

# Groups of Order $pq$

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## Abstract

The classification of groups of order  $pq$  is the a very useful trick which could easily be applied to lots of problems. In fact, a direct corollary of it is that if groups of order  $n$  is unique, then  $(n, \phi(n)) = 1$ .

Indeed, one can use Sylow Theorem to solve it, but it's too brutal and advanced. Here I'll present two very elementary proofs.

**Theorem 1.** *Groups of order  $pq$  is unique (cyclic) up to isomorphism if and only if  $p \nmid (q-1)$ , where  $p < q$  are both primes.*

This is the main theorem of this paper which will be proved later. We first need some lemma.

**Lemma 1.** *For any finite group  $G$ , if  $p$  is the smallest prime that divides  $|G|$ , and  $K$  is a subgroup of  $G$  such that  $|G : K| = p$ , then  $K$  is a normal subgroup of  $G$ .*

*Proof.* Consider  $G$  acts on the left cosets of  $K$  by left multiplication. It induces a homomorphism  $\phi : G \rightarrow \text{Sym}(G : K)$ .

Consider  $\ker(\phi) \trianglelefteq G$ . Note that  $\ker(\phi) \trianglelefteq K$ . By Isomorphism Theorem, we have

$$G/\ker(\phi) \cong \text{im}(\phi) \leq \text{Sym}(G : K)$$

We have  $|G : \ker(\phi)| = |G : K| |K/\ker(\phi)| = p |K/\ker(\phi)|$ . So  $p \mid |G : \ker(\phi)|$ . Hence  $p \mid \text{im}(\phi)$ .

On the one hand, the prime factors in  $\text{im}(\phi)$  are no more than  $p$  as it's a subgroup of  $\text{Sym}(G : K)$ . On the other hand, the prime factors in  $\text{im}(\phi)$  are no less than  $p$  since  $G/\ker(\phi) \cong \text{im}(\phi)$ . So  $|\text{im}(\phi)| = p$ . Thus,  $\ker(\phi) = K$ . So  $K \trianglelefteq G$   $\square$

**Lemma 2.**  *$x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$  has exactly  $d$  incongruent solutions when  $d \mid (q-1)$  for prime  $q$*

*Proof.* Firstly, in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , the equation  $x^d - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$  has at most  $d$  solutions, while  $x^{q-1} - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$  has exactly  $q-1$  solutions.

Since  $d \mid (q-1)$ , we can factorize  $x^{q-1} - 1 = x^d P(x)$ , where polynomial  $P(x)$  has degree  $(q-1-d)$ , which has at most  $(q-d-1)$  solutions.

Thus,  $P(x)$  and  $x^d - 1$  must have maximum number of solutions so that  $(q-d-1) + d = (q-1)$  can hold. So  $x^d - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$  has exactly  $d$  solutions.  $\square$

**Lemma 3.** *Let  $G$  be a finite group and  $p$  is a prime dividing its order. Then  $n_p \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , where  $n_p$  denotes the number of elements of order  $p$ .*

*Proof.* Consider a subset  $X \subseteq G^p$  defined by  $X = \{(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) \in G^p : g_1 g_2 \cdots g_p = e\}$ . Since  $|G^p| = |G|^p$ , and  $|X| = |G|^{p-1}$ . Let  $H = C_p = \langle \xi \rangle$ , consider the action of  $H$  on  $X$  by

$$\xi \star (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_p) = (g_2, g_3, \dots, g_p, g_1)$$

This is an action, indeed, if  $g_1 g_2 \cdots g_p = e$ , then  $g_2 g_3 \cdots g_p g_1 = g_1^{-1} e g_1 = e$ . For any element  $x \in X$ , by Orbit-Stabilizer Theorem,  $p = |H| = |H_x| |H \star x|$ . Since  $p$  is prime, every orbit has to have either size 1 or size  $p$ , also the orbits sum to  $|X| = |G|^{p-1}$  which is divisible by  $p$ . So the number of size 1 orbits must be divisible by  $p$ , thus at least 2. All such orbits of size 1 must be in the form  $(g, g, \dots, p)$ . In particular, apart from  $(e, e, \dots, e)$ , there's a bijection between an element of order  $p$  such a tuple. Therefore,  $n_p \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$   $\square$

**Lemma 4.**  $(p-1) \mid n_p$ , where  $p, n_p$  are the same definition in lemma 1.

*Proof.* Consider the subgroups  $S_1, S_2, \dots$  of order  $p$  in group  $G$ . We must have  $S_i \cap S_j = e$  for  $i \neq j$ . The result follows.  $\square$

We first prove the easy direction of Theorem 1, which only requires lemma 2 and a proper counterexample.

