# FINITE GROUPS WHOSE ALL PROPER SUBGROUPS <br> ARE $\mathcal{C}$-GROUPS 

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Abstract. A group $G$ is said to be a $\mathcal{C}$-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 $\mathcal{C}$-groups but all of whose proper subgroups are $\mathcal{C}$-groups.

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

[^0]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 $g \in\left\langle H, H^{g}\right\rangle$ for all $g$ in $G$. Recently, Liu, Li and He in [6] called a group $G$ a $\mathcal{C}$-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- $\mathcal{C}$-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 $H \leqslant K \leqslant G$. 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 $N \unlhd G$ and $N \leqslant H$. 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.

Lemma 2.2 ([6], Theorem 3.1). The following statements for a group $G$ are equivalent:
(a) $G$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-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 $\alpha$ 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 $\alpha$ is nontrivial and has order prime to $p$, then $\alpha$ 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 $\mathcal{C}$-group, $G$ is supersolvable or minimal non-supersolvable by Lemma 2.2 , which implies that $G$ is solvable by Lemma 2.4.

Let $\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}$ be a Sylow system of $G$ with $p_{1}<p_{2}<\ldots<p_{n}$, where $p_{i}$ is a prime dividing $\left|P_{i}\right|$. If $n=1$, then $G$ is nilpotent and Lemma 2.2 means that $G$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group, and this contradiction forces $n \geqslant 2$. Suppose that $n \geqslant 4$. We can see that $P_{2} P_{3} P_{4} \ldots P_{n}, P_{1} P_{3} P_{4} \ldots P_{n}, P_{1} P_{2} P_{4} \ldots P_{n}$ and $P_{1} P_{2} P_{3} P_{5} \ldots P_{n}$ are $\mathcal{C}$-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, $P_{2} P_{3} P_{4} \ldots P_{n}, P_{1} P_{2} P_{4} \ldots P_{n}$ and $P_{1} P_{2} P_{3}$ are $\mathcal{C}$-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 $F(G)=$ $O_{p_{1}}(G) P_{2} P_{3} P_{4} \ldots P_{n}$ and $G / F(G)$ is cyclic of order $p_{1}$. Set $\bar{G}=G / O_{p_{1}}(G)$. Then $\bar{G}=\overline{P_{1}} \ltimes F(\bar{G})$. By hypothesis and Lemma 2.2 , we have that $\bar{G}$ is not a Frobenius group and so there exists a $p_{1}^{\prime}$-element $\bar{x}$ in $F(\bar{G})$ such that $C_{\bar{G}}(\bar{x}) \nsubseteq F(\bar{G})$, then $\bar{G}=C_{\bar{G}}(\bar{x}) F(\bar{G})$ and thus $C_{\bar{G}}(\bar{x})$ contains a Sylow $p_{1}$-subgroup $\overline{P_{1}}$ of $\bar{G}$. Thus $\left[\overline{P_{1}}, \bar{x}\right]=1$. By hypothesis, $P_{1} P_{i}$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group for $2 \leqslant i \leqslant n$. Suppose that $P_{1}$ is normal in $P_{1} P_{i}$ for all $i \in\{2, \ldots, n\}$. Then $P_{1} P_{i}$ 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 $P_{1} P_{i}$. Hence $P_{1}$ is abnormal in $H$ for every Hall subgroup $H$ of $G$ such that $P_{1} P_{i} \leqslant H<G$ 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 $\bar{P}_{1}$ is abnormal in $\bar{G}$, a contradiction. Hence $|\pi(G)| \in\{2,3\}$.

Lemma 2.6 ([5]). Suppose that a $p^{\prime}$-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- $\mathcal{C}$-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) $G=\left\langle x, y: x^{p}=y^{q^{n}}=1, y^{-1} x y=x^{i}\right\rangle$, where $n \geqslant 2, i^{q} \not \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ and $i^{q^{2}} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ 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 $\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$ 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 $2 m$, the order of $p$ modulo $q$ being $2 m, Q=\langle y\rangle$ 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, $|P / \Phi(P)|=p^{2 m}$ and $\left|P^{\prime}\right| \leqslant p^{m}$. (In this type, the restriction $p>q$ is not necessary.)
(V) $G=P \rtimes Q$, where $P=\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{q-1}\right\rangle$ 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 $0 \leqslant j<q-1$ and $a_{q-1}^{y}=a_{0}^{i}$, where $i$ is a primitive $q$ th root of unity modulo $p$.

