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**EXTREMELY CLOSED SUBGROUPS
AND A VARIANT ON GLAUBERMAN'S Z^* -THEOREM**

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Let G be a finite group and let H be a subgroup of G . We say that H is extremely closed in G if $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$ for all $g \in G$. We determine the structure of finite groups with an extremely closed abelian p -subgroup for some prime p . In particular, we show that if G contains such a subgroup H , then $G = N_G(H) O_{p'}(G)$. This is a variant on the celebrated Glauberman's Z^* -theorem.

1. Introduction

It is an important problem in finite group theory to determine whether a finite group is simple or not. Many nonsimplicity criteria have been obtained in the literature. Among those is the celebrated Glauberman's Z^* -theorem. To state this theorem, we need some definitions. Let G be a finite group and let p be a prime. Let $x \in G$ be a p -element and let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of G containing x . We say that x is isolated in P with respect to G if $x^G \cap P = \{x\}$, that is, x is not conjugate in G to any element in P except for x itself. Here, x^G denotes the conjugacy class of G containing x . We say that x is isolated in G if x is isolated in some Sylow p -subgroup of G containing it. Glauberman's Z^* -theorem [18] states that if $x \in G$ is an isolated involution in G , then $G = C_G(x) O_{2'}(G)$. The proof of this theorem depends on the modular representation theory and is independent of the classification of finite simple groups. Recall that for a prime p , $O_{p'}(G)$ is the largest normal p' -subgroup of G . Extending this fundamental theorem to all primes, Glauberman's Z_p^* -theorem states that if $x \in G$ is an isolated p -element, then $G = C_G(x) O_{p'}(G)$. For various proofs of this theorem, see [1; 19; 27; 40]. Note that all of these proofs depend on the classification of finite simple groups. For many equivalent statements of this theorem, see [30]. Also, see [14] for some variant of Glauberman's Z_p^* -theorem.

In this paper, we introduce the so-called *extremely closed subgroup* and obtain some new factorization of finite groups similar to Glauberman's Z_p^* -theorem which gives some nonsimplicity criteria for finite groups. Let G be a finite group and let

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$H \leq M$ be subgroups of G . We say that H is extremely closed in M with respect to G if $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap M = H$ for all $g \in G - M$, and that H is extremely closed in G if H is extremely closed in $N_G(H)$ with respect to G . Trivially, if H is a normal or self-normalizing subgroup of G , then H is extremely closed in G .

If G is a finite group, we write $Z(G)$ for the center of G and $\Phi(G)$ for the Frattini subgroup of G , that is, the intersection of all maximal subgroups of G . Furthermore, if H is a subgroup of G , then $\langle H^G \rangle$ is the normal closure of H in G . We next compare our definition of extremely closed subgroups with other known embedding properties of subgroups of finite groups.

The first motivation for our definition comes from work of Flavell [10] on the generation of finite groups with maximal subgroups of maximal subgroups. In particular, a triple (G, M, H) with $H \leq M \leq G$ is called a γ -triple if $H < M < G$ and $\langle H, g \rangle \cap M = H$ for all $g \in G - M$. If H is maximal in M and M is maximal in G and moreover, G cannot be generated by any two conjugates of H , then (G, M, H) is a γ -triple. Clearly, if (G, M, H) is a γ -triple, then H is extremely closed in M with respect to G . The converse is not true by the example below.

Example 1.1. Let $G = S_4$ be the symmetric group of degree 4. Let $H = \langle (1, 2, 3) \rangle$ and $M = N_G(H) \cong S_3$. Then $\langle H^G \rangle = A_4$ and $\langle H^G \rangle \cap M = H$. So $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap M = H$ for all $g \in G$, and hence H is extremely closed in M with respect to G . However, let $g = (1, 3, 2, 4) \in G - M$. Then $\langle H, g \rangle = G$ and so $\langle H, g \rangle \cap M = M \neq H$. Therefore (G, M, H) is not a γ -triple.

For the second motivation, following Hawkes and Humphreys [31], a subgroup M of a finite group G is said to have property CR (character restriction) if every irreducible complex character of M is the restriction of a character of G . In [31], the authors studied finite solvable groups with a CR-subgroup and the general cases were considered by Isaacs in [32]. One important property of a CR-subgroup M of a finite group G is that if $H \trianglelefteq M$, then $\langle H^G \rangle \cap M = H$ [32, Proposition 1.1]. Berkovich [3] called a triple (G, M, H) with $H \trianglelefteq M \leq G$ special in G if $\langle H^G \rangle \cap M = H$. (Li [36] calls H an NE-subgroup of G if $(G, N_G(H), H)$ is special in G .) Isaacs [32] showed that if P is a Sylow p -subgroup of G , where p is a prime and assume that $N_G(P)$ satisfies CR in G , then $N_G(P)$ has a normal complement in G . This result was extended by Berkovich [3], where he showed that if both triples $(G, N_G(P), P)$ and $(G, N_G(P), \Phi(P))$ are special in G , then $N_G(P)$ has a normal complement in G . This gives a character theory free proof of Isaacs' result mentioned earlier. Observe that if a triple $(G, N_G(H), H)$ is special in G , then H is extremely closed in G . However, the converse is not true.

Example 1.2. Let $G = P : H$ be a semidirect product of H and P , where $H = \langle a \rangle$ is a cyclic group of order 2 and $P \cong 3_+^{1+2}$ is an extraspecial group of order 27 with

exponent 3, so

$$P = \langle x, y, z \mid z = [x, y], x^3 = y^3 = z^3 = 1 = [x, z] = [y, z] \rangle$$

and H acts on P via $x^a = x^{-1}$, $y^a = y^{-1}$ and $z^a = z$. Then $N_G(H) = C_G(H) = H\langle z \rangle$, and $\langle H^G \rangle = G$. For every $g \in G - N_G(H)$, we have $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle$ is a dihedral group of order 6, so $N_T(H) = H$, and hence H is extremely closed in G but $(G, N_G(H), H)$ is not a special triple since $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H\langle z \rangle \neq H$.

Finally, we mention the last inspiration for our new embedding property. Let $H \leq M$ be subgroups of a finite group G . Recall that H is said to be *strongly closed* in M with respect to G if, whenever $a^g \in M$, where $a \in H$, $g \in G$, then $a^g \in H$. This is equivalent to saying that $M \cap H^g \leq H$ for all $g \in G$. Furthermore, we say that H is strongly closed in G if H is strongly closed in $N_G(H)$ with respect to G . Noting that in [4], H is called an \mathcal{H} -subgroup of G if H is strongly closed in G . If $H = \langle x \rangle$ is cyclic of order 2, then H is strongly closed in G if and only if x is isolated in G . Finite groups with a strongly closed p -subgroup are determined in [15; 16; 20]. It is easy to see that if H is extremely closed in G , then H is strongly closed in G .

Example 1.3. Let $G = U_3(4)$. By [20], if P is a Sylow 2-subgroup of G , then $H = Z(P) = \Phi(P)$ is a strongly closed abelian 2-subgroup of G . Using GAP [17], we can find $g \in G$ of order 15 such that $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cong A_5 \cong \text{SU}_2(4)$, $N_G(H) \cong P\langle g \rangle$ and $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) \cong A_4 \neq H$. Thus H is not extremely closed in G .

Finally, we recall the definition of weakly closed subgroups. Let $H \leq M$ be subgroups of a finite group G . We say that H is *weakly closed* in M with respect to G if, whenever $H^g \subseteq M$, where $g \in G$, then $H^g = H$. It is easy to see that if H is strongly closed in M with respect to G , then H is weakly closed in M with respect to G . Moreover, when H is cyclic of prime order, these two concepts coincide. We know that if $H \trianglelefteq M \leq G$ and $\langle H^G \rangle \cap M = H$, then H is extremely closed in M with respect to G . In our first result, we show that in certain cases, the converse holds.

Theorem 1.4. *Let G be a finite group and let $H \leq M$ be subgroups of G . Suppose that $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap M = H$ for all $g \in G$. If H is maximal in M and M is maximal in G , then $\langle H^G \rangle \cap M = H$.*

Let $H \leq M$ be subgroups of a finite group G . Recall that H is called a *weak second maximal subgroup* of G if there exists a maximal subgroup M of G such that H is maximal in M . Moreover, H is called a *second maximal subgroup* of G if $H \neq G$ and it is maximal in every maximal subgroup of G containing it. Flavell [10] shows that if G is a finite nonabelian simple group and H is a weak second maximal subgroup of G , then $G = \langle H, g \rangle$ for some $g \in G$. And in [9], it is shown that

if H is a second maximal subgroup of a finite nonabelian simple group G , then $G = \langle H, H^g \rangle$ for some $g \in G$. As a corollary to [Theorem 1.4](#), we obtain the following generation result for finite nonabelian simple groups.

