

## On the sum of two integral squares in certain quadratic fields

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### § 1. Introduction

1. Let  $\alpha$  be an integer  $\neq 0$  in the algebraic field  $\Omega$ . If  $\alpha$  is representable as the sum of two integral squares in  $\Omega$ , we say, for the sake of brevity, that  $\alpha$  is an A-number in  $\Omega$ . We say that

$$\alpha = \xi^2 + \eta^2,$$

where  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  are integers in  $\Omega$ , is a *primitive representation* if the ideal  $(\xi, \eta)$  is the unit ideal, and otherwise an *imprimitive representation*.

In a previous paper [1] I have determined the A-numbers in the quadratic fields  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{D})$ , where  $D = -1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 7, \pm 11, \pm 19, \pm 43, \pm 67$  and  $\pm 163$ . In the present paper we shall continue the investigations and treat the cases  $D = \pm 5$  and  $D = \pm 13$ . The following developments are in general based on the results obtained in [1].

It is well known that the number of ideal classes is  $= 1$  in the fields  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{5})$ ,  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{13})$  and  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{37})$  and  $= 2$  in the fields  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-5})$ ,  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-13})$  and  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-37})$ ; see [2].

From a general theorem due to Dirichlet [3] we get

**Lemma 1.** *The number of ideal classes in the Dirichlet field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{D}, \sqrt{-D})$  of the fourth degree is  $= 1$ , when  $D = 5, 13$  and  $37$ .*

2. We also need the following lemmata:

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $D$  be a square-free rational integer which is  $\equiv 2$  or  $\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . If  $x$  and  $y$  are rational integers, and if  $x + y\sqrt{D}$  is an A-number in the field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{D})$ , then  $y$  is even.*

**Lemma 3.** *If  $\alpha$  is an integer in the Dirichlet field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{D}, \sqrt{-D})$  with square-free  $D$ , the number  $2\alpha$  belongs to the ring  $\mathbf{R}(1, \sqrt{-1}, \sqrt{D}, \sqrt{-D})$ .*

For the proofs see [1], p. 8–9. In [1] we also established the following results:

**Lemma 4.** *Let  $\alpha$  and  $\pi$  be A-numbers in the field  $\Omega$ . If  $(\pi)$  is a prime ideal divisor of  $(\alpha)$ , the quotient  $\alpha/\pi$  is also an A-number in  $\Omega$ . This result also holds if  $\pi$  is a unit (Theorem 4 in [1]).*

**Lemma 5.** *Let  $\alpha, \pi, \pi_1$  and  $\eta$  be integers  $\neq 0$  in the field  $\Omega$  with the following properties. The number  $\alpha/(\pi\pi_1)$  is an integer; the principal ideals  $(\pi)$  and  $(\pi_1)$  are prime ideal divisors of  $(\alpha)$ ;  $\pi$  and  $\eta$  are relatively prime. The integers  $\alpha, \pi\pi_1, \pi\eta$  and  $\pi_1\eta$  are A-numbers in  $\Omega$ , such that*

$$\pi\eta = f^2 + g^2,$$

$$\pi_1\eta = f_1^2 + g_1^2,$$

and 
$$\pi\pi_1 = \left(\frac{ff_1 + gg_1}{\eta}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{fg_1 - gf_1}{\eta}\right)^2,$$

where  $f, g, f_1, g_1, (ff_1 + gg_1)/\eta$  and  $(fg_1 - gf_1)/\eta$  are integers in  $\Omega$ . Then the quotient  $\alpha/(\pi\pi_1)$  is also an A-number in  $\Omega$ .

This result also holds when one of the numbers  $\pi$  and  $\pi_1$  is a unit or when both of them are units (Theorem 5 in [1]).

**§ 2. The imaginary field  $K(\sqrt{-q})$  where  $q$  is either  $=5$  or  $=13$**

**3. Units and divisors of the rational primes 2 and  $q$ .** The number  $-1$  is an A-number in these fields since

$$-1 = 2^2 + (\sqrt{-5})^2$$

and 
$$-1 = 18^2 + (5\sqrt{-13})^2.$$

Thus the numbers  $\alpha$  and  $-\alpha$  are simultaneously A-numbers or not.

It follows from Lemma 2 that the prime  $\sqrt{-q}$  is not an A-number. Clearly, no irrational power of  $\sqrt{-q}$  can be an A-number. The number  $-1$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $\sqrt{-q}$ . The number  $u + v\sqrt{-q}$ , where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers, is never an A-number when  $v$  is odd.

In virtue of the relations

$$2\sqrt{-5} = 2^2 + (1 + \sqrt{-5})^2$$

and 
$$2\sqrt{-13} = (4 + 2\sqrt{-13})^2 + (7 - \sqrt{-13})^2$$

we may state: *the number  $2\sqrt{-q}$  is always an A-number.* We have

$$(2) = \mathfrak{q}^2 = (1^2 + 1^2),$$

where the prime ideal  $\mathfrak{q}$  is not principal. The number  $-1$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $\mathfrak{q}$ .

**4. The rational primes for which  $-q$  is a quadratic non-residue.** Let  $p$  be an odd rational prime such that, in  $\mathbf{K}(1)$ ,

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = +1 \text{ and } \left(\frac{-q}{p}\right) = -1.$$

Then  $(p)$  is a prime ideal in the field and since

$$p = u^2 + v^2,$$

where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers,  $p$  is an A-prime.

Suppose next that  $p$  is an odd rational prime such that, in  $\mathbf{K}(1)$ ,

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = -1 \text{ and } \left(\frac{-q}{p}\right) = -1.$$

Then  $(p)$  is a prime ideal in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$ . Since  $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = +1$ , and since the field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q})$  is simple, the equation

$$4p = x^2 - qy^2$$

is solvable in rational integers  $x$  and  $y$ . If  $x$  and  $y$  are both even, we get

$$p = x_1^2 + (\sqrt{-q}y_1)^2,$$

where  $x_1 = \frac{1}{2}x$  and  $y_1 = \frac{1}{2}y$ . Hence  $p$  is an A-prime.

If  $x$  and  $y$  are both odd, we get, in the case  $q = 5$ ,

$$\frac{1}{2}(x + \sqrt{5}y) \cdot \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} \pm 1) = \frac{1}{4}(5y \pm x) + \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{5}(x \pm y).$$

Here it is possible to choose the sign such that the numbers

$$u = \frac{1}{4}(5y \pm x) \text{ and } v = \frac{1}{4}(y \pm y)$$

are both integers.

