UNRAMIFIED BRAUER GROUPS OF FINITE AND INFINITE GROUPS

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In loving memory of my father

ABSTRACT. The Bogomolov multiplier is a group theoretical invariant isomorphic to the unramified Brauer group of a given quotient space. We derive a homological version of the Bogomolov multiplier, prove a Hopf-type formula, find a five term exact sequence corresponding to this invariant, and describe the role of the Bogomolov multiplier in the theory of central extensions. A new description of the Bogomolov multiplier of a nilpotent group of class two is obtained. We define the Bogomolov multiplier within K-theory and show that proving its triviality is equivalent to solving a long-standing problem posed by Bass. An algorithm for computing the Bogomolov multiplier is developed.

1. INTRODUCTION

In this paper we develop a homological version of a group theoretical invariant that has served as one of the main tools in studying the problem of stable rationality of quotient spaces. Let G be a finite group and V a faithful representation of G over \mathbb{C} . Then there is a natural action of G upon the field of rational functions $\mathbb{C}(V)$. A problem posed by Emmy Noether [25] asks as to whether the field of G-invariant functions $\mathbb{C}(V)^G$ is purely transcendental over \mathbb{C} , i.e., whether the quotient space V/G is rational. A question related to the above mentioned is whether V/G is stably rational, that is, whether there exist independent variables x_1, \ldots, x_r such that $\mathbb{C}(V)^G(x_1,\ldots,x_r)$ becomes a pure transcendental extension of \mathbb{C} . This problem has close connection with Lüroth's problem [27] and the inverse Galois problem [32, 28]. By Hilbert's Theorem 90 stable rationality of V/G does not depend upon the choice of V, but only on the group G. Saltman [28] found examples of groups G such that V/G is not stably rational over \mathbb{C} . His main method was application of the unramified cohomology group $\mathrm{H}^2_{\mathrm{nr}}(\mathbb{C}(V)^G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ as an obstruction. A version of this invariant had been used before by Artin and Mumford [1] who constructed unirational varieties over $\mathbb C$ that were not rational. Bogomolov [3] further explored this cohomology group. He proved that $\mathrm{H}^2_{\mathrm{nr}}(\mathbb{C}(V)^G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is canonically isomorphic to a certain subgroup $\mathrm{B}_0(G)$ (defined in Section 3) of the *Schur multiplier* $\mathrm{H}^{2}(G,\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ of G. Kunyavskii [18] coined the term the Bogomolov multiplier of G for the group $B_0(G)$. Bogomolov used the above description to find new examples of groups with $\mathrm{H}^2_{\mathrm{nr}}(\mathbb{C}(V)^G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \neq 0$. Subsequently, Bogomolov, Maciel and Petrov [4] showed that $\mathrm{B}_0(G) = 0$ when G is a finite simple group of Lie type A_ℓ , whereas Kunyavskii [18] recently proved that $B_0(G) = 0$ for every quasisimple or almost simple group G. Bogomolov's conjecture that V/G is stably rational over \mathbb{C} for every finite simple group G, nevertheless, still remains open.

We first observe that if G is a finite group, then $B_0(G)$ is canonically isomorphic to $Hom(\tilde{B}_0(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$, where the group $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ can be described as a section of the

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nonabelian exterior square $G \wedge G$ of the group G. The latter appears implicitly in Miller's work [21], and was further developed by Brown and Loday [6]. Let $\gamma_2(G)$ be the derived subgroup of G, and denote the kernel of the commutator homomorphism $G \wedge G \to \gamma_2(G)$ by $\mathcal{M}(G)$. Miller [21] proved that there is a natural isomorphism between $\mathcal{M}(G)$ and $\mathcal{H}_2(G,\mathbb{Z})$. Using this description, we prove that $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_0(G) = \mathcal{M}(G)/\mathcal{M}_0(G)$, where $\mathcal{M}_0(G)$ is the subgroup of $\mathcal{M}(G)$ generated by all $x \wedge y$ such that $x, y \in G$ commute. In the finite case, $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_0(G)$ is thus (non-canonically) isomorphic to $\mathcal{B}_0(G)$. The functor $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_0$ can be studied within the category of all groups, and this is the main goal of the paper. In the first part we prove a Hopf-type formula for $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_0(G)$ by showing that if G is given by a free presentation G = F/R, then

$$\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong \frac{\gamma_2(F) \cap R}{\langle K(F) \cap R \rangle},$$

where K(F) denotes the set of commutators in F. A special case of this was implicitly used before by Bogomolov [3], and Bogomolov, Maciel and Petrov [4]. With the help of the above formula we derive a five term exact sequence

$$\tilde{B}_0(G) \longrightarrow \tilde{B}_0(G/N) \longrightarrow \frac{N}{\langle K(G) \cap N] \rangle} \longrightarrow G^{ab} \longrightarrow (G/N)^{ab} \longrightarrow 0,$$

where G is any group and N a normal subgroup of G. This is a direct analogue of the well-known five term homological sequence. By applying Kunyavskii's work and the above sequence we obtain the following group theoretical result: If G is a finite group and S its solvable radical, then $S \cap \gamma_2(G) = \langle S \cap K(G) \rangle$. Furthermore, we compute $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ when G is a finite group that is a split extension. This corresponds to a well-known result of Tahara [33] who computed the Schur multiplier of semidirect product of groups (see also [17]). In particular, we obtain a closed formula for $B_0(G)$ when G is a Frobenius group.

In his paper [3], Bogomolov extended the definition of $B_0(G)$ to cover all algebraic groups G, cf. Section 3. This can be further extended in a natural way to cover all infinite groups. We prove here that if G is any group, then $B_0(G)$ is canonically isomorphic to $\operatorname{Hom}(\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$, where $\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G)$ is the quotient of the subgroup $M_{\mathcal{F}}(G)$ of $H_2(G,\mathbb{Z})$ generated by all images of corestriction maps $\operatorname{cor}_G^H: H_2(H,\mathbb{Z}) \to H_2(G,\mathbb{Z})$, where H runs through all finite subgroups of G, by the subgroup $M_{0\mathcal{F}}(G)$ generated by all im cor_G^A , where A runs through all finite abelian subgroups of G. As a consequence we show that if G is a locally finite group, then $\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong \tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G)$. This in particular applies to periodic linear groups. On the other hand, $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ and $\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G)$ may fail to be isomorphic in general.

One of the goals of the paper is to exhibit the role of $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ in studying certain types of central extensions of G. This is motivated by the classical theory of Schur multipliers which are the cornerstones of the extension theory of groups. We define $G \land G$ to be the quotient of $G \land G$ by $M_0(G)$. Then it is clear that the sequence $\tilde{B}_0(G) \rightarrow G \land G \twoheadrightarrow \gamma_2(G)$ is exact, therefore $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ can be thought of as the obstruction to $G \land G$ being isomorphic to $\gamma_2(G)$. This corresponds to a result of Miller [21] who demonstrated that the nonabelian exterior square $G \land G$ of a group G fits into the short exact sequence $M(G) \rightarrow G \land G \twoheadrightarrow \gamma_2(G)$. This construction enables us to prove that if G is a finite group, then for every stem extension (E, π, A) producing $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ we have that $\gamma_2(E)$ and $G \land G$ are of the same order. Furthermore, there exists a stem extension of this kind such that $\gamma_2(E)$ is actually isomorphic to $G \land G$. This can be seen as a direct analogue of the well-known fact that if G is finite, then $G \land G$ is naturally isomorphic to the derived subgroup of an arbitrary covering group of G. In addition to that, we prove that if G is a perfect group, then $G \land G$ is universal within the class of central extensions E of G with the property that every commuting pair of elements in G has commuting lifts in E. Again, this corresponds to the fact that if G is a perfect group, then $G \wedge G$ is the universal central extension of G.

The first known examples of finite groups G with $B_0(G) \neq 0$ were found among *p*-groups of class 2 [3, 28]. Bogomolov obtained a description of $B_0(G)$ when G is a p-group of class 2 with G^{ab} elementary abelian. Here we obtain a description of $\dot{B}_0(G)$ for any group G that is nilpotent of class 2. More precisely, we show that $\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong \ker(H_2(G^{ab},\mathbb{Z}) \to \gamma_2(G)) / \ker(H_2(G^{ab},\mathbb{Z}) \to G \land G).$ In the case when G is a p-group of class 2 with G^{ab} elementary abelian, this can be further refined using the Blackburn-Evens theory [2].

The functor \tilde{B}_0 has applications in K-theory. For a unital ring Λ define $\tilde{B}_0 \Lambda =$ $\tilde{B}_0(E(\Lambda))$ where $E(\Lambda)$ is the subgroup of $GL(\Lambda)$ generated by elementary matrices. We prove that $\hat{B}_0 \Lambda$ is naturally isomorphic to $K_2 \Lambda / \langle K(St(\Lambda) \cap K_2 \Lambda) \rangle$, where $St(\Lambda)$ is the Steinberg group. This is related to a conjecture posed by Bass [10, Problem 3] that $K_2 \Lambda$ is always generated by the so-called Milnor elements. We show that this problem has a positive solution for a ring Λ if and only if $\hat{B}_0 \Lambda$ is trivial. The latter is for instance true for commutative semilocal rings. A possible approach towards solving Bass' problem could be based on the result that $B_0 \Lambda$ is naturally isomorphic to $B_0(GL(\Lambda))$.

In general it is hard to compute $B_0(G)$, due to its cohomological description. Chu, Hu, Kang, and Kunyavskii [7] recently completed calculations of $B_0(G)$ for all groups of order ≤ 64 . The homological nature of B₀, on the other hand, allows machine computation of $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ for polycyclic groups G. There is an efficient algorithm developed recently by Eick and Nickel [11] for computing $G \wedge G$ in case G is polycyclic. Based on that we develop and implement an algorithm for computing $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ for finite solvable groups G. We use this algorithm to determine the Bogomolov multiplier of all solvable groups of order \leq 729, apart from the orders 512, 576 and 640. Our computations in particular show that there exist three groups of order 243 with nontrivial unramified Brauer group. This contradicts a result of Bogomolov [3] claiming that if G is a finite p-group of order at most p^5 , then $B_0(G) = 0.$

2. Preliminaries and notations

In this section we fix some notations used throughout the paper. Let G be a group and $x, y \in G$. We use the notation $x = xyx^{-1}$ for conjugation from the left. The commutator [x, y] of elements x and y is defined by $[x, y] = xyx^{-1}y^{-1} = xyy^{-1}$. If H and K are subgroups of G, then we define $[H, K] = \langle [h, k] \mid h \in H, k \in K \rangle$. The commutator subgroup $\gamma_2(G)$ of G is defined to be the group [G,G]. The set $\{[x, y] \mid x, y \in G\}$ of all commutators of G is denoted by K(G).

We recall the definition and basic properties of the nonabelian exterior product of groups. The reader is referred to [6, 21] for more thorough accounts on the theory and its generalizations. Let G be a group and M and N normal subgroups of G. We form the group $M \wedge N$, generated by the symbols $m \wedge n$, where $m \in M$ and $n \in N$, subject to the following relations:

(2.0.1)
$$mm' \wedge n = (^mm' \wedge ^mn)(m \wedge n),$$

(2.0.2)
$$m \wedge nn' = (m \wedge n)(^n m \wedge ^n n'),$$

(2.0.3)
$$x \wedge x = 1,$$

(2.0.3)

for all $m, m' \in M, n, n' \in N$ and $x \in M \cap N$.

