1 Sylow's Theorems

The Lagrange's Theorem states that if G is a finite group and H is a subgroup of G, then |H|, the order of H divides |G|, the order of H. We explore the following question: If H is a finite group, and H is an integer which divides |G|, does there exist a subgroup H of order H? This is, in a way, the converse of Lagrange's Theorem.

By the Theorem on structure of finite abelian groups, we know that this is indeed true for finite abelian groups. However, it fails for non abelian groups. For example, $|A_4| = 12$, has no subgroup of order 6.

Lemma 1 (Binomial Coefficients modula a prime). Let $n = p^{\alpha}m$ where p is a prime. Then $\binom{n}{p^{\alpha}} \equiv m \pmod{p}$.

Proof. From Fermate-Euler's Theorem, we know that for any positive integer x, $(x+1)^{p^{\alpha}} \equiv x^{p^{\alpha}} + 1 \pmod{p}$ Applying this to x^m instead of x, we get $(x+1)^{p^{\alpha}m} \equiv x^{p^{\alpha}m} + 1 \pmod{p}$.

Theorem 1 (Sylow's Existence Theorem). Let G be a finite group of order $p^{\alpha}m$, where p is prime and $p \not| m$. Then G has a subgroup H of order p^{α} .

Proof. Let Ω be the collection of all subsets X of G of size p^{α} . Then,

$$|\Omega| = {|G| \choose p^{\alpha}} = {p^{\alpha} m \choose p^{\alpha}} \equiv m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Let G act on Ω via right regular action. Since $p \nmid |\Omega|$, there exists an orbit O such that $p \nmid |O|$, for the orbits of the action partition Ω .

Let $X_o \in O$ and H be $G_{X_o} \leq G$, the stabiliser of X_o . By the orbit stabiliser theorem, the size of this orbit is $|O| = \frac{|G|}{|H|}$, the number of cosets of H. Since $p \not| |O|$ but $p^{\alpha} ||G| = |H| |O|$, we must have $p^{\alpha} ||H|$. For each $x \in X_o$ and $h \in H$, we have $xh \in X_o$. So, we have $xH \subset X_o$. Then, $|H| = |xH| \leq |X_o| = p^{\alpha}$. As $H \leq G$, we get $|H| = p^{\alpha}$.

Definition 1 (Sylow p-subgroup). Let G be a finite group and p be a prime integer. A Sylow p-subgroup of G is a subgroup $P \leq G$ such that $|P| = p^{\alpha} ||G|$ but $|p^{\alpha+1}| /|G|$. The set of all Sylow p-subgroups of G is denoted by $Syl_p(G)$.

For each prime integer p||G|, $Syl_p(G) \neq \{\phi\}$. For prime integers p such that $p \not ||G|$, set $Syl_p(G) = \{\{1_G\}\}$.

Corollary 1 (Cauchy's Theorem). Let G be a finite group with p||G| where p is some prime integer. Then, G has an element of order p.

Proof. By Sylow's Existence theorem, there exists a Sylow p- subgroup H of G. Since p||G|, P is a nontrivial subgroup of G. That means there exists $x \in P \setminus \{1_G\}$ having order $o(x) = p^e$, where $1 \le e$. Set $y = x^{p^{e-1}}$. Then, o(y) = p.

Each $P \in Syl_p(G)$ is a maximal subgroup of G.

Theorem 2 (Sylow Development). Let G be a finite group and $P \leq G$ be a p-subgroup, then there exists some $S \in Syl_p(G)$ with $P \leq S$.

Theorem 3 (Sylow Conjugacy). Let G be a finite group. The set $Syl_p(G)$ is a single conjugacy class of Sylow subgroups of G.

Theorem 4 (Conjugacy of Sylow p-subgroups). Let G be a finite group and suppose $P \leq G$ is a p-subgroup and $S \in Syl_p(G)$. Then $P \leq S^x = x^{-1}Sx$ for some x in G.

Proof. Let $\Omega = \{Sx \mid x \in G\}$ be the set of right cosets of X in G. Let P act on Ω via right regular action. We proceed to calculate the size of Ω . The size of Ω is the sum of sizes of all orbits in it. It is also equal to $|\Omega| = \frac{|P|}{|G_S|}$. Consequently, $n \not |\Omega|$.

