ON THE STRUCTURE OF GROUP ALGEBRAS, I

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1. Introduction. With this paper we begin a study of the structure of the group algebra RG of a finite group G over the ring of algebraic integers R in an algebraic number field k. The basic question is whether non-isomorphic groups can have isomorphic algebras over R. We shall show that this is impossible if G is

- (a) abelian,
- (b) Hamiltonian,
- (c) one of a special class of p-groups.

When R = Z, the ring of rational integers, (a) and (b) have been shown by Higman (4) and Berman (1).

Our basic line of attack is a study of U(RG), the group of units in RG. More precisely, let μ be the identity representation, let

$$V(RG) = \{ u \in U(RG) | \mu(u) = 1 \},\$$

and let H be a finite subgroup of V(RG). We shall show that

(d) $(H:1) \leq (G:1);$

(e) the exponent of H divides the exponent of G;

(f) if (H:1) = (G:1), then the elements of H generate RG;

(g) if G is nilpotent of class c, and K is a finite group such that $RG \cong RK$, then K is nilpotent of class c and the factor groups of the (ascending) descending central series for G and K are isomorphic.

In addition we shall give a complete description of U(RG) when G is an abelian group, obtaining a result of Higman (4, p. 238) as a consequence.

When R = Z, Coleman (3) has obtained part of (g), and Theorems 2.1 and 3.1 below are results of Berman (1). However, all these results were obtained independently.

Finally, we wish to express our gratitude to the referee for several helpful suggestions.

2. If u lies in the centre of RG, then $u = \sum u_{\alpha} C_{\alpha}$, where $u_{\alpha} \in R$ and C_{α} is the sum of the elements in the α th conjugate class of G. Let Γ_{λ} be an absolutely irreducible representation of G, let f_{λ} be its degree, and let χ^{λ} be its character. Then $\Gamma_{\lambda}(u)$ is a diagonal matrix with ω_{λ} on the diagonal; thus we have

(2.1)
$$\sum u_{\alpha} n_{\alpha} \chi_{\alpha}^{\lambda} = f_{\lambda} \omega_{\lambda}, \qquad \lambda = 1, 2, \ldots, h,$$

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where n_{α} is the number of elements in the α th conjugate class, and χ_{α}^{λ} is the character of an element in the α th class.

Viewing the $u_{\alpha} n_{\alpha}$ as unknowns in (2.1), we see that the coefficient matrix is just the character table of G. The orthogonality relations then yield

(2.2)
$$gu_{\alpha} = \sum \bar{\chi}_{\alpha}{}^{\lambda} f_{\lambda} \omega_{\lambda}, \qquad \alpha = 1, 2, \ldots, h$$

Assume that for some α we have $0 < |u_{\alpha}| < 1$. Then u_{α} has a conjugate v_{α} such that $|v_{\alpha}| > 1$. Let k' be a finite normal extension of the field of rational numbers, Q, which contains both k and a splitting field for G. k' has an automorphism σ such that $\sigma(u_{\alpha}) = v_{\alpha}$. Applying σ to (2.2), we obtain

$$gv_{\alpha} = \sum \sigma(\bar{\chi}_{\alpha}{}^{\lambda})f_{\lambda} \sigma(\omega_{\lambda}).$$

It follows that

$$g < \sum f_{\lambda} |\sigma(\bar{\chi}_{\alpha}^{\lambda})\sigma(\omega_{\lambda})|.$$

Now $\bar{\chi}_{\alpha}^{\lambda}$ is a sum of f_{λ} roots of unity, and hence so is $\sigma(\bar{\chi}_{\alpha}^{\lambda})$. This yields

(2.3)
$$g < \sum f_{\lambda^2} |\sigma(\omega_{\lambda})|.$$

Assume now that u is a unit of finite order, and therefore ω_{λ} is a root of unity. Applying this to (2.3) yields $g < \sum f_{\lambda}^2$, which is impossible. A similar argument shows $|u_{\alpha}| > 1$ is also impossible if u is a unit of finite order. Thus assuming that u is a unit of finite order and $u_{\alpha} \neq 0$ we have (from (2.2))

$$g = \left|\sum f_{\lambda} \, \bar{\chi}_{\alpha}^{\lambda} \, \omega_{\lambda} \right| = \sum f_{\lambda} \, \left| \bar{\chi}_{\alpha}^{\lambda} \right|.$$

