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## Research Article

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# Finite groups with star-free noncyclic graphs 

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#### Abstract

For a finite noncyclic group $G$, let $\operatorname{Cyc}(G)$ be the set of elements $a$ of $G$ such that $\langle a, b\rangle$ is cyclic for each $b$ of $G$. The noncyclic graph of $G$ is a graph with the vertex set $G \backslash \operatorname{Cyc}(G)$, having an edge between two distinct vertices $x$ and $y$ if $\langle x, y\rangle$ is not cyclic. In this paper, we classify all finite noncyclic groups whose noncyclic graphs are $K_{1, n}$-free, where $K_{1, n}$ is a star and $3 \leq n \leq 6$.


Keywords: Noncyclic graph, finite group, star-free
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## 1 Introduction

All groups considered in this paper are finite. Let $G$ be a noncyclic group. The cyclicizer $\operatorname{Cyc}(G)$ of $G$ is the set

$$
\{a \in G:\langle a, b\rangle \text { is cyclic for each } b \in G\},
$$

which is a normal cyclic subgroup of $G$ (see [1]). Graphs associated with groups and other algebraic structures have been actively investigated, since they have valuable applications (cf. [2-5]) and are related to automata theory (cf. [5, 6]).

The noncyclic graph $\Gamma_{G}$ of $G$ is the graph whose vertex set is $G \backslash \operatorname{Cyc}(G)$, and two distinct vertices are adjacent if they do not generate a cyclic subgroup. In 2007, Abdollahi and Hassanabadi [7] introduced the concept of a noncyclic graph and established some basic graph theoretical properties of noncyclic graphs. In [8], Abdollahi and Hassanabadi investigated the clique number of a noncyclic graph. Recently, Costa et. al [9] studied the Eulerian properties of noncyclic graphs of finite groups. Aalipour et. al [10] studied the relationship between the complement graph of a noncyclic graph and two well-studied graphs-power graphs [11-17] and commuting graphs [18]. Finite groups whose noncyclic graphs have genus one were classified by Selvakumar and Subajini [19] and, independently, by Ma [20]. Moreover, the full automorphism group of a noncyclic graph was determined in [21].

A graph is said to be $\Gamma$-free if it has no induced subgraphs isomorphic to $\Gamma$. Forbidden graph characterization appears in many contexts; for instance, forbidden subgraph problem (Turán-type problem), or extremal graph theory where lower and upper bounds can be obtained for various numerical invariants of the corresponding graphs. Some graphs obtained from groups with small forbidden induced subgraphs have been studied in the literature. For example, Doostabadi et al. [22] studied the finite groups with $K_{1,3}$-free power graphs. Akhlaghi and Tong-Viet [23] studied the finite groups with $K_{4}$-free prime graphs, where $K_{4}$ is the complete graph of order 4. Kayacan [24] classified the finite groups with $K_{3,3}$-free intersection graphs of

[^0]subgroups, where $K_{3,3}$ is the complete bipartite graph with each partition of size 3. In [25], Das and Nongsiang classified $K_{3}$-free commuting graphs of finite non-abelian groups.

In this paper, we study noncyclic graphs of finite groups. In Sect. 2, we classify all finite groups $G$ with a unique involution and $\pi_{e}(G)=\{2,3,4,6\}$, where $\pi_{e}(G)$ is the set of natural numbers consisting of orders of non-identity elements of $G$. In Sect. 3, we classify all finite noncyclic groups whose noncyclic graphs are $K_{1, n}$-free, where $3 \leq n \leq 6$.

## 2 A result on finite groups

An element of order 2 in a group is called an involution. The exponent of $G$ is the least common multiple of the orders of the elements of $G$. We denote the cyclic group of order $n$ and the quaternion group of order 8 by $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ and $Q_{8}$, respectively. Also $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{m}$ is used for the $m$-fold direct product of the cyclic group $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ with itself.

In this section we prove the following a result about finite groups, which will be used to classify finite groups with $K_{1,5}$-free noncyclic graphs.

Theorem 2.1. Let $G$ be a finite group having a unique involution and that $\pi_{e}(G)=\{2,3,4,6\}$. Then, either $G \cong S L(2,3)$ or $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{3}^{n} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{4}$, where $\mathbb{Z}_{4}$ acts on $\mathbb{Z}_{3}^{n}$ by inversion.

