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ON FACTORIZATION IN REAL QUADRATIC NUMBER FIELDS

ABSTRACT: This paper investigates uniqueness of factorization in quadratic number fields. It is proved by elementary method, that under certain conditions, the ring R_k of a field K is the ring with nonunique factorization.

1. Introduction. Using class-field theory C. S. Herz [1] proved the following result:

Let $K = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{d})$ be given quadratic number field with the discriminant D which has t distinct prime divisors. Then the class group $H(K)$ of K has $t-1$ even invariants, except the case when K is real and at least one prime $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ is ramified, in this case $H(K)$ has $t-2$ even invariants.

From this result we can deduce that if $h = H(K) = 1$ where $K = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{d})$ and $d > 0$ then

$$(1.1) \quad d = p, 2q$$

or qr where p is prime and $q \equiv r \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ are primes.

In this paper we prove by simple elementary method without using class-field theory the following.

Theorem. Let Z_s denote the set of all square-free integers and $L_d = \{d: d = p, 2q \text{ or } qr, q \equiv r \equiv 3 \pmod{4}\}$ and let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$, $d > 0$ and $d \in Z_s \setminus L_d$.

Then the ring R_K of K is the ring with nonuniqueness of factorization.

It is easy to see that from our Theorem follows also the corollary which follows from Herz's result.

Let Z_s denote the set of all squarefree positive integers and

$$(2.1) \quad L_d = \{d = p^2, 2q^2 \text{ or } q^2 r^2; q^2 \equiv r^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, p, q, r \text{ are primes}\}$$

Then we can prove the following

Lemma 1. For every $d \in Z_s \setminus L_d$ there exist the odd primes p, q, q^* such that

$$(2.2) \quad p|d, q|d \quad (\text{may be } p = q)$$

and

$$(2.3.) \quad \left(\frac{d}{q^*}\right) = 1, \quad \left(\frac{q^*}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{-q^*}{p}\right) = -1.$$

Proof. Since $d \in Z_s \setminus L_d$ thus it suffice to consider the following four cases:

$$1^\circ \quad d = 2p, \quad p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \text{ is a prime.}$$

- 2° $d = 2^\alpha pp_1 \dots p_k$, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$; $\alpha = 0$ or 1 ,
 p and p_i are odd distinct primes.
- 3° $d = 2p_1 p_2 \dots p_k$, $k \geq 2$, $p_i \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$.
- 4° $d = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k$, $k \geq 3$, $p_i \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$.

Consider the case 1°. Let r denote the quadratic nonresidue for prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Hence $\left(\frac{r}{p}\right) = -1$. Suppose that m_0 is a positive integer such that

$$(2.4) \quad pm_0 + r \equiv 5 \pmod{8}.$$

We note that m_0 satisfying (2.4) exist since the number $pj + r$ for $j = 1, 2, \dots, 8$ gives distinct residues modulo 8. Let

$$(2.5) \quad r_m = p(8m + m_0) + r = 8pm + (pm_0 + r), \quad m = 1, 2, \dots$$

From (2.4) it follows that $(8p, pm_0 + r) = 1$.

Therefore by Dirichlet's theorem we obtain from (2.5) that for some m

$$(2.6) \quad q^* = r_0 \text{ where } q^* \text{ is a prime number.}$$

On the other hand by (2.4) it follows that $pm_0 + r = 8k + 5$ thus by (2.5) and (2.6) we obtain

$$(2.7) \quad q^* = 8t + 5.$$

Since $r_m = q^* = p(8m + m_0) + r$ thus by well-known property of Legendre's symbol we have

$$(2.8) \quad \left(\frac{q^*}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{r}{p}\right) = -1$$

By reciprocity law of Gauss in our case $q^* \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$, $p = 4k + 1$ we get

$$(2.9) \quad \left(\frac{p}{q^*}\right) = -1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{2}{q^*}\right) = -1$$

Thus by (2.9) we have

$$(2.10) \quad \left(\frac{d}{q^*}\right) = \left(\frac{2p}{q^*}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{q^*}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{p}{q^*}\right) = +1.$$

By (2.8) and property of Legendre's symbol we have

$$\left(\frac{-q^*}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{q^*}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \cdot \left(\frac{q^*}{p}\right) = -1$$

and the case 1° is proved.