In the case  $q = 13$  we get, if  $x$  and  $y$  are both odd,

$$\frac{1}{2}(x + \sqrt{13}y) \cdot \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{13} \pm 3) = \frac{1}{4}(13y \pm 3x) + \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{13}(x \pm 3y).$$

Just as in the preceding case, we may choose the sign such that the numbers

$$u = \frac{1}{4}(13y \pm 3x) \text{ and } v = \frac{1}{4}(x \pm 3y)$$

are both integers. Thus we have in both cases

$$-p = u^2 + (v\sqrt{-q})^2.$$

Hence  $p$  is an A-prime. Thus the number  $-1$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$  in the field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$ .

5. *The rational primes  $p \equiv -1 \pmod{4}$  for which  $-q$  is a quadratic residue. Let  $p$  be an odd prime such that, in  $\mathbf{K}(1)$ ,*

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = -1 \text{ and } \left(\frac{-q}{p}\right) = +1.$$

Then we have  $(p) = \mathfrak{p} \mathfrak{p}'$ ,

where  $\mathfrak{p}$  and  $\mathfrak{p}'$  are different prime ideals in the field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$ . In this field we further have

$$\left(\frac{-1}{\mathfrak{p}}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{1}{2}(N\mathfrak{p}-1)} = -1. \tag{1}$$

*The ideal  $\mathfrak{p}$  can never be principal.* In fact, if we had  $\mathfrak{p} = (x + y\sqrt{-q})$ , with rational integers  $x$  and  $y$ , we should have

$$p = x^2 + qy^2.$$

But this equation clearly implies  $p \equiv +1 \pmod{4}$ .

**Lemma 6.** *Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be integers in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$ , not both equal to zero. Further, let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be a prime ideal in the field satisfying relation (1). If the sum  $\alpha^2 + \beta^2$  is divisible by the power  $\mathfrak{p}^m$ , we must have*

$$\alpha \equiv \beta \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^v},$$

where  $v = [\frac{1}{2}(m+1)]$ .

*Proof.* We prove it by induction. In virtue of (1) the lemma is true for  $m=1$ . Hence we may suppose  $m \geq 2$ . Suppose it is true for all exponents  $\leq m$ . Let  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  be integers in the field such that  $\xi^2 + \eta^2$  is divisible by  $\mathfrak{p}^{m+1}$ . In virtue of (1) the numbers  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  are divisible by  $\mathfrak{p}$ . When  $q$  is the prime ideal which divides 2, we put

$$q(\xi) = \mathfrak{p}(\alpha) \text{ and } q(\eta) = \mathfrak{p}(\beta),$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are integers in the field. Then we get

$$q^2(\xi^2 + \eta^2) = 2(\xi^2 + \eta^2) = \mathfrak{p}^2(\alpha^2 + \beta^2).$$

Hence  $\alpha^2 + \beta^2$  is divisible by  $\mathfrak{p}^{m-1}$ , and, by hypothesis, we have

$$\alpha \equiv \beta \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^\lambda},$$

where  $\lambda = [\frac{1}{2}m]$ . From this relation follows

$$\xi \equiv \eta \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}^{\lambda+1}}.$$

This proves the lemma.

**Lemma 7.** *Let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be a prime ideal satisfying relation (1). Then  $\mathfrak{p}^2$  is a principal ideal  $= (u + v\sqrt{-q})$ ,  $u$  and  $v$  rational integers, where  $u$  is even and  $v$  odd.*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $N\mathfrak{p} = p$ . Then we have

$$p^2 = u^2 + qv^2.$$

If  $v$  were even, we should have

$$p \pm u = 2u_1^2, \quad p \mp u = 2qv_1^2,$$

where  $u_1$  and  $v_1$  are rational integers. Hence

$$p = u_1^2 + qv_1^2,$$

which is impossible, since  $p \equiv -1 \pmod{4}$ . Thus  $u$  is even and  $v$  odd.

**Lemma 8.** *Let  $\mathfrak{p}$  and  $\mathfrak{p}_1$  be different prime ideals such that*

$$\left(\frac{-1}{\mathfrak{p}}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{\mathfrak{p}_1}\right) = -1.$$

*Then  $\mathfrak{p}\mathfrak{p}_1$  is a principal ideal  $= (\alpha)$ , where the integer  $\alpha$  is not an  $A$ -number. The square  $\mathfrak{p}^2\mathfrak{p}_1^2$  is a principal ideal  $= (\omega)$ , where the integer  $\omega$  is an  $A$ -number.*

*Proof.* If we had  $\alpha = \xi^2 + \eta^2$ , according to Lemma 6, the integers  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  should be divisible by  $\mathfrak{p}$ , which is impossible since  $\mathfrak{p} \neq \mathfrak{p}_1$ . Putting  $\alpha = u + v\sqrt{-q}$ ,  $u$  and  $v$  rational integers, we get

$$(\mathfrak{p}\mathfrak{p}_1)^2 = (\omega) = (u + v\sqrt{-q})^2 + 0^2.$$

This proves the lemma.

As a consequence of Lemmata 7-8 we may state: Let  $\mathfrak{p}_1, \mathfrak{p}_2, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_m$  be  $m$  prime ideals (different or not) such that  $\left(\frac{-1}{\mathfrak{p}_i}\right) = -1$ , and put

$$(\mathfrak{p}_1\mathfrak{p}_2 \dots \mathfrak{p}_m)^2 = (\omega),$$

where  $\omega$  is an integer. Then  $\omega$  is an  $A$ -number if and only if  $m$  is even.

