# On a class of supersoluble groups

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#### Abstract

A subgroup H of a finite group G is said to be S-semipermutable in G if H permutes with every Sylow q-subgroup of G for all primes q not dividing |H|. A finite group G is an MS-group if the maximal subgroups of all the Sylow subgroups of G are G-semipermutable in G. The aim of the present paper is to characterise the finite G-groups.

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#### 1 Introduction

In the following, G always denotes a finite group. Recall that subgroups H and K of G is said to permute if HK is a subgroup of G and that a subgroup H of G is said to be permutable in G if H permutes with all subgroups of G.

Various generalisations of permutability have been defined and studied and, in particular, we mention the S-semipermutability. A subgroup H is said to be S-semipermutable in G if H permutes with every Sylow q-subgroup of G for all primes q not dividing |H|. This subgroup embedding property

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has been extensively studied recently (see for instance [1, 4, 7, 9]). Most of these papers concern situations where many subgroups (for instance all maximal subgroups of the Sylow subgroups) have the stated property. Thus we say that a group G is an MS-group if the maximal subgroups of all the Sylow subgroups of G are S-semipermutable in G.

The main aim of this paper is to characterise the MS-groups.

## 2 Preliminary results

In this section, we collect the definitions and results which are needed to prove our main theorems.

We shall adhere to the notation used in [2]: this book will be the main reference for terminology and results on permutability.

A subgroup H is permutable in a group G if and only if H permutes with every p-subgroup of G for every prime p (see for instance [2, Theorem 1.2.2]). A less restrictive subgroup embedding property is the S-permutability introduced by Kegel in 1962 [5] and defined in the following way:

**Definition 1.** A subgroup H of G is said to be S-permutable in G if H permutes with every Sylow p-subgroup of G for every prime p.

Note that we are not considering all p-subgroups, but just the maximal ones, that is, the Sylow p-subgroups.

In recent years there has been widespread interest in the transitivity of normality, permutability and S-permutability.

- **Definition 2.** 1. A group G is a T-group if normality is a transitive relation in G, that is, if every subnormal subgroup of G is normal in G.
  - 2. A group G is a PT-group if permutability is a transitive relation in G, that is, if H is permutable in K and K is permutable in G, then H is permutable in G.
  - 3. A group G is a PST-group if S-permutability is a transitive relation in G, that is, if H is S-permutable in K and K is S-permutable in G, then H is S-permutable in G.

If H is S-permutable in G, it is known that H must be subnormal in G ([2, Theorem 1.2.14(3)]). Therefore, a group G is a PST-group (respectively, a PT-group) if and only if every subnormal subgroup is S-permutable (respectively, permutable) in G.

Note that T implies PT and PT implies PST. On the other hand, PT does not imply T (non-Dedekind modular p-groups) and PST does not imply PT (non-modular p-groups).

A less restrictive class of groups is the class of  $T_0$ -groups which has been studied in [3, 6, 8].

**Definition 3.** A group G is called a  $T_0$ -group if the Frattini factor group  $G/\Phi(G)$  is a T-group.

The group in Example 13 below is a soluble  $T_0$ -group which is not a PST-group. Soluble  $T_0$ -groups are closely related to PST-groups as the following result shows.

**Theorem 4** ([6, Theorems 5 and 7 and Corollary 3]). Let G be a soluble  $T_0$ -group with nilpotent residual  $L = \gamma_{\infty}(G)$ . Then:

- 1. G is supersoluble.
- 2. L is a nilpotent Hall subgroup of G.
- 3. If L is abelian, then G is a PST-group.

Here the nilpotent residual  $\gamma_{\infty}(G)$  of a group G is the smallest normal subgroup N of G such that G/N is nilpotent, that is, the limit of the lower central series of G defined by  $\gamma_1(G) = G$ ,  $\gamma_{i+1}(G) = [\gamma_i(G), G]$  for  $i \geq 1$ .

It is known that S-semipermutability is not transitive. Hence it is natural to consider the following class of groups:

**Definition 5.** A group G is called a BT-group if S-semipermutability is a transitive relation in G, that is, if H is S-semipermutable in K and K is S-semipermutable in G, then H is S-semipermutable in G.

This class was introduced and characterised by Wang, Li and Wang in [9]. Further contributions were presented in [1].

**Theorem 6** ([9, Theorem 3.1]). Let G be a group. The following statements are equivalent:

- 1. G is a soluble BT-group.
- 2. Every subgroup of G is S-semipermutable.
- 3. G is a soluble PST-group and if p and q are distinct prime divisors of the order of G not dividing the order of the nilpotent residual of G, then  $[G_p, G_q] = 1$ , where  $G_p \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$  and  $G_q \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G)$ .

The group presented in Example 12 below is an MS-group which is not a soluble BT-group. Furthermore, Example 13 shows that the classes of  $T_0$ -groups and MS-groups are not closed under taking subgroups.

