

REU projects involving non-unique factorization in integral domains and monoids: Past, Present, and Future.

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[1] P. Baginski and S. T. Chapman, Factorizations of Algebraic Integers, Block Monoids and Additive Number Theory, *Amer. Math. Monthly* **118**(2011), 901-920.

[2] D.F. Anderson, Elasticity of factorizations in integral domains: a survey, *Lecture Notes in Pure and Appl. Math.* **189**(1997), 1–29.

[3] S. T. Chapman, On the Davenport constant, the cross number and their application in factorization theory, *Lecture Notes in Pure and Applied Mathematics*, Marcel Dekker, **171**(1995), 167-190.

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What is the Theory of Non-unique Factorizations?

The usual example used in an undergraduate Abstract Algebra Textbook to demonstrate that the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic can fail in an integral domain is:

$$6 = 2 \cdot 3 = (1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5}) \quad (1)$$

in the algebraic number ring $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$.

The actual argument to complete this observation involves showing two things:

- (i) $2, 3, 1 + \sqrt{-5}$ and $1 - \sqrt{-5}$ are all irreducible, and
- (ii) 2 (resp. 3) is neither an associate of $(1 + \sqrt{-5})$ nor of $(1 - \sqrt{-5})$ (this is clear once ± 1 are established as the only units of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$).

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Most books fail to point out to the readers that while $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ is not a UFD, it does have a rather nice factorization property.

Specifically, if $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_m$ are irreducible elements of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$ with

$$\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_n = \beta_1 \cdots \beta_m, \quad (2)$$

then $n = m$.

In general, an integral domain with this property is known as a *half-factorial domain* (HFD).

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Using the ideal class group (and, more generally, the class number), one can construct a very simple proof of this fact for $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$.

Carlitz first illustrated this argument in *PAMS* 11(1960), 391-392.

His proof (while short) leads to a deeper understanding of how elements factor in an algebraic ring of integers.

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A Little More Terminology

Let M be a commutative cancellative monoid in which each nonunit can be written as product of irreducible elements (such a monoid is called *atomic*).

Let $\mathcal{A}(M)$ represent the set of irreducible elements of M and M^\times its set of units.

Note that $\mathcal{A}(M)$ contains the prime elements of M (if there are any!).



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The Main Object of Our Interest

For $x \in M \setminus M^\times$, set

$$\mathcal{L}(x) = \{n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and there exist } x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathcal{A}(M) \text{ with } x = x_1 \cdots x_n\}.$$

We will refer to $\mathcal{L}(x)$ as the *set of lengths of x in M* .



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First Order Factorization Invariants

We can directly read our first two factorization invariants off the set $\mathcal{L}(x)$.

For $x \in M \setminus M^\times$ set

$$L(x) = \sup\{n \mid \text{there are } x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathcal{A}(M) \text{ such that } x = x_1 \cdots x_n\}$$

and

$$I(x) = \inf\{n \mid \text{there are } x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathcal{A}(M) \text{ such that } x = x_1 \cdots x_n\}.$$



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REU Theorem 1 and 2

REU Theorem (Anderson-Pruis, PAMS, 1991)

Let D be an integral domain and x a nonunit of D . Then the limits

$$\bar{L}(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{L(x^n)}{n} \text{ and } \bar{l}(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{l(x^n)}{n}$$

both exist (although the first might be ∞).

REU Theorem (Anderson-Pruis, PAMS, 1991)

Let $\alpha \leq \beta$ be real numbers taken from $[0, \infty]$. There exists an integral domain D and nonunit $x \in D$ with

$$\bar{l}(x) = \alpha \text{ and } \bar{L}(x) = \beta.$$



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A Fundamental Invariant

The *elasticity of x* is defined as

$$\rho(x) = \frac{L(x)}{l(x)}.$$

We can again extend this definition to all of M by setting

$$\rho(M) = \sup\{\rho(x) \mid x \in M \setminus M^\times\}$$

and call $\rho(M)$ the *elasticity of M* .

If $\rho(M) = 1$, then M is called *half-factorial*.



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Types of Elasticity

Suppose $\rho(M) < \infty$. If there is a nonunit x in M with

$$\rho(x) = \rho(M),$$

then we say that the elasticity of M is *accepted*.

