists a subgroup N of P such that $P/\Phi(P) = R/\Phi(P) \times N/\Phi(P)$, where $|N/\Phi(P)| = p$ and $N/\Phi(P) \leq G/\Phi(P)$. Thus, $N \leq G$, $N \notin R$ and $1 \leq N \leq P \leq G$ is a normal series of G. Applying Schreier's refinement theorem (see [8], Theorem 3.1.2) we obtain that P has another maximal subgroup K such that K is normal in G, and so P has at least two maximal subgroups R and K which are normal in G. Let $Q = \langle y \rangle$. Then both $R\langle y \rangle$ and $K\langle y \rangle$ are C-groups. If [R, y] = [K, y] = 1, then G is nilpotent, a contradiction. If $\langle y \rangle$ is abnormal in both $R\langle y \rangle$ and $K\langle y \rangle$, hence $\langle y \rangle$ is abnormal in G and we can conclude that G is a C-group by Lemma 2.2, a contradiction. We may assume without loss of generality that [R, y] = 1 and $\langle y \rangle$ is abnormal in $K\langle y \rangle$. This implies that $R \cap K = 1$ and so P is an elementary abelian p-group of order p^2 . Set $R = \langle a \rangle$ and $K = \langle b \rangle$. Then $P = \langle a, b \rangle$, [a, y] = 1, $b^y = b^i$ and $b^{y^q} = b$. Hence G is of type (II).

(1.3) Assume that P is cyclic and Q is non-cyclic.

Let $P = \langle a \rangle$ and $|a| = p^m$. For two arbitrarily chosen maximal subgroups Q_1 and Q_2 of Q, PQ_1 and PQ_2 are C-groups by hypothesis. It is clear that $O_q(PQ_1)$ $\operatorname{char} PQ_1 \trianglelefteq G$ and $O_q(PQ_2)$ $\operatorname{char} PQ_2 \trianglelefteq G$, so $O_q(PQ_1) \trianglelefteq G$ and $O_q(PQ_2) \trianglelefteq G$. Suppose that $O_q(PQ_1) \neq O_q(PQ_2)$, then $O_q(G) = O_q(PQ_1)O_q(PQ_2)$. If m = 1, then $G/O_a(G)$ is a Frobenius group whose Frobenius complement $Q/O_a(G)$ is cyclic of order q. By Lemma 2.2, G is a C-group, a contradiction. So we may assume that $m \ge 2$. By hypothesis, $G/O_q(G)$ is not a Frobenius group but $\langle a^{p^{m-1}} \rangle Q$ is a \mathcal{C} -group. Hence $\langle a^{p^{m-1}} \rangle O_q(G) / O_q(G) \cdot \langle y \rangle O_q(G)$ is nilpotent for some $y \in Q \setminus O_q(G)$. Furthermore, $[a^{p^{m-1}}, y] = 1$. Applying Lemma 2.6, we see that G is nilpotent, a contradiction. This means that $O_q(PQ_1) = O_q(PQ_2)$ and it is contained in every maximal subgroup of Q. Thus, $O_q(G) = \Phi(Q)$ is the 2-maximal subgroup of Q, and let $Q = \langle x, y, \Phi(Q) \rangle$. If $a^p \neq 1$, then $\langle a^{p^{m-1}} \rangle Q$ is a C-group, and Q has a maximal subgroup, say $\langle x, \Phi(Q) \rangle$, such that $\langle x, \Phi(Q) \rangle \leq \langle P, Q \rangle = G$ by Lemma 2.2 and Lemma 2.6. This contradiction implies $a^p = 1$. If $C_G(P) = P \times \Phi(Q)$, then $G/C_G(P)$ is an elementary abelian q-group of order q^2 . However, $G/C_G(P) \lesssim \operatorname{Aut}(P)$, and $\operatorname{Aut}(P)$ is cyclic, a contradiction. Therefore, Q has an element, say x, which is contained in $C_G(P)$, and Q has a maximal subgroup $\langle x, \Phi(Q) \rangle$ which is normal in G, a contradiction.

(1.4) Assume that both P and Q are non-cyclic.

We can argue as in (1.2) and (1.3), to conclude easily that P has at least two maximal subgroups R and K which are normal in G, and $O_q(PQ_1) \leq G$ and $O_q(PQ_2) \leq G$ for two arbitrarily chosen maximal subgroups Q_1 and Q_2 of Q.