It follows that $\bar{\chi}_{\alpha}{}^{\lambda} = f_{\lambda} \omega$ where ω is a root of unity. The orthogonality relations now show that $u_{\alpha} \neq 0$ for exactly one α and C_{α} is in the centre of G. Thus we have shown

THEOREM 2.1. If u is a unit of finite order in the centre of RG, then $u = \omega x$ where ω is a root of unity and x is in the centre of G.

Before stating the next result, we introduce the following notation. Let ω_n be a primitive *n*th root of unity, and let R_n be the ring of algebraic integers in $k(\omega_n)$. We define v_n to be $[k(\omega_n) : k]$, and d_n to be the rank of the group of units in R_n .

THEOREM 2.2. Let G be an abelian group of order g, and let U be the group of units in RG. If n|g, let c_n be the number of elements in G of order n and define $a_n = c_n v_n^{-1}$. Then

$$U = G \times H \times Z$$

where H is the (cyclic) group of units of finite order in R and $t = \sum a_n d_n$, the sum being taken over all divisors n of g.

Proof. By (6, Theorem 1) we have

$$kG = \sum_{n \mid g} a_n k(\omega_n),$$

where by $a_n k(\omega_n)$ we mean, of course, the direct sum of a_n copies of $k(\omega_n)$. Let $S = \sum a_n R_n$, which, of course, we view as a subring of $\sum a_n k(\omega_n)$; then the isomorphism identifying kG with the direct sum (6) clearly carries RG into S. Viewing RG and S as Z-modules, we claim they have the same rank. First note that

$$\operatorname{rk}_{Z} R_{n} = [k(\omega_{n}):Q] = [k(\omega_{n}):k][k:Q] = v_{n}[k:Q].$$

Hence

$$\operatorname{rk}_{Z} S = \sum_{n \mid g} a_{n} \operatorname{rk}_{Z} R_{n} = \sum_{n \mid g} a_{n} v_{n}[k : Q] = [k : Q] \sum_{n \mid g} c_{n} = g[k : Q].$$

Clearly, $\operatorname{rk}_{Z} RG = g[k : Q]$, and so $\operatorname{rk}_{Z} RG = \operatorname{rk}_{Z} S$.

LEMMA 2.1. Let A be a ring with 1, and let B be a subring containing 1. Let A'(B') be the group of units of A(B). Finally assume that B contains an ideal C of A. If $\overline{A} = A/C$, then $[A':B'] = [\overline{A}':\overline{B}']$. In particular if \overline{A} is finite, then so is [A':B'].

Proof. Let D be the group of units in A which are congruent to 1 (mod C). Since $C \subset B$, we have $D \subset B'$. The lemma is now obvious because $\overline{A'} = A'/D$ and $\overline{B'} = B'/D$.

We return now to the proof of the theorem. Since S and RG have the same Z-rank, S/RG is a finite Z-module. Hence there exists an integer m such that $mS \subset RG$. We now apply the lemma with S = A, RG = B, and C = mS. It follows that U has finite index in the group of units W of S, and therefore U and W have the same rank.

We must now show that the rank of W is t. But this is obvious since the rank of the group of units in R_n is d_n .

All that remains is to show that $G \times H$ is the torsion subgroup of U. Since this is an immediate consequence of Theorem 2.1, our proof is complete.

We say that a unit of RG is *trivial* if it is of the form αx where $x \in G$ and α is a unit of R. We shall now determine under what conditions (on R and G) RG has only trivial units.

Since every unit of finite order in RG is trivial, we must see when t = d, where d is the rank of the group of units of R. By definition $t = a_1 d_1 + \sum a_n d_n$, where the sum, which we denote by w, is taken over all n such that n|g and $n \ge 2$. Since $a_1 = 1$ and $d_1 = d$, we have t = d + w. Clearly then we wish to know when w = 0.

