GROUPS OF ORDER p^3

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1. Introduction

For each prime p, we will describe all groups of order p^3 up to isomorphism. This was done for p = 2 by Cayley [3, 4] in 1859 and 1889 and Kempe [8, pp. 38–39, 45] in 1886, and for odd p by Cole and Glover [5, pp. 196–201], Hölder [7, pp. 371–373] and Young [13, pp. 133–139] independently in 1893. The groups were described by them using generators and relations, which sometimes leads to unconvincing arguments that the groups constructed to be of order p^3 really have that order.¹

From the cyclic decomposition of finite abelian groups, there are three abelian groups of order p^3 up to isomorphism: $\mathbf{Z}/(p^3)$, $\mathbf{Z}/(p^2) \times \mathbf{Z}/(p)$, and $\mathbf{Z}/(p) \times \mathbf{Z}/(p) \times \mathbf{Z}/(p)$. These are nonisomorphic since they have different maximal orders for their elements: p^3 , p^2 , and p respectively. We will show there are two nonabelian groups of order p^3 up to isomorphism. That number is the same for all p, but the actual description of the two nonabelian groups of order p^3 will be different for p=2 and $p\neq 2$, so we will treat these cases separately.

2. Groups of order 8

Theorem 2.1. A nonabelian group of order 8 is isomorphic to D_4 or to Q_8 .

The groups D_4 and Q_8 are not isomorphic since there are 5 elements of order 2 in D_4 and only one element of order 2 in Q_8 .

Proof. Let G be nonabelian of order 8. The nonidentity elements in G have order 2 or 4. If $q^2 = 1$ for all $q \in G$ then G is abelian, so some $x \in G$ must have order 4.

Let $y \in G - \langle x \rangle$. The subgroup $\langle x, y \rangle$ properly contains $\langle x \rangle$, so $\langle x, y \rangle = G$. Since G is nonabelian, x and y do not commute.

Since $\langle x \rangle$ has index 2 in G, it is a normal subgroup. Therefore $yxy^{-1} \in \langle x \rangle$:

$$yxy^{-1} \in \{1, x, x^2, x^3\}.$$

Since yxy^{-1} has order 4, $yxy^{-1} = x$ or $yxy^{-1} = x^3 = x^{-1}$. The first option is not possible, since it says x and y commute, but they don't. Therefore

$$yxy^{-1} = x^{-1}$$
.

The group $G/\langle x \rangle$ has order 2, so $y^2 \in \langle x \rangle$:

$$y^2 \in \{1, x, x^2, x^3\}.$$

Since y has order 2 or 4, y^2 has order 1 or 2. Thus $y^2 = 1$ or $y^2 = x^2$.

¹The page https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/1023341 gives a nonobvious description of the trivial group by generators and relations.

²See https://kconrad.math.uconn.edu/blurbs/grouptheory/finite-abelian.pdf.

Putting this together, $G = \langle x, y \rangle$ where either

(2.1)
$$x^4 = 1, \quad y^2 = 1, \quad yxy^{-1} = x^{-1}$$

or

(2.2)
$$x^4 = 1, \quad y^2 = x^2, \quad yxy^{-1} = x^{-1}.$$

The relations in (2.1) resemble D_4 , using $x \leftrightarrow r$ and $y \leftrightarrow s$, while the relations in (2.2) resemble Q_8 using $x \leftrightarrow i$ and $y \leftrightarrow j$. We will construct isomorphisms $D_4 \to G$ in the first case and $Q_8 \to G$ in the second case.³

First suppose (2.1) is true. Each element of D_4 has the form $r^m s^n$ for unique $m \in \mathbf{Z}/(4)$ and $n \in \mathbf{Z}/(2)$. Set $f: D_4 \to G$ by $f(r^m s^n) = x^m y^n$.

f is well-defined. The product $r^m s^n$ determines $m \mod 4$ and $n \mod 2$, which makes $x^m y^n$ sensible since $x^4 = 1$ and $y^2 = 1$. Note f(r) = x and f(s) = y, which was suggested by (2.1) originally. It remains to show f is a homomorphism and a bijection.

