# ON MINIMAL NON-NSN-GROUPS 

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#### Abstract

A finite group $G$ is called an NSN-group if every proper subgroup of $G$ is either normal in $G$ or self-normalizing. In this paper, the non-NSN-groups whose proper subgroups are all NSN-groups are determined.


## 1. Introduction

The structure of the group whose subgroups are all normal (called a Dedekind group or a Hamiltonian group) has been completely classified by R. Dedekind, E. Wendt and R. Bare (see [9, Theorem 5.3.7]). Since then, many authors have dealt with generalizations of such kind of groups. We mention some of them here. Pic [8] considered finite groups in which every subgroup $S$ is quasinormal, that is, $S$ satisfies $S H=H S$ for all subgroups $H$ of $G$, and Walls [11] studied groups with maximal subgroups of Sylow subgroups that are normal in $G$. Buckley et al. [2] dealt with groups in which all subgroups form at most two conjugate classes and Brandl [1] classified groups all of whose non-normal subgroups are conjugates.

If $N$ is a normal subgroup of $G$, then $N$ is normalized by all elements of $G$. For a normal subgroup, the number of elements of $G$ normalizing $N$ is up to maximum. On the other hand, if $N_{G}(N)=N$ for a proper subgroup $N$ of $G$, then the number of elements of $G$ normalizing $N$ is up to minimum. Thus in some sense, the properties $N \unlhd G$ and $N_{G}(N)=N$ can be viewed as two extreme cases in considering the number of elements normalizing $N$ in $G$. Let $\mathscr{X}$ be a property of a group. A group $G$ is called an $\mathscr{X}$-critical group or a minimal non- $\mathscr{X}$-group if $G$ is not an $\mathscr{X}$-group but every proper subgroup of $G$ is an $\mathscr{X}$-group. There are many remarkable examples of minimal non- $\mathscr{X}$-groups:

[^0]minimal non-abelian groups (Miller and Moreno, [7]), minimal non-nilpotent groups (Schmidt), minimal non-supersoluble groups ([4]) and minimal non- $p$ nilpotent groups (Itô).

A group $G$ whose every subgroup $N$ has extreme numbers of elements normalizing $N$, that is, either $N_{G}(N)=G$ or $N_{G}(N)=N$, is called an NSN-group. The structure of NSN-groups has been investigated in [12]. In this paper, by applying the properties of an NSN-group, we classify all the minimal non-NSNgroups.

We first introduce the following definitions.
Definition 1.1. Let $G$ be a finite group. Then $G$ is called an NSN-group if every subgroup $N$ of $G$ is either normal in $G$ or self-normalizing, that is, either $N_{G}(N)=G$ or $N_{G}(N)=N$.

Definition 1.2. A group $G$ is called a minimal non-NSN-group if every proper subgroup of $G$ is an NSN-group but $G$ itself is not an NSN-group.

Our main results are as follows:
Main Theorem. Suppose that $G$ is a finite minimal non-NSN-group. Then $G$ is solvable and $G$ is isomorphic to one of the following groups:
(1) $G=\left\langle x, y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{b}\right| x^{p^{a}}=y_{1}^{q}=y_{2}^{q}=\cdots=y_{b}^{q}, y_{i} y_{j}=y_{j} y_{i}, i, j=$ $\left.1,2, \ldots, b, y_{i}^{x}=y_{i+1}, i=1,2, \ldots, b-1, y_{b}^{x}=y_{1}^{d_{1}} y_{2}^{d_{2}} \cdots y_{b}^{d_{b}}\right\rangle$, where $f(z)=$ $z^{b}-d_{b} z^{b-1}-\cdots-d_{2} z-d_{1}$ is irreducible in $F_{q}$ and $f(z) \mid z^{p^{a}}-1$.
(2) $G=\left\langle a, b, c \mid a^{p^{m}}=b^{p^{n}}=c^{p}=1, b a=a b c, c a=a c, c b=b c\right\rangle$, where $m$ and $n$ are natural numbers.
(3) $G=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{p^{m}}=b^{p^{n}}=1, b a=a^{1+p^{m-1}} b\right\rangle$, where $m$ and $n$ are natural numbers and $m \geq 2$.
(4) $G=\langle a, b, c| a^{3 m}=b^{4}=c^{4}=1, b^{2}=c^{2}, c b=b^{-1} c, a^{-1} b a=c$, $\left.a^{-1} c a=c b\right\rangle$, where $m$ and $n$ are natural numbers.
(5) $G=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{8}=1, b^{2}=a^{4}, b^{-1} b a=a^{-1}\right\rangle$.
(6) $G=P Q, P \unlhd G, P$ is an elementary abelian p-group of rank $>1, Q$ is cyclic, and $Q$ acts irreducibly on $P$.
(7) $G=Q_{8} \rtimes C_{3^{m}}$ and $Z(G)=\Omega_{1}\left(Q_{8}\right) \Phi\left(C_{3^{m}}\right)$.

