The Perplexing Davenport Constant and Its Equally Elusive Cousin the Cross Number

Scott Chapman

Department of Mathematics and Statistics Sam Houston State University

March 4, 2021

This talk is based on the following paper.

Chapman, S. T. "On the Davenport constant, the cross number, and their application in factorization theory." in *Zero-Dimensional Commutative Rings, Lecture Notes in Pure and Applied Mathematics* **171**(1995): 167-167.

$120, 156, 232, 333, 386, \ 458, \ 568$

Question: Can I choose a subset of these integers whose sum is divisible by 7?

Answer: Yes! In fact, there are many ways and here are just a few:

333 + 458	791	113.7
156 + 232 + 458 + 568	1414	202 · 7
120 + 232 + 333 + 386	1071	$153 \cdot 7$



$120, 156, 232, 333, 386, \ 458, \ 568$

Question: Can I choose a subset of these integers whose sum is divisible by 7?

Answer: Yes! In fact, there are many ways and here are just a few:

333 + 458	791	113.7
156 + 232 + 458 + 568	1414	202 · 7
120 + 232 + 333 + 386	1071	$153 \cdot 7$

120, 156, 232, 333, 386, 458, 568

Question: Can I choose a subset of these integers whose sum is divisible by 7?

Answer: Yes! In fact, there are many ways and here are just a few:

333 + 458	=	791	=	$113 \cdot 7$
156 + 232 + 458 + 568	=	1414	=	202 · 7
120 + 232 + 333 + 386	=	1071	=	$153 \cdot 7$

$120,\;232,\;386,\;458$

- Question: How about now?
- Answer: No! Why? Reduce the list modulo 7.

 $120 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $232 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $386 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $458 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$

$120,\;232,\;386,\;458$

Question: How about now?

Answer: No! Why? Reduce the list modulo 7.

 $120 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $232 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $386 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $458 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$

$120,\;232,\;386,\;458$

Question: How about now?

Answer: No! Why? Reduce the list modulo 7.

 $120 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $232 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $386 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $458 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$

$120,\ 232,\ 386,\ 458$

Question: How about now?

Answer: No! Why? Reduce the list modulo 7.

 $120 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $232 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $386 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $458 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$

120, 232, 386, 458

Question: How about now?

Answer: No! Why? Reduce the list modulo 7.

 $120 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $232 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $386 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$, $458 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$

How many elements must be in a sequence of elements from \mathbb{Z}_7 in order to guarantee it contains a subsum that sums to 0?

Observations:

- 4 is not enough!
- Is 7 enough?

How many elements must be in a sequence of elements from \mathbb{Z}_7 in order to guarantee it contains a subsum that sums to 0?

Observations:

- 4 is not enough!
- Is 7 enough?

How many elements must be in a sequence of elements from \mathbb{Z}_7 in order to guarantee it contains a subsum that sums to 0?

Observations:

- 4 is not enough!
- Is 7 enough?

How many elements must be in a sequence of elements from \mathbb{Z}_7 in order to guarantee it contains a subsum that sums to 0?

Observations:

- 4 is not enough!
- Is 7 enough?

Needed Machinery

Today's discussion will force us to view finite abelian groups in two ways.

The Fundamental Theorem of Finite Abelian Groups: Let G be a finite Abelian group.

• There exists a unique set of positive integers $n_1, n_2, ..., n_k$ with $n_i \mid n_{i+1}$ for $1 \le i \le k-1$ such that

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}.$$
 (1)

The integers n_1, \ldots, n_k are known as the invariant factors of G.

² There exists a unique set of integers $p_1^{s_1}, p_2^{s_2}, \ldots, p_t^{s_t}$ where the p_i 's are not necessarily distinct primes, and the s_i 's not necessarily distinct positive integers such that

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_1^{s_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p_2^{s_2}} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p_k^{s_k}}.$$
 (2)

The integers $p_1^{s_1}, p_2^{s_2}, \ldots, p_t^{s_t}$ are known as the elementary divisors of G.

Needed Machinery

Today's discussion will force us to view finite abelian groups in two ways.

The Fundamental Theorem of Finite Abelian Groups: Let G be a finite Abelian group.

