# WHAT IS THE PROBABILITY THAT TWO ELEMENTS OF A FINITE GROUP COMMUTE? 

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#### Abstract

We consider the probability that two elements of a finite group commute. Explicit computations are obtained for groups $G$ with $G^{\prime} \leqq Z(G)$ and $G^{\prime} \cap Z(G)=\{1\}$. We classify the groups for which this probability is above $11 / 32$.


I. Introduction. All groups considered will be supposed finite. We will denote by $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ the probability that two elements of the group $G$, chosen randomly with replacement, commute. (This will loosely be called the "probability of $G^{n}$.) That is,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(G)=\frac{\text { Number of ordered pairs }(x, y) \in G \times G \text { such that } x y=y x}{\text { Total number of ordered pairs }(x, y) \in G \times G}
$$

This concept has been considered by several authors, as indicated in the bibliography. The most important formula we will need is that $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=(k /|G|)$, where $k=k(G)$ is the number of conjugacy classes in $G$.

Let us fix our notation. If $H$ is a subset (resp. subgroup, normal subgroup) of $G$, we write $H \cong G(\operatorname{resp} . H \leqq G, H \leqq G)$. For any element $x$ of $G,[G, x]$ is a subset of $G^{\prime}$, while for any subset $H$ of $G,[G, H]$ is the subgroup generated by all $[G, x]$ with $x \in H$. We write $C(H)$ and $N(H)$ for the centalizer and normalizer of a subgroup $H \leqq G$. We denote the center and derived subgroups of $G$ by $Z(G)$ and $G^{\prime}$, respectively.

For any subset $H \subseteq G$, let us write $H^{*}=\{x \in G:[G, x] \subseteq H\}=$ $\left(G^{\prime} \cap H\right)^{*}$. If $H$ is a normal subgroup, then it is easy to check that $H^{*} / H=Z(G / H)$; in particular, $H^{*}$ is a subgroup of $G$. The ( )* operation is meant as a partial inverse to the ( $)^{\prime}$ operation, since $\left(H^{*}\right)^{\prime} \subseteq H, H \subseteq\left(H^{\prime}\right)^{*}$, and $\left(G^{\prime}\right)^{*}=G$ (in fact, $\left(\left(H^{*}\right)^{\prime}\right)^{*}=H^{*}$ ). Note that $H_{1} \subseteq H_{2}$ implies $H_{1}^{*} \subseteq H_{2}^{*}$ and that $\{1\}^{*}=Z(G)$.
II. Groups of nilpotence class 2. When $G^{\prime} \leqq Z(G)$, we can compute $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ in terms of the group structure in $G$. If we write $G=$ $G_{2} \times G_{3} \times \cdots$, where $G_{p}$ is a $p$-group, then we need only examine $\operatorname{Pr}\left(G_{p}\right)$ for each $p$, and use the general formula $\operatorname{Pr}(H \times K)=\operatorname{Pr}(H)$. $\operatorname{Pr}(K)$, as noted in [4]. Thus, assume in what follows that $G$ is a $p$-group with $G^{\prime} \leqq Z(G)$.

In this case, the subset $[G, x]$ is actually a subgroup, since $[y, x]\left[y^{\prime}, x\right]=\left[y^{\prime} y, x\right]$. Thus, when considering the possibilities for
$[G, x]$, we need only consider the subgroups of $G^{\prime}$; hence when we speak of $H^{*}$ here, it will be assumed that $H$ is a group. Since $H \leqq Z, H \leqq G$; so as noted earlier, $H^{*}$ is a group. Since $G$ is a $p$-group, both $|H|$ and $\left|H^{*}\right|$ are powers of $p$.

For brevity, set $\bar{H}=H^{*}-\mathrm{U}_{\bar{x}<H} K^{*}$ (that is, $\bar{H}$ is the set of all elements for which $[G, x]=H$ precisely, and not any proper subgroup). We then have $H^{*}=\mathrm{U}_{\overline{K \leq H}} \bar{K}$ disjointly, so that $\left|H^{*}\right|=$ $\sum_{K \leq H}|\bar{K}|$ for any $H \leqq G^{\prime}$.

Now, given any partially ordered lattice, there exists a function $m$ (the Möbius Inversion function [6]) such that whenever two functions $f$ and $g$ are such that

$$
g(x)=\sum_{y \leqq x} f(y), \text { then } f(x)=\sum_{y \leqq x} m(x, y) g(y) .
$$

Applying this to the lattice of subgroups of $G^{\prime}$ and to the functions $f=\left|\left({ }^{-}\right)\right|$and $g=\left|()^{*}\right|$, we get that $|\bar{H}|=\sum_{x \leq H} m(K, H)\left|K^{*}\right|$.

