ON SEMINORMAL SUBGROUPS OF FINITE GROUPS

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ABSTRACT. All groups considered in this paper are finite. A subgroup H of a group G is said to *seminormal* in G if H is normalized by all subgroups K of G such that gcd(|H|, |K|) = 1. We call a group G an MSN-group if the maximal subgroups of all the Sylow subgroups of G are seminormal in G. In this paper, we classify all MSN-groups.

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

There are many articles in the literature (for instance, [6, 11, 13], to name just three) where global information about a group G is obtained by assuming that all p-subgroups H, p a prime, of a given order, satisfy a sufficiently strong embedding property extending permutability. In many cases, the subgroups H are the maximal subgroups of the Sylow p-subgroups of G, and the embedding assumption is that they are Ssemipermutable in G.

Following [7], we say that a subgroup X of a group G is said to be S-semipermutable in G provided that it permutes with every Sylow q-subgroup of G for all primes q not dividing |H|. We define the class of MS-groups to be the class of groups G in which the maximal subgroups of all the Sylow subgroups of G are S-semipermutable in G. This class was studied in [1, 5, 10].

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Suppose that X is a subnormal S-semipermutable subgroup of a group G. If P is a subgroup, respectively, Sylow subgroup, of G with gcd(|X|, |P|) = 1, then X is a subnormal Hall subgroup of XP, and so X is normalized by P. This observation motivates the following.

Definition 1.1 ([4]). A subgroup X of a group G is said to be *seminormal*, respectively, S-*seminormal*¹, in G if it is normalized by every subgroup, respectively, Sylow subgroup, K of G such that gcd(|X|, |K|) = 1.

By [4, Theorem 1.2], a subgroup of a group is seminormal if and only if it is S-seminormal. Furthermore, a Sylow 2-subgroup of the symmetric group of degree 3 is an example of an S-semipermutable subgroup which is not seminormal.

We say that a group G is an MSN-group if the maximal subgroups of all the Sylow subgroups of G are seminormal in G. It is clear that the class of all MSN-groups is a subclass of the class of all MS-groups. To show that this inclusion is proper is the aim of the next example.

Example 1.2. Let $A = \langle y \rangle \times \langle z \rangle$ be a cyclic group of order 18 with y an element of order 9 and z an element of order 2. Let V be an irreducible A-module over the field of 19 elements such that $C_A(V) = \langle z \rangle$. Then V is a cyclic group of order 19. The maximal subgroups of the Sylow subgroups are either trivial or cyclic of order 3. Since V and $\langle z \rangle$ are normal Sylow subgroups of G, it follows that the maximal subgroups of the Sylow 3-subgroups are S-permutable. Hence, G is an MS-group. However, the cyclic subgroups of order 3 are not normalized by V and so G is not an MSN-group.

The main purpose of this paper is to characterize the class of all MSN-groups.

2. Preliminary results. In this section, we collect the definitions and results which are used to prove our theorems.

The book [2] will be the main reference for terminology and results on permutability. S-semipermutability and seminormality are closely related to the following subgroup embedding property introduced by Kegel [8].

Definition 2.1. 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*.

The following classes of groups have been extensively studied in recent years. They play an important role in the structural study of groups.

Definition 2.2.

- (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.

A classical result of Kegel shows that every S-permutable subgroup must be subnormal ([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 a T-group is a PT-group and a PT-group is a PST-group. On the other hand, a PT-group is not necessarily a T-group (non-Dedekind modular p-groups) and a PST-group is not necessarily a PTgroup (non-modular p-groups).

Another interesting class of groups in this context is the class of T_0 -groups studied in [3, 9, 12].

Definition 2.3. A group G is called a T_0 -group if the Frattini factor group $G/\Phi(G)$ is a T-group.

The next example shows that the class of all T_0 -groups properly contains the class of all T-groups.

Example 2.4. Let $E = \langle x, y \rangle$ be an extraspecial group of order 27 and exponent 3. Let *a* be an automorphism of order 2 of *G* given by $x^a = x^{-1}$, $y^a = y^{-1}$. Let $G = E \rtimes \langle a \rangle$ be the corresponding semidirect product. Clearly, *G* is a T₀-group. The subgroup $H = \langle x \rangle$ is a subnormal subgroup of *G* which does not permute with the Sylow 2-subgroup $\langle ay \rangle$. Therefore, *H* is not *S*-permutable. Hence, *G* is not a PST-group and so is not a T-group either.

