The Primes for Which an Abelian Cubic Polynomial Splits

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Abstract. Let $X^3 + AX + B$ be an irreducible abelian cubic polynomial in Z[X]. We determine explicitly integers a_1, \dots, a_t, F such that, except for finitely many primes p,

$$x^3 + Ax + B \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$
 has three solutions $\Leftrightarrow p \equiv a_1, \dots, a_t \pmod{F}$.

Let $X^3 + AX + B$ be an irreducible abelian cubic polynomial in Z[X]. We are interested in determining those primes p for which the congruence

$$x^3 + Ax + B \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

has exactly three solutions, that is, those primes p for which $X^3 + AX + B$ splits completely into distinct linear factors modulo p. As $X^3 + AX + B$ is abelian, it is known from class field theory (see for example [6]) that, apart from a finite number of exceptions, the primes p which split $X^3 + AX + B$ modulo p lie in certain congruence classes modulo the conductor of $X^3 + AX + B$. In this note we determine these congruence classes explicitly as well as the exceptional primes.

Let $N_p(A, B)$ denote the number of solutions $x \pmod{p}$ of the congruence $x^3 + Ax + B \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and let K = K(A, B) denote the largest positive integer such that $K^2|A$ and $K^3|B$. Since

$$N_p(A, B) = \begin{cases} N_p(A/K^2, B/K^3), & \text{if } p \nmid K, \\ 1, & \text{if } p \mid K, \end{cases}$$

it suffices to determine the primes p for which $N_p(A, B) = 3$ under the simplifying assumption

$$(1) K(A, B) = 1.$$

The irreducible polynomial $X^3 + AX + B$ is abelian if and only if its discriminant is a perfect square, that is, if and only if

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$$(2) -4A^3 - 27B^2 = C^2$$

for some positive integer C (see [4: Example 2, p. 308]). We see from (2) that A < 0, $B \equiv C \pmod{2}$ and $A \equiv 0$ or 2 (mod 3). Clearly $B \neq 0$ as $X^3 + AX + B$ is irreducible. From (1) and (2) it is easy to show that exactly one of the following occurs:

$$(3)(i) 3 \nmid A,$$

$$3||A,3\nmid B,$$

(3)(iii)
$$3^2 ||A, 3^2||B$$
.

If (3) (i) holds then $3 \nmid C$. If (3) (ii) holds then $3^2 \mid C$ and, if $3^2 \mid C$, 3 divides exactly one of $B \pm (C/9)$. If (3) (iii) holds then $3^3 \mid C$ and 3 divides exactly one of $(B/9) \pm (C/27)$. It is convenient to define the integer b = b(A, B) = 0, 1, 2 by

(4)
$$\begin{cases} b=0, & \text{if } 3 \nmid A \text{ or } 3 \parallel A, \ 3 \nmid B, \ 3^3 \mid C, \\ b=1, & \text{if } 3 \parallel A, \ 3 \nmid B, \ 3^2 \parallel C, \ 3 \mid B-(C/9) \text{ or } 3^2 \parallel A, \ 3^2 \parallel B, \ 3 \mid (B/9)+(C/27), \\ b=2, & \text{if } 3 \parallel A, \ 3 \nmid B, \ 3^2 \parallel C, \ 3 \mid B+(C/9) \text{ or } 3^2 \parallel A, \ 3^2 \parallel B, \ 3 \mid (B/9)-(C/27). \end{cases}$$

We note that

(5)
$$b \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow 3|A, 3 \nmid B, 3^2 ||C \text{ or } 3^2 ||A, 3^2 ||B$$
.

