

## Norm of units of quadratic fields.

By Yoshiomi FURUTA

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Let  $P$  be the rational number field and  $\Omega = P(\sqrt{d})$  a real quadratic field, where  $d$  is a positive square free integer, different from 2. We denote by  $\varepsilon_0$  a fundamental unit of  $\Omega$ ; by  $\varepsilon$  an arbitrary unit of  $\Omega$ ; by  $N$  the absolute norm; and by small Roman letters  $a, b, \dots, m, \dots$  rational integers.

In this paper, we shall be concerned with the following problem:

“For what pair of integers  $d, m$  does there exist in  $\Omega$  a ring unit<sup>1)</sup>  $\varepsilon \pmod{m}$  with a negative norm:  $N\varepsilon = -1$ ?”

Dirichlet gave some criteria on the question by means of power residue symbols. More recently it was investigated by A. Scholz, L. Rédei and others. In particular, Rédei [6], [7] etc.<sup>2)</sup>, discussed it in detail by using the quadratic residue symbol and the fourth power residue symbol of Dirichlet, and finally Rédei [9] solved it completely as a problem related to the ideal class group of quadratic fields. On the other hand, Kuroda [5] and Furuta [1], [2] used the power residue symbol of Dirichlet and a generalized symbol to express the decomposition law of primes in some meta-abelian extensions, and also Tsunekawa [10] proved an interesting result concerning our problem. In the present paper, we shall give relationships between the norm of units of real quadratic fields and meta-abelian extensions, from which various results on our problem, in particular some of Rédei's results and Tsunekawa's theorem in a stronger form, can be deduced.

### § 1. Restricted power residue symbol.

Let  $\Delta$  be an algebraic number field of finite degree,  $\mathfrak{p}$  a prime ideal of  $\Delta$  prime to 2 and  $\alpha$  a number of  $\Delta$ , prime to  $\mathfrak{p}$ . Then for a non-negative rational integer  $n$  the *restricted  $2^n$ -th power residue symbol*  $[\alpha/\mathfrak{p}]_n$  is defined as follows<sup>3)</sup>. For  $n=0$  we set always  $[\alpha/\mathfrak{p}]_n = 1$ . For  $n \geq 1$   $[\alpha/\mathfrak{p}]_n$  is defined only when we have  $[\alpha/\mathfrak{p}]_{n-1} = 1$ , and if this is really the case we set  $[\alpha/\mathfrak{p}]_n = (-1)^x$ , where  $\alpha^{(N\mathfrak{p}^h - 1)/2^n} \equiv (-1)^x \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$ ,  $h$  being the smallest natural number with  $2^n | N\mathfrak{p}^h - 1$ . For an ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$  of  $\Delta$  prime to both  $\alpha$  and 2 with the

1) Namely, a unit  $\varepsilon$  such that  $\varepsilon$  is contained in the ring class mod.  $\mathfrak{m}$ .

2) See Rédei [9], in which the history and literatures of the subject is stated.

3) See Furuta [2]. If  $\Delta$  contains all the  $l$ -th roots of unity for a fixed rational prime  $l$ , we shall have analogous results to this § 1 by using  $l$  instead of 2.

prime ideal decomposition  $m = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_t^{e_t}$  we set  $[\alpha/m]_n = [\alpha/p_1]_n^{e_1} \cdots [\alpha/p_t]_n^{e_t}$ , when each  $[\alpha/p_i]_n$  ( $i = 1, \dots, t$ ) is defined. From the definition follows the following lemma in an analogous manner<sup>4)</sup> as in the case of the ordinary power residue symbol

LEMMA 1. *If  $2^r \parallel Np-1$  and  $[\alpha/p]_n = 1$ , then  $\alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{p^{[n]}}$ .*

Furthermore, we can prove

LEMMA 2. *If  $2^r \parallel Np-1$ <sup>6)</sup> and  $[\alpha/p]_r = 1$ , then  $[\alpha/p]_n = 1$  for all  $n$ .*

PROOF. For  $n \leq r$  we have trivially  $[\alpha/p]_n = 1$  by the definition. Let  $n > r$  and  $2^n \parallel Np^h-1$ ,  $h$  being as before. Let  $(Np^h-1)/2^n = k(Np-1)/2^r$ , where  $k$  is an integer. Then, since  $\alpha^{(Np-1)/2^r} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  by assumption, we have  $\alpha^{(Np^h-1)/2^n} \equiv \alpha^{k(Np-1)/2^r} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

The next two lemmas follow immediately from Lemma 2 and the definition.

