

Divisibility by powers of 2 of the class number of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\pm p}, \sqrt{\pm 2})$

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Abstract

Let K be a bicyclic biquadratic field of the form $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\pm p}, \sqrt{\pm 2})$ where p is an odd prime. Using the class number formula of Herglotz, Gauss genus theory, and results on the divisibility of narrow class numbers of quadratic fields by 2^n where $n \leq 3$, we give necessary and sufficient conditions for the class number of K to be divisible by some power of 2. Our main result subsumes the conditions found by Kucera for $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{2})$, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ using the group of circular units.

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1 Introduction

Let p be an odd prime and K be the bicyclic biquadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\sigma}, \sqrt{\tau})$ with quadratic subfields $k_1 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\sigma})$, $k_2 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\tau})$, and $k_3 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\sigma\tau})$, where $\sigma = \pm p$ and $\tau = \pm 2$. The field K is said to be real if $\sigma > 0$ and $\tau > 0$; otherwise, K is imaginary. Let H be the class number of K and denote by h_i and h_i^+ the class number and the narrow class number of k_i , respectively, for $i = 1, 2, 3$.

For a quadratic field $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{m})$, where m is a squarefree integer, $h^+ = 2h$ if $m > 0$ and $e > 0$ where e is the norm of the fundamental unit ϵ of k . Otherwise, $h^+ = h$.

For integers a , b , and n where a is not divisible by b , we write $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)_n = 1$ if $x^n \equiv a \pmod{b}$ has a solution and $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)_n = -1$ otherwise. Moreover, we write $2^n || x$ if and only if $x \equiv 2^n \pmod{2^{n+1}}$.

Since $h_2 = 1$, then by Herglotz [7, 13] we have

$$H = \begin{cases} \frac{Q}{4} h_1 h_3, & \text{if } K \text{ is real} \\ \frac{Q}{2} h_1 h_3, & \text{if } K \text{ is imaginary} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

where $Q = [\mathcal{O}_K^\times : \mathcal{O}_{k_1}^\times \mathcal{O}_{k_2}^\times \mathcal{O}_{k_3}^\times]$ is the unit index of K over \mathbb{Q} and \mathcal{O}_L^\times is the unit group of the field L . Herglotz further noted that $Q = 1, 2$, or 4 when K is real and $Q = 1$ or 2 when K is imaginary.

In this paper, we determine the exact value of Q for each of the four bicyclic biquadratic fields under consideration. We also give a summary of the values of e and the divisibility by powers of 2 of the class numbers of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p})$, and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2p})$. For our main result, we find the sufficient and necessary conditions for the class number H of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\pm p}, \sqrt{\pm 2})$ to be divisible by some power of 2, which is summarized in the tables below.

	$K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{2}), k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$	$K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}, \sqrt{-2})$
$p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$	H odd	H odd
$p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$	H odd	$2 H$
$p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$	$\begin{cases} H \text{ odd,} & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1 \\ 2 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1, e_k = 1 \\ 4 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1, e_k = -1 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} 8 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1 \\ 32 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1 \end{cases}$
$p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$	$\begin{cases} H \text{ odd,} & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1 \\ 2 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} 8 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1 \\ 16 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1 \end{cases}$

Table 1: Divisibility by 2^n of H for $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{2})$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}, \sqrt{-2})$

	$K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{-2})$	$K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}, \sqrt{2})$
$p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$	$\begin{cases} 2 H, & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{8} \\ 4 H, & \text{if } p \equiv 7 \pmod{16} \\ 8 H, & \text{if } p \equiv 15 \pmod{16} \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} H \text{ odd,} & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{8} \\ 2 H, & \text{if } p \equiv 7 \pmod{16} \\ 4 H, & \text{if } p \equiv 15 \pmod{16} \end{cases}$
$p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$	H odd	$2 H$
$p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$	$\begin{cases} 2 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1 \\ 4 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} 8 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1 \\ 32 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1 \end{cases}$
$p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$	$\begin{cases} 2 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1 \\ 4 H, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1 \end{cases}$	$16 H$

Table 2: Divisibility by 2^n of H for $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{-2})$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}, \sqrt{2})$

2 Divisibility of the class numbers of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\pm p})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\pm 2p})$

Let m be a squarefree integer and k be the quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{m})$ with discriminant d divisible by exactly two primes and with narrow class number h^+ . The conditions for the divisibility of h^+ by 4 were obtained by Rédei and Reichardt [15] in 1934 using class field theory, while the divisibility of h^+ by 8 were obtained by Kaplan [9] in 1973 using properties of quadratic forms. Nemenzo [14] and Basilla [2] were able to verify these results using Ideal Theory and Legendre's theorem on the solvability of the Diophantine equation $ax^2 + by^2 = z^2$ [8].