Let L be a group. A function $\phi: M \times N \to L$ is called a *crossed pairing* if for all $m, m' \in M, n, n' \in N, \phi(mm', n) = \phi(^mm', ^mn)\phi(m, n), \phi(m, nn') =$

 $\phi(m,n)\phi({}^{n}m,{}^{n}n')$, and $\phi(x,x) = 1$ for all $x \in M \cap N$. A crossed pairing ϕ determines a unique homomorphism of groups $\phi^* : M \wedge N \to L$ such that $\phi^*(m \wedge n) = \phi(m,n)$ for all $m \in M, n \in N$.

The group $G \wedge G$ is said to be the nonabelian exterior square of G. By definition, the commutator map $\kappa : G \wedge G \to \gamma_2(G)$, given by $g \wedge h \mapsto [g, h]$, is a well defined homomorphism of groups. Clearly $\mathcal{M}(G) = \ker \kappa$ is central in $G \wedge G$, and G acts trivially via diagonal action on $\mathcal{M}(G)$. Miller [21] proved that there is a natural isomorphism between $\mathcal{M}(G)$ and $\mathcal{H}_2(G,\mathbb{Z})$. A direct consequence of this result is that if a group G is given by a free presentation $G \cong F/R$, then $G \wedge G$ is naturally isomorphic to $\gamma_2(F)/[R, F]$.

The following lemma collects some basic identities that hold in the nonabelian exterior square of a group:

Lemma 2.1 ([6]). Let G be a group and $x, y, z, w \in G$.

(a) $x \wedge y = (y \wedge x)^{-1}$. (b) $x^{-1}(x \wedge y) = y \wedge x^{-1}$. (c) $[z,w](x \wedge y) = (z \wedge w)(x \wedge y)(z \wedge w)^{-1}$.

3. The unramified Brauer group

Let G be a finite group and V a faithful representation of G over \mathbb{C} . Bogomolov [3] proved that the unramified Brauer group $\mathrm{H}^{2}_{\mathrm{nr}}(\mathbb{C}(V)^{G}, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is canonically isomorphic to the group

(3.0.1)
$$B_0(G) = \bigcap_{\substack{A \leq G, \\ A \text{ abelian}}} \ker \operatorname{res}_A^G,$$

where $\operatorname{res}_A^G : \operatorname{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to \operatorname{H}^2(A, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is the usual cohomological restriction map. Our first aim is to obtain a homological description of $\operatorname{B}_0(G)$. Thus we need a dual of the above construction. Let H be a subgroup of G. Then there is a corestriction map $\operatorname{cor}_G^H : \operatorname{H}_2(H,\mathbb{Z}) \to \operatorname{H}_2(G,\mathbb{Z})$. On the other hand, we have a natural map $\tau_G^H : H \wedge H \to G \wedge G$. Identifying $\operatorname{H}_2(G,\mathbb{Z})$ with $\operatorname{M}(G)$ and $\operatorname{H}_2(H,\mathbb{Z})$ with $\operatorname{M}(H)$, we can write $\operatorname{cor}_G^H = \tau_G^H|_{\operatorname{M}(H)}$. Thus we have the following commutative diagram with exact rows:

$$(3.0.2) \qquad 0 \longrightarrow \operatorname{H}_{2}(H, \mathbb{Z}) \longrightarrow H \wedge H \longrightarrow \gamma_{2}(H) \longrightarrow 1$$
$$\underset{\operatorname{cor}_{G}^{H}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}{\underset{\operatorname{var}_{G}^{H}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}}$$

Now define

 $M_0(G) = \langle \operatorname{cor}_G^A M(A) \mid A \leq G, A \text{ abelian} \rangle.$

This group can be described as a subgroup of $G \wedge G$ in the following way.

Lemma 3.1. Let G be a group. Then

$$\mathcal{M}_0(G) = \langle x \land y \mid x, y \in G, [x, y] = 1 \rangle.$$

Proof. Denote $N = \langle x \wedge y \mid x, y \in G, [x, y] = 1 \rangle$. Suppose that $x, y \in G$ commute. Then $A = \langle x, y \rangle$ is an abelian subgroup of G, hence $\operatorname{cor}_G^A M(A) \leq M_0(G)$. In particular, $x \wedge y \in M_0(G)$.

Conversely, let A be an abelian subgroup of G. Let $w \in \operatorname{cor}_G^A \mathcal{M}(A)$. Then w can be written as

$$w = \prod_{i=1}^{\prime} (a_i \wedge b_i),$$

where $a_i, b_i \in A$. Since $[a_i, b_i] = 1$ for all i = 1, ..., r, it follows that $w \in N$. This concludes the proof.

For a group G denote

$$\tilde{B}_0(G) = M(G) / M_0(G).$$

With this notation we have the following result.

Theorem 3.2. Let G be a finite group. Then $B_0(G)$ is naturally isomorphic to $Hom(\tilde{B}_0(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$, and thus $B_0(G) \cong \tilde{B}_0(G)$ (non-canonically).

Proof. At first we describe the natural isomorphism between the Schur multiplier $\mathrm{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ and $\mathrm{Hom}(\mathrm{H}_2(G, \mathbb{Z}), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ in terms of the nonabelian exterior square of G. Choose $\gamma \in \mathrm{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ and let

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{i} G_{\gamma} \xrightarrow{\pi} G \longrightarrow 1$$

be the central extension associated to γ . Define a map $G \times G \to \gamma_2(G_\gamma)$ by the rule $(x, y) \mapsto [\bar{x}, \bar{y}]$, where \bar{x} and \bar{y} are preimages in G_γ under π of x and y, respectively. This map is well defined. Furthermore, it is a crossed pairing, hence it induces a homomorphism $\lambda_\gamma : G \wedge G \to \gamma_2(G_\gamma)$ given by $\lambda_\gamma(x \wedge y) = [\bar{x}, \bar{y}]$ for $x, y \in G$. It is clear that if $c \in \mathcal{M}(G)$, then $\lambda_\gamma(c) \in i(\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$, therefore the restriction of λ_γ to $\mathcal{M}(G)$ (still denoted by λ_γ) belongs to $\mathcal{Hom}(\mathcal{M}(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$. The map $\Theta : \mathcal{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to \mathcal{Hom}(\mathcal{M}(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ given by $\gamma \mapsto \lambda_\gamma$ is a homomorphism of groups.

Conversely, let $\varphi \in \text{Hom}(M(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$. Let H be a covering group of G. In other words, we have a central extension

$$0 \longrightarrow Z \xrightarrow{j} H \xrightarrow{\rho} G \longrightarrow 1$$

with $jZ \leq \gamma_2(H)$ and $Z \cong M(G)$. Every finite group has at least one covering group by a result of Schur, cf. [15, Hauptsatz V.23.5]. By [6] we have that $\gamma_2(H)$ is canonically isomorphic to $G \wedge G$. Upon identifying $\gamma_2(H)$ with $G \wedge G$, we may assume without loss of generality that M(G) is a subgroup of H. Choose a section $\mu: G \to H$ of ρ and define a map $f: G \times G \to H$ by $f(x, y) = \mu(x)\mu(y)\mu(xy)^{-1}$ for $x, y \in G$. It is straightforward to verify f maps $G \times G$ into M(G), and that $\varphi f \in Z^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$. The cohomology class of φf does not depend upon the choice of μ . We therefore have a map (the so-called transgression map)

tra : Hom(M(G),
$$\mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$$
) \to H²(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})

given by $\operatorname{tra}(\varphi) = [\varphi f]$. This is easily seen to be a homomorphism, and Θ is its inverse.

Now choose $\gamma \in B_0(G)$ and let the map $\Theta : H^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to \operatorname{Hom}(M(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ be defined as above. Denote $\lambda_{\gamma} = \Theta(\gamma)$. Let $x, y \in G$ and suppose that [x, y] = 1. Then $A = \langle x, y \rangle$ is an abelian subgroup of G, therefore $\operatorname{res}_A^G(\gamma) = 0$. This implies that $\lambda_{\gamma}(x \wedge y) = [\bar{x}, \bar{y}] = 1$. Therefore Θ induces a homomorphism $\tilde{\Theta} : B_0(G) \to$ $\operatorname{Hom}(M(G)/M_0(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}).$

Let $\varphi \in \operatorname{Hom}(\operatorname{M}(G)/\operatorname{M}_0(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$. Then φ can be lifted to a homomorphism $\overline{\varphi} : \operatorname{M}(G) \to \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}$. Put $\gamma = \operatorname{tra}(\overline{\varphi})$. Suppose that

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{i} G \xrightarrow{\pi} G \longrightarrow 1$$

is a central extension associated to γ . Choose an arbitrary bicyclic subgroup $A = \langle a, b \rangle$ of G. Then we have a central extension

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{i} A_{\gamma} \xrightarrow{\pi|_{A_{\gamma}}} A \longrightarrow 1$$

that corresponds to $\operatorname{res}_{A}^{G}(\gamma)$. Since [a, b] = 1, we have that $a \wedge b \in \operatorname{M}_{0}(G) \leq \ker \overline{\varphi}$, therefore $[\overline{a}, \overline{b}] = 1$ in A_{γ} . It follows that A_{γ} is abelian, thus $\gamma \in \operatorname{B}_{0}(G)$. Hence the transgression map induces a homomorphism $\operatorname{tra} : \operatorname{Hom}(\operatorname{M}(G)/\operatorname{M}_{0}(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to$ $\operatorname{B}_{0}(G)$ whose inverse is $\widetilde{\Theta}$.

The definition of $B_0(G)$ can be extended to infinite groups as follows [3]. Let G be a group. Define

$$K_G = \{ \gamma \in \mathrm{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \mid \mathrm{res}_H^G \gamma = 0 \text{ for every finite } H \leq G \}.$$

Let $B_0(G)$ be the subgroup of $H^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})/K_G$ consisting of all $\gamma + K_G$ with the property that $\operatorname{res}_A^G \gamma = 0$ for every finite abelian subgroup A of G. It is clear that if G is a finite group, then this definition of $B_0(G)$ coincides with the one given by (3.0.1). Bogomolov [3, Theorem 3.1] showed that if G is an algebraic group, then $B_0(G)$ is isomorphic to $H^2_{\operatorname{nr}}(\mathbb{C}(V)^G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$, where V is any generically free representation of G.

In order to obtain a homological description of $B_0(G)$ for infinite groups, we denote

$$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(G) = \langle \operatorname{cor}_{G}^{H} \mathcal{M}(H) \mid H \leq G, |H| < \infty \rangle$$

and

 $M_{0\mathcal{F}}(G) = \langle \operatorname{cor}_{G}^{A} M(A) \mid A \leq G, |A| < \infty, A \text{ abelian} \rangle.$

Note that a similar argument as that of Lemma 3.1 shows that $M_{0\mathcal{F}}(G) = \langle x \wedge y | [x, y] = 1, |x| < \infty, |y| < \infty \rangle$. Now define $\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G) = M_{\mathcal{F}}(G)/M_{0\mathcal{F}}(G)$. Then we have:

Theorem 3.3. Let G be a group. Then the group $B_0(G)$ is naturally isomorphic to $Hom(\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$.