For the proof of case 2° suppose that r, s are the residues for p and p_1 and r_2, r_3, \dots, r_k are non residues for modulo p_2, p_3, \dots, p_k . Since $(p, p_i) = (p_i, p_j) = 1$ for $i \neq j$ thus by Chinese remainder theorem we obtain, that there exists positive integer u such that

$$(2.11) \quad u \equiv r \pmod{p}, \quad u \equiv s \pmod{p_1}, \quad u \equiv r_i \pmod{p_i}; \quad i = 2, \dots, k.$$

Let m_0 denote the positive integer such that

$$(2.12) \quad pp_1 \dots p_k m_0 + u \equiv (\text{mod } 8).$$

It is easy to see that such m_0 exist, because the number $pp_1 \dots p_k j + u$ gives distinct residues (mod 8). Let

$$(2.13) \quad r_m = pp_1 \dots p_k (8m + m_0) + u = 8pp_1 \dots p_k m + (pp_1 \dots p_k m_0 + u)$$

$m = 1, 2, \dots$ Since $(8pp_1 \dots p_k, pp_1 \dots p_k m_0 + u) = 1$ then by Dirichlet's Theorem we have for some m

$$(2.14) \quad q^* = r_m \quad \text{where } q^* \text{ is a prime number.}$$

It is easy to see that by (2.12) it follows that $q^* \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$. Therefore similarly as in the case 1° we obtain

$$(2.15) \quad \left(\frac{q^*}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{u}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{r}{p}\right) = -1, \quad \left(\frac{q^*}{p_1}\right) = \left(\frac{u}{p_1}\right) = \left(\frac{s}{p_1}\right) = -1$$

and

$$(2.16) \quad \left(\frac{q^*}{p_i}\right) = \left(\frac{u}{p_i}\right) = \left(\frac{r_i}{p_i}\right) = 1 \quad \text{for } i = 2, 3, \dots, k.$$

From (2.15), (2.16) and reciprocity law of Gauss we get

$$\left(\frac{p}{q^*}\right) = \left(\frac{p_1}{q^*}\right) = -1, \quad \left(\frac{p_i}{q^*}\right) = 1 \text{ for } i = 2, 3, \dots, k$$

and therefore we have $\left(\frac{d}{q^*}\right) = 1$, $\left(\frac{q^*}{p}\right) = -1$ and $\left(\frac{-q^*}{p}\right) = -1$.

Consider the case 3°. Let $\left(\frac{r_1}{p_1}\right) = +1$ and $\left(\frac{r_i}{p_i}\right) = -1$ for $i = 2, 3, \dots, k$. Since $(p_i, p_j) = 1$ for $i \neq j$ thus by Chinese remainder theorem we obtain that there exists a positive integer u such that $u \equiv r_i \pmod{p_i}$, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$.

Similarly as in the case 2°, let m_0 denote the number satisfying $p_1 \dots p_k m_0 + u \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ and let

$$r_m = 8p_1 \dots p_k m + (p_1 \dots p_k m_0 + u).$$

Thus we obtain for some m , $q^* = r_m$ and $q^* \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$.

Therefore we obtain

$$(2.17) \quad \left(\frac{q^*}{p_1}\right) = \left(\frac{u}{p_1}\right) = \left(\frac{r_1}{p_1}\right) = 1 \text{ and } \left(\frac{q^*}{p_i}\right) = \left(\frac{u}{p_i}\right) = \left(\frac{r_i}{p_i}\right) = -1$$

for $i = 2, 3, \dots, k$. By (2.17) and reciprocity law of Gauss it follows that $\left(\frac{p_1}{q^*}\right) = -1$, $\left(\frac{p_i}{q^*}\right) = 1$ for $i = 2, 3, \dots, k$ and $\left(\frac{2}{q^*}\right) = -1$.

Therefore we obtain $\left(\frac{d}{q^*}\right) = 1$, $\left(\frac{-q^*}{p_1}\right) = -1$, $\left(\frac{q^*}{p_2}\right) = -1$, and the case 3° is proved.

For the proof the case 4° we suppose that

$$\left(\frac{r_1}{p_1}\right) = \left(\frac{r_2}{p_2}\right) = 1 \text{ and } \left(\frac{r_i}{p_i}\right) = -1 \text{ for } i = 3, 4, \dots, k.$$

Since $(p_i, p_j) = 1$ for $i \neq j$ thus by Chinese remainder theorem we obtain that there exists a positive integer u such

that $u \equiv r_i \pmod{p_i}$, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$. Let m_0 denote the number such that

$$p_1 p_2 \dots p_k m_0 + u \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$$

and

$$r_m = 4 p_1 \dots p_k m + (p_1 \dots p_k m_0 + u),$$

$m = 1, 2, \dots$ then we have

$$(4 p_1 \dots p_k, p_1 \dots p_k m_0 + u) = 1$$

and for some m ,

$$r_m = q^* \equiv 3 \pmod{4}.$$

Since $p_i \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ thus we have

$$\left(\frac{q^*}{p_i}\right) = \left(\frac{u}{p_i}\right) = \left(\frac{r_i}{p_i}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } i = 1, 2, \\ -1 & \text{for } i = 3, 4, \dots \end{cases}$$

