## PRIME QUADRATICS ASSOCIATED WITH COMPLEX QUADRATIC FIELDS OF CLASS NUMBER TWO

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ABSTRACT. We establish a necessary and sufficient relation between those quadratic fields of class number two, and some quadratic polynomials f(x) which take only prime values for small positive integers.

Euler discovered that for certain primes q, namely q=2, 3, 5, 11, 17, 41, the quadratic

$$f(x) = x^2 + x + q$$

takes only prime values for integers in the interval  $0 \le x \le q-2$ . (Cf. [1].) In fact it is known that a prime q is such a value if and only if the complex quadratic field  $Q(\sqrt{1-4q})$  has class number one. This test readily gives rise to all the fields  $Q(\sqrt{-d})$  with  $d \ge 7$ , which have class number one. In a similar manner we discover a quadratic similar to (1) related to each of the complex quadratic fields of class number two.

Let d be any squarefree positive integer, and h be the class number of the field  $Q(\sqrt{-d})$ . This field has discriminant D=-d when  $d\equiv 3 \pmod 4$ , or D=-4d otherwise. From the theory of genera of complex quadratic fields, we note that the class group of  $Q(\sqrt{-d})$  will contain one factor of order a power of two if and only if D has precisely two distinct prime factors. Hence h can only be two for fields  $Q(\sqrt{-d})$  of one of the following three types:

- I. d=2p, p odd prime, D=-8p.
- II.  $d=p\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , p prime, D=-4p.
- III.  $d=pq\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , p, q prime, D=-pq.

For fields of Type III, we will assume that p < q. For each field we associate a quadratic f(x) similar to (1). For fields of Type I,

$$f(x) = 2x^2 + p.$$

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For fields of Type II,

(3) 
$$f(x) = 2x^2 + 2x + (p+1)/2.$$

For fields of Type III,

(4) 
$$f(x) = px^2 + px + (p+q)/4.$$

THEOREM. A complex qua ratic field of Type I, II or III has class number h=2 if and only if the corresponding quadratic f(x) takes only prime values for integers x in the interval  $0 \le x < k$ , where  $k = \sqrt{(p/2)}$  for fields of Type I,  $k = (\sqrt{p-1})/2$  for fields of Type II.

PROOF. The proof is established via the following lemmas.

LEMMA 1. If x is the least positive integer for which  $f(x)=2x^2+p$  of (2) is composite, then  $x<(p-1)/\sqrt{2}\Rightarrow x<\sqrt{(p/2)}$ .

PROOF. f(p) is composite, so a minimal positive integer x for which f(x) is composite does exist. Set  $L_0=(p-1)/\sqrt{2}$ ,  $L=\sqrt{(p/2)}$  and  $L_n=\sqrt{(L_0^22^{-n}+(2^n-1)p2^{-n-1})}$ , and suppose  $x< L_0$ . We find, for  $n\ge 0$ ,

$$(5) L < L_{n+1} < L_n \leq L_0,$$

$$(6) L = \lim_{n \to \infty} L_n \text{ and}$$

(7) 
$$L_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(2L_n^2 + p)}.$$

Suppose, for some  $n \ge 0$ ,  $x < L_n$ . As f(x) is composite let a be its least prime divisor. Thus

(8) 
$$a^2 \le f(x) < 2L_n^2 + p \le 2L_0^2 + p = (p-1)^2 + p < p^2$$
, and, in particular,

$$(9) a < \sqrt{(2L_n^2 + p)} < p.$$

Thus f(y)=a has no real roots. Now

(10) 
$$f(|x-a|) \equiv f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{a},$$

so that f(|x-a|) also has a as a proper divisor, and hence is composite. f(0)=p, so  $x\neq a$ , and as x is minimal x<|x-a|, i.e.,

(11) 
$$x \le a/2 < \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(L_n^2 + p)} = L_{n+1}.$$

Thus by induction  $x < L_0 \Rightarrow x < L_n$  for each  $n \ge 0$ , and so  $x \le \lim_{n \to \infty} L_n = L$ . Equality cannot hold as L is irrational, so x < L establishing the lemma.

