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# The Cayley isomorphism property for $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ 

Gábor Somlai \& Mikhail Muzychuk

Abstract For every pair of distinct primes $p, q$, where $q>2$ we prove that $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ is a CI-group with respect to binary relational structures.

## 1. Introduction

Let $H$ be a finite group and $S$ a subset of $G$. The Cayley digraph Cay $(H, S)$ is defined by having the vertex set $H$ and $g$ is adjacent to $h$ if and only if $g h^{-1} \in S$. The set $S$ is called the connection set of the Cayley digraph Cay $(H, S)$. An undirected Cayley digraph will be referred to as a Cayley graph. Recall that a Cayley digraph Cay $(H, S)$ is undirected if and only if $S=S^{-1}$, where $S^{-1}=\left\{s^{-1} \mid s \in S\right\}$. Every right multiplication via elements of $H$ is an automorphism of $\operatorname{Cay}(H, S)$, so the automorphism group of every Cayley graph over $H$ contains a regular subgroup denoted by $\hat{H}$ isomorphic to $H$. Moreover, this property characterises the Cayley graphs of $H$.

By a binary Cayley structure (or a colored Cayley digraph) over $H$ we mean an ordered tuple $\left(\operatorname{Cay}\left(H, S_{1}\right), \ldots, \operatorname{Cay}\left(H, S_{r}\right)\right)$ of Cayley digraphs, where $S_{i} \cap S_{j}=\varnothing$ if $i \neq j$, which we will abbreviate as Cay $\left(H,\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{r}\right)\right)$. An isomorphism between two tuples $\operatorname{Cay}\left(H,\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{r}\right)\right)$ and $\operatorname{Cay}\left(H,\left(T_{1}, \ldots, T_{r}\right)\right)$ is a permutation $f \in \operatorname{Sym}(H)$ satisfying $\operatorname{Cay}\left(H, S_{i}\right)^{f}=\operatorname{Cay}\left(H, T_{i}\right), i=1, \ldots, r$. With this definition, the automorphism group of the binary Cayley structure $\operatorname{Cay}\left(H,\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{r}\right)\right)$ coincides with $\bigcap_{i=1}^{r} \operatorname{Aut}\left(\operatorname{Cay}\left(H, S_{i}\right)\right)$.

It is clear that every automorphism $\mu$ of the group $H$ induces an isomorphism between $\operatorname{Cay}\left(H,\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{r}\right)\right)$ and $\operatorname{Cay}\left(H,\left(S_{1}^{\mu}, \ldots, S_{r}^{\mu}\right)\right)$. Such an isomorphism is called a Cayley isomorphism. A colored Cayley digraph Cay $(G, \mathfrak{S})$, where $\mathfrak{S} \in\left(2^{H}\right)^{r}$ has the CI-property (or is a colored CI-digraph) if, for each $\mathfrak{T} \in \mathcal{P}\left(2^{H}\right)^{r}$ the colored Cayley digraph $\operatorname{Cay}(H, \mathfrak{T})$ is isomorphic to $\operatorname{Cay}(G, \mathfrak{S})$ if and only if they are Cayley isomorphic, i.e. there is an automorphism $\mu$ of $H$ such that $\mathfrak{S}^{\mu}=\mathfrak{T}$. In this case we say that $H$ has the CI-property for binary relational structures, or, it is a $\mathrm{CI}^{(2)}$-group. Note that the notion of $\mathrm{CI}^{(2)}$-groups was defined in a slightly different way in [12] but the two definitions are equivalent. Furthermore, a group $H$ is called a DCI-group if every Cayley digraph of $H$ is a CI-digraph and it is called a CI-group if every undirected Cayley digraph of $H$ is a CI-graph.

[^0]Investigation of the isomorphism problem of Cayley graphs started with Ádám's conjecture [1]. Using our terminology, it was conjectured that every cyclic group is a DCI-group. This conjecture was first disproved by Elspas and Turner [8] for directed Cayley graphs of $\mathbb{Z}_{8}$ and for undirected Cayley graphs of $\mathbb{Z}_{16}$.

Analyzing the spectrum of circulant graphs Elspas and Turner [8], and independently Djoković [5] proved that every cyclic group of order $p$ is a CI-group if $p$ is a prime. Also, a lot of research was devoted to the investigation of circulant graphs. One important result for our investigation is that $\mathbb{Z}_{p q}$ is a DCI-group for every pair of primes $p<q$. This result was first proved by Alspach and Parsons [2] and independently by Pöschel and Klin [13] using the theory of Schur rings, and also by Godsil [11]. Finally, Muzychuk [18, 19] proved that a cyclic group $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is a DCI-group if and only if $n=k$ or $n=2 k$, where $k$ is square-free. Furthermore, $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is a CI-group if and only if $n$ is as above or $n=8,9,18$.

It is easy to see that every subgroup of a (D)CI-group is also a (D)CI-group so it is natural to investigate $p$-groups which are the Sylow $p$-subgroups of a finite group. Babai and Frankl [4] proved that if $H$ is a $p$-group, which is a CI-group, then $H$ can only be an elementary abelian $p$-group, the quaternion group of order 8 or one of a few cyclic groups $\mathbb{Z}_{4}, \mathbb{Z}_{8}, \mathbb{Z}_{9}$ or $\mathbb{Z}_{27}$. The known results about cyclic groups show that $\mathbb{Z}_{27}$ is not a CI-group and $\mathbb{Z}_{9}, \mathbb{Z}_{8}$ are not DCI-groups. Babai and Frankl also asked whether every elementary abelian $p$-group is a (D)CI-group.

The cyclic group of order $p$, which is a CI-group, can also be considered as an elementary abelian $p$-group of rank 1. Currently, the best general result is due to Feng and Kovács [10] who proved that $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{5}$ is a CI-group for every prime $p$. The proof using elementary tools for $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{4}$ is due to Morris [17]. It was shown by Somlai [22] that $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{r}$ is not a DCI-group if $r \geqslant 2 p+3$.

