Document downloaded from:
http://hdl.handle.net/10251/43641
This paper must be cited as:
Kazarin, L.; Martínez Pastor, A.; Pérez-Ramos, M. (2009). On the product of two decomposable soluble groups. Publicacions Matemàtiques. 53(2):439-456. doi:10.5565/PUBLMAT_53209_07.


The final publication is available at
http://dx.doi.org/10.5565/PUBLMAT_53209_07 untranslated

# On the product of two $\pi$-decomposable soluble groups 

L. S. Kazarin, A. Martínez-Pastor and M. D. Pérez-Ramos


#### Abstract

Let the group $G=A B$ be a product of two $\pi$-decomposable subgroups $A=O_{\pi}(A) \times O_{\pi^{\prime}}(A)$ and $B=O_{\pi}(B) \times O_{\pi^{\prime}}(B)$ where $\pi$ is a set of primes. The authors conjecture that $O_{\pi}(A) O_{\pi}(B)=O_{\pi}(B) O_{\pi}(A)$ if $\pi$ is a set of odd primes. In this paper it is proved that the conjecture is true if $A$ and $B$ are soluble. A similar result with certain additional restrictions holds in the case $2 \in \pi$. Moreover, it is shown that the conjecture holds if $O_{\pi^{\prime}}(A)$ and $O_{\pi^{\prime}}(B)$ have coprime orders.


2000 Mathematics Subject Classification. 20D20, 20D40.
Key words. Products of groups, $\pi$-decomposable groups, Hall subgroups.

## 1 Notation and Preliminaries

All groups considered are finite.
The aim of this paper is to study groups $G=A B$ which are factorized as the product of $\pi$-decomposable subgroups $A$ and $B$, for a set of primes $\pi$. A group $X$ is said to be $\pi$-decomposable if $X=X_{\pi} \times X_{\pi^{\prime}}$ is the direct product of a $\pi$-subgroup and a $\pi^{\prime}$-subgroup, where $\pi^{\prime}$ stands for the complementary of $\pi$ in the set of all prime numbers. Moreover, we always use $X_{\pi}$ to denote a Hall $\pi$-subgroup of any group $X$.

More precisely we take further the study that was started in [12]. The main result in that paper states the following:

Theorem 1. Let $\pi$ be a set of odd primes. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of a $\pi$-decomposable subgroup $A$ and $a \pi$-subgroup $B$. Then $A_{\pi}=O_{\pi}(A) \leq O_{\pi}(G)$.

It is worth recalling the following result, which is Lemma 1 in [12] and provides an equivalent statement to this theorem.

Lemma 1. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of a $\pi$-decomposable subgroup $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and a $\pi$-subgroup $B$. Then the following statements are equivalent:
(i) $A_{\pi} \leq O_{\pi}(G)$;
(ii) $G$ contains Hall $\pi$-subgroups and $A_{\pi} B=B A_{\pi}$ is a Hall $\pi$-subgroup of $G$.

The starting point for our work is the theorem of Kegel and Wielandt which states the solubility of a group which is the product of two nilpotent subgroups.

For the proof of this theorem Kegel found a very useful criterion for the non-simplicity of a finite group in terms of some suitable permutability conditions on subgroups ([13, Satz 3]). It was improved by Wielandt in [15, Satz 1]. (See also [1, Lemmas 2.4.1, 2.5.1].) We state here a reformulation of these results which is convenient for our purposes.

Lemma 2. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of the subgroups $A$ and $B$ and let $A_{0}$ and $B_{0}$ be normal subgroups of $A$ and $B$, respectively. If $A_{0} B_{0}=B_{0} A_{0}$, then $A_{0}^{g} B_{0}=B_{0} A_{0}^{g}$ for all $g \in G$.

Assume in addition that $A_{0}$ and $B_{0}$ are $\pi$-groups for a set of primes $\pi$. If $O_{\pi}(G)=1$, then $\left[A_{0}^{G}, B_{0}^{G}\right]=1$.
(We note that this result is applicable in particular if $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and $B=B_{\pi} \times B_{\pi^{\prime}}$ are $\pi$-decomposable and considering $A_{0}=A_{\pi}$ and $B_{0}=B_{\pi}$.)

Proof. Let $g \in G$ and consider $g=a b$ with $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Since $A_{0}$ and $B_{0}$ are normal subgroups of $A$ and $B$, respectively, and they permute, we have:

$$
A_{0}^{g} B_{0}=A_{0}^{a b} B_{0}=\left(A_{0} B_{0}\right)^{b}=\left(B_{0} A_{0}\right)^{b}=B_{0} A_{0}^{a b}=B_{0} A_{0}^{g}
$$

Now the final assertion follows from [1, Lemma 2.5.1].
If $G=A B$ is the product of nilpotent subgroups $A$ and $B$, then the hypotheses of this result for $A_{0}=A_{p}$ and $B_{0}=B_{p}$, the Sylow $p$-subgroups of $A$ and $B$, respectively, and for any prime $p$, hold. This fact is in the core of the solubility of the group $G$.

Our aim is to find a more general structure involving $\pi$-decomposable groups for which these hypotheses also hold. Then, together with Lemma 2, our results also provide non-simplicity criteria for a group $G$.

Precisely we conjecture the following:

Conjecture. Let $\pi$ be a set of odd primes. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of two $\pi$-decomposable subgroups $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and $B=B_{\pi} \times B_{\pi^{\prime}}$. Then $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}=B_{\pi} A_{\pi}$ and this is a Hall $\pi$-subgroup of $G$.

Theorem 1 provides already a first approach to this conjecture. We state next another case for which the conjecture holds and that follows from Theorem 1. For notation, we set $\pi(G)$ for the set of prime divisors of $|G|$, the order of the group $G$.

Proposition 1. Let $\pi$ be a set of odd primes. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of two $\pi$-decomposable subgroups $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and $B=B_{\pi} \times B_{\pi^{\prime}}$. Assume in addition that $\left(\left|A_{\pi^{\prime}}\right|,\left|B_{\pi^{\prime}}\right|\right)=1$. Then $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}=B_{\pi} A_{\pi}$.

Proof. Since $2 \in \pi^{\prime}$ and $\left(\left|A_{\pi^{\prime}}\right|,\left|B_{\pi^{\prime}}\right|\right)=1$ we may assume w.l.o.g. that $2 \notin \pi(B)$. Now we consider the set of odd primes $\sigma:=\pi(B) \cup \pi\left(A_{\pi}\right)$. Then $G$ is the product of the $\sigma$-decomposable subgroup $A$ and the $\sigma$-subgroup $B$. From Theorem 1 it follows that $B$ and $A_{\sigma}=A_{\pi}$ permutes. Considering now the group $B A_{\pi}$, we can deduce that $B_{\pi}$ permutes with $A_{\pi}$ as desired.

It is worthwhile emphasizing that the conjectured result holds in the significant case when $(|A|,|B|)=1$. In particular, our results extend previous ones of Berkovich [4], Arad and Chillag [3], Rowley [14] and Kazarin [9], where products of a 2 -decomposable group and a group of odd order, with coprime orders, were considered.

In this paper we will study as a first step the structure of a minimal counterexample to our conjecture. Afterwards we will prove it under the additional hypotheses that $A$ and $B$ are soluble groups. In the case of soluble factors, we will consider also the analogous problem when $\pi$ is a set of primes containing the prime 2 . As a consequence of these results we deduce in Corollary 1 a criterion of $\pi$-separability for a group which is the product of $\pi$-decomposable soluble factors, for an arbitrary set of primes $\pi$.

