On the factorization invariants of arithmetical congruence monoids

Caroline Liu Annabel Ma Andrew Zhang Mentor: Prof. Scott T. Chapman, SHSU

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Theorem

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What about algebraic structures exhibiting non-unique factorization?



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Example

The atoms of \mathbb{N} are the prime numbers \mathbb{P} .

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A factorization of an element $x \in M$ is a product $x = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$ where $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathcal{A}(M)$.



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For $x \in M$, we denote Z(x) to be the set of factorizations of x.



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A Unique Factorization Monoid (UFM) is a monoid M where each element $x \in M$ has a unique factorization into atoms.



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$$\{1, 3, 5, 7, \dots\} = 2\mathbb{N}_0 + 1$$

• Similarly, the atoms of $2\mathbb{N}_0 + 1$ are $\mathbb{P}\setminus\{2\}$. So, $2\mathbb{N}_0 + 1$ is also a UFM by the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic.

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Note that for two elements $1 + 4k_1, 1 + 4k_2 \in M$, we have

$$(1+4k_1)(1+4k_2) = 1+4k_1+4k_2+16k_1k_2 = 1+4(k_1+k_2+4k_1k_2)$$

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The element 1 serves as the identity element.

This shows that $\{1 + 4k \mid k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ under multiplication is a monoid.

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Note that the element $693 = 1 + 4 \cdot 173 \in M = \{1 + 4k \mid k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ can be factored as

$$693 = 21 \cdot 33 = 9 \cdot 77,$$

where $9, 21, 33, 77 \in A(M)$.

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where $9, 21, 33, 77 \in \mathcal{A}(M)$.

Thus, Hilbert's monoid is not a UFM.

An Arithmetical Congruence Monoid (ACM) $M_{a,b}$ is a monoid of the form

$$\{a, a+b, a+2b, a+3b, \dots\} \cup \{1\} = (a+b\mathbb{N}_0) \cup \{1\}$$

for $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $0 < a \leq b$ and $a^2 \equiv a \pmod{b}$.



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- Hilbert's monoid: $\{1+4k \mid k \in \mathbb{N}_0\} = M_{1,4}$
- Meyerson's monoid: $\{1\} \cup \{4+6k \mid k \in \mathbb{N}_0\} = M_{4,6}$

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Definition

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Types of ACMs

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Remark

Note that all regular ACMs must be multiplicatively closed, implying that $b \mid a^2 - a = a(a - 1)$. But gcd(a, b) = 1 and $a \le b$, and thus a = 1. So, all regular ACMs will take the form $M_{1,b}$.

Monoid invariants measure how far a monoid is from being a UFM. In our talk, we will define and compute length density, which is one of three factorization invariants of ACMs we studied.



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Definition

For an element $x \in M$, let its **length set** be

$$\mathsf{L}(x) = \{n \mid \exists a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathcal{A}(M) \text{ with } x = a_1 a_2 \ldots a_n\}.$$



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Example

In \mathbb{N} , the length set of any $x \in \mathbb{N}$ contains 1 element.

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The element $10000 = 4 + 6 \cdot 1666$ has the two factorizations $10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10$ and $250 \cdot 4 \cdot 10.$

Thus, $L(10000) = \{3, 4\}$.



Consider $x \in M$ for a monoid M. Let $L(x) = \{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k\}$ where $n_1 < n_2 < \dots < n_k$. Then, the **delta set of** x is defined to be

$$\Delta(x) = \{n_{i+1} - n_i \mid 1 \le i < k\}.$$



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Furthermore, we define the **delta set of** M to be

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Example

If an element $x \in M$ has $L(x) = \{2, 5, 7, 11\}$, we have

$$\Delta(x)=\{2,3,4\}.$$

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For $x \in M^{LI}$ we define the **length density of** x to be

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The length density measures how sparse the distribution of the factorization lengths are.

