

TWISTED GROUP ALGEBRAS AND THEIR REPRESENTATIONS

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Introduction

Let \mathcal{G} be a finite group, \mathcal{F} a field. A *twisted group algebra* $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ on \mathcal{G} over \mathcal{F} is an associative algebra whose elements are the formal linear combinations

$$\sum_{A \in \mathcal{G}} a_A(A) \quad (a_A \in \mathcal{F})$$

and in which the product $(A)(B)$ is a non-zero multiple of (AB) , where AB is the group product of $A, B \in \mathcal{G}$:

$$(A)(B) = f_{A,B}(AB) \quad (f_{A,B} \in \mathcal{F}, f_{A,B} \neq 0).$$

One gets the ordinary group algebra $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G})$ by taking each $f_{A,B} = 1$.

Twisted group algebras play a central part in Schur's theory of the projective representations of finite groups [17], [18]. They also arise naturally in the theory of ordinary representations. Let \mathcal{L} be an irreducible \mathcal{F} -representation of a normal subgroup \mathcal{H} of \mathcal{G} . Miss Tucker [21]¹ has shown that the analysis of the induced representation $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$ of \mathcal{G} depends on a twisted group algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ on a certain subgroup \mathcal{K} of \mathcal{G}/\mathcal{H} . Clifford [5] encountered much the same algebra in the analysis of the restriction to \mathcal{H} of an irreducible representation of \mathcal{G} .

The aim of the present paper is to develop the theory of twisted group algebras by exploiting their analogy with ordinary group algebras. This approach permits a unified treatment of such problems as Miss Tucker's cited above. It will be seen that the theory of ordinary group algebras carries over in considerable detail.

In § 1, a normalization theorem is proved which brings out the multiplicative similarity between ordinary and twisted group algebras. This theorem is fundamental for the subsequent work. In § 2, a two-fold generalization of Miss Tucker's paper is given. Firstly, the ordinary group algebras of \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{H} are replaced by twisted ones. Secondly, the representation \mathcal{L} is

¹ Kleppner [14] has extended the theory to infinite discrete groups.

assumed to be indecomposable rather than irreducible. As in Miss Tucker's theory, the analysis of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$ depends on the decomposition of a certain twisted group algebra into indecomposable left ideals.

A first step towards such a decomposition is to obtain the decomposition into two-sided ideals. This leads to the consideration, in § 3, of the blocks of a twisted group algebra. Here we follow the treatment of Rosenberg [16] rather than the original treatment of Brauer [4]. Finally, in § 4, we develop Higman's theory of relative projectivity [9], [11] and Green's theory of vertices and sources [8] for twisted algebras.

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1. Normalization of twisted group algebras

We take a twisted group algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ as defined in the introduction. For $A \in \mathcal{G}$, we write $\mathcal{C}(A)$ for the centralizer of A in \mathcal{G} . Let \mathcal{F}^* denote the set of non-zero elements of \mathcal{F} . Let p be the characteristic of \mathcal{F} ; we allow $p = 0$. E will be the identity element of \mathcal{G} .

The elements $h(A)$ of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ ($h \in \mathcal{F}^*$, $A \in \mathcal{G}$) form a multiplicative subgroup Γ . The elements $h(E)$ form a multiplicative subgroup K such that $\Gamma/K \cong \mathcal{G}$, and the (A) are coset representatives for K in Γ .

An element $A \in \mathcal{G}$ is called a μ -element if

$$(B)^{-1}(A)(B) = (A),$$

for all $B \in \mathcal{C}(A)$. Thus the centralizer of (A) in Γ consists of all multiples $h(B)$, where $h \in \mathcal{F}^*$, $B \in \mathcal{C}(A)$. All conjugates of A are also μ -elements.

The condition of associativity of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ is equivalent to

$$f_{A,B} f_{AB,C} = f_{A,BC} f_{B,C},$$

for all $A, B, C \in \mathcal{G}$. Thus the set $\{f_{A,B}\}$ forms a factor system² for \mathcal{G} . If we take a new basis of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$

$$(1) \quad (\bar{A}) = d_A(A),$$

where $d_A \in \mathcal{F}^*$, $A \in \mathcal{G}$, then the $f_{A,B}$ are modified to

$$\bar{f}_{A,B} = \frac{d_A d_B}{d_{AB}} f_{A,B}.$$

² The factor systems $\{f_{A,B}\}$, modulo the principal factor systems $\{d_A\}$ form an abelian group, which Schur [17] has called the "Multiplikator". Further discussion of the group is found in [2] and [3].

Transformations given by (1) correspond to taking a different choice of coset representatives in Γ/K .

THEOREM. *Let n be the order of \mathcal{G} . Let \mathcal{D} be the largest normal p -subgroup of \mathcal{G} if $p \neq 0$, $\mathcal{D} = \{E\}$ if $p = 0$. After making a finite number of primary radical extensions to the field \mathcal{F} , if necessary, it is possible to choose the coset representatives (A) such that:*

$$(a) \quad \left. \begin{aligned} f_{A,B}^n &= 1 \text{ (} n \text{ odd)} \\ f_{A,B}^{2n} &= 1 \text{ (} n \text{ even)} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (\text{for all } A, B \in \mathcal{G}),$$

(b) *the representatives $(A), (B), \dots, (A, B, \dots) \in \mathcal{D}$ form a normal subgroup of Γ ,*

$$(c) \quad (A)^{-1} = (A^{-1}) \quad (\text{all } A \in \mathcal{G}),$$

(d) $(X)^{-1}(A)(X) = (X^{-1}AX)$ *whenever A is a u -element, $X \in \mathcal{G}$.*

PROOF. (i) Since

$$f_{A,B} f_{AB,C} = f_{B,C} f_{A,BC},$$

we have

$$f_{A,B}^d = h_A h_B / h_{AB} \quad (\text{for } A, B \in \mathcal{D}),$$

where $d = \text{order of } \mathcal{D}$, $h_A = \prod_{C \in \mathcal{D}} f_{A,C}$. Replacing (A) by $h_A^{-1/d}(A)$, we have

$$f_{A,B}^d = 1 \quad (\text{for } A, B \in \mathcal{D}).$$

Since d is a power of p , $f_{A,B} = 1$, all $A, B \in \mathcal{D}$. If $X \in \mathcal{G}$, $A \in \mathcal{D}$,

$$(X)^{-1}(A)(X) = l(X^{-1}AX),$$

where $l \in \mathcal{F}^*$, and so

$$(X)^{-1}(A)^d(X) = l^d(X^{-1}AX)^d.$$

Thus

$$l^d = 1.$$

Hence

$$l = 1, \text{ and (b) holds.}$$

(ii) Similarly,

$$f_{A,B}^n = k_A k_B / k_{AB} \quad (\text{all } A, B \in \mathcal{G}),$$

where $k_A = \prod_{C \in \mathcal{G}} f_{A,C}$. For each $A \in \mathcal{G}$, choose a definite value for $k_A^{-1/n}$. Replacing (A) by $k_A^{-1/n}(A)$, we may assume $f_{A,B}^n = 1$ for all $A, B \in \mathcal{G}$. (For $A, B \in \mathcal{D}$,

$$1 = f_{A,B}^n = k_A k_B / k_{AB},$$

whence $k_A = 1$; choose $1^{-1/n}$ in \mathcal{F} as 1; then (b) still holds.)

(iii) Let $\mathcal{X} = \{A_1, \dots, A_r\}$ be any conjugacy class of u -elements not in \mathcal{D} .

The u -condition tells us that (A_1) has r conjugates in Γ . Choosing (A_1) arbitrarily and taking $(A_2), \dots, (A_r)$ as its other conjugates in Γ we have condition (d) holding, and we still have $f_{A,B}^n = 1$.

(iv) Consider the elements in \mathcal{G} not in \mathcal{D} . For such an element, $(A)(A^{-1}) = l(E) (l \in \mathcal{F}^*)$. For one, say A , out of each pair A, A^{-1} of non-involutory, non- u elements, leave (A) as before and replace (A^{-1}) by $(A)^{-1} = l^{-1}(A^{-1})$. For each non- u involution A , replace (A) by $l^{-\frac{1}{2}}(A)$. As $l^n = 1, (l^{-\frac{1}{2}})^n = 1, n$ odd, $(l^{-\frac{1}{2}})^{2n} = 1, n$ even.