In this section, we use Gauss genus theory together with the approach of Nemenzo and Basilla to determine the divisibility by powers of 2 of the class number h of the quadratic fields $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\pm p})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\pm 2p})$, as well as the values of the norm e of the fundamental unit ϵ of real quadratic fields $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$. Our first theorem is a well-known result from Gauss genus theory [6].

Theorem 1. *Let k be a quadratic number field whose discriminant is divisible by t distinct primes. Then the dimension of the 2-torsion of the narrow class group of k as an \mathbb{F}_2 -vector space is $t - 1$.*

This implies that $2^{t-1} | h^+$ when $t > 1$ and that h and h^+ are odd when $t = 1$.

The following theorem is a summary of the results of Rédei and Reichardt [15] and Basilla [2] which are related to this paper.

Theorem 2. *Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{m})$ be a quadratic field with narrow class number h^+ and let p be an odd prime.*

1. *For $m = p$, $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$: 4 does not divide h^+ .*
2. *For $m = 2p$: $4 | h^+$ if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ and $8 | h^+$ if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$, $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$.*
3. *For $m = -p$, $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$: $4 | h^+$ if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ and $8 | h^+$ if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = 1$.*
4. *For $m = -2p$: $4 | h^+$ if and only if $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}$ and $8 | h^+$ if and only if $p \equiv 15 \pmod{16}$, or if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$.*

The next theorem follows from the approach of Nemenzo [14] and Basilla [2] in their papers. This will be useful for determining e and the relation of h and h^+ in cases where Theorems 1 and 2 are not enough.

Theorem 3. *Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{m})$ be a quadratic field with integer ring \mathcal{O}_k , class number h , and narrow class number h^+ . If the principal ideal (\sqrt{m}) is in the same narrow ideal class as \mathcal{O}_k , then $h^+ = h$. Otherwise, $h^+ = 2h$.*

The implication of these three theorems on the divisibility by powers of 2 of the class number h of the four quadratic fields $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\pm p})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\pm 2p})$ is summarized in Tables 3 and 4.

	$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p})$	$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$
$p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$	h odd, $e = 1$	h odd, $e = 1$
$p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$	h odd, $e = -1$	$2 h$, $e = -1$
$p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$	h odd, $e = -1$	$\begin{cases} 2 h, e = 1 & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1, \\ 4 h, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1, e = 1 \\ 8 h, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1, e = -1 \end{cases}$
$p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$	h odd, $e = -1$	$\begin{cases} 2 h, e = 1 & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1 \\ 4 h, e = -1 & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1 \end{cases}$

Table 3: Value of e and Divisibility by 2^n of h for $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p})$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$

	$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p})$	$\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2p})$
$p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$	h odd	$\begin{cases} 2 h, & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{8} \\ 4 h, & \text{if } p \equiv 7 \pmod{16} \\ 8 h, & \text{if } p \equiv 15 \pmod{16} \end{cases}$
$p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$	$2 h$	$2 h$
$p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$	$\begin{cases} 4 h, & \text{if } \left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = -1 \\ 8 h, & \text{if } \left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = 1 \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} 4 h, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1 \\ 8 h, & \text{if } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1 \end{cases}$

Table 4: Divisibility by 2^n of h for $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p})$ and $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2p})$

To illustrate how tables 3 and 4 were constructed, consider the quadratic field $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$ where $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$. Note that the discriminant $d = 8p$ is divisible by 2 primes. Thus, $2|h^+$ by Theorem 1. For the case where $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1$, we have $4||h^+$ by #2 of Theorem 2. Furthermore, it was shown in section 4 of the paper of Basilla [2] that $(\sqrt{2p})$ is not in the same narrow ideal class as \mathcal{O}_k . Hence, $h^+ = 2h$ by Theorem 3, and it follows that h is odd and $e = 1$. On the other hand, for the case where $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$, $8|h^+$ by #2 of Theorem 2. It follows from the relation of h and h^+ that $4|h$ if $e = 1$ while $8|h$ if $e = -1$. The other cases were done similarly.

Notice that our results in Tables 1 and 2, together with the information we summarized in Tables 3 and 4, subsumes the following theorem of Kucera [11].