**Lemma 9.** *Let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be a prime ideal satisfying (1) and let  $\mathfrak{p}^2 = (\omega)$ , then  $2\omega$  is an  $A$ -number.*

*Proof.* If  $(2) = \mathfrak{q}^2$  we have  $\mathfrak{q}\mathfrak{p} = (u + v\sqrt{-q})$ , where  $u$  and  $v$  are odd rational integers. Hence

$$2\omega = (u + v\sqrt{-q})^2 + 0^2.$$

**Lemma 10.** *Let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be a prime ideal satisfying (1) and let  $\mathfrak{p}^2 = (\omega)$ , then  $\sqrt{-q}\omega$  is an  $A$ -number.*

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*Proof.* From the preceding proof we get

$$\sqrt{-q} \omega = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{-q} (u + v \sqrt{-q})^2,$$

where  $u$  and  $v$  are odd rational integers. For  $q=5$  we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{-5} \omega &= \frac{1}{4} [u + v \sqrt{-5}]^2 \cdot [2^2 + (1 + \sqrt{-5})^2] \\ &= [u + v \sqrt{-5}]^2 + [\frac{1}{2}(u - 5v) + \frac{1}{2}(u + v) \sqrt{-5}]^2. \end{aligned}$$

For  $q=13$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{-13} \omega &= \frac{1}{4} [u + v \sqrt{-13}]^2 \cdot [(4 + 2\sqrt{-13})^2 + (7 - \sqrt{-13})^2] \\ &= [2u - 13v + (u + 2v) \sqrt{-13}]^2 + [\frac{1}{2}(7u + 13v) + \frac{1}{2}(7v - u) \sqrt{-13}]^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since the numbers  $\frac{1}{2}(u - 5v)$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}(u + v)$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}(7u + 13v)$  and  $\frac{1}{2}(7v - u)$  are integers, the lemma is proved.

6. *The rational primes  $p \equiv +1 \pmod{4}$  for which  $-q$  is a quadratic residue.* Consider finally the cases

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = +1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{-q}{p}\right) = +1,$$

where  $p$  is an odd rational prime. Here we have

$$(p) = \mathfrak{p} \mathfrak{p}',$$

where  $\mathfrak{p}$  and  $\mathfrak{p}'$  are different prime ideals in the field. We shall show that these ideals are always principal.

In fact, suppose that  $\mathfrak{p}$  were not principal. We have  $(2) = \mathfrak{q}^2$ , where  $\mathfrak{q}$  is not principal. Then the product  $\mathfrak{q} \mathfrak{p}$  is principal, since the number of ideal classes is  $= 2$ . Hence the equation

$$N(\mathfrak{q} \mathfrak{p}) = 2p = a^2 + qb^2$$

would be solvable in rational odd integers  $a$  and  $b$ . But this is impossible since  $a^2 + qb^2 \equiv 1 + q \equiv 6 \pmod{8}$  and  $2p \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$ . Hence  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a principal ideal, and we have

$$p = u^2 + qv^2,$$

where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers. Then the numbers

$$\omega = u + v \sqrt{-q} \quad \text{and} \quad \omega' = u - v \sqrt{-q}$$

are conjugate prime factors of  $p$  in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$ . Since by Lemma 1 the field

$\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q}, \sqrt{q})$  is simple, we have

$$\omega = \pi_1 \pi_2,$$

where  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are primes in that field. According to Lemma 3 we may suppose that

$$\pi_1 = \frac{1}{2}(a + c\sqrt{-q}) + i\frac{1}{2}(b + d\sqrt{-q})$$

and

$$\pi_2 = \frac{1}{2}(a + c\sqrt{-q}) - i\frac{1}{2}(b + d\sqrt{-q}),$$

where  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are rational integers. Hence

$$\omega = \frac{1}{4}(a + c\sqrt{-q})^2 + \frac{1}{4}(b + d\sqrt{-q})^2, \tag{2}$$

which involves the equations

$$4u = a^2 + b^2 - qc^2 - qd^2 \tag{3}$$

and

$$2v = ac + bd.$$

It follows from the latter of these relations that, if  $a$  is even, either  $b$  or  $d$  must be even. Suppose that  $a$  and  $b$  are even and  $c$  and  $d$  odd. Then we obtain from (3) modulo 4:

$$0 \equiv -q - q \equiv 2 \pmod{4},$$

which is impossible. Supposing that  $a$  and  $b$  are odd and  $c$  and  $d$  even, we get from (3):

$$0 \equiv 1 + 1 \pmod{4},$$

which is also impossible. Hence, the remaining possibilities are: (i) all the numbers  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are even; (ii) all the numbers  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are odd; (iii)  $a$  and  $d$  are even and  $b$  and  $c$  are odd. It is, of course, unnecessary to treat the case with  $b$  and  $c$  even and  $a$  and  $d$  odd.

If all the numbers  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are even,  $\omega$  is clearly an A-number since the numbers

$$\frac{1}{2}(a + c\sqrt{-q}) \text{ and } \frac{1}{2}(b + d\sqrt{-q})$$

are integers. If the numbers  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are all odd, we get from (3)

$$4u \equiv 1 + 1 - q - q \equiv 0 \pmod{8}.$$

Hence  $u$  is even. But according to Lemma 2,  $u$  is odd when  $\omega$  is an A-number.

Suppose finally that  $a$  and  $d$  are even and  $b$  and  $c$  are odd. Then we get from (3)

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$$4u \equiv a^2 + 1 - q - qd^2 \pmod{8},$$

whence 
$$4(u + 1) \equiv a^2 + d^2 \pmod{8}. \tag{4}$$

When  $u$  is even, it follows from this relation that one of the numbers  $a/2$  and  $d/2$  is even and the other one odd. In this case  $\omega$  is not an A-number.

When  $u$  is odd, it follows from (4) that the numbers  $a/2$  and  $d/2$  are either both odd or both even. We shall show that, in this case,  $\omega$  is an A-number. If  $q = 5$  we multiply the integer

$$\pi_1 = \frac{1}{2}(a + c\sqrt{-5}) + i\frac{1}{2}(b + d\sqrt{-5})$$

by the unit  $E = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} \pm 1)$ . The product is equal to

$$\frac{1}{4}(a \mp d)\sqrt{5} + \frac{1}{4}(5c \pm b)i + \frac{1}{4}(b \pm c)\sqrt{5} + \frac{1}{4}(\pm a - 5d).$$

Here the numbers

$$\frac{1}{4}(a \mp d) \text{ and } \frac{1}{4}(\pm a - 5d)$$

are always integers since  $a/2$  and  $d/2$  are of the same parity. Further, by an appropriate choice of the sign in the unit  $E$ , we may obtain that the number  $b \pm c$  be divisible by 4. Then the number  $5c \pm b$  is also divisible by 4. Hence the product  $\pi_1 E$  belongs to the ring  $\mathbf{R}(1, i, \sqrt{5}, \sqrt{-5})$ , and thus it is permitted to suppose that, in  $\pi_1$ , the numbers  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are all even. Then we have

$$\omega = (a_1 + c_1\sqrt{-5})^2 + (b_1 + d_1\sqrt{-5})^2,$$

where  $a_1, b_1, c_1$  and  $d_1$  are rational integers. Hence  $\omega$  and  $\omega'$  are A-numbers.

