# ON THE PRODUCT OF TWO $\pi$-DECOMPOSABLE SOLUBLE GROUPS 

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Abstract


#### Abstract

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


## 1. Notation and Preliminaries

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

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

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

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

[^0]Lemma 1. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of a $\pi$-decomposable subgroup $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and a $\pi$-subgroup $B$. Then the following statements are equivalent:
(i) $A_{\pi} \leq O_{\pi}(G)$;
(ii) $G$ contains Hall $\pi$-subgroups and $A_{\pi} B=B A_{\pi}$ is a Hall $\pi$-subgroup of $G$.
The starting point for our work is the theorem of Kegel and Wielandt which states the solubility of a group which is the product of two nilpotent subgroups.

For the proof of this theorem Kegel found a very useful criterion for the non-simplicity of a finite group in terms of some suitable permutability conditions on subgroups ([13, Satz 3]). It was improved by Wielandt in [15, Satz 1]. (See also [1, Lemmas 2.4.1, 2.5.1].) We state here a reformulation of these results which is convenient for our purposes.
Lemma 2. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of the subgroups $A$ and $B$ and let $A_{0}$ and $B_{0}$ be normal subgroups of $A$ and $B$, respectively. If $A_{0} B_{0}=B_{0} A_{0}$, then $A_{0}^{g} B_{0}=B_{0} A_{0}^{g}$ for all $g \in G$.

Assume in addition that $A_{0}$ and $B_{0}$ are $\pi$-groups for a set of primes $\pi$. If $O_{\pi}(G)=1$, then $\left[A_{0}^{G}, B_{0}^{G}\right]=1$.
(We note that this result is applicable in particular if $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ and $B=B_{\pi} \times B_{\pi^{\prime}}$ are $\pi$-decomposable and considering $A_{0}=A_{\pi}$ and $B_{0}=B_{\pi}$. )
Proof: Let $g \in G$ and consider $g=a b$ with $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Since $A_{0}$ and $B_{0}$ are normal subgroups of $A$ and $B$, respectively, and they permute, we have:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

We need specifically the following result (see [1, Corollary 1.3.3]).
Lemma 3. Let the group $G=A B$ be the product of the subgroups $A$ and $B$. Then for each prime $p$ there exist Sylow $p$-subgroups $A_{p}$ of $A$ and $B_{p}$ of $B$ such that $A_{p} B_{p}$ is a Sylow p-subgroup of $G$.

For products of soluble subgroups the following lemma will be also used.

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

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

## 2. The minimal counterexample

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

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

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

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

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

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

This implies that $\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle$ is a $\pi$-group and, consequently, $\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle=$ $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}$, a contradiction.

If $N$ is a $\pi$-group, then $\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle \leq A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N$ is a $\pi$-group which implies the contradiction $\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle=A_{\pi} B_{\pi}$, as $\left|A_{\pi} B_{\pi}\right|=|G|_{\pi}$ is the largest $\pi$-number dividing $|G|$.

Assume now that $N$ is a $\pi^{\prime}$-group. Note that

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

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

Put now $H=\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle$. Then the following properties hold:
Step 2. $N \leq H \unlhd G$.
From [1, Lemma 1.2.2] we have that $N_{G}(H)=N_{A}(H) N_{B}(H)$. If $N_{G}(H)$ is a proper subgroup of $G$, then $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}$ is a subgroup of $G$ by the choice of $G$, which is a contradiction. Hence $H$ is a normal subgroup of $G$ and so $N \leq H$.

Step 3. $G=A H=B H=A B$.
Observe that $A H=A(A H \cap B)$. If $A H$ is a proper subgroup of $G$, then the choice of $G$ implies again the contradiction $A_{\pi} B_{\pi}=B_{\pi} A_{\pi}$. Therefore $G=A H$ and, analogously, $G=B H$.
Step 4. $H=A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N$.
This is clear since $A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N$ is a subgroup of $G$ and $N \leq H \leq A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N \leq$ $H$.