Proof. Let $G=P Q$, where $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G), Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_{q}(G)$. 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 $y^{-1} x y=x^{i}$ with $i^{q^{n}} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{m}\right), 1<i<p^{m}$ and $\left(p^{m}, q^{n}(i-1)\right)=1$. If $\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$ is normal in $G$, then $F(G)=P \times\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$. Set $\bar{G}=G / O_{q}(G)$, then $\bar{G}=\bar{P} \rtimes \bar{Q}$. It follows that $\bar{Q}$ induces a power automorphism $\alpha$ of order $q$ in $\bar{P}$. By Lemma 2.3, $\alpha$ is fixed-point-free, and so $G / O_{q}(G)$ is a Frobenius group. Thus, $G$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group, a contradiction. Hence $\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$ is not normal in $G$. By hypothesis, $P\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group. We can see that $\left\langle y^{q^{2}}\right\rangle$ is normal in $P\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$ due to Lemma 2.2. Thus $\left(y^{q}\right)^{-1} x y^{q}=x^{i^{q}} \neq x,\left(y^{q^{2}}\right)^{-1} x y^{q^{2}}=x^{i^{q^{2}}}=x$, so that $i^{q} \not \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{m}\right)$, $i^{q^{2}} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{m}\right)$. Surely, $y^{q}$ induces a power automorphism of order $q$ in $P$, and every proper subgroup of $\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$ is normal in $G$. If $x^{p} \neq 1$, then by Lemma 2.3,
$\left\langle x^{p}\right\rangle\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle \neq\left\langle x^{p}\right\rangle \times\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$. By hypothesis and Lemma 2.2, $\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$ is normal in $\left\langle x^{p}\right\rangle\langle y\rangle$ and so $\left\langle x^{p}\right\rangle\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle=\left\langle x^{p}\right\rangle \times\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$, a contradiction. Therefore, $G$ is of type (I).
(1.2) Assume that $P$ is non-cyclic and $Q$ is cyclic.

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

$$
1 \unlhd \ldots \unlhd R \unlhd P \unlhd \ldots \unlhd G
$$

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 $N / \Phi(P) \unlhd G / \Phi(P)$. Thus, $N \unlhd G, N \not \leq R$ and $1 \unlhd N \unlhd P \unlhd G$ 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 $\mathcal{C}$-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 $\mathcal{C}$-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 $Q, P Q_{1}$ and $P Q_{2}$ are $\mathcal{C}$-groups by hypothesis. It is clear that $O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right)$ $\operatorname{char} P Q_{1} \unlhd G$ and $O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right)$ char $P Q_{2} \unlhd G$, so $O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right) \unlhd G$ and $O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right) \unlhd G$. Suppose that $O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right) \neq O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right)$, then $O_{q}(G)=O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right) O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right)$. If $m=1$, then $G / O_{q}(G)$ is a Frobenius group whose Frobenius complement $Q / O_{q}(G)$ is cyclic of order $q$. By Lemma 2.2, $G$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group, a contradiction. So we may assume that $m \geqslant 2$. By hypothesis, $G / O_{q}(G)$ is not a Frobenius group but $\left\langle a^{p^{m-1}}\right\rangle Q$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group. Hence $\left\langle a^{p^{m-1}}\right\rangle O_{q}(G) / O_{q}(G) \cdot\langle y\rangle O_{q}(G) / O_{q}(G)$ is nilpotent for some $y \in Q \backslash O_{q}(G)$. Furthermore, $\left[a^{p^{m-1}}, y\right]=1$. Applying Lemma 2.6, we see that $G$ is nilpotent, a contradiction. This means that $O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right)=O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right)$ 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 $\left\langle a^{p^{m-1}}\right\rangle Q$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group, and $Q$ has a maximal subgroup, say $\langle x, \Phi(Q)\rangle$, such that $\langle x, \Phi(Q)\rangle \unlhd\langle P, Q\rangle=G$ 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 $O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right) \unlhd G$ and $O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right) \unlhd G$ for two arbitrarily chosen maximal subgroups $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ of $Q$.

If $O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right) \neq O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right)$, then $O_{q}(G)=O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right) O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right) \lessdot Q$ and $G / F(G)$ is cyclic of order $q$. Since $G$ is not a $\mathcal{C}$-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 $Q \backslash O_{q}(G)$ such that $[\bar{a}, \bar{y}]=1$, and so $[a, y]=1$, where $\bar{a}=a O_{q}(G), \bar{y}=y O_{q}(G)$. Furthermore, $\langle a\rangle Q$ is nilpotent and we may assume $\langle a\rangle \leqslant R$. If $R \cap K>1$, then we have that both $R Q$ and $K Q$ 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 $Q=$ $\left\langle y, O_{q}(G)\right\rangle$, where $q \mid p-1$ and $1<O_{q}(G) \lessdot Q$. Define $[a, y]=1, b^{y}=b^{i}$, where $i$ is a primitive $q$ th root of unity modulo $p$ with $1<i<p$. Clearly, $P\langle y\rangle$ is not a $\mathcal{C}$-group by Lemma 2.2, this possibility does not occur.

