

for all $r \geq 2$, and hence if we choose $\mu < (m+n)^{-1}(m+n-1)^{-1}$, then

$$|C(q; \psi^*)| \ll \psi^*(q)^{m+n},$$

for all sufficiently large q . It now follows from the Borel–Cantelli lemma that the system of inequalities

$$\|q\xi_i(\mathbf{u})\| < \psi^*(q), \quad i = 1, \dots, m+n,$$

has at most finitely many solutions for almost all $\mathbf{u} \in \Omega$, which proves Theorem 1.3.

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Representation of primes by the principal form of discriminant $-D$ when the classnumber $h(-D)$ is 3

by

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0. Notation and preliminary result. Throughout this paper p denotes a prime > 3 . We shall be concerned with binary quadratic forms $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$, written (a, b, c) , which are integral (that is, a, b, c are integers), positive-definite (that is, $a > 0, b^2 - 4ac < 0$) and primitive (that is, $\text{GCD}(a, b, c) = 1$). The discriminant of the form (a, b, c) is the negative integer $b^2 - 4ac$. On the set of all such forms of fixed discriminant $-D$ ($D > 0$), we define an equivalence relation \sim as follows: we write $(a, b, c) \sim (a', b', c')$ if there exist integers p, q, r, s with $ps - qr = +1$ such that

$$a(px + qy)^2 + b(px + qy)(rx + sy) + c(rx + sy)^2 = a'x^2 + b'xy + c'y^2.$$

It is well known that there are only finitely many such equivalence classes. The number of classes is called the classnumber of forms of discriminant $-D$ and is denoted by $h(-D)$. The principal form of discriminant $-D$ is the form p_{-D} given by

$$(0.1) \quad p_{-D} = \begin{cases} (1, 0, D/4), & \text{if } D \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \\ (1, 1, (D+1)/4), & \text{if } D \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

A positive integer m is said to be represented by the form (a, b, c) if there exist integers x and y such that $m = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$. If the prime p (not dividing $2D$) is represented by a form of discriminant $-D$, it is well known that the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = +1$. In this paper we shall be concerned with the representability of a prime p (> 3) by the principal form p_{-D} of discriminant $-D$ when $h(-D) = 3$.

Recent deep work of Goldfeld, Gross, Mestre, Oesterlé and Zagier (see [6], [7], [12], [13], [14], [20]) has led to the complete determination of all the imaginary quadratic fields with classnumber 3 [12: Théorème 4], namely,

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$$Q(\sqrt{-n}): n = 23, 31, 59, 83, 107, 139, 211, 283, 307, \\ 331, 379, 499, 547, 643, 883, 907.$$

The complete list of all the imaginary quadratic fields with classnumber 1 has been known for over twenty years [15], namely,

$$Q(\sqrt{-n}): n = 1, 2, 3, 7, 11, 19, 43, 67, 163.$$

From these results we can deduce

PROPOSITION. $h(-D) = 3$ if and only if

$$(0.2) \quad D = 23, 31, 44, 59, 76, 83, 92, 107, 108, 124, 139, 172, 211, 243, 268, 283, \\ 307, 331, 379, 499, 547, 643, 652, 883 \text{ or } 907.$$

Proof. Let d be the discriminant of the imaginary quadratic field given uniquely by

$$-D = f^2 d,$$

where f is a positive integer. Then, by a formula of Gauss, we have

$$h(-D) = h(f^2 d) = h(d) \psi_d(f) / u,$$

where

$$\psi_d(f) = f \prod_{q|f} \left(1 - \left(\frac{d}{q} \right) \frac{1}{q} \right)$$

and

$$u = \begin{cases} 3, & \text{if } d = -3, \\ 2, & \text{if } d = -4, \\ 1, & \text{if } d < -4. \end{cases}$$

Note that q runs through the distinct primes dividing f and $\left(\frac{d}{q}\right)$ is the Kronecker symbol. As $\psi_d(f)$ is a positive integer and $h(-3) = h(-4) = 1$, we see that

$$h(-D) = 3 \Leftrightarrow \begin{aligned} & \text{(a) } d < -4, h(d) = 3, \psi_d(f) = 1 \text{ or} \\ & \text{(b) } d < -4, h(d) = 1, \psi_d(f) = 3 \text{ or} \\ & \text{(c) } \psi_{-4}(f) = 6 \text{ or} \\ & \text{(d) } \psi_{-3}(f) = 9. \end{aligned}$$

Now it is easy to check that

$$\psi_d(f) = 1 \Leftrightarrow f = 1 \text{ or } f = 2, d \equiv 1 \pmod{8};$$

$$\psi_d(f) = 3 \Leftrightarrow f = 2, d \equiv 5 \pmod{8} \text{ or}$$

$$f = 3, d \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \text{ or}$$

$$f = 6, d \equiv 1 \pmod{8}, d \equiv 0 \pmod{3};$$

$$\psi_{-4}(f) = 6 \quad \text{cannot occur;}$$

$$\psi_{-3}(f) = 9 \Leftrightarrow f = 6 \text{ or } f = 9.$$

Thus, appealing to the lists of imaginary quadratic fields with classnumber 1 or 3, we see that:

- (a) occurs if and only if $D = 23, 31, 59, 83, 107, 139, 211, 283, 307, 331, 379, 499, 547, 643, 883, 907, 23 \cdot 2^2, 31 \cdot 2^2$;
- (b) occurs if and only if $D = 11 \cdot 2^2, 19 \cdot 2^2, 43 \cdot 2^2, 67 \cdot 2^2, 163 \cdot 2^2$;
- (c) cannot occur;
- (d) occurs if and only if $D = 3 \cdot 6^2, 3 \cdot 9^2$.

This gives the twenty-five values of D listed in (0.2).

1. Introduction. Gauss [5] showed that 2 is congruent to a cube modulo a prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ if and only if there exist integers x and y such that $p = x^2 + 27y^2$, that is, if and only if p is represented by the principal form of discriminant -108 . Moreover, when 2 is a cube (mod p), where $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, 2 has three distinct cube roots (mod p). If $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ then $\left(\frac{-108}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = -1$ and p is not represented by any form of discriminant -108 , and 2 has a unique cube root (mod p). Since every positive-definite, primitive, integral binary quadratic form of discriminant -108 is equivalent to exactly one of the three forms $(1, 0, 27)$, $(4, -2, 7)$, $(4, 2, 7)$, Gauss' theorem can be expressed as follows:

THEOREM (Gauss). The polynomial $x^3 - 2$ is

- (i) the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p) if $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = +1$ and p is represented by $(1, 0, 27)$;
- (ii) the product of a linear polynomial and an irreducible quadratic polynomial (mod p) if $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = -1$;
- (iii) irreducible (mod p) if $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = +1$ and p is represented by $(4, \pm 2, 7)$.

