# On Groups with a Class-Preserving Outer Automorphism 

Peter A. Brooksbank<br>Bucknell University, pbrooksb@bucknell.edu

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## Recommended Citation

Brooksbank, Peter A.. "On Groups with a Class-Preserving Outer Automorphism." Involve (2014) : 171-179.

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 a journal of mathematicsOn groups with a class-preserving outer automorphism

Peter A. Brooksbank and Matthew S. Mizuhara

# On groups with a class-preserving outer automorphism 

Peter A. Brooksbank and Matthew S. Mizuhara<br>(Communicated by Nigel Boston)

Four infinite families of 2-groups are presented, all of whose members possess an outer automorphism that preserves conjugacy classes. The groups in these families are central extensions of their predecessors by a cyclic group of order 2 . For each integer $r>1$, there is precisely one 2-group of nilpotency class $r$ in each of the four families. All other known families of 2-groups possessing a classpreserving outer automorphism consist entirely of groups of nilpotency class 2.

## 1. Introduction

Let $G$ be a group, $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$ the automorphism group of $G$, and $\operatorname{Inn}(G)$ the subgroup of inner automorphisms. Then $\operatorname{Aut}(G)$ acts naturally on the set of conjugacy classes of $G$, and we denote the kernel of this action by $\operatorname{Aut}_{c}(G)$. We refer to the elements of $\operatorname{Aut}_{c}(G)$ as class-preserving automorphisms. Evidently $\operatorname{Inn}(G) \unlhd \operatorname{Aut}_{c}(G)$, and the elements of $\operatorname{Out}_{c}(G)=\operatorname{Aut}_{c}(G) / \operatorname{Inn}(G)$ will be referred to as class-preserving outer automorphisms.

Over a century ago, William Burnside [1911, Note B, p. 463] asked the question: Are there groups $G$ such that $\operatorname{Out}_{c}(G) \neq 1$ ? He himself settled the question soon thereafter [Burnside 1913]: for each prime $p \equiv \pm 3(\bmod 8)$, there is a group $G_{p}$ of order $p^{6}$ and nilpotency class 2 with $\operatorname{Out}_{c}\left(G_{p}\right) \neq 1$.

Since Burnside's initial discovery, the problem has been revisited on many occasions, and new families of groups $G$ with $\operatorname{Out}_{c}(G) \neq 1$ have been found. Until fairly recently, however, most of those families consisted of $p$-groups of nilpotency class 2 . The object of this paper is to prove the following result.
Theorem 1.1. There are four distinct infinite families $\mathscr{H}=\left\{H_{j}\right\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$, where $H_{j}$ is a 4 -generator 2-group of order $2^{5+j}$ and nilpotency class $j+1$ such that $\operatorname{Out}_{c}\left(H_{j}\right) \neq 1$.

[^0]It is evident from the statement of Theorem 1.1 that the nilpotency class of the groups $H_{j}$ in each family grows in an elementary way as a function of the group orders. This is because $H_{j+1}$ is built as a central extension of $H_{j}$ by $\mathbb{Z} / 2$. Indeed, each $\mathscr{H}$ may be constructed algorithmically using the $p$-group generation algorithm [O'Brien 1990]; this is precisely how the families were discovered and studied. Furthermore, the groups in all four families have coclass 4, so we have shown that they are all "mainline groups" in the coclass graph $\mathscr{G}(2,4)$ (see [Eick and Leedham-Green 2008]).

Readers interested in the history and applications of Burnside's problem are referred to the recent comprehensive survey of Yadav [2011]; we restrict ourselves here to a brief summary of those results pertaining directly to Theorem 1.1.