In the following (8)-(11), $p$ and $q$ are distinct primes and $p>q$.
(8) $G=\langle a, b, c| a^{q}=b^{q}=1, c^{p}=1, a^{-1} c a=c^{r},[b, a]=[b, c]=1, r \not \equiv 1$ $\left.(\bmod p), r^{q} \equiv 1(\bmod p)\right\rangle$.
(9) $G=\langle a, b, c| a^{q^{n}}=b^{q}=1, c^{p}=1, a^{-1} c a=c^{r},[b, a]=[b, c]=1, r \not \equiv 1$ $\left.(\bmod p), r^{q} \equiv 1(\bmod p), n>1\right\rangle$.
(10) $G=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{q^{n}}=1, b^{p}=1, a^{-1} b a=b^{r}\right\rangle$, where $n>1$ and the order of $r$ modulo $p$ is $q^{2}$.
(11) $G=\langle a, b, c| a^{p}=b^{p}=1, c^{q^{n}}=1, c^{-1} a c=a^{r},[b, a]=[b, c]=1$, $\left.r \not \equiv 1(\bmod p), r^{q} \equiv 1(\bmod p)\right\rangle$.
(12) $G=C_{p} \times\left(C_{r} \rtimes C_{q^{n}}\right)$, where $p, q$ and $r$ are distinct primes. Moreover, $Z(G)=C_{p} \times \Phi\left(C_{q^{m}}\right)$.
(13) $G=C_{r} \rtimes\left(C_{p} \times C_{q}\right)$, where $p, q$ and $r$ are distinct primes, $r>q>p$, and $Z(G)=1$.

Throughout this paper, only finite groups are considered and all our notations are standard. For example, we denote by $A \rtimes P$ the semidirect product of $A$ and $P ; C_{n}$ denotes a cyclic group of order $n$ and $\pi(G)$ denotes the set of all prime divisors of $|G|$. All unexplained notations can be found in [5] and [9].

## 2. Some preliminaries

In this section, we collect some lemmas which will be frequently used in the sequel.

Lemma 2.1 ([5, 7.2.2]). Suppose that the Sylow p-subgroups of $G$ are cyclic, where $p$ is the smallest prime divisor of $|G|$. Then $G$ has a normal p-complement.

Lemma 2.2 ([6]). Suppose that $p^{\prime}$-group $H$ acts on a p-group G. Let

$$
\Omega(G)= \begin{cases}\Omega_{1}(G) & p>2 \\ \Omega_{2}(G) & p=2\end{cases}
$$

If $H$ acts trivially on $\Omega(G)$, then $H$ acts trivially on $G$ as well.
Lemma 2.3 (Maschke's Theorem, [5, 8.4.6]). Suppose that the action of $A$ on an elementary abelian group $G$ is coprime and $H$ is an $A$-invariant direct factor of $G$. Then $H$ has an $A$-invariant complement in $G$.

Lemma 2.4 ([10]). If $G$ is a minimal nonabelian simple group, i.e. a nonabelian simple group all of whose proper subgroups are solvable, then $G$ is isomorphic to one of the following simple groups:
(1) $\operatorname{PSL}(2, p)$, where $p$ is a prime with $p>3$ and $5 \nmid p^{2}-1$.
(2) $\operatorname{PSL}\left(2,2^{q}\right)$, where $q$ is a prime.
(3) $\operatorname{PSL}\left(2,3^{q}\right)$, where $q$ is a prime.
(4) $\operatorname{PSL}(3,3)$.
(5) The Suzuki group $S z\left(2^{q}\right)$, where $q$ is an odd prime.

In proving our main theorem, the following result will be frequently used.
Lemma 2.5 ([12, Main Theorem]). Let $G$ be a finite group. Then all subgroups of $G$ are either normal or self-normalizing if and only if either
(1) $G$ is a Dedekind group, or
(2) $G=H \rtimes P$, where $H$ is an abelian normal Hall $p^{\prime}$-subgroup and $P=$ $\langle x\rangle \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G),\left\langle x^{p}\right\rangle=O_{p}(G)=Z(G)$, where $p$ is the minimal prime dividing the order of $G$. Furthermore, $x$ induces a fixed-point-free power automorphism of order $p$ on $H$.

## 3. Proof of Main Theorem

We first note that the classification of minimal non-Dedekind groups was given in [3] and [7]. We list them in the following lemma.
Lemma 3.1. Let $G$ be a minimal non-Dedekind group. Then $G$ is solvable and $G$ is isomorphic to one of the following groups:
(1) $G=\left\langle x, y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{b}\right| x^{p^{a}}=y_{1}^{q}=y_{2}^{q}=\cdots=y_{b}^{q}, y_{i} y_{j}=y_{j} y_{i}, i, j=$ $\left.1,2, \ldots, b, y_{i}^{x}=y_{i+1}, i=1,2, \ldots, b-1, y_{b}^{x}=y_{1}^{d_{1}} y_{2}^{d_{2}} \cdots y_{b}^{d_{b}}\right\rangle$, where $f(z)=$ $z^{b}-d_{b} z^{b-1}-\cdots-d_{2} z-d_{1}$ is irreducible in $F_{q}$ and $f(z) \mid z^{p^{a}}-1$.
(2) $G=\left\langle a, b, c \mid a^{p^{m}}=b^{p^{n}}=c^{p}=1, b a=a b c, c a=a c, c b=b c\right\rangle$, where $m$ and $n$ are natural numbers.
(3) $G=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{p^{m}}=b^{p^{n}}=1, b a=a^{1+p^{m-1}} b\right\rangle$, where $m$ and $n$ are natural numbers and $m \geq 2$.
(4) $G=\langle a, b, c| a^{3 m}=b^{4}=c^{4}=1, b^{2}=c^{2}, c b=b^{-1} c, a^{-1} b a=c, a^{-1} c a=$ $c b\rangle$, where $m$ and $n$ are natural numbers (minimal non-3-closed groups).
(5) $G=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{8}=1, b^{2}=a^{4}, b^{-1} b a=a^{-1}\right\rangle$.