Clearly Gauss' theorem can be reformulated as a criterion for p to be represented by the principal form of discriminant -108 , namely,

THEOREM (Gauss). *The prime p is represented by $(1, 0, 27)$ if and only if $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = +1$ and $x^3 - 2$ is congruent to the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p).*

Jacobi [10] showed that 3 is congruent to a cube modulo a prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ if and only if p can be written in the form $4p = A^2 + 243B^2$, where A and B are integers. If $4p = A^2 + 243B^2$ then we have $A \equiv B \pmod{2}$ and $p = x^2 + xy + 61y^2$ with $x = \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$, $y = B$. Conversely, if $p = x^2 + xy + 61y^2$ then we have $4p = A^2 + 243B^2$ with $A = 2x + y$, $B = y$. Since every positive-definite, primitive, integral binary quadratic form of discriminant -243 is equivalent to exactly one of the three forms $(1, 1, 61)$, $(7, -3, 9)$, $(7, 3, 9)$, Jacobi's theorem can be restated as follows:

THEOREM (Jacobi). *The prime p is represented by $(1, 1, 61)$ if and only if $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = +1$ and $x^3 - 3$ is congruent to the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p).*

In this paper we generalize the results of Gauss and Jacobi to all $D (> 0)$ for which $h(-D) = 3$. These values of D are listed in (0.2). We prove

THEOREM 1. *Let D be a positive integer such that $h(-D) = 3$. Then the prime p ($p > 3$, $p \nmid D$) is represented by the principal form p_{-D} of discriminant $-D$ if and only if $\left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = +1$ and $f_{-D}(x)$ is congruent to the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p), where $f_{-D}(x)$ is the monic cubic polynomial with integral coefficients listed in Table 1. Further we have*

$$\text{discriminant}(f_{-D}(x)) = \begin{cases} -D, & \text{if } D \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \text{ or } D \equiv 12 \pmod{32}, \\ -D/4, & \text{if } D \equiv 28 \pmod{32}. \end{cases}$$

Table 1

D	$f_{-D}(x)$	D	$f_{-D}(x)$
23	$x^3 - x + 1$	243	$x^3 - 3$
31	$x^3 + x + 1$	268	$x^3 + 2x^2 - 2x + 2$
44	$x^3 + x^2 - x + 1$	283	$x^3 + 4x + 1$
59	$x^3 + 2x + 1$	307	$x^3 - x^2 + 3x + 2$
76	$x^3 - 2x + 2$	331	$x^3 - 2x^2 + 4x + 1$
83	$x^3 + x^2 + x + 2$	379	$x^3 + x^2 + x + 4$
92	$x^3 - x + 1$	499	$x^3 + 4x + 3$
107	$x^3 + x^2 + 3x + 2$	547	$x^3 + x^2 - 3x + 4$
108	$x^3 - 2$	643	$x^3 - 2x + 5$
124	$x^3 + x + 1$	652	$x^3 + 3x^2 - 5x + 3$
139	$x^3 - x^2 + x + 2$	883	$x^3 + 5x^2 - 5x + 2$
172	$x^3 - x^2 - x + 3$	907	$x^3 + 5x^2 + x + 2$
211	$x^3 - 2x + 3$		

The cases $D = 108$ and $D = 243$ of the theorem are the aforementioned results of Gauss and Jacobi respectively, so these two values of D will be excluded from further consideration. Furthermore, when $D = 92$ and $D = 124$, it is easy to check that p is represented by p_{-D} if and only if it is represented by $p_{-D/4}$, as $D/4 \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$. Thus we can also exclude these two values of D from further consideration. We divide the remaining 21 values of D into two lists according as $D \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ or $D \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$, namely,

(A) $D = 23, 31, 59, 83, 107, 139, 211, 283, 307, 331, 379, 499, 547, 643, 883, 907,$

(B) $D = 44, 76, 172, 268, 652.$

The proof of Theorem 1 for the 16 values of D listed in (A) is based on a theorem of Weinberger [18] and is given in Section 2. For the 5 values of D listed in (B), Weinberger's theorem does not apply and we give a proof (in §3) using Artin's reciprocity law instead. We remark that the existence of such a polynomial $f_{-D}(x)$ is known by class field theory (see [3: Theorem 9.2 and Ex. 9.3]). Our Theorem 1 gives such a polynomial $f_{-D}(x)$ explicitly for all D with $h(-D) = 3$, and furthermore shows that $f_{-D}(x)$ may be chosen with discriminant $-D/4$ or $-D$ according as $D \equiv 28 \pmod{32}$ or not. In future work it is planned to determine $f_{-D}(x)$ explicitly when $h(-D) = 4, 5, 6, 7$ and 8, assuming that the known lists of such D are complete. For general D not much is known about $f_{-D}(x)$ or its discriminant.

The case $D = 124$ of Theorem 1 was treated by Kronecker [11], who showed that p is represented by $(1, 0, 31)$ if and only if the congruence

$$(x^3 - 10x)^2 + 31(x^2 - 1)^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

is solvable. It is easy to check that this is equivalent to our result, namely, p ($\nmid 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 31$) is represented by $(1, 0, 31)$ if and only if $\left(\frac{-31}{p}\right) = +1$ and the congruence $x^3 + x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ is solvable. Appealing to Theorem 1, a sextic polynomial analogous to that of Kronecker for $D = 124$ can be found for each D in (0.2).

In Section 4, we use Theorem 1 to construct explicitly some class fields. We prove

THEOREM 2. (i) *For those D in (A), the Hilbert class field over $Q(\sqrt{-D})$ is*

$$Q(\sqrt{-D}, \sqrt[3]{\kappa_D} + \sqrt[3]{\kappa'_D}),$$

where κ_D is given as follows:

D	κ_D	D	κ_D	D	κ_D
23	$(-27 + 3\sqrt{69})/2$	139	$(-61 + 3\sqrt{417})/2$	379	$(-101 + 3\sqrt{1137})/2$
31	$(-27 + 3\sqrt{93})/2$	211	$(-81 + 3\sqrt{633})/2$	499	$(-81 + 3\sqrt{1497})/2$
59	$(-27 + 3\sqrt{177})/2$	283	$(-27 + 3\sqrt{849})/2$	547	$(-137 + 3\sqrt{1641})/2$
83	$(-47 + 3\sqrt{249})/2$	307	$(-79 + 3\sqrt{921})/2$	643	$(-135 + 3\sqrt{1929})/2$
107	$(-29 + 3\sqrt{321})/2$	331	$(-83 + 3\sqrt{993})/2$	883	$(-529 + 3\sqrt{2649})/2$
				907	$(-259 + 3\sqrt{2721})/2$

(ii) For those D in (B), the ring class field of the order $Z[\sqrt{-D/4}]$ in $Z[(-1 + \sqrt{-D/4})/2]$ is

$$Q(\sqrt{-D/4}, \sqrt[3]{\kappa_D} + \sqrt[3]{\kappa'_D}),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_{44} &= -19 + 3\sqrt{33}, \\ \kappa_{76} &= -27 + 3\sqrt{57}, \\ \kappa_{172} &= -35 + 3\sqrt{129}, \\ \kappa_{268} &= -53 + 3\sqrt{201}, \\ \kappa_{652} &= -135 + 3\sqrt{489}. \end{aligned}$$

We remark that Hasse [9] has shown that the Hilbert class field over $Q(\sqrt{-23})$ is

$$Q(\sqrt{-23}, \sqrt[3]{(25 + 3\sqrt{69})/2} + \sqrt[3]{(25 - 3\sqrt{69})/2})$$

and the Hilbert class field over $Q(\sqrt{-31})$ is

$$Q(\sqrt{-31}, \sqrt[3]{(29 + 3\sqrt{93})/2} + \sqrt[3]{(29 - 3\sqrt{93})/2}).$$