• There exists a unique set of positive integers $n_1, n_2, ..., n_k$ with $n_i \mid n_{i+1}$ for $1 \le i \le k-1$ such that

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}.$$
 (1)

The integers n_1, \ldots, n_k are known as the invariant factors of G.

² There exists a unique set of integers $p_1^{s_1}, p_2^{s_2}, \ldots, p_t^{s_t}$ where the p_i 's are not necessarily distinct primes, and the s_i 's not necessarily distinct positive integers such that

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{\rho_1^{s_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{\rho_2^{s_2}} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{\rho_k^{s_k}}.$$
 (2)

The integers $p_1^{s_1}, p_2^{s_2}, \ldots, p_t^{s_t}$ are known as the elementary divisors of G.

Needed Machinery

Today's discussion will force us to view finite abelian groups in two ways.

The Fundamental Theorem of Finite Abelian Groups: Let G be a finite Abelian group.

• There exists a unique set of positive integers $n_1, n_2, ..., n_k$ with $n_i \mid n_{i+1}$ for $1 \le i \le k-1$ such that

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}.$$
 (1)

The integers n_1, \ldots, n_k are known as the invariant factors of G.

2 There exists a unique set of integers $p_1^{s_1}, p_2^{s_2}, \ldots, p_t^{s_t}$ where the p_i 's are not necessarily distinct primes, and the s_i 's not necessarily distinct positive integers such that

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_1^{s_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p_2^{s_2}} \oplus \dots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p_k^{s_k}}.$$
 (2)

The integers $p_1^{s_1}, p_2^{s_2}, \ldots, p_t^{s_t}$ are known as the elementary divisors of G.

Definition: Given a finite abelian group G, the value of k from representation (1) is known as the **rank** of G and denoted by rank(G).

I will refer to G as written in form (1) as the *invariant factor form of* G. I will refer to G as written in form (2) as the *elementary divisor form of* G. Note: These forms seldom match. For instance they do not if G is cyclic NOT of prime power order. So if p and q are distinct primes, then

 $\mathbb{Z}_{pq}\cong\mathbb{Z}_p\oplus\mathbb{Z}_q.$

SCOTT CHAPMAN (SHSU)

Definition: Given a finite abelian group G, the value of k from representation (1) is known as the **rank** of G and denoted by rank(G). I will refer to G as written in form (1) as the *invariant factor form of* G. I will refer to G as written in form (2) as the *elementary divisor form of* G. Note: These forms seldom match. For instance they do not if G is cyclic NOT of prime power order. So if p and q are distinct primes, then

 $\mathbb{Z}_{pq}\cong\mathbb{Z}_p\oplus\mathbb{Z}_q.$

Definition: Given a finite abelian group G, the value of k from representation (1) is known as the **rank** of G and denoted by rank(G). I will refer to G as written in form (1) as the *invariant factor form of* G. I will refer to G as written in form (2) as the *elementary divisor form of* G. Note: These forms seldom match. For instance they do not if G is cyclic NOT of prime power order. So if p and q are distinct primes, then

 $\mathbb{Z}_{pq}\cong\mathbb{Z}_p\oplus\mathbb{Z}_q.$

Definition: Given a finite abelian group G, the value of k from representation (1) is known as the **rank** of G and denoted by rank(G). I will refer to G as written in form (1) as the *invariant factor form of* G. I will refer to G as written in form (2) as the *elementary divisor form of* G. Note: These forms seldom match. For instance they do not if G is cyclic NOT of prime power order. So if p and q are distinct primes, then

 $\mathbb{Z}_{pq} \cong \mathbb{Z}_p \oplus \mathbb{Z}_q.$

Some of our favorite finite abelian groups.

•
$$\operatorname{rank}(G) = 1 \Rightarrow G$$
 is cyclic.

- ② rank(G) = 2, so G ≅ $\mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_2}$ with $n_1 | n_2$. The Klein-4-group, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$ is a good example.
- Each n_i is a power of a fixed prime p. Such a group is known as a p-group. Hence in this case

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_2}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_k}}.$$

Some of our favorite finite abelian groups.

•
$$\operatorname{rank}(G) = 1 \Rightarrow G$$
 is cyclic.