By Lemma 3.1, it is enough to discuss minimal non-NSN-groups which are not minimal non-Dedekind groups. By Lemma 2.5, in what follows, every Sylow subgroup of $G$ is a Dedekind 2-group or an abelian group of odd order. We will use this fact frequently in our following proof.
Lemma 3.2. Let $G$ be a minimal non-NSN-group. Then $G$ is solvable.
Proof. Suppose that $G$ is not solvable. By Lemma 2.5, every proper subgroup of $G$ is solvable and hence $G / \Phi(G)$ is a minimal simple group, where $\Phi(G)$ is the Frattini subgroup of $G$. Let $H$ be the 2-complement of $\Phi(G)$. Then $H \unlhd G$ and $H$ is abelian since $H$ is an NSN-group of odd order. We have following claims.
(1) $H=1$.

Consider $H \neq 1$. Let $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(H)$, where $p$ is any prime in $\pi(H)$. Then $P \unlhd G$. Let $S_{2} \in S y l_{2}(G)$ and $K=S_{2} P$. Then $K$ is a proper subgroup of $G$, and hence $K$ is an NSN-group by hypothesis. If $K$ is an NSN-group as in (2) of Lemma 2.5, then $S_{2}$ is cyclic, which concludes that $G$ has normal 2-complement, a contradiction. Hence we may assume that $K$ is nilpotent. But it follows in this case that $S_{2} \leq C_{G}(P) \unlhd G$. Using the simplicity of $G / \Phi(G)$, we conclude that $S_{2} \leq C_{G}(P) \Phi(G)$, which concludes that $G$ is solvable, a contradiction.
(2) Every subgroup of order $2^{m} p$ ( $p$ an odd prime) of $\bar{G}=G / \Phi(G)$ is 2nilpotent.

Assume that $G$ possesses a subgroup $L$ containing $S_{0}=\Phi(G)$ such that $L / S_{0}$ is not a 2-nilpotent group of order $2^{m} p$. Then $L$ contains a minimal non-2-nilpotent subgroup $D$ with order $2^{n} p$ for some natural number $n$. Hence $D=S^{*} P$ is a minimal non-nilpotent group with a normal Sylow 2-subgroup $S^{*}$ and $|P|=p$. Since given that $G$ is non-solvable, $D$ is a proper subgroup of $G, D$ is an NSN-group by the hypothesis. Hence $D$ is nilpotent by Lemma 2.5, a contradiction.
(3) Conclusion.

Now, we assert that there is no simple group listed in Lemma 2.4 isomorphic to $\bar{G}$. Then we get that $G$ is solvable. In fact, if $\bar{G}$ is isomorphic to one of $P S L(2, p), P S L\left(2,3^{q}\right)$ or $P S L(3,3)$, then $\bar{G}$ has a subgroup isomorphic to $A_{4}$, the alternating group of degree 4 , a contradiction to (2). If $\bar{G} \cong P S L\left(2,2^{q}\right)$ or $S z\left(2^{q}\right)$, then $\bar{G}$ is a Zassenhaus group of odd degree and the stabilizer of a point is a Frobenius group with kernel a 2 -group, again a contradiction to (2). Hence $\bar{G}$ cannot be any one of $\operatorname{PSL}\left(2,2^{q}\right)$ nor $S z\left(2^{q}\right)$. Thus the proof is completed.

By Lemma 3.2, we always assume in the following that $G$ is a solvable minimal non-NSN-group.

Lemma 3.3. Let $G$ be a minimal non-NSN-group. Then there exist at most two distinct primes $p, q \in \pi(G)$ such that the Sylow p-subgroup and the Sylow $q$-subgroup of $G$ are not normal in $G$.
Proof. Since $G$ is solvable by Lemma 3.2, there is a normal maximal subgroup $M$ of $G$ such that $|G: M|=r$ for some prime $r$. By our assumption, $M$ is an NSN-group. If $M$ is a Dedekind group, then the unique possibility is that $r$-Sylow subgroups are not normal in $G$, which then the lemma follows. If $M$ is not a Dedekind group, then $M$ is a group described in (2) of Lemma 2.5. In this case, the possible non-normal Sylow subgroups are $r$-Sylow subgroups and one Sylow subgroup in $M$, from which the lemma follows.

