# On a theorem of Scholz on the class number of quadratic fields 

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#### Abstract

Let $p$ and $q$ be distinct primes such that $p \equiv q(\bmod 4)$ and consider the quadratic field $K=\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{p q})$. In this paper, we shall investigate the class group and determine the exact power of 2 dividing the class number of $K$ using the theory of ideals and a theorem on the solvability of $a x^{2}+b y^{2}=z^{2}$.


Key words: Quadratic fields; class number; residue characters.

1. Preliminaries. Let $p$ and $q$ be distinct primes congruent modulo 4 and $K$ be the quadratic field $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{p q})$, with integer ring $\mathcal{O}_{K}$. Let $H$ and $H^{+}$ denote the ordinary ideal class group and the "narrow" ideal class group of $K$, with class numbers $h$ and $h^{+}$, respectively. The class numbers $h$ and $h^{+}$ are equal whenever the fundamental unit $\epsilon$ of $K$ has norm $N(\epsilon)<0$. On the other hand, if $N(\epsilon)>0$ then $2 h=h^{+}$.

In [5], Scholz used class field theory to look at the structure of the class group of $K$ and proved the following theorem.

Theorem 1.1. Let $p$ and $q$ be distinct primes with $p \equiv q(\bmod 4)$ and $h^{+}, h$ (in the narrow and wide sense, respectively) of the quadratic field $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{p q})$. Then:
a) If $p \equiv q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ then $h^{+} \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ and $h$ is odd.
b) If $p \equiv q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ and $(p / q)=(q / p)=-1$ then $h^{+}=h$ and $h \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$.
c) Let $p \equiv q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ and $(p / q)=(q / p)=1$.

1) If $(p / q)_{4}=-(q / p)_{4}$ then $h^{+} \equiv 4(\bmod 8)$ and $h \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$.
2) If $(p / q)_{4}=(q / p)_{4}=-1$ then $h^{+}=h$ and $h \equiv 4(\bmod 8)$.
3) If $(p / q)_{4}=(q / p)_{4}=1$ then $h^{+} \equiv 0(\bmod 8)$. Furthermore, $h \equiv 0(\bmod 8)$ if $N(\epsilon)=-1$ and $h \equiv$ $0(\bmod 4)$ if $N(\epsilon)=1$.

In this paper, we shall give an elementary proof of Scholz's theorem using ideal theory and Legendre's theorem on the solvability of the Diophantine equation $a x^{2}+b y^{2}=z^{2}$.

[^0]In the general sense, the problem is that of determining the Sylow 2-group of $H^{+}$. The idea is to find sufficient and necessary conditions under which a given ideal is equivalent to the square of some ideal. Let $\left(H^{+}\right)^{2}$ be the set of squares among the classes of $H^{+}$. If ord $C=2$ and $C \in\left(H^{+}\right)^{2}$ then $C=C_{1}^{2}$ for some $C_{1} \in H^{+}$, with ord $C_{1}=4$. Now if $C_{1} \in\left(H^{+}\right)^{2}$, then $C=C_{2}^{4}$ for some $C_{2} \in H^{+}$and ord $C_{2}=8$. We continue this process and find the smallest $i$ such that $C_{i} \notin\left(H^{+}\right)^{2}$. Then ord $C_{i}=2^{i+1}$. The narrow class group $H^{+}$has a cyclic subgroup of order $2^{i+1}$ and the class number $h^{+}$is divisible by $2^{i+1}$.

Let $m$ and $n$ be non-zero rational integers. Whenever $n$ is a square modulo $m$, we write $n R m$. The following classical result is due to Legendre. An interesting proof by induction can be found in [1].

Lemma 1.2. If $a$ and $b$ are positive squarefree integers, then the equation $a x^{2}+b y^{2}=z^{2}$ has non-trivial integer solutions $x, y$ and $z$ if and only if $a R b, b R a$ and $\left(-a b /(a, b)^{2}\right) R(a, b)$.

Lemma 1.3. Let $A$ be an ideal. Then $A \cong$ $B^{2}$ for some ideal $B$ if and only if there is a nonzero rational integer $z$ and $\alpha \in A$ such that $z^{2}=$ $(N(\alpha) / N A)$, where $N A$ is the norm of $A$, i.e., the number of elements in $\mathcal{O}_{K} / A$ (c.f. [4]).

Let $A$ be a primitive ideal with norm $N A=a=$ $k n^{2}$, with $k$ square-free. $A$ has an integral basis of the form $A=[a,(b+\sqrt{d} / 2)]$ where $d=p q$ is the discriminant of $K$ and $a \mid N(b+\sqrt{d} / 2)$. Therefore there is some rational integer $c$ such that $d=b^{2}-$ $4 a c$.