First we state some more notation. If $n$ is an integer and $p$ a prime number, we denote by $n_{p}$ the largest power of $p$ dividing $n$. A group $G$ satisfies the $C_{\pi}$-property if $G$ possesses a unique conjugacy class of Hall $\pi$-subgroups. Moreover $G$ satisfies the $D_{\pi}$-property if it satisfies the $C_{\pi}$-property and every $\pi$-subgroup of $G$ is contained in some Hall $\pi$-subgroup of $G$. We recall that a $\pi$-separable group satisfies the $D_{\pi}$-property.

We need specifically the following result (see [1, Corollary 1.3.3]).

Lemma 3. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of the subgroups $A$ and $B$. Then for each prime $p$ there exist Sylow $p$-subgroups $A_{p}$ of $A$ and $B_{p}$ of $B$ such that $A_{p} B_{p}$ is a Sylow p-subgroup of $G$.

For products of soluble subgroups the following lemma will be also used.
Lemma 4. Let $G=A B=A N=B N$ be a group with $A$ and $B$ soluble subgroups of $G$ and with a unique minimal normal subgroup $N$, which is non-abelian. Let $N=N_{1} \times \ldots \times N_{r}$ with $N_{1} \cong N_{i}$ be a non-abelian simple group, $i=1, \ldots, r$. Then:
(i) $A$ and $B$ act transitively by conjugacy on the set $\Omega=\left\{N_{1}, \ldots, N_{r}\right\}$ of direct factors of $N$. Moreover, $N \cap A=\times_{i=1}^{r}\left(N_{i} \cap A\right)$ and $N \cap B=$ $\times_{i=1}^{r}\left(N_{i} \cap B\right)$.
(ii) $\left|N_{1}\right|$ divides $\left|\operatorname{Out}\left(N_{1}\right)\right|\left|N_{1} \cap A\right|\left|N_{1} \cap B\right|$.

Proof. See Lemmas 2.3 and 2.5 of [10].

## 2 The minimal counterexample

Proposition 2. Let $\pi$ be a set of odd primes. Assume that the group $G=$ $A B$ is the product of two $\pi$-decomposable subgroups $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and $B=B_{\pi} \times B_{\pi^{\prime}}$, and $G$ is a counterexample of minimal order to the assertion $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}=B_{\pi} A_{\pi}$.

Then $G$ has a unique minimal normal subgroup $N=N_{1} \times \cdots \times N_{r}$, which is a direct product of isomorphic non-abelian simple groups $N_{1}, \ldots, N_{r}$. Moreover $G=A N=B N=A B,\left(\left|A_{\pi^{\prime}}\right|,\left|B_{\pi^{\prime}}\right|\right) \neq 1$ and $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap B_{\pi^{\prime}}=1$.

Proof. First note that $A_{\pi} \neq 1$ and $B_{\pi} \neq 1$. Moreover, $|\pi(G) \cap \pi|>$ 1, because of Lemma 3, and also $\left(\left|A_{\pi^{\prime}}\right|,\left|B_{\pi^{\prime}}\right|\right) \neq 1$ by Proposition 1 ; in particular, $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$ and $B_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$. We split the proof into the following steps:

1. The group $G$ has a unique minimal normal subgroup $N$, which is neither a $\pi$-group nor a $\pi^{\prime}$-group. In particular, N is not soluble. Consequently, $N=N_{1} \times \ldots \times N_{r}$ with $N_{1} \cong N_{i}$ a non-abelian simple group, $i=1, \ldots, r$.

Let $N$ be a minimal normal subgroup of $G$ and assume that there exists $M \neq N$ another minimal normal subgroup of $G$. The choice of $G$ implies that $A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N / N$ is a subgroup of $G / N$ and $A_{\pi} B_{\pi} M / M$ is a subgroup of $G / M$. Then

$$
O^{\pi}\left(\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle\right) \leq N \cap M=1
$$

This implies that $\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle$ is a $\pi$-group and, consequently, $\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle=$ $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}$, a contradiction.
If $N$ is a $\pi$-group, then $\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle \leq A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N$ is a $\pi$-group which implies the contradiction $\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle=A_{\pi} B_{\pi}$, as $\left|A_{\pi} B_{\pi}\right|=|G|_{\pi}$ is the largest $\pi$-number dividing $|G|$.
Assume now that $N$ is a $\pi^{\prime}$-group. Note that

$$
\left|A_{\pi}\left(B_{\pi} N\right)\right|=\frac{\left|A_{\pi}\right|\left|B_{\pi}\right||N|}{\left|A_{\pi} \cap B_{\pi} N\right|}
$$

and so $\left|A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N / N\right|$ is a $\pi$-number. Consequently, $X:=A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N$ is a $\pi$-separable group and, in particular, it satisfies the $D_{\pi}$-property. We deduce now that there exists a Hall $\pi$-subgroup $X_{\pi}$ of $X$ and an element $x \in X$ such that $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}^{x} \subseteq\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}^{x}\right\rangle \leq X_{\pi}$. But $\left|A_{\pi} B_{\pi}^{x}\right|=|G|_{\pi}$ which implies in particular that $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}^{x}=X_{\pi}$ is a subgroup of $G$. Since $G=A B$ and $A_{\pi}$ and $B_{\pi}$ are normal subgroups of $A$ and $B$ respectively, it follows that $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}$ is a subgroup of $G$.

Put now $H=\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle$. Then the following properties hold:
2. $N \leq H \unlhd G$.

From [1, Lemma 1.2.2] we have that $N_{G}(H)=N_{A}(H) N_{B}(H)$. If $N_{G}(H)$ is a proper subgroup of $G$, then $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}$ is a subgroup of $G$ by the choice of $G$, which is a contradiction. Hence $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$ and so $N \leq H$.
3. $G=A H=B H=A B$.

Observe that $A H=A(A H \cap B)$. If $A H$ is a proper subgroup of $G$, then the choice of $G$ implies again the contradiction $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}=B_{\pi} A_{\pi}$. Therefore $G=A H$ and, analogously, $G=B H$.
4. $H=A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N$.

This is clear since $A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N$ is a subgroup of $G$ and $N \leq H \leq A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N \leq$ $H$.
5. $A_{\pi^{\prime}} N=B_{\pi^{\prime}} N=A_{\pi^{\prime}} B_{\pi^{\prime}} N$.

Since $G=A H=A B_{\pi} N$, we deduce that

$$
\begin{aligned}
B & =B_{\pi}(B \cap A N)=B_{\pi}\left(\left(B_{\pi} \cap A N\right) \times\left(B_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap A N\right)\right)= \\
& =B_{\pi}\left(B_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap A N\right)=B_{\pi} B_{\pi^{\prime}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $B_{\pi^{\prime}}=B_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap A N$, that is, $B_{\pi^{\prime}} \leq A N$ and, consequently, $B_{\pi^{\prime}} \leq$ $A_{\pi^{\prime}} N$.

Analogously the equality $G=B H=B A_{\pi} N$ implies that $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \leq B_{\pi^{\prime}} N$.
Therefore $A_{\pi^{\prime}} N=B_{\pi^{\prime}} N=A_{\pi^{\prime}} B_{\pi^{\prime}} N$.
6. $G / N=O_{\pi^{\prime}}(G / N) \times O_{\pi}(G / N)$.