- ② rank(G) = 2, so G $\cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_2}$ with $n_1 | n_2$. The Klein-4-group, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$ is a good example.
- Each n_i is a power of a fixed prime p. Such a group is known as a p-group. Hence in this case

$$G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_2}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_k}}.$$

Some of our favorite finite abelian groups.

•
$$\operatorname{rank}(G) = 1 \Rightarrow G$$
 is cyclic.

- ② rank(G) = 2, so G ≅ $\mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_2}$ with $n_1 | n_2$. The Klein-4-group, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$ is a good example.
- Each n_i is a power of a fixed prime p. Such a group is known as a p-group. Hence in this case

$$G\cong\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_1}}\oplus\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_2}}\oplus\cdots\oplus\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m_k}}.$$

Definition: Let G be a finite abelian group and $S = \{g_1, \ldots, g_t\}$ be a sequence of not necessarily distinct nonzero elements from G.

- S is called a zero-sequence if $\sum_{i=1}^{t} g_i = 0$.
- S called a *minimal zero-sequence* (or *mzs*) if it contains no proper subzero-sequence.

Comment: In general, there is no reason that *G* must be Abelian. If it is not, then this discussion becomes much different and will be left to another time (and another speaker!).

Notation: For *S* an mzs as above, we set |S| = t. We also let $\mathcal{B}(G)$ represent the set of zero-sequences of *G* and $\mathcal{U}(G)$ represent the set of minimal zero-sequences in *G*. We count these irregardless of order.

Definition: Let G be a finite abelian group and $S = \{g_1, \ldots, g_t\}$ be a sequence of not necessarily distinct nonzero elements from G.

- S is called a zero-sequence if $\sum_{i=1}^{t} g_i = 0$.
- S called a *minimal zero-sequence* (or *mzs*) if it contains no proper subzero-sequence.

Comment: In general, there is no reason that G must be Abelian. If it is not, then this discussion becomes much different and will be left to another time (and another speaker!).

Notation: For S an mzs as above, we set |S| = t. We also let $\mathcal{B}(G)$ represent the set of zero-sequences of G and $\mathcal{U}(G)$ represent the set of minimal zero-sequences in G. We count these irregardless of order.

Definition: Let G be a finite abelian group and $S = \{g_1, \ldots, g_t\}$ be a sequence of not necessarily distinct nonzero elements from G.

- S is called a zero-sequence if $\sum_{i=1}^{t} g_i = 0$.
- S called a *minimal zero-sequence* (or *mzs*) if it contains no proper subzero-sequence.

Comment: In general, there is no reason that G must be Abelian. If it is not, then this discussion becomes much different and will be left to another time (and another speaker!).

Notation: For S an mzs as above, we set |S| = t. We also let $\mathcal{B}(G)$ represent the set of zero-sequences of G and $\mathcal{U}(G)$ represent the set of minimal zero-sequences in G. We count these irregardless of order.

• Let
$$g \neq 0$$
 in G with $|g| = n$. Then

$$S = \underbrace{\{g, \dots, g\}}_{kn \text{ times}}$$

is a zero-sequence and is minimal if and only if k = 1. In particular, if $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_n = \{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \dots, \overline{n-1}\}$, then one popular minimal zero-sequence is

$$S = \underbrace{\{\overline{1}, \ldots, \overline{1}\}}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

• Let $g \neq 0$ in G. Then

$$S = \{g, g^{-1}\}$$

is a minimal zero-sequence.

• If $m_1 + m_2 + \cdots + m_k = n$ is a partition of n, then

$$S = \{\overline{m_1}, \overline{m_2}, \ldots, \overline{m_k}\}$$

is a minimal zero-sequence in \mathbb{Z}_n . Since the number of partitions of n is asymptotic to

$$\frac{1}{4n\sqrt{3}}\exp\left(\pi\sqrt{\frac{2n}{3}}\right)$$

the number of minimal zero-sequences in \mathbb{Z}_n grows extremely quickly.

• Let $g \neq 0$ in G. Then

$$S = \{g, g^{-1}\}$$

is a minimal zero-sequence.