Now consider the u -class

$$\mathcal{X} = \{A_1, \dots, A_r\}.$$

We still have the choice of (A_1) at our disposal. If $\mathcal{X} \neq \mathcal{X}^{-1} = \{A_1^{-1}, \dots, A_r^{-1}\}$, we choose $(A_1), (A_1^{-1})$ as above in the case $A \neq A^{-1}$. If $(X)^{-1}(A_1)(X) = (A_i)$, then $(X)^{-1}(A_1)^{-1}(X) = (A_i)^{-1} = (A_i^{-1})$, by choice of $(A_i), (A_i^{-1})$.

Finally, let \mathcal{X} be self-inverse. Thus

$$A_1^{-1} = T^{-1}A_1T,$$

and

$$(*) \quad (A_1^{-1}) = (T)^{-1}(A_1)(T).$$

Replacing (A_1) by $l^{-\frac{1}{2}}(A_1)$, and so all (A_i) by $l^{-\frac{1}{2}}(A_i)$, we still have (*) and also $(A_i^{-1}) = (A_i)^{-1}$.

Remarks. 1. (E) is now the identity element of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$. Further $(A)(A^{-1}) = (A^{-1})(A) = (E)$. If we write $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D})$ to denote the natural restriction of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ to the subspace spanned by the elements $(D) (D \in \mathcal{D})$, then $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D})$ is precisely the group algebra $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{D})$.

2. If $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ satisfies (c) [(c), (d)] [[(b), (c), (d)]] then we shall call $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ normalized [u -normalized] [p - u -normalized]].

3. If A is a u -element, and if t is prime to the order of A , then A^t is a u -element. In particular A^{-1} is a u -element.

If $p \neq 0$, and if A has order a power of p , then A is a u -element.

Even if A is non- u , (c) ensures that

$$(X)^{-1}(Y)^{-1}(A)(Y)(X) = (X^{-1}Y^{-1})(A)(YX),$$

for all $X, Y \in \mathcal{G}$.

4. If $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ is u -normalized and $\mathcal{X}_1, \dots, \mathcal{X}_t$ are the u -classes, then the u -class sums $K_\alpha = \sum_{G \in \mathcal{X}_\alpha} G$ form a basis for the centre $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{G})$ of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$, which has dimension t .³

5. A twisted group algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ is actually an (two-sided) ideal direct summand of a group algebra⁴: suppose $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ has been normalized as in

³ c. f. Satz 1, p. 83 of [20]. Tazawa's formulation is not so explicit and is confined to the non-modular case.

⁴ I am indebted to the referee for this remark and its proof.

(ii) above so that all $f_{A,B}$ satisfy $f_{A,B}^n = 1$. If \mathcal{F} has characteristic p , and $n = mp^\alpha$, $(m, p) = 1$, then in fact $f_{A,B}^m = 1$. Thus the $f_{A,B}$ all belong to the multiplicative group W_m of m -th roots of unity. Let $f \rightarrow f^*$ be an isomorphism onto some other cyclic group \mathcal{C}_m of order m , generated by μ^* , and define a central extension \mathcal{G}^* of \mathcal{G} by \mathcal{C}_m in which \mathcal{G}^* is generated by elements $S_A (A \in \mathcal{G})$ and \mathcal{C}_m , with $S_A S_B = f_{A,B}^* S_{AB}$. Then $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{C}_m)$, considered as embedded in $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G}^*)$, is in the centre of $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G}^*)$; let

$$S_E = E_1 + \dots + E_m,$$

where

$$E_i = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{\alpha=0}^{m-1} \mu^{\alpha i} (\mu^*)^\alpha,$$

be a decomposition of the identity S_E of $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G}^*)$ into primitive idempotents of $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{C}_m)$. It is readily verified that $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}) \cong E_1 \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G}^*)$.

As $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G}^*)$ is symmetric ⁵, it follows that $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ is symmetric. (This can also be seen directly without using $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G}^*)$.)

6. If $p = 0$, or $p \nmid n$ (non-modular case) (thus $p \nmid |\mathcal{G}^*|$), $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G}^*)$ is semi-simple, and so $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ is semi-simple ⁶. In this case there are t different irreducible representations of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$, where $t =$ number of u -conjugacy classes.

In the modular case, the number of irreducibles is equal to the number of p -regular u -conjugacy classes of \mathcal{G} ⁷. (An element $A \in \mathcal{G}$ is p -regular if its order is prime to p .) This can be proved using Brauer's Theorem 3A, p. 410 of [4].

7. From remark 1, any twisted group algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{D})$ on a p -group \mathcal{D} over a field \mathcal{F} of characteristic $p \neq 0$ is the group algebra $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{D})$. This is a local algebra whose radical is spanned by the elements $(P) - (E)$, $P \in \mathcal{D}$, E identity of \mathcal{D} . The regular representation of $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{D})$ is indecomposable.

8. This last result can be extended a little further. *Let \mathcal{G} be a cyclic extension of a normal p -subgroup \mathcal{D} , where $p \neq 0$. Then $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ is the group algebra on \mathcal{G} .*

PROOF. Clearly it can be assumed that $|\mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D}| = m$, prime to p . Take $G \in \mathcal{G}$ such that the coset $G\mathcal{D}$ generates \mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D} . Write

$$\begin{aligned} G^m &= K \in \mathcal{D}, \\ (G)^m &= d(K), \end{aligned} \quad (d \in \mathcal{F}^*).$$

Any element of \mathcal{G} can be written uniquely in the form $G^k D$, where $0 \leq k < m$, $D \in \mathcal{D}$.

⁵ See definition of symmetric on p. 440 of [6].

⁶ This can also be seen by a direct calculation of the discriminant of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$, e. g. see p. 80 of [20].

⁷ See also p. 207 of [2].

By the theorem, $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ can be supposed to be p - u -normalized. If now we replace $(G^k D)$ by $d^{-k/m}(G)^k(D)$ this ensures that $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ is the group algebra $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G})$.

9. If a twisted group algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ has one representation of degree 1, then it is the group algebra $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G})$.

2. Induced representations

Let $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ be a normalized twisted group algebra and let $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ be the natural restriction of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ to a subgroup \mathcal{H} of \mathcal{G} . Let \mathcal{L} be a left $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module. (Throughout this apper all modules will be taken as having finite dimension considered as vector spaces over the base field \mathcal{F} .) We define $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$ to be the left $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module given by

$$\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}} = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}) \otimes_{\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})} \mathcal{L},$$

where \otimes is defined as in [6]. If \mathcal{M} is an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module, then we shall write $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{H}}$ for the $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module obained from \mathcal{M} by simple restriction of the module multiplication to the ring $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$.

Let \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N} be $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -modules. Then we write $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N})$ for the set of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -homomorphisms of \mathcal{M} into \mathcal{N} , $E_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{M}) = \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M})$ for the ring of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -endomorphisms of \mathcal{M} , and $R_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{M})$ for the radical of $E_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{M})$. Throughout this section homomorphisms will be written on the right. We quote the following simple lemma.

LEMMA. *If \mathcal{L} is an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module and \mathcal{M} an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module, then $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{H}}) \cong \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}, \mathcal{M})$. This correspondence $\eta \rightarrow \eta^{\mathcal{G}}$ is given by defining for $\eta \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{H}})$, $\eta^{\mathcal{G}} \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}, \mathcal{M})$ by*

$$(A \otimes L)\eta^{\mathcal{G}} = A(L\eta) \quad (A \in \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}), L \in \mathcal{L}).$$

Henceforth we take \mathcal{H} to be a normal subgroup of \mathcal{G} , and \mathcal{L} to be an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module. The main theorem of this section concerns the structure of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$ and this analysis is to be made through its ring of endomorphisms $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$.

Given an element $G \in \mathcal{G}$, we can consider the $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -submodules of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$ of the form

$$(G) \otimes_{\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})} \mathcal{L},$$

where $(H)((G) \otimes L) = (G) \otimes (G)^{-1}(H)(G)L$ for $H \in \mathcal{H}$, $L \in \mathcal{L}$. $(G) \otimes \mathcal{L}$ may or may not be $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -isomorphic to \mathcal{L} . The stabilizer \mathcal{S} of \mathcal{L} is the set of elements $S \in \mathcal{G}$ such that $(S) \otimes \mathcal{L} \cong \mathcal{L}$. Then \mathcal{S} is a subgroup of \mathcal{G} containing \mathcal{H} .