Consider next the case  $q = 13$ . Multiplying the integer

$$\pi_1 = \frac{1}{2}(a + c\sqrt{-13}) + i\frac{1}{2}(b + d\sqrt{-13})$$

by the unit  $E = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{13} \pm 3)$  we get the product

$$\frac{1}{4}(a \mp 3d)\sqrt{13} + \frac{1}{4}(\pm 3b + 13c)i + \frac{1}{4}(\pm 3c + b)\sqrt{-13} + \frac{1}{4}(\pm 3a - 13d).$$

Here the numbers

$$\frac{1}{4}(a \mp 3d) \text{ and } \frac{1}{4}(\pm 3a - 13d)$$

are always integers since  $a/2$  and  $d/2$  are of the same parity. Further, by an appropriate choice of the sign in the unit  $E$ , we may obtain that the number  $\pm 3c + b$  be divisible by 4. Then the number  $\pm 3b + 13c$  is also divisible by 4. Hence the product  $\pi_1 E$  belongs to the ring  $\mathbf{R}(1, i, \sqrt{13}, \sqrt{-13})$ , and thus it is permitted to suppose that, in  $\pi_1$ , the numbers  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are all even. Then we have



$$\omega = (a_1 + c_1\sqrt{-13})^2 + (b_1 + d_1\sqrt{-13})^2,$$

where  $a_1, b_1, c_1$  and  $d_1$  are rational integers. Hence  $\omega$  and  $\omega'$  are A-numbers.

**7. Definition of C-primes. Further lemmata.** Let  $\omega$  be a prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$  of the form  $\omega = u + v\sqrt{-q}$  where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers. According to the preceding section,  $\omega$  is an A-number in the field, if  $u$  is odd and  $v$  even. If  $u$  is even and  $v$  odd,  $\omega$  is never an A-number and in this case we call  $\omega$  a C-prime.

If  $\omega$  is a C-prime it follows from relation (2) in Section 6 that  $4\omega$  is an A-number. But we can furthermore prove the following lemma.

**Lemma II.** *If  $\omega$  is a C-prime, the number  $2\omega$  is an A-number.*

*Proof.* We put  $\omega = u + v\sqrt{-q}$ , where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers;  $u$  is even and  $v$  odd. Then we have

$$\omega = \frac{1}{4}\alpha^2 + \frac{1}{4}\beta^2,$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are integers in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$ . Multiplying by 2 we get

$$2\omega = \left(\frac{a + c\sqrt{-q}}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{b + d\sqrt{-q}}{2}\right)^2,$$

where  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are rational integers. Hence

$$8u = a^2 + b^2 - qc^2 - qd^2, \tag{5}$$

$$4v = ac + bd. \tag{6}$$

If  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are all even, the number  $2\omega$  is an A-number. Suppose next that  $a$  and  $b$  are even and  $c$  and  $d$  odd. Then we get from (5)  $a^2 + b^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$  which is impossible. Consider next the case when  $a$  and  $d$  are even and  $b$  and  $c$  odd. Then it follows from (5)

$$(a/2)^2 - 5(d/2)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}.$$

Hence one of the numbers  $a/2$  and  $d/2$  is odd and the other one is even. But this is impossible because of the relation (6).

Finally we consider the remaining case when  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are all odd. When  $q = 5$  we multiply  $2\omega$  by the number  $-1 = \frac{1}{4}(1^2 + (\sqrt{-5})^2)$ . The product  $-2\omega$  is equal to (in virtue of Lemma 1 in [1])

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{16} [a + c\sqrt{-5} \pm (b\sqrt{-5} - 5d)]^2 + \frac{1}{16} [a\sqrt{-5} - 5c \mp (b + d\sqrt{-5})]^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{16} [(a \mp 5d) + (c \pm b)\sqrt{-5}]^2 + \frac{1}{16} [(-5c \mp b) + (a \mp d)\sqrt{-5}]^2. \end{aligned}$$

By choosing the sign in an appropriate way the number  $\frac{1}{4}(a \mp d)$  will be an integer and so will  $\frac{1}{4}(a \mp 5d)$ . Then it follows from relation (6) that

$$ac + bd \equiv ac \pm ab \equiv 0 \pmod{4}.$$

Hence  $c \pm b \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ ,

and thus the numbers  $\frac{1}{4}(c \pm b)$  and  $\frac{1}{4}(-5c \mp b)$

are both integers. Consequently  $-2\omega$  is an A-number. This proves Lemma 11 when  $q=5$ .

When  $q=13$ , we multiply  $2\omega$  by the number  $-1 = \frac{1}{4}(3^2 + (\sqrt{-13})^2)$ . The product will be

$$\frac{1}{16} [(3a \mp 13d) + (3c \pm b)\sqrt{-13}]^2 + \frac{1}{16} [(-13c \mp 3b) + (a \mp 3d)\sqrt{-13}]^2.$$

Here we may choose the sign in a way such that the numbers

$$3a \mp 13d, 3c \pm b, -13c \mp 3b, a \mp 3d$$

are all divisible by 4. Hence  $-2\omega$  is an A-number, and the proof of Lemma 11 is complete.

We next prove

**Lemma 12.** *The product of two C-primes is an A-number.*

*Proof.* Let  $\omega$  and  $\omega_1$  be two C-primes

$$\omega = u + r\sqrt{-q}, \quad \omega_1 = u_1 + v_1\sqrt{-q},$$

where  $u, v, u_1$  and  $v_1$  are rational integers,  $u$  and  $u_1$  even,  $v$  and  $v_1$  odd. We put

$$\omega\omega_1 = U + V\sqrt{-q},$$

where  $U$  and  $V$  are rational integers;  $U$  is clearly odd and  $V$  even. According to Lemma 11, we have

$$4\omega\omega_1 = (a + c\sqrt{-q})^2 + (b + d\sqrt{-q})^2,$$

where  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are rational integers. We get

$$4U = a^2 + b^2 - qc^2 - qd^2, \tag{7}$$

$$2V = ac + bd. \tag{8}$$

If the numbers  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are all odd, we get from (7)

$$4U \equiv 1 + 1 - q - q \equiv 0 \pmod{8},$$

which is impossible since  $U$  is odd. If all the numbers  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are even, Lemma 12 is proved.