Severe restrictions on the structure of DCI-groups were given by Li and Praeger and then a more precise list of candidates for DCI-groups was given by $\mathrm{Li}, \mathrm{Lu}$ and Pálfy [16]. A new family of CI-groups was found by Kovács and Muzychuk [14], that is, $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ is a DCI-group for every prime $p$ and $q$. One example of DCI-groups connected to the question treated in this paper is $\mathbb{Z}_{2}^{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p}$, see [6]. It was also conjectured in [14], that the direct product of DCI-groups of coprime order is a DCI-group ${ }^{(1)}$. Note that the conjecture is not true for CI-groups as it was shown recently by Dobson [7]. Dobson also proved that the product of relatively prime order elementary abelian DCI-groups is a DCI-group by posing a serious assumption on the prime divisors of the order of the group [6].

In this paper we prove the following result which supports this conjecture.
ThEOREM 1.1. For every pair of primes $p$, $q$, where $q>2$ the group $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ is a DCI-group.

In fact we prove here a more general fact: the above group is a $\mathrm{CI}^{(2)}$-group. Our paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we introduce the basic notation from Schur rings theory that is needed in this paper. In Section 3 we prove general results about Schur rings over abelian groups of special order. Finally, Section 4 contains the proof of Theorem 1.1.

## 2. Schur Rings

This section is devoted to presenting a standard approach for dealing with the CIproblem via Schur rings so the results collected here are not new.

The result below is a direct consequence of Babai's lemma [3].
${ }^{(1)}$ The cited paper deals in fact with DCI-groups while it talks about CI-groups.

Lemma 2.1. A colored Cayley graph $\operatorname{Cay}(H, \mathfrak{S}), \mathfrak{S} \in \mathcal{P}(H)^{r}$ has the CI-property if and only if any $H$-regular subgroup ${ }^{(2)}$ of the full automorphism group $\operatorname{Aut}(\operatorname{Cay}(H, \mathfrak{S}))$ is conjugate to $\hat{H}$ inside $\operatorname{Aut}(\operatorname{Cay}(H, \mathfrak{S}))$.

According to this result, in order to prove the CI-property for binary Cayley structures, it is sufficient to go through the whole set of automorphism groups of all colored Cayley graph over $H$. This could be done using the method of Schur rings. Let $G:=\operatorname{Aut}(\operatorname{Cay}(H, \mathfrak{S})), \mathfrak{S}=\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{r}\right)$ denote the full automorphism group of a colored digraph $\operatorname{Cay}(H, \mathfrak{S})$. Its intersection with $\operatorname{Aut}(H)$ will be denoted as $\operatorname{Aut}_{H}(\operatorname{Cay}(H, \mathfrak{S}))$. Let us order the orbits of $G_{e}$ in an arbitrary way, say $O_{1}, \ldots, O_{t}$. Since $\operatorname{Aut}\left(\operatorname{Cay}\left(H,\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{r}\right)\right)\right)=\operatorname{Aut}\left(\operatorname{Cay}\left(H,\left(O_{1}, \ldots, O_{t}\right)\right)\right)$, we have to analyze only those colored Cayley graphs which correspond to overgroups $G \leqslant \operatorname{Sym}(H)$ of $\hat{H}$. It turns out that these colored Cayley graphs are closely related to Schur rings.
2.1. Schur rings over finite groups. We start with the basic definitions [23]. Given a group $H$, we denote its group algebra over the rationals as $\mathbb{Q}[H]$. If $S \subseteq H$, then by $\underline{S}$ we denote the element $\sum_{s \in S} s \in \mathbb{Q}[H]$. Following [23] we call elements of this type simple quantities.

A subalgebra $\mathfrak{A}$ of the group ring $\mathbb{Q}[H]$ is called a Schur ring, an $S$-ring for short, if it satisfies the following conditions.
(1) There exists a partition $\mathcal{T}=\left\{T_{0}, T_{1}, \ldots, T_{l}\right\}$ of $H$ such that $\mathfrak{A}$ is generated as a vector space by the elements of the following form: $\underline{T}=\sum_{t \in T} t$.
(2) $T_{0}=\{e\}$.
(3) For each $0 \leqslant i \leqslant l$ the subset $T_{i}^{(-1)}:=\left\{t^{-1} \mid t \in T_{i}\right\}^{(3)}$ belongs to $\mathcal{T}$.

The elements of the partition $\mathcal{T}$ are called basic sets of $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\underline{T}_{i}$ 's are called basic quantities. In what follows the notation $\operatorname{Bsets}(\mathfrak{A})$ will stand for $\mathcal{T}$ and any partition satisfying the above conditions will be referred to as a Schur partition. We say that a Schur ring is non-trivial if $H \backslash\{e\}$ is the union of at least two basic sets.

One of the most natural examples of Schur rings are the transitivity modules. Let $\hat{H} \leqslant \operatorname{Sym}(H)$ be the right regular representation of a finite group $H$ and $G \leqslant \operatorname{Sym}(H)$ its overgroup, i.e. $\hat{H} \leqslant G$. Then the orbits of the stabilizer $G_{e}$ are the basic sets of a Schur ring over $H$ [21]. Such a Schur ring will be called the transitivity module of $H$ induced by $G$ and denoted by $V\left(H, G_{e}\right)$. If $G=\hat{H} M$ for some $M \leqslant \operatorname{Aut}(H)$, then the Schur ring $V\left(H, G_{e}\right)$ is called cyclotomic. In this case, the basic sets of $V\left(H, G_{e}\right)$ coincide with the orbits of $M$.

Every Schur partition (equivalently every S-ring) $\mathcal{T}=\left\{T_{0}, \ldots, T_{d}\right\}$ gives rise to an association scheme $\operatorname{Cay}(H, \mathcal{T})$ whose basic graphs are the Cayley graphs $\operatorname{Cay}(H, T), T \in \mathcal{T}$. Two Schur partitions (Schur rings) $\mathfrak{A} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[H], \mathfrak{B} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[F]$ are called (combinatorially) isomorphic if the corresponding association schemes are isomorphic, i.e. there exists a bijection $f: H \rightarrow F$ which maps the basic Cayley graphs Cay $(H, T), T \in \mathcal{T}$ bijectively onto the set $\{\operatorname{Cay}(F, S)\}_{S \in \operatorname{Bsets}(\mathfrak{B})}$. The bijection $f$ is called a combinatorial isomorphism between $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$. The isomorphism $f$ is called normalized if $f\left(e_{H}\right)=e_{F}$. If $f$ is a normalized isomorphism between $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{B}$, then $\operatorname{Bsets}(\mathfrak{A})^{f}=\operatorname{Bsets}(\mathfrak{B})$.