Now $a_n \ge 1$ if, and only if, G has elements of order n. Thus for w = 0, we must have $d_n = 0$ whenever $a_n \ge 1$. Since $R \subset R_n$, $d \le d_n$; and since $a_n \ge 1$ for some n > 1, it follows that d = 0. Let r = [k : Q]; then we have $r = r_1 + 2r_2$, where $r_1 (2r_2)$ is the number of real (complex) embeddings of k. By the Dirichlet Unit Theorem (5, p. 128), we have $d = r_1 + r_2 - 1$. Thus d = 0 if, and only if, k = Q or $k = Q(\sqrt{D})$, where D is a negative square-free integer. Dirichlet's theorem also shows that $d_n = 0$ if, and only if, n = 2, 3, 4, or 6.

We have thus shown that if w = 0, then

(1) $x \in G$, $x \neq 1$, implies that the order of x is 2, 3, 4, or 6; and

(2) R = Z, or R is the ring of integers in an imaginary quadratic number field.

Assume that k is an imaginary quadratic field distinct from $Q(\omega_3) = Q(\omega_6)$. $Q(\omega_4)$. Let $K = k(\omega_n)$ where n = 3, 4, or 6; then [K : Q] = 4, $r_1 = 0$, and $r_2 = 2$. It follows that if G has an element of order 3, 4, or 6, then w > 0; hence G must be an elementary abelian 2-group.

If $K = Q(\omega_3) = Q(\omega_6)$ and G has an element of order 4, or if $k = Q(\omega_4)$ and G has an element of order 3, we also find that w > 0.

Thus we have shown most of

THEOREM 2.3. If G is a finite abelian group, then every unit of RG is trivial if, and only if, one of the following conditions holds:

(a) R = Z and every non-trivial element of G has order 2, 3, 4, or 6;

(b) $R = Z[\omega_3]$ and every non-trivial element of G has order 2, 3, or 6;

(c) $R = Z[\omega_4]$ and every non-trivial element of G has order 2 or 4;

(d) R is the ring of integers in an imaginary quadratic number field, and G is an elementary abelian 2-group.

Proof. We have already shown that these are the only possible cases. On the other hand in each of these four cases $d_n = 0$ for n > 1, and hence t = d. We note that (a) is a result of Higman (4, p. 238).

It is possible to give an elementary constructive proof of part of Theorem 2.3: If G is a group of order g, and p|g, p > 3, then RG has non-trivial units. It clearly suffices to show this when R = Z, and G is a cyclic group of order p generated by x. Then $(x - 1)^p = p(x - 1)u$, where $u \in ZG$. We shall show that u is a unit.

We have $(x-1)(pu - (x-1)^{p-1}) = 0$, and so $pu - (x-1)^{p-1} = rN$ where $r \in Z$ and $N = \sum x^i$. However, if $u = \sum u_i x^i$, $u_i \in Z$, we see that $u_{p-1} = 0$; hence r = -1. If $v = \sum v_i x^i \in ZG$, we define $\mu(v) = \sum v_i$. Then ker $\mu = I$, the ideal generated by x - 1. From $pu - (x-1)^{p-1} = -N$, it follows that $\mu(u) = -1$. Now let A be any maximal ideal of ZG. Since N(x-1) = 0, either $N \in A$ or $x - 1 \in A$. Thus if $u \in A$, we must have $x - 1 \in A$, and so $I \subset A$. It follows that $ZG/A \cong Z/(q)$ for some prime q. But then $\mu(u) \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, and this is a contradiction. Therefore u is in no maximal ideal and is a unit. Provided p > 3, it is clear that at least two distinct powers of x occur with non-zero coefficients in u, and so u is nontrivial.