Wall [1947] showed that, for each integer $m$ divisible by 8 , the general linear group $\operatorname{GL}(1, \mathbb{Z} / m)$ (i.e., the group of linear permutations $x \mapsto \sigma x+\tau$ on integers modulo $m$ with $\sigma, \tau$ integral) has a class-preserving automorphism that is not inner. This family includes the smallest group $G$ such that $\operatorname{Out}_{c}(G) \neq 1$, namely $\mathrm{GL}(1, \mathbb{Z} / 8)$ of order 32 (there, in fact, are two nonisomorphic groups of order 32 having this property). The 2-groups in Wall's family, namely GL $\left(1, \mathbb{Z} / 2^{k}\right)$, have nilpotency class 2.

Heineken [1979] constructed, for each odd prime $p$, an infinite family of $p$ groups of nilpotency class 2, all of whose automorphisms are class-preserving. As far as we are aware, these are the only known infinite families of groups $G$ for which $\operatorname{Aut}_{c}(G)=\operatorname{Aut}(G)$.

Hertweck [2001] constructed a family of Frobenius groups as subgroups of affine semilinear groups $A \Gamma(F)$, where $F$ is a finite field, which possess class-preserving automorphisms that are not inner.

Malinowska [1992] exhibited, for each prime $p>5$ and each $r>2$, a $p$-group $G$ of nilpotency class $r$ such that $\operatorname{Out}_{c}(G) \neq 1$. Unlike the groups in our families, however, it is not clear how the order of $G$ relates to $r$.

We remark that the absence of simple groups in the above summary is explained by Feit and Seitz [1989, Section C]: if $G$ is a finite simple group then $\mathrm{Out}_{c}(G)=1$.

Briefly, the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we summarize the necessary background on $p$-groups. The families $\mathscr{H}$ in Theorem 1.1 are introduced in Section 3; they are naturally parametrized by vectors $\epsilon \in\{0,1\}^{4}$, but there only four distinct families. The proof of Theorem 1.1 is given in Section 4.

## 2. Preliminaries

Our notation and terminology is standard. For elements $x, y$ of a group, we write $x^{y}=y^{-1} x y$ and $[x, y]=x^{-1} x^{y}$. For subsets $X$ and $Y$ of a group, we denote by [ $X, Y$ ] the subgroup generated by all commutators $[x, y$ ], where $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$.

The lower central series of a group $G$ is the series

$$
\begin{equation*}
G=\gamma_{1}(G) \geqslant \gamma_{2}(G) \geqslant \cdots, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\gamma_{i+1}(G)=\left[G, \gamma_{i}(G)\right]$. A group $G$ is nilpotent if $\gamma_{i}(G)=1$ for some $i \geqslant 1$, in which case the smallest $r$ such that $\gamma_{r+1}(G)=1$ is called the nilpotency class (or simply class) of $G$. A finite group $G$ is a $p$-group if $|G|=p^{n}$ for some prime $p$. All $p$-groups are nilpotent, and if $G$ has class $r$, then $G$ has coclass $n-r$. A $p$-group minimally generated by $d$ elements is called a $d$-generator group.

Each nilpotent group (more generally, each soluble group) possesses a polycyclic generating sequence [Holt et al. 2005, Chapter 8]. This in turn gives rise to a powerconjugate presentation (or simply pc-presentation), an extremely efficient model for computing with soluble groups. We describe these presentations specifically for p-groups.

Fix a $p$-group $G$. Let $X=\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] \subset G$ be such that if $P_{i}=\left\langle x_{i}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle$ $(i=1, \ldots, n)$, then $P_{i} / P_{i+1}$ has order $p$, and $G=P_{1}>P_{2}>\cdots>P_{n}>1$ refines the lower central series in (1). If $G$ has nilpotency class $r$, we define a weighting, $w: X \rightarrow\{1, \ldots, r\}$, where $w\left(x_{i}\right)=k$ if $x_{i} \in \gamma_{k-1}(G) \backslash \gamma_{k}(G)$. Evidently, $w\left(x_{i}\right) \geqslant w\left(x_{j}\right)$ whenever $i \geqslant j$. Any such sequence $X$ satisfies the conditions needed to serve as the generating sequence of a weighted pc-presentation of $G$. The relations, $R$, in such a presentation all have the form

