# THE 2-LENGTH OF A FINITE SOLVABLE GROUP 

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#### Abstract

One measure of the structure of a finite solvable group $G$ is its $p$-length $l_{p}(G)$. A problem connected with this measure is to obtain an upper bound for $l_{p}(G)$ in terms of $e_{p}(G)$, which is a numerical invariant of the Sylow $p$-subgroups of $G$. This problem has been solved but the best-possible result is not known for $p=2$. The main result of this paper is that $l_{2}(G) \leqq$ $2 e_{2}(G)-1$, which is an improvement on earlier results. A secondary objective of this paper is to investigate finite solvable groups in which the Sylow 2 -group is of exponent 4 . In particular it is proved that if $G$ is a finite group of exponent 12 , then the 2 -length is at most 2 .


Introduction and discussion of results. The object of this paper is to obtain bounds for the 2-length of a finite solvable group. Following Hall and Higman [4], we call a finite group $G p$-solvable if it possesses a normal series such that each factor group is either a $p$-group or a $p^{\prime}$-group. The $p$-length, $l_{p}(G)$, of such a group is the smallest number of $p$-groups which can occur as factor groups in such a normal series. $e_{p}(G)$ is defined to be the smallest $n$ such that $x^{p n}=1$ for all $x$ belonging to a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $G$.

For an odd prime $p$, it is proved in [4] that $l_{p}(G) \leqq e_{p}(G)$ if $p$ is not a Fermat prime and $l_{p}(G) \leqq 2 e_{p}(G)$ if $p$ is a Fermat prime. Furthermore these results are best-possible. A. H. M. Hoare [6] then proved that in a 2 -solvable group $G, l_{2}(G) \leqq 3 e_{2}(G)-2$ provided that $l_{2}(G) \geqq 1$. The primary purpose of this paper is to prove the following improvement:

Theorem A. If $G$ is a finite solvable group and $l_{2}(G) \geqq 1$, then $l_{2}(G) \leqq 2 e_{2}(G)-1$.

Feit and Thompson [1] have proved that solvability and 2-solvability are equivalent notions for finite groups. Thus no loss of generality is involved in requiring $G$ to be solvable in the theorem.

Theorem A will be shown to be an easy consequence of the following theorem about linear groups:

Theorem B. Let $G$ be a finite solvable linear group over a field

[^0]$F$ of characteristic 2 and assume $G$ has no nontrivial normal 2subgroup. Then if $N$ is the largest normal $2^{\prime}$-subgroup of $G$ and if $g$ is an exceptional element of order $2^{m}$ in $G$, it follows that $g^{2 m-1}$ is in the largest normal 2-subgroup of $G / N$.

Here, following [4], an element $x$ of order $p^{n}$ in a linear group over a field of characteristic $p$ is said to be exceptional if $(x-1)^{p n-1}=0$.

Whether or not Theorem A represents a best-possible result is not known, but it seems likely that further improvements can be made. Indeed, the author knows of no group whose 2-length exceeds its 2 -exponent. In the special case of finite solvable groups satisfying $e_{2}(G)=2$, i.e., solvable groups whose Sylow 2 -subgroups are of exponent 4, I think it likely that $l_{2}(G) \leqq 2$ instead of the bound $l_{2}(G) \leqq 3$ furnished by Theorem A.

In § 4 of this paper, groups satisfying $e_{2}(G)=2$ are studied in more detail. A sufficient condition for $l_{2}(G) \leqq 2$ in this special case is established, and, as an application, we prove that $l_{2}(G) \leqq e_{2}(G)$ if $G$ is a finite group of exponent 12.
2. Proof of Theorem A from Theorem B. For the rest of this paper we adopt the convention that all groups referred to are assumed finite, and, if $G$ is such a group, then $|G|$ denotes its order. If $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$, we write $H \triangleleft G$.

We now recall the definition of the upper 2 -series of the solvable group $G$ :

$$
1=P_{0} \leqq N_{0}<P_{1}<N_{1}<\cdots<P_{l} \leqq N_{l}=G
$$

Here $N_{k} / P_{k}$ is defined to be the greatest normal $2^{\prime}$-subgroup of $G / P_{k}$ and $P_{k+1} / N_{k}$ the greatest normal 2 -subgroup of $G / N_{k}$. The least integer $l$ such that $N_{l}=G$ is the 2 -length $l_{2}(G)$. (If there is no danger of confusion we write simply $l_{2}$.)

It is proved in [4] that the automorphisms of $P_{1} / F$, where $F / N_{0}$ is the Frattini subgroup of $P_{1} / N_{0}$, induced by $G$ represent $G / P_{1}$ faithfully. Thus $G / P_{1}$ is faithfully represented as a linear group operating on $P_{1} / F$ ( $P_{1} / F$ is an elementary abelian 2-group and so is considered as a vector space over the field with 2 elements).

Now if $l_{2}(G)=1$, the conclusion of $A$ is trivial. Also the $p$-length group is at most equal to the class of a Sylow $p$-subgroup [4, Theorem 1.2.6]. An immediate consequence of this is that if $G$ is solvable and $e_{2}(G)=1$, then $l_{2}(G)=1$. Thus $l_{2}=2$ implies that $e_{2} \geqq 2$ so the result again follows. Now if $l_{2}>2$, then $l_{2}\left(G / P_{2}\right)=l_{2}(G)-2 \geqq 1$ so that Theorem $A$ would follow by induction on $l_{2}$ if we could prove that
$e_{2}\left(G / P_{2}\right) \leqq e_{2}(G)-1$.
Now suppose $g$ is an element of maximal order $2^{m}$ in a Sylow 2-Sylow subgroup of $G / P_{1}$. If $g$ is not exceptional, then [4, Lemma 3.1.2] we have $e_{2}(G) \geqq m+1$. If $g$ is exceptional, then, since $G / P_{1}$ satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem $\mathrm{B}, g^{2 m-1}$ is in $P_{2} / P_{1}$ if Theorem B is true. Thus, assuming the validity of $B$, we obtain in all cases $e_{2}\left(G / P_{2}\right) \leqq e_{2}(G)-1$ and Theorem A follows.
3. Proof of Theorem B. Neither the hypothesis nor the conclusion of the theorem is affected by an extension of the field $F$. Hence, without loss of generality, we assume that $F$ is algebraically closed. Since an element of order 2 cannot be exceptional, $m$ must be greater than 1. Let $\mathrm{h}=g^{2 m-2}$ and so $h^{2}=g^{2 m-1}$.

In proving $B$ we will define subgroups $H$ and $H_{1}$ such that $H \triangleleft G, H_{1} \triangleleft H, h^{2} \in H_{1}$, and $g$ normalizes $H_{1}$. It then will be shown that if $x$ is any element in the largest normal 2-subgroup of $H_{1} / H_{1} \cap N$ then $\left(h^{2}, x\right)=(h, x)^{2}$. From this it will follow that $h^{2}$ is in the largest normal 2-subgroup of $H_{1} / H_{1} \cap N$, and, finally, from this the theorem will follow.

First we need two lemmas which are of use later and which motivate the definition of $H$. Here, and elsewhere, we denote the space on which $G$ operates by $V$.

