# Factorization in domains and zero-sum problems

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In particular, Dedekind domains are Krull domains.

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# Theorem (Carlitz).

Let *R* be the ring of integers in an algebraic number field *K*. Then, *K* has class number  $\leq 2$  if, and only if, any two irreducible factorizations

$$p_1p_2\cdots p_r=q_1q_2\cdots q_s$$

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in R have the same length (r = s).

The integral domains with the above unique length property are now called half-factorial domains (HFDs).

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We may assume that none of the  $p_i$ 's and  $q_j$ 's are primes. Now, each  $(p_i)$  and each  $(q_j)$  is a product of two nonprincipal prime ideals; so, 2r = 2s and we have r = s. For the converse, suppose R has class number > 2.

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HFDs need not be integrally closed; for example  $Z[\sqrt{-3}]$  is a HFD. In fact, we have the amazing:

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$$-15, -20, -24, -35, -40, -51, -52, -88, -91, -115,$$
  
 $-123, -148, -187, -232, -235, -267, -403, -467.$ 

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As mentioned earlier, if we include orders, we need to add only the ring  $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{-3}]$ .

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**Conjecture.** There exist infinitely many real quadratic fields whose rings of integers are HFDs. In fact, one expects that there are infinitely many HFDs contained in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$ . Claborn proved that every abelian group appears as the divisor class group of a Dedekind domain.

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He showed in 1976: Every finite abelian group occurs as the class group of a Dedekind HFD. One may look at other types of extensions like polynomial rings over domains.

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Coykendall proved the beautiful result:

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In fact, Zaks's early work already shows the first statement implies the second because, if R is a Krull domain, then  $R[X_1, \dots, X_n]$  is also a Krull domain whose class group is the same.

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$$(2X + 1 + \sqrt{-3})(2X + 1 - \sqrt{-3}) = (2)(2)(X^2 + X + 1).$$

**Question.** If R is a domain such that  $R[X_1]$  is a HFD, is  $R[X_1, X_1]$  also a HFD? The answer is yes if R is Noetherian.

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We mentioned that if an order in a number field is a HFD, then so is its integral closure - this uses strongly that irreducibles in the integral closure can be thought of as irreducibles in the order, up to units.

**Question.** If a domain R is a HFD and its integral closure S is atomic, is S a HFD?

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The divisor class group is the quotient div(R)/Prin(R) where Prin(R) is the subgroup of all principal fractional ideals.

The most crucial property of Krull domains is the property that to every non-zero, non-unit  $a \in R$ , there are uniquely determined height one prime ideals  $P_1, \dots, P_n$  such that

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That is, if  $aR = (P_1 \cdots P_n)_v$  and  $(P_1 \cdots P_r)_v = bR$  for some r < n, then there exists  $c \in R$  such that  $cR = (P_{r+1} \cdots P_n)_v$  and a = bcu for some unit u.

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We define a pair (G, S) with G an abelian group and S a subset of non-zero elements to be realizable, if there is a Krull domain R which realizes this pair as above. For a Krull domain R, look at its class group CI(R) (written additively) and the subset S of non-zero classes which contain height one prime ideals.

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(G, S) is realizable as above if, and only if, S generates G as a monoid.

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In particular, looking at  $G = \mathbf{Z}_{k_1} \times \mathbf{Z}_{k_2} \times \cdots \mathbf{Z}_{k_n} \times \mathbf{Z}^r$  and  $S = \{e_1, \cdots, e_n, e_{n+1}, \cdots, e_{n+r}, -e_{n+1}, \cdots, -e_{n+r}\}$ , Zaks showed that there exists a Dedekind domain which is also a HFD such that its class group is isomorphic to any finitely generated abelian group.

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It is known (due to Grams) that a pair (G, S) (where G is a finite abelian group G) is realizable if, and only if, S generates G as a group.

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For a Krull domain R (which is not a UFD) and an irreducible, nonprime element  $a \in R$ , there exist unique height one prime ideals  $P_1, \dots, P_r$  whose *v*-product is the principal ideal (*a*); so,  $\sum_{i=1}^{r} [P_i] = 0$  in Cl(R). As *a* is irreducible, no proper subsum is 0 in Cl(R). For a Krull domain R (which is not a UFD) and an irreducible, nonprime element  $a \in R$ , there exist unique height one prime ideals  $P_1, \dots, P_r$  whose *v*-product is the principal ideal (*a*); so,  $\sum_{i=1}^{r} [P_i] = 0$  in Cl(R). As *a* is irreducible, no proper subsum is 0 in Cl(R).