In order to state our main result we need the notion of a cubic residue symbol. An Eisenstein integer θ is a complex number of the form $\theta = x + y\omega$, where x and y are rational integers and $\omega = (-1 + \sqrt{-3})/2$ is a complex cube root of unity. Equivalently θ is of the form $(a_1 + a_2\sqrt{-3})/2$, where a_1 and a_2 are rational integers with $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{2}$. The complex conjugate of θ is denoted by $\overline{\theta}$. The norm $N(\theta)$ of θ is the rational integer $\theta\overline{\theta}$. The Eisenstein integer θ is called a unit if $N(\theta) = 1$. The only units are ± 1 , $\pm \omega$, $\pm \omega^2$. An Eisenstein integer θ is said to be primary if $\theta \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$. For each Eisenstein integer θ not divisible by $\sqrt{-3}$ there is a unique unit $\eta = \eta(\theta)$ such that $\eta\theta$ is primary. The Eisenstein primes (up to multiplication by a unit) are $\sqrt{-3}$, rational primes of the form 3n+2, and Eisenstein integers with norm equal to a rational prime of the form 3n+1. Each nonzero Eisenstein integer can be written uniquely as a product of a unit, a nonnegative integral power of the Eisenstein prime $\sqrt{-3}$, and nonnegative integral powers of primary Eisenstein primes. If π is an Eisenstein prime with $N(\pi) \neq 3$, and θ is an Eisenstein integer not divisible by π , then the cubic residue symbol $[\theta/\pi]_3$ is defined to be the unique cuberoot of unity such that

$$\theta^{(N(\pi)-1)/3} \equiv [\theta/\pi]_3 \pmod{\pi}.$$

The basic properties of the cubic residue symbol, extended multiplicatively to denominators not divisible by $\sqrt{-3}$, are given in [3].

Before stating and proving our main result, we introduce some notation. If a is a

rational integer, the integers a' and a'' are given uniquely by

$$a=3a'+a''$$
, $a''=-1,0,1$.

As usual ϕ denotes Euler's phi function.

We prove the following theorem.

THEOREM. Let $X^3 + AX + B \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ be an irreducible abelian cubic polynomial in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ satisfying (1). Let C be the positive integer given by (2). Let λ denote the Eisenstein integer

(6)
$$\lambda = \frac{1}{2}(3B+C) + 3B\omega = \frac{1}{2}(C+3B\sqrt{-3})$$

of norm $N(\lambda) = -A^3$.

(i) We have

(7)
$$(\sqrt{-3})^c \|\lambda, \quad \text{where} \quad 3^c \|A^3.$$

Let τ be the (possibly empty) product of primary Eisenstein primes such that $\lambda/((\sqrt{-3})^c\tau^3)$ is cubefree. Then there is a unique product ρ of primary Eisenstein primes such that

(8)
$$N(\rho) = \prod_{\substack{q(\text{prime}) \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \\ q \mid A, q \mid B}} q \quad and \quad \rho N(\rho) \mid \lambda/((\sqrt{-3})^c \tau^3).$$

(ii) With b as defined in (4), we set

$$(9) F = 3^{\alpha} N(\rho) ,$$

where

(10)
$$\alpha = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } b=0, \\ 2, & \text{if } b \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Then $F \neq 1$ and there are $\phi(F)/3$ integers a satisfying

(11)
$$1 \le a < F, \quad GCD(a, F) = 1, \quad [a/\rho]_3 = \omega^{ba'a''}.$$

(iii) Let $a_1, \dots, a_{\phi(F)/3}$ be the $\phi(F)/3$ integers satisfying (11). Then, except for finitely many primes p, we have

(12)
$$x^3 + Ax + B \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$
 has 3 solutions $\Leftrightarrow p \equiv a_1, \dots, a_{\phi(F)/3} \pmod{F}$.

The exceptional primes are those primes $p \neq 3$ such that $p \mid C$, $p \nmid F$ together with the prime 3 if $3^4 \mid C$.

We note that as an exceptional prime p divides C, it divides the discriminant of the polynomial $X^3 + AX + B$ and so $N_p(A, B) \neq 3$.

Before proving this theorem we give two illustrative examples.

EXAMPLE 1. We consider the irreducible abelian cubic $X^3-21X-17$. Here $A=-21=-3\cdot7$, B=-17 and by (2) $C=171=3^2\cdot19$. From (4), (8), (10), (9) we see respectively that b=1, $\rho=1$, $\alpha=2$, F=9. By (11) the $\phi(F)/3=2$ integers a_1 , a_2 are the solutions a of

$$1 \le a < 9$$
, GCD $(a, 9) = 1$, $\omega^{a'a''} = 1$.

