# GENERATION OF THE LOWER CENTRAL <br> SERIES II 

by ROBERT M. GURALNICK

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1. Introduction. In this article, we obtain results on commutators in Sylow subgroups of the lower central series, extending the work of Dark and Newell [2], Rodney [12, 13] and Aschbacher and the author [1, 6, 7].

Some notation is required for the statement of the main results. Let $r$ be a positive integer and define

$$
\left[x_{1}\right]=x_{1}, \quad\left[x_{1}, x_{2}\right]=x_{1}^{-1} x_{2}^{-1} x_{1} x_{2},
$$

and

$$
\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right]=\left[\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}\right], x_{r}\right] \text { for } r \geqslant 3
$$

where $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}$ are elements in a group $G$. Let $\Gamma_{r} G=\left\{\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right] \mid x_{i} \in G\right\}$ be the set of $r$-fold commutators in $G$. Then $L_{r} G=\left\langle\Gamma_{r} G\right\rangle$ is the $r$ th term in the lower central series of $G$. Set $L_{\infty} G=\cap L_{r} G$.

Theorem A. Suppose $L_{r} G$ is finite and $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}\left(L_{r} G\right)$ is abelian of rank at most 2. If any of the following conditions hold then $P \subset \Gamma_{r} G$.
(i) $p \geqslant 5$.
(ii) $P$ is cyclic.
(iii) $P$ has exponent $p$.
(iv) $P \cap L_{\infty} G \neq 1$.
(v) $P \cap L_{r+1} G=1$.
(vi) $r \leqslant 2$.

This result is known for $r=2$. It was first proved by Rodney [13] for $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{\mathrm{p}}(G)$ of exponent $p$. The complete proof of ( $\mathbf{v i}$ ) is [7, Theorem A]. The main idea of the proof is to reduce to the case where $P=L_{r} G$. With this hypothesis, (iii) and (iv) are given in [6], while (ii) and (v) are proved in [2]. However, (i) is still a new result even in this more restricted situation. By examples in [1], [2], and [6], rank 2 cannot be replaced by rank 3. Moreover, (i) fails for $p=2$ (and possibly for $p=3$ ).

The proof that when $p \geqslant 5$ and $P=L_{r} G$ is an abelian rank $2 p$-group then $P=\Gamma_{r} G$ splits essentially into two cases. The first is when $P=L_{\infty} G$ and is handled by [ 1 , Theorem $C]$. The more difficult case is when $G$ is a $p$-group. In fact, we consider the more general problem of when $P \subset\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{k}$. This also breaks up into the two cases described above (Theorem 2.1). An example (Section 4) is given to show that the $p$-group situation is the relevant obstruction to determining $k$ in terms of the rank of $P$.

Combining these techniques with a result of Gallagher, we obtain the following results.

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Theorem B. Suppose $G^{\prime}$ is a $p$-group of order $p^{k}$ with $k<n(n+1)$.
(a) If $L_{\infty} G$ is abelian, then $G^{\prime}=\left(\Gamma_{2} G\right)^{n}$.
(b) $G^{\prime}=\left(\Gamma_{2} G\right)^{2 n}$.

Theorem C. If $G^{\prime} \leqslant Z(G)$ and $G^{\prime}$ is a p-group of rank less than $n(n+1)$, then $G^{\prime}=\left(\Gamma_{2} G\right)^{n}$.

By examples in [5], the bounds in Theorems B and C are of the right order of magnitude. We define a function $f=f(p, r, d)$ by the following: if $P=L_{r} G$ is an abelian $p$-group of rank $d$, then $P=\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{f}$ and $f$ is the least positive integer satisfying this.

