# ON SETS OF PP-GENERATORS OF FINITE GROUPS 

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#### Abstract

The classes of finite groups with minimal sets of generators of fixed cardinalities, named $\mathcal{B}$-groups, and groups with the basis property, in which every subgroup is a $\mathcal{B}$-group, contain only $p$-groups and some $\{p, q\}$-groups. Moreover, abelian $\mathcal{B}$-groups are exactly $p$-groups. If only generators of prime power orders are considered, then an analogue of property $\mathcal{B}$ is denoted by $\mathcal{B}_{p p}$ and an analogue of the basis property is called the pp-basis property. These classes are larger and contain all nilpotent groups and some cyclic $q$-extensions of $p$-groups. In this paper we characterise all finite groups with the pp-basis property as products of $p$-groups and precisely described $\{p, q\}$-groups.


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## 1. Preliminaries

All groups considered here are finite. For any group $G$, let $\Phi(G)$ denote the Frattini subgroup of $G$. An element $g \in G$ will be called a pp-element if it is of a prime power order, while by a $p$-element we mean an element whose order is a power of a prime number $p$. As in [3], groups containing only pp-elements will be called CP-groups. For other notation, terminology and results one can consult, for example, [4, 10].

A subset $X$ of a group $G$ will be called:

- $g$-independent if $\langle Y, \Phi(G)\rangle \neq\langle X, \Phi(G)\rangle$ for every $Y \subset X$;
- a generating set if $\langle X\rangle=G$ (or equivalently $\langle X, \Phi(G)\rangle=G$ );
- a $g$-base of $G$ if $X$ is a g-independent generating set of $G$.

In connection with these notions the following invariants are considered (see [2, 5, 8]):

$$
\begin{equation*}
m(G)=\sup _{X}|X| \quad \text { and } \quad d(G)=\inf _{X}|X|, \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X$ runs over all g-bases of $G$. Then the following properties are defined (see $[2,6,9]$ ): a group $G$ has property $\mathcal{B}$ (is a $\mathcal{B}$-group) if $d(G)=m(G)$ and $G$ has the basis property if all its subgroups are $\mathcal{B}$-groups.

[^0]Groups with the basis property and $\mathcal{B}$-groups are completely described (see $[2,6,9]$ ). These classes contain only $p$-groups and some $\{p, q\}$-groups, are homomorphically closed and soluble. Among direct products, they contain only $p$ groups.

In characterisations of $\mathcal{B}$-groups and groups with the basis property, as in $[2,6,9]$, some cyclic $q$-extensions of $p$-groups for $q \neq p$ play an important role. We recall this construction here.

Example $1.1[5,6,9]$. Let $p \neq q$ be primes, $m$ be a nonnegative integer and $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{F}_{p}[\rho]$ be the field extension of the prime field $\mathbb{F}_{p}$, where $\rho$ is a primitive $q^{m}$ th root of $1 \in \mathbb{K}^{*}$. Let also $Q=\langle x\rangle$ be a cyclic group of order $q^{m}$ and let $V$ be a vector space over $\mathbb{K}$. Then we can consider an action $\phi: Q \longrightarrow A u t_{\mathbb{\mathbb { R }}} V$ via multiplication:

$$
x^{j} \phi: v \longrightarrow v \rho^{j} \quad \text { for } j=1, \ldots, q^{m}
$$

We can also construct the semidirect product $G_{\phi}=V \rtimes_{\phi} Q$ with the above-mentioned action. The extension $G_{\phi}$ will be invoked here as a scalar extension. As in [9], one can check that $G_{\phi}$ is a group with the basis property, is a CP-group and $\Phi\left(G_{\phi}\right)=1$. Moreover,

$$
\begin{equation*}
d(V)=\left[\mathbb{K}: \mathbb{F}_{p}\right] \cdot \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}}(V) \quad \text { and } \quad d\left(G_{\phi}\right)=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}}(V)+1 \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The classes of $\mathcal{B}$-groups and groups with the basis property are rather narrow. Thus, we proposed in [6] a modification of these notions. A subset $X \subseteq G$ is said there to be:

- pp-independent if $X$ is a set of pp -elements and is g -independent;
- a pp-generating set if $X$ is a set of pp -elements and is a generating set;
- a pp-base of $G$ if $X$ is a pp-independent generating set of $G$.

