# The number of composition factors of order $p$ in completely reducible groups of characteristic $p$ 

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#### Abstract

Let $q$ be a power of a prime $p$ and let $G$ be a completely reducible subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}(d, q)$. We prove that the number of composition factors of $G$ that have prime order $p$ is at most $\left(\varepsilon_{q} d-1\right) /(p-1)$, where $\varepsilon_{q}$ is a function of $q$ satisfying $1 \leqslant \varepsilon_{q} \leqslant 3 / 2$. For every $q$, we give examples showing this bound is sharp infinitely often.


## 1. Introduction

All groups considered in this paper are finite. Given a group $G$ and a prime $p$, let $c_{p}(G)$ denote the number of composition factors of $G$ of order $p$. Our main theorem is the following.

THEOREM 1. Let $q$ be a power of a prime $p$, say $q=p^{f}$. If $G$ is a completely reducible subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}(d, q)$ with $r$ irreducible components, then

$$
c_{p}(G) \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d-r}{p-1}, \quad \text { where } \varepsilon_{q}= \begin{cases}\frac{4}{3} & \text { if } p=2 \text { and } f \text { is even }  \tag{1}\\ \frac{p}{p-1} & \text { if } p \text { is a Fermat prime } \\ 1 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Recall that a Fermat prime is a prime of the form $2^{2^{n}}+1$ for some $n \geqslant 0$, and that a subgroup $G$ of $\mathrm{GL}(V)$ is called completely reducible if $V$ is a direct sum of irreducible $G$-modules.

Our motivation for Theorem 1 arose from studying transitive permutation groups admitting paired orbitals with non-isomorphic subconstituents. In the case when both subconstituents are quasiprimitive, Knapp proved that one must be an epimorphic image of the other [13, Theorem 3.3]. This naturally led us to investigate the question of when a quasiprimitive group can be a non-trivial epimorphic image of another quasiprimitive group of the same degree. In an upcoming paper [7], we show that this is very rare. Our proof relies on Theorem 1 in the case when both quasiprimitive groups are of affine type.

Let $G$ be a group and let $a(G)$ be the product of the orders of the abelian composition factors of $G$. Note that $c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{p}(a(G))$ so upper bounds on $a(G)$ yield upper bounds on $c_{p}(G)$. It is proved in [ $\mathbf{6}$, Theorem 6.5] that, if $G$ is a completely reducible subgroup

[^0]of $\mathrm{GL}\left(d, p^{f}\right)$, then $a(G) \leqslant \beta^{-1}\left(p^{f d}\right)^{\gamma}$ where $\beta=24^{1 / 3}$ and $\gamma=\log _{9}(48 \beta)$, and thus $c_{p}(G) \leqslant \gamma d f-\log _{p} \beta<\gamma d f$. Our bound improves on this because it is independent of $f$, it involves the denominator $p-1$, and $\varepsilon_{q}<\gamma \approx 2.244$. Similarly, if $G$ is a primitive group of degree $n$ and $p \mid n$, then it follows from [6, Corollary 6.7] that $a(G) \leqslant \beta^{-1} n^{\gamma+1}$ and hence $c_{p}(G) \leqslant(\gamma+1) \log _{p}(n)$, whereas our result implies $c_{p}(G) \leqslant d+\frac{\varepsilon_{p} d-1}{p-1}$ if $G$ is primitive of affine type and degree $n=p^{d}$.

After some preliminary results in Section 2, we exhibit some examples in Section 3 which show that, for every prime power $q$, Theorem 1 is sharp infinitely often. In particular, $\varepsilon_{q}$ is best possible. The bound in Theorem 1 can be sharpened (if $q$ is not an odd power of 2) to $\varepsilon_{p}(G) \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d-s}{p-1}$ where $s$ is the number of absolutely irreducible components of $G$ since $G$ remains completely reducible over the algebraic closure of $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ by [10, §VII.2].

The proof of Theorem 1 is given in Section 4. The main idea is to use induction on $d$ and then split into cases, according to Aschbacher's classification of the subgroups of $\operatorname{GL}\left(d, p^{f}\right)$. The hardest case is when $G$ is a projectively almost simple absolutely irreducible 'C $\mathcal{C}_{9}$ group' with a 'non-geometric' linear action. We conclude with Corollary 9, which bounds $c_{p}\left(G / O_{p}(G)\right)$ for $G$ an arbitrary subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}\left(d, p^{f}\right)$.

## 2. Preliminaries

Throughout the paper, $p$ will always denote a prime. Given a positive integer $n$, let $n_{p}$ denote the highest power of $p$ that divides $n$ and let $\mathrm{C}_{n}$ denote a cyclic group of order $n$. By Clifford's theorem [4], a normal subgroup of a completely reducible group is also completely reducible. This fact will be used repeatedly. The following lemmas will also be used repeatedly, sometimes without comment.

Lemma 2. If $r$ is a positive integer, then $\log _{p} r_{p} \leqslant \log _{p}(r!)_{p} \leqslant(r-1) /(p-1)$.
Proof. The first inequality is obvious. Consider the $p$-adic expansion $r=\sum_{k \geqslant 0} d_{k} p^{k}$ of $r$, with 'digits' $d_{k} \in\{0,1, \ldots, p-1\}$ for each $k \geqslant 0$. Legendre proved that $\log _{p}(r!)_{p}=$ $\sum_{k \geqslant 1}\left\lfloor r / p^{k}\right\rfloor=\left(r-s_{p}(r)\right) /(p-1)$, where $s_{p}(r)=\sum_{k \geqslant 0} d_{k}$. The second inequality follows since $s_{p}(r) \geqslant 1$.

Lemma 3. Let $G$ be a group.
(a) If $1=G_{m} \vDash G_{m-1} \Downarrow \cdots \vDash G_{0}=G$ is a subnormal series for $G$, then $c_{p}(G)=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{m} c_{p}\left(G_{i-1} / G_{i}\right)$.
(b) $c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{p}|G|_{p}$. If $G$ is $p$-soluble, then $c_{p}(G)=\log _{p}|G|_{p}$.
(c) If $G$ is a subgroup of a group $\Gamma$, then $c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{p}|\Gamma|_{p}$. In particular, if $G \leqslant \operatorname{Sym}(r)$, then $c_{p}(G) \leqslant(r-1) /(p-1)$.
(d) If $G$ is a subgroup of a direct product $H_{1} \times \cdots \times H_{r}$ where the projection maps $\pi_{i}: G \rightarrow$ $H_{i}$ are surjective for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, then $c_{p}(G) \leqslant c_{p}\left(H_{1}\right)+\cdots+c_{p}\left(H_{r}\right)$.
(e) If $G$ is a subgroup of a central product $H_{1} \circ \cdots \circ H_{r}$ where the projection maps $G \rightarrow H_{i}$ are surjective for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, then $c_{p}(G) \leqslant c_{p}\left(H_{1}\right)+\cdots+c_{p}\left(H_{r}\right)$.