The following table

а	1	2	4	5	7	8
a'	0	1	1	2	2	3
a"	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1
ω ^{a'a''}	1	ω^2	ω	ω	ω^2	1

shows that $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$. By Theorem (iii) the only exceptional prime is p = 19, so that for a prime $p \ne 19$ we have

$$x^3 - 21x - 17 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$
 has 3 solutions $\Leftrightarrow p \equiv 1, 8 \pmod{9}$.

EXAMPLE 2. We consider the irreducible abelian cubic $X^3-21X+35$. Here $A=-21=-3\cdot7$, $B=35=5\cdot7$ and by (2) $C=63=3^2\cdot7$. Thus from (6) we have $\lambda=\frac{1}{2}(63+105\sqrt{-3})$. By (7) we see that $(\sqrt{-3})^3\|\lambda$. Further, as

$$\frac{\lambda}{(\sqrt{-3})^3} = \frac{-35 + 7\sqrt{-3}}{2} = \omega^2 \left(\frac{1 + 3\sqrt{-3}}{3}\right) \left(\frac{1 - 3\sqrt{-3}}{2}\right)^2,$$

we see by (8) that $\tau = 1$ and $\rho = \frac{1}{2}(1 - 3\sqrt{-3})$. From (4), (10), (9) we deduce respectively b = 2, $\alpha = 2$, $F = 3^2 \cdot 7 = 63$. By (11) the $\phi(F)/3 = 12$ integers a_1, \dots, a_{12} are the solutions a of

$$1 \le a < 63$$
, GCD $(a, 63) = 1$, $\left[\frac{a}{\frac{1}{2}(1 - 3\sqrt{-3})}\right]_3 = \omega^{2a'a''}$.

Clearly we have

$$\omega^{2a'a''} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if} \quad a \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{9}, \\ \omega, & \text{if} \quad a \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{9}, \\ \omega^2, & \text{if} \quad a \equiv \pm 4 \pmod{9}, \end{cases}$$

and, as $N(\rho) = 7$ and $\omega \equiv 2 \pmod{\rho}$, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{a}{\rho} \end{bmatrix}_3 = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } a \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{7}, \\ \omega, & \text{if } a \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{7}, \\ \omega^2, & \text{if } a \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{7}. \end{cases}$$

Thus the required a's must satisfy

$$\begin{cases} a \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{9} \\ a \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{7} \end{cases} \text{ or } \begin{cases} a \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{9} \\ a \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{7} \end{cases} \text{ or } \begin{cases} a \equiv \pm 4 \pmod{9} \\ a \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{7} \end{cases}.$$

Hence $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 5$, $a_3 = 8$, $a_4 = 11$, $a_5 = 23$, $a_6 = 25$, $a_7 = 38$, $a_8 = 40$, $a_9 = 52$, $a_{10} = 55$, $a_{11} = 58$, $a_{12} = 62$. By Theorem (iii) there are no exceptional primes. Thus for all primes p we have

$$x^3 - 21x + 35 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$
 has 3 solutions
 $\Rightarrow p \equiv 1, 5, 8, 11, 23, 25, 38, 40, 52, 55, 58, 62 \pmod{63}$.

PROOF OF THEOREM. We begin by noting the following easily proved consequences of (1), (2) and (6).

- (13) If p is a prime $\neq 3$ then $p^2 \nmid \lambda$.
- (14) If p is a prime such that $p|\lambda$ then $p \not\equiv 2 \pmod{3}$.
- (15) If p is a prime such that p|A then $p \not\equiv 2 \pmod{3}$.
- (16) If p is a prime $\neq 3$ then

$$p|A, p|B \Leftrightarrow p|\lambda$$
.

(17) If p is a prime $\neq 3$ then

 $p|A, p \nmid B \Leftrightarrow$ there exists an Eisenstein prime π dividing p such that $\pi \nmid \lambda, \bar{\pi} \mid \lambda$.