Note first that $H / N=A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N / N \in \operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}(G / N)$ and $H / N \unlhd G / N$. On the other hand, we deduce from Step 5 that $A_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N=B_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N$ is a Hall $\pi^{\prime}$-subgroup of $G / N$ normalized by $A N / N$ and by $B N / N$, that is, it is normal in $G / N$, and the assertion follows.
7. $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap B_{\pi^{\prime}}=1$.

If $L=A_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap B_{\pi^{\prime}}$, then $N \leq\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle \leq C_{G}(L)$, and so $L \leq C_{G}(N)=1$.
8. Assume that $1 \neq M \unlhd G$ and $K:=A M \neq G$. Then $O_{\pi}(K)=1, A_{\pi} \tilde{B}_{\pi} \in$ $\operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}(K)$ and $\left[A_{\pi}^{K}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}^{K}\right]=1$, where $\tilde{B}_{\pi}:=B_{\pi} \cap A M=B_{\pi} \cap A_{\pi} M$. Moreover, $\tilde{B}_{\pi} \neq 1$ and $B_{\pi} \cap M=\tilde{B}_{\pi} \cap M=1$.
First observe that $\left[O_{\pi}(K), N\right] \leq O_{\pi}(K) \cap N=1$, which implies $O_{\pi}(K) \leq C_{G}(N)=1$. Moreover, since $K=A M=A(A M \cap B)<G$, the choice of $G$ implies that $T:=A_{\pi} \tilde{B}_{\pi}=\tilde{B}_{\pi} A_{\pi} \in \operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}(K)$. Hence, from Lemma 2, it follows that $\left[A_{\pi}^{K}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}^{K}\right]=1$.
Suppose now that $\tilde{B}_{\pi}=1$. Then $T=A_{\pi} \in \operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}(K)$ and $A_{\pi} \cap M \in$ $\operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}(M)$. Note that $A_{\pi} \cap M \neq 1$ because otherwise $M$ would be a $\pi^{\prime}$-group, which contradicts Step 1 . Since $\pi$ is a set of odd primes, then $M$ satisfies the $C_{\pi}$-property by $[8$, Theorem A$]$ and so, by the Frattini argument, we conclude that $G=M N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)$. Hence

$$
\left|G: N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)\right|=\left|M: N_{M}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)\right|
$$

is a $\pi^{\prime}$-number, since $A_{\pi} \cap M \in \operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}\left(N_{M}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)\right.$ ), and so $|G|_{\pi}=$ $\left|N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)\right|_{\pi}$. Note also that $N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right) \neq G$, by Step 1. Then, by the choice of $G, N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)=A\left(\left(B_{\pi} \cap N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)\right) \times\left(B_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap\right.\right.$ $\left.N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)\right)$ satisfies the theorem, that is,

$$
A_{\pi}\left(B_{\pi} \cap N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)\right) \in \operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}\left(N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)\right)
$$

But $\left|A_{\pi}\left(B_{\pi} \cap N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)\right)\right|=\left|N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)\right|_{\pi}=|G|_{\pi}=\left|A_{\pi} B_{\pi}\right|$ implies that $B_{\pi} \cap N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right) \underset{\tilde{B}}{=} B_{\pi}$ and so $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}$ is a subgroup, a contradiction. This proves that $\tilde{B}_{\pi} \neq 1$.

Finally note that $B_{\pi} \cap M=\tilde{B}_{\pi} \cap M$ is normalized by both $B_{\pi}$ and $A_{\pi}$ because $\left[A_{\pi}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}\right]=1$. Hence $N \leq\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle$ normalizes $B_{\pi} \cap M$ and so $\left[B_{\pi} \cap M, N\right] \leq B_{\pi} \cap M \cap N=B_{\pi} \cap N=1$, since this is a $\pi$-group normalized by $N$. Therefore $B_{\pi} \cap M \leq C_{G}(N)=1$ and the last assertion follows.
9. $A$ acts transitively on the set $\Omega=\left\{N_{1}, \cdots, N_{r}\right\}$.

Assume that this is not true and take $R:=\cap_{i=1}^{r} N_{G}\left(N_{i}\right) \unlhd G$. Then $A R<G$ and we can apply Step 8 with $M=R$. In particular, from the facts that $\tilde{B}_{\pi}=B_{\pi} \cap A R \neq 1$ and $B_{\pi} \cap R=\tilde{B}_{\pi} \cap R=1$ we deduce that $\tilde{B}_{\pi} \not \leq R$. Then there exists $1 \neq b \in \tilde{B}_{\pi} \backslash R$. Without loss of generality we may assume that $b \notin N_{G}\left(N_{1}\right)$, and so $\left|\Omega_{\langle b\rangle}\left(N_{1}\right)\right| \geq$ 2, where $\Omega_{\langle b\rangle}\left(N_{1}\right)$ denotes the orbit of $N_{1}$ under the action of $b$ on $\Omega=\left\{N_{1}, \cdots, N_{r}\right\}$. On the other hand, since $\tilde{B}_{\pi} \leq R A_{\pi}$, then $b=c a$ for some $c \in R$ and $a \in A_{\pi}$. Since $R$ normalizes each $N_{i}$, we have $\Omega_{\langle b\rangle}\left(N_{1}\right)=\Omega_{\langle a\rangle}\left(N_{1}\right)$. Now note that $\left[N_{1},\langle b\rangle\right]=N_{i_{1}} \times \cdots \times N_{i_{k}}$, where $\Omega_{\langle b\rangle}\left(N_{1}\right)=\left\{N_{1}=N_{i_{1}}, \ldots, N_{i_{k}}\right\} \subseteq \Omega$. Analogously, $\left[N_{1},\langle a\rangle\right]=$ $N_{i_{1}} \times \cdots \times N_{i_{k}}=\left[N_{1},\langle b\rangle\right]$. Therefore $\left[N_{1},\langle a\rangle\right]=\left[N_{1},\langle b\rangle\right] \leq\left[N_{1}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}\right] \cap$ $\left[N_{1}, A_{\pi}\right]$. Now from Step 8 we have that

$$
\left[\left[N_{1}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}\right],\left[N_{1}, A_{\pi}\right]\right] \leq\left[A_{\pi}^{K}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}^{K}\right]=1
$$

and so $N_{1}, N_{i_{2}}, \ldots, N_{i_{k}}$ are abelian, which is a contradiction. The assertion is now proved.
10. $G=A N=B N=A B$.

Assume that this is not true and, for instance, $A N<G$. Then we can apply Step 8 with $M=N$. In particular, $\left[A_{\pi}^{K}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}^{K}\right]=1$, where $K=A N, \tilde{B}_{\pi}=B_{\pi} \cap A N=B_{\pi} \cap A_{\pi} N$ and $\tilde{B}_{\pi} \neq 1$. Since $C_{G}(N)=1$ we may assume that there exists $1 \neq b \in \tilde{B}_{\pi}$ such that $\left[N_{1},\langle b\rangle\right] \neq 1$. But this means that $N_{1} \leq\left[N_{1},\langle b\rangle\right]$ and $A_{\pi}$ centralizes this subgroup. Since $A$ acts transitively on $\Omega=\left\{N_{1}, \cdots, N_{r}\right\}$ and $A_{\pi} \unlhd A$, it follows that $A_{\pi}$ centralizes each $N_{i}$, for $i=1, \ldots, r$, and so $A_{\pi} \leq C_{G}(N)=1$, a contradiction which proves that $A N=G$.
By the symmetry between $A$ and $B$ we can also prove $G=B N$ and we are done.