Theorem 4. *Let p be a prime such that $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let h and h_1 be the class numbers*

of $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{2})$ and $k_1 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$, respectively, and let e be the norm of the fundamental unit of k_1 .

1. If $p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$, then h is odd, $h_1 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ and $e = -1$.
2. Let us suppose $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ and fix $v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $v^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{p}$. Then the following assertions hold true:
 - (a) if $\left(\frac{v}{p}\right) \neq (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{8}}$, then h is odd, $h_1 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ and $e = 1$;
 - (b) if $\left(\frac{v}{p}\right) = -1$ and $p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$, then h is even, $h_1 \equiv 4 \pmod{8}$ and $e = -1$;
 - (c) if $\left(\frac{v}{p}\right) = 1$ and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$, then h is even and $4|h_1$ (resp. $8|h_1$ whenever $e = -1$).

Note also that there is a relation between $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8$ and $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4$ appearing in the last row of Table 4.

Proposition 5. *Let p be a prime such that $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$. Then*

$$\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{16} \\ -\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4, & \text{if } p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}. \end{cases}$$

This is an implication of the following lemma.

Lemma 6. *Let p be a prime such that $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$. Then*

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)_8 = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{16} \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}. \end{cases}$$

Proof. Recall that

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

This shows that $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1$ if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)_4 = 1 &\iff a^4 \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \text{ for some integer } a \text{ with } p \nmid a \\
&\iff b^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \text{ where } b \equiv a^2 \pmod{p} \text{ for some integers } a \text{ and } b \text{ with } p \nmid ab \\
&\iff \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1, \left(\frac{b}{p}\right) = 1 \text{ for some integer } b \text{ with } p \nmid b \text{ such that } b^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \\
&\iff p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, 1 = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right) \equiv b^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv (b^2)^{\frac{p-1}{4}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{4}} \pmod{p} \\
&\quad \text{for some integer } b \text{ with } p \nmid b \text{ such that } b^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p} \\
&\iff p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}, \text{ since } (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{4}} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}
\end{aligned}$$

This shows that

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)_4 = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

In a very similar manner, it can be shown that

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)_8 = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{16} \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}. \end{cases}$$

□

Proposition 5 follows from the fact that $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)_8 \left(\frac{4}{p}\right)_8 = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)_8 \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4$ and Lemma 6.

In the following three sections, we present a mechanism for determining the value of Q . The bulk of this work was already compiled by Damasco [5].

3 On the integral multiples of the fundamental unit as squares of integers of real quadratic fields

Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{m})$ be a real quadratic field, for some squarefree integer $m > 0$, and let x and y be integers such that

$$\epsilon = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(x + y\sqrt{m}), x \equiv y \pmod{2}, & \text{if } m \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ x + y\sqrt{m}, & \text{if } m \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

is the fundamental unit of k with norm e . Damasco [5] showed that there exists a squarefree integer $r \notin \{1, m\}$ such that $\sqrt{r}\epsilon \in \mathcal{O}_k$ if and only if $e = 1$. Moreover, Barrucand and Cohn [1, 4] showed that there are exactly two such integers and they are described in the following theorem.

Theorem 7. *Let r_1 and r_2 be distinct squarefree integers such that $\sqrt{r_i\epsilon} \in \mathcal{O}_k$ for $i = 1, 2$.*

1. *If $m \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ and y is odd, then r_i is even and $\frac{r_i}{2}|m$ for $i = 1, 2$ and $r_1r_2 = 4m$.*
2. *Otherwise, $r_i|m$ for $i = 1, 2$ and $r_1r_2 = m$.*

4 Determining Q for real bicyclic biquadratic fields

Let K be a real bicyclic biquadratic field and let ϵ_i be the fundamental unit of its quadratic subfields k_i with norm e_i ($i = 1, 2, 3$). Hence, $Q = 1, 2$, or 4 . According to the following theorem of Kuroda [12, 16, 5], we can determine the value of Q by determining the generators for \mathcal{O}_K^\times modulo $\{\pm 1\}$.