We denote by $\operatorname{Iso}(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$ the set of all combinatorial isomorphisms between $\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B}$ and by $\operatorname{lso}_{e}(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$ its subset consisting of the normalized ones. It is easy to see that $\operatorname{Iso}(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})=\hat{H} \operatorname{lso}_{e}(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})=\operatorname{Iso}_{e}(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B}) \hat{F}$.

Note that Iso $(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$ is empty if and only if $\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B}$ are not combinatorially isomorphic.

[^1]In what follows we write $\operatorname{Iso}(\mathfrak{A}, *)$ for the union of $\operatorname{Iso}(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{B})$, where the second argument runs among all S-rings over the group $H$. As before, $\operatorname{Iso}(\mathfrak{A}, *)=\hat{H} \operatorname{lso}_{e}(\mathfrak{A}, *)=\operatorname{lso}_{e}(\mathfrak{A}, *) \hat{H}$.

Two S-rings $\mathfrak{A} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[H]$ and $\mathfrak{B} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[F]$ are Cayley isomorphic if there exists a group isomorphism $\varphi: \bar{H} \rightarrow F$ such that $\varphi(\mathfrak{A})=\mathfrak{B}$. Note that Cayley isomorphic S-rings are always combinatorially isomorphic but not vice versa.

An S-ring $\mathfrak{A}$ is a $C I$-S-ring if for any S-ring $\mathfrak{A}^{\prime} \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[H]$ and arbitrary $f \in \operatorname{Iso}_{e}\left(\mathfrak{A}, \mathfrak{A}^{\prime}\right)$ there exists $\varphi \in \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ such that $f(S)=\varphi(S)$ for all $S \in \operatorname{Bsets}(\mathfrak{A})$. It follows directly from the definition that an S-ring $\mathfrak{A}$ is a CI-S-ring if and only if Iso $(\mathfrak{A}, *)=$ $\operatorname{Aut}(\mathfrak{A}) \operatorname{Aut}(H)$, or, equivalently, $\operatorname{Iso}_{e}(\mathfrak{A}, *)=\operatorname{Aut}(\mathfrak{A})_{e} \operatorname{Aut}(H)$. Note that the definition of a CI-S-ring given in [12] was based on the first equality.

As an application of Babai's lemma [3] we have the following statement [12].
Proposition 2.2. Let $\Gamma:=\operatorname{Cay}(H, \Sigma)$ be a colored Cayley graph over $H$ and $G:=$ Aut $(\Gamma)$. The following are equivalent
(1) $\Gamma$ has the CI-property;
(2) any $H$-regular subgroup of $G$ is conjugate to $\hat{H}$ in $G$;
(3) the transitivity module $V\left(H, \operatorname{Aut}(\Gamma)_{e}\right)$ is a CI-S-ring.

This implies the following result.
Theorem 2.3. A group $H$ has a CI-property for binary relational structures (CI ${ }^{(2)}$ group, for short) if and only if every transitivity module over $H$ is a CI-S-ring.

Thus one has to check all transitivity modules over the group $H$. To reduce the number of checks we use the following partial order on the set $\operatorname{Sup}(\hat{H})$ consisting of all overgroups of $\hat{H}$.

Given two overgroups $X, Y \in \operatorname{Sup}(\hat{H})$, we write $X \preceq_{\hat{H}} Y$ if any $H$-regular subgroup of $Y$ may be conjugated into $X$ by an element of $Y$, i.e.

$$
\forall_{g \in \operatorname{Sym}(H)}: \hat{H}^{g} \leqslant Y \Rightarrow \exists y \in Y:\left(\hat{H}^{g}\right)^{y} \leqslant X
$$

One can easily check that $\preceq_{\hat{H}}$ is a partial order on the set of all overgroups of $\hat{H}$. Note that any two $H$-regular subgroups of $X \in \operatorname{Sup}(\hat{H})$ are conjugate inside $X$ if and only if $\hat{H} \preceq_{\hat{H}} X$.

The statement below allows us to consider transitivity modules of $\preceq_{\hat{H}}$-minimal groups only.

Proposition 2.4. Let $G_{1} \leqslant G_{2}$ be two overgroups of $\hat{H}$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{i}:=V\left(H,\left(G_{i}\right)_{e}\right)$ their transitivity modules. Then $\mathfrak{A}_{1} \supseteq \mathfrak{A}_{2}$. If $G_{1} \preceq_{\hat{H}}$ Aut $\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}\right)$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$ is CI, then $\mathfrak{A}_{2}$ is also a CI-S-ring.

Proof. First we note that the inclusion $\mathfrak{A}_{1} \supseteq \mathfrak{A}_{2}$ is obvious.
To show the CI-property of $\mathfrak{A}_{2}$ we have to verify that $\operatorname{Iso}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}, *\right) \subseteq \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}\right) \operatorname{Aut}(H)$ (the converse inclusion is obvious). Pick an arbitrary $f \in \operatorname{Iso}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}, *\right)$. Then $\mathfrak{A}_{2}^{f}=\mathfrak{B}$ for some S-ring $\mathfrak{B}$ over $H$. Then $\hat{H} \leqslant \operatorname{Aut}(\mathfrak{B})=\operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}\right)^{f}$ implying $\hat{H}^{f^{-1}} \leqslant \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}\right)$. It follows from the assumption that there exists $g \in \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}\right)$ such that $\left(\hat{H}^{f^{-1}}\right)^{g} \leqslant G_{1}$. Combining this with $G_{1} \leqslant \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)$ we conclude that $\hat{H}^{f^{-1} g} \leqslant \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)$. Since $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$ is a CI-S-ring, there exists $g_{1} \in \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)$ such that $\hat{H}^{g_{1}}=\hat{H}^{f^{-1} g}$. This implies $f^{-1} g g_{1}^{-1} \in \hat{H} \operatorname{Aut}(H)$, or, equivalently, $g_{1} g^{-1} f \in \hat{H} \operatorname{Aut}(H)$. It follows from $\mathfrak{A}_{1} \supseteq \mathfrak{A}_{2}$ that $\operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}\right)$. Therefore $g_{1} g^{-1} \in \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}\right)$, and, consequently, $f \in \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{2}\right) \operatorname{Aut}(H)$, as required.