As in formula (1.1), the following invariants can be considered:

$$
m_{\mathrm{pp}}(G)=\sup _{X}|X| \quad \text { and } \quad d_{\mathrm{pp}}(G)=\inf _{X}|X|,
$$

where $X$ runs over all pp-bases of $G$. Also, from [6], a group $G$ has property $\mathcal{B}_{\mathrm{pp}}$ (is a $\mathcal{B}_{p^{-}}$-group $^{\prime}$ ) if $d_{\mathrm{pp}}(G)=m_{\mathrm{pp}}(G)$ and $G$ has the pp-basis property if all its subgroups are $\mathcal{B}_{\text {pp }}$-groups.

Proposition 1.2 [6]. A group $G$ has the basis property if and only if it has the pp-basis property and is a CP-group.

Theorem 1.3 [6]. Let $G$ be a group and $H \leq G$ be a normal subgroup.
(1) If $G$ is a $\mathcal{B}_{p p^{-}}$-group, then $G / H$ is also a $\mathcal{B}_{p p}$-group.
(2) If $G$ has the pp-basis property, then $G$ is soluble and $G / H$ has the pp-basis property.

To exhibit a difference between g-notions and pp-notions explicitly, let us consider a modification of Example 1.1, with some data which will be needed later.

Example 1.4 ([6], §5). Let $p \neq q$ be primes, $m \geq l \geq 0$ and $\mathbb{K}$ a field of characteristic $p$ with a primitive $q^{l}$ th root $\rho$ of $1 \in \mathbb{K}^{*}$. Let $Q=\langle x\rangle, V$, the action $\phi: Q \longrightarrow A u t_{\mathbb{K}} V$ and $G_{\phi}=V \rtimes_{\phi} Q$ be as in Example 1.1. The centraliser of $V$ in $Q$ is equal to $\left\langle x^{q^{l}}\right\rangle$ and $G_{\phi} \mid\left\langle x^{q^{l}}\right\rangle$ is a scalar extension and hence a CP-group. The group $G_{\phi}$ will be named here a generalised scalar extension. As in [6,7] one can check that $G_{\phi}$ is a group with the pp-basis property, but for $l<m$ it does not have the basis property. Moreover, for $l=0$, we have $G_{\phi}=P \times Q$.

## 2. Main results

In this section we formulate structure theorems for groups with the pp-basis property. For this purpose a group $G$ will be called (coprimely) indecomposable if it is not a direct product of nontrivial groups with coprime orders. This class of groups contains CP-groups, generalised scalar extensions with $l>0$ and all other $\{p, q\}$-groups with a nonnormal Sylow subgroup. It is also easy to check that every group is a direct product of indecomposable groups with coprime orders, and this decomposition is unique up to the order of factors. We also have the following result.

Theorem 2.1 [6]. Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be groups with coprime orders.
(1) $\quad G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are $\mathcal{B}_{\mathrm{pp}}$-groups if and only if $G_{1} \times G_{2}$ is a $\mathcal{B}_{\mathrm{pp}}$-group;
(2) $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ have the pp-basis property if and only if $G_{1} \times G_{2}$ has the pp-basis property.

Corollary 2.2. Let $G$ be a group. Then $G$ has the pp-basis property if and only if it is a direct product of indecomposable groups with the pp-basis property of coprime orders. This decomposition is unique up to the order of factors.

We quote, after [6, 7], some properties of $\mathcal{B}_{p p}$-groups and groups with the pp-basis property needed here.

Theorem 2.3. Let $G=P \rtimes Q$ be a nontrivial semidirect product, where $P$ is a p-group and $Q$ is a cyclic $q$-group, for primes $p \neq q$. The following conditions are equivalent:
(1) $G$ is a $\mathcal{B}_{\mathrm{pp}}$-group;
(2) $G / \Phi(P)$ is a generalised scalar extension;
(3) $G / \Phi(G)$ is a scalar extension;
(4) $\quad G$ is a $\mathcal{B}$-group.