Theorem 8. *Up to some permutation of indices, the generators for \mathcal{O}_K^\times modulo $\{\pm 1\}$ is one of the following:*

$$\begin{array}{lll}
 (a) \ \epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3 & (d) \ \epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \sqrt{\epsilon_1\epsilon_2\epsilon_3} & (g) \ \epsilon_1, \sqrt{\epsilon_1\epsilon_2}, \sqrt{\epsilon_1\epsilon_3} \\
 (b) \ \epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \sqrt{\epsilon_3} & (e) \ \epsilon_1, \sqrt{\epsilon_2}, \sqrt{\epsilon_3} & \\
 (c) \ \epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \sqrt{\epsilon_1\epsilon_3} & (f) \ \epsilon_1, \sqrt{\epsilon_2}, \sqrt{\epsilon_1\epsilon_3} &
 \end{array}$$

The corresponding values of Q are as follows: $Q = 1$ for case (a), $Q = 2$ for cases (b) to (d), and $Q = 4$ for cases (e) to (g).

Furthermore, we can use the contrapositives of the statements in the following lemma of Kuroda [5, 12, 16] to eliminate some of the possible generators for \mathcal{O}_K^\times modulo $\{\pm 1\}$ listed in Theorem 8.

Lemma 9. *Let $i, j \in \{1, 2, 3\}, i \neq j$.*

1. *If $\sqrt{\epsilon_i} \in K$, then $e_i = 1$.*
2. *If $\sqrt{\epsilon_i\epsilon_j} \in K$, then $e_i = e_j = 1$.*
3. *If $\sqrt{\epsilon_1\epsilon_2\epsilon_3} \in K$, then $e_1 = e_2 = e_3 = \pm 1$.*

Moreover, we will use the following lemma of Sime [16] when $e_i = -1$ for each i .

Lemma 10. *Let $k_i = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{m_i})$ be the quadratic subfields of the real biquadratic field K with $e_i = -1$ for each $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. Then there exists a squarefree integer r dividing $\sqrt{m_1m_2m_3}$ such that $\sqrt{r\epsilon_1\epsilon_2\epsilon_3} \in K$.*

We now determine the value of Q for the real bicyclic biquadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{2})$.

Proposition 11. *Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{2})$. Then*

$$Q = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ 4, & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

Proof. The quadratic subfields of K are $k_1 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p})$, $k_2 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$, and $k_3 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$.

Moreover, since K is real, then $H = \frac{Q}{4}h_1h_3$ by Equation (1), where $Q \in \{1, 2, 4\}$. Let us first consider $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Since h_1 and h_3 are odd, it follows that $Q = 4$ and H is odd.

Now, if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, we have $e_1 = e_2 = -1$. It follows from Lemma 9 that $\sqrt{\epsilon_1}, \sqrt{\epsilon_2}, \sqrt{\epsilon_1\epsilon_2}, \sqrt{\epsilon_1\epsilon_3}, \sqrt{\epsilon_2\epsilon_3} \notin K$. Hence, we are left with cases (a), (b) and (d) in Theorem 8 as possible generators for \mathcal{O}_K^\times modulo $\{\pm 1\}$. We now show that $Q = 2$ whether $e_3 = 1$ or $e_3 = -1$. First, let us suppose $e_3 = 1$. If r is a squarefree integer such that $\sqrt{r\epsilon_3} \in \mathcal{O}_{k_3}$, then $r|2p$ and $r \notin \{1, 2p\}$ by Theorem 7. It follows that $r \in \{2, p\}$. In any case, $\sqrt{r} \in K$. Thus, $\sqrt{\epsilon_3} \in K$. Hence, $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \sqrt{\epsilon_3}$ are the generators for \mathcal{O}_K^\times modulo $\{\pm 1\}$ and $Q = 2$. On the other hand, suppose $e_3 = -1$. By Lemma 10, if r is a squarefree integer such that $\sqrt{r\epsilon_1\epsilon_2\epsilon_3} \in K$, then $r|2p$. It follows that $r \in \{1, 2, p, 2p\}$. In any case, $\sqrt{r} \in K$. Thus, $\sqrt{\epsilon_1\epsilon_2\epsilon_3} \in K$. Hence, $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \sqrt{\epsilon_1\epsilon_2\epsilon_3}$ are the generators for \mathcal{O}_K^\times modulo $\{\pm 1\}$ and $Q = 2$. \square

5 Determining Q for imaginary bicyclic biquadratic fields

Let K be an imaginary bicyclic biquadratic field with real quadratic subfield k . Hence, $Q = 1$ or 2 . Let ϵ be the fundamental unit of k with norm e . When $e = -1$, the value of Q is determined by the following remark by Brown and Parry [3].

Theorem 12. *If $e = -1$ and $K \neq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-1}, \sqrt{-2})$, then $Q = 1$.*

But when $e = 1$, we use the following result of Kuroda and Kubota [4, 10, 12] to determine Q .