We claim that there is an orbit of size 1. Indeed, if the size of all orbits is divisible by p, then |G| is divisible by p because the orbits of the action of P on Ω partition G. In other words, there exists some $x \in G$ such that $Sxy = Sx \cdot y = Sx$ for each $y \in P$. Then $y \in x^{-1}Sx = S^x$. Thus $P \leq S^x$.

The collection of all Sylow p-subgroups, $Syl_p(G)$, is quite interesting.

Corollary 2 (Number of Sylow *p*-subgroups). Let G be a finite group and let $P \in Syl_p(G)$. Then, $|Syl_p(G)| = [G : N_G(P)]$, where $N_G(P)$ is the normaliser of P in G. In particular, $|Syl_p(G)|$ divides $[G : P] = \frac{|G|}{|P|}$.

Corollary 3 (Normal Sylow p-subgroups). Let S be a Sylow p-subgroup of G. The following statements are equivalent

- 1. S is normal in G.
- 2. S is the unique Sylow p-subgroup of G.
- 3. Every p-subgroup of G is contained in S.
- 4. S is a characteristic subgroup of G.

Definition 2 (Characteristic subgroups). If G is a group, then a subgroup H of G is said to be characteristic in G if for any $\sigma \in \text{Aut}(G)$, $\sigma(S) = S$.

Proof. (1) \implies (2) As any two Sylow *p*-subgroups of *G* are conjugate to each other, we conclude that there is only one Sylow *p*-subgroup of *G* because it has only one conjugate.

- (2) \Longrightarrow (3) As each p-subgroup is ocntained in some Sylow p-subgroup, we get that any given p-subgroup P is contained in S.
- (3) \Longrightarrow (4). For each $\sigma \in \operatorname{Aut}(G)$, $\sigma(S)$ is a *p*-subgroup of G. From (3), we get that $\sigma(S) \leq S$. Moreover, $\sigma(S) = S$. Then S is characteristic in G.
 - $(4) \implies (1)$ This is true because conjugation is an inner automorphism. \square

Lemma 2 (p-subgroups of normaliser). Let G be a finite group and let $S \in Syl_p(G)$. Suppose P is a p-subgroup of $N_G(S)$. Then $P \leq S$.

Proof. By the Sylow's Development Theorem, we know that $P \leq S^x$ for some $x \in G$. Since $P \leq N_G(S)$, we know that PS = SP. From previous knowledge, we know that this happens if and only if SP is a subgroup of G. So, we get that $S \leq SP \leq G$. For any two groups H, K of a group G, we have $|HK| = \frac{|H||K|}{|H \cap K|}$. As SP is also a p-subgroup and S is a maximal p-subgroup in G, we get that SP = S which happens if and only if S = P.

Alternative Proof. Since $S \in Syl_p(G)$ and $S \leq N_G(S) \leq G$, we must have S is a Sylow p-subgroup of $N_G(S)$. Moreover, P is a p-subgroup of $N_G(S)$ and $S \triangleleft N_G(S)$ so applying the corollary about normal Sylow p-subgroups, we get that $P \leq S$.

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Theorem 5 (Sylow Counting Theorem). Let G be a finite group. Denote the size of the set of all Sylow p-groups in G by $n_p(G)$. In other words, $n_p(G) = |Syl_p(G)|$. Then $n_p(G) \equiv 1 \pmod{p^e}$ if $p^e \leq [S:S \cap T]$ for all distinct $S, T \in Syl_p(G)$.

Proof. Let $P \in Syl_p(G)$. Let P act on $Syl_p(G)$ act on $Syl_p(G)$ via conjugation. Then $\{P\}$ is one orbit of the action. Now it suffices to show all the other orbits have size divisible by p^e . Suppose $S \in Syl_p(G)$ with $S \neq P$. The orbit O_S of S under this action has size equal to $\frac{|P|}{|N_P(S)|} = [P : N_P(S)]$.

Since $N_P(S)$ is a subgroup of $N_G(S)$, we have $N_P(S) \leq S$ by the Lemma 2. Further, we also know that $N_P(S) \leq P$. So, we get $N_P(S) \leq S \cap P$. WHY IS $S \cap P \leq N_P(S)$?