**Proposition 1.** For groups of order  $pq$ , if  $p \mid (q-1)$ , then the group cannot be determined.

*Proof.* By lemma 2,  $l^p - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$  has exactly  $p$  solutions. In particular, it has a solution  $t \neq 1$ .

Consider the group representation  $\langle h, k \mid h^p = k^q = e, h^{-1}kh = k^t$

(a) It's a group of order  $pq$ . To prove this, firstly notice that we can write equivalent of each element as  $h^i k^j, 0 \leq i < p, 0 \leq j < q$ . If  $h^a k^b = h^c k^d$ , then  $h^{a-c} = k^{d-b} \Rightarrow p \mid (a-c)q \Rightarrow p \mid (a-c)$ . Similarly  $b \equiv d \pmod{q}$ . So these  $pq$  elements are distinct.

(b) It's non-abelian. Recall that  $t^p - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$

$(hk)(h^p k) = h^{p+1} k^{t^p+1} = h^{p+1} k^2, (h^p k)(hk) = h^{p+1} k^{t+1}$ . Since  $t \neq 1$ , we are done.  $\square$

The other direction should use lemma 1, lemma 2 and lemma 3. See proposition 2.

**Proposition 2.** For groups of order  $pq$ , if  $p \nmid (q-1)$ , then the group must be unique up to isomorphism (i.e. cyclic).

*Proof.* By lemma 3, there exists subgroup  $H, K$  such that  $|H| = q, H = \langle h \rangle$  and  $|K| = p, K = \langle k \rangle$ .

By lemma 1, we know  $H$  is normal in  $G$ . so  $k^{-1}hk = h^l$  for some  $l$ .

We must have  $h = k^{-p} h k^p = k^{-(p-1)} h^l k^{p-1} = k^{-(p-2)} (k^{-1} h k)^l k^{p-2} = k^{-(p-1)} h^{l^2} k^p = \dots = k^{l^p}$ .

Thus,  $l^p \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ . Since  $p \nmid (q-1)$ , we must have  $l = 1$ . This is because by Bezout Theorem,  $(\exists x, y) xp + y(q-1) = 1$ , so  $l = l^{xp+y(q-1)} \equiv (l^p)^x (l^{q-1})^y \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ .

So the group must be abelian, hence cyclic.  $\square$

What about lemma 4? Well, when I first start approaching proposition 2, I used another fairly surprising way, which is about counting the order of elements.

*Proof.* By lemma 3&4, we can write  $n_p = k_1 p - 1, n_q = k_2 (q - 1)$  for some  $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Suppose the group is not cyclic. Then each element has order  $1, p$  or  $q$ . Thus

$$1 + k_1 p - 1 + k_2 (q - 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

So  $p \mid k_2$  as  $p \nmid q - 1$ . Clearly  $k_2 \neq 0$ , so  $k_2 = p, k_1 = 1$

Similarly, if we write  $n_p = k_3 (p - 1), n_q = k_4 q - 1$ , we have  $q \mid k_3$ . So  $k_3 = q$ .

Now  $n_p = pq - q = p - 1 \rightarrow q = 1$ , which is a contradiction.  $\square$

Combine Proposition 1 and Proposition 2, Theorem 1 is proved. We now show a direct corollary of Theorem 1.

**Corollary 1.** For a group  $G$  with order  $n$ , if  $G$  is unique, then  $\gcd(n, \phi(n)) = 1$ .

*Proof.* Firstly,  $n$  must be square-free. Otherwise, Write  $n = p^\alpha m, C_p \times C_p \times \dots \times C_m$  is not isomorphic to  $C_n$

So write  $n = p_1 p_2 \dots p_m$ . If  $\gcd(n, \phi(n)) \geq 1$ , we must have  $p_i \mid (p_j - 1)$  for some  $i, j$ .

By the above construction of non-abelian group (call it  $H$  of order  $p_i p_j$  in the proof of proposition 1, we know  $H \times C_{\frac{n}{p_i p_j}}$  is not isomorphic to  $C_n$   $\square$