Theorem 2.4. Let $G=P \rtimes Q$ be a semidirect product, where $P$ is a $p$-group and $Q$ is a cyclic $q$-group, for primes $p \neq q$. Then the following conditions are equivalent:
(1) $G$ has the pp-basis property;
(2) for every subgroup $H \leq G$, either the group $H / \Phi(H)$ is a scalar extension or $H=P_{H} \times Q_{H}$, where $P_{H}=P \cap H$ and $Q_{H}$ is a Sylow $q$-subgroup of $H$.

Our characterisation of indecomposable groups with the pp-basis property is given by the following results.

Theorem 2.5. Let $G$ be an indecomposable group with the pp-basis property. Then $G$ is either a p-group or a $\{p, q\}$-group.

Theorem 2.6. Let $G$ be an indecomposable $\{p, q\}$-group with the pp-basis property. Then $G$ is either a cyclic q-extension of a p-group or a cyclic p-extension of a q-group.

Due to the above theorems, we can have various characterisations of indecomposable $\{p, q\}$-groups with the pp-basis property, by applying Theorems 2.3 and 2.4. With the help of the above theorems, the Burnside basis theorem and Corollary 2.2 we obtain a structure theorem for groups with the pp -basis property.

Theorem 2.7. Let $G$ be a group. Then $G$ has the pp-basis property if and only if it is one of the following groups:
(1) a p-group;
(2) an indecomposable $\{p, q\}$-group with the pp-basis property;
(3) a direct product of groups given in (1) and (2) with pairwise-coprime orders.

As immediate consequences, we obtain the following results.
Corollary 2.8. Every group with the pp-basis property is nilpotent-by-abelian.
Corollary 2.9. Let $G$ be a Frattini-free group. Then $G$ is a group with the pp-basis property if and only if $G$ is a direct product of some elementary abelian p-groups and some scalar extensions, with coprime orders.

## 3. Proofs

Lemma 3.1. Let $G$ be an indecomposable semidirect product of a normal p-subgroup $P \neq 1$ by a $q$-subgroup $Q \neq 1$. If $G$ has the pp-basis property, then $Q$ is cyclic.

Proof. From the assumption, we immediately have $\Phi(P) \triangleleft G$. Thus, applying Theorem 1.3, we can suppose that $P$ is an elementary abelian $p$-group. Let $C$ stand for $C_{Q}(P)$ and $x \in Q \backslash C$. Then $C \triangleleft G$ and, by assumption, $\langle P, x\rangle$ is a $\mathcal{B}_{p p}$-group. Suppose that $C \cap\langle x\rangle=\left\langle x^{k}\right\rangle$. By Theorem 1.3, $G_{x}=\langle P, x\rangle /\left\langle x^{k}\right\rangle \simeq\langle P C, x\rangle / C$ is a $\mathcal{B}_{p p}$-group. It follows from Theorem 2.3 that $G_{x}$ is a scalar extension and so a CPgroup. Thus, $G / C$ is also a CP-group and so $Q / C$ acts regularly on $P$. Hence, by [4, Theorem 5.4.11], $Q / C$ is either cyclic or generalised quaternion. As $G / C$ is a CP-group, then, by Proposition 1.2, $G / C$ has the basis property. Hence, from [9, Proposition 4.2], $Q / C=\left\langle x_{1} C\right\rangle$ for some $x_{1} \in Q$.

Suppose that $Q$ is not cyclic. Then there exists $x_{2} \in C \backslash \Phi(Q)$. Let $a$ be a nontrivial element of $P$. Since $x_{2} x_{1}$ acts fixed-point-freely on $P$, then $o\left(a x_{2} x_{1}\right)=o\left(x_{2} x_{1}\right)$ is a power of $q$. This implies that the sets $\left\{a x_{2} x_{1}, x_{1}\right\}$ and $\left\{a, x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}$ are pp-bases of $\left\langle a, x_{1}, x_{2}\right\rangle$, contrary to the assumption of the pp-basis property for $G$. Hence, $Q$ has to be cyclic.

Proof of Theorem 2.6. We proceed by induction on $|G|$. Due to the above lemma, we should only take care about existence of a normal Sylow subgroup in $G$.