Theorem D. (i) $\sqrt{ } d-1 \leqslant f \leqslant 2 d$, for $r=2$ and 3. (ii) $d^{(r-2) /(r-1)} / 6 r<f \leqslant 2 d$, for $r>3$.
Finally, we note that:
Theorem E. If $|G|<96$ or $\left|L_{r} G\right|<8$, then $L_{r} G=\Gamma_{r} G$.
Moreover, these bounds are best possible for $r>2$ (for $r=2$, replace 8 by 16). See [6] and [7] for examples.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, the proof of Theorem A is reduced to the case $L_{r} G=P$. This case is handled in Section 3. Some examples pertaining to lower bounds for $f$ are given in Section 4. Finally, Theorems B-E are proved in Section 5. We shall use notation as in [4]. I wish to thank the referee for his very careful reading of the article and many valuable comments.
2. Reduction of Theorem A. The first result describes how the condition that $L_{r} G$ has an abelian Sylow p-subgroup splits a Sylow p-subgroup into two nicer pieces.

Theorem 2.1. Let $G$ be a finite group with $S \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)$. Suppose $n \geqslant r$ and set $P=S \cap L_{r} G$ and $T=S \cap L_{n} G$.
(a) $P=\left(L_{r} S\right) T$.
(b) If $T$ is abelian and $N=N_{G}(T)$, then $\stackrel{\circ}{P}=\left(L_{r} S\right)[T, H] \leqslant L_{r} N$, where $H$ is a Hall $p^{\prime}$-subgroup of $N$.
(c) If $S \triangleleft G$ and $V=S \cap L_{\infty} G$ is abelian, then $S=C V$ and $C \cap V=1$, where $C=$ $C_{S}(H)$ and $H$ is a Hall $p^{\prime}$-subgroup of $G$. Moreover, if $G$ is solvable and $m$ is a positive integer such that $L_{r} C=\left(\Gamma_{r} C\right)^{m}$ and rank $V<2^{m+1}-1$, then $P \subset\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{m}$.

Proof. Since $G / L_{n} G$ is nilpotent, $\left(L_{r} S\right) L_{n} G / L_{n} G$ is a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $L_{r} G / L_{n} G$. Thus $P \geqslant\left(L_{r} S\right) T \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}\left(L_{r} G\right)$ and (a) follows. If $T$ is abelian, then by [1, Corollary 5.2] $T=\left(L_{n} S\right)[T, H] \leqslant L_{n} N$, where $H$ is a Hall $p^{\prime}$-subgroup of $N$. Hence (b) holds.

Now assume $S \triangleleft G$ and $V$ is abelian. Clearly $V=[S, H]$ and so by [4, Theorems 5.2.3 and 5.3.5], $S=C V, V=[V, H]$ and $V \cap C=1$. If $G$ is solvable, then by [1, Theorem 4.1] there exist $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{m} \in H$ such that

$$
V=\prod_{i=1}^{m}\left[V, h_{i}\right]=\prod_{i=1}^{m}\left[V, h_{i}, \ldots, h_{i}\right]
$$

Fix $h \in H$. Then for any $v \in V$, and $c_{1}, c_{2} \in C$,

$$
\left[v c_{1}, c_{2} h\right]=\left[v, c_{2} h\right]^{c_{1}}\left[c_{1}, c_{2}\right] .
$$

Since $\left\langle c_{2} h\right\rangle \geqslant\langle h\rangle, V \triangleleft G$ is abelian, and $[C, h]=1$,

$$
\left\{\left[v, c_{2} h\right]^{c_{1}} \mid v \in V\right\} \supset[V, h] .
$$

Similarly, it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\{\left[v c_{1}, c_{2} h, \ldots, c_{r} h\right] \mid v \in V\right\} & \supset[V, h, \ldots, h]\left[c_{1}, \ldots, c_{r}\right] \\
& =[V, h]\left[c_{1}, \ldots, c_{r}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence

$$
\Delta_{i}=\left\{\left[v c_{1}, c_{2} h_{i}, \ldots, c_{r} h_{i}\right] \mid v \in V, c_{i} \in C\right\}=\left[V, h_{i}\right] \Gamma_{r}(C) .
$$

Finally, note that since $C$ normalizes [ $V, h_{i}$ ],

$$
\Delta_{1} \ldots \Delta_{m}=\left(\prod_{i=1}^{m}\left[V, h_{i}\right]\right)\left(\Gamma_{r} C\right)^{m}=V\left(L_{r} C\right)
$$