Proof. We have a natural isomorphism $\mathrm{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathrm{Hom}(\mathrm{M}(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$. For $\gamma \in \mathrm{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ denote by λ_{γ} the corresponding element of $\mathrm{Hom}(\mathrm{M}(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$. By our definition we have that $\gamma \in K_G$ if and only if $\mathrm{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(G) \leq \ker \lambda_{\gamma}$. Therefore $\mathrm{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})/K_G$ is naturally isomorphic to $\mathrm{Hom}(\mathrm{M}_{\mathcal{F}}(G), \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$. Adapting the argument of the proof of Theorem 3.2, we obtain the required result. \Box

In general, $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ and $\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G)$ may be quite different. For example, if G is a onerelator group with torsion, then G has a presentation $G = \langle X | s^m \rangle$, where s is not a proper power in the free group over X. By a result of Newman [24], every finite subgroup of G is conjugate to a subgroup of $\langle s \rangle$, hence $\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G) = 0$. On the other hand, all centralizers of nontrivial elements of G are cyclic [24], hence $M_0(G) = 0$ and therefore $\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong H_2(G, \mathbb{Z})$. The latter can be nontrivial, cf. Lyndon [19].

In the case of locally finite groups we have the following:

Corollary 3.4. Let G be a locally finite group. Then $\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong \tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G)$.

Proof. Every group G is a direct limit of its finitely generated subgroups $\{G_{\lambda} \mid \lambda \in \Lambda\}$. If G is locally finite, then the groups G_{λ} are all finite. Since $M(G) \cong \lim_{K \to 0} M(G_{\lambda})$, we conclude that $M(G) = M_{\mathcal{F}}(G)$. Since G is periodic, we also have that $M_{0\mathcal{F}}(G) = M_0(G)$, hence the result. \Box

Corollary 3.4 applies, for example, to periodic linear groups. On the other hand, there exist finitely generated periodic groups G (even of finite exponent) such that $\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G) = 0$, yet $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ is nontrivial.

Example 3.5. Suppose m > 1 and let $n > 2^{48}$ be odd. Let F be a free group of rank m. Denote $B(m, n) = F/F^n$, the free Burnside group of rank m and exponent n. Ivanov [16] showed that all centralizers of nontrivial elements of B(m, n) are cyclic, and that every finite subgroup of B(m, n) is cyclic. From here it follows

that $\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(B(m,n)) = 0$ and $\tilde{B}_0(B(m,n)) \cong H_2(B(m,n),\mathbb{Z})$. The latter group is free abelian of countable rank, cf. [26, Corollary 31.2].

In the rest of the paper we mainly consider the properties of $B_0(G)$. Obviously \tilde{B}_0 is a covariant functor from **Gr** to **Ab**. It is well known that the homology functor commutes with direct limits. It turns out that \tilde{B}_0 enjoys the same property:

Proposition 3.6. The functor \tilde{B}_0 commutes with direct limits. More precisely, if $\{G_\lambda, \alpha_\lambda^\mu \mid \lambda \leq \mu \in \Lambda\}$ is a direct system of groups and G its direct limit, then $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ is the direct limit of $\{\tilde{B}_0(G_\lambda), \tilde{B}_0(\alpha_\lambda^\mu) \mid \lambda \leq \mu \in \Lambda\}$.

Proof. For every $\lambda \in \Lambda$ we have

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathrm{M}_0(G_{\lambda}) \longrightarrow \mathrm{M}(G_{\lambda}) \longrightarrow \widetilde{\mathrm{B}}_0(G_{\lambda}) \longrightarrow 0,$$

hence the diagram

is commutative with exact rows. Here α is the natural isomorphism, and α' is its restriction. Clearly α' is an isomorphism, hence so is $\tilde{\alpha}$.

Proposition 3.7. Let G_1 and G_2 be groups. Then $\tilde{B}_0(G_1 * G_2) \cong \tilde{B}_0(G_1) \times \tilde{B}_0(G_2)$ and $\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G_1 * G_2) \cong \tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G_1) \times \tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G_2)$.

Proof. Let $G = G_1 * G_2$ and let $\iota_1 : G_1 \to G$ and $\iota_2 : G_2 \to G$ be the canonical injections. Then the induced maps $\iota_i^* : \mathcal{M}(G_i) \to \mathcal{M}(G)$ are injective (i = 1, 2), $\iota_1^* \mathcal{M}(G_1) \cap \iota_2^* \mathcal{M}(G_2) = 1$ and $\mathcal{M}(G) = \iota_1^* \mathcal{M}(G_1) \times \iota_2^* \mathcal{M}(G_2)$ by [21]. Now let $a, b \in G \setminus \{1\}$ with [a, b] = 1. By [20, p. 196] we have the following possibilities. If $a \in {}^{h}\iota_1(G_1)$, then $b \in C_G(a) \leq {}^{h}\iota_1(G_1)$, hence we can write $a = {}^{h}\iota_1(x)$ and $b = {}^{h}\iota_1(y)$ for some commuting elements $x, y \in G_1$. In this case we get $a \wedge b = {}^{h}(\iota_1(x) \wedge \iota_1(y)) = \iota_1(x) \wedge \iota_1(y)$, as G acts trivially on $\mathcal{M}(G)$. For $a \in {}^{h}\iota_2(G_2)$, the situation is similar. If neither $a \in {}^{h}\iota_1(G_1)$ nor $a \in {}^{h}\iota_2(G_2)$, $C_G(a)$ is infinite cyclic. In this case we clearly have that $a \wedge b = 1$. Therefore we conclude that $\mathcal{M}_0(G) = \iota_1^* \mathcal{M}_0(G_1) \times \iota_2^* \mathcal{M}_0(G_2)$. It follows from here that

$$\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong \iota_1^{\sharp} \tilde{B}_0(G_1) \times \iota_2^{\sharp} \tilde{B}_0(G_2),$$

where $\iota_i^{\sharp}: \tilde{B}_0(G_1) \to \tilde{B}_0(G)$ are the maps induced by $\iota_i, i = 1, 2$. From the diagram

$$1 \longrightarrow M_{0}(G_{i}) \longrightarrow M(G_{i}) \longrightarrow \tilde{B}_{0}(G_{i}) \longrightarrow 1$$
$$\iota_{i}^{*} \middle| \qquad \iota_{i}^{*} \middle| \qquad \iota_{i}^{\sharp} \middle| \qquad 1 \longrightarrow M_{0}(G) \longrightarrow M(G) \longrightarrow \tilde{B}_{0}(G) \longrightarrow 1$$

we see that ι_i^{\sharp} , i = 1, 2, are both injective, therefore $\tilde{B}_0(G_1 * G_2) \cong \tilde{B}_0(G_1) \times \tilde{B}_0(G_2)$.

It remains to prove the corresponding assertion for $\tilde{B}_{0\mathcal{F}}(G_1 * G_2)$. The above argument shows that $M_{0\mathcal{F}}(G) = \iota_1^* M_{0\mathcal{F}}(G_1) \times \iota_2^* M_{0\mathcal{F}}(G_2)$. By [5, p. 54], every finite subgroup of G is conjugate to a subgroup of G_1 or G_2 . Since G acts trivially on M(G), we therefore conclude that $M_{\mathcal{F}}(G) = \langle \operatorname{cor}_G^H M(H) | H \leq G_1$ or $H \leq$ $G_2, |H| < \infty \rangle = \iota_1^* M_{\mathcal{F}}(G_1) \times \iota_2^* M_{\mathcal{F}}(G_2)$. From here the result follows along the same lines as above.

Let the group G be given by a free presentation G = F/R, where F is a free group and R a normal subgroup of F. By the well known Hopf formula [5, Theorem II.5.3] we have that $\mathcal{M}(G) \cong (\gamma_2(F) \cap R)/[R, F]$. The isomorphism is induced by the canonical isomorphism $G \wedge G \to \gamma_2(F)/[R, F]$ given by $xR \wedge yR \mapsto [x, y][R, F]$. Under this map, $\mathcal{M}_0(G)$ can be identified with the subgroup of F/[F, R] generated by all the commutators in F/[F, R] that belong to the Schur multiplier of G. In other words, we have that $\mathcal{M}_0(G) \cong \langle \mathcal{K}(F/[R, F]) \cap R/[R, F] \rangle = \langle \mathcal{K}(F) \cap R \rangle [R, F]/[R, F] = \langle \mathcal{K}(F) \cap R \rangle /[R, F]$. Thus we have proved the following Hopf-type formula for $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_0(G)$:

Proposition 3.8. Let G be a group given by a free presentation G = F/R. Then

$$\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong \frac{\gamma_2(F) \cap R}{\langle K(F) \cap R \rangle}.$$

This formula enables, in principle, explicit calculations of $\tilde{B}_0(G)$, given a free presentation of G. For example, a word w in a free group F is said to be a *commutator* word if w = [u, v] for some $u, v \in F$. We have the following result:

Corollary 3.9. Let \mathfrak{V} be a variety of groups defined by a commutator word w. If G is a \mathfrak{V} -relatively free group, then $\tilde{B}_0(G) = 0$.

Proof. Let w be an n-variable commutator word. G can be presented as a quotient $F/\mathfrak{V}(F)$ of a free group F by the verbal subgroup $\mathfrak{V}(F) = \langle w(f_1, \ldots, f_n) | f_1, \ldots, f_n \in F \rangle$ of F. Note that $\mathfrak{V}(F) \leq \gamma_2(F)$ and $\langle K(F) \cap \mathfrak{V}(F) \rangle = \mathfrak{V}(F)$. By Proposition 3.8 we get the result.

On the other hand, there exist relatively free groups G with $\tilde{B}_0(G) \neq 0$, cf. Example 3.5 and Section 8.

Another interpretation of $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ for finite groups G can be obtained via covering groups. Covering groups of a given group G = F/R may not be unique, yet their derived subgroups are all naturally isomorphic to $\gamma_2(F)/[R, F]$. Under this identification we have the following result.

Proposition 3.10. Let G be a finite group and H its covering group. Let Z be a central subgroup of H such that $Z \leq \gamma_2(H), Z \cong M(G)$ and $H/Z \cong G$. Then

$$\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong \frac{Z}{\langle K(H) \cap Z \rangle}.$$

In particular, $\dot{B}_0(G) = 0$ if and only if every element of Z can be represented as a product of commutators that all belong to Z.

We note here that a special case of Proposition 3.10 formed one of the crucial steps in proving the main results of [4] and [18].

One of the main features of the homological description of $B_0(G)$ is a five term exact sequence associated to the short exact sequence $1 \to N \to G \to G/N \to 1$ of groups. This sequence is an unramified Brauer group analogue of the well known five term homology sequence, cf [5, p. 46].