Let $G=P Q$, where $P$ is a Sylow $p$-subgroup and $Q$ is a Sylow $q$-subgroup of $G$. If $|G|=p q$, then the result follows easily. Let $|G|>p q$ and let us consider first the case $\Phi(G) \neq 1$. Then, by the induction assumption applied to $G / \Phi(G)$, we obtain that, for example, $P \Phi(G)$ is normal in $G$. Since $P$ is a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $P \Phi(G)$, a Frattini argument yields that $N_{G}(P) \Phi(G)=G$ and hence $G=N_{G}(P)$ and so $P$ is normal in $G$.

Now let $\Phi(G)=1$. If $F(G)$ denotes the Fitting subgroup of $G$, then we have $F(G)=R \times S$, where $R$ is a maximal normal $p$-subgroup of $G$ and $S$ is a maximal normal $q$-subgroup of $G$. As $G$ is a soluble group, $F(G) \neq 1$. Obviously, $R \leq P$ and $S \leq Q$. If either $P$ or $Q$ is normal in $G$, then we are done.

Suppose that neither $P$ nor $Q$ is normal in $G$. Therefore, we may suppose that $1 \neq R \neq P$. Hence, $P / R$ is not normal in $G / R$ and so $P / R$ is cyclic, by the induction assumption. If $Q \triangleleft Q R$, then $Q$ is a characteristic subgroup in $Q R \triangleleft G$. Thus, $Q$ is normal in $G$, which is a contradiction. Hence, $Q$ is nonnormal in $Q R$. So, $Q$ is cyclic, by the induction assumption.

Since $\Phi(G)=1, R$ is an elementary abelian $p$-group. By [10, 5.2.13], it follows that there exists a subgroup $H$ of $G$ satisfying $G=R \rtimes H$. Thus, $H \simeq G / R$ is metacyclic and there exist elements $a \in Q$ and $b \in P \backslash R$ such that $H=\langle a, b\rangle$. If $H=\langle a\rangle \times\langle b\rangle$, then $P=$ $R \rtimes\langle b\rangle$ is normal in $G$, which is a contradiction. So, by [10, 10.1.10], $H=\langle a, b| a^{q^{m}}=$ $\left.b^{p^{n}}=1, a^{b}=a^{r}\right\rangle$ with $r^{p^{n}} \equiv 1\left(\bmod q^{m}\right)$ and $\left(q^{m}, r-1\right)=1$. Let $1 \neq z \in R \cap Z(P)$. Then we obtain $(z a)^{-1}(z a)^{b}=a^{r-1}$. Since $\left(r-1, q^{m}\right)=1$, we have $\left\langle a^{r-1}\right\rangle=\langle a\rangle$. This implies that $\langle z a, b\rangle=\langle z, a, b\rangle$ and $o(a z)=q^{b}$. So, the sets $\{z a, b\}$ and $\{z, a, b\}$ are pp-bases of the group $\langle z, a, b\rangle$, contrary to our assumption. Thus, either $P$ or $Q$ has to be normal in $G$.

Lemma 3.2. Let $G$ be a group with the pp-basis property. If $|\pi(G)|=3$, then there exists a Sylow p-subgroup of $G$ which is a direct factor of $G$.

Proof. Let $\pi(G)=\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}\right\}$. Since $G$ is soluble by Theorem 1.3, there exist Sylow $p_{i}$-subgroups $P_{i}$ of $G$, for $i=1,2,3$, such that $G=P_{1} P_{2} P_{3}$ and $P_{i} P_{j}$ are subgroups of $G$ for all $i, j \in\{1,2,3\}$. Furthermore, for all $i \neq j$, either $P_{i} P_{j}=P_{i} \times P_{j}$ or $P_{i} P_{j}$ is indecomposable.