To show that $A \cong B^{2}$ for some ideal $B$, we need to find $z \in \mathbf{Z}$ and $\alpha=a x+(b+\sqrt{d} / 2) y$ such that $z^{2}=(N(\alpha) / N A)$. This is equivalent to

$$
\begin{aligned}
N(\alpha) & =a z^{2} \\
\left(a x+\frac{b+\sqrt{d}}{2} y\right)\left(a x+\frac{b-\sqrt{d}}{2} y\right) & =a z^{2} \\
(2 a x+b y)^{2} & =k(2 n z)^{2}+d y^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Putting $x=n \bar{z}-b n \bar{y}, y=2 a n \bar{y}$ and $z=a \bar{x}$, the problem reduces to finding whether there are integers $\bar{x}, \bar{y}$ and $\bar{z}$ such that $k \bar{x}^{2}+d \bar{y}^{2}=\bar{z}^{2}$. Using the previous lemmas, we have

Lemma 1.4. Let $A$ be an ideal and $N A=$ $k n^{2}$, with $k$ square-free. The $A \cong B^{2}$ for some ideal $B$ if and only if $k R d, d R k$ and $\left(-k d /(k, d)^{2}\right) R(k, d)$.
2. Proof of theorem. We begin with a few standard definitions and facts. Let $\sigma$ be the nontrivial element of $\operatorname{Gal}(K / \mathbf{Q})$. An ambiguous ideal is an ideal $A$ such that $A=A^{\sigma}$. The only primitive ambiguous ideals are the unit ideal and those whose prime factors divide the discriminant of $K$. An ambiguous ideal class is a class $C$ such that $C=C^{\sigma}$.

The primes $p$ and $q$ ramify in $K$, hence there are prime ideals $P$ and $Q$ such that $(p)=P^{2}$ and $(q)=$ $Q^{2}$. The only primitive ambiguous ideals are the unit ideal $I=\mathcal{O}_{k}, P, Q$ and $P Q=(\sqrt{d}) . K$ has two ambiguous ideal classes, each containing two primitive ambiguous ideals. These ideals can be distributed among the two classes in three possible ways:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P \cong Q \not \not \cong I \cong(\sqrt{d}) \\
& P \cong I \not \approx Q \cong(\sqrt{d}), \\
& P \cong(\sqrt{d}) \not \approx Q \cong I .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let the integral basis of $P$ be $[p,(p+\sqrt{d} / 2)]$ and apply Lemma 1.4. Then $P \cong P_{1}^{2}$ for some ideal $P_{1}$ if and only if $(p / q)=(-q / p)=1$.

Now we apply Lemma 1.4 to $(\sqrt{d})=$ $[d,(d+\sqrt{d} / 2)]$. There is an ideal $D_{1}$ such that $(\sqrt{d}) \cong D_{1}^{2}$ if and only if $-1 R d$ or $-1 R p q$. The Chinese Remainder Theorem and the quadratic reciprocity law reduce this condition to $p \equiv q \equiv 1$ $(\bmod 4)$.

We treat the following cases separately:
a) If $p \equiv q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then without loss of generality, assume $(p / q)=1$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)=-\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) & =\left(\frac{-q}{p}\right)=1 \\
& \Rightarrow P \cong P_{1}^{2} \cong I \\
& \Rightarrow P \cong I \nsupseteq Q \cong(\sqrt{d}) \\
& \Rightarrow N(\epsilon)=1,2 \| h^{+} \text {and } h \text { is odd. }
\end{aligned}
$$

b) If $p \equiv q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ and $(p / q)=(q / p)=$ -1 we get $P \cong Q \nsubseteq I \cong(\sqrt{d})$ and $N(\epsilon)=-1$ and $2 \| h^{+}=h$.
c) If $p \equiv q \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ and $(p / q)=(q / p)=1$ then each of the four ambiguous ideals are equivalent to squares. In order to find out how they are distributed into the two ambiguous classes, we need to know the conditions under which each ideal is equivalent (in the narrow sense) to the fourth power of some ideal. These are given by the following lemma.

Lemma 2.1. There is an ideal $P_{2}$ such that $P \equiv P_{2}^{4}$ if and only if $q$ is a biquadratic residue modulo $p$. Similarly, $Q \equiv Q_{2}^{4}$ for some ideal $Q_{2}$ if and only if $p$ is a biquadratic residue modulo $q$.

Proof. Consider the ideal $P_{1}$ where $P \cong P_{1}^{2}$. We can assume that $P_{1}$ is primitive and has integral basis $P_{1}=\left[a_{p},\left(b_{p}+\sqrt{d} / 2\right)\right]$, where $N P_{1}=a_{p}=$ $\prod p_{i}^{m_{i}}$ divides the norm of $\left(b_{p}+\sqrt{d} / 2\right)$ and $\left(a_{p}, d\right)=$ 1. All the prime divisors $p_{i}$ of $a_{p}$ split in $\mathcal{O}_{k}$. Hence, for odd prime divisors $p_{j},\left(d / p_{j}\right)=1$. If $a_{p}$ is even then $(2 / d)=1$.