We also note that λ is not the cube of an Eisenstein integer, otherwise,

$$\frac{1}{2}(C+3B\sqrt{-3})=(\frac{1}{2}(g+h\sqrt{-3}))^3$$
,

for some integers g and h, so that

$$A = (-g^2 - 3h^2)/4$$
, $B = (g^2h - h^3)/4$, $C = (g^3 - 9gh^2)/4$,

and thus

$$X^3 + AX + B = (X - h)(X^2 + hX + (h^2 - g^2)/4)$$
,

contradicting that $X^3 + AX + B$ is irreducible in Z[X].

Proof of (i). Suppose $(\sqrt{-3})^x \| \lambda$. Then $(\sqrt{-3})^x \| \overline{\lambda}$ and so $(\sqrt{-3})^{2x} \| \lambda \overline{\lambda}$, that is $3^x \| N(\lambda) = -A^3$, showing that x = c, as required.

We now prove (8). We let μ denote the product of primary Eisenstein primes such that $\lambda/((\sqrt{-3})^c\mu)$ is a unit, say,

(18)
$$\frac{\lambda/(\sqrt{-3})^c}{\mu} = (-1)^a \omega^e, \qquad a = 0, 1, \quad e = 0, 1, 2.$$

We first prove that e=b. We consider the Eisenstein integer $\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{2}(x+y\sqrt{-3})$ given by

(19)
$$\lambda_{1} = \lambda/(\sqrt{-3})^{c} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(C+3B\sqrt{-3}), & \text{if } 3 \nmid A, \\ \frac{1}{2}\left(-B+\frac{C}{9}\sqrt{-3}\right), & \text{if } 3 \parallel A, \\ \frac{1}{2}\left(-\frac{C}{27}-\frac{B}{9}\sqrt{-3}\right), & \text{if } 3^{2} \parallel A. \end{cases}$$

From (18) we have

(20)
$$\lambda = (-1)^a \omega^e (\sqrt{-3})^c \mu,$$

and as μ is a product of primary Eisenstein integers we have

$$\mu \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{3},$$

and

(22)
$$\lambda_1 = (-1)^a \omega^e \mu \equiv \pm \omega^e \pmod{3}.$$

Then, as $3 \nmid x$, we have

(23)
$$\begin{cases} e=0 \iff 3 \mid y \\ e=1 \iff 3 \mid x+y, 3 \nmid y \\ e=2 \iff 3 \mid x-y, 3 \nmid y, \end{cases}$$

and appealing to (4) and (19) we obtain e = b as asserted. By the definition of τ we have $\tau^3 | \mu$ and μ / τ^3 is cubefree. We let F_1 denote the largest positive integer dividing μ / τ^3 , and set

(24)
$$\rho = \mu/(\tau^3 F_1) \ .$$

Clearly ρ is a product of primary Eisenstein primes, and

(25)
$$\lambda = (-1)^a \omega^b (\sqrt{-3})^c \mu , \qquad \mu = F_1 \rho \tau^3 .$$

We show that ρ is the unique Eisenstein integer satisfying (8). This will be done in four steps:

$$N(\rho) = F_1,$$

(b)
$$F_1 = \prod_{\substack{q \text{(prime)} \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \\ q \mid A, q \mid B}} q,$$

(c)
$$\rho N(\rho) \mid \lambda/((\sqrt{-3})^c \tau^3),$$

(d) ρ is the unique product of primary Eisenstein primes having property (8).

Proof of (a). From (25) we have $N(\mu) = F_1^2 N(\rho) N(\tau)^3$. As $N(\mu)$ is a cube, $F_1^2 N(\rho)$ is also a cube. Clearly F_1 is cubefree, so that to prove $N(\rho) = F_1$ it suffices to prove that $N(\rho)$ is cubefree. Suppose not. Then there exists a prime p such that

$$p^{3}|N(\rho)|N(\mu) = -A^{3}/3^{c}$$

so that $p \mid A$ and $p \neq 3$. Hence, by (15), we have $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, say $p = \pi \bar{\pi}$, where π and $\bar{\pi}$ are conjugate Eisenstein primes. Then $\pi^3 \bar{\pi}^3 \mid \rho \bar{\rho}$, and as ρ is not divisible by a rational integer, we have $\pi^3 \mid \rho$ or $\bar{\pi}^3 \mid \rho$, contradicting that ρ is cubefree. Thus we have $F_1 = N(\rho)$, which is (a), and by (25)