LEMMA 2. If x is the least positive integer for which  $f(x)=2x^2+2x+(p+1)/2$  of (3) is composite, then  $x<(p-\sqrt{2})/2\sqrt{2}\Rightarrow x<(\sqrt{p-1})/2$ .

PROOF. We use the same procedure as above in Lemma 1, with  $L=(\sqrt{p-1})/2$ ,  $L_0=(p-\sqrt{2})/2\sqrt{2}$  and

$$L_n = \sqrt{((L_0 + \frac{1}{2})^2 2^{-n} + (2^n - 1)p2^{-n-2}) - \frac{1}{2}}$$

In equation (10) we replace  $f(x-a) \equiv f(a-x) \equiv f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{a}$  with  $f(x-a) \equiv f(a-x-1) \equiv f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{a}$ , so for x minimal, x < a and x < a - x - 1. The remainder of the proof then follows.

Unfortunately a corresponding result for  $f(x)=px^2+px+(p+q)/4$  of (4) does not exist for p>3. For fields of Types I and II set a=2 and for fields of Type III set a=p. Let A be the ambiguous ideal with N(A)=a. This meaning of the letter a has nothing to do with its use in Lemmas 1 and 2. From now on a will have the meaning specified here.

LEMMA 3. If h>2, then there exist nonprincipal ideals B, C with the following properties:

- 1. B and C are neither principal nor in the same class as A.
- 2. ABC is principal.
- 3. B is a prime ideal.
- 4. 1 < N(B),  $N(C) < \sqrt{(-D/3)}$ .
- A∤BC.

PROOF. As N(A) < -D/4, A cannot be principal. Let  $K_1$  be the class of principal ideals and  $K_2$  the class containing A. As h > 2 and  $K_2^2 = K_1$ ,  $\{K_1, K_2\}$  is a proper subgroup of the class group. Hence there exist other classes, and at least one of them, say  $K_3$ , has a prime ideal B as its member of least norm. As  $K_3$  is distinct from  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$ , so too is  $K_4 = K_2 K_3^{-1}$ . Let C be an ideal of least norm of  $K_4$ , so that  $ABC \in K_2 K_3 K_4 = K_2^2 = K_1$  is a principal ideal.

We have an upper bound (see [1, p. 141]) on the size of the least (according to norm) ideal of any equivalence class  $K_i$ . That is, in each class  $K_i$  over  $Q(\sqrt{-d})$  there exists an ideal  $A_i$ , with  $N(A_i) < \sqrt{(-D/3)}$ . Hence B, C are ideals satisfying properties 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Further  $A|BC\Rightarrow A|C$  as B is prime, so that there would need to exist an ideal E, with C=AE. This would mean  $BE\sim A^2BE=ABC$ , so BE is principal; however, as  $N(E) \leq N(C)/2 < \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{(-D/3)}$ ,  $N(B) < \sqrt{(-D/3)}$ , and N(BE) < -D/6 it could not be principal. Hence  $A \nmid BC$ .

LEMMA 4. In the fields of Type I,  $h>2\Rightarrow f(x)$  is composite for some integer x in the interval  $0\leq x<\sqrt{(p/2)}$ .