If $P_{1}, P_{2}, P_{3} \triangleleft G$, then $G=P_{1} \times P_{2} \times P_{3}$. If a Sylow subgroup of $G$, say $P_{3}$, is not normal in $G$, then either $P_{3} \not P_{2} P_{3}$ or $P_{3} \notin P_{1} P_{3}$. Hence, by Lemmas 2.6 and 3.1, $P_{3}$ is cyclic. Thus, $[10,10.1 .10]$ implies that $G$ has a normal Sylow $p_{i}$-subgroup for some $i \in\{1,2,3\}$. So, it is enough to consider the following cases:

$$
\begin{align*}
& P_{1} \triangleleft G \text { and } P_{2}, P_{3} \nexists G ;  \tag{1}\\
& P_{1}, P_{2} \triangleleft G \text { and } P_{3} \nexists G .
\end{align*}
$$

Case 1. In view of Theorem 1.3, by passing to the quotient, we can assume that $P_{1}$ is elementary abelian. By arguments as above, $P_{2}$ and $P_{3}$ are cyclic. Let $P_{2}=\langle x\rangle$ and $P_{3}=\langle y\rangle$. By Lemma 2.6, one of the Sylow subgroups of $P_{2} P_{3}$ is normal in $P_{2} P_{3}$; we take $P_{2} \triangleleft P_{2} P_{3}$. In this case $P_{2} \notin P_{1} P_{2}$.

Assume that $P_{3} \subseteq C_{G}\left(P_{1}\right)$. Then $P_{3} \notin P_{2} P_{3}$ and so $y$ acts fixed-point-freely on $P_{2}$. Let $a \in P_{1}$. Since $x$ acts on $P_{1}$ fixed-point-freely (see [6, Proposition 2.4]), we have $o(a x)=o(x)$. Thus, $\langle a x, y\rangle=\left\langle a x, a x^{y}, y\right\rangle=\left\langle x^{-1} x^{y}, a x, y\right\rangle=\langle a, x, y\rangle$ and the sets $\{a x, y\}$, $\{a, x, y\}$ are pp-bases of $\langle a, x, y\rangle$, which is a contradiction.

So, let $P_{3} \nsubseteq C_{G}\left(P_{1}\right)$. Consider the quotient $\bar{G}=G / C_{P_{2} P_{3}}\left(P_{1}\right)$. Then every ppelement of $\bar{P}_{2} \bar{P}_{3}$ acts on $\bar{P}_{1}$ fixed-point-freely. From [10, 10.5.5], it follows that $\bar{P}_{2} \bar{P}_{3}$ cannot act on $\bar{P}_{1}$ regularly. Hence, $\bar{P}_{2} \bar{P}_{3}$ is not a CP-group. So, there exist elements $\bar{x}_{1} \in P_{2}$ and $\bar{y}_{1} \in P_{3}$ such that $o\left(\bar{x}_{1}\right)=p_{2}, o\left(\bar{y}_{1}\right)=p_{3}$ and $\bar{x}_{1} \bar{y}_{1}=\bar{y}_{1} \bar{x}_{1}$. Let $\bar{a} \in \bar{P}_{1}$. Since $\bar{x}_{1}, \bar{y}_{1}$ act fixed-point-freely on $P_{1}, o\left(\bar{a}_{1}\right)=o\left(\bar{x}_{1}\right)$ and $o\left(\bar{a}_{1}\right)=o\left(\bar{y}_{1}\right)$. Furthermore, $\left\langle\bar{a} \bar{x}_{1}, \bar{a} \bar{y}_{1}\right\rangle=\left\langle\bar{x}_{1} \bar{y}_{1}^{-1}, \bar{a} \bar{y}_{1}\right\rangle=\left\langle\bar{x}_{1}, \bar{y}_{1}, \bar{a}\right\rangle$. It follows that the sets $\left\{\bar{a} \bar{x}_{1}, \bar{a} \bar{y}_{1}\right\}$ and $\left\{\bar{x}_{1}, \bar{y}_{1}, \bar{a}\right\}$ are pp-bases of $\left\langle\bar{x}_{1}, \bar{y}_{1}, \bar{a}\right\rangle$, which is a contradiction.

