THE CATENARY DEGREE OF KRULL MONOIDS II

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Abstract

Let H be a Krull monoid with finite class group G such that every class contains a prime divisor (for example, a ring of integers in an algebraic number field or a holomorphy ring in an algebraic function field). The catenary degree c(H) of H is the smallest integer N with the following property: for each $a \in H$ and each pair of factorizations z, z' of a, there exist factorizations $z = z_0, \ldots, z_k = z'$ of a such that, for each $i \in [1, k], z_i$ arises from z_{i-1} by replacing at most N atoms from z_{i-1} by at most N new atoms. To exclude trivial cases, suppose that $|G| \ge 3$. Then the catenary degree depends only on the class group G and we have $c(H) \in [3, D(G)]$, where D(G) denotes the Davenport constant of G. The cases when $c(H) \in \{3, 4, D(G)\}$ have been previously characterized (see Theorem A). Based on a characterization of the catenary degree determined in the paper by Geroldinger et al. ['The catenary degree of Krull monoids I', J. Théor. Nombres Bordeaux 23 (2011), 137–169], we determine the class groups satisfying c(H) = D(G) - 1. Apart from the extremal cases mentioned, the precise value of c(H) is known for no further class groups.

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1. Introduction and main results

As the title of this paper indicates, we continue the investigation of the arithmetic of Krull monoids. All integrally closed noetherian domains are Krull, and holomorphy rings in global fields are Krull monoids with finite class group and infinitely many prime ideals in each class. A Krull monoid is factorial if and only if its class group is trivial, and if this is not the case, then its arithmetic is described by invariants, such as sets of lengths and catenary degrees. We recall some basic definitions.

Let H be a Krull monoid with class group G. Then each nonunit $a \in H$ can be written as a product of atoms, and if $a = u_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot u_k$ with atoms u_1, \ldots, u_k of H, then k is called the length of the factorization. The set of lengths L(a) of all

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possible factorization lengths is finite, and if |L(a)| > 1, then $|L(a^n)| > n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We denote by $\mathcal{L}(H) = \{L(a) \mid a \in H\}$ the system of sets of lengths of H. This is an infinite family of finite subsets of nonnegative integers which is described by a variety of arithmetical parameters. The present paper will focus on the three closely related invariants, namely the set of distances, the $\mathbb{k}(H)$ invariant, and the catenary degree. If $L = \{m_1, \ldots, m_l\} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ is a finite set of integers with $l \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m_1 < \cdots < m_l$, then $\Delta(L) = \{m_i - m_{i-1} \mid i \in [2, l]\} \subset \mathbb{N}$ is the set of distances of L. The set of distances $\Delta(H)$ of H is the union of all sets $\Delta(L)$ with $L \in \mathcal{L}(H)$. If

$$\exists (H) = \sup\{\min(L \setminus \{2\}) \mid 2 \in L \in \mathcal{L}(H)\},\$$

then $\neg(H) \le 2 + \sup \Delta(H)$. The catenary degree c(H) of H is defined as the smallest integer N with the following property: for each $a \in H$ and each pair of factorizations z and z' of a, there exist factorizations $z = z_0, \ldots, z_k = z'$ of a such that, for each $i \in [1, k]$, z_i arises from z_{i-1} by replacing at most N atoms from z_{i-1} by at most N new atoms. A simple argument shows that H is factorial if and only if c(H) = 0, and if this is not the case, then $2 + \sup \Delta(H) \le c(H)$.

The study of these arithmetical invariants (in settings ranging from numerical monoids to Mori rings with zero-divisors) has attracted a lot of attention in the recent literature (for a sample, see [7–11, 14, 24, 25]). Our main focus here will be on Krull monoids with finite class group G such that each class contains a prime divisor. Let H be such a Krull monoid. Then |L| = 1 for all $L \in \mathcal{L}(H)$ if and only if $|G| \le 2$. Suppose that $|G| \ge 3$. Then the Davenport constant $\mathsf{D}(G)$ is finite, $\mathsf{T}(H) \ge 3$, and there is a canonical chain of inequalities

$$\exists (H) \le 2 + \max \Delta(H) \le \mathsf{c}(H) \le \mathsf{D}(G). \tag{*}$$

In general, each inequality can be strict (see [18, page 146]). However, for the Krull monoids under consideration the main result in [18] states that $\neg(H) = c(H)$ holds under a certain mild assumption on the Davenport constant. Our starting point is the following Theorem A (the first statement follows from [19, Theorem 6.4.7], and the characterization of $c(H) \in [3, 4]$ is given in [18, Corollary 5.6]).

THEOREM A. Let H be a Krull monoid with finite class group G where $|G| \ge 3$ and each class contains a prime divisor. Then $c(H) \in [3, D(G)]$, and we have:

- (1) c(H) = D(G) if and only if G is either cyclic or an elementary 2-group;
- (2) c(H) = 3 if and only if G is isomorphic to one of the groups $C_3, C_2 \oplus C_2$, or $C_3 \oplus C_3$;
- (3) c(H) = 4 if and only if G is isomorphic to one of the groups $C_4, C_2 \oplus C_4, C_2 \oplus C_2 \oplus C_2$, or $C_3 \oplus C_3 \oplus C_3$.

We formulate an important result of the present paper.

THEOREM 1.1. Let H be a Krull monoid with finite class group G where $|G| \ge 3$ and each class contains a prime divisor. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) c(H) = D(G) 1;
- (b) $\exists (H) = D(G) 1;$
- (c) *G* is isomorphic either to $C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4$ for some $r \ge 2$ or to $C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ for some $n \ge 2$.

In order to discuss the statements of Theorem 1.1 and their consequences, let H be a Krull monoid as in Theorem 1.1. Then the inequalities in (*) and the fact that $\Delta(H)$ is an interval with $1 \in \Delta(H)$ [20] imply that either of the conditions

$$\max \Delta(H) = \mathsf{D}(G) - 3$$
 or $\Delta(H) = [1, \mathsf{D}(G) - 3]$

is equivalent to the conditions in Theorem 1.1. The precise value of the Davenport constant is known for p-groups, for groups of rank at most two, and for some others. Thus we do know that $D(C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4) = r + 3$ and that $D(C_2 \oplus C_{2n}) = 2n + 1$. But the value of D(G) is unknown for general groups of rank three or for groups of the form $G = C_n^r$. Even less is known for the catenary degree C(H) and for C(H). Their precise values are known only for the cases occurring in Theorem A and Theorem 1.1.

As mentioned at the very beginning, holomorphy rings in global fields are (commutative) Krull monoids with finite class group. In recent years factorization theory has grown towards the noncommutative setting (for example, [1, 3]) with a focus on maximal orders in central simple algebras (they are noncommutative Krull monoids; see [4, 32]). Combining these results with Theorem 1.1 above, we obtain the following corollary.

COROLLARY 1.2. Let O be a holomorphy ring in a global field K, and R a classical maximal O-order in a central simple algebra A over K such that every stably free left R-ideal is free. Suppose that the ray class group $G = C_A(O)$ of O has at least three elements, let d denote a (suitable) distance on R, and $C_d(R)$ the d-catenary degree of R. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) $c_d(R) = D(G) 1$;
- (b) $\exists (R) = D(G) 1;$
- (c) G is isomorphic either to $C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4$ for some $r \ge 2$ or to $C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ for some $n \ge 2$.

Sets of lengths are the most investigated invariants in factorization theory. A standing (but wide open) conjecture states that for the class of Krull monoids under consideration sets of lengths are characteristic. To be more precise, let H and H' be Krull monoids with finite class groups G and G' with $|G| \ge |G'| \ge 4$ and suppose that each class contains a prime divisor. As usual, we write $\mathcal{L}(G) = \mathcal{L}(H)$ and $\mathcal{L}(H') = \mathcal{L}(G')$ (see Proposition 2.1). Then the conjecture states that $\mathcal{L}(G) = \mathcal{L}(G')$ implies that G and G' are isomorphic. For recent work in this direction we refer to [6, 28, 29] or to [19, Section 7.3], [15] for an overview. It turns out the extremal values of $\mathcal{L}(H)$ discussed in Theorem 1.1 are the main tool for deriving an arithmetical characterization of the associated groups. Thus we obtain the following corollary.

COROLLARY 1.3. Let G be an abelian group:

- (1) if $\mathcal{L}(G) = \mathcal{L}(C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4)$ for some $r \ge 2$, then $G \cong C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4$;
- (2) if $\mathcal{L}(G) = \mathcal{L}(C_2 \oplus C_{2n})$ for some $n \ge 2$, then $G \cong C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$.

In Section 2 we gather together the required concepts and tools. Section 3 studies sets of lengths in monoids of zero-sum sequences over finite abelian groups, and is confronted with problems belonging to structural (or inverse) additive number theory. Clearly, the irreducible elements of the monoids are precisely the minimal zero-sum sequences, and we mainly have to deal with minimal zero-sum sequences of extremal length D(G). The structure of minimal zero-sum sequences of length D(G) is known for cyclic groups and elementary 2-groups (in both cases there are trivial answers), and for groups of rank two [13, 26, 30]. Apart from that, structural results are available only in very special cases [27, 31], and it is precisely this lack of information which causes the difficulties in Section 3 (see Propositions 3.5–3.8). The proofs of the main results are given in Section 4. They substantially use transfer results (as partly summarized in Proposition 2.1, and also the transfer machinery from [4, 32]), the work from [18] (which relates the catenary degree and the $\Im(\cdot)$ invariant of Krull monoids), and all the work from Section 3.

2. Preliminaries

We denote by \mathbb{N} the set of positive integers and by \mathbb{N}_0 the set of nonnegative integers. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, C_n denotes a cyclic group of order n. For integers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid a \le x \le b\}$ is the discrete interval between a and b. Let $A, B \subset \mathbb{Z}$ be subsets. Then $A + B = \{a + b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}$ denotes their sumset. If $A = \{a_1, \ldots, a_l\}$ is finite with $|A| = l \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $a_1 < \cdots < a_l$, then $\Delta(A) = \{a_i - a_{i-1} \mid i \in [2, l]\} \subset \mathbb{N}$ is the set of distances of A. By definition, $\Delta(A) = \emptyset$ if and only if $|A| \le 1$.

By a monoid we always mean a commutative semigroup with identity which satisfies the cancellation law (that is, if a, b, c are elements of the monoid with ab = ac, then b = c follows). Let H be a monoid. Then H^{\times} denotes the unit group, q(H) the quotient group, $H_{\text{red}} = H/H^{\times}$ the associated reduced monoid, and $\mathcal{A}(H)$ the set of atoms of H. A monoid F is factorial with $F^{\times} = \{1\}$ if and only if it is free abelian. If this holds, then the set of primes $P \subset F$ is a basis of F, we write $F = \mathcal{F}(P)$, and every $a \in F$ has a representation of the form

$$a = \prod_{p \in P} p^{\mathsf{v}_p(a)}$$
 with $\mathsf{v}_p(a) \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $\mathsf{v}_p(a) = 0$ for almost all $p \in P$.

If $a \in F$, then $|a| = \sum_{p \in P} \mathsf{v}_p(a) \in \mathbb{N}_0$ is the length of a and $\mathsf{supp}(a) = \{ p \in P \mid \mathsf{v}_p(a) > 0 \}$ $\subset P$ is the support of a.

Let G be an additively written abelian group and $G_0 \subset G$ a subset. Then $\langle G_0 \rangle \subset G$ denotes the subgroup generated by G_0 . A family $(e_i)_{i \in I}$ of elements of G is said to be *independent* if $e_i \neq 0$ for all $i \in I$ and, for every family $(m_i)_{i \in I} \in \mathbb{Z}^{(I)}$,

$$\sum_{i \in I} m_i e_i = 0 \quad \text{implies} \quad m_i e_i = 0 \quad \text{for all } i \in I.$$

The family $(e_i)_{i \in I}$ is called a *basis* for G if $G = \bigoplus_{i \in I} \langle e_i \rangle$.

Arithmetical concepts. Our notation and terminology are consistent with [19]. We briefly gather some key notions. The free abelian monoid $Z(H) = \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{A}(H_{red}))$ is the

factorization monoid of H, and the unique homomorphism $\pi: \mathsf{Z}(H) \to H_{\text{red}}$ satisfying $\pi(u) = u$ for all $u \in \mathcal{A}(H_{\text{red}})$ is the factorization homomorphism of H (so π maps a formal product of atoms onto its product in H_{red}). For $a \in H$,

$$\mathsf{Z}_H(a) = \mathsf{Z}(a) = \pi^{-1}(a) \subset \mathsf{Z}(H)$$
 is the set of factorizations of a , and $\mathsf{L}_H(a) = \mathsf{L}(a) = \{|z| \mid z \in \mathsf{Z}(a)\}$ is the set of lengths of a .

Then H is atomic (that is, each nonunit can be written as a finite product of atoms) if and only if $Z(a) \neq \emptyset$ for each $a \in H$, and H is factorial if and only if |Z(a)| = 1 for each $a \in H$. Furthermore, for each $a \in H$, $L(a) = \{0\}$ if and only if $a \in H^{\times}$, and for all nonunits the present definition coincides with the informal one given in the Introduction. In particular, $L(a) = \{1\}$ if and only if $a \in \mathcal{A}(H)$. We denote by $\mathcal{L}(H) = \{L(a) \mid a \in H\}$ the system of sets of lengths of H, and by

$$\Delta(H) = \bigcup_{L \in \mathcal{L}(H)} \Delta(L)$$
 the set of distances of H .

Distances occurring in sets of lengths L with $2 \in L$ (in other words, in sets of lengths L(uv) with atoms $u, v \in H$) will play a central role. We define

$$\exists (H) = \sup \{ \min(L \setminus \{2\}) \mid L \in \mathcal{L}(H) \text{ with } 2 \in L \}$$

and observe that $\exists (H) \leq 2 + \sup \Delta(H)$. Before we define catenary degrees we recall the concept of the distance between factorizations. Two factorizations $z, z' \in \mathsf{Z}(H)$ can be written in the form

$$z = u_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot u_l v_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot v_m$$
 and $z' = u_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot u_l w_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot w_n$

with

$$\{v_1,\ldots,v_m\}\cap\{w_1,\ldots,w_n\}=\emptyset,$$

where $l, m, n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $u_1, \ldots, u_l, v_1, \ldots, v_m, w_1, \ldots, w_n \in \mathcal{A}(H_{\text{red}})$. Then $\gcd(z, z') = u_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot u_l$, and we call $d(z, z') = \max\{m, n\} = \max\{|z \gcd(z, z')^{-1}|, |z' \gcd(z, z')^{-1}|\} \in \mathbb{N}_0$ the *distance* between z and z'. It is easy to verify that $d: Z(H) \times Z(H) \to \mathbb{N}_0$ has all the usual properties of a metric.

Let $a \in H$ and $N \in \mathbb{N}_0 \cup \{\infty\}$. A finite sequence $z_0, \ldots, z_k \in \mathsf{Z}(a)$ is called an N-chain of factorizations if $\mathsf{d}(z_{i-1}, z_i) \leq N$ for all $i \in [1, k]$. We denote by $\mathsf{c}(a)$ the smallest $N \in \mathbb{N}_0 \cup \{\infty\}$ such that any two factorizations $z, z' \in \mathsf{Z}(a)$ can be concatenated by an N-chain. Note that $\mathsf{c}(a) \leq \sup \mathsf{L}(a)$, that $\mathsf{c}(a) = 0$ if and only if $|\mathsf{Z}(a)| = 1$, and if $|\mathsf{Z}(a)| > 1$, then $2 + \sup \Delta(\mathsf{L}(a)) \leq \mathsf{c}(a)$. Globalizing this concept we define

$$c(H) = \sup\{c(b) \mid b \in H\} \in \mathbb{N}_0 \cup \{\infty\}$$

as the *catenary degree* of H. Then c(H) = 0 if and only if H is factorial, and if H is not factorial, then $2 + \sup \Delta(H) \le c(H)$.