Lemma 3.4. Let $G$ be a minimal non-NSN-group. Suppose that there exist exactly two distinct primes $p, q \in \pi(G)$ such that the Sylow $p$-subgroup and the Sylow $q$-subgroup of $G$ are not normal in $G$. Then $|\pi(G)|>2$.

Proof. Assume that $|\pi(G)|=2$. Then there exists a normal maximal subgroup $M$ of $G$ such that $|G: M|=r$ for some prime $r$. By hypothesis, $M$ is an NSNgroup. If $M$ is nilpotent, then $G$ has a normal Sylow subgroup, a contradiction. Hence $M$ is not nilpotent. Let $Q$ be the non-normal Sylow subgroup of $M$ and set $M=P^{*} \rtimes Q$, where $P^{*} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(M)$. Surely, it follows that $p=r$ since otherwise, $P^{*}$ is a normal Sylow subgroup of $G$. Hence $G=P Q$, where $P \in S y l_{p}(G)$. By Lemma 2.5(2), we know that $p>q$ and that $Q$ is cyclic. Moveover, the $r$-Syolw subgroup is normal by Lemma 2.1, a contradiction. Therefore, we get $|\pi(G)|>2$.

Lemma 3.5. Let $G$ be a minimal non-NSN-group. Suppose that there exist exactly two distinct primes $p, q \in \pi(G)$ such that the Sylow $p$-subgroup and the Sylow $q$-subgroup of $G$ are not normal in $G$. Then $|\pi(G)|=3$.

Proof. If $|\pi(G)| \neq 3$, then $|\pi(G)| \geq 4$ by Lemma 3.4. Since $G$ is solvable, we may assume that $\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{k}, \ldots, P_{s}\right\}$ is a Sylow system of $G$ such that $P_{1}, P_{2}$ are not normal in $G$. Consider the subgroup $K=P_{1} P_{2}$. One has that $K<G$ is an NSN-group and that $K$ is a group described in (2) of Lemma 2.5.

Without loss of generality, assume that $P_{2} \unlhd K$ and $P_{1}$ is cyclic. Let $P_{k}$ be a Sylow subgroup not normalizing $P_{2}$. Consider the subgroup $G_{1}=P_{1} P_{2} P_{k}<G$. One has that $G_{1}$ is also an NSN-group, but $P_{2} \unlhd P_{1} P_{2} \leq N_{G_{1}}\left(P_{2}\right)$. It follows that $N_{G_{1}}\left(P_{2}\right)=G_{1}$, a contradiction to the choice of $P_{k}$. This concludes the Lemma.

Lemma 3.6. Let $G$ be a minimal non-NSN-group. Suppose there exists a unique prime $q \in \pi(G)$ such that the Sylow $q$-subgroup of $G$ is not normal in $G$. Then $G$ must be one of the following groups:
(1) $G=C_{p} \times\left(C_{r} \rtimes C_{q^{n}}\right)$, where $p, q, r$ are distinct primes and $Z(G)=$ $C_{p} \times \Phi\left(C_{q^{n}}\right)$.
(2) $G=P Q, P \unlhd G, P$ is an elementary abelian p-group of rank $>1, Q$ is cyclic, and $Q$ acts irreducibly on $P$.
(3) $G=Q_{8} \rtimes C_{3^{m}}$ and $Z(G)=\Omega_{1}\left(Q_{8}\right) \Phi\left(C_{3^{m}}\right)$.

In the following (4)-(7), $p$ and $q$ are distinct primes such that $p>q$.
(4) $G=\langle a, b, c| a^{q}=b^{q}=1, c^{p}=1, a^{-1} c a=c^{r},[b, a]=[b, c]=1, r \not \equiv 1$ $\left.(\bmod p), r^{q} \equiv 1(\bmod p)\right\rangle$.
(5) $G=\langle a, b, c| a^{q^{n}}=b^{q}=1, c^{p}=1, a^{-1} c a=c^{r},[b, a]=[b, c]=1, r \not \equiv 1$ $\left.(\bmod p), r^{q} \equiv 1(\bmod p), n>1\right\rangle$.
(6) $G=\left\langle a, b \mid a^{q^{n}}=1, b^{p}=1, a^{-1} b a=b^{r}\right\rangle$, where $n>1$ and the order of $r$ modulo $p$ is $q^{2}$.
(7) $G=\langle a, b, c| a^{p}=b^{p}=1, c^{q^{n}}=1, c^{-1} a c=a^{r},[b, a]=[b, c]=1, r \not \equiv 1$ $\left.(\bmod p), r^{q} \equiv 1(\bmod p)\right\rangle$.

