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Groups of Square-Free Order, An Algorithm

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Abstract. An abstract definition of the groups of square-free order is given that leads naturally to a programmable computation of their number. O. Hölder's alternative description of the groups of square-free order is incidentally derived.

Throughout this paper G will be a group of order $h = \Pi_{i=1}^{n} p_i$, where $p_1 > p_2 > \cdots > p_n$ are given prime numbers. O. Hölder proved in 1895 that the number of groups of order h is

$$\sum_{S}\left(\prod_{j=1}^{r}\frac{(p_{S(j)})^{c_{S(j)}}-1}{p_{S(j)}-1}\right), \tag{1}$$

where the sum extends to all the subsets $S = \{S(1), S(2), \ldots, S(r)\}$ of the set $\{2, 3, \ldots, n\}$; and $c_{S(j)}$ is the number of differences $p_i - 1$, $i \notin S$, which are divisible by p_j. The number of terms in (1) is very large even for small values of n; and therefore, it seems desirable to have a computer program that for each set of primes $\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n\}$ skips the zero terms in (1).

The present paper makes no use of formula (1); it is an alternative approach to the description of the groups of order h and the determination of their number.

1. If $n = 2$, by the Sylow theorems G has a normal subgroup $\langle a\rangle$ of order $q = p_1$ and a subgroup $\langle b\rangle$ of order $p = p_2$; therefore, $bab^{-1} = a^k$; and since $a = b^p ab^{-p} = a^{k^p}$, k is a solution of the congruence equation

$$x^p = 1 \pmod q. \tag{2}$$

If $p|(q-1)$, (2) has exactly p distinct solutions mod q, say $1, K, K^2, \ldots, K^{p-1}$ forming a cyclic group under multiplication mod q; and G is one of the two metacyclic groups [4, p. 462]

$$(a, b; a^q, b^p, bab^{-1} = a), \tag{3}$$

$$(a, b; a^q, b^p, bab^{-1} = a^K). \tag{4}$$

(3) is a cyclic group generated by ab. Observe that the metacyclic group $(a, b; a^q, b^p, bab^{-1} = a^{K^r})$ with $1 < r < p$ has also presentation (4) if we use the generators a, b^r instead of a, b. If $p \nmid (q-1)$, then we only have the cyclic group (3).

2. In the general case, $n \geqslant 2$, we will use the following theorems whose proofs can be found in [3, 2.6.7, p. 39, 6.2.11, p. 138, 9.3.11, p. 229 and 9.3.10, p. 228].

THEOREM 1. *If H and A/H are solvable groups, so is A.*

THEOREM 2. *If A is a finite group, p the smallest prime dividing $o(A)$, and a Sylow p-subgroup P of A is cyclic, then P has a normal complement in A.*

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Definition. A Sylow basis B of a finite group A is a set of Sylow subgroups P_i of A, one for each prime divisor of $o(A)$, such that if $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_r$ are elements of B then $P_1 P_2 \cdots P_r$ is a subgroup of A of order $\Pi_{i=1}^{r} o(P_i)$.

THEOREM 3. *If A is a finite solvable group, then A has a Sylow basis.*

THEOREM 4 (HALL). *If A is a finite solvable group of order uv, and $(u, v) = 1$, then*: (i) *A has at least one subgroup of order u,* (ii) *all the subgroups of A of order u are conjugate.*

By Theorems 1 and 2 and induction on n, one can easily see that G is solvable; and therefore by Theorem 3, there exist $a_i \in G$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$, such that $o(\langle a_i \rangle) = p_i$; and $\langle a_{S(1)}, a_{S(2)}, \ldots, a_{S(r)} \rangle$ is a subgroup of G of order $\Pi_{i=1}^{r} p_{S(i)}$ for every subset $S \subseteq \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$. In particular, for $i < j$, we have, as in Section 1, $a_j a_i a_j^{-1} = a_i^{k(i,j)}$, so that G has a presentation of the form

$$(5) \qquad (\{a_i | 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n\}; \{a_i^{p_i} | 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n\}, \{a_j a_i a_j^{-1} = a_i^{k(i,j)} | 1 \leqslant i < j \leqslant n\})$$

with

$$(6) \qquad (k(i, j))^{p_j} = 1 \pmod{p_i}.$$

For each pair $i < j$ such that $p_j | (p_i - 1)$, we will choose one $\neq 1$ solution $K(i, j)$ of the congruence equation (6); and therefore, $k(i, j)$ is a power of $K(i, j)$ (mod p_i).