Next, the elements of $\bar{H}$ each have $|H|$ conjugates, so the total number of conjugacy classes of $G$ is $\sum_{H \leq \sigma^{\prime}}(\bar{H} /|H|)$, and thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}(G) & =\frac{k}{|G|}=\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{H \leq G^{\prime}} \frac{|\bar{H}|}{|H|} \\
& =\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{H \leq G^{\prime}} \frac{1}{|H|}\left(\sum_{K \leq H} m(K, H)\left|K^{*}\right|\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{K \leq G^{\prime}}\left|K^{*}\right|\left(\sum_{K \leq H \leq G^{\prime}} \frac{m(K, H)}{|H|}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The Möbius functions for the subgroup lattices of $p$-groups have been completely worked out [16]: If $K$ is not normal in $H, m(K, H)=0$; otherwise, $m(K, H)=m(1, H / K)=m\left(1, H^{0}\right)$, say. Since the lattice of subgroups of $G^{\prime}$ containing $K$ is isomorphic to the lattice of subgroups of $G^{\prime} / K$, we get

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(G)=\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{K \leqslant G^{\prime}}\left|K^{*}\right|\left(\sum_{H^{0} \leqslant\left(G^{\prime} \mid K\right)} \frac{1}{|K| \cdot\left|H^{0}\right|} m\left(1, H^{0}\right)\right) .
$$

It is also shown in [16] that $m\left(1, H^{0}\right)$ for $p$-groups is zero unless $H^{0}$ is an elementary abelian $p$-group of order $p^{i}$, say; in that case $m\left(1, H^{0}\right)=(-1)^{i} p^{i(i-1) / 2}$. Therefore, the only terms that contribute to the above sum are those for which $H^{0}$ is an elementary abelian $p$-subgroup of $\left(G^{\prime} \mid K\right)$. If we let $L$ be the subgroup of elements of order $\leqq p$ in $G^{\prime} / K$, then the formula above becomes

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(G)=\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{K \leqq G^{\prime}} \frac{\left|K^{*}\right|}{|K|}\left(\sum_{H^{0} \leqq L} \frac{m\left(1, H^{0}\right)}{\left|H^{0}\right|}\right)
$$

This $L$ is isomorphic to a vector space of dimension $n$ over $G F(p)$. If $\left[\begin{array}{l}n \\ j\end{array}\right]$ denotes the number of subgroups of order $p^{j}$ (sub-
spaces of dimension $j$ ) then we have [6] $\left[\begin{array}{l}n \\ j\end{array}\right]=p^{j} \cdot\left[\begin{array}{cc}n-1 \\ j\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{l}n-1 \\ j-1\end{array}\right]$ and $\left[\begin{array}{l}n \\ 0\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}n \\ n\end{array}\right]=1$. Thus, if $\left(C_{p}\right)^{i}$ denotes the direct product of $i$ copies of the cyclic group of order $p$, then

$$
\sum_{H^{0} \leq L} \frac{m\left(1, H^{0}\right)}{\left|H^{0}\right|}=\sum_{i=0}^{n} m\left(1,\left(C_{p}\right)^{i}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{p^{i}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n \\
i
\end{array}\right]=\sum_{i=0}^{n}(-1)^{i} p^{i(i-3) / 2}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n \\
i
\end{array}\right] .
$$

For $n=0$, this comes out to 1 , while for $n=1$, it is $1-(1 / p)$. For $n \geqq 2$, it becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
&(-1)^{0} p^{0(0-3) / 2}\left[\begin{array}{l}
n \\
0
\end{array}\right]+\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}(-1)^{i} p^{i(i-3) / 2}\left[\begin{array}{l}
n \\
i
\end{array}\right]+(-1)^{n} p^{n(n-3) / 2}\left[\begin{array}{l}
n \\
n
\end{array}\right] \\
&= 1+(-1)^{n} p^{n(n-3) / 2}+\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}(-1)^{i} p^{i(i-3) / 2}\left(p^{i}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n-1 \\
i
\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{c}
n-1 \\
i-1
\end{array}\right]\right) \\
&= 1+(-1)^{n} p^{n(n-3) / 2}+\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}(-1)^{i} p^{i(i-3) / 2} \cdot p^{i}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n-1 \\
i
\end{array}\right] \\
&-\sum_{i=0}^{n-2}(-1)^{i} p^{(i+1) / i-2) / 2}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n-1 \\
i
\end{array}\right] \\
&= 1+(-1)^{n} p^{n(n-3) / 2}-(-1)^{0} p^{0(0-3) / 2} \cdot p^{0}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n-1 \\
0
\end{array}\right] \\
&+(-1)^{n-1} p^{n(n-3) / 2}\left[\begin{array}{l}
n-1 \\
n-1
\end{array}\right]+\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}(-1)^{i} p^{i(i-1) / 2}\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)\left[\begin{array}{c}
n-1 \\
i
\end{array}\right] \\
&=\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)_{i=0}^{n-1} m\left(1,\left(C_{p}\right)^{i}\right) \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
n-1 \\
i
\end{array}\right] \\
&=\left(1-\frac{1}{p}\right)_{I I \leq\left(C_{p}\right) n-1} m(1, H) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This last sum may be evaluated. Define a function on the subgroups of $\left(C_{p}\right)^{n-1}$ by $f(\{1\})=1, f(H)=0$ if $H \neq\{1\}$; then define the function $g(H)=\sum_{K \leqq H} f(K)$, which is identically equal to 1 . If we apply the Möbius Inversion formula to this pair of functions, we get $f(H)=\sum_{K \leqq H} m(K, H) g(K)$. Since $n \geqq 2,\left(C_{p}\right)^{n-1} \neq\{1\}$, so that