Now (c) follows for $V\left(L_{r} C\right)=V\left(L_{r} S\right)=P$.
We now prove Theorem A (modulo results in section 3). So assume $L_{r} G$ is finite and $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}\left(L_{r} G\right)$ is abelian of rank at most 2. By [6, Lemma 1.4], we can assume $G$ is finite. By Theorem 2.1b, we can also assume $P \triangleleft G$ and $P \cap L_{\infty} G=T=[T, H]$ for $H$ a Hall $p^{\prime}$-subgroup (note that conditions (i)-(vi) remain valid under these reductions). Now $P=T \times C_{P}(H)$ by [4, Theorem 5.2.3]. If $P=T$, then $P \subset \Gamma_{r} G$ by [ $\mathbf{1}$, Theorem C]. Otherwise $T$ is cyclic and so there exists $h \in H$ with [T, $h$ ] $=T$. Moreover, since $G=$ $N_{G}(S) G^{\prime}=N_{G}(S) C_{G}(T)$, we can assume $h \in N_{G}(S)$. Consider $M=\langle S, h\rangle$. Then $L_{r} M=$ $L_{r} S[h, T]=P$. Thus it suffices to assume $G=M$ and $P=L_{r} G$. Now (ii), (iii), and (iv) follow by [6, Theorem 3.2] and (v) follows by [2, Theorem 2]. As remarked before (vi) is [7, Theorem A]. Finally, if (i) holds but (iv) fails, then $T=1, P=L_{r} S$ and Theorem 3.6 applies.
3. The case $L_{r} G=P$. We need some commutator calculus. Suppose $g \in G$. Define $\gamma_{0}(\mathrm{~g})=\langle\mathrm{g}\rangle$ and $\gamma_{i+1}(\mathrm{~g})=\left[\gamma_{i}(\mathrm{~g}), G\right]$. Note that $\gamma_{i}(\mathrm{~g}) \triangleleft G$ for $i>0$, and by the three subgroup lemma,

$$
\begin{align*}
{\left[\gamma_{i}(g), L_{r} G\right] } & \leqslant \gamma_{i+r}(g)  \tag{3.1}\\
{\left[\gamma_{i}(g), \gamma_{j}(g)\right] } & \leqslant \gamma_{i+j+1}(g) \tag{3.2}
\end{align*}
$$

Proposition 3.3.
(a)

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[s, t u, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right] \equiv } & {\left[s, t, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right]\left[s, u, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right] } \\
& \times\left[s, t, u, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right] \bmod \gamma_{r+2}([s, t]) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(b)

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[s, t^{i}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right] \equiv } & {\left[s, t, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right]^{i} } \\
& \times\left[s, t, t, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right]^{i(i-1) / 2} \bmod \gamma_{r+2}([s, t]) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. (a) Set $y=[s, t]$. Induct on $r$. If $r=0$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
[s, t u]=[s, u][s, t][s, t, u] . \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

The result holds in this case since $\left[s, t, G^{\prime}\right] \leqslant \gamma_{2}(y)$. Now assume $r>0$ and $\gamma_{r+2}(y)=1$. By induction

$$
\left[s, t u, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}\right]=a b c d,
$$

where $a=\left[s, t, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}\right], \quad b=\left[s, u, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}\right], \quad c=\left[s, t, u, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r-1}\right]$ and $d \in$ $\gamma_{r+1}(y) \leqslant Z(G)$. Thus,

$$
\left[s, t, u, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right]=\left[a b c d, x_{r}\right]=\left[a b c, x_{r}\right] .
$$

However, by (*) (or its inverse),

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[a b c, x_{r}\right] } & =\left[a b, x_{r}\right]\left[a b, x_{r}, c\right]\left[c, x_{r}\right] \\
& =\left[a, x_{r}\right]\left[a, x_{r}, b\right]\left[b, x_{r}\right]\left[a b, x_{r}, c\right]\left[c, x_{r}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now (a) follows by noting that $\left[a b, x_{r}, c\right] \in\left[G^{\prime}, \gamma_{r}(y)\right] \leqslant \gamma_{r+2}(y)$ and $\left[a, x_{r}, b\right] \in$ $\left[\gamma_{r-1}(y), G, G^{\prime}\right] \leqslant \gamma_{r+2}(y)$.
(b) follows from (a) by a straightforward induction argument.