Proof. We prove these in order.
(a) The given subnormal series for $G$ can be refined to a composition series for $G$. The result now follows from the definition of $c_{p}(G)$.
(b) The first claim is obvious. If $G$ is $p$-soluble, then, by definition, each composition factor has order $p$, or coprime to $p$. The result now follows from the definition of $c_{p}(G)$.
(c) Since $|G|_{p} \leqslant|\Gamma|_{p}$, we have $c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{p}|\Gamma|_{p}$. The second sentence follows from Lemma 2.
(d) Let $G_{0}=G$. For $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, let $\pi_{i}: G \rightarrow H_{i}$ be the projection map, let $K_{i}=\operatorname{ker}\left(\pi_{i}\right)$ and let $G_{i}=G \cap K_{1} \cap \cdots \cap K_{i}$. Note that $G_{r}=1$. Hence $c_{p}(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{p}\left(G_{i-1} / G_{i}\right)$ by (a). However,

$$
\frac{G_{i-1}}{G_{i}}=\frac{G_{i-1}}{G_{i-1} \cap K_{i}} \cong \frac{G_{i-1} K_{i}}{K_{i}} \triangleq \frac{G}{K_{i}} \cong H_{i} .
$$

Thus $c_{p}\left(G_{i-1} / G_{i}\right) \leqslant c_{p}\left(H_{i}\right)$ by (a), and hence $c_{p}(G) \leqslant c_{p}\left(H_{1}\right)+\cdots+c_{p}\left(H_{r}\right)$.
(e) Let $H=H_{1} \times \cdots \times H_{r}$ and let $N$ be a normal subgroup of $H$ such that $H / N=$ $H_{1} \circ \cdots \circ H_{r}$. Let $\Gamma$ be the preimage of $G$ in $H$. The projection maps $\Gamma \rightarrow H_{i}$ are surjective, hence $c_{p}(\Gamma) \leqslant \sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{p}\left(H_{i}\right)$ by (d). The result follows since $c_{p}(G) \leqslant c_{p}(\Gamma)$.

## 3. Examples

Lemma 4. Let $p$ be a prime, let $r \geqslant 1$, let $q$ be a prime-power and let $\Gamma_{1}$ be an irreducible subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}(r, q)$. For every $n \geqslant 2$, let $\Gamma_{n}=\Gamma_{n-1}$ 乙 $\mathrm{C}_{p}$. Then, for every $n \geqslant 2, \Gamma_{n}$ is an imprimitive subgroup of $\operatorname{GL}\left(d_{n}, q\right)$ where $d_{n}=r p^{n-1}$. Furthermore,

$$
c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{n}\right)=\frac{\varepsilon d_{n}-1}{p-1} \quad \text { where } \quad \varepsilon=\frac{c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)(p-1)+1}{r} .
$$

Proof. We first prove by induction that $\Gamma_{n}$ is an irreducible subgroup of $\operatorname{GL}\left(d_{n}, q\right)$. This is true for $n=1$. Assume now that $n \geqslant 2$ and $\Gamma_{n-1}$ is an irreducible subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}\left(d_{n-1}, q\right)$. Let $V=\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)^{d_{n}}$ be the natural $\Gamma_{n}$-module. Restricting to the base group $N=\left(\Gamma_{n-1}\right)^{p}$ of $\Gamma_{n}, V$ is a direct sum $V_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus V_{p}$ of pairwise nonisomorphic irreducible $N$-modules each of dimension $d_{n-1}$. Hence $\Gamma_{n}$ is an irreducible subgroup of $\operatorname{GL}\left(d_{n}, q\right)$ by Clifford's Theorem [4]. In particular, $\Gamma_{n}$ is imprimitive for $n \geqslant 2$. The formula for $c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{n}\right)$ is true when $n=1$ as $d_{1}=r$ and $c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)=(\varepsilon r-1) /(p-1)$. By Lemma 3(a), $c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{n}\right)=p c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{n-1}\right)+1$. Hence the the formula for $c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{n}\right)$ also follows by induction.

Using Lemma 4, we now give three families of examples that show that the bound in Theorem 1 is best possible.

Example 5. Let $q$ be a power of a prime $p$ and let $\Gamma_{1}=\Gamma L\left(1, p^{p}\right) \cong \mathrm{GL}\left(1, p^{p}\right) \rtimes \mathrm{C}_{p}$. Note that $\Gamma_{1}$ is an absolutely irreducible subgroup of $\operatorname{GL}(p, p)$. Consequently, $\Gamma_{1}$ is an irreducible subgroup of $\operatorname{GL}(p, q)$. Note also that $c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)=1$. Applying Lemma 4 with $r=p$ yields, for every $n \geqslant 1$, an irreducible subgroup $\Gamma_{n}$ of $\operatorname{GL}\left(d_{n}, q\right)$ with $c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{n}\right)=$ $\left(d_{n}-1\right) /(p-1)$, where $d_{n}=p^{n}$.

Example 6. Let $q$ be an even power of 2 and let $\Gamma_{1}=\operatorname{GU}(3,2) \cong 3^{1+2} \rtimes \operatorname{SL}(2,3)$. Note that $\Gamma_{1}$ is an absolutely irreducible subgroup of GL $\left(3,2^{2}\right)$. Thus, $\Gamma_{1}$ is an irreducible subgroup of GL $(3, q)$. Note also that $c_{2}\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)=3$. Applying Lemma 4 with $(p, r)=(2,3)$ yields, for every $n \geqslant 1$, an irreducible subgroup $\Gamma_{n}$ of $\operatorname{GL}\left(d_{n}, q\right)$ with $c_{2}\left(\Gamma_{n}\right)=(4 / 3) d_{n}-1$, where $d_{n}=3 \cdot 2^{n-1}$.

Example 7. Let $p=2^{m}+1$ be a Fermat prime, let $q$ be a power of $p$, let $E$ denote an extraspecial group of order $2^{1+2 m}$ and type - , let $P$ be a Sylow $p$-subgroup of the orthogonal group $\operatorname{GO}^{-}(2 m, 2)$, and let $\Gamma_{1}=E \rtimes P$. Note that $\Gamma_{1}$ is an absolutely irreducible subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}\left(2^{m}, p\right)=\mathrm{GL}(p-1, p)$. Consequently, $\Gamma_{1}$ is an irreducible subgroup of $\operatorname{GL}(p-1, q)$. Note also that $|P|=p$ and $c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{1}\right)=1$. Applying Lemma 4 with $r=p-1$ yields, for every $n \geqslant 1$, an irreducible subgroup $\Gamma_{n}$ of $\operatorname{GL}\left(d_{n}, q\right)$ with $c_{p}\left(\Gamma_{n}\right)=\left(\varepsilon d_{n}-1\right) /(p-1)$, where $\varepsilon=p /(p-1)$ and $d_{n}=(p-1) p^{n-1}$.

The three examples above together show that, for every prime power $q$, Theorem 1 is sharp infinitely often. In Theorem 1 and these examples, the prime $p$ divides the field size. If $p$ does not divide $q$, then $c_{p}(G)$ cannot be bounded by a function of only $d$ and $p$, as the following example shows.

Example 8. Let $p \neq 2$ and $r$ be primes such that $r \equiv 1(\bmod p)$, let $f$ be a positive power of $p$, let $q=r^{f}$ and let $G=\operatorname{GL}(d, q)$. Note that $G / \operatorname{SL}(d, q)$ is cyclic of order $q-1$ hence $c_{p}(G) \geqslant\left(r^{f}-1\right)_{p}=(r-1)_{p} f_{p}=(r-1)_{p} f$.