Proof. Let $Q \in \operatorname{Syl}_{q}(G)$ be a non-normal Sylow subgroup of $G$. Then $G=$ $A \rtimes Q$ by hypothesis. Here, we have that $A$ is nilpotent and all Sylow subgroups of $G$ are Dedekind groups by our hypothesis. Our proof is divided into two cases:

Case 1. $|\pi(G)| \geq 3$.
If $P Q=P \rtimes Q$ for every Sylow $p$-subgroup $P$ satisfying $p \neq q$, then we have $\Phi(Q) \leq Z(G)$ and every subgroup of $P$ is normal in $P Q$ by Lemma 2.5(2). Hence they are all normal in $G$ as $A$ is nilpotent. We first claim that there exists a Sylow subgroup $P$ of $G$ satisfying $N_{P}(Q) \neq 1$. In fact, there exists a proper subgroup $H$ such that $H$ is neither normal nor self-normalizing by hypothesis, that is, $H<N_{G}(H)<G$. Since all subgroups of Sylow $p$-subgroups are normal in $G$ for every $p \neq q, H$ itself is an NSN-group. By Frattini argument, we have $N_{G}(H)=N_{N_{G}(H)}(Q) H=N_{N_{G}(H)}(Q) N>N Q$, which implies that $N_{N_{G}(H)}(Q)>Q$ and our claim holds. Now, $R Q$ is a proper subgroup of $G$ and so $R Q$ is an NSN-group. Hence $R Q=R \times Q$, that is, $G=P \times(B \rtimes Q)$ for some subgroup $B$ of $G$. We now claim that $P$ and $B$ are groups of prime order. Suppose that $P$ has a nontrivial subgroup $P^{*}$. Then $G_{2}=P^{*} \times(B \rtimes Q)$ is an NSN-group and $Q \nsubseteq G_{2}$. But $P^{*} Q \leq N_{G_{2}}(Q)$, which implies that $B$ normalizes $Q$, and so does $G$, a contradiction. This implies that $P$ is a group of prime order. We claim that $B$ is a group of prime power order. Otherwise, let $R$ be any Sylow subgroup of $B$. Then $G_{3}=P \times(R Q)$ is an NSN-group. Since $Q$ is
not normal in $G$, we may assume that $R \not \leq N_{G}(Q)$ without loss of generality. In this case, $Q \nexists G_{3}$, but $P Q \leq N_{G_{3}}(Q)$, a contradiction. Hence $R=B$ is a Sylow subgroup of $G$ and $G=P \times(R \rtimes Q)$. Assume that $\Omega_{1}(R) \neq R$. Then $P \times\left(\Omega_{1}(R) Q\right)$ is an NSN-group by hypothesis and so $\Omega_{1}(R) \leq C_{G}(Q)$ by Lemma 2.5. Now by applying Lemma 2.2 we have that $R \leq C_{G}(Q)$, a contradiction. This contradiction concludes that $R=\Omega_{1}(R)$ is an elementary abelian $r$-group. Moreover, every subgroups of $R$ is normal in $R Q$ as $R Q$ is an NSN-group. Let $R=\left\langle v_{1}\right\rangle \times\left\langle v_{2}\right\rangle \times \cdots \times\left\langle v_{n}\right\rangle$. If $n>1$, then $P \times\left(\left\langle v_{i}\right\rangle Q\right)$ is an NSN-group for each $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. It follows that $\left\langle v_{i}\right\rangle \leq C_{G}(Q)$ for each $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. Therefore, $R \leq C_{G}(Q)$, a contradiction. Thus $n=1$ and so $B=R$ is of prime order. Moreover, since $R Q$ is a non-nilpotent NSN-group, we have that $Q$ is cyclic by Lemma $2.5(2)$. Hence $G=C_{p} \times\left(C_{r} \rtimes C_{q^{n}}\right)$, where $p, q, r$ are distinct primes and $Z(G)=C_{p} \times \Phi\left(C_{q^{n}}\right)$, that is, $G$ is of type (1).

Case 2. $|\pi(G)|=2$.
In this case, $G=P \rtimes Q$, where $P$ is a Sylow $p$-subgroups of $G$. We have the following two claims.

Claim 1. If $N_{P}(Q)=1$, then $G$ is isomorphic to one of the groups of types (2) or (4)-(7).

Suppose that $|P|=p$. If $Q$ has two maximal subgroups $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$, then $Q_{1} P$ and $Q_{2} P$ are NSN-groups. In this case, not both $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ can centralize $P$. By Lemma 2.5(2), we have $p>q$ and $\Phi\left(Q_{i}\right) \leq Z(G)$, where $i=1,2$. If all maximal subgroups of $Q$ are cyclic, then $Q$ is isomorphic to the quaternion group $Q_{8}$ or an elementary abelian $q$-subgroup of order $q^{2}$ by the structure of Dedekind groups.

Assume that $Q=Q_{8}$. Then $G=P \rtimes Q_{8}$ and $Z(G)=\Omega_{1}\left(Q_{8}\right)$. However, $Q_{8} / Z(G)=Q_{8} / C_{Q_{8}}(P) \cong N_{G}(P) / C_{G}(P)$ is cyclic, which is impossible since $Q_{8} / \Omega_{1}\left(Q_{8}\right)$ is a Klein 4-group. Hence $Q \neq Q_{8}$.