Take a set $\{X_{\alpha}\}$ of elements of \mathcal{G} such that $X_1\mathcal{H}, \dots, X_s\mathcal{H}(X_1\mathcal{H}, \dots,$

$X_\alpha \mathcal{H}$) are the different cosets of \mathcal{H} in \mathcal{S} (of \mathcal{H} in \mathcal{G}) with $X_1 = E$. Then we may write

$$(1) \quad \mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}} = \sum_1^{\mathcal{G}} (X_\alpha) \otimes \mathcal{L} = \sum_1^{\mathcal{G}} \mathcal{L}_\alpha,$$

$$(1') \quad \mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{F}} = \sum_1^{\mathcal{F}} \mathcal{L}_\alpha,$$

the \sum meaning vector space sum over \mathcal{F} . We identify \mathcal{L}_1 and \mathcal{L} . If we restrict to \mathcal{H} , (1) and (1') then become $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -direct decompositions of $(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})_{\mathcal{H}}$ and $(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{F}})_{\mathcal{H}}$ respectively.

Let

$$\omega_\alpha : \mathcal{L}_\alpha \rightarrow (\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})_{\mathcal{H}}, \quad \chi_\alpha : (\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})_{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_\alpha$$

be the inclusion and projection $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -homomorphisms according to (1). (We use the same symbols for the decomposition in (1') and regard $(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{F}})_{\mathcal{H}} \subset (\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})_{\mathcal{H}}$ naturally.) Thus the identity ι of $E_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ ⁸ may be written

$$\iota = \sum_1^{\mathcal{G}} \chi_\alpha \omega_\alpha.$$

If $\eta \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$, then

$$\eta = \sum_1^{\mathcal{G}} \eta \chi_\alpha \omega_\alpha = \sum \eta_\alpha \omega_\alpha,$$

where $\eta_\alpha = \eta \chi_\alpha \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}_\alpha)$. Similarly if $\zeta \in E_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$, we write

$$\zeta = \sum_1^{\mathcal{G}} \sum_1^{\mathcal{G}} \chi_\alpha \omega_\alpha \zeta \chi_\beta \omega_\beta = \sum_1^{\mathcal{G}} \sum_1^{\mathcal{G}} \chi_\alpha \zeta_{\alpha\beta} \omega_\beta,$$

where

$$\zeta_{\alpha\beta} = \omega_\alpha \zeta \chi_\beta \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L}_\alpha, \mathcal{L}_\beta).$$

Suppose

$$\begin{aligned} L\eta_\beta &= (X_\beta) \otimes L_\beta && (L \in \mathcal{L}), \\ (X_\alpha)(X_\beta) &= (X_\gamma)H_{\alpha,\beta} \end{aligned}$$

where $X_\alpha X_\beta \in X_\gamma \mathcal{H}$, $H_{\alpha,\beta} \in \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$. Then

$$((X_\alpha) \otimes L)\eta^\mathcal{G} = \sum_\beta (X_\alpha)(X_\beta) \otimes L_\beta.$$

Thus $(\eta^\mathcal{G})_{\alpha\gamma}$ maps $(X_\alpha) \otimes L$ to $(X_\gamma) \otimes H_{\alpha,\beta} L_\beta$, where β is determined by $X_\alpha X_\beta \in X_\gamma \mathcal{H}$.

From this point onwards we shall take \mathcal{L} to be an indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module. Hence $E_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L})$ is a completely-primary ring.

⁸ Here $E_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ means $E_{\mathcal{H}}((\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})_{\mathcal{H}})$. Similarly $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ means $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{L}, (\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})_{\mathcal{H}})$ etc.

LEMMA 1. Let $\eta \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^g)$. Then $\eta^g \in R_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}^g)$ if, and only if, none of η_1, \dots, η_s is an \mathcal{H} -isomorphism.

PROOF. By Jacobson [13], p. 60, $\eta^g \in R_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}^g)$ if, and only if, no $(\eta^g)_{\alpha\beta}$ is an \mathcal{H} -isomorphism. By the above, this is the case if, and only if, no η_β ($\beta = 1, \dots, g$) is an \mathcal{H} -isomorphism. No η_β ($\beta > s$) is an \mathcal{H} -isomorphism because, by the definition of \mathcal{S} , \mathcal{L} is not \mathcal{H} -isomorphic to \mathcal{L} . This gives the lemma.

There is of course the analogous 1–1 correspondence $\eta \leftrightarrow \eta^g$ between the \mathcal{H} -isomorphisms η of \mathcal{L} into \mathcal{L}^g and \mathcal{S} -endomorphisms η^g of \mathcal{L}^g , where η^g is defined by

$$(A \otimes L)\eta^g = A(L\eta) \quad (A \in \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}), L \in \mathcal{L}).$$

COROLLARY. Let $\eta \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^g)$. Then $\eta^g \in R_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}^g)$ if, and only if, $\eta^g \in R_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}^g)$. (Here $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^g)$ is considered in the natural way as a subset of $\text{Hom}_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^g)$.)

If $\mu \in E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)$, the equations

$$(A \otimes_{\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})} M)\mu^* = A \otimes_{\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})} (M\mu) \quad (A \in \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}), M \in \mathcal{L}^g)$$

define an element μ^* of $E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)$. Moreover, the mapping $\mu \rightarrow \mu^*$ of $E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)$ into $E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)$ is a ring monomorphism.

LEMMA 2.

$$\begin{aligned} E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)^* + \tilde{R}_g(\mathcal{L}^g) &= E_g(\mathcal{L}^g), \\ E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)^* \cap \tilde{R}_g(\mathcal{L}^g) &= \tilde{R}_g(\mathcal{L}^g)^* \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{R}_g(\mathcal{L}^g) &= E_g(\mathcal{L}^g) \cap R_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}^g), \\ \tilde{R}_g(\mathcal{L}^g)^* &= E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)^* \cap R_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}^g). \end{aligned}$$

PROOF. Let $\mu \in E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)$. Then $\mu = \eta^g$, $\eta \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^g)$. Also $\eta^g = \mu^*$. By lemma 1, corollary, $\mu \in R_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}^g)$ if, and only if, $\mu^* \in R_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}^g)$. This gives the second relation.

Now let $\rho \in E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)$. Then $\rho = \zeta^g$, $\zeta \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^g)$. Write

$$\zeta = \zeta' + \zeta'',$$

where $\zeta' = \sum_{\alpha=1}^s \zeta_\alpha \omega_\alpha$. Since $\zeta' \in \text{Hom}_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^g)$, $\zeta'^g = (\zeta')^* \in E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)^*$. Also, by lemma 1, $\zeta''^g \in R_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L}^g)$. Hence

$$\rho = \zeta^g = \zeta'^g + \zeta''^g \in E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)^* + \tilde{R}_g(\mathcal{L}^g).$$

This proves the first relation.

COROLLARY 1. If $\varepsilon = \sum \varepsilon_\lambda$ is a decomposition of the identity of $E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)$ into indecomposable idempotents in $E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)$, then $\varepsilon^* = \sum \varepsilon_\lambda^*$ is a similar decomposition in $E_g(\mathcal{L}^g)$.

COROLLARY 2. $E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})/\tilde{R}_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}}) \approx E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})/\tilde{R}_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$.

COROLLARY 3. $E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})/R_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}}) \approx E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})/R_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$.

(Notice here that $\tilde{R}_{\mathfrak{g}}, \tilde{R}_{\mathfrak{g}}$ are nilpotent ideals of $E_{\mathfrak{g}}, E_{\mathfrak{g}}$, so that $\tilde{R}_{\mathfrak{g}} \subseteq R_{\mathfrak{g}}, \tilde{R}_{\mathfrak{g}} \subseteq R_{\mathfrak{g}}$).

Now consider $E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$. We remark first that $\eta \rightarrow \eta^{\mathfrak{g}}$ gives a ring monomorphism of $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$ into $E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$. (Here, and in what follows, we regard $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L}) = \text{Hom}_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L})$ and $\text{Hom}_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}_{\alpha})$ ($\alpha \leq s$) as subsets of $\text{Hom}_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$.) We denote the image of $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$ in $E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$ by $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})^{\mathfrak{g}}$.