Theorem 6 (order pq group not simple). Let |G| = pq, where p > q and p, q are prime integers. Then G has a normal Sylow p-subgroup, Also, if G is non abelian, then $q \mid p-1$ and G has exactly p Sylow q-subgroups.

Proof. By corollary 2, we know that $n_p(G) \mid [G:P]$, where $P \in Sylow_p(G)$. Moreover, $n_p(G)$ is either 1 or q. If $n_p(g) = 1$, then by the ??, we know that this means p is normal in G. If $n_p(G) = q$, then by Sylow Counting Theorem, ??, we know that $p \mid q - 1$ but this cannot happed because p > q. By ??, we

also know that $n_p(G) = 1$ or p. Since G/P is a group of order q, G/P is abelian and consequently $G' \subseteq P$. This means that $G' \subseteq P \cap Q = \{1_G\}$ which happens exactly when G is abelian.

Theorem 7 (order p^2q group is not simple).

Proof. By the Corollary on number of Sylow p-subgroups, ?? we know that the number of Sylowq-subgroups is $n_q(G) \in \{1, p, p^2\}$ and $n_p(G) \in \{1, q\}$. By Sylow counting Theorem, $n_p(G) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}, n_q(G) \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$. If $n_q(G) = 1$, then we know that there is exactly one Sylow q-subgroup and it is normal. If $n_q(g) = p$, then q|p-1 and q < p. So, $q \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Therefore $n_p(G) = 1$ and the unique Sylow p-subgroup in G is normal. If $n_q(G) = p^2$, then there are p^2 many distinct subgroups of order q. If Q_1 and Q_2 in $Syl_q(G)$ are distinct Sylow q-subgroups, then $Q_1 \cap Q_2 = \{1_G\}$. The p^2 elements of order q cover $p^2(q-1)$ elements of order q. Then, consider $X = G \setminus \bigcup_{Q \in Syl_q(G)} Q \setminus \{1_G\}$. Then X contains all elements in G whose order is not equal to q. $|X| = p^2q - p^2(q-1) = p^2$. Then, X must be the Sylow p-subgroup. This shows that $n_p(G) = 1$.

Remark 1 (Burnside). If $|G| = p^a q^b$ where p, q are distinct primes, G cannot be simple unless it has order prime power.

Lemma 3 (Sylow *p*-subgroup of simple groups). Suppose $|G| = p^{\alpha}m$ where a > 0, m > 1 and $p \not| m$. If G is simple, then $n = n_p(G)$ satisfies $|G| \mid n!$.

Proof. Set $P \in Syl_p(G)$. By Corollary on Number of Sylow*p*-subgroups, ??, $n = n_p(G) = [G:N_G(P)]$. Since G is simple, $N_G(P) < G$ hence n > 1. By the Theorem on search for normal subgroups, we know that there exists $N \leq N_G(P)$ such that $N \triangleright G$ and $[G:N] \mid n!$. Since G is simple and $N \leq N_G(P) < G$, then $n = \{1_G\}$. Consequently,

Example 1. If $|G| = 2376 = 2^3 \times 3^3 \times 11$, then G is not simple.

Proof. Assume G is simple. We prove this theorem by contradiction. The number of Sylow 11-subgroups, $n_{11}(G) \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$, we have $n_{11}(G)$ is 1, 12 but not 23, 34, 45, 56, 67, 78, 89, 100 or 112. This is because $n_{11}(G)$ also divides $[|G|:|S|]=2^3\times 3^3=216$. We want to find a subgroup $H\leq G$ such that n=[G:H] and $1\leq n\leq 11$. This would suffice because by Theorem on Search for Normal Subgroups, we know that there must exist $K\leq H$ such that $K\triangleleft G$ and [G:K] [n!. This would be a contradiction because 11||G| but 11 [n! for n<11. Let $S\in Syl_{11}(G)$ and $N=N_G(S)$. Since $n_{11}(G)=12=[G:N]$, we have $|N|=2\times 3^2\times 11$. Let $C=C_G(S)$. As the centraliser of a subgroup is normal in the normaliser of it, we get that N/C is isomorphic to a subgroup of A(S). Since $A\equiv Z_{11}$, then $Aut(S)\equiv Z_{10}$. So N/C is isomorphic to a subgroup of Z_{10} . This means [N:C] |10 and GCD([N:C],3)=1. and $3^2||C|$. Let $P\in Syl_3(C)$. Then $|P|=3^2$. Since G is simple, then $H=N_G(p)< G$.