Our results for $D = 23$ and $D = 31$ agree with those of Hasse since $\beta = (\alpha - 9)/\alpha$ for

$$\begin{cases} \alpha = \sqrt[3]{(-27 + 3\sqrt{69})/2} + \sqrt[3]{(-27 - 3\sqrt{69})/2} = -3.9741\dots, \\ \beta = \sqrt[3]{(25 + 3\sqrt{69})/2} + \sqrt[3]{(25 - 3\sqrt{69})/2} = 3.2646\dots; \end{cases}$$

and $\delta = (-\gamma - 9)/\gamma$ for

$$\begin{cases} \gamma = \sqrt[3]{(-27 + 3\sqrt{93})/2} + \sqrt[3]{(-27 - 3\sqrt{93})/2} = -2.0469\dots, \\ \delta = \sqrt[3]{(29 + 3\sqrt{93})/2} + \sqrt[3]{(29 - 3\sqrt{93})/2} = 3.3967\dots \end{cases}$$

In Section 5, we use Theorem 1 and a theorem of Cauchy [2] to give a necessary and sufficient condition for the prime p to be represented by p_{-D} (D in list (A) or list (B)) in terms of integer sequences defined by a second order linear recurrence relation which need only be considered modulo p . When $D = 23$ our result agrees with that of Gurak [8]. We prove

THEOREM 3. Let D denote one of the integers in list (A) or list (B). Let p be a prime (> 3) such that $\left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = +1$. Then

$$p = \begin{cases} x^2 + \frac{D}{4}y^2, & \text{if } D \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \\ x^2 + xy + \left(\frac{1+D}{4}\right)y^2, & \text{if } D \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, \end{cases}$$

is solvable in integers x and y if and only if

$$\begin{cases} u_{(p-1)/3} \equiv 2 \pmod{p}, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ u_{(p+1)/3} \equiv -2k \pmod{p}, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, \end{cases}$$

where the sequence of integers $\{u_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$ is given by

$$\begin{cases} u_0 = 2, & u_1 = l, \\ u_{n+2} = lu_{n+1} + k^3u_n, & n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \end{cases}$$

and the integers k, l are given in Table 2:

Table 2

D	k	l	D	k	l
23	-1	+25	283	+12	+27
31	-1	+29	307	+8	-79
44	-4	-38	331	+8	+83
59	-4	-43	379	+2	+101
76	+8	-2	499	+12	+81
83	+2	-47	547	-10	+137
107	+8	+29	643	-6	+135
139	+2	-61	652	+20	+196
172	-4	+70	883	-40	+529
211	-6	-81	907	-22	+259
268	-10	+106			

The identities

$$u_{2m} = u_m^2 - 2(-1)^m k^{3m}, \quad u_{3m} = u_m^3 - 3(-1)^m k^{3m} u_m,$$

are often useful in computing $u_{(p \pm 1)/3} \pmod{p}$. We illustrate Theorem 3 with a simple example.

EXAMPLE. Is the prime 1297 represented by the form $(1, 0, 19)$? Here we have $p = 1297$, $(p-1)/3 = 432$, $D = 76$, $k = 8$, $l = -2$. Making use of the above identities, we obtain successively modulo 1297

$$\begin{aligned} u_0 &\equiv 2, & u_1 &\equiv -2, & u_2 &\equiv 1028, & u_4 &\equiv 726, & u_8 &\equiv 889, \\ u_{16} &\equiv 904, & u_{48} &\equiv 544, & u_{144} &\equiv 1296, & u_{432} &\equiv 2, \end{aligned}$$

so that, by Theorem 3, 1297 is represented by $(1, 0, 19)$. Indeed we have $1297 = 1 \cdot 9^2 + 19 \cdot 8^2$.

2. Proof of Theorem 1 for those D listed in (A). Throughout this section, D denotes one of the integers listed in (A). Note that D is a prime $\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Let p be a prime > 3 with $p \nmid D$. If $\left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = -1$ then p is not represented by $p_{-D} = (1, 1, \frac{1}{2}(D+1))$ and, as $\text{discrim}(f_{-D}(x)) = -D$, by a theorem of Stickelberger [16], $f_{-D}(x)$ is the product of a linear polynomial and an irreducible quadratic polynomial modulo p . Now suppose $\left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = +1$. We must show that p is represented by $p_{-D} = (1, 1, \frac{1}{2}(D+1))$ if and only if $f_{-D}(x)$ is congruent to the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p).

We set

$$(2.1) \quad K_D = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{3D}), \quad K_D^* = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{3D}) \setminus \{0\}.$$

Let G_D be the group defined by

$$(2.2) \quad G_D = \{\alpha \in K_D^* : (\alpha) = A^3 \text{ for some ideal } A \text{ of } K_D\}$$

and let H_D be the subgroup of G_D given by

$$(2.3) \quad H_D = \{\alpha \in K_D^* : \alpha = \beta^3 \text{ for some } \beta \in K_D^*\}.$$

Then G_D/H_D is a group isomorphic with the direct sum of r_D+1 groups of order 3, where r_D is the rank of the 3-Sylow subgroup of the classgroup $H(K_D)$ of K_D . Now

$$(2.4) \quad H(K_D) \simeq \begin{cases} Z_3, & \text{for } D = 107, 331, 643, \\ Z_5, & \text{for } D = 547, \\ Z_1, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

so

$$(2.5) \quad r_D = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for } D = 107, 331, 643, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and thus

$$(2.6) \quad G_D/H_D \simeq \begin{cases} Z_3 \times Z_3, & \text{if } D = 107, 331, 643, \\ Z_3, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Let ε_{3D} denote the fundamental unit (> 1) of K_D . When $D \neq 107, 331, 643$ a basis for the group G_D/H_D is $\{\varepsilon_{3D}H_D\}$. When $D = 107, 331$ or 643 , $H(K_D)$ is generated by the class containing the ideal $A_D = (2, \frac{1}{2}(1+\sqrt{3D}))$. Since

$$A_D^3 = \begin{cases} (\frac{1}{2}(17+\sqrt{321})), & \text{if } D = 107, \\ (\frac{1}{2}(31-\sqrt{993})), & \text{if } D = 331, \\ (\frac{1}{2}(4963-113\sqrt{1929})) = (\frac{1}{2}(1258562169097-28655537523\sqrt{1929})), & \text{if } D = 643. \end{cases}$$

a basis for G_D/H_D is given by $\{\varepsilon_{3D}H_D, \mu_{3D}H_D\}$, where

$$\mu_{3D} = \begin{cases} (\frac{1}{2}(17+\sqrt{321})), & \text{if } D = 107, \\ (\frac{1}{2}(31-\sqrt{993})), & \text{if } D = 331, \\ (\frac{1}{2}(1258562169097-28655537523\sqrt{1929})), & \text{if } D = 643. \end{cases}$$

Hence, for every nonzero integer α of K_D , there is a unique integer γ_{3D} of K_D , a unique integer r ($= 0, 1, 2$), and, if $D = 107, 331$ or 643 , a unique integer s ($= 0, 1, 2$), such that

$$(2.7) \quad \begin{cases} \alpha \varepsilon_{3D}^r = \gamma_{3D}^3, & \text{if } D \neq 107, 331, 643, \\ \alpha \varepsilon_{3D}^r \mu_{3D}^s = \gamma_{3D}^3, & \text{if } D = 107, 331, 643. \end{cases}$$

The choice of generator μ_{3D} of A_D^3 with large coefficients in the case $D = 643$ is so that when α is taken to be α_D (see (2.12)) we have $r = 0$ and $s = 1$ (see Table 6 and (2.13)). The values of ε_{3D} for those D under consideration are taken from the table of Wada [17] and are listed in Table 3.