If $i < j < t$, then $\langle a_i, a_j \rangle$ is normal in $\langle a_i, a_j, a_t \rangle$; and the relation $a_j a_i a_j^{-1} = a_i^{k(i,j)}$ is changed by conjugation by a_t into $a_j^{k(j,t)} a_i^{k(i,t)} a_j^{-k(j,t)} = a_i^{k(i,j)k(i,t)}$, whence $a_i^{k(i,j)k(j,t)k(i,t)} = a_i^{k(i,j)k(i,t)}$; that is: $k(i, j)^{k(j,t)-1} = 1 \pmod{p_i}$ which implies that:

$$(7) \qquad \text{If } i < j < t, \text{ then either } k(i, j) = 1 \text{ or } k(j, t) = 1.$$

Using a convenient power of a_j, $j > 1$, as generator instead of a_j, we may assume as in Section 1 that

$$(8) \qquad k(1, j) \text{ equals either } 1 \text{ or } K(i, j).$$

More generally, we may assume without loss of generality that:

$$(9) \qquad \text{If } 1 = k(1, j) = k(2, j) = \cdots = k(i-1, j), \text{ then } k(i, j) \text{ is either } 1 \text{ or } K(i, j).$$

PROPOSITION 1. *There exists a group G with any given presentation of type* (5) *with exponents satisfying conditions* (6)–(9).

Proof. For each j, $\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_j, a_{j+1} \rangle$ is the relative holomorph

$$\mathrm{Hol}(\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_j \rangle, \langle f \rangle)$$

with $f(a_i) = a_i^{k(i,j+1)}$, $1 \leqslant i \leqslant j$ [3, 9.2.2, p. 214].

PROPOSITION 2. *Two presentations of type* (5) *with exponents satisfying conditions* (6)–(9) *that differ in one of the exponents $k(i, j)$ present morphically different groups. We postpone the proof of this proposition.*

3. In the case of three factors we will call $r = p_1$, $q = p_2$ and $p = p_3$. By the previous section, G has one of the following presentations:

(10) $(a, b, c; a^r, b^q, c^p, bab^{-1} = a, cac^{-1} = a, cbc^{-1} = b)$,

(11) $(a, b, c; a^r, b^q, c^p, bab^{-1} = a, cac^{-1} = a, cbc^{-1} = b^{K(2,3)})$,

(12) $(a, b, c; a^r, b^q, c^p, bab^{-1} = a, cac^{-1} = a^{K(1,3)}, cbc^{-1} = b)$,

(13) $(a, b, c; a^r, b^q, c^p, bab^{-1} = a, cac^{-1} = a^{K(1,3)}, cbc^{-1} = b^{k(2,3)})$ with $k(2, 3) = K(2, 3)^r, \quad r = 1, 2, \ldots, p-1$,

(14) $(a, b, c; a^r, b^q, c^p, bab^{-1} = a^{K(1,2)}, cac^{-1} = a, cbc^{-1} = b)$,

(15) $(a, b, c; a^r, b^q, c^p, bab^{-1} = a^{K(1,2)}, cac^{-1} = a^{K(1,3)}, cbc^{-1} = b)$.

In order to show that they present morphically different groups observe:

(i) The groups with presentations (10)–(15) have the following characteristics:

	Abelian	$\langle a\rangle$ central	$\langle b, c\rangle$ Abelian	$\langle b\rangle$ central	$\langle c\rangle$ central
(10)	Yes				
(11)	No	Yes			
(12)	No	No	Yes	Yes	
(13)	No	No	No		
(14)	No	No	Yes	No	Yes
(15)	No	No	Yes	No	No

(ii) If G has two presentations of type (13), say, one with $k(2, 3) = K(2, 3)^s$ and the other with $k(2, 3) = K(2, 3)^t$, then G has elements a, b, c satisfying the relations of the first presentation, and elements a', b', c' satisfying the relations of the second presentation; since $\langle a\rangle$ and $\langle b\rangle$ are normal in G, we have (Theorem 4) $a' = a^x$, $b' = b^y$ and $c' = a^u b^v c^w$. The relation $c'b'c'^{-1} = a'^{K(1,3)}$ implies $a^{xK(1,3)^w} = a^{xK(1,3)}$, whence $w = 1$; and the relation $c'b'c'^{-1} = b'^{K(2,3)^t}$ implies $b^{yK(2,3)^s} = b^{yK(2,3)^t}$, whence $t = s \pmod p$; and therefore, the two presentations coincide.