<u>f</u> is a homomorphism. For general elements $g = r^m s^n$ and $g' = r^{m'} s^{n'}$ in D_4 , we want to show f(gg') = f(g)f(g'). On the left side, $gg' = r^m s^n r^{m'} s^{n'}$. To rewrite this as a power of r times a power of s, from $srs^{-1} = r^{-1}$ we have $s^n rs^{-n} = r^{(-1)^n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}/(2)$, so (raise both sides to the m'-power) $s^n r^{m'} s^{-n} = r^{(-1)^n m'}$. Thus

(2.3)
$$qq' = r^m s^n r^{m'} s^{n'} = r^m r^{(-1)^n m'} s^n s^{n'} = r^{m+(-1)^n m'} s^{n+n'}.$$

so
$$f(qq') = x^{m+(-1)^n m'} y^{n+n'}$$
. Also

(2.4)
$$f(g)f(g') = f(r^m s^n) f(r^{m'} s^{n'}) = x^m y^n x^{m'} x^{n'}.$$

The rewriting of $r^m s^n r^{m'} s^{n'}$ in (2.3) was based only on the relations $srs^{-1} = r^{-1}$ and $s^2 = 1$, so from the similar relations $yxy^{-1} = x^{-1}$ and $y^2 = 1$ in (2.1), the right side of (2.4) is $x^{m+(-1)^n m'} y^{n+n'}$, which is f(gg'). So f is a homomorphism.

<u>f</u> is a bijection. Since f is a homomorphism to G and its image includes x = f(r) and y = f(s), the image of f contains $\langle x, y \rangle$, which is all of G. Thus f is onto. Since $|D_4| = |G|$, a surjection $D_4 \to G$ is a bijection, so f is a bijection.

Now suppose (2.2) is true. We want to build an isomorphism $Q_8 \to G$ mapping i to x and j to y. Every element of Q_8 looks like $i^m j^n$ where $m, n \in \mathbf{Z}/(4)$. Set $f: Q_8 \to G$ by $f(i^m j^n) = x^m y^n$.

 \underline{f} is well-defined. A representation of an element of Q_8 as $i^m j^n$ is not unique: if $i^m j^n = i^{m'} \underline{j^{n'}}$ then $i^{m-m'} = j^{n'-n}$, so m-m' = 2a and n'-n = 2b where $a \equiv b \mod 2$ (why?). Then $x^{m-m'} = (x^2)^a = (y^2)^a = (y^2)^b = y^{n'-n}$ by the first two relations in (2.2), so $x^m y^n = x^{m'} y^{n'}$.

 \underline{f} is a homomorphism. Since $jij^{-1} = i^{-1}$ and j^2 commutes with i, check $j^nij^{-n} = i^{(-1)^n}$ for all $n \in \mathbf{Z}/(4)$. This and the first two relations in (2.2) imply $f: Q_8 \to G$ is a homomorphism for reasons similar to the previous mapping $D_4 \to G$ being a homomorphism.

f is a bijection. This follows for the same reasons as before, since the image of f includes f(i) = x and f(j) = y and $\langle x, y \rangle = G$.

³We map from D_4 or Q_8 to G rather than in the other direction because D_4 and Q_8 are known groups, so it is better to start there.

3. The case of odd p

From now, $p \neq 2$. We'll show the two nonabelian groups of order p^3 , up to isomorphism, are

$$\operatorname{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p)) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} : a, b, c \in \mathbf{Z}/(p) \right\}$$

and

$$G_p = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbf{Z}/(p^2), a \equiv 1 \bmod p \right\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 + pm & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} : m, b \in \mathbf{Z}/(p^2) \right\},$$

where m actually only matters modulo p. These two constructions both make sense at the prime 2, but in that case the two groups are isomorphic to each other, as we'll see below.

We can distinguish between $\text{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p))$ and G_p for $p \neq 2$ by counting elements of order $p. \text{ In Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p)),$

(3.1)
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & na & nb + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & nc \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

for $n \in \mathbf{Z}$, so

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{p(p-1)}{2}ac \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

When $p \neq 2$, $\frac{p(p-1)}{2} \equiv 0 \mod p$, so all nonidentity elements of $\operatorname{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p))$ have order p. On the other hand, $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ in G_p has order p^2 since $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & n \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$. So $\operatorname{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p)) \ncong G_p$. At the prime 2, $\operatorname{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(2))$ and G_2 each contain more than one element of order 2, so

 $\text{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(2))$ and G_2 are both isomorphic to D_4 (Theorem 2.1).