The first remarkable fact concerning the structure of an MS-group can be found in [7]. It is proved there that every MS-group is supersoluble.

**Theorem 7** ([7, Corollary 9]). Let G be an MS-group. Then G is supersoluble.

More recently, the second and fourth authors proved the followign theorem.

**Theorem 8** ([4, Theorems A, B and C]). Let G be an MS-group with nilpotent residual  $L = \gamma_{\infty}(G)$ . Then:

- 1. If N is a normal subgroup of G, then G/N is an MS-group;
- 2. L is a nilpotent Hall subgroup of G;
- 3. G is a soluble  $T_0$ -group.

It is well-known that the nilpotent residual of a supersoluble group is nilpotent. Hence the nilpotency of L in Theorem 8 is a consequence of Theorem 7.

Let G be a group whose nilpotent residual  $L = \gamma_{\infty}(G)$  is a Hall subgroup of G. Let  $\pi = \pi(L)$  and let  $\theta = \pi'$ , the complement of  $\pi$  in the set of all prime numbers. Let  $\theta_N$  denote the set of all primes p in  $\theta$  such that if P is a Sylow p-subgroup of G, then P has at least two maximal subgroups. Further, let  $\theta_C$  denote the set of all primes q in  $\theta$  such that if Q is a Sylow q-subgroup of G, then Q has only one maximal subgroup, or equivalently, Q is cyclic.

Throughout this paper we will use the notation presented above concerning  $\pi$ ,  $\theta = \pi'$ ,  $\theta_N$ , and  $\theta_C$ .

#### 3 The main results

Our first main result is a characterisation theorem.

**Theorem 9.** Let G be a group with nilpotent residual  $L = \gamma_{\infty}(G)$ . Then G is an MS-group if and only if G satisfies the following properties.

- 1. G is a  $T_0$ -group.
- 2. L is a nilpotent Hall subgroup of G.

- 3. If  $p \in \pi$  and  $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$ , then a maximal subgroup of P is normal in G.
- 4. Let p and q be distinct primes with  $p \in \theta_N$  and  $q \in \theta$ . If  $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$  and  $Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G)$ , then [P,Q] = 1.
- 5. Let p and q be distinct primes with  $p \in \theta_C$  and  $q \in \theta$ . If  $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$  and  $Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G)$  and M is the maximal subgroup of P, then QM = MQ is a nilpotent subgroup of G.

*Proof.* Let G be an MS-group. By Theorems 7 and 8, G is a supersoluble  $T_0$ -group whose nilpotent residual L is a nilpotent Hall subgroup of G. Thus properties 1 and 2 hold.

Let  $\pi = \pi(L)$  and let  $p \in \pi$ . Further, let P be a Sylow p-subgroup of G and let M be a maximal subgroup of P. Then  $M \leq P \leq L$  and M is normal in L and subnormal in G. Let  $q \in \theta = \pi'$  and note that MQ is a subgroup of G for a given Sylow q-subgroup Q of G. Moreover M is a Sylow p-subgroup of MQ and so M is a normal subgroup of MQ. Consequently M normalises P and each Sylow q-subgroup Q of G, so M is a normal subgroup of G and property 3 holds.

Let X be a Hall  $\theta$ -subgroup of G and note that  $G = L \rtimes X$ , the semidirect product of L by X, and X is nilpotent. Let t be a prime from  $\theta_N$  and r be a prime from  $\theta$ . Also let  $T \in \operatorname{Syl}_t(G)$  and  $R \in \operatorname{Syl}_r(G)$ . Let  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  be two distinct maximal subgroups of  $T = \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle$ . Since G is an MS-group,  $M_1R = RM_1$  and  $M_2R = RM_2$ . Applying [2, Theorem 1.2.2], we have RT = TR. Observe that TR is a  $\theta$ -subgroup of G and so TR is nilpotent since TR is a subgroup of some conjugate of X. Therefore, [T, R] = 1 and property 4 holds.

Let p and q be distinct primes with  $p \in \theta_C$  and  $q \in \theta$ . Further, let  $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$  and  $Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G)$ . If M is the maximal subgroup of P, then QM = MQ is a nilpotent  $\theta$ -subgroup of G. Thus property 5 holds.

Let G be a group satisfying properties 1–5. We are to show that G is an MS-group. By properties 1 and 2, G is a soluble  $T_0$ -group, and by Theorem 4, G is thus supersoluble.

Let  $p \in \pi = \pi(L)$ , let P be a Sylow p-subgroup of G, and let M be a maximal subgroup of P. Then M is a normal subgroup of G by property 3 and clearly P is a normal subgroup of G. This means that M permutes with every Sylow subgroup of G and P permutes with every maximal subgroup of any Sylow subgroup of G.

