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

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Received October 16, 2016. First published October 20, 2017.

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,

The first author was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 11661031), and "333" Project of Jiangsu Province (No. BRA2015137). The second author was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 11301426, 11471266 and 11671324), China Postdoctoral Science Foundation (No. 2016M592617), the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (No. XDJK2014B042), and Chongqing Research Program of Basic Research and Frontier Technology (No. cstc2013jcyjA00019).

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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