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2 Semidirect Product

Propositions 1 (Number of Representations). Let H and K be subgroups of a group G. The number of distinct ways of writing any given element in HK in the form hk, where h is in H and k is in K, is $|H \cap K|$.

Direct Product Suppose H and K are groups embedded in $H \times K$ in the standard way

$$H \to H \times K$$
 $h \mapsto (h, 1)$

and

$$K \to H \times K$$
 $k \mapsto (1, k)$.

1 in the first, respectively second, coordinate represents the identity in H, respectively K. Then the following properties hold

- 1. $H \times 1$ and $1 \times K$ generate $H \times K$. For (h, k) in $H \cap K$, we have (h, k) = (h, 1)(1, k).
- 2. $(H \times 1) \cap (1 \times K) = \{(1,1)\}.$
- 3. Commutativty:

$$(h,1)(1,k) = (1,k)(h,1).$$

Theorem 8 (Direct Product Recognition). Let G be a group with subgroups H and K, where

- 1. G = HK.
- 2. $H \cap K = \{1\}.$
- 3. H lies in the centre of K, or, equivalently, K lies in the centre of H.

Then the map $H \times K \to G$ defined by $(h, k) \mapsto hk$ is an isomorphism.

Example 2. Let I be an m-subset of $\{1, 2, ..., m\}$ and let G be the setwise stabiliser of I in S_n ,

$$G = \{ \sigma \in S_n \mid | \sigma(I) = I \}.$$

Write $J = \{1, 2, ..., n\} \setminus I$. G is also the setwise stabiliser of J. Suppose

$$H = \{ \sigma \in G \mid \sigma(i) = i, \quad \forall i \in I \}$$

and

$$K = \{ \sigma \in G \mid \sigma(i) = i, \quad \forall i \in J \}.$$

be the pointwise stabiliser of H. We know that $H \triangleleft G$ and $K \triangleleft G$. Moreover, $H \cap K = \{1_G\}$. Then $HK \cong H \times K$. Let $h \in H$ and $k \in K$. We want to prove that hk = kh. We have $h \in Sym(\{1, 2, ..., n\} \setminus I) = Sym(J)$ and $k \in Sym(\{1, 2, ..., n\} \setminus J) = Sym(I)$. For each σ in G stabilising I and J, we can write $\sigma = \sigma_I \sigma_J$, where $\sigma_I \in Sym(J), \sigma_J \in Sym(I)$.

Example 3. Let $G = S_n$ and $n \ge 3$. Let $H = A_n$ and $K = \langle (1\ 2) \rangle$. We have $H \triangleleft G, K \le G$ and $H \cap K = \{1_G\}$. However as we know that H is not normal in G, we realise that G is not the direct product of H and K.

Semidirect product Let H and K be subgroups of G. Suppose $H \triangleleft G$, then $HK \leq G$. For hk and h'k' in hk, we have

$$(hk)(h'k') = hkh'k^{-1}kk' = h(kh'k^{-1})kk'$$

which is in HK because khk^{-1} is in H. Also, $(hk)^{-1} = k^{-1}h^{-1} = k^{-1}h^{-1}kk^{-1}$. K acts on H via conjugaction. Since $H \triangleleft G$, this conjugation is an automorphism of K on H.

Consider two groups H and K not necessarily related. Suppose there is a group homomorphism $\phi \colon K \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ is an action of K on H via ϕ . $\phi_k \mapsto \phi_k \in \operatorname{Aut}(H)$. Since ϕ is a group homomorphism, $\phi_{k_1} \circ \phi_{k_2} = \phi_{k_1 k_2}$ and $\phi_k^{-1} = \phi_{k^{-1}}$.

Definition 3 (Semidirect Product). For two groups H nad K and an action (a group homomorphism) $\phi \colon K \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$. The corresponding semidirect product $Hsemi_{\phi}K$ is defined as follows

- 1. as a set $H \rtimes_{\phi} k = \{(hk) \mid h \in H, k \in K\}$
- 2. operation $(h,k)(h',k') = (h\phi_k(h')kk')$

If $H, K \leq G$ and $\phi_k(h') = kh'k^{-1}$. To show that $H \rtimes_{\phi} K$ is a subgroup, we need to verify that the operation is closed, $(1_H, 1_K)$ is the identity, the inverse of h, k is $(\phi_{k-1}(h^{-1}), k^{-1})$ and the operation is associative.