From Lemma 1.4, $P_{1} \cong P_{2}^{2}$ for some ideal $P_{2}$ if and only if $a_{p} R d, d R a_{p}$ and $\left(-a_{p} d /\left(a_{p}, d\right)^{2}\right) R\left(a_{p}, d\right)$. The last two conditions are trivially satisfied because $a_{p} \mid N\left(b_{p}+\sqrt{d} / 2\right)$ and $\left(a_{p}, d\right)=1$.

Writing $a_{p}=2^{m} a_{p}^{\prime}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{a_{p}}{p}\right)\left(\frac{a_{p}}{q}\right) & =\left(\frac{2}{d}\right)^{m}\left(\frac{a_{p}^{\prime}}{d}\right) \\
& =\left(\frac{a_{p}^{\prime}}{d}\right)=\left(\frac{d}{a_{p}^{\prime}}\right)=\left(\frac{b_{p}^{2}}{a_{p}^{\prime}}\right)=1
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\left(a_{p} / p\right)=\left(a_{p} / q\right)$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, we have $P_{1} \cong P_{2}^{2}$ if and only if $\left(a_{p} / p\right)=1$.

Let $(p / q)_{4}$ be the biquadratic residue character, which takes on values 1 or -1 , according as $p$ is a biquadratic residue or a biquadratic nonresidue modulo $q$. Since $P \cong P_{1}^{2}$, there exists $\alpha=$ $p x+(p+\sqrt{d} / 2) y \in P$ such that $(x, y)=1$ and $(N \alpha / N P)=a_{p}^{2}$. Thus $4 a_{p}^{2} \equiv-q y^{2}(\bmod p)$.

From this follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)\left(\frac{a_{p}}{p}\right) & \equiv\left(2 a_{p}\right)^{(p-1 / 2)} \\
& \equiv\left(4 a_{p}^{2}\right)^{(p-1 / 4)} \\
& \equiv\left(-q y^{2}\right)^{(p-1 / 4)} \quad(\bmod p) \\
& =\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)_{4}\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)_{4}\left(\frac{y}{p}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

But $(2 / p)=(-1 / p)_{4}$, so to prove the lemma, it suffices that we show that $(y / p)=1$.

Let $y=2^{k} y_{1}$, where $y_{1}$ is odd. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{y}{p}\right) & =\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)^{k}\left(\frac{y_{1}}{p}\right) \\
& =\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)^{k}\left(\frac{p}{y_{1}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $4 a_{p}^{2} \equiv p(2 x+y)^{2}\left(\bmod y_{1}\right)$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
1 & =\left(\frac{4 a_{p}^{2}}{y_{1}}\right) \\
& =\left(\frac{p}{y_{1}}\right)\left(\frac{2 x+y}{y_{1}}\right)^{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

and so $\left(p / y_{1}\right)=1$ and $(y / p)=(2 / p)^{k}$. If $y$ is odd then $(y / p)=1$. Let $y$ be even and consider the equation $a_{p}^{2}=p x^{2}+p x y+(p-q / 4) y^{2}$. Since $(x, y)=$ $1, x$ and $a_{p}$ are odd, and thus $p x y \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$. It follows that $y \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ and $k \geq 2$.

If $p \equiv 1(\bmod 8)$ then $(2 / p)=1$ and $(y / p)=$ 1. If $p \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$, we look at $a_{p}^{2}=p x^{2}+p x y+$ $(p-q / 4) y^{2}$ modulo 8 . Since $x$ and $a_{p}$ are odd, we get $1 \equiv 5+5 x y(\bmod 8)$ and $k=2$.

Finally we consider the three subcases of c ):
c -2) If $(p / q)_{4}=(q / p)_{4}=-1$ then $P \not \not P_{2}^{4} ; Q \not \approx Q_{2}^{4}$
$\Rightarrow P \equiv Q \nsupseteq(\sqrt{d}) \cong I$
$\Rightarrow N(\epsilon)=-1, \quad 4 \| h^{+}=h$.
c-1) If $(p / q)_{4}=-(q / p)_{4}=1$ then $P \not \approx P_{2}^{4} ; Q \cong Q_{2}^{4}$
$\Rightarrow P \cong(\sqrt{d}) \not \approx Q \cong I$
$\Rightarrow N(\epsilon)=1, \quad 4\left\|h^{+}=2 h, \quad 2\right\| h$.
If $(p / q)_{4}=-(q / p)_{4}=-1$ then $P \cong P_{2}^{4} ; Q \nsupseteq Q_{2}^{4}$
$\Rightarrow P \cong I \nsubseteq Q \cong(\sqrt{d})$
$\Rightarrow N(\epsilon)=1, \quad 4\left\|h^{+}=2 h, \quad 2\right\| h$.
c -3) If $(p / q)_{4}=(q / p)_{4}=1$ then all four ideals are fourth powers. The distribution of ideals therefore takes into account the conditions under which an ideal is an eight power. In this case, $8 \mid h^{+}$. Therefore $8 \mid h$ if $N(\epsilon)=-1$, and $4 \mid h$ if $N(\epsilon)=1$.

The proof is complete.

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[^0]:    2000 Mathematics Subject Classification. Primary 11R29, Secondary 11R11.