Sylow's theorem shows that if $H$ is a $p$-group, then any $\preceq_{\hat{H}}$-minimal overgroup of $\hat{H}$ is a $p$-group. In this case we are left to investigate transitivity modules whose basic sets have a $p$-power cardinality. These Schur rings are called $p$-Schur rings.
2.2. Structural properties of Schur rings. As before, $H$ is a finite group and $\mathbb{Q}[H]$ is its group algebra. For an element of the group algebra $U=\sum_{g \in H} a_{g} g$ let $U^{(m)}=\sum_{g \in H} a_{g} g^{m}$. We extend this notation to an arbitrary subset $T$ of $H$ by $T^{(m)}=\left\{t^{m} \mid t \in T\right\}$.

The two lemmas below are taken from [23].
Lemma 2.5. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be an $S$-ring over an abelian group $H$. If $\operatorname{gcd}(m,|H|)=1$, then $T^{(m)} \in \mathfrak{A}$ for every $T \in \mathfrak{A}$.

A similar statement holds if $m$ divides $|H|$.
Lemma 2.6. Let $\underline{T}$ be a simple quantity and $m$ a prime divisor of $|G|$ and let $\underline{T}^{m}=$ $\sum_{h \in H} a_{h} h$. Then for any integer $i$ the simple quantity $\sum_{h \in H \mid a_{h} \equiv i(\bmod m)} h$ belongs to $\mathfrak{A}$.

A subgroup $L \leqslant H$ is called an $\mathfrak{A}$-subgroup if $\underline{L} \in \mathfrak{A}$. We say that $\mathfrak{A}$ is primitive if the only $\mathfrak{A}$-subgroups are $\{e\}$ and $H$. A Schur ring $\mathfrak{A}$ is called imprimitive if $\underline{L} \in \mathfrak{A}$ for some non-trivial and proper subgroup $L \leqslant H$.

If $T$ is an $\mathfrak{A}$-set, then we may define its radical $\operatorname{Rad}(T)=\{g \in T \mid T g=g T=T\}$. It is well known that the radical of an $\mathfrak{A}$-set $T$ is an $\mathfrak{A}$-subgroup [23].

It is a simple observation that a trivial S-ring is always primitive. The converse is not true (e.g. [23, Theorem 25.7]). The result below proved by Wielandt ([23, Theorem 25.4]) provides a sufficient condition for the converse implication.

Theorem 2.7. A primitive $S$-ring over an abelian group $H$ of a composite order is trivial if $H$ has a cyclic Sylow subgroup.

For an $\mathfrak{A}$-subgroup $U$ one can define $\mathfrak{A}_{U}$ as the restriction of $\mathfrak{A}$ to $U$ spanned by the basic sets of $\mathfrak{A}$ contained in $U$. For a pair of $\mathfrak{A}$-subgroups $L \unlhd U$ we define $\mathfrak{A}_{U / L}$ as a subring of $\mathbb{Q}[U / L]$ spanned by $\left\{\underline{X}^{\pi} \mid X \subset U, X \in \operatorname{Bsets}(\mathfrak{A})\right\}$, where $\pi$ denotes the canonical epimorphism from $U$ to $U / L[9]$.

We say that the Schur ring $\mathfrak{A}$ is a generalized wreath product if there exists $\mathfrak{A}$ subgroups $L \leqslant U$ such that $L$ is a normal subgroup in $H$ and every basic set outside of $U$ is the union of $L$-cosets. Such a wreath product is called trivial if $L=\{e\}$ or $U=H$. In the case of $L=U$ we obtain the usual wreath product of Schur rings.

Let $K$ and $L$ be two $\mathfrak{A}$-subgroups. We say that $\mathfrak{A}$ is the star product of $\mathfrak{A}_{K}$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{L}$ (or $\mathcal{A}$ admits a star decomposition) if the following conditions hold:
(1) $K \cap L \unlhd L$
(2) each basic set $T$ of $\mathfrak{A}$ with $T \subseteq(L \backslash K)$ is the union of $K \cap L$-cosets
(3) for each basic set $T \subseteq H \backslash(K \cup L)$ there exists $R, S \in \operatorname{Bsets}(\mathfrak{A})$, where $R \subseteq K$, $S \subseteq L$ such that $T=R S$.
Note that in order to verify (3) it is enough to find $\mathfrak{A}$-sets $R^{\prime}$ and $S^{\prime}$ with $T=R^{\prime} S^{\prime}$.
In this case we write $\mathfrak{A}=\mathfrak{A}_{K} \star \mathfrak{A}_{L}$. A star-decomposition is called trivial if $K=$ $\{e\}$ or $H$. In the case of $L=H$ a star decomposition coincides with the wreath product of $\mathfrak{A}_{K}$ and $\mathfrak{A} / K$.

The theorems below provide us sufficient conditions for these products to have the CI-property. Although the first statement was originally proved for elementary abelian groups only [12], the proof works for a more general class of groups, namely: the abelian groups with elementary abelian Sylow subgroups. In what follows we refer to these groups as $\mathcal{E}$-groups.

Theorem 2.8 ([14, Theorem 3.2]). Let $H$ be an $\mathcal{E}$-group and let $G \leqslant \operatorname{Sym}(H)$ be an overgroup of $\hat{H}$. Assume that the transitivity module $\mathfrak{A}:=V\left(H, G_{e}\right)$ admits a nontrivial star-decomposition $\mathfrak{A}_{K} \star \mathfrak{A}_{L}$. If $\mathfrak{A}_{K}$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{L / K \cap L}$ are CI-S-rings, then $\mathfrak{A}$ is a CI-S-ring.

Note that the above theorem implies that if $\mathfrak{A}$ admits a usual wreath product decomposition, then $\mathfrak{A}$ is a CI-S-ring. In the case of a generalized wreath product we have the following result.
Theorem 2.9 ([15]). Let $H$ be an $\mathcal{E}$-group and let $G \leqslant \operatorname{Sym}(H)$ be an overgroup of $\hat{H}$. Assume that $\mathfrak{A}:=V\left(H, G_{e}\right)$ is a non-trivial generalized wreath product with respect to $\mathfrak{A}$-subgroups $\{e\} \neq L \leqslant U \neq H$. Assume that $\mathfrak{A}_{U}$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{H / L}$ are CI-S-rings and $\operatorname{Aut}_{U / L}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{U / L}\right)=\operatorname{Aut}_{U}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{U}\right)^{U / L} \operatorname{Aut}_{H / L}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{H / L}\right)^{U / L}$. Then $\mathfrak{A}$ is a CI-S-ring.