## 3 The soluble case with $\pi$ a set of odd primes

Theorem 2. Let $\pi$ be a set of odd primes. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of two $\pi$-decomposable soluble subgroups $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and $B=B_{\pi} \times B_{\pi^{\prime}}$. Then $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}=B_{\pi} A_{\pi}$ and this is a Hall $\pi$-subgroup of $G$.

Proof. Assume the result is not true and let $G$ be a counterexample of minimal order. We know by Proposition 2 that $G$ has a unique minimal normal subgroup $N=N_{1} \times \cdots \times N_{r}$, which is a direct product of isomorphic non-abelian simple groups $N_{1}, \ldots, N_{r}$. Moreover, $G=A B=A N=B N$ and so, by Lemma $4, A$ and $B$ act transitively on the set $\Omega=\left\{N_{1}, \ldots, N_{r}\right\}$ and $\left|N_{1}\right|$ divides $\left|O u t\left(N_{1}\right)\left\|N_{1} \cap A\right\| N_{1} \cap B\right|$. Clearly $A_{\pi} \neq 1, B_{\pi} \neq 1$, and, moreover, $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1, B_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$. Recall also that $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap B_{\pi^{\prime}}=1$.

From [10] we know that $N_{i}$ should be isomorphic to one of the groups in the set:

$$
\mathfrak{M}=\left\{L_{2}(q), q>3 ; L_{3}(q), q<9 ; L_{4}(2), M_{11}, \mathrm{PS}_{4}(3), U_{3}(8)\right\} .
$$

We claim first that $N=N_{1}$ is a simple group.
We note that either $N_{1} \cap A \neq 1$ or $N_{1} \cap B \neq 1$ because $\left|N_{1}\right|$ does not divide $\left|O u t\left(N_{1}\right)\right|$. We set $\left\{\sigma, \sigma^{\prime}\right\}=\left\{\pi, \pi^{\prime}\right\}$. We may assume that $N_{1} \cap A_{\sigma} \neq 1$. Then $A_{\sigma^{\prime}}$ normalizes $N_{1}$. This holds also for $B_{\sigma^{\prime}}$ because $A_{\sigma^{\prime}} N=B_{\sigma^{\prime}} N$ since $G=A N=B N$. If in addition $N_{1} \cap A_{\sigma^{\prime}} \neq 1$ we have also that $A_{\sigma}$ normalizes $N_{1}$ and consequently $N=N_{1}$ is simple, since $G=A N$, and the claim is proved. We get analogously to the same conclusion if $N_{1} \cap B_{\sigma^{\prime}} \neq 1$. Let us assume now that $N_{1} \cap A_{\sigma^{\prime}}=1=N_{1} \cap B_{\sigma^{\prime}}$. In particular, $N_{1} \cap A$ and $N_{1} \cap B$ are $\sigma$-groups. On the other hand, we recall that $N$ is not a $\sigma$-group. Hence $1 \neq\left|N_{1}\right|_{\sigma^{\prime}}$ divides $\left|\operatorname{Out}\left(N_{1}\right)\right|$. We discard next this case by checking the different possibilities for $N_{1}$ :

- $N_{1} \in \mathfrak{M}, N_{1} \not \not M_{11}, N_{1} \neq L_{2}(q), q=p^{n}$. If $r$ is a prime dividing $\mid$ Out $\left(N_{1}\right) \mid$, then $r \in\{2,3\}$. But in all the considered cases $\left|N_{1}\right|_{r}>$ $\left|\operatorname{Out}\left(N_{1}\right)\right|_{r}$ and so these are not possible cases for $N_{1}$.
- $N_{1} \cong M_{11}$. This case cannot occur since $\operatorname{Out}\left(M_{11}\right)=1$.
- $N_{1} \cong L_{2}(q), q=p^{n}$. From Lemma 4 we have that $N \cap A=\times_{i=1}^{r}\left(N_{i} \cap\right.$ $A$ ), and so $N \cap A_{\sigma^{\prime}}=\times_{i=1}^{r}\left(N_{i} \cap A_{\sigma^{\prime}}\right)=1$. Moreover, since $A_{\sigma^{\prime}}$ normalizes $N_{1}$, it normalizes $N_{i}$ for any $i=1, \ldots, r$, because $A$ acts transitively on the set $\Omega=\left\{N_{1}, \ldots, N_{r}\right\}$. Therefore $A_{\sigma^{\prime}} \cong A_{\sigma^{\prime}} N / N$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Out}\left(N_{1}\right) \times \ldots \times \operatorname{Out}\left(N_{r}\right)$. Analogously $B_{\sigma^{\prime}} \cong B_{\sigma^{\prime}} N / N$. Moreover $A_{\sigma^{\prime}} N / N=B_{\sigma^{\prime}} N / N$. By the structure of $\operatorname{Out}\left(L_{2}(q)\right)$ we
deduce that there exists a prime $r \in \sigma^{\prime}$ such that $A$ and $B$ have normal Sylow $r$-subgroups. From Lemmas 3 and 2 we deduce that $N$ is abelian, which is a contradiction.

Therefore our claim follows and $N$ is a simple group.

We recall that $G=A N=B N=A B$ and so we deduce that $|N \| A \cap B|=$ $|N \cap A||N \cap B \| G / N|$. In particular, if $X, Y$ are maximal soluble subgroups of $N$ such that $N \cap A \leq X$ and $N \cap B \leq Y$, then $|N|$ divides $|X \| Y||O u t(N)|$. Then we will use the fact that the orders of $X$ and $Y$ are known from the proof of [2, Lemma 2.5].

We recall also that $A_{\pi} \neq 1, B_{\pi} \neq 1, A_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1, B_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$. Moreover, we have that $|\pi(G) \cap \pi|>1$ and $\left|\pi(G) \cap \pi^{\prime}\right|>1$ because of Lemmas 3 and 2, as $N$ is non-abelian.

We check next that each of the possibilities for the group $N$ leads to a contradiction.

- $N \cong L_{3}(3)$ and $N \cong \operatorname{PSp} p_{4}(3)$. In both cases $|G|$ would be divided only by three distinct primes which is a contradiction.
- $N \cong M_{11}$. In this case $\operatorname{Out}(N)=1$ and so $G=N$ is simple. Since all subgroups of the group $M_{11}$ are known, it is easily deduced that this case cannot occur.
- $N \cong L_{3}(4)$ or $N \cong L_{3}(7)$. These cases can be excluded since, as proved in [2, Lemma 2.5], for these groups it is not possible that $|N|$ divides $|X\|Y\| O u t(N)|$, for soluble subgroups $X$ and $Y$ of $N$.
- $N \cong L_{3}(5)$. In this case $|N|=2^{5} \cdot 3 \cdot 5^{3} \cdot 31$ and $|O u t(N)|=2$. By [2, Lemma 2.5] we may suppose w.l.o.g. that $|N \cap A|$ divides $31 \cdot 3$ and $|N \cap B|$ divides $2^{4} \cdot 5^{3}$. Hence the case $G=N$ cannot occur by order arguments. So $|G / N|=2$ and $G \cong \operatorname{Aut}(N)$. This means that $|N \cap A|=31 \cdot 3$ and $|N \cap B|=2^{4} \cdot 5^{3}$. Since $B$ is neither a $\pi$-group nor a $\pi^{\prime}$-group and $2 \in \pi^{\prime}$ it should be $5 \in \pi$. This fact forces the primes 3 and 31 to be in different sets of primes. But this also leads to a contradiction, since a Sylow 31-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing.
- $N \cong L_{3}(8)$. In this case $|N|=2^{9} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 73$ and by [2, Lemma 2.5] we may assume that $|N \cap A|$ divides $73 \cdot 3$ and $|N \cap B|$ divides $2^{9} \cdot 7^{2}$. Since $|\operatorname{Out}(N)|=2 \cdot 3$ and $|N|$ divides $|G / N\|N \cap A\| N \cap B|$, the cases $G=N$ and $|G / N|=2$ are not possible by order arguments.