Lemma 3.1. If $Q$ is any $2^{\prime}$-subgroup of $G$ which is normalized by $g$, then $h^{2}$ fixes every minimal characteristic $F-Q$ submodule of $V$.

Proof. A minimal characteristic $F-Q$ submodule is simply the join of all those $F-Q$ submodules operator isomorphic to a given irreducible $F-Q$ submodule. Now if $Q$ is a $2^{\prime}$-group, $V$ can be written as the direct sum of the minimal characteristic $F-Q$ submodules. $g$ normalizes $Q$ so $g$ must permute the minimal characteristic $F-Q$ submodules. If the lemma were not true, then $g$, as a permutation of these submodules, would have a cycle of length $2^{m}$ which would contradict the assumption that $g$ is exceptional.

Lemma 3.2. If $Q$ is any abelian 2'-subgroup of $G$ and $x$ is any element of $G$ normalizing $Q$ and fixing every minimal characteristic $F-Q$ submodule of $V$, then $x$ centralizes $Q$.

Proof. Let $V_{i}$ be any minimal characteristic $F-Q$ submodule of $V$. Since $Q$ is abelian and $F$ is algebraically closed, $Q$ operates on $V_{i}$ as a scalar multiplication, i.e., if $y \in Q$ and $v \in V_{i}$ then $y v=\chi_{i}(y) v$ where $\chi_{i}(y)$ is a scalar. We now obtain

$$
\chi_{i}\left(x^{-1} y x\right) v=x^{-1} y(x v)=x^{-1} \chi_{i}(y) x v=\chi_{i}(y) v
$$

Thus ( $y, x$ ) is the identity on $V_{i}$ for all $y \in Q$ and the lemma follows.
Now let $H$ be the normal subgroup of $G$ consisting of all elements which fix every minimal characteristic $F-Q$ submodule for every normal 2 -subgroup $Q$. Since the largest normal 2 -subgroup and the largest normal $2^{2}$-subgroup of $H$ are normal in $G$, we see that $H$ has no normal 2 -subgroup greater than the identity and the largest normal $2^{\prime}$-subgroup of $H$ is $H \cap N$. By Lemma $3.1 h^{2}$ must belong to $H$.

Let $M$ be the largest normal nilpotent subgroup of $H$. Clearly $M$ is a $2^{\prime}$-group and $M \triangleleft G$. Furthermore, since $H$ is solvable, $M$ contains its own centralizer in $H$ [2].

## Lemma 3.3. $M$ is of class 2.

Proof. Since $h^{2} \in H, h^{2}$ does not centralize $M$. Thus by Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2, $M$ is not abelian. Now let $c$ be the class of $M$ and suppose $c \geqq 3$. Then if $\Gamma_{i}(M)$ is the $i$ th term in the lower central series of $M\left(\Gamma_{1}(M)=M\right.$ and $\left.\Gamma_{i+1}(M)=\left(\Gamma_{i}(M), M\right)\right)$ and if $d$ is the first integer $\geqq(c+1) / 2$, we have [3, Chap. 10]

$$
\left(\Gamma_{d}(M), M\right)=\Gamma_{d+1}(M) \neq 1(\text { since } d \leqq c-1)
$$

and

$$
\left(\Gamma_{d}(M), \Gamma_{a}(M)\right) \leqq \Gamma_{2 d}(M)=1
$$

Thus $\Gamma_{d}(M)$ is abelian and, of course, normal in $G$ but is not centralized by $M$. From Lemma 3.2 and the definition of $H$ we see that this is impossible, and so $c=2$.
$M=M_{1} \times M_{2} \times \cdots$ where $M_{i}$ is the Sylow $q_{i}$-subgroup of $M$ and $q_{i}$ is an odd prime. Each $M_{i}$ is of class at most 2 and so $M_{i}$ is a regular $q_{i}$-group [3, p. 183]. Then the elements of order at most $q_{i}$ form a characteristic subgroup $K_{i}$ of $M_{i}$. Let $K=K_{1} \times K_{2} \times \cdots$ An automorphism of $M_{i}$ of order prime to $q_{i}$ centralizes $K_{i}$ only if it is the identity automorphism [7, Hilfssatz 1.5]. Therefore no 2-element of $H$, except for the identity, centralizes $K$. Hence $K$ cannot be abelian (since $h^{2}$ is a nonidentity 2 -element of $H$ ) and so $K$ must be of class 2.

We now are prepared to define the subgroup $H_{1}$. For this purpose decompose $V$ for each $K_{i}$ into the sum

$$
V=V_{i 1} \oplus V_{i 2} \oplus \cdots
$$

where the $V_{i j}$ are the minimal characteristic $F-K_{i}$ submodules. Let
$C_{i j}=\left\{x \mid x \in H\right.$ and $\left(K_{i}, x\right)=1$ on $\left.V_{i j}\right\} . \quad \mathrm{C}_{i j}$ is a normal subgroup of $H$ although not necessarily normal in $G$.

Take $H_{1}$ to be the intersection of all the $C_{i j}$ which contain $h^{2}$. If $h^{2}$ is not in any $C_{i j}$ then set $H_{1}$ equal to $H$. In any event $H_{1} \triangleleft H$ and $H_{1}$ is normalized by $g$. As was the case with $H, H_{1}$ has no normal 2 -subgroup greater than the identity and the greatest normal $2^{\prime}$-subgroup is $H_{1} \cap N$.

Now let $P$ be a 2-subgroup of $H_{1}$ such that $P$ and $g$ belong to the same Sylow 2 -subgroup of $G$ and $P\left(H_{1} \cap N\right) /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right)$ is the largest normal 2-subgroup of $H_{1} /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right)$. Since, modulo $N, P$ is normalized by $g$, it follows that $g$ normalizes $P$.

Lemma 3.4. If $x \in P$, then $\left(h^{2}, x\right)=(h, x)^{2}$.
Proof. First we show that this lemma finishes the proof of Theorem B: $h$ normalizes $P$ so that $(h, x)^{2} \in \Phi(P)$ where $\Phi(P)$ is the Frattini subgroup of $P$. Thus the lemma implies that $h^{2}$ centralizes $P / \Phi(P)$. Therefore from [4] we conclude that $h^{2} \in P$. Since $h^{2}$ is in the greatest normal 2-subgroup of $H_{1} /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right)$, it follows that $h^{2}$ is in the greatest normal 2 -subgroup of $H /(H \cap N)$ from which the conclusion of Theorem $B$ follows.

To prove the lemma, let $k=\left(h^{2}, x\right)(h, x)^{-2}$ and suppose $k \neq 1$. Since $k$ cannot centralize $K,\left(K_{i}, k\right)$ is not the identity on some $V_{i j}$. Since $k \in H_{1}$, we must have ( $K_{i}, h^{2}$ ) also not the identity on $V_{i j}$. (This last statement is the motivation for our choice of $H_{1}$ ).