The next theorem shows that soluble T_0 -groups are closely related to PST-groups.

Theorem 2.5 ([9, Theorems 5, 7 and Corollary 3]). Let G be a soluble T_0 -group with nilpotent residual $L = \gamma_{\infty}(G)$. Then:

- (i) G is supersoluble.
- (ii) L is a nilpotent Hall subgroup of G.
- (iii) 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 $i \geq 1$.

Let G be a group whose nilpotent residual $L = \gamma_{\infty}(G)$ is a Hall subgroup of G. Let $\pi = \pi(L)$ and let $\theta = \pi'$ be the complement of π in the set of all prime numbers. Let θ_N denote the set of all primes pin θ such that, if P is a Sylow p-subgroup of G, then P has at least two maximal subgroups. Further, let θ_C denote the set of all primes qin θ 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 π , $\theta = \pi'$, θ_N and θ_C .

We bring the section to a close with a characterization theorem proved in [1, Theorem A].

Theorem 2.6. 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:

(i) G is a T_0 -group.

- (ii) L is a nilpotent Hall subgroup of G.
- (iii) If $p \in \pi$ and $P \in Syl_p(G)$, then a maximal subgroup of P is normal in G.
- (iv) 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.
- (v) 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.

3. Main results. Our first theorem gives precise conditions for an MS-group to be an MSN-group. It is, therefore, a characterization theorem.

Theorem A. A group G is an MSN-group if and only if G satisfies the following conditions:

- (i) G is an MS-group.
- (ii) Let p and q be distinct primes with $p \in \pi$ and $q \in \theta_N$. If $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$ and $Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G)$, then [P,Q] = 1.
- (iii) Let p and q be distinct primes with $p \in \pi$ and $q \in \theta_C$. If $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G), Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G)$ and T is a maximal subgroup of Q, then [P, T] = 1.

Proof. Let G be an MSN-group. Then G is an MS-group.

Let $p \in \pi$ and $q \in \theta_N$. In addition, let $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$ and $Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G)$. Further, let T_1 and T_2 be maximal subgroups of Q. Now P is the Sylow p-subgroup of L and P is normal in G since L is a nilpotent Hall π -subgroup of G by Theorem 2.6 (ii). Since G is an MSN-group, P normalizes T_1 and T_2 . Hence, P normalizes $Q = \langle T_1, T_2 \rangle$, and so, [P, Q] = 1. Thus, statement (ii) is true.

Assume now that p and q are distinct primes with $p \in \pi$ and $q \in \theta_C$. Let $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_p(G)$, $Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_q(G)$ and T a maximal subgroup of Q. Since P is a normal subgroup of G normalizing T, it follows that [P, T] = 1. Therefore, statement (iii) holds.

Conversely, assume that G is an MS-group satisfying assertions (ii) and (iii). We shall show that G is an MSN-group. By Theorem 2.6, G is a soluble T_0 -group and the nilpotent residual L of G is a nilpotent Hall π -subgroup of G. Let $p \in \pi$, and let $P \in Syl_p(G)$. Then P is a Sylow *p*-subgroup of *L*, and it is normal in *G*. Let *M* be a maximal subgroup of *P*. By Theorem 2.6 (iii), *M* is normal in *G* and so it is seminormal in *G*. Moreover, by assertions (ii) and (iii), *P* normalizes every maximal subgroup of every Sylow *r*-subgroup of *G* for all $r \in \theta$.

Let q and r be distinct primes from θ , and let $Q \in \text{Syl}_q(G)$ and $R \in \text{Syl}_r(G)$. Consider a maximal subgroup M of R. If $r \in \theta_N$, then by Theorem 2.6 (iv), [R, Q] = 1 and so Q normalizes M. Hence, assume $r \in \theta_C$. Then, by Theorem 2.6 (v), MQ is a nilpotent subgroup of G and Q normalizes M.