If either $|G / N|=3$ or $|G / N|=2 \cdot 3$, it follows that $|N \cap A|=73 \cdot 3$. Since a Sylow 73-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$, we can deduce that $A$ is either a $\pi$-group or a $\pi^{\prime}$-group, a contradiction.

- $N \cong L_{4}(2) \cong A_{8}$. In this case, there is no factorization $G=A B$ with $A, B$ soluble subgroups.
- $N \cong U_{3}(8)$. Then $|N|=2^{9} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 7 \cdot 19$ and $|\operatorname{Out}(N)|=2 \cdot 3^{2}$. By $[2$, Lemma 2.5], we may assume that $|N \cap A|$ divides $3 \cdot 19$ and $|N \cap B|$ divides $2^{9} \cdot 7 \cdot 3$. Hence by order arguments it follows that $|G| \geq|N| \cdot 3^{2}$. Note also that since $\operatorname{Out}(N)$ is not a direct product of a 2 -group and a 3 -group, $G / N$ should be a $\pi$-group or a $\pi^{\prime}$-group. By [2, Lemma 2.5], we may assume that $|N \cap A|$ divides $3 \cdot 19$ and $|N \cap B|$ divides $2^{9} \cdot 7 \cdot 3$.
If $|G / N|=3^{2}$, then $|N \cap A|=3 \cdot 19$ and $|N \cap B|=2^{9} \cdot 7 \cdot 3$. Now the fact that a Sylow 19-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing in $N$ forces 3 and 19 to belong to the same set of primes, that is, $\pi \cap \pi(G)=\{3,19\}$ and $\pi^{\prime} \cap \pi(G)=\{2,7\}$. But then $A$ would be a $\pi$-group, a contradiction.
Now assume that $|G / N|=2 \cdot 3^{2}$, that is, $G \cong \operatorname{Aut}(N)$. Then $|N \cap A|=$ $3 \cdot 19,|N \cap B|=2^{8} \cdot 7 \cdot 3$ and 2,3 are in the same set of primes, that is, $\pi^{\prime} \cap \pi(G)=\{2,3\}$ and $\pi \cap \pi(G)=\{7,19\}$. But this cannot occur again because a Sylow 19-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing.
- $N \cong L_{2}(q), q=p^{n}$.

Recall that, in this case, $|N|=\epsilon q\left(q^{2}-1\right), \epsilon=(p-1,2)^{-1}$, and $\operatorname{Out}(N)$ is a cyclic group of order $\epsilon^{-1} n$. From [2, Lemma 2.5] it follows that, apart from some exceptional cases with $q \in\{5,7,11,23\}$ that we will study later, the maximal soluble subgroups $X$ and $Y$ of $N$ satisfies the condition $\{X, Y\}=\left\{N_{N}\left(N_{p}\right), D_{\nu(q+1)}\right\}$, with $N_{p} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(N)$, $\left|N_{N}\left(N_{p}\right)\right|=\epsilon q(q-1)$ and $D_{\nu(q+1)}$ a dihedral group of order $\nu(q+1)$ with $\nu=(2, p)$.
We claim that $p$ does not divide $(|N \cap A|,|N \cap B|)$. Assume first that $p \in \pi$. If $p$ would divide $(|N \cap A|,|N \cap B|)$, then $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap N=1=B_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap N$, since the centralizer of any element of order $p$ in $N$ is a $p$-group. Therefore $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \cong A_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Out}(N)$ and, analogously, $B_{\pi^{\prime}} \cong B_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N$. Moreover, $A_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N=B_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N$. By the structure of $\operatorname{Out}(N)$ we deduce that there exists a prime $r \in \pi^{\prime}$ such that $A$ and $B$ have normal Sylow $r$-subgroups. Again from Lemmas 3 and 2 we get the contradiction that $N$ is abelian. Note that the same conclusion follows if $p \in \pi^{\prime}$.

Assume, therefore, w.l.o.g. that $p$ does not divide $|N \cap A|$. Hence we can deduce that $|N \cap B|$ divides $\left|N_{N}\left(N_{p}\right)\right|=q(q-1) /(2, q-1)$ and $|N \cap A|$ divides $\left|D_{\nu(q+1)}\right|=\nu(q+1)$. In particular, it follows that $N \cap B$ is either a $\pi$-group or a $\pi^{\prime}$-group, since the centralizer of any element of order $p$ in $N$ is a $p$-group.

We claim now that $p$ divides $|G / N|$ and, in particular, $n>1$. Since $|N|$ divides $|G / N||N \cap A||N \cap B|$, if $p$ does not divide $|G / N|$, it follows that $|N|_{p}=|N \cap B|_{p}$. Then a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $N \cap B$ is a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $N$ contained in $B$. Hence $B$ must be a $\pi$-group or a $\pi^{\prime}$-group, because the centralizer in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$ of any Sylow $p$-subgroup of $N$ is a p-group by [11, 1.17], which is a contradiction.
We have that $G / N=B N / N$ and also that $|N|_{p}$ divides $|G / N|_{p} \mid N \cap$ $\left.B\right|_{p}$. Since $B_{\pi} \neq 1, B_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$ and $n>1$, it is clear that there exists some outer automorphism $\phi$ centralizing a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $N \cap B$. Then it follows that $\left|C_{N}(\phi)\right|_{p} \geq|N \cap B|_{p} \geq q / n$. But $\left|C_{N}(\phi)\right|_{p} \leq q^{1 / 2}$ (see, for instance, [5, Chapter 12]). Hence $q \leq q^{1 / 2} n$, that is, $q=p^{n} \leq n^{2}$. This leads to a contradiction, except for the cases $p=2$ and $n \leq 4$.
The case $(p, n)=(2,3)$ can be easily excluded, since the group $L_{2}\left(2^{3}\right)=$ $L_{2}(8)$ has order divisible only by three distinct primes. Finally, the case $(p, n)=(2,4)$ is also excluded, because in this case $B$ would be a $\pi^{\prime}$-group, which is not possible.

For $q \in\{5,7,11,23\}$ there exists another possibility for the maximal soluble subgroups $X$ and $Y$ (see [2, Lemma 2.5]). But note that in all these cases $G=N$ and one of the subgroups $A=N \cap A$ or $B=N \cap B$ is contained in $N_{N}\left(N_{p}\right)$ for some $N_{p} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(N)$. Then $A$ or $B$ should be either a $\pi$-group or a $\pi^{\prime}$-group, which provides the final contradiction.

## 4 The soluble case with $2 \in \pi$

Theorem 3. Let $\pi$ be a set of primes with $2 \in \pi$. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of two soluble $\pi$-decomposable subgroups $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and $B=B_{\pi} \times B_{\pi^{\prime}}$. Assume that the following simple groups are not involved in $G$ :
(i) $L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right), n \geq 2$, except if either $n=3$ or $q=2^{n}+1>5$ is a Fermat prime,
(ii) $L_{2}(q), q>3$ odd, except if $q$ is a Mersenne prime.