This prompted Davenport to come up with the following notion (now known as Davenport's constant):

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This prompted Davenport to come up with the following notion (now known as Davenport's constant):

Let G be a finite abelian group and  $g_1, \dots, g_r$  a sequence of elements whose sum is 0 and no proper subsum is 0. The Davenport constant of G is defined to be the largest such r (that is, largest r such that there is a sequence of length r with no proper subsequence summing to 0). Given G, one may form a monoid B(G) whose elements are "blocks" or sequences which sum to 0.

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Let *R* be Krull monoid with divisor class group *G*, and let *S* consist of those classes contain height one prime ideals. The map *f* which sends a nonzero element *a* in *R* to the block  $[P_1], [P_2], \dots, [P_r]$  where  $P_1 \dots P_r = aR$ , is a length-preserving monoid homomorphism.

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$$M(G) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{r} (n_i - 1).$$

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It is easy to see that  $D(G) \ge M(G)$ .

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This was conjectured to be always true - first conjectured for  $\mathbf{Z}_{p} \times \mathbf{Z}_{p}$  by Erdős - but counter-examples were found later; the smallest counter-example is:

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**Example.**  $\mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_2 \times \mathbf{Z}_6$  has M(G) = 10 and D(G) > 10.

The conjecture D(G) = M(G) is still open for groups of rank 3 and rank 4 - equality has been proved in some cases.

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Olson proved the equality D(G) = M(G) for any *p*-group.

However, the general problem of determining D(G) remains open and also determining which groups have D(G) = M(G)is an interesting open question. A natural method of evaluation of D(G) is by employing group algebras - we shall use this to outline Olson's proof for p-groups.

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Given an atomic domain R, and any nonzero nonunit a, look at the supremum  $\rho_R(a)$  of m/n where

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One defines the elasticity  $\rho(R)$  of R to be the supremum of  $\rho_R(a)$  as a varies over nonzero nonunits. HFDs have elasticity 1. Narkiewicz proved for an algebraic number field K with nontrivial class group that  $\rho(O_K) = D(Cl(K))/2$ .

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The proof works for any Dedekind domain with finite class group such that every ideal class contains a prime ideal. In fact, the result generalizes to Krull domains with nontrivial class group in which every nontrivial ideal class contains a height one prime ideal. Apart from rings of integers which have finite elasticity by the above theorem, we also saw that the order  $Z[\sqrt{-3}]$  has elasticity 1.

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In contrast, in  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-7}]$ , for each  $k \ge 2$ , there is an element which is a product of  $2k, 2k + 1, \dots, 3k$  irreducible elements at the same time!

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Indeed, since  $8 = (2)(2)(2) = (1 - \sqrt{-7})(1 + \sqrt{-7})$ , we may raise them to the *k*-th power and keep replacing  $(1 - \sqrt{-7})(1 + \sqrt{-7})$  by (2)(2)(2).

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Further, if the norm of every irreducible element of  $O_L$  is irreducible in S, then  $\rho(O_L) = \rho(S)$ .

If  $L = \mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{-14})$ , one has  $\rho(O_L) = 2$  because (3)(3)(3)(3) =  $(5 + 2\sqrt{-14})(5 - 2\sqrt{-14})$ .

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However, for the normset S with  $K = \mathbf{Q}$ , it can be shown that  $\rho(S) = 3/2$  - note that 81 has elasticity 2 as an element but elasticity 1 as a norm.

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For instance, if  $L = \mathbf{Q}(\alpha)$  with  $\min(\alpha, \mathbf{Q}) = X^5 - X^3 + 1$ , it is known that  $O_L$  is a UFD (so  $\rho(O_L) = 1$ ).

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However,

$$3 = (\alpha^2 - \alpha - 1)(\alpha^4 - \alpha^3 - \alpha^2 - 1) = uv \text{ say}$$

gives  $N(u) = 3^2$ ,  $N(v) = 3^3$  and hence  $(3^3)^2 = (3^2)^3$  gives elasticity > 1 for *S*.

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B.Sury Factorization in domains and zero-sum problems

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For an infinite field K, the domain  $K[X^2, X^3]$  has infinite elasticity. If K is finite, then  $\rho(K[X^2, X^3]) = 1 + D(K^+)/2$ .

Other notions like cross number, and sets of lengths of elements have been studied with a view to characterizing the class group up to isomorphism. Further, the whole theory has widened in scope to include all Krull monoids. Other notions like cross number, and sets of lengths of elements have been studied with a view to characterizing the class group up to isomorphism. Further, the whole theory has widened in scope to include all Krull monoids.

The cross number of a finite, abelian group G is defined to be

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The class group C of an algebraic number field is a cyclic group of prime power order if, and only if, the cross number K(C) = exp(C).