$$
x_{i}^{p}=\prod_{k=i+1}^{n} x_{k}^{b(i, k)}, \quad \text { where } 0 \leqslant b(i, k)<p, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n,
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{j}^{x_{i}}=x_{j} \prod_{k=j+1}^{n} x_{k}^{b(i, j, k)}, \quad \text { where } 0 \leqslant b(i, j, k)<p, 1 \leqslant i<j \leqslant n . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We write $\langle X \mid R\rangle$ to denote the $p$-group defined by such a presentation. We adopt the usual convention that an omitted relation $x_{i}^{p}$ implies that $x_{i}^{p}=1$, and an omitted relation $x_{j}^{x_{i}}$ implies that $x_{i}$ and $x_{j}$ commute. We will often find it convenient to write a conjugate relation $x_{j}^{x_{i}}=x_{j} w$ as a commutator relation $\left[x_{j}, x_{i}\right]=w$.
Remark 2.1. In general, one requires that $G=P_{1}>\cdots>P_{n}>1$ refines a related series called the exponent p-central series [Holt et al. 2005, p. 355]. For the families of $p$-groups we consider here, however, the two series coincide.

A critical feature of a pc-presentation for a $p$-group is that elements of the group inherit a normal form $x_{1}^{a_{1}} x_{2}^{a_{2}} \cdots x_{n}^{a_{n}}$, where $0 \leqslant a_{i}<p$. Given $g \in G$ as a word in $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, a normal form may be obtained by repeatedly applying the relations in (2) in a process known as collection. If each element of $G$ has a unique normal form, the pc-presentation is said to be consistent. Clearly if $G$ has a consistent pc-presentation on $X=\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$, then $|G|=p^{n}$.

We conclude this section with a useful test for consistency. We state it just for 2-groups - since this is all we need - and refer the reader to [Holt et al. 2005, Theorem 9.22] for the more general version.

Proposition 2.2. A weighted pc-presentation of a d-generator 2-group of class $r$ on $\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]$ is consistent if the following pairs of words in the generators have the same normal form (the products in parentheses are collected first):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(x_{k} x_{j}\right) x_{i} \text { and } x_{k}\left(x_{j} x_{i}\right), & 1 \leqslant i<j<k \leqslant n \text { and } i \leqslant d, w\left(x_{i}\right)+w\left(x_{j}\right)+w\left(x_{k}\right) \leqslant r ; \\
\left(x_{j} x_{j}\right) x_{i} \text { and } x_{j}\left(x_{j} x_{i}\right), & 1 \leqslant i<j \leqslant n \text { and } i \leqslant d, w\left(x_{i}\right)+w\left(x_{j}\right)<r ; \\
\left(x_{j} x_{i}\right) x_{i} \text { and } x_{j}\left(x_{i} x_{i}\right), & 1 \leqslant i<j \leqslant n, w\left(x_{i}\right)+w\left(x_{j}\right)<r ; \\
\left(x_{i} x_{i}\right) x_{i} \text { and } x_{i}\left(x_{i} x_{i}\right), & 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n, 2 w\left(x_{i}\right)<r .
\end{aligned}
$$

## 3. The families $\mathscr{H}^{\epsilon}$

In this section we introduce four infinite families of 4-generator 2-groups of fixed coclass 4 . In the next section we will show that each family consists of groups that have a class-preserving outer automorphism, thus proving Theorem 1.1.