By Gauss theorem we get

$$\left(\frac{p_i}{q^*}\right) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{for } i = 1, 2, \\ 1 & \text{for } i = 3, 4, \dots, k. \end{cases}$$

Therefore $\left(\frac{d}{q^*}\right) = 1$, $\left(\frac{-q^*}{p_3}\right) = -1$, $\left(\frac{-q^*}{p_1}\right) = -1$

and proof the case 4° and our Lemma is finished.

Lemma 2. Let R_k denote the ring of all integers of $K = Q(\sqrt{d})$, $d > 0$. If R_k is the ring with uniqueness of factorization then the Diophantine equation

$$(2.18) \quad x^2 - dy^2 = \pm 4^\alpha p$$

has a solution in positive integers x, y for every prime p such that $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = +1$, where

$$\alpha = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4} \\ 1 & \text{if } d \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

Proof. From the assumption that $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = +1$ it follows that there exists a positive integer x such that $x^2 \equiv d \pmod{p}$.

From this follows that

$$(2.19) \quad p \mid x^2 - d = (x - \sqrt{d})(x + \sqrt{d})$$

Suppose that the number p is an irreducible element of R_k . Since the ring R_k is the ring with uniqueness factorization we get that the number p is also prime number in R_k .

The by (2.19) it follows that

$$(2.20) \quad p \mid x - \sqrt{d} \quad \text{or} \quad p \mid x + \sqrt{d}$$

it is impossible, because the elements $\frac{x - \sqrt{d}}{p}$ and $\frac{x + \sqrt{d}}{p}$ are no elements of R_k .

Therefore we obtain

$$(2.21) \quad p = \left(\frac{x_1 + y_1 \sqrt{d}}{2^\alpha}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{x_2 + y_2 \sqrt{d}}{2^\alpha}\right)$$

where

$$(2.22) \quad \alpha = \begin{cases} 0 & d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4} \\ 1 & d \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

and the elements $\frac{x_1 + y_1 \sqrt{d}}{2^\alpha}$ and $\frac{x_2 + y_2 \sqrt{d}}{2^\alpha}$ are noninvertible.

Hence by (2.21) we have

$$(2.23) \quad p^2 = N\left(\frac{x_1 + y_1\sqrt{d}}{2^\alpha}\right) \cdot N\left(\frac{x_2 + y_2\sqrt{d}}{2^\alpha}\right)$$

From (2.23) it follows that the equation

$$|x^2 - dy^2| = 4^\alpha p$$

has a solution in integers, x, y and proof of Lemma 2 is complete.

Result.

We can prove the following

Theorem. Let $K = Q(\sqrt{d})$, $d > 0$, $d \in Z_s \setminus L_d$. Then the ring R_K of K is the ring with nonuniqueness of factorization.

Proof. Suppose that for some $0 < d \in Z_s \setminus L_d$ the ring R_K is the ring with uniqueness of factorization. By Lemma 1 it follows that there are odd primes p, q, q^* such that $p|d, q|d$ and

$$(3.1.) \quad \left(\frac{d}{q^*}\right) = 1, \quad \left(\frac{q^*}{p}\right) = -1, \quad \left(\frac{-q^*}{p}\right) = -1$$

From (3.1) and Lemma 2 it follows that the equation

$$(3.2) \quad |x^2 - dy^2| = 4^\alpha q^*$$

has a solution in integers x, y . From (3.2) we have

$$(3.3) \quad x^2 - dy^2 = 4^\alpha q^* \quad \text{or} \quad x^2 - dy^2 = -4^\alpha q^*.$$

From (3.3) it follows that for $p|d$ and $q|d$ we have

$$(3.4.) \quad \left(\frac{4^\alpha q^*}{p}\right) = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \left(\frac{-4^\alpha q^*}{q}\right) = 1.$$

But on the other hand from (3.1) we obtain

$$\left(\frac{4^\alpha q^*}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q^*}{p}\right) = -1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{-4^\alpha q^*}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{-q^*}{q}\right) = -1$$

so contrary to (3.4). The proof is complete.

From our Theorem we get the following

Corollary. Let $K = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{d})$, $d > 0$. If R_k of K is the ring with uniqueness of factorization then

$d \in L_d = \{d : d = p, 2q \text{ or } qr, q \equiv r \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, p, q, r \text{ are primes}\}$.

REFERENCES

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