Write $T_{\alpha} = X_{\alpha}\mathcal{H}$ ($\alpha = 1, \dots, s$) for the elements of $\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H}$. For each T_{α} , choose an \mathcal{H} -isomorphism $\xi_{\alpha} : \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{\alpha}$, and form

$$(2) \quad (T_{\alpha}) = \xi_{\alpha}^{\mathfrak{g}}.$$

Clearly, if $T, T' \in \mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H}$, $(T)(T')(TT')^{-1}$ maps \mathcal{L} onto \mathcal{L} and so belongs to $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})^{\mathfrak{g}}$:

$$(3) \quad (T)(T') = \eta_{T, T'}^{\mathfrak{g}}(TT') \quad (\eta_{T, T'} \in E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})).$$

Similarly, if $\eta \in E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$, $T \in \mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H}$, $(T)^{-1}\eta^{\mathfrak{g}}(T) \in E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})^{\mathfrak{g}}$ and we write

$$(T)^{-1}\eta^{\mathfrak{g}}(T) = (\eta^{(T)})^{\mathfrak{g}}, \quad \eta^{(T)} \in E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L}).$$

Clearly, $\eta \rightarrow \eta^{(T)}$ is an \mathcal{F} -algebra automorphism of $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$; and in fact, if $(T) = \xi^{\mathfrak{g}}$, $\xi^{-1}\eta\xi = \eta^{(T)}$.

Finally, since an arbitrary element ζ of $\text{Hom}_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$ has the form

$$\zeta = \sum_{\alpha=1}^s \zeta_{\alpha}\omega_{\alpha} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^s \eta_{\alpha}\xi_{\alpha}\omega_{\alpha}, \quad \eta_{\alpha} \in E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L}),$$

each element of $E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$ can be uniquely expressed in the form

$$\zeta^{\mathfrak{g}} = \sum_{T \in \mathcal{S}|\mathfrak{x}} \eta_T^{\mathfrak{g}}(T), \quad \eta_T \in E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L}).$$

Thus $E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$ is a kind of twisted group algebra on $\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H}$ over $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$, though the (T) do not commute with the coefficients $\eta^{\mathfrak{g}}$.

By lemma 1, $\zeta^{\mathfrak{g}} \in \tilde{R}_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$ if, and only if, no η_T is an \mathcal{H} -isomorphism, i.e. if, and only if, all $\eta_T \in R_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$. Thus to get $E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})/\tilde{R}_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$, we simply replace all the η 's in all above by their canonical images $\bar{\eta} = \eta + R_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$ in $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})/R_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$. Thus $E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})/\tilde{R}_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$ appears as a generalized twisted group algebra over the division algebra $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})/R_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$. The operations $\eta \rightarrow \eta^{(T)}$ are \mathcal{F} -algebra automorphisms of $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})/R_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$. From now on we assume \mathcal{F} algebraically closed. Thus $E_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})/R_{\mathfrak{x}}(\mathcal{L})$ is the 1-dimensional \mathcal{F} -algebra \mathcal{F} itself, so $\bar{\eta} = \bar{\eta}^{(T)}$ ($= \overline{\eta^{(T)}}$), all T . Here $E_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})/\tilde{R}_{\mathfrak{g}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathfrak{g}})$ becomes a genuine twisted group algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H})$ on $\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H}$ over \mathcal{F} .

The following lemma by Fitting [7] provides the link between a module

and its ring of endomorphisms. We use the term ‘‘component’’ to mean ‘‘indecomposable direct summand’’.

LEMMA 3. Let \mathcal{A} be a finite dimensional algebra (with a 1) over \mathcal{F} and let \mathcal{M} be an \mathcal{A} -module (finite dimensional) with \mathcal{E} as its ring of \mathcal{A} -endomorphisms. Let

$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_{\varepsilon_{11}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{E}_{\varepsilon_{1n_1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{E}_{\varepsilon_{mn_m}}$$

be a decomposition of \mathcal{E} into left ideal components, where $\mathcal{E}_{\varepsilon_{ij}} \approx \mathcal{E}_{\varepsilon_{i'j'}}$ if, and only if, $i = i'$. Let

$$\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}_{11} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{M}_{1n'_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{M}_{m'n'_m}$$

be a decomposition of \mathcal{M} into components, with $\mathcal{M}_{ij} \approx \mathcal{M}_{i'j'}$ if and only if, $i = i'$. Then $m = m'$, $n = n'$, and one possible choice of $\mathcal{M}_{\alpha\beta}$ is given by $\mathcal{M}_{\alpha\beta} = \mathcal{M}_{\varepsilon_{\alpha\beta}}$.

Let

$$(4) \quad \mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}} = \mathcal{M}_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{M}_l$$

be a decomposition of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$ into \mathcal{L} -components. We can further write

$$(5) \quad (\mathcal{M}_\alpha)_\mathbf{x} = \mathcal{M}_{\alpha 1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{M}_{\alpha k_\alpha},$$

where each of the $\mathcal{M}_{\alpha\beta} \approx \mathcal{L}$, by the Krull-Schmidt theorem. Let $\varepsilon = \sum_{\alpha=1}^l \varepsilon_\alpha$ be a decomposition of the identity of $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ according to (4). Then each ε_α can be further decomposed by (5) in the form

$$\varepsilon_\alpha = \sum_{\beta=1}^{k_\alpha} \varepsilon_{\alpha\beta}^{\mathcal{L}}, \quad \varepsilon_{\alpha\beta} \in \text{Hom}_\mathbf{x}(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}),$$

and any element π of $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ has a unique expression in the form

$$\pi = \sum_{\alpha,\beta} \pi_{\alpha\beta}^{\mathcal{L}} \varepsilon_{\alpha\beta}^{\mathcal{L}}, \quad \pi_{\alpha\beta} \in E_\mathbf{x}(\mathcal{L}).$$

Clearly $\sum k_\alpha = s$, and the left ideal $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})_{\varepsilon_\alpha}$, considered as a module over $E_\mathbf{x}(\mathcal{L})$, is the direct sum of k_α copies of $E_\mathbf{x}(\mathcal{L})$. Hence the dimension over \mathcal{F} of the corresponding left ideal in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H}) (= E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})/\hat{R}_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}))$ is precisely k_α . Moreover, as $\hat{R}_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ is nilpotent, the images of the two left ideal components in the quotient ring are isomorphic if, and only if, the corresponding left ideal components of the original ring $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ are isomorphic⁹. Combining these results we have that the decomposition of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$ is entirely reflected by the decomposition of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H})$ into left ideals.

Now $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}} \approx (\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})^{\mathcal{G}} \approx \mathcal{M}_1^{\mathcal{G}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{M}_l^{\mathcal{G}}$. Further, by corollary 3 to lemma 2 each $\mathcal{M}_\alpha^{\mathcal{G}}$ must remain indecomposable. Moreover, as $R_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$

⁹ This was noted in § 1 of Nakayama [15] for the case where the kernel is actually the radical of $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$.

is nilpotent, the multiplicities of the different isomorphism types of left ideal components of $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ are the same as in $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})/R_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$, i.e. as in $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})/R_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ (by lemma 2, corollary 3), i.e. as in $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ (since $R_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ is nilpotent). Hence we have proved the following theorem.

THEOREM. *Let $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ be the restriction of a normalized twisted group algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ over an algebraically closed field \mathcal{F} to a normal subgroup \mathcal{H} of \mathcal{G} , and let \mathcal{L} be an indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module with stabilizer \mathcal{S} in \mathcal{G} . Then the decomposition of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$ is entirely determined by the decomposition of a certain twisted group algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H})$ into left ideals, there being a 1–1 correspondence between left ideal components \mathcal{I}_{α} and components \mathcal{N}_{α} of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$, such that the left ideals are isomorphic if, and only if, the corresponding summands are. Further*

$$\dim_{\mathcal{F}} \mathcal{N}_{\alpha} = \dim_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{I}_{\alpha}) \cdot \dim_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{L}) \cdot (\mathcal{G} : \mathcal{S}).$$

A decomposition of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$ is obtained from one of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H})$ as follows: The decomposition of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H}) \approx E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})/R_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ is raised to one of $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ by the algorithm used in the proof of theorem 9.3c in [1]. A decomposition of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}} = \sum \mathcal{M}_{\alpha}$ is obtained as in lemma 3. Finally we may take $\mathcal{N}_{\alpha} = \mathcal{M}_{\alpha}^{\mathcal{G}}$.