Assume that $Q$ is an elementary abelian $q$-subgroup of order $q^{2}$. Then $G=P \rtimes Q$. Since $Q \cong Q / Z(G)=Q / C_{Q}(P) \cong N_{G}(P) / C_{G}(P) \leq \operatorname{Aut}(P)$ is cyclic, we have that $|Z(G)|=q$. Hence $G=P \rtimes Q=(P \rtimes\langle x\rangle) \times\langle y\rangle$, where $\langle x\rangle \times\langle y\rangle=Q$, that is, $G$ is of type (4).

If $Q$ has a non-cyclic maximal subgroup, then it is easy to see that there is a unique non-cyclic maximal subgroup $Q^{*}$ in $Q$ and $Q^{*} P=Q^{*} \times P$. Hence we may assume that $Q=Q_{1} \times Q_{2}$, where $Q_{1}$ is a cyclic maximal subgroup of $Q$ and $Q_{2}$ is of prime order. Obviously, we have that $Q_{2}<Q^{*}$ and that $Q_{1} P$ is a non-nilpotent NSN-group. By Lemma 2.5(2), we have $p>q$ and $\Phi\left(Q_{i}\right) \leq Z(G)$. Then $G=C_{q} \times\left(P \rtimes C_{q^{n-1}}\right)$ and $|Z(G)|=q^{n-1}$, that is, $G$ is of type (5).

If $Q$ is cyclic, then there exists a proper subgroup $X<Q$ such that $X$ is neither normal in $G$ nor self-normalizing since $G$ is not an NSN-group. By hypothesis, $P X$ is an NSN-group. Obviously, $X$ is the maximal subgroup of $Q$ (otherwise, $X$ would be normal in $G$ ) and $p>q$. Moreover, since $\Phi(X) \leq$ $Z(P X)$ by Lemma $2.5(2)$, we have $\Phi(X) \leq Z(G)$. Let $|Q|=q^{n}$. Then $n>1$ and $|Z(G)|=q^{n-2}$. Now we can conclude that $G$ is of type (6) from the lemma.

Suppose that $|P|>p$. We assert that $\Omega_{1}(P)=P$. Otherwise, assume that $\Omega_{1}(P)<P$. Then $\Omega_{1}(P) Q<G$ and hence $\Omega_{1}(P) Q$ is an NSN-group. By Lemma 2.5(2), we have $p>q$ and every subgroup of $\Omega_{1}(P)$ is normalized by $Q, Q$ is cyclic and $\Phi(Q) \leq C_{G}\left(\Omega_{1}(P)\right)$. It follows by Lemma 2.2 that $\Phi(Q) \leq Z(G)$. Thus $G$ is an NSN-group, a contradiction. Hence $\Omega_{1}(P)=P$. Therefore, $P$ is an elementary abelian group.

Let $P=\left\langle v_{1}\right\rangle \times\left\langle v_{2}\right\rangle \times \cdots \times\left\langle v_{n}\right\rangle, n>1$. Suppose that $Q$ acts reducibly on $P$. Then by Lemma 2.3, there exist two $Q$-invariant proper subgroups $A$ and $B$ of $P$ such that $P=A \times B$. Now, both $A Q$ and $B Q$ are proper subgroups of $G$ and $Q$ centralizes neither $A$ nor $B$ since $N_{P}(Q)=1$. By Lemma 2.5(2), we have that every subgroup of $A$ and of $B$ is $Q$-invariant, that is, each $\left\langle v_{i}\right\rangle \unlhd G$. So $Q\left\langle v_{i}\right\rangle$ is an NSN-group. One has that $Q$ is cyclic and $\Phi(Q) \leq C_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)$ for every $i$ satisfying $v_{i} \notin C_{G}(Q)$

An element $a$ is said to act on $V$ by scalars if there exists an integer $m$ such that $a^{-1} v a=v^{m}$ for all $v$ in $V$. We claim that not every element $Q$ acts by scalars on $P$. Assume that $Q$ acts by scalars on $P$. Then every subgroup of $P$ is normal in $G$ and hence $\Phi(Q)=Z(G)$. Hence $G$ is an NSN- group, a contradiction. Thus our claim holds. Let $a$ be an element of $Q$ not acting by scalars on $P$. Then we may choose $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ so that $a^{-1} v_{1} a=v_{1}^{m_{1}}$ and $a^{-1} v_{2} a=v_{2}^{m_{2}}$, where $m_{1} \not \equiv m_{2}(\bmod p)$. Thus $\left\langle v_{1} v_{2}\right\rangle$ is not a normal subgroup of $\langle a\rangle\left\langle v_{1}, v_{2}\right\rangle$. Hence $\langle a\rangle\left\langle v_{1}, v_{2}\right\rangle$ is not an NSN-group, so $G=\langle a\rangle\left\langle v_{1}, v_{2}\right\rangle, Q=$ $\langle a\rangle$ is cyclic and $P=\left\langle v_{1}, v_{2}\right\rangle$ is of order $p^{2}$. That is, $G$ is of type (7).