The preceding discussion permits us to determine the number of groups of order rqp as shown in the following table:

TABLE 1

Number of Groups of Order rqp, $r > q > p$

$q \mid (r-1)$	$p \mid (r-1)$	$p \mid (q-1)$	Number of groups
No	No	No	1
No	No	Yes	2
No	Yes	No	2
No	Yes	Yes	$p + 2$
Yes	No	No	2
Yes	No	Yes	3
Yes	Yes	No	4
Yes	Yes	Yes	$p + 4$

4. Proof of Proposition 2. Assume inductively that the proposition is true for $n-1$, and let G and G' be groups with presentations of the type (5) satisfying conditions (6)–(9) and with $k(i, j) \neq k'(i, j)$ for some pair $i < j$. If $j < n$, then by assumption $\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{n-1}\rangle \not\cong \langle a'_1, a'_2, \ldots, a'_{n-1}\rangle$ and by Theorem 4 $G \not\cong G'$; therefore, we may assume that $k(i, j) = k'(i, j)$ for all $1 \leqslant i < j < n$. If $k(1, n) \neq k'(1, n)$, then by (8) one of the two is 1 and the other is $K(1, n)$, whence $\langle a_1, a_n\rangle \not\cong \langle a'_1, a'_n\rangle$ and $G \not\cong G'$; therefore, we may assume that $k(1, n) = k'(1, n)$. Let j be the smallest subindex such that $k(j, n) \neq k'(j, n)$; we may assume that $k'(j, n) \neq 1$ and by (7) $k(i, j) = k'(i, j) = 1$ for all $i < j$. If $k(i, n) = k'(i, n) = 1$ for all $i < j$, then by (9) $k(j, n) = 1$ and $k'(j, n) = K(j, n)$; and therefore, $\langle a_1, a_j, a_n\rangle$ is of type (10), whereas $\langle a'_1, a'_j, a'_n\rangle$ is of type (11) and by Theorem 4 $G \not\cong G'$. Else, let i be the least subindex such that $k(i, n) = k'(i, n) \neq 1$; by (9) $k(i, n) = k'(i, n) = K(i, n)$; and therefore, $\langle a'_i, a'_j, a'_n\rangle$ is of type (13), whereas $\langle a_i, a_j, a_n\rangle$ is either of type (13) with different exponent or of type (12); again by Theorem 4 $G \not\cong G'$.

5. O. Hölder's Approach. It is easy to see that $\langle a_j\rangle$ is normal in G if and only if $k(i, j) = 1$ for all $i < j$, and $H = \langle\{a_j | \langle a_j\rangle \text{ normal in } G\}\rangle$ is Abelian and therefore cyclic. Furthermore, condition (7) shows that $G^1 \subseteq H$, and therefore, G/H is also cyclic, which implies [4, p. 462] that G is metacyclic with presentation of the form

$$(a, b; a^s, b^t, bab^{-1} = a^k),\ st = h. \tag{16}$$

$k(1,2)$	$k(1,3)$	$k(2,3)$	$k(1,4)$	$k(2,4)$	$k(3,4)$
1	1	1	1	1	1
					K
				K	1
					k
			K	1	1
					k
				k	1
					k
		K	1	1	1
				K	1
			K	1	1
				k	1
	K	1	1	1	1
				K	1
			K	1	1
				k	1
		k	1	1	1
				K	1
			K	1	1
				k	1
K	1	1	1	1	1
					K
			K	1	1
					k
	K	1	1	1	1
			K	1	1

DIAGRAM 1

Definition. i is linked to j if there exist $S(1) = i, S(2), \ldots, S(r) = j$ such that $a_{S(t)}$ does not commute with $a_{S(t+1)}$, $t = 1, 2, \ldots, r-1$. The proof of the following proposition is trivial:

PROPOSITION 3. *For each i, $\langle a_i, \{a_j | i \text{ is linked to } j\}\rangle$ is the minimal direct summand of G containing a_i.*

6. The number of groups of order h can be determined by means of the tree diagram of the exponents in (5), as we illustrate here for the case of 4 factors. In Diagram 1 above we write K or k for $K(i, j)$ or $k(i, j)$ when it is not equal to 1; the branches with some K or k exist if and only if the corresponding p_j divides $p_i - 1$; a small k indicates that the offshoot originating at fork (i, j) has multiplicity $p_j - 1$.