Let $G$ be a finite group and $p$ a prime number dividing $|G|$. Denote by $\operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)$ and $O_{p}(G)$ the set of all Sylow $p$-subgroups of $G$ and the largest normal $p$-subgroup of $G$, respectively. Note that $O_{p}(G)=\bigcap_{P \in \text { Syl }_{p}(G)} P$. Let $n_{p}=\left|\operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)\right|$ and $P \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)$. Recall that $n_{p}=\left|G: N_{G}(P)\right| \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ and $n_{p}$ is a divisor of $|G: P|$.

Lemma 2.2. Let $G$ be a finite group and suppose that $n_{p}=p+1$ for some prime number $p$. Then for any two distinct $P_{i}, P_{j} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G), P_{i} \cap P_{j}=O_{p}(G)$.

Proof. Let $m=n_{p}$ and $L=\operatorname{Syl}_{p}(G)=\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{m}\right\}$. Now in order to prove the required result, it suffices to prove the equality $P_{1} \cap P_{2}=O_{p}(G)$.

Let $R=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$ and let $R$ act on $L$ by conjugation. Note that for all $i$, we have that $\left(R \cap N_{G}\left(P_{i}\right)\right) P_{i}=$ $P_{i}\left(R \cap N_{G}\left(P_{i}\right)\right)$ and $\left(R \cap N_{G}\left(P_{i}\right)\right) P_{i}$ is a $p$-subgroup of $N_{G}\left(P_{i}\right)$, so $R \cap N_{G}\left(P_{i}\right) \subseteq P_{i}$. It follows that $R_{P_{i}}=R \cap N_{G}\left(P_{i}\right)=$ $R \cap P_{i}$, where $R_{P_{i}}$ is the stabilizer of $P_{i}$ in $R$. Also, since $R=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$, we deduce that $\left|\operatorname{Orbit}_{R}\left(P_{1}\right)\right|=\left|\operatorname{Orbit}_{R}\left(P_{2}\right)\right|=$ 1 , where $\operatorname{Orbit}_{R}\left(P_{i}\right)$ is the $R$-orbit containing $P_{i}$. Note that every $R$-orbit has length 1 or $p$. Since $|L|=p+1$, we have that every $R$-orbit has length 1 . This implies that $R=R_{P_{i}}$ for all $i$. It follows that for each $i \geq 3$, $P_{1} \cap P_{2}=P_{1} \cap P_{2} \cap P_{i}$, that is, $P_{1} \cap P_{2} \subseteq P_{i}$. Thus, $P_{1} \cap P_{2} \subseteq \bigcap_{i=3}^{m} P_{i}$ and so $P_{1} \cap P_{2}=\bigcap_{P \in \text { Syl }_{p}(G)} P=O_{p}(G)$, as desired.

Note that for any prime number $p$, a $p$-group with a unique subgroup of order $p$ is either a cyclic group or a generalized quaternion group (see [26, Theorem 5.4.10 (ii)]).

Proof of Theorem 2.1. Suppose that $|G|=2^{t} \cdot 3^{n}$ for some $t \geq 1, n \geq 1$. Let $Q$ and $P$ be a Sylow 2-subgroup and a Sylow 3 -subgroup of $G$, respectively. Since $G$ has a unique involution and $8 \notin \pi_{e}(G)$, we know that $Q \in\left\{Q_{8}, \mathbb{Z}_{4}\right\}$. Since $G$ has no elements of order 9 , we deduce that $P$ has exponent 3 . Denote by $x$ the unique involution of $G$. Then $x \in Z(G)$, the center of $G$.
Case 1. $Q=Q_{8}$.
Let $\langle a\rangle,\langle b\rangle$, and $\langle c\rangle$ be the three cyclic subgroups of $Q$ of order 4, and that $a b=c$. Then $a^{2}=b^{2}=c^{2}=x$. Since in this case $|G|=8 \cdot 3^{n}$, we have that $n_{3}$ is a divisor of 8 . This implies that $n_{3}=1$ or 4 .