Lemma 3.4. Suppose $L_{r} G$ is an abelian p-group of rank at most two and $L_{r+1} G \leqslant$ $V^{1} L_{r} G$.
(a) There exist $j, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant r$, and $u_{i}, 1 \leqslant i \neq j \leqslant r$, such that

$$
L_{r} G=\left[u_{1}, \ldots, u_{j-1}, G, u_{j+1}, \ldots, u_{r}\right] .
$$

(b) Moreover, if $p>2$, then

$$
L_{r} G=\left\{\left[u_{1}, \ldots, u_{i-1}, g, u_{j+1}, \ldots, u_{r}\right] \mid g \in G\right\}=\Sigma
$$

Proof. (a) Without loss of generality, $v^{1} L_{r} G=L_{r+1} G=1$. Choose $J \subset I=\{1, \ldots, r\}$ maximal so that there exist $u_{j}, j \in J$ with $L_{r} G=\left[E_{1}, \ldots, E_{r}\right]$ where $E_{i}=u_{j}$ if $j \in J$ and $E_{i}=G$ otherwise. Assume $k<l \in I-J$. Hence $L_{r} G=\left\langle\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right],\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{r}\right]\right\rangle$ where $x_{i}=y_{i}=u_{i}$ if $j \in J$. Suppose $z=\left[x_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}, \ldots, x_{r}\right] \neq 1$. Then either

$$
L_{r} G=\left\langle\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{r}\right],\left[x_{1}, \ldots, y_{j}, \ldots, x_{r}\right]\right\rangle
$$

or

$$
L_{r} G=\left\langle\left[x_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}, \ldots, x_{r}\right],\left[y_{1}, \ldots, y_{r}\right]\right\rangle .
$$

In the first case $I-\{k\}$ satisfies the conclusion, and in the second case $J \cup\{j\}$ satisfies the same condition as $J$. This contradicts the maximality of $J$. So $z=1$. Similarly $\left[y_{1}, \ldots, x_{l}, \ldots, y_{r}\right]=1$; but now $J \cup\{k\}$ satisfies the condition with $u_{k}=x_{k} y_{k}$.
(b) We note that we can assume $j \neq 1$ (for if $j=1$ then $j=2$ will also satisfy the conclusion in (a)). Set $s=\left[u_{1}, \ldots, u_{j-1}\right]$ and define $\phi: G \rightarrow \Sigma$ by $\phi(g)=\left[s, g, u_{j+1}, \ldots, u_{r}\right]$. First we shall show that for any $g, v_{i+1}, \ldots, v_{r} \in G$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=\left[s, g^{e p^{i}}, v_{i+1}, \ldots, v_{r}\right] \equiv\left[s, g, v_{j+1}, \ldots, v_{r}\right]^{e p^{i}} \bmod \mho^{i+1} L_{r} G . \tag{**}
\end{equation*}
$$

Induct on $i$. If $i=0$, this follows from Proposition 3.3 b and the fact that $L_{r+1} G \leqslant$ $\boldsymbol{U}^{1} L_{r} G$. So assume $i>0$. Again by Proposition 3.3b,

$$
y \equiv\left[s, g^{p^{1-1}}, v_{i+1}, \ldots, v_{r}\right]^{e p} \bmod B
$$

where $B=\gamma_{r-j+1}\left(\left[s, g^{\mathrm{p}^{i-1}}\right]\right)^{\mathrm{p}} \gamma_{r-j+2}\left(\left[s, g^{\mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{i}-1}}\right]\right)$. By induction,

$$
\gamma_{r-j}\left(\left[s, g^{p^{i-1}}\right]\right) \leqslant \mho^{i-1} L_{r} G .
$$

Since $L_{r+1} G \leqslant \mho^{1} L_{r} G$ it follows that $\left[G, \mho^{k} L_{r} G\right] \leqslant \mho^{k+1} L_{r} G$ and so $B \leqslant \mho^{i+1} L_{r} G$. Thus (**) holds.