7. In the case of 4 factors we call $s = p_1, r = p_2, q = p_3$ and $p = p_4$. The number of groups of order $srqp$ is easily determined by determining first the groups of order srq, and pursuing in the tree diagram the number of extensions of each to groups of order $srqp$. We obtain:

TABLE 2

Number of Groups of Order srqp, $s > r > q > p$

	$p \nmid (s-1)$ $p \nmid (r-1)$ $p \nmid (q-1)$	$p \nmid (s-1)$ $p \nmid (r-1)$ $p \mid (q-1)$	$p \nmid (s-1)$ $p \mid (r-1)$ $p \nmid (q-1)$	$p \nmid (s-1)$ $p \mid (r-1)$ $p \mid (q-1)$	$p \mid (s-1)$ $p \nmid (r-1)$ $p \nmid (q-1)$	$p \mid (s-1)$ $p \nmid (r-1)$ $p \mid (q-1)$	$p \mid (s-1)$ $p \mid (r-1)$ $p \nmid (q-1)$	$p \mid (s-1)$ $p \mid (r-1)$ $p \mid (q-1)$
$r \nmid (s-1)$ $q \nmid (s-1)$ $q \nmid (r-1)$	1	2	2	$p+2$	2	$p+2$	$p+2$	p^2+p+2
$r \nmid (s-1)$ $q \nmid (s-1)$ $q \mid (r-1)$	2	3	4	$p+4$	4	$p+4$	$2p+4$	$(p+2)^2$
$r \nmid (s-1)$ $q \mid (s-1)$ $q \nmid (r-1)$	2	3	4	$p+4$	4	$p+4$	$2p+4$	$(p+2)^2$
$r \nmid (s-1)$ $q \mid (s-1)$ $q \mid (r-1)$	$q+2$	$q+3$	$2q+4$	$2q+p+4$	$2q+4$	$2q+p+4$	$(q+2)(p+2)$	$(q+2)(p+2)$ $+p^2$
$r \mid (s-1)$ $q \nmid (s-1)$ $q \nmid (r-1)$	2	4	3	$p+4$	4	$2p+4$	$p+4$	$(p+2)^2$
$r \mid (s-1)$ $q \nmid (s-1)$ $q \mid (r-1)$	3	5	5	$p+6$	6	$2p+6$	$2p+6$	p^2+3p+6
$r \mid (s-1)$ $q \mid (s-1)$ $q \nmid (r-1)$	4	6	6	$p+7$	8	$2p+8$	$2p+8$	p^2+3p+8
$r \mid (s-1)$ $q \mid (s-1)$ $q \mid (r-1)$	$q+4$	$q+6$	$2q+6$	$2q+p+7$	$2q+8$	$2(p+q+4)$	$(q+2)(p+2)$ $+4$	$(q+2)(p+2)$ $+p^2+p+4$

8. A computer program to determine the number of groups of order h can be written using the tree diagram of Section 6:

(a) Set to 0 the number, NUM, of groups of order h.

(b) As we proceed along one branch, each occurrence of k multiplies NU, the

number of groups originated by the branch, by $p_j - 1$. k occurs at the fork (i, j) when the following conditions are satisfied simultaneously: (i) $p_j|(p_i - 1)$, (ii) $k(m, i) = 1$ for all $m < i$, and (iii) $k(m, j) \neq 1$ for some $m < i$.

(c) When the end of one branch is reached, NU is accumulated to NUM.

(d) The next branch is picked up at the last fork (i, j) where $p_j|(p_i - 1)$ and the $k(i, j) \neq 1$ has not been used.

Note. The FORTRAN program implementing the algorithm appears in the microfiche section.

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