Krull monoids. A monoid homomorphism $\varphi : H \to F$ is said to be a divisor homomorphism if $\varphi(a) \mid \varphi(b)$ in F implies that $a \mid b$ in H for all $a, b \in H$. A monoid H is said to be a Krull monoid if one of the following equivalent properties is satisfied

(see [19, Theorem 2.4.8] or [22]):

- (a) *H* is completely integrally closed and satisfies the ascending chain condition on divisorial ideals;
- (b) *H* has a divisor homomorphism into a free abelian monoid;
- (c) H has a divisor theory—this is a divisor homomorphism $\varphi: H \to F = \mathcal{F}(P)$ into a free abelian monoid such that for each $p \in P$ there is a finite set $E \subset H$ with $p = \gcd(\varphi(E))$.

Let H be a Krull monoid. Then a divisor theory is unique up to unique isomorphism and the group $C(\varphi) = q(F)/q(\varphi(H))$ depends only on H, and hence it is called the class group of H. We say that a class $g = [a] = aq(\varphi(H)) \subset q(F) \in C(\varphi)$, with $a \in q(F)$, contains a prime divisor if $g \cap P \neq \emptyset$. A domain R is Krull if and only if its multiplicative monoid $R^{\bullet} = R \setminus \{0\}$ of nonzero elements is Krull. Thus property (a) shows that every integrally closed noetherian domain is Krull. If R is Krull with finite class group such that each class contains a prime divisor, then the same is true for regular congruence submonoids of R [19, Section 2.11]. For monoids of modules which are Krull we refer the reader to [2, 5, 12].

Next we discuss a Krull monoid having a combinatorial flavour. It plays a universal role in all arithmetical studies of general Krull monoids. Let G be an additive abelian group and $G_0 \subset G$ a subset. Following the tradition in combinatorial number theory, elements $S \in \mathcal{F}(G_0)$ will be called sequences over G_0 (for a recent presentation of their theory we refer to [21], and for an overview of their interplay with factorization theory we refer to [15]). Let $S = g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l = \prod_{g \in G_0} g^{\mathsf{v}_g(S)} \in \mathcal{F}(G_0)$ be a sequence over G_0 . Then $\mathsf{h}(S) = \max\{\mathsf{v}_g(S) \mid g \in G_0\}$ denotes the maximum multiplicity of S, $\sigma(S) = g_1 + \cdots + g_l \in G$ is the sum of S, and

$$\Sigma(S) = \left\{ \sum_{i \in I} g_i \mid \emptyset \neq I \subset [1, l] \right\} = \{ \sigma(T) \mid 1 \neq T \text{ is a subsequence of } S \} \subset G$$

denotes the set of subsums of S. We say that S is zero-sum free if $0 \notin \Sigma(S)$ and that S is a zero-sum sequence if $\sigma(S) = 0$. Obviously, S is zero-sum free or a (minimal) zero-sum sequence if and only if $-S = (-g_1) \cdot \ldots \cdot (-g_l)$ has this property. The set

$$\mathcal{B}(G_0) = \{ S \in \mathcal{F}(G_0) \mid \sigma(S) = 0 \} \subset \mathcal{F}(G_0)$$

of all zero-sum sequences over G_0 is a submonoid of $\mathcal{F}(G_0)$, and since the embedding $\mathcal{B}(G_0) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{F}(G_0)$ obviously is a divisor homomorphism, property (b) shows that $\mathcal{B}(G_0)$ is a Krull monoid. For each arithmetical invariant *(H) defined for a monoid H, we write $*(G_0)$ instead of $*(\mathcal{B}(G_0))$. This is the usual convention and hardly likely to lead to misunderstanding. In particular, we set $\mathcal{L}(G_0) = \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{B}(G_0))$, $\neg(G_0) = \neg(\mathcal{B}(G_0))$, and $\Delta(G_0) = \Delta(\mathcal{B}(G_0))$. The set $\mathcal{A}(G_0) = \mathcal{A}(\mathcal{B}(G_0))$ of atoms of $\mathcal{B}(G_0)$ is the set of minimal zero-sum sequences over G_0 and

$$\mathsf{D}(G_0) = \sup\{|A| \mid A \in \mathcal{A}(G_0)\} \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$$

is the Davenport constant of G_0 . If G_0 is finite, then $\mathcal{A}(G_0)$ is finite and hence $\mathsf{D}(G_0) < \infty$.

Suppose that G is finite abelian, say $G \cong C_{n_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus C_{n_r}$ with $1 < n_1 | \cdots | n_r$. Then $1 + \sum_{i=1}^r (n_i - 1) \leq \mathsf{D}(G)$. We will use without further mention the fact that equality holds for p-groups and for groups of rank $r \leq 2$ [19, Ch. 5]. Furthermore, we will frequently use the fact that, if $\exp(G) + 1 = n_r + 1 = \mathsf{D}(G)$, then r = 2 and $G \cong C_2 \oplus C_{n_2}$. If $S \in \mathcal{F}(G)$ is zero-sum free of length $|S| = \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$, then $\Sigma(S) = G \setminus \{0\}$, and if $S \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $|S| = \mathsf{D}(G)$, then $\Sigma(S) = G$ (see [19, Proposition 5.1.4]).

Suppose that $|G| \ge 3$. Then $\mathcal{B}(G)$ is a Krull monoid whose class group is isomorphic to G and each class contains precisely one prime divisor [19, Proposition 2.5.6]. Furthermore, its arithmetic reflects the arithmetic of more general Krull monoids as summarized in the next proposition (for a proof see [19, Section 3.4]).

PROPOSITION 2.1. Let H be a Krull monoid, $\varphi: H \to F = \mathcal{F}(P)$ a divisor theory, $G = C(\varphi)$ the class group, and suppose that each class contains a prime divisor. Let $\widetilde{\beta}: \mathcal{F}(P) \to \mathcal{F}(G)$ denote the unique homomorphism satisfying $\widetilde{\beta}(p) = [p]$ for each $p \in P$, and let $\beta = \widetilde{\beta} \circ \varphi: H \to \mathcal{B}(G)$:

- (1) for each $a \in H$, we have $L_H(a) = L_{\mathcal{B}(G)}(\boldsymbol{\beta}(a))$ —in particular, $\mathcal{L}(H) = \mathcal{L}(G)$, $\Delta(H) = \Delta(G)$ and $\Im(H) = \Im(G)$;
- (2) $|G| \le 2$ if and only if $D(G) \le 2$ if and only if |L| = 1 for all $L \in \mathcal{L}(G)$;
- (3) *if* $|G| \ge 3$, *then* c(H) = c(G).

3. On sets of lengths $L \in \mathcal{L}(G)$ having extremal properties

In this section we mainly study sets of lengths of zero-sum sequences over finite abelian groups. We start by recalling two results from [18].

Lemma 3.1. Let G be a finite abelian group with $|G| \ge 3$, say $G = C_{n_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus C_{n_r}$ with $1 < n_1 | \cdots | n_r$:

- (1) $c(G) \le \max\{\lfloor \frac{1}{2}D(G) + 1\rfloor, \exists (G)\};$
- (2) $\exists (G) \geq \max\{n_r, 1 + \sum_{i=1}^r \lfloor n_i/2 \rfloor\}.$

Proof. See [18, Proposition 4.1 and Theorem 4.2].

Lemma 3.2. Let G be an abelian group with $|G| \ge 3$, and let $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $\max L(UV) \ge 3$.

- (1) Let $K \subset G$ be a finite cyclic subgroup. If $\sum_{h \in K} V_h(UV) > |K|$ and there exists a nonzero $g \in K$ such that $V_g(U) > 0$ and $V_{-g}(V) > 0$, then $L(UV) \cap [3, |K|] \neq \emptyset$.
- (2) If $L(UV) \cap [3, \operatorname{ord}(g)] = \emptyset$ for some $g \in G$, then $V_g(U) + V_{-g}(V) \leq \operatorname{ord}(g)$.

Proof. (1) See [18, Lemma 5.2].

(2) Let $g \in G$. If $v_g(U) = 0$ or $v_{-g}(V) = 0$, then the assertion is clear. If $v_g(U) > 0$ and $v_{-g}(V) > 0$, then the assertion follows from (1) with $K = \langle g \rangle$.

Let A be a zero-sum sequence over a finite abelian group G and suppose that $0 \nmid A$. If

$$A = U_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot U_k = V_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot V_l$$

where $k, l \in \mathbb{N}$ and $U_1, \dots, U_k, V_1, \dots, V_l \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, then obviously

$$2l \le \sum_{i=1}^{l} |V_i| = |A| = \sum_{i=1}^{k} |U_i| \le k \mathsf{D}(G).$$

These inequalities will be used implicitly in many of the forthcoming arguments.

LEMMA 3.3. Let $G = C_4 \oplus C_4$. Then $\neg(G) = c(G) = 5$. Moreover, if $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $L(UV) \cap [2,5] = \{2,5\}$, then $\langle \text{supp}(UV) \rangle = G$.

PROOF. First, we prove the moreover statement. Let $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $L(UV) \cap [2, 5] = \{2, 5\}$. Then $\exists (\langle \operatorname{supp}(UV) \rangle) \geq 5$. Since for every proper subgroup K of G we have $\exists (K) \leq \exists (C_2 \oplus C_4) < \mathsf{D}(G) = 5$ by Theorem A, it follows that $\langle \operatorname{supp}(UV) \rangle = G$.

Recall that D(G) = 7, and note that it suffices to prove $\neg(G) \le 5$, since then combing with [18, Proposition 4.1.2 and Corollary 4.3] yields $5 \le \neg(G) = c(G) \le 5$.

Let $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with max L(UV) > 5 be given. Since max $L(UV) \le \min\{|U|, |V|\} \le D(G) = 7$, it follows that $\min\{|U|, |V|\} \in \{6, 7\}$. We have to show that there exists a factorization $UV = W_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot W_k$ with $W_1, \ldots, W_k \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ and $k \in [3, 5]$. We start with two special cases.

First, suppose that V = -U and |U| = 7. Then [19, Theorem 6.6.7] implies that $4 \in L(UV)$, and thus the assertion follows.

Second, suppose that there exist $W_1, W_2 \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $W_1W_2 \mid UV, 5 \geq |W_1| \geq |W_2|$, and $|W_1W_2| \geq 7$. Then there exist $k \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 3}, W_3, \ldots, W_k \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $UV = W_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot W_k$, and

$$2(k-2) \le |W_3 \cdot \ldots \cdot W_k| = |UV| - |W_1 W_2| \le 14 - 7 = 7$$

implies $k \le 5$, and the assertion follows.

Assume to the contrary that UV has no factorization of length $k \in [3, 5]$. Then none of the two special cases holds true. By [17, Lemma 3.6], UV has a zero-sum subsequence $W_1 \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ of length $|W_1| \in [2, 4]$, and suppose that $|W_1|$ is maximal. Then there is a factorization

$$UV = W_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot W_k$$
 with $k \ge 3$ and $W_1, \ldots, W_k \in \mathcal{A}(G)$.

By assumption we have $k \ge 6$. Since k = 7 would imply that V = -U and |U| = 7, it follows that k = 6. We distinguish three cases.

Case 1. $|W_1| = 2$.

Since $|W_1|$ is maximal, we get $|W_1| = \cdots = |W_k| = 2$, and thus $|UV| \in \{12, 14\}$ and V = -U. Since we are not in the first special case, it follows that |U| = 6, say $U = g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_6$.

If h(U) = 3, say $g_1 = g_2 = g_3$, then $W = (-g_1)g_4g_5g_6 \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $W \mid UV$, a contradiction. Thus $h(U) \le 2$. Since $D(C_2^2) = 3$, supp(U) contains at most two elements of order 2, say $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \cdots = \operatorname{ord}(g_4) = 4$. Since $D(C_2 \oplus C_4) = 5$, it follows that $\operatorname{supp}(U)$ generates G. Recall that the maximal size of a minimal generating

set of G equals $r^*(G) = 2$, and that every generating set contains a basis (see [19, Appendix A]). Thus the elements of order four contain a basis.

Suppose that there are two elements with multiplicity two, say $g_1 = g_3$ and $g_2 = g_4$. Then (g_1, g_2) is a basis of G and $g_5 = ag_1 + bg_2$ with $a, b \in [1, 3]$. Thus there is a zero-sum subsequence $W \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with |W| > 2, $W \mid UV$ and supp $(W) \in \{g_5, g_1, g_2, -g_1, -g_2\}$, a contradiction.

Suppose that there is precisely one element with multiplicity two, say $g_1 = g_3$. Then (g_1, g_2) is a basis of G and there is an element in supp(U) of the form $ag_1 + bg_2$ with $a \in [1, 3]$ and $b \in \{1, 3\}$. As above we obtain a zero-sum sequence W with |W| > 2, a contradiction.

Suppose that h(U) = 1. Then (g_1, g_2) is a basis of G. Then there is one element in supp(U) which is not of the form $\{g_1 + 2g_2, 2g_1 + g_2, 2g_1 + 2g_2\}$, and hence it has the form $ag_1 + bg_2$ with $a, b \in \{1, 3\}$, and we obtain a contradiction as above.

Case 2. $|W_1| = 4$.

Since k = 6, $|UV| \le 14$ and $|W_1| = 4$, we get $|W_2| = \cdots = |W_6| = 2$ and |U| = |V| = 7. By [19, Example 5.8.8], there exists a basis (e_1, e_2) of G such that

$$U = e_1^3 \prod_{\nu=1}^4 (a_{\nu}e_1 + e_2)$$

with $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4 \in [0, 3]$ and $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 \equiv 1 \mod 4$. We set $X = \gcd(W_1, U)$. Then there are $X, Y, Z \in \mathcal{F}(G)$ such that U = XZ, V = Y(-Z) and $W_1 = XY$. After renumbering if necessary, there are the following three cases:

$$X = e_1^2$$
, $X = e_1(a_1e_1 + e_2)$ or $X = (a_1e_1 + e_2)(a_2e_1 + e_2)$.

If $X = e_1^2$, then $(-e_1)(a_1e_1 + e_2) \cdot \dots \cdot (a_4e_1 + e_2)$ is a minimal zero-sum subsequence of UV of length five, a contradiction.

Suppose that $X = (a_1e_1 + e_2)(a_2e_1 + e_2)$. If $a_3 \ne a_4$, then $(a_3e_1 + e_2)(-a_4e_1 - e_2)e_1^3$ has a zero-sum subsequence of length four or five, a contradiction. Suppose that $a_3 = a_4$. Then $(e_1, a_3e_1 + e_2)$ is a basis, and after changing notation if necessary, we may suppose that $a_3 = 0$. Then $(a_1e_1 + e_2)(a_2e_1 + e_2) \in \{e_2(e_1 + e_2), (2e_1 + e_2)(-e_1 + e_2)\}$. In the first case $e_1^3(e_1 + e_2)(-e_2)$ and in the second case $(-e_1)^3(-e_1 + e_2)(-e_2)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of UV of length five, a contradiction.