If \mathcal{L} is irreducible, then $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}})$ is the twisted group algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H})$, as $E_{\mathcal{S}}(\mathcal{L}) \approx \mathcal{F}$.

COROLLARY 1. *If \mathcal{L} is not indecomposable, say*

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{L}_h,$$

then

$$\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}} = \mathcal{L}_1^{\mathcal{G}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathcal{L}_h^{\mathcal{G}},$$

as tensor product \otimes is distributive over direct sum \oplus . We apply the theorem to each $\mathcal{L}_a^{\mathcal{G}}$ to obtain the decomposition of $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$.

The problem of inducing up from a subnormal subgroup is equivalent to the decomposition of a series of twisted group algebras. For, if $\mathcal{H} \leq \mathcal{H}_1 \leq \mathcal{G}$, we have $(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{H}_1})^{\mathcal{G}} \cong \mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$.

COROLLARY 2. *If \mathcal{H} is a subnormal subgroup of \mathcal{G} of prime power index p^v in \mathcal{G} , with \mathcal{F} of characteristic $p \neq 0$, then $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}$ is indecomposable if \mathcal{L} is.*

PROOF. Clearly the factor groups are p -groups and so the twisted group algebras involved are on p -groups. Hence by § 1, remark 7, these are indecomposable. (c.f. Theorem 8 of Green [8]).

In decomposing a twisted group algebra $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ into left ideals, we may make use of a composition series of \mathcal{G} and consider $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}) = (\mathcal{F}_{\{E\}})^{\mathcal{G}}$, where $\mathcal{F}_{\{E\}}$ is the trivial representation of the group $\{E\}$. This leaves only

the problem of the decomposition of twisted group algebras on simple groups.

A detailed analysis will now be given of the decomposition of \mathcal{L}^s . Let $H \rightarrow \lambda(H)$ be the linear representation afforded by the module \mathcal{L} . All such linear mappings will be written on the left. In particular an element of $E_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L})$ will be represented by a linear mapping θ written on the left.

Corresponding to each $\alpha = 1, \dots, s$ we have a non-singular linear transformation D_α such that the $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -isomorphism ξ_α of equation (2) is given by

$$(6) \quad \xi_\alpha : L \rightarrow (X_\alpha) \otimes D_\alpha L \quad (L \in \mathcal{L}).$$

If we make a second choice of isomorphisms, say $\xi'_\alpha : \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_\alpha$, and if D'_α are the corresponding linear mappings, then

$$D_\alpha = \theta D'_\alpha,$$

where θ is a linear mapping representing an automorphism in $E_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L})$. We choose $D_1 = I$, the identity map. If $X_\alpha X_\beta = X_\gamma H$, then corresponding to equation (3) we have

$$(7) \quad D_\alpha D_\beta = \frac{f_{X_\alpha, X_\beta}}{f_{X_\gamma, H}} \theta_{\alpha, \beta} D_\gamma \lambda(H),$$

where $\theta_{\alpha, \beta}$ represents an automorphism in $E_{\mathcal{X}}(\mathcal{L})$, and where this equation may be taken as defining $\theta_{\alpha, \beta}$. As $D_1 = I$, it follows that $\theta_{\alpha, 1} = \theta_{1, \alpha} = I$ also.

We now define D_S for $S = X_\alpha H \in \mathcal{S}$:

$$(8) \quad D_S = f_{X_\alpha, H}^{-1} D_\alpha \lambda(H),$$

and so $D_{X_\alpha} = D_\alpha$, $D_E = D_1 = I$. Then from these definitions it follows that if $S \in X_\alpha \mathcal{H}$, $S' \in X_{\alpha'} \mathcal{H}$,

$$(9) \quad D_S D_{S'} = f_{S, S'} \theta_{\alpha, \alpha'} D_{SS'}.$$

Thus the correspondence $S \rightarrow D_S$ gives rise to an extension of \mathcal{L} to $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})$ if, and only if, $\theta_{\alpha, \beta} = 1$, all α, β .

For the case of \mathcal{L} irreducible the analysis of Clifford in the proof of his theorem 3 in [5] (although not starting from the same point of view) can be adopted to get an explicit view of \mathcal{L}^s .

PROPOSITION 1. *Let \mathcal{L} be an irreducible $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module. Then any direct summand \mathcal{M} of \mathcal{L}^s affords a linear representation $S \rightarrow \psi(S)$ of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})$, which is the product of a fixed projective linear representation $S \rightarrow D_S$ of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})$ (independent of \mathcal{M}) together with a certain direct summand $\pi(S\mathcal{H})$ of the linear representation afforded by considering $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H})$ as a left module over itself ("regular representation" of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H})$), i.e.,*

$$(10) \quad \psi(S) = D_S \times \pi(S\mathcal{H}),^{10}$$

Thus \mathcal{M} must decompose just as π does. For $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{L}^\vartheta$, the decomposition of \mathcal{L}^ϑ is related directly to that of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H})$ into left ideals.

Again following Clifford's line of argument, we have:

PROPOSITION 2. *In the situation of proposition 1, if π is an irreducible linear representation of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S}|\mathcal{H})$, then the linear representation of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{S})$ given by (10) is irreducible.*

The analysis in the proof of Clifford's theorem 2 in [5] provides an explicit relation between the decomposition of \mathcal{L}^ϑ and that of \mathcal{L}^ϑ .

Finally we consider certain problems on extensions of \mathcal{L} .

PROPOSITION 3. *Let $\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H}$ be cyclic of order m and suppose that either $p = 0$, or $(m, p) = 1$. Let \mathcal{L} (indecomposable) have stabilizer the whole of \mathcal{G} . Then there exist exactly m extensions of \mathcal{L} to be an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module to within $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -isomorphism.*

PROOF. By the theorem \mathcal{L}^ϑ decomposes just as $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H})$ does. By § 1, remark 8, this must be the group algebra $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H})$ and so decomposes into m non-isomorphic one-dimensional left ideals. Hence \mathcal{L}^ϑ consists of the direct sum of m non-isomorphic extensions of \mathcal{L} .

Furthermore these are the only possible extensions of \mathcal{L} . For, say

$$G \rightarrow D_G,$$

where

$$(11) \quad D_H = \lambda(H) \quad (H \in \mathcal{H}),$$

is the linear representation afforded by any other extension of \mathcal{L} as an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module. $D_\alpha = D_{\mathbf{x}_\alpha}$ is then a possible choice of D 's in (6); it follows that $\theta_{\alpha, \beta} = I$, from (9). If $G_1\mathcal{H}$ ($G_1 \in \mathcal{G}$) generates $\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H}$, then all D_G ($G \in \mathcal{G}$) are determined in terms of D_{G_1} , by equations (7), (8) and (11). A calculation shows that the m extensions of \mathcal{L} contained in \mathcal{L}^ϑ have the linear representations determined by

$$(12) \quad G_1 \rightarrow \omega^i D_{G_1}$$

where ω is a primitive m -th root of unity in \mathcal{F} .

PROPOSITION 4¹¹. *Let $\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H}$ be a cyclic extension of a p -subgroup, where \mathcal{F} has characteristic $p \neq 0$. Let $|\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H}| = mp^\alpha$, $(m, p) = 1$ and let \mathcal{L} be an irreducible $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module, which has stabilizer the whole of \mathcal{G} . Then there exist exactly m extensions of \mathcal{L} to be an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module to within $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -isomorphism.*

¹⁰ Here \times denotes the Kronecker or tensor product.

¹¹ Propositions 3 and 4 are generalizations of lemmas 1 and 2 of Srinivasan [19].