We will define the groups in each family by giving consistent pc-presentations. It is convenient to denote the ordered list of pc-generators of the $n$-th group in each family by $X_{n}=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, z, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\}$, with the group minimally generated by $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right\}$. The commutator relations for each family are identical, namely

$$
\begin{align*}
& C_{n}=\left\{\left[x_{2}, x_{1}\right]=\left[x_{3}, x_{2}\right]=\left[x_{4}, x_{1}\right]=z,\left[x_{3}, x_{1}\right]=y_{1},\right. \\
& {\left.\left[x_{1}, y_{i}\right]=\left[x_{3}, y_{i}\right]=y_{i+1}(i=1, \ldots, n-1)\right\} . } \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

For each $\epsilon=\left(\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2}, \epsilon_{3}, \epsilon_{4}\right) \in\{0,1\}^{4}$, define

$$
\begin{align*}
P_{n}^{\epsilon}=\left\{x_{j}^{2}=z^{\epsilon_{j}}\right. & (j=1, \ldots, 4), \quad z^{2}=1 \\
& \left.y_{n}^{2}=1, \quad y_{i}^{2}=y_{i+1} y_{i+2}(i=1, \ldots, n-2), \quad y_{n-1}^{2}=y_{n} .\right\} . \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

Let $R_{n}^{\epsilon}=C_{n} \cup P_{n}^{\epsilon}$, define $H_{n}^{\epsilon}=\left\langle X_{n} \mid R_{n}^{\epsilon}\right\rangle$, and put $\mathscr{H}=\left\{H_{n}^{\epsilon}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Note that the pc-presentations for the $n$-th group in each family differ only in the power relations of the generators $x_{i}$.

Proposition 3.1. Let $n$ be a positive integer, and $\epsilon \in\{0,1\}^{4}$. Then $H_{n}^{\epsilon}=\left\langle X_{n} \mid R_{n}^{\epsilon}\right\rangle$ has order $2^{n+5}$ and class $n+1$ (hence coclass 4 ).

Proof. To confirm the order of $H_{n}^{\epsilon}$, it suffices to check that their defining pcpresentations are consistent, for which we use Proposition 2.2. Although there are $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ computations involved in that test, the lion's share of these may be treated uniformly for the groups $H_{n}^{\epsilon}$. The following table lists all of the triples that must be checked, together with their normal forms. Triples involving $z$ are
omitted (since $z$ is central), as are triples involving two or more $y_{s}$ generators (since $\left\langle y_{s}: s=1, \ldots, n\right\rangle$ is abelian).

| Triple $(a, b, c)$ | Conditions | Normal form of $a(b c)$ and $(a b) c$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\left(x_{3}, x_{2}, x_{1}\right)$ |  | $x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} y_{1}$ |
| $\left(x_{4}, x_{2}, x_{1}\right)$ |  | $x_{1} x_{2} x_{4}$ |
| $\left(x_{4}, x_{3}, x_{1}\right)$ |  | $x_{1} x_{3} x_{4} z y_{1}$ |
| $\left(x_{4}, x_{3}, x_{2}\right)$ |  | $x_{2} x_{3} x_{4} z$ |
| $\left(y_{s}, x_{2}, x_{1}\right)$ | $s \leqslant n-2$ | $x_{1} x_{2} z y_{s} y_{s+1}$ |
| $\left(y_{s}, x_{3}, x_{1}\right)$ | $s \leqslant n-2$ | $x_{1} x_{3} y_{1} y_{s}$ |
| $\left(y_{s}, x_{4}, x_{1}\right)$ | $s \leqslant n-2$ | $x_{1} x_{4} z y_{s} y_{s+1}$ |
| $\left(y_{s}, x_{3}, x_{2}\right)$ | $s \leqslant n-2$ | $x_{2} x_{3} z y_{s} y_{s+1}$ |
| $\left(y_{s}, x_{4}, x_{2}\right)$ | $s \leqslant n-2$ | $x_{2} x_{4} y_{s}$ |
| $\left(y_{s}, x_{4}, x_{3}\right)$ | $s \leqslant n-2$ | $x_{3} x_{4} y_{s} y_{s+1}$ |
| $\left(x_{j}, x_{j}, x_{i}\right)$ | $1 \leqslant i<j \leqslant 4$ | $x_{i} z^{e_{j}}$ |
| $\left(y_{s}, y_{s}, x_{i}\right)$ | $s \leqslant n-2, i=1,3$ | $x_{i} y_{s+1}$ |
| $\left(x_{j}, x_{i}, x_{i}\right)$ | $1 \leqslant i<j \leqslant 4$ | $x_{j} z^{e_{i}}$ |
| $\left(y_{s}, x_{i}, x_{i}\right)$ | $s \leqslant n-2, i \leqslant 4$ | $z^{e_{i} y_{s}}$ |
| $\left(x_{i}, x_{i}, x_{i}\right)$ | $i \leqslant 4$ | $x_{i} z^{e_{i}}$ |