Step 5. $A_{\pi^{\prime}} N=B_{\pi^{\prime}} N=A_{\pi^{\prime}} B_{\pi^{\prime}} N$.
Since $G=A H=A B_{\pi} N$, we deduce that

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

Then $B_{\pi^{\prime}}=B_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap A N$, that is, $B_{\pi^{\prime}} \leq A N$ and, consequently, $B_{\pi^{\prime}} \leq A_{\pi^{\prime}} N$.
Analogously the equality $G=B H=B A_{\pi} N$ implies that $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \leq B_{\pi^{\prime}} N$.
Therefore $A_{\pi^{\prime}} N=B_{\pi^{\prime}} N=A_{\pi^{\prime}} B_{\pi^{\prime}} N$.
Step 6. $G / N=O_{\pi^{\prime}}(G / N) \times O_{\pi}(G / N)$.
Note first that $H / N=A_{\pi} B_{\pi} N / N \in \operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}(G / N)$ and $H / N \unlhd G / N$.
On the other hand, we deduce from Step 5 that $A_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N=B_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N$ is a Hall $\pi^{\prime}$-subgroup of $G / N$ normalized by $A N / N$ and by $B N / N$, that is, it is normal in $G / N$, and the assertion follows.

Step 7. $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap B_{\pi^{\prime}}=1$.
If $L=A_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap B_{\pi^{\prime}}$, then $N \leq\left\langle A_{\pi}, B_{\pi}\right\rangle \leq C_{G}(L)$, and so $L \leq C_{G}(N)=1$.
Step 8. Assume that $1 \neq M \unlhd G$ and $K:=A M \neq G$. Then $O_{\pi}(K)=1$, $A_{\pi} \tilde{B}_{\pi} \in \operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}(K)$ and $\left[A_{\pi}^{K}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}^{K}\right]=1$, where $\tilde{B}_{\pi}:=B_{\pi} \cap A M=B_{\pi} \cap$ $A_{\pi} M$. Moreover, $\tilde{B}_{\pi} \neq 1$ and $B_{\pi} \cap M=\tilde{B}_{\pi} \cap M=1$.

First observe that $\left[O_{\pi}(K), N\right] \leq O_{\pi}(K) \cap N=1$, which implies $O_{\pi}(K) \leq C_{G}(N)=1$. Moreover, since $K=A M=A(A M \cap B)<G$, the choice of $G$ implies that $T:=A_{\pi} \tilde{B}_{\pi}=\tilde{B}_{\pi} A_{\pi} \in \operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}(K)$. Hence, from Lemma 2, it follows that $\left[A_{\pi}^{K}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}^{K}\right]=1$.

Suppose now that $\tilde{B}_{\pi}=1$. Then $T=A_{\pi} \in \operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}(K)$ and $A_{\pi} \cap M \in$ $\operatorname{Hall}_{\pi}(M)$. Note that $A_{\pi} \cap M \neq 1$ because otherwise $M$ would be a $\pi^{\prime}$-group, which contradicts Step 1. Since $\pi$ is a set of odd primes, then $M$ satisfies the $C_{\pi}$-property by [8, Theorem A] and so, by the Frattini argument, we conclude that $G=M N_{G}\left(A_{\pi} \cap M\right)$. Hence