Suppose that $O_{3}(G) \neq 1$. Then let $a, b, c$ act on $O_{3}(G)$ by conjugation. Neither of them can fix any non-identity elements of $O_{3}(G)$, since $G$ has no elements of order 12. Thus, $a, b, c$ act as fixed-pointfree automorphisms of $O_{3}(G)$. Since $a^{2}=b^{2}=c^{2} \in Z(G)$, we have that $a, b, c$ act as fixed-point-free automorphisms of order 2. Now by Burnside's result (see [26, Theorem 1.4, page 336] or [27]), we know that
$O_{3}(G)$ is abelian and for each non-trivial element $g \in O_{3}(G)$, we have that $g^{a}=g^{-1}=g^{b}=g^{c}$. It then follows that $g^{c}=g^{a b}=g$, and hence $|a b g|=12$, a contradiction. Therefore, we conclude $O_{3}(G)=1$.

Now we know that $n_{3}=4$. By Lemma 2.2 we have that for any two distinct $P_{i}, P_{j} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{3}(G), P_{i} \cap P_{j}=1$. It follows that the number of elements of order 3 is $4\left(3^{n}-1\right)$. Also, since every element of order 3 and $x$ can generate a cyclic subgroup of order 6 , the number of elements of order 6 is $4\left(3^{n}-1\right)$. Now all that remains is to count the number of elements of order 4.

Let $w$ be an element of order 4 in $G$. Then, there is a $Q_{1} \in \operatorname{Syl}_{2}(G)$ so that $w \in Q_{1}$. Note that $Q_{1} \cong Q_{8}$. It follows that $Q_{1} \subseteq N_{G}(\langle w\rangle)$. If there exists an element $y$ of order 3 such that $\langle w\rangle^{y}=\langle w\rangle$, then $\langle w\rangle$ is normal in $\langle w\rangle\langle y\rangle$ and $|\langle w\rangle\langle y\rangle|=12$, and so by the $N / C$ lemma we have $C_{G}(\langle w\rangle)=N_{G}(\langle w\rangle$, which implies that $\langle w\rangle\langle y\rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_{12}$, a contradiction. It follows that $Q_{1}=N_{G}(\langle w\rangle)$. Thus, every element of order 4 is contained in a unique Sylow 2 -subgroup of $G$. It means that the number of elements of order 4 is $6 n_{2}$.

Suppose that $N_{G}(Q)=Q$. Then $n_{2}=3^{n}$. Counting all the elements of $G$ gives that

$$
8 \cdot 3^{n}=6 \cdot 3^{n}+8\left(3^{n}-1\right)+2
$$

This implies that $3^{n}=1$, contrary to the order of $G$. Thus, we have $Q \subset N_{G}(Q)$.
Suppose that $\left|P \cap N_{G}(Q)\right| \geq 9$. Then there exist $w_{1}, w_{2} \in P \cap N_{G}(Q)$ so that $\left\langle w_{1}, w_{2}\right\rangle$ is an abelian group of order 9 . Now both $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ act on $Q$ by conjugation. We conclude that both $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ act as 3-cycles on $\{\langle a\rangle,\langle b\rangle,\langle c\rangle\}$ because otherwise $12 \in \pi_{e}(G)$. But then there is an element $u$ of order 3 that fixes some cyclic subgroup $\langle v\rangle$ of order 4 , where $u=w_{1} w_{2}^{i}$ for some integer $i$. It follows that there exists an element of order 12 in $\langle u\rangle\langle v\rangle$, a contradiction. Thus, we get $\left|P \cap N_{G}(Q)\right| \leq 3$.

Note by the modular law that $N_{G}(Q)=G \cap N_{G}(Q)=Q\left(P \cap N_{G}(Q)\right)$. Since $Q \subset N_{G}(Q)$, we have that $P \cap N_{G}(Q)$ is a subgroup of order 3 and $\left|N_{G}(Q)\right|=24$. This forces that $n_{2}=3^{n-1}$. Now as above we get that

$$
8 \cdot 3^{n}=6 \cdot 3^{n-1}+8\left(3^{n}-1\right)+2
$$

which implies $n=1$ and so $|G|=24$. Note that in this case $Q$ is normal in $G$. It is easy to see that $G \cong S L(2,3)$.
Case 2. $Q=\mathbb{Z}_{4}$.
Let $Q=\langle y\rangle$. Since $\langle x\rangle P \subseteq N_{G}(P)$, we deduce $\left|G: N_{G}(P)\right| \neq 4$. Note that $n_{3}$ is a divisor of 4. Then $n_{3}=1$ and so $P$ is normal in $G$. Now as above $y$ acts as a fixed-point-free automorphism of order 2 on $P$ by conjugation. By Burnside's result, $P$ is abelian and so $P \cong \mathbb{Z}_{3}^{n}$ for some $n$, and for all $w \in P$ we have $w^{y}=w^{-1}$. It follows that $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{3}^{n} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{4}$, as desired.