Corollary 1.5. *Let G be a finite nonabelian simple group. Let M be a maximal subgroup of G and let H be a normal subgroup of M of prime index. Then $G = \langle H, H^g \rangle$ for some $g \in G$.*

Note that if $G = A_5$, $M = S_3$ and H is a Sylow 2-subgroup of M , then M is a maximal subgroup of G and $|M : H| = 3$ is a prime, but G cannot be generated by any two conjugates of H . So we cannot drop the hypothesis that $H \trianglelefteq M$ in [Corollary 1.5](#). We should mention that Flavell [13] asks whether a finite nonabelian simple group can be generated by two conjugates of a self-normalizing subgroup.

Let G be a finite group and let p be a prime. We now focus on extremely closed p -subgroups. Let H be an extremely closed p -subgroup of G . We first assume that $H = \langle x \rangle$ is cyclic of order p . If $p = 2$, then it is not hard to see that x is isolated in G or equivalently H is strongly closed in G and so $G = C_G(x) O_{2'}(G)$ by Glauberman's Z^* -theorem. In particular, G is not simple. When p is odd, we note that there exists a simple group with a weakly closed or strongly closed subgroup of order p , for instance, when a Sylow p -subgroup of G is cyclic. However, when H is extremely closed in G , the subgroups generated by any two distinct conjugates of H are Frobenius groups. By applying a result due to B. Fischer [8] concerning Frobenius automorphisms, we can show that $(G, N_G(H), H)$ is special in G , and then we obtain a factorization similar to that of Glauberman's Z_p^* -theorem.

Theorem 1.6. *Let G be a finite group and let p be an odd prime divisor of the order of G . Let H be a cyclic subgroup of order p of G . If $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$ for all $g \in G$, then $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$. In particular, $G = N_G(H) O_{p'}(G)$.*

It would be nice to have a proof of [Theorem 1.6](#) which does not rely on the classification of finite simple groups. For an arbitrary prime p , if H is an abelian extremely closed p -subgroup of a finite group G , we also obtain a similar factorization $G = N_G(H) O_{p'}(G)$ as in [Theorem 1.6](#). For even prime, the proof depends only on the classification of finite groups with an abelian strongly closed subgroup by Goldschmidt [20] which is independent of the classification of finite simple groups. For odd primes, we make use of a result due to Guest [25] on the characterization of solvable radical of finite groups and the classification of finite groups with strongly closed subgroups by Flores and Foote [15].

Theorem 1.7. *Let G be a finite group and let p be prime. Let H be an abelian p -subgroup of G . If $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$ for all $g \in G$, then $G = N_G(H) O_{p'}(G)$.*

Remark that we cannot drop the hypothesis that H is abelian when $p = 2$ in [Theorem 1.7](#), since the simple group $G = L_2(17)$ has a self-normalizing Sylow 2-subgroup P which is nonabelian and so P is clearly an extremely closed 2-subgroup of G . Note that if $|H| = 2$, then [Theorem 1.7](#) is just Glauberman's Z^* -theorem. [Example 1.2](#) above shows that an abelian extremely closed 2-subgroup H may not satisfy the condition $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$. However, this holds true for odd primes. We obtain the following as a corollary to [Theorem 1.7](#).

Corollary 1.8. *Let G be a finite group and let p be an odd prime. Let H be an abelian p -subgroup of G . If $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$ for all $g \in G$, then $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$.*

Recall that for a finite group G , the solvable radical of G , denoted by $R(G)$, is the largest normal solvable subgroup of G . [Theorem 1.7](#) and [Corollary 1.8](#) now yield the following.

Corollary 1.9. *Let G be a finite group and let p be a prime. If H is an extremely closed abelian p -subgroup of G , then $H \subseteq R(G)$.*

By an application of Burnside's normal p -complement theorem and the solvability of finite groups admitting a fixed point free coprime group action, if H satisfies the hypothesis of the corollary, then $\langle H, H^g \rangle$ is solvable for all $g \in G$. Thus if $x \in H$, then $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is solvable for all $g \in G$. By the main results in [\[21; 25\]](#), if $p \geq 5$, then $x \in R(G)$ and hence $H \leq R(G)$. Thus the above corollary only provides new result when $p = 2$ or 3.

In general, if x is a p -element and $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is p -solvable for all $g \in G$, then it is not true that $x \in R_p(G)$, where $R_p(G)$ is the p -solvable radical of G , that is, $R_p(G)$ is the largest normal p -solvable subgroup of G . For a counterexample, consider $G = U_3(3)$ and $x \in G$ a transvection, so x has order 3 and the conjugacy class of G containing x has size 56, then we can check that $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is isomorphic to either $\langle x \rangle$ or $SL_2(3)$ for every $g \in G$. Clearly $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is 3-nilpotent and hence it is 3-solvable for every $g \in G$. There is also a counterexample when $p = 2$ since if $x \in G$ is an involution, then $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is 2-nilpotent for every $g \in G$. Recall that a finite group G is p -nilpotent if it has a normal p -complement for some prime p . On the other hand, it is proved in [\[11\]](#) that if P is a Sylow p -subgroup of a finite group G for some prime p , then G is p -solvable if and only if $\langle P, g \rangle$ is p -solvable for all $g \in G$. Generalizing this result, we can prove the following.

Theorem 1.10. *Let G be a finite group and let p be a prime. Let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of G . Then G is p -solvable if and only if $\langle P, P^g \rangle$ is p -solvable for all $g \in G$.*

Our notation is standard. For finite group theory, we follow [\[22\]](#) and [\[35\]](#) and for finite simple groups, we follow the notation in [\[34\]](#).

For the organization of the paper, we collect some useful results in [Section 2](#). We will prove [Theorems 1.4–1.7](#) and the corollaries in [Section 3](#) and the last theorem will be proved in [Section 4](#).

2. Preliminaries

Let G be a finite group. Recall that the Fitting subgroup of G , denoted by $F(G)$, is the largest nilpotent normal subgroup of G . The layer of G , denoted by $E(G)$, is the product of all components of G , where a component of G is a subnormal quasisimple subgroup of G . A finite group L is quasisimple if L is perfect and $L/Z(L)$ is a nonabelian simple group. The generalized Fitting subgroup of G , denoted by $F^*(G)$, is defined by $F^*(G) = F(G)E(G)$. As usual, if $H \leq G$, then $N_G(H)$ and $C_G(H)$ denote the normalizer and centralizer of H in G , respectively. Finally, a finite group G is almost simple with socle S if there exists a finite nonabelian simple group S such that $S \trianglelefteq G \leq \text{Aut}(S)$.

Recall that a subgroup H of G is called *pronormal* (resp. *abnormal*) in G if for any $g \in G$, $H^g = H^u$ for some $u \in \langle H, H^g \rangle$, (resp. $\langle H, H^g \rangle = \langle H, g \rangle$). The first lemma is obvious, for completeness, we will include a proof here.

Lemma 2.1. *Let G be a finite group. Let H be a pronormal subgroup of G and let $N \trianglelefteq G$. Then the following hold.*

- (i) *If $N \trianglelefteq G$ and $P \in \text{Syl}_p(N)$, then P is pronormal in G .*
- (ii) *$N_G(H)$ is abnormal in G .*
- (iii) *If $H \leq N \trianglelefteq G$, then $G = N_G(H)N$.*
- (iv) *If $H \leq L \leq G$, then H is pronormal in L .*
- (v) *If H is subnormal in K , where $K \leq G$, then $H \trianglelefteq K$.*
- (vi) *If $L = \langle H^G \rangle$, then $\langle H^L \rangle = L$.*

Proof. (i) Let $g \in G$. Since $P \leq N \trianglelefteq G$, we have $\langle P, P^g \rangle \leq N$. As $P \in \text{Syl}_p(N)$, it follows that $P \in \text{Syl}_p(\langle P, P^g \rangle)$ and hence by Sylow's theorem, $P^g = P^u$ for some $u \in \langle P, P^g \rangle$. Thus P is pronormal in G .

(ii) Assume that H is pronormal in G . Let $M = N_G(H)$ and let $g \in G$. By definition, $H^g = H^u$, for some $u \in \langle H, H^g \rangle$, whence $gu^{-1} \in N_G(H) = M$. Since $u \in \langle H, H^g \rangle \leq \langle M, M^g \rangle$, we have $g \in \langle M, M^g \rangle$ and so $\langle M, M^g \rangle = \langle M, g \rangle$. Hence M is abnormal in G .