Case 2. If $P_{3} \subseteq C_{G}\left(P_{1}\right)$ or $P_{3} \subseteq C_{G}\left(P_{2}\right)$, then $P_{1}$ or respectively $P_{2}$ is a direct factor of $G$. So, assume that $P_{3} \nsubseteq C_{G}\left(P_{1}\right)$ and $P_{3} \nsubseteq C_{G}\left(P_{2}\right)$. Hence, by Lemma 3.1, $P_{1} \rtimes P_{3}$ and $P_{2} \rtimes P_{3}$ are as in Theorem 2.6 and it follows that $P_{3}$ is a cyclic group. Let $P_{3}=\langle y\rangle$. Analogously to the previous case, we may assume that $P_{1}, P_{2}$ are elementary abelian. So, we can take $x_{1} \in P_{1}, x_{2} \in P_{2}$ such that $x_{1}^{y} \neq x_{1}, x_{2}^{y} \neq x_{2}$. Thus, $x_{1} y, x_{2} y$ are pp-elements and further $\left\langle x_{1} y, x_{2} y\right\rangle=\left\langle x_{2} y, x_{1} x_{2}^{-1}\right\rangle=\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}, y\right\rangle$. This implies that $\left\{x_{1} y, x_{2} y\right\}$ and $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, y\right\}$ are pp-bases of $\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}, y\right\rangle$. Hence, $G$ does not have the ppbasis property.

Proof of Theorem 2.5. By Theorem 1.3, $G$ is a soluble group. From [4, Theorem 6.4.11], there exist Sylow $p_{i}$-subgroups $P_{i}$, for $i=1, \ldots, n$, satisfying $G=P_{1} P_{2} \cdot \ldots$. $P_{n}$ and $P_{i} P_{j}$ is a subgroup of $G$ for $i, j \in\{1, \ldots, n\}$. If $n=1$, then $G$ is a $p$-group. If $n=2$, then $G$ is an indecomposable $\{p, q\}$-group.

Suppose that $n>2$. By assumption, $P_{1}$ is not a direct factor of $G$. Thus, there exists $P_{k}$ for some $2 \leq k \leq n$ such that $P_{1} \nsubseteq C_{G}\left(P_{k}\right)$. We can take $k=2$. Therefore, $P_{1} P_{2}$ is an indecomposable group with the pp-basis property. Lemma 3.2 asserts that $P_{1} P_{2} \subseteq C_{G}\left(P_{j}\right)$ for every $j=3, \ldots, n$. Thus, $G=\left(P_{1} P_{2}\right) \times\left(P_{3} \cdot \ldots \cdot P_{n}\right)$, which is a contradiction.

## 4. pp-matroid groups

From the Burnside basis theorem we know that, if $G$ is a $p$-group, then every g-independent (pp-independent) subset of $G$ can be extended to a g-base (pp-base) of $G$. However, this need not be true in general, even for CP -groups with the basis property (the pp-basis property).

Example 4.1. Let us follow the notation from Example 1.1. In addition, suppose that $q$ does not divide $p-1$ and let $V$ be the additive group of $\mathbb{K}$. If we take suitable $\phi$ and $G_{\phi}=V \rtimes_{\phi} Q$, then, by formula (1.2), $d\left(G_{\phi}\right)=d_{\mathrm{pp}}\left(G_{\phi}\right)=2$ and $d(V)=d_{\mathrm{pp}}(V)=$ $\left[\mathbb{K}: \mathbb{F}_{p}\right] \geq 2$. Thus, for $Q \neq 1$, g-bases (pp-bases) of $V$ cannot be extended to $g$-bases (pp-bases) of $G_{\phi}$.

Recall, as in [11], that $G$ is a matroid group if $G$ has property $\mathcal{B}$ and every gindependent subset of $G$ is contained in a g-base of $G$. Some characterisations of matroid groups can be found in $[1,2,11]$.

Analogously, we can give a pp-version of the notion of a matroid group: a group $G$ is a pp-matroid group if $G$ has property $\mathcal{B}_{\mathrm{pp}}$ and every pp-independent subset of $G$ is contained in a pp-base of $G$. We already noted that every $p$-group is a matroid and a pp-matroid group, but groups from Example 4.1 are neither matroid nor pp-matroid. It is also easy to check that every matroid group is pp-matroid. The converse implication is not true, because every matroid group has to be indecomposable. On the other hand, from Theorem 2.1, one can obtain the following result.

Theorem 4.2. Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be groups of coprime orders. Then $G_{1} \times G_{2}$ is a ppmatroid group if and only if both $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are pp-matroid groups.

Based on these definitions, some analogues of properties of matroid groups can be proved for pp-matroid groups.

Theorem 4.3. Let $G$ be a group and $H \leq G$ be a normal subgroup such that $H \leq \Phi(G)$. Then $G$ is a pp-matroid group if and only if $G / H$ is a pp-matroid group.

