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Groups with a given number of nonpower subgroups

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Abstract

It is well-known that no group has either exactly 1 or exactly 2 nonpower subgroups. In this paper, we obtain a classification of groups containing exactly 3 nonpower subgroups. Moreover, we show that there is a unique finite group with exactly 4 nonpower subgroups. Finally, we show that given any integer k greater than 4, there are infinitely many groups with exactly k nonpower subgroups.

1 Introduction

A subgroup H of a group G is called a *power subgroup* of G if there exists a non-negative integer m such that $H = \langle g^m : g \in G \rangle$. Any subgroup of G which is not a power subgroup is called a *nonpower subgroup* of G . Zhou et al.[3] proved that cyclic groups have no nonpower subgroups, and infinite noncyclic groups have an infinite number of nonpower subgroups. They showed further that no group has either exactly 1 or exactly 2 nonpower subgroups, and then asked: for each integer k greater than 2, does there exist at least one group possessing exactly k nonpower subgroups? This question was recently answered positively in [1], where it was also proved that for any integer k greater than 4 and composite, there are infinitely many groups with exactly k nonpower subgroups.

Let p be an odd prime. For each positive integer n , we define the group $G_{n,p}$ as follows:

$$G_{n,p} := \langle x, y : x^{2^n} = 1 = y^p, yx = xy^{-1} \rangle.$$

We note that $G_{1,p}$ is the dihedral group of order $2p$, and $G_{2,p}$ is the generalized quaternion group of order $4p$ (we obtain its usual presentation $\langle a, b : a^{2p} = 1, b^2 = a^p, ba = a^{-1}b \rangle$ by setting $a = x^2y$ and $b = x$). More generally, for any positive integer n , $G_{n,p}$ is the semidirect product $C_p \rtimes C_{2^n}$, and has order $2^n p$. We may now state our first result.

Theorem 1. *There are infinitely many groups with an odd prime number of nonpower subgroups. In particular, for any odd prime p and each positive integer n , the group $G_{n,p}$ has exactly p nonpower subgroups.*

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Theorem 1, combined with the fact that for composite k greater than 4 there are infinitely many groups with k nonpower subgroups [1, Theorem 5], gives the following immediate corollary.

Corollary 2. *Let k be an integer greater than 4. Then there are infinitely many groups with exactly k nonpower subgroups.*

The only unresolved cases are therefore $k = 3$ and $k = 4$. Our second main result deals with these cases.

Theorem 3. (a) *A group G contains exactly three nonpower subgroups if and only if G is isomorphic to one of $C_2 \times C_2$, Q_8 or $G_{n,3}$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.*

(b) *Up to isomorphism, $C_3 \times C_3$ is the only group containing exactly four nonpower subgroups.*

For the rest of this section, we recall some preliminaries. We note that each power subgroup is characteristic and hence normal in G . Following [1], we write $s(G)$ for the number of subgroups in a group G , $ps(G)$ for the number of power subgroups of G and $nps(G)$ for the number of nonpower subgroups of G .

Lemma 4. [1, Lemma 3] *If A and B are finite groups such that $|A|$ and $|B|$ are coprime, then*

$$nps(A \times B) = nps(A)s(B) + ps(A)nps(B).$$

We denote by $\Phi(G)$ the Frattini subgroup of G , that is, the intersection of the maximal subgroups of G . It is a characteristic subgroup of G .

Theorem 5 (Burnside's Basis Theorem). *Let G be a p -group and suppose $[G : \Phi(G)] = p^d$.*

(a) *$G/\Phi(G)$ is elementary abelian of order p^d . Moreover, if $N \trianglelefteq G$ and G/N is elementary abelian, then $\Phi(G) \leq N$.*

(b) *Every minimal system of generators of G contains exactly d elements.*

(c) *$\Phi(G) = G^p G'$. In particular, if $p = 2$, then $\Phi(G) = G^2$.*

Lemma 6 ([2] Theorem 1.10(a)). *Let G be a non-cyclic p -group, where $p > 2$. Then the number of subgroups of order p in G is congruent to $1 + p$ modulo p^2 .*

Remark. *It is well-known that the only 2-groups with a unique involution are cyclic or generalised quaternion.*

2 Proof of main results

We begin with a proof of Theorem 1.