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =f\left(\left(C_{p}\right)^{n-1}\right) \\
& =\sum_{K \leqq\left(C_{p}\right)^{n-1}} m\left(K, C_{p}^{n-1}\right) \cdot g(K) \\
& =\sum_{K \leqq\left(C_{p}\right)^{n-1}} m\left(1, C_{p}^{n-1} / K\right) \cdot 1 \\
& =\sum_{H \leqq\left(C_{p}\right)^{n-1}} m(1, H) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We have thus evaluated $\sum_{H^{0} \leqslant L}\left(m\left(1, H^{0}\right) /\left|H^{0}\right|\right)$. First, if $n=0$, ( $L=\{1\}$ ), it equals 1 ; this is equivalent to $G^{\prime} / K$ having no elements
of order $p$, and hence that $K=G^{\prime}$. Second, if $n=1$, the sum is $1-(1 / p)$. This happens just when $G^{\prime} / K$ has a unique subgroup of order $p$; since it is already abelian, $G^{\prime} / K$ is then cyclic and nontrivial. Finally, if $n \geqq 2$ (that is, all other cases), the sum is zero. Therefore, our formula for $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ becomes

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(G)=\frac{1}{|G|} \cdot \sum_{K \leqq G^{\prime}} \frac{\left|K^{*}\right|}{|K|} \cdot \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } K=G^{\prime} \\ 1-(1 / p) & \text { if } G^{\prime} / K \text { is nontrivial cyclic } \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

We know that $K^{*}$ is a subgroup of $G$, and hence its order is a power of $p$; therefore let us write $\left|K^{*}\right|=|G| / p^{n(K)}$. Then our result is:
(1) Theorem. If $G$ is a p-group with $G^{\prime} \leqq Z(G)$, then

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(G)=\frac{1}{\left|G^{\prime}\right|}\left(1+\sum_{\substack{G^{\prime} / K \\ \text { cyclic }}} \frac{(p-1) \cdot\left[G^{\prime}: K\right] / p}{p^{n(K)}}\right)
$$

Now we look for some limiting conditions on the exponents $n(K)$. We write $n\left(K_{i}\right)=n_{i}$ when the subgroups are indexed. These are nonnegative integers, with $n(K)=0$ iff $K=G^{\prime}$. Furthermore, since we know $K_{1} \leqq K_{2}$ implies $\left(K_{1}\right)^{*} \leqq\left(K_{2}\right)^{*}$, we must have $n_{1} \geqq n_{2}$ in this case.

Next, if $K_{i}=K_{j} \cap K_{k}$ and $K_{j}, K_{k} \leqq K_{l}$, then we have ( $K_{j} K_{k}$ ) $\leqq K_{l}$, so $K_{j}^{*} K_{k}^{*} \leqq\left(K_{j} K_{k}\right)^{*} \leqq K_{l}^{*}$ and $K_{v}^{*} \cap K_{k}^{*}=K_{i}^{*}$. Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{|G|}{p^{n_{l}}} & =\left|K_{l}^{*}\right| \geqq\left|K_{j}^{*} K_{k}^{*}\right|=\frac{\left|K_{j}^{*}\right| \cdot\left|K_{l}^{*}\right|}{\left|K_{j}^{*} \cap K_{k}^{*}\right|}=\frac{\left|K_{j}^{*}\right| \cdot\left|K_{k}^{*}\right|}{\left|K_{i}^{*}\right|} \\
& =\left(\frac{|G|}{p^{n_{j}}}\right) \cdot\left(\frac{|G|}{p^{n_{k}}}\right) /\left(\frac{|G|}{p^{n_{i}}}\right)=\frac{|G|}{p^{n_{j}+n_{k}-n_{i}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

so that we get $n_{j}+n_{k} \geqq n_{i}+n_{l}$.
We also have the following
(2) Proposition. If $H$ is a p-group with $H^{\prime} \leqq Z(H)$ and $H^{\prime}$ cyclic, then $H / Z(H) \cong \Pi_{i}\left(C_{p^{n_{i}}} \times C_{p^{n_{i}}}\right)$ with all $n_{i} \leqq k$, and $n_{1}=k$. (where, $p^{k}=\left|H^{\prime}\right|$.) In particular, $[H: Z(H)]$ is a square, and is at least $\left|H^{\prime}\right|^{2}$.