If an element $x \in M$ has $L(x) = \{2, 5, 7, 11\}$, we have

$$LD(x) = \frac{|L(x)| - 1}{\max L(x) - \min L(x)} = \frac{4 - 1}{11 - 2} = \frac{1}{3}.$$



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Example

In contrast, if an element $x \in M$ has L(x) = $\{2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11\}$, we have

$$LD(x) = \frac{|L(x)| - 1}{\max L(x) - \min L(x)} = \frac{8 - 1}{11 - 2} = \frac{7}{9}.$$

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The following result reveals an interaction between the length density and delta sets.

Theorem (Chapman, O'Neill, and Ponomarenko, 2022) For a monoid M and element $x \in M^{Ll}$, we have $\frac{1}{\max \Delta(x)} \leq LD(x) \leq \frac{1}{\min \Delta(x)}.$



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Theorem (Liu, Ma, and Zhang, 2022)

Let $M_{1,b}$ be a regular ACM. Then

$$\mathsf{LD}(M_{1,b}) = egin{cases} arnothing & \phi(b) \leq 2 \ rac{1}{\phi(b)-2} & \phi(b) \geq 3 \end{cases}.$$



For the monoid $M_{1,7}$, which is the set $\{1 + 7k \mid k \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$, we have that the element 15^6 can only be factored into $3^6 \cdot 5^6$ and $(15)^6$.



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This means
$$L(15^6) = \{2, 6\}$$
, implying $LD(15^6) = \frac{1}{4}$ and $LD(M_{1,7}) \le \frac{1}{4}$.



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This means L(15⁶) = {2, 6}, implying LD(15⁶) =
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 and LD($M_{1,7}$) $\leq \frac{1}{4}$.

We can also prove by contradiction that $\frac{1}{4} \leq \frac{1}{\max \Delta(x)}$. So, $LD(M_{1,7}) \geq \frac{1}{4}$. This forces $LD(M_{1,7}) = \frac{1}{4}$.



Length Density in Local Singular ACMs

We now discuss $LD(M_{a,b})$ where $gcd(a, b) = p^{\alpha}$ for $p \in \mathbb{P}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$. Let β denote the least integer such that $p^{\beta} \in M$. Let $\delta(\alpha, \beta)$ denote the largest integer less than $\frac{\beta}{\alpha}$.



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Example

In the monoid $M_{9,15}$, $\alpha = 1$, $\beta = 2$, and $\delta(\alpha, \beta) = 1$.



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Example

In the monoid
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, $\alpha = 1$, $\beta = 2$, and $\delta(\alpha, \beta) = 1$.

Theorem (Liu, Ma, and Zhang, 2022)

For a local ACM $M_{a,b}$, the length density can be characterized as

$$\mathsf{LD}(M_{a,b}) = \begin{cases} \varnothing & \text{if } \alpha = \beta = 1\\ 1 & \text{if } \alpha = \beta > 1 \\ \frac{1}{\delta(\alpha,\beta)} & \text{if } \alpha < \beta \end{cases}$$

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It has previously been shown that when $\alpha < \beta$, we have $\Delta(M_{4,6}) = [1, \frac{\beta}{\alpha})$. Thus, $\Delta(M_{4,6}) = [1, 2) = \{1\}$.



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It has previously been shown that when $\alpha < \beta$, we have $\Delta(M_{4,6}) = [1, \frac{\beta}{\alpha})$. Thus, $\Delta(M_{4,6}) = [1, 2) = \{1\}$.

We also have that $\frac{1}{\max\Delta(x)} \leq \mathsf{LD}(x)$. Thus, $1 \leq \mathsf{LD}(M_{4,6})$.


Example

Now, recall that the element $10000 \in M_{4,6}$ factors as $10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10$ and $250 \cdot 10 \cdot 4$.



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Thus, $L(10000) = \{3, 4\}$ which implies LD(10000) = 1.

By the definition of length density, $LD(M_{4,6}) \le 1$. So, our two bounds force $LD(M_{4,6}) = 1$.



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• Professor Scott T. Chapman and Harold Polo for mentoring us throughout this time period,



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