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

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

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

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

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

Step 9. $A$ acts transitively on the set $\Omega=\left\{N_{1}, \ldots, N_{r}\right\}$.
Assume that this is not true and take $R:=\cap_{i=1}^{r} N_{G}\left(N_{i}\right) \unlhd G$. Then $A R<G$ and we can apply Step 8 with $M=R$. In particular, from the facts that $\tilde{B}_{\pi}=B_{\pi} \cap A R \neq 1$ and $B_{\pi} \cap R=\tilde{B}_{\pi} \cap R=1$ we deduce that $\tilde{B}_{\pi} \not \leq R$. Then there exists $1 \neq b \in \tilde{B}_{\pi} \backslash R$. Without loss of generality we may assume that $b \notin N_{G}\left(N_{1}\right)$, and so $\left|\Omega_{\langle b\rangle}\left(N_{1}\right)\right| \geq 2$, where $\Omega_{\langle b\rangle}\left(N_{1}\right)$ denotes the orbit of $N_{1}$ under the action of $b$ on $\Omega=\left\{N_{1}, \ldots, N_{r}\right\}$. On the other hand, since $\tilde{B}_{\pi} \leq R A_{\pi}$, then $b=c a$ for some $c \in R$ and $a \in A_{\pi}$. Since $R$ normalizes each $N_{i}$, we have $\Omega_{\langle b\rangle}\left(N_{1}\right)=\Omega_{\langle a\rangle}\left(N_{1}\right)$. Now note that $\left[N_{1},\langle b\rangle\right]=N_{i_{1}} \times \cdots \times N_{i_{k}}$, where $\Omega_{\langle b\rangle}\left(N_{1}\right)=\left\{N_{1}=\right.$
$\left.N_{i_{1}}, \ldots, N_{i_{k}}\right\} \subseteq \Omega$. Analogously, $\left[N_{1},\langle a\rangle\right]=N_{i_{1}} \times \cdots \times N_{i_{k}}=\left[N_{1},\langle b\rangle\right]$. Therefore $\left[N_{1},\langle a\rangle\right]=\left[N_{1},\langle b\rangle\right] \leq\left[N_{1}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}\right] \cap\left[N_{1}, A_{\pi}\right]$. Now from Step 8 we have that

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

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

Step 10. $G=A N=B N=A B$.
Assume that this is not true and, for instance, $A N<G$. Then we can apply Step 8 with $M=N$. In particular, $\left[A_{\pi}^{K}, \tilde{B}_{\pi}^{K}\right]=1$, where $K=A N, \tilde{B}_{\pi}=B_{\pi} \cap A N=B_{\pi} \cap A_{\pi} N$ and $\tilde{B}_{\pi} \neq 1$. Since $C_{G}(N)=1$ we may assume that there exists $1 \neq b \in \tilde{B}_{\pi}$ such that $\left[N_{1},\langle b\rangle\right] \neq 1$. But this means that $N_{1} \leq\left[N_{1},\langle b\rangle\right]$ and $A_{\pi}$ centralizes this subgroup. Since $A$ acts transitively on $\Omega=\left\{N_{1}, \ldots, N_{r}\right\}$ and $A_{\pi} \unlhd A$, it follows that $A_{\pi}$ centralizes each $N_{i}$, for $i=1, \ldots, r$, and so $A_{\pi} \leq C_{G}(N)=1$, a contradiction which proves that $A N=G$.

By the symmetry between $A$ and $B$ we can also prove $G=B N$ and we are done.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Therefore our claim follows and $N$ is a simple group.
We recall that $G=A N=B N=A B$ and so we deduce that $\mid N \| A \cap$ $B|=|N \cap A|| N \cap B \| G / N \mid$. In particular, if $X, Y$ are maximal soluble subgroups of $N$ such that $N \cap A \leq X$ and $N \cap B \leq Y$, then $|N|$ divides $|X||Y||\operatorname{Out}(N)|$. Then we will use the fact that the orders of $X$ and $Y$ are known from the proof of [2, Lemma 2.5].

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

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

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

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

- $N \cong L_{4}(2) \cong A_{8}$. In this case, there is no factorization $G=A B$ with $A, B$ soluble subgroups.
- $N \cong U_{3}(8)$. Then $|N|=2^{9} \cdot 3^{4} \cdot 7 \cdot 19$ and $|\operatorname{Out}(N)|=2 \cdot 3^{2}$. By [2, Lemma 2.5], we may assume that $|N \cap A|$ divides $3 \cdot 19$ and $|N \cap B|$ divides $2^{9} \cdot 7 \cdot 3$. Hence by order arguments it follows that $|G| \geq|N| \cdot 3^{2}$. Note also that since $\operatorname{Out}(N)$ is not a direct product of a 2 -group and a 3 -group, $G / N$ should be a $\pi$-group or a $\pi^{\prime}$-group. By [2, Lemma 2.5], we may assume that $|N \cap A|$ divides $3 \cdot 19$ and $|N \cap B|$ divides $2^{9} \cdot 7 \cdot 3$.