Before giving the proof, let us indicate why we need Proposition 2. We will use it on Theorem 1 as follows. Recall that $n(K)$ was defined so that $|G| / p^{n(k)}=\left|K^{*}\right|$. Thus,

$$
p^{n(K)}=\left|G / K^{*}\right|=\frac{|G / K|}{\left|K^{*} / K\right|}=[H: Z(H)]
$$

where $H=G / K$. Note that $H^{\prime}=G^{\prime} / K$ is cyclic for the subgroups $K$ appearing in Theorem 1, and $H^{\prime} \leqq Z(G) / K \leqq K^{*} / K=Z(H)$. Hence by Proposition 2, all the $n(K)$ in Theorem 1 are even, and $p^{n(K)} \geqq$ $\left[G^{\prime}: K\right]^{2}$.

Proof of Proposition 2. We prove this by induction on the rank $r$ of the abelian group $H / Z(H)$. The proposition is certainly true if $r=0$. On the other hand, since $H / Z(H)$ is never cyclic, $r \neq 1$. Hence, we may assume $r \geqq 2$. Write $H / Z(H)=\left\langle a_{1} Z\right\rangle \times\left\langle a_{2} Z\right\rangle \times \cdots \times$ $\left\langle a_{r} Z\right\rangle$.

Because $H$ is generated by $Z(H)$ and the $a_{i}$, and $H^{\prime} \leqq Z(H)$, we have

$$
H^{\prime}=\left\langle\left[a_{i}, a_{j}\right]: 1 \leqq i, j \leqq r\right\rangle
$$

Since $H^{\prime}$ is cyclic of order $p^{k}$, this implies in particular that some [ $a_{i}, a_{j}$ ] has order $p^{k}$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $c=\left[a_{1}, a_{2}\right]$ is such an element. Since $c \in Z(H),\left[a_{1}^{m}, a_{j}\right]=\left[a_{1}, a_{j}\right]^{m}$; so since $\left[a_{1}, a_{j}\right]^{p k}=1$ for all $j$ but $\left[a_{1}, a_{2}\right]^{p k-1} \neq 1, a_{1}^{p^{k}} \in Z(H)$ but $a_{1}^{p k-1} \notin$ $Z(H)$. Therefore, $\left\langle a_{1} Z\right\rangle \cong C_{p k}$. Similarly, $\left\langle a_{2} Z\right\rangle \cong C_{p k}$.

Since $c$ generates $H^{\prime}$, for each $i$ and $j$ we may write $\left[a_{i}, a_{j}\right]=$ $c^{e_{j i}}$. Then if we set $b_{i}=a_{i} a_{2}^{-e_{1 i}} a_{1}^{e_{2 i}}$ for each $i>2$, we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[a_{1}, b_{i}\right] } & =\left[a_{1}, a_{i}\right]\left[a_{1}, a_{2}\right]^{-e_{1 i}}\left[a_{1}, a_{1}\right]^{e_{2 i}} \\
& =c^{e_{1 i}} c^{-e_{1 i}}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

and similarly $\left[a_{2}, b_{i}\right]=1$. Since $\left\langle a_{i}\right\rangle \cap\left\langle a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle \leqq Z(H)$, the order of $b_{i} Z(H)$ is the same as that of $a_{i} Z(H)$; from this it is easy to check that

$$
H / Z(H)=\left\langle a_{1} Z\right\rangle \times\left\langle a_{2} Z\right\rangle \times\left\langle b_{3} Z\right\rangle \times \cdots \times\left\langle b_{r} Z\right\rangle
$$

Now let $K \leqq H$ be the subgroup $K=\left\langle Z(H), b_{3}, b_{4}, \cdots, b_{r}\right\rangle$. It is clear that $Z(H) \subseteq Z(K)$; but conversely, since $H=\left\langle K, a_{1}, a_{2}\right\rangle$ and $\left[a_{1}, b_{i}\right]=\left[a_{2}, b_{i}\right]=1$, we have $Z(K) \subseteq Z(H)$. Thus we may use the inductive hypothesis on $K$ :
(1) $K^{\prime} \cong H^{\prime}$, so $K^{\prime}$ is cyclic
(2) $K^{\prime} \cong H^{\prime} \cong Z(H)=Z(K)$
(3) $K \subseteq H$ is also a $p$-group
(4) $K / Z(K)=K / Z(H)=\left\langle b_{3} Z\right\rangle \times \cdots \times\left\langle b_{r} Z\right\rangle$ has rank $r-2<r$. So, we may assume $K / Z(K) \cong \Pi\left(C_{p n_{i}} \times C_{p^{n_{i}}}\right)$ for some set of $n_{i}$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
H / Z(H) & =\left\langle a_{1} Z\right\rangle \times\left\langle a_{2} Z\right\rangle \times\left\langle b_{3} Z\right\rangle \times \cdots \times\left\langle b_{r} Z\right\rangle \\
& \cong\left(C_{p^{k}} \times C_{p^{k}}\right) \times \Pi\left(C_{p^{n_{i}}} \times C_{p^{n_{i}}}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

as desired.
III. Groups with $G^{\prime} \cap Z(G)=\{1\}$. Now let us turn to the opposite extreme, where $G^{\prime} \cap Z(G)=\{1\}$. We need a
(3) Proposition. If $N \leqq G$ and $N \cap G^{\prime}=\{1\}$, then $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=$ $\operatorname{Pr}(G / N)$.