## 3. Schur Rings over abelian group of non-powerful order

Recall that a number $n$ is call powerful if $p^{2}$ divides $n$ for every prime divisor $p$ of $n$. In this section and in what follows we assume that $H$ is an abelian group of a non-powerful order, i.e. there exists a prime divisor $q$ of $|H|$ such that $|H|=n q$ where $n$ is coprime to $q$. In what follows we call such $q$ a simple prime divisor of $|H|$. We assume that $q>2$.

Let $P$ and $Q$ denote the unique subgroups of $H$ of orders $n$ and $q$, respectively and let $Q^{\#}=Q \backslash\{1\}$. Let $\ell$ be the exponent of $P$. The group $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell q}^{*} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{*} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$ acts on $H$ via raising to the power as $h \mapsto h^{t}$, where $t \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell q}^{*}$. Denote $M_{q}:=\left\{t \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell q}^{*} \mid t \equiv 1\right.$ $(\bmod \ell)\}$. Clearly $M_{q} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$.

Every element $h \in H$ has a unique decomposition into the product $h=h_{q^{\prime}} h_{q}$ where $h_{q^{\prime}} \in P$ and $h_{q} \in Q$. Notice that two elements $h, f \in H$ belong to the same $Q$-coset if and only if $h_{q^{\prime}}=f_{q^{\prime}}$. Let $q^{*} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell q}^{*}$ be an element satisfying $q^{*} q \equiv 1(\bmod \ell)$ and $q^{*} \equiv 1(\bmod q)$. Then $h_{q^{\prime}}=h^{q q^{*}}$.

Given a subset $T \subseteq H$. We write $T_{q^{\prime}}$ for the set $\left\{h_{q^{\prime}} \mid h \in T\right\}$. Notice that $T_{q^{\prime}}$ is always contained in $P$. We always have the decomposition $T=\bigcup_{s \in T_{q^{\prime}}} s R_{s}$ where $R_{s}:=s^{-1} T \cap Q$.

In what follows $\mathfrak{A}$ stands for a non-trivial S-ring over $H$. Let $P_{1}$ be the maximal $\mathfrak{A}$-subgroup contained in $P$ while $Q_{1}$ is the minimal $\mathfrak{A}$-subgroup which contains $Q$.

The statement below describes the structure of $M_{q}$-invariant basic sets.
Proposition 3.1. Let $T$ be a basic set of $\mathfrak{A}$ which is $M_{q}$-invariant. Denote $S:=T_{q^{\prime}}$. There exists a partition ${ }^{(4)} S=S_{1} \cup S_{-1} \cup S_{0}$ such that $T=S_{1} \cup S_{-1} Q^{\#} \cup S_{0} Q$ and $S_{1}, S_{-1}$ are $\mathfrak{A}$-subsets (not necessarily basic). In addition the sets $S_{1}, S_{-1}$ and $S_{0}$ satisfy the following conditions
(1) If $S_{1} \neq \varnothing$, then $S_{-1}=S_{0}=\varnothing$ and $T \subseteq P_{1}$;
(2) If $S_{1}=\varnothing$ and $S_{-1} \neq \varnothing$, then $T=S_{-1}\left(Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}\right)$;
(3) If $S_{1}=S_{-1}=\varnothing$, then $Q_{1} T=T$.

Proof. Write $T=\bigcup_{s \in S} s R_{s}$ where $R_{s}:=s^{-1} T \cap Q$. Since $T$ is $M_{q}$-invariant, the sets $R_{s}$ are $\mathbb{Z}_{q}^{*}$-invariant. Therefore $R_{s} \in\left\{\{1\}, Q^{\#}, Q\right\}$. Now the sets

$$
S_{1}:=\left\{s \mid R_{s}=\{1\}\right\}, S_{-1}:=\left\{s \mid R_{s}=Q^{\#}\right\}, S_{0}:=\left\{s \mid R_{s}=Q\right\}
$$

produce the required partition. Raising the simple quantity $\underline{T}=\underline{S_{1}}+\underline{S_{-1}} \cdot \underline{Q^{\#}}+\underline{S_{0}} \cdot \underline{Q}$ to the $q$-th power modulo $q$ we obtain

$$
\underline{T}^{q} \equiv\left(\underline{S}_{1}\right)^{q}-\left(\underline{S_{-1}}\right)^{q} \equiv\left(\underline{S_{1}^{(q)}}\right)-\left(\underline{S_{-1}^{(q)}}\right) \quad(\bmod q)
$$

[^2]Now Lemma 2.6 applied to $\underline{T}^{q}$ with $m=q$ and $i= \pm 1(-1 \neq 1$, because $q>2)$ implies that $S_{1}^{(q)}, S_{-1}^{(q)}$ are $\mathfrak{A}$-subsets. Applying $q^{*}$ we conclude that $S_{1}$ and $S_{-1}$ are $\mathfrak{A}$-subsets too.

If $S_{1} \neq \varnothing$, then $S_{1}=T$ because $T$ is basic and $S_{1}$ is a nonempty $\mathfrak{A}$-subset contained in $T$. Hence $S_{-1}=S_{0}=\varnothing$.

Assume now that $S_{1}=\varnothing$ and $S_{-1} \neq \varnothing$. Since $Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}=Q_{1} \backslash\left(Q_{1} \cap P_{1}\right)$ is an $\mathfrak{A}$-subset which contains $Q^{\#}$, we conclude that $S_{-1}\left(Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}\right)$ is an $\mathfrak{A}$-subset which intersects $T$ non-trivially (the part $S_{-1} Q^{\#}$ is in common). Therefore $S_{-1}\left(Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}\right) \supseteq T$.