Example 4. Let $H = \{\pm 1\}$ be a multiplicative group of two elements acting on \mathbb{Z} , the additive group of all integers by automorphisms. Then there is a homomorphism $\phi \colon \{\pm 1\} \mapsto \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z})$. We write $\phi(1) = \phi_1$) where $\phi_1(n) = n$ for all n in \mathbb{Z} and $\phi(-1) = \phi_{-1}$ where $\phi_{-1}(n) = -n$ for all n in \mathbb{Z} . Then the semidirect product $\mathbb{Z} \rtimes_{\phi} \{\pm 1\}$ with operations defined as

$$(a, \epsilon)(a', \epsilon') = (1 + \phi_{\epsilon}(a'), \epsilon \epsilon') = (a + \epsilon a', \epsilon \epsilon')$$

where the operation in the first coordinate is addition in \mathbb{Z} and in the second coordinate is multiplication.

Moreover for any group homomorphism $\Theta \colon \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ given by $\Theta_n \in \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{Z})$, the semidirect product $\mathbb{Z} \rtimes_{\Theta} \mathbb{Z}$ with operation

$$(n,m)(n',m') = (n + \Theta_m(n'), m + m') = (n + (-1)^m n', m + m').$$

The relation between HK and $\rtimes_{\phi} K$.

Theorem 9 (Constructing Semidirect Products). Inside $H \rtimes_{\phi} K$, we have

$$H \equiv H \times 1 = \{(h, 1) \mid h \in H\}$$

by $h \mapsto (h,1)$ and

$$K \equiv 1 \times K = \{(1, k) \mid k \in K\}$$

for each $h \in H$ and $k \in K$

$$(h,k) = (h,1)(1,k) = (1,k)(\phi^{-1}(h),1).$$

 $H \rtimes_{\phi} K$ is generated by $H \times 1$ and $1 \times K$. $H \times 1$ is a normal subgroup of $H \rtimes_{\phi} K$ with conjugation

$$(1,k)(h,1)(1,k)^{-1} = (\phi_k(h),1) \in H \times 1.$$

In particular, for every h in H and k in K, (h,1) and (1,k) commutative iff $\phi \colon K \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ is the trivial action where $\phi_k = \phi(k)$ is the identity mapping for each k in K.

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Firs Mid Term Exam on 03 Oct 24, Thu. 05 questions will be asked and the test will be for 75 minutes. Syllabus will include Group Actions, Sylow Theorems, Semidirect product.

Relationship between action and automorphisms.

We ask when a semidirect product is a direct product.

 $H \rtimes K = H \times K$ iff ϕ is trivial iff $\phi_k = \mathrm{id}_H$ for each $k \in K$ iff $1 \times K \triangleleft H \rtimes_{\phi} K$.

Theorem 10. In $H \rtimes_{\phi} K$, the subgroup $1 \times K \triangleleft H \rtimes_{\phi} K$ iff $\phi \colon K \to \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ is trivial.

Proof. Recall that $H \rtimes_{\phi} K$ is generated by $H \times 1$ and $1 \times K$. Also, $1 \times K$ is normal in $H \rtimes_{\phi}$ iff $(h,1)(1,k)(h^{-1},1)^{-1}$ is in $t \times K$ for all hinH and kinK. Namely, $(h,k)(h^{-1},k) = (h\phi_k(h^{-1}),k)$ is in $1 \times K$. The latter is possible if and only if $h\phi_k(h^{-1}) = 1$, that is $\phi_k(h) = h$ for each h in H and k in K. That means, $\phi_k = \mathrm{id}_H$ for each k in K.