Let's look at how matrices combine and decompose in $\text{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p))$ and G_p when $p \neq 2$, since this will inform some of our computations later when we classify the nonabelian grousp of order p^3 . In Heis($\mathbf{Z}/(p)$),

(3.2)
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a' & b' \\ 0 & 1 & c' \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a+a' & b+b'+ac' \\ 0 & 1 & c+c' \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and in G_p

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1+pm & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1+pm' & b' \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1+p(m+m') & b+b'+pmb' \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In Heis($\mathbf{Z}/(p)$),

$$\begin{pmatrix}
1 & a & b \\
0 & 1 & c \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & c \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix}
1 & a & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & b \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}^{c} \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}^{a} \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}^{b} \text{ by (3.1)}$$

⁴The notation G_p for this group is not standard. I don't know a standard "matrix group" notation for it.

and a particular commutator is

$$\left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

So if we set

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

then

(3.4)
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = y^c x^a [x, y]^b.$$

In $G_p \subset \text{Aff}(\mathbf{Z}/(p^2))$,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1+pm & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1+pm & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^b \begin{pmatrix} 1+p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^m.$$

If we set

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} 1+p & 0\\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and $y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1\\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

then

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 + pm & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = y^b x^m$$

and

$$[x,y] = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & p \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = y^p.$$

Lemma 3.1. In a group G, if g and h commute with [g,h] then $[g^m,h^n]=[g,h]^{mn}$ for all m and n in \mathbb{Z} , and $g^nh^n=(gh)^n[g,h]^{\binom{n}{2}}$.

Proof. Exercise. \Box

Lemma 3.2. Let p be prime and G be a nonabelian group of order p^3 with center Z. Then |Z| = p, $G/Z \cong (\mathbf{Z}/(p)) \times (\mathbf{Z}/(p))$, and [G, G] = Z.

Proof. Since G is a nontrivial group of p-power order, its center is nontrivial. Therefore $|Z|=p,p^2$, or p^3 . Since G is nonabelian, $|Z|\neq p^3$. For a group G, if G/Z is cyclic then G is abelian. So G being nonabelian forces G/Z to be noncyclic. Therefore $|G/Z|\neq p$, so $|Z|\neq p^2$. The only choice left is |Z|=p, so G/Z has order p^2 .

Up to isomorphism the only groups of order p^2 are $\mathbf{Z}/(p^2)$ and $\mathbf{Z}/(p) \times \mathbf{Z}/(p)$. Since G/Z is noncyclic, $G/Z \cong \mathbf{Z}/(p) \times \mathbf{Z}/(p)$.

Since G/Z is abelian, we have $[G,G]\subset Z$. Because |Z|=p and [G,G] is nontrivial, necessarily [G,G]=Z.

Remark 3.3. Although it won't be necessary below, Lemma 3.2 implies for all primes p, including p=2, that a nonabelian group G of order p^3 has p^2+p-1 conjugacy classes. To start, G has p conjugacy classes of size 1 since those are the elements of the center Z and |Z|=p. Next, if $g \in G-Z$ then its conjugacy class has order $|G|/|Z(g)|=p^3/|Z(g)|$, where $Z(g)=\{x\in G: xg=gx\}$ is the centralizer of g. Since Z(g) is a subgroup of G containing Z and g and $Z(g)\neq G$, $|Z(g)|=p^2$. Thus $|G|/|Z(g)|=p^3/p^2=p$, so all conjugacy classes

of size greater than 1 have size p. Conjugate elements of G are equal in G/Z (since G/Z is abelian) and each coset in G/Z has size p, so for each $g \in G - Z$, its conjugacy class in G must be the coset gZ.

Collecting the $p^3 - p$ noncentral elements of G into disjoint conjugacy classes each of size p, the number of such conjugacy classes is $(p^3 - p)/p = p^2 - 1$, so the total number of conjugacy classes in G is $p + (p^2 - 1) = p^2 + p - 1$: p of size p and $p^2 - 1$ of size p.

Theorem 3.4. For $p \neq 2$, a nonabelian group of order p^3 is isomorphic to $\text{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p))$ or G_p .

Proof. Let G be a nonabelian group of order p^3 . Each $g \neq 1$ in G has order p or p^2 .