Table 3

D	ε_{3D}
23	$(25+3\sqrt{69})/2$
31	$(29+3\sqrt{93})/2$
59	$62423+4692\sqrt{177}$
83	$8553815+542076\sqrt{249}$
107	$215+12\sqrt{321}$
139	$85322647+4178268\sqrt{417}$
211	$440772247+17519124\sqrt{633}$
283	$1501654712948695+51536656330476\sqrt{849}$
307	$2522057712835735+83104627139412\sqrt{921}$
331	$2647+84\sqrt{993}$
379	$650468934487+19290626292\sqrt{1137}$
499	$22516718751127+581961430932\sqrt{1497}$
547	$4375+108\sqrt{1641}$
643	$126794455+2886916\sqrt{1929}$
883	$99736649218553790682248535+1937821608115448210697276\sqrt{2649}$
907	$5231287949706796270736288215+100286934195999623391686388\sqrt{2721}$

Next we define $g_{-D}(x)$ to be the monic cubic polynomial

$$(2.8) \quad g_{-D}(x) = x^3 + \frac{a_D}{3}x + \frac{b_D}{27},$$

where the integers a_D and b_D are listed in Table 4.

Table 4

D	a_D	b_D	D	a_D	b_D
23	-1	-25	307	+8	+79
31	-1	-29	331	+8	-83
59	-4	+43	379	+2	-101
83	+2	+47	499	+12	-81
107	+8	-29	547	-10	-137
139	+2	+61	643	-6	-135
211	-6	+81	883	-40	-529
283	+12	-27	907	-22	-259

The integers a_D and b_D were chosen so that the polynomials $f_{-D}(x)$ and $g_{-D}(x)$ have the same discriminant as well as the same number of roots (mod p). It is clear that

$$\text{discrim}(f_{-D}(x)) = \text{discrim}(g_{-D}(x))$$

as

$$\text{discrim}(f_{-D}(x)) = -D, \quad \text{discrim}(g_{-D}(x)) = (-4a_D^3 - b_D^2)/27,$$

and

$$(2.9) \quad 4a_D^3 + b_D^2 = 27D.$$

It is also clear that $f_{-D}(x)$ and $g_{-D}(x)$ have the same number of roots (mod p) as

$$(2.10) \quad f_{-D}(x) = (-1)^d x^e g_{-D}\left(\frac{tx+u}{vx+w}\right),$$

where the integers d ($= 0, 1$), e ($= 0, 3$), t, u, v, w are given in Table 5.

Table 5

D	d	e	t	u	v	w	D	d	e	t	u	v	w
23	1	3	1	-3	3	0	307	0	0	3	-1	0	3
31	1	3	-1	-3	3	0	331	1	0	-3	2	0	3
59	0	3	2	3	3	0	379	1	0	-3	-1	0	3
83	0	0	3	1	0	3	499	1	0	-1	0	0	1
107	1	0	-3	-1	0	3	547	1	0	-3	-1	0	3
139	0	0	3	-1	0	3	643	1	0	-1	0	0	1
211	0	0	1	0	0	1	883	1	0	-3	-5	0	3
283	1	0	-1	0	0	1	907	1	0	-3	-5	0	3

We can also see that $\text{discrim}(f_{-D}(x)) = \text{discrim}(g_{-D}(x))$ from (2.10) and

Table 5, as in each case we have

$$(2.11) \quad \left(t^3 + \frac{a_D}{3}tv^2 + \frac{b_D}{27}v^3\right)^2 = \pm(tw - uv)^3.$$

Set

$$(2.12) \quad \alpha_D = \frac{1}{2}(b_D + 3\sqrt{3D}),$$

so that by (2.9) α_D is of norm $(-a_D)^3$. For each D , we determine the values of r, s and $\gamma_{3D} = \frac{1}{2}(u_D + v_D\sqrt{3D})$ in (2.7) when $\alpha = \alpha_D$. These are listed in Table 6.

Table 6

D	r	s	u_D	v_D
23	1		-2	0
31	1		-2	0
59	1		+173	+13
83	1		+931	+59
107	1	0	+17	+1
139	1		+2185	+107
211	1		+4101	+163
283	1		+449331	+15421
307	1		+754117	+24849
331	1	0	+31	+1
379	1		+4687	+139
499	1		+92433	+2389
547	1		-41	-1
643	0	1	-55164	+1256
883	1		-3343018627	-64952791
907	1		-8124416167	-155749941

It is no coincidence that $r = 1$ for $D \neq 643$, this is a consequence of the choice of sign of b_D .

Summarizing we have

$$(2.13) \quad \begin{cases} \alpha_D \varepsilon_{3D} = \gamma_{3D}^3, & \text{for } D \neq 643, \\ \alpha_D \mu_{3D} = \gamma_{3D}^3, & \text{for } D = 643. \end{cases}$$

In view of (2.10), $f_{-D}(x)$ is the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p) if and only if $g_{-D}(x)$ is the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p). By a theorem of Dickson [4], as $\text{discrim}(g_{-D}(x)) = -D$ and $\left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = +1$, the polynomial $g_{-D}(x)$ is the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p) if and only if α_D is congruent to a cube (mod p), where p

is a prime ideal of the ring of integers of K_D which divides p . We note that $\alpha_D \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, otherwise $p|a_D$, which is seen to be impossible from Table 4 remembering that $p > 3$ and $\left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = +1$. In view of (2.13), α_D is a cube (mod p) if and only if ϵ_{3D} (if $D \neq 643$), μ_{3D} (if $D = 643$) is a cube (mod p).