PROOF. As \mathcal{L} is irreducible, \mathcal{F} algebraically closed, $E_{\mathcal{G}}(\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{G}}) = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H})$, and $E_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathcal{L}) \approx \mathcal{F}$. The D_{α} of (6) are then determined to within a factor in \mathcal{F}^* , and the $\theta_{\alpha,\beta}$ are elements of \mathcal{F}^* . A different choice of D_{α} 's gives a basis transformation of type § 1, (1) on $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H})$. By § 1, remark 9, $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H})$ is the group algebra on $\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H}$ and so the $\theta_{\alpha,\beta}$ may be considered equal to 1. Then $G \rightarrow D_G$ is a linear representation of an extension of \mathcal{L} to $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ by (9).

Write \mathcal{P} for the subgroup of \mathcal{G} , such that $\mathcal{P}|\mathcal{H}$ is the Sylow p -group of $\mathcal{G}|\mathcal{H}$. Restricting our attention to $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{P})$ and $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{P}|\mathcal{H})$, we see that if $\theta_{\alpha,\beta} = 1$, then the choice of D_P ($P \in \mathcal{P}$) is uniquely determined, for the only basis transformation of type § 1 (1) on the group algebra of a p -group, keeping the multiplication constants all 1, is the identity transformation. Let \mathcal{M} be this unique extension of \mathcal{L} to $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{P})$.

By proposition 3, \mathcal{M} has exactly m different extensions to $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ to within isomorphism.

3. Blocks and centres of twisted group algebras

The decomposition of a finite dimensional algebra \mathcal{A} into the direct sum of two sided ideals is determined by the corresponding decomposition of the centre \mathcal{Z} . This in turn is determined by the decomposition of the identity element (E) as the sum of primitive central idempotents:

$$(1) \quad (E) = I_1 + \dots + I_s.$$

The term *block* will be used to describe either an I_{λ} or the corresponding two sided ideal of \mathcal{Z} or \mathcal{A} .

Rosenberg's analysis [16] of blocks of group algebras can be adapted to the twisted case by using the normalization theorem of § 1.

If $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ is u -normalized, then a basis for its centre $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{G})$ is provided by the u -class sums K_{α} , as in § 1, remark 4. Then any block can be expressed as:

$$(2) \quad I = \sum t_{\alpha} K_{\alpha}.$$

Let us assume that the field characteristic $p \neq 0$. Consider the centralizers $\mathcal{C}(A)$ in \mathcal{G} of elements A of \mathcal{G} which have non-zero coefficients in (2). The largest among the Sylow p -subgroups of these $\mathcal{C}(A)$ is well defined up to conjugacy in \mathcal{G} and is the *defect group* \mathcal{D} of I . If $|\mathcal{D}| = p^d$, d is called the *defect* of I .

If \mathcal{D} is any subgroup of \mathcal{G} , write $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D})$ for the normalizer of \mathcal{D} in \mathcal{G} and $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{D})$ for the centralizer of \mathcal{D} in \mathcal{G} .

Take \mathcal{D} to be a p -group and write $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D})$. Let $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{H})$ be the centre of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$. Consider a u -class \mathcal{K} of elements of \mathcal{G} with u -class sum K and write

$$\sigma(K) = \text{sum of elements } (A),$$

where $A \in \mathcal{K} \cap \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{D})$, if such elements exist, 0 otherwise. σ can be extended to the whole of $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{G})$ by linearity and is verified to be an \mathcal{F} -algebra homomorphism,

$$\sigma : \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{G}) \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{H}).$$

In the case of group algebras, Brauer's first theorem on blocks may be stated as follows:

σ gives a 1–1 correspondence between the blocks of $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{G})$ with \mathcal{D} as one of their defect groups and the blocks of $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{H})$ of defect d . The latter have \mathcal{D} as their unique defect group.

However, in the twisted case a complication arises as an element $H (\in \mathcal{H})$ may be a u -element in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ but not in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$. To overcome this difficulty we define $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D})$ to be the subspace of $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{H})$ spanned by those u -class sums of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ which have defect group \mathcal{D} and whose elements are u -elements in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$. Then $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D})$ is a subalgebra of $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{H})$. The theorem for blocks in the twisted case can now be stated as follows:

σ gives a 1–1 correspondence between the blocks of $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{G})$ with \mathcal{D} as one of their defect groups and primitive idempotents of $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D})$. Each such idempotent is the sum of primitive idempotents of $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{H})$ with \mathcal{D} as their unique defect group.

Since this last theorem has reduced (to a certain extent) the problem to the case of blocks I with a normal defect group \mathcal{D} (which must then be unique), this special case warrants more attention. As \mathcal{D} is normal in \mathcal{G} , it is certainly contained in the maximal normal p -subgroup $\overline{\mathcal{D}}$ of \mathcal{G} . Let us suppose then that $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ has been p - u -normalized. Then the natural homomorphism $\mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D}$ gives rise to an algebra homomorphism

$$\tau : \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D}),$$

where $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D})$ is a twisted group algebra on \mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D} . $\text{Ker } \tau$ is spanned by the elements $(A)((D) - (E))$, $A \in \mathcal{G}$, $D \in \mathcal{D}$, and is a nilpotent ideal of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$. Further if K is a u -class sum of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$, such that $\mathcal{K} \cap \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{D}) = \emptyset$, then $\tau(K) = 0$, and so K is nilpotent. As $\text{ker } \tau$ is nilpotent, τ provides a 1–1 correspondence between idempotents of $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{G})$ and those of $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D})$; thus the problem of blocks is further reduced to the case of defect $d = 0$.

Finally we have the following theorem for blocks of maximum defect, which we prove in full as the u -property needs careful attention.

THEOREM. *Let \mathcal{G} have order $p^a m$, $(m, p) = 1$. Let $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ be a twisted group algebra over an algebraically closed field \mathcal{F} of characteristic $p \neq 0$. Then the number of blocks of defect a equals the number of p -regular u -classes of defect¹² a .*

¹² The defect group of a conjugacy class is any one of the Sylow p -subgroups of the centralizers in \mathcal{G} of its elements.

PROOF. A block of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ of defect a has the Sylow p -subgroups as its defect groups. Let \mathcal{D} be any such and write $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D})$. Then the above theorem tells us that the number of blocks of defect a is the same as the number of primitive idempotents of $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D})$.

The homomorphism τ ,

$$\tau : \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D}),$$

is defined as above. $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D})$ contains the identity element of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ and so, as $\ker \tau$ is nilpotent, the restriction of τ to $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D})$ gives a 1–1 correspondence between idempotents of $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D})$ and those of $\tau(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D}))$. $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D})$ is semi-simple by § 1, remark 6, and so its centre $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D})$ is the direct sum of copies of \mathcal{F} . As $\tau(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D}))$ is a subalgebra of $\mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D})$, it is also semi-simple and hence the number of blocks of defect a in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ is equal to the dimension of $\tau(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D}))$.

We may assume that $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$, $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ and $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D})$ are (separately) p -*u*-normalized. Write (G) , $[H]$ for the basis elements of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$, $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ respectively, where $G \in \mathcal{G}$, $H \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\{H\}$ for the basis element of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D})$ corresponding to the coset $H\mathcal{D}$ of $\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D}$. Thus $\{H\} = \{HD\}$, for all $D \in \mathcal{D}$.

Let G be a *u*-element of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ such that \mathcal{D} is a Sylow p -subgroup of $\mathcal{C}(G)$. Write $G = PR$, where P, R are powers of G , P has order a power of p , R is p -regular. Then \mathcal{D} is a Sylow p -subgroup of $\mathcal{C}(R)$. Let \mathcal{K} be the *u*-class of \mathcal{G} containing G , and write $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{K} \cap \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{D})$; then \mathcal{L} is a complete¹³ conjugacy class in \mathcal{H} . Thus

$$\sigma(K) = dL,$$

where K, L are the *u*-class sums of \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{L} . (The factor $d (\in \mathcal{F}^*)$ has to be introduced because of the possibly different normalizations of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$, $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$.) Then

$$\tau(\sigma(K)) = d\tau(L) \in \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D}).$$

If $\tau(\sigma(K)) \neq 0$, it will now be proved that R is also a *u*-element in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$.