PROOF. N(A)=2. From Lemma 3, there exist ideals B, C with properties 1 to 5. Set b=N(B), c=N(C). As ABC is principal there exist

integers y, z satisfying

(12) 
$$N(ABC) = 2bc = v^2 + 2pz^2.$$

Thus 2|y. Let y=2x, so that (12) gives

$$(13) bc = 2x^2 + pz^2.$$

 $A \nmid BC$ , so  $2 \nmid bc$  and z is odd. Further

(14) 
$$bc = N(BC) < -D/3 = 8p/3 < 4p$$
,

so, from (14),  $z^2 = 1$ , and (13) becomes

(15) 
$$bc = 2x^2 + p = f(x).$$

From (15),  $x^2 = (bc - p)/2 < 5p/6$ , so, for p > 3,  $x < \sqrt{(5p/6)} < (p-1)/\sqrt{2}$ . Further for p = 3, as x is integral  $x < \sqrt{(5/2)} \Rightarrow x \le 1 < \sqrt{2} = (p-1)/\sqrt{2}$ . Hence

(16) 
$$x < (p-1)/\sqrt{2}$$
,

so, by Lemma 1, f(x) is composite for some integer x in the interval  $0 \le x < \sqrt{(p/2)}$ .

LEMMA 5. In fields of Type II,  $h>2\Rightarrow f(x)$  is composite for some integer x in the interval  $0\leq x<(\sqrt{p-1})/2$ .

PROOF. As above we can find b=N(B), c=N(C) and integers y, z so that

(17) 
$$N(ABC) = 2bc = y^2 + pz^2$$
.

From Lemma 3,  $2 \nmid bc$ , so

(18) 
$$2bc \equiv 2 \equiv y^2 + z^2 \pmod{4}$$
,

and hence both y and z are odd. Putting y=2x+1 we obtain

(19) 
$$bc = 2x^2 + 2x + (1 + pz^2)/2,$$

and further

(20) 
$$bc = N(BC) < -D/3 = 4p/3 < 2p.$$

Thus  $z^2=1$ , and (19) becomes

(21) 
$$bc = 2x^2 + 2x + (p+1)/2 = f(x).$$

Also, from (20),  $2x^2+2x+(p+1)/2<4p/3$ , so  $(x+\frac{1}{2})^2<5p/12 \le p^2/12 \le p^2/8$  (as  $p \ge 5$ ). Hence

(22) 
$$0 \le x < (p - \sqrt{2})/2\sqrt{2}.$$

However, from Lemma 2, f(x) is composite for some integer x in the interval  $0 \le x < (\sqrt{p-1})/2$ .

LEMMA 6. In the fields of Type III,  $h>2\Rightarrow f(x)$  is composite for some integer x in the interval  $0 \le x < \sqrt{(-D/12) - \frac{1}{2}}$ .

PROOF. We may assume pq>16, since  $Q(\sqrt{-pq})$  has class number greater than two. N(A)=p. As above we can find b=N(B), c=N(C) and integers y, z,  $y\equiv z \pmod 2$  so that

(23) 
$$N(ABC) = pbc = (y^2 + pqz^2)/4,$$

i.e.,

$$(24) 4pbc = y^2 + pqz^2.$$

If b=2, then (2|pq)=1, so  $pq\equiv 7 \pmod 8$ , and hence  $p+q\equiv 0 \pmod 8$ . Thus, since pq>16, we find that f(0)=(p+q)/4 is properly divisible by 2 and hence composite.

For b>2, from (24), p|y, so let y=pv, so that (24) becomes

$$(25) 4bc = pv^2 + qz^2.$$

As  $A \not\mid BC$ ,  $p \not\mid bc$ , and hence  $z \neq 0$ . Also if v = 0, then  $q \mid bc$ . However b,  $c < \sqrt{(pq/3)} < q$  so  $q \not\mid b$ , c and as q is prime  $q \not\mid bc$ . Hence  $v \neq 0$ . b, p are primes, (b, p) = 1, so  $b \mid z \Rightarrow b \mid v$ , so, from (25),

$$b \mid z \Rightarrow 4c > (p+q)b > 2(p+q)$$

$$\Rightarrow 4c^2 > p^2 + q^2 + 2pq > 2pq$$

$$\Rightarrow c > \sqrt{(pq/2)}.$$

However as  $c < \sqrt{(pq/3)}$ ,  $b \nmid z$ . Thus  $z \not\equiv 0 \pmod{b}$ , so there exists an inverse z' of  $z \pmod{b}$ . From (25) we obtain

(26) 
$$p(vz')^2 + q \equiv 0 \pmod{b}$$
.