The union $S_{-1} \cup T=\left(S_{-1} \cup S_{0}\right) Q$ is an $\mathfrak{A}$-subset the radical of which contains $Q$. Therefore, by the minimality of $Q_{1}$, we have $Q_{1} \leqslant \operatorname{Rad}\left(S_{-1} \cup T\right)$. This implies $Q_{1} S_{-1} \cup Q_{1} T=S_{-1} \cup T$ so $S_{-1} Q_{1} \subseteq S_{-1} \cup T$. Thus $T \subseteq S_{-1}\left(Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}\right) \subseteq S_{-1} \cup T$. If $S_{-1}\left(Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}\right) \cap S_{-1} \neq \varnothing$, then $s t=s^{\prime}$ for some $s, s^{\prime} \in S_{-1}$ and $t \in Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}$. But in this case we would obtain $t=s^{\prime} s^{-1} \subseteq S_{-1} S_{-1}^{(-1)} \subseteq P_{1}$, a contradiction. Hence $S_{-1}\left(Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}\right) \cap S_{-1}=\varnothing$ implying that $T=S_{-1}\left(Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}\right)$.

If $S_{1}=S_{-1}=\varnothing$. then $T=S_{0} Q$ so $\operatorname{Rad}(T)$ contains $Q$ By the minimality of $Q_{1}$ we have $Q_{1} \leqslant \operatorname{Rad}(T)$ so $Q_{1} T=T$.

Corollary 3.2. $\mathfrak{A}$ is a generalized wreath product with respect to $Q_{1}$ and $P_{1} Q_{1}$.
Proof. There is nothing to prove if $Q_{1} P_{1}=H$. So, in what follows we assume that $Q_{1} P_{1} \neq H$.

We have to show that $Q_{1} T=T$ holds for each $\mathfrak{A}$-basic set $T$ outside of $P_{1} Q_{1}$. Let $T$ be such a basic set, that is, $T \cap P_{1} Q_{1}=\varnothing$.

If $T$ contains a $q^{\prime}$-element, then $T$ is $M_{q}$-invariant, and therefore, $T$ fits one of the cases described in Proposition 3.1. The cases (a) and (b) contradict $T \cap P_{1} Q_{1}=\varnothing$, since in both of them $T \subseteq P_{1} Q_{1}$. Therefore the case 3 of Proposition 3.1 occurs and $T Q_{1}=T$, as required.

It remains to show that every basic $\mathfrak{A}$-set disjoint with $P_{1} Q_{1}$ contains $q^{\prime}$-elements. Assume that there exists one, say $T$, which does not contain a $q^{\prime}$-element. Denote $R:=T_{q^{\prime}}$. Then $T$ can uniquely be written as $T=\cup_{h \in R} h Q_{h}$, where $Q^{\#} \supseteq Q_{h} \neq \varnothing$. Then by Lemma $2.6 T^{(q)}=R^{(q)}$ is an $\mathfrak{A}$-set, implying that $R^{(q)} \subseteq P_{1}$ and $R \subseteq P_{1}$. Again we have $T \subseteq R Q \subseteq P_{1} Q_{1}$, contrary to the choice of $T$.
3.1. The structure of the section $\mathfrak{A}_{P_{1} Q_{1}}$. In what follows we abbreviate $H_{1}:=$ $P_{1} Q_{1}$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{1}:=\mathfrak{A}_{H_{1}}$. We start with the following simple statement.
Proposition 3.3. $P_{1}$ is an $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-maximal subgroup.
Proof. Let $\tilde{P}_{1}$ denote a proper $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-maximal subgroup which contains $P_{1}$. If $q$ divides $\tilde{P}_{1}$, then $Q_{1}$ is contained in $\tilde{P}_{1}$ implying $P_{1} Q_{1} \leqslant \tilde{P}_{1}=H_{1}$, a contradiction. Hence $\tilde{P}_{1}$ is a $p$-group, which is an $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-subgroup. Therefore, $\tilde{P}_{1}=P_{1}$.

Proposition 3.4. If $\left|H_{1} / P_{1}\right| \neq q$, then $\mathfrak{A}_{1} / P_{1}$ has rank two and $\mathfrak{A}_{1}=\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)_{P_{1}} \star\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)_{Q_{1}}$.
Proof. $P_{1}$ is an $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-maximal subgroup, by Proposition 3.3. Thus the quotient S-ring is primitive. The Sylow $q$-subgroup of $H_{1} / P_{1}$ is cyclic. Therefore by Wielandt's Theorem 2.7 either the quotient S-ring has rank two or $H_{1} / P_{1}$ is of prime order. In the latter case, $\left|H_{1} / P_{1}\right|=q$, which contradicts our assumptions.

The quotient S-ring $\mathfrak{A}_{1} / P_{1}$ has rank two iff $T P_{1}=H_{1} \backslash P_{1}$ holds for each basic set $T \in \operatorname{Bsets}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)$ outside of $P_{1}$.

It follows from $\left|H_{1} / P_{1}\right| \neq q$ that $P_{1} \neq\left(H_{1}\right)_{q^{\prime}}$. Pick an arbitrary $T \in \operatorname{Bsets}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)$ with $T \cap P_{1}=\varnothing$. Then $T P_{1}=H_{1} \backslash P_{1} \supseteq\left(H_{1}\right)_{q^{\prime}} \backslash P_{1}$ implying $T \cap\left(H_{1}\right)_{q^{\prime}} \neq \varnothing$. Thus $T$ contains $q^{\prime}$-elements, and, therefore, is $M_{q}$-invariant and Proposition 3.1 is applicable.

The first case of the Proposition is not possible because $T \cap P_{1}=\varnothing$.
In the second case we obtain that $T$ is the product of two $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-sets $S_{-1} \subset P_{1}$ and $Q_{1} \backslash P_{1} \subset Q_{1}$ so $T$ fits the definition of star decomposition.

Finally, if $Q_{1} T=T$, then $T$ is the union of $Q_{1}$-cosets. Since $P_{1} Q_{1}=H_{1}$ we have that $P_{1}$ intersects every $Q_{1}$-coset. Hence $T \cap P_{1} \neq \varnothing$, contradicting the choice of $T$.

Thus, we have proven that any basic set $T$ of $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$ disjoint to $P_{1}$ has the form $S\left(Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}\right)$ where $S \subseteq P_{1}$ is an $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-subset so is a union of $P_{1} \cap Q_{1}$-cosets. This immediately implies that $Q_{1} \backslash P_{1}$ is a basic set of $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{1}=\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)_{P_{1}} \star\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)_{Q_{1}}$.