Suppose next that  $a$  and  $b$  are even and  $c$  and  $d$  odd. Then we get from (7)

$$2q + 4 \equiv a^2 + b^2 \equiv 6 \pmod{8},$$

which is clearly impossible.

Consider finally the case that  $a$  and  $d$  are even and  $b$  and  $c$  are odd. Then it follows from (7) that

$$a^2 \equiv qd^2 \pmod{8}.$$

Hence we conclude that  $a \equiv d \pmod{4}$ .

When  $q=5$ , we multiply the number  $4\omega\omega_1$  by  $-4 = 1^2 + (\sqrt{-5})^2$ . The product is equal to

$$-16\omega\omega_1 = [(a\mp 5d) + (c\pm b)\sqrt{-5}]^2 + [(-5c\mp b) + (a\mp d)\sqrt{-5}]^2.$$

Here we may choose the sign such that the numbers

$$c\pm b \quad \text{and} \quad -5c\mp b$$

will both be divisible by 4. Since the numbers

$$a\mp 5d \quad \text{and} \quad a\mp d$$

are also divisible by 4, we see that the number  $-\omega\omega_1$  is an  $A$ -number.

When  $q=13$ , we multiply the number  $4\omega\omega_1$  by  $-4 = 3^2 + (\sqrt{-13})^2$ , and the proof of Lemma 12 proceeds in an analogous manner.

**Lemma 13.** *If  $\omega$  is a  $C$ -prime, the number  $\sqrt{-q}\omega$  is an  $A$ -number.*

*Proof.* According to Lemma 11, the number  $2\omega$  is an  $A$ -number. Hence

$$2\omega = 2u + 2v\sqrt{-q} = (a + c\sqrt{-q})^2 + (b + d\sqrt{-q})^2,$$

where  $u, v, a, b, c$  and  $d$  are rational integers;  $u$  is even,  $v$  odd. Then we get

$$2u = a^2 + b^2 - qc^2 - qd^2, \quad v = ac + bd.$$

Hence we may suppose that  $ac$  is even. This implies that  $b$  and  $d$  are odd and that  $a$  and  $c$  are both even. Suppose first  $q=5$ . Using the identity

$$2\sqrt{-5} = 2^2 + (1 + \sqrt{-5})^2$$

we get

$$2\omega \cdot 2\sqrt{-5} = [2a + b - 5d + \sqrt{-5}(d + b + 2c)]^2 + [-a + 5c - 2b + \sqrt{-5}(-a - c - 2d)]^2.$$

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Here the numbers  $2a+b-5d$ ,  $d+b+2c$ ,  $a-5c-2b$  and  $a+c-2d$  are all even. Hence  $\omega\sqrt{-5}$  is an  $A$ -number.

Suppose next  $q=13$ . Using the identity

$$2\sqrt{-13} = (4 + 2\sqrt{-13})^2 + (7 - \sqrt{-13})^2.$$

we get

$$\begin{aligned} 2\omega \cdot 2\sqrt{-13} &= [4a - 26c + 7b - 13d + \sqrt{-13}(4c + 2a + 7d - b)]^2 \\ &\quad + [7a + 13c - 4b + 26d + \sqrt{-13}(7c - a - 4d - 2b)]^2. \end{aligned}$$

As in the preceding case we see then that  $\omega\sqrt{-13}$  is an  $A$ -number.

**Lemma 14.** *Let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be a prime ideal satisfying (1) and  $\mathfrak{p}^2 = (\gamma)$ , and let  $\omega$  be a  $C$ -prime. Then the product  $\omega\gamma$  is an  $A$ -number.*

*Proof.* We have

$$2\omega = (a + c\sqrt{-q})^2 + (b + d\sqrt{-q})^2,$$

where, according to the proof of Lemma 13, we may suppose that  $a$  and  $c$  are even and that  $b$  and  $d$  are odd. According to Lemma 9, we have

$$2\gamma = (a_1 + c_1\sqrt{-q})^2,$$

where  $a_1$  and  $c_1$  clearly are odd. Hence we get

$$\begin{aligned} 4\omega\gamma &= [aa_1 - qcc_1 + \sqrt{-q}(ac_1 + a_1c)]^2 \\ &\quad + [a_1b - qc_1d + \sqrt{-q}(a_1d + bc_1)]^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since the numbers  $aa_1 - qcc_1$ ,  $ac_1 + a_1c$ ,  $a_1b - qc_1d$  and  $a_1d + bc_1$  are all even, the lemma is proved.

**8. Summary and proof of the main result.** As a consequence of the discussions in Sections 3-6, we may state the following results.

**Theorem 1.** *All the prime ideals in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$  are principal except the prime ideal divisors of 2 and of the odd rational primes  $p$  satisfying the relations, in  $\mathbf{K}(1)$ ,*

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = -1, \quad \left(\frac{-q}{p}\right) = +1.$$

**Theorem 2.** *The prime  $\omega$  in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$  is an  $A$ -number only in the following cases:*

(i)  $\omega = \pm p$  where  $p$  is an odd rational prime such that, in  $\mathbf{K}(1)$ ,

$$\left(\frac{-q}{p}\right) = -1.$$

(ii)  $\omega$  is of the form  $u + v\sqrt{-q}$ , where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers,  $u$  odd,  $v$  even, such that  $u^2 + qv^2$  is a rational prime.

The prime  $\omega$  in the field is a  $C$ -prime only when  $\omega = u + v\sqrt{-q}$ , where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers,  $u$  even,  $v$  odd, such that  $u^2 + qv^2$  is a rational prime.

We further need the result:

**Lemma 15.** Let  $q$  be the prime ideal which divides 2, and let  $\xi$  be an  $A$ -number which is divisible by  $q^m$  and not by  $q^{m+1}$ . Then  $m$  is even.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\xi = \alpha^2 + \beta^2$ , where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are integers. If  $m$  were odd, it is evident that  $\xi$  should be divisible by the power  $p^r$  of a non-principal prime ideal  $p \neq q$  with an odd exponent  $r$ . But, according to Theorem 1 and Lemma 6, the exponent  $r$  must be even.

We are now in position to establish our main result.