If

$$\begin{aligned} H \in \mathcal{H}, \text{ write } \overline{\mathcal{C}}(H) &= \text{centralizer of } H \text{ in } \mathcal{H}, \\ &= \mathcal{C}(H) \cap \mathcal{H}. \end{aligned}$$

\mathcal{D} is the Sylow p -subgroup of $\overline{\mathcal{C}}(G)$. Further $P \in \overline{\mathcal{C}}(R)$ and so $P \in \mathcal{D}$. Thus $\{G\} = \{R\}$. As $\tau(\sigma(K)) \neq 0$, and $\tau(\sigma(K)) \in \mathcal{Z}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D})$, $G\mathcal{D} = R\mathcal{D}$ must be a *u*-element in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D})$ (see § 1, remark 4). Take $N \in \overline{\mathcal{C}}(R)$ and write

$$\begin{aligned} [N][R][N^{-1}] &= b[R], \\ \tau(\overline{[R]}) &= c\{R\}, \end{aligned}$$

¹³ This is proved in Rosenberg's paper [16].

where $b, c \in \mathcal{F}^*$. Then

$$\tau([N][R][N^{-1}]) = b\tau([R]) = bc\{R\}.$$

On the other hand this is equal to

$$\begin{aligned}
&\tau([N])\tau([R])\tau([N^{-1}]), \\
&= \{N\}c\{R\}\{N^{-1}\} \quad (\text{as both } \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}), \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D}) \text{ are normalized}), \\
&= c\{R\}. \quad (\text{as } R\mathcal{D} \text{ is a } u\text{-element in } \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}|\mathcal{D})),
\end{aligned}$$

and so $b = 1$, i.e., R is a u -element in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$. Hence we have

$$(3) \quad (N)(R)(N^{-1}) = (R)$$

in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$, for all $N \in \mathcal{C}(R) \cap \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D})$, as both $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}), \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ are normalized.

Let \mathcal{D}' be any other Sylow p -subgroup of $\mathcal{C}(R)$; then there exists $T \in \mathcal{C}(R)$ such that $\mathcal{D}' = T\mathcal{D}T^{-1}$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
T(\mathcal{C}(R) \cap \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D}))T^{-1} &= \mathcal{C}(R) \cap \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D}'), \\
TGT^{-1} &= R(TPT^{-1}).
\end{aligned}$$

Take $TNT^{-1} \in \mathcal{C}(R) \cap \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D}')$, where $N \in \mathcal{C}(R) \cap \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D})$. From (3) we get

$$((T)(N)(T^{-1}))((T)(R)(T^{-1}))((T)(N^{-1})(T^{-1})) = (T)(R)(T^{-1}),$$

i.e.

$$((T)(N)(T^{-1}))(R)((T)(N^{-1})(T^{-1})) = (R).$$

Using § 1, remark 3, we get

$$(TNT^{-1})(R)(TN^{-1}T^{-1}) = (R),$$

and so

$$(4) \quad (M)(R)(M^{-1}) = (R),$$

for all $M \in \mathcal{C}(R) \cap \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D}')$.

Let $\mathcal{D}_1 = \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}_2, \dots, \mathcal{D}_a$ be all the Sylow p -subgroups of $\mathcal{C}(R)$ and let \mathcal{Q} be the group union of the subgroups $\mathcal{C}(R) \cap \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D}_\alpha)$. Then $\mathcal{C}(R) = \mathcal{Q}$, for \mathcal{Q} is normal in $\mathcal{C}(R)$ and \mathcal{Q} contains the normalizer of a Sylow p -subgroup of $\mathcal{C}(R)$. Any element of $\mathcal{C}(R)$ has the form $C = A_1A_2 \cdots A_m$, where $A_\alpha \in$ some $\mathcal{C}(R) \cap \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D}_\rho)$. Thus if $\tau(\sigma(K)) \neq 0$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
(C)(R)(C^{-1}) &= (A_1 \cdots A_m)(R)(A_m^{-1} \cdots A_1^{-1}), \\
&= (A_1) \cdots (A_m)(R)(A_m^{-1}) \cdots (A_1^{-1}) \quad (\text{by } \S 1, \text{ remark 3}), \\
&= (R) \quad (\text{by repeated use of (4)}),
\end{aligned}$$

and so R is a u -element of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$.

Let \mathcal{X}_α ($\alpha = 1, \dots, r$) be the p -regular u -classes of defect a in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ with corresponding u -class sums K_α . The $\mathcal{L}_\alpha = \mathcal{X}_\alpha \cap \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{D})$ consist of single

conjugacy classes in \mathcal{H} , and so the $\sigma(K_\alpha)$ are multiples of the class sums L_α . Write $\mathcal{P} = \bigcup_\alpha \mathcal{L}_\alpha$ (set union). Then the $\{H\}$ ($H \in \mathcal{P}$) are all distinct in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}/\mathcal{D})$. For say $\{H\} = \{H'\}$. Then $H = H'D$, for some $D \in \mathcal{D}$. But each \mathcal{L}_α has defect group \mathcal{D} and so $D \in \mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{C}(H')$. Further, the orders of H, H' are prime to p and so $D = E$, or $H = H'$. Hence the $\tau(L_\alpha)$ are all non-zero and linearly independent. But $\tau(L_\alpha) \in \tau(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D}))$ and so $\dim \tau(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D})) \geq r$. It remains to show that the $\tau(L_\alpha)$ actually span $\tau(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D}))$.

It is clear that the \mathcal{L}_α exhaust all the p -regular conjugacy classes of \mathcal{H} of defect group \mathcal{D} which consist of u -elements in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$. Let then \mathcal{L} be any p -singular class of \mathcal{H} of defect group \mathcal{D} and consisting of u -elements in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$, i.e. L is a p -singular u -class sum in $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D})$. Take $G \in \mathcal{L}$, and write $G = PR$ as before. Then if $\tau(L) \neq 0$, R is a u -element of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ and $\tau(L)$ is equal to a multiple of $\tau(M)$, where M is the class sum of the conjugacy class \mathcal{M} of R in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$. But \mathcal{M} must be one of the classes \mathcal{L}_α and so the $\tau(L_\alpha)$ do in fact span $\tau(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D}))$.

Thus the number of blocks of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ of highest defect = $\dim \tau(\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{D})) = r$, the number of p -regular u -classes of highest defect a .

4. Vertices and sources

The results of Higman [9] [10] and Green [8] can also be carried over to the twisted case. Here the generalization is even more direct than in § 3 and for most of the results we need only insist that the algebras be normalized. As before all modules will be assumed to have finite dimension over \mathcal{F} .

Let \mathcal{H} be a subgroup of \mathcal{G} . An $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module \mathcal{M} is said to be \mathcal{H} -projective if there exists an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module \mathcal{R} such that \mathcal{M} is isomorphic to an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -direct summand of $\mathcal{R}^{\mathcal{G}}$. This definition is equivalent to \mathcal{M} being $(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}), \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}))$ -projective or $(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}), \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H}))$ -injective in the sense of Hochschild [12] or Higman [11].

When \mathcal{F} has characteristic $p = 0$, or $p \nmid |G|$, by § 1, remark 6, $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ is semi-simple. Hence all $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -indecomposables occur in the regular representation. Thus all $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -modules are $\{E\}$ -projective and the theory is trivial. From now on we assume $p \neq 0$.

Higman's criterion¹⁴ for \mathcal{M} to be \mathcal{H} -projective can be written down immediately. Further, taking $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{P}$, a Sylow p -subgroup of \mathcal{G} , we find that every indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module \mathcal{M} is a component of a module induced from some $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{P})$ -module. But by § 1, remark 7, if \mathcal{F} is large enough, $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{P})$ is the group algebra $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{P})$ and so all indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -modules can be obtained by inducing from ordinary group representations of p -groups. $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ has a finite number of different indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -modules if,

¹⁴ c.f. theorem 1, p. 371 of [9].

and only if, \mathcal{P} is cyclic, and as in [10] a rough upper bound for the number of indecomposables is

$$\frac{1}{2}p^a(m(p^a+1)-p^a+1),$$

where $|\mathcal{G}| = mp^a$, $(m, p) = 1$.