3. Let $u = \sum u_x x$ be in RG, and let χ be the trace of the regular representation Γ of G; then $\chi(u) = u_1 g$. If u is a unit of finite order, then

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 $\chi(u) = \omega_1 + \omega_2 + \ldots + \omega_g$ where the ω_i are roots of unity. By an argument analogous to that used to prove Theorem 2.1, we find that $|u_1| = 1$ or 0. If $u_1 \neq 0$, then it follows that $\Gamma(u)$ is similar to diag (ω, \ldots, ω) , and hence $\Gamma(u) = \text{diag}(\omega, \ldots, \omega)$. Thus $u = u_1 1$ and we have shown

THEOREM 3.1. If $u = \sum u_x x$ is a unit of finite order in RG, and if $u_y \neq 0$ for some y in the centre of G, then $u = u_y y$ and u_y is a root of unity.

Again let $u = \sum u_x x$ be a unit of finite order in RG. Let \mathfrak{a} be an ideal of R, and let f be the natural homomorphism of RG onto $R/\mathfrak{a}(G)$. If $f(u) = u \in R/a$, then $u_1 \neq 0$; hence $u = u_1$. This proves

COROLLARY 3.1. If a is an ideal of $R, f : RG \to R/\mathfrak{a}(G)$, and u is a unit of finite order in RG, then f(u) = 1 if and only if u = 1 + a where $a \in \mathfrak{a}$.

We recall the definition of V(RG) given in the Introduction. If $\mu : RG \to R$ is the identity representation, then

$$V(RG) = \{ u \in U(RG) | \mu(u) = 1 \}.$$

COROLLARY 3.2. Let a and f be as above. If H is any finite subgroup of V(RG), then $f(H) \cong H$.

LEMMA 3.1. If H is a finite subgroup of V(RG) and a is any ideal of R distinct from R (a may be (0)), then the elements of H are linearly independent over R/a in R/a(G).

Proof. Let u_1, \ldots, u_n be the distinct elements of H. If $\alpha \in RG$, let $\bar{\alpha}$ be its image in $R/\mathfrak{a}(G)$. Assume that $\sum \bar{c}_i \bar{u}_i = 0$, where the c_i are in R and $\bar{c}_i \neq 0$ for some *i*. For definiteness suppose $\bar{c}_1 \neq 0$. Then

$$\bar{c}_1 = -\sum_{i=2}^n \bar{c}_i \, \bar{u}_i \, \bar{u}_1^{-1}.$$

If we express the elements $\bar{u}_i \bar{u}_1^{-1}$ in terms of the elements of G, it follows that for some $i \neq 1$ the coefficient of the identity in $\bar{u}_i \bar{u}_1^{-1}$ is not zero. A *fortiori*, the coefficient of the identity in $u_i u_1^{-1}$ is not zero. Since $H \subseteq V(RG)$, Theorem 3.1 implies that $u_i u_1^{-1} = 1$, which is a contradiction.

LEMMA 3.2. If H is a finite subgroup of V(RG) and S is the R-submodule of RG generated by H, then RG/S is R-torsion free.

Proof. If RG/S is not torsion free, then there exists $v \in RG$, $v \notin S$, and $a \in R$ such that $av \in S$. If u_1, \ldots, u_n are the elements of H, then $av = \sum c_i u_i$. Letting $\mathfrak{a} = Ra$ in Lemma 3.1, we see that a divides c_i for all i, and so $v \in S$, which is a contradiction.

The following lemma is obvious, and we omit its proof.

LEMMA 3.3. Let H be a finite subgroup of U(RG). If $u \in H$, let $f(u) = \mu(u)^{-1}u$. Then f is a homomorphism of H onto a subgroup \tilde{H} of V(RG) such that ker $f = H \cap R$, hence $H \cong \overline{H}$ if, and only if, $H \cap R = \{1\}$. Furthermore, H and \overline{H} generate the same R-submodule of RG.

THEOREM 3.2. If H is a finite subgroup of U(RG) such that $H \cap R = \{1\}$, then $(H:1) \leq (G:1)$. Furthermore, if (H:1) = (G:1), then the R-submodule generated by the elements of H is all of RG and so $RH \cong RG$.