Theorem 13. *Suppose $e = 1$.*

- (a) *If $\sqrt{-1}$ or $\sqrt{-2}$ is in K , then $Q = 1$ if and only if $\sqrt{2}\epsilon \notin \mathcal{O}_k$.*
- (b) *If $\sqrt{-3}$ is in K and $K \neq \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-1}, \sqrt{-3})$, then $Q = 1$ if and only if $\sqrt{3}\epsilon \notin \mathcal{O}_k$.*
- (c) *If none of $\sqrt{-1}, \sqrt{-2}, \sqrt{-3}$ is in K and $\sqrt{-n} \in K$ for some positive squarefree integer n , then $Q = 1$ if and only if $\sqrt{n}\epsilon \notin \mathcal{O}_k$.*

In the propositions that will follow, p denotes an odd prime. We now apply the criteria above together with Theorem 7 and Table 3 to determine the value of Q for the imaginary bicyclic biquadratic fields $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}, \sqrt{2})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{-2})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}, \sqrt{-2})$.

Proposition 14. *Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}, \sqrt{2})$. Then $Q = 1$.*

Proof. Here, $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ with $\epsilon = 1 + \sqrt{2}$. Since $e = -1$, then $Q = 1$ by Theorem 12. \square

Proposition 15. *Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{-2})$. Then*

$$Q = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ 2, & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

Proof. Here, $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p})$. If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $e = -1$ by Table 3, and so $Q = 1$ by Theorem 12. On the other hand, if $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then $e = 1$. Since $\sqrt{-2} \in K$, then by Theorem 13(a), $Q = 1$ if and only if $\sqrt{2\epsilon} \notin \mathcal{O}_k$. By Theorem 7, if r is a squarefree integer such that $\sqrt{r\epsilon} \in \mathcal{O}_k$, then $\frac{r}{2}|p$. Since $r \notin \{1, m\}$ and $m = p$ here, then $r \in \{2, 2p\}$. Thus, $\sqrt{2\epsilon}, \sqrt{2p\epsilon} \in \mathcal{O}_k$ and, hence, $Q \neq 1$. \square

Proposition 16. *Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}, \sqrt{-2})$ and let ϵ be the fundamental unit of $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$ with norm e . Then*

$$Q = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } e = -1 \\ 2, & \text{if } e = 1. \end{cases}$$

Proof. From Table 3, it can be seen that e may be 1 or -1 for $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$. If $e = -1$, then $Q = 1$ by Theorem 12. But if $e = 1$, since $\sqrt{-2} \in K$, it follows from Theorem 13(a) that $Q = 1$ if and only if $\sqrt{2\epsilon} \notin \mathcal{O}_k$. However, by Theorem 7, if r is a squarefree integer such that $\sqrt{r\epsilon} \in \mathcal{O}_k$, then $r|2p$. Since $r \notin \{1, m\}$ and $m = 2p$ here, then $r \in \{2, p\}$. Thus, $\sqrt{2\epsilon}, \sqrt{p\epsilon} \in \mathcal{O}_k$ and, hence, $Q \neq 1$. \square

6 Main Results

We now give the sufficient and necessary conditions for the class number H of the bicyclic biquadratic field $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\pm p}, \sqrt{\pm 2})$, p an odd prime, to be divisible by a power of 2. In the propositions that will follow, for $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, we denote by e_i the norm of the fundamental unit ϵ_i of the real quadratic subfield k_i of K and by h_i the class number of k_i .

Proposition 17. *Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{2})$ with quadratic subfields $k_1 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p})$, $k_2 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ and $k_3 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$. Then 2 divides H if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ and $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{8}}$. Equivalently, 2 divides H if and only if either*

(i) $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$ and $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$, or

(ii) $p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$ and $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1$.

Moreover, if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$, $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$ and $e_3 = -1$, then 4 divides H .

Proof. If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then H is odd (see proof of Proposition 11). For $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, we have $H = \frac{1}{2}h_1h_3$ by equation (1) and Proposition 11, and we know that h_1 is odd by Table 3. By knowing the divisibility of h_3 by some power of 2, we will be able to know that of H .