## 4. Proof of Theorem 1

Let $p$ be a prime, let $f$ be a positive integer and let $q=p^{f}$. Let $V=\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)^{d}$, viewed as a vector space over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, and let $G$ be a completely reducible subgroup of $\mathrm{GL}(V) \cong \mathrm{GL}(d, q)$. It is also useful to note that $\varepsilon_{q} \geqslant 1$.

Our proof now proceeds by induction on pairs $(d, f)$ where we use the lexicographic ordering $\left(d_{1}, f_{1}\right)<\left(d_{2}, f_{2}\right)$ if $d_{1}<d_{2}$, or $d_{1}=d_{2}$ and $f_{1}<f_{2}$. The base case when $d=f=1$ is trivial.

Since $\mathrm{GL}(d, q) / \mathrm{SL}(d, q)$ has order $q-1$ and thus coprime to $p$, it follows by Lemma 3(a) that $c_{p}(G)=c_{p}(G \cap \mathrm{SL}(d, q))$. We henceforth assume that $G \leqslant \mathrm{SL}(d, q)$. Let $Z=$ $\mathrm{Z}(\operatorname{SL}(d, q))$. Note that $Z$ has order $\operatorname{gcd}(d, q-1)$ which is coprime to $p$ hence $c_{p}(G)=$ $c_{p}(G Z)$. We thus assume henceforth that $Z \leqslant G$.

In fact, $c_{p}(\operatorname{SL}(d, q))=0$ unless $d=2$ and $q \in\{2,3\}$, in which case $c_{p}(\operatorname{SL}(d, q))=1$. In both cases, (1) holds hence we assume $G<\operatorname{SL}(d, q)$.

Our proof relies heavily on Aschbacher's Theorem characterising the subgroups of $\operatorname{GL}(d, q)$ that do not contain $\operatorname{SL}(d, q)$, which asserts that $G$ lies in at least one of the following nine classes [2].
$\mathcal{C}_{1}$ (reducible subgroups): In this case, $G$ fixes some proper nonzero subspace of $V$.
$\mathcal{C}_{2}$ (imprimitive subgroups): In this case, $G$ fixes some decomposition $V=V_{1} \oplus$ $\cdots \oplus V_{r}$, where $r \geqslant 2$ and each $V_{i}$ has dimension $d / r$. In particular, $G \leqslant$ $\mathrm{GL}(d / r, q)$ ) $\operatorname{Sym}(r)$.
$\mathcal{C}_{3}$ (extension field subgroups): In this case, $G$ preserves the structure of $V$ as a $(d / r)$-dimensional vector space over $\mathbb{F}_{q^{r}}$ for some $r \geqslant 2$. In this case, $G \leqslant$ $\mathrm{GL}\left(d / r, q^{r}\right) \rtimes \mathrm{C}_{r}$.
$\mathcal{C}_{4}$ (tensor product subgroups): In this case, $G$ preserves a tensor product decomposition $V=U \otimes W$ with $d=\operatorname{dim}(U) \operatorname{dim}(W)$ and $\operatorname{dim}(U) \neq \operatorname{dim}(W)$. In particular, $G \leqslant \mathrm{GL}(U) \circ \mathrm{GL}(W)$.
$\mathcal{C}_{5}$ (subfield subgroups): In this case, $q=q_{0}^{r}$ for some $r \geqslant 2$ and $G \leqslant \operatorname{GL}\left(d, q_{0}\right)$. Z $(\operatorname{GL}(d, q))$.
$\mathcal{C}_{6}$ (symplectic type $r$-groups): In this case, there is a prime $r$ such that $d=r^{m}$ and an absolutely irreducible normal $r$-subgroup $R$ of $G$ such that $R / \mathrm{Z}(R)$ is elementary abelian of rank $2 m$.
$\mathcal{C}_{7}$ (tensor-imprimitive subgroups): In this case, $G$ preserves the tensor product decomposition $V=V_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes V_{r}$, where each $V_{i}$ has dimension $n$ and $d=n^{r}$. In particular, $G \leqslant(\operatorname{GL}(n, q) \circ \cdots \circ \mathrm{GL}(n, q)) \rtimes \operatorname{Sym}(r)$.
$\mathcal{C}_{8}$ (classical groups): In this case, $G$ preserves a nondegenerate alternating, hermitian or quadratic form on $V$. Moreover, $G$ contains one of $\operatorname{Sp}(d, q)^{\prime}, \operatorname{SU}(d, \sqrt{q})$ or $\Omega^{\varepsilon}(d, q)$, where $\varepsilon \in\{ \pm, \circ\}$. For more details, see $\S \S 4.7$.
$\mathcal{C}_{9}$ (nearly simple groups): In this case, $G / Z$ is an almost simple group with socle $N / Z$ such that $Z \leqslant N$ and $N$ is absolutely irreducible.

We now consider these classes one by one.
4.1. $G \in \mathcal{C}_{1}$. As $G \in \mathcal{C}_{1}$ is completely reducible, $G$ preserves a direct sum decomposition $V=V_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus V_{r}$ with $r \geqslant 2$ where the restriction $G_{i}$ of $G$ to $V_{i}$ is irreducible. By induction, we have $c_{p}\left(G_{i}\right) \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d_{i}-1}{p-1}$ where $d_{i}=\operatorname{dim}\left(V_{i}\right)$ for each $i$. Since $G \leqslant G_{1} \times \cdots \times G_{r}$ and $G$ projects onto each $G_{i}$, Lemma 3(d) implies

$$
c_{p}(G) \leqslant c_{p}\left(\prod_{i=1}^{r} G_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{p}\left(G_{i}\right) \leqslant \sum_{i=1}^{r} \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d_{i}-1}{p-1}=\frac{\varepsilon_{q}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{r} d_{i}\right)-r}{p-1}=\frac{\varepsilon_{q} d-r}{p-1} .
$$

4.2. $G \in \mathcal{C}_{2}$. In this case $G$ is irreducible and preserves a direct sum decomposition $V=V_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus V_{r}$ with $r \geqslant 2$. Thus $G$ acts transitively on the set $\Omega=\left\{V_{1}, \ldots, V_{r}\right\}$. Let $N$ be the kernel of the action of $G$ on $\Omega$, and let $N_{i}$ denote the restriction of $N$ to $V_{i}$. The stabiliser $G_{i}$ in $G$ of the subspace $V_{i}$ is irreducible on $V_{i}$. Thus $c_{p}\left(G_{i}\right) \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d_{i}-1}{p-1}$ by induction where $d_{i}=\operatorname{dim}\left(V_{i}\right)=d / r$ for each $i$. By definition, the projection maps $N \rightarrow N_{i}$ are surjective for all $i$ and, moreover, $N \leqslant N_{1} \times \cdots \times N_{r}$. It follows by Lemma 3(d) that $c_{p}(N) \leqslant \sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{p}\left(N_{i}\right)$, and $N_{i} \preccurlyeq G_{i}$ implies $c_{p}\left(N_{i}\right) \leqslant c_{p}\left(G_{i}\right)$. On the other hand, $G / N$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\operatorname{Sym}(r)$ hence $c_{p}(G / N) \leqslant(r-1) /(p-1)$ by Lemma 3(c).