Therefore, every maximal subgroup of every Sylow subgroup of G is seminormal in G. This means G is an MSN-group.

The second main result tells us how an MSN-group looks.

Theorem B. Let G be an MSN-group. Then G is a split extension of a nilpotent Hall subgroup by a cyclic group.

Proof. Let G be an MSN-group with nilpotent residual L. By Theorem 2.6 (ii), the nilpotent residual L of G is a nilpotent Hall π -subgroup of G. Let X be a Hall θ -subgroup of G, and note that $G = L \rtimes X$, the semidirect product of L by X. Since X is nilpotent, it follows that $X = Y \times T$, where Y is the Hall θ_N -subgroup of X and T is the Hall θ_C -subgroup of X. Note that T is cyclic. By Theorem A (ii), L centralizes Y and so Y is a normal nilpotent Hall subgroup of G. Therefore, $G = (L \times Y) \rtimes T$ is the semidirect product of the nilpotent Hall subgroup $L \times Y$ by the cyclic group T. This completes the proof.

Applying Theorems 2.5 and 2.6, if the nilpotent residual of an MSNgroup G is abelian, then G is a PST-group. We should mention, however, that not every soluble PST-group is an MSN-group (see [1, Example 9]); those that can be MSN-groups are characterized in the next theorem.

Theorem C. Let G be a soluble PST-group. Then G is an MSN-group if and only if G satisfies Theorem 2.6 (iv) and (v) and Theorem A (ii) and (iii).

Proof. Let G be a soluble PST-group. By [1, Theorem B], G satisfies Theorem 2.6 (iv) and (v). Moreover, by Theorem A, properties (ii) and (iii) are satisfied by G.

Conversely, assume that Theorem 2.6 (iv), (v) and Theorem A (ii), (iii) are satisfied by G. By [1, Theorem B], G is an MS-group. \Box

Soluble PST-groups which are also MSN-groups are analyzed in our next result. It shows that they have a very restricted structure.

Theorem D. Let G be a soluble PST-group, and let L be the nilpotent residual of G. Assume that G is an MSN-group. Then the following statements hold:

- (i) every Hall θ_N -subgroup of G is contained in the hypercenter of G.
- (ii) $G = (L \times X) \rtimes Y$, where Y is a cyclic Hall θ_C -subgroup of G.
- (iii) If G is non-nilpotent, then Y is of square-free order.

Proof. Applying a theorem of Agarwal ([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. By Theorem B, G is a semidirect product of the nilpotent Hall ($\pi \cup \theta_N$)-subgroup by a cyclic Hall θ_C -subgroup. Note that a Hall θ_N -subgroup E of G is a normal subgroup of G. Moreover, E normalizes every Sylow r-subgroup of G for all primes $r \in \pi \cup \theta_C$. This means that E is contained in the intersection of the normalizers of all Sylow subgroups of G, that is, E is contained in the hypercenter of G. Therefore, assertions (i) and (ii) hold.

Suppose that G is non-nilpotent. Then $L \neq 1$ and Z(G) = 1. Let $r \in \theta_C$ and $R \in \text{Syl}_r(G)$. If M is a maximal subgroup of R, then, by Theorem A, [M, L] = 1. Since M is central in a Hall θ -subgroup of G, it follows that $M \neq Z(G) = 1$. Therefore, R is cyclic of order r. Hence, Y is cyclic of square-free order and assertion (iii) holds.

Example 3.1. Let *L* be a cyclic group of order 19, let *E* be an extraspecial 3-group of order 27 and exponent 3, and let $C = \langle c \rangle$ be a cyclic group of order 2. Put $X = E \times C$, and let *X* act on *L* as follows: *E* centralizes *L* and, if $l \in L$, then $l^c = l^{-1}$. Let $G = L \rtimes X$ be the semidirect product of *L* by *X*. Then, *G* is a PST-group with nilpotent

residual L. Note that G is an MSN-group with $\pi = \{19\}, \theta_N = \{3\}$ and $\theta_C = \{2\}$. We also note that $G = (L \times E) \rtimes C$.

ENDNOTES

1. Note that the term *seminormal* has different meanings in the literature.

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