Suppose that $X = e_1(a_1e_1 + e_2)$. If two of the a_2 , a_3 , a_4 are distinct, say $a_2 \neq a_3$, then $(a_2e_1 + e_2)(-a_3e_1 - e_2)e_1^2(-e_1)^2$ has a zero-sum subsequence of length greater than two, a contradiction. Suppose that $a_2 = a_3 = a_4$. Then $(e_1, e_2' = a_2e_1 + e_2)$ is a basis. Then $U = e_1^3(e_1 + e_2')e_2'^3$ and $e_1^3(e_1 + e_2')(-e_2')$ is a minimal zero-sum subsequence of UV of length five, a contradiction.

Case 3. $|W_1| = 3$.

After renumbering if necessary, we may suppose that |U| = 7, $|V| \in \{6, 7\}$, $|W_2| \in \{2, 3\}$ and $|W_3| = \cdots = |W_6| = 2$. By [19, Example 5.8.8], there exists a basis (e_1, e_2) of G such that

$$U = e_1^3 \prod_{\nu=1}^4 (a_{\nu}e_1 + e_2)$$

with $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4 \in [0, 3]$ and $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 \equiv 1 \mod 4$. Thus *U* has a subsequence *S* of length |S| = 4 such that -S is a subsequence of *V*.

Suppose that there are two distinct elements in $\{a_1e_1 + e_2, \dots, a_4e_1 + e_2\}$, say $(a_1e_1 + e_2)$ and $(a_2e_1 + e_2)$, such that $(a_1e_1 + e_2)(a_2e_1 + e_2) \mid S$. Then either $(a_1e_1 + e_2)(-a_2e_1 - e_2)e_1^3$ or $(-a_1e_1 - e_2)(a_2e_1 + e_2)e_1^3$ contains a zero-sum subsequence of length four or five, a contradiction.

Now we suppose that this does not hold and distinguish three cases.

Suppose that $vS = e_1(a_1e_1 + e_2)(a_2e_1 + e_2)(a_3e_1 + e_2)$. Then $a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = a$, and since $(e_1, ae_1 + e_2)$ is a basis of G, we may suppose that a = 0. Then $U = e_1^3 e_2^3 (e_1 + e_2)$ and $(-e_1)e_2^3 (e_1 + e_2)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of UV of length five, a contradiction.

Suppose that $S = e_1^2(a_1e_1 + e_2)(a_2e_1 + e_2)$. Then $a_1 = a_2$, and since $(e_1, ae_1 + e_2)$ is a basis of G, we may suppose that a = 0. Then $U = e_1^3 e_2^2(ae_1 + e_2)((1 - a)e_1 + e_2)$, and either $(-e_2)e_1^3(ae_1 + e_2)$ or $(-e_2)e_1^3((1 - a)e_1 + e_2)$ has a zero-sum subsequence of length greater than or equal to four, a contradiction.

Suppose that $S = e_1^3(a_1e_1 + e_2)$. Again we may suppose that a = 0 and find a zero-sum subsequence of UV of length greater than or equal to four, a contradiction.

LEMMA 3.4. Let G be a finite abelian group with $|G| \ge 3$ and $U \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $|U| = \mathsf{D}(G)$.

- (1) If $g_1, g_2, h \in \text{supp}(U)$, then $g_1 \neq 2g_2$, and if ord(h) = 2, then $g_1 \neq 2g_2 + h$.
- (2) Let $g \in G$ with $\bigvee_g(U) = k \ge 1$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g) > 2$ and suppose that $|\sup_g(U)| \ge 2$. Then there exists some $W \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $W \mid (-g)^k g^{-k} U$ and $|W| \in [3, D(G) - 1]$.

PROOF. (1) Assume to the contrary that $g_1 = 2g_2$. Since $|U| = \mathsf{D}(G)$, it follows that $\Sigma(g_1^{-1}U) = G \setminus \{0\}$. Hence there exists some $W \in \mathcal{F}(G)$ such that $W \mid g_1^{-1}U$ and $\sigma(W) = -g_2$. If $g_2 \mid W$, then $g_1g_2^{-1}W$ is a proper zero-sum subsequence of U, a contradiction. If $g_2 \nmid W$, then g_2W is a proper zero-sum subsequence of U, a contradiction.

Assume to the contrary that $\operatorname{ord}(h) = 2$ and $g_1 = 2g_2 + h$. There exists some $W \in \mathcal{F}(G)$ such that $W \mid g_1^{-1}U$ and $\sigma(W) = -g_2 + h$. If $g_2 \mid W$, then $g_1g_2^{-1}W$ is a proper zero-sum subsequence of U, a contradiction. If $g_2 \nmid W$ and $h \mid W$, then $g_2h^{-1}W$ is a proper zero-sum subsequence of U, a contradiction. If $g_2 \nmid W$ and $h \nmid W$, then g_2hW is a proper zero-sum subsequence of U, a contradiction.

(2) Since $|(-g)^k g^{-k} U| = |U| = \mathsf{D}(G)$, there exists some $W \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $W \mid (-g)^k g^{-k} U$. It is easy to show that $|W| \neq 2$. Assume to the contrary that $|W| = \mathsf{D}(G)$. Then $W = (-g)^k g^{-k} U$ and $\mathsf{ord}(g) = 2k > k + 1$. Let $h \in \mathsf{supp}(U) \setminus \{g\}$. Since $\Sigma(h^{-1}U) = G \setminus \{0\}$, there exists some $T \in \mathcal{F}(G)$ such that $T \mid h^{-1}U$ and $\sigma(T) = (k+1)g$. If $g \nmid T$, then $g^{k-1}T$ is a proper zero-sum subsequence of U, a contradiction. Suppose that $g \mid T$, say $T = g^t T_0$ with $t \in [1,k]$ and $T_0 \mid g^{-k}U$. Then $W' = (-g)^{k-t+1}T_0$ is a zero-sum subsequence of $W = (-g)^k g^{-k}U$. Since W is an atom, it follows that W' = W. This implies that $T_0 = g^{-k}U$, a contradiction to $T_0 \mid T \mid h^{-1}U$.

Proposition 3.5. Let G be a finite abelian group with $D(G) \ge 5$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) *G* is isomorphic to $C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ with $n \ge 2$;
- (b) there exist $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $L(UV) = \{2, D(G) 1, D(G)\}$.

PROOF. (a) implies (b). Let (e_1, e_2) be a basis of G with $ord(e_1) = 2$ and $ord(e_2) = 2n$ with $n \ge 2$. Then D(G) = 2n + 1, $U = e_1 e_2^{2n-1}(e_1 + e_2) \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ and $L(U(-U)) = \{2, D(G) - 1, D(G)\}$.

(b) implies (a). Since $D(G) \in L(UV)$, it follows that |U| = |V| = D(G) and V = -U. Let $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $A \mid U(-U)$. Then $|A| \in \{2, 3, D(G)\}$, and if |A| = D(G), then $U(-U)A^{-1}$ is an atom of length D(G). Since |U| = D(G), it follows that $\Sigma(U) = G$. By [19, Theorem 6.6.3], G is neither cyclic nor an elementary 2-group. Therefore, $|\sup(U)| \ge 2$ and we may write $U = g_1^{k_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot g_s^{k_s}$ with $g_1, \ldots, g_s \in G$ pairwise distinct, $s \ge 2, k_1, \ldots, k_s \in \mathbb{N}$, and $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) > 2$.

We continue with the following assertion:

- (A1) if ord $g_i > 2$ for some $i \in [1, s]$, then there exist distinct elements $h_1, h_2 \in \text{supp}(U)$ such that $g_i = h_1 + h_2$;
- (A2) if ord $g_i > 2$ for some $i \in [1, s]$, then there exist distinct elements $f_1, f_2 \in \text{supp}(U)$ such that $g_i = f_1 + f_2$, ord $(f_1) > 2$ and ord $(f_2) = 2$.

PROOF OF (A1). Let $i \in [1, s]$ with $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2$. By Lemma 3.4(2), there exists an atom $W \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $W \mid g_i^{-k_i}(-g_i)^{k_i}U$ and $|W| \in [3, \mathsf{D}(G)-1]$. Then $W \mid U(-U)$ implies |W| = 3. Thus $W = (-g_i)^2h_1$ with $h_1 \mid U$ or $W = (-g_i)h_1h_2$ with $h_1h_2 \mid U$. In the first case $h_1 = 2g_i$, a contradiction to Lemma 3.4(1). Thus the second case holds, and again Lemma 3.4(1) implies that h_1 and h_2 are distinct.

PROOF OF (A2). Let $i \in [1, s]$ with $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2$, say i = 1. By (A1), we may assume that $g_1 = g_2 + g_3$ and hence $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) > 2$ or $\operatorname{ord}(g_3) > 2$. Assume to the contrary that $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) > 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_3) > 2$. Again by (A1), there are distinct $h_1, h_2 \in \operatorname{supp}(U)$ such that $g_2 = h_1 + h_2$. Then $\{h_1, h_2\} \cap \{g_1, g_3\} \neq \emptyset$, otherwise $(-g_1)h_1h_2g_3$ would be an atom of length four dividing U(-U). Since $g_2 = g_1 + h_i$ with $i \in [1, 2]$ cannot hold, we obtain that $g_2 = g_3 + h$ with $h \in \{h_1, h_2\}$. Repeating the argument we infer that $g_3 = g_2 + h'$ with $h' \in \operatorname{supp}(U)$. It follows that h + h' = 0, which implies that h = h', $\operatorname{ord}(h) = 2$, and $g_1 = 2g_3 + h$, a contradiction to Lemma 3.4(1).

Since $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) > 2$, by (A2) we may assume that $g_1 = g_2 + g_3$ with $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) > 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_3) = 2$. If s = 3, then $G = \langle \operatorname{supp}(U) \rangle = \langle g_1, g_2, g_3 \rangle = \langle g_2, g_3 \rangle \cong C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ with $n \ge 2$. Assume to the contrary that $s \ge 4$. We distinguish two cases.

Case 1. There is an $i \in [4, s]$ such that $ord(g_i) > 2$, say i = 4.

By (A2), we may assume that $g_4 = h_1 + h_2$ with $\operatorname{ord}(h_1) > 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(h_2) = 2$. We assert that $\{g_1, g_2, g_3\} \cap \{g_4, h_1, h_2\} = \emptyset$. Assume to the contrary that this does not hold. Taking into account the order of the elements and that $|\{g_1, \dots, g_4\}| = 4$, we have to

consider the following three cases:

- if $h_2 = g_3$, then $g_1 + g_4 = g_2 + h_1$ and hence $(-g_1)(-g_4)g_2h_1$ is an atom of length four dividing U(-U), a contradiction;
- if $h_1 = g_1$, then $(-g_4)g_2g_3h_2$ is an atom of length four dividing U(-U), a contradiction;
- if $h_1 = g_2$, then $(-g_4)g_1g_3h_2$ is an atom of length four dividing U(-U), a contradiction.

Thus we have $\{g_1, g_2, g_3\} \cap \{g_4, h_1, h_2\} = \emptyset$. Obviously, $(-g_1)g_2g_3$, $g_1(-g_2)(-g_3)$, $(-g_4)h_1h_2$ and $g_4(-h_1)(-h_2)$ are atoms of length three dividing U(-U), and therefore their product $(-g_1)g_2g_3 \cdot g_1(-g_2)(-g_3) \cdot (-g_4)h_1h_2 \cdot g_4(-h_1)(-h_2)$ divides U(-U), a contradiction to $L(U(-U)) = \{2, D(G) - 1, D(G)\}$.

Case 2. ord(g_i) = 2 for all $i \in [4, s]$.

If $k_1 \ge 2$ and $k_2 \ge 2$, then $(-g_1)^2 g_2^2$ is an atom of length four dividing U(-U), a contradiction. Thus $k_1 = 1$ or $k_2 = 1$, say $k_1 = 1$. Since $g_1 + k_2 g_2 + g_3 + \cdots + g_s = \sigma(U) = 0$ and $(k_2 + 1)g_2 = g_4 + \cdots + g_s$, it follows that $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) = 2(k_2 + 1)$. Thus

$$\exp(G) + s - 3 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = k_2 + s - 1 \le 2(k_2 + 1) + s - 4 \le \exp(G) + s - 4,$$

a contradiction.

PROPOSITION 3.6. Let G be a finite abelian group with $D(G) \ge 5$. Then there are no $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $L(UV) = \{2, D(G) - 1\}$ and |U| = |V| = D(G).

PROOF. Assume to the contrary that $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with these properties do exist. If $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $A \mid UV$, then $|A| \in \{2, 3, 4, \mathsf{D}(G)\}$. Since $\Sigma(U) = \Sigma(V) = G$ and G cannot be cyclic, it follows that $|\mathsf{supp}(U)| \ge 2$ and $|\mathsf{supp}(V)| \ge 2$. We distinguish two cases.

Case 1. For all $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $A \mid UV$ we have that $|A| \in \{2, 3, \mathsf{D}(G)\}$.

Then UV has a factorization of the form $UV = W_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot W_{D(G)-1}$ where $W_1, \ldots, W_{D(G)-1} \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, $|W_{D(G)-2}| = |W_{D(G)-1}| = 3$, and all the other W_i have length two. Thus we may set

$$U = g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l h_1 h_4 h_5$$
 and $V = (-g_1) \cdot \ldots \cdot (-g_l) (-h_2) (-h_3) (-h_6)$,

where $l \in \mathbb{N}$, $g_1, \dots, g_l, h_1, \dots, h_6 \in G$ not necessarily distinct such that $h_1 = h_2 + h_3$, $h_6 = h_4 + h_5$ and $\{h_1, h_4, h_5\} \cap \{h_2, h_3, h_6\} = \emptyset$.

Since $V(-g_6)^{-1}$ is a zero-sum free sequence of length D(G) - 1, there exists a subsequence T of $V(-g_6)^{-1}$ such that $\sigma(T) = h_4$. Thus $Th_5(-h_6)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of UV. Since $T(-h_6)$ is zero-sum free, we obtain that $Th_5(-h_6)$ is an atom of length $|Th_5(-h_6)| \in \{3, D(G)\}$. If $|Th_5(-h_6)| = 3$, then |T| = 1, which implies that $h_4 | V$. If $|Th_5(-h_6)| = D(G)$, then $Th_5(-h_6) = V$, which implies that $h_5 | V$. Therefore, we obtain that $h_4 \in \text{supp}(U) \cap \text{supp}(V)$ or $h_5 \in \text{supp}(U) \cap \text{supp}(V)$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $h_4 \in \text{supp}(U) \cap \text{supp}(V)$.

We start with the following assertions:

- (A1) ord $(h_4) > 2$, $(-2h_4)^2 \mid U$ and $(-2h_4)^2 \mid V$;
- (A2) if $g_i \notin \{h_1, \dots, h_6\}$ for some $i \in [1, l]$, then $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) = 2$.

PROOF of (A1). Since $-g_i \neq h_4$ for all $i \in [1, l]$, we obtain that $h_4 \in \{-h_2, -h_3, -h_6\}$, which implies that ord $(h_4) > 2$.

By the symmetry of U and V, we only need to prove that $(-2h_4)^2 \mid U$. For any $g \in \text{supp}(U)$ with $g \neq h_4$, consider the sequence $Ug^{-1}h_4$. Since $|Ug^{-1}h_4| = \mathsf{D}(G)$ and $Ug^{-1}h_4 \mid UV$, there exists a atom A with $A \mid Ug^{-1}h_4$ and |A| = 3 by Lemma 3.4(2). Note that $h_4^2 \mid A$. Therefore, $-2h_4 \mid Ug^{-1}$. If $\operatorname{ord}(h_4) = 3$, then $h_4 = -2h_4$ and $A = h_4^3$, which implies that $h_4^2 \mid U$. If $\operatorname{ord}(h_4) > 3$, then $-2h_4 \neq h_4$. Thus we can choose $g = -2h_4$, which implies that $(-2h_4)^2 \mid U$.