(iii) Let $g \in G$. We have $H^g = H^u$, where $u \in \langle H, H^g \rangle \leq N$ as $H \leq N \trianglelefteq G$. Thus $gu^{-1} \in N_G(H)$ and so $g \in N_G(H)N$.

(iv) This is obvious.

(v) By (iv), it suffices to show that if H is subnormal and pronormal in G then $H \trianglelefteq G$. In fact, we only need to prove the following: if $H \trianglelefteq K \trianglelefteq G$ and H is pronormal in G then $H \trianglelefteq G$. By applying (iii), we have $G = N_G(H)K$. However, as $H \trianglelefteq K$, $K \leq N_G(H)$ and so $G = N_G(H)$.

(vi) Since $H \leq L = \langle H^G \rangle \trianglelefteq G$, $G = N_G(H)L$ by (iii) and thus

$$L = \langle H^G \rangle = \langle H^{N_G(H)L} \rangle = \langle H^L \rangle \leq L.$$

Therefore $L = \langle H^L \rangle$. □

We next deduce some properties of extremely closed subgroups.

Lemma 2.2. *Let G be a finite group and let H be a p -subgroup of G for some prime p . Let $N \trianglelefteq G$ and assume that H is extremely closed in G . Let $\bar{G} = G/N$. Then the following hold.*

- (i) *For every $g \in G$, we have $N_{\langle H, H^g \rangle}(H) = H$ and $H \in \text{Syl}_p(\langle H, H^g \rangle)$.*
- (ii) *H is pronormal in G .*
- (iii) *If $H \leq L$, then H is extremely closed in L .*
- (iv) *$N_{\bar{G}}(\bar{H}) = \overline{N_G(H)}$.*
- (v) *If H is abelian, then $\langle H, H^g \rangle = HO_{p'}(\langle H, H^g \rangle)$, for every $g \in G$.*
- (vi) *\bar{H} is extremely closed in \bar{G} .*
- (vii) *If $H \leq Q \leq G$, where Q is a p -group, then $N_G(Q) \leq N_G(H)$. In particular, if $H \leq P \in \text{Syl}_p(G)$, then $P \leq N_G(H)$.*

Proof. (i) Let $g \in G$ and let $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle$. We have $H = T \cap N_G(H) = N_T(H)$ and so H is a Sylow p -subgroup of T by Sylow's theorem.

(ii) Let $g \in G$. As above, let $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle$. From part (i), H is a Sylow p -subgroup of T and since $|H^g| = |H|$ and $H^g \leq T$, H^g is also a Sylow p -subgroup of T . By Sylow's theorem, $H^g = H^u$ for some $u \in T$. Thus H is pronormal in G .

(iii) Let $g \in L$. Then $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_L(H) = \langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) \cap L = H \cap L = H$.

(iv) It suffices to show that $N_G(HN) \leq N_G(H)N$. Let $g \in N_G(HN)$. Then $H^g \leq HN$ and hence $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle \leq HN$. Since H is pronormal in G by (ii), we have $H^g = H^u$, for some $u \in T \leq HN$. Thus $gu^{-1} \in N_G(H)$ whence $g \in N_G(H)HN = N_G(H)N$.

(v) Assume that H is abelian. Let $g \in G$ and let $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle$. By (i), H is a self-normalizing abelian Sylow p -subgroup of T . The result now follows from Burnside's normal p -complement theorem ([22, Theorem 7.4.3]).

(vi) Applying (iv), we need to show that $\langle H, H^g \rangle N \cap N_G(H)N = HN$, for all $g \in G$. Let $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle$. By Dedekind's Modular law, we have

$$TN \cap N_G(H)N = N(TN \cap N_G(H)).$$

Hence, it suffices to show that $TN \cap N_G(H) \leq HN$. Let $y = xn \in TN \cap N_G(H)$, where $y \in N_G(H)$, $x \in T$ and $n \in N$. We have $H = H^y = H^{xn}$, it implies that $H^x = H^{n^{-1}}$. By (i), we have $N_T(H) = H$, and so by (ii) and [Lemma 2.1\(ii\)](#), H is abnormal in T . Thus $x \in \langle H, H^x \rangle = \langle H, H^{n^{-1}} \rangle \leq HN$. Therefore, $y = xn \in HN$.

(vii) Since H is pronormal and subnormal in $N_G(Q)$, by [Lemma 2.1\(v\)](#), H is normal in $N_G(Q)$. The remaining claim is obvious. \square

Lemma 2.3. *Let G be a finite group, let $N \trianglelefteq G$ and let H be an extremely closed p -subgroup of G for some prime p . Let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of G containing H and let $Q = H \cap N$. Then the following hold.*

- (i) H is strongly closed in P with respect to G .
- (ii) Q is strongly closed in $P \cap N$ with respect to N .
- (iii) If $N \leq N_G(H)$, then $Q \trianglelefteq G$.

Proof. Observe that $R := P \cap N \in \text{Syl}_p(N)$ and by [Lemma 2.2\(vii\)](#), $P \leq N_G(H)$.

(i) For $g \in G$, we have $H^g \cap P \leq \langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$. So H is strongly closed in P with respect to G .

(ii) For $n \in N$, we have $Q^n \leq H^n$ and $R \leq P \leq N_G(H)$ and so

$$Q^n \cap R \leq \langle H, H^n \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H.$$

Furthermore, as $Q \leq N \trianglelefteq G$ and $R \leq N$, we have $Q^n \cap R \leq N$. Hence we obtain $Q^n \cap R \leq H \cap N = Q$.

(iii) Assume that $N \leq N_G(H)$. For each $g \in G$, we have

$$Q^g = Q^g \cap N \leq \langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) \cap N = H \cap N = Q.$$

Hence $Q \trianglelefteq G$ as wanted. \square

We next quote some results that we will need for the proofs of the main theorems.

Lemma 2.4. *Suppose that G is a finite group with $F(G) = 1$. Let L be a component of G . If $x \in G$ such that $x \notin N_G(L)$ and $x^2 \notin C_G(L)$ then there exists an element $g \in G$ such that $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is not solvable.*

Proof. This is Lemma 1 in [\[25\]](#). \square

Lemma 2.5. *Let G be a finite almost simple group with socle L . Suppose that $x \in G$ is an element of order p , where p is an odd prime. Then one of the following holds:*

- (i) $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is not solvable for some $g \in G$;
- (ii) $p = 3$ and L is a finite simple group of Lie type defined over \mathbb{F}_3 , a finite field with 3 elements, or $L \cong \text{U}_n(2)$, $n \geq 4$. Moreover, the Lie rank of L is at least 2 unless $L \cong \text{U}_3(3)$.

Proof. This is Theorem A^* in [25]. \square

Recall that a triple (G, M, H) with $H \trianglelefteq M \leq G$ is called a W -triple if $M \cap M^g \leq H$ for all $g \in G - M$.

Lemma 2.6. *Let G be a finite group and $H \trianglelefteq M \leq G$. Then (G, M, H) is a W -triple if and only if*

$$N_G(D) \leq M \text{ for all subgroups } D \leq M \text{ with } D \not\leq H.$$

Proof. This is Lemma 2.3 in [10]. \square

Lemma 2.7 (Wielandt's theorem). *Let G be a finite group. If (G, M, H) is a W -triple, then G contains a normal subgroup K such that $G = MK$ and $M \cap K = H$. In particular, the triple (G, M, H) is special in G .*

Proof. The first claim is in [42] or [38, Exercise 1, p. 347] and the second is in [3, Lemma 9]. \square

An automorphism θ of a finite group is Frobenius if each nontrivial power of θ is fixed point free.

Lemma 2.8. *Let G be a finite group and let D be a conjugacy class of G containing elements of order > 2 . Assume that $G = \langle D \rangle$. Then some element of D induces a Frobenius automorphism on G' if and only if each pair of distinct elements in D generates a Frobenius group.*

Proof. This is [8, Satz I]. \square

We also need the following results.

Lemma 2.9. *Let G be a finite group.*

- (i) *Let π be a set of odd primes and suppose that the π -group P acts as a group of automorphisms on the solvable finite π' -group G . Then*

$$C_{[G, P]}(P) = \langle C_{[g, P]}(P) : g \in G \rangle.$$

- (ii) *Let α be a coprime automorphism of odd order of G . Then*

$$C_{[G, \langle \alpha \rangle]}(\alpha) = \langle C_{[g, \langle \alpha \rangle]}(\alpha) : g \in [G, \langle \alpha \rangle] \rangle.$$

Proof. The first claim is [12, Theorem A] and the second is [14, Theorem 2]. \square

We will use the next result repeatedly.