LEMMA 3. *If both  $[\alpha/p]_n$  and  $[\beta/p]_n$  are defined, then  $[\alpha\beta/p]_n$  is also defined, and we have  $[\alpha/p]_n[\beta/p]_n = [\alpha\beta/p]_n$ .*

LEMMA 4. *If  $[\alpha^k/p]_n$  is defined for some odd rational integer  $k$ , then  $[\alpha/p]_n$  is also defined, and we have  $[\alpha^k/p]_n = [\alpha/p]_n^k = [\alpha/p]_n$ .*

LEMMA 5. *For any prime ideal  $p$  prime to 2 and for any natural number  $s$ , the next two relations  $\alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and  $\alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$  are equivalent.*

PROOF. If  $\alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$ , then trivially  $\alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Conversely suppose that  $\alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , namely  $\alpha = \beta^{2^n} \gamma$ ,  $\gamma \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  for some  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{A}$ . Denoting by  $S(p^s)$  the group of all  $x \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$ , we see that the order of the factor group  $S(p)/S(p^s)$  is equal to  $\varphi(p^s)/\varphi(p) = p^k$  where  $k = f(s-1)$ ,  $Np = p^f$ . Therefore  $\gamma^{p^k} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$ , whence  $\alpha^{p^k} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$ . Since  $p$  is odd, we have  $\alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$ .

Now we have the following

LEMMA 6. *We have  $[\alpha/p]_n = 1$  for all<sup>7)</sup>  $n$  if and only if we have  $\alpha^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$  for a natural number  $s$  and for an odd rational integer  $k$ .*

PROOF. From  $\alpha^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$  follows  $\alpha^k \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , hence  $[\alpha^k/p]_n = 1$  for all  $n$ , and by Lemma 4 we have  $[\alpha/p]_n = 1$  for all  $n$  since  $k$  is odd. Conversely, suppose that  $[\alpha/p]_n = 1$  for all  $n$ . If  $2^r \parallel Np-1$ , then by Lemma 1  $\alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$ , i. e.  $\alpha = \beta^{2^r} \gamma$ ,  $\gamma \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$  for some  $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{A}$ . If we set  $k = \varphi(p^s)/2^r$ , then  $k$  is odd and we see that  $\beta^{k2^r} = \beta^{\varphi(p^s)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^s}$ . Hence we

4) For instance, see Hasse, Bericht über neuere Untersuchungen und Probleme aus der Theorie der algebraischen Zahlkörper II (1926), p. 10.

5)  $\alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  means that  $\alpha \equiv \beta^{2^n} \pmod{p}$  for some  $\beta \in \mathcal{A}$ .

6)  $2^r \parallel Np-1$  means that  $2^r \mid Np-1$  and  $2^{r+1} \nmid Np-1$ .

7) By Lemma 2 we may write "for  $n$  such that  $2^n \parallel Np-1$ " instead of "for all  $n$ ".

have  $\alpha^k \equiv 1 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^s}$  for an odd  $k$ .

**§ 2. Norm of ring units of real quadratic fields.**

We denote hereafter by small Greek letters  $\alpha, \beta, \dots$  integers of the quadratic field  $\Omega$ , and by  $\alpha', \beta', \dots$  their conjugates with regard to  $\Omega/P$ . Let  $d = q_1 \cdots q_t$  be the prime number decomposition of  $d$  in  $P$ , and  $q_1, \dots, q_t$  be all the prime divisors of  $q_1, \dots, q_t$  in  $\Omega$  respectively. Further, assume hereafter that  $m$  is odd.