By Lemma 3(a), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
c_{p}(G) & =c_{p}(G / N)+c_{p}(N) \leqslant c_{p}(G / N)+\sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{p}\left(N_{i}\right) \leqslant c_{p}(G / N)+\sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{p}\left(G_{i}\right) \\
& \leqslant \frac{r-1}{p-1}+\sum_{i=1}^{r} \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d_{i}-1}{p-1}=\frac{r-1}{p-1}+\frac{\varepsilon_{q} d-r}{p-1}=\frac{\varepsilon_{q} d-1}{p-1},
\end{aligned}
$$

as desired. From now on, we assume that $G$ is irreducible and primitive. Therefore every normal subgroup $N$ of $G$ acts completely reducibly, indeed homogeneously.
4.3. $G \in \mathcal{C}_{3}$. In this case, there exists $r \geqslant 2$ such that $G \leqslant \mathrm{GL}\left(d / r, q^{r}\right) \rtimes \mathrm{C}_{r}$. Let $N=G \cap \mathrm{GL}\left(d / r, q^{r}\right)$. By the inductive hypothesis, we have $c_{p}(N) \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q^{r}}(d / r)-1}{p-1}$. Furthermore, by Lemma 2,

$$
c_{p}(G / N) \leqslant c_{p}\left(\mathrm{C}_{r}\right)=\log _{p} r_{p} \leqslant \frac{r-1}{p-1}
$$

If $d=r$, then $N \leqslant \mathrm{GL}\left(1, q^{d}\right)$ and hence $|N|$ is coprime to $p$ and $c_{p}(N)=0$. By Lemma 3(a), we have

$$
c_{p}(G)=c_{p}(G / N) \leqslant \frac{r-1}{p-1}=\frac{d-1}{p-1} \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d-1}{p-1} .
$$

We may thus assume that $d \geqslant 2 r$. Note that

$$
c_{p}(G)=c_{p}(N)+c_{p}(G / N) \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q^{r}}(d / r)-1}{p-1}+\frac{r-1}{p-1}=\frac{\varepsilon_{q^{r}}(d / r)+r-2}{p-1} .
$$

It thus suffices to show

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon_{q^{r}}(d / r)+r-1 \leqslant \varepsilon_{q} d . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose now that $\varepsilon_{q^{r}} \leqslant \varepsilon_{q}$. In this case, it suffices to show $\varepsilon_{q} d / r+r-1 \leqslant \varepsilon_{q} d$ which is equivalent to $r-1 \leqslant \varepsilon_{q} d(r-1) / r$, and hence equivalent to $r \leqslant \varepsilon_{q} d$. Since $\varepsilon_{q} \geqslant 1$, the latter holds and so we may thus assume that $\varepsilon_{q}<\varepsilon_{q^{r}}$. From the definition of $\varepsilon$, it follows that $\varepsilon_{q}=1$ and $\varepsilon_{q^{r}}=4 / 3$. Therefore, (2) becomes

$$
\frac{4 d}{3 r}+r-1 \leqslant d
$$

This is equivalent to $r^{2}-r \leqslant d(r-4 / 3)$ which holds since $d \geqslant 2 r$ and $r \geqslant 2$.
4.4. $G \in \mathcal{C}_{4}$ or $\mathcal{C}_{7}$. In this case, $G$ preserves a non-trivial decomposition of $V$ as a tensor product, say $V=V_{1} \otimes \cdots \otimes V_{r}$ where $r \geqslant 2$. If $G \in \mathcal{C}_{4}$, then $r=2$ and $G$ fixes $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$, otherwise $G$ permutes the factors $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{r}$. Note that $d=\prod_{i=1}^{r} d_{i}$, where $d_{i}=\operatorname{dim}\left(V_{i}\right) \geqslant 2$. Let $N$ be the kernel of the action of $G$ on the set $\left\{V_{1}, \ldots, V_{r}\right\}$ and let $N_{i}$ denote the restriction of $N$ to $V_{i}$. By definition, the projection maps $N \rightarrow N_{i}$ are surjective for all $i$ and, moreover, $N \leqslant N_{1} \circ \cdots \circ N_{r}$. It follows by Lemma $3(\mathrm{e})$ that $c_{p}(N) \leqslant$ $\sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{p}\left(N_{i}\right)$. By Clifford's Theorem, a subnormal subgroup of a completely reducible
group is completely reducible. Since $N_{i} \sharp N 太 G, N_{i}$ is completely reducible on $V$ and on $V_{i}$. Hence, by the inductive hypothesis, we have $c_{p}\left(N_{i}\right) \leqslant\left(\varepsilon_{q} d_{i}-1\right) /(p-1)$. On the other hand, $G / N$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\operatorname{Sym}(r)$ hence $c_{p}(G / N) \leqslant(r-1) /(p-1)$ by Lemma 3(c). By Lemma 3(a), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
c_{p}(G) & =c_{p}(G / N)+c_{p}(N) \leqslant c_{p}(G / N)+\sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{p}\left(N_{i}\right) \leqslant \frac{r-1}{p-1}+\sum_{i=1}^{r} \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d_{i}-1}{p-1} \\
& =\frac{\varepsilon_{q}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{r} d_{i}\right)-1}{p-1} \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q}\left(\prod_{i=1}^{r} d_{i}\right)-1}{p-1}=\frac{\varepsilon_{q} d-1}{p-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last inequality follows from the fact that $d_{i} \geqslant 2$ for all $i$. This completes the proof of this case.
4.5. $G \in \mathcal{C}_{5}$. In this case, $G \leqslant \operatorname{GL}\left(d, q_{0}\right) \mathrm{Z}(\mathrm{GL}(d, q))$ where $q=q_{0}^{r}$ for some divisor $r$ of $f$ with $r \geqslant 2$. Let $G_{0}=G \cap \operatorname{GL}\left(d, q_{0}\right)$. Note that $c_{p}(\mathrm{Z}(\operatorname{GL}(d, q)))=0$ hence $c_{p}(G)=c_{p}\left(G_{0}\right)$. Since $q_{0}=p^{f / r}$ and $(d, f / r)<(d, f)$ in our lexicographic ordering, the inductive hypothesis yields $c_{p}\left(G_{0}\right) \leqslant\left(\varepsilon_{q_{0}} d-1\right) /(p-1)$. Since $q$ is a power of $q_{0}$, it follows from the definition of $\varepsilon$ that $\varepsilon_{q_{0}} \leqslant \varepsilon_{q}$ and the result follows.
4.6. $G \in \mathcal{C}_{6}$. In this case, $d=r^{m}$ for some prime $r$ with $r \mid(q-1)$, and $G$ normalises an absolutely irreducible $r$-subgroup $R$ where $R / Z(R)$ is elementary abelian of rank $2 m$. By [12, Proposition 4.6.5], the normaliser of $R$ in $\operatorname{SL}(d, q)$ is

$$
\mathrm{Z}(\mathrm{SL}(d, q)) \circ(R \cdot \mathrm{Sp}(2 m, r)) .
$$

Since $r \mid(q-1)$, we have $r \neq p$ and thus $c_{p}(\mathrm{Z}(\operatorname{SL}(d, q)))=c_{p}(R)=0$. It follows by Lemma 3 that

$$
c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{p}|\operatorname{Sp}(2 m, r)|_{p}=\log _{p} \prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(r^{2 i}-1\right)_{p}
$$