Routine calculations using the pc-relations are all that is needed to verify the normal forms listed in the table. It remains to compute the lower central series of $H_{n}^{\epsilon}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma_{1}\left(H_{n}^{\epsilon}\right) & =H_{n}^{\epsilon}, \\
\gamma_{2}\left(H_{n}^{\epsilon}\right) & =\left\langle z, y_{i}: 1 \leqslant i \leqslant n\right\rangle, \\
\gamma_{j}\left(H_{n}^{\epsilon}\right) & =\left\langle y_{i}: j-1 \leqslant i \leqslant n\right\rangle \quad \text { for } j=3, \ldots, n+1, \\
\gamma_{n+2}\left(H_{n}^{\epsilon}\right) & =1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

This shows that $H_{n}^{\epsilon}$ has class $n+1$, as stated.
Proposition 3.1 suggests that there are 16 families $\mathscr{H}^{\epsilon}$, but the following result shows that there is some duplication.

Proposition 3.2. For each positive integer $n$, there are four isomorphism classes among the groups $\left\{H_{n}^{\epsilon}: \epsilon \in\{0,1\}^{4}\right\}$.
Proof. Each group $H=H_{n}^{\epsilon}$ determines a quadratic map $\boldsymbol{q}=\boldsymbol{q}^{\epsilon}$ (independent of $n$ ) as follows. Let $V$ denote the largest elementary abelian quotient of $H$, namely $V=H / A \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2)^{4}$, where $A=\left\langle z, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\rangle$. Let $W$ denote the largest elementary abelian quotient of $A$, namely $W=A / B \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2)^{2}$, where $B=\left\langle y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\rangle$. Define maps $\boldsymbol{q}: V \rightarrow W$ and $\boldsymbol{b}: V \times V \rightarrow W$, where $\boldsymbol{q}(x A)=x^{2} B$ and $\boldsymbol{b}(x A, y A)=$
$[x, y] B$ for all $x, y \in H$. Using additive notation in $V$ and $W$, one easily checks that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{b}(u, v)=\boldsymbol{q}(u+v)+\boldsymbol{q}(u)+\boldsymbol{q}(v) \text { for all } u, v \in V, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

so $\boldsymbol{b}$ is the symmetric bilinear map associated to $\boldsymbol{q}$ in the familiar sense.
If $H_{n}^{\epsilon}$ and $H_{n}^{\delta}$ are isomorphic groups, and $\alpha: H_{n}^{\epsilon} \rightarrow H_{n}^{\delta}$ is any isomorphism, then $\alpha$ induces isomorphisms $\beta: V^{\epsilon} \rightarrow V^{\delta}$ and $\gamma: W^{\epsilon} \rightarrow W^{\delta}$ such that $\boldsymbol{q}^{\delta}(v \beta)=\boldsymbol{q}^{\epsilon}(v) \gamma$ for all $v \in V^{\epsilon}$. Thus $\alpha$ induces a pseudo-isometry between $\boldsymbol{q}^{\epsilon}$ and $\boldsymbol{q}^{\delta}$.