(26)
$$\mu = \rho N(\rho) \tau^3.$$

Proof of (b). We begin by showing that $F_1 = N(\rho)$ is squarefree. Suppose not. Then, by an argument similar to that in the proof of (a), there is an Eisenstein prime π such that $\pi^2 | \rho$. Hence $\pi^4 | \rho N(\rho)$, contradicting that $F_1 \rho$ is cubefree. Next we show that for any prime ρ , we have

$$p|A, p|B, p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \Leftrightarrow p|N(\rho),$$

completing the proof of (b) as F_1 is squarefree.

We have appealing to (13), (16), (20) and (26)

$$p|A, p|B, p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

 $\Rightarrow p|\lambda, p^3 \nmid \lambda$
 $\Rightarrow \exists \text{ some Eisenstein prime } \pi \text{ dividing } p \text{ with } \pi \mid \lambda, \pi^3 \nmid \lambda$
 $\Rightarrow \pi \mid \rho N(\rho)$
 $\Rightarrow p \mid N(\rho)^3$
 $\Rightarrow p \mid N(\rho)$,

and appealing to (14), (16), (20), (26)

$$p|N(\rho) \Rightarrow p|\mu, p \neq 3 \Rightarrow p|\lambda \Rightarrow p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, p|A, p|B.$$

This completes the proof of (b). From (9) and (b) we see that

$$(27) F=3^{\alpha}F_1.$$

Proof of (c). From (18) we have $\mu |\lambda/(\sqrt{-3})^c$. But by (26) $\mu = \rho N(\rho) \tau^3$ so that $\rho N(\rho) |\lambda/((\sqrt{-3})^c \tau^3)$, which is (c).

Proof of (d). Suppose that ρ_1 is a product of primary Eisenstein primes such that

$$\rho_1 N(\rho_1) \mid \lambda / ((\sqrt{-3})^c \tau^3) \; , \qquad N(\rho_1) = F_1 \; .$$

$$\lambda = (-1)^a \omega^b (\sqrt{-3})^c \rho N(\rho) \tau^3,$$

we have

$$\rho_1 N(\rho_1) | \rho N(\rho)$$
, $N(\rho_1) = N(\rho)$,

so that $\rho_1|\rho$, say, $\rho = \kappa \rho_1$. As $N(\rho) = N(\rho_1)$, κ is a unit, and so as both ρ and ρ_1 are products of primary Eisenstein primes we have $\rho = \rho_1$. This completes the proof of (d).

Proof of (ii). We first prove that $F \neq 1$. Suppose on the contrary that F = 1. Then, by (9), we see that $\alpha = 0$ and $N(\rho) = 1$. As $\alpha = 0$, by (10), we have b = 0 and so by (4)

either (I)
$$3 \nmid A$$
,
or (II) $3 \mid A$, $3 \nmid B$, $3^3 \mid C$.

As $N(\rho) = 1$, by (8), we see that

either (III) there are no primes $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ dividing A,

or (IV) there are primes $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ dividing A none of which divide B.

Recall that A < 0 and that by (15) A has no prime divisors $\equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. Also recall that C > 0.

If (I) and (III) hold then A = -1. By (2) we see that B = 0, C = 2, which contradicts $B \neq 0$.

If (II) and (III) hold then A = -3. By (2) we see that $B = \pm 1$, C = 9, which contradicts $3^3 | C$.