PROOF OF (A2). Let $i \in [1, l]$ such that $g_i \notin \{h_1, \ldots, h_6\}$ and assume to the contrary that $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2$. Let $v = \mathsf{v}_{g_i}(U) = \mathsf{v}_{-g_i}(V)$. By Lemma 3.4(2), we obtain that there exists an atom W such that $W \mid g_i^{-v}(-g_i)^v U$ and |W| = 3. By Lemma 3.4(1), $\mathsf{v}_{-g_i}(W) = 1$. Thus there exist $f_1, f_2 \in \operatorname{supp}(U)$ such that $g_i = f_1 + f_2$. Obviously, $f_1 f_2 \nmid g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l$. If $f_1 \mid g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l$ and $f_2 \mid h_1 h_4 h_5$, then $f_2 = g_i + (-f_1)$. Since f_2 is an element of an atom of length three, we can substitute f_2 by $g_i(-f_1)$ to get an atom of length four, a contradiction. Therefore, $f_1 f_2 \mid h_1 h_4 h_5$. If $f_1 f_2 = h_4 h_5$, then $g_i = h_6$, a contradiction. By the symmetry of h_4 and h_5 , we only need to consider $f_1 f_2 = h_1 h_4$. Since $(-g_i)h_1 h_4$ is an atom, $g_i h_5(-h_2)(-h_3)(-h_6)$ can only be a product of two atoms, which implies that $g_i \in \{h_2, h_3, h_6\}$, a contradiction.

We continue with the following two subcases.

Case 1.1. ord(h_4) > 3.

By (A1), we have $(-2h_4)^2 \mid U$ and $(-2h_4)^2 \mid V$. Thus, for any $i \in [1, l]$, $g_i \neq -2h_4$ and $-g_i \neq -2h_4$. Therefore, we obtain that $h_1 = h_5 = -2h_4$ and $-h_6 = h_4$, and hence $-h_2 = -h_3 = -2h_4$. Then $-2h_4 = h_1 = h_2 + h_3 = 4h_4$, which implies that $\operatorname{ord}(h_4) = 6$. By (A2), we obtain that $U = g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l h_4 (-2h_4)^2$ with $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \cdots = \operatorname{ord}(g_l) = 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(h_4) = 6$. Since $D(G) \geq 5$, we get $l \geq 2$. Then $6 + l - 1 = \exp(G) + l - 1 \leq D(G) = |U| = l + 3$, a contradiction.

Case 1.2. ord(h_4) = 3.

By (A1), $h_4^2 \mid U$ and $h_4^2 \mid V$. Thus $h_4^4 \mid h_1 h_4 h_5 (-h_2)(-h_3)(-h_6)$. But $h_4^6 \neq h_1 h_4 h_5 (-h_2)(-h_3)(-h_6)$. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $h_4 = h_5 = -h_3 = -h_6$, $h_1 \neq h_4$, and $-h_2 \neq h_4$.

Suppose that $V_{h_1}(U) > 1$ and $V_{-h_2}(V) > 1$. Then $-h_1 \mid V$ and $h_2 \mid U$. Since $h_1 + (-h_2) + h_4 = 0$, we have that $(-h_1)h_2h_4^2$ is an atom of length four and divides UV, a contradiction. Thus, by symmetry, we may assume that $V_{-h_2}(U) = 1$. Then $h_2 \nmid U$. Gathering the g_i , which are equal to h_1 , and renumbering if necessary, we obtain that $U = g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_s h_1^v h_4^v$ with $s \in [0, l]$, $v = V_{h_1}(U)$, $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \cdots = \operatorname{ord}(g_s) = 2$ (by (A2)) and $\operatorname{ord}(h_4) = 3$.

If s = 0, then $vh_1 = h_4$ and $G = \langle h_1 \rangle$, a contradiction.

Suppose that $s \ge 1$. Since $2\sigma(U) = 2vh_1 + 4h_4 = 0$, we obtain that $2h_4 = 2vh_1$ and $6vh_1 = 0$. Since $(-h_1)^{v-1}h_4^2 \mid V$, we obtain that $(-h_1)^{v-1}h_4^2$ is zero-sum free and, for any $j \in [v+1,2v]$, we have $jh_1 \in \Sigma((-h_1)^{v-1}h_4^2)$. This implies that $\operatorname{ord}(h_1) > 2v$. Thus $6v/\operatorname{ord}(h_1) < 3$, which implies that $\operatorname{ord}(h_1) = 3v$ or 6v. But $\sigma(h_1^vh_4^2) = 3vh_1 \ne 0$, hence $\operatorname{ord}(h_1) = 6v = \exp(G)$. Therefore,

$$\exp(G) + s - 1 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = s + v + 2 \le 6v + s - 3 \le \exp(G) + s - 3,$$

a contradiction.

Case 2. There exists an $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $A \mid UV$ and |A| = 4.

Then UV has a factorization of the form $UV = W_1 \cdot ... \cdot W_{D(G)-1}$ where $W_1, ..., W_{D(G)-1} \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, $|W_{D(G)-1}| = 4$, and all the other W_i have length two. Conversely, note that for any $A' \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $A' \mid UV$ and |A'| = 4, $UV(A')^{-1}$ can only be a product of atoms of length two because $D(G) \geq 5$. We start with the following assertion.

(A3) If $g \in \text{supp}(U) \cap \text{supp}(V)$, then ord(g) = 2.

PROOF OF (A3). Let $U = g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l h_1 h_2$ and $V = (-g_1) \cdot \ldots \cdot (-g_l) h_3 h_4$ where $l \in \mathbb{N}$, $g_1, \ldots, g_l, h_1, \ldots, h_4 \in G$ not necessarily distinct and $W_{\mathsf{D}(G)-1} = h_1 h_2 h_3 h_4$. Let $g \in \mathsf{supp}(U) \cap \mathsf{supp}(V)$. If $g = g_i$ for some $i \in [1, l]$, then $g \mid V, -g \mid V$, and hence g = -g. If $g = -g_i$ for some $i \in [1, l]$, then $g \mid U, -g \mid U$, and hence g = -g.

It remains to consider the case where $g \in \{h_1, h_2\} \cap \{h_3, h_4\}$, say $h_1 = h_3 = g$. We will show that this is not possible. Assume that this holds, choose an $h \in \text{supp}(U) \setminus \{g\}$, and consider the sequence $X = h^{-1}Uh_3$. Since |X| = D(G), there exists an atom $A \in \mathcal{H}(G)$ such that $A \mid X$ and $|A| \in [3, 4]$. Note that $h_1h_3 \mid A$.

Suppose that |A| = 3. Then there exists $h' \in \text{supp}(U)$ such that $h' = -h_1 - h_3 = -2g$. If $h' = h_2$, then $h_1h_2h_3$ is a proper zero-sum sequence of $W_{\mathsf{D}(G)-1}$, a contradiction. Otherwise, $h' \in \{g_1, \ldots, g_l\}$, hence $-h' = 2g \in \text{supp}(V)$, a contradiction to $h_3 = g \in \text{supp}(V)$ (recall Lemma 3.4).

Suppose that |A| = 4. If $h_2 | A$, then (note that $h_1 + h_2 + h_3 + h_4 = 0$) $A = h_1h_2h_3h_4$ and $-h_4 | V$, a contradiction. Thus $h_2 \nmid A$, and a similar argument shows that $h_4 \nmid A$. This implies that $A = g_ig_jh_1h_3$ with $i, j \in [1, l]$. Then A and $A' = (-g_i)(-g_j)h_2h_4$ are two atoms of length four dividing UV, a contradiction.

Clearly, there are precisely two possibilities for U and V which will be discussed in the following two subcases.

Case 2.1.
$$U = g_1^{k_1} \cdot \dots \cdot g_l^{k_l} h_1^{r_1 - 1} h_2^{r_2 - 1} h_3^{r_3 - 1} h_4^{r_4 - 1} h_1 h_2$$
 and
$$V = (-g_1)^{k_1} \cdot \dots \cdot (-g_l)^{k_l} (-h_1)^{r_1 - 1} (-h_2)^{r_2 - 1} (-h_3)^{r_3 - 1} (-h_4)^{r_4 - 1} (-h_3) (-h_4)$$

where $k_1, ..., k_l, r_1, ..., r_4 \in \mathbb{N}$, $g_1, ..., g_l, h_1, ..., h_4$ are pairwise distinct, and $h_1h_2(-h_3)(-h_4) = W_{D(G)-1}$.

We start with the following assertions:

- (A4) for each $g_i \in \{g_1, \dots, g_l\}$ with $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2$, we have that $g_i = h_1 + h_2$;
- (A5) $r_1 = r_2 = r_3 = r_4 = 1$;
- (A6) ord(g_i) = 2 for all $i \in [1, l]$.

PROOF OF (A4). Let $i \in [1, l]$ such that $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2$, say i = 1. Then, by Lemma 3.4(2), there exists an atom $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $A \mid (-g_1)^{k_1} g_1^{-k_1} U$ and $|A| \in [3, 4]$. We distinguish four subcases depending on the multiplicity of $V_{-g_1}(A)$ and on |A|.

Suppose that $v_{-g_1}(A) = 3$. Then |A| = 4. Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$, we must have that $h_1 \mid A$ or $h_2 \mid A$. Then $A = (-g_1)^3 h_i$ with $i \in [1, 2]$, say i = 1. It follows that $A' = g_1^3 h_2(-h_3)(-h_4)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of $UV(A)^{-1}$, which implies that A' is a product of atoms of length two, a contradiction.

Suppose that $v_{-g_1}(A) = 2$. Then |A| = 4 by Lemma 3.4(1). Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$, we must have that $h_1 \mid A$ or $h_2 \mid A$. If $h_1h_2 \mid A$, then $A = (-g_1)^2h_1h_2$, and hence $A' = g_1^2(-h_3)(-h_4)$ is an atom of length four and divides UVA^{-1} , a contradiction. By symmetry, we may assume that $h_1 \mid A$ and $h_2 \nmid A$. Thus $A = (-g_1)^2h_1h$, where $h \in \{g_2, \ldots, g_l, h_1, h_3, h_4\}$ and $(-h)(-h_3)(-h_4) \mid V$. Therefore $A' = g_1^2h_2(-h_3)(-h_4)(-h)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of UVA^{-1} , which implies that A' is a product of three atoms of length two, a contradiction.

Suppose that $V_{-g_1}(A) = 1$ and |A| = 4. Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$, we must have that $h_1 \mid A$ or $h_2 \mid A$. If $h_1h_2 \mid A$, then $A = (-g_1)h_1h_2h$, where $h \in \{g_2, \ldots, g_l, h_1, h_2, h_3, h_4\}$ and $(-h)(-h_3)(-h_4) \mid V$. Hence $A' = g_1(-h_3)(-h_4)(-h)$ is an atom of length four and divides UVA^{-1} , a contradiction. By symmetry, we may assume that $h_1 \mid A$ and $h_2 \nmid A$. Thus $A = (-g_1)h_1hh'$ where $h, h' \in \{g_2, \ldots, g_l, h_1, h_3, h_4\}$ and $(-h)(-h')(-h_3)(-h_4) \mid V$. Thus $A' = g_1(-h)(-h')h_2(-h_3)(-h_4)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of UVA^{-1} , which implies that A' is a product of three atoms of length two, a contradiction.

Suppose that $v_{-g_1}(A) = 1$ and |A| = 3. Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$, we must have that $h_1 \mid A$ or $h_2 \mid A$. If $h_1h_2 \nmid A$, by symmetry we may assume that $h_1 \mid A$ and $h_2 \nmid A$. Thus $A = (-g_1)h_1h$, where $h \in \{g_2, \dots, g_l, h_1, h_3, h_4\}$ and $(-h)(-h_3)(-h_4) \mid V$. It follows that $A' = g_1(-h)h_2(-h_3)(-h_4)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of UVA^{-1} , which implies that A' is a product of two atoms, a contradiction. Therefore, $h_1h_2 \mid A$ and $g_1 = h_1 + h_2$. \square

PROOF OF (A5). By symmetry it is sufficient to show that $r_3 = 1$. Assume to the contrary that $r_3 \ge 2$. We proceed in several steps.

(i) In the first step we will show that $h_3 = g_i + h_1$ for some $i \in [1, l]$.

By Lemma 3.4(2), there exists an atom $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $A \mid h_3^{-(r_3-1)}(-h_3)^{r_3-1}U$ and $|A| \in [3,4]$. We distinguish four subcases depending on the multiplicity of $V_{-g_1}(A)$ and on |A|.

Suppose that $v_{-h_3}(A) = 3$. Then |A| = 4. Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$, we must have that $h_1 \mid A$ or $h_2 \mid A$. Then $A = (-h_3)^3 h_i$ with $i \in [1, 2]$, say i = 1. Therefore $A' = h_3^2 h_2(-h_4)$ is an atom of length four and divides UVA^{-1} , a contradiction.

Suppose that $v_{-h_3}(A) = 2$. Then |A| = 4 by Lemma 3.4(1). Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$, we must have that $h_1 \mid A$ or $h_2 \mid A$. If $h_1h_2 \mid A$, then $A = (-h_3)^2h_1h_2$, which implies that $h_3 = h_4$, a contradiction. By symmetry, we may assume that $h_1 \mid A$ and $h_2 \nmid A$. Thus $A = (-h_3)^2h_1h$, where $h \in \{g_1, \dots, g_l, h_1, h_4\}$ and $(-h)(-h_3)(-h_4) \mid V$. Therefore $A' = h_3^2h_2(-h_3)(-h_4)(-h)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of UVA^{-1} , which implies that A' is a product of three atoms of length two, a contradiction.

Suppose that $v_{-h_3}(A) = 1$ and |A| = 4. Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$, we must have that $h_1 \mid A$ or $h_2 \mid A$. If $h_1h_2 \mid A$, then $A = (-h_3)h_1h_2h$ with $h \in \{g_1, \dots, g_l, h_1, h_2, h_4\}$

and $-h \mid V$. Hence $h = -h_4$ and $-h = h_4 \mid V$, a contradiction. By symmetry, we may assume that $h_1 \mid A$ and $h_2 \nmid A$. Thus $A = (-h_3)h_1hh'$ where $h, h' \in \{g_1, \dots, g_l, h_1, h_4\}$ and $(-h)(-h')(-h_3)(-h_4) \mid V$. Thus $A' = (-h)(-h')h_2(-h_4)$ is an atom of length four and divides UVA^{-1} , a contradiction

Suppose that $v_{-h_3}(A) = 1$ and |A| = 3. Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$, we must have that $h_1 \mid A$ or $h_2 \mid A$. If $h_1h_2 \mid A$, then $A = (-h_3)h_1h_2$, which implies that $h_4 = 0$, a contradiction. Thus, by symmetry, we may assume that $h_1 \mid A$ and $h_2 \nmid A$. Then $A = (-h_3)h_1h$, where $h \in \{g_1, \dots, g_l, h_1, h_4\}$. By Lemma 3.4(1), we obtain that $h \notin \{h_1, h_4\}$. Therefore, $h_3 = h_1 + g_i$ for some $i \in [1, l]$.