Proof. By Lemma 3.3. we can assume that $H \subseteq V(RG)$. Then the first statement follows from Lemma 3.1. Assume (H:1) = (G:1), and let S be the R-submodule generated by the elements of H. Since the elements of H are linearly independent over R, kS = kG. It follows that the k-dimension of RG/S is zero; but RG/S is R-torsion free by Lemma 3.2, and therefore RG = S. Finally if K is an abstract group isomorphic to H, the independence of the elements of H over R implies that $RK \cong S = RG$.

COROLLARY 3.3. If G and K are finite groups, then $RG \cong RK$ if, and only if, (G:1) = (K:1) and there is a subgroup of V(RG) which is isomorphic to K.

An immediate consequence of this is

COROLLARY 3.4. If G is abelian, then $RG \cong RK$ if, and only if, $G \cong K$.

Remark. Let G and K be finite groups such that $RG \cong RK$. Corollary 3.3 then asserts the existence of a subgroup H of V(RG) such that $H \cong K$. Let λ be an isomorphism of K onto H; then λ can be extended to an R-linear isomorphism of the algebra RK onto the R-subalgebra of RG generated by H, which we have shown is RG. In this fashion we can identify RK with RGby identifying K with $\lambda K = H$. In the future we shall often assume implicitly that this identification has been made.

Let $N \triangleleft G$, and let ψ be the natural homomorphism of RG onto R(G/N). If H is a periodic subgroup of U(RG), we define

$$\phi_H N = \{ u \in H | \psi(u) = 1 \}.$$

Using Theorem 3.1 we can also characterize $\phi_H N$ as

$$\phi_H N = \left\{ u \in H \middle| \sum_{x \in N} u_x = 1, \text{ where } u = \sum u_x x \right\}.$$

Theorem 3.3. (a) $\phi_H N \triangleleft H$.

Assume that $H \subseteq V(RG)$ and (H:1) = (G:1); then

(b) ϕ_H is an isomorphism of the lattice of normal subgroups of G onto the lattice of normal subgroups of H, and $(N:1) = (\phi_H N:1)$;

(c) the centres of G and H coincide, and ϕ_H restricted to the centre of G is the identity.

Proof. (a) is obvious.

Assume that (H:1) = (G:1); then by Theorem 3.2 we have RG = RH.

Clearly $H/\phi N$ generates R(G/N), and so the orders of $H/\phi N$ and G/N are the same since $H/\phi N \subseteq V(R(G/N))$. This in turn implies that $(N:1) = (\phi N:1)$.

Let N and K be normal subgroups of G. We see immediately that if $N \subseteq K$, then $\phi N \subseteq \phi K$. Now let N and K be arbitrary normal subgroups. Clearly $\phi(N \cap K) \subseteq \phi N \cap \phi K$. On the other hand, if $u \in \phi N \cap \phi K$, then u goes to 1 when we divide out G by either N or K. Hence $u \in \phi(N \cap K)$. This shows that ϕ preserves intersections.

The lattice join of N and K is, of course, NK. Since both ϕN and ϕK are contained in $\phi(NK)$, it follows that $\phi N\phi K \subseteq \phi(NK)$. An easy argument on orders now shows us that $\phi N\phi K = \phi(NK)$. This proves (b).

Since $H \subseteq V(RG)$ and RG = RH, it follows from Theorem 2.1 and Lemma 3.4 that u is in the centre of G(H) if, and only if, u is in the centre of H(G). The rest of (c) is now obvious.

COROLLARY 3.5. If G is a Hamiltonian group, then $RG \cong RH$ if, and only if, $G \cong H$.

Proof. $G = A \times B$ where A is a quaternion group and B is in the centre of G. Identifying H with its image in RG, we have $\phi H = \phi(A) \times B$. Thus $R(G/B) = RA = R(\phi A)$ where A and ϕA are non-abelian groups of order eight. We shall show later that $A \cong \phi A$ (Theorem 4.2). Assuming this result, we see that $G \cong H$.