Lemma 2.10. *Let π be a nonempty set of primes. Let Q be a finite π -group which acts fixed point freely on a finite π' -group R , that is, $C_R(Q) = 1$, then R is solvable.*

Proof. For a proof, see Theorem 2.3 in [29]. \square

We also need the following consequence of Burnside's normal p -complement theorem.

Lemma 2.11. *Let G be a finite group and let p be a prime. Let H be an abelian p -subgroup of G . Assume that $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$. Then $G = N_G(H) O_{p'}(G)$ and $\langle H^G \rangle$ is solvable. Moreover, $N_G(H)$ has a normal complement in G , which is $O_{p'}(\langle H^G \rangle)$.*

Proof. Let H be an abelian p -subgroup of G . Assume that $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$. Let $L = \langle H^G \rangle \trianglelefteq G$. Then $N_L(H) = L \cap N_G(H) = H$, so H is a self-normalizing abelian Sylow p -subgroup of L . In particular, $H \leq Z(N_L(H))$; hence by Burnside's normal p -complement theorem [22, Theorem 7.4.3] $L = H O_{p'}(L)$. By Frattini's argument

$$G = N_G(H) L = N_G(H) O_{p'}(L) = N_G(H) O_{p'}(G).$$

The last equality holds since $O_{p'}(L) \leq O_{p'}(G)$.

Let $L = \langle H^G \rangle$. Then $N_L(H) = H$, that is, H is a self-normalizing cyclic Sylow p -subgroup of L . By Burnside's normal p -complement theorem, L has a normal p -complement K , and hence $C_K(H) = 1$. By Lemma 2.10, K is solvable and thus $L = HK$ is solvable as well.

We now show that $O_{p'}(L)$ is a normal complement to $N_G(H)$ in G . To see this, observe that $L = H O_{p'}(L)$ and $H \cap O_{p'}(L) = 1$. Note that $O_{p'}(L) \trianglelefteq G$. Thus it suffices to show that $N_G(H) \cap O_{p'}(L) = 1$. Indeed, we have

$$N_G(H) \cap O_{p'}(L) = N_G(H) \cap L \cap O_{p'}(L) = H \cap O_{p'}(L) = 1. \quad \square$$

Finally, we also need the following solvability result.

Lemma 2.12. *Let G be a finite group and let H be an abelian p -subgroup of G for some prime p . If H is extremely closed in G , then $\langle H, H^g \rangle$ is solvable for all $g \in G$.*

Proof. Let $g \in G$ and let $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle$. By Lemma 2.2(v), we have $T = H O_{p'}(T)$. Since $N_T(H) = H$, H acts fixed point freely and coprimely on $O_{p'}(T)$, the claim now follows from Lemma 2.10. \square

3. Extremely closed abelian p -subgroups

We are now ready to prove the main theorems. We first prove Theorem 1.4.

Proof of Theorem 1.4. Assume that M is a maximal subgroup of G , H is a maximal subgroup of M and that $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap M = H$ for all $g \in G$. We will show that $\langle H^G \rangle \cap M = H$. The hypothesis implies that $H \trianglelefteq M$ and $|M : H|$ is a prime.

Clearly, if $H \trianglelefteq G$, then the conclusion holds. So, let $M = N_G(H)$. Suppose that there exists a subgroup $D \leq M$ with $D \not\leq H$ and $N_G(D) \not\leq M$. Take $g \in N_G(D) - M$. Then $M = DH$ and $M^g = DH^g$. As $M \neq M^g$, $G = D \langle H, H^g \rangle$. We have

$$\langle H^G \rangle = \langle H^{D \langle H, H^g \rangle} \rangle \leq \langle H, H^g \rangle \leq \langle H^G \rangle$$

and so $\langle H^G \rangle = \langle H, H^g \rangle$. Thus $\langle H^G \rangle \cap M = \langle H, H^g \rangle \cap M = H$ and we are done.

So, we can assume that whenever $D \leq M$ with $D \not\leq H$ then $N_G(D) \leq M$. By Lemma 2.6, (G, M, H) is a W -triple and so the result follows from Lemma 2.7. \square

Proof of Corollary 1.5. Let G be a finite nonabelian simple group. Let M be a maximal subgroup of G and let H be a normal subgroup of M such that $|M:H| = p$ is a prime. Suppose by contradiction that $G \neq \langle H, H^g \rangle$ for all $g \in G$. Since G is nonabelian simple, either $\langle H^G \rangle = G$ or $H = 1$. If $H = 1$, then M is a self-normalizing cyclic subgroup of G of prime order p and Burnside's normal p -complement theorem implies that G has a normal p -complement, a contradiction.

So $H \neq 1$ and $\langle H^G \rangle = G$. In particular, $M = N_G(H)$ and $\langle H^G \rangle \cap M = M > H$. Since H is maximal in M and M is maximal in G , Theorem 1.4 implies that there exists $g \in G$ such that $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap M > H$. The maximality of H in M implies that $M \leq \langle H, H^g \rangle$. Hence $M = \langle H, H^g \rangle$ and $N_G(H^g) = M^g \neq M$ as $g \notin M$. Let $a \in M^g - M$, then $H^a H^g = M^a$ is a subgroup and $H^g \langle H, H^a \rangle = G$. Now $G = \langle H^G \rangle = H^{\langle H, H^a \rangle} \leq \langle H, H^a \rangle$, contradicting our assumption. Thus $G = \langle H, H^g \rangle$ for some $g \in G$. \square

Proof of Theorem 1.6. Suppose we have proven that $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$. By Lemma 2.11, we have $G = N_G(H) O_{p'}(G)$ and $\langle H^G \rangle$ is solvable.

It remains to show that if H is extremely closed in G , then $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$. Let G be a counterexample to the claim with minimal order. Then H is a cyclic group of odd prime order p , $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$ for all $g \in G$ but $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) \neq H$. Furthermore, since $|H| = p$ is prime, $H^g = H$ or $\langle H, H^g \rangle$ is a Frobenius group for all $g \in G$.

(1) We first claim that $\langle H^G \rangle = G$. Suppose by contradiction that $L := \langle H^G \rangle < G$. By Lemma 2.2(ii), H is pronormal in G and hence $L = \langle H^L \rangle$ by Lemma 2.1(vi). By Lemma 2.2(iii), H is extremely closed in L and so by the minimality of G , $\langle H^L \rangle \cap N_L(H) = H$. However, as $L = \langle H^L \rangle$, we have $N_L(H) = H$, and thus

$$\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = L \cap N_G(H) = N_L(H) = H.$$

This contradiction proves the claim.

(2) Assume that $N_G(H) = C_G(H)$. Write $H = \langle x \rangle$. Then $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is a Frobenius group for all $g \in G$. Hence x acts as a Frobenius automorphism on G' by Lemma 2.8 and so $G'H$ is a Frobenius group (as H has prime order). In particular, we have $G' \leq O_{p'}(G)$ and $G = N_G(H) O_{p'}(G)$ in this case. In addition, $\langle H^G \rangle = G'H$ and $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$, a contradiction.

(3) Assume that $N_G(H) > C_G(H)$. Let M be a maximal normal subgroup of G . Then G/M is a simple group. Since $G = \langle H^G \rangle$, we have $H \not\leq M$. Assume that $M > 1$. Then $|G/M| < |G|$. Lemma 2.2(vi) implies that HM/M is extremely closed in G/M . Hence, as G/M is simple, $G = HM$. Now $N_G(H) = N_M(H)H = C_G(H)$, which is a contradiction. Hence $M = 1$ and G is a nonabelian simple group.

(4) By Lemma 2.12, $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is solvable for all $g \in G$ and so by Lemma 2.5, $p = 3$ and G is a finite simple group of Lie type defined over \mathbb{F}_3 or $G \cong U_n(2)$ with $n \geq 4$. Furthermore, except for $U_3(3)$, the Lie rank of G is strictly greater than 1. Now it is easy to see that a Sylow 3-subgroup of G is nonabelian. Let P be a Sylow 3-subgroup of G containing x . Then $H = \langle x \rangle$ is isolated in P with respect to G , that is, H does not conjugate in G to any subgroup in $P - H$. By [23, Theorem 4.250], we deduce that $G \cong U_3(3)$. By [25, Theorem A*], x is a transvection. Now for any conjugate x^g of x different from x and x^{-1} , we have that $T := \langle x, x^g \rangle \cong \text{SL}_2(3)$. However, $\text{SL}_2(3)$ is not a Frobenius group. \square

We will need the following result which is a consequence of Theorem A* in [25] and Theorem 1.2 in [15].