If (I) and (IV) hold then $A = -q_1 \cdots q_s$, where the q_i are $s (\ge 1)$ primes $\equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ which do not divide B. We have $q_i = \pi_i \bar{\pi}_i$, where π_i and $\bar{\pi}_i$ are distinct conjugate primary Eisenstein primes. Now

$$\pi_i^3 \bar{\pi}_i^3 \mid q_i^3 \mid A^3 \mid \frac{1}{2}(C+3B\sqrt{-3}) \times \frac{1}{2}(C-3B\sqrt{-3})$$

and

$$\pi_i, \bar{\pi}_i \nmid GCD(\frac{1}{2}(C+3B\sqrt{-3}), \frac{1}{2}(C-3B\sqrt{-3})),$$

so we can choose π_i without loss of generality such that $\pi_i^3 | \frac{1}{2} (C + 3B\sqrt{-3})$. Hence

$$\frac{1}{2}(C+3B\sqrt{-3})=\varepsilon\pi_1^3\cdots\pi_s^3$$
, $\frac{1}{2}(C-3B\sqrt{-3})=\bar{\varepsilon}\bar{\pi}_1^3\cdots\bar{\pi}_s^3$,

where ε is a unit. As the π_i are primary and $\frac{1}{2}(C+3B\sqrt{-3})\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{3}$ we have $\varepsilon\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{3}$ so that $\varepsilon=\pm 1$. Set $\Omega=\pi_1\cdots\pi_s$. Then

$$A = -\Omega \overline{\Omega}$$
, $B = \varepsilon (\Omega^3 - \overline{\Omega}^3)/3\sqrt{-3}$,

and thus

$$X^3 + AX + B = X^3 - \Omega \overline{\Omega}X + \frac{\varepsilon}{3\sqrt{-3}}(\Omega^3 - \overline{\Omega}^3)$$

$$= \left(X - \varepsilon \frac{(\Omega - \overline{\Omega})}{\sqrt{-3}}\right) \left(X^2 + \varepsilon \frac{(\Omega - \overline{\Omega})}{\sqrt{-3}}X - \frac{1}{3}(\Omega^2 + \Omega \overline{\Omega} + \overline{\Omega}^2)\right),$$

which contradicts that $X^3 + AX + B$ is irreducible.

If (II) and (IV) hold then $A = -3q_1 \cdots q_s$, where the q_i are $s (\ge 1)$ primes $\equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ which do not divide B. Arguing as in the previous case, we see that

$$A = -3\Omega\bar{\Omega}$$
, $\frac{1}{2}(C + 3B\sqrt{-3}) = \varepsilon(\sqrt{-3})^3\Omega^3$, $\frac{1}{2}(C - 3B\sqrt{-3}) = -\varepsilon(\sqrt{-3})^3\bar{\Omega}^3$,

where $\varepsilon = \pm 1$ and $\Omega = \pi_1 \cdots \pi_s$. Hence $B = -\varepsilon(\Omega^3 + \overline{\Omega}^3)$ and so

$$X^{3} + AX + B = X^{3} - 3\Omega\bar{\Omega}X - \varepsilon(\Omega^{3} + \bar{\Omega}^{3})$$

= $(X - \varepsilon(\Omega + \bar{\Omega}))(X^{2} + \varepsilon(\Omega + \bar{\Omega})X + (\Omega^{2} - \Omega\bar{\Omega} + \bar{\Omega}^{2}))$,

which contradicts that $X^3 + AX + B$ is irreducible.

This completes the proof that $F \neq 1$. Then, from (8), (9) and (10), we see that $\phi(F) \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$.

Next we suppose that there are t integers satisfying (11), say a_1, \dots, a_t , and show that $t = \phi(F)/3$. Let G denote the multiplicative group of reduced residue classes modulo F and H the multiplicative group of cube roots of unity. We consider the homomorphism $\theta: G \to H$ given by

$$\theta(\tilde{k}) = \lceil k/\rho \rceil_3 \omega^{-bk'k''}$$

where \tilde{k} denotes the residue class modulo F of the integer k coprime with F. If b=0, θ is onto since $\rho \neq 1$ is cubefree. If $b \neq 0$, θ is onto since for $v=3F_1\pm 1$, $\theta(\tilde{v})=\omega^{\pm bF_1}\neq 1$. Hence $t=\operatorname{card}\{\tilde{a}_1,\cdots,\tilde{a}_t\}=|\ker\theta|=|G|/|H|=\phi(F)/3$ as asserted.

This completes the proof of (ii).