If \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Q} are subgroups of \mathcal{G} we shall write $\mathcal{P} \subseteq_{\mathcal{G}} \mathcal{Q}$ if there exists a $T \in \mathcal{G}$ such that $\mathcal{P} \subseteq T\mathcal{Q}T^{-1}$, and $\mathcal{P} =_{\mathcal{G}} \mathcal{Q}$, if $\mathcal{P} = T\mathcal{Q}T^{-1}$. If \mathcal{M} is an indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module, then a subgroup \mathcal{V} of \mathcal{G} is called a *vertex* of \mathcal{M} if

- (a) \mathcal{M} is \mathcal{V} -projective, and
- (b) if \mathcal{M} is \mathcal{H} -projective, then $\mathcal{V} \subseteq_{\mathcal{G}} \mathcal{H}$. \mathcal{V} is then determined up to conjugacy in \mathcal{G} and is a p -subgroup. When $p \nmid |\mathcal{G}|$ (or $p = 0$), all vertices coincide with $\{E\}$.

We may also look at the various $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{V})$ -modules \mathcal{S} such that $\mathcal{S}^{\mathcal{G}}$ contains \mathcal{M} as a component. As the process of inducing (i.e. \otimes) is distributive over direct sum and \mathcal{M} is indecomposable, it is sufficient to consider \mathcal{S} indecomposable. If \mathcal{S}' is a second such indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{V})$ -module, then there exists an element $X \in \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{V})$ such that

$$\mathcal{S}' \approx (X) \otimes_{\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{V})} \mathcal{S},$$

considered as $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{V})$ -modules. Thus \mathcal{S} is called a *source* of \mathcal{M} .

As in the corollary to theorem 6 of [8], the problem of determining the vertex and source of a given indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module \mathcal{M} can be reduced to the same problem for $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{P})$, where \mathcal{P} is a Sylow p -subgroup of \mathcal{G} , i.e. to the same problem for p -group representations. Hence Green's discussion of induced modules in p -groups (§ 4 of [8]) is relevant.

The existence of the vertex and source of a given indecomposable \mathcal{M} can also be inferred from the non-twisted case by means of the group algebra $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{G}^*)$ defined in § 1, remark 5.

The notion of blocks of § 3 can be extended further to embrace indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -modules \mathcal{M} . If (E) is decomposed as in § 3 (1), then

$$\mathcal{M} = (E)\mathcal{M} \approx I_1\mathcal{M} \oplus \cdots \oplus I_s\mathcal{M},$$

this being an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -direct sum decomposition. But \mathcal{M} is indecomposable and so there is one and only one I_i such that $I_i\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}$. We say that \mathcal{M} is in the block I_i .

Let then \mathcal{M} be an indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module of vertex \mathcal{V} , and in the block I of defect group \mathcal{D} . Then $\mathcal{V} \subseteq_{\mathcal{G}} \mathcal{D}$. On the other hand we shall prove the existence of an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module in the block I with vertex \mathcal{D} and so the defect group \mathcal{D} of a block I may be characterised as being the "supremum" of the vertices of indecomposable modules in the block.

The following proposition helps in the construction of the above indecomposable.

PROPOSITION. Let I be a block of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ of defect group \mathcal{D} . Let σ be defined with respect to \mathcal{D} and write

$$\sigma(I) = J_1 + \dots + J_t,$$

where J_α are primitive idempotents (blocks) of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$ ($\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{D})$). Let \mathcal{R} be an indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module belonging to one of the above blocks, J_1 say. Then there is a component \mathcal{M} of $\mathcal{R}^\mathcal{G}$ belonging to the block I such that \mathcal{R} is isomorphic to a component of $\mathcal{M}_\mathcal{X}$.

PROOF. Let $X_\alpha \mathcal{H}$ be the cosets of \mathcal{H} in \mathcal{G} ($X_\alpha \in \mathcal{G}$), with $X_1 = E$. Then

$$(1) \quad (\mathcal{R}^\mathcal{G})_\mathcal{X} \approx (E) \otimes_{\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{X})} \mathcal{R} \oplus \left(\sum_{\alpha > 1} (X_\alpha) \otimes_{\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{X})} \mathcal{R} \right)$$

is an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -direct decomposition. We write $\mathcal{Q} = \sum_{\alpha > 1} (X_\alpha) \otimes \mathcal{R}$ and we identify $(E) \otimes \mathcal{R}$ with \mathcal{R} . Let π denote the $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -projection:

$$\pi : (\mathcal{R}^\mathcal{G})_\mathcal{X} \rightarrow (E) \otimes \mathcal{R} = \mathcal{R}.$$

We write

$$I = \sigma(I) + T_1 + T_2,$$

where T_1 is the sum of terms in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ but not in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{D}))$, and T_2 is the sum of the remaining terms not in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$. For each u -class sum L in T_1 , $\mathcal{L} \cap \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{D}) = \emptyset$ and so $\tau(L) = 0$ (τ is defined in § 3). Hence $\tau(T_1) = 0$, and T_1 is nilpotent.

For $A \in \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$, we write $\rho(A)$ for the linear transformation representing A in the representation afforded by $(E) \otimes \mathcal{R} = \mathcal{R}$. Clearly $\sigma(I)$ acts identically on \mathcal{R} , and so $\rho(\sigma(I) + T_1)$, being the sum of the identity transformation and a nilpotent one, is non-singular. Hence the map

$$R \rightarrow IR = \rho(\sigma(I) + T_1)R \oplus (T_2 \otimes R) \quad (R \in \mathcal{R})$$

is an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -homomorphism, the decomposition on the right hand side being that of (1). On the other hand

$$\pi(IR) = \rho(\sigma(I) + T_1)R$$

and so πI is an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -automorphism of $(E) \otimes \mathcal{R} = \mathcal{R}$. Hence $\mathcal{R} \cong I(\mathcal{R})$ and $I(\mathcal{R})$ is an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -component of $(I(\mathcal{R}^\mathcal{G}))_\mathcal{X}$ ¹⁵. By the Krull-Schmidt theorem there is a component \mathcal{M} of $I(\mathcal{R}^\mathcal{G})$ ($\subseteq \mathcal{R}^\mathcal{G}$) such that $\mathcal{M}_\mathcal{X}$ has a component isomorphic to \mathcal{R} . \mathcal{M} must also be in the block I .

The construction of the required indecomposable in block I of vertex \mathcal{V} is now simple. Suppose first of all that \mathcal{D} is normal in \mathcal{G} . As $\ker \tau$ is nilpotent, $\tau(I)$ must be a non-zero idempotent of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D})$. Write

¹⁵ This follows from the lemma: If U, V are modules and there exist homomorphisms $\alpha : U \rightarrow V, \beta : V \rightarrow U$ such that $\beta\alpha$ (α followed by β) is an automorphism, then $V = \text{Im } \alpha \oplus \ker \beta$.

$$\tau(I) = J_1 + \cdots + J_t$$

as a decomposition into blocks of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D})$. Let \mathcal{R} be any principal component of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D})$ in block J_1 , say. J_1 has defect group $\{E\}$ in \mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D} and \mathcal{R} has vertex $\{E\}$ in \mathcal{G}/\mathcal{D} . By means of the homomorphism τ , \mathcal{R} can be considered as an $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G})$ -module, and as such it will be in the block I and will have vertex \mathcal{D} .

For the case where \mathcal{D} is not necessarily normal we first write

$$\sigma(I) = J'_1 + \cdots + J'_s,$$

where the J'_α are primitive idempotents in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$, each having defect group \mathcal{D} by the main theorem on blocks. By the previous paragraph there is an indecomposable $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{H})$ -module \mathcal{R} in block J'_1 , say, with vertex \mathcal{D} . By the proposition there is a component \mathcal{M} of $\mathcal{R}^\#$ in block I with a component of \mathcal{M}_x isomorphic to \mathcal{R} . As the defect group of I is \mathcal{D} and as \mathcal{M} is in the block I , the vertex \mathcal{V} of \mathcal{M} satisfies

$$\mathcal{V} \underset{\mathcal{G}}{\subseteq} \mathcal{D}.$$

On the other hand as \mathcal{M} is \mathcal{V} -projective each of the components of \mathcal{M}_x has vertex ¹⁶ $\underset{\mathcal{G}}{\subseteq} \mathcal{V}$. In particular the vertex \mathcal{D} of the component isomorphic to \mathcal{R} satisfies

$$\mathcal{D} \underset{\mathcal{G}}{\subseteq} \mathcal{V}.$$

Hence $\mathcal{D} =_{\mathcal{G}} \mathcal{V}$, and so \mathcal{M} is in block I with vertex \mathcal{D} .

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¹⁶ This follows as in theorem 6 of [8]

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