Let w be the least positive residue (mod b) of vz'. As b is odd, one of w, b-w is odd, so let u be that value and hence 0 < u < b. From (26),  $pu^2+q\equiv 0 \pmod{b}$  while also  $pu^2+q\equiv p+q\equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ , so

$$(27) pu^2 + q \equiv 0 \pmod{4b}.$$

Since ABC is principal, and C not principal, neither is AB. Thus  $pu^2+q \neq 4b$ , for otherwise  $4bp=(pu)^2+pq$ , and  $AB=((pu\pm\sqrt{-pq})/2)$ . Thus b is a nontrivial divisor of  $(pu^2+q)/4$ . As u is odd, let u=2x+1 so that

$$(28) (pu^2 + q)/4 = f(x)$$

which has a proper prime divisor b, so is composite. Now

(29) 
$$0 < x = (u-1)/2 < b/2 - \frac{1}{2} < \sqrt{(pq/12) - \frac{1}{2}};$$

so again the lemma holds true.

This now establishes the first half of the theorem. The remainder is established in a final lemma.

LEMMA 7. For each field of Type I, II or III, if f(x) is composite for some integer x in the interval  $0 \le x < k$ , then h > 2.

PROOF. Suppose f(x) is composite with  $0 \le x < k$ , so that f(x) = bc, with b, c > 1, integral and b prime. Now with a as chosen before Lemma 3,

$$f(x) = bc \Rightarrow abc = (2x)^2 + d$$
 for fields of Type I,  

$$(30) = (2x + 1)^2 + d$$
 for fields of Type II,  

$$= ((2x + 1)^2p^2 + d)/4$$
 for fields of Type III.

For fields of Type I,  $x \ne 0$ , as f(0) = p is prime, so we find that for all fields (bc, d) = 1. Hence, from (30), (-d|r) = 1 for all primes r dividing bc.

Let  $\alpha$  be the algebraic integer  $2x+\sqrt{(-d)}$ ,  $(2x+1)+\sqrt{(-d)}$ , or  $((2x+1)p+\sqrt{(-d)})/2$  in the fields of Types I, II and III respectively. Hence, in all fields of Type I,  $x<\sqrt{(p/2)}\Rightarrow N(\alpha)=(2x)^2+2p<4p$ , i.e.,

$$(31) N(\alpha) < 2d.$$

Similarly, in fields of Type II,  $x < (\sqrt{p-1})/2 \Rightarrow N(\alpha) = (2x+1)^2 + p < 2p = 2d$ , i.e.,

$$(32) N(\alpha) < 2d.$$

For fields of Type III,  $x < \sqrt{(pq/12) - \frac{1}{2}} \Rightarrow ((2x+1)^2 p^2 + pq)/4 < p^3 q/12 + pq/4 < p^2 q^2 (1/12 + 1/60)$ , i.e.,

$$(33) N(\alpha) < d^2/10.$$

Using these three inequalities we now prove that the algebraic integer  $\alpha$  has no nontrivial factorisation. As the coefficient of  $\sqrt{(-d)}$  in  $\alpha$  is 1,  $\alpha$  cannot be divisible by any nontrivial rational integer. Suppose  $\alpha$  does have a nontrivial factorisation in algebraic integers,

$$\alpha = \beta \gamma$$

where for  $D\equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ ,  $\beta=b_1+b_2\sqrt{(-d)}$ ,  $\gamma=c_1+c_2\sqrt{(-d)}$ , and for  $D\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ ,  $\beta=(b_1+b_2\sqrt{(-d)})/2$ ,  $\gamma=(c_1+c_2\sqrt{(-d)})/2$ , with  $b_1\equiv b_2 \pmod{2}$ ,  $c_1\equiv c_2 \pmod{2}$ .