If $O_q(PQ_1) \neq O_q(PQ_2)$, then $O_q(G) = O_q(PQ_1)O_q(PQ_2) \leq Q$ and G/F(G) is cyclic of order q. Since G is not a C-group, $G/O_q(G)$ is not a Frobenius group by Lemma 2.2. Hence there exist an element a of P and an element y of $Q \setminus O_q(G)$ such that $[\overline{a}, \overline{y}] = 1$, and so [a, y] = 1, where $\overline{a} = aO_q(G), \overline{y} = yO_q(G)$. Furthermore, $\langle a \rangle Q$ is nilpotent and we may assume $\langle a \rangle \leq R$. If $R \cap K > 1$, then we have that both RQ and KQ are nilpotent by Lemma 2.2. Hence G is nilpotent. This contradiction implies that $P = \langle a, b \rangle$ is an elementary abelian p-group of order p^2 , and Q = $\langle y, O_q(G) \rangle$, where $q \mid p-1$ and $1 < O_q(G) < Q$. Define [a, y] = 1, $b^y = b^i$, where i is a primitive qth root of unity modulo p with 1 < i < p. Clearly, $P\langle y \rangle$ is not a C-group by Lemma 2.2, this possibility does not occur.

We consider the case that $O_q(G) = O_q(PQ_1) = O_q(PQ_2) = \Phi(Q)$ is the 2-maximal subgroup of Q, and let $Q = \langle x, y, \Phi(Q) \rangle$. If RQ is nilpotent, then $[K, Q] \neq 1$ as Gis not nilpotent. Since KQ is a C-group, there is a maximal subgroup Q^* of Q such that $[Q^*, K] = 1$ by Lemma 2.2, which implies $Q^* \leq G$, a contradiction. Similarly, KQ is not nilpotent either. Hence Q is abnormal in both RQ and KQ. Since RQis a C-group, $O_q(RQ)$ is a maximal subgroup of Q by Lemma 2.2. We may assume without loss of generality that $O_q(RQ) = \langle y, O_q(G) \rangle$. If $R \cap K \neq 1$, then there is at least a nontrivial element g in $R \cap K$ such that $[g, O_q(RQ)] = 1$. Furthermore, our hypothesis and Lemma 2.2 can be combined to give that $KO_q(RQ)$ is nilpotent. This means that $O_q(RQ)$ is normal in G, a contradiction. Hence P is an elementary abelian p-group of order p^2 . Let $P = \langle a \rangle \times \langle b \rangle$. Define [a, x] = 1, [b, y] = 1, $a^y = a^i$, $b^x = b^j$, $q \mid p - 1$, where i, j are two primitive qth roots of unity modulo p with 1 < i, j < p. Clearly, G contains a subgroup $P\langle x, O_q(G) \rangle$ which is not a C-group by Lemma 2.2, a contradiction.

Case 2. G is not supersolvable.

In this case, G is a minimal non-supersolvable group and we can assume that G = PQ and $P \leq G$, where $P \in \text{Syl}_p(G)$, $Q \in \text{Syl}_q(G)$ by Lemma 2.4.

Suppose that M is a maximal subgroup of G containing Q. Set $M = P_3Q$, where P_3 is a Sylow *p*-subgroup of M. By $[P_3, Q] \leq P \cap P_3Q = P_3$, we have $N_G(P_3) \geq P_3Q = M$. Since $N_P(P_3) > P_3$, P_3 is normal in G. By Lemma 2.4 and the maximality of M, $P_3 = \Phi(P)$ is the Sylow *p*-subgroup of M.

(2.1) Assume that $Q = \langle y \rangle$ is cyclic.

If G is also a minimal non-nilpotent group, then by [2], Theorem 3, G is either of type (III) or of type (IV).

If G is not a minimal non-nilpotent group and P is abelian, applying [1], Theorems 9 and 10, we assume that G = PQ, where $P = \langle a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{q-1} \rangle$ is an elementary abelian p-group of order p^q , $Q = \langle y \rangle$ is cyclic of order q^n , q^f is the highest power of q dividing p-1 and $n > f \ge 1$. Define $a_j^y = a_{j+1}$ for $0 \le j < q-1$ and $a_{q-1}^y = a_0^i$, where i is a primitive q^f th root of unity modulo p. Since $P\langle y^q \rangle$ is a C-group, y^q induces a fixed-point-free automorphism of order q in P by Lemma 2.2. Hence $a_0^{j^q} = a_0^{y^{q^2}} = a_0$. Thus $i^q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and f = 1, so that G is of type (V).