Proposition 3.1. *Let G be a finite group and let p be an odd prime. Let H be a nontrivial abelian p -subgroup of G . Assume that G has a unique minimal normal subgroup N which is nonabelian such that $G = HN$. Then H is not extremely closed in G .*

Proof. Suppose by contradiction that H is an abelian extremely closed p -subgroup of G . By Lemma 2.12, we have $\langle H, H^g \rangle$ is solvable for all $g \in G$. In particular, if $x \in H$, then $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is solvable for all $g \in G$.

By the uniqueness of N , we have $G = \langle H^G \rangle = HN$. We first show that G is an almost simple group with socle S . Let $W \trianglelefteq N$ be a component of G . Assume that $W \neq N$. As $W \trianglelefteq N$, $N \leq N_G(W)$ and so $N_G(W) = N_H(W)N$. Since $W < N$, $N_G(W) < G$ and so $N_H(W) < H$. Let $x \in H - N_H(W)$. Then $x \notin N_G(W)$ and $x^2 \notin C_G(W)$ since p is odd, whence x and W satisfy the hypothesis of Lemma 2.4 and hence $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is not solvable for some $g \in G$, a contradiction. Thus $W \trianglelefteq G$ and so $G = HN$, where N is a nonabelian simple group which is also a minimal normal subgroup of G . Thus G is an almost simple group with socle S as wanted.

Let $x \in H$ be an element of order p . Then $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is solvable for all $g \in G$. By Lemma 2.5, $p = 3$ and S is a finite simple group of Lie type defined over \mathbb{F}_3 or $S \cong U_n(2)$, $n \geq 4$. If $|H| = 3$, then $\langle H^G \rangle$ is solvable by Theorem 1.6 and Lemma 2.11, which is impossible. Thus we may assume that $|H| \geq 9$. Since $G = HS$, we have $G/S \cong H/(H \cap S)$ is a 3-group and thus if $G \neq S$, then elements in $H - S$ induce outer automorphisms of S of 3-power order.

(i) Assume $S \cong U_n(2)$, $n \geq 4$ or $G \neq S$. If $S \cong U_n(2)$, then since $n \geq 4$, we have $|\text{Out}(U_n(2))| = 2(n, 3)$. If $G \neq S$ and $S \not\cong U_n(2)$, then $S \cong D_4(3)$ or ${}^3D_4(3)$ since S has no nontrivial field automorphism so $\text{Out}(S)$ contains diagonal automorphisms and possibly graph automorphisms only. In all cases, the Sylow 3-subgroup of $\text{Out}(S)$ has order at most 3. Hence $|G : S| = |H : S \cap H| \leq 3$.

Since $|H| \geq 9$, if G is not simple then $A = H \cap S > 1$. By Lemma 2.3(ii), A is strongly closed in S . If $G = S = U_n(2)$, then $A = H$ is strongly closed in S . In

both cases, S contains a nontrivial abelian 3-subgroup A which is strongly closed in S . Since S is simple, $S = \langle A^S \rangle$. As a Sylow 3-subgroup of S is nonabelian, A cannot be a Sylow 3-subgroup of S ; however this contradicts [15, Theorem 1.2(i)].

(ii) $G = S$ is a finite simple group of Lie type defined over \mathbb{F}_3 . The possibilities for G can be read off from [25, Table 1] and note the correction in [37, Remark 5.2].

Let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of G containing H , and let M be a maximal parabolic subgroup of G containing the Borel subgroup $B := N_G(P)$. Let $R = O_p(M)$. Then $M = N_G(R)$. By induction, we have $\langle H^M \rangle \cap N_M(H) = H$, and hence $\langle H^M \rangle = HU$, where $U = O_{p'}(\langle H^M \rangle)$ and $C_U(H) = 1$. Therefore, U is a solvable normal p' -subgroup of M since $\langle H^M \rangle \trianglelefteq M$. As $H \leq \langle H^M \rangle \trianglelefteq M$ and H is pronormal in M , we have $M = N_M(H)U$. However, as M is a parabolic subgroup of a finite simple group of Lie type G , $F^*(M) = O_p(M)$ (Corollaries 3.1.4 and 3.1.5 in [24]), so $U = 1$. Hence $H \trianglelefteq M$ and $M = N_G(H)$. Thus M contains every maximal parabolic subgroup of G that contains the Borel subgroup B . However this happens only when the Lie rank of G is 1. Therefore $G \cong U_3(3)$. (We can also use Theorem 1.2 in [15] to arrive at this conclusion.)

From the Atlas [7], we have $P \cong 3_+^{1+2}$ is an extraspecial group of order 27 and exponent 3. Thus $|H| = 9$. Since G has Lie rank 1, the Borel subgroup B of G is a maximal subgroup of G . Hence $B = N_G(H)$. Let $g \in G - B$ and $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle$. We know that $T = HO_{3'}(T)$ is solvable, so $T < G$ and thus T lies in some maximal subgroup of G whose order must be divisible by $|H| = 9$. Inspecting the list of maximal subgroups of G in the Atlas [7], the only maximal overgroups of H and T in G are the Borel subgroups B and its G -conjugates. Hence $\langle H, H^g \rangle \leq B^t$ for some $t \in G$. Note that $B = P : W$, where $W = \langle y \rangle$ is a cyclic group of order 8. Since B^t has a normal Sylow 3-subgroup, we must have that $H \leq P^t \leq B^t$ and hence H is subnormal in B^t . Since H is pronormal in G and hence in B^t , we have $H \trianglelefteq B^t$ or $B^t = N_G(H) = B$. Therefore, $\langle H, H^g \rangle \leq B$ for all $g \in G$. However, this implies that $\langle H^G \rangle \leq B$, which is a contradiction. \square

Proof of Theorem 1.7. Let G be a counterexample to Theorem 1.7 with minimal order. Then $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$ for all $g \in G$ but $G \neq N_G(H)O_{p'}(G)$, where H is an abelian p -subgroup of G .

(1) $\langle H^G \rangle = G$. Let $L = \langle H^G \rangle$. Assume $L \neq G$. By Lemmas 2.2(ii) and 2.1(iii), we have $G = N_G(H)L$. By Lemma 2.2(iii) and the minimality of G , we have $L = N_L(H)O_{p'}(L)$. As $L \trianglelefteq G$, $O_{p'}(L) \leq O_{p'}(G)$, and hence

$$G = N_G(H)L = N_G(H)O_{p'}(L) = N_G(H)O_{p'}(G).$$

This contradiction shows that $L = G$.

(2) $O_{p'}(G) = 1$. Suppose by contradiction that $N = O_{p'}(G) \neq 1$. It follows from Lemma 2.2(vi) that the hypothesis carries over to $\bar{G} = G/N$, and so by the minimality

of G , we obtain $\bar{G} = N_{\bar{G}}(\bar{H}) O_{p'}(\bar{G})$. But $O_{p'}(\bar{G}) = O_{p'}(G/O_{p'}(G)) = 1$, and hence $\bar{G} = \overline{N_G(H)}$ by Lemma 2.2(iv). Therefore, $G = N_G(H)N = N_G(H) O_{p'}(G)$, which is a contradiction. This proves the claim.

(3) $O_p(G) = 1$. Assume $O_p(G) \neq 1$. Let $N \leq O_p(G)$ be a minimal normal subgroup of G and let $U = H \cap N$. Observe first that $O_p(G) \leq N_G(H)$ since $P \leq N_G(H)$ for any $H \leq P \in \text{Syl}_p(G)$. It follows that $N \leq N_G(H)$. We will show that $N \leq Z(G)$. Suppose first that $U \neq 1$. Lemma 2.3(iii) implies that $U \trianglelefteq G$. By the minimality of N , we have $U = N$, and so $N \leq H$. As H is abelian, $H \leq C_G(N) \trianglelefteq G$. By (1), we have $C_G(N) = G$, and $N \leq Z(G)$. If $U = H \cap N = 1$, then as H and N are both normal in $N_G(H)$, we have $[H, N] \leq H \cap N = 1$ and thus $H \leq C_G(N) \trianglelefteq G$, so $N \leq Z(G)$.

By Lemma 2.2(vi), the hypothesis carries over to $\bar{G} = G/N$, and so by the minimality of G , we obtain $\bar{G} = N_{\bar{G}}(\bar{H}) O_{p'}(\bar{G})$. Let $K \leq G$ be such that $N \leq K$ and $K/N = O_{p'}(G/N)$. Then $N \trianglelefteq K \trianglelefteq G$ and $|K : N|$ is odd. By the Schur-Zassenhaus theorem, $K = NT$ where T is Hall p' -subgroup of G . Moreover, since N is central in G , $T \trianglelefteq K$ and hence $T \trianglelefteq G$ as it is characteristic in $K \trianglelefteq G$. It follows that $T \leq O_{p'}(G) = 1$ and thus $G = N_G(H)K = N_G(H)N = N_G(H)$. This contradiction proves the claim.