It thus suffices to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log _{p} \prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(r^{2 i}-1\right)_{p} \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q} r^{m}-1}{p-1} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\Delta=\prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(r^{2 i}-1\right)$. Suppose first that $p=2$ and thus $r \geqslant 3$. Note that

$$
\log _{2} \Delta_{2}=\log _{2} \prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(r^{2 i}-1\right)_{2}<\log _{2} \prod_{i=1}^{m} r^{2 i}=\left(m^{2}+m\right) \log _{2} r
$$

If $\left(m^{2}+m\right) \log _{2} r \leqslant r^{m}-1$, then, clearly, (3) holds. We may thus assume that $\left(m^{2}+\right.$ $m) \log _{2} r>r^{m}-1$ and it is not hard to see that this implies that $(m, r)$ is one of $(1,3)$, $(1,5)$ or $(2,3)$. If $(m, r)=(1,5)$, then $\log _{2} \Delta_{2}=3$ and (3) follows by noting that $\varepsilon_{q} \geqslant 1$. Finally, if $r=3$ then $q$ must be an even power of 2 and thus $\varepsilon_{q}=4 / 3$ and again (3) can be verified directly for $m \in\{1,2\}$.

From now on, we assume that $p \geqslant 3$. Let $\ell$ be the order of $r^{2}$ modulo $p$, that is, the smallest integer $\ell \geqslant 1$ for which $\left(r^{2}\right)^{\ell} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$. The key observation which follows from [1, Lemma 2.2(i)] is that

$$
\left(r^{2 i}-1\right)_{p}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } \ell \nmid i \\ \left(r^{2 \ell}-1\right)_{p}\left(\frac{i}{\ell}\right)_{p} & \text { if } \ell \mid i\end{cases}
$$

Let $\left(r^{2 \ell}-1\right)_{p}=p^{e}$ and note that $e \geqslant 1$. Hence

$$
\Delta_{p}=\prod_{i=1}^{m}\left(r^{2 i}-1\right)_{p}=\prod_{j=1}^{\lfloor m / \ell\rfloor}\left(r^{2 j \ell}-1\right)_{p}=\prod_{j=1}^{\lfloor m / \ell\rfloor}\left(r^{2 \ell}-1\right)_{p} j_{p}=p^{\lfloor m / \ell\rfloor e}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{m}{\ell}\right\rfloor!\right)_{p}
$$

Thus, by Lemma $2, \log _{p} \Delta_{p} \leqslant\lfloor m / \ell\rfloor e+(\lfloor m / \ell\rfloor-1) /(p-1)$. To prove (3), it thus suffices to prove

$$
\lfloor m / \ell\rfloor e+\frac{\lfloor m / \ell\rfloor-1}{p-1} \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q} r^{m}-1}{p-1} .
$$

For this, it is sufficient to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lfloor m / \ell\rfloor e p \leqslant \varepsilon_{q} r^{m} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose first that $p=2^{n}+1$ is a Fermat prime and $r=2$. In this case $\ell=n, e=1$ and $\varepsilon_{q}=\frac{p}{p-1}$. Hence (4) becomes $\lfloor m / n\rfloor \leqslant 2^{m-n}$. Writing $\alpha=m / n$, this inequality becomes $\lfloor\alpha\rfloor \leqslant 2^{n(\alpha-1)}$, which holds for all values of $\alpha$ since $n \geqslant 1$.

We now assume that $p \geqslant 3$ is not a Fermat prime or $r \geqslant 3$, and hence that $\varepsilon_{q}=1$. Since $p^{e} \mid\left(r^{2 \ell}-1\right)$, we see that $p^{e} \mid\left(r^{\ell} \pm 1\right)$ and hence $p^{e} \leqslant r^{\ell}+1$. Suppose that equality holds. Since $p \geqslant 3$, we have $r=2$ hence $p^{e}-1$ is a power of 2 and thus so is $p-1$. In other words, $p$ is a Fermat prime, contradicting our assumption. We may thus assume that $p^{e} \leqslant r^{\ell}$ and hence $e \leqslant \ell \log _{p} r$. Using (4), it suffices to prove $m p \log _{p} r \leqslant r^{m}$.

We first consider the subcase when $p \leqslant r^{m / 2}$. Under this hypothesis, it suffices to prove $m \log _{p} r \leqslant r^{m / 2}$ and, since $p \geqslant 3$, even $m \log _{3} r \leqslant r^{m / 2}$ is sufficient. It is not hard to show that this always holds.

We now assume that $p \geqslant r^{m / 2}+1$ and hence $\ell \geqslant m / 2$. If $\ell=m / 2$, then $p=r^{m / 2}+1$ and hence $r=2$ and $p$ is a Fermat prime, contrary to our hypothesis. Thus $\ell>m / 2$. If $\ell>m$, then (4) clearly holds. We may thus assume that $m / 2<\ell \leqslant m$ and hence $\Delta_{p}=\left(r^{2 \ell}-1\right)_{p}$.

Suppose that $p^{2} \mid\left(r^{2 \ell}-1\right)$. Since $p \geqslant 3$, this implies that $p^{2} \mid r^{\ell} \pm 1$ and thus $p^{2} \leqslant r^{\ell}+1$. If $p^{2}=r^{\ell}+1$, then $r=2$ and $p=3$. We may thus assume that $p^{2} \leqslant r^{\ell}$ and hence $p \leqslant r^{\ell / 2} \leqslant r^{m / 2}$, contrary to our hypothesis. Therefore $p^{2} \nmid\left(r^{2 \ell}-1\right)$, and it follows that $\Delta_{p}=p$. In particular, (3) holds since $p \leqslant r^{m}$. This concludes the proof of this case.
4.7. $G \in \mathcal{C}_{8}$. In this case $G$ has a normal subgroup $N$ such that $N=\Omega^{\varepsilon}(d, q)$ for $d$ even or $d q$ odd, $\operatorname{Sp}(d, q)^{\prime}$ for $d$ even, or $\operatorname{SU}(d, \sqrt{q})$ for $q$ a square. Moreover, $G$ is contained in $\operatorname{GO}^{\varepsilon}(d, q), \operatorname{GSp}(d, q)$ or $\operatorname{GU}(d, \sqrt{q}) Z$, where $\mathrm{GO}^{\varepsilon}(d, q)$ and $\operatorname{GSp}(d, q)$ denote the groups
of all similarities of the quadratic or alternating form respectively, while $\mathrm{GU}(d, \sqrt{q})$ denotes the group of all isometries of the hermitian form. By excluding previous cases, we may also assume that $N /(N \cap Z)$ is nonabelian and simple [15, §VI.1-2]. Thus $c_{p}(N)=0$ and hence $c_{p}(G)=c_{p}(G / N)$.

Now, $|\operatorname{GU}(d, \sqrt{q}) Z: \operatorname{SU}(d, \sqrt{q})|=q-1$ which is coprime to $p$ hence $c_{p}(G)=0$ when $N=\operatorname{SU}(d, \sqrt{q})$.