## 3 Main results

In this section we classify all finite groups with $K_{1, n}$-free noncyclic graphs, where $3 \leq n \leq 6$.
In the remainder of this paper, we always use $G$ to denote a finite noncyclic group with the identity element $e$. Euler's totient function is denoted by $\phi$. A proper cyclic subgroup $\langle x\rangle$ is said to be maximal in $G$ if $\langle x\rangle \subseteq\langle y\rangle$ implies that $\langle x\rangle=\langle y\rangle$, where $y$ is an element of $G$. We first begin with the following two lemmas which will be used frequently in the sequel.

Lemma 3.1. Suppose that $\langle g\rangle$ is a maximal cyclic subgroup of $G$. Then $\Gamma_{G}$ has an induced subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1, \phi(|g|)}$.

Proof. Let $n=\phi(|g|)$ and let $\left\{g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{n}\right\}$ be all generators of $\langle g\rangle$. Note that $G$ is noncyclic. Pick an element $a$ in $G \backslash\langle g\rangle$. Since $\langle g\rangle$ is maximal cyclic, we deduce that $\left\langle a, g_{i}\right\rangle$ is not cyclic for each $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. This implies that $\left\{g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{n}, a\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1, n}$.
For a graph $\Gamma$, we denote the sets of the vertices and the edges of $\Gamma$ by $V(\Gamma)$ and $E(\Gamma)$, respectively. An independent set of $\Gamma$ is is a subset of the vertices such that no two vertices in the subset represent an edge
of $\Gamma$. The independence number of a graph $\Gamma$ is the cardinality of the largest independent set and is denoted by $\alpha(\Gamma)$. The following result follows from [7, Proposition 4.6].

Lemma 3.2. $\alpha\left(\Gamma_{G}\right)=\max \{|g|: g \in G\}-|\operatorname{Cyc}(G)|$.
$\Gamma_{G}$ is complete if and only if $G$ is an elementary abelian 2-group (see [7, Proposition 3.1]). So, as $\Gamma_{G}$ is connected (see [7, Proposition 3.2]), we first note that $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,2}$-free if and only if $G$ is an elementary abelian 2-group.

A claw is another name for the complete bipartite graph $K_{1,3}$. We first classify the finite groups whose noncyclic graphs are claw-free.

Theorem 3.3. $\Gamma_{G}$ is claw-free if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to one of the following groups:
(a) $Q_{8}$;
(b) $\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{n}, n \geq 2$;
(c) A noncyclic 3-group of exponent 3;
(d) A noncyclic group $G$ with $\pi_{e}(G)=\{2,3\}$.

Proof. Since $\Gamma_{Q_{8}} \cong K_{2,2,2}$, we have that $\Gamma_{Q_{8}}$ is claw-free. Also, by Lemma 3.2 we see that the independence number of the noncyclic graph of every group in $(b)-(d)$ is at most 2 , and so each of the noncyclic graphs is claw-free.

Now we suppose that $\Gamma_{G}$ is claw-free. It follows from Lemma 3.1 that for every maximal cyclic subgroup $\langle g\rangle$ of $G, \phi(|g|) \leq 2$. This implies that every cyclic subgroup of $G$ has at most two generators. Thus, $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq$ $\{2,3,4,6\}$.

Suppose that $G$ has an element $a$ of order 6 . Note that $G$ is noncyclic. Pick an element $x$ in $G \backslash\langle a\rangle$. If $|x|=2$, since $\left\langle x, a^{3}\right\rangle$ is noncyclic, we have that $\left\{x, a, a^{3}, a^{5}\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1,3}$, which is impossible. If the order of $x$ is 3 or 4 , since $\left\langle x, a^{2}\right\rangle$ is noncyclic, it follows that $\left\{x, a, a^{2}, a^{5}\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1,3}$, which is also impossible. We conclude $|x|=6$. Namely, every element of $G \backslash$ $\langle a\rangle$ has order 6 . However, in this case we have that both $x^{2}$ and $x^{3}$ belong to $\langle a\rangle$. It follows that $x \in\langle a\rangle$, a contradiction.