(4) Let N be a minimal normal subgroup of G . We claim that $G = HN$ and N is the unique minimal normal subgroup of G . By (2) and (3), $N \cong S^k$ for some finite nonabelian simple group S with $p \mid |S|$ and some integer $k \geq 1$. Let $M = HN$. Suppose that $M < G$. By the minimality of G , we have $M = N_M(H) O_{p'}(M)$. Hence $O_{p'}(M) \leq N$, and so $O_{p'}(M) = 1$. We deduce that $H \trianglelefteq M$. As H is an abelian p -group and $N \cong S^k$, we have $H \cap N = 1$ and hence $[H, N] \leq H \cap N = 1$. Thus $H \leq C_G(N) \trianglelefteq G$. By (1), we have $C_G(N) = G$, and then $N \leq Z(G)$. This contradiction shows that $G = HN$. Since $G/N \cong H/H \cap N$ is abelian, N must be a unique minimal normal subgroup of G as wanted.

If p is odd, then Proposition 3.1 yields a contradiction. Thus for the remaining, we assume that $p = 2$.

(5) We next claim that G is finite nonabelian simple group. By (4), $F^*(G) = N$ and H is a strongly closed abelian 2-subgroup of G . Now by [20, Theorem A], we have $F^*(G) = G$ and so $N = G$. It follows that $G = S$ is simple. By [20, Theorem A] again, G is isomorphic to one of the following groups:

- (i) $L_2(2^n)$, $n \geq 3$; ${}^2B_2(2^{2n+1})$, $n \geq 1$; or $U_3(2^n)$, $n \geq 2$.
- (ii) $L_2(q)$, $q \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{8}$.
- (iii) ${}^2G_2(3^{2n+1})$, $n \geq 1$; or J_1 , the first Janko group.

By Glauberman's Z^* -theorem, we may assume that $|H| \geq 4$.

(6) The final contradiction. We now consider each case above separately.

(a) Assume G is isomorphic to one of the groups in (i). Let $H \leq P \in \text{Syl}_2(G)$ and let $B = PT$ be the Borel subgroup of G containing P . By [20, (3.2)], $H = Z(P)$ is a noncyclic elementary abelian 2-group, P is a $T.I$ subgroup of G , and B is the unique maximal subgroup of G containing P . It follows that $B = N_G(H)$. Observe that for any $1 \neq x \in H$, $P \leq C_G(x) \leq B$, as P is uniquely contained in B . For $g \in G - B$, let $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle$. Then $N_T(H) = H$ and then by Burnside's normal p -complement theorem, we have $T = HU$, where $U = O_{2'}(T) \trianglelefteq T$. As H is noncyclic abelian, $U = \langle C_U(a) : 1 \neq a \in H \rangle$ [35, 8.3.4]. However, as $C_G(a) \leq B$ for all $1 \neq a \in H$, we have $U \leq B$ and so $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle \leq B$. From the hypothesis, we must have $T = T \cap B = H$, and hence $H^g = H$. This implies that $g \in B$, contradicting the choice of g .

(b) Assume that $G \cong L_2(5) \cong A_5$. By [20, (3.4)], $H \in \text{Syl}_2(G)$, $N_G(H) \cong A_4$ and $N_G(H)$ is the unique maximal subgroup of G containing $C_G(a)$, for all $1 \neq a \in H$. Take $g \in G - N_G(H)$, and let $T = \langle H, H^g \rangle$. Then $T = HU$, where $U = O_{2'}(T)$. As H is noncyclic, $U = \langle C_U(a) : 1 \neq a \in H \rangle \leq N_G(H)$. This leads to a contradiction as in the previous case.

(c) Assume G is isomorphic to one of the groups in (ii) with $q \geq 11$. By [20, (3.4)], we have $H \in \text{Syl}_2(G)$ and $N_G(H) \cong A_4$. Clearly, G contains a maximal subgroup M isomorphic to the dihedral group $D_{q\pm 1}$ such that M does not contain H . Assume M is generated by two involutions a, b . We can choose a, b such that $b \in H$. Now $G = \langle M, H \rangle \leq \langle a, H \rangle$, and hence $G = \langle a, H \rangle$. By Sylow's theorem, there exists some $g \in G$ such that $a \in H^g$. Thus $G = \langle a, H \rangle \leq \langle H^g, H \rangle$, and then $G = \langle H, H^g \rangle$, which contradicts the hypothesis that $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$.

(d) Finally, assume that G is isomorphic to one of the groups in (iii). By [20, (3.4)], we have $H \in \text{Syl}_2(G)$. Now H contains an involution t such that $C_G(t) = \langle t \rangle \times L$, where $L \cong L_2(q)$, $q \equiv 3, 5 \pmod{8}$ and $[G : C_G(t)]$ is odd [41]. As $H \leq C_G(t) < G$, by the minimality of G , we obtain $C_G(t) = (C_G(t) \cap N_G(H)) O_{2'}(C_G(t))$. However, as $C_G(t) = \langle t \rangle \times L$, where L is nonabelian simple, it follows that $O_{2'}(C_G(t)) = 1$ whence $C_G(t) \leq N_G(H)$. Hence $C_G(t) = N_G(H)$ since $C_G(t)$ is maximal in G by [20, (3.4)]. It follows that $H \trianglelefteq C_G(t)$ and then $H \cap L \trianglelefteq L$, where $H \cap L \in \text{Syl}_2(L)$, which contradicts the simplicity of L . \square

Proof of Corollary 1.8. Let G be a counterexample to the corollary with minimal order. Then we have that H is an abelian p -subgroup for some odd prime p and $\langle H, H^g \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$ for all $g \in G$ but $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) \neq H$. By Theorem 1.7, we have $G = N_G(H) O_{p'}(G)$. Now we have that

$$\langle H^G \rangle = \langle H^{N_G(H) O_{p'}(G)} \rangle = \langle H^{O_{p'}(G)} \rangle \leq H O_{p'}(G).$$

Let $L = \langle H^G \rangle$. Then $L = H(L \cap O_{p'}(G)) = H O_{p'}(L)$ and so L has a normal p -complement. Let $L < G$. By the minimality of G , we have $\langle H^L \rangle \cap N_L(H) = H$.

However, $L = \langle H^L \rangle$ by Lemmas 2.2(ii) and 2.1(vi) and thus $N_L(H) = H$ or equivalently $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$, a contradiction. Therefore, we can assume that $G = \langle H^G \rangle = HO_{p'}(G)$.

Let $U = O_{p'}(G)$ and let $Q = [U, H]$. By [35, 8.2.7], $U = QC_U(H)$ and $Q = [Q, H]$. Furthermore, $N_G(H) = C_G(H) = HC_U(H)$ and thus $G = HC_U(H)Q$. As $G = \langle H^G \rangle = H^{HC_U(H)Q} \leq HQ$, we obtain $G = HQ$ whence $U = Q$.

Let $N \leq U$ be a minimal normal subgroup of G . Since HN/N is an abelian extremely closed p -subgroup of G/N by Lemma 2.2(vi) and $G/N = \langle (HN/N)^{G/N} \rangle$, we have $N_G(HN) = HN$ and hence by Lemma 2.2 (iv), $N_G(H)N = HN$. Moreover, $C_{U/N}(HN/N) = 1$. It follows that U/N is solvable by Lemma 2.10.

Assume that N is abelian. Then U is solvable. Let $1 \neq u \in U$ and let $T = \langle H, H^u \rangle$. Then $T = H[u, H]$, where $[u, H] = O_{p'}(T)$ and $C_{[u, H]}(H) = 1$ as H is self-normalizing in T . By Lemma 2.9(i), $C_{[u, H]}(H) = \langle C_{[u, H]}(H) : u \in U \rangle = 1$. Thus $C_U(H) = C_{[u, H]}(H) = 1$ and so $N_G(H) = C_G(H) = HC_U(H) = H$. Therefore, $\langle H^G \rangle \cap N_G(H) = H$, which is a contradiction.