Similarly, $|\operatorname{GSp}(d, q): \operatorname{Sp}(d, q)|=q-1$, while $\operatorname{Sp}(d, q)^{\prime}=\operatorname{Sp}(d, q)$ unless $(d, q)=(4,2)$. Thus, if $N=\operatorname{Sp}(d, q)^{\prime}$, then $c_{p}(G)=0$ unless $(d, q)=(4,2)$, in which case $c_{p}(G)=1$. In both cases, (1) holds.

Finally, $\left|\mathrm{GO}^{\varepsilon}(d, q): \Omega^{\varepsilon}(d, q)\right|=2(q-1) \operatorname{gcd}(2, d, q-1)$ which is coprime to $p$ unless $p=2$. Thus, if $N=\Omega^{\varepsilon}(d, q)$, then $c_{p}(G)=0$ unless $p=2$, in which case $c_{p}(G)=1$. Again, (1) holds in both cases.
4.8. $G \in \mathcal{C}_{9}$. In this case, $G$ has a normal series $G \unrhd N \triangleright Z \unrhd 1$ where $G / Z$ is almost simple with socle $N / Z$ and, moreover, $N$ is absolutely irreducible. Let $T=N / Z$. Note that $c_{p}(Z)=c_{p}(T)=0$ and thus $c_{p}(G)=c_{p}(G / N)$. Note also that $G / N$ is isomorphic to a subgroup of $\operatorname{Out}(T)$. It follows by Lemma 3 that $c_{p}(G / N) \leqslant \log _{p}|\operatorname{Out}(T)|_{p}$.

If $|\operatorname{Out}(T)|_{p} \leqslant 2$, then $c_{p}(G)=c_{p}(G / N) \leqslant c_{p}(\operatorname{Out}(T)) \leqslant 1$ with equality if and only if $p=2$. Certainly (1) is satisfied if $p>2$, and it is satisfied when $p=2$ provided $1 \leqslant \varepsilon_{2} d-1$. This is true as $d \geqslant 2$ and $\varepsilon_{2}=4 / 3$. We may thus assume that $|\operatorname{Out}(T)|_{p} \geqslant 3$. This already rules out the case when $T$ is a sporadic group or an alternating group $\operatorname{Alt}(n)$, with $n \neq 6$. In view of the exceptional isomorphism $\operatorname{Alt}(6) \cong \operatorname{PSL}(2,9)$, we will therefore assume that $T$ is a nonabelian simple group of Lie type. We rule out the Tits group ${ }^{2} \mathrm{~F}_{4}(2)^{\prime}$ as we view it as a sporadic group.

Suppose that $T$ is defined over a field $F^{\prime}$ of characteristic $p^{\prime}$ and order $\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{f^{\prime}}$. Let $q^{\prime}=\left|F^{\prime}\right|=\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{f^{\prime}}$ if $T$ is an untwisted group of Lie type, and $\left(q^{\prime}\right)^{k}=\left|F^{\prime}\right|=\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{f^{\prime}}$ if $T$ is twisted with respect to a graph symmetry of order $k$.

It is well known that $|\operatorname{Out}(T)|=\delta f^{\prime} \gamma$ where $\delta$ and $\gamma$ are the number of "diagonal" and "graph" outer automorphisms, respectively (see [5, p. (xv)] and [5, p.(xvi) Table 5]). It follows that $c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{p}\left(\delta f^{\prime} \gamma\right)_{p}$. We now split into two cases, according to whether or not $p=p^{\prime}$.
4.8.1. $p=p^{\prime}$. By $[5$, Table 5$], \delta$ is coprime to $p$ and thus $\delta_{p}=1$. We first suppose that $p \leqslant 3$ and $\gamma_{p}=1$. Recall that the field automorphisms yield a cyclic subgroup of $\operatorname{Out}(T)$ of order $f^{\prime}$, while a Sylow $p$-subgroup of GL $\left(d, p^{f}\right)$ has exponent $p^{\left[\log _{p} d\right\rceil}$ (see $[\mathbf{1 1}, \S 16.5]$, for example). It follows that $\log _{p} f_{p}^{\prime} \leqslant\left\lceil\log _{p} d\right\rceil$ hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{p} f_{p}^{\prime} \leqslant\left\lceil\log _{p} d\right\rceil . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

When $p=2$, we have $\varepsilon_{q} \geqslant 1$ and $\left\lceil\log _{2} d\right\rceil \leqslant d-1$ always holds. When $p=3$, we have $\varepsilon_{q}=3 / 2$ and $\left\lceil\log _{3} d\right\rceil \leqslant\left(\varepsilon_{q} d-1\right) / 2$ always holds. Thus (1) is true in this case.

We may now assume that either $p \geqslant 5$ or $\gamma_{p} \neq 1$. In particular, $T$ is neither a Suzuki group nor a Ree group (these have $p \leqslant 3$ and $\gamma=1$ ). By [5, p. (xv)], Out( $T$ ) has the form $\left(O_{D} \rtimes O_{F}\right) \rtimes O_{G}$ where $O_{D}, O_{F}, O_{G}$ denote groups of diagonal, field, and graph
outer automorphisms, respectively. Conjugation induces on $N / Z \cong T$ a homomorphism ${ }^{-}: G \rightarrow \operatorname{Out}(T)$, with kernel containing $N$. We must bound $c_{p}(G)=c_{p}(\bar{G})$. Since $\delta_{p}=1, O_{D}$ is a $p^{\prime}$-group. Write $\left|\bar{G} \cap\left(O_{D} \rtimes O_{F}\right)\right|_{p}=p^{\ell}$. Then $c_{p}(G) \leqslant \ell+\log _{p} \gamma_{p}$ where $\log \gamma_{p} \leqslant 1$ for $p \leqslant 3$, and $\log \gamma_{p}=0$ otherwise. We digress from bounding $c_{p}(G)$ (for three paragraphs) to show that $G$ contains an element of order $p^{\ell+1}$. This is trivially true if $\ell=0$ so assume that $\ell \geqslant 1$.

Choose $H \leqslant G$ such that $N \leqslant H, \bar{H} \leqslant O_{D} \rtimes O_{F}$, and $|H: N|=p^{\ell}$. Since $O_{F}$ is cyclic and $\left|O_{D}\right|_{p}=\delta_{p}=1$, Sylow's Theorem implies that $H / Z$ is unique up to isomorphism. Thus we may assume that $H=\langle N, \varphi\rangle$, where the automorphism $\widetilde{\varphi} \in \operatorname{Aut}(T)$ induced by $\varphi$ on $T=N / Z$ is a standard field automorphism of order $p^{\ell}$.