**Theorem 3.** The integer  $\alpha$  in the field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$  is an  $A$ -number if and only if

$$\alpha = \beta \gamma \delta (\sqrt{-5})^n \cdot 2^k,$$

where  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  are integers in the field with the following properties:  $\beta$  is either  $= \pm 1$  or  $=$  a product of  $A$ -primes, different or not;  $\gamma$  is either  $= \pm 1$  or  $=$  a product of  $\nu$   $C$ -primes, different or not;  $\delta$  is either  $= \pm 1$  or  $=$  a product of  $m$  numbers  $\omega_i$ , different or not, defined by the equations  $(\omega_i) = p_i^2$ ,  $p_i$  being a non-principal prime ideal not dividing 2.

The numbers  $\nu$ ,  $m$ ,  $n$  and  $k$  are rational integers  $\geq 0$  satisfying one of the following conditions:

- $\nu$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $m$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $n$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $k \geq 0$ ;
- $\nu$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $m$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $n$  odd,  $k \geq 1$ ;
- $\nu$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $m$  odd,  $n$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $k \geq 1$ ;
- $\nu$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $m$  odd,  $n$  odd,  $k \geq 0$ ;
- $\nu$  odd,  $m$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $n$  odd,  $k \geq 0$ ;
- $\nu$  odd,  $m$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $n$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $k \geq 1$ ,
- $\nu$  odd,  $m$  odd,  $n$  even  $\geq 0$ ,  $k \geq 0$ ;
- $\nu$  odd,  $m$  odd,  $n$  odd,  $k \geq 1$ .

*Proof.* It is evident that the conditions in this theorem are sufficient. If  $\alpha$  is an  $A$ -number we may, in virtue of Lemma 4, neglect the  $A$ -prime divisors. In virtue of Lemmata 5 and 12 we may suppose that  $\nu$  is either  $= 0$  or  $= 1$ . Suppose that  $\alpha$  is divisible by  $p^h$ , where  $p$  is a non-principal prime ideal not dividing 2. Then, according to Lemma 6, it is sufficient to suppose  $h = 2$ . For the rest of the proof we only have to apply Lemmata 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15 and to observe the following fact. Let  $u$ ,  $v$ ,  $u_1$  and  $v_1$  be rational integers,  $u_1$  and  $v$  odd. Then the product of the two numbers  $2u + v\sqrt{-q}$  and  $u_1 + 2v_1\sqrt{-q}$  is of the form  $2u_2 + v_2\sqrt{-q}$ , where  $v_2$  is odd, and thus it cannot be an  $A$ -number. Then it is easily seen that the eight cases indicated in the theorem are the only possible ones.

9. *On the primitivity of the representations as a sum of two integral squares.*  
 Finally we shall determine the *A*-numbers in the quadratic fields  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-5})$  and  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-13})$  which have at least one *primitive* representation. By Theorems 29–31 in [1] it suffices to examine the numbers which are products of prime ideal factors of 2. In the actual case we have only to examine the powers of 2. Consider the equation

$$2^h = (a + c\sqrt{-q})^2 + (b + d\sqrt{-q})^2, \tag{9}$$

where  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are rational integers. For  $h=1$  and  $h=2$  we have the primitive representations

$$\begin{aligned} 2 &= 1^2 + 1^2, \\ 2^2 &= 3^2 + (\sqrt{-5})^2, \\ 2^2 &= 11^2 + 3(\sqrt{-13})^2. \end{aligned}$$

We shall show that there are no primitive representations for  $h \geq 3$ . If the representation (9) is primitive it is clear that the numbers  $a, b, c, d$  cannot be all odd. From (9) we obtain

$$2^h = a^2 + b^2 - q(c^2 + d^2), \tag{10}$$

and  $ac = -bd$ . (11)

From (10) it follows that two of the numbers  $a, b, c, d$  are odd and two of them are even. If  $d=0$  we must have either  $a=0$  or  $c=0$ . When  $a=0$  we get from (10)

$$2^h = b^2 - qc^2,$$

where  $b$  and  $c$  are odd. But this is impossible when  $h \geq 3$ . When  $c=0$  we get from (10)

$$2^h = a^2 + b^2,$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are odd. Since  $h \geq 3$  this equation is impossible too. Hence we may suppose  $cd \neq 0$ . By elimination of  $b$  we obtain from (10) and (11)

$$2^h d^2 = (a^2 - qd^2)(c^2 + d^2).$$

Put  $c = g_1 c_1, d = g_1 d_1$ , where  $(c_1, d_1) = 1$ . Then we get

$$2^h d_1^2 = (a^2 - qg_1^2 d_1^2)(c_1^2 + d_1^2).$$

It follows from this equation that  $a$  is divisible by  $d_1$ . Putting  $a = d_1 f_1$  we obtain

$$2^h = (f_1^2 - qg_1^2)(c_1^2 + d_1^2).$$

Since  $(c_1, d_1) = 1$  and since  $c_1^2 + d_1^2$  is a power of 2, we must have  $c_1^2 = d_1^2 = 1$ . Hence

$$2^{h-1} = f_1^2 - qg_1^2.$$

Since  $q \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$ ,  $h-1$  is even and  $=2n+2$  with  $n \geq 0$ . Then  $f_1$  and  $g_1$  are divisible by  $2^n$ . Hence the representation (9) must have the form

$$2^h = 2^{2n+3} = (f_1 + g_1 \sqrt{-q})^2 + (f_1 - g_1 \sqrt{-q})^2.$$

But this representation is always imprimitive, since  $f_1$  and  $g_1$  are of the same parity.

**§ 3. The real field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q})$  where  $q$  is either  $=5$  or  $=13$**

**10.** *Units and divisors of the rational primes 2 and  $q$ .* Every  $A$ -number in this field must be positive and have a positive norm. The fundamental unit  $\varepsilon$  in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q})$  is  $\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5}+1)$  or  $\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{13}+3)$  according as  $q=5$  or  $13$ . Since  $N(\varepsilon) = -1$  in this field,  $\varepsilon$  is never an  $A$ -number. The  $n$ th power of  $\varepsilon$  is an  $A$ -number if and only if  $n$  is even. The number 2 is a prime in the field and, of course, an  $A$ -number.

Since the prime  $\sqrt{q}$  has the negative norm  $-q$  it cannot be an  $A$ -number. The number  $-1$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $\sqrt{q}$ . From the relations

$$\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5}+1)\sqrt{5} = 1^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\sqrt{5}+1)^2,$$

and

$$\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{13}+3)\sqrt{13} = 1^2 + \frac{1}{4}(\sqrt{13}+1)^2,$$

it follows that *the product  $\varepsilon\sqrt{q}$  is always an  $A$ -number.* Then it is evident that the number

$$\varepsilon^m (\sqrt{q})^n,$$

where  $m$  and  $n$  are rational integers.  $n \geq 0$ , is an  $A$ -number if and only if  $m+n$  is even.