Fixing a basis $\left\{v_{i}\right\}$ for $V$, one can represent a quadratic map $\boldsymbol{q}$ as a $4 \times 4$ matrix $\boldsymbol{Q}=\left[\left[q_{i j}\right]\right]$ with entries in $W$, where $q_{i i}=\boldsymbol{q}\left(v_{i}\right), q_{i j}=\boldsymbol{b}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$ if $i<j$, and $q_{i j}=0$ of $i>j$. Given $v \in V$, write $v=\sum \lambda_{i} v_{i}$ with $\lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{Z} / 2$. Using (5) and a finite induction, we see that $\boldsymbol{q}(v)=\sum_{i} \sum_{j \geqslant i} \lambda_{i} \lambda_{j} q_{i j}$. An easy matrix calculation then shows that $\boldsymbol{q}(v)=v \boldsymbol{Q} v^{\text {tr }}$ for all $v \in V$.

Using the basis $\left\{x_{i} A\right\}$ for $V$, and identifying $A / B$ on basis $\left\{z B, y_{1} B\right\}$ with the additive group of the ring $(\mathbb{Z} / 2)[t] /\left(t^{2}\right)$ on the usual basis $\{1, t\}$, the matrix representing $\boldsymbol{q}=\boldsymbol{q}^{\epsilon}$, where $\epsilon=\left(\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2}, \epsilon_{3}, \epsilon_{4}\right)$, is

$$
\boldsymbol{Q}=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
\epsilon_{1} & 1 & t & 1 \\
0 & \epsilon_{2} & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \epsilon_{3} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \epsilon_{4}
\end{array}\right]
$$

and the matrix representing the associated bilinear map $\boldsymbol{b}$ is $\boldsymbol{B}=\boldsymbol{Q}+\boldsymbol{Q}^{\mathrm{tr}}$.
Given maps $\boldsymbol{q}^{\epsilon}$ and $\boldsymbol{q}^{\delta}$ representing groups $H^{\epsilon}$ and $H^{\delta}\left(\epsilon, \delta \in\{0,1\}^{4}\right)$, one can easily test for pseudo-isometry as follows. Let $\boldsymbol{Q}^{\epsilon}$ and $\boldsymbol{Q}^{\delta}$ be matrices representing $\boldsymbol{q}^{\epsilon}$ and $\boldsymbol{q}^{\delta}$. If $g \in \mathrm{GL}(4,2)$ represents an isomorphism $H^{\epsilon} / A^{\epsilon} \rightarrow H^{\delta} / A^{\delta}$ induced by an isomorphism $H^{\epsilon} \rightarrow H^{\delta}$, then the induced isomorphism $A^{\epsilon} / B^{\epsilon} \rightarrow A^{\delta} / B^{\delta}$ is uniquely determined by $g$, and its matrix $h \in \operatorname{GL}(2,2)$ is easily computed. Extend $h$ entry-wise to a map $\mathbb{M}_{4}\left(W^{\epsilon}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{M}_{4}\left(W^{\delta}\right)$, and denote the image of $X \in \mathbb{M}_{4}\left(W^{\epsilon}\right)$ by $X^{h}$. Then $\boldsymbol{q}^{\epsilon}$ and $\boldsymbol{q}^{\delta}$ are pseudo-isometric if and only if there exists $g \in \operatorname{GL}(4,2)$ such that

$$
g \boldsymbol{B}^{\delta} g^{\mathrm{tr}}=\left(\boldsymbol{B}^{\epsilon}\right)^{h} \quad \text { and } \quad v_{i}\left(g \boldsymbol{Q}^{\delta} g^{\mathrm{tr}}\right) v_{i}^{\mathrm{tr}}=v_{i}\left(\boldsymbol{Q}^{\epsilon}\right)^{h} v_{i}^{\mathrm{tr}}
$$

as $v_{i}$ runs over a basis for $(\mathbb{Z} / 2)^{4}$.
Thus, the determination of the pseudo-isometry classes of the quadratic maps associated to the families $\mathscr{H}^{\epsilon}$ is an elementary matrix calculation in GL(4, 2), which is easily carried out using a computer algebra system such as MAGMA [Bosma et al. 1997]. Those classes are represented by

$$
\boldsymbol{Q}^{\epsilon} \text { for } \epsilon \in\{(0,0,0,0),(0,0,1,1),(1,1,0,0),(1,1,1,1)\} .
$$