Then $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}=B_{\pi} A_{\pi}$ and this is a Hall $\pi$-subgroup of $G$.

Proof. Assume the result is not true and let $G$ be a couterexample of minimal order. Obviously $A_{\pi} \neq 1$ and $B_{\pi} \neq 1$. Moreover $|\pi(G) \cap \pi|>1$ because of Lemma 3.

We can argue as in Step 1 of Proposition 2 to deduce that $G$ has a unique minimal normal subgroup $N$, which is neither a $\pi$-group nor a $\pi^{\prime}$-group. We note that $N=N_{1} \times \ldots \times N_{r}$, where $N_{i}$ are isomorphic non-abelian simple groups for $i=1, \ldots, r, C_{G}(N)=1$ and $N \unlhd G \leq \operatorname{Aut}(N)$.

On the other hand, we have by Theorem 2 that $A_{\pi^{\prime}} B_{\pi^{\prime}}$ is a Hall $\pi^{\prime}$ subgroup of $G$. Consequently, if $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$ and $B_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$, it would follow from Lemma 2 the contradiction $[N, N] \leq\left[A_{\pi^{\prime}}^{G}, B_{\pi^{\prime}}^{G}\right]=1$. Therefore, w.l.o.g. we may assume that $B_{\pi^{\prime}}=1$, i.e., $B=B_{\pi}$, and $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$. We recall that now Lemma 1 implies that the conditions $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}=B_{\pi} A_{\pi}$ and $A_{\pi} \leq O_{\pi}(G)$ are equivalent.

We claim first that $G=A_{\pi} N$ and $N$ is a simple group.
The choice of $G$ implies that $A_{\pi} N / N \leq T / N:=O_{\pi}(G / N)(B N / N)$. In particular, $N \leq T=A_{\pi}\left(T \cap A_{\pi^{\prime}}\right) B$. If $T$ were a proper subgroup of $G$, then $A_{\pi} \leq O_{\pi}(T) \leq C_{G}(N)=1$, which is a contradiction. Consequently $G / N$ is a $\pi$-group and, in particular, $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \leq N$. Then $X:=A_{\pi} N=A(B \cap X)$. If $X$ were a proper subgroup of $G$, we would argue as above to conclude the contradiction $A_{\pi} \leq O_{\pi}(X)=1$. Therefore $X=A_{\pi} N=G$.

We can deduce now that $A_{\pi^{\prime}}=\left(N_{1} \cap A_{\pi^{\prime}}\right) \times \ldots \times\left(N_{r} \cap A_{\pi^{\prime}}\right)$ is a Hall $\pi^{\prime}$-subgroup of $N$ and $A_{\pi}$ acts transitively by conjugacy on the components $N_{1}, \ldots, N_{r}$ of $N$. This implies $r=1$, that is, $N$ is a simple group and the claim is proved.

We prove next that $G=B N$.
Assume that $N B<G$. We claim that $N=B A_{\pi^{\prime}}, N \cap A_{\pi}=1$ and $\left|A_{\pi}\right|=t$ for some prime $t$.

Let us consider $M:=N B=B(N B \cap A)=B A_{\pi^{\prime}}\left(N B \cap A_{\pi}\right)$. If we denote $R=N B \cap A_{\pi}$, we deduce by the choice of $G$ that $R \leq O_{\pi}(M)=1$ and, in particular, $N \cap A_{\pi}=1$. Since $G=N A_{\pi}=(N B) A_{\pi}$, we deduce that $|N|=|N B|$ and so $B \leq N=B A_{\pi^{\prime}}$.

Now let $C$ be a subgroup of $A_{\pi}$ of order $t$, for some prime $t$, and assume that $X:=N C=B A_{\pi^{\prime}} C$ is a proper subgroup of $G$. Again we deduce that $C \leq O_{\pi}(X)=1$, a contradiction. Therefore, $\left|A_{\pi}\right|=t$ for some prime $t$.

Since $N$ is a non-abelian simple group factorized as the product of two soluble subgroups of coprime orders, we have from [10] and [7, Theorem 1.1] that $N$ should be isomorphic to one of the following: $M_{11}, L_{3}(3), L_{2}(q)$ with $q>3$ odd and $q \equiv-1(4), L_{2}(8)$ and $L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right)$ with $2^{n}+1>5$ a Fermat prime. (Recall that the remainder cases for $L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right), n \geq 2$, are excluded by
hypothesis.) We discard next all these possibilities for the group $N$ which will show that $G=N B$.

- $N \cong M_{11}$.

We have that $A_{\pi} \neq 1$ is a isomorphic to a subgroup of $\operatorname{Out}\left(M_{11}\right)=1$, a contradiction.

- $N \cong L_{3}(3)$.

In this case $\pi \cap \pi(G)=\{2,3\}$ and $\pi^{\prime} \cap \pi(G)=\{13\}$. Moreover the outer automorphism of order 2 of $N$ should centralize a Sylow 13 -subgroup of $N$ but this is not true.

- $N \cong L_{2}(q), q>3$ a Mersenne prime.

In this case $|\operatorname{Out}(N)=2|$, so $A_{\pi}$ has order 2 .
The possible factorizations for $N$ can be found in [7]. So we have that $\left\{B, A_{\pi^{\prime}}\right\}$ should be a pair of subgroups of $N$ among pairs of subgroups of $N$ of type $\left\{N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right), D_{q+1}\right\}$, with $N_{q} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{q}(N)$ and $D_{q+1}$ a dihedral group of order $q+1$. Moreover the subgroups in these pairs are maximal subgroups of $N$. Since $2 \in \pi$ and 2 divides $q+1$ we have $B=D_{q+1}$ and $A_{\pi^{\prime}}=N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right)$; in particular $q \in \pi^{\prime}$. But then it is not possible that $A_{\pi}$ centralizes $A_{\pi^{\prime}}=N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right)$, since $C_{A u t(N)}\left(N_{q}\right)$ is a $q$-group by [11, 1.17].

- $N \cong L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right)$, for either $n=3$ or $2^{n}+1>5$ is a Fermat prime.

The only factorizations of $L_{2}(q), q=2^{n}$, as product of soluble subgroups of coprime orders should be among pairs of subgroups of $N$ of type $\left\{N_{N}\left(N_{2}\right), C_{q+1}\right\}$, with $C_{q+1}$ a cyclic group of order $q+1$ and $N_{2} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{2}(N)$ (see for instance [7]). Since $2 \in \pi$ we have $B=N_{N}\left(N_{2}\right)$ and $A_{\pi^{\prime}}=C_{q+1}$. But then there exists an outer automorphism of order $t$ in $A_{\pi}$ centralizing the subgroup $A_{\pi^{\prime}}=C_{q+1}$ which is not the case.

Now we have proved that $G=A N=B N=A B$ and so $|N||A \cap B|=$ $|N \cap A||N \cap B||G / N|$. From now on $X$ and $Y$ will denote maximal soluble subgroups of $N$ such that $N \cap A \leq X$ and $N \cap B \leq Y$, respectively, and we will use [2, Lemma 2.5]. We check next that each of the possibilities for the group $N$ leads to a contradiction which will conclude the proof. Recall that we have excluded the cases $L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right), n \geq 2$, except if either $n=3$ or $r=2^{n}+1>5$ is a Fermat prime, and the cases $L_{2}(q), q$ odd, except if $q$ is a Mersenne prime.