By Lemma 3.2, we can write $G/Z = \langle \overline{x}, \overline{y} \rangle$ and $Z = \langle z \rangle$. For $g \in G$, $g \equiv x^i y^j \mod Z$ for some integers i and j, so $g = x^i y^j z^k = z^k x^i y^j$ for some $k \in \mathbf{Z}$. If x and y commute then G is abelian (since z^k commutes with x and y), which is a contradiction. Thus x and y do not commute. Therefore $[x,y] = xyx^{-1}y^{-1} \in Z$ is nontrivial, so $Z = \langle [x,y] \rangle$. Therefore we can use [x,y] for z, showing $G = \langle x,y \rangle$.

Let's see what the product of two elements of G looks like. Using Lemma 3.1,

(3.5)
$$x^{i}y^{j} = y^{j}x^{i}[x, y]^{ij}, \quad y^{j}x^{i} = x^{i}y^{j}[x, y]^{-ij}.$$

This shows we can move every power of y past every power of x on either side, at the cost of introducing a (commuting) power of [x, y]. So every element of $G = \langle x, y \rangle$ has the form $y^j x^i [x, y]^k$. (We write in this order because of (3.4).) A product of two such terms is

$$\begin{array}{lcl} y^{c}x^{a}[x,y]^{b} \cdot y^{c'}x^{a'}[x,y]^{b'} & = & y^{c}(x^{a}y^{c'})x^{a'}[x,y]^{b+b'} \\ & = & y^{c}(y^{c'}x^{a}[x,y]^{ac'})x^{a'}[x,y]^{b+b'} & \text{by (3.5)} \\ & = & y^{c+c'}x^{a+a'}[x,y]^{b+b'+ac'}. \end{array}$$

Here the exponents are all integers. Comparing this with (3.2), it appears we have a homomorphism $\text{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p)) \to G$ by

(3.6)
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto y^c x^a [x, y]^b.$$

After all, we just showed multiplication of such triples $y^c x^a [x, y]^b$ behaves like multiplication in Heis($\mathbb{Z}/(p)$). But there is a catch: the matrix entries a, b, and c in Heis($\mathbb{Z}/(p)$) are integers modulo p, so the "function" (3.6) from Heis($\mathbb{Z}/(p)$) to G is only well-defined if x, y, and [x, y] all have p-th power 1 (so exponents on them only matter mod p). Since [x, y] is in the center of G, a subgroup of order p, its exponents only matter modulo p. But maybe x or y could have order p^2 .

Well, if x and y both have order p, then there is no problem with (3.6). It is a well-defined function $\text{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p)) \to G$ that is a homomorphism. Since its image contains x and y, the image contains $\langle x, y \rangle = G$, so the function is onto. Both $\text{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p))$ and G have order p^3 , so our surjective homomorphism is an isomorphism: $G \cong \text{Heis}(\mathbf{Z}/(p))$.

What happens if x or y has order p^2 ? In this case we anticipate that $G \cong G_p$. In G_p , two generators are $g = \begin{pmatrix} 1+p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $h = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, where g has order p, h has order p^2 , and $[g,h] = h^p$. We want to show our abstract G also has a pair of generators like this.

Starting with $G = \langle x, y \rangle$ where x or y has order p^2 , without loss of generality let y have order p^2 . It may or may not be the case that x has order p. To show we can change generators to make x have order p, we will look at the p-th power function on G. For all

 $g \in G$, $g^p \in Z$ since $G/Z \cong \mathbf{Z}/(p) \times \mathbf{Z}/(p)$. Moreover, the *p*-th power function on *G* is a homomorphism: by Lemma 3.1, $(gh)^p = g^p h^p [g, h]^{p(p-1)/2}$ and $[g, h]^p = 1$ since [G, G] = Z has order p, so

$$(gh)^p = g^p h^p$$
.

Since y^p has order p and $y^p \in Z$, $Z = \langle y^p \rangle$. Therefore $x^p = (y^p)^r$ for some $r \in \mathbf{Z}$, and since the p-th power function on G is a homomorphism we get $(xy^{-r})^p = 1$, with $xy^{-r} \neq 1$ since $x \notin \langle y \rangle$. So xy^{-r} has order p and $G = \langle x, y \rangle = \langle xy^{-r}, y \rangle$. We now rename xy^{-r} as x, so $G = \langle x, y \rangle$ where x has order p and y has order p^2 .