Finally, it is not difficult to verify that any pseudo-isometry $\boldsymbol{Q}^{\epsilon} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{Q}^{\delta}$ lifts to an
isomorphism $H^{\epsilon} \rightarrow H^{\delta}$. Thus, for each $n$, there are precisely four isomorphism classes of group $H_{n}^{\epsilon}$, as claimed.

## 4. Proof of Theorem 1.1

In this section we complete the proof of Theorem 1.1 by exhibiting a class-preserving automorphism of each group $H_{n}^{\epsilon}$ that is not inner.
Proof of Theorem 1.1. Fix $n \geqslant 1, \epsilon \in\{0,1\}^{4}$, and put $H=H_{n}^{\epsilon}$. Define $\theta: H \rightarrow H$ on generators, sending

$$
x \mapsto \begin{cases}x_{4} z & \text { if } x=x_{4},  \tag{6}\\ x & \text { if } x \in X_{n} \backslash\left\{x_{4}\right\} .\end{cases}
$$

One easily verifies (by replacing $x_{4}$ with $x_{4} z$ in each pc-relation involving $x_{4}$ and evaluating) that $\theta \in \operatorname{Aut}(H)$.

First, suppose that $\theta$ is an inner automorphism. Then there exists $h \in H$ commuting with $x_{1}$ and $x_{3}$, but not with $x_{4}$. Writing

$$
\begin{equation*}
h=\prod_{i=1}^{4} x_{i}^{a_{i}} \cdot z^{b} \cdot \prod_{j=1}^{n} y_{j}^{c_{j}} \quad\left(a_{i}, b, c_{j} \in\{0,1\}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and using the defining commutator relations of $H$, we see that

$$
h x_{1}=x_{1} h \cdot\left(z^{a_{2}+a_{4}} y_{1}^{a_{3}} \prod_{j=2}^{n} y_{j}^{c_{j-1}}\right) .
$$

Hence $h \in C_{H}\left(x_{1}\right)$ if and only if $a_{2}=a_{4}$ and $0=a_{3}=c_{1}=\cdots=c_{n-1}$. Also,

$$
x_{3} h=x_{1}^{a_{1}} x_{2}^{a_{2}} x_{3}^{1+a_{3}} x_{4}^{a_{4}} z^{a_{2}+b} y_{1}^{a_{1}+c_{1}} \prod_{j=2}^{n} y_{j}^{c_{j}},
$$

while

$$
h x_{3}=x_{1}^{a_{1}} x_{2}^{a_{2}} x_{3}^{1+a_{3}} x_{4}^{a_{4}} z^{b} y_{1}^{c_{1}} \prod_{j=2}^{n} y_{j}^{c_{j}} \prod_{j=2}^{n} y_{j}^{c_{j-1}},
$$

so that $h \in C_{H}\left(x_{3}\right)$ if and only if $0=a_{1}=a_{2}=c_{1}=\cdots=c_{n-1}$. It follows that $C_{H}\left(x_{1}\right) \cap C_{H}\left(x_{3}\right)=\left\langle z, y_{n}\right\rangle=Z(H)$. Hence $\theta$ is not inner.

We next show that $\theta$ is class-preserving. To that end, we must show that, for each $h \in H$, there exists $t=t(h) \in H$ with $h^{t}=h \theta$. Fix $h \in H$, and write

$$
h=\prod_{i=1}^{4} x_{i}^{a_{i}} \cdot z^{b} \cdot \prod_{j=1}^{n} y_{j}^{c_{j}},
$$

as in (7). If $a_{4}=0$, then $h \theta=h$ and $t(h)=1$ works. Thus, we may assume that $a_{4}=1$, and hence that $h \theta=h z$.
Claim. If $h \theta=h z$, then either $h^{x_{2}}=h z$ or $h^{x_{1} x_{3}}=h z$.