If G is not a minimal non-nilpotent group and P is non-abelian, by [1], Theorems 9 and 10, we may assume that G = PQ is such that $P = \langle a_0, a_1 \rangle$ is an extraspecial group of order p^3 with exponent $p, Q = \langle y \rangle$ is a cyclic group of order 2^n with 2^f the largest power of 2 dividing p-1 and $n > f \ge 1$, and $a_0^y = a_1$ and $a_1^y = a_0^i x$, where $x \in \langle [a_0, a_1] \rangle$ and i is a primitive 2^f th root of unity modulo p. Since $a_0^{y^2} = a_1^y = a_0^i x \notin \langle a_0 \rangle, P \langle y^2 \rangle$ is a non-nilpotent C-group and $\Phi(P) \langle y \rangle$ is also a C-group. By calculation, G is not a minimal non-C-group.

(2.2) Assume that Q is non-cyclic.

Applying [1], Theorems 9 and 10, p > q. For two arbitrarily chosen maximal subgroups Q_1 and Q_2 of Q, PQ_1 and PQ_2 are C-groups. By Lemma 2.2, $O_q(PQ_1) \leq G$ and $O_q(PQ_2) \leq G$. If $O_q(PQ_1) \neq O_q(PQ_2)$, then $O_q(G) = O_q(PQ_1)O_q(PQ_2) < Q$. Examining the types 6–10 in [1], Theorems 9 and 10, and their proofs, we find none of them is a minimal non-C-group. This implies that $O_q(PQ_1) = O_q(PQ_2)$ is contained in an arbitrary maximal subgroup of Q. Thus, $O_q(G) = \Phi(Q)$ is the 2-maximal subgroup of Q, and let $Q = \langle x, y, \Phi(Q) \rangle$. It is clear that $\Phi(G)_q \leq \Phi(Q)$, where $\Phi(G)_q$ is the Sylow q-subgroup of $\Phi(G)$. Examining the types 6–10 in [1], Theorems 9 and 10, and their proofs again, we find none of them coincides with a minimal non-C-group.

Conversely, it is clear that the groups of types (I) to (V) are minimal non-C-groups.

The following result classifies all minimal non-C-groups with $|\pi(G)| = 3$.

Theorem 3.2. Let G be a minimal non-C-group with $|\pi(G)| = 3$. Then G is exactly of one of the following types:

(I) $G = \langle a, b : a^p = b^{qr^m} = 1, b^{-1}ab = a^i \rangle$ with $r \mid p - 1, p > q > r$ and $m \ge 1$, where $i^q \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $i^r \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ with 1 < i < p.

(II) $G = \langle a, b \colon a^p = b^{q^m r} = 1, b^{-1}ab = a^i \rangle$ with $q \mid p - 1, q > r$ and $m \ge 1$, where $i^q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $i^r \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ with 1 < i < p.

(III) $G = \langle a, b : a^p = b^{qr} = 1, b^{-1}ab = a^i \rangle$ with q > r, where $i^r \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, $i^q \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, and $i^{qr} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ with 1 < i < p.

(IV) $G = (P \rtimes Q) \rtimes R$, where R is a cyclic subgroup of order r, normalizing a Sylow q-subgroup $Q = \langle x \rangle$ of G, $Q/\Phi(Q)$ is an irreducible R-module over the field of q elements, and P is an irreducible QR-module over the field of p elements, where $q \mid p-1, r \mid p-1$ and $r \mid q-1$. In this case, $\Phi(G)_{p'}$, the Hall p'-subgroup of $\Phi(G)$, coincides with $\langle x^q \rangle$ and centralizes P.

Proof. Let G = PQR, where $P \in Syl_p(G)$, $Q \in Syl_q(G)$, $R \in Syl_r(G)$ with p > q > r.

We first consider the case that G is supersolvable. In this case, we have that P is normal in G. If P is non-cyclic, then due to our hypothesis P_1QR and P_2QR are C-groups for distinct maximal subgroups P_1, P_2 of P which are normal in G, which implies that Q is normal in G as QR is a C-group. It is clear that R is not normal in G. If R is abnormal in both PR and QR, then R is abnormal in G and so G is a C-group, a contradiction. If [P, R] = 1 or [Q, R] = 1, then P_1QR and P_2QR are nilpotent by Lemma 2.2; this means that G is nilpotent. This contradiction forces that P is cyclic. Moreover, if |P| > p, then $\Phi(P)QR$ is nilpotent by Lemma 2.2 and so G is nilpotent by Lemma 2.6, a contradiction. Hence |P| = p.