Assume that $N \cong S^k$, where S is a nonabelian simple group and $k \geq 1$ is an integer. Assume that $K = HN < G$. By the minimality of G , we have $\langle H^K \rangle \cap N_K(H) = H$. Thus $\langle H^K \rangle = HQ$ and $C_Q(H) = 1$, where $Q = O_{p'}(\langle H^K \rangle)$. As Q is characteristic in $\langle H^K \rangle \trianglelefteq K$, it follows that $Q \trianglelefteq K$. Since $|K : N|$ is a power of p and Q is a p' -group, we must have $Q \leq N$ and hence $Q \trianglelefteq N$. By [35, 1.7.5], Q is isomorphic to a direct product of the nonabelian simple group S , so Q is not solvable or $Q = 1$. If the former case holds, then since $C_Q(H) = 1$ and Q is a p' -group, Lemma 2.10 implies that Q is solvable, which is a contradiction as it is a direct product of copies of S . Therefore, $Q = 1$ and hence $H \trianglelefteq K$. It follows that $R = H \cap N \trianglelefteq N$. However, as $N \cong S^k$ and $H \cap N$ is a normal p -subgroup of N , we must have $H \cap N = 1$. Hence $[H, N] \leq H \cap N = 1$ and so $H \leq C_G(N) \trianglelefteq G$. Since $G = \langle H^G \rangle$, we have $C_G(N) = G$ or $N \leq Z(G)$, a contradiction. Therefore $G = HN$ and since G/N is solvable, N is a unique minimal normal subgroup of G . Now Proposition 3.1 yields a contradiction. \square

Proof of Corollary 1.9. Let H be an extremely closed abelian p -subgroup of G for some prime p . Assume first that $p = 2$. By Theorem 1.7, $G = N_G(H)O_{2'}(G)$ which implies that $HO_{2'}(G) \trianglelefteq G$ and clearly $HO_{2'}(G)$ is solvable and thus $H \subseteq R(G)$. Assume now that p is odd. By Corollary 1.8, we have $N_G(H) \cap \langle H^G \rangle = H$ and thus $\langle H^G \rangle$ is solvable by Lemma 2.11. \square

4. A p -solvability criterion

Let p be a prime. A finite group G is said to be a minimal non- p -solvable group if G is not p -solvable but every proper subgroup of G is p -solvable. A minimal simple group is a nonabelian finite simple groups whose all proper subgroups are solvable.

Observe that minimal non-2-solvable simple groups are exactly the minimal simple groups and these groups are classified by Thompson in [39].

Lemma 4.1. *Every minimal simple group is isomorphic to one of the following simple groups:*

- (1) $L_2(2^r)$, r is a prime.
- (2) $L_2(3^r)$, r is an odd prime.
- (3) $L_2(r)$, $r > 3$ is a prime such that $5 \mid r^2 + 1$.
- (4) ${}^2B_2(2^r)$, r is an odd prime.
- (5) $L_3(3)$.

Proof. This is [39, Corollary 1]. □

The next result classifies minimal non-3-solvable simple groups.

Lemma 4.2. *Let G be a finite nonabelian simple group. Assume that every proper subgroup of G is 3-solvable. Then G is isomorphic to a minimal simple group or to the Suzuki group ${}^2B_2(q)$ with $q = 2^{2m+1}$, $m \geq 1$.*

Proof. This is Lemma 5.3 in [28]. □

Finally, we need the classification of finite non- p -solvable simple groups for any primes $p \geq 5$.

Lemma 4.3. *Let G be a finite nonabelian simple group and let $p \geq 5$ be a prime dividing $|G|$. Assume that every proper subgroup of G is p -solvable. Then one of the following holds.*

- (1) $G = L_2(p)$.
- (2) $G = A_p$.
- (3) $G = L_2(q)$ with $p \mid q^2 - 1$.
- (4) $G = L_n(q)$, $n \geq 3$ is odd, and p divides $q^n - 1$ but not $\prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (q^i - 1)$.
- (5) $G = U_n(q)$, $n \geq 3$ is odd, and p divides $q^n - (-1)^n$ but not $\prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (q^i - (-1)^i)$.
- (6) $G = {}^2B_2(q)$ with $q = 2^{2m+1}$, $m \geq 1$.
- (7) $G = {}^2G_2(q)$ and $p \mid (q^2 - q + 1)$, where $q = 3^{2m+1}$, $m \geq 1$.
- (8) $G = {}^2F_4(q)$ with $q = 2^{2m+1}$, $m \geq 1$ and $p \mid (q^4 - q^2 + 1)$.
- (9) $G = {}^3D_4(q)$ and $p \mid (q^4 - q^2 + 1)$.
- (10) $G = E_8(q)$ and p divides $(q^{30} - 1)$ but not $\prod_{i \in \{8, 14, 18, 20, 24\}} (q^i - 1)$.
- (11) (G, p) is one of the following: $(M_{23}, 23)$, $(J_1, 7 \text{ or } 19)$, $(Ly, 37 \text{ or } 67)$, $(J_4, 29 \text{ or } 43)$, $(Fi'_{24}, 29)$, $(B, 47)$ or $(M, 41 \text{ or } 59 \text{ or } 71)$.

Proof. This is Lemma 5.4 in [28]. □

Let q be a prime power and let $n \geq 2$ be an integer. A prime divisor p of $q^n - 1$ is called a primitive prime divisor or ppd of $q^n - 1$ if p does not divide $q^k - 1$ for all integers k with $1 \leq k < n$. Zsigmondy's theorem [43] states that such a ppd p exists unless $(n, q) = (6, 2)$ or $n = 2$ and q is a Mersenne prime. Now if $n > 1$ is an integer and p is a prime, then the p -part of n , denoted by n_p , is the largest power of p dividing n . We refer the reader to [5; 34] for the description of maximal subgroups of finite simple groups of Lie type.

Proposition 4.4. *Let G be a finite nonabelian simple group and p be a prime dividing $|G|$. Assume that every proper subgroup of G is p -solvable. Let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of G . Then $G = \langle P, P^g \rangle$ for some $g \in G$.*

Proof. Let G be a finite nonabelian simple group and let p be a prime dividing $|G|$. Let $P \in \text{Syl}_p(G)$. Assume that every proper subgroup of G is p -solvable. Let $x \in P$ with $|x| = p$. Then $\langle x, x^g \rangle \leq \langle P, P^g \rangle$ for all $g \in G$ and thus $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is p -solvable for all $g \in G$.

(a) If $p = 2$, then every finite nonabelian simple group G can be generated by two Sylow 2-subgroups by Theorem A in [26]. So, we may assume that $p > 2$.

(b) If G is a finite nonabelian simple group of Lie type in characteristic p , then G is generated by two Sylow p -subgroups by Proposition 2.5 in [6].

(c) Assume that $p = 3$. By Lemma 4.2, since 3 divides $|G|$, G is a minimal simple group. By part (b), we only need to consider the cases when G is isomorphic to $L_2(2^r)$, r is a prime, or $L_2(r)$, $r > 3$ is a prime and $5 \mid r^2 + 1$.

If $G \cong L_2(4)$, then we can check by using GAP [17] that there exists $g \in G$ such that $G = \langle P, P^g \rangle$. Assume next that $G \cong L_2(q)$, $q = 2^r$ or r , where r is an odd prime. By [25, Theorem A*], there exists an element $x \in G$ of order 3 such that $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is nonsolvable for some $g \in G$. Since G is minimal simple, we must have $G = \langle x, x^g \rangle$ and thus $G = \langle P, P^g \rangle$.

(d) Assume that $p \geq 5$. By part (b), and Lemma 4.3, G is one of the groups listed in (2)–(11) in that lemma. We now consider each case in turn.

(1) Assume $G = A_p$. Here $|P| = p$. Without loss of generality, take $P = \langle x \rangle$, where $x = (1, 2, \dots, p)$ is a p -cycle in A_p . Let $y = (1, 2, p, p-1, p-2, \dots, 3) \in A_p$ be another p -cycle. Then $xy = (1, 3, 2)$ and clearly

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \langle (xy)^{-1}, x \rangle = \langle (1, 2, 3), (1, 2, \dots, p) \rangle = A_p$$

(see, e.g., [33, Theorem B]). Hence G is generated by two Sylow p -subgroups.

(2) Assume $G = L_2(q)$ with $p \mid q^2 - 1$. If $q \leq 11$, we can check using GAP [17] that the result holds. Assume $q \geq 13$. Inspecting the argument in [25, Section 5.1.2], if x is any element of order p , then we can find $g \in G$ such that $\langle x, x^g \rangle \cong L_2(q)$ and hence $\langle P, P^g \rangle = G$.

(3) Assume $G = L_n(q)$, $n \geq 3$ is odd, and p divides $q^n - 1$ but not $\prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (q^i - 1)$. Write $q = s^f$, where s is a prime and $f \geq 1$ is an integer. In this case p is a ppd of $q^n - 1$. Hence $P \in \text{Syl}_p(G)$ is cyclic of order $(q^n - 1)_p$. Since $n \equiv 1 \pmod p$ and $n \geq 3$ is odd, we have $p \geq 2n + 1$ and $p \nmid n$.