Theorem 3.11. Let G be a group and N a normal subgroup of G. Then we have the following exact sequence:

$$\tilde{B}_0(G) \longrightarrow \tilde{B}_0(G/N) \longrightarrow \frac{N}{\langle K(G) \cap N] \rangle} \longrightarrow G^{ab} \longrightarrow (G/N)^{ab} \longrightarrow 0.$$

Proof. Let G have a free presentation G = F/R, and let SR/R be the corresponding free presentation of N. Then Proposition 3.8 implies that $\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong (\gamma_2(F) \cap R)/\langle K(F) \cap R \rangle$ and $\tilde{B}_0(G/N) \cong (\gamma_2(F) \cap RS)/\langle K(F) \cap RS \rangle$. The canonical

epimorhism $\rho: G \to G/N$ induces a homomorphism $\rho^{\sharp}: \dot{B}_0(G) \to \dot{B}_0(G/N)$. From the above Hopf formulae it follows that

$$\ker \rho^{\sharp} = \frac{R \cap \langle \mathbf{K}(F) \cap RS \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{K}(F) \cap R \rangle}$$

and

$$\operatorname{im} \rho^{\sharp} = \frac{\gamma_2(F) \cap \langle \mathbf{K}(F) \cap RS \rangle R}{\langle \mathbf{K}(F) \cap RS \rangle}$$

It is straightforward to verify that $\langle \mathcal{K}(G) \cap N \rangle = \langle \mathcal{K}(F) \cap RS \rangle R/R$, therefore $N/\langle \mathcal{K}(G) \cap N \rangle \cong RS/\langle \mathcal{K}(F) \cap RS \rangle R$. Thus there is a natural map $\sigma : \tilde{\mathcal{B}}_0(G/N) \to N/\langle \mathcal{K}(G) \cap N \rangle$. We have that ker $\sigma = \operatorname{im} \rho^{\sharp}$ and

$$\operatorname{im} \sigma = \frac{(\gamma_2(F) \cap RS)R}{\langle \mathrm{K}(F) \cap RS \rangle R} = \frac{\gamma_2(F)R \cap RS}{\langle \mathrm{K}(F) \cap RS \rangle R} = \frac{\gamma_2(G) \cap N}{\langle \mathrm{K}(G) \cap N \rangle}.$$

Furthermore, there is a natural map $\pi : N/\langle \mathcal{K}(G) \cap N \rangle \to G^{ab}$ whose kernel is equal to $\operatorname{im} \sigma$, and $\operatorname{im} \pi = N\gamma_2(G)/\gamma_2(G)$. Finally, there is a surjective homomorphism $G^{ab} \to (G/N)^{ab}$ whose kernel is equal to $\operatorname{im} \pi$. From here our assertion readily follows.

The proof of Theorem 3.11 also yields another exact sequence that is an analogue of the corresponding sequence for Schur multipliers obtained by Blackburn and Evens [2]. More precisely, we have:

Proposition 3.12. Let G be a group given by a free presentation G = F/R and let N = SR/R be a normal subgroup of G. Then the sequence

$$0 \to \frac{R \cap \langle \mathbf{K}(F) \cap RS \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{K}(F) \cap R \rangle} \to \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_0(G) \to \tilde{\mathbf{B}}_0(G/N) \to \frac{N \cap \gamma_2(G)}{\langle \mathbf{K}(G) \cap N \rangle} \to 0$$

is exact.

The above result has the following group theoretical consequence:

Corollary 3.13. Let G be a finite group and S the solvable radical of G, i.e., the largest solvable normal subgroup of G. Then $S \cap \gamma_2(G) = \langle S \cap K(G) \rangle$.

Proof. The factor group G/S does not contain proper nontrivial abelian normal subgroups, i.e., it is semisimple. By a result of Kunyavskiĭ [18] we conclude that $\tilde{B}_0(G/S) = 0$. From Proposition 3.12 we get the desired result.

4. The 'commutativity-preserving' nonabelian exterior product of groups

The nonabelian exterior square of a group encodes crucial information on the Schur multiplier of the group. In this section we introduce a related construction that plays a similar role when considering the functor \tilde{B}_0 .

Let G be a group and M and N normal subgroups of G. We form the group $M \downarrow N$, generated by the symbols $m \downarrow n$, where $m \in M$ and $n \in N$, subject to the following relations:

(4.0.1)
$$mm' \downarrow n = (^mm' \downarrow ^mn)(m \downarrow n),$$
$$m \downarrow nn' = (m \downarrow n)(^nm \downarrow ^nn'),$$
$$x \downarrow y = 1.$$

for all $m, m' \in M$ $n, n' \in N$, and all $x \in M$ and $y \in N$ with [x, y] = 1. If we denote $M_0(M, N) = \langle m \wedge n \mid m \in M, n \in N, [m, n] = 1 \rangle$, then we have that $M \neq N = (M \wedge N) / M_0(M, N)$.

Let L be a group. A function $\phi: M \times N \to L$ is called a B_0 -pairing if for all $m, m' \in M, n, n' \in N$, and for all $x \in M, y \in N$ with [x, y] = 1,

$$\phi(mm',n) = \phi(^mm', ^mn)\phi(m,n),$$

$$\phi(m,nn') = \phi(m,n)\phi(^nm, ^nn'),$$

$$\phi(x,y) = 1.$$

Clearly a \tilde{B}_0 -pairing ϕ determines a unique homomorphism of groups $\phi^* : M \downarrow N \to L$ such that $\phi^*(m \downarrow n) = \phi(m, n)$ for all $m \in M$, $n \in N$. An example of a \tilde{B}_0 -pairing is the commutator map $M \times N \to [M, N]$. It induces a homomorphism $\tilde{\kappa} : M \downarrow N \to [M, N]$ such that $\tilde{\kappa}(m \downarrow n) = [m, n]$ for all $m \in M$ and $n \in N$. We denote the kernel of this homomorphism by $\tilde{B}_0(M, N)$.

In the case when M = N = G, we have that $M_0(G, G) = M_0(G)$ and $\tilde{B}_0(G, G) = \tilde{B}_0(G)$. We therefore have a central extension

$$0 \longrightarrow \tilde{B}_0(G) \longrightarrow G \downarrow G \stackrel{\tilde{\kappa}}{\longrightarrow} \gamma_2(G) \longrightarrow 1 ,$$

where $\tilde{\kappa}$ is the commutator map. Thus one can interpret $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ as a measure of the extent to which relations among commutators in G fail to be consequences of 'universal' commutator relations given by the images of relations (4.0.1) under the commutator map.

Proposition 4.1. Let M and N be normal subgroups of a group G. Let $K \leq M \cap N$ be a normal subgroup of G. Then $M/K \downarrow N/K \cong (M \downarrow N)/J$, where $J = \langle m \downarrow n \mid m \in M, n \in N, [m, n] \in K \rangle$.

Proof. The map $M/K \times N/K \to (M \land N)/J$ given by $(mK, nK) \mapsto (m \land n)J$ is well defined and a \tilde{B}_0 -pairing, hence it induces a homomorphism $\varphi : M/K \land N/K \to (M \land N)/J$. On the other hand, we have a canonical \tilde{B}_0 -pairing $M \times N \to M/K \land N/K$ that induces a homomorphism $M \land N \to M/K \land N/K$. Under this homomorphism J gets mapped to 1, hence we have a homomorphism $\psi : (M \land N)/J \to M/K \land N/K$ whose inverse is φ .

Schur [29], cf. also [15, Kapitel V], developed the theory of stem extensions. Here we indicate the role $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ and $G \downarrow G$ within the theory. Let G be a finite group and denote by (E, π, A) the central extension

$$(4.1.1) 1 \longrightarrow A \longrightarrow E \xrightarrow{\pi} G \longrightarrow 1$$

of G. If the transgression homomorphism tra : $\operatorname{Hom}(A, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to \operatorname{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is injective, then we say that (E, π, A) is a *stem extension* of G, and that the group $B = \operatorname{im} \operatorname{tra}$ is *produced* by (E, π, A) . One can show that a central extension (E, π, A) of G is a stem extension if and only if $A \leq \gamma_2(E)$. In this case we have that $B \cong A$.

By a well known result of Schur [29], every subgroup of $\mathrm{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is produced by some stem extension of G. This, in particular, applies to $\mathrm{B}_0(G)$. In terms of its homological counterpart $\tilde{\mathrm{B}}_0(G)$, we obtain the following result.

Theorem 4.2. Let G be a finite group. Let (E, π, A) be a stem extension that produces $\tilde{B}_0(G)$. Then $|\gamma_2(E)| = |G \land G|$. Furthermore, there exists a stem extension (E, π, A) of G producing $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ such that $\gamma_2(E) \cong G \land G$.

Proof. Let G = F/R be a free presentation of G. By Proposition 4.1 we have that $G \downarrow G \cong (F \downarrow F)/J$, where $J = \langle x \downarrow y \mid x, y \in F, [x, y] \in R \rangle$. Since the centralizer of every nontrivial element of F is cyclic, we have $F \downarrow F = F \land F$. As $H_2(F, \mathbb{Z}) = 0$, the commutator map $\kappa : F \land F \to \gamma_2(F)$ is an isomorphism. From here we conclude that $G \downarrow G \cong \gamma_2(F)/\langle K(F) \cap R \rangle$.

10

Let (E, π, A) be a stem extension of G = F/R producing $\tilde{B}_0(G)$. We have that $A \cong \tilde{B}_0(G)$. Let $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ be the set of free generators of F. For every $1 \le i \le n$ choose $e_i \in E$ such that $\pi(e_i) = x_i R$. As $A \le Z(E) \cap \gamma_2(E)$, we conclude that A is contained in the Frattini subgroup $\operatorname{Frat}(E)$ of E, cf. [15, Satz III.3.12]. Thus e_1, \ldots, e_n generate E. From here it follows that there is an epimorphism $\sigma : F \to E$ such that $\sigma(x_i) = e_i$ for all $i = 1, \ldots, n$. Denote $C = \ker \sigma$. It is straightforward to see that $C \le R$. Since $\pi(\sigma(x)) = xR$ for every $x \in F$, we have that $\sigma(R) = A$ and $\sigma^{-1}(A) = R$. From here we obtain $[R, F] \le C$. We claim that $\sigma(R \cap \gamma_2(F)) = A$. For, if $a \in A = A \cap \gamma_2(E) = \sigma(R) \cap \sigma(\gamma_2(F))$, then we can write $a = \sigma(r) = \sigma(\omega)$ for some $r \in R$ and $\omega \in \gamma_2(F)$. It follows that $\omega r^{-1} \in C \le R$, hence $\omega \in R \cap \gamma_2(F)$, as required. If $\bar{\sigma}$ is the restriction of σ to $R \cap \gamma_2(F)$, then ker $\bar{\sigma} = C \cap \gamma_2(F)$. Therefore we have $(R \cap \gamma_2(F))/(C \cap \gamma_2(F)) \cong A \cong (R \cap \gamma_2(F))/(R \cap K(F))$. This in particular shows that $|C \cap \gamma_2(F)| = |\gamma_2(F) : [R, F]| = |\langle R \cap K(F) \rangle : [R, F]|$. From here we obtain $|\gamma_2(E)| = |\gamma_2(F) : C \cap \gamma_2(F)| = |\gamma_2(F) : [R, F]|/|C \cap \gamma_2(F) : [R, F]| = |\gamma_2(F) : [R, F]| = |\gamma_2(F) : \langle R \cap K(F) \rangle| = |G \land G|$.