If $|G / N|=3^{2}$, then $|N \cap A|=3 \cdot 19$ and $|N \cap B|=2^{9} \cdot 7 \cdot 3$. Now the fact that a Sylow 19-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing in $N$ forces 3 and 19 to belong to the same set of primes, that is, $\pi \cap \pi(G)=\{3,19\}$ and $\pi^{\prime} \cap \pi(G)=\{2,7\}$. But then $A$ would be a $\pi$-group, a contradiction.

Now assume that $|G / N|=2 \cdot 3^{2}$, that is, $G \cong \operatorname{Aut}(N)$. Then $|N \cap A|=$ $3 \cdot 19,|N \cap B|=2^{8} \cdot 7 \cdot 3$ and 2,3 are in the same set of primes, that is, $\pi^{\prime} \cap \pi(G)=\{2,3\}$ and $\pi \cap \pi(G)=\{7,19\}$. But this cannot occur again because a Sylow 19-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing.

- $N \cong L_{2}(q), q=p^{n}$.

Recall that, in this case, $|N|=\epsilon q\left(q^{2}-1\right), \epsilon=(p-1,2)^{-1}$, and $\operatorname{Out}(N)$ is a cyclic group of order $\epsilon^{-1} n$. From [2, Lemma 2.5] it follows that, apart from some exceptional cases with $q \in\{5,7,11,23\}$ that we
will study later, the maximal soluble subgroups $X$ and $Y$ of $N$ satisfies the condition $\{X, Y\}=\left\{N_{N}\left(N_{p}\right), D_{\nu(q+1)}\right\}$, with $N_{p} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(N)$, $\left|N_{N}\left(N_{p}\right)\right|=\epsilon q(q-1)$ and $D_{\nu(q+1)}$ a dihedral group of order $\nu(q+1)$ with $\nu=(2, p)$.

We claim that $p$ does not divide $(|N \cap A|,|N \cap B|)$. Assume first that $p \in \pi$. If $p$ would divide $(|N \cap A|,|N \cap B|)$, then $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap N=1=$ $B_{\pi^{\prime}} \cap N$, since the centralizer of any element of order $p$ in $N$ is a $p$-group. Therefore $A_{\pi^{\prime}} \cong A_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Out}(N)$ and, analogously, $B_{\pi^{\prime}} \cong B_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N$. Moreover, $A_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N=B_{\pi^{\prime}} N / N$. By the structure of Out $(N)$ we deduce that there exists a prime $r \in \pi^{\prime}$ such that $A$ and $B$ have normal Sylow $r$-subgroups. Again from Lemmas 3 and 2 we get the contradiction that $N$ is abelian. Note that the same conclusion follows if $p \in \pi^{\prime}$.

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

We claim now that $p$ divides $|G / N|$ and, in particular, $n>1$. Since $|N|$ divides $|G / N||N \cap A||N \cap B|$, if $p$ does not divide $|G / N|$, it follows that $|N|_{p}=|N \cap B|_{p}$. Then a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $N \cap B$ is a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $N$ contained in $B$. Hence $B$ must be a $\pi$-group or a $\pi^{\prime}$ group, because the centralizer in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$ of any Sylow $p$-subgroup of $N$ is a p-group by $[\mathbf{1 1}, 1.17]$, which is a contradiction.

We have that $G / N=B N / N$ and also that $|N|_{p}$ divides $|G / N|_{p}|N \cap B|_{p}$. Since $B_{\pi} \neq 1, B_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$ and $n>1$, it is clear that there exists some outer automorphism $\phi$ centralizing a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $N \cap B$. Then it follows that $\left|C_{N}(\phi)\right|_{p} \geq|N \cap B|_{p} \geq q / n$. But $\left|C_{N}(\phi)\right|_{p} \leq q^{1 / 2}$ (see, for instance, [5, Chapter 12]). Hence $q \leq q^{1 / 2} n$, that is, $q=p^{n} \leq n^{2}$. This leads to a contradiction, except for the cases $p=2$ and $n \leq 4$.