Let us consider two subcases for $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$: $p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$ and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$. If $p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$, then $2|h_3$ by Table 3; thus, H is odd. On the other hand, if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, it follows from Table 3 that $4|h_3$ (hence $2|H$) if and only if either $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$, $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$ or $p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$, $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1$. Moreover, if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$, $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$ and $e_3 = -1$, then $8|h_3$ (hence $4|H$). \square

Proposition 18. *Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}, \sqrt{2})$. Then*

- (a) 2 divides H if and only if either $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ or $p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$,
- (b) 4 divides H if and only if either $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ or $p \equiv 15 \pmod{16}$.

Moreover,

- (c) 8 divides H if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$; in addition, if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$ and $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1$, then 16 does not divide H ,
- (d) 16 divides H if $p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$,
- (e) 32 divides H if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$ and $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$.

Proof. Let $k_1 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p})$, $k_2 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ and $k_3 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2p})$. By equation (1) and Proposition 14, we have $H = \frac{1}{2}h_1h_3$. If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, h_1 is odd by Table 4. Also by Table 4, $4|h_3$ (hence $2|H$) if and only if $p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$ and $8|h_3$ (hence $4|H$) if and only if $p \equiv 15 \pmod{16}$.

On the other hand, for $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, $2|h_1$ and $2|h_3$ (hence $2|H$) by Table 4. Moreover, $4|h_1$ and $4|h_3$ (hence $8|H$) if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$. Furthermore, for $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, $8|h_1$ if and only if $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = 1$ and $8|h_3$ if and only if $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$. By the relation between $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8$ and $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4$ in Proposition 5, it can be deduced that $16|H$ if $p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$, while for $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$, we have $8||H$ if $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1$ but $32|H$ if $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$. \square

Proposition 19. *Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p}, \sqrt{-2})$. Then*

- (a) 2 divides H if and only if either $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ or $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$,
- (b) 4 divides H if and only if either

- (i) $p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$, or
 (ii) $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ and $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$.

Moreover, if $p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$, then 8 divides H if and only if $p \equiv 15 \pmod{16}$.

Proof. Let $k_1 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{p})$, $k_2 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2})$ and $k_3 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2p})$. By equation (1) and Proposition 15, we have

$$H = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}h_1h_3, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ h_1h_3, & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

Note also that h_1 is odd by Table 3. Thus, we are left to find the divisibility of h_3 by some power of 2 in order to find that of H and we do that by using Table 4.

For $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, we have $2|h_3$ (hence $2|H$). Moreover, $4|h_3$ (hence $4|H$) if and only if $p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$, and $8|h_3$ (hence $8|H$) if and only if $p \equiv 15 \pmod{16}$. On the other hand, for $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, $4|h_3$ (hence $2|H$) if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, and $8|h_3$ (hence $4|H$) if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ and $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$. \square

Proposition 20. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p}, \sqrt{-2})$. Then

- (a) 2 divides H if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$; in addition, if $p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$, then 4 does not divide H ,
 (b) 8 divides H if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$,
 (c) 16 divides H if and only if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ and $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = 1$.

Moreover, if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$ and $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = 1$, then 32 divides H .

Proof. Let $k_1 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-p})$, $k_2 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2})$ and $k_3 = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2p})$. By equation (1) and Proposition 16, we have

$$H = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}h_1h_3, & \text{if } e_3 = -1 \\ h_1h_3, & \text{if } e_3 = 1. \end{cases}$$

We now use Tables 3 and 4 to find the values of e_3 , h_1 and h_3 for each type of primes being considered. First, let us consider $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Here, $e_3 = 1$ and both h_1 and h_3 are odd. Hence, H is odd. Next, let us consider $p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$. Here, $e_3 = -1$, $2||h_1$ and $2||h_3$, and hence $2||H$.

Lastly, consider $p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$. Here, $4||h_1$ if $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = -1$ but $8|h_1$ if $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = 1$. Let us consider its two subcases: $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$ and $p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$. For $p \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$,

we have $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4$ by Proposition 5. If $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1$, then $e_3 = 1$, $4||h_1$, $2||h_3$ (hence $8||H$). On the other hand, if $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$, then e_3 may be equal to 1 or -1. If $e_3 = 1$, then $8|h_1$, $4|h_3$ (hence $32|H$); while if $e_3 = -1$, then $8|h_1$, $8|h_3$ (hence $32|H$). Now, for the second subcase $p \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$, we have $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right)_8 = -\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4$ by Proposition 5. If $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = 1$, then $e_3 = 1$, $4||h_1$, $2||h_3$ (hence $8||H$). On the other hand, if $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)_4 = -1$, then $e_3 = -1$, $8|h_1$, $4|h_3$ (hence $16|H$). \square

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