Assume that t is a prime divisor of n and write $n = tm$ for some integer $m \geq 1$. Assume that $m > 1$. Then G has a \mathcal{C}_3 -subgroup H of type $\text{GL}_m(q^t)$ (see [34, Table 3.5A]) which is maximal and contains a Sylow p -subgroup of G . Since $n \geq 3$ is odd, $m, t \geq 3$ and so $q^t \geq 2^t \geq 8$. Therefore, H is not p -solvable.

Thus we can assume that $n = t$ is an odd prime. If P lies in a unique maximal subgroup H of G , then H is of type $\text{GL}_1(q^n)$ by [2, Table B]. We can choose $g \in G - H$ such that $P^g \not\leq H$ and hence $G = \langle P, P^g \rangle$. Assume that P lies in some other maximal subgroup M of G not of type $\text{GL}_1(q^n)$. As in the proof of Case 3 of Proposition 6.2 in [2], $M \in \mathcal{C}_5$ is a subfield subgroup of type $\text{GL}_n(q_0)$, where $q = q_0^k$, k is an odd prime and $(q_0^n - 1)_p = (q^n - 1)_p$ or $M \in \mathcal{S}$ is almost simple with socle $S \cong L_2(p)$ and $n = \frac{1}{2}(p - 1)$. However, in both cases, M is not p -solvable.

(4) Assume $G = U_n(q)$, $n \geq 3$ is odd, and p divides $q^n + 1$ but not $\prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (q^i - (-1)^i)$. Write $q = s^f$ where s is a prime and $f \geq 1$.

(a) Assume that $n = 3$. If $q = 3$, then $p = 7$. In this case, $|P| = 7$ and P lies in $L_2(7)$ which is not 7-solvable. Similarly, if $q = 5$, then $p = 7$ and $|P| = 7$ and P lies in A_7 .

First, let q be a prime. Let H be a maximal subgroup of G containing P . By the proof of [2, Proposition 6.3], either P lies in a unique maximal subgroup of G and we are done or P is contained in $L_2(7)$ and $p = 7$; however, $L_2(7)$ is not 7-solvable.

Assume $q = s^f$ with $f > 1$. In this case, if P is not contained in a unique maximal subgroup, then P can be contained in a subfield subgroup of type $\text{GU}_3(q_0)$ with $q = q_0^k$, and k is an odd prime (see [5, Table 8.5]). However such a maximal subgroup is not p -solvable.

(b) Assume $n \geq 5$. Then p is a ppd of $q^{2n} - 1$. Hence $p \geq 2n + 1$.

Assume that $n = tm$, where t is a prime divisor of n and $m > 1$. Since $n \geq 5$ is odd, $t, m \geq 3$. Then G has a maximal subgroup of type $\text{GU}_m(q^t)$ and contains a Sylow p -subgroup of G . Since $q^t \geq 2^t \geq 8$, such a maximal subgroup is not p -solvable.

Therefore, $n = t \geq 5$ is a prime. Argue as in case (3), if P lies in a unique maximal subgroup of G , then the conclusion holds. As in the proof of Proposition 6.4 in [2], P lies in a subfield subgroup H of type $\text{GU}_n(q_0)$, where $q_0^k = q$ and $k \geq 3$ is a prime, or of type $\text{O}_n(q)$ or H is an almost simple group with socle $L_2(p)$ with $n = \frac{1}{2}(p - 1)$ and $7 \leq p \equiv 3 \pmod 4$. However, in all cases, these maximal subgroups are not p -solvable.

(5) $G = {}^2B_2(q)$ with $q = 2^{2m+1}$, $m \geq 1$. Then $|G| = q^2(q-1)(q+s+1)(q-s+1)$, where $s = \sqrt{2q} = 2^{m+1}$. The maximal subgroups of G are listed in [5, Table 8.16]. Since p is not the characteristic of G , $p > 2$ and $p \mid q-1$ or $p \mid q \pm s + 1$.

Assume first that $p \mid q-1$. Then P lies in maximal subgroups of the form $[q^2] : (q-1)$ and $D_{2(q-1)}$. It follows that $\langle P, p^g \rangle$ is solvable for all $g \in G$. Let $x \in P$ with $|x| = p \geq 5$. Then $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is solvable for all $g \in G$. However, this is impossible in view of Theorem A* in [25].

Assume that $p \mid q \pm s + 1$. In this case, P lies in a maximal subgroup of the form $(q \pm s + 1) : 4$ or a subfield subgroup of the form ${}^2B_2(q_0)$, where $q_0^k = q$, $k \geq 3$ is a prime and $q_0 > 2$. Clearly, the subfield subgroup is not p -solvable (if it contains P). Hence P lies in a unique maximal subgroup of G and the result follows.

(6) $G = {}^2G_2(q)$ with $q = 3^{2m+1}$, $m \geq 1$ and $p \mid q^2 - q + 1$. We can use the same argument as in the previous case using [5, Table 8.43].

(7) $G = {}^2F_2(q)$ with $q = 2^{2m+1}$, $m \geq 1$ and $p \mid q^4 - q^2 + 1$. In this case, p is a ppd of $q^{12} - 1$. Using the argument in Proposition 7.2 in [2], either P lies in a unique maximal subgroup or it lies in a subfield subgroup ${}^2F_2(q_0)$, which is not p -solvable.

(8) $G = {}^3D_4(q)$ and $p \mid q^4 - q^2 + 1$. We can use the argument in Proposition 7.3 in [2] to obtain the conclusion as in the previous case.

(9) $G = E_8(q)$ and p divides $(q^{30} - 1)$ but not $\prod_{i \in \{8, 14, 18, 20, 24\}} (q^i - 1)$. In this case, p is a ppd of $q^{30} - 1$. From Proposition 7.10 in [2], either P lies in a unique maximal subgroup and the result follows or P can lie in a maximal exotic local subgroup $2^{5+10} \cdot L_5(2)$ when $|P| = p = 31$ or P lies in an almost simple group. In the last two possibilities, clearly, these maximal subgroups are not p -solvable.

(10) (G, p) is one of the following: $(M_{23}, 23)$, $(J_1, 7 \text{ or } 19)$, $(Ly, 37 \text{ or } 67)$, $(J_4, 29 \text{ or } 43)$, $(Fi'_{24}, 29)$, $(B, 47)$ or $(M, 41 \text{ or } 59 \text{ or } 71)$.

By [2, Table D], P lies in the unique maximal subgroup of G and the result follows except for the case $(G, p) = (J_1, 7)$. By the Atlas [7], the maximal subgroups of J_1 containing a Sylow 7-subgroup are isomorphic to either $2^3 : 7 : 3$ or $7 : 6$. Thus $\langle x, x^g \rangle$ is solvable for all $g \in J_1$, where $x \in P$ with $|x| = 7$. However, this contradicts Theorem A* in [25]. \square

Remark 4.5. It is conjectured in [6] that if G is a finite nonabelian simple group and if r and s are prime divisors of $|G|$, then G can be generated by a Sylow r -subgroup and a Sylow s -subgroup. The previous proposition is just a special case of this conjecture when $r = s = p$ and G is a minimal non- p -solvable simple group.

Proof of Theorem 1.10. Let G be a finite group and let p be a prime. Let P be a Sylow p -subgroup of G . If G is p -solvable, then every subgroup of G is p -solvable. Therefore, it suffices to show that if $\langle P, P^g \rangle$ is p -solvable for all $g \in G$, then G is

p -solvable. Suppose not and let G be a counterexample with minimal order. Then $\langle P, P^g \rangle$ is p -solvable for all $g \in G$ but G is not solvable.

We first claim that every proper subgroup of G is p -solvable and thus G is a minimal non- p -solvable group. Let H be a proper subgroup of G and let Q be a Sylow p -subgroup of H . Then $Q \leq P^t$ for some $t \in G$. Now for every $h \in H$, we have

$$\langle Q, Q^h \rangle \leq \langle P^t, (P^t)^h \rangle = \langle P, P^{tht^{-1}} \rangle^t.$$

Since $\langle P, P^{tht^{-1}} \rangle$ is p -solvable, $\langle Q, Q^h \rangle$ is p -solvable. Therefore, by the minimality of $|G|$, H is p -solvable.

By [Proposition 4.4](#), we know that G is not a nonabelian simple group. Let N be a proper nontrivial normal subgroup of G . Now PN/N is a Sylow p -subgroup of G/N and it satisfies the hypothesis of the theorem. Since $|G/N| < |G|$, G/N is p -solvable. As in the previous claim, N is also p -solvable and thus G is p -solvable as well. This final contradiction proves the theorem. \square

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