Suppose now that $U^{k} L_{r} G \neq 1=U^{k+1} L_{r} G$. By (a), there exists $g \in G$ such that $\phi(g)$ has order $p^{k+1}$ and so by (**), $z=\phi\left(g^{p^{k}}\right)=\phi(g)^{p^{k}}$. In particular, $z \in \mho^{k} L_{r} G \leqslant Z(G)$. By induction on $\left|L_{r} G\right|$, if $x \in L_{r} G$ then $x z^{e}=\phi(h)$ for some positive integer $e$ and $h \in G$. By Proposition 3.3a,

$$
\phi\left(g^{-e p^{k}} h\right) \equiv \phi\left(g^{-e p^{k}}\right) \phi(h) \bmod \gamma_{r-j+1}\left(\left[s, g^{-e p^{k}}\right]\right)
$$

However by $(* *)$,

$$
\phi\left(g^{-e p^{k}}\right)=z^{-e} \quad \text { and } \quad \gamma_{r-j}\left(\left[s, g^{-e p^{k}}\right]\right) \leqslant \mho^{k} L_{r} G \leqslant Z(G)
$$

Thus

$$
\phi\left(g^{-e p^{k}} h\right)=z^{-e} z^{e} x=x,
$$

and so $\phi$ is surjective as desired.
The reason we assume $p>3$ is apparent in the next lemma. If $p>3$, then

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{p-1} i^{2} \equiv 0 \bmod p
$$

Lemma 3.5. Let $G$ be a p-group with $p\rangle$. If $x, y \in G$ with $a=[x, y],\left\langle a^{G}\right\rangle=\langle a, b\rangle$ abelian and $[a, G] \leqslant\left\langle a^{p}, b\right\rangle$, then $\left[x, y^{p}\right] \equiv a^{\mathrm{p}} \bmod B$, where $B=\left\langle a^{p^{2}}, b^{\mathrm{p}}\right\rangle$.

Proof. Set $A=\left\langle a^{G}\right\rangle$. Then $[A, G] \leqslant\left\langle a^{p}, b\right\rangle$. If $c=[a, y] \in \mho^{1} A$, then $\left[y, V^{1} A\right] \leqslant U^{2} A$, and so

$$
\left[x, y^{i}\right] \equiv a^{i} c^{i(i-1) / 2} \bmod \mho^{2} A
$$

by Proposition 3.3(b). Hence as $p \neq 2,\left[x, y^{p}\right] \equiv a^{p} \bmod B$. Otherwise, we can take $b=$ [ $a, y$ ].

Now $[b, y]=a^{\alpha p} b^{\beta p}$. Then a straightforward tedious computation shows that modulo $B$

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[x, y^{\mathrm{p}}\right] } & \equiv a^{\mathrm{p}} \prod_{i=1}^{\mathrm{p}-1}\left[a, y^{i}\right] \\
& \equiv a^{\mathrm{p}} \prod_{j=1}^{\mathrm{p}-1} a^{\alpha \mathrm{pj}(i-1) / 2} b^{j} \equiv a^{\mathrm{p}}
\end{aligned}
$$

since $p>3$.
Theorem 3.6. If $L_{r} G$ is a rank 2 abelian $p$-group with $p>3$, then $L_{r} G=\Gamma_{r} G$.