We call M *fully elastic* if for every rational q with

$$1 \leq q \leq \rho(M),$$

there is a nonunit $x \in M$ with

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A General Result

REU Theorem

(Baginski-Chapman-Crutchfield-Kennedy-Wright, 2006,
Results in Mathematics)

*Let M be an atomic monoid with accepted elasticity and a prime element.
Then M is fully elastic.*



A Fundamental Invariant Set

Given $x \in M \setminus M^\times$, write its length set in the form

$$\mathcal{L}(x) = \{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k\}$$

where $n_i < n_{i+1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k - 1$. The Δ -set of x is defined by

$\Delta(x) = \{n_i - n_{i-1} \mid 2 \leq i \leq k\}$ and the *delta set* of M by

$$\Delta(M) = \bigcup_{x \in M \setminus M^\times} \Delta(x).$$

If $d = \min \Delta(M)$, then by a Theorem of Geroldinger

$$\{d\} \subseteq \Delta(M) \subseteq \{d, 2d, \dots, kd, \dots\}$$

for some positive integer k .



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Questions

Given an atomic monoid M , here are some questions one can always ask.

- 1 What is the elasticity of M ?
- 2 When is M half-factorial?
- 3 Is the elasticity accepted?
- 4 Is M fully elastic?
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Great REU Monoids

Some basic monoids of factorization theory which are great REU monoids.

- 1 Block Monoids
- 2 Numerical Monoids
- 3 Congruence Monoids - Arithmetic Congruence Monoids
- 4 Rings of integer-valued polynomials



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Block Monoids

Let G be an abelian group. Further, let $\mathcal{F}(G)$ represent the free abelian monoid on G . We write the elements of $\mathcal{F}(G)$ as $C = \prod_{g \in G} g^{v_g(C)}$ where $v_g(C)$ is a nonnegative integer.

Definition

Let G be an abelian group. The set

$$\mathcal{B}(G) = \left\{ C \mid C = \prod_{g \in G} g^{v_g(C)} \text{ with } \sum_{g \in G} v_g(C)g = 0 \right\}$$

forms a submonoid of $\mathcal{F}(G)$ known as the *block monoid of G* .

We call the identity of $\mathcal{B}(G)$, $E = \prod_{g \in G} g^0$, the *empty block*.

A block B divides a block C , denoted $B \mid C$ if there is a block T such that $C = BT$.



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An Example

Example

Let $G = \mathbb{Z}_4$. Here

$$\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{Z}_4) = \{\bar{0}^{x_0} \bar{1}^{x_1} \bar{2}^{x_2} \bar{3}^{x_3} \mid \text{each } x_i \geq 0 \text{ and } x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}\}.$$

Notice that the non-prime irreducible blocks of $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{Z}_4)$ are as follows:

$$\bar{1}^4, \bar{2}^2, \bar{3}^4, \bar{1}^2 \bar{2}^1, \bar{1}^1 \bar{3}^1, \text{ and } \bar{2}^1 \bar{3}^2.$$

In this monoid it is easy to produce factorizations of blocks into irreducible blocks which differ in length. For instance

$$B = (\bar{1}^4)(\bar{3}^4) = (\bar{1}^1 \bar{3}^1)^4$$

is a factorization of B into 2 and 4 irreducible blocks respectfully.

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Factorial vs. Half-Factorial

Proposition

Let G be an abelian group. The following statements are equivalent.

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A Little Additive Number Theory

Definition

Let G be an abelian group. The *Davenport constant* of G is defined as

$$D(G) = \sup\{|B| \mid B \text{ is an irreducible element of } \mathcal{B}(G)\}.$$

No closed formula for the computation of the Davenport constant is known.

Davenport's constant arises in several unexpected areas. Alford, Granville and Pomerance used the bound $D(G) \leq \exp(G)(1 + \log(|G|/\exp(G)))$ to prove there are infinitely many Carmichael numbers.



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Let G be an abelian group. The *Davenport constant* of G is defined as

$$D(G) = \sup\{|B| \mid B \text{ is an irreducible element of } \mathcal{B}(G)\}.$$

No closed formula for the computation of the Davenport constant is known.

Davenport's constant arises in several unexpected areas. Alford, Granville and Pomerance used the bound $D(G) \leq \exp(G)(1 + \log(|G|/\exp(G)))$ to prove there are infinitely many Carmichael numbers.



A Little Additive Number Theory

If $G = \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$ is a finite abelian group with $n_i \mid n_{i+1}$ for each $1 \leq i < k$, then set

$$M(G) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 1) \right] + 1.$$

Proposition

Let G be an abelian group.