We consider the case that $O_{q}(G)=O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right)=O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right)=\Phi(Q)$ is the 2-maximal subgroup of $Q$, and let $Q=\langle x, y, \Phi(Q)\rangle$. If $R Q$ is nilpotent, then $[K, Q] \neq 1$ as $G$ is not nilpotent. Since $K Q$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group, there is a maximal subgroup $Q^{*}$ of $Q$ such that $\left[Q^{*}, K\right]=1$ by Lemma 2.2, which implies $Q^{*} \unlhd G$, a contradiction. Similarly, $K Q$ is not nilpotent either. Hence $Q$ is abnormal in both $R Q$ and $K Q$. Since $R Q$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group, $O_{q}(R Q)$ is a maximal subgroup of $Q$ by Lemma 2.2. We may assume without loss of generality that $O_{q}(R Q)=\left\langle y, O_{q}(G)\right\rangle$. If $R \cap K \neq 1$, then there is at least a nontrivial element $g$ in $R \cap K$ such that $\left[g, O_{q}(R Q)\right]=1$. Furthermore, our hypothesis and Lemma 2.2 can be combined to give that $K O_{q}(R Q)$ is nilpotent. This means that $O_{q}(R Q)$ 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 $q$ th roots of unity modulo $p$ with $1<i, j<p$. Clearly, $G$ contains a subgroup $P\left\langle x, O_{q}(G)\right\rangle$ which is not a $\mathcal{C}$-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 $G=P Q$ and $P \unlhd G$, where $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G), Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_{q}(G)$ by Lemma 2.4.

Suppose that $M$ is a maximal subgroup of $G$ containing $Q$. Set $M=P_{3} Q$, where $P_{3}$ is a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $M$. By $\left[P_{3}, Q\right] \leqslant P \cap P_{3} Q=P_{3}$, we have $N_{G}\left(P_{3}\right) \geqslant P_{3} Q=M$. Since $N_{P}\left(P_{3}\right)>P_{3}, P_{3}$ 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 $G=P Q$, where $P=\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{q-1}\right\rangle$ 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 $n>f \geqslant 1$. Define $a_{j}^{y}=a_{j+1}$ for $0 \leqslant j<q-1$ and $a_{q-1}^{y}=a_{0}^{i}$, where $i$ is a primitive $q^{f}$ th root of unity modulo $p$. Since $P\left\langle y^{q}\right\rangle$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group, $y^{q}$ induces a fixed-point-free automorphism of order $q$ in $P$ by Lemma 2.2. Hence $a_{0}^{i^{q}}=a_{0}^{y^{q^{2}}}=a_{0}$. Thus $i^{q} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ 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 $G=P Q$ is such that $P=\left\langle a_{0}, a_{1}\right\rangle$ 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 $n>f \geqslant 1$, and $a_{0}^{y}=a_{1}$ and $a_{1}^{y}=a_{0}^{i} x$, where $x \in\left\langle\left[a_{0}, a_{1}\right]\right\rangle$ and $i$ is a primitive $2^{f}$ th root of unity modulo $p$. Since $a_{0}^{y^{2}}=$ $a_{1}^{y}=a_{0}^{i} x \notin\left\langle a_{0}\right\rangle, P\left\langle y^{2}\right\rangle$ is a non-nilpotent $\mathcal{C}$-group and $\Phi(P)\langle y\rangle$ is also a $\mathcal{C}$-group. By calculation, $G$ is not a minimal non- $\mathcal{C}$-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 $Q, P Q_{1}$ and $P Q_{2}$ are $\mathcal{C}$-groups. By Lemma 2.2, $O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right) \unlhd G$ and $O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right) \unlhd G$. If $O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right) \neq O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right)$, then $O_{q}(G)=O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right) O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right) \lessdot Q$. Examining the types 6-10 in [1], Theorems 9 and 10, and their proofs, we find none of them is a minimal non- $\mathcal{C}$-group. This implies that $O_{q}\left(P Q_{1}\right)=O_{q}\left(P Q_{2}\right)$ 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 $\Phi(G)_{q} \leqslant \Phi(Q)$, 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- $\mathcal{C}$-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- $\mathcal{C}$-groups with $|\pi(G)|=3$.