LEMMA 7. Let  $m = \prod_{i=1}^s \mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i} \prod_{j=1}^t \mathfrak{q}_j^{e_j}$  be the prime ideal decomposition of  $m$  in  $\Omega$  where  $(\mathfrak{p}_i, d) = 1$ ,  $1 \leq e_i$  and  $0 \leq e_j$ . Then  $\alpha$  is contained in the ring class mod.  $m$  of  $\Omega$  if and only if

$$\begin{cases} \alpha \equiv \alpha' \pmod{\mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i}} & i = 1, \dots, s, \\ \alpha \equiv \alpha' \pmod{\mathfrak{q}_j^{2e_j+1}} & j = 1, \dots, t. \end{cases}$$

PROOF. Since we have  $\alpha - \alpha' = b\sqrt{d}$  or  $\alpha - \alpha' = 2b\sqrt{d}$  with some  $b$  according as  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  or  $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$ , the lemma is clear.

THEOREM 1. In order that  $N\varepsilon_0 = 1$  resp.  $-1$  it is necessary and sufficient that  $[\varepsilon_0^2/\mathfrak{q}]_n = 1$  resp.  $[-\varepsilon_0^2/\mathfrak{q}]_n = 1$  for all  $n^7)$  and for one of the prime divisors  $\mathfrak{q}$  prime to 2 of  $d$ .

PROOF. i) Since  $\varepsilon_0 \equiv \varepsilon_0' \pmod{\sqrt{d}}$ , we have  $N\varepsilon_0 \equiv \varepsilon_0^2 \pmod{\sqrt{d}}$ , namely  $\varepsilon_0^2 \equiv 1$  or  $-1 \pmod{\sqrt{d}}$  according as  $N\varepsilon_0 = 1$  or  $-1$ . Hence, it follows from Lemma 6 that we have  $[\varepsilon_0^2/\mathfrak{q}]_n = 1$  or  $[-\varepsilon_0^2/\mathfrak{q}]_n = 1$  for all  $\mathfrak{q}$  prime to 2 according as  $N\varepsilon_0 = 1$  or  $-1$ .

ii) Suppose that  $[-\varepsilon_0^2/\mathfrak{q}]_n = 1$  for one of  $\mathfrak{q} \mid d$  prime to 2 and for all  $n$ . Then by Lemma 6 we have  $\varepsilon_0^{2k} \equiv -1 \pmod{\mathfrak{q}}$  for some odd  $k$ , hence  $(N\varepsilon_0)^k \equiv -1 \pmod{\mathfrak{q}}$ , owing to  $N\varepsilon_0 \equiv \varepsilon_0^2 \pmod{\mathfrak{q}}$ . Since  $k$  is odd, we have  $N\varepsilon_0 \equiv -1 \pmod{\mathfrak{q}}$ , which means that  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$ , because  $\mathfrak{q}$  is prime to 2.

Now we prove the following<sup>8)</sup>

THEOREM 2<sup>9)</sup> In order that there exists in  $\Omega$  a ring unit  $\varepsilon$  mod.  $m$  such that  $N\varepsilon = -1$ , it is necessary and sufficient that we have  $[-\varepsilon_0^2/\mathfrak{q}]_n = 1$  for all  $n^7)$  and for one of the prime divisors  $\mathfrak{q}$ , prime to 2, of  $d$  and  $[-\varepsilon_0^2/\mathfrak{p}]_n = 1$  for all  $n^7)$  and for all prime divisors  $\mathfrak{p}$  of  $m$ .

8) Theorem 2 is a result stronger than that of Tsunekawa [10], i. e. we drop his assumption  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$ .

9) In the excluding cases where  $d = 2$  or  $m$  is even, we can show easily the following facts: In case of  $d = 2$  we have  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$ . In case of  $m$  being even, if  $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$  then  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_0^{\varphi(2)}$  is a ring unit mod. 2 such that  $N\varepsilon = -1$ , where  $\varphi$  is Euler's function in  $\Omega$ ; if  $2 \mid d$ , then there is no ring unit  $\varepsilon$  mod. 2 such that  $N\varepsilon = -1$ ; finally, if  $d \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and  $2 \nmid d$ , then always  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$ .

PROOF.  $N\varepsilon = -1$  if and only if  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$  and  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_0^k$  for some odd  $k$ . On the other hand, by Lemma 7,  $\varepsilon$  is a ring unit mod.  $m$  if and only if  $N\varepsilon \equiv \varepsilon^2 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i}}$  and  $\mathfrak{q}_j^{2e_j+1}$  ( $i = 1, \dots, s; j = 1, \dots, t$ ). Hence it is necessary and sufficient for  $\varepsilon$  to be a ring unit mod.  $m$  that we have  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$  and  $(-\varepsilon_0^2)^k \equiv 1 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}_i^{e_i}}$  and  $\mathfrak{q}_j^{2e_j+1}$  for some odd  $k$  ( $i = 1, \dots, s; j = 1, \dots, t$ ). The theorem follows immediately from Lemma 6 and Theorem 1.