Thus, we conclude that $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4\}$. Suppose that there exists an element $g$ of order 4 in $G$. If there is $x \in G \backslash\langle g\rangle$ with $|x|=2$ or 3, then $\left\langle x, g^{2}\right\rangle$ is noncyclic, and so $\left\{x, g, g^{2}, g^{3}\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1,3}$, a contradiction. Consequently, in this case $G$ has a unique involution and $\pi_{e}(G)=\{2,4\}$. By [26, Theorem 5.4.10 (ii)], we see that $G$ is isomorphic to $Q_{8}$.

We now assume $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3\}$. If $\pi_{e}(G)=\{2\}$, then $G$ is an elementary abelian 2-group, as desired. If $\pi_{e}(G)=\{3\}$, then $G$ is a 3-group of exponent 3 , as desired.

Theorem 3.4. $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,4}$-free if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to one of the following groups:
(a) A noncyclic group $G$ with $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4\}$;
(b) $\mathbb{Z}_{6} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m}, \quad m \geq 1$.

Proof. If $G$ is isomorphic to a noncyclic group with $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4\}$, then $\alpha\left(\Gamma_{G}\right) \leq 3$ by Lemma 3.2, and so $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,4}$-free, as desired. If $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{6} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m}$ for some $m \geq 1$, then $|\operatorname{Cyc}(G)|=3$ and we can obtain that $\Gamma_{G}$ is a complete multipartite graph whose each partite set has size 3 , which implies that in this case $\Gamma_{G}$ is also $K_{1,4}$-free.

For the converse, suppose that $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,4}$-free. Note that $\phi(n)$ is even for any integer $n \geq 3$. By Lemma 3.1 we see that each cyclic subgroup of $G$ has at most two generators. It follows that $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4,6\}$. In order to get the desired result, we now suppose that $G$ has an element $g$ of order 6 . Clearly, $\langle g\rangle$ is maximal cyclic. If there exists an element $a$ in $G \backslash\langle g\rangle$ such that $|a|=3$ or 4, then $\left\{a, g, g^{2}, g^{4}, g^{5}\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1,4}$, a contradiction. This means that $G$ has a unique subgroup of order 3 and $\pi_{e}(G)=\{2,3,6\}$.

Let $P$ and $Q$ be a Sylow 2-subgroup and a Sylow 3-subgroup, respectively. Then $G=P \ltimes Q, P$ is an elementary abelian 2-group of order great than 2 and $Q \cong \mathbb{Z}_{3}$. Pick an involution $u$ in $G$. If $\left\langle u, g^{2}\right\rangle$ is noncyclic, then $\left\{u, g, g^{2}, g^{4}, g^{5}\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1,4}$, a contradiction. Thus, we have that every
element of $P$ and every element of $Q$ commute. It follows that

$$
G=P \times Q \cong \mathbb{Z}_{6} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m}, \quad m \geqq 1,
$$

as required.
Theorem 3.5. $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,5}$ free if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to one of the following groups:
(a) A noncyclic group $G$ with $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4,5\}$;
(b) $\mathbb{Z}_{6} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m}, \quad m \geq 1$;
(c) $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times Q$, where $Q$ is a noncyclic 3-group of exponent 3 ;
(d) The special linear group $S L(2,3)$;
(e) $\mathbb{Z}_{3}^{n} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{4}$, where $\mathbb{Z}_{4}$ acts on $\mathbb{Z}_{3}^{n}$ by inversion and $n \geq 1$.