• If $m_1 + m_2 + \cdots + m_k = n$ is a partition of n, then

$$S = \{\overline{m_1}, \overline{m_2}, \ldots, \overline{m_k}\}$$

is a minimal zero-sequence in \mathbb{Z}_n . Since the number of partitions of n is asymptotic to

$$\frac{1}{4n\sqrt{3}}\exp\left(\pi\sqrt{\frac{2n}{3}}\right)$$

the number of minimal zero-sequences in \mathbb{Z}_n grows extremely quickly.

• Let G have invariant form

1

$$G\cong\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}\oplus\mathbb{Z}_{n_2}\oplus\cdots\oplus\mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$$

and e_i be the element of G consisting of 1 in the ith coordinate and 0 elsewhere. Then

$$S_G = \{\underbrace{e_1, \dots, e_1}_{n_1-1 \text{ times}}, \underbrace{e_2, \dots, e_2}_{n_2-1 \text{ times}}, \dots, \underbrace{e_k, \dots, e_k}_{n_k-1 \text{ times}}, e_1 + e_2 + \dots + e_k\}$$

is a minimal zero-sequence of G. So if $G = \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_6$, then

 $S_G = \{(1,0), (1,0), (0,1), (0,1), (0,1), (0,1), (0,1), (1,1)\}.$

We note in particular that

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

• Let G have invariant form

1

$$G\cong\mathbb{Z}_{n_1}\oplus\mathbb{Z}_{n_2}\oplus\cdots\oplus\mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$$

and e_i be the element of G consisting of 1 in the ith coordinate and 0 elsewhere. Then

$$S_G = \{\underbrace{e_1, \dots, e_1}_{n_1-1 \text{ times}}, \underbrace{e_2, \dots, e_2}_{n_2-1 \text{ times}}, \dots, \underbrace{e_k, \dots, e_k}_{n_k-1 \text{ times}}, e_1 + e_2 + \dots + e_k\}$$

is a minimal zero-sequence of G. So if $G = \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_6$, then

$$S_G = \{(1,0), (1,0), (0,1), (0,1), (0,1), (0,1), (0,1), (1,1)\}$$

We note in particular that

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

Taking one small liberty (which we will later justify), we make the following definition.

Definition: Let G be a finite abelian group. The *Davenport Constant* of G is

$$\mathsf{D}(G) = \max\{|S| \mid S \in \mathcal{U}(G)\}.$$

Theorem

If G is a finite Abelian group, then

$\mathsf{D}(G) \leq \mid G \mid$.



Proof

Proof.

Let $S = \{g_1, \ldots, g_k\}$ be a minimal zero-sequence with k > G. Thus $g_i \neq 0$ for all *i*. Let

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \gamma_1 &=& g_1 \\ \gamma_2 &=& g_1 + g_2 \\ \vdots &\vdots &\vdots \\ \gamma_k &=& g_1 + g_2 + \dots + g_k \end{array}$$

Since none of the γ_i 's are 0, $\gamma_i = \gamma_j$ for some i > j. Thus

$$g_{j+1}+g_{j+2}+\cdots+g_k=0,$$

which contradicts the minimality of S.

Proposition

If $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$ for n > 0, then D(G) = n.

Proof. $S = \{\overline{1, \dots, \overline{1}}\}$ is a minimal zero-sequence of length *n*.

Moral: The computation of the Davenport constant on a cyclic group is trivial.

Proposition

If $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$ for n > 0, then D(G) = n.



Moral: The computation of the Davenport constant on a cyclic group is trivial.

Proposition

If $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_n$ for n > 0, then D(G) = n.



Moral: The computation of the Davenport constant on a cyclic group is trivial.