### § 3. Fields $\Omega(\sqrt{\varepsilon_0})$ .

LEMMA 8. *We have  $N\varepsilon_0 = 1$  if and only if  $\Omega(\sqrt{\varepsilon_0})/P$  is a non-cyclic extension of degree 4.*

*We have  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$  if and only if  $\Omega(\sqrt{\sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0})/P$  is a cyclic extension of degree 4.*

PROOF. Let  $\omega$  be equal to  $\varepsilon_0$  or  $\sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0$  according as  $N\varepsilon_0 = 1$  or  $-1$ , and put  $K = \Omega(\sqrt{\omega})$ . Let  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  be the non-unit element of the Galois group of  $\Omega/k$  and of  $K/\Omega$  respectively, and let  $U_\sigma$  be a representative of  $\sigma$  in the Galois group of  $K/P$ . Since  $\varepsilon_0^\sigma = \varepsilon_0^{-1}$  or  $(\sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0)^\sigma = \sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0 \cdot \varepsilon_0^{-2}$  according as  $N\varepsilon_0 = 1$  or  $-1$ ,  $K/P$  is a normal extension. On the other hand we have  $\sqrt{\omega}^\tau = -\sqrt{\omega}$ ,  $\sqrt{\omega}^{U_\sigma} = \sqrt{\omega}\gamma$  for some  $\gamma \in \Omega$ , hence  $\sqrt{\omega}^{U_\sigma^2} = \sqrt{\omega}N\gamma$ . First, let  $N\varepsilon_0 = 1$ . Then  $\omega = \varepsilon_0$ ,  $(\sqrt{\omega}^{U_\sigma})^2 = \varepsilon_0^\sigma = \varepsilon_0^{-1}$  and  $(\sqrt{\omega}^{U_\sigma})^2 = (\sqrt{\omega}\gamma)^2 = \varepsilon_0 \cdot \gamma^2$ . Therefore we have  $\gamma = \pm\varepsilon_0$ ,  $N\gamma = N\varepsilon_0 = 1$ , hence  $U_\sigma^2 = 1$ , which means that  $K/P$  is a non-cyclic extension. Next, let  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$ . Then  $\omega = \sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0$ ,  $(\sqrt{\omega}^{U_\sigma})^2 = (\sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0)^\sigma = \sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0^{-1}$  and  $(\sqrt{\omega}^{U_\sigma})^2 = (\sqrt{\omega}\gamma)^2 = \sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0 \cdot \gamma^2$ . Therefore we have  $\gamma = \pm\varepsilon_0^{-1}$ ,  $N\gamma = N\varepsilon_0^{-1} = -1$ , hence  $U_\sigma^2 = \tau$ , which means that  $K/P$  is a cyclic extension.

Now, for a while, suppose that  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$ . Let  $d = q_1 \cdots q_t$  be, as before, the prime number decomposition of  $d$  in  $P$ . Then we see necessarily that  $q_i = 2$  or  $q_i \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  ( $i = 1, \dots, t$ ). Let  $K_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, t$ ) be a cyclic subfield of degree 4 of the  $2^n$ -th cyclotomic extensions over  $P$  ( $n \geq 4$ ) or the cyclic subfield of degree 4 of the ray class field mod.  $q$  over  $P$  according as  $q_i = 2$  or not. Moreover, let  $\chi_i$  be a generating character of the Galois group of  $K_i/P$  ( $i = 1, \dots, t$ ). For  $a \in P$  we put  $\chi_i(a) = \chi_i\left(\left(\frac{K_i/P}{(a)}\right)\right)$  where  $\left(\frac{K_i/P}{(a)}\right)$  is the Artin symbol. We set

$$(*) \quad \chi = \chi_1^{n_1} \cdots \chi_t^{n_t}, \quad n_i = 1, 3 \quad (i = 1, \dots, t).$$

Then  $\Omega$  is the field corresponding to  $\chi^2$ . Denote by  $A$  the field corresponding to  $\chi$ . Then all the divisors of  $d$  and only these are completely ramified in  $A/P$ , and conversely a cyclic extension  $A$  over  $P$  of degree 4 with this property corresponds to a character  $\chi$  defined by (\*).