It remains to construct a stem extension (E, π, A) of G = F/R producing $\dot{B}_0(G)$ such that $\gamma_2(E) \cong G \land G$. Denote $B = (R \cap \gamma_2(F))/\langle R \cap K(F) \rangle$ and $T = R/\langle R \cap K(F) \rangle$. Then $T/B \cong R/(R \cap \gamma_2(F))$ is free abelian, hence B is complemented in T. Denote its complement by $\bar{C} = C/\langle R \cap K(F) \rangle$, and put E = F/C, A = R/C. Let $\pi : E \to G$ be the canonical epimorphism. Then ker $\pi = A$. As $[R,F] \leq \langle R \cap K(F) \rangle \leq C$, it follows that (E,π,A) is a central extension of G. We have $A \cong T/\bar{C} = B\bar{C}/\bar{C} \cong C(R \cap \gamma_2(F))/C$, therefore $A \leq \gamma_2(E)$. This shows that (E,π,A) is a stem extension of G. As $\gamma_2(E) \cong \gamma_2(F)/(C \cap \gamma_2(F)) = \gamma_2(F)/(C \cap (R \cap \gamma_2(F))) = \gamma_2(F)/\langle R \cap K(F) \rangle \cong G \land G$, the assertion is proved. \Box

If a group G is perfect, then $G \wedge G$ is the universal central extension of G. This can be deduced readily, cf. [22, Theorem 5.7]. A similar description can be obtained for $G \wedge G$. We say that a central extension (E, π, A) of a group G is *commutativity*preserving (CP) if commuting elements of G lift to commuting elements in E. A CP extension (U, ϕ, A) of a group G is said to be CP-universal if for every CP extension (E, ψ, B) of G there exists a homomorphism $\chi : U \to E$ that factors through G, i.e., $\psi \chi = \phi$. It is straightforward to see that a group G admits, up to isomorphism, at most one CP-universal central extension.

The following results have their direct counterparts in the theory of universal central extensions. The proofs follow along the lines of those of [22, Chapter 5].

Proposition 4.3. A CP extension (U, ϕ, A) of a group G is CP-universal if and only if U is perfect, and every CP extension of U splits.

Proof. Assume first that U is perfect, and that every CP extension of U splits. Let (E, ψ, B) be an arbitrary CP extension of G. Form $U \times_G E = \{(u, e) \in U \times E \mid \phi(u) = \psi(e)\}$, and let $\pi : U \times_G E \to U$ be the projection to the first factor. Then $(U \times_G E, \pi, \ker \pi)$ is a central extension of U, obviously a CP one. Thus it splits and therefore the section $\sigma : U \to U \times_G E$ induces a homomorphism $\chi : U \to E$. Since U is perfect, χ is uniquely determined [22, Lemma 5.4].

Conversely, suppose that (U, ϕ, A) is a CP-universal central extension of G. Then U is perfect by [22, Lemma 5.5]. Let (X, ψ, B) be a CP extension of U. Then $(X, \phi\psi, \ker \phi\psi)$ is a central extension of G. Take $x, y \in G$ with [x, y] = 1. Since the extension (U, ϕ, A) is CP, x and y have commuting lifts $x', y' \in U$ with respect to ϕ . The central extension (X, ψ, B) of U is also CP, hence x' and y' have commuting lifts $x'', y'' \in X$ with respect to ψ . This shows that $(X, \phi\psi, \ker \phi\psi)$ is a CP extension of G. By the assumption, there exists a homomorphism $\chi : U \to X$ that factors through G. We have that $\psi\chi$ is the identity map, hence the extension (X, ψ, B) of G splits.

Proposition 4.4. A group G admits a CP-universal central extension if and only if it is perfect. In the latter case, $(G \land G, \tilde{\kappa}, \tilde{B}_0(G))$ is the CP-universal central extension of G.

Proof. Let G be a perfect group. Suppose G is given by the free presentation G = F/R, and denote $K = \langle K(F) \cap R \rangle$. We have a canonical surjection $\rho : F/K \to F/R$, and ker $\rho = R/K$ is central F/K. By [22, Lemma 5.6], the group $\gamma_2(F)/K$, together with the appropriate restriction of ρ , is a perfect central extension of $\gamma_2(G) = G$. Let x and y be commuting elements of G. Then there exist $f_1, f_2 \in \gamma_2(F)$ such that $x = f_1R, y = f_2R$, and $[f_1, f_2] \in K(F) \cap R \subseteq K$. This shows that the above central extension of G is CP. We claim that it is also CP-universal. Let (E, ψ, A) be another CP extension of G. As F is free, there exists a homomorphism $\tau : F \to X$ such that $\psi\tau = \rho$. Take an arbitrary $[f_1, f_2] \in K(F) \cap R$, where $f_1, f_2 \in F$. Since $\rho(f_1)$ and $\rho(f_2)$ commute, there exist commuting lifts $e_1, e_2 \in E$ of these with respect to ψ . We can write $\tau(f_i) = e_i z_i$ for some $z_i \in A \leq Z(E)$, i = 1, 2. Then $\tau([f_1, f_2]) = [e_1 z_1, e_2 z_2] = 1$, hence τ induces a homomorphism $\chi : F/K \to E$. The restriction of χ to $\gamma_2(F)/K$ gives the required map. The second statement follows from the proof of Theorem 4.2.

The converse is obvious.

5. Nilpotent groups of class 2

The first examples of finite *p*-groups G with $B_0(G) \neq 0$ were found within the groups that are nilpotent of class 2, cf. [28, 3]. In this section we find a new description of $B_0(G)$ for an arbitrary group G of class 2. This is achieved via the group $G \downarrow G$.

Let the group G be nilpotent of class 2 and consider $G \downarrow G$. As $\gamma_2(G) \leq Z(G)$, it follows that $[x, y] \downarrow z = 1$ for all $x, y, z \in G$. In particular, $G \downarrow G$ is an abelian group; in fact, it is easy to see that even the group $G \land G$ is abelian. It also follows that

$${}^{z}(x \land y) = {}^{z}x \land {}^{z}y = [z, x]x \land {}^{z}y = x \land [z, y]y = x \land y,$$

therefore G acts trivially on $G \land G$. Thus the defining relations (4.0.1) of $G \land G$ show that the mapping $G \times G \to G \land G$ defined by $(x, y) \mapsto x \land y$ is bilinear. By the above argument, this map induces a well defined bilinear mapping $G^{ab} \times G^{ab} \to G \land G$ given by $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \mapsto x \land y$, where $\bar{x} = x\gamma_2(G)$ and $\bar{y} = y\gamma_2(G)$. This in turn induces a surjective group homomorphism $\Psi : G^{ab} \land G^{ab} \to G \land G$ given by $\bar{x} \land \bar{y} \mapsto x \land y$. Similarly, there is a well defined commutator map $G^{ab} \times G^{ab} \to \gamma_2(G)$ defined by $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \mapsto [x, y]$. Since G is of class 2, the latter mapping is also bilinear, hence it induces a surjective homomorphism $\Phi : G^{ab} \land G^{ab} \to \gamma_2(G)$. We have that $\Phi = \tilde{\kappa}\Psi$.

Proposition 5.1. Let G be a group of class 2. Then $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ is isomorphic to $\ker \Phi / \ker \Psi$.

Proof. Clearly ker $\Psi \leq \ker \Phi$. Let τ be the restriction of Ψ to ker Φ . Take any $k \in \ker \tilde{\kappa}$. There exists $t \in G^{\mathrm{ab}} \wedge G^{\mathrm{ab}}$ such that $\Psi(t) = k$. Then $\Phi(t) = 0$, hence τ maps ker Φ onto ker $\tilde{\kappa}$. Besides, ker $\tau = \ker \Psi$, thus ker $\Phi/\ker \Psi \cong \ker \tilde{\kappa} \cong \tilde{B}_0(G)$. \Box

Remark 5.2. We also have group homomorphisms $\Psi_1 : G^{ab} \otimes G^{ab} \to G \land G$ and $\Phi_1 : G^{ab} \otimes G^{ab} \to \gamma_2(G)$, defined similarly as above. It can be shown that $\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong \ker \Phi_1 / \ker \Psi_1$.

Bogomolov [3] found a rather detailed description of $B_0(G)$ when G is a p-group of class 2 such that G^{ab} is an elementary abelian p-group. Here we propose an alternative approach via the Blackburn-Evens theory [2]. First note that both $\gamma_2(G)$ and $G \downarrow G$ are elementary abelian p-groups. Denote $V = G^{ab}$ and $W = \gamma_2(G)$. We can consider V and W as vector spaces over \mathbb{F}_p . For $v_1, v_2 \in V$ denote $(v_1, v_2) =$ $[x_1, x_2]$ where $v_i = x_i \gamma_2(G)$. This gives us a bilinear map $V \times V \to W$. Let X_1 be the subspace of $V \otimes W$ spanned by all $v_1 \otimes (v_2, v_3) + v_2 \otimes (v_3, v_1) + v_3 \otimes (v_1, v_2)$, where $v_i \in V$. Furthermore, define the map $f: V \to W$ by $f(g\gamma_2(G)) = g^p$, and let X_2 be the subspace of $V \otimes W$ spanned by all $v \otimes f(v)$, where $v \in V$. Put $X = X_1 + X_2$. Straightforward verification, cf. [2], shows that the map $\sigma: V \wedge V \to (V \otimes W)/X$ given by $\sigma(v_1 \wedge v_2) = v_1 \otimes f(v_2) + {p \choose 2} v_2 \otimes (v_1, v_2) + X$ is well defined and \mathbb{F}_p -linear. As both $V \wedge V$ and $(V \otimes W)/X$ are elementary abelian p-groups, there exists an elementary abelian p-group M^* with $N \leq M^*$ such that

(5.2.1)
$$N \cong (V \otimes W)/X$$
 and $M^*/N \cong V \wedge V$.

Theorem 5.3. Let G be a finite group of class 2 such that G^{ab} is an elementary abelian p-group. Under the isomorphisms given by (5.2.1), let M/N correspond to ker Φ in M^*/N , and M_0/N correspond to ker Ψ in M^*/N . Then $\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong M/M_0$ and $M_0(G) \cong M_0$.