(ii) In the second step we will show that $\operatorname{ord}(g_j) = 2$ for all $j \in [1, l]$ and $r_1 = 1$.

Assume to the contrary that there is a $j \in [1, l]$ such that $\operatorname{ord}(g_j) > 2$. Then $g_j = h_1 + h_2$ by (A4) and hence $A_1 = g_j(-h_3)(-h_4)$ and $A_2 = g_i(-h_3)h_1$ are two atoms of length three and divide UV. It follows that $UV(A_1A_2)^{-1}$ is a product of atoms of length two, but $\mathsf{v}_{h_2}(UV(A_1A_2)^{-1}) = \mathsf{v}_{h_2}(UV) > \mathsf{v}_{-h_2}(UV) = \mathsf{v}_{-h_2}(UV(A_1A_2)^{-1})$, a contradiction.

Assume to the contrary that $r_1 \ge 2$. Since $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) = 2$ and $h_3 = h_1 + g_i$, we obtain that $h_1^2(-h_3)^2$ and $(-h_1)h_3g_i$ are two atoms and divide UV, a contradiction.

(iii) In the third step we show that $ord(h_3) = 4r_3$.

Consider the sequence $X = U(h_3^{r_3-1}h_1)^{-1}(-h_3)^{r_3}$. Since $|X| = \mathsf{D}(G)$, there exists an atom $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $A \mid X$ and $|A| \in \{3, 4, \mathsf{D}(G)\}$. We distinguish three subcases depending on |A|.

Suppose that |A| = 3. Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$ and $r_1 = 1$, we must have that $h_2 \mid A$. Thus $A = (-h_3)h_2h$, where $h \in \{g_1, \dots, g_l, h_2, -h_3\}$. By Lemma 3.4(1), $h \notin \{h_2, -h_3\}$. Therefore, A and $A' = (-h_3)h_1g_i$ are two atoms of length three and divide UV. It follows that $UV(AA')^{-1}$ is a product of atoms of length two but $V_{h_4}(UV(AA')^{-1}) < V_{-h_4}(UV(AA')^{-1})$, a contradiction.

Suppose that |A| = 4. Then UVA^{-1} is a product of atoms of length two, but $r_1 = 1 = \mathsf{v}_{h_1}(UVA^{-1}) > \mathsf{v}_{-h_1}(UVA^{-1}) = 0$, a contradiction.

Suppose that |A| = D(G). Then A = X and hence $h_1 = -(2r_3 - 1)h_3$. By steps (i) and (ii), we obtain that $g_i = 2r_3h_3$ and $4r_3h_3 = 0$. Since Uh_1^{-1} is zero-sum free and for each $j \in [1, 2r_3 - 1]$, $jh_3 \in \Sigma(Uh_1^{-1})$, we have $\operatorname{ord}(h_3) > 2r_3$, which implies that $\operatorname{ord}(h_3) = 4r_3$.

(iv) In the final step we will obtain a contradiction to our assumption that $r_3 \ge 2$. Clearly, similar arguments as given in steps (i)–(iii) show that $r_2 \ge 2$ implies that $\operatorname{ord}(h_2) = 4r_2$, and that $r_4 \ge 2$ implies that $\operatorname{ord}(h_4) = 4r_4$. We proceed with the following four subcases depending on r_2 and r_4 .

Suppose that $r_2 \ge 2$ and $r_4 \ge 2$. Since $h_3 = h_1 + g_i$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) = 2$, we obtain that $h_2 = h_4 + g_i$ and hence $2h_2 = 2h_4$. Therefore, $(-h_2)h_4g_i$ and $h_2^2(-h_4)^2$ are two atoms and divide UV, a contradiction.

Suppose that $r_2 = r_4 = 1$. Then $U = g_1 \cdot ... \cdot g_l h_3^{r_3 - 1} h_1 h_2$ and

$$\exp(G) + l - 1 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = l + r_3 + 1 < l - 1 + 4r_3 \le \exp(G) + l - 1$$
,

a contradiction.

Suppose that $r_2 = 1$ and $r_4 \ge 2$. Then $U = g_1 \cdot ... \cdot g_l h_3^{r_3 - 1} h_4^{r_4 - 1} h_1 h_2$ and

$$\exp(G) + l - 1 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = l + r_3 + r_4 < l - 1 + 4 \max\{r_3, r_4\} \le \exp(G) + l - 1,$$

a contradiction.

Suppose that $r_4 = 1$ and $r_2 \ge 2$. Then $U = g_1 \cdot ... \cdot g_l h_3^{r_3 - 1} h_2^{r_2 - 1} h_1 h_2$ and

$$\exp(G) + l - 1 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = l + r_3 + r_2 < l - 1 + 4 \max\{r_2, r_3\} \le \exp(G) + l - 1,$$

a contradiction.

PROOF OF (A6). Assume to the contrary that there is an $i \in [1, l]$ such that $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2$, say i = 1. Then (A4) implies that $g_1 = h_1 + h_2$. Since g_1, \ldots, g_l are pairwise distinct, it follows that $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) = \cdots = \operatorname{ord}(g_l) = 2$ and $k_2 = \cdots = k_l = 1$. Thus $U = g_1^{k_1} g_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l h_1 h_2$, $0 = \sigma(U) = k_1 g_1 + g_2 + \cdots + g_l + g_1$, whence $\operatorname{ord}((k_1 + 1)g_1) = 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = 2(k_1 + 1) \ge 4$. It follows that

$$\exp(G) + l - 1 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = k_1 + l + 1$$

$$\le \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1)}{2} + l \le \operatorname{ord}(g_1) + l - 2 < \exp(G) + l - 1,$$

a contradiction.

Now by (A4)–(A6), U has the form $U = g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l h_1 h_2$ with $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) = 2$ for each $i \in [1, l]$. If $\exp(G) \ge 4$, then

$$\exp(G) + l - 1 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = l + 2 < 4 + l - 1,$$

a contradiction. Thus G must be an elementary 2-group. Since (g_1,\ldots,g_l,h_1) is a basis of G, we have that $h_2=g_1+\cdots+g_l+h_1$ and $h_1+h_2=h_3+h_4=g_1+\cdots+g_l$. We can assume that $h_3=h_1+\sum_{i\in I}g_i$ for some $\emptyset\neq I\subsetneq [1,l]$ and $h_4=h_1+\sum_{i\in [1,l]\setminus I}g_i$. Then $A_1=h_3h_1\prod_{i\in I}g_i$ and $A_2=h_1h_4\prod_{i\in [1,l]\setminus I}g_i$ are two atoms of lengths $|A_1|,|A_2|\in [3,D(G)-1]$. If $i\in [1,2]$ and $|A_i|\geq 4$, then UVA_i^{-1} has to be a product of atoms of length two, a contradiction. Thus it follows that $|A_1|=|A_2|=3$, whence l=2, which implies that D(G)=4, a contradiction.

Case 2.2.
$$U = g_1^{k_1} \cdot \dots \cdot g_l^{k_l} h^{r-2} h_3^{r_3-1} h_4^{r_4-1} h^2$$
 and
$$V = (-g_1)^{k_1} \cdot \dots \cdot (-g_l)^{k_l} (-h)^{r-2} (-h_3)^{r_3-1} (-h_4)^{r_4-1} (-h_3) (-h_4)$$

where $k_1, \ldots, k_l, r_1, \ldots, r_4 \in \mathbb{N}$, $g_1, \ldots, g_l, h, h_3, h_4$ are pairwise distinct with the only possible exception that $h_3 = h_4$ may hold, and $h^2(-h_3)(-h_4) = W_{\mathsf{D}(G)-1}$.

We start with the following assertions:

(A7) for each $i \in [1, l]$ we have $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) = 2$;

(A8) $h_3 = h_4$.

Proof of (A7). Assume to the contrary that there is an $i \in [1, l]$, say i = 1, such that $ord(g_1) > 2$.

Then, by Lemma 3.4(2), there exists an atom $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $A \mid (-g_1)^{k_1} g_1^{-k_1} U$ and $|A| \in [3, 4]$. Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$, we must have that $h \mid A$. We distinguish four subcases depending on the multiplicity of $V_{-g_1}(A)$ and on |A|.

Suppose that $v_{-g_1}(A) = 3$. Then |A| = 4 and $A = (-g_1)^3 h$. It follows that $A' = g_1^3 h(-h_3)(-h_4)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of $UV(A)^{-1}$, which implies that A' is a product of atoms of length two, a contradiction.

Suppose that $V_{-g_1}(A) = 2$. Then |A| = 4 by Lemma 3.4(1). If $h^2 | A$, then $A = (-g_1)^2 h^2$, and hence $A' = g_1^2 (-h_3)(-h_4)$ is an atom of length four and divides UVA^{-1} , a contradiction. If $h^2 \nmid A$, we obtain that $A = (-g_1)^2 hf$, where $f \in \{g_2, \dots, g_l, h_3, h_4\}$ and $(-f)(-h_3)(-h_4) | V$. Therefore $A' = g_1^2 h(-h_3)(-h_4)(-f)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of UVA^{-1} , which implies that A' is a product of three atoms of length two, a contradiction.

Suppose that $V_{-g_1}(A) = 1$ and |A| = 4. If $h^2 | A$, then $A = (-g_1)h^2f$, where $f \in \{g_2, \ldots, g_l, h, h_3, h_4\}$ and $(-f)(-h_3)(-h_4) | V$. Hence $A' = g_1(-h_3)(-h_4)(-f)$ is an atom of length four and divides UVA^{-1} , a contradiction. If $h^2 \nmid A$, then $A = (-g_1)hff'$ where $f, f' \in \{g_2, \ldots, g_l, h_3, h_4\}$ and $(-f)(-f')(-h_3)(-h_4) | V$. Thus $A' = g_1(-f)(-f')h(-h_3)(-h_4)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of UVA^{-1} , which implies that A' is a product of three atoms of length two, a contradiction.

Suppose that $V_{-g_1}(A) = 1$ and |A| = 3. If $h^2 \mid A$, then $g_1 = 2h$, a contradiction to Lemma 3.4(1). If $h^2 \nmid A$, then $A = (-g_1)hf$, where $f \in \{g_2, \dots, g_l, h_3, h_4\}$ and $(-f)(-h_3)(-h_4) \mid V$. It follows that $A' = g_1(-f)h(-h_3)(-h_4)$ is a zero-sum subsequence of UVA^{-1} , which implies that A' is a product of two atoms, a contradiction.

PROOF OF (A8). Assume to the contrary that $h_3 \neq h_4$. If $r_3 = r_4 = 1$, then $U = g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l h^r$ with $l \geq 1$, ord $(h) = 2r \geq 4$, and hence

$$\exp(G) + l - 1 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = l + r \le 2r + l - 4 < \exp(G) + l - 1,$$

a contradiction. Thus, after renumbering if necessary, we may assume that $r_3 \ge 2$. We will show this is impossible.

By Lemma 3.4, there exists an atom $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $A \mid h_3^{-(r_3-1)}(-h_3)^{r_3-1}U$ and $|A| \in [3,4]$. Since $A \nmid UV(W_{D(G)-1})^{-1}$, we must have that $h \mid A$. We distinguish four subcases depending on the multiplicity of $V_{-h_3}(A)$ and on |A|.

Suppose that $V_{-h_3}(A) = 3$. Then |A| = 4 and $A = (-h_3)^3 h$. It follows that $A' = h_3^2 h(-h_4)$ is an atom and divides $UV(A)^{-1}$, a contradiction.

Suppose that $v_{-h_3}(A) = 2$. Then |A| = 4 by Lemma 3.4(1). If $h^2 | A$, then $A = (-h_3)^2 h^2$, which implies that $h_3 = h_4$, a contradiction. If $h^2 \nmid A$, we obtain that $A = (-h_3)^2 hf$, where $f \in \{g_1, \dots, g_l, h_4\}$ and $(-f)(-h_3)(-h_4) | V$. Therefore $A' = h_3 h(-h_4)(-f)$ is an atom and divides UVA^{-1} , a contradiction.

Suppose that $V_{-h_3}(A) = 1$ and |A| = 4. If $h^2 \mid A$, then $A = (-h_3)h^2 f$, where $f \in \{g_1, \ldots, g_l, h, h_4\}$ and $(-f)(-h_3)(-h_4) \mid V$. Hence $h_4 = 2h - h_3 = -f \mid V$, a contradiction. If $h^2 \nmid A$, then $A = (-h_3)hff'$ where $f, f' \in \{g_1, \ldots, g_l, h_4\}$ and $(-f)(-f')(-h_3)(-h_4) \mid V$. Thus $A' = (-f)(-f')h(-h_4)$ is an atom and divides UVA^{-1} , a contradiction.

Suppose that $V_{-h_3}(A) = 1$ and |A| = 3. Since $h^2(-h_3)(-h_4)$ is an atom, we obtain that $h^2 \nmid A$, and hence $A = (-h_3)hf$, where $f \in \{g_1, \dots, g_l, h_4\}$ and $(-f)(-h_3)(-h_4) \mid V$. If $f = h_4$, then $h = 2h_4$, which implies a contradiction to Lemma 3.4(1) (recall that $f = h_4 \mid U$ and $h = 2h_4 \mid U$). If $f \neq h_4$, by (A7) ord(f) = 2 and hence $2h = 2h_3$, which implies that $h_3 = h_4$, a contradiction.

Now, by (A7) and (A8), U and V have the form

$$U = g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l h_3^{r_3 - 2} h^r$$
 and $V = g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l (-h)^{r-2} (-h_3)^{r_3}$,

where $l \ge 0$, $r_3 \ge 2$, $r \ge 2$, $g_1, \dots, g_l, h_3, h \in G$ are pairwise distinct and $2h = 2h_3$. If $r_3 = 2$, then $U = g_1 \cdot \dots \cdot g_l h^r$, ord(h) = 2r, and

$$\exp(G) + l - 1 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = l + r \le 2r + l - 2,$$

a contradiction. Considering V and assuming that r = 2, we again end up with a contradiction. Therefore we obtain that $r_3 \ge 3$ and $r \ge 3$.

If $r_3 \ge 4$ and $r \ge 4$, then $h^2(-h_3)^2$ and $(-h)^2h_3^2$ are two atoms of length four and divide UV, a contradiction.

Thus by symmetry, we may assume that $r_3 = 3$ and $r \ge 3$.

Suppose that l = 0. Then $\sigma(U) = h_3 + rh = 0$, which implies that $G = \langle h \rangle$, a contradiction.

Suppose that $l \ge 1$. Then $2h_3 + 2rh = 0$, which implies that 2(r+1)h = 0. Thus ord(h) = 2(r+1) or ord(h) = r+1. If ord(h) = 2(r+1), then

$$\exp(G) + l - 1 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = l + 1 + r < l - 1 + 2(r+1) \le \exp(G) + l - 1$$
,

a contradiction. If ord(h) = r + 1, then $h = h_3 + g_1 + \cdots + g_l$ and hence $(-h)h_3g_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l$ is an atom and divides $UV(h^2(-h_3)^2)^{-1}$, a contradiction.

Proposition 3.7. Let G be a finite abelian group with $D(G) \ge 5$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) *G* is either an elementary 2-group, or a cyclic group, or isomorphic to $C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ with $n \ge 2$;
- (b) there exist $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $L(UV) = \{2, D(G) 1\}$ and |U| 1 = |V| = D(G) 1.

PROOF. (a) implies (b). Suppose that G is an elementary 2-group and let (e_1, \ldots, e_r) be a basis of G with $ord(e_1) = \cdots = ord(e_r) = 2$. Then D(G) = r + 1, $U = e_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot e_r e_0 \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, where $e_0 = e_1 + \cdots + e_r$, $V = e_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot e_{r-1}(e_0 + e_r) \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, and $L(UV) = \{2, r\}$.