Proposition 4.4. Let $G$ be a Frattini-free pp-matroid group. If $H$ is a proper subgroup of $G$, then $H$ is a $\mathcal{B}_{p p^{-}}$group and $d_{\mathrm{pp}}(H)<d_{\mathrm{pp}}(G)$.

Proof. Let $X$ be a pp-base of $H$. By assumption, $\langle X\rangle \neq G$ and $X$ is a pp-independent subset of $G$. However, $X$ can be embedded in a pp-base $B$ of $G$. Hence, we obtain $d_{\mathrm{pp}}(H)<d_{\mathrm{pp}}(G)$. It is easy to check that $H$ is a $\mathcal{B}_{p p^{-}}$-group.

Theorem 4.5. Let $G$ be a group and let $H=G / \Phi(G)$. The group $G$ is a pp-matroid group if and only if one of the following holds:
(1) $G$ is a p-group for some prime $p$;
(2) $H=P \rtimes Q$ is a scalar extension for primes $p \neq q$, where $q \mid(p-1)$ and $Q$ is cyclic of order q;
(3) $G$ is a direct product of groups given in (1) and (2) with coprime orders.

Proof. Let $G$ be a pp-matroid group. Then, by Theorem 4.3, $H$ has the ppbasis property. Hence, by Theorem 2.7, $H$ is a direct product of p-groups and indecomposable $\{p, q\}$-groups with the pp-basis property. Hence, in view of Theorem 4.2, we can assume that $H$ is a Frattini-free indecomposable $\{p, q\}$-group with the pp-basis property, which is pp-matroid. Then $H$ is a scalar extension of an elementary abelian $p$-group $P$ by a cyclic $q$-group $Q=\langle x\rangle$. Suppose that $Q$ has order greater than $q$. Then a pp-base of $P \rtimes\left\langle x^{q}\right\rangle$ cannot be extended to a pp-base of $H$. So, $|Q|=q$.

From (1.2),

$$
d(H)=\operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}}(P)+1 \quad \text { and } \quad d(P)=\left[\mathbb{K}: \mathbb{F}_{p}\right] \cdot \operatorname{dim}_{\mathbb{K}}(P) .
$$

On the other hand, by Proposition $4.4, d(P)<d(H)$. Hence, $\left[\mathbb{K}: \mathbb{F}_{p}\right]=1$ and so $q \mid(p-1)$.

Conversely, suppose that $H$ is a group as in (2). Since $H$ is a CP-group, by [2, Theorem 5.1] we know that $H$ is a matroid group and so $H$ is pp-matroid. Hence, with the help of Theorem 4.2, the proof can be completed.

Corollary 4.6. Let $G$ be a Frattini-free group. Then $G$ is a matroid group if and only if $G$ is an indecomposable pp-matroid group.

Example 4.7 [6, Example 3.3]. Let $p \neq q$ be primes such that $q$ is odd and $q \mid(p-1)$. Consider the group

$$
P=\left\langle a, b, c \mid a^{p}=b^{p}=c^{p}=1=[a, c]=[b, c], c=[a, b]\right\rangle .
$$

Let $Q=\langle x\rangle$ be the cyclic group of order $q$. There exists an element $i \in \mathbb{F}_{p}^{*}$ of order $q$. Thus, the group $Q$ acts on $P$ in the following way:

$$
a^{x^{j}}=a^{i^{j}} \quad \text { and } \quad b^{x^{j}}=b^{i^{j}} \quad \text { for } 1 \leq j \leq q .
$$

It is easy to observe that $G$ is a CP-group and we have $\Phi(G)=\Phi(P)=\langle c\rangle$. Thus, $G$ is a $\mathcal{B}$-group and a $\mathcal{B}_{p p^{-}}$-group. However, if $H=\langle a, c, x\rangle$, then $\Phi(H)=1$ and $H$ is not a scalar extension and not a $\mathcal{B}_{p p}$-group. Hence, $G$ is a pp-matroid CP-group, but does not satisfy the pp-basis property, because $H$ is not a $\mathcal{B}_{\text {pp }}$-group and is not pp-matroid. Obviously, $G$ is also a matroid group and $H$ is not a matroid group.

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