Non-Cyclic Groups

Example

If G is not cyclic, then the fun begins! For instance,

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 = 3 < \mid \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \mid = 4$$

as

$$S_{\mathbb{Z}_2\oplus\mathbb{Z}_2}=\{(1,0),(0,1),(1,1)\}$$

is the longest minimal zero-sequence of $\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Let's return to *S_G* for *G* ≅ ℤ_{*n*1} ⊕ ℤ_{*n*2} ⊕ · · · ⊕ ℤ_{*nk*} written in invariant form. We set

$$\mathsf{D}^*(G) = \mid S_G \mid = \left\lfloor \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 1) \right\rfloor + 1.$$

Non-Cyclic Groups

Example

If G is not cyclic, then the fun begins! For instance,

$$\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 = 3 < \mid \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \mid = 4$$

as

$$S_{\mathbb{Z}_2\oplus\mathbb{Z}_2}=\{(1,0),(0,1),(1,1)\}$$

is the longest minimal zero-sequence of $\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Let's return to S_G for $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$ written in invariant form. We set

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

Theorem

If G is a finite abelian group, then

 $\mathsf{D}^*(G) \leq \mathsf{D}(G) \leq \mid G \mid$.

Conjecture (Erdős (mid 1960's))

If G is a finite abelian group, then

 $\mathsf{D}(G) = \mathsf{D}^*(G).$

Scott Chapman (SHSU)

Theorem

If G is a finite abelian group, then

 $\mathsf{D}^*(G) \leq \mathsf{D}(G) \leq \mid G \mid$.

Conjecture (Erdős (mid 1960's))

If G is a finite abelian group, then

 $\mathsf{D}(G)=\mathsf{D}^*(G).$

Scott Chapman (SHSU)

van Emde Boas finally disproved this conjecture in 1969.

Example: Let

$$G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_6$$

(here $D^*(G) = 10$) and set $e_1 = (0, 1, 1, 1, 1)$, $e_2 = (1, 0, 1, 1, 1)$, $e_3 = (1, 1, 0, 1, 1)$, $e_4 = (1, 1, 1, 0, 1)$, $e_5 = (0, 0, 0, 0, 1)$, $e_6 = (1, 0, 0, 0, 4)$, $e_7 = (0, 1, 0, 0, 4)$, $e_8 = (0, 0, 1, 0, 4)$, $e_9 = (0, 0, 0, 1, 4)$ and $e_{10} = (1, 1, 1, 1, 4)$. Then T=

$$\{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_4, e_5, e_6, e_7, e_8, e_9, e_{10}\}$$

is a sequence of length 10 which is not a zero sequence and does not contain a mzs. Thus $D(G) > D^* = 10$.

This is the group of smallest known order (96) for which $D(G) > D^*$.

Set $G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_6 = \mathbb{Z}_2^5 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3$. Moreover, for $k \ge 5$, set

$$G_k = \mathbb{Z}_2^k \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3.$$

k	$D(G_k)$	$D^*(G_k)$
5	11	10
6	12	11
7	13	12
	15	13

 $k = 9 \Rightarrow$ THE COMPUTER EXPLODES!

TT CHAPMAN (SHSU)

March 4, 2021 20 / 33

Set $G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_6 = \mathbb{Z}_2^5 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3$. Moreover, for $k \ge 5$, set

$$G_k = \mathbb{Z}_2^k \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3.$$

k	$D(G_k)$	$D^*(G_k)$	
5	11	10	
6	12	11	
7	13	12	
8	15	13	

 $k = 9 \Rightarrow$ THE COMPUTER EXPLODES!

Set $G = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_6 = \mathbb{Z}_2^5 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3$. Moreover, for $k \ge 5$, set

$$G_k = \mathbb{Z}_2^k \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3.$$

k	ſ	$D(G_k)$	$D^*(G_k)$	
5	;	11	10	
6)	12	11	
7	,	13	12	
8	}	15	13	

$k = 9 \Rightarrow$ THE COMPUTER EXPLODES!

In a similar manner one can show that

$$G\cong\mathbb{Z}_3\oplus\mathbb{Z}_3\oplus\mathbb{Z}_3\oplus\mathbb{Z}_6$$

has $D(G) > D^*(G) = 12$.

This is the group of smallest known rank (4) for which $D(G) > D^*(G)$.

Theorem (Olson, JNT 1969)

If G is a finite abelian group of rank ≤ 2 , then $D(G) = D^*(G)$.

Open For More Than 50 Years Problem: Let G be a finite abelian group of rank 3. Is $D(G) = D^*(G)$?