**11.** *The rational primes for which  $q$  is a quadratic non-residue.* Let  $p$  be an odd rational prime such that, in  $\mathbf{K}(1)$ ,

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = +1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = -1.$$

Then  $p$  is a prime in the field and since

$$p = u^2 + v^2,$$

where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers,  $p$  is an  $A$ -prime.

Suppose next that  $p$  is an odd rational prime such that, in  $\mathbf{K}(1)$ ,

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = -1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = -1.$$

Then  $p$  is a prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q})$ . Since  $\left(\frac{-q}{p}\right) = +1$  we have in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$

$$(p) = \mathfrak{p} \mathfrak{p}',$$

where  $\mathfrak{p}$  and  $\mathfrak{p}'$  are different prime ideals. We showed in Section 5 that these prime ideals are not principal when  $q=5$  or  $=13$ . If  $\mathfrak{q}$  is the prime ideal divisor of 2 in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-q})$ , the product  $\mathfrak{p}\mathfrak{q}$  is a principal ideal. Hence

$$2p = x^2 + qy^2,$$

where  $x$  and  $y$  are rational odd integers. Since this relation may be written

$$p = \frac{1}{4}(x + y\sqrt{q})^2 + \frac{1}{4}(x - y\sqrt{q})^2,$$

the number  $p$  is an  $A$ -prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q})$ . Hence in this field the number  $-1$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$ .

12. *The rational primes for which  $q$  is a quadratic residue.* Let  $p$  an odd rational prime such that, in  $\mathbf{K}(1)$ ,

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = -1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = +1.$$

In this case we have  $p = \omega\omega'$ ,

where  $\omega$  and  $\omega'$  are different primes. Since

$$\left(\frac{-1}{\omega}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{1}{2}(N\omega-1)} = -1,$$

the prime  $\omega$  is not an  $A$ -number.

Finally, we consider an odd rational prime  $p$  such that, in  $\mathbf{K}(1)$ ,

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = +1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = +1.$$

Since the field is simple, and since the norm of the fundamental unit  $\varepsilon$  is  $= -1$ , we have always

$$4p = u^2 - qv^2,$$

where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers. If  $u$  and  $v$  are even,  $p$  may be written in the form

$$p = (u/2)^2 - q(v/2)^2.$$

Suppose next that  $u$  and  $v$  are both odd. The number  $\varepsilon^2$  is of the form  $\frac{1}{2}(a + b\sqrt{q})$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are odd integers; when  $q=5$ , we have  $a=3$ ,  $b=1$ ; when  $q=13$ , we have  $a=11$ ,  $b=3$ . Consider the product

$$\frac{1}{2}(a \pm b\sqrt{q}) \cdot \frac{1}{2}(u + v\sqrt{q}) = \frac{1}{4}(au \pm qbv) + \frac{1}{4}(av \pm bu)\sqrt{q}.$$

Here we may choose the sign such that the number  $au \pm qbv$  be divisible by 4. Then the number  $av \pm bu$  is also divisible by 4, since  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . Hence, we conclude: the prime  $p$  may always be written in the form

$$p = u^2 - qv^2,$$



where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers. Then the numbers

$$\omega = u + v\sqrt{q} \quad \text{and} \quad \omega' = u - v\sqrt{q}$$

are conjugate prime factors of  $p$  in the field. If we suppose  $u > 0$ , the numbers  $\omega$  and  $\omega'$  are positive. Since by Lemma 1 the field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q}, \sqrt{-1})$  is simple, we have

$$\omega = \pi_1 \pi_2 \eta,$$

where  $\eta$  is a unit and  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$  are primes in that field. According to Lemma 3, we may suppose that

$$\pi_1 = \frac{1}{2} (a + c\sqrt{q}) + \frac{1}{2} i (b + d\sqrt{q})$$

and

$$\pi_2 = \frac{1}{2} (a + c\sqrt{q}) - \frac{1}{2} i (b + d\sqrt{q}),$$

$a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$  and  $d$  being rational integers. The unit  $\eta$  belongs to the field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q})$ , since the product  $\pi_1 \pi_2$  belongs to this field. Since  $\omega$  is positive,  $\eta$  is so. The norm of  $\omega$  is positive and the norm of  $\pi_1 \pi_2$  is also positive. Hence the norm of  $\eta$  is positive. Thus we have

$$\eta = \varepsilon^{2m}.$$

Putting

$$\psi_1 = \pi_1 \varepsilon^m \quad \text{and} \quad \psi_2 = \pi_2 \varepsilon^m,$$

we get

$$\omega = \psi_1 \psi_2,$$

where  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$  are primes in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q}, \sqrt{-q})$  such that  $\psi_1$  is transformed into  $\psi_2$  when  $i$  is substituted by  $-i$  and vice versa. Consequently we may suppose that  $\eta = 1$ . Hence

$$\omega = \frac{1}{4} (a + c\sqrt{q})^2 + \frac{1}{4} (b + d\sqrt{q})^2, \tag{12}$$

which involves the relations

$$4u = a^2 + b^2 + q(c^2 + d^2) \tag{13}$$

and

$$2v = ac + bd. \tag{14}$$

If the integers  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$  and  $d$  are all odd or all even, it is evident that  $\omega$  is an  $A$ -number. If the number  $\frac{1}{2} (a + c\sqrt{q})$  is an integer, it follows from (12) that the number  $\frac{1}{2} (b + d\sqrt{q})$  is also an integer: hence  $\omega$  is an  $A$ -number. Then it remains to consider the following cases: (i)  $a$  is even,  $c$  is odd; (ii)  $a$  is odd,  $c$  is even. In both cases  $bd$  is even in virtue of (14); thus one of the numbers  $b$  and  $d$  is even and the other one is odd. In the first case we get from (13) modulo 4:

$$b^2 + 1 + d^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}.$$

But this congruence is clearly impossible. In the second case we get from (13) the same congruence modulo 4. Hence  $\omega$  and  $\omega'$  are always  $A$ -numbers.

**13. Summary and proof of the main result.** As a consequence of the discussions in Sections 10-12 we may state the following result.