Proof of (iii). Let p denote a prime such that $p \nmid 3C$, and let π be an Eisenstein prime such that $\pi \mid p$, $\pi \nmid \lambda$. By class field theory, or appealing to [2], we know that $N_p(A, B) = 3 \Leftrightarrow [\lambda/\pi]_3 = 1$. From (25) we see that

$$\left[\frac{\lambda}{\pi}\right]_3 = \left[\frac{\omega}{\pi}\right]_3^b \left[\frac{\mu}{\pi}\right]_3 = \omega^{b(N(\pi)-1)/3} \left[\frac{\mu}{\pi}\right]_3 = \omega^{bp'} \left[\frac{\mu}{\pi}\right]_3.$$

As $\mu = \rho N(\rho)\tau^3$ we have (appealing to the law of cubic reciprocity)

$$\left[\frac{\mu}{\pi}\right]_{3} = \left[\frac{\rho^{2}\bar{\rho}\tau^{3}}{\pi}\right]_{3} = \left[\frac{\rho^{2}\bar{\rho}}{\pi}\right]_{3} = \left[\frac{\rho}{\pi}\right]_{3}^{2} \left[\frac{\bar{\rho}}{\pi}\right]_{3} = \left[\frac{\bar{\rho}}{\bar{\pi}}\right]_{3} \left[\frac{\bar{\rho}}{\pi}\right]_{3} = \left[\frac{\bar{\rho}}{\bar{\rho}}\right]_{3} = \left[\frac{\bar{\rho}}{\bar{\rho}}\right]_{3}^{h} = \left[\frac{p}{\bar{\rho}}\right]_{3}^{h},$$

where $N(\pi) = p^h$. As p'' = h = 1 for $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ and p'' = -1, h = 2 for $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, we have

$$\left[\frac{\lambda}{\pi}\right]_{3} = 1 \Leftrightarrow \omega^{bp'} \left[\frac{p}{\rho}\right]_{3}^{-h} = 1 \Leftrightarrow \left[\frac{p}{\rho}\right]_{3}^{h} = \omega^{bp'}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \left[\frac{p}{\rho}\right]_{3}^{p''} = \omega^{bp'} \Leftrightarrow \left[\frac{p}{\rho}\right]_{3}^{1} = \omega^{bp'p''}.$$

Since ρ is not divisible by a rational prime, $N(\rho)$ is squarefree, and $3 \nmid N(\rho)$, an easy calculation shows that the value of the quantity $[k/\rho]_3 \omega^{-bk'k''}$, where k is a fixed integer coprime with

$$\begin{cases} N(\rho), & \text{if } 3|b \\ 9N(\rho), & \text{if } 3 \nmid b \end{cases} = 3^{\alpha}N(\rho) = 3^{\alpha}F_1 = F,$$

is determined by the residue class of k modulo F. Hence $[\lambda/\pi]_3 = 1$ if and only if $p \equiv a_i \pmod{F}$ for some i, $1 \le i \le \phi(F)/3$. Thus for a prime p not dividing 3C, we have $N_p(A, B) = 3$ if and only if $p \equiv a_i \pmod{F}$ for some i, $1 \le i \le \phi(F)/3$.

It remains to determine the set of exceptional primes, that is the set E(A, B) given by

$$E(A, B) = \{ p \text{ (prime)} \mid N_p(A, B) \neq 3, p \equiv a_i \pmod{F} \text{ for some } i, \text{ or } N_p(A, B) = 3, p \not\equiv a_i \pmod{F} \text{ for any } i \}.$$

It suffices to consider the primes p dividing 3C. First we consider the prime 3. We observe that $X^3 + AX + B$ splits modulo 3 if and only if $A \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$, $B \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, that is, if and only if $3 \nmid A$, $3 \mid B$.

If b=0 we see from (4) that $N_3(A, B)=3$ if and only if 3|B. Next, by (11), (25), (19), and the result

$$\left[\frac{3}{\beta}\right]_{3} = \omega^{\mp 2y/3}$$
, if $\beta = \frac{1}{2}(x + y\sqrt{-3}) \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{3}$,

we have

$$3 \equiv a_i \pmod{F} \text{ for some } i \Leftrightarrow \left[\frac{3}{\rho}\right]_3 = 1 \Leftrightarrow \left[\frac{3}{\mu}\right]_3 = 1 \Leftrightarrow \left[\frac{3}{\lambda_1}\right]_3 = 1$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} 3|B|, & \text{if } 3 \nmid A, \\ 81|C|, & \text{if } 3|A|. \end{cases}$$

If $3 \nmid A$ we have $3 \notin E(A, B)$. From (4) we see that if $3 \mid A$, then $3 \nmid B$, so $3 \in E(A, B) \Leftrightarrow 81 \mid C$.