Proof. From [8], it suffices to show that $\operatorname{Pr}(L)=\operatorname{Pr}(L / N)$. $\operatorname{Pr}(N)$ for all subgroups $L=\langle N, g, h\rangle$ where $[g, h] \in N$. But all such $L$ are abelian: $L^{\prime}$ is generated by the conjugates of $[N, N],[N, g]$, $[N, h]$, and $[g, h]$, while each of these lies in $N \cap G^{\prime}=\{1\}$. Thus, $N \leqq L$ and $L / N$ are also abelian, so that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(L)=\operatorname{Pr}(L / N) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(N)=1
$$

We may use this proposition in our case to conclude that $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=$ $\operatorname{Pr}(G / Z)$; moreover, $(G / Z)^{\prime}=\left(G^{\prime} Z\right) / Z=\left(G^{\prime} \times Z\right) / Z \cong G^{\prime}$, and also $Z(G / Z)=$ $\left(G^{\prime} \cap Z\right)^{*} / Z=\{1\}^{*} / Z=Z / Z$. Thus, $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=\operatorname{Pr}(K)$ for some group with $K^{\prime} \cong G^{\prime}$, and $Z(K)=\{1\}$. Therefore, we must merely look for $\operatorname{Pr}(K)$ for all such groups $K$.
(4) Proposition. For any given $G^{\prime}$, then are at most a finite number of groups $K$ with $K^{\prime} \cong G^{\prime}$ and $Z(K)=\{1\}$.

Proof. This will follows from the " $N$ over $C$ " theorem [5, p. 20], which gives us that $L=K / C\left(K^{\prime}\right)=N\left(K^{\prime}\right) / C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. Now, $L^{\prime}=K^{\prime} C\left(K^{\prime}\right) / C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, so that we have an abelian group $L / L^{\prime}=\left(K / C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right) /\left(K^{\prime} C\left(K^{\prime}\right) / C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right) \cong K /\left(K^{\prime} C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right)$; if $n=\operatorname{rank}\left(L / L^{\prime}\right)$, then $K /\left(K^{\prime} C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right)$ can be generated by $n$ elements $x_{i}\left(K^{\prime} C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right)$ with $x_{i} \in K$.

Now we can use the result of P. Hall [5, p. 266] which states that $\left[C\left(K^{\prime}\right), C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right] \leqq Z(K)$. In our case, this means that $\left[C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right]^{\prime} \leqq$ $Z(K)=\{1\}$, i.e., $C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ is abelian; so if $y \in C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, then $\left[K^{\prime} C\left(K^{\prime}\right), y\right]=$ $\{1\}$. Since $K=\left\langle x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}, K^{\prime} C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right\rangle$, this means that if $y \in C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ commutes with each $x_{i}(1 \leqq i \leqq n)$ then $y \in Z(K)=\{1\}$.

Therefore, for $y_{1}, y_{2} \in C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, if $\left[y_{1}, x_{i}\right]=\left[y_{2}, x_{i}\right]$ for each $i$, then $y_{1} x_{i} y_{1}^{-1}=y_{2} x_{i} y_{2}^{-1}$, so that $y_{2}^{-1} y_{1}$ commutes with each $x_{i}$, and hence from the above we know $y_{2}^{-1} y_{1}=1$, or $y_{1}=y_{2}$. This tells us that $\left|C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right|$ is at most equal to the number of values the $n$-tuple $\left\{\left[y, x_{i}\right], 1 \leqq i \leqq n\right\}$ assumes as $y$ ranges over $C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, which is therefore at most

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{n}\left|\left[C\left(K^{\prime}\right), x_{i}\right]\right| \leqq \prod_{i}\left|\left[K, x_{i}\right]\right| \leqq\left|K^{\prime}\right|^{n}
$$

Then, from $|K|=\left|C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right| \cdot\left|K / C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right|$, we have that $|K| \leqq\left|K^{\prime}\right|^{n} \cdot|L| \leqq$ $\left|K^{\prime}\right|^{\mid \operatorname{Aut}\left(K^{\prime}\right)}| |$ Aut $\left(K^{\prime}\right) \mid$. Hence, with a given commutator subgroup $G^{\prime}$, the orders of groups $K$ with $K^{\prime} \cong G^{\prime}$ and $Z(K)=\{1\}$ are bounded by a function of $G^{\prime}$ alone. This justifies the claim that there are only a finite number of such groups.