Proof. By a result of Blackburn and Evens [2], $M \cong M(G)$. Proposition 5.1 implies that $\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong \ker \Phi / \ker \Psi \cong M/M_0$. Since both M and M_0 are elementary abelian, it follows from Theorem 3.2 that $M_0(G) \cong M_0$. This concludes the proof. \Box

6. Split extensions and Frobenius groups

In this section all the groups are finite. Let $G = N \rtimes Q$ be a split extension of the group N by Q. Then the Schur multiplier of G can be described by a result of Tahara [33], see also [17, p. 28]. We have that $\mathrm{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ is naturally isomorphic to $\mathrm{H}^2(Q, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \overline{\mathrm{H}}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$, where $\overline{\mathrm{H}}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = \ker \mathrm{res}_Q^G$. Moreover, $\overline{\mathrm{H}}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ fits into the following exact sequence:

(6.0.1)
$$0 \to \mathrm{H}^1(Q, \mathrm{H}^1(N, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})) \to \overline{\mathrm{H}}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to \mathrm{H}^2(N, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})^Q$$

 $\to \mathrm{H}^2(Q, \mathrm{H}^1(N, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})).$

A description in terms of the nonabelian exterior products is obtained as follows. The commutator map $G \wedge N \rightarrow [N, G]$ is a homomorphism of groups. Denote its kernel by $\mathcal{M}(G, N)$. The group $\mathcal{M}(G, N)$ is said to be the *Schur multiplier of the pair* (G, N). Ellis [12] proved that $\mathcal{M}(G) \cong \mathcal{M}(G, N) \oplus \mathcal{M}(Q)$, and $\mathcal{M}(G, N) \cong \ker(\mathcal{M}(G) \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(Q))$. Here $\mathcal{M}(G, N)$ is embedded into $\mathcal{M}(G)$ via the the restriction ι_1 of the natural homomorphism $G \wedge N \rightarrow G \wedge G$, and the embedding $\iota_2 : \mathcal{M}(Q) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{M}(G)$ is induced by the split surjection $G \triangleleft \mathbb{R}^2 \mathcal{R}$.

Our aim is to describe $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ in the case when G is a split extension of N by Q. At first we define a subgroup $\bar{M}_0(G, N)$ of $G \wedge N$ by

$$\overline{\mathrm{M}}_{0}(G,N) = \langle (a \wedge m)^{-1}(b \wedge n)(n \wedge m) \mid a, b \in G, m, n \in N, [a,b] = 1, {}^{b}nm = {}^{a}mn \rangle.$$

It is straightforward to verify that $\mathrm{M}_{0}(G,N) \leq \overline{\mathrm{M}}_{0}(G,N) \leq \mathrm{M}(G,N).$

Theorem 6.1. Let $G = N \rtimes Q$. Then $\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong M(G, N) / \bar{M}_0(G, N) \oplus \tilde{B}_0(Q)$.

Proof. Let $x, y \in G$ commute. We can write $x = n_1^{-1}q_1$ and $y = n_2^{-1}q_2$ for some $n_1, n_2 \in N$ and $q_1, q_2 \in Q$. From [x, y] = 1 we obtain ${}^{n_1^{-1}}[q_1, n_2] \cdot {}^{n_1^{-1}n_2^{-1}}[q_1, q_2] \cdot [n_1^{-1}, y] = 1$. As $N \cap Q = 1$, we conclude that $[q_1, q_2] = 1$. Therefore $q_1 \wedge q_2$ as an element of $G \wedge G$ belongs to $\iota_2 M_0(Q)$, hence it is central in $G \wedge G$ and G acts trivially upon it. Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} x \wedge y &= {}^{n_1^{-1}}(q_1 \wedge n_2^{-1}) \cdot {}^{n_1^{-1}n_2^{-1}}(q_1 \wedge q_2) \cdot (n_1^{-1} \wedge n_2^{-1}) \cdot {}^{n_2^{-1}}(n_1^{-1} \wedge q_2) \\ &= {}^{n_1^{-1}n_2^{-1}} \left({}^{n_2}(q_1 \wedge n_2^{-1}) \cdot {}^{n_1n_2}(n_1^{-1} \wedge n_2^{-1}) \cdot {}^{[n_2,n_1]n_1}(n_1^{-1} \wedge q_2) \right) (q_1 \wedge q_2) \\ &= {}^{n_1^{-1}n_2^{-1}} \left((q_1 \wedge n_2)^{-1}(q_2 \wedge n_1)(n_1 \wedge n_2) \right) (q_1 \wedge q_2). \end{aligned}$$

From $[x, y] = [q_1, q_2] = 1$ we obtain that $[n_2, q_1][q_2, n_1][n_1, n_2] = 1$, which is equivalent to ${}^{q_2}n_1n_2 = {}^{q_1}n_2n_1$. It follows from here that $(q_1 \wedge n_2)^{-1}(q_2 \wedge n_1)(n_1 \wedge n_2) \in \iota_1 \overline{M}_0(G, N)$. This shows that $M_0(G) \leq \iota_1 \overline{M}_0(G, N) \oplus \iota_2 M_0(Q)$. Conversely, it is clear that $\iota_2 M_0(Q) \leq M_0(G)$. Take any generator $\omega = (a \wedge m)^{-1}(b \wedge n)(n \wedge m)$ of $\overline{M}_0(G, N)$. Then we have that [a, b] = 1 and ${}^{b}nm = {}^{a}mn$. The above calculation shows that ${}^{n^{-1}m^{-1}}\omega = (n^{-1}a \wedge m^{-1}b)(b \wedge a)$. By our assumptions we have $[n^{-1}a, m^{-1}b] = 1$, therefore $\omega \in M_0(G)$. From here we can finally conclude that $M_0(G) = \iota_1 \overline{M}_0(G, N) \oplus \iota_2 M_0(Q)$, and this proves the assertion.

The structure of $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ can further be refined when G is a Frobenius group. A Frobenius group [15, p. 496] is a transitive permutation group such that no non-trivial element fixes more than one point and some non-trivial element fixes a point. The subgroup Q of a Frobenius group G fixing a point is called the Frobenius complement. By a theorem of Frobenius [15, p. 496], the set

$$N = G \setminus \bigcup_{g \in G}{}^g(Q \setminus \{1\})$$

is a normal subgroup in G called the Frobenius kernel N. We have that $G = N \rtimes Q$, and Q acts fixed-point-freely upon N. We have that $Q \cap {}^{g}Q = 1$ for every $g \in G \setminus Q$, and so if $\{g_1, \ldots, g_r\}$ is a left transversal of Q in G then we have a Frobenius partition

$$(6.1.1) G = N \dot{\cup}^{g_1} Q \dot{\cup} \cdots \dot{\cup}^{g_r} Q,$$

where the word 'partition' means that the intersection of two different components is 1.

At first we describe the Schur multiplier of a Frobenius group by refining the above mentioned result of Tahara.

Proposition 6.2. Let G be a Frobenius group with Frobenius kernel N and complement Q. Then $\mathrm{H}^{2}(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathrm{H}^{2}(N, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})^{Q} \cong \mathrm{M}(G, N).$

Proof. By Tahara's result we have $\mathrm{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathrm{H}^2(Q, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \oplus \overline{\mathrm{H}}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$. The Sylow *p*-subgroups of Q are cyclic if p is odd, and either cyclic or generalized quaternion groups if p = 2 [15, Hauptsatz V.8.7]. Thus $\mathrm{H}^2(P, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = 0$ for every Sylow *p*-subgroup P of Q and every prime p dividing the order of Q. It follows from here that $\mathrm{H}^2(Q, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = 0$. It remains to show that $\overline{\mathrm{H}}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \cong$ $\mathrm{H}^2(N, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})^Q$. By [15, Satz V.8.3] we have $\mathrm{gcd}(|N|, |Q|) = 1$, which clearly implies $\mathrm{H}^i((Q, \mathrm{H}^1(N, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})) = 1$ for all $i \geq 1$, hence the exact sequence (6.0.1) gives the isomorphism $\mathrm{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathrm{H}^2(N, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})^Q$. The fact that the latter is isomorphic to $\mathrm{M}(G, N)$ follows from the above mentioned result of Ellis. \Box

Moving on to $\tilde{B}_0(G)$, where G is a Frobenius group, we first need to describe the structure of commuting pairs in G. In the Frobenius case, these are particularly well behaved, as the following result shows.

Lemma 6.3. Let G be a Frobenius group with the Frobenius kernel N and complement Q. Let $x, y \in G$ commute. Then either $x, y \in N$ or there exists $g \in G$ such that both x and y belong to ${}^{g}Q$.

Proof. Let G have a Frobenius partition as given by (6.1.1). Suppose that [x, y] = 1 for $x, y \in G \setminus \{1\}$. We may further suppose that at least one of these elements does not belong to N. Assume first that $x \in N$ and $y \notin N$. Without loss of generality we can write $y = g_1 q$ for some $q \in Q$. We have $xg_1 q = g_1 q$, therefore $g_1^{-1} x q = q$. This can be rewritten as $q \left(g_1^{-1} x\right) = g_1^{-1} x$. Since Q acts fixed-point-freely on N, we conclude that q = 1 or x = 1, a contradiction.

Assume now that x and y belong to different conjugates of Q. Without loss of generality we may assume that $x \in Q$ and $y \in {}^{g_1}Q$ where $g_1 \notin Q$. We can write $y = {}^{g_1}q$, where $q \in Q$ and $g_1 = f_1q_1$ with $f_1 \in F \setminus \{1\}$ and $q_1 \in Q$. Denote $\tilde{q} = {}^{q_1}q$. From ${}^xy = y$ we conclude that ${}^{f_1^{-1}xf_1}\tilde{q} = \tilde{q} \in Q \cap {}^{f_1^{-1}xf_1}Q$. As $\tilde{q} \neq 0$, we obtain that $f_1^{-1}xf_1 \in Q$, hence $x \in {}^{f_1}Q$. But $Q \cap {}^{f_1}Q = 1$, and this is contrary to the assumption that $x \neq 1$. This concludes the proof.

Corollary 6.4. Let G be a Frobenius group with the Frobenius kernel N. Then

$$\tilde{B}_0(G) \cong \frac{M(G, N)}{\mathrm{im}(M_0(N) \to M(G, N))}$$

Proof. Denote $N_0 = \operatorname{im}(\operatorname{M}_0(N) \to \operatorname{M}(G, N))$. Let $x, y \in G$ and suppose that [x, y] = 1. By Lemma 6.3 we either have that $x, y \in N$ or there exists $g \in G$ such that $x = {}^gq_1$ and $y = {}^gq_2$ for some $q_1, q_2 \in Q$. We clearly have that $[q_1, q_2] = 1$, hence $x \wedge y = {}^gq_1 \wedge {}^gq_2 = {}^g(q_1 \wedge q_2) = q_1 \wedge q_2$. This shows that $\operatorname{M}_0(G) = \langle x \wedge y \mid [x, y] = 1$, either $(x, y) \in N \times N$ or $(x, y) \in Q \times Q \rangle$. In view of the above notations we can thus write $\operatorname{M}_0(G) = \iota_1 N_0 \oplus \iota_2 \operatorname{M}_0(Q)$. As $\operatorname{H}^2(Q, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = 0$, we have that $\operatorname{M}_0(Q) = 0$, and hence the result.

Corollary 6.5. Let G be a Frobenius group with the Frobenius kernel N. Then

$$\mathcal{B}_0(G) = \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{C}} \ker \operatorname{res}_A^G,$$

where C is the family of all bicyclic subgroups of N.