In what follows let $V^{\prime}=V_{i j}, q=q_{i}$, and $Q, x_{1}, k_{1}$ the restrictions of $K_{i}, x, k$, respectively, to $V^{\prime}$. Let $g^{2^{m-n}}$ be the first power of $g$ fixing $V^{\prime}$ and let $g_{1}$ be the restriction of $g^{2 m-n}$ to $V^{\prime}$. Now $h^{2}$ is not the identity on $V^{\prime}$ and $[4, \mathrm{p} .13] g_{1}$ must be exceptional

$$
\text { (i.e., } \quad\left(g_{1}-1\right)^{2^{n-1}}=0 \text { ) }
$$

and thus $n$ must be at least 2. Let $h_{1}=g_{1}^{2 n-2}$. $k_{1}=\left(h_{1}^{2}, x_{1}\right)\left(h_{1}, x_{1}\right)^{-2}$ and both $\left(Q, h_{1}^{2}\right)$ and $\left(Q, k_{1}\right)$ are not the identity.

Since $g_{1}$ is exceptional and $\left(Q, h_{1}^{2}\right) \neq 1, Q$ cannot be abelian. Thus $Q$ must be of class 2. $V^{\prime}$ is the sum of absolutely irreducible $F-Q$ submodules all of which are operator isomorphic to each other. Hence $Z(Q)$, the center of $Q$, is cyclic and is generated by a scalar matrix. Since $Q$ is of exponent $q$ and $Q^{\prime} \neq 1$, we see that

$$
Z(Q)=Q^{\prime}=\Phi(Q)
$$

and so $Q$ is an extra-special $q$-group [4, p. 15]. We note also that if $S$ is the 2 -group generated by $x_{1}$ and $g_{1}$, then $(Z(Q), S)=1$ since $Z(Q)$ is generated by a scalar matrix.

Now let $V^{\prime \prime}$ be an irreducible $F-Q S$ submodule of $V^{\prime} . V^{\prime \prime}$ is an irreducible $F-Q$ module [4, Lemma 2.2.3], and $V^{\prime}$ is the sum of $F-Q$ modules operator isomorphic to $V^{\prime \prime}$. Thus $\left(Q, h_{1}^{2}\right) \neq 1$ on $V^{\prime \prime}$ and $g_{1}$ is exceptional on $V^{\prime \prime}$. From [4, Theorem 2.5.4] we have the following:
(1) $2^{n}-1$ is a power of $q$, and
(2) if $g_{1}$ is faithfully and irreducibly represented on $Q_{1} / Q^{\prime}$ (such a $Q_{1}$ can always be found since $h^{2}$ is not the identity on $Q / Q^{\prime}$ ), then $Q$ can be written as the central product of $Q_{1}$ and a group $Q_{2}$ and $g_{1}$ transforms $Q_{2}$ trivially. It now follows [6] that $2^{n}-1=q$ and $\left|Q_{1} / Q^{\prime}\right|=q^{2}$.

The representation of $Q$ on $V^{\prime \prime}$ is isomorphic to the representation of $Q$ on $V^{\prime}$ so that $\left(g_{1}, Q_{2}\right)=1$ on $V^{\prime \prime}$ implies that $\left(g_{1}, Q_{2}\right)=1$. Thus the centralizer of $g_{1}$ in the space $Q / Q^{\prime}$ has co-dimension 2 over $G F(q)$. The minimal equation of $h_{1}$ on $Q_{1} / Q^{\prime}$ must be $t^{2}+1=0$ so that $h_{1}^{2}$ must have the representation

$$
\left(\begin{array}{rr}
-1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

on $Q_{1} / Q^{\prime}$. We now can conclude that for every power of $g_{1}$ (except for the identity, of course), the co-dimension of its centralizer in $Q / Q^{\prime}$ is 2 . Also, since $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4), G F(q)$ contains no primitive 4 th root of unity. Thus if $n \neq 2$ then in the completely reduced representation of $g_{1}^{2}$ on $Q / Q^{\prime}$ there is only one nontrivial block. If $n=2$, there are two nontrivial blocks.

Now if $c$ is a generator of $Q^{\prime}$, define $\rho(a, b)$ for $a, b \in Q$ by the equation

$$
(a, b)=c^{\rho(a, b)}
$$

$\rho(a, b)$ is bilinear and skew symmetric and gives $Q / Q^{\prime}$ the structure of a symplectic space over $G F(q)$ [4].
$\rho$ is of maximum rank since $Q^{\prime}=Z(Q)$ so $Q / Q^{\prime}$ must have dimension $2 r$. Since $\left(S, Q^{\prime}\right)=1, S$ preserves the symplectic structure of $Q / Q^{\prime}$. Thus the representation of $S$ on $Q / Q^{\prime}$ may be considered as a subgroup of a Sylow 2 -subgroup of the symplectic group on $Q / Q^{\prime}$.
$Q / Q^{\prime}$ is of dimension $2 r$ over $G F(q)$ so that $Q / Q^{\prime}$ can be provided with the structure of a vector space $U$ of dimension $r$ over $G F\left(q^{2}\right)$. If $u_{1}, \cdots, u_{r}$ is a basis for $U$, the expression [4]

$$
\rho\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}, \Sigma \beta_{i} u_{i}\right)=\Sigma\left(\alpha_{i} \beta_{i}^{\prime}-\alpha_{i}^{\prime} \beta_{i}\right) / \gamma,
$$

where $\alpha^{\prime}=\alpha^{q}$ and $\gamma$ is a primitive 4 th root of unity, is a skew symmetric bilinear form on $U$ of rank $2 r$ with values in $G F(q)$.

Let $\theta$ be a primitive $2^{n+1}$-th root of unity in $G F\left(q^{2}\right)$ and let $T$ be
the group of transformations of $G F\left(q^{2}\right)$ generated by the two transformations $\alpha \rightarrow \theta^{2} \alpha$ and $\alpha \rightarrow \theta \alpha^{\prime}$. All transformations $\boldsymbol{y}$ of $U$ of the form

$$
\boldsymbol{y}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=\Sigma\left(T_{\imath} \alpha_{i}\right) u_{\sigma(\imath)},
$$

where the $T_{i}$ are taken from $T$ and $\sigma$ is a permutation taken from a Sylow 2 -subgroup of the symmetric group on the numbers $1,2, \cdots, r$, form a Sylow 2 -subgroup of the Symplectic group on $Q / Q^{\prime}$ [4].

Thus we may assume that $\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, \boldsymbol{g}_{1}, \boldsymbol{h}_{1}$, the representations of $x_{1}, g_{1}, h_{1}$, respectively, on $Q / Q^{\prime}$, are of this form. Since $\left(Q, h_{1}^{2}\right) \neq 1$ and $\left(Q, k_{1}\right) \neq 1$, we have $\boldsymbol{h}_{1}^{2} \neq 1$ and $\left(\boldsymbol{h}_{1}^{2}, \boldsymbol{x}_{1}\right) \neq\left(\boldsymbol{h}_{1}, \boldsymbol{x}_{1}\right)^{2}$. We now need more information on $\boldsymbol{g}_{1}$.

Lemma 3.5. The permutation $\sigma$ associated with $\boldsymbol{g}_{1}$ is the identity permutation.

Proof. $\sigma$ is of order less than the order of $g_{1}$ from [4, p. 23]. First suppose $\sigma$ is of order $>2$. Then $n>2$ and so the representation of $g_{1}^{2}$ on $Q / Q^{\prime}$ has only one nontrivial irreducible block. But the permutation associated with $\boldsymbol{g}_{1}^{2}$ is $\sigma^{2}$ which has at least 2 disjoint nontrivial cycles. Clearly this is a contradiction. Thus $\sigma^{2}=1$.