There are further restrictions when $Z(K)=\{1\}$. For example, no element $x$ in $K^{\prime}$ except $x=1$ can be fixed under each automorphism of $L \leqq \operatorname{Aut}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, since that would mean $k x k^{-1}=x$ for all $k \in K$, and then $x \in Z(K)=\{1\}$. Furthermore, $L=K / C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ is abelian iff $K^{\prime} \leqq$ $C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$, i.e., iff $K^{\prime}$ is abelian. In that case, we must have $\left|K^{\prime}\right|$ dividing $\left|C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right|$. In particular, if $n=1$, then $\left|K^{\prime}\right| \leqq\left|C\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right| \leqq\left|K^{\prime}\right|$, and so $K^{\prime}=C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. (Actually, this is even true when $n>1$.)

We may use these observations on a specific class of groups to get more detailed information than that supplied by Proposition 4. For example,
(5) Proposition. If $K^{\prime}$ is cyclic of prime order $p$, and $Z(K)=$ $\{1\}$, then $K=\left\langle a, b: a^{p}=b^{n}=1, b a b^{-1}=a^{r}\right\rangle$, where $n \mid(p-1)$ and $r^{j} \equiv$ $1 \bmod p i f f n \mid j$.

Proof. Write $K^{\prime}=\langle a\rangle$. Then $\operatorname{Aut}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ is cyclic, so that $n=1$ and $K^{\prime}=C\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ as noted above. Further, $L \leqq$ Aut ( $K^{\prime}$ ) is also cyclic, say $L=\left\langle b K^{\prime}\right\rangle$. We write $|L|=n$ and note that $n$ divides $\left|\operatorname{Aut}\left(K^{\prime}\right)\right|=$ $p-1$. From $|L|=n$ have $b^{n} \in K^{\prime}=\langle a\rangle$, say, $b^{n}=a^{s}$. If $s \neq 0$, then $\langle b\rangle=\langle b, a\rangle=K$, so $K$ would be cyclic, and then would not have trivial center. Thus we have $s=0$, and $b^{n}=1$. Next, note that $K^{\prime} \leqq K$ implies $b a b^{-1} \in\langle a\rangle$, say $b a b^{-1}=a^{r}$. If $r^{\cdot j} \equiv 1 \bmod p$, then $b^{j} a b^{-j}=a^{r^{j}}=a$, so $b^{j}$ commutes with $\langle b\rangle$ and with $\langle a\rangle$, so $b^{j} \in Z=\{1\}$, and $j \equiv 0(\bmod n)$.

These are known as metacyclic groups. We remark that by computing the number of commuting pairs of elements by brute force, one sees that $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=\left(n^{2}+p-1\right) / n^{2} p$.

There are some cases in which there are no $K$ with $K^{\prime} \cong G^{\prime}$ and $Z(K)=\{1\}$. As noted before, this happens if there is an $x \in G^{\prime}-\{1\}$ fixed under each automorphism in $L \leqq \operatorname{Aut}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$. One common case in which this occurs is when $G^{\prime}$ is isomorphic to $C_{2^{n}}, n \geqq 1$; since $G^{\prime}$ has a unique element of order 2 , that element is fixed under all automorphisms, and hence must lie in $Z(G)$. This also happens if $G^{\prime} \cong C_{6}$.
IV. Groups with $\operatorname{Pr}(G)>11 / 32$. In some cases it is possible to find the possible set of values of $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ in a given interval. We shall do this for the interval (11/32, 1]. We the use "degree equation" from character theory [5, Chapter 5]. It states that $|G|=\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}^{2}$, where $k$ is the number of conjugacy classes of $G$, and the $n_{i}$ are positive integers; precisely [ $G: G^{\prime}$ ] of these are equal to 1 . So,

$$
\begin{aligned}
|G| & =\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]+\sum_{\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]+1}^{k} n_{i}^{2} \\
& \geqq\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]+4\left(k-\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]\right) \\
& =4 k-3\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

so that

$$
k \leqq \frac{1}{4}\left(|G|+3\left[G: G^{\prime}\right]\right),
$$

and so

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}(G) \leqq \frac{1}{4}+\frac{3}{4} \frac{1}{\left|G^{\prime}\right|} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation 6 enables us in principle to determine all possible values for $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ greater than any fraction $p_{0}$, as long as $p_{0}>1 / 4$; we merely find all values of $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ for those groups for which $G^{\prime}$ is one of the groups of order less than $3 /\left(4 p_{0}-1\right)$. For example, to compute the values of $\operatorname{Pr}(G)>11 / 32$, we need only consider those $G$ of order less than 8 , viz. $G^{\prime}=\{1\}, C_{2}, C_{3}, C_{4}, C_{2}, \times C_{2}, C_{5}, C_{6}, S_{3}$, and $C_{7}$. (The reason we stop at $11 / 32$ is because continuing further would require a consideration of the groups of order 8. There are many of these, including some nonabelian ones, so we avoid them altogether.)
$G^{\prime}=\{1\}$ means $G$ is abelian, so $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=1$. On the other hand, $G^{\prime} \cong S_{3}$ is impossible, since $S_{3}$ is a complete group and $S_{3} \neq S_{3}^{\prime \prime}$ [13]. Thus, we need only consider the seven remaining cases.