Let $H(-9D)$ denote the group of classes of primitive, positive-definite, binary quadratic forms of discriminant $-9D$, so that, for those D under consideration, $H(-9D)$ is cyclic of order 12 (resp. 6) if $D \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ (resp. $D \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$). As the 3-Sylow subgroup of $H(-9D)$ is of order 3, by a theorem of Weinberger [18], ϵ_{3D} (if $D \neq 643$), μ_{3D} (if $D = 643$) is a cube (mod p) if and only if $N(\mathfrak{p})$ is represented by one of the forms in the subgroup of sixth powers in $H(-9D)$, that is, by

$$(2.14) \quad \begin{cases} (1, 1, \frac{1}{4}(9D+1)) \text{ or } (9, 9, \frac{1}{4}(D+9)), & \text{if } D \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ (1, 1, \frac{1}{4}(9D+1)), & \text{if } D \equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

In view of the identities

$$x^2 + xy + \frac{(9D+1)}{4}y^2 \equiv (x-y)^2 + (x-y)(3y) + \frac{(D+1)}{4}(3y)^2,$$

$$9x^2 + 9xy + \frac{(D+9)}{4}y^2 \equiv (3x+y)^2 + (3x+y)y + \frac{(D+1)}{4}y^2,$$

it is clear that if $N(\mathfrak{p})$ is represented by $(1, 1, \frac{1}{4}(9D+1))$ or $(9, 9, \frac{1}{4}(D+9))$ it is represented by $p_{-D} = (1, 1, \frac{1}{4}(D+1))$. In order to treat the converse, we first show that $N(\mathfrak{p}) \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. We have

$$N(\mathfrak{p}) = \begin{cases} p, & \text{if } \left(\frac{3D}{p}\right) = 1. \\ p^2, & \text{if } \left(\frac{3D}{p}\right) = -1. \end{cases}$$

Recalling that $\left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = 1$, the condition $\left(\frac{3D}{p}\right) = 1$ (resp. -1) is equivalent to $p \equiv 1$ (resp. 2) (mod 3). Hence we have $N(\mathfrak{p}) \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. Thus, if $N(\mathfrak{p})$ is represented by $p_{-D} = (1, 1, \frac{1}{4}(D+1))$, then

$$N(\mathfrak{p}) = x^2 + xy + \frac{1}{4}(D+1)y^2,$$

with either (i) $y \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, or (ii) $x \equiv y \not\equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, $D \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. If (i) holds then $N(\mathfrak{p})$ is represented by $(1, 1, \frac{1}{4}(9D+1))$ as

$$N(\mathfrak{p}) = \left(x + \frac{y}{3}\right)^2 + \left(x + \frac{y}{3}\right)\left(\frac{y}{3}\right) + \frac{(9D+1)}{4}\left(\frac{y}{3}\right)^2.$$

If (ii) holds then $N(\mathfrak{p})$ is represented by $(9, 9, \frac{1}{4}(D+9))$ as

$$N(\mathfrak{p}) = 9\left(\frac{x-y}{3}\right)^2 + 9\left(\frac{x-y}{3}\right)y + \frac{(D+9)}{4}y^2.$$

This completes the proof when $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ as in this case $N(\mathfrak{p}) = p$. When $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, we have $N(\mathfrak{p}) = p^2$, and since there are exactly three inequivalent forms of discriminant $-D$, p^2 is represented by p_{-D} if and only if p is represented by p_{-D} .

This completes the proof of Theorem 1 for those D listed in (A).

We conclude this section by noting that when $D = 44$, and p is a prime $\equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ with $\left(\frac{-44}{p}\right) = 1$, Weinberger's theorem [18] gives a necessary and sufficient condition for p to be represented by the form $(1, 1, 223)$, namely

p is represented by $(1, 1, 223)$ if and only if $\epsilon_{33} = 23 + 4\sqrt{33}$ is a cube (mod p), where \mathfrak{p} is a prime ideal of $Q(\sqrt{33})$ with $N(\mathfrak{p}) = p$.

This result is not relevant to Theorem 1. Similar remarks apply to the other values of D in (B). Thus a different approach is needed to prove Theorem 1 for those D in (B), and this is done in the next section.

3. Proof of Theorem 1 for those D listed in (B). Throughout this section, D is one of the five integers listed in (B). Note that $D = 4D^*$, where D^* is a prime $\equiv 3 \pmod{8}$. Let L_D denote the bicyclic biquadratic field $Q(\sqrt{-3}, \sqrt{-D^*})$. If $\theta \in L_D$ the conjugates of θ are $\theta, \theta', \bar{\theta}, \bar{\theta}'$, where

$$(3.1) \quad \begin{cases} \theta = a + b\sqrt{-3} + c\sqrt{-D^*} + d\sqrt{3D^*}, \\ \theta' = a - b\sqrt{-3} + c\sqrt{-D^*} - d\sqrt{3D^*}, \\ \bar{\theta} = a - b\sqrt{-3} - c\sqrt{-D^*} + d\sqrt{3D^*}, \\ \bar{\theta}' = a + b\sqrt{-3} - c\sqrt{-D^*} - d\sqrt{3D^*}, \end{cases}$$

where $a, b, c, d \in Q$. The ring of integers of L_D is denoted by R_D . It is known that R_D is a unique factorization domain [1].

Let p be a prime > 3 not dividing D . If $\left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = -1$, p is not represented by $p_{-D} = (1, 0, D/4)$, and, as $\text{discrim}(f_{-D}(x)) = -D$, by a theorem of Stickelberger [16], $f_{-D}(x)$ is the product of a linear polynomial and an irreducible quadratic (mod p).

Suppose now that $\left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = +1$. We must show that p is represented by $p_{-D} = (1, 0, D/4)$ if and only if $f_{-D}(x)$ is congruent to the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p). Define

$$(3.2) \quad g_{-D}(x) = x^3 + \frac{a_D}{3}x + \frac{b_D}{27},$$

where the integers a_D and b_D are given in Table 7.

Table 7

D	a_D	b_D
44	-4	+38
76	+8	+2
172	-4	-70
268	-10	-106
652	+20	-196

We note that

$$(3.3) \quad \text{discrim}(g_{-D}(x)) = (-4a_D^3 - b_D^2)/27 = \begin{cases} -D, & \text{if } D \neq 652, \\ -4D, & \text{if } D = 652, \end{cases}$$

and that

$$(3.4) \quad f_{-D}(x) = \frac{1}{d}(vx+w)^e g_{-D}\left(\frac{tx+u}{vx+w}\right),$$

where the integers $d, e (= 0, 3), t, u, v, w$ are given in Table 8.

Table 8

D	d	e	t	u	v	w
44	+1	0	+3	+1	0	+3
76	+27	+3	+1	+2	+3	-3
172	-1	0	-3	+1	0	+3
268	-1	0	-3	-2	0	+3
652	-108	+3	-4	-2	-3	+3

From (3.4) we see that $f_{-D}(x)$ is congruent to the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p) if and only if $g_{-D}(x)$ is the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p). By (3.3) we have

$$\left(\frac{\text{discrim}(g_{-D})}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-D}{p}\right) = +1,$$

so that by a theorem of Dickson [4], $g_{-D}(x)$ is the product of three distinct linear polynomials (mod p) if and only if

$$(3.5) \quad \left[\frac{\mu_D}{\lambda_D}\right]_3 = 1,$$

where

$$(3.6) \quad \mu_D = \begin{cases} 19 + 3\sqrt{33}, & \text{if } D = 44, \\ 1 + 3\sqrt{57}, & \text{if } D = 76, \\ -35 + 3\sqrt{129}, & \text{if } D = 172, \\ -53 + 3\sqrt{201}, & \text{if } D = 268, \\ -98 + 6\sqrt{489}, & \text{if } D = 652, \end{cases}$$

and λ_D is a prime divisor of p in R_D . (The symbol $\left[\frac{\mu}{\lambda}\right]_3$ in (3.5) is the cubic Legendre symbol.) The prime factorization of the prime 3 in R_D is given as follows:

$$(3.7) \quad 3 = \begin{cases} -\pi_D^2 \bar{\pi}_D^2, & \text{if } D = 44, \\ -\pi_D^2, & \text{if } D = 76, 172, 268, 652, \end{cases}$$

where

$$(3.8) \quad \pi_D = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(1 + 2\sqrt{-3} + \sqrt{-11}), & \text{if } D = 44, \\ \sqrt{-3}, & \text{if } D = 76, 172, 268, 652. \end{cases}$$