In the rational number field the symbol  $[a/p]_n$  is defined for  $p = 2$  as

follows<sup>10)</sup>:  $[a/2]_n$  is defined only when  $a \equiv 1 \pmod{2^{n+1}}$  and if this is really the case  $[a/2]_n$  is equal to 1 or  $-1$  according as  $a \equiv 1 \pmod{2^{n+2}}$  or not.

Now we have

**THEOREM 3.** *If  $N\varepsilon_0 = -1$ , then  $\Omega(\sqrt{-1}, \sqrt{\varepsilon_0})/P$  is a non-abelian extension, and, for some  $\chi$  defined by (\*) and for any rational prime  $p$  with  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and  $(d/p) = 1$ <sup>11)</sup>, we have*

$$(\varepsilon_0/\mathfrak{p}) = \chi(p)[d/p]_2$$

where  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a prime divisor of  $p$  in  $\Omega$ , and  $(\varepsilon_0/\mathfrak{p})$  is the quadratic residue symbol in  $\Omega(\sqrt{-1})$ .

**PROOF.** If we put  $K = \Omega(\sqrt{\sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0})$  and  $K' = \Omega(\sqrt{-\sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0})$ , then by Lemma 8  $K$  and  $K'$  are both cyclic extension over  $P$  of degree 4, in which all divisors of  $d$  are completely ramified. If we can show that at least in one of them only the divisors of  $d$  are ramified, then by what we have remarked above we see that  $(\sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0/\mathfrak{p}) = \chi(\mathfrak{p})$ , and therefore<sup>12)</sup>  $(\varepsilon_0/\mathfrak{p}) = \chi(p)[d/p]_2$ , for some  $\chi$  defined by (\*) and for any rational prime  $p$  with  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and  $(d/p) = 1$ . Hence to prove the theorem we have only to show that at least in one of  $K$  and  $K'$  over  $P$  only the divisors of  $d$  are ramified. Since both in  $K$  and in  $K'$  over  $P$  only divisors of  $2d$  can be ramified, it remains only to prove that if  $d$  is not even, then 2 is not ramified at least in one of  $K$  or  $K'$  over  $P$ . Let  $d$  be odd, and suppose that 2 is ramified in  $K$ . Denote by  $A$ , as before, the field corresponding to  $\chi$ , and  $B$  the quadratic subfield of  $AK$  over  $\Omega$ , distinct both from  $A$  and from  $K$ . Then, since  $A$  and  $K$  are both cyclic over  $P$  of degree 4,  $B$  is non-cyclic and biquadratic over  $P$  and only the divisors of 2 are ramified. Hence we have  $B = \Omega(\sqrt{a})$  where  $a = -1$  or 2. But  $a = 2$  does not occur, because otherwise we would have  $A = \Omega(\sqrt{2\sqrt{d}\varepsilon_0})$ , contrary to the fact that 2 is not ramified in  $A/P$ . Therefore we have  $A = K'$ , and our assertion is proved.

**COROLLARY.** *If we assume in Theorem 2 moreover that  $(p/q_i) = 1$  for all  $q_i | d$ , then we have*

$$(\varepsilon_0/\mathfrak{p}) = [p/d]_2 [d/p]_2.$$

**PROOF.** If  $(p/q_i) = 1$ , then we have  $\chi_i(p) = [p/q_i]_2$ . Thus, our assertion follows from the theorem at once.

#### § 4. Applications.

If Pell's equation  $x^2 - fy^2 = -1$  is solvable, we call  $f$  *admissible*. Suppose

10) cf. Furuta [1, p. 50].

11)  $(d/p)$  is the quadratic residue symbol in  $P$ .

12) cf. Furuta [2, Lemma 1 and Lemma 2].

that  $d(\neq 2)$  is squarefree and let  $f = m^2d$ . Then  $f$  is admissible if and only if there exists in  $P(\sqrt{d})$  a ring unit  $\varepsilon \pmod{m}$  such that  $N\varepsilon = -1$ . By Theorem 2 and Corollary to Theorem 3 the following result is easily obtained:

**a)** Suppose that  $d$  is admissible and that  $m$  is divisible only by primes  $p$  with  $p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$  and  $(p/q) = 1$  for all  $q|d$ . Then  $m^2d$  is admissible if and only if we have  $[\frac{p}{d}]_2 [\frac{d}{p}]_2 = -1$  for all  $p|m$ .