Note that it follows from the Corollary 3.2 that if $H_{1}=Q_{1}$, then $\mathfrak{A}$ is a wreath product with respect to $P_{1}$.
$P_{1}$ is a maximal $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-subgroup by Proposition 3.3, and the order of $H_{1} / P_{1}$ is divisible by $q$ but not divisible by $q^{2}$. Thus by Theorem 2.7 if $\mathfrak{A}_{1} / P_{1}$ is non-trivial, then $\mathfrak{A}_{1} / P_{1}$ is a non-trivial S-ring over a cyclic group of order $q$. In particular, $\left[H_{1}: P_{1}\right]=q$. Although the structure of S-rings over $C_{q}$ is known [20] we do not need it, because for our purposes we need to settle the case when $\mathfrak{A}_{1} / P_{1}$ coincides with full group algebra.

From now on we denote the cyclic group of order $m$ by $C_{m}$ in order to make the notation more readable.

Proposition 3.5. If $\mathfrak{A}_{1} / P_{1} \cong \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{q}\right]$, then $\mathfrak{A}_{1}=\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)_{P_{1}} \star\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)_{Q_{1}}$.
Proof. It follows from the assumption that cosets $h P_{1}, h \in Q^{\#}$ are $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-subsets. Therefore $h P_{1}$ is partitioned into a disjoint union of basic sets yielding a partition $\Sigma_{h}$ of $P_{1}$ :

$$
S \in \Sigma_{h} \Longleftrightarrow h S \in \operatorname{Bsets}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right) .
$$

Since $M_{q}$ permutes basic sets and acts transitively on $Q^{\#}$, the partitions $\Sigma_{h}$ does not depend on the choice of $h \in Q^{\#}$ by Lemma 2.5. So, in what follows we write just $\Sigma$ without an index.

Pick a basic set $T$ outside of $P_{1}$. Then $T=h S$ for some $h \in Q^{\#}$ and $S \in \Sigma$. Now it follows from $\underline{T}^{q} \equiv \underline{S}^{(q)}(\bmod q)$ that $S^{(q)}$ is an $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-subset contained in $P_{1}$. Applying $q^{*}$ to $S^{(q)}$ we conclude that $S$ is an $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-subset.

Since $\left\langle\underline{T} \mid T \in \operatorname{Bsets}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right) \wedge T \subseteq h P_{1}\right\rangle$ is an $\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)_{P_{1}}$-invariant subspace, the linear span $\underline{\Sigma}:=\langle\underline{S}\rangle_{S \in \Sigma}$ is an ideal of $\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)_{P_{1}}$. Let $S_{e} \in \Sigma$ be a class containing $e$.

We claim that $S_{e}$ is an $\mathfrak{A}_{e}$-subgroup and every class of $\Sigma$ is a union of $S_{e}$-cosets. This will imply our claim.

Pick a basic set $T$ of $\left(\mathfrak{A}_{1}\right)_{P_{1}}$ contained in $S_{e}$. Then $e$ appears in the product $\underline{T}^{(-1)} S_{e}$ with coefficient $|T|$. Therefore $S_{e}$ appears $|T|$ times in this product. This implies $\underline{T}^{(-1)} S_{e}=|T| S_{e}$ and, consequently, $T^{(-1)} S_{e}=S_{e}$. Since this equality holds for any basic set $T$ contained in $S_{e}$, we conclude that $S_{e}^{(-1)} S_{e}=S_{e}$, hereby proving that $S_{e}$ is a subgroup of $P_{1}$.

Pick now an arbitrary $S \in \Sigma$. Then $\underline{S}^{(-1)} \underline{S} \in \underline{\Sigma}$. The identity $e$ appear in the product $|S|$ times. Therefore $\underline{S}_{e}$ appears in the product $\underline{S}^{(-1)} \underline{S}$ with coefficient $|S|$. Therefore $S$ is a union of $S_{e}$-cosets.

It is easy to see that $S_{e} h$ generates an $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$-subgroup, whose order is divisible by $q$ so it contains $Q_{1}$. On the other hand $S_{e} h$ is a basic set intersecting $Q$ non-trivially so it is contained in $Q_{1}$. Thus $S_{e}=Q_{1} \cap P_{1}$, which gives that $\mathfrak{A}_{1}$ admits a star decomposition.

## 4. Proof of the main result

In this section we show that every transitivity module over the group $H \cong C_{p}^{3} \times C_{q}, p \neq$ $q$ are primes, is a CI-S-ring. Since $q$ is a simple prime divisor of $|H|$, the structural
results from the previous section are applicable. We also keep the notation $P_{1}$ and $Q_{1}$ defined in Section 3.

For the rest of the section $\mathfrak{A}=V\left(H, G_{e}\right)$ is a transitivity module of an $\preceq_{\hat{H}}$-minimal subgroup $G$.

In this section we prove the following.
Theorem 4.1. $\mathfrak{A}$ is a CI-S-ring.
Combining this result with Theorem 2.3 we obtain the main result of the paper.
4.1. Proof of Theorem 4.1 in the case of $P_{1} Q_{1} \neq H$. If $P_{1} Q_{1} \neq H$, then by Corollary 3.2 the S-ring $\mathfrak{A}$ is a non-trivial generalized wreath product of $\mathfrak{A}_{P_{1} Q_{1}}$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{H / Q_{1}}$. Therefore, the results of [15] are applicable.

Since $\bar{H}:=H / Q_{1}$ is an elementary abelian $p$-group, we may assume that the basic sets of $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}:=\mathfrak{A} / Q_{1}$ are of $p$-power length. Such a Schur ring is called a $p$-S-ring and so $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$ is a transitivity module of the quotient group $\bar{G}:=G^{H / Q_{1}}$. Since $G$ is $\preceq_{H}$-minimal, the group $\bar{G}$ is a $\preceq_{\bar{H}}$-minimal.