Proof. Denote $B_0 = \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{C}} \ker \operatorname{res}_A^G$. By a result of Bogomolov [3] we have that $B_0(G) = \bigcap_{A \in \mathcal{B}} \ker \operatorname{res}_A^G$, where \mathcal{B} is the collection of all bicyclic subgroups of G, hence $B_0(G) \leq B_0$. Now let $\gamma \in B_0$. Fix an arbitrary $B = \langle x, y \rangle \in \mathcal{B}$. If $x, y \in N$, then $B \in \mathcal{C}$, and thus $\operatorname{res}_B^G \gamma = 0$. Otherwise, Lemma 6.3 implies that there exists $g \in G$ such that $x = {}^g q_1$ and $y = {}^g q_2$ for some $q_1, q_2 \in Q$. Clearly we have $[q_1, q_2] = 1$. As $\operatorname{H}^2({}^g Q, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = 0$, we have $\operatorname{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) = \ker \operatorname{res}_{gQ}^G \leq \ker \operatorname{res}_B^G$, hence we again have $\operatorname{res}_B^G \gamma = 0$. We conclude that $\gamma \in B_0(G)$.

Corollary 6.6. Let G be a Frobenius group with abelian Frobenius kernel. Then $B_0(G) = 0$.

Proof. Let N be the Frobenius kernel of G and Q a complement of N in G. As N is abelian, application of Corollary 6.5 gives $B_0(G) = \ker \operatorname{res}_N^G$. Thus it suffices to show that the map res_N^G is injective. Let $\operatorname{cor}_N^G : \operatorname{H}^2(N, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z}) \to \operatorname{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ be the cohomological corestriction map. Let p be a prime dividing |N|, and denote the restriction of the map res_N^G to the p-part $\operatorname{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})_p$ of $\operatorname{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})$ by $\operatorname{res}_N^G(p)$. Similarly, let $\operatorname{cor}_N^G(p)$ be the restriction of cor_N^G to $\operatorname{H}^2(N, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})_p$. Then $\operatorname{cor}_N^G(p) \operatorname{res}_N^G(p) : \operatorname{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})_p \to \operatorname{H}^2(G, \mathbb{Q}/\mathbb{Z})_p$ is multiplication by n = |G : N| = |Q|. As p is coprime to n, it follows that $\operatorname{res}_N^G(p)$ is injective for every p dividing |N|. Therefore res_N^G is injective, as required. \Box

7. The functor \tilde{B}_0 in K-theory

In this section, the role of the functor \dot{B}_0 within K-theory is outlined. We first briefly recall some of the basic notions of K-theory. For unexplained notations and further account we refer to Milnor's book [22]. Throughout this section let Λ be a ring with 1. The group $GL(\Lambda)$ is the direct limit of the chain $GL(1,\Lambda) \subset GL(2,\Lambda) \subset \cdots$, where $GL(n,\Lambda)$ is embedded in $GL(n+1,\Lambda)$ via $A \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Denote by $E(\Lambda)$ the subgroup of $GL(\Lambda)$ generated by all elementary matrices, and let $St(\Lambda)$ be the Steinberg group. Then the K_1 and K_2 functors are given by $K_1\Lambda = GL(\Lambda)/E(\Lambda)$

and $K_2 \Lambda = \ker(\Phi : St(\Lambda) \twoheadrightarrow E(\Lambda))$, respectively. It is known that $K_2 \Lambda$ is precisely the center of $St(\Lambda)$, $K_2 \Lambda \cong H_2(E(\Lambda), \mathbb{Z})$, and the sequence

$$1 \longrightarrow K_2 \Lambda \longrightarrow St(\Lambda) \longrightarrow GL(\Lambda) \longrightarrow K_1 \Lambda \longrightarrow 1$$

is exact.

The fact that $K_2 \Lambda$ can be identified with $H_2(E(\Lambda), \mathbb{Z})$ suggests the following definition. For a ring Λ set $\tilde{B}_0 \Lambda = \tilde{B}_0(E(\Lambda))$. This clearly defines a covariant functor from **Ring** to **Ab**. The group $\tilde{B}_0 \Lambda$ fits into the exact sequence

$$1 \longrightarrow B_0 \Lambda \longrightarrow E(\Lambda) \land E(\Lambda) \longrightarrow E(\Lambda) \longrightarrow 1.$$

Thus $\tilde{B}_0 \Lambda$ can be considered a measure of the extent to which relations among commutators in $GL(\Lambda)$ fail to be consequences of 'universal' relations of $E(\Lambda) \land E(\Lambda)$. Another description of $\tilde{B}_0 \Lambda$ can be obtained via the Steinberg group. Denote $M_0 \Lambda = \langle K(St(\Lambda)) \cap K_2 \Lambda \rangle$. Then we have the following result.

Theorem 7.1. Let Λ be a ring. Then $E(\Lambda) \downarrow E(\Lambda)$ is naturally isomorphic to $St(\Lambda)/M_0 \Lambda$, and $\tilde{B}_0 \Lambda \cong K_2 \Lambda/M_0 \Lambda$.

Proof. The group $St(\Lambda)$ is the universal central extension of $E(\Lambda)$ [22, Theorem 5.10]. Since $St(\Lambda)$ is perfect, it follows from [21] that $St(\Lambda) \cong E(\Lambda) \wedge E(\Lambda)$. The isomorphism $\psi : E(\Lambda) \wedge E(\Lambda) \rightarrow St(\Lambda)$ can be chosen so that we have the following commutative diagram with exact rows:

$$\begin{split} 1 & \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E}(\Lambda)) & \longrightarrow \mathcal{E}(\Lambda) \wedge \mathcal{E}(\Lambda) \xrightarrow{\kappa} \mathcal{E}(\Lambda) \longrightarrow 1 \\ \psi|_{\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{E}(\Lambda))} & \downarrow \cong \psi & \downarrow \cong \\ 1 & \longrightarrow \mathcal{K}_2 \Lambda \longrightarrow \mathcal{St}(\Lambda) \xrightarrow{\Phi} \mathcal{E}(\Lambda) \longrightarrow 1 \end{split}$$

From here we get that

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}(\Lambda) & \to \mathbf{E}(\Lambda) = (\mathbf{E}(\Lambda) \wedge \mathbf{E}(\Lambda)) / \mathbf{M}_0(\mathbf{E}(\Lambda)) \cong \mathbf{St}(\Lambda) / \psi(\mathbf{M}_0(\mathbf{E}(\Lambda))). \\ \mathrm{As} \ \psi(\mathbf{M}_0(\mathbf{E}(\Lambda))) = \langle [x,y] \mid x, y \in \mathbf{St}(\Lambda), [\Phi(x), \Phi(y)] = 1 \rangle = \langle [x,y] \mid x, y \in \mathbf{St}(\Lambda), [x,y] \in \mathbf{K}_2 \Lambda \rangle = \mathbf{M}_0 \Lambda, \text{ we get the result.} \end{split}$$

Theorem 7.1 thus shows that $\tilde{B}_0 \Lambda$ is the obstruction to $K_2 \Lambda$ being generated by commutators. Alternatively, let $A, B \in E(\Lambda)$ commute, and choose $a, b \in St(\Lambda)$ such that $A = \Phi(a)$ and $B = \Phi(b)$. Define $A \star B = [a, b] \in K_2 \Lambda$ to be the *Milnor* element induced by A and B, cf. [22, p. 63]. The following is then straightforward.

Proposition 7.2. Let Λ be a ring. Then $M_0 \Lambda = \langle A \star B \mid A, B \in E(\Lambda), [A, B] = 1 \rangle$. Thus $\tilde{B}_0 \Lambda = 0$ if and only if $K_2 \Lambda$ is generated by Milnor's elements.

The question as to whether $K_2 \Lambda$ is generated by Milnor's elements for every ring Λ was posed by Bass, cf. Problem 3 of [10]. As the group $E(\Lambda)$ is perfect, the problem is equivalent to the question whether or not every CP extension of $E(\Lambda)$ is trivial, cf. Proposition 4.4.

Now let $\{x_{ij}^{\lambda} \mid i, j \in \mathbb{N}, \lambda \in \Lambda\}$ be the standard generating set of $\operatorname{St}(\Lambda)$. For $u \in \Lambda^{\times}$ define $w_{ij}(u) = x_{ij}^{u} x_{ji}^{-u^{-1}} x_{ij}^{u}$ and $h_{ij}(u) = w_{ij}(u) w_{ij}(-1)$. For $u, v \in \Lambda^{\times}$ with uv = vu let $\{u, v\} = [h_{ij}(u), h_{ij}(v)]$ be the *Steinberg symbol*. It is known that $\operatorname{K}_2 \mathbb{Z}$ is generated by the Steinberg symbol $\{-1, -1\}$, cf. [22, Corollary 10.2]. This, together with Theorem 7.1, implies that $\widetilde{B}_0 \mathbb{Z} = 0$. Similarly, we have the following.

Corollary 7.3. Let Λ be a commutative semilocal ring. Then $\tilde{B}_0 \Lambda = 0$.

Proof. By a result of Stein and Dennis [31, Theorem 2.7], $K_2 \Lambda$ is generated by the Steinberg symbols $\{u, v\}$, where $u, v \in \Lambda^{\times}$, hence the result follows from Theorem 7.1.

16

Our next goal is to compute $B_0(GL(\Lambda))$ for an arbitrary ring Λ . Dennis [9, Corollary 8] showed that $H_2(GL(\Lambda), \mathbb{Z}) \cong K_2 \Lambda \oplus H_2(GL(\Lambda)^{ab}, \mathbb{Z})$. The drawback is that the splitting is non-canonical. Instead of that, we use a variant of the functor H_2 defined by Dennis. Given a group G, let $G \Lambda G$ be the group generated by symbols $x \Lambda y$, where $x, y \in G$ are subject to the relations analogous to (2.0.1) and (2.0.2) in the definition of the nonabelian exterior square $G \wedge G$ of the group G, and the relation (2.0.3) is replaced by

(7.3.1)
$$(x\tilde{\wedge}y)(y\tilde{\wedge}x) = 1$$

for all $x, y \in G$. We clearly have the commutator homomorphism $\hat{\kappa} : G\tilde{\wedge}G \to \gamma_2(G)$ given by $x\tilde{\wedge}y \mapsto [x, y]$. Denote $\tilde{H}_2(G) = \ker \hat{\kappa}$. The latter group has a topological interpretation. Namely, it follows from [6] that $\tilde{H}_2(G) \cong \pi_4(\Sigma^2 \operatorname{K}(G, 1))$, where $\operatorname{K}(G, 1)$ is the classifying space of G. Let $\tilde{M}_0(G) = \langle x\tilde{\wedge}y \mid x, y \in G, [x, y] =$ $1\rangle$. Then the defining relations of $G\tilde{\wedge}G$ imply that $(G\tilde{\wedge}G)/\tilde{M}_0(G) \cong G \downarrow G$ and $\tilde{H}_2(G)/\tilde{M}_0(G) \cong \tilde{B}_0(G)$. If G is perfect, then $(G\tilde{\wedge}G, \hat{\kappa}, \tilde{H}_2(G))$ is the universal central extension of G.

In our context it is crucial to note that there is a canonical split exact sequence

$$(7.3.2) 1 \longrightarrow H_2(E(\Lambda)) \longrightarrow H_2(GL(\Lambda)) \longrightarrow H_2(GL(\Lambda)^{ab}) \longrightarrow 1$$

cf. [9, Theorem 7]. This facilitates the proof of the following result:

Theorem 7.4. Let Λ be a ring. Then $\tilde{B}_0 \Lambda$ is naturally isomorphic to $\tilde{B}_0(GL(\Lambda))$.