Proof. As in Section 2, we can assume $G$ is a $p$-group. Let $G$ be a counterexample with $\left|L_{r} G\right|$ minimal. Choose $a \in L_{r} G-\Gamma_{r} G$. Set $A=\left\langle a^{G}\right\rangle=\langle a, b=[a, g]\rangle$ for some $g \in G$. Let $p^{\alpha}$ and $p^{\beta}$ denote the orders of $a$ and $b$ respectively. Note that $\alpha \geqslant \beta$. First assume $\beta<\alpha$. Then $B=\mho^{\alpha-1} A=\left\langle a^{p^{\alpha-1}}\right\rangle \leqslant Z(G)$. If $\alpha>1$, then by passing to $G / B$, some generator of $\langle a\rangle$ is in $\Gamma_{r} G$, and thus $a \in \Gamma_{r} G$ by [6, Lemma 1.3]. So $\alpha=1$ and $\beta=0$. If $a=c^{p}$ with $c \in L_{r} G$, then as above $c \in \Gamma_{r} G$. Say $c=[d, h]$ with $d \in \Gamma_{r-1} G$ and set $e=[c, h]$. Then $e^{p}=\left[c^{p}, h\right]=1$. Moreover as $e \in \Omega_{1} L_{r+1} G$ and $a \notin L_{r+1} G$ (as $L_{r+1} G=\Gamma_{r+1} G \subset \Gamma_{r} G$ since $\left.\left|L_{r+1} G\right|<\left|L_{r} G\right|\right), e \in Z(G)$. Thus, $\left[d, h^{p}\right]=c^{p} e^{p(p-1) / 2}=a$ since $p \neq 2$. Thus, $a \notin U^{1} L_{r} G$ and so $L_{r} G=\langle a, x\rangle$. We can assume $x \in \Gamma_{r} G$ and so $x=[g, y]$ for some $g \in G$ and $y \in \Gamma_{r-1} G$. If $[G, y]=\langle x\rangle$, then $\langle x\rangle \triangleleft G$ and so $L_{r+1} G=[G, x] \leqslant \mho^{1} L_{r} G$. Then $L_{r} G=\Gamma_{r} G$ by Lemma 3.4b. Otherwise $[G, y]=L_{r} G$. We claim $a=[h, y]$ for some $h \in G$. Induct on the order of $x$. If $x^{p}=1$, then the map $h \rightarrow[h, y] \in Z(G)$ is an endomorphism from $G$ onto $L_{r} G$. So assume $x$ has order $p^{k+1}$. By induction ( $x^{p^{k}} \in Z(G)$ ), we see that $[h, y]=$ $a x^{e p^{k}}$ for some integer $e$. By Lemma 3.5, $\left[g^{p}, y\right] \equiv x^{p} \bmod \left\langle x^{p^{2}}\right\rangle$, and continuing we see that $\left[g^{p^{k}}, y\right]=x^{p^{k}}$. Hence $\left[g^{-e p^{k}} h, y\right]=a \in \Gamma_{r} G$.

So $\beta=\alpha$. Thus $B=\left\langle b^{p \alpha-1}\right\rangle=\mho^{\alpha-1}[G, A] \leqslant Z(G)$. Hence by passing to $G / B$, $a\left(b^{\lambda p^{\alpha-1}}\right) \in \Gamma_{r} G$ for some $\lambda$. By Lemma $3.5,\left[a, \mathrm{~g}^{\mathrm{p}}\right] \equiv b^{\mathrm{p}} \bmod U^{2} A$, and continuing we find that $\left[a, g^{\lambda^{\alpha-1}}\right]=b^{\lambda^{\alpha-1}}$ and so $a$ is conjugate to $a b^{\lambda^{\alpha \alpha-1}}$. This completes the proof.

By Example 3.1 in [6], $p>2$ is necessary. If $r=2$, and $p>3$, one can replace rank 2 by rank 3 [7, Theorem B]. This would seem to provide some evidence that there is a counterexample with $p=3$ since there is such for $r=2$ with $L_{2} G$ of rank 3 .
4. Lower bounds for $f$. Many examples have been given with $L_{r} G \neq\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{k}$, particularly for $r=2$ or for $k=1$ (see [1], [2], [5], [6], [7], [8], [10] and [11]). We construct one which gives a good lower bound for $f=f(p, r, d)$. First note that for $r=2$, it follows from [5] and [7] that:

Proposition 4.1.
(a) $f(d)<\sqrt{ } d-1$.
(b) $f(3)=1 \Leftrightarrow p>3$.
(c) $f(2)=1$.

For the rest of the section, assume $r>2$. By Theorem A, $f(1)=1$ for all $p$ and $f(2)=1$ for $p>3$. Also by [1], $f(d)>\log _{2}(d+1)-1$.