THEOREM 3.4. Let G be a nilpotent group and let H be a finite subgroup of V(RG). If

$$1 = N_0 \subset N_1 \subset \ldots \subset N_r = G$$

is a central series of G, then

$$1 = K_0 \subseteq K_1 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq K_r = H, \qquad K_i = \phi N_i,$$

is a central series of H. If (H:1) = (G:1), then $K_i \neq K_{i+1}$, i = 0, 1, ..., r-1, and $N_{i+1}/N_i \cong K_{i+1}/K_i$.

Proof. Let $(G:1) = \prod p_i^{a_i}$ and let $a = \sum a_i$. We shall prove the first assertion by induction on a. If a = 1, then the statement is obvious since G is abelian. Since N_1 is in the centre of G and $H \subseteq V(RG)$, we see by Theorem 3.1 that $K_1 \subseteq N_1$. Hence K_1 is certainly contained in the centre of H. If we divide out G by N_1 , passing to $R(G/N_1)$, then H goes to H/K_1 . Applying the induction hypothesis, we see that the groups K_i/K_1 , $i = 1, \ldots, r$, form a central series for H/K_1 . This proves the first assertion.

Assume that G and H have the same order. Since the N_i are distinct, it follows that the K_i are distinct. The last assertion is proved in the same way as the first.

COROLLARY 3.6. If G is nilpotent of class c and H is a finite subgroup of U(RG), then H is nilpotent of class d where $d \leq c$.

Proof. Let f and \overline{H} be as in Lemma 3.3; then \overline{H} is nilpotent by Theorem 3.4. Since the kernel of f is contained in the centre of R, it is certainly contained in the centre of H. It follows immediately that H is nilpotent and has the same class as \overline{H} . Since the class of \overline{H} is at most that of G, our proof is complete.

COROLLARY 3.7. Let G be nilpotent of class c, let $H \subseteq V(RG)$, and assume that (G:1) = (H:1). Then H is nilpotent of class c, and ϕ carries the ascending (descending) central series of G to the ascending (descending) central series of H.

Proof. Since the centres of G and H coincide, we see immediately by induction that H is nilpotent of class c.

Let G_c and H_c be the last non-trivial terms in the descending central series for G and H respectively. Since G/G_c has class c - 1, and since $H/G_c \subseteq V(R(G/G_c))$, it follows that H/G_c has class c - 1 (since G_c is contained in the centre of G, it is a subgroup of H). Thus $G_c \supseteq H_c$. If $H_c \neq G_c$, then G/H_c has class c, while H/H_c has class c - 1, which is impossible by the first part of the corollary. Thus $G_c = H_c$, and proceeding by induction we see that ϕ carries the descending central series of G to the descending central series of H. A similar proof holds for the ascending central series.

This last result clearly implies

COROLLARY 3.8. Let G and K be finite groups such that $RG \cong RK$. If G is nilpotent of class c, then so is K, and if $\{G_i\}$ and $\{K_i\}$ are the ascending (descending) central series of G and K respectively, then $G_i/G_{i-1} \cong K_i/K_{i-1}$ for all i.

When R = Z, Coleman (3, pp. 6-7) has obtained part of Theorem 3.4. and the corollaries following it.

4. Let x_1, \ldots, x_n and y_1, \ldots, y_n be elements of *G*. We define

$$x_1 x_2 \ldots x_n \sim y_1 y_2 \ldots y_n$$

if some power of the cycle (12...n) carries $x_1...x_n$ to $y_1...y_n$, i.e., if one product is a cyclical permutation of the other. Clearly \sim is an equivalence relation; and if two products are \sim -equivalent, then they are conjugate in G. Furthermore, if the subgroup of $\langle (12...n) \rangle$ fixing a product $x_1...x_n$ has order m, then the order of its \sim -class is nm^{-1} and this order is 1 if, and only if, all the x_i are equal.

If $n = p^a$, p a prime, it follows that the order of an \sim -class is either 1 (in which case the element of the class is x^n) or p^b where $0 < b \leq a$. Let $u = \sum u_x x$; then

$$u^n = \sum u_x^n x^n + w,$$

where w is a sum of products of n elements which are formally not nth powers.