**Theorem 4.** *The prime  $\omega$  in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q})$  is an  $A$ -number only in the following cases: (i)  $\omega = 2\varepsilon^{2m}$ ; (ii)  $\omega = \sqrt{q} \cdot \varepsilon^{2m+1}$ ; (iii)  $\omega = p\varepsilon^{2m}$ , where  $p$  is an odd rational prime such that  $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = -1$ ; (iv)  $\omega$  is of the form  $\frac{1}{2}(u + v\sqrt{q})$ , where  $u$  and  $v$  are rational integers such that  $\frac{1}{4}(u^2 - qv^2)$  is a rational prime  $\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .*

We are now in position to establish our main result.

**Theorem 5.** *The integer  $\alpha$  in the field  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q})$  is an  $A$ -number if and only if*

$$\alpha = \beta\gamma^2(\sqrt{q})^m \cdot \varepsilon^n,$$

where  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are integers in the field with the following properties:  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are prime to  $\sqrt{q}$ ;  $\beta$  is either  $=1$  or  $=$  a product of  $A$ -primes, different or not;  $\gamma$  is either a unit or  $=$  a product of primes  $\pi$  such that in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q})$

$$\left(\frac{-1}{\pi}\right) = -1.$$

$m$  and  $n$  are rational integers,  $m \geq 0$ , such that  $m+n$  is even.  $\varepsilon$  is the fundamental unit, chosen  $> 1$ .

*Proof.* It is evident that the conditions are sufficient. Suppose that  $\alpha$  is an  $A$ -number and that

$$\alpha = \xi\eta(\sqrt{q})^m,$$

where  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  are integers in the field with the following properties: they are prime to  $\sqrt{q}$ ;  $\xi$  is either  $=1$  or  $=$  product of primes  $\pi$  such that, in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{q})$ ,

$$\left(\frac{-1}{\pi}\right) = -1;$$

$m$  is a rational integer  $\geq 0$ . Then we must have  $\eta = \varrho\gamma^2$ , where  $\gamma$  is an integer in the field and  $\varrho$  a unit; thus the number  $\alpha/\gamma^2$  is an  $A$ -number. Now applying Lemma 4 a certain number of times to the prime factors  $\pi$  of  $\xi$ , we find that the number

$$\frac{\alpha}{\gamma^2\xi} = \varrho(\sqrt{q})^m$$

must be an  $A$ -number. Finally, applying a result in Section 10 we achieve the proof.

*Note.* The fields  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{\pm 37})$  have in the main the same properties as the fields  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{\pm 5})$  and  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{\pm 13})$ . There is, however, an essential difference: The fundamental unit has the form  $6 + \sqrt{37}$ . Thus the equations  $x^2 - 37y^2 = \pm 4$  have no solutions in odd (rational) integers. This fact necessitates a modification of the

methods used in this paper. We shall treat the fields  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{\pm 37})$  in a following paper.

14. *Numerical examples.* The number  $3 + 2\sqrt{-5}$  is an  $A$ -prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-5})$  since

$$3 + 2\sqrt{-5} = (3 + \sqrt{-5})^2 + (2 - \sqrt{-5})^2$$

and since

$$N(3 + 2\sqrt{-5}) = 29.$$

The number  $3 + 2\sqrt{-13}$  is an  $A$ -prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-13})$  since

$$3 + 2\sqrt{-13} = (11 + 5\sqrt{-13})^2 + (18 - 3\sqrt{-13})^2$$

and since

$$N(3 + 2\sqrt{-13}) = 61.$$

The number  $6 + \sqrt{-5}$  is a  $C$ -prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-5})$  since

$$N(6 + \sqrt{-5}) = 41 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

The number  $3 + \sqrt{-13}$  is a  $C$ -prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-13})$  since

$$N(3 + \sqrt{-13}) = 17 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

We have

$$(2 + \sqrt{-5}) = \mathfrak{p}^2,$$

where  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a prime ideal dividing 3 in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-5})$ . We have

$$(6 + \sqrt{-13}) = \mathfrak{p}^2,$$

where  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a prime ideal dividing 7 in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{-13})$ . The number 7 is an  $A$ -prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{5})$  since

$$7 = \frac{1}{4}(3 + \sqrt{5})^2 + \frac{1}{4}(3 - \sqrt{5})^2.$$

The number 7 is an  $A$ -prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{13})$  since

$$7 = \frac{1}{4}(1 + \sqrt{13})^2 + \frac{1}{4}(1 - \sqrt{13})^2.$$

The number  $7 + 2\sqrt{5}$  is an  $A$ -prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{5})$  since

$$7 + 2\sqrt{5} = 1^2 + (1 + \sqrt{5})^2$$

and since

$$N(7 + 2\sqrt{5}) = 29.$$

The number  $15 + 2\sqrt{13}$  is an  $A$ -prime in  $\mathbf{K}(\sqrt{13})$  since

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$$15 + 2\sqrt{13} = 1^2 + (1 + \sqrt{13})^2$$

and since

$$N(15 + 2\sqrt{13}) = 173$$

is a prime.

**15.** *Addition to paper* [1]. The proof of the last part of Theorem 17 in [1], p. 54, is not in order and may be replaced by the following correct proof:

Let  $\omega$  be an  $A$ -number with the representation

$$\omega = \alpha^2 + \beta^2,$$

$\alpha$  and  $\beta$  being integers in  $\Omega$ . Suppose that equation (30) has an infinity of solutions  $x = \xi_n$  and  $y = \eta_n$  given by (18) and (29). Put for  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ,

$$\alpha_n + \beta_n i = (\xi_n + \eta_n i)(\alpha + \beta i),$$

where

$$\alpha_n = \alpha \xi_n - \beta \eta_n \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_n = \alpha \eta_n + \beta \xi_n.$$

Then we have

$$\alpha_n - \beta_n i = (\xi_n - \eta_n i)(\alpha - \beta i)$$

and

$$(\alpha_n + \beta_n i)(\alpha_n - \beta_n i) = (\xi_n^2 + \eta_n^2)(\alpha^2 + \beta^2).$$

Hence

$$\omega = \alpha_n^2 + \beta_n^2.$$

It is easy to see that, in this way, we get an infinity of representations of  $\omega$ . In fact, supposing

$$\alpha_m = \alpha_n, \quad \beta_m = \beta_n,$$

we get

$$\xi_n + \eta_n i = \xi_m + \eta_m i.$$

But, in the proof of Theorem 15 we showed that this relation is possible only for  $m = n$ .

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