It is clear from the pc-relations that $x_{2}$ commutes with every $y_{j}$. This is true also of $x_{1} x_{3}$. For, if $j<n-1$, then $y_{j}^{x_{1} x_{3}}=\left(y_{j} y_{j+1}\right)^{x_{3}}=y_{j} y_{j+1}^{2} y_{j+2}$. Using the relations (and a finite induction) one sees that $y_{j+1}^{2} y_{j+2}=y_{n-1}^{2} y_{n}=y_{n}^{2}=1$. It is easy to see that $y_{n-1}^{x_{1} x_{3}}=y_{n-1}$ and that $y_{n}^{x_{1} x_{3}}=y_{n}$.

Next, observe that $x_{2}$ commutes with $x_{4}$, while $x_{4}^{x_{1} x_{3}}=\left(x_{4} z\right)^{x_{3}}=x_{4} z$. Thus, it suffices to show that, if $h=x_{1}^{a_{1}} x_{2}^{a_{2}} x_{3}^{a_{3}}$ with $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right) \in\{0,1\}^{3}$, then either $h^{x_{2}}=h z$, or $h^{x_{1} x_{3}}=h$. First,

$$
h^{x_{2}}=\left(x_{1}^{a_{1}} x_{2}^{a_{2}} x_{3}^{a_{3}}\right)^{x_{2}}=x_{1}^{a_{1}} x_{2}^{a_{2}} x_{3}^{a_{3}} z^{a_{1}+a_{3}}=h z^{a_{1}+a_{3}} .
$$

Hence, if $a_{1} \neq a_{3}$, then $h^{x_{2}}=h z$, as required. It remains to show that $x_{1} x_{3}$ commutes with $h$ whenever $a_{1}=a_{3}$. If $a_{1}=a_{3}=0$, then either $h=1$ or $h=x_{2}$; clearly $x_{1} x_{3}$ commutes with 1 , and $x_{2}^{x_{1} x_{3}}=x_{2} z^{2}=x_{2}$. Finally, if $a_{1}=a_{3}=1$, then either $h=x_{1} x_{3}$ or $h=x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}$; clearly $x_{1} x_{3}$ commutes with itself, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}\right)^{x_{1} x_{3}} & =\left(x_{1}\left(x_{2} z\right)\left(x_{3} y_{1}\right)\right)^{x_{3}} \\
& =\left(x_{1} y_{1}^{-1}\right)\left(x_{2} z\right) z x_{3}\left(y_{1} y_{2}\right) \\
& =x_{1} x_{2} y_{1}^{-1} x_{3} y_{1} y_{2} \\
& =x_{1} x_{2} x_{3} y_{2}^{-1} y_{1}^{-1} y_{1} y_{2}=x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

This establishes our claim, and completes the proof of Theorem 1.1.

## Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank R. Quinlan for bringing this problem to their attention, and the anonymous referee for some helpful suggestions.

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Received: 2012-08-04 Revised: 2012-11-07 Accepted: 2012-11-17
pbrooksb@bucknell.edu Department of Mathematics, Bucknell University, 380 Olin Science Building, Lewisburg, PA 17837, United States
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Involve (ISSN 1944-4184 electronic, 1944-4176 printed) at Mathematical Sciences Publishers, 798 Evans Hall \#3840, c/o University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720-3840, is published continuously online. Periodical rate postage paid at Berkeley, CA 94704, and additional mailing offices.

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[^0]:    MSC2010: 20D15, 20D45, 20 E 45.
    Keywords: p-groups, class-preserving automorphisms, polycyclic groups.
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