Now fix a prime $p$ and $r>2$. Let $F$ be the free group on $n$ generators. Set $H=F /\left(L_{r} F\right)^{p} L_{r+1} F$. By Witt's formula, $L_{r} H$ is a free elementary abelian $p$-group of rank $t$, where

$$
t=\frac{1}{r} \sum_{\left.k\right|_{r}} \mu(k) n^{r / k}
$$

and $\mu$ is the Moebius function. It follows easily that $r t \geqslant n^{r-1}$. Now suppose $d$ is a positive integer with $(n-1)^{s} \leqslant d r<n^{s}, s=r-1$. Choose a subgroup $M$ of $L_{r} H$ of index $p^{d}$ in $L_{r} H$. Set $G=H / M$. Then $G$ is nilpotent, $L_{r+1} G=1$, and $L_{r} G$ is elementary abelian of rank $d$. By Proposition 3.3, the $r$-fold commutator is multiplicative in each variable. Thus
$\left|\Gamma_{r} G\right|<p^{n r}$. Hence if $f=f(p, r, d)$, then $p^{d}=\left|L_{r} G\right|=\left|\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{f}\right|<\left|\Gamma_{r} G\right|^{t}<p^{n r f}$. So $f>d / n r$. Since

$$
d^{1 / s} \geqslant(n-1) r^{-1 / s} \geqslant \frac{1}{2} r^{-1-(1 / s)}(n r)
$$

it follows that

$$
f>d / n r \geqslant \frac{1}{2} r^{-1-(1 / s)} d^{(s-1) / s} \geqslant d^{(s-1) / s} / 6 r .
$$

We remark that for $r=3$, one can construct a group $G$ similar to that in [2, Proposition 3] in which $L_{3} G$ is elementary abelian of rank $n^{2}$ and $L_{3} G \neq\left(\Gamma_{3} G\right)^{n}$. Thus $f(p, 3, d) \geqslant \sqrt{ } d-1$. Also as $r$ gets large, we can replace 6 by numbers tending to 2 . We conjecture that $f(d) \geqslant d^{(r-1) / r}-1$ (this is true for $r=2$ ).
5. Theorems B-E. Theorem B follows as an easy consequence of Theorem 2.1 and a result of Gallagher.

Theorem B. Suppose $G^{\prime}$ is a p-group of order $p^{k}$ with $k<n(n+1)$.
(a) If $L_{\infty} G$ is abelian then $G^{\prime}=\left(\Gamma_{2} G\right)^{n}$.
(b) $G^{\prime}=\left(\Gamma_{2} G\right)^{2 n}$.

Proof. Note that (b) follows from (a) and [3, Theorem 1b] by considering $G /\left(L_{\infty} G\right)^{\prime}$. As usual, we assume $G$ is finite. For (a), note that if $S \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)$, and $C$ is as in Theorem 2.1c then $\left(\Gamma_{2} C\right)^{n}=C^{\prime}$ by Gallagher [3, Theorem 2]. The result now follows by Theorem 2.1c (for $n(n+1)<2^{n+1}-1$ ).

Theorem C also follows from the same result of Gallagher and the next lemma.
Lemma 5.1. Let $G$ be a p-group with $G^{\prime} \leqslant Z(G)$ and $G^{\prime} \neq\left(\Gamma_{2} G\right)^{n}$. Moreover, assume $|G|$ is minimal with respect to this property (for a fixed $p$ and $n$ ). Then $G^{\prime}$ has exponent $p$.

Proof. Choose $a \in L_{2} G-\left(\Gamma_{2} G\right)^{n}$. Suppose $d=[u, v]^{p}=\left[u, v^{\mathrm{p}}\right] \neq 1$ for some $u, v \in G$. As $|G|>|G /\langle d\rangle|$, $a d^{i} \in\left(\Gamma_{2} G\right)^{n}$ for some $i$. By replacing $d$ by $d^{i}$, we may assume that $a d \in\left(\Gamma_{2} G\right)^{n}$. Say

$$
a d=\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left[s_{i}, t_{i}\right]
$$

Then

$$
a=\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left[s_{i}, t_{i}\right]\left[u, v^{-p}\right] .
$$

Since $a \in H^{\prime}, H=\left\langle s_{1}, t_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}, t_{n}, u, v^{p}\right\rangle=G$. However, $v^{p}$ is an element of the Frattini subgroup of $G$, and so $G$ can be generated by $2 n+1$ elements. However, this implies $G^{\prime}=\left(\Gamma_{2} G\right)^{n}$ by [5, Theorem 5.2]. So $[u, v]^{p}=1$ for all $u, v \in G$, proving the lemma.