Suppose that $Q$ acts irreducibly on $P$. We claim that $Q$ is cyclic. Indeed, if $Q$ has two maximal subgroups $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$, then $P Q_{1}$ and $P Q_{2}$ are distinct NSN-groups. By Lemma 2.5, every subgroup of $P$ is normalized by both $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ and hence normalized by $Q$, a contradiction to the action being irreducible. Thus $Q$ has a unique maximal subgroup, i.e., $Q$ is cyclic. It follows that $G$ is a minimal non-NSN-group of type (2).

Claim 2. If $N_{P}(Q)>1$, then $G$ is isomorphic to one of the groups of types (3) or (7).

Let

$$
\Omega(P)= \begin{cases}\Omega_{1}(P) & p>2 \\ \Omega_{2}(P) & p=2\end{cases}
$$

We assert that $\Omega(P)=P$. Otherwise, if $\Omega(P) \neq P$, then $p^{\prime}$-group $Q$ acts nontrivially on $p$-group $\Omega(P)$ by Lemma 2.2 . Hence $\Omega(P) Q$ is an NSN-group by hypothesis and so we have $p>q$ by Lemma $2.5(2)$. Since $N_{P}(Q)>1$, we have that $N_{\Omega_{1}(P) Q}(Q)=\Omega_{1}(P) Q$, so $\Omega_{1}(P) Q=\Omega_{1}(P) \times Q, Q$ acts trivially on $\Omega(P)$, a contradiction. Thus $\Omega(P)=P$.

Now we claim that $C_{P}(Q)=N_{P}(Q)>1$. In fact, let $N=N_{P}(Q)=$ $P \cap N_{G}(Q) \unlhd N_{G}(Q)$. Then $Q \leq N_{G}(N)$ and so $N Q=N \times Q$, which implies that $N \leq C_{P}(Q)$. Hence $C_{P}(Q)=N=N_{P}(Q)$. If $\Omega_{1}(P) \lesseqgtr P$, then $\Omega_{1}(P) Q$ is an NSN-group and so $\Omega_{1}(P) \leq C_{P}(Q)$ by the structure of NSN-groups.

Suppose that $P=Q_{8} \times E$, where $E$ is a nontrivial elementary abelian 2-subgroup. If $Q_{8} \leq C_{P}(Q)$, then $P \leq C_{P}(Q)$ since $\Omega_{1}(P) \leq C_{P}(Q)$, a
contradiction. Hence $Q_{8} \lesseqgtr C_{P}(Q)$. Moreover, let $Q^{*}$ be a maximal subgroup of $Q$. Then $P Q^{*}$ is an NSN-groups. By Lemma 2.5, we have $Q^{*} \leq C_{G}(P)$, which implies that $Q$ has a unique maximal subgroup, that is, $Q$ is cyclic. We now prove that $G$ is a minimal non-nilpotent group. Let $H$ be a nontrivial subgroup of $G$. If $H$ does not contain any Sylow $q$-subgroup of $G$, then $H$ is obviously nilpotent since $\Omega_{1}(P) \times \Phi(Q) \leq Z(G)$. So we may assume that $Q \leq H$ without loss of generality. If is not nilpotent, then we have by Lemma 2.5 that $H=Q \rtimes D$ is an NSN-group, where $D$ is a cyclic subgroup with order 4. Consider the group $F=(Q \rtimes D) \times E$. Obviously, $F$ is a proper subgroup of $G$ and so is an NSN-group. But on the other hand, $D$ is neither normal in $G$ nor self-normalizing, a contradiction. Thus $H$ is nilpotent and so $G$ is a minimal non-nilpotent group. By the structure of minimal non-nilpotent groups, we know that $G$ is a minimal non-Dedekind-group, a contradiction.

If $P=Q_{8}$, then $G=Q_{8} \rtimes Q$. Since $\operatorname{Aut}\left(Q_{8}\right)=S_{4}$, we have that $Q$ is a 3group. Now we claim that $Q$ is cyclic. Otherwise, let $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ be two distinct maximal subgroups of $Q$. Then $Q_{8} Q_{i}, i=1,2$, are NSN-groups by hypothesis and hence $Q_{8} Q_{i}=Q_{8} \times Q_{i}$ for $\Omega_{1}\left(Q_{8}\right) \leq C_{G}\left(Q_{i}\right), i=1,2$. It follows that $Q$ is normal in $G$, a contradiction. Thus $G=Q_{8} \rtimes C_{3^{m}}$ and $Z(G)=\Omega_{1}\left(Q_{8}\right) \Phi\left(C_{3^{m}}\right)$. That is, $G$ is of type (3).