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It follows that if we sum the coefficients of w over the elements of one \sim -class, the result is divisible by p. Thus if we write $w = \sum w_y y$ and take the coefficient sum of w over a conjugate class of G, this will also be divisible by p.

Let \mathfrak{p} be a prime ideal of R dividing (p), and let N(c) be the set of elements in G of order p^c . Assume there exists some integer c such that

$$\sum_{x \in N(c)} u_x \not\equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}.$$

Let a be the smallest such integer, and let

$$\alpha_a = \sum_{x \in N(a)} u_x.$$

Then $\alpha_a^r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$ and

$$\alpha_a^{p^b} \equiv \sum_{x \in N(a)} u_x^{p^b} \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}.$$

Now we consider (*). From the previous paragraph we know that β , the coefficient of 1 in w, must be congruent to zero (mod \mathfrak{p}). Defining α_c analogously to α_a , the minimality of a implies $\alpha_c \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$ for c < a. Clearly then $\alpha_c^n \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$ for c < a. On the other hand, $\alpha_a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$. Since the coefficient of 1 in u^n is

$$\alpha = \alpha_a + \beta + \sum_{c < a} \alpha_c,$$

it follows that $\alpha \not\equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$, and so 1 occurs in u^n with a non-zero coefficient. Thus if u is a unit of finite order, we see that $u^n = \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Finally if we require $\mu(u) = 1$, we obtain $u^n = 1$ and the order of u divides p^a . However, if the order of u is p^c , c < a, then setting $n = p^c$ in (*), we easily see that $\alpha_c \not\equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$; this contradicts the minimality of a. Therefore the order of u is exactly p^a . Finally we note that clearly $\alpha_c \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$ for c > a.

On the other hand if $\alpha_c \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all c, it is immediate that u cannot be a unit of p-power order. Thus we have shown

THEOREM 4.1. Let $u = \sum u_x x$ be a unit of finite order in V(RG), let N(a) be the set of all elements in G of order p^a , and let

$$\alpha_a = \sum_{x \in N(a)} u_x.$$

Then u has order p^b if, and only if, $\alpha_b \neq 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$ for some prime ideal \mathfrak{p} dividing (p). Furthermore, if u has order p^b , then $\alpha_a \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$ for all $a \neq b$ and all \mathfrak{p} dividing (p).

COROLLARY 4.1. If p^a is the exponent of a p-Sylow subgroup of G and u is a unit of p-power order in V(RG), then the order of u is at most p^a . In particular, if G is a p-group and $RG \cong RH$, then G and H have the same exponent.

From this we see

COROLLARY 4.2. Let |G| = g. If u is a unit of order n in V(RG), then n|g. If u is any unit of order n in ZG, then g even (odd) implies n|g(n|2g).

LEMMA 4.1. Let G, H, and ϕ be as in Theorem 3.4. If N is a normal cyclic subgroup of G, then $\phi(N)$ is a normal cyclic subgroup of H and $|N| = |\phi(N)|$.

Proof. All we need show is that $\phi(N)$ is cyclic. Since the *p*-Sylow subgroups of *N* are characteristic, they are normal in *G*. Thus $\phi(N)$ is the direct product of its *p*-Sylow subgroups and so we need only show that they are cyclic. We can therefore assume that *N* is a *p*-group and we proceed by induction on |N|. If |N| = p, the result is obvious. Let $|N| = p^n$ and assume the result for any cyclic normal subgroup of smaller order in any finite group. Let *L* be the Frattini subgroup of $\phi(N)$. Since $L \triangleleft H$, there is a subgroup $K \subseteq N, K \triangleleft G$ such that $\phi(K) = L$. If ψ is the lattice isomorphism between G/K and H/L, then $\psi(N/K) = \phi(N)/L$. But N/K is cyclic and so by induction $\phi(N)/L$ is cyclic. However, $\phi(N)/L$ is also an elementary abelian *p*-group and therefore $|\phi(N)/L| = p$. It follows that $\phi(N)$ is cyclic.