- 1 If $|G| = \infty$, then $D(G) = \infty$.
- 2 If $|G| < \infty$, then $M(G) \leq D(G) \leq |G|$.



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It is possible for the upper inequality in Proposition 2 (2) to be strict. Erdős conjectured in the mid-sixties that $D(G) = M(G)$. It was not until 1969 that this conjecture was disproved.

The group of smallest order that is a counterexample is

$$G_1 = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_6.$$

If G is of rank less than or equal to 2, then $D(G) = M(G)$.

It is unknown whether there is a counterexample of rank 3, and this, in fact, is an active area of research.

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Proposition

If G is a finite abelian group, then $\rho(D) = \frac{D(G)}{2}$. Moreover, the elasticity is accepted.

REU Theorem (Chapman-Holden-Moore, 2006, Rocky Mountain Journal)

Let G be a finite abelian group. If $D(G) = M(G)$ then $\mathcal{B}(G)^$ is fully elastic.*

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How To Compute Elasticities of Rings of Algebraic Integers

Geroldinger's Theorem (Simple Form)

Let R be an algebraic ring of integers with divisor class group $G = \mathcal{C}(R)$, R^* the multiplicative monoid of R . There is a monoid homomorphism

$$\varphi : R^* \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(G)$$

that is surjective and preserves lengths of factorizations into irreducibles (i.e., $\mathcal{L}(x) = \mathcal{L}(\varphi(x))$ for each $x \in R^*$). Hence

$$\mathcal{L}(R) = \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{B}(G)).$$

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$$\rho(R) = \frac{D(G)}{2}.$$

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For $n \geq 3$, $\Delta(\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = \{1, 2, \dots, n - 2\}$.

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Let $n \geq 3$. If $n - 2 \in \Delta(B)$ for $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$, then $\Delta(B) = \{n - 2\}$.

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Numerical Monoids

Let S be an additive submonoid of $\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. S is called a *numerical monoid*.


If $\{n_1, \dots, n_t\}$ is a set of elements of S such that every $x \in S$ can be written in the form

$$x = x_1 n_1 + \cdots + x_t n_t$$

then $\{n_1, \dots, n_t\}$ is called a *generating set of S* .

This is commonly denoted by

$$S = \langle n_1, \dots, n_t \rangle.$$

It follows from Elementary Number Theory that every numerical monoid S possesses a unique minimal set of generators. If $\gcd\{s \mid s \in S\} = 1$, then S is called *primitive*. It again follows easily from Number Theory that every numerical monoid S is isomorphic to a primitive numerical monoid. 

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The Frobenius Number

If $S = \langle n_1, \dots, n_t \rangle$ then the largest positive integer not in S is called the Frobenius number of S , which we denote $F(S)$.

If $S = \langle a, b \rangle$, then $F(S) = ab - a - b$.

For more than two generators, there is no known closed form for $F(S)$.



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What is known?

Much is known about the factorization properties of numerical monoids.

REU Theorem (Chapman-Holden-Moore, 2006, Rocky Mountain Journal)

Let $S = \langle n_1, \dots, n_k \rangle$

- 1 $\rho(S) = \frac{n_k}{n_1}$.
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REU Theorem (Bowles-Chapman-Kaplan-Reiser, 2006, JAA)

- 1 If $S = \langle n, n + d, n + 2d, \dots, n + kd \rangle$, then $\Delta(S) = \{d\}$.
- 2 If $k \geq 1$ and $d \geq 1$ are positive integers, then there is a numerical monoid S with $\Delta(S) = \{d, 2d, \dots, kd\}$.
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More of What is known?

REU Theorem (Chapman-Hoyer-Kaplan, 2009, *Aequationes Mathematicae*)

If $S = \langle n_1, \dots, n_k \rangle$ is a primitive numerical monoid, with $n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_k$, then for all $x \geq 2kn_2n_k^2$ we have $\Delta(x) = \Delta(x + n_1n_k)$. In other words, the sequence $\{\Delta(x)\}_{x \in S}$ is eventually periodic.



Do Sets of Lengths Characterize Numerical Monoids

Conjecture

If G and G' are finite abelian groups with $|G| > 3$ and $|G'| > 3$, then $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{B}(G)) = \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{B}(G'))$ implies $G \cong G'$.