Proof. If $G$ is isomorphic to a group in (a), then $\alpha\left(\Gamma_{G}\right) \leq 4$ by Lemma 3.2, and so $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,5}$-free. Moreover, by Theorem 3.4, $\Gamma_{\mathbb{Z}_{6} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m}}$ is $K_{1,5}$ free, where $m \geq 1$. If $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times Q$ for some noncyclic 3-group $Q$ of exponent 3, then $|\operatorname{Cyc}(G)|=2$ and we may check that $\Gamma_{G}$ is a complete multipartite graph whose each partite set has size 4, which implies that in this case $\Gamma_{G}$ is also $K_{1,5}$-free. Furthermore, if $G$ is isomorphic to $\operatorname{SL}(2,3)$ or a group in (e), then it is easy to see that $\Gamma_{G}$ is a complete multipartite graph whose maximal partite set has size 4. Thus, $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,5}$-free if $G$ is one group of $(d)$ and (e).

Conversely, suppose that $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,5}$-free. It follows from Lemma 3.1 that $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4,5,6,8,10,12\}$.
Suppose that $g \in G$ with $|g|=12$. If there exists an element $a$ with order 5 or 8 , then $\left\{a, g, g^{2}, g^{5}, g^{7}, g^{11}\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1,5}$, a contradiction. This implies that $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4,6,12\}$. If $G$ has an element $b$ of $G \backslash\langle g\rangle$ with $|b|<12$, then $\left\{b, g, g^{5}, g^{7}, g^{11}, g^{t}\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1,5}$, where $\left|g^{t}\right|=|b|$. Thus, in this case one has $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{12}$, a contradiction. This means that $G$ has no elements of order 12. Similarly, we can get $10 \notin \pi_{e}(G)$. If $G$ has an element of order 8 , then a similar argument implies that $G$ is a 2 -group and it has a unique involution and a unique cyclic subgroup of order 4 , which implies that $G$ is a generalized quaternion group having precisely two elements of order 4, a contradiction. Thus, we conclude $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4,5,6\}$.

In order to get the desired result, we suppose that $G$ has an element $h$ of order 6 . Then it is easy to see that $5 \notin \pi_{e}(G)$.
Case 1. $G$ has two distinct cyclic subgroups of order 6.
Assume that $H_{1}=\langle h\rangle$ and $H_{2}=\left\langle h_{2}\right\rangle$ are two distinct cyclic subgroups of order 6. In order to avoid that $\left\{h_{2}, h, h^{2}, h^{3}, h^{4}, h^{5}\right\}$ induces $K_{1,5}$, we may assume that $\left|H_{1} \cap H_{2}\right| \geq 2$. In fact, any two distinct cyclic subgroups of order 6 have nontrivial intersection.

Subcase 1.1. There exist two distinct cyclic subgroups of order 6 such that their intersection has order 3.
Without loss of generality, we may assume that $\left|H_{1} \cap H_{2}\right|=3$. Suppose that $G$ has an element $x$ of order 4. If $\left\langle h^{3}, x\right\rangle$ is not cyclic, then $\left\{x, h, h^{2}, h^{3}, h^{4}, h^{5}\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1,5}$, a contradiction. We conclude that $\left\langle h^{3}, x\right\rangle$ is cyclic, and so $h^{3}=x^{2}$. Similarly, we also can obtain $h_{2}^{3}=x^{2}$. It follows that $x^{2} \in H_{1} \cap H_{2}$, which is impossible as $\left|H_{1} \cap H_{2}\right|=3$. Hence, in this subcase $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,6\}$. Since every generator of any maximal cyclic subgroup of order 2 or 3 is adjacent to each of $\langle h\rangle \backslash\{e\}$, every cyclic subgroup of order 2 or 3 is not maximal. If $\langle y\rangle \neq\left\langle h^{2}\right\rangle$ is a subgroup of order 3, and let $\langle y\rangle \subseteq\left\langle h_{3}\right\rangle$ with $\left|h_{3}\right|=6$, then $\left|\left\langle h_{3}\right\rangle \cap H_{i}\right|=2$ for $i=1,2$ and so $h_{3}^{3}=h^{3}=h_{2}^{3}$, which is impossible as $H_{1} \neq H_{2}$. This implies that $G$ has a unique subgroup of order 3 . Now we know that $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m} \ltimes \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ for some integer $m \geq 2$. Pick an involution $u$ in $G$. Then since $\langle u\rangle$ is not maximal, there exists an element $h^{\prime}$ of order 6 such that $\langle u\rangle \subseteq\left\langle h^{\prime}\right\rangle$. By the uniqueness of the subgroup of order 3, we see that $\left\langle h^{\prime}\right\rangle \cap\langle h\rangle=\left\langle h^{2}\right\rangle$. It follows that $\left\langle u, h^{2}\right\rangle$ is cyclic. Namely, every involution of $G$ and $h^{2}$ commute. This implies that $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ for some integer $m \geq 2$, as desired.