We are not guaranteed that $[x, y] = y^p$, which is one of the relations for the two generators of G_p . How can we force this relation to occur? Well, since [x, y] is a nontrivial element of [G, G] = Z, $Z = \langle [x, y] \rangle = \langle y^p \rangle$, so

$$[x, y] = (y^p)^k,$$

where $k \not\equiv 0 \mod p$. Let ℓ be a multiplicative inverse for $k \mod p$ and raise both sides of (3.7) to the ℓ th power: using Lemma 3.1,

$$[x,y]^{\ell} = (y^{pk})^{\ell} \Longrightarrow [x^{\ell},y] = y^{p}.$$

Since $\ell \not\equiv 0 \mod p$, $\langle x \rangle = \langle x^{\ell} \rangle$, so we can rename x^{ℓ} as x: now $G = \langle x, y \rangle$ where x has order p, y has order p^2 , and $[x, y] = y^p$.

Because [x,y] commutes with x and y and $G = \langle x,y \rangle$, every element of G has the form $y^j x^i [x,y]^k = [x,y]^k y^j x^i = y^{pk+j} x^i$. Let's see how such products multiply:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} y^b x^m \cdot y^{b'} x^{m'} & = & y^b (x^m y^{b'}) x^{m'} \\ & = & y^b (y^{b'} x^m [x, y]^{mb'}) x^{m'} \\ & = & y^{b+b'} x^m (y^p)^{mb'} x^{m'} \\ & = & y^{b+b'+pmb'} x^{m+m'}. \end{array}$$

Comparing this with (3.3), we have a homomorphism $G_p \to G$ by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1+pm & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto y^b x^m.$$

(This function is well-defined since on the left side m matters mod p and b matters mod p^2 while $x^p = 1$ and $y^{p^2} = 1$.) This homomorphism is onto since x and y are in the image, so it is an isomorphism since G_p and G have equal order: $G \cong G_p$.

4. Nonisomorphic groups with the same subgroup lattice

When p=2, the five groups of order 8 have different subgroup lattices. This is almost entirely explained by counting subgroups of order 2 (equivalently, counting elements of order 2): 1 for $\mathbb{Z}/(8)$, 3 for $\mathbb{Z}/(2) \times \mathbb{Z}/(4)$, 7 for $(\mathbb{Z}/(2))^3$, 5 for D_4 , and 1 for Q_8 . While the count is the same for $\mathbb{Z}/(8)$ and Q_8 , these groups have different numbers of subgroups of order 4: 1 for $\mathbb{Z}/(8)$ and 3 for Q_8 .

For $p \neq 2$, we'll show the subgroup lattices of G_p and $\mathbf{Z}/(p) \times \mathbf{Z}/(p^2)$ are the same.

Theorem 4.1. For odd prime p, both G_p and $\mathbf{Z}/(p) \times \mathbf{Z}/(p^2)$ have the same subgroup lattice:

- p+1 subgroups of order p and p+1 subgroups of order p^2 ,
- a unique subgroup H_0 of order p^2 that contains all subgroups of order p,

- a unique subgroup K_0 of order p that is contained in all subgroups of order p^2 ,
- each subgroup of order p^2 besides H_0 contains K_0 as its only subgroup of order p,
- each subgroup of order p besides K_0 has H_0 as the only subgroup of order p^2 containing it.

Figure 1 is the subgroup lattice for G_3 . It reflects all 5 properties of Theorem 4.1.

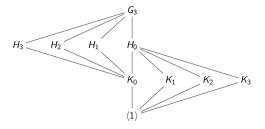


FIGURE 1. Subgroup lattice for G_3 .

Theorem 4.1 is false for p = 2: $G_2 \cong D_4$ has 5 subgroups of order 2 and 3 subgroups of order 4 while $\mathbb{Z}/(2) \times \mathbb{Z}/(4)$ has 3 subgroups of order 2 and 3 subgroups of order 4. All nonisomorphic groups of order 8 have different subgroup lattices.

Proof. Case 1: subgroups of $\mathbf{Z}/(p) \times \mathbf{Z}/(p^2)$. Elements of order 1 or p are (a,b) where $b \in p\mathbf{Z}/(p^2)$, so there are p^2-1 elements of order p. Different subgroups of order p intersect trivially, so the number of subgroups of order p is $(p^2-1)/(p-1)=p+1$.