Proof of Theorem 1. Let p be an odd prime. Our goal is to show that for any positive integer n , and any odd prime p , the group $G_{n,p} = \langle x, y : x^{2^n} = 1 = y^p, yx = xy^{-1} \rangle$ contains exactly p nonpower subgroups. We have that $|G_{n,p}| = 2^n p$. We first obtain a count on the number of subgroups in $G_{n,p}$. Since the Sylow 2-subgroup $\langle x \rangle$ is not a normal subgroup, the number of

Sylow 2-subgroups of $G_{n,p}$ must be p . On the other hand, since $y^x = y^{-1}$, there is a unique normal Sylow p -subgroup, namely the cyclic subgroup $\langle y \rangle$ of order p . Since x^2 is central in $G_{n,p}$ and each Sylow 2-subgroup of $G_{n,p}$ is cyclic, there is a unique subgroup of order 2^k (for each $k \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$) and a unique subgroup of order $2^k p$ (for each $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$). Along with the p subgroups of order 2^n , we see that $s(G_{n,p}) = 2n + p + 1$. As the subgroups of order 2^n are not normal, we know immediately that they are nonpower subgroups. Hence $nps(G_{n,p}) \geq p$. We now show that any subgroup of $G_{n,p}$ that is not a Sylow 2-subgroup of $G_{n,p}$ is a power subgroup of $G_{n,p}$. First, the unique subgroup of order p is $G_{n,p}^{2^n}$. Secondly, for each $k \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$, the subgroup of order 2^k is $G_{n,p}^{2^{n-k}p}$. Finally, for each $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, the subgroup of order $2^k p$ is $G_{n,p}^{2^{n-k}}$. Therefore, $ps(G_{n,p}) = 2n + 1$; whence $nps(G_{n,p}) = p$. \square

We now move onto the proof of Theorem 3. Let G be a finite noncyclic group. Then G falls into one of the following three categories: (i) a noncyclic p -group; (ii) a noncyclic nilpotent group that is not a p -group; (iii) a non-nilpotent group. For each of these cases above, we classify all the finite groups with exactly 3 or 4 nonpower subgroups.

Proposition 7. *Let G be a finite noncyclic p -group. Then $nps(G) = 3$ if and only if G is $C_2 \times C_2$ or Q_8 , and $nps(G) = 4$ if and only if G is $C_3 \times C_3$.*

Proof. Let G be noncyclic of order p^n . It was shown in [3] that if $N \triangleleft G$ and A/N is a nonpower subgroup of G/N , then A is a nonpower subgroup of G . Suppose G has exactly k nonpower subgroups, where $k \in \{3, 4\}$. Now, $G/\Phi(G) \cong C_p \times \dots \times C_p$ (d -times), and $d \geq 2$ as G is not cyclic. The $\frac{p^d-1}{p-1}$ cyclic subgroups of order p in C_p^d are nonpower subgroups. Thus $G/\Phi(G)$, and hence G , has at least $1 + p + \dots + p^{d-1}$ nonpower subgroups. Hence, $d = 2$, either $p = 2$ or $p = 3$, and G has $p + 1$ maximal subgroups that are nonpower subgroups.

The power subgroups of G are $G^1 = G, G^p, G^{p^2}, \dots, G^{p^m}$, where p^m is the exponent of G . There are thus at most $m + 1$ distinct power subgroups. Since G is not cyclic, this means $m < n$; so $ps(G) \leq n$.

What about $s(G)$? There is at least one subgroup of order p^i for $0 \leq i \leq n$ (just take any composition series). This gives at least $n + 1$ subgroups. But there are $p + 1$ maximal subgroups (of order p^{n-1}) arising from the $p + 1$ nontrivial proper subgroups of $G/\Phi(G)$. Thus $s(G) \geq n + p + 1$.

Suppose $p = 2$. If G is not generalised quaternion (and by assumption G is not cyclic), then G has at least 3 involutions, and hence at least 3 subgroups of order 2. So, if $n > 2$, then $s(G) \geq n + 5$, meaning that $nps(G) \geq 5$, a contradiction. Thus, either G is generalised quaternion or $n = 2$, which means $G \cong C_2 \times C_2$, and in this case $nps(G) = 3$. If G is generalised quaternion, then G has $2^{n-1} + 2$ elements of order 4, resulting in $2^{n-2} + 1$ subgroups of order 4. If $n > 3$, we get that $s(G) \geq n + 1 + 2^{n-2} \geq n + 5$. Again, this means that $nps(G) \geq 5$. Thus, $n = 3$, and then $G \cong Q_8$. Again, $nps(Q_8) = 3$.

The remaining case is $p = 3$. By Lemma 6, there are at least four subgroups of order 3 in G . If $n > 2$, then these are distinct from the four maximal subgroups, and so we get $s(G) \geq n + 7$. This forces $nps(G) \geq 7$, a contradiction. The only possibility is that $n = 2$. A quick check shows that $nps(C_3 \times C_3) = 4$.