If $\left|P_{1} Q_{1} / Q_{1}\right| \leqslant p$, then $\mathfrak{A}_{P_{1} Q_{1} / Q_{1}}$ is the full group ring and we are done by Proposition 4.1 of [15]. Thus we may assume that $\left|P_{1} Q_{1} / Q_{1}\right|=p^{a}$ with $a \geqslant 2$. Since $q$ divides $\left|P_{1} Q_{1}\right|$ and $P_{1} Q_{1} \neq H$, we conclude that $\left|P_{1}\right|=p^{2},\left|Q_{1}\right|=q$. Thus $\mathfrak{A}_{P_{1} Q_{1} / Q_{1}} \cong \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right] \backslash \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right]$ since if $\mathfrak{A}_{P_{1} Q_{1} / Q_{1}} \cong \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}^{2}\right]$ we may apply Proposition 4.1 of [15] and these are the only $p$-Schur rings over $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{2}$. Further it follows from $\left|Q_{1}\right|=q$ that $\bar{H} \cong C_{p}^{3}$.

The S-ring $\mathfrak{A}_{\bar{H}}$ is a Schurian $p$-S-ring over the group $\bar{H} \cong C_{p}^{3}$. The classification of such S-rings is well-known [12]. They are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathfrak{B}_{1}=\mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}^{3}\right], \\
& \mathfrak{B}_{2}=\mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}^{2}\right] \backslash \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right], \\
& \mathfrak{B}_{3}=\left(\mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right] \imath \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right]\right) \otimes \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right], \\
& \mathfrak{B}_{4}=\mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right] \backslash \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}^{2}\right], \\
& \mathfrak{B}_{5}=\mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right] \backslash \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right] \backslash \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right], \\
& \mathfrak{B}_{6}=V\left(C_{p}^{3},\left(C_{p}^{3} \rtimes\langle\alpha\rangle\right)_{e}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Here $\alpha \in \operatorname{Aut}\left(C_{p}^{3}\right)$ is an automorphism of order $p$ which has $p$ fixed points. We can exclude the S-ring $\mathcal{B}_{6}$, because in this case the group $\bar{G}$ is not $\preceq \overline{\underline{H}}^{-}$-minimal.

It follows from $\mathfrak{A}_{Q_{1} P_{1} / Q_{1}} \cong \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right] \backslash \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right]$ that there exists an $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$-subgroup of order $p^{2}$ on which the induced Schur ring is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right] 乙 \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right]$. This excludes $\overline{\mathfrak{A}} \cong \mathfrak{B}_{1}$ or $\mathfrak{B}_{2}$.

It remains to settle the cases $\overline{\mathfrak{A}} \cong \mathfrak{B}_{i}, i=3,4,5$.
The inclusion Aut $\bar{H}(\overline{\mathfrak{A}})^{\overline{P_{1}}} \leqslant \operatorname{Aut}_{\overline{P_{1}}}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{\overline{P_{1}}}\right)$ is trivial. To prove the inverse inclusion we note that each of the $S$-rings $\mathfrak{B}_{i}, i=3,4,5$ is cyclotomic. In particular this implies that Aut $\bar{H}(\overline{\mathfrak{A}})$ acts transitively on each basic set of $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$. Therefore $\mathrm{Aut}_{\bar{H}}(\overline{\mathfrak{A}})^{F}$ is nontrivial whenever the induced S-ring $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}_{F}$ is non-trivial for any $\overline{\mathfrak{A}}$-subgroup $F$. This implies that Aut $\overline{\bar{H}}(\overline{\mathfrak{A}})^{\overline{P_{1}}}$ is non-trivial. Therefore, $p \leqslant \mid$ Aut $_{\bar{H}}(\overline{\mathfrak{A}})^{\overline{P_{1}}}|\leqslant|$ Aut $_{\overline{P_{1}}}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{\overline{P_{1}}}\right) \mid$.

On the other hand, Aut $\overline{P_{1}}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{\overline{P_{1}}}\right)=\operatorname{Aut}_{C_{p}^{2}}\left(\mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right] \backslash \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{p}\right]\right)$ is contained in a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $\operatorname{Aut}\left(C_{p}^{2}\right) \cong G L_{2}(p)$. Since the latter one has order $p$, we conclude that $\mid$ Aut $_{\overline{P_{1}}}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{\overline{P_{1}}}\right) \mid \leqslant p$ implying Aut $\overline{\bar{H}}(\overline{\mathfrak{A}})^{\overline{P_{1}}}=$ Aut $_{\overline{P_{1}}}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{\overline{P_{1}}}\right)$.

Therefore Aut $\bar{H}(\overline{\mathfrak{A}})^{\overline{P_{1}}}=\operatorname{Aut}_{\overline{P_{1}}}\left(\mathfrak{A}_{\overline{P_{1}}}\right)$ and by Theorem 2.9 of [15] the corresponding S-ring is CI.
4.2. Proof of Theorem 4.1 in the case of $P_{1} Q_{1}=H$. Note, first, that $\left|H / P_{1}\right|$ is divisible by $q$.

If $\left|H / P_{1}\right| \neq q$, then by Proposition 3.4 we have $\mathfrak{A}=\mathfrak{A}_{P_{1}} \star \mathfrak{A}_{Q_{1}}$. Since both $P_{1}$ and $Q_{1} /\left(P_{1} \cap Q_{1}\right)$ are $\mathcal{E}$-groups with at most three prime factors, they are $\mathrm{CI}^{(2)}$-groups by [12] and [14]. Therefore, $\mathfrak{A}_{P_{1}}$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{Q_{1} /\left(P_{1} \cap Q_{1}\right)}$ are CI-S-rings. By Theorem $2.8 \mathfrak{A}$ is a CI-S-ring.

Assume now that $\left|H / P_{1}\right|=q$. Since $G$ is $\preceq_{H}$-minimal, its quotient $G^{H / P_{1}}$ is $\preceq_{H / P_{1}}$ minimal too. Therefore $G^{H / P_{1}} \cong C_{q}$ and $\mathfrak{A}_{H / P_{1}} \cong \mathbb{Z}\left[C_{q}\right]$. By Proposition $3.5 \mathfrak{A}=$ $\mathfrak{A}_{P_{1}} \star \mathfrak{A}_{Q_{1}}$. As before, we conclude that $\mathfrak{A}$ is a CI-S-ring.

Although the case of $q=2$ is not considered in the paper, the main result remains true also in this case.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{(2)}$ An $H$-regular subgroup is any regular subgroup of the symmetric group isomorphic to $H$.
    ${ }^{(3)}$ The notation $T^{(-1)}$ is a particular case of a more general one $T^{(m)}$ introduced later.

[^2]:    ${ }^{(4)}$ Notice that some of its parts may be empty.