Now, we outline a proof of Olson's theorem that for  $G = \mathbf{Z}_{p^{e_1}} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{Z}_{p^{e_n}}$  we have  $D(G) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (p^{e_i} - 1)$ . Call the RHS M(G).

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Consider the sequence where each  $b_i$  occurs  $p^{e_i} - 1$  times; we can easily see that it is zero-sum free which gives us  $D(G) \ge M(G)$ .

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Let  $G = \mathbf{Z}_{p^{e_1}} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{Z}_{p^{e_n}}$  and let  $g_1, \cdots, g_k$  be a sequence of elements in G such that  $k \ge M(G)$ . Then,  $\prod_{i=1}^k (1 - g_i) = 0$  in the group ring  $R_p := \mathbf{Z}_p[G]$ .

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Let  $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$  be a basis of G where order of  $b_i$  is  $p^{e_i}$ . Since each  $g_j$  can be written as a product of the elements  $b_i$ , we can express  $(1 - g_j)$  as a linear combination of the elements  $1 - b_i$  with coefficients in  $R_p$ . Let  $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$  be a basis of G where order of  $b_i$  is  $p^{e_i}$ . Since each  $g_j$  can be written as a product of the elements  $b_i$ , we can express  $(1 - g_j)$  as a linear combination of the elements  $1 - b_i$  with coefficients in  $R_p$ . Thus,

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is a linear combination of the elements of the form  $\prod_{i=1}^{n} (1-b_i)^{a_i} \text{ where } \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i = k > \sum_{i=1}^{n} (p^{e_i} - 1).$ Hence, there is at least one *i* such that  $a_i \ge p^{e_i}$ . In  $R_p$ , we therefore have  $(1-b_i)^{p^{e_i}} = 1 - b_i^{p^{e_i}} = 0$ . Using this observation, the proof is completed as follows. Let  $g_1, \dots, g_k$  be an arbitrary sequence in G with  $k \ge M(G)$ .

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We interpret this combinatorially.

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we have

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In particular,  $E(0) - O(0) \neq 0$ ; so, there exists a subsequence of  $g_1, \dots, g_k$  which has sum 0. The proof is complete.

If G is a finite abelian group, and  $g_1, \dots, g_n \in G$ , then the number of solutions of  $\sum_{i=1}^n g_i x_i = 0$  in non-negative integers  $x_i \leq c_i$  is at least  $\frac{\prod_{i=1}^n (c_i+1)}{2^{d(G)-1}}$ .

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Zakarczemny later generalized the above result by showing that if  $g \in G$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} g_i x_i = g$  admits a solution in non-negative integers  $x_i \leq c_i$ , then the number of such solutions is at least  $\frac{\prod_{i=1}^{n} (c_i+1)}{3^{q(G)-1}}$ .

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Zakarczemny's proof is based on the polynomial identity (which is therefore valid in  $\mathbf{Q}[G]$ ):

$$1 + t + t^{2} + \dots + t^{n} = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{(1 + t^{j})(1 + t)^{n-j}}{2^{n+1-j}}.$$

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The Erdős-Ginzburg-Ziv theorem asserts that any sequence of 2n-1 integers admits a subsequence of length *n* whose sum is 0 mod *n*.

The EGZ theorem and the Davenport constant problem led people to introduce invariants that are important in zero-sum theory.

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If one defines E(G) to to be the analogue of s(G) where exp(G) is replaced by |G|, it can be shown that D(G) = E(G) - |G| + 1.

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For a finite abelian group of order n, and any subset S consisting of non-zero elements, it is conjectured that  $D_S(G) = E_S(G) - n + 1$  - this is not proved even for cyclic G.

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This bound has been crucially used in the proof of infinitude of Carmichael numbers (in fact, to show that the number of these up to x is asymptotically at least  $x^{2/7}$ ).

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We fix a prime  $p \equiv 1 \mod exp(G)$  and show in the group algebra  $\mathbf{F}_p[G]$  that for some elements  $a_1, \cdots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_p^*$ , the product

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As  $(g_1 - a_1) \cdots (g_n - a_n) = \sum_g c_g g$ , if no subsequence of the  $g_i$ 's has trivial product, then  $c_1 = \prod_i (-a_i) \neq 0$ , a contradiction.

To show  $(g_1 - a_1) \cdots (g_n - a_n) = 0$ , one shows that for each character  $\chi \in \hat{G}$  (extended to the group algebra),

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This is accomplished by the greedy algorithm - that is, pick  $a_1$  so that  $\chi(g_1) = a_1$  for as many  $\chi$ 's as possible; pick  $a_2$  so that  $\chi(g_2) = a_2$  for as many of the remaining  $\chi$ 's as possible etc.

## THANK YOU!

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