The case $(p, n)=(2,3)$ can be easily excluded, since the group $L_{2}\left(2^{3}\right)=$ $L_{2}(8)$ has order divisible only by three distinct primes. Finally, the case $(p, n)=(2,4)$ is also excluded, because in this case $B$ would be a $\pi^{\prime}$ group, which is not possible.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Since $N$ is a non-abelian simple group factorized as the product of two soluble subgroups of coprime orders, we have from $[\mathbf{1 0}]$ and $[\mathbf{7}$, Theorem 1.1] that $N$ should be isomorphic to one of the following: $M_{11}$, $L_{3}(3), L_{2}(q)$ with $q>3$ odd and $q \equiv-1(4), L_{2}(8)$ and $L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right)$ with $2^{n}+$ $1>5$ a Fermat prime. (Recall that the remainder cases for $L_{2}\left(2^{n}\right), n \geq$ 2 , are excluded by hypothesis.) We discard next all these possibilities for the group $N$ which will show that $G=N B$.

- $N \cong M_{11}$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

If $|G / N|=3^{2}$, then $\{|N \cap A|,|N \cap B|\}=\left\{3 \cdot 19,2^{9} \cdot 7 \cdot 3\right\}$, and so the fact that a Sylow 19 -subgroup is self-centralizing in $N$ leads to $\pi \cap \pi(G)=\{2,3,19\}$. But if $\pi^{\prime} \cap \pi(G)=\{7\}$, there would be an element of order 7 in $N$ centralizing a Sylow 2-subgroup of $N$, a contradiction.

Now assume that $|G / N|=2 \cdot 3^{2}$ and so $\{|N \cap A|,|N \cap B|\}=\left\{3 \cdot 19,2^{8}\right.$. $7 \cdot 3\}$ or $\{|N \cap A|,|N \cap B|\}=\left\{3 \cdot 19,2^{9} \cdot 7 \cdot 3\right\}$. In any case it follows $19 \in \pi$, since a Sylow 19-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing. But $\pi^{\prime} \cap \pi(G)=\{7\}$ cannot occur again because this would mean in both cases that a Borel subgroup of $N$ would have a subgroup of order 7 centralizing a subgroup of order $2^{8}$, which is not possible.

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

In this case, we know from [2, Lemma 2.5] that $|\operatorname{Out}(N)|=2$ and $\{X, Y\}=\left\{N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right), D_{q+1}\right\}$, with $N_{q} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{q}(N)$ and $D_{q+1}$ a dihedral group of order $q+1=2^{n}$, for some $n \geq 2$. (For $q=2^{3}-1=7$ there exist another factorization which will be considered later.)

Since $D_{q+1}$ is a 2-group, it follows that $N \cap A \subseteq N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right)$. Now by order arguments $q$ divides $|N \cap A|$. Since a Sylow $q$-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$, we deduce that $A$ is either a $\pi$-group or a $\pi^{\prime}$-group which is a contradiction.

If $q=7$, it might be also possible that $\{X, Y\}=\left\{N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right), S_{4}\right\}$ with $N_{q} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{q}(N)$ and $S_{4}$ the symmetric group of degree 4. Since $N_{q}$ is selfcentralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$, we deduce that $N \cap B \subseteq N_{N}\left(N_{q}\right)$ and $N \cap A \subseteq S_{4}$. Then the factorization $A=A_{\pi} \times A_{\pi^{\prime}}$ with $\bar{A}_{\pi^{\prime}} \neq 1$ and $A_{\pi} \neq 1$ is not possible.

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

Set $q=2^{n}$. Recall that, in this case, $|N|=q\left(q^{2}-1\right)$, and $\operatorname{Out}(N)$ is a cyclic group of order $n$. From [2, Lemma 2.5] it follows that $\{X, Y\}=\left\{N_{N}\left(N_{2}\right), D_{2(q+1)}\right\}$, with $N_{2} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{2}(N),\left|N_{N}\left(N_{2}\right)\right|=q(q-1)$ and $D_{2(q+1)}$ a dihedral group of order $2(q+1)$. Since the subgroups of prime order $q+1$ in $N$ are self-centralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$ and $q+1$ does not divide $|\operatorname{Out}(N)|$, we deduce that $N \cap A \not \leq D_{2(q+1)}$. Hence $N \cap A \leq N_{N}\left(N_{2}\right)$. But again the fact that a Sylow 2-subgroup of $N$ is self-centralizing in $\operatorname{Aut}(N)$ provides the final contradiction.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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