In a similar manner one can show that

$$G\cong\mathbb{Z}_3\oplus\mathbb{Z}_3\oplus\mathbb{Z}_3\oplus\mathbb{Z}_6$$

has $D(G) > D^*(G) = 12$.

This is the group of smallest known rank (4) for which $D(G) > D^*(G)$.

Theorem (Olson, JNT 1969)

If G is a finite abelian group of rank ≤ 2 , then $D(G) = D^*(G)$.

Open For More Than 50 Years Problem: Let G be a finite abelian group of rank 3. Is $D(G) = D^*(G)$?

In a similar manner one can show that

$$G\cong\mathbb{Z}_3\oplus\mathbb{Z}_3\oplus\mathbb{Z}_3\oplus\mathbb{Z}_6$$

has $D(G) > D^*(G) = 12$.

This is the group of smallest known rank (4) for which $D(G) > D^*(G)$.

Theorem (Olson, JNT 1969)

If G is a finite abelian group of rank ≤ 2 , then $D(G) = D^*(G)$.

Open For More Than 50 Years Problem: Let G be a finite abelian group of rank 3. Is $D(G) = D^*(G)$?

There is a large class of groups for which it is known that $D(G) = D^*(G)$

Theorem: If G is any of the following finite abelian groups, then $D(G) = D^*(G)$.

1 *G* has rank less than or equal to 2.

- **2** G is a p-group for p prime in \mathbb{Z} . (Olson, JNT 1969)
- $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{2m} \text{ with } m \text{ odd.}$
- $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{6m} \text{ where } gcd (3, m) = 1.$
- $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{3 \cdot 2^n} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{3 \cdot 2^m} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{3 \cdot 2^s} \text{ where } n \leq m \leq s.$

Here are two recent results of note.

Theorem

Let $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$ be a finite abelian group written in invariant form.

• (Meshulam 1990 Discrete Math.) $D(G) \le n_k \left(1 + \log \frac{|G|}{n_k}\right)$.

2 (Dimitrov 2007) $\frac{D(G)}{D^*(G)} \leq (Ck \log k)^k$ for some absolute constant C.

We close this section with an obvious problem.

Problem: Given a finite abelian group G, find a formula for D(G).

Here are two recent results of note.

Theorem

Let $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$ be a finite abelian group written in invariant form.

• (Meshulam 1990 Discrete Math.) $D(G) \le n_k \left(1 + \log \frac{|G|}{n_k}\right)$.

(Dimitrov 2007) $\frac{D(G)}{D^*(G)} \leq (Ck \log k)^k$ for some absolute constant C.

We close this section with an obvious problem.

Problem: Given a finite abelian group G, find a formula for D(G).

Here are two recent results of note.

Theorem

Let $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_2} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{n_k}$ be a finite abelian group written in invariant form.

• (Meshulam 1990 Discrete Math.) $D(G) \le n_k \left(1 + \log \frac{|G|}{n_k}\right)$.

(Dimitrov 2007) $\frac{D(G)}{D^*(G)} \leq (Ck \log k)^k$ for some absolute constant C.

We close this section with an obvious problem.

Problem: Given a finite abelian group G, find a formula for D(G).

We shift gears and consider another invariant related to the Davenport constant. From this point onward, we will use groups written in terms of their elementary divisors.

Definitions: Let G be a finite abelian group and $S = \{g_1, \ldots, g_t\}$ a zero-sequence of G. The *cross number* of S is

$$\Bbbk(S) = \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{1}{\mid g_i \mid}$$

and the cross number of G is

 $\mathbb{K}(G) = \max\{\Bbbk(S) \mid S \text{ is an mzs of } G\}.$

Where did this come from? The cross number is a key tool in studying the factorization properties of rings of algebraic integers (like $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$) and more general objects known as Krull monoids. The details of this will have to be left to another talk.

Notice that

 $\Bbbk:\mathcal{B}(G) o\mathbb{Q}^+$

which acts like a homomorphism (i.e. $k(S_1S_2) = k(S_1) + k(S_2))$.

Where did this come from? The cross number is a key tool in studying the factorization properties of rings of algebraic integers (like $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-5}]$) and more general objects known as Krull monoids. The details of this will have to be left to another talk.