Now suppose $\sigma \neq 1$. Assume, say, $\sigma(1)=2, \sigma(2)=1$. The representation of $g_{1}$ on $Q / Q^{\prime}$ has only one nontrivial irreducble block so $\boldsymbol{g}_{1}$ must be the identity on

$$
\sum_{i \neq 1,2} \alpha_{i} u_{i}
$$

Now $\boldsymbol{g}_{1}^{2}\left(\alpha_{1} u_{1}+\alpha_{2} u_{2}\right)=T_{2} T_{1} \alpha_{1} u_{1}+T_{1} T_{2} \alpha_{2} u_{2}$ and so one of $T_{2} T_{1}$ or $T_{1} T_{2}$ must not be the identity of $T$. But then neither one can be the identity. Therefore the representation of $Q / Q^{\prime}$ would have 2 nontrivial irreducible blocks. This can happen only if $n=2$. This implies that $T_{2} T_{1}$ and $T_{1} T_{2}$ are of order 2 and thus must equal the transformation $\alpha \rightarrow-\alpha$. (This is the only element of order 2 in T.) Thus the centralizer of $g_{1}^{2}$ in $Q / Q^{\prime}$ has co-dimension 4 over $G F(q)$ whereas it should have co-dimension 2 . This proves that $\sigma=1$.

Hence $\boldsymbol{g}_{1}$ fixes each $u_{i}$ and must act trivially on $\alpha_{i}$ for all but one value of $i, i=1$, say. Therefore

$$
\boldsymbol{g}_{1}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=A \alpha_{1} u_{1}+\sum_{i \neq 1} \alpha_{i} u_{i}
$$

where $A$ is an element of order $2^{n}$ in $T$. Then

$$
\boldsymbol{h}_{1}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=A^{2 n-2} \alpha_{1} u_{1}+\sum_{i \neq 1} \alpha_{i} u_{i}
$$

and

$$
\boldsymbol{h}_{1}^{2}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=-\alpha_{1} u_{1}+\sum_{i \neq 1} \alpha_{i} u_{i}
$$

We may assume that

$$
\boldsymbol{x}_{1}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=\Sigma T_{i} \alpha_{i} u_{\pi(i)}
$$

Case 1. $\pi(1) \neq 1$. Assume, say, that $\pi^{-1}(1)=2$. Straight forward calculation yields

$$
\left(\boldsymbol{h}_{1}, \boldsymbol{x}_{1}\right)\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=A^{-2^{n-2}} \alpha_{1} u_{1}+T_{2}^{-1} A^{2 n-2} T_{2} \alpha_{2} u_{2}+\sum_{i \neq 1,2} \alpha_{i} u_{i} .
$$

But $A^{2 n-1}$ is the unique element of order 2 in $T$. Thus

$$
\left(\boldsymbol{h}_{1}, \boldsymbol{x}_{1}\right)^{2}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=-\alpha_{1} u_{1}-\alpha_{2} u_{2}+\sum_{i \neq 1,2} \alpha_{i} u_{i}
$$

and it is easily verified that this is the same result as ( $\boldsymbol{h}_{1}^{2}, \boldsymbol{x}_{1}$ ).
Case 2: $\pi(1)=1$. In this case we easily find that ( $\left.\boldsymbol{h}_{1}^{2}, \boldsymbol{x}_{1}\right)$ is the identity while

$$
\left(\boldsymbol{h}_{1}, \boldsymbol{x}_{1}\right)^{2}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=\left(A^{2 n-2}, T_{1}\right)^{2} \alpha_{1} u_{1}+\sum_{i \neq 1} \alpha_{i} u_{i} .
$$

Now the group $T$ easily is seen to be a generalized quaternion group of order $2^{n+1}$ so that the only conjugates of $A$ in $T$ are $A$ and $A^{-1}$. Thus

$$
\left(A^{2 n-1}, T_{1}\right)^{2}=A^{2 n-1} T_{1}^{-1}\left(A^{2 n-1}\right) T_{1}=1 .
$$

Thus ( $\boldsymbol{h}_{1}, \boldsymbol{x}_{\mathbf{1}}$ ) is also the identity.
Therefore it has been shown that

$$
\left(\boldsymbol{h}_{1}, \boldsymbol{x}_{1}\right)^{2}=\left(\boldsymbol{h}_{1}^{2}, \boldsymbol{x}_{1}\right)
$$

in all cases. This completes the proof of lemma 3.4, and, by a previous argument, Theorem B now is proved.
4. Groups with $e_{2}=2$. If $G$ is a solvable group whose Sylow 2 -groups are of exponent 4 , then we know from Theorem A that $l_{2}(G) \leqq 3$. We now investigate conditions for $l_{2}(G) \leqq 2$ to hold. The argument is similar to that used in proving Theorem B, but a more restrictive hypothesis is needed. That no loss of generality is involved in assuming the stronger hypothesis is insured by the following reduction theorem, which is stated in a slightly more general form than needed.

A proposition $R$ will be said to be of type 4.1 if it is of the following form:

If $G$ is a finite $p$-solvable group satisfying condition $C$, then
$l_{p}(G) \leqq f\left(e_{p}(G)\right)$, where $f$ is a monotonically increasing function defined for nonnegative integral arguments, $f(0)=0$, and condition C either is vacuous or states that $e_{p_{i}}(G) \leqq a_{i}$ for some set, possibly infinite, of primes $p_{i}$ and nonnegative integers $a_{i}$.

Note that the proposition that $l_{2}(G) \leqq e_{2}(G)$ if $G$ is a finite solvable group satisfying $e_{2}(G) \leqq 2$ is of type 4.1. One of the results of this section is that $l_{2}(G) \leqq e_{2}(G)$ if $G$ is a finite group of exponent 12 . This statement is also of type 4.1 since the condition that $G$ be of exponent 12 is equivalent to stating that $e_{2}(G) \leqq 2, e_{3}(G) \leqq 1$, and $e_{p}(G) \leqq 0$ for all other primes.

Theorem 4.1. To prove a proposition $R$ of type 4.1 it is sufficient to prove the proposition for the following special case:
(1) $G$ is the normal product of $V$ by $G_{1}$ where $V$ is a vector space over $F$, a finite field of characteristic $p$, and $G_{1}$ is a $p$-solvable linear group on $V$ having no normal p-subgroup other than the identity.
(2) Any irreducible representation of any $p^{\prime}$-subgroup of $G_{1}$ over $F$ is in fact absolutely irreducible.
(3) All groups of order at most $\left|G_{1}\right|$ satisfy $R$.
(4) $V$ is an irreducible $F-G_{1}$ module.

Proof. In proving this theorem we assume $R$ is valid for the special case and then prove it is valid for the general case.