Thus, $nps(G) = 3$ if and only if G is $C_2 \times C_2$ or Q_8 , and $nps(G) = 4$ if and only if G is $C_3 \times C_3$. \square

Lemma 8. *Let G be a finite noncyclic nilpotent group. If G is not a p -group, then $nps(G) \geq 6$.*

Proof. Recall that a finite group is nilpotent if and only if it is the direct product of its Sylow subgroups, each of which is normal. Since G is noncyclic, at least one of these Sylow subgroups is noncyclic. Let p_1, \dots, p_r be the primes dividing $|G|$, and let P_1, \dots, P_r be the respective Sylow subgroups. Assume, without loss of generality, that P_1 is noncyclic. Write $Q = P_2 \times \dots \times P_r$; so $G \cong P_1 \times Q$. Since G is not a p -group, we have that $Q \neq \{1\}$. By Lemma 4 therefore,

$$nps(G) = nps(P_1)s(Q) + ps(P_1)nps(Q) \geq nps(P_1)s(Q).$$

As $Q \neq \{1\}$, we have that $s(Q) \geq 2$. As P_1 is not cyclic, $nps(P_1) \geq 3$. Hence $nps(G) \geq 6$. \square

Lemma 9. *If G is a finite non-nilpotent group such that $nps(G) \in \{3, 4\}$, then $nps(G) = 3$ and $G \cong G_{n,3} = \langle x, y : x^{2^n} = 1 = y^3, yx = xy^{-1} \rangle$, for some positive integer n .*

Proof. Suppose G is finite, non-nilpotent and $nps(G) = k \in \{3, 4\}$. If G had a unique Sylow p -subgroup for each p dividing $|G|$, then G would be nilpotent. So there is at least one such p for which G has more than one Sylow p -subgroup. For any such p , the number, n_p , of Sylow p -subgroups is congruent to 1 mod p . So $n_p \geq p + 1$. These groups are not normal, so are not power subgroups. Therefore, as $nps(G) \in \{3, 4\}$, we have that either $p = 2$ and $n_2 = 3$, or $p = 3$ and $n_3 = 4$. For all other primes q dividing $|G|$, there must be a unique Sylow q -subgroup. If any subgroup of G , other than the Sylow p -subgroups, were non-normal, then it and its conjugates could not be power subgroups. Thus there would be at least two further nonpower subgroups, forcing $nps(G) \geq 5$, a contradiction. Therefore, every subgroup of G , other than the Sylow p -subgroups, is normal.

Let P be one of the Sylow p -subgroups. Let q_1, \dots, q_r be the primes other than p dividing $|G|$. Let Q_1, \dots, Q_r be the corresponding normal Sylow subgroups. Each Q_i is normal and the Q_i intersect trivially. Therefore, defining $H = Q_1 Q_2 \dots Q_r$, we have that $H \cong Q_1 \times Q_2 \times \dots \times Q_r$ is a normal subgroup of G , with $G = PH$. Now, $P \trianglelefteq N_G(P)$, and setting $K = H \cap N_G(P)$, we have that $K \trianglelefteq G$ (because certainly K is not a Sylow p -subgroup). But P is normal in $N_G(P) = PK$; so $N_G(P) \cong P \times K$. Let $h \in H - N_G(P)$. Then $(PK)^h = P^h K \neq PK$. This means that PK is not normal in G ; a contradiction unless $K = \{1\}$. Therefore, $K = \{1\}$, and $P = N_G(P)$. In particular, $n_p = |G : P| = |H|$.

Suppose first that $p = 3$. Then $|H| = 4$. If $H \cong C_2 \times C_2$, then each of its cyclic subgroups would be normal, and hence the involutions they contain would be central. But that would imply that P is normal in G , a contradiction. Therefore $H \cong C_4$. Let z be a generator of H . We have $H \leq C_G(z) \leq G$. Thus, $|z^G| = 3^i$ for some i with $0 \leq i \leq n$. But $z^G \subseteq \{z, z^{-1}\}$. The only possibility is that $z^G = \{z\}$, and z is central in G . Again, this implies that P is normal in G , a contradiction. Therefore, $p \neq 3$.

The remaining case is when $p = 2$. In this case, $H \cong C_3$. Let A_1, A_2 , and A_3 be the three Sylow 2-subgroups. Every proper subgroup of P is not one of A_1, A_2 and A_3 , so is normal in G and hence contained in all of A_1, A_2 and A_3 . If P were not cyclic, then each of its generators would generate a proper cyclic subgroup, and would hence be contained in A_1, A_2 and A_3 . This implies $P \leq A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3$; a contradiction. Therefore, P is cyclic of order 2^n . Write $P = \langle x \rangle$ and $H = \langle y \rangle$. Certainly, $y^x \neq y$; so the only possibility is that $y^x = y^{-1}$. Therefore,

$$G = \langle x, y : x^{2^n} = 1, y^3 = 1, yx = xy^{-1} \rangle$$

for some integer $n \geq 1$. That is, $G \cong G_{n,3}$. By Theorem 1, we have $nps(G) = 3$. \square

Theorem 3 follows immediately from Proposition 7, Lemma 8 and Lemma 9.

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