**b)<sup>13)</sup>** Let  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  be two positive odd integers and put  $d = d_1d_2$ ,  $\Omega_1 = P(\sqrt{d_1})$ ,  $\Omega_2 = P(\sqrt{d_2})$ ,  $\Omega_3 = P(\sqrt{d})$ . Moreover, let  $\varepsilon_i$  be a fundamental unit of  $\Omega_i$  and suppose that  $N\varepsilon_i = -1$  ( $i = 1, 2, 3$ ). Then  $\sqrt{\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2\varepsilon_3}$  is contained in  $A = P(\sqrt{-1}, \sqrt{q_1}, \dots, \sqrt{q_t})$  where  $q_1, \dots, q_t$  are all divisors of  $d$ .

PROOF. Let  $p$  be any rational prime which decomposes completely in  $A$ , i. e.,  $(p/q) = 1$  for all  $q|d$ , and  $\mathfrak{P}, \mathfrak{p}_1, \mathfrak{p}_2, \mathfrak{p}_3$  be prime divisors of  $p$  in  $A, \Omega_1, \Omega_2, \Omega_3$  respectively. Then by Corollary to Theorem 3  $(\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2\varepsilon_3/\mathfrak{P}) = (\varepsilon_1/\mathfrak{p}_1)(\varepsilon_2/\mathfrak{p}_2)(\varepsilon_3/\mathfrak{p}_3) = [\frac{p}{d_1}]_2 [\frac{d_1}{p}]_2 [\frac{p}{d_2}]_2 [\frac{d_2}{p}]_2 [\frac{p}{d}]_2 [\frac{d}{p}]_2 = 1$ . Hence  $p$  also decomposes completely in  $A(\sqrt{\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2\varepsilon_3})$ , i. e.  $\sqrt{\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2\varepsilon_3} \in A$ .

**c)<sup>14)</sup>** Let  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  be two admissible odd integers prime to each other, and put  $d = d_1d_2$ . If  $[\frac{p}{d_2}]_2 [\frac{d_2}{p}]_2 = -1$  for one of the prime divisors  $p$  of  $d_1$ , then  $d$  is non-admissible.

PROOF. Notations being as in **b)**, we have  $N\varepsilon_1 = N\varepsilon_2 = -1$  by the assumption for  $d_1$  and  $d_2$ . We now assume that  $N\varepsilon_3 = -1$ . Then by **b)** the product  $\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2\varepsilon_3$  is a square number in  $A$ . Hence we have  $(\varepsilon_3/\mathfrak{p}_3) = (\varepsilon_1/\mathfrak{p}_1)(\varepsilon_2/\mathfrak{p}_2)$  and by Theorem 1  $[-\varepsilon_1^2/\mathfrak{p}_1]_2 = [-1/p]_2 (\varepsilon_1/\mathfrak{p}_1) = 1$ . Therefore, we see by Corollary to Theorem 3 that  $(\varepsilon_3/\mathfrak{p}_3) = [-1/\mathfrak{p}_1]_2 (\varepsilon_2/\mathfrak{p}_2) = [-1/\mathfrak{p}_1]_2 [\frac{p}{d_2}]_2 [\frac{d_2}{p}]_2$ , whence  $(\varepsilon_3/\mathfrak{p}_3) = -[-1/\mathfrak{p}_1]_2 = -[-1/p]_2$  by the assumption. On the other hand, we have  $[-\varepsilon_3^2/\mathfrak{p}_3]_2 = [-1/p]_2 (\varepsilon_3/\mathfrak{p}_3) = 1$  by Theorem 1, whence  $(\varepsilon_3/\mathfrak{p}_3) = [-1/p]_2$ , which is a contradiction. Thus our assertion is proved.

Mathematical Institute,  
Nagoya University.

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13) cf. Kuroda [4, Satz 11] and Kubota [3, Satz 1].

14) This criterion **c)** is somewhat different from that of Rédei [7].

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