By Artin's reciprocity law, we have

$$(3.9) \quad \left[\frac{\mu_D}{\lambda_D}\right]_3 = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{\mu_D, \lambda_D}{\pi_D}\right)_3 \left(\frac{\mu_D, \lambda_D}{\bar{\pi}_D}\right)_3 \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\mu_D}\right]_3, & \text{if } D = 44, \\ \left(\frac{\mu_D, \lambda_D}{\pi_D}\right)_3 \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\mu_D}\right]_3, & \text{if } D \neq 44, \end{cases}$$

where $\left(\frac{\alpha, \beta}{\pi}\right)_3$ is the cubic Hilbert symbol. From (3.6) we see that

$$(3.10) \quad \mu_D \equiv 1 \pmod{(\sqrt{-3})^3},$$

so that

$$(3.11) \quad \left(\frac{\mu_D, \lambda_D}{\pi_D}\right)_3 = \left(\frac{\mu_D, \lambda_D}{\bar{\pi}_D}\right)_3 = 1.$$

Thus (3.9) reduces to

$$(3.12) \quad \left[\frac{\mu_D}{\lambda_D}\right]_3 = \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\mu_D}\right]_3.$$

Next we observe that

$$(3.13) \quad \mu_D = \omega_D \theta_D \bar{\theta}_D^2 \gamma_D^3,$$

where $\gamma_D \in R_D$, ω_D is a unit of R_D , and θ_D is the prime divisor of 2 in R_D given by

$$(3.14) \quad \theta_D = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{-3} + \sqrt{-11}), & \text{if } D = 44, \\ \frac{1}{2}(3\sqrt{-3} + \sqrt{-19}), & \text{if } D = 76, \\ \frac{1}{2}(19\sqrt{-3} + 5\sqrt{-43}), & \text{if } D = 172, \\ \frac{1}{2}(5\sqrt{-3} + \sqrt{-67}), & \text{if } D = 268, \\ \frac{1}{2}(715\sqrt{-3} + 97\sqrt{-163}), & \text{if } D = 652. \end{cases}$$

We note that

$$(3.15) \quad \theta_D \bar{\theta}_D = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } D = 44, \\ -2, & \text{if } D \neq 44. \end{cases}$$

Appealing to (3.13) we see that

$$(3.16) \quad \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\mu_D} \right]_3 = \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\theta_D} \right]_3 \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\bar{\theta}_D} \right]_3^2.$$

Thus we have shown:

$$(3.17) \quad p \text{ is represented by } p_{-D} \Leftrightarrow \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\theta_D} \right]_3 = \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\bar{\theta}_D} \right]_3.$$

From (3.14) and (3.15) we obtain

$$\pm \theta_D^3 \bar{\theta}_D = 2\theta_D^2 = \begin{cases} -7 - \sqrt{33}, & \text{if } D = 44, \\ -23 - 3\sqrt{57}, & \text{if } D = 76, \\ -1579 - 95\sqrt{129}, & \text{if } D = 172, \\ -71 - 5\sqrt{201}, & \text{if } D = 268, \\ -1533671 - 69355\sqrt{489}, & \text{if } D = 652, \end{cases}$$

from which we see that

$$(3.18) \quad \begin{cases} \sqrt{3D^*} \equiv r_D \pmod{\theta_D^3}, \\ \sqrt{3D^*} \equiv -r_D \pmod{\bar{\theta}_D^3}, \end{cases}$$

where

$$(3.19) \quad r_D = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } D = 44, \\ 3, & \text{if } D = 76, 172, 652, \\ 5, & \text{if } D = 268. \end{cases}$$

Multiplying (3.18) by $\sqrt{-3}$, we obtain

$$(3.20) \quad \begin{cases} \sqrt{-D^*} \equiv 3r_D\sqrt{-3} \pmod{\theta_D^3}, \\ \sqrt{-D^*} \equiv -3r_D\sqrt{-3} \pmod{\bar{\theta}_D^3}. \end{cases}$$

Next, as λ_D is a prime divisor of p in R_D , we have

$$(3.21) \quad p = \begin{cases} \lambda_D \bar{\lambda}_D \lambda'_D \bar{\lambda}'_D, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ \lambda_D \bar{\lambda}_D, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

As λ_D is an integer of $Q(\sqrt{-3}, \sqrt{-D^*})$, if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, and of $Q(\sqrt{-D^*})$, if $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, there are integers x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3 , if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, and integers x_0, x_1 , if $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, such that

$$(3.22) \quad \lambda_D = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4}(x_0 + x_1\sqrt{-3} + x_2\sqrt{-D^*} + x_3\sqrt{3D^*}), & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ \frac{1}{2}(x_0 + x_1\sqrt{-D^*}), & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, \end{cases}$$

with

$$(3.23) \quad \begin{cases} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv x_2 \equiv x_3 \pmod{2} \\ x_0 - x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \end{array} \right\}, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ x_0 \equiv x_1 \pmod{2}, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, \end{cases}$$

see [14]. (Note that $\sqrt{m_1 n_1}$ should be replaced by $\sqrt{m_1} \sqrt{n_1}$ in Theorem 1 of [19].) Set

$$(3.24) \quad \frac{1}{2}(u + v\sqrt{-D^*}) = \begin{cases} \lambda_D \lambda'_D, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ \lambda_D, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, \end{cases}$$

so that u and v are integers such that

$$(3.25) \quad u = \begin{cases} (x_0^2 + 3x_1^2 - D^*x_2^2 - 3D^*x_3^2)/8, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ x_0, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, \end{cases}$$

$$(3.26) \quad v = \begin{cases} (x_0x_2 - 3x_1x_3)/4, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ x_1, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, \end{cases}$$

and

$$(3.27) \quad 4p = u^2 + D^*v^2, \quad u \equiv v \pmod{2}.$$

Clearly p is represented by p_{-D} if and only if $u \equiv v \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Thus, in view of (3.17), we must show that

$$(3.28) \quad \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\theta_D} \right]_3 = \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\bar{\theta}_D} \right]_3 \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} x_0x_2 - 3x_1x_3 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ x_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}, & \text{if } p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

Next, as θ_D is a prime divisor of 2 and λ_D is a prime divisor of the odd prime p , we have $\lambda_D \not\equiv \theta_D$ and

$$(3.29) \quad \lambda_D^3 \equiv \lambda_D^{N(\theta_D)-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{\theta_D},$$

showing that

$$(3.30) \quad \lambda_D \equiv 1, \omega \text{ or } \omega^2 \pmod{\theta_D},$$

where $\omega = (-1 + \sqrt{-3})/2$. Appealing to (3.18) and (3.20), we obtain for $p \equiv 1 \pmod 3$

$$(3.31) \quad \lambda_D \equiv \begin{cases} 1 \pmod{\theta_D}, & \text{if } E \equiv 0 \pmod 4, F \equiv 4 \pmod 8, \\ \omega \pmod{\theta_D}, & \text{if } E \equiv 2 \pmod 4, F \equiv 4 \pmod 8, \\ \omega^2 \pmod{\theta_D}, & \text{if } E \equiv 2 \pmod 4, F \equiv 0 \pmod 8, \end{cases}$$

where

$$(3.32) \quad E = x_0 + rx_3, \quad F = x_0 - x_1 - 3rx_2 + rx_3;$$

and for $p \equiv 2 \pmod 3$

$$(3.33) \quad \lambda_D \equiv \begin{cases} 1 \pmod{\theta_D}, & \text{if } x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv 0 \pmod 2, x_0 + rx_1 \equiv 2 \pmod 4, \\ \omega \pmod{\theta_D}, & \text{if } x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv 1 \pmod 2, x_0 + rx_1 \equiv 2 \pmod 4, \\ \omega^2 \pmod{\theta_D}, & \text{if } x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv 1 \pmod 2, x_0 + rx_1 \equiv 0 \pmod 4. \end{cases}$$

We now treat the two cases $p \equiv 1 \pmod 3$ and $p \equiv 2 \pmod 3$ separately.