Suppose first that $T$ is an untwisted group of Lie type. Since $\widetilde{\varphi}$ is a standard field automorphism there is a root system $\Phi$ for $T$ such that $T$ is generated by the set of all root elements $x_{r}(\lambda)$ for $r \in \Phi$ and $\lambda \in F^{\prime}$, and there is an automorphism $\psi$ of the field $F^{\prime}$ of order $p^{\ell}$ such that $\widetilde{\varphi} \in \operatorname{Aut}(T)$ maps each $x_{r}(\lambda)$ to $x_{r}\left(\lambda^{\psi}\right)$ (see $[\mathbf{3}]$ ). Let $\left(F^{\prime}\right)^{\psi}$ be the fixed subfield of $\psi$ and let $\operatorname{Tr}: F^{\prime} \rightarrow\left(F^{\prime}\right)^{\psi}$ be the (surjective) trace map $\operatorname{Tr}(\lambda)=\sum_{i=0}^{p^{\ell}-1} \lambda^{\psi^{i}}$. Calculating in $\operatorname{Aut}(T)$, with $T$ identified with $\operatorname{Inn}(T)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\widetilde{\varphi} x_{r}(\lambda)\right)^{p^{\ell}} & =\left(x_{r}(\lambda)\right)^{\psi^{p^{\ell}-1}}\left(x_{r}(\lambda)\right)^{\psi^{p^{\ell}-2}} \cdots\left(x_{r}(\lambda)\right)^{\psi} x_{r}(\lambda) \\
& =x_{r}\left(\lambda^{\psi^{p^{\ell}-1}}\right) x_{r}\left(\lambda^{\psi^{p^{\ell}-2}}\right) \cdots x_{r}\left(\lambda^{\psi}\right) x_{r}(\lambda) \\
& =x_{r}\left(\lambda^{\psi^{p^{\ell}-1}}+\lambda^{\psi^{p^{\ell}-2}}+\cdots+\lambda^{\psi}+\lambda\right)=x_{r}(\operatorname{Tr}(\lambda)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Choosing $\lambda \in F^{\prime}$ such that $\operatorname{Tr}(\lambda) \neq 0$ yields an element $\widetilde{\varphi} x_{r}(\lambda)$ of order $p^{\ell+1}$. Thus $H$, and hence $G$, has an element of order $p^{\ell+1}$, as desired.

Suppose now that $T$ is a twisted group of Lie type arising from an untwisted group $L$ with root system $\Phi$. Since $T$ is twisted, $\gamma=1$ hence $p \geqslant 5$ and all roots in a fundamental system for $\Phi$ have the same length. Moreover, there is a graph automorphism $\rho$ of order $k$ arising from a symmetry of the Dynkin diagram of $L$ and a field automorphism $\sigma$ of order $k$ such that $T$ is the centraliser in $L$ of the automorphism $\rho \sigma$. By [3, Proposition 13.6.3], if $k=2$ and $T \neq \operatorname{PSU}\left(3, q^{\prime}\right)$, then there is a root $r$ with image $\bar{r}$ under the symmetry of the Dynkin diagram such that, for all $\lambda \in F^{\prime}$, the element $x_{S}(\lambda):=x_{r}(\lambda) x_{\bar{r}}\left(\lambda^{\sigma}\right)$ lies in $T$. Similarly, if $k=3$, then there is a root $r$ with images $\bar{r}$ and $\overline{\bar{r}}$ such that, for all $\lambda \in F^{\prime}$, the element $x_{S}(\lambda)=x_{r}(\lambda) x_{\bar{r}}\left(\lambda^{\sigma}\right) x_{\overline{\bar{r}}}\left(\lambda^{\sigma^{2}}\right)$ lies in $T$. In both cases, a calculation similar to the earlier one shows that $\left(\widetilde{\varphi} x_{S}(\lambda)\right)^{p^{\ell}}=x_{S}(\operatorname{Tr}(\lambda))$ and hence, by choosing $\lambda$ appropriately, we ensure that $\widetilde{\varphi} x_{S}(\lambda)$ has order $p^{\ell+1}$. Finally, if $T=\operatorname{PSU}\left(3, q^{\prime}\right)$, then, for a simple root $r$, we have $r+\bar{r} \in \Phi$ and hence $T$ contains elements $x_{r+\bar{r}}(\lambda)$ for all $\lambda$ in the index 2 subfield of $F^{\prime}$ fixed by the field automorphism of order 2 . Since $p$ is odd, such a subfield contains elements with nonzero trace and we again find an element $\widetilde{\varphi} x_{r+\bar{r}}(\lambda)$ of order $p^{\ell+1}$.

We have shown that, in all cases, $G$ contains an element of order $p^{\ell+1}$. Recall that a Sylow $p$-subgroup of GL $\left(d, p^{f}\right)$ has exponent $p^{m}$ where $p^{m-1}<d \leqslant p^{m}$. Thus $\ell+1 \leqslant m$
and

$$
\ell \leqslant m-1 \leqslant \frac{p^{m-1}-1}{p-1}<\frac{d-1}{p-1}
$$

In particular, (1) holds if $c_{p}(G)=\ell$. We may thus assume that $c_{p}(G)>\ell$ which implies that $\gamma_{p} \neq 1$ and $p \leqslant 3$. By [5, Table 5], $\gamma$ divides 6 hence $\log _{p} \gamma_{p}=1$. It follows that

$$
c_{p}(G)=\ell+1 \leqslant m=\left\lceil\log _{p} d\right\rceil
$$

but, as we saw earlier in the sentences following (5), this implies (1) when $p \leqslant 3$.
4.8.2. $p \neq p^{\prime}$. In this case, we have an absolutely irreducible cross-characteristic representation $N \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(d, q)$. This gives rise to a projective representation $T \rightarrow \mathrm{PGL}(d, q)$ and Landazuri and Seitz [14, Theorem] give lower bounds on $d$ with respect to $q^{\prime}$. Furthermore, possibilities for quasisimple groups $N$ and small dimensions $d$ are listed in $[8,9]$.

We first assume that $d \leqslant 5$. Suppose that $T \cong \operatorname{PSL}\left(2, q^{\prime}\right)$. By [8, Table 2], we have $d \in\left\{q^{\prime}, q^{\prime} \pm 1,\left(q^{\prime} \pm 1\right) / 2\right\}$. Since $d \leqslant 5$, this implies that $q^{\prime} \leqslant 11$ and $q^{\prime} \neq 8$ and, as $\left|F^{\prime}\right|=$ $q^{\prime}=\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{f^{\prime}}$, we see that $f^{\prime} \leqslant 2$. Since $|\operatorname{Out}(T)|$ divides $2 f^{\prime}$ and $|\operatorname{Out}(T)|_{p} \geqslant 3$, it follows that $p=f^{\prime}=2$. As $p^{\prime} \neq p$, this implies that $q^{\prime}=9$ and thus $d \geqslant(9-1) / 2=4$ hence (1) holds. Suppose now that $T$ is a group of Lie type other than $\operatorname{PSL}\left(2, q^{\prime}\right)$. By [9, Table 2], the possible choices for $T$ with $d \leqslant 5$ are $\operatorname{PSL}(3,4)$ and $\operatorname{PSU}(4,2)$ with $|\operatorname{Out}(T)|$ being 12 and 2, respectively. As $p \neq p^{\prime}$ and $|\operatorname{Out}(T)|_{p} \geqslant 3$, we have $|\operatorname{Out}(T)|_{p}=p=3$ and $c_{p}(G) \leqslant 1$ hence (1) holds. We henceforth assume that $d \geqslant 6$.