Subcase 1.2. The intersection of each two distinct cyclic subgroups of order 6 has order 2.
In this case we first claim that $G$ has a unique involution. Assume, to the contrary, that $u$ is an involution of $G$ such that $u \neq h^{3}$. Then $\left\langle u, h^{2}\right\rangle$ is not cyclic, since there are no two cyclic subgroups of order 6 such that
their intersection has order 3. This implies that $\left\{u, h, h^{2}, h^{3}, h^{4}, h^{5}\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1,5}$, a contradiction. Thus, our claim is valid.

Now note that $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4,6\}$. If $4 \notin \pi_{e}(G)$, then $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times Q$, where $Q$ is a noncyclic 3-group of exponent 3. Thus, we may assume that $\pi_{e}(G)=\{2,3,4,6\}$. Note that $\mathbb{Z}_{3} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{4}$ has a unique cyclic subgroup of order 6 , where $\mathbb{Z}_{4}$ acts on $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$ by inversion. By Theorem 2.1 we see that that $G \cong S L(2,3)$ or $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{3}^{n} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{4}$, where $\mathbb{Z}_{4}$ acts on $\mathbb{Z}_{3}^{n}$ by inversion, and $n \geq 2$, as required.

Case 2. $G$ has a unique cyclic subgroup of order 6.
We first see that $\langle h\rangle$ is a normal subgroup of $G$. Note that $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4,6\}$. If $G$ has an element $x$ in $G \backslash\langle h\rangle$ such that $x \in C_{G}(h)$, the centralizer of $h$ in $G$, then $G$ has a subgroup isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{6}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{6}$, which contradicts the fact that $G$ has precisely two elements of order 6 . This implies that $C_{G}(h)=\langle h\rangle$. So $G /\langle h\rangle$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_{2}$, and hence $|G|=6$ or 12 . It follows that $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{3} \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_{4}$, where $\mathbb{Z}_{4}$ acts on $\mathbb{Z}_{3}$ by inversion, as desired.

Theorem 3.6. $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,6}$-free if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to one of the following groups:
(a) A noncyclic group $G$ with $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4,5,6\}$;
(b) $\mathbb{Z}_{10} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m}, \quad m \geq 1$.

Proof. If $G$ is isomorphic to a group in (a), then it follows from Lemma 3.2 that $\alpha\left(\Gamma_{G}\right) \leq 5$, and so $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,6^{-}}$ free. If $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{10} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m}$ for some $m \geq 1$, then $|\operatorname{Cyc}(G)|=5$ and we may check that $\Gamma_{G}$ is a complete multipartite graph whose each partite set has size 5 , which implies $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,6}$-free.

For the converse, suppose that $\Gamma_{G}$ is $K_{1,6}$-free. Since $\phi(n)$ is even for $n \geq 3$, by Lemma 3.1, we have that $\phi(|g|) \leq 4$ for any $g \in G$. It follows that $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4,5,6,8,10,12\}$. An argument similar to the one used in the third paragraph of the proof of Theorem 3.5 shows that $8,12 \notin \pi_{e}(G)$. Consequently, we have $\pi_{e}(G) \subseteq\{2,3,4,5,6,10\}$.

In order to get the desired result, we suppose that $G$ has an element $h$ of order 10 . Then it is easy to see that $\pi_{e}(G)=\{2,5,10\}$ and $G$ has a unique subgroup of order 5 . Thus, we may assume that $G \cong P \ltimes \mathbb{Z}_{5}$, where $P$ is an elementary abelian 2-group of order at least 4. Pick any involution $u$ in $P$. If $\left\langle u, h^{2}\right\rangle$ is not cyclic, then $\left\{u, h^{2}, h^{4}, h^{6}, h^{8}, h^{5}, h\right\}$ induces a subgraph isomorphic to $K_{1,6}$, a contradiction. Thus, every element in $P$ and $h^{2}$ commute. It follows that $G \cong P \times \mathbb{Z}_{5}$, that is, $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{10} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{m}$ for some $m \geq 1$, as desired.

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