Now suppose $G$ is the group of smallest order which satisfies the hypothesis but not the conclusion of $R$, and let

$$
1=P_{0} \leqq N_{0}<P_{1}<\cdots<P_{l} \leqq N_{l}=G
$$

be the upper $p$-series of $G$. Since $f(0)=0$ we must have $l_{p}(G)>0$. If $F_{1} / N_{0}$ is the Frattini subgroup of $P_{1} / N_{0}$, then, as is shown in [4], $l_{p}\left(G / F_{1}\right)=l_{p}(G)$ so that if $F_{1} \neq 1$ we would have a proper factor group of $G$ satisfying the hypothesis but not the conclusion of $R$.

Hence assume $F_{1}=1$. Thus $P_{1}$ is an elementary abelian $p$-group which we identify with a vector space $V_{1}$ over $G F(p) . G / P_{1}$ is faithfully represented as a linear group $G_{1}$ on $V_{1}$ and $G_{1}$ has no normal $p$-group greater than the identity.

From [4, p. 4] we may assume that $G$ has only one minimal normal subgroup. This subgroup must be contained in $V_{1}$ and we denote it with $M$. If $M \neq V_{1}$ and $G_{1}$ is faithfully represented on $V_{1} / M$ then we have $l_{p}(G / M)=l_{p}(G)$ so that we would have a contradiction to the minimality of $G$.

Now suppose $M \neq V_{1}$ and $G_{1}$ is not faithfully represented on $V_{1} / M$.

Then the elements of $G_{1}$ centralizing $V_{1} / M$ form a normal subgroup of $G_{1}$ greater than the identity. If $Q$ is a minimal normal subgroup of $G_{1}$ centralizing $V_{1} / M$, then $Q$ must be a $p^{\prime}$-group so that $V$ as a $Q$-module is completely reducible. Thus there exists a $Q$-module $M_{1}$ such that $V_{1}=M \oplus M_{1} . \quad Q$ is the identity on $M_{1}$ but not on $M$ since $Q$ is faithfully represented on $V_{1}$. Now if $M_{2}$ is the centralizer of $Q$ in $V_{1}$ then $M_{2}$ is normal in $G, M_{2}$ is not the identity, and $M_{2}$ does not contain $M$. This contradicts the minimality of $M$.

Thus we see that $M=V_{1}$ which implies that $G_{1}$ is irreducibly represented on $V_{1}$. A consequence of this is that if $H$ is any normal subgroup greater than the identity in $G_{1}$ then $H$ can have no nonzero fixed vector in $V_{1}$ Otherwise all the vectors fixed by $H$ would form a nontrivial submodule of $V_{1}$.

Now pick $F$ to be a large enough finite extension of $G F(q)$ such that any irreducible representation of any $p^{\prime}$-subgroup of $G_{1}$ over $F$ is absolutely irreducible. Let $1=\theta_{0}, \theta_{1}, \cdots, \theta_{r}$ be a basis for $F$ over $G F(p)$ and let $v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{s}$ be a basis for $V_{1}$ over $G F(p)$. Finally let $V$ be the vector space over $F$ with basis $v_{1}, \cdots, v_{s}$, i.e., the vectors of $V$ are the formal sums

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{s} \sum_{i=0}^{r} c_{i j} \theta_{i} v_{j}
$$

where $c_{i j} \in G F(p) . \quad G_{1}$ acts on $V$ in the obvious way.
Consider the group $G^{*}=G_{1} V$, i.e., the normal product of $V$ by $G_{1}$. If $g^{*}$ is of order $p^{m}$ in $G^{*}$ then either the image $g$ of $g^{*}$ in $G_{1}$ is of order $p^{m}$ or $g$ is of order $p^{m-1}$ and $g$ is not exceptional on $V$. In the latter case $(g-1)^{p^{m-1}} v_{i} \neq 0$ for some $v_{i}$ from which it follows that $g$ is not exceptional on $V_{1}$. Thus $e_{p}(G) \geqq(m-1)+1=m$.

Therefore in any event $e_{p}(G) \geqq e_{p}\left(G^{*}\right)$. Since $e_{q}\left(G^{*}\right)=e_{q}(G)$ for $q \neq p, G^{*}$ satisfies condition C. Furthermore $l_{p}(G)=l_{p}\left(G^{*}\right)$ so that if $G^{*}$ satisfies $R$ so does $G$.

Now suppose $H$ is any normal $p^{\prime}$-subgroup other than the identity in $G_{1}$ and suppose

$$
v=\sum_{j=1}^{s} \sum_{i=0}^{r} c_{i j} \theta_{i} v_{j}
$$

is a nonzero vector fixed by $H$. Since $v \neq 0$ the coefficient of $v_{j}$ is not zero for some $j, j=1$ say. Then there exists $\alpha \in F$ such that $\alpha\left(\sum_{i=0}^{r} c_{i 1} \theta_{1}\right)=1$. $H$ must fix $\alpha v$ which can be written in the form $\alpha v=v^{\prime}+v^{\prime \prime}$ where

$$
v^{\prime}=v_{1}+\sum_{j=2}^{s} c_{0 j}^{\prime} v_{j}, v^{\prime \prime}=\sum_{j=2}^{s} \sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{i j}^{\prime} \theta_{i} v_{j}
$$

For $H$ to fix $\alpha v$ it must also fix $v^{\prime}$ which contradicts the fact that
$H$ has no nonzero fixed vector in $V_{1}$. Thus $H$ has no nonzero fixed vector in $V$.

If $V$ is an irreducible $F-G_{1}$ module then we have arrived at the special case of the theorem. Therefore assume $U$ is a proper submodule.

If $G_{1}$ is not faithfully represented on $V / U$, then let $Q$ be a minimal normal subgroup of $G_{1}$ centralizing $V / U . Q$ must be a $p^{\prime}$-group so that $V$ is completely reducible as an $F-Q$ module. Thus there exists a nontrivial $F-Q$ submodule on which $Q$ is the identity. This is impossible since $Q$ can have no nonzero fixed vector.

Hence $G_{1}$ is faithfully represented on $V / U$. Thus $l_{p}\left(G^{*}\right)=l_{p}\left(G^{*} / U\right)$ and, of course, $e_{p}\left(G^{*}\right) \geqq e_{p}\left(G^{*} / U\right)$ so that if $G^{*} / U$ satisfies $R$ so does $G^{*}$ and then so does $G$.

We still have that any normal nonidentity $p^{\prime}$-subgroup $H$ of $G_{1}$ has no nonzero fixed vector in $V / U$ since $V$ is completely reducible as an $F-H$ module. Therefore if $G_{1}$ is not irreducibly represented on $V / U$ then the same argument as before yields that $G_{1}$ is faithfully represented on a nontrivial factor module of $V / U$. Continuing in this way we ultimately arrive at the special case where $G_{1}$ is faithfully and irreducibly represented on some vector space over the field $F$. This finishes the proof of Theorem 4.1.

Among the results we now shall prove is that if $G$ is of exponent 12 then $l_{2}(G) \leqq e_{2}(G)$. Before doing this it might be well to justify this work. For in a group of order $2^{a} 3^{b}$ the 2 -length and the 3 -length can vary at most by one. Thus if it were true that the 3 -length of a group of exponent 12 was one, then it would be trivial to state that the 2-length was at most two. However in [5, p. 5] is found an example of a group of exponent 12 but with 3 -length two.