Notice that

$$\Bbbk:\mathcal{B}(G) o\mathbb{Q}^+$$

which acts like a homomorphism (i.e. $k(S_1S_2) = k(S_1) + k(S_2)$).

Examples: Let $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$. The minimal zero-sequences and associated cross numbers of \mathbb{Z}_4 are:

$$\begin{array}{ll} S_1 = (1,1,1,1) & \Bbbk(S_1) = 1 \\ S_2 = (2,2) & \Bbbk(S_2) = 1 \\ S_3 = (3,3,3,3) & \Bbbk(S_3) = 1 \\ S_4 = (3,1) & \Bbbk(S_4) = 1/2 \\ S_5 = (2,1,1) & \Bbbk(S_5) = 1 \\ S_6 = (2,3,3) & \Bbbk(S_6) = 1 \end{array}$$

Hence, $\mathbb{K}(\mathbb{Z}_4) = 1$.

Now, let $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$. The minimal zero-sequences and associated cross numbers for $\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$ are:

$$egin{aligned} S_1 &= ((0,1),(0,1)) && & & & & \& (S_1) = 1 \ S_2 &= ((1,1),(1,1)) && & & & \& (S_2) = 1 \ S_3 &= ((1,0),(1,0)) && & & & \& (S_3) = 1 \ S_4 &= ((1,0),(0,1),(1,1)) && & & \& (S_4) = 3/2 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\mathbb{K}(\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2) = 3/2$.

2021 27 / 33

Some Elementary Facts: Let $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_1^{s_1}} \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p_2^{s_2}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p_k^{s_k}}$ in elementary divisor form. Recall that $\exp(G) = \operatorname{lcm}\{|x| \mid x \in G\}$.

1) $\mathbb{K}(G) \geq 1$. (WHY?)

2) Let T_G be the parallel mzs construction for groups in elementary divisor form as that previously called S_G . We have

$$\mathbb{k}(\mathcal{T}_G) = rac{1}{\exp(G)} + \sum_{i=1}^k rac{p_i^{s_i} - 1}{p_i^{s_i}} = \mathbb{K}^*(G).$$

Hence, $\mathbb{K}(G) \geq \mathbb{K}^*(G)$.

Let $G = \mathbb{Z}_6 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3$. Here

$$\Gamma_{\mathbb{Z}_6} = \{(1,0), (0,1), (0,1), (1,1)\}.$$

So,

$$\Bbbk(T_{\mathbb{Z}_6}) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{4}{3}.$$

Open for 35 Years Problem: Is $\mathbb{K}(G) = \mathbb{K}^*(G)$ for all finite abelian groups *G*?

Let $G=\mathbb{Z}_6\cong\mathbb{Z}_2\oplus\mathbb{Z}_3.$ Here $T_{\mathbb{Z}_6}=\{(1,0),(0,1),(0,1),(1,1)\}.$ So,

$$\Bbbk(T_{\mathbb{Z}_6}) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{4}{3}.$$

Open for 35 Years Problem: Is $\mathbb{K}(G) = \mathbb{K}^*(G)$ for all finite abelian groups *G*?

Some Not So Elementary Facts:

1) (Krause, *Math. Zeit.* 1984) $\mathbb{K}(G) = 1$ if and only if $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^n}$ for some prime number p.

2) (Geroldinger, JNT 1994) If G is a p-group (for p a prime) then $\mathbb{K}(G) = \mathbb{K}^*(G)$.

3) If G is any of the following abelian groups, then $\mathbb{K}(G) = \mathbb{K}^*(G)$.

- a) *G* is a *p*-group.
- b) $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^n q}$ where p and q are distinct primes and $n \ge 1$.
- c) $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{pqr}$ where p, q and r are distinct primes.
- d) $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^2q^2}$ where p and q are distinct primes.

Moral: If G is cyclic, then $\mathbb{K}(G)$ is probably not easy to compute.

Some Not So Elementary Facts:

1) (Krause, *Math. Zeit.* 1984) $\mathbb{K}(G) = 1$ if and only if $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^n}$ for some prime number p.

2) (Geroldinger, JNT 1994) If G is a p-group (for p a prime) then $\mathbb{K}(G) = \mathbb{K}^*(G)$.