The elements of order 1 or p fill up the subgroup $H_0 := \{(a,b) : b \in p\mathbf{Z}/(p^2)\}$, which has order p^2 and is not cyclic. Since H_0 contains all the subgroups of order p, other subgroups of order p^2 must have an element of order p^2 and are therefore cyclic. Elements of order p^2 are (a,b) where $b \in (\mathbf{Z}/(p^2))^{\times}$, and the subgroup $\langle (a,b) \rangle$ has a generator of the form (c,1). As c varies in $\mathbf{Z}/(p)$, the p subgroups $\langle (c,1) \rangle$ have order p^2 and are distinct, so the number of subgroups of order p^2 is p+1.

In each cyclic subgroup $\langle (c,1) \rangle$ of order p^2 , the subgroup of order p is $K_0 = \langle p(c,1) \rangle = \langle (p,0) \rangle$, which is independent of c. So K_0 is the only subgroup of order p in subgroups of order p^2 besides H_0 .

<u>Case 2</u>: subgroups of G_p . Check by induction that for integers $n \geq 0$,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1+pm & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^n = \begin{pmatrix} 1+npm & (n+\frac{n(n-1)}{2}pm)b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since p is odd, p(p-1)/2 is divisible by p, so

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 + pm & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & pb \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore $\begin{pmatrix} 1+pm & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^p$ is trivial if and only if $b \in p\mathbf{Z}/(p^2)$. Writing $b \equiv p\ell \mod p^2$,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1+pm & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1+pm & p\ell \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & p\ell \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1+pm & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & p \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{\ell} \begin{pmatrix} 1+p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{m}$$

for $\ell, m \in \mathbf{Z}/(p)$. So there are $p^2 - 1$ elements of order p.

Check $\binom{1}{0} \binom{p}{1}$ and $\binom{1+p}{0} \binom{1}{1}$ commute, so the elements of G_p with order p are the nontrivial elements of the subgroup $H_0 := \langle \binom{1}{0} \binom{p}{1}, \binom{1+p}{0} \binom{0}{1} \rangle$, which has order p^2 and is not cyclic. A subgroup of G_p with order p^2 besides H_0 must have an element of order p^2 , so subgroups of order p^2 besides H_0 are cyclic. Elements of G_p with order p^2 are $\binom{1+pm}{0} \binom{b}{1}$ where $b \in (\mathbf{Z}/(p^2))^{\times}$ and $\langle \binom{1+pm}{0} \binom{b}{1} \rangle$ has a generator of the form $\binom{1+pc}{0} \binom{1}{1}$ for $c \in \mathbf{Z}/(p)$. These subgroups for different c are distinct, so the number of subgroups of order p^2 is p+1. In $\langle \binom{1+pc}{0} \binom{1}{1} \rangle$, the subgroup of order p is $K_0 = \langle \binom{1+pc}{0} \binom{1}{1} p^p \rangle = \langle \binom{1}{0} \binom{p}{1} \rangle$, which is independent of c. Therefore K_0 is the only subgroup of G_p with order p that is contained in subgroups of order p^2 other than H_0 .

5. Counting p-groups beyond order p^3

Let's summarize what is known about the count of groups of small p-power order.

- There is one group of order p up to isomorphism.
- There are two groups of order p^2 up to isomorphism: $\mathbf{Z}/(p^2)$ and $\mathbf{Z}/(p) \times \mathbf{Z}/(p)$.
- There are five groups of order p^3 up to isomorphism, but our explicit description of them is not uniform in p since the case p=2 used a separate treatment.

For groups of order p^4 , the count is no longer uniform in p: there are 14 groups of order 2^4 and 15 groups of order p^4 for $p \neq 2$. This is due to Hölder [7] and Young [13]. A recent account of this result by Adler, Garlow, and Wheland is on the arXiv [1]. For groups of order p^5 , the count depends on $p \mod 12$ as shown in the table below. This is due to Miller [9] for p=2 and Bagnera [2] for p>2. Tables listing groups of order 32 and 243 are available at Tim Dokchitser's site [6]. The first count of groups of order p^6 is due to Potron [12], with a modern count being made by Newman, O'Brien, and Vaughan-Lee [10]. A count of groups of order p^7 is due to O'Brien and Vaughan-Lee [11].

p	2	3	$1 \bmod 12$	$5 \mod 12$	$7 \mod 12$	$11 \mod 12$
Groups of order p^5	51	67	2p + 71	2p + 67	2p + 69	2p + 65

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