Example 5 (Affine transformations as a semidirect product). Let $H = (\mathbb{R}, +), K = (\mathbb{R}^*, \cdot)$ and $\phi \colon \mathbb{R}^* \to \operatorname{Aut}(\mathbb{R})$ defiend by $\phi(x) = \phi_x$ where $\phi_x(y) = xy$ for all y in \mathbb{R} . Then $\mathbb{R} \rtimes_{\phi} \mathbb{R}$ has operation (a, b)(a', b') = (a + ba', bb'). We have

$$\mathbb{R} \rtimes_{\phi} \mathbb{R} \equiv \operatorname{Aff}(\mathbb{R}) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} b & a \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} : a \in \mathbb{R}, b \in \mathbb{R}^* \right\}.$$

Theorem 11 (Semidirect Product Recognition). Let G be a group with subgroups H and K satisfying

- 1. G = HK,
- 2. $H \cap K = \{1_G\}$
- 3. $H \triangleleft G$.

Let $\phi \colon K \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ be defind where ϕ_k acts on H by conjugation for each k in K with $\phi(k)(h) = kh^{-1}k$ for h in H. Then ϕ is a group homomorphism and the mapping $f \colon H \rtimes_{\phi} K \to G$ with f(h,k) = hk is an isomorphism. To check that ϕ is a homomorphism, we take x, y in K and check that

$$\phi_{xy}(h) = yxhx^{-1}y^{-1} = \phi_y(xhx^{-1}) = \phi_y(\phi_x(h)) = \phi_y \circ \phi_x(h)$$

for any h in H. Given, h, h' in H and k, k' in K, we check that f is a homomorphism:

$$f((h,k)(h',k')) = f(h\phi_k(h'),kk') = h\phi_k(h')kk' = hkhk^{-1}kk' = hkh'k'.$$

Example 6 (Permutation group S_n as a semidirect product). Let $H = S_n$, $G = S_n$ for some integer $n \geq 3$, and $K = \langle (1,2) \rangle$. We have $G = H \cup H(1,2) = HK$, $H \cap K = \{1_G\} = \{\text{id}\}$, $H \triangleleft G$ because it has index 2. We can then express $G = H \rtimes_{\phi} K$, where $\phi_k(h) = khk^{-1}$.

Example 7. In $G = S_4$, with $|G| = 24 = 2^3 \times 3$, $H \in Syl_2(G)$, $K \in Syl_3(G)$. Then H has order 8 and some elements of order 2 and 4. So $H \equiv D_4$, $K \equiv Z_3$. G is not a semidirect product of H and K. We have G = HK and $H \cap K = \{1_G\}$ but $H \not\supset G$ and $K \not\supset G$.

Example 8 (Groups of order pq). We know that if G is a group of order p,q where p,q are prime integers and p < q, then either G is abelian with $G \equiv \mathbb{Z}_{pq}$ or G is not abelian and p|q-1. As q > p, there exists an element b of order q WHY?????? So, there is a group $\langle b \rangle$ of order q. This group is normal because if $a^{-1}\langle b \rangle a \neq \langle b \rangle$ for some a in g, then the product of these groups has order q^2 and is contained in G. As this is not possible, we get that $\langle b \rangle \triangleleft G$. Thus $b^{-1}ab = a^d$ for some positive integer d. Then, we have $a = b^{-p}ab^p = a^{d^p}$ implying that $e = a^{d^p-1}$

Let $P \in Syl_p(G)$ and $Q \in Syl_q(G)$. We know that $Q \triangleleft G$ because WHY????? Then G = PQ and $P \cap Q = \{1_G\}$. So that $G = Q \rtimes_{\phi} P$ for some group homomorphism $\phi \colon P \to \operatorname{Aut}(Q)$. The automorphism group of a cyclic group of order n is a cyclic group of order REALLY??? equal to the number of integers coprime to and less than n. So, $|\operatorname{Aut}(Q)| = q - 1$. If $p \not\mid q - 1$, then $|\phi(P)| = 1$ and so G is abelian. This is because of the fact that $\phi(P) \leq \operatorname{Aut}(Q)$ implies that $|\phi| = \frac{|P|}{|\ker(\phi)|}$ is either 1 or p. If p|q - 1, let $P = \langle y \rangle$ and $\langle \gamma \rangle$ be the unique order p subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}(Q)$ and $\phi \colon P \to \operatorname{Aut}(Q)$ defined by $\phi(y) = r$. We have $\phi(P) = \langle \gamma \rangle$ for some γ in $\operatorname{Aut}(Q)$ because the latter is a cyclic group. If $1 \leq i \leq p - 1$, $G = \ltimes_{\phi} Q$.