Theorem 3.2. Let $G$ be a minimal non- $\mathcal{C}$-group with $|\pi(G)|=3$. Then $G$ is exactly of one of the following types:
(I) $G=\left\langle a, b: a^{p}=b^{q r^{m}}=1, b^{-1} a b=a^{i}\right\rangle$ with $r \mid p-1, p>q>r$ and $m \geqslant 1$, where $i^{q} \not \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ and $i^{r} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ with $1<i<p$.
(II) $G=\left\langle a, b: a^{p}=b^{q^{m} r}=1, b^{-1} a b=a^{i}\right\rangle$ with $q \mid p-1, q>r$ and $m \geqslant 1$, where $i^{q} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ and $i^{r} \not \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ with $1<i<p$.
(III) $G=\left\langle a, b: a^{p}=b^{q r}=1, b^{-1} a b=a^{i}\right\rangle$ with $q>r$, where $i^{r} \not \equiv 1(\bmod p)$, $i^{q} \not \equiv 1(\bmod p)$, and $i^{q r} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ 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 $Q R$-module over the field of $p$ elements, where $q|p-1, r| p-1$ and $r \mid q-1$. In this case, $\Phi(G)_{p^{\prime}}$, the Hall $p^{\prime}$-subgroup of $\Phi(G)$, coincides with $\left\langle x^{q}\right\rangle$ and centralizes $P$.

Proof. Let $G=P Q R$, where $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G), Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_{q}(G), R \in \operatorname{Syl}_{r}(G)$ 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 $P_{1} Q R$ and $P_{2} Q R$ are $\mathcal{C}$-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 $Q R$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group. It is clear that $R$ is not normal in $G$. If $R$ is abnormal in both $P R$ and $Q R$, then $R$ is abnormal in $G$ and so $G$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group, a contradiction. If $[P, R]=1$ or $[Q, R]=1$, then $P_{1} Q R$ and $P_{2} Q R$ are nilpotent by Lemma 2.2; this means that $G$ is nilpotent. This contradiction forces that $P$ is cyclic. Moreover, if $|P|>p$, then $\Phi(P) Q R$ 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 $P Q_{1} R$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-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 $P Q R_{1}$ and $P Q R_{2}$ 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

$$
G=\left\langle a, b: a^{p}=b^{q r^{m}}=1, b^{-1} a b=a^{i}\right\rangle
$$

where $r \mid p-1, i^{q r^{m}} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ and $\left(p, q r^{m}(i-1)\right)=1$ with $1<i<p$. Since $a^{b^{r}}=a$ and $a^{b^{q}} \neq a$, we have $i^{r} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ and $i^{q} \not \equiv 1(\bmod p)$. 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 $P R$ and $Q R$, then $R$ is abnormal in $G$. We can show that $G$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-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 $Q R$. It is clear that $P Q_{1} R$ and $P Q_{2} R$ are $\mathcal{C}$-groups by hypothesis. It follows from Lemma 2.2 that $\left[P, Q_{1}\right]=1=$ $\left[P, Q_{2}\right]$ and hence $[P, Q]=1$, a contradiction. Hence $Q$ is cyclic and let $|Q|=q^{m}$. If $|R|>r$, then by Lemma $2.2, P Q R_{1}$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group for any maximal subgroup $R_{1}$ of $R$, and so $P Q=P \times Q$, 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 $\mathcal{C}$-group, a contradiction.

Now we consider the case that $G$ is minimal non-supersolvable.
Applying [1], Theorems 9,10 , we may first assume that $P \unlhd G, R$ is a cyclic subgroup of order $r^{s+t}$, with $r$ a prime number and $s$ and $t$ integers such that $s \geqslant 1$ and $t \geqslant 0$, normalizing $Q, Q / \Phi(Q)$ is an irreducible $R$-module over the field of $q$ elements, whose kernel is the subgroup $D$ of order $r^{t}$ of $R$, and $P$ is an irreducible $Q R$-module over the field of $p$ elements, where $q\left|p-1, r^{s}\right| p-1$ and $r \mid q-1$. In this case, $\Phi(G)_{p^{\prime}}$, the Hall $p^{\prime}$-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 $P Q R_{1}$ is a $\mathcal{C}$-group, and so $P Q=P \times Q$ 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 $P Q_{1} R$ and $P Q_{2} R$ are $\mathcal{C}$-groups. This induces that $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ centralize $P$ by Lemma 2.2, and so $P Q$ 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 $s \geqslant 1$ and $t \geqslant 0$, 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 $Q R$-module over the field of $p$ elements, where $q \mid p-1$ and $2^{s} \mid p-1$. In this case, $\Phi(G)_{p^{\prime}}$, the Hall $p^{\prime}$-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 $P Q$ and $\Phi(P) Q R$ of $G$, we conclude that at least one of them is not a $\mathcal{C}$-group, a contradiction.

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

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