If $b \neq 0$, then, by (4), we see that $N_3(A, B) \neq 3$. Moreover, by (4), (10) and (9), we have 9|F, so that $3 \not\equiv a_i \pmod{F}$ for any *i*. Hence, in this case, we have $81 \not\mid C$ and $3 \not\in E(A, B)$.

Combining cases we see that

$$3 \in E(A, B) \Leftrightarrow 81 \mid C$$
.

Next we consider primes $p \neq 3$ dividing C. If $p \mid A$ (so that $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$) then $p \mid B$ and so $p \mid F$ showing that $p \not\equiv a_i \pmod{F}$ for any i. Clearly $N_p(A, B) \neq 3$ in this case, so that $p \not\in E(A, B)$.

If $p \nmid A$ then $p \nmid F$. As $p \mid C$ we have $p \mid \operatorname{disc}(X^3 + AX + B)$ and so $N_p(A, B) \neq 3$. However, we show that $[p/\rho]_3 = \omega^{bp'p''}$ so that $p \equiv a_i \pmod{F}$ for some i and thus $p \in E(A, B)$. Since $p \nmid A$, we have $GCD(p, \lambda) = 1$ as $N(\lambda) = -A^3$, and

$$\begin{split} \left[\frac{p}{\rho}\right]_{3} &= \left[\frac{\rho}{p}\right]_{3} = \left[\frac{F_{1}\rho\tau^{3}}{p}\right]_{3} = \left[\frac{\mu}{p}\right]_{3} = \left[\frac{\omega^{-b}\lambda}{p}\right]_{3} = \left[\frac{\omega}{p}\right]_{3}^{-b} \left[\frac{\lambda}{p}\right]_{3} \\ &= \omega^{bp'p''} \left[\frac{\frac{1}{2}(3B+C) + 3B\omega}{p}\right]_{3} = \omega^{bp'p''} \left[\frac{\frac{1}{2}(3B+C)}{p}\right]_{3} = \omega^{bp'p''} \end{split}$$

as asserted. This completes the proof of the theorem. \Box

Let L denote the cubic field $Q(\theta)$, where θ is any root of the cubic equation $x^3 + Ax + B = 0$. By a result of Llorente and Nart [5: Theorem 2] the discriminant d(L) of L is given by

$$d(L) = 3^{2\alpha} \prod_{\substack{q \text{(prime)} \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \\ q \mid A \text{ of } R}} q^2.$$

Further, by the conductor-discriminant formula for a cyclic cubic field [1: Corollary 17.29], we have $d(L) = f(L)^2$, where f(L) is the conductor of L, that is, the conductor of $X^3 + AX + B$. This shows that F (as in (9)) is the conductor of $X^3 + AX + B$.

We conclude by remarking that if F is a prime, the set $\{a_1, \dots, a_{\phi(F)/3}\}$ consists precisely of the nonzero cubes modulo F. This is clear, for if F is a prime, we have $\alpha = b = 0$ and as ρ is an Eisenstein prime of norm F_1 , $[a_i/\rho]_3 = 1$ if and only if a_i is a nonzero cube modulo F.

For example consider the irreducible abelian cubic $X^3 - 31X + 62$. We have A = -31, B = 62, C = 124, b = 0, $\alpha = 0$, F = 31, $E(A, B) = \{2\}$, so that for $p \neq 2$

$$x^3 - 31x + 62 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$
 has 3 solutions
 $\Leftrightarrow p \equiv \text{nonzero cube (mod 31)}$
 $\Leftrightarrow p \equiv 1, 2, 4, 8, 15, 16, 23, 27, 29, 30 \pmod{31}$.

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