Suppose that *G* is cyclic, and let $e \in G$ with ord(e) = |G| = D(G). Then $U = e^{|G|} \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, $V = (-e)^{|G|-1}(-2e) \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, and $L(UV) = \{2, |G|-1\}$.

Suppose that *G* is isomorphic to $C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ with $n \ge 2$, and let (e_1, e_2) be a basis of *G* with ord $(e_1) = 2$ and ord $(e_2) = 2n$. Then $\mathsf{D}(G) = 2n + 1$, $U = e_1 e_2^{2n-1}(e_1 + e_2) \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, $V = (-e_2)^{2n} \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, and $\mathsf{L}(UV) = \{2, 2n\}$.

(b) implies (a). Assume to the contrary that G is neither an elementary 2-group, nor a cyclic group, nor isomorphic to $C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ for any $n \ge 2$. Then $\mathsf{D}(G) > \exp(G) + 1$.

Let $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $A \mid UV$. Then $|A| \in \{2, 3, \mathsf{D}(G) - 1, \mathsf{D}(G)\}$. Furthermore, if |A| = 3, then UVA^{-1} is a product of atoms of length two, and if $|A| \in [\mathsf{D}(G) - 1, \mathsf{D}(G)]$, then $UVA^{-1} \in \mathcal{A}(G)$.

Since $L(UV) = \{2, D(G) - 1\}$ and |U| - 1 = |V| = D(G) - 1, *U* and *V* have the form

$$U = g_1^{k_1} \cdot \dots \cdot g_s^{k_s}$$
 and $V = (-g_1 - g_2)(-g_1)^{k_1 - 1}(-g_2)^{k_2 - 1}(-g_3)^{k_3} \cdot \dots \cdot (-g_s)^{k_s}$

where $s, k_1, \dots, k_s \in \mathbb{N}$, $g_1, \dots, g_s \in G$ are pairwise distinct with the only possible exception that $g_1 = g_2$ may hold.

Since G is not cyclic, $s \ge 2$. Suppose that s = 2. If $g_1 = g_2$, then $\mathsf{D}(G) = k_1 + k_2 = \mathsf{ord}(g_1)$, which implies that G is a cyclic group, a contradiction. Suppose that $g_1 \ne g_2$. Since $\mathsf{D}(G) > \exp(G) + 1$, Lemma 3.2(2) implies that $\mathsf{v}_{g_1}(U) + \mathsf{v}_{-g_1}(V) = k_1 + k_1 - 1 \le \mathsf{ord}(g_1)$ and $\mathsf{v}_{g_2}(U) + \mathsf{v}_{-g_2}(V) = k_2 + k_2 - 1 \le \mathsf{ord}(g_2)$. Then

$$\mathsf{D}(G) = k_1 + k_2 \le \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1) + 1}{2} + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_2) + 1}{2} \le 1 + \exp(G) < \mathsf{D}(G),$$

a contradiction.

Thus from now on we suppose that $s \ge 3$, and we continue with the following assertion:

(A1) There exist atoms $U', V' \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that UV = U'V', say

$$U' = g_1'^{k'_1} \cdot \dots \cdot g_{s'}'^{k'_{s'}} \quad \text{and}$$

$$V' = (-g_1' - g_2')(-g_1')^{k'_1 - 1}(-g_2')^{k'_2 - 1}(-g_3')^{k'_3} \cdot \dots \cdot (-g_{s'}')^{k'_{s'}},$$

where $s', k'_1, \ldots, k'_{s'} \in \mathbb{N}$, $g'_1, \ldots, g'_{s'} \in G$ are pairwise distinct with the only possible exception that $g'_1 = g'_2$ may hold, and $g'_1 + g'_2 \notin \operatorname{supp}(U')$.

Proof of (A1). If $g_1 + g_2 \notin \text{supp}(U)$, then we can choose U' = U and V' = V.

Suppose that $g_1 + g_2 \in \text{supp}(U)$, say $g_3 = g_1 + g_2$. Then $\mathsf{v}_{-g_3}(V) = k_3 + 1 \ge 2$ and hence $\operatorname{ord}(g_3) > 2$. By Lemma 3.4(1) and $|U| = \mathsf{D}(G)$, it follows that $g_1 \ne g_2$. We claim that $k_1 = 1$ or $k_2 = 1$. Indeed, if $k_1 \ge 2$ and $k_2 \ge 2$, then $A = g_1g_2(-g_3)$ is an atom and $A^2 \mid UV$, a contradiction.

Suppose that s = 3. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $k_1 = 1$. Since $D(G) > \exp(G) + 1$, Lemma 3.2(2) implies that $v_{g_2}(U) + v_{-g_2}(V) = k_2 + k_2 - 1 \le \operatorname{ord}(g_2)$ and $v_{g_3}(U) + v_{-g_3}(V) = k_3 + k_3 + 1 \le \operatorname{ord}(g_3)$. Then

$$\mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = 1 + k_2 + k_3 \le 1 + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_2) + 1}{2} + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_3) - 1}{2} \le 1 + \exp(G) < \mathsf{D}(G),$$

a contradiction.

Thus we obtain that $s \ge 4$. Since $g_3^{-1}U$ is a zero-sum free sequence of length $\mathsf{D}(G)-1$, there exists a subsequence T_1 of $g_3^{-1}U$ such that $\sigma(T_1)=(k_3+1)g_3$. Therefore, $(-g_3)^{k_3+1}T_1$ is a zero-sum sequence. Thus T_1 has the form $T_1=g_3^tT_2$ with $t \in [0,k_3-1]$ and $T_2 \mid g_1^{k_1}g_2^{k_2}g_4^{k_4}\cdot\ldots\cdot g_s^{k_s}$. Then $(-g_3)^{k_3+1-t}T_2$ is a zero-sum sequence without zero-sum subsequences of length two, which implies that $(-g_3)^{k_3+1-t}T_2$ is an

atom of length $|(-g_3)^{k_3+1-t}T_2| \in \{3, D(G)-1, D(G)\}$. Since $k_3+1-t \geq 2, (-g_3)^{k_3+1-t}T_2$ cannot be an atom of length three by Lemma 3.4(1), hence $t=0, T_1=T_2$, and $(-g_3)^{k_3+1}T_1$ can only be an atom of length D(G)-1 or D(G). It follows that $((-g_3)^{k_3+1}T_1)^{-1}UV$ is also an atom and hence $g_4^{k_4} \cdot \ldots \cdot g_s^{k_s} \mid T_1$.

Thus any sequence T with $T \mid g_3^{-1}U$ and $\sigma(T) = (k_3 + 1)g_3$ has the property that $g_4^{k_4} \cdot \ldots \cdot g_s^{k_s} \mid T$.

We continue with the following two subcases depending on $|(-g_3)^{k_3+1}T_1|$.

Suppose that $|(-g_3)^{k_3+1}T_1| = \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$. Since $((-g_3)^{k_3+1}T_1)^{-1}UV$ is an atom, we obtain that $k_1 = k_2 = 1$ and $T_1 = (g_1g_2g_3^{k_3})^{-1}U$, which implies that $2(k_3 + 1)g_3 = 0$. Since $g_4^{-1}U$ is a zero-sum free sequence of length $\mathsf{D}(G) - 1$, there exists a subsequence W_1 of $g_4^{-1}U$ such that $\sigma(W_1) = (k_3 + 2)g_3$. If $g_3 \nmid W_1$, then $g_3^{k_3}W_1$ is a proper zero-sum subsequence of U, a contradiction. If $g_3 \mid W_1$, then $g_3^{-1}W_1 \mid g_3^{-1}U$ and $\sigma(g_3^{-1}W_1) = (k_3 + 1)g_3$, but $g_4^{k_4} \cdot \ldots \cdot g_s^{k_s} \nmid g_2^{-1}W_1$, a contradiction.

 $(k_3+1)g_3$, but $g_4^{k_4} \cdot \ldots \cdot g_s^{k_s} \nmid g_3^{-1}W_1$, a contradiction. Suppose that $|(-g_3)^{k_3+1}T_1| = \mathsf{D}(G)$. Since $((-g_3)^{k_3+1}T_1)^{-1}UV$ is an atom, we obtain that $(k_1=1)$ and $T_1=(g_1g_3^{k_3})^{-1}U$ or $(k_2=1)$ and $T_1=(g_2g_3^{k_3})^{-1}U$. By symmetry, we may assume that $k_1=1$, $k_1=(g_1g_3^{k_3})^{-1}U$, and hence $k_1=(-2k_3-1)g_3$. Choose

$$U' = (-g_3)^{k_3+1} T_1 = g_2(-g_3) g_2^{k_2-1} (-g_3)^{k_3} g_4^{k_4} \cdot \dots \cdot g_s^{k_s} \quad \text{and}$$

$$V' = ((-g_3)^{k_3+1} T_1)^{-1} UV = g_1(-g_2)^{k_2-1} g_3^{k_3} (-g_4)^{k_4} \cdot \dots \cdot (-g_s)^{k_s};$$

then U', V' are two atoms with U'V' = UV and $g_2 + (-g_3) = -g_1 \notin \text{supp}(U')$.

Thus from now on we may assume that $g_1 + g_2 \notin \text{supp}(U)$, and recall that $s \ge 3$. We continue with three further assertions:

- (A2) $(\sup(U) + \sup(U)) \cap (\sup(U) \setminus \{g_1, g_2\}) = \emptyset$.
- (A3) Let $i \in [3, s]$ with ord $(g_i) > 2$. Then $(-2k_ig_i = g_1 \text{ and } k_1 = 1)$ or $(-2k_ig_i = g_2 \text{ and } k_2 = 1)$.
- (A4) If $k_1 = 1$, then $(g_2 = -2g_1 \text{ and } k_2 = 1)$ or $(2g_1 + 2g_2 = 0 \text{ and } k_2 = 1)$. If $k_2 = 1$, then $(g_1 = -2g_2 \text{ and } k_1 = 1)$ or $(2g_1 + 2g_2 = 0 \text{ and } k_1 = 1)$.

PROOF OF (A2). Assume to the contrary that there exists an element $h \in (\text{supp}(U) + \text{supp}(U)) \cap (\text{supp}(U) \setminus \{g_1, g_2\})$. Thus there exist $i, j \in [1, s]$ such that $g_i + g_j = h$ with $h \in \{g_3, \dots, g_s\}$. Lemma 3.4(1) implies that $g_i \neq g_j$. Since $A = (-h)g_ig_j$ is an atom of length three, then $A^{-1}UV$ is a product of atoms of length two. It follows that $h = g_1 + g_2 \in \text{supp}(U)$, a contradiction.

PROOF OF (A3). By Lemma 3.4(2), there is an $A \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $A \mid g_i^{-k_i} (-g_i)^{k_i} U$ and $|A| \in \{3, \mathsf{D}(G) - 1\}$. By (A2) and Lemma 3.4(1), we obtain that $|A| \neq 3$. Thus $|A| = \mathsf{D}(G)$. If $A = g_i^{-k_i} (-g_i)^{k_i-1} U$, then $(2k_i - 1)g_i = 0$, which implies that $\mathsf{v}_{g_i}(U) + \mathsf{v}_{-g_i}(V) = 2k_i > \mathsf{ord}(g_i)$. Lemma 3.2(2) implies a contradiction to $\mathsf{D}(G) > \mathsf{exp}(G) + 1$. Hence $A = (-g_i)^{k_i} T$ with $T = g_i^{-k_i} h^{-1} U$, where $h \in \mathsf{supp}(U)$. Since $T^{-1} UV$ is an atom, we obtain that $(k_1 = 1 \text{ and } h = g_1 = -2k_i g_i)$ or $(k_2 = 1 \text{ and } h = g_2 = -2k_i g_i)$.

PROOF OF (A4). Suppose that $k_1 = 1$. Then $Y = (-g_1 - g_2)g_2^{k_2} \cdot \ldots \cdot g_s^{k_s}$ has length D(G). By our assumption on supp(U), Y has no zero-sum subsequence of length two.

Therefore, Y has a zero-sum subsequence T of length $|T| \in \{3, D(G) - 1, D(G)\}$. We continue with the following three subcases depending on |T|.

If |T| = 3, say $T = (-g_1 - g_2)g_ig_j$ with $i, j \in [2, s]$ not necessarily distinct, then T and $T' = g_1g_2(-g_i)(-g_j)$ are two atoms and $T'T \mid UV$, a contradiction.

If |T| = D(G), then Y = T is an atom, which implies that $g_2 = -2g_1$, $-g_1 - g_2 = g_1$, and hence $k_1 = 1$.

If |T| = D(G) - 1, then $k_2 = 1$, $T = Yg_2^{-1}$, and hence $2g_1 + 2g_2 = 0$.

If $k_2 = 1$, then the assertion follows along the same lines.

The remainder of the proof will be divided into the following three cases.

Case 1. $|\{i \in [3, s] \mid \operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2\}| \ge 2$, say $\operatorname{ord}(g_3) > 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_4) > 2$.

By (A3), we can assume that $(k_1 = 1 \text{ and } g_1 = -2k_3g_3 = -2k_4g_4)$ or $(g_1 = -2k_3g_3, g_2 = -2k_4g_4)$ and $k_1 = k_2 = 1)$.

Consider the sequence $W = g_1^{k_1} g_2^{k_2} (-g_3)^{k_3} (-g_4)^{k_4} g_5^{k_5} \cdot \dots \cdot g_s^{k_s}$. Since |W| = D(G), there exists an atom $Z \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $Z \mid W$ and $|Z| \in \{3, D(G) - 1, D(G)\}$. We distinguish three subcases depending on |Z|.

Suppose that |Z| = 3. By (A2) and Lemma 3.4(1), $g_1 = g_3 + g_4$ or $g_2 = g_3 + g_4$. If $g_1 = g_3 + g_4$, then $(-g_1 - g_2)g_3g_4g_2$ and $g_1(-g_3)(-g_4)$ are two atoms and divide UV, a contradiction. If $g_2 = g_3 + g_4$, then $(-g_1 - g_2)g_1g_3g_4$ and $g_2(-g_3)(-g_4)$ are two atoms and divide UV, a contradiction.

Suppose that |Z| = D(G) - 1. Since UVZ^{-1} is a atom, we obtain that $Z = Wg_1^{-1}$ or $Z = Wg_2^{-1}$. Therefore, $-2k_3g_3 - 2k_4g_4 = g_1$ or g_2 . Our assumption implies that $-2k_3g_3 - 2k_4g_4 = g_2$ and $g_1 = -2k_3g_3 = -2k_4g_4$, which implies that $2g_1 = g_2$, a contradiction to Lemma 3.4(1).

Suppose that |Z| = D(G). Then we obtain that $2k_3g_3 + 2k_4g_4 = 0$. Our assumption implies that $k_1 = 1$, $g_1 = -2k_3g_3 = -2k_4g_4$, and hence $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = 2$. Therefore, $4k_3g_3 = 0$, $g_1 = 2k_3g_3$, and hence $k_3 \ge 2$ by Lemma 3.4(1). Since $g_1^{-1}U$ is a zero-sum sequence of length D(G) - 1, there exists a subsequence W of $g_1^{-1}U$ such that $\sigma(W) = (2k_3 + 1)g_3$. If $g_3 \mid W$, then $g_1g_3^{-1}W$ is a proper zero-sum subsequence of U, a contradiction. Suppose that $g_3 \nmid W$. Then $g_1(-g_3)W$ is an atom and divides UV, which implies that $|g_1(-g_3)W| \in \{3, D(G) - 1, D(G)\}$. Since $g_3(-g_3) \mid UV(g_1(-g_3)W)^{-1}$, then $UV(g_1(-g_3)W)^{-1}$ is not an atom. Thus $|g_1(-g_3)W| = 3$, which implies that $g_3 \in \operatorname{supp}(U) \cap \operatorname{supp}(V)$, a contradiction to (A2).