Case (i): $p \equiv 1 \pmod 3$. We have by (3.31)

$$\left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\theta_D} \right]_3 = \left[\frac{\lambda_D}{\theta_D} \right]_3$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{matrix} \lambda_D \equiv 1 \pmod{\theta_D} \\ \lambda_D \equiv 1 \pmod{\theta_D} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ or } \left\{ \begin{matrix} \lambda_D \equiv \omega \pmod{\theta_D} \\ \lambda_D \equiv \omega \pmod{\theta_D} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ or } \left\{ \begin{matrix} \lambda_D \equiv \omega^2 \pmod{\theta_D} \\ \lambda_D \equiv \omega^2 \pmod{\theta_D} \end{matrix} \right\}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{matrix} x_0 \equiv -rx_3 \pmod 4 \\ x_0 - x_1 - 3rx_2 + rx_3 \equiv 4 \pmod 8 \\ x_0 \equiv rx_3 \pmod 4 \\ x_0 + x_1 - 3rx_2 - rx_3 \equiv 4 \pmod 8 \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ or}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{matrix} x_0 + 2 \equiv -rx_3 \pmod 4 \\ x_0 - x_1 - 3rx_2 + rx_3 \equiv 4 \pmod 8 \\ x_0 + 2 \equiv rx_3 \pmod 4 \\ x_0 + x_1 - 3rx_2 - rx_3 \equiv 0 \pmod 8 \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ or}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{matrix} x_0 + 2 \equiv -rx_3 \pmod 4 \\ x_0 - x_1 - 3rx_2 + rx_3 \equiv 0 \pmod 8 \\ x_0 + 2 \equiv rx_3 \pmod 4 \\ x_0 + x_1 - 3rx_2 - rx_3 \equiv 4 \pmod 8 \end{matrix} \right\}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{matrix} x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv x_2 \equiv x_3 \equiv 0 \pmod 2, \text{ say } x_i = 2y_i \ (i = 0, 1, 2, 3) \\ \text{and} \\ y_0 \equiv y_3 \pmod 2, y_0 - y_1 - 3ry_2 + ry_3 \equiv 2 \pmod 4, y_0 + y_1 - 3ry_2 - ry_3 \equiv 2 \pmod 4 \\ \text{or} \\ y_0 + 1 \equiv y_3 \pmod 2, y_0 - y_1 - 3ry_2 + ry_3 \equiv 2 \pmod 4, y_0 + y_1 - 3ry_2 - ry_3 \equiv 0 \pmod 4 \\ \text{or} \\ y_0 + 1 \equiv y_3 \pmod 2, y_0 - y_1 - 3ry_2 + ry_3 \equiv 0 \pmod 4, y_0 + y_1 - 3ry_2 - ry_3 \equiv 2 \pmod 4 \end{matrix} \right\}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{matrix} y_0 \equiv y_1 \equiv y_2 \equiv y_3 \pmod 2, y_0 - y_1 + ry_2 + ry_3 \equiv 2 \pmod 4 \\ \text{or} \\ y_0 \equiv y_3 + 1 \pmod 2, y_0 - y_1 - 3ry_2 + ry_3 \equiv y_0 + y_1 - 3ry_2 - ry_3 + 2 \pmod 4 \end{matrix} \right\}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left\{ \begin{matrix} y_0 \equiv y_1 \equiv y_2 \equiv y_3 \pmod 2, y_0 - y_1 - y_2 - y_3 \equiv 2 \pmod 4 \\ \text{or} \\ y_0 \equiv y_1 \equiv y_2 + 1 \equiv y_3 + 1 \pmod 2 \end{matrix} \right\}.$$

It should be noted that if $x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv x_2 \equiv x_3 \equiv 0 \pmod 2$, with $x_i = 2y_i$ ($i = 0, 1, 2, 3$), then by (3.23), we have

$$(3.34) \quad y_0 + y_1 + y_2 + y_3 \equiv 0 \pmod 2.$$

In view of (3.28) we must show that the assertion

$$(3.35) \quad x_0x_2 - 3x_1x_3 \equiv 0 \pmod 8$$

is equivalent to

$$(3.36) \quad \left\{ \begin{matrix} x_i = 2y_i \ (i = 0, 1, 2, 3) \text{ and} \\ y_0 \equiv y_1 \equiv y_2 \equiv y_3 \pmod 2, y_0 - y_1 - y_2 - y_3 \equiv 2 \pmod 4, \text{ or} \\ y_0 \equiv y_1 \equiv y_2 + 1 \equiv y_3 + 1 \pmod 2, \end{matrix} \right.$$

under (3.23). It is clear that (3.36) implies (3.35) as

$$x_0x_2 - 3x_1x_3 = 4(y_0y_2 - 3y_1y_3) \equiv 4(y_0y_2 - 3y_0y_2) \equiv 0 \pmod 8.$$

Next we assume that (3.35) holds and begin by showing that the x_i are all even. We suppose that this is not the case, so that by (3.23) the x_i are all odd, say $x_i = 2z_i + 1$ ($i = 0, 1, 2, 3$). Then, from (3.35), we have

$$(3.37) \quad 2(z_0z_2 + z_1z_3) + (z_0 + z_1 + z_2 + z_3) \equiv 1 \pmod 4.$$

Further, as $u \equiv v \equiv 0 \pmod 2$, by (3.27) we see that $u + v \equiv 2 \pmod 4$, and so by (3.25) and (3.26), we have

$$(x_0^2 + 3x_1^2 - D^*x_2^2 - 3D^*x_3^2) + 2(x_0x_2 - 3x_1x_3) \equiv 16 \pmod{32},$$

and so (as $D^* \equiv 3 \pmod 8$) we obtain

$$(3.38) \quad (z_0^2 + 3z_1^2 - 3z_2^2 - z_3^2) + 2(z_0z_2 + z_1z_3) + 2(z_0 - z_2 + 2z_3) \equiv 7 \pmod 8.$$