For the rest of this paper we make the following standing assumptions.
(1) $G=G_{1} V$, the normal product of $V$ by $G_{1}$, where $V$ is a vector space over a finite field $F$ of characteristic 2 and $G_{1}$ is a finite, solvable linear group having no normal 2 -subgroup other than the identity.
(2) $V$ is an irreducible $F-G_{1}$ module.
(3) Any representation over $F$ of any $p^{\prime}$-subgroup of $G_{1}$ is absolutely irreducible.
(4) $\quad e_{2}(G) \leqq 2$.

We are interested in seeing under what conditions can $l_{2}(G)$ exceed $e_{2}(G)$. But if $e_{2}\left(G_{1}\right)=0$ then both $e_{2}(G)$ and $l_{2}(G)$ are 1 , and if $e_{2}\left(G_{1}\right)=1$ then $l_{2}\left(G_{1}\right)=1$ so that $l_{2}(G)=e_{2}(G)=2$. Thus we may as well assume
(5) $\quad e_{2}\left(G_{1}\right)=2$.

Later we shall add to these assumptions the further one that $G$ is of exponent 12. Actually, until we restrict ourselves to groups of exponent 12 , we will make no use of the fact that $G_{1}$ is irreducibly represented on $V$.

Now let $N$ be the largest normal $2^{\prime}$-subgroup of $G_{1}$. We shall show that a certain 2 -subgroup, to be described later, must be contained in the greatest normal 2 -subgroup of $G_{1} / N$. In particular if $l_{2}(G)>2$ (which is the same as $l_{2}\left(G_{1}\right)>1$ ), we shall see that there must exist. an element of order 4 of a special type in $G_{1}$.

First let $H$ be the following normal subgroup of $G_{1}: x \in H$ if, and only if, for every normal nilpotent subgroup $Q$ of class at most 2 in $G_{1}, x$ fixes every minimal characteristic $F-Q$ submodule of $V$. A normal nilpotent subgroup of $G_{1}$ must be a $2^{\prime}$-group so that $V$ splits into the sum of minimal characteristic $F-Q$ modules.

From (5) there are elements of order 4 in $G_{1}$, and from (4) all such elements must be exceptional. Thus if $g$ is of order 4 in $G_{1}$ then $g^{2}$ must be in $H$ by lemma 3.1. Hence $H$ is greater than the identity. $H$ has no normal 2-subgroup except for the identity and the largest normal $2^{\prime}$-subgroup is $H \cap N$.

Let $D$ be the greatest normal nilpotent subgroup of $H . D=$ $D_{1} \times D_{2} \times \cdots$ where $D_{i}$ is a Sylow $q_{i}$-subgroup of $D$ for an odd prime $q_{i}$. $H$ centralizes any normal abelian subgroup of $G_{1}$ so that, by the proof of Lemma 3.3, we obtain $c(D)=2$. Now, as before, let $K_{i}$ be the subgroup of $D_{i}$ consisting of all elements of order at most $q_{i}$ and let $K=K_{1} \times K_{2} \times \cdots$ We again have that no non-identity 2-element of $H$ centralizes $K$.

Now take $H_{1}$ to be the subgroup of $G_{1}$ consisting of all elements which fix every minimal characteristic $F-K_{i}$ module for all $i$. $H_{1} \triangleleft G_{1}$, and, since $c\left(K_{i}\right) \leqq 2, H \leqq H_{1}$. $H_{1}$ has no normal 2 -subgroup except for the identity and its greatest normal $2^{\prime}$-subgroup is $H_{1} \cap N$.

Let $P$ be a Sylow 2 -subgroup of $H_{1} . \quad P \neq 1$ since if $g$ is any element of order 4 in $G_{1}$ then $g^{2} \in H$. Now the square of any element of $P$ must be in $H$. Thus $P /(P \cap H)$ is of exponent 2 and thus abelian. Therefore $P^{\prime}<H$. We now prove two lemmas which enable us to show directly that $P N / N$ is normal in $G_{1} / N$.

Lemma 4.2. Suppose that $g$ and $h$ are two elements of $P$ and $V^{\prime}$ is a minimal characteristic $F-K_{i}$ submodule of $V$. Let $Q, g_{1}$, and $h_{1}$ be the restrictions of $K_{i}, g$, and $h$, respectively, to $V^{\prime}$. Then if $\left(Q, h_{1}^{2}\right)=1$ it follows that $\left(Q,\left(g_{1}, h_{1}\right)\right)=1$.

Proof. Assume $\left(Q,\left(g_{1}, h_{1}\right)\right) \neq 1$. Therefore neither $g_{1}$ nor $h_{1}$ central-
izes $Q$. If $\left(Q, g_{1}^{2}\right)=1$, then straight forward calculation yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(Q,\left(g_{1} h_{1}\right)^{2}\right)=\left(Q,\left(g_{1}, h_{1}\right)\right) \neq 1, \\
& \left(Q,\left(g_{1} h_{1}, h_{1}\right)\right)=\left(Q,\left(g_{1} h_{1}\right)^{-1}\right) \neq 1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

'Thus, replacing $g_{1}$ by $g_{1} h_{1}$ if $\left(Q, g_{1}^{2}\right)=1$, we may assume that $\left(Q, g_{1}^{2}\right) \neq 1$ along with $\left(Q, h_{1}^{2}\right)=1$ and $\left(Q,\left(g_{1}, h_{1}\right)\right) \neq 1$.

Now exactly as in the proof of Lemma 3.4 we obtain that $Q$ is an extra special $q$-group (actually $q=3$ since $g_{1}$ is of order 4 and thus exceptional so that $4-1$ must be a power of $q$ ), $Q / Q^{\prime}$ is a symplectic space, $g_{1}$ and $h_{1}$ preserve the symplectic structure of $Q / Q^{\prime}$, and we may assume that $g_{1}$ and $h_{1}$ operate on $Q / Q^{\prime}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{g}_{1}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=A \alpha_{1} u_{1}+\sum_{i \neq 1} \alpha_{i} u_{i}, \\
& \boldsymbol{h}_{1}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=\Sigma T_{i} \alpha_{i} u_{\sigma(i)},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\sigma$ is a permutation of order $\leqq 2$ (since $\left(Q, h_{1}^{2}\right)=1$ ), and $A$ and the $T_{i}$ are chosen from a group isomorphic to the quaternion group of order 8 (since $q=3$ ). In addition $A$ must be of order 4 since $\left(Q, g_{1}^{2}\right) \neq 1$.

If $\sigma$ does not fix 1 then $\left(\boldsymbol{g}_{1}, \boldsymbol{h}_{1}\right)$ would be of order 4 but its centralizer in $Q / Q^{\prime}$ would have co-dimension 4 over $G F(3)$. Thus ( $\left.\boldsymbol{g}_{1}, \boldsymbol{h}_{1}\right)$ would be of order 4 but not exceptional which is impossible.

Hence $\sigma$ fixes 1 and, since $\left(Q, h_{1}^{2}\right)=1$, we must have

$$
\boldsymbol{h}_{1}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)= \pm \alpha_{1} n_{1}+\sum_{i \neq 1} T_{i} \alpha_{i} u_{\sigma(i)} .
$$

It is now an easy matter to verify that $\left(\boldsymbol{g}_{1}, \boldsymbol{h}_{1}\right)=1$ and the lemma is proved.