Numerical Monoids have much different behavior. Let

$$S = \langle a, a + d, \dots, a + kd \rangle \text{ and } S' = \langle a', a' + d', \dots, a' + k'd' \rangle$$

be numerical monoids with $\gcd(a, d) = \gcd(a', d') = 1$, $1 \leq k < a$, and $1 \leq k' < a'$.

REU Theorem (Amos-Chapman-Hine-Paixao, 2007, Integers)

$\mathcal{L}(S) = \mathcal{L}(S')$ if and only if $d = d'$, $\frac{a}{k} = \frac{a'}{k'}$, and $\gcd(a, k) \geq 2$, $\gcd(a', k') \geq 2$.

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Congruence Monoids

Definition

Let $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_n = \{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \dots, \overline{n-1}\}$ be a multiplicatively closed subset. The subset

$$\mathbb{Z}_\Gamma = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n \equiv x \pmod{n} \text{ for some } \bar{x} \in \Gamma\} \cup \{1\}.$$

is a multiplicatively closed subset of \mathbb{Z} known as a *congruence monoid* (of modulus n).

Theorem (James & Niven, 1954 PAMS)

Let $n \geq 2$ be a positive integer. A congruence monoid S_Γ is a factorial if and only if $\Gamma = \{\bar{x} \mid \gcd(x, n) = 1\}$.



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REU Theorem (Bannister-Chaika-Chapman-Myerson, 2007, Elemente der Mathematik)

If $\Gamma = \{\bar{x} \mid \gcd(x, n) \neq 1\}$, then \mathbb{Z}_Γ is a half-factorial monoid.

If $\Gamma = \{\bar{x}\}$ (i.e., \mathbb{Z}_Γ is an arithmetic sequence that is multiplicatively closed), then \mathbb{Z}_Γ is called an *arithmetic congruence monoid* or *ACM*.

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Examples

Example

$$1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, \dots = 1 + 4\mathbb{N}_0$$

is known as the *Hilbert Monoid*.

Example

$$1, 4, 10, 16, 22, \dots = 4 + 6\mathbb{N}_0 \cup \{1\}$$

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Types of ACMs

Thus every ACM can be written uniquely in the form

$$M_{a,b} = a + b\mathbb{N}_0 \cup \{1\}$$

and they break into three categories.

Regular ACMs: These correspond to $a = 1$.

Singular ACMs: These come in two types:

Local: $\gcd(a, b) = p^n$ for some prime p ;

Global: $\gcd(a, b) = d > 1$ and d is composite and not a power of a prime.



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A Theorem

REU Theorem (Bannister-Chaika-Chapman-Myerson, 2007, Colloquium Mathematicum)

- 1 $\rho(M_{1,b}) = \frac{D(\mathbb{Z}_n^\times)}{2}$.
- 2 If $M_{a,b}$ is global, then $\rho(M_{a,b}) = \infty$.
- 3 If $M_{a,b}$ is local, then $\rho(M_{a,b}) = \frac{n+k-1}{k}$ where n is the smallest integer such that $p^n \in M_{a,b}$.

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REU Theorem (Baginski-Chapman-Schaeffer, 2008, J. Théorie Nombres Bordeaux)

Suppose $M_{a,b}$ is a local ACM with $\gcd(a, b) = p^\alpha$ and β the smallest integer with $p^\beta \in M_{a,b}$.

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Integer-Valued Polynomials

Set

$$\text{Int}(\mathbb{Z}) = \{f(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x] \mid f(z) \in \mathbb{Z} \forall z \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

$\text{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$ is the celebrated “ring of polynomials integer-valued over \mathbb{Z} .”

$\text{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$ is a \mathbb{Z} -module with free basis $\binom{x}{0} = 1$ and for $n \geq 1$,

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A Basic Lemma

Lemma

For $n \geq 1$, the polynomial $\binom{x}{n}$ is irreducible in $\text{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$.

Corollary

$\rho(\text{Int}(\mathbb{Z})) = \infty$.

Proof.

$$n \cdot \binom{x}{n} = \binom{x}{n-1} (x - n + 1).$$

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REU Theorem (Chapman-McClain, 2005, Journal of Algebra)

Let $q \geq 1$ be a rational number. Then there is a polynomial $f(x) \in \text{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$ with

$$\rho(f(x)) = q.$$

Hence, $\text{Int}(\mathbb{Z})$ is fully elastic.

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