If $\Omega_{1}(P)=P$, then $P$ is an elementary abelian $p$-subgroup. In this case, $C_{P}(Q)$ is a $Q$-invariant direct factor of $P$. Applying Lemma 2.3, we get that there exist two $Q$-invariant proper subgroups $A$ and $B$ of $P$ such that $P=$ $A \times B$. Now, both $A Q$ and $B Q$ are proper subgroups of $G$. Since $Q$ is not normal in $G$, not both $A$ and $B$ can centralize $Q$. Without loss of generality, suppose that $A \not \leq C_{P}(Q)$. Notice that $C_{P}(Q)=N_{P}(Q)>1$. One has $A Q \leq G$ and so $A Q$ is a non-nilpotent NSN-group. By Lemma 2.5(2), $p>q$ and every subgroup of $A$ is $Q$-invariant, $Q$ is cyclic and $\Phi(Q)$ centralizes $A$. Let $X$ be a minimal subgroup of $A$ of order $p$ such that $X \not \leq C_{P}(Q)$ and $Y$ be any minimal subgroup of $C_{P}(Q)$. Then $Y \times(X \rtimes Q)$ is not an NSN-group since $X<N_{G}(X)=X \times Y \times \Phi(Q) \lesseqgtr G$. Thus we get $G=Y \times(X \rtimes Q), P=X \times Y$ is an elementary abelian $p$-subgroup of order $p^{2}$, and $Q$ is cyclic. Suppose that $|Q|=q^{n}$. Then we have obviously that $|Z(G)|=p q^{n-1}$. It follows that $G$ is of type (7). Thus the proof is completed.

Lemma 3.7. Let $G$ be a minimal non-NSN-group. Suppose there exists exactly two distinct primes $p, q \in \pi(G)$ such that the Sylow $p$-subgroups and the Sylow $q$-subgroups of $G$ are not normal in $G$. Then $G$ is isomorphic to $G=C_{r} \rtimes$ $\left(C_{p} \times C_{q}\right)$, where $p, q$ and $r$ are distinct primes, $r>q>p$ and $Z(G)=1$.

Proof. By Lemma 3.5, we may assume that $G=P Q R$, where $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G), Q \in$ $\operatorname{Syl}_{q}(G)$ and $R \in \operatorname{Syl}_{r}(G), P$ and $Q$ are not normal in $G$ and $R \unlhd G$. Then by Lemma 2.5 and assumption, both $P$ and $Q$ are cyclic.
(1) Suppose that $P Q=P \times Q$. Then both $P R$ and $Q R$ are non-nilpotent NSN-groups and $N_{R}(P)=N_{R}(Q)=1$. By Lemma 2.5(2), we may choose a maximal subgroup $R^{*}$ of $R$. The subgroup $K=R^{*} \rtimes(P \times Q)$ is an NSN-group
by hypothesis and $P \not \pm K$ since $N_{R}(P)=1$. However, $N_{K}(P) \geq P Q>P$, a contradiction. Thus $R$ is cyclic of prime order and $G=C_{r} \rtimes(P \times Q)$. Since $\Phi(P) \leq Z(G)$, we know that $L=C_{r} \rtimes(\Phi(P) \times Q)=\Phi(P) \times\left(C_{r} \rtimes Q\right)$ is an NSN-group. In this case, $Q \nexists L$, but $N_{L}(Q) \geq Q \Phi(P)$. Hence $\Phi(P)=1$ and $P$ is cyclic of prime order. By the same argument, we have that $Q$ is also of prime order. Thus $G=C_{r} \rtimes\left(C_{p} \times C_{q}\right)$, where $p, q$ and $r$ are distinct primes, $p, q<r$ and $Z(G)=1$.
(2) Suppose that $P Q=P \rtimes Q$. Then $P R=R \rtimes P$ and $N_{R}(P)=1$. Choose a maximal subgroup $R^{*}$ of $R$ and let $T=R^{*} \rtimes(P \rtimes Q)$. Then $T$ is an NSNgroup by hypothesis and $P \not \ddagger T$ if $R^{*} \neq 1$. However, $N_{T}(Q) \geq P Q>Q$, hence $R^{*}=1$ and $R$ is cyclic of prime order. We have the following two cases:
(i) Suppose $R Q=R \rtimes Q$. Let $Q^{*}$ be the maximal subgroup of $Q$. Then $U=C_{r} \rtimes\left(P \rtimes Q^{*}\right)$ is an NSN-group and $P \nexists U$. On the other hand, $N_{U}(P) \geq$ $P Q^{*}>P$, a contradiction. Hence $Q^{*}=1$ and $Q$ is of prime order and so $G=C_{r} \rtimes\left(C_{p^{m}} \rtimes C_{q}\right)$. Let $V=C_{p^{m}} \rtimes C_{q}$. Then $V / C_{V}\left(C_{r}\right) \leq A u t\left(C_{r}\right)$ is a cyclic group, which forces that $C_{p^{m}} \leq C_{V}\left(C_{r}\right)$. Then $C_{p^{m}} \unlhd G$, a contradiction.
(ii) Suppose $R Q=R \times Q$. Let $P^{*}$ be the maximal subgroup of $P$. Then $W=C_{r} \rtimes\left(P^{*} \rtimes Q\right)$ is an NSN-group and $Q \nexists W$. On the other hand, $N_{W}(Q) \geq C_{r} Q>Q$, a contradiction. Hence $P^{*}=1$ and $P$ is of prime order. Hence $G=C_{r} \rtimes\left(C_{p} \rtimes C_{q^{n}}\right)$. By the same argument as that in the above paragraph, we come to a contradiction. Thus the proof is completed.

Proof of Main Theorem. It follows from Lemma 3.1, Lemma 3.2, Lemma 3.6 and Lemma 3.7.

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