It turns out that even for a given $G^{\prime}$, the different possibilities for $G^{\prime} \cap Z(G)$ require separate discussions. Since $G^{\prime} \cap Z(G)$ is a subgroup of $G^{\prime}$, we must investigate the following combinations:

| $G^{\prime}$ | $C_{2}$ | $C_{3}$ | $C_{4}$ | $C_{2} \times C_{2}$ | $C_{5}$ | $C_{6}$ | $C_{7}$ |
| :---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $G^{\prime} \cap Z(G)$ | $\{1\}$ | $\{1\}$ | $\{1\}$ | $\{1\}$ | $\{1\}$ | $\{1\}$ | $\{1\}$ |
|  | $C_{2}$ | $C_{3}$ | $C_{2}$ | $C_{2}$ | $C_{5}$ | $C_{2}$ | $C_{7}$ |
|  |  |  | $C_{4}$ | $C_{2} \times C_{2}$ |  | $C_{3}$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | $C_{6}$ |  |

Case 1. $G^{\prime}<Z(G)$. A method for computing the probabilities for such groups was given in II.

For $G^{\prime} \cong C_{p}$ with $p$ a prime, the only proper subgroup of $G^{\prime}$ is $\{1\}$, which has index $p$, so that $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=1 / p \cdot\left(1+(p-1) / p^{2 n}\right)$ for some $n$, where $G / Z(G) \cong C_{p}^{2 n}$ by Proposition 2. For $p=2$, we have the infinite family of values $1 / 2 \cdot\left(1+1 / 2^{2 n}\right)$. For $p=3$, only $n=1$ gives a value ( $=11 / 27$ ) greater than $11 / 32$. For $p=5$ and $p=7$, all the values of $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ are too small.

For $G^{\prime}=C_{6} \cong C_{2} \times C_{3}$, we know that $G$ is nilpotent, say $G=$ $H_{2} \times H_{3}$ where $H_{2}^{\prime}=C_{2}$ and $H_{3}^{\prime}=C_{3}$. Taking the probabilities from the last paragraph, we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(G)=\frac{1}{2} \cdot\left(1+\frac{1}{2^{2 n}}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{3}\left(1+\frac{1}{3^{2 m}}\right) \leqq \frac{5}{8} \cdot \frac{11}{27}<\frac{11}{32} .
$$

For $G^{\prime}=C_{4}$, the only subgroups in the lattice are $C_{4}, C_{2}$, and $\{1\}$; Theorem 1 becomes

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(G)=\frac{1}{4} \cdot\left(1+\frac{1}{2^{2 m}}+\frac{2}{2^{2 n}}\right)
$$

with $2^{2 n} \geqq\left[G^{\prime}:\{1\}\right]^{2}=16,2^{2 m} \geqq\left[G^{\prime}: C_{2}\right]^{2}=4$, so that $\operatorname{Pr}(G) \leqq 11 / 32$.
For $G^{\prime}=C_{2} \times C_{2}$, Theorem 1 becomes

$$
\frac{1}{4} \cdot\left(1+\frac{1}{2^{2 n_{1}}}+\frac{1}{2^{2 n_{2}}}+\frac{1}{2^{2 n_{3}}}\right)
$$

Taking $n_{1} \geqq n_{2} \geqq n_{3}$ for definiteness, we must also have $n_{2}+n_{3} \geqq n_{1}$, so that $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=7 / 16\left(n_{1}=n_{2}=n_{3}=1\right)$ and $25 / 64\left(n_{1}=2, n_{2}=n_{3}=1\right)$ are the only values greater than $11 / 32$.

Case 2. $G^{\prime} \cap Z(G)=\{1\}$. We saw at the end of III that the unique element of order 2 must lie in the center of $G$ if $G^{\prime} \cong C_{2}, C_{4}$, or $C_{6}$, so that these cases lead to a contradiction. (This also rules out the combination $G^{\prime} \cong C_{6}, G^{\prime} \cap Z(G) \cong C_{3}$.) If $G^{\prime}=C_{2} \times C_{2}$, then as in III, we may find that $G / Z(G) \cong A_{4}$, and $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=\operatorname{Pr}\left(A_{4}\right)=1 / 3$.

The remaining cases are of the form $G^{\prime} \cong C_{p}$ for $p$ an odd prime; as we remarked after Proposition 5, these have probabilities $\left(n^{2}+p-1\right) / n^{2} p$ (where $n \mid p-1$ ). The only values of $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ above $11 / 32$ for groups $G$ in Case 2 are $1 / 2\left(G^{\prime} \cong C_{3}\right.$ and $G / Z(G) \cong S_{3}$ ) and $2 / 5\left(G^{\prime} \cong C_{\mathrm{E}}\right.$ and $\left.G / Z(G) \cong D_{5}\right)$.