Proof. Let $G = \operatorname{GL}(\Lambda)$ and $E = \operatorname{E}(\Lambda)$. By [9, Theorem 7] we have that $G \tilde{\wedge} G$ is naturally isomorphic to $(E \tilde{\wedge} E) \times (G^{\operatorname{ab}} \tilde{\wedge} G^{\operatorname{ab}})$. Explicitly, there is a pairing $\star : G \times G \to E \tilde{\wedge} E \cong \operatorname{St}(\Lambda)$ that extends the Milnor pairing defined above. This was found by Grayson, see [14] for the details. It turns out [14, p. 27] that the map \star preserves the relations (2.0.1), (2.0.2) and (7.3.1), hence it induces a well defined homomorphism $\star : G \tilde{\wedge} G \to E \tilde{\wedge} E$. We have that $G^{\operatorname{ab}} \tilde{\wedge} G^{\operatorname{ab}} = \tilde{\operatorname{H}}_2(G^{\operatorname{ab}})$, and the pairing $\circ : G \times G \to \tilde{\operatorname{H}}_2(G^{\operatorname{ab}})$ given by $a \circ b = (a \oplus 1)\gamma_2(G) \land (1 \oplus b)\gamma_2(G)$ induces a homomorphism $\circ : G \tilde{\wedge} G \to \tilde{\operatorname{H}}^2(G^{\operatorname{ab}})$. It can be proved [9] that $x \tilde{\wedge} y = (x \star y)(x \circ y)$ for every $x, y \in G$. From the definition of \star it follows that if x and y commute, then $x \star y \in \operatorname{K}_2 \Lambda$, and the elements $x \circ y$ generate $\tilde{\operatorname{H}}^2(G^{\operatorname{ab}})$. Therefore $\tilde{\operatorname{M}}_0(G) = \tilde{\operatorname{M}}_0(E) \times \tilde{\operatorname{H}}^2(G^{\operatorname{ab}})$. This gives the result. \Box

One of the fundamental results in K-theory is that if Λ is a ring and I an ideal of Λ , then the sequence

(7.4.1)
$$\mathrm{K}_{2}(\Lambda, I) \longrightarrow \mathrm{K}_{2}\Lambda \xrightarrow{\tau} \mathrm{K}_{2}(\Lambda/I) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathrm{K}_{1}(\Lambda, I) \longrightarrow \mathrm{K}_{1}\Lambda \longrightarrow \cdots$$

is exact [22, Theorem 6.2]. In the rest of the section we derive a similar sequence for \tilde{B}_0 . To this end, denote $J(\Lambda, I) = \partial(M_0(\Lambda/I))$ and $T(\Lambda, I) = \tau^{-1}(M_0(\Lambda/I))$. Then we have the following.

Proposition 7.5. Let Λ be a ring and I an ideal of Λ . Then the sequence

$$1 \longrightarrow \frac{\mathrm{T}(\Lambda, I)}{\mathrm{M}_0 \Lambda} \longrightarrow \tilde{\mathrm{B}}_0 \Lambda \longrightarrow \tilde{\mathrm{B}}_0(\Lambda/I) \longrightarrow \frac{\mathrm{K}_1(\Lambda, I)}{\mathrm{J}(\Lambda, I)} \longrightarrow \mathrm{K}_1 \Lambda \longrightarrow \cdots$$

is exact.

Proof. The canonical homomorphism $\tau : K_2 \Lambda \to K_2(\Lambda/I)$ induces a homomorphism $\tau^{\sharp} : \tilde{B}_0 \Lambda \to \tilde{B}_0(\Lambda/I)$, whose kernel is precisely $T(\Lambda, I)/M_0 \Lambda$. By definition, the connecting homomorphism $\partial : K_2(\Lambda/I) \to K_1(\Lambda, I)$ induces a natural map $\partial^{\sharp} : \tilde{B}_0(\Lambda/I) \to K_1(\Lambda, I)/J(\Lambda, I)$, and we have that ker $\partial^{\sharp} = M_0(\Lambda/I) \ker \partial/M_0(\Lambda/I) = \operatorname{im} \tau^{\sharp}$. Using the fact that the sequence (7.4.1) is exact, we see that the canonical homomorphism $\sigma : K_1(\Lambda, I) \to K_1(\Lambda, I) \to K_1 \Lambda$ induces a well defined homomorphism σ^{\sharp} :

 $K_1(\Lambda, I)/J(\Lambda, I) \to K_1 \Lambda$. We have that $\operatorname{im} \sigma^{\sharp} = \operatorname{im} \sigma$, and $\ker \sigma^{\sharp} = \ker \sigma/J(\Lambda, I) = \operatorname{im} \partial/J(\Lambda, I) = \operatorname{im} \partial^{\sharp}$. This concludes the proof.

8. Computing $\tilde{B}_0(G)$

A group G is said to be *polycyclic* if it has a subnormal series $1 = G_0 \triangleleft G_1 \triangleleft \cdots \triangleleft G_n = G$ such that every factor G_{i+1}/G_i is cyclic. A finite group is polycyclic if and only if it is solvable. Computations with polycyclic groups are very efficient, since several algorithmic problems are decidable within this class [30].

Recently Eick and Nickel [11] developed efficient algorithms for computing nonabelian exterior squares and Schur multipliers of (possibly infinite) polycyclic groups. Given a polycyclic group G, one can compute its nonabelian exterior square $G \wedge G$, the crossed pairing $\lambda : G \times G \to G \wedge G$ given by $\lambda(x, y) = x \wedge y$, and the commutator map $\kappa : G \wedge G \to \gamma_2(G)$. The Schur multiplier $H_2(G, \mathbb{Z})$ is then computed as $M(G) = \ker \kappa$.

Let G be a finite solvable group. In order to compute $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ it suffices to efficiently compute $M_0(G) = \langle x \land y \mid x, y \in G, [x, y] = 1 \rangle$ as a subgroup of M(G). One would have to compute the set $C_G = \{(x, y) \in G \times G \mid [x, y] = 1\}$ of all commuting pairs in G and then to compute $M_0(G)$ as the group generated by $\{\lambda(x, y) \mid (x, y) \in C_G\}$. It turns out that this is computationally inefficient. The first improvement is to observe that if $(x, y) \in C_G$, then also $({}^{z}x, {}^{z}y) \in C_G$ for every $z \in G$. On the other hand, since G acts trivially on M(G), we have that ${}^{z}x \land {}^{z}y = {}^{z}(x \land y) = x \land y$, therefore it suffices to determine the conjugacy classes C_1, \ldots, C_k and choose representatives $c_i \in C_i, i = 1, \ldots, k$. Then $M_0(G) = \langle c_i \land x \mid$ $c_i \in C_i, x \in C_G(c_i), i = 1, \ldots, k \rangle$. This can further be improved. For $x \in G$ consider the map $\varphi : C_G(x) \to \ker \kappa$ given by $y \mapsto x \land y$. Let $y, z \in C_G(x)$. Then $x \land yz = (x \land y)({}^{y}x \land {}^{y}z) = (x \land y)(x \land z)$, as G acts trivially on ker κ . Thus φ is a homomorphism. It follows from here that if \mathcal{X}_i is a generating set of $C_G(c_i)$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$, then

$$M_0(G) = \langle c_i \wedge x \mid c_i \in C_i, x \in \mathcal{X}_i, i = 1, \dots, k \rangle.$$

This formula enables efficient computation of $M_0(G)$, as it provides a reasonably small set of generators of this group. The algorithm has been implemented in GAP [13]. It allows us to compute $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ and $G \downarrow G$ for finite solvable groups G. A file of the GAP functions and commands for computing $\tilde{B}_0(G)$ can be found at the author's website [23].

Computer experiments reveal that there are no groups G of order 32 with $B_0(G) \neq 0$. This coincides with the hand calculations done by Chu, Hu, Kang and Prokhorov [8]. Next, there are nine groups G of order 64 with $B_0(G) \neq 0$. If we denote the *i*-th group in the GAP library of all groups of order n by $G_n(i)$, then our computations using the above algorithm show that we have $B(G_{64}(i)) \neq 0$ for $i \in \{149, 150, 151, 170, 171, 172, 177, 178, 182\}$. In fact, in all these cases $B_0(G_{64}(i))$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$. This confirms the calculations of Chu, Hu, Kang, and Kunyavskiĭ [7, Theorem 10.8].

Bogomolov [3, Lemma 4.11] stated that if G is a group with $G^{ab} \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ and $B_0(G) \neq 0$, then p > 3 and |G| has to be at least p^7 . His methods also imply that if G is a p-group with $B_0(G) \neq 0$, then $|G| \geq p^6$, cf. [4, Corollary 2.11]. On the other hand, our computations show that if $i \in \{28, 29, 30\}$, then $G_{243}(i)^{ab} \cong \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ and $B_0(G_{243}(i)) \cong \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$. These can be double-checked by hand calculations using the methods of [7], and thus contradict both of the above Bogomolov's claims. We only sketch here the relevant computations with the group $G_{243}(28)$. *Example* 8.1. Denote $G = G_{243}(28)$. This group has the following polycyclic presentation:

$$G = \langle g_1, g_2, g_3, g_4, g_5 \mid g_1^3 = 1, g_2^3 = g_4^2, g_3^3 = g_5^2, g_4^3 = 1, g_5^3 = 1, [g_2, g_1] = g_3, [g_3, g_1] = g_4, [g_3, g_2] = g_5, [g_4, g_1] = g_5, [g_i, g_i] = 1 \text{ for other } i > j \rangle.$$

Computations with GAP show that $G \wedge G$ is isomorphic to $G_{243}(34)$, and is generated by the set $\{g_2 \wedge g_1, g_3 \wedge g_1, g_3 \wedge g_2, g_4 \wedge g_1\}$. Denote $w = (g_2 \wedge g_3)(g_4 \wedge g_1)$. We have that |w| = 9, and since $[g_2, g_3][g_4, g_1] = 1$, it follows that $w \in \mathcal{M}(G)$. Further inspection of $G \wedge G$ reveals that $\mathcal{M}(G) = \langle w \rangle$ and $\mathcal{M}_0(G) \cong \langle w^3 \rangle$, therefore $\mathcal{B}_0(G) \cong \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$.

We have managed to find all solvable groups G of order ≤ 729 , apart from the orders 512, 576 and 640, with $B_0(G) \neq 0$. The numbers of such groups are given in Table 1. As for the timings, it takes, for example, about seven seconds to compute $B_0(G)$ for a given group G of order 729. We note here that the algorithm works well even for reasonably larger solvable groups. For example, the free 2-generator Burnside group B(2,4) of exponent 4 has order 2^{12} , and our algorithm returns $B_0(B(2,4)) \cong \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$.

n	# of groups of order n	# of G with $B_0(G) \neq 0$
64	267	9
128	2328	230
192	1543	54
243	67	3
256	56092	5953
320	1640	54
384	20169	1820
448	1396	54
486	261	3
704	1387	54
729	504	85

TABLE 1. Numbers of groups G with $B_0(G) \neq 0$.

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20