- $N \cong L_{3}(3)$. In this case $|N|=3^{3} \cdot 2^{4} \cdot 13$ and $|\operatorname{Out}(N)|=2$. Moreover, $X$ and $Y$ should satisfy $\{|X|,|Y|\}=\left\{13 \cdot 3,3^{3} \cdot 2^{4}\right\}$. By order arguments $2^{3} \cdot 3^{3}$ divides either $|N \cap A|$ or $|N \cap B|$. Then, since a Sylow 3subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing, we have $\pi \cap \pi(G)=\{2,3\}$ and $\pi^{\prime} \cap \pi(G)=\{13\}$. Moreover, since a Sylow 13 -subgroup of $N$ is also self-centralizing, the case $|N \cap A|=13 \cdot 3$ is not possible and so $|N \cap A|=$ 13. Hence the case $G=N$ cannot occur and it follows $G \cong \operatorname{Aut}(G)$. But in this case, there would exist an automorphism of $N$ of order 2 centralizing a Sylow 13 -subgroup of $N$, which is not possible (see [6]).
- $N \cong \operatorname{PSp}_{4}(3)$. In this case $|N|=2^{6} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 5$ and $|\operatorname{Out}(N)|=2$. From [2, Lemma 2.5] it follows that $\{|X|,|Y|\}=\left\{2^{5} \cdot 5,3^{4} \cdot 2^{4}\right\}$. By order arguments we have that 2 and 5 divides either $|N \cap A|$ or $|N \cap B|$ and $3^{4}$ divides the other. Then $5 \in \pi$, because there are no 2 -elements in $N$ centralizing a Sylow 5 -subgroup of $N$. Also $3 \in \pi$, since a Sylow 3 -subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$. Consequently, $G$ is a $\pi$-group, which is a contradiction.
- $N \cong M_{11}$. In this case $G=N$ is simple and $\{|A|,|B|\}=\left\{55,2^{4} \cdot 3^{2}\right\}$, which gives a contradiction with the fact that $A_{\pi} \neq 1$ and $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$.
- $N \cong L_{3}(4)$ or $N \cong L_{3}(7)$. These cases can be excluded as said in the proof of Theorem 2.
- $N \cong L_{3}(5)$. By [2, Lemma 2.5], one of the numbers $|N \cap A|$ and $|N \cap B|$ divides $31 \cdot 3$ and the other divides $2^{4} \cdot 5^{3}$. Hence the case $G=N$ cannot occur by order arguments. So we may deduce that $G \cong \operatorname{Aut}(N)$ and $|G / N|=2$. Since a Sylow 5 -subgroup of $N$ is selfcentralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$, this forces the primes 2 and 5 to be in the same set of primes. Recall also that $2 \in \pi$ and $B$ is a $\pi$-group, so we have $|N \cap B|=2^{4} \cdot 5^{3}$ and $|N \cap A|=31 \cdot 3$. Since a Sylow 31-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$ (see [6]), we deduce that $A$ should be a $\pi$-group, which is a contradiction.
- $N \cong L_{3}(8)$. Now $|N|=2^{9} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 73,|\operatorname{Out}(N)|=2 \cdot 3$ and from $[2$, Lemma 2.5] it follows that one of the numbers $|N \cap A|$ and $|N \cap B|$ divides $73 \cdot 3$, and the other divides $2^{9} \cdot 7^{2}$. The cases $G=N$ and $|G / N|=2$ cannot occur by order arguments. Moreover, since $G / N$ is a $\pi$-group, we have $\{2,3\} \subseteq \pi$. The fact that $B$ is a $\pi$-group and a Sylow 73 -subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing forces that $\pi=\{2,3,73\}$ and $\pi^{\prime}=\{7\}$. The case $|G / N|=3$ and $|N \cap A|=2^{9} \cdot 7^{2}$ cannot occur since a Sylow 2 -subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing. So, $|G / N|=2 \cdot 3$
and $|N \cap A|=2^{8} \cdot 7^{2}$. But in this case $N \cap A$ would be a normal subgroup of a Borel subgroup of $N$ containing a central subgroup of order $7^{2}$ which is a contradiction.
- $N \cong L_{4}(2) \cong A_{8}$. This case is not possible because there is no factorization of $G$ with soluble factors.
- $N \cong U_{3}(8)$. Recall that $|N|=2^{9} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 7 \cdot 19,|\operatorname{Out}(N)|=2 \cdot 3^{2}$ and by [2, Lemma 2.5], it should be $|G| \geq|N| \cdot 3^{2}$. Moreover, $G / N$ is a $\pi$-group and $\{2,3\} \subseteq \pi$.
If $|G / N|=3^{2}$, then $\{|N \cap A|,|N \cap B|\}=\left\{3 \cdot 19,2^{9} \cdot 7 \cdot 3\right\}$, and so the fact that a Sylow 19-subgroup is self-centralizing in $N$ leads to $\pi \cap \pi(G)=\{2,3,19\}$. But if $\pi^{\prime} \cap \pi(G)=\{7\}$, there would be an element of order 7 in $N$ centralizing a Sylow 2 -subgroup of $N$, a contradiction.
Now assume that $|G / N|=2 \cdot 3^{2}$ and so $\{|N \cap A|,|N \cap B|\}=\{3$. $\left.19,2^{8} \cdot 7 \cdot 3\right\}$ or $\{|N \cap A|,|N \cap B|\}=\left\{3 \cdot 19,2^{9} \cdot 7 \cdot 3\right\}$. In any case it follows $19 \in \pi$, since a Sylow 19 -subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing. But $\pi^{\prime} \cap \pi(G)=\{7\}$ cannot occur again because this would mean in both cases that a Borel subgroup of $N$ would have a subgroup of order 7 centralizing a subgroup of order $2^{8}$, which is not possible.
- $N \cong L_{2}(q), q>3$ a Mersenne prime.

In this case, we know from [2, Lemma 2.5] that $|\operatorname{Out}(N)|=2$ and $\{X, Y\}=\left\{N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right), D_{q+1}\right\}$, with $N_{q} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{q}(N)$ and $D_{q+1}$ a dihedral group of order $q+1=2^{n}$, for some $n \geq 2$. (For $q=2^{3}-1=7$ there exist another factorization which will be considered later.)
Since $D_{q+1}$ is a 2-group, it follows that $N \cap A \subseteq N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right)$. Now by order arguments $q$ divides $|N \cap A|$. Since a Sylow $q$-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$, we deduce that $A$ is either a $\pi$-group or a $\pi^{\prime}$-group which is a contradiction.
If $q=7$, it might be also possible that $\{X, Y\}=\left\{N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right), S_{4}\right\}$ with $N_{q} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{q}(N)$ and $S_{4}$ the symmetric group of degree 4. Since $N_{q}$ is self-centralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$, we deduce that $N \cap B \subseteq N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right)$ and $N \cap A \subseteq S_{4}$. Then the factorization $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ with $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$ and $A_{\pi} \neq 1$ is not possible.

- $N \cong L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right)$, for either $n=3$ or $2^{n}+1>5$ a Fermat prime.

Set $q=2^{n}$. Recall that, in this case, $|N|=q\left(q^{2}-1\right)$, and $\operatorname{Out}(N)$ is a cyclic group of order $n$. From [2, Lemma 2.5] it follows that

$$
\{X, Y\}=\left\{N_{N}\left(N_{2}\right), D_{2(q+1)}\right\}, \text { with } N_{2} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{2}(N),\left|N_{N}\left(N_{2}\right)\right|=q(q-1)
$$ and $D_{2(q+1)}$ a dihedral group of order $2(q+1)$. Since the subgroups of prime order $q+1$ in $N$ are self-centralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$ and $q+1$ does not divide $|O u t(N)|$, we deduce that $N \cap A \not \leq D_{2(q+1)}$. Hence $N \cap A \leq N_{N}\left(N_{2}\right)$. But again the fact that a Sylow 2-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$ provides the final contradiction.