Case 3. Remaining combinations. The calculations here are rather involved, and not particularly interesting, so we just quote the results. First, when $\left|G^{\prime}\right|=4$ and $|G \cap Z(G)|=2$, I have been able to show that $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=1 / 4 \cdot\left(1+1 / 2^{2 t}+1 / 2 \cdot 1 / 2^{2 s}\right)$, with $2^{2 s}=$ $\left[C\left(G^{\prime}\right): Z\left(C\left(G^{\prime}\right)\right)\right]$ and $2^{2 t}=[H: Z(H)]$ where $H=G /\left(G^{\prime} \cap Z(G)\right) ; s+1 \geqq$ $t \geqq 1$. The only value of this above $11 / 32$ is $7 / 16$.

The last case is $G^{\prime} \cong C_{6}$ and $G^{\prime} \cap Z(G) \cong C_{2}$. It is possible to show that for such $G$, we must have $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=1 / 4+1 / 2^{s}, s \geqq 3$. The only value above $11 / 32$ is $3 / 8$ (for $s=3$ ).

Summary. We have the following possibilities for $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ above 11/32:

| $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ | $G^{\prime}$ | $G^{\prime} \cap Z(G)$ | $G / Z$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\frac{1}{2} \cdot\left(1+2^{-2 s}\right)$ | $C_{2}$ | $C_{2}$ | $\left(C_{2}\right)^{2 s}$ |
| $1 / 2=.5000$ | $C_{3}$ | $\{1\}$ | $S_{3}$ |
| $7 / 16=.4375$ | $C_{4}$ or $C_{2} \times C_{2}$ | $C_{2}$ | $D_{4}$ |
|  | $C_{2} \times C_{2}$ | $C_{2} \times C_{2}$ | $C_{2}^{3}$ or $C_{2}^{4}$ |
| $11 / 27 \doteq .4074$ | $C_{3}$ | $C_{3}$ | $C_{3} \times C_{3}$ |
| $2 / 5=.4000$ | $C_{5}$ | $\{1\}$ | $D_{5}$ |
| $25 / 64 \doteq .3906$ | $C_{2} \times C_{2}$ | $C_{2} \times C_{2}$ | $C_{2}^{3}$ or $C_{2}^{4}$ |
| $3 / 8=.3750$ | $C_{6}$ | $C_{2}$ | $C_{2} \times S_{3}$ or $T$. |

(We write $T$ for the nonabelian group of order 12 besides $A_{4}$ and $C_{2} \times S_{3}$.)

We have not discussed the last column for all cases in the paper, but have included it here for completeness. It bears out the intuitive feeling that a group which has a relatively large center is nearly abelian.

Note that this table allows us to characterize the groups with $\operatorname{Pr}(G)=5 / 8$, say, or any of the numbers on the table. In the case of $5 / 8$, it is precisely the set of groups $G$ with $G^{\prime} \cong C_{2}$ and $G / Z \cong$ $C_{2} \times C_{2}$ that have this value $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$. (Actually, the first constraint is superfluous: see [9].)
V. Concluding remarks. There are several open questions relating to $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$. For example, Joseph [7] has asked for a description of the set $V=\{x \in[0,1]: x=\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ for some finite group $G\}$. $V$ is a submonoid of $\boldsymbol{Q} \cap[0,1]$, since $\operatorname{Pr}(G) \cdot \operatorname{Pr}(H)=\operatorname{Pr}(G \times H)$. (The abelian groups supply the identity.) If we set $V_{k}=\{x: x=\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ for some finite $G$ of nilpotence class $k$ \}, then it may be deduced from Theorem 1 that the closure $\bar{V}_{2}$ is well ordered by $\geqq$ above $1 / 4$ and has order type at most $\omega^{\omega}$ there. It is easy to imagine that the same is true for each $\bar{V}_{k}$, but the methods of II do not extend to this more general case. Using Equation 6 and §III, we also have that $V_{0} \cap(1 / 4,1]$ has order type $\omega$, where $V_{0}$ is $\left\{\operatorname{Pr}(G): G^{\prime} \cap Z=1\right\}$.

One problem is that the method used here is inherently limited to any interval $\left[p_{0}, 1\right]$ for $p_{0}>1 / 4$. It would be interesting to discover
some other method for finding the probabilities for $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$ in, say, $(1 / 5,1 / 4)$. It is possible, of course, that the set of probabilities is even dense there.

Another point to be looked at would be lower bounds for $\operatorname{Pr}(G)$; Erdös and Turán have shown [2] that $\operatorname{Pr}(G) \geqq \log \log |G| /|G|$. Bertram [1] has that $\operatorname{Pr}(G)>(\log |G|)^{c} /|G|$ for "most" groups $G$, where $c$ is any constant less than log 2. Sherman [15] notes that $\operatorname{Pr}(G) \geqq$ $\log _{2}|G| /|G|$ for nilpotent groups $G$.

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