Corollary. If $g, h \in P$ and $h^{2}=1$, then $(g, h)=1$.

Proof. $(g, h)$ is in $P^{\prime}$ and thus in $H$. So if $(g, h) \neq 1$ then $\left(K_{i},(g, h)\right) \neq 1$ for some $K_{i}$. Then lemma states that this cannot happen.

Lemma 4.3. If $g, h \in P$, then $(g, h)^{2}=1$.

Proof. Suppose that $(g, h)^{2} \neq 1$. Then for some $K_{i},\left(K_{i},(g, h)^{2}\right) \neq 1$. Choose $V^{\prime}$ to be a minimal characteristic $F-K_{i}$ submodule of $V$ such that $\left(K_{i},(g, h)^{2}\right)$ is not the identity on $V^{\prime}$. If $Q, g_{1}$, and $h_{1}$ are defined as in the previous lemma, then, if either $\left(Q, g_{1}^{2}\right)$ or ( $Q, h_{1}^{2}$ ) is the identity, $\left(g_{1}, h_{1}\right)=1$. Therefore assume neither $g_{1}^{2}$ nor $h_{1}^{2}$ centralize $Q$. Thus $g_{1}$ and $h_{1}$ are both exceptional of order $4 . Q$ is an extra-special

3 -group and we may assume $g_{1}$ and $h_{1}$ operate on $Q / Q^{\prime}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{g}_{1}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=A \alpha_{1} u_{1}+\sum_{i \neq 1} \alpha_{i} u_{i} \\
& \boldsymbol{h}_{1}\left(\Sigma \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=B \alpha_{j} u_{j}+\sum_{i \neq j} \alpha_{i} u_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

Now if $j \neq 1$ then $\left(\boldsymbol{g}_{1}, \boldsymbol{h}_{1}\right)=1$ and if $j=1$ then

$$
\left(\boldsymbol{g}_{1}, \boldsymbol{h}_{1}\right)^{2}\left(\sum \alpha_{i} u_{i}\right)=(A, B)^{2} \alpha_{1} u_{1}+\sum_{i \neq 1} \alpha_{i} u_{i} .
$$

But $A$ and $B$ are elements of a quaternion group so that $(A, B)^{2}$ is: the identity and the lemma is proved.

Theorem 4.4. $P N / N \triangleleft G_{1} / N$.
Proof. We shall prove that $P\left(H_{1} \cap N\right) /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right) \triangleleft H_{1} /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right)$ which is equivalent to the theorem since $H_{1} \triangleleft G_{1}$.

Let $P_{1}$ be the subgroup of $P$ such that $P_{1}\left(H_{1} \cap N\right) /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right)$ is the largest normal 2 -subgroup of $H_{1} /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right) . \quad P_{1} \triangleleft P$ and $P_{1}$ contains the center of $P$ [4, Lemma 1.2.3]. Thus by the corollary to Lemma 4.2, $P_{1}$ contains all elements of order 2 in $P$. The elements of order 2 in $P$ form an elementary abelian group $P_{2}$ which is normal, modulo. $H_{1} \cap N$, in $H_{1}$. The elements of $H_{1} /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right)$ which centralize both $P_{2}$ and $P_{1} / P_{2}$ form a normal subgroup of $H_{1} /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right)$. But if any $2^{\prime}$-element centralized both $P_{2}$ and $P_{1} / P_{2}$, then, as easily may be seen, this element would centralize $P_{1}$ contrary to the fact [4, Lemma 1.2.3] that $P_{1}$ contains its centralizer in $H_{1} /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right)$. Thus the elements. centralizing both $P_{2}$ and $P_{1} / P_{2}$ form a normal 2-subgroup of $H_{1} /\left(H_{1} \cap N\right)$, and from the corollary to Lemma 4.2 and from Lemma $4.3, P$ must. be contained in this normal 2 -subgroup. But $P$ is a Sylow 2 -subgroup. of $H_{1}$ and thus it follows that, modulo $H_{1} \cap N, P$ is normal in $H_{1}$.

Corollary. $\quad l_{2}\left(H_{1}\right)=1$.
Now let $S$ be a Sylow 2 -subgroup of $G_{1}$ which contains $P$. From the theorem it follows that $P$ is normal in $S$.

Lemma 4.5. If $P$ contains all elements of order 4 in $S$, then. $l_{2}\left(G_{1}\right)=1$.

Proof. If $S=P$ we are done. Therefore assume $S \neq P$. Then if $x \in S-P$ we must have $x^{2}=1$. Also $x \in S-P, y \in P$ imply that. $x y \in S-P$ so that $(x y)^{2}=1$ which implies that $x^{-1} y x=y^{-1}$. Thus $x$ induces the automorphism $y \rightarrow y^{-1}$ of $P$. This can be an automorphism only if $P$ is abelian. Now if both $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are in $S-P$ then $x_{1} x_{2}$
centralizes $P$. But $e_{2}\left(G_{1}\right)=2$ so that $P$ does contain elements of order 4. Hence $x_{1} x_{2}$ cannot be in $S-P$.

Therefore $|S / P|=2$ and $P$ is abelian. Now if $x \in S-P, y \in P$, then $(x, y)=x^{-1} y^{-1} x y=y^{2} \in \Phi(P)$ and thus $x$ centralizes $P / \Phi(P)$. Hence [4, Lemma 1.2.5] $P N / N$ connot be the largest normal 2-subgroup of $G_{1} / N$. But $P$ is maximal in $S$ so that $S N / N$ must be the largest normal 2 -subgroup of $G_{1} / N$. This implies that $l_{2}\left(G_{1}\right)=1$.

To our assumptions (1)~(5) we now add
(6) $G$ is of exponent 12.

This implies that $K$ must be a group of exponent 3 and class at most 2. We prove that $l_{2}\left(G_{1}\right)=1$ in this case by showing that the hypothesis of Lemma 4.5 are satisfied.

For this purpose assume that $g$ is an element of order 4 in $S-P$. $g^{2}$ is in $H$ so $\left(K, g^{2}\right) \neq 1$. Let $V=V_{1} \oplus V_{2} \oplus \cdots$ be the decomposition of $V$ into minimal characteristic $F-K$ modules. Since $g \in S-P, g$ does not fix some $V_{i}$. $g^{2}$ does fix each $V_{i}$ and if $g^{2}$ is not the identity on a $V_{i}$ then $g$ must fix that $V_{i}$ for otherwise $g$ could not be exceptional [4, p. 13]. We now need the following result:

Lemma 4.6. There exist $x$ and $y$ in $K$ such that $\left(\left(x, g^{2}\right)\right.$, $\left.\left(y, g^{2}\right)\right) \neq 1$.

Proof. Let $C=\left\{x \mid x \in K,\left(x, g^{2}\right) \in Z(K)\right\}$. Clearly $C \geqq Z(K)$ but $C \neq K$ since then $g^{2}$ would centralize $Z(K)$ and $K / Z(K)$ which would imply that $\left(K, g^{2}\right)=1$. ( $g^{2}$ centralizes $Z(K)$ by Lemma 3.1 and 3.2.) $K / Z(K)$ is an elementary abelian 3 -group so that there must be a $G F(3)-g$ module of $K / Z(K)$ complementary to $C / Z(K)$. Thus $K / Z(K)=L / Z(K) \oplus C / Z(K)$ and $g$ normalizes $L$. For all $x \in L-Z(K),\left(x, g^{2}\right)$ is not in $Z(K)$.