Case 2. $|\{i \in [3, s] \mid \operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2\}| = 1$, say $\operatorname{ord}(g_3) > 2$.

By (A3), we may assume that $k_1 = 1$ and $g_1 = -2k_3g_3$. By (A4), we obtain that $(g_2 = -2g_1 \text{ and } k_2 = 1)$ or $(2g_1 + 2g_2 = 0 \text{ and } k_2 = 1)$. We continue with the following two subcases.

Suppose that $2g_1 + 2g_2 = 0$ and $k_2 = 1$. Since $\sigma(U) = g_1 + g_2 + k_3g_3 + g_4 + \cdots + g_s = 0$, we obtain that $2k_3g_3 = 0 = -g_1$, a contradiction.

Suppose that $g_2 = -2g_1 = 4k_3g_3$ and $k_2 = 1$. If s = 3, then $G = \langle g_3 \rangle$ is cyclic, a contradiction. Hence $s \ge 4$ and $G = \langle g_1, \dots, g_{s-1} \rangle = \langle g_3, \dots, g_{s-1} \rangle$, which implies that r(G) = s - 3 and $exp(G) = ord(g_3)$ is even. Since D(G) > exp(G) + 1, by Lemma 3.2(2),

we infer that $v_{g_3}(U) + v_{-g_3}(V) = 2k_3 \le \operatorname{ord}(g_3)$. Therefore, $g_1 = -2k_3g_3 \ne 0$ implies that $\operatorname{ord}(g_3) \ge 2k_3 + 2 \ge 4$. Thus

$$\exp(G) + s - 4 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = k_3 + s - 1 \le \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_3)}{2} - 1 + s - 1 \le \operatorname{ord}(g_3) + s - 4$$

which implies that $ord(g_3) = 4$, a contradiction to $g_2 = 4k_3g_3 \neq 0$.

Case 3. $|\{i \in [3, s] \mid \operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2\}| = 0.$

Since $\sigma(U) = k_1 g_1 + k_2 g_2 + g_3 + \dots + g_s = 0$, we obtain that $2k_1 g_1 + 2k_2 g_2 = 0$. Suppose that $g_1 = g_2$. Then $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = 2(k_1 + k_2) \ge 4$. It follows that

$$D(G) = k_1 + k_2 + s - 2 = \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1)}{2} + s - 2 < \operatorname{ord}(g_1) - 1 + s - 2 \le D(G),$$

a contradiction.

Thus $g_1 \neq g_2$. Consider the sequence $S = (-g_1 - g_2)(-g_1)^{k_1-1}g_2^{k_2}g_3 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_s$. Since $|S| = \mathsf{D}(G)$, there exists an atom $Z \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $Z \mid S$ and $|Z| \in \{3, \mathsf{D}(G) - 1, \mathsf{D}(G)\}$. We distinguish three subcases depending on |Z|.

Suppose that |Z| = D(G). Then Z = S and $g_2 = -2k_1g_1 = 2k_2g_2$. Hence $(2k_2 - 1)g_2 = 0$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) = 2k_2 - 1$. If s = 3, then $G = \langle g_1 \rangle$ is cyclic, a contradiction. Hence $s \geq 4$ and $G = \langle g_1, \ldots, g_{s-1} \rangle = \langle g_1, g_3, \ldots, g_{s-1} \rangle$, which implies that $\mathsf{r}(G) = s - 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \exp(G)$ is even. Then $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) \geq 2 \operatorname{ord}(g_2) \geq 6$. Since $\mathsf{D}(G) > \exp(G) + 1$, by Lemma 3.2(2), we infer that $\mathsf{v}_{g_1}(U) + \mathsf{v}_{-g_1}(V) = 2k_1 - 1 \leq \operatorname{ord}(g_1)$, which implies that $2k_1 \leq \operatorname{ord}(g_1)$. Since $g_2 = -2k_1g_1 \neq 0$, we obtain that $2k_1 \leq \operatorname{ord}(g_1) - 2$. Thus

$$\begin{split} \exp(G) + s - 3 &\leq \mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = k_1 + k_2 + s - 2 \leq \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1)}{2} - 1 + \left\lfloor \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1) + 2}{4} \right\rfloor + s - 2 \\ &\leq \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1)}{2} - 1 + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1)}{2} - 1 + s - 2 \leq \operatorname{ord}(g_1) + s - 4 \end{split}$$

a contradiction.

Suppose that $|Z| = \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$. Then there exists an element $h \mid S$ such that $Z = h^{-1}S$. Since $Z^{-1}UV$ is an atom, we obtain that $(h = -g_1 - g_2)$ or $(h = g_2 \text{ and } k_2 = 1)$. If $h = -g_1 - g_2$, then $Z^{-1}UV = (-g_1 - g_2)g_1^{k_1}(-g_2)^{k_2-1}g_3 \cdot \ldots \cdot g_s$ is an atom of length $\mathsf{D}(G)$ and hence the similar argument of the previous subcase $|Z| = \mathsf{D}(G)$ implies a contradiction. Suppose that $h = g_2$ and $k_2 = 1$. By (A4), we obtain that $k_1 = k_2 = 1$. Thus $\exp(G) + s - 3 \le \mathsf{D}(G) = |U| = s$, which implies that $\exp(G) \le 3$, a contradiction.

Suppose that |Z| = 3. Then UVZ^{-1} can only be a product of atoms of length two. But $\mathsf{v}_{g_1}(UVZ^{-1}) = k_1 > \mathsf{v}_{-g_1}(UV) \ge \mathsf{v}_{-g_1}(UVZ^{-1})$, a contradiction.

Proposition 3.8. Let G be a finite abelian group with $D(G) \ge 5$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) *G* is either an elementary 2-group, or isomorphic to $C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4$ for some $r \ge 2$, or isomorphic to $C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ for some $n \ge 2$;
- (b) there exist $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ with $L(UV) = \{2, D(G) 1\}$ and |U| = |V| = D(G) 1.

PROOF. (a) implies (b). Suppose that G is an elementary 2-group, and let (e_1, \ldots, e_r) be a basis of G with ord $(e_1) = \cdots = \operatorname{ord}(e_r) = 2$. Then $\mathsf{D}(G) = r+1$, $U = e_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot e_{r-1}e_0 \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, where $e_0 = e_1 + \cdots + e_{r-1}$, and $\mathsf{L}(U(-U)) = \{2, r\}$.

Suppose that G is isomorphic to $C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4$ for some $r \ge 2$, and let (e_1, \dots, e_r) be a basis of G with $\operatorname{ord}(e_1) = \dots = \operatorname{ord}(e_{r-1}) = 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(e_r) = 4$. Then $\mathsf{D}(G) = r + 3$, $U = e_1 \cdot \dots \cdot e_{r-1} e_r^2 (e_0 + e_r) \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, where $e_0 = e_1 + \dots + e_r$, and $\mathsf{L}(U(-U)) = \{2, r + 2\}$.

Suppose that G is isomorphic to $C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ for some $n \ge 2$, and let (e_1, e_2) be a basis of G with $ord(e_1) = 2$ and $ord(e_2) = 2n$. Then D(G) = 2n + 1, $U = e_2^{2n} \in \mathcal{A}(G)$, and $L(U(-U)) = \{2, 2n\}$.

(b) implies (a). Clearly, we have V = -U, and for every zero-sum sequence W with $W \mid UV$ and $W \neq UV$, it follows that W is either an atom of length $\mathsf{D}(G) - 1$ or W is a product of atoms of length two. We set $U = g_1^{k_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l^{k_l}$ with $l, k_1, \ldots, k_l \in \mathbb{N}$ and $g_1, \ldots, g_l \in G$ pairwise distinct.

Suppose that l = 1. Then $k_1 = \operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$. Thus k_1 is even and $G \cong C_2 \oplus C_{k_1}$.

Suppose that $l \ge 2$. For each $i \in [1, l]$, the sequence $S_i = g_i^{-k_i} (-g_i)^{k_i} U$ is either zero-sum free or an atom; clearly, S_i is an atom if and only if $2k_ig_i = 0$. So we can distinguish two cases.

Case 1. For each $i \in [1, l]$ we have $2k_ig_i = 0$.

We claim that for any $i \in [1, l]$, the tuple $(g_1, \ldots, g_{i-1}, g_{i+1}, \ldots, g_l)$ is independent. Clearly, it is sufficient to prove the claim for i = l. Assume to the contrary that (g_1, \ldots, g_{l-1}) is not independent. Then there is an atom W with $W \mid g_1^{k_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot g_{l-1}^{k_{l-1}} \cdot (-g_1)^{k_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot (-g_{l-1})^{k_{l-1}}$ and |W| > 2. Then W is an atom of length D(G) - 1, and thus $W^{-1}UV$ is also an atom of length D(G) - 1. But $g_l(-g_l) \mid W^{-1}UV$, a contradiction. After renumbering if necessary, we may suppose that

$$\operatorname{ord}(g_l) = \min\{\operatorname{ord}(g_1), \dots, \operatorname{ord}(g_l)\}$$
 and $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \min\{\operatorname{ord}(g_1), \dots, \operatorname{ord}(g_{l-1})\}.$

Suppose that l = 2. By our assumption that $ord(g_1) \ge ord(g_2)$, we obtain that

$$\exp(G) - 1 \le \mathsf{D}(G) - 1 = k_1 + k_2 = \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1)}{2} + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_2)}{2} = \operatorname{ord}(g_1) - \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1) - \operatorname{ord}(g_2)}{2}$$
$$\le \exp(G) - \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1) - \operatorname{ord}(g_2)}{2} \le \exp(G).$$

If $\mathsf{D}(G) = \exp(G)$, then $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \exp(G)$, $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) - \operatorname{ord}(g_2) = 2$, and hence $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) \mid 2$, which implies that $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) = 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = 4 = \mathsf{D}(G) = \exp(G)$, a contradiction to $\mathsf{D}(G) \geq 5$. If $\mathsf{D}(G) = \exp(G) + 1$, then $G \cong C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ for some $n \geq 2$.

Suppose that $l \ge 3$. Then

$$D(G) - 1 = |U| = k_1 + \dots + k_l = \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1)}{2} + \dots + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_l)}{2}$$

$$\leq \operatorname{ord}(g_1) + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_2)}{2} + \dots + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_{l-1})}{2}$$

$$\leq \operatorname{ord}(g_1) + \dots + \operatorname{ord}(g_{l-1}) - (l-2) \leq D(G).$$

Suppose that equality holds at the second inequality sign. Then

$$\operatorname{ord}(g_1) + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_2)}{2} + \dots + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_{l-1})}{2} = \operatorname{ord}(g_1) + \dots + \operatorname{ord}(g_{l-1}) - (l-2).$$

Since $\operatorname{ord}(g_i)/2 \le \operatorname{ord}(g_i) - 1$ for all $i \in [2, l-1]$, it follows that then $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) = 2$ for all $i \in [2, l-1]$. Because of our assumption on the order of the elements, we infer that $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \operatorname{ord}(g_l) = 2$, and hence G is an elementary 2-group.

Suppose that inequality holds at the second inequality sign. Then we have

$$\operatorname{ord}(g_1) + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_2)}{2} + \dots + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_{l-1})}{2} = \operatorname{ord}(g_1) + \dots + \operatorname{ord}(g_{l-1}) - (l-2) - 1.$$

Since $\operatorname{ord}(g_i)/2 \le \operatorname{ord}(g_i) - 1$ for all $i \in [2, l-1]$, there exists an $i \in [2, l-1]$, say i = 2, such that $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) = 4$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) = 2$ for all $i \in [3, l-1]$. If l = 3, then $G \cong C_4 \oplus C_4$ or $G \cong C_2 \oplus C_4$, but the first case is a contradiction to Lemma 3.3. If $l \ge 4$, then $G \cong C_2^{l-2} \oplus C_4$.

Case 2. There exists an $i \in [1, l]$ such that the sequence S_i is zero-sum free, say i = 1. We start with a list of assertions:

- (A1) Let $T, T' \in \mathcal{F}(G)$ be distinct such that $T \mid U, T' \mid U$, and $\sigma(T) = \sigma(T')$. Then $\operatorname{supp}(T) \cap \operatorname{supp}(T') = \emptyset$, TT' = U and $2\sigma(T) = 0$.
- (A2) Let $T, T' \in \mathcal{F}(G)$ be distinct such that $T \mid S_1, T' \mid S_1$, and $\sigma(T) = \sigma(T')$. Then $\operatorname{supp}(T) \cap \operatorname{supp}(T') = \emptyset$, $TT' = S_1$ and $2\sigma(T) = -2k_1g_1$.
- (A3) $\Sigma(U) = G$.
- (A4) If $i \in [1, l]$ with $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2$, then $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2k_i$.

PROOF OF (A1). Obviously, T(-T') has sum zero and $T(-T') \mid UV$ but $T(-T') \neq UV$. So T(-T') must be an atom of length D(G) - 1, which implies that $supp(T) \cap supp(T') = \emptyset$, TT' = U, and $2\sigma(T) = 0$.

PROOF OF (A2). Obviously, T(-T') has sum zero, $T(-T') \mid UV$, and $T(-T') \neq UV$. So T(-T') must be an atom of length $\mathsf{D}(G) - 1$, which implies that $\mathsf{supp}(T) \cap \mathsf{supp}(T') = \emptyset$, $TT' = S_1$, and $2\sigma(T) = -2k_1g_1$.

PROOF of (A3). We will show that $|\Sigma(U)| = |G|$. Clearly,

$$\begin{aligned} |\Sigma(U)| &= |\{\sigma(T) \mid 1 \neq T \in \mathcal{F}(G), T \mid U\}| \\ &= |\{g \in G \mid \text{there exist } 1 \neq T \text{ with } T \mid U \text{ and } \sigma(T) = g\}|. \end{aligned}$$

Since $U = g_1^{k_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot g_l^{k_l}$,

$$|\{T \in \mathcal{F}(G) \mid 1 \neq T, T \mid U\}| = (k_1 + 1) \cdot \ldots \cdot (k_l + 1) - 1.$$

By (A1), there are at most two distinct subsequences of U with given sum $g \in G$.