Suppose first that $\delta \geqslant 5$. This implies that $T=\operatorname{PSL}\left(n, q^{\prime}\right)$ or $\operatorname{PSU}\left(n, q^{\prime}\right)$ and $n \geqslant 4$. It follows by [14, Theorem] that

$$
\begin{equation*}
d \geqslant \frac{q^{\prime}\left(\left(q^{\prime}\right)^{4}-1\right)}{q^{\prime}+1}=q^{\prime}\left(q^{\prime}-1\right)\left(\left(q^{\prime}\right)^{2}+1\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Note that the exceptions for $\operatorname{PSL}\left(n, q^{\prime}\right)$ and $\operatorname{PSU}\left(n, q^{\prime}\right)$ in [14, Theorem] do not arise because $n \geqslant 4$.) Since $T=\operatorname{PSL}\left(n, q^{\prime}\right)$ or $\operatorname{PSU}\left(n, q^{\prime}\right)$, it follows by [5, Table 5] that $\delta=\operatorname{gcd}\left(n+1, q^{\prime} \pm 1\right) \leqslant q^{\prime}+1$ and thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
d \geqslant q^{\prime}\left(q^{\prime}-1\right)\left(\left(q^{\prime}\right)^{2}+1\right) \geqslant(\delta-1)(\delta-2) \delta \geqslant 12 \delta \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, (6) implies $d \geqslant\left(q^{\prime}\right)^{3}$. As $\left(p^{\prime}\right)^{f^{\prime}}=\left(q^{\prime}\right)^{k}$ for some $k \leqslant 2$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime}=k \log _{p^{\prime}} q^{\prime} \leqslant 2 \log _{p^{\prime}} q^{\prime} \leqslant 2 \log _{2} q^{\prime} \leqslant 2 \log _{2} d^{1 / 3} \leqslant 2(d-1) / 3 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combining (7) and (8) gives $\delta+f^{\prime} \leqslant d-1$ and thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{p} \gamma_{p}+\log _{p} \delta_{p}+\log _{p} f_{p}^{\prime} & \leqslant \frac{(p-1) \log _{p} \gamma_{p}}{p-1}+\frac{\delta-1}{p-1}+\frac{f^{\prime}-1}{p-1} \\
& \leqslant \frac{(p-1) \log _{p} \gamma_{p}+d-3}{p-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

If $p \geqslant 5$, then $\gamma_{p}=1$ and thus (1) holds. If $p \leqslant 3$, then $\log _{p} \gamma_{p} \leqslant 1$ and $p-1 \leqslant 2$ and again (1) holds.

We may thus assume that $\delta \leqslant 4$. We will show that $f^{\prime} \leqslant \log _{p^{\prime}}(d+1)^{2}$. First, suppose that $k=1$. It follows by $\left[\mathbf{1 4}\right.$, Theorem] that $d \geqslant\left(q^{\prime}-1\right) / 2$. (As $d \geqslant 6$, we can assume that $q^{\prime}>13$, which rules out the exceptional cases in [14, Theorem].) This implies that

$$
f^{\prime}=\log _{p^{\prime}} q^{\prime} \leqslant \log _{p^{\prime}}(2 d+1)<\log _{p^{\prime}}(d+1)^{2} .
$$

Next, if $k=2$, then $\left[\mathbf{1 4}\right.$, Theorem] implies that $d \geqslant q^{\prime}-1$. This implies that

$$
f^{\prime}=2 \log _{p^{\prime}} q^{\prime} \leqslant 2 \log _{p^{\prime}}(d+1)=\log _{p^{\prime}}(d+1)^{2} .
$$

Finally, if $k=3$, then $d \geqslant\left(q^{\prime}\right)^{3}$ by [14, Theorem] and

$$
f^{\prime}=3 \log _{p^{\prime}} q^{\prime} \leqslant 3 \log _{p^{\prime}} d^{1 / 3}<\log _{p^{\prime}}(d+1)^{2} .
$$

This completes our proof that $f^{\prime} \leqslant \log _{p^{\prime}}(d+1)^{2}$.
Suppose first that $p \geqslant 5$. By [5, Table 5], we have $\gamma_{p}=1$ and $\delta \leqslant 4$ implies that $\delta_{p}=1$. As $d \geqslant 6$, we have $f^{\prime} \leqslant \log _{p^{\prime}}(d+1)^{2} \leqslant \log _{2}(d+1)^{2} \leqslant d$. It follows that

$$
c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{p} f_{p}^{\prime} \leqslant \frac{f^{\prime}-1}{p-1} \leqslant \frac{d-1}{p-1} \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d-1}{p-1},
$$

as desired. For $p=3$, we have

$$
c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{3} \gamma_{3}+\log _{3} \delta_{3}+\log _{3} f^{\prime} \leqslant 1+1+\log _{3} \log _{2}(d+1)^{2} .
$$

It is not hard to see that $2+\log _{3} \log _{2}(d+1)^{2} \leqslant \frac{(3 / 2) d-1}{2}=\frac{\varepsilon_{3} d-1}{3-1}$ when $d \geqslant 6$. This completes the case $p=3$. Finally, suppose that $p=2$ and thus $p^{\prime} \geqslant 3$. It follows that

$$
c_{p}(G) \leqslant \log _{2} \gamma_{2}+\log _{2} \delta_{2}+\log _{2} f^{\prime} \leqslant 1+2+\log _{2} \log _{3}(d+1)^{2} .
$$

Again, it is not hard to see that $3+\log _{2} \log _{3}(d+1)^{2} \leqslant d-1$ when $d \geqslant 6$, establishing the case $p=2$. This completes the induction and thus the proof.

Corollary 9. Let $V=\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)^{d}$ be the natural module for $G \leqslant \mathrm{GL}(d, q)$ where $q=p^{f}$. If $V$ has a composition series with $r$ simple factors, and $\varepsilon_{q}$ is defined by (1), then

$$
c_{p}\left(G / O_{p}(G)\right) \leqslant \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d-r}{p-1} .
$$

Proof. Fix a composition series $V>V_{1}>\cdots>V_{r}=\{0\}$ for $V$ and consider the homomorphism $\phi: G \rightarrow \prod_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{GL}\left(W_{i}\right)$ where $W_{i}:=V_{i-1} / V_{i}$ for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$. Let $G_{i}$ be the subgroup of GL $\left(W_{i}\right)$ induced by $G$. Then $G_{i}$ acts irreducibly on $W_{i}$. Hence the largest normal $p$-subgroup $O_{p}\left(G_{i}\right)$ of $G_{i}$ is trivial. (Note that $\left[O_{p}\left(G_{i}\right), W_{i}\right]$ is $G_{i}$-invariant and $\left[O_{p}\left(G_{i}\right), W_{i}\right]<W_{i}$, so $\left[O_{p}\left(G_{i}\right), W_{i}\right]=\{0\}$.) It follows that $\operatorname{ker}(\phi)=O_{p}(G)$.

We have $d=d_{1}+\cdots+d_{r}$ where $d_{i}=\operatorname{dim}\left(W_{i}\right)$. Applying Theorem 1 gives

$$
c_{p}\left(G / O_{p}(G)\right)=c_{p}(G / \operatorname{ker}(\phi))=c_{p}(\operatorname{im}(\phi)) \leqslant \sum_{i=1}^{r} c_{p}\left(G_{i}\right) \leqslant \sum_{i=1}^{r} \frac{\varepsilon_{q} d_{i}-1}{p-1}=\frac{\varepsilon_{q} d-r}{p-1} .
$$

COMPOSITION FACTORS OF ORDER $p$
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