Now suppose $x, y \in L-Z(K)$ and $\left(x, g^{2}\right)\left(y, g^{2}\right)^{-1} \in Z(K)$. Since $K / Z(K)$ is abelian, straight forward calculation yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(x y^{-1}, g^{2}\right) & \equiv\left(x, g^{2}\right)\left(y^{-1}, g^{2}\right) & & (\bmod Z(K)) \\
1=\left(y y^{-1}, g^{2}\right) & \equiv\left(y, g^{2}\right)\left(y^{-1}, g^{2}\right) & & (\bmod Z(K)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\left(x y^{-1}, g^{2}\right) \equiv\left(x, g^{2}\right)\left(y, g^{2}\right)^{-1} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod Z(K)$. This implies that $x y^{-1} \in Z(K)$. Therefore we have shown that $\left(x, g^{2}\right) \equiv\left(y, g^{2}\right)(\bmod Z(K))$ if, and only if, $x \equiv y(\bmod Z(K))$ for $x, y \in L$.

It immediately follows from this that for any $x \in L$, there exists a $y$ such that $x \equiv\left(y, g^{2}\right)(\bmod Z(K))$. Now $L$ cannot be abelian since $g$ normalizes $L$ and $g^{2}$ does not centralize it. From all this we see that there exist $x, y \in L$ such that $\left(\left(x, g^{2}\right),\left(y, g^{2}\right)\right) \neq 1$.

Now taking $x$ and $y$ to satisfy the lemma, we may assume without
loss of generality that $\left(\left(x, g^{2}\right),\left(y, g^{2}\right)\right)$ is not the identity on $V_{1}$. This implies that $g^{2}$ is not the identity on $V_{1}$ so $g$ must fix $V_{1}$.

Since $g$ does not fix every $V_{i}$, assume $g$ does not fix $V_{2}$. Therefore $g^{2}$ is the identity on $V_{2}$ which then also must be the case for $\left(x, g^{2}\right)$ and ( $y, g^{2}$ ).
$V$ is an irreducible $F-G_{1}$ module so that there must be an element taking $V_{1}$ into $V_{2}$. Such an element must be of the form $z h$ where $h \in S$ and $z$ is from a Sylow 3 -subgroup of $G_{1}$ which necessarily must contain $K$. We shall derive a contradiction by showing that $z$ and $K$ generate elements of order 9 which is impossible in a group of exponent 12.

If $h V_{1}=V_{m}$ then $z V_{m}=V_{2}$. Set $g_{1}=h g h^{-1}$. Then

$$
\left(\left(x^{h^{-1}}, g_{1}^{2}\right),\left(y^{h-1}, g_{1}^{2}\right)\right)
$$

is not the identity on $V_{m}$. Now suppose $g_{1} V_{2}=V_{2}$. Then $g h^{-1} V_{2}=$ $h^{-1} V_{2}$, and, since $g V_{2} \neq V_{2}$, this implies that $h^{-1} V_{2}=V_{j}, j \neq 2$. Then we would have $g V_{j}=V_{j}$. But $g h^{-1} \in S$ so that $\left(g h^{-1}\right)^{2} \in H$. Thus $\left(g h^{-1}\right)^{2}$ fixes $V_{2}$ and, therefore, $g h^{-1} V_{j}=V_{2} . \quad\left(h^{-1}\right)^{2}$ also must fix $V_{2}$ so we have $h^{-1} V_{j}=V_{2}$. From this we conclude that $V_{2}=g h^{-1} V_{j}=g V_{2}$ which is a contradiction. Hence $g_{1} V_{2} \neq V_{2}$. A consequence of this is that $V_{m} \neq V_{2}$ for $V_{m}=V_{2}$ would imply that $h^{-1} V_{2}=V_{1}$ which would imply that $g_{1} V_{2}=h g V_{1}=V_{2}$. Since $V_{m} \neq V_{2}$ it follows that $z$ is not the identity and so is of order 3.

If we replace $V_{1}, g, x$, and $y$ by $V_{m}, g_{1}, x^{h^{-1}}$, and $y^{h^{-1}}$, respectively, we may assume that $z V_{1}=V_{2}, g V_{2} \neq V_{2}$, and $\left(\left(x, g^{2}\right),\left(y, g^{2}\right)\right)$ is not the identity on $V_{1}$. Let $x_{1}=\left(x, g^{2}\right)$ and $y_{1}=\left(y, g^{2}\right) . x_{1}$ and $y_{1}$ must be the identity on $V_{2}$ since $g_{2}$ is. Since $z$ is of order 3, we have $z V_{1}=V_{3}$, $z V_{2}=V_{n}(n \neq 1,2)$, and $z V_{n}=V_{1}$.

Let $V^{\prime}=V_{1} \oplus V_{2} \oplus V_{n} . V^{\prime}$ is fixed by $z$ and the restrictions of $x_{1}, y_{1}$, and $z$ to $V^{\prime}$ are

$$
z=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 0 & A \\
B & 0 & 0 \\
0 & C & 0
\end{array}\right), x_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
M & 0 & 0 \\
0 & I & 0 \\
0 & 0 & M_{1}
\end{array}\right), y_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
N & 0 & 0 \\
0 & I & 0 \\
0 & 0 & N_{1}
\end{array}\right),
$$

where $I$ is the identity and 0 the zero matrix. Now ( $x_{1}, y_{1}$ ) is not the identity on $V_{1}$ but $\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right) \in Z(K)$ and $Z(K)$ is represented on $V_{1}$ as a cyclic group generated by a scalar matrix. Thus $(M, N)=\omega I$ where $\omega$ is a primitive third root of unity. From $z^{3}=1$ we obtain $C=A^{-1} B^{-1}$.

Now $z, x_{1}$, and $y_{1}$ all belong to the same Sylow 3 -subgroup of $G_{1}$. Thus $\left(z x_{1}\right)^{3}=\left(z y_{1}\right)^{3}=1$. From this direct computation yields that $M_{1}=A^{-1} M^{-1} A, N_{1}=A^{-1} N^{-1} A$. Thus $\left(M_{1}, N_{1}\right)=A^{-1}\left(M^{-1}, N^{-1}\right) A$. But $M$ and $N$ generate a group of exponent 3 and class 2. It follows easily that $\left(M^{-1}, N^{-1}\right)=(M, N)=\omega I$. Thus

$$
\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{llr}
\omega I & 0 & 0 \\
0 & I & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \omega I
\end{array}\right)
$$

It is now a simple matter to verify that $\left(z\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)\right)^{3} \neq 1$. Hence $z\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ is a 3 -element of order greater than 3 which is impossible in a group of exponent 12. This contradiction proves that the hypothesis of Lemma 4.5 is satisfied and thus:

Theorem 4.7. If $G$ is a finite group of exponent 12, then $l_{2}(G) \leqq e_{2}(G)$.

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