THEOREM 4.2. If G is a p-group with a cyclic normal subgroup of index at most p^2 if p is odd or of index 2 if p = 2, then $RG \cong RH$ if and only if $G \cong H$.

Proof. We first treat the case where p is odd. Let N be the cyclic normal subgroup. If (G:N) = p, then $(H:\phi(N)) = p$ and $\phi(N)$ is cyclic. Since there is only one such group of order p^n , our proof is complete.

Now assume that $(G:N) = p^2$. Let $|G| = p^n$. There are in general four such groups. One of these is of the type $K \times C$, where $K, C \triangleleft G, K$ has a cyclic subgroup of index p, and |C| = p. Then $H = \phi(G) = \phi(K) \times \phi(C)$ and so $H \cong G$.

The other three are defined as follows:

(I)
$$x^{p^{n-2}} = y^p = z^p = 1$$
, $xy = yx$, $xz = zx$, $zxz^{-1} = yx^{p^{n-3}}$;
(II) $x^{p^{n-2}} = y^{p^2} = 1$, $yxy^{-1} = x^{1+p^{n-3}}$;
(III) $x^{p^{n-2}} = y^{p^2} = 1$, $yxy^{-1} = x^{1+p^{n-4}}$.

The centre of G is $\langle x \rangle$, $\langle x^p \rangle$, and $\langle x^{p^2} \rangle$ respectively in the three groups. Since the centre of H is the centre of G, this part of the proof is complete.

Now assume that p = 2. There are four groups of order 2^n with a cyclic subgroup of index 2:

(I)
$$x^{2^{n-1}} = 1$$
, $y^2 = x^{2^{n-2}}$, $y^{-1}xy = x^{-1}$;
(II) $x^{2^{n-1}} = y^2 = 1$, $yxy = x^{1+2^{n-2}}$;
(III) $x^{2^{n-1}} = y^2 = 1$, $yxy = x^{-1+2^{n-2}}$;
(IV) $x^{2^{n-1}} = y^2 = 1$, $yxy = x^{-1}$.

Let $RG \cong RH$; then we can identify H with a subgroup of V(RG).

Group (I) is of course the generalized quaternion group and hence has exactly one cyclic subgroup of order two which is a normal subgroup. It follows immediately from Theorem 4.1 that H has the same property. Hence $G \cong H$.

Group (II) is distinguished from the other groups by the size of its centre. Group (IV) has only one cyclic subgroup of order four and it is a normal subgroup. Thus again Theorem 4.1 shows that $G \cong H$.

5. Let G be a p-group. If H is a subgroup of V(RG) and |H| = |G|, then we know that H has the same class and exponent as G. Let $\Omega(\alpha)$ denote the class of all p-groups such that the subset

$$\Omega_{\alpha}(G) = \{ x \in G | x^{p^{\alpha}} = 1 \}$$

is in fact a subgroup; e.g., if G is regular, then $G \in \Omega(\alpha)$ for all α . As before ϕ denotes the lattice isomorphism between G and H.

LEMMA 5.1. If $G \in \Omega(\alpha)$, then $H \in \Omega(\alpha)$ and $\phi(\Omega_{\alpha}(G)) = \Omega_{\alpha}(H)$.

Proof. This follows immediately from Theorems 4.1 and 3.1.

We say that $G \in \Omega$ if $G \in \Omega(\alpha)$ for all α .

PROPOSITION 5.1. If $G \in \Omega$ and $N \triangleleft G$, then N and $\phi(N)$ have the same exponent.

Proof. If α is the smallest integer such that $N \subseteq \Omega_{\alpha}(G)$, then α is also the smallest integer such that $\phi(N) \subseteq \Omega_{\alpha}(H)$. Thus the exponent of both N and $\phi(N)$ is p^{α} .

While we have not been able to show that H is regular if G is regular, we do have

COROLLARY 5.1. If G and H are regular and $RG \cong RH$, then G and H have the same type invariants.

Finally if G and H have order 16, one can show (using Proposition 5.1) that $RG \cong RH$ only if $G \cong H$.

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