If  $b_2=0$ ,  $\beta$  would be a rational integer, hence  $\beta=\pm 1$ . Similarly  $c_2=0 \Rightarrow \gamma=\pm 1$ . Hence for a nontrivial factorisation (34) we require

 $b_2, c_2 \neq 0$ . For  $D \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ ,  $N(\alpha) = N(\beta)N(\gamma) = (b_1^2 + db_2^2)(c_1^2 + dc_2^2) \ge d^2$ , which contradicts equations (31) and (32). For  $D \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ ,

$$N(\alpha) = (b_1^2 + db_2^2) \cdot (c_1^2 + dc_2^2)/16$$
  
=  $(b_1^2c_1^2 + d(b_1^2c_2^2 + b_2^2c_1^2) + d^2b_2^2c_2^2)/16$ .

However as  $N(\alpha) < d^2/10$  by equation (33), we must have  $b_2^2 c_2^2 = 1$ ,  $b_1^2 c_1^2 < d^2$ . Thus, for fields of Types I or II,  $\alpha$  can have no nontrivial factorisation (34), and, for fields of Type III, it can only be of the form

(35) 
$$\alpha = ((2x+1)p + \sqrt{(-d)})/2 = ((b_1 + b_2\sqrt{(-d)})/2) \cdot ((c_1 + c_2\sqrt{(-d)})/2),$$

with  $b_2c_2=\pm 1$ , and  $|b_1c_1|< d=pq$ . By equating real and imaginary parts in equation (35) we find

$$(36) 2(2x+1)p = b_1c_1 - b_2c_2d = b_1c_1 - b_2c_2pq,$$

and

$$(37) 2 = b_1 c_2 + b_2 c_1.$$

As 2(2x+1)p>0,  $|b_1c_1|< pq$ , and  $|b_2c_2|=1$ , then  $b_2c_2=-1$  for (36) to hold. Suppose  $b_2=1$ ,  $c_2=-1$ ; then, by equation (37),  $c_1=b_1+2$ , and equation (36) becomes

(38) 
$$2(2x+1)p = b_1(b_1+2) + pq.$$

Hence  $p|b_1$  or  $p|b_1+2$ , so  $p \le \min(|b_1|, |b_1+2|)$ .  $b_1 \ne -1$ , so  $b_1(b_1+2) \ge 0$ , and  $p(p-2) \le b_1(b_1+2)$ . Thus it follows from equation (38) that

$$(39) 4x + 2 \ge p + q - 2$$

and, on squaring,

$$(40) 4(2x+1)^2 \ge p^2 + q^2 + 2pq - 4p - 4q + 4.$$

However as  $p \ge 3$ ,  $q \ge 5$ ,  $p^2 + q^2 > 4p + 4q - 4$ , so

$$(41) 4(2x+1)^2 > 2pq.$$

Also  $x < \sqrt{(pq/12) - \frac{1}{2}}$  so  $4(2x+1)^2 < 4pq/3$ . This contradicts equation (41), so we cannot have a factorisation with  $b_2 = 1$ ,  $c_2 = -1$ . Alternatively  $b_2 = -1$ ,  $c_2 = 1$  leads to the same contradiction, so the factorisation (34) cannot exist in this case.

Thus in all cases  $\alpha$  has no nontrivial factors.

Let A be the ambiguous ideal above. As (-d|r)=1 for all prime divisors of bc, there exist ideals B, C with N(B)=b, N(C)=c, such that  $ABC=(\alpha)$ .

Now  $\alpha$  has no nontrivial divisors, so ABC has no principal ideal divisors, and in particular none of A, B and AB can be principal. Thus as  $A^2$  is principal, A cannot be in the same class as B, so the number of classes h>2.

## REFERENCE

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