Remark. In [12, Final examples, 3] it has been shown that the conclusion of Theorem 3 is not true for the groups $L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right), n \geq 2$, except if either $n=3$ or $2^{n}+1$ is a Fermat prime.

Next we show that Theorem 3 is also false for groups involving $L_{2}(q)$, $q>3$ odd, except if $q$ is a Mersenne prime. (We note that $L_{2}(4) \cong L_{2}(5)$.) To see this we consider the group $G=P G L_{2}(q), q$ odd. Note that $\mid G$ : $L_{2}(q) \mid=2$. Thus $|G|=q\left(q^{2}-1\right)$ and it is known that this group has cyclic subgroups of orders $(q-1)$ and $(q+1)$. Then $G=A B$ where $A \cong C_{q+1}$ is a cyclic group of order $q+1$ and $B=N_{G}\left(G_{p}\right), G_{p} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)$, is a subgroup of order $q(q-1)$. Clearly $\pi(A) \cap \pi(B)=\{2\}$. Set $\left.\pi=\pi\left(N_{G}\left(G_{p}\right)\right)\right)$ and note that $2 \in \pi$. Then $A=O_{\pi}(A) \times O_{\pi^{\prime}}(A)$ is a $\pi$-decomposable group and $B$ is a $\pi$-group, but $O_{\pi}(A) B$ is not a subgroup, except if $q+1$ is a power of 2 , that is, $q$ is a Mersenne prime, in which case $G$ is a $\pi$-group.

As a consequence of Theorems 2 and 3 we deduce the following result for an arbitrary set of primes $\pi$.

Corollary 1. Let $\pi$ be a set of primes. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of two soluble $\pi$-decomposable subgroups $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and $B=B_{\pi} \times B_{\pi^{\prime}}$. Assume that the following simple groups are not involved in $G$ :
(i) $L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right), n \geq 2$, except if either $n=3$ or $q=2^{n}+1>5$ is a Fermat prime,
(ii) $L_{2}(q), q$ odd, except if $q$ is a Mersenne prime.

Then the composition factors of $G$ belong to one of the following types:

1) $\pi$-groups,
2) $\pi^{\prime}$-groups,
3) the following groups in the list of Fisman [7, Theorem 1.1]:
(i) $L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right), n \geq 2$, with either $n=3$ or $q=2^{n}+1>5$ is a Fermat prime,
(ii) $L_{2}(q)$ with $q>3$ and $q$ is a Mersenne prime,
(iii) $L_{3}(3)$,
(iv) $M_{11}$.

In particular, let the group $G=A B$ be the product of the two soluble $\pi$ decomposable subgroups $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and $B=B_{\pi} \times B_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and assume that the simple groups $L_{2}(q), q>3, L_{3}(3)$ and $M_{11}$ are not involved in $G$. Then the group $G$ is $\pi$-separable.

Proof. The last statement of the corollary follows directly from the first part. Assume that this one is not true and let $G$ be a counterexample of minimal order. Since $G / M$ satisfies the corresponding hypotheses for each normal subgroup $M$, we may assume that $G$ has a unique minimal normal subgroup, say $N$. We can also deduce that $O_{\pi^{\prime}}(G)=O_{\pi}(G)=1$, and so $N$ is non-abelian. Assume, for instance, that $2 \in \pi^{\prime}$. From Theorem 2 we have that $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}=B_{\pi} A_{\pi}$ and, by Lemma 2, we deduce that $\left[A_{\pi}^{G}, B_{\pi}^{G}\right]=1$, which is a contradiction to the fact that $N$ is non-abelian, unless either $A_{\pi}=1$ or $B_{\pi}=1$. Now applying Theorem 3 in a similar way we deduce that either $A_{\pi^{\prime}}=1$ or $B_{\pi^{\prime}}=1$. Then, in any of the cases, $G$ would be the product of a $\pi$-group and a $\pi^{\prime}$-group and the conclusion follows from [7, Theorem 1.1].

Acknowledgements. The second and third author have been supported by Proyecto MTM2007-68010-C03-03, Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia and FEDER, Spain. The first author would like to thank the Universitat de València and the Universidad Politécnica de Valencia for their warm hospitality during the preparation of this paper. They are also grateful to B. Amberg for interesting suggestions during the visit of the first author to Mainz (Germany).

## References

[1] B. Amberg, S. Franciosi and F. de Giovanni, "Products of Groups", Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1992.
[2] B. Amberg and L. S. Kazarin, On finite products of soluble groups, Israel J. Math. 106 (1998), 93-108.
[3] Z. Arad and D. Chillag, Finite groups containing a nilpotent Hall subgroup of even order, Houston J. Math. 7 (1981), 23-32.
[4] Ta. G. Berkovich, Generalization of the theorems of Carter and Wielandt, Sov. Math. Dokl. 7 (1966), 1525-1529.
[5] R. Carter, "Simple groups of Lie type", Wiley, London, 1972.
[6] J. H. Conway, R. T. Curtis, S. P. Norton, R. A. Parker, R. A. Wilson, "Atlas of Finite Groups", Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1985; http://brauer.maths.qmul.ac.uk/Atlas/v3/
[7] E. Fisman, On the product of two finite solvable groups, J. Algebra 80 (1983), 517-536.
[8] F. Gross, Conjugacy of odd order Hall subgroups, Bull. London Math. Soc. 19 (1987), 311-319.
[9] L. S. Kazarin, Criteria for the nonsimplicity of factorable groups, Izv. Akad. Nauk SSSR, Ser. Mat. 44 (1980), 288-308.
[10] L. S. Kazarin, On groups which are the product of two soluble groups, Comm. Algebra 14 (1986), 1001-1066.
[11] L. S. Kazarin, On a problem of Szép, Math. USSR Izvestiya 28 (1987), 467-495.
[12] L. S. Kazarin, A. Martínez-Pastor and M. D. Pérez-Ramos, On the product of a $\pi$-group and a $\pi$-decomposable group, J. Algebra 315 (2007), 640-653.
[13] O. H. Kegel, Produkte nilpotenter Gruppen, Arch. Math. 12 (1961), 90-93.
[14] P. J. Rowley, The $\pi$-separability of certain factorizable groups, Math. Z. 153 (1977), 219-228.
[15] H. Wielandt, Vertauschbarkeit von Untergruppen und Subnormalität, Math. Z. 133 (1973), 275-276.

L. S. Kazarin,<br>Department of Mathematics, Yaroslavl P. Demidov State University, Sovetskaya Str 14, 150014 Yaroslavl, Russia<br>e-mail: Kazarin@uniyar.ac.ru

A. Martínez-Pastor,

Escuela Técnica Superior de Informática Aplicada,

Departamento de Matemática Aplicada e IMPA-UPV, Universidad Politécnica de Valencia, Camino de Vera, s/n, 46022 Valencia, Spain
e-mail: anamarti@mat.upv.es
M. D. Pérez-Ramos,

Departament d'Àlgebra, Universitat de València,
C/ Doctor Moliner 50, 46100 Burjassot (València), Spain e-mail: Dolores.Perez@uv.es