Let p and q be distinct primes from  $\theta$  and let  $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$  and  $Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G)$ . We consider a maximal subgroup M of P. Note that  $\theta = \theta_N \cup \theta_C$ 

and  $\theta_N \cap \theta_C = \emptyset$ , the empty set. If  $p \in \theta_N$ , then by property 4, [P, Q] = 1, so that MQ = QM. Hence assume  $p \in \theta_C$ . Then, by property 5, MQ = QM.

Therefore, every maximal subgroup of any Sylow subgroup of G is S-semipermutable in G and G is an MS-group.

The second and fourth authors in [4] posed the following two questions.

- 1. When is a soluble PST-group an MS-group?
- 2. When is a soluble PST-group which is also an MS-group a BT-group?

Using Theorem 9 we are able to answer the first question and provide a partial answer to the second.

**Theorem 10.** Let G be a soluble PST-group. Then G is an MS-group if and only if G satisfies 4 and 5 of Theorem 9.

*Proof.* Let G be a soluble PST-group with nilpotent residual  $L = \gamma_{\infty}(G)$ . By [6, Lemma 5],  $G/\Phi(G)$  is a T-group and so G is a T<sub>0</sub>-group. Notice that 1, 2 and 3 of Theorem 9 are satisfied for the group G.

Assume that G is an MS-group. By Theorem 9, 4 and 5 are satisfied by G.

Conversely, assume that 4 and 5 of Theorem 9 are satisfied by G. By Theorem 9, G is an MS-group.

This completes the proof.

The group given in Example 12 below is a soluble PST-group which is not an MS-group and the group given in Example 13 is an MS-group which is not a soluble PST-group.

**Theorem 11.** Let G be a soluble PST-group which is also an MS-group. If  $\theta_C$  is the empty set, then G is a BT-group.

Proof. Let G be a soluble PST-group which is also an MS-group. Let  $L = \gamma_{\infty}(G)$  be the nilpotent residual of G. By the Theorem of Agrawal [2, Theorem 2.1.8], L is an abelian Hall subgroup of G on which G acts by conjugation as a group of power automorphisms. Recall that  $\theta = \pi'$ , where  $\pi = \pi(L)$ . Moreover  $\theta = \theta_N$  if  $\theta_C$  is empty. Let p and q be distinct primes from  $\theta$  and let  $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$  and  $Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G)$ . Note that since G is an MS-group, we have that G satisfies properties 4 and 5 of Theorem 9. Then  $[G_p, G_q] = 1$  by property 4 of that theorem. Therefore, G is a BT-group by Theorem 6. This completes the proof of Theorem 11.

We remark that if  $\theta$  contains only one prime, then G is a BT-group by [9, Corollary 3.4].

### 4 Examples

The following examples appear in [4]. For the sake of completeness, we list them here.

**Example 12.** Let  $G = \langle y, z, x \mid y^3 = z^2 = x^7 = 1, [y, z] = 1, x^y = x^2, x^z = x^{-1} \rangle$ . Then  $[\langle y \rangle^x, z] \neq 1$  and G is a soluble group which is not a BT-group. However, G is an MS-group.

**Example 13.** Let  $G = \langle a, x, y \mid a^2 = x^3 = y^3 = [x, y]^3 = [x, [x, y]] = [y, [x, y]] = 1, x^a = x^{-1}, y^a = y^{-1} \rangle$ . Then  $H = \langle x, y \rangle$  is an extraspecial group of order 27 and exponent 3. Let z = [x, y], so  $z^a = z$ . Then  $\Phi(G) = \Phi(H) = \langle z \rangle = \operatorname{Z}(G) = \operatorname{Z}(H)$ . Note that  $G/\Phi(G)$  is a T-group so that G is a T<sub>0</sub>-group. The maximal subgroups of H are normal in G and it follows that G is an MS-group. Let  $K = \langle x, z, a \rangle$ . Then  $\langle xz \rangle$  is a maximal subgroup of  $\langle x, z \rangle$ , the Sylow 3-subgroup of K. However,  $\langle xz \rangle$  does not permute with  $\langle a \rangle$  and hence  $\langle xz \rangle$  is not an S-semipermutable subgroup of K. Therefore, K is not an MS-subgroup of G. Also note that  $\Phi(K) = 1$  and so K is not a T-subgroup of G and G is not a T<sub>0</sub>-subgroup of G. Hence the class of soluble T<sub>0</sub>-groups is not closed under taking subgroups. Note that G is a soluble group which is not a PST-group.

**Example 14.** Let  $G = \langle y, z, x \mid y^9 = z^2 = x^{19^2} = 1, [y, z] = 1, x^y = x^{62}, x^z = x^{-1} \rangle$ . Then the soluble group G is a PST-group, but G is not an MS-group since  $[\langle y^2 \rangle^x, z] \neq 1$ .

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