From (3.37) we deduce

$$(3.39) \quad (2z_1 + 1)z_3 \equiv 1 - z_0 - z_1 - z_2 + 2z_0z_2 \pmod{4}.$$

Multiplying (3.39) by $(2z_1 + 1)$, we obtain

$$(3.40) \quad z_3 \equiv 1 - (z_0 + z_1 + z_2) + 2(z_0z_1 + z_1z_2 + z_2z_0) \pmod{4},$$

so that

$$(3.41) \quad \begin{cases} z_3 \equiv 1 - A + 2B \pmod{4}, \\ z_3^2 \equiv 1 + A^2 - 2A + 4AB \pmod{8}, \end{cases}$$

where

$$(3.42) \quad A = z_0 + z_1 + z_2, \quad B = z_0z_1 + z_1z_2 + z_2z_0.$$

Using (3.41) in (3.38), we obtain

$$3 + 4(z_0 + z_2)((z_0z_1 + z_1z_2 + z_2z_0) - z_1) \equiv 7 \pmod{8},$$

that is

$$(z_0 + z_2)(z_0z_1 + z_1z_2 + z_2z_0 - z_1) \equiv 1 \pmod{2},$$

showing that

$$z_0 + z_2 \equiv z_0z_1 + z_1z_2 + z_2z_0 - z_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{2},$$

which gives the contradiction

$$z_0 + z_2 \equiv z_0z_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}.$$

This completes the proof that (3.35) implies that all the x_i are even, say $x_i = 2y_i$ ($i = 0, 1, 2, 3$). We complete the proof in the case $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ by showing that we must have either

$$y_0 \equiv y_1 \equiv y_2 \equiv y_3 \pmod{2}, \quad y_0 - y_1 - y_2 - y_3 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$$

or

$$y_0 \equiv y_1 \equiv y_2 + 1 \equiv y_3 + 1 \pmod{2}.$$

As $u \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, $v \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, $u + v \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ we have

$$(3.43) \quad y_0^2 - y_1^2 + y_2^2 - y_3^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4},$$

$$(3.44) \quad y_0y_2 + y_1y_3 \equiv 0 \pmod{2},$$

$$(3.45) \quad y_0^2 + 3y_1^2 - 3y_2^2 - y_3^2 + 2y_0y_2 + 2y_1y_3 \equiv 4 \pmod{8}.$$

We begin by showing that $y_0 \equiv y_1 \pmod{2}$. Suppose not, so that we have $y_0 \equiv y_1 + 1 \pmod{2}$. Next (3.34) gives $y_2 \equiv y_3 + 1 \pmod{2}$. Then, from either (3.43) or (3.44), we deduce that $y_1 \equiv y_3 + 1 \pmod{2}$. Thus we have

$$(3.46) \quad y_0 \equiv y_1 + 1 \equiv y_2 + 1 \equiv y_3 \pmod{2}.$$

If $y_0 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ then (3.45) and (3.46) give

$$y_0^2 - y_3^2 + 2y_0 + 2y_3 \equiv 4 \pmod{8},$$

which gives the contradiction

$$0 \equiv (y_0 + 1)^2 - (y_3 - 1)^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{8}.$$

If $y_0 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ then (3.45) and (3.46) give

$$y_1^2 + y_2^2 + 2y_1 + 2y_2 \equiv 4 \pmod{8},$$

which gives the contradiction

$$2 \equiv (y_1 + 1)^2 + (y_2 + 1)^2 \equiv 6 \pmod{8}.$$

Hence we must have

$$y_0 \equiv y_1 \pmod{2},$$

and so, by (3.34), we also have

$$y_2 \equiv y_3 \pmod{2}.$$

If $y_1 \equiv y_2 + 1 \pmod{2}$ we are finished. Otherwise $y_1 \equiv y_2 \pmod{2}$ and we must show that $y_0 - y_1 - y_2 - y_3 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$. We have

$$y_0 \equiv y_1 \equiv y_2 \equiv y_3 \pmod{2}.$$

If $y_0 \equiv y_1 \equiv y_2 \equiv y_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ then (3.45) gives

$$y_0y_2 + y_1y_3 \equiv 2 \pmod{4},$$

and thus

$$\begin{aligned} y_0 - y_1 - y_2 - y_3 &\equiv 2y_0 - (y_0 + y_1 + y_2 + y_3) \pmod{4} \\ &\equiv 2 - (y_0 + 1)(y_2 + 1) - (y_1 + 1)(y_3 + 1) + (y_0y_2 + y_1y_3) \\ &\quad + 2 \pmod{4} \\ &\equiv 2 - 0 - 0 + 2 + 2 \pmod{4} \\ &\equiv 2 \pmod{4}, \end{aligned}$$

as required. If $y_0 \equiv y_1 \equiv y_2 \equiv y_3 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ then (3.45) gives (remembering that $n^2 \equiv 2n \pmod{8}$ when n is even)

$$y_0 - y_1 + y_2 - y_3 \equiv 2 \pmod{4},$$

and thus

$$y_0 - y_1 - y_2 - y_3 \equiv (y_0 - y_1 + y_2 - y_3) - 2y_2 \equiv 2 \pmod{4},$$

as required. This completes the proof when $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

Case (ii): $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. As $\lambda'_D = \lambda_D$ and $\theta'_D = -\theta_D$, we have $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_D \\ \theta_D \end{bmatrix}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_D \\ -\theta_D \end{bmatrix}_3$, and so $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_D \\ \theta_D \end{bmatrix}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_D \\ \theta_D \end{bmatrix}_3$ holds if and only if $\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_D \\ \theta_D \end{bmatrix}_3 = 1$, that is, if and only if $\lambda_D \equiv 1 \pmod{\theta_D}$. By (3.33) this condition is equivalent to $x_0 \equiv x_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, $x_0 + rx_1 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$, which by (3.25), (3.26) and (3.27) is equivalent to $u \equiv v \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ as required.

The proof of Theorem 1 is now complete.

4. Proof of Theorem 2. Since $\sqrt[3]{x_D} + \sqrt[3]{x'_D}$ is the real root of $27f_{-D}(x-r)/3$, where r is the coefficient of x^2 in $f_{-D}(x)$, Theorem 2 follows immediately from Theorem 1 and [3: Theorem 9.2, Exercise 9.3].

5. Proof of Theorem 3. Theorem 3 follows from Theorem 1 and the following theorem (which is essentially due to Cauchy [2]) with $k = A_1 = a_D$, $l = -B = -b_D$ (see (2.8) and (3.2)).

THEOREM (Cauchy). *Let A and B be integers and let p be a prime such that*

$$p > 3, \quad p \nmid AB, \quad \left(\frac{-4A^3 - 27B^2}{p} \right) = +1.$$

Define an integer A_1 by $A \equiv 3A_1 \pmod{p}$. Let $\{u_n\}_{n=0,1,2,\dots}$ be the sequence of integers defined by

$$u_{n+2} + Bu_{n+1} - A_1^3 u_n = 0, \\ u_0 = 2, \quad u_1 = -B.$$

Then $x^3 + Ax + B$ is congruent to the product of three distinct linear polynomials \pmod{p} if

$$\begin{cases} u_{(p-1)/3} \equiv 2 \pmod{p}, & p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ u_{(p+1)/3} \equiv -2A_1 \pmod{p}, & p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, \end{cases}$$

and $x^3 + Ax + B$ is irreducible \pmod{p} if

$$\begin{cases} u_{(p-1)/3} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}, & p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ u_{(p+1)/3} \equiv A_1 \pmod{p}, & p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

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