3) If G is any of the following abelian groups, then $\mathbb{K}(G) = \mathbb{K}^*(G)$.

- a) *G* is a *p*-group.
- b) $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^n q}$ where p and q are distinct primes and $n \ge 1$.
- c) $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{pqr}$ where p, q and r are distinct primes.
- d) $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^2q^2}$ where p and q are distinct primes.

Moral: If G is cyclic, then $\mathbb{K}(G)$ is probably not easy to compute.

Theorem

(Chapman-Geroldinger, ARS Comb. 1996) Let $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^{n_1}} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p^{n_k}}$ be a p-group with p odd. Thus

$$\mathbb{K}(G) = \frac{1}{p^{n_k}} + \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{p^{n_i} - 1}{p^{n_i}} = \frac{X}{p^{n_k}}$$

Then,

$$\{\Bbbk(S) \mid S \in \mathcal{U}(G)\} = \{\frac{2}{p^k}, \frac{3}{p^k}, \dots, \frac{X-1}{p^k}, \frac{X}{p^k}\}.$$

Let $G = \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_9$.

$$\Bbbk(T_G) = \frac{1}{9} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 8 \cdot \frac{1}{9} = \frac{21}{9} = \mathbb{K}^*(G) = \mathbb{K}(G).$$
$$\{\Bbbk(S) \mid S \in \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_9)\} = \{\frac{2}{9}, \frac{3}{9}, \dots, \frac{20}{9}, \frac{21}{9}\}.$$

Question: What happens if G is not a p-group?

Scott Chapman (SHSU)

Let $G = \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_9$.

$$\Bbbk(T_G) = \frac{1}{9} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 8 \cdot \frac{1}{9} = \frac{21}{9} = \mathbb{K}^*(G) = \mathbb{K}(G).$$
$$\{\Bbbk(S) \mid S \in \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_9)\} = \{\frac{2}{9}, \frac{3}{9}, \dots, \frac{20}{9}, \frac{21}{9}\}.$$

Question: What happens if G is not a p-group?

Let $G = \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_9$.

$$\Bbbk(T_G) = \frac{1}{9} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 8 \cdot \frac{1}{9} = \frac{21}{9} = \mathbb{K}^*(G) = \mathbb{K}(G).$$
$$\{\Bbbk(S) \mid S \in \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_9)\} = \{\frac{2}{9}, \frac{3}{9}, \dots, \frac{20}{9}, \frac{21}{9}\}.$$

Question: What happens if G is not a p-group?

An Example taken from Geroldinger & Schneider (ARS Comb. 1997). Let p = 5 and q = 3:

$$\{\Bbbk(S) \mid S \in \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Z}_{15})\} = \{\frac{2}{15}, \frac{3}{15}, \frac{4}{15}, \dots, \frac{20}{15}, \frac{21}{15}, \frac{23}{15}\}.$$

In Baginski et. al. (ARS Comb. 2004), the authors show (redacted version):

If p >> q, then these holes multiply! For p = 11 and q = 5, we obtain:

$$[\Bbbk(S) \mid S \in \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Z}_{55})\} = \{\frac{2}{55}, \frac{3}{55}, \frac{4}{55}, \dots, \frac{87}{55}, \frac{90}{55}, \frac{91}{55}, \frac{95}{55}, \frac{95}{55}\}.$$

An Example taken from Geroldinger & Schneider (ARS Comb. 1997). Let p = 5 and q = 3:

$$\{\Bbbk(S) \mid S \in \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Z}_{15})\} = \{\frac{2}{15}, \frac{3}{15}, \frac{4}{15}, \dots, \frac{20}{15}, \frac{21}{15}, \frac{23}{15}\}.$$

In Baginski et. al. (ARS Comb. 2004), the authors show (redacted version):

If p >> q, then these holes multiply! For p = 11 and q = 5, we obtain:

$$\{k(S) \mid S \in \mathcal{U}(\mathbb{Z}_{55})\} = \{\frac{2}{55}, \frac{3}{55}, \frac{4}{55}, \dots, \frac{87}{55}, \frac{90}{55}, \frac{91}{55}, \frac{95}{55}\}.$$