Assume that [P, Q] = 1. Then Q is normal in G. If [Q, R] = 1 and $[P, R] \neq 1$, then G is a metacyclic group. In fact, if |Q| > q, then PQ_1R is a C-group for no maximal subgroup Q_1 of Q by Lemma 2.2, a contradiction. Thus |Q| = q. If R is not cyclic, then Lemma 2.2 and our hypothesis can be combined to give that both PQR_1 and PQR_2 are nilpotent for distinct maximal subgroups R_1 and R_2 of R. This implies that G is nilpotent, our Lemma 2.2 provides a contradiction. Therefore, G is a metacyclic group. Applying a result in [8], 10.1.10, we assume

$$G = \langle a, b: a^p = b^{qr^m} = 1, b^{-1}ab = a^i \rangle$$

where $r \mid p-1$, $i^{qr^m} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $(p, qr^m(i-1)) = 1$ with 1 < i < p. Since $a^{b^r} = a$ and $a^{b^q} \neq a$, we have $i^r \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $i^q \neq 1 \pmod{p}$. This is a group of type (I). Similarly, we can see that G is of type (I) if [P, R] = 1 and $[Q, R] \neq 1$. If R is abnormal in both PR and QR, then R is abnormal in G. We can show that G is a C-group, a contradiction.

Assume that $[P,Q] \neq 1$. If Q is not cyclic, then there exist distinct maximal subgroups Q_1 and Q_2 of Q such that they are normal in QR. It is clear that PQ_1R and PQ_2R are C-groups by hypothesis. It follows from Lemma 2.2 that $[P,Q_1] = 1 =$ $[P,Q_2]$ and hence [P,Q] = 1, a contradiction. Hence Q is cyclic and let $|Q| = q^m$. If |R| > r, then by Lemma 2.2, PQR_1 is a C-group for any maximal subgroup R_1 of R, and so $PQ = P \times Q$, a contradiction. Thus, |R| = r. Combining the above arguments we obtain that G is also a metacyclic group. If [P,R] = 1 = [Q,R], then we have that this is a group of type (II). If R commutes with one of P and Q, then it follows that m = 1 and hence G is of type (III). If $[P,R] \neq 1$ and $[Q,R] \neq 1$, then we can see that G is a C-group, a contradiction. Now we consider the case that G is minimal non-supersolvable.

Applying [1], Theorems 9, 10, we may first assume that $P \leq G$, R is a cyclic subgroup of order r^{s+t} , with r a prime number and s and t integers such that $s \geq 1$ and $t \geq 0$, normalizing Q, $Q/\Phi(Q)$ is an irreducible R-module over the field of qelements, whose kernel is the subgroup D of order r^t of R, and P is an irreducible QR-module over the field of p elements, where $q \mid p - 1$, $r^s \mid p - 1$ and $r \mid q - 1$. In this case, $\Phi(G)_{p'}$, the Hall p'-subgroup of $\Phi(G)$, coincides with $\Phi(Q) \times D$ and centralizes P. If |R| > r, then there exists a maximal subgroup R_1 of R such that PQR_1 is a C-group, and so $PQ = P \times Q$ by Lemma 2.2, a contradiction. Hence |R| = r. On the other hand, if Q is non-cyclic, then there exist two maximal subgroups Q_1 and Q_2 of Q such that PQ_1R and PQ_2R are C-groups. This induces that Q_1 and Q_2 centralize P by Lemma 2.2, and so PQ is nilpotent, a contradiction. It makes Q cyclic, so G is of type (IV).

We may next assume that R is a cyclic subgroup of order 2^{s+t} , with s and t integers such that $s \ge 1$ and $t \ge 0$, normalizing a Sylow q-subgroup Q of G, $Q/\Phi(Q)$ is an irreducible R-module over the field of q elements whose kernel is the subgroup D of order 2^t of R, and P is an extraspecial group of order p^3 and exponent p such that $P/\Phi(P)$ is an irreducible QR-module over the field of p elements, where $q \mid p-1$ and $2^s \mid p-1$. In this case, $\Phi(G)_{p'}$, the Hall p'-subgroup of $\Phi(G)$, is equal to $\Phi(Q) \times D$ and centralizes P. Arguing as above, we easily obtain that Q is cyclic and |R| = r. Examining the subgroups PQ and $\Phi(P)QR$ of G, we conclude that at least one of them is not a C-group, a contradiction.

Conversely, it is clear that the groups of types (I) to (IV) are minimal non-C-groups.

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