Now Theorem C follows from Theorem B. Moreover, by [5, Section 5], $n(n+1)$ can not be replaced by $(n+1)^{2}+1$ in either Theorem B or C. Recall that $f=f(p, r, d)$ is defined as follows: if $P=L_{r} G$ is an abelian $p$-group of rank $d$ then $P=\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{f}$ and $f$ is as small as possible. We first obtain an upper bound for $f$.

Proposition 5.2. Let $G$ be a finite group.
(a) If $\langle x\rangle=\langle y\rangle$ and $x \in\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{k}$, then $y \in\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{k}$.
(b) If $x \in\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{k}$, then $\langle x\rangle \subset\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{3 k}$.
(c) If $x \in\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{k}$ is a p-element, then $\langle x\rangle \subset\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{2 k}$.
(d) If $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}\left(L_{r} G\right)$ is abelian of rank d, then $P \subset\left(\Gamma_{r} G\right)^{2 d}$.

Proof. As remarked before, (a) is [6, Lemma 1.3]. Now (b) and (c) follow by noting that if $y \in\langle x\rangle$, then $y=a b$ or $a b c$, where $a, b$ and $c$ are some generators for $\langle x\rangle$. Moreover, if $x$ is a $p$-element, then either $\langle y\rangle=\langle x\rangle$ or $y=a b$. Now (d) follows from (c) and the observation that if $P$ has rank $d$, it can be generated by $d$ elements of $\Gamma_{r} G$ (see Theorem 2.1).

Theorem D now follows from Proposition 5.2(d) and the results in Section 4. We note that $f(1)=f(2)=1$ (for $p>3$ or $r=2$ ) and $f(3) \geqslant 2$ (for $r>2$ or $r=2$ and $p \leqslant 3$.).

Finally, we shall prove Theorem E. Note if $\left|L_{r} G\right|<8$, then $L_{r} G=\Gamma_{r} G$ by Theorem A and [6] unless perhaps $L_{r} G \simeq S_{3}$. However if $r \geqslant 2$, then as $A=\left(L_{r} G\right)^{\prime} \triangleleft G, L_{r} G \leqslant G^{\prime} \leqslant$ $C_{G}(A)$, a contradiction. So $L_{r} G \neq S_{3}$. Now assume $|G|<96$. Suppose $G$ is a counterexample. Then $r \geqslant 3$ by [7, Theorem D]. If $G / G^{\prime}$ is cyclic, then $\Gamma_{2} G=\left\{[g, h] \mid g \in G^{\prime}, h \in G\right\}$, and $G^{\prime}=L_{r} G$ for $r \geqslant 2$. Since $|G|<96, G^{\prime}=\Gamma_{2} G$, and so by induction, we see that

$$
\Gamma_{r+1}(G)=\left\{[g, h] \mid g \in \Gamma_{r} G, h \in G\right\}=\Gamma_{2} G=G^{\prime}=L_{r+1} G .
$$

Since $\left|L_{3} G\right| \geqslant 8$ and indeed by an argument similar to the one above $\left|L_{3} G\right|$ is divisible by at least three primes, the only possibilities remaining are that $\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]=4$ and $\left|L_{r} G\right|=8,12$, or 18 or that $\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]=9$ and $\left|G^{\prime}\right|=\left|L_{r} G\right|=8$. The last possibility is easily eliminated by inspection. If $\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]=4$ and $\left|L_{r} G\right|=8$, then $G$ is a 2-group and $G^{\prime}$ is cyclic. Thus Theorem A applies. If $\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]=4$ and $\left|L_{r} G\right|=12$ or 18 , then either $L_{r} G$ is the union of its Sylow subgroups (and so $L_{r} G=\Gamma_{r} G$ by Theorem A) or $G^{\prime}=L_{r} G$ is abelian. It then follows that $L_{r} G \neq G^{\prime}$, and this contradiction completes the proof.

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Department of Mathematics
University of Southern California
Los Angeles
California 90089-1113
U.S.A.