Therefore we obtain

$$\begin{split} |\Sigma(U)| &= |\{\sigma(T) \mid 1 \neq T \in \mathcal{F}(G), T \mid U\}| \\ &= |\{T \in \mathcal{F}(G) \mid 1 \neq T, T \mid U\}| \\ &- \frac{1}{2} |\{T \in \mathcal{F}(G) \mid T \mid U \text{ and there is a divisor } T' \text{ of } U \\ &\quad \text{with } T \neq T' \text{ and } \sigma(T) = \sigma(T')\}| \\ &= (k_1 + 1) \cdot \ldots \cdot (k_l + 1) - 1 \\ &- \left| \left\{ T \in \mathcal{F}(G) \mid g_1 \nmid T, T = \prod_{g \in \text{SUDD}(T)} g^{\text{V}_g(U)}, \text{ and } \text{ord}(\sigma(T)) = 2 \right\} \right|. \end{split}$$

Next we study $|\Sigma(S_1)|$. Since S_1 is zero-sum free of length $|S_1| = \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$, it follows that $\Sigma(S_1) = G \setminus \{0\}$. Using (A2) for the second equality sign, we obtain that

$$|G| - 1 = |\Sigma(S_1)| = (k_1 + 1) \cdot \dots \cdot (k_l + 1) - 1$$

$$- \left| \left\{ T \in \mathcal{F}(G) \mid T = (-g_1)^{k_1} \prod_{g \in \text{supp}(T) \setminus \{-g_1\}} g^{\mathsf{v}_g(U)} \text{ and } 2\sigma(T) = -2k_1 g_1 \right\} \right|$$

$$= (k_1 + 1) \cdot \dots \cdot (k_l + 1) - 1$$

$$- \left(\left| \left\{ T \in \mathcal{F}(G) \mid g_1 \nmid T \text{ and } T = \prod_{g \in \text{supp}(T)} g^{\mathsf{v}_g(U)}, \operatorname{ord}(\sigma(T)) = 2 \right\} \right|$$

$$+ |\{ T \in \mathcal{F}(G) \mid T = 1 \}| \right)$$

$$= |\Sigma(U)| - 1,$$

and hence $\Sigma(U) = G$.

PROOF OF (A4). Since S_1 is zero-sum free, it follows that $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) > 2k_1$. Now let $i \in [2, l]$ be given and assume to the contrary that $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) \le 2k_i$. Recall that $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > \mathsf{V}_{g_i}(U) = k_i$. We set $U = g_i^{k_i}U'$. Then $W' = (-g_i)^{\operatorname{ord}(g_i) - k_i}U'$ has sum zero and divides UV. Thus W' is an atom of length $\mathsf{D}(G) - 1 = |W'| = |U|$ and hence $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) = 2k_i$. Since $\mathsf{\Sigma}(S_1) = G \setminus \{0\}$, S_1 has a subsequence T such that $\sigma(T) = (k_i + 1)g_i$. If $g_i \nmid T$, then $Tg_i^{k_i-1}$ is a proper zero-sum subsequence of S_1 , a contradiction. If $g_i \mid T$, then $\sigma(g_i^{-1}T) = k_ig_i = \sigma(g_i^{k_i})$. By (A2), it follows that $0 = 2k_ig_i = 2\sigma(g_i^{-1}T) = -2k_1g_1 \neq 0$, a contradiction.

Now we distinguish two subcases.

Case 2.1. $|\{i \in [1, l] \mid \operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2\}| \ge 3$, say $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) > 2$, $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) > 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_3) > 2$. We start with the following assertion:

(A5) there is a subsequence W of U with $\sigma(W) = g_1 - g_2$ such that $W = g_2^{k_2} W'$ and for any $h \mid W'$, ord(h) = 2.

PROOF OF (A5). By (A3), there exists some $W \in \mathcal{F}(G)$ such that $W \mid U$ and $\sigma(W) = g_1 - g_2$. We claim that $g_1 \nmid W$ but $g_2^{k_2} \mid W$. Assume to the contrary that $g_1 \mid W$.

Then $\sigma(g_1^{-1}W) = -g_2 = \sigma(g_2^{-1}U)$. By (A1), this implies that $2g_2 = 0$, a contradiction. Assume to the contrary that $g_2^{k_2} \nmid W$. Then $g_2W \mid U$ and $\sigma(g_2W) = g_1 = \sigma(g_1)$. By (A1), this implies that $2g_1 = 0$, a contradiction. Thus $W = g_2^{k_2}W'$ with $W' \mid g_3^{k_3} \cdot \ldots \cdot g_J^{k_J}$.

Let $i \in [3, l]$ such that $g_i \mid W'$. We only need to show that $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) = 2$. Assume to the contrary that $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2$. We set $X = Ug_ig_2^{-1}$, and then $|X| = |U| = \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$. Suppose that X has a zero-sum subsequence T. Then $g_i^{k_i+1} \mid T$ and by (A4) we obtain that $\operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2k_i$. Therefore, $g_i^{-k_i}T \mid U$ and $g_i^{-k_i}T \neq g_i^{-k_i}U$ but $\sigma(g_i^{-k_i}T) = -k_ig_i = \sigma(g_i^{-k_i}U)$, which implies that $2k_ig_i = 0$ by (A1), a contradiction. Thus X is zero-sum free, and $|X| = \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$, which imply that $\Sigma(X) = G \setminus \{0\}$. Therefore, X has a subsequence T such that $\sigma(T) = g_1 - g_2$.

Suppose that $g_i^{k_i+1} \nmid T$. Then $T \mid U$, and by definition of X we have $g_2^{k_2} \nmid T$, which implies that $g_2T \mid U$. Since $\sigma(g_2T) = g_1 = \sigma(g_1)$, we obtain that $2g_1 = 0$ by (A1), a contradiction.

Suppose that $g_i^{k_i+1} \mid T$. Then $g_i^{-1}T \mid U$. Since $\sigma(g_i^{-1}T) = g_1 - g_2 - g_i = \sigma(g_i^{-1}W)$ and $g_i^{-1}T \neq g_i^{-1}W$, we obtain that $\operatorname{supp}(g_i^{-1}T) \cap \operatorname{supp}(g_i^{-1}W) = \emptyset$ and $U = g_i^{-1}T \cdot g_i^{-1}W$ by (A1). Set $T_1 = g_i^{-1}T$, then $g_1^{k_1}g_i^{k_i} \mid T_1$ and $g_2 \nmid T_1$. It follows that $\sigma(g_1^{-1}g_2T_1) = -g_i = \sigma(g_i^{-1}U)$, which implies that $2g_i = 0$ by (A1), a contradiction.

Repeating the argument of (A5), we can find another subsequence W_1 of U with $\sigma(W_1) = g_2 - g_1$ such that $W_1 = g_1^{k_1} W_1'$, and for any $h \mid W_1'$, $\operatorname{ord}(h) = 2$. Set $Y = WW_1(\prod_{h \in \operatorname{supp}(W_1') \cap \operatorname{supp}(W_1')} h^2)^{-1}$, then Y is a zero-sum subsequence of U. Since $\operatorname{ord}(g_3) > 2$, we have $g_3 \nmid W$ and $g_3 \nmid W_1$, which imply that $g_3 \nmid Y$. It follows that Y is a proper zero-sum subsequence of U, a contradiction.

Case 2.2. $|\{i \in [1, l] \mid \operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2\}| \le 2$.

Since $k_1g_1 + \cdots + k_lg_l = \sigma(U) = 0$ and $\operatorname{ord}(k_1g_1) > 2$, it follows that $|\{i \in [1, l] \mid \operatorname{ord}(g_i) > 2\}| = 2$, say, $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) > 2$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) > 2$. Then (A4) implies that $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) > 2k_1$ and $\operatorname{ord}(g_2) > 2k_2$.

Suppose that l = 2. Then

$$\mathsf{D}(G) - 1 = k_1 + k_2 \le \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_1) - 1}{2} + \frac{\operatorname{ord}(g_2) - 1}{2} \le \exp(G) - 1$$

which implies that G is a cyclic group and $k_1 = k_2$. Since any minimal zero-sum sequence of length |G| - 1 over a cyclic group has the form $g^{|G|-2}(2g)$ for some generating element $g \in G$, it follows that $1 = k_2 = k_1$, and hence |G| = 3, a contradiction to $\mathsf{D}(G) \ge 5$.

Suppose that $l \ge 3$. Then $\exp(G)$ is even. We may assume that $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) \ge \operatorname{ord}(g_2)$. Since (g_3, \dots, g_l) is independent, we have $\operatorname{r}(G) \ge l - 2$. Therefore,

$$\begin{split} \exp(G) + l - 4 &\leq \mathsf{D}(G) - 1 = |U| = k_1 + k_2 + l - 2 \\ &\leq \left\lfloor \frac{\mathsf{ord}(g_1) - 1}{2} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{\mathsf{ord}(g_2) - 1}{2} \right\rfloor + l - 2 \leq 2 \left\lfloor \frac{\mathsf{ord}(g_1) - 1}{2} \right\rfloor + l - 2 \\ &\leq \mathsf{ord}(g_1) + l - 3 \leq \exp(G) + l - 3. \end{split}$$

Since $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) | \exp(G)$, we have that $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \exp(G)$ is even. Thus $2\lfloor (\operatorname{ord}(g_1) - 1)/2 \rfloor = \operatorname{ord}(g_1) - 2$, which implies that $k_1 + k_2 = \lfloor (\operatorname{ord}(g_1) - 1)/2 \rfloor + \lfloor (\operatorname{ord}(g_2) - 1)/2 \rfloor = 2\lfloor (\operatorname{ord}(g_1) - 1)/2 \rfloor$. Then $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \operatorname{ord}(g_2) = 2k_1 + 2 = 2k_2 + 2$. Since $\sigma(U) = k_1g_1 + k_2g_2 + g_3 + \cdots + g_l = 0$, we have $2k_1g_1 + 2k_2g_2 = 0$, which implies that $2g_1 + 2g_2 = 0$. If $k_1 = k_2 \ge 2$, then $g_1^2g_2^2$ is an atom and divides UV, a contradiction. Thus $k_1 = k_2 = 1$, and hence $\operatorname{ord}(g_1) = \operatorname{ord}(g_2) = 4$. By (A3), there exists a subsequence W of U such that $\sigma(W) = 2g_1$. If $g_1 \mid W$, then $g_1 \nmid g_1^{-1}W$ and $\sigma(g_1^{-1}W) = g_1 = \sigma(g_1)$, which implies that $2g_1 = 0$ by (A1), a contradiction. If $g_1 \nmid W$, then $g_1 \nmid U(g_1W)^{-1}$ and $\sigma(U(g_1W)^{-1}) = g_1 = \sigma(g_1)$, which implies that $2g_1 = 0$ by (A1), a contradiction. \square

4. Proof of the main results

In this final section we provide the proofs of all results presented in the Introduction (Theorem 1.1 and Corollaries 1.2 and 1.3).

PROOF OF THEOREM 1.1 AND OF COROLLARY 1.2. Let H be a Krull monoid with finite class group G such that $|G| \ge 3$ and each class contains a prime divisor. Recall that the monoid of zero-sum sequences $\mathcal{B}(G)$ is a Krull monoid with class group isomorphic to G and each class contains a prime divisor. By Proposition 2.1, $\neg(H) = \neg(G)$ and c(H) = c(G). Thus it is sufficient to prove Theorem 1.1 for the Krull monoid $\mathcal{B}(G)$.

Let O be a holomorphy ring in a global field K, and R a classical maximal O-order in a central simple algebra A over K such that every stably free left R-ideal is free. Then the monoid R^{\bullet} is a noncommutative Krull monoid [16], and all invariants under consideration of R^{\bullet} coincide with the respective invariants of a commutative Krull monoid whose class group is isomorphic to a ray class group of O. These (highly nontrivial) transfer results are established in [4, 32], and are summarized in [4, Theorems 7.6 and 7.12]. Therefore, for both Theorem 1.1 and Corollary 1.2, it is sufficient to prove the equivalence of the statements for a monoid of zero-sum sequences.

Let G be a finite abelian group with $|G| \ge 3$, and recall the inequalities

$$\exists (G) \leq \mathsf{c}(G) \leq \mathsf{D}(G).$$

- (c) implies (a). Suppose that G is isomorphic either to $C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4$ for some $r \ge 2$ or to $C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ for some $n \ge 2$. Then Theorem A (in the Introduction) shows that $c(G) \le D(G) 1$. Since $D(C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4) = r + 3$ and $D(C_2 \oplus C_{2n}) = 2n + 1$, Lemma 3.1(2) implies that $c(G) \ge \neg(G) \ge D(G) 1$.
- (a) implies (b). Suppose that c(G) = D(G) 1. By Theorem A, G is neither cyclic nor an elementary 2-group, which implies that $D(G) \ge 5$. By Lemma 3.1(1),

$$\mathsf{D}(G) - 1 = \mathsf{c}(G) \le \max\{\lfloor \frac{1}{2} \mathsf{D}(G) + 1 \rfloor, \, \mathsf{I}(G)\} \le \mathsf{D}(G).$$

Thus, if $\exists (G) < \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$, then $\lfloor \frac{1}{2} \mathsf{D}(G) + 1 \rfloor \ge \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$, which implies that $\mathsf{D}(G) \le 4$, a contradiction.

(b) implies (c). Suppose that $\neg(G) = \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$. Again by Theorem A, G is neither cyclic nor an elementary 2-group, which implies that $\mathsf{D}(G) \ge 5$. Then there exist $U, V \in \mathcal{A}(G)$ such that $\min(\mathsf{L}(UV) \setminus \{2\}) = \mathsf{D}(G) - 1$. Obviously, there are the

following four cases (up to symmetry):

- $L(UV) = \{2, D(G) 1, D(G)\};$
- $L(UV) = \{2, D(G) 1\}$ and |U| = |V| = D(G);
- $L(UV) = \{2, D(G) 1\}$ and |U| 1 = |V| = D(G);
- $L(UV) = \{2, D(G) 1\}$ and |U| = |V| = D(G) 1.

These cases are handled in Propositions 3.5–3.8, and they imply that G is isomorphic either to $C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4$ for some $r \ge 2$ or to $C_2 \oplus C_{2n}$ for some $n \ge 2$.

Proof of Corollary 1.3. Let G and G' be abelian groups such that $\mathcal{L}(G) = \mathcal{L}(G')$. Then

$$\Im(G) = \sup\{\min(L \setminus \{2\}) \mid 2 \in L \in \mathcal{L}(G)\} = \Im(G').$$

If G is finite, then $\mathbb{k}(G) \leq \mathsf{c}(G) \leq \mathsf{D}(G) < \infty$. If G is infinite, then, by Kainrath's theorem (see [23] or [19, Section 7.3]), every finite set $L \subset \mathbb{N}_{\geq 2}$ lies in $\mathcal{L}(G)$, which implies that $\mathbb{k}(G) = \infty$.

For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we define the refined elasticities

$$\rho_k(G) = \sup\{\sup L \mid k \in L \in \mathcal{L}(G)\},\$$

and observe that $\rho_k(G) = \rho_k(G')$. This implies that $k\mathsf{D}(G) = \rho_{2k}(G) = \rho_{2k}(G') = k\mathsf{D}(G')$ (see [19, Section 6.3]) for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and hence $\mathsf{D}(G) = \mathsf{D}(G')$.

Now suppose that $G' \in \{C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4, C_2 \oplus C_{2n}\}$ where $r, n \ge 2$. Then Theorem 1.1 implies that $\neg(G') = \mathsf{D}(G') - 1$. Since $\mathcal{L}(G) = \mathcal{L}(G')$, it follows that G is finite and that

$$\exists (G) = \exists (G') = \mathsf{D}(G') - 1 = \mathsf{D}(G) - 1,$$

whence Theorem 1.1 implies that $G \in \{C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4, C_2 \oplus C_{2n}\}$ with $n, r \ge 2$. Suppose now that $n, r \ge 3$. Clearly, condition (b) in Proposition 3.5 is equivalent to

(b')
$$\{2, D(G) - 1, D(G)\} \in \mathcal{L}(G)$$
.

Thus Proposition 3.5 implies in particular that $\mathcal{L}(C_2 \oplus C_{2n}) \neq \mathcal{L}(C_2^{r-1} \oplus C_4)$, and thus the assertion of Corollary 1.3 follows.

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