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**ON THE CHARACTERISTIC ROOTS OF THE PRODUCT OF
CERTAIN RATIONAL INTEGRAL MATRICES OF ORDER TWO**

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This paper deals with a special case of the following problem: Let A, B be matrices of order n over the rational integers. Compare the algebraic number field generated by the characteristic roots of AB with those generated by A, B .

We let $M(r, s)$ denote the companion matrix of $x^2 + rx + s$, for rational integers r and s , and let $N(r, s) = M(r, s)(M(r, s))'$. Further let $F(M(r, s))$ and $F(N(r, s))$ denote the fields generated by the characteristic roots of $M(r, s)$ and $N(r, s)$ over the rational field, R . This paper is concerned with $F(N(r, s))$, especially in relation to $F(M(r, s))$. The principal results obtained are outlined as follows:

Let S be the set of square-free integers which are sums of two squares. Then $F(N(r, s))$ is of the form $R(\sqrt{c})$, where $c \in S$. Further, $F(N(r, s)) = R$ if and only if $rs = 0$. Suppose $c \in S$. Then there exist infinitely many distinct pairs of integers (r, s) such that $F(N(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{c})$.

Further, if $c \in S$, there exists an infinite sequence $\{(r_n, s_n)\}$ of distinct pairs of integers such that $F(M(r_n, s_n)) = R(\sqrt{c})$ and $F(N(r_n, s_n)) = R(\sqrt{cd_n})$ for some integers d_n such that $(c, d_n) = 1$. If $c \in S$ and c is odd or $c = 2$, there exists an infinite sequence $\{(r'_n, s'_n)\}$ of distinct pairs of integers such that $F(N(r'_n, s'_n)) = R(\sqrt{c})$ and $F(M(r'_n, s'_n)) = R(\sqrt{cd'_n})$ for some integers d'_n such that $(c, d'_n) = 1$.

There are five known pairs of integers (r, s) with $rs \neq 0$ and $s \neq -1$ such that $F(M(r, s))$ and $F(N(r, s))$ coincide. For $s \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ and for certain odd integers s the fields $F(M(r, s))$ and $F(N(r, s))$ cannot coincide for any integers r .

Finally, for any integer $r \neq 0$ (or $s \neq 0, -1$) there exist at most a finite number of integers s (or r) such that the two fields coincide.

Let $A = (a_{ij})$ be a matrix of order n with elements in the complex field. We say A is *normal* if and only if $\bar{A}'A = A\bar{A}'$ where $\bar{A}' = (\bar{a}_{ji})$. It is known that if A is normal, with characteristic roots λ_i , $i = 1, \dots, n$, then¹ the characteristic roots of $A\bar{A}'$ are given by $\lambda_i \cdot \bar{\lambda}_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. Conversely, if the characteristic roots of $A\bar{A}'$ can be written as $\lambda_i \cdot \bar{\lambda}_{\delta_i}$, $i = 1, \dots, n$, where $\{\delta_1, \dots, \delta_n\}$ is some permuta-

¹ This follows immediately from Theorem 1, [1].

tion of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ then A is normal.² Hence it seems of interest to study the characteristic roots of $A\bar{A}'$ in comparison with the characteristic roots of A in the case of nonnormal matrices A . Results are known which compare the magnitudes of these roots. Here a different point of view is adopted. The matrices A are restricted to a set of matrices of order two over the rational integers, I , and the algebraic number fields in which the characteristic roots of A and $A\bar{A}'$ lie are compared.

Specifically, we let $M(r, s)$ denote the companion matrix of the polynomial $x^2 + rx + s$ and consider the set $\{M(r, s) \mid r, s \in I\}$. We define $N(r, s) = M(r, s) \cdot (M(r, s))'$. We observe that $M(0, 1)$ is normal and $M(r, -1)$ is normal (and in fact symmetric) for all $r \in I$. Otherwise, $M(r, s)$ is nonnormal.

We define functions $\delta(r, s)$ and $\Delta(r, s)$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta(r, s) &= r^2 - 4s \\ \Delta(r, s) &= (r^2 + s^2 + 1)^2 - 4s^2.\end{aligned}$$

We note that $\Delta(r, s)$ can also be expressed in the forms

$$(r^2 + (s + 1)^2)(r^2 + (s - 1)^2), \quad 4r^2s^2 + (r^2 - s^2 + 1)^2,$$

and $4r^2 + (r^2 + s^2 - 1)^2$. We denote the fields which the characteristic roots of $M(r, s)$ and $N(r, s)$ generate over the rational number field, R , by $F(M(r, s))$ and $F(N(r, s))$, respectively. Then $F(M(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{\delta(r, s)})$ and $F(N(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{\Delta(r, s)})$. We define $g_s(r, s)$ to be the square-free part of $\delta(r, s)$ if $\delta(r, s) \neq 0$, and $g_s(r, s) = 1$ otherwise. Similarly, we define $g_\Delta(r, s)$. This work is therefore concerned with the relationships between $g_s(r, s)$ and $g_\Delta(r, s)$. Clearly $F(M(r, s))$ and $F(N(r, s))$ coincide if and only if $g_s(r, s) = g_\Delta(r, s)$.

Many of the conjectures proven in this work were suggested by calculations performed on the IBM 7090 computer. The question of the number of pairs (r, s) , with $s \neq -1$ and $rs \neq 0$, such that $F(M(r, s))$ and $F(N(r, s))$ coincide is still unanswered. (We can easily see that $g_s(r, -1) = g_\Delta(r, -1)$ and $g_s(r, 0) = g_\Delta(r, 0)$ for all $r \in I$. Also, $g_s(0, s) = g_\Delta(0, s)$ if and only if³ $s = -\square$.) The computer data and a number of results lead us to conjecture that there exist only finitely many pairs (r, s) satisfying these conditions.

1. The Nature of $F(N(r, s))$. We will conclude in this section that the set of fields $\{F(N(r, s)) \mid rs \neq 0\}$ is precisely the set $\{R(\sqrt{c}) \mid c = a^2 + b^2 \neq 1\}$. We first note

² This was proven by A.J. Hoffman and O. Taussky, [2].

³ In this paper, " \square " will always denote an integral square.

THEOREM 1.1. $g_d(r, s) = 1$ if and only if $rs = 0$.

Proof. Without restricting generality, we assume $r, s \geq 0$. We observe that $\Delta(r, s) = (r^2 + s^2 - 1)^2 + 4r^2 = (r^2 + s^2)^2 + 2(r^2 - s^2) + 1$ and that $(r^2 + s^2 + 1)^2 = (r^2 + s^2)^2 + 2(r^2 + s^2) + 1$. Hence if $r > s > 0$ we have $(r^2 + s^2)^2 < \Delta(r, s) < (r^2 + s^2 + 1)^2$, while if $0 < r < s$ we have $(r^2 + s^2 - 1)^2 < \Delta(r, s) < (r^2 + s^2)^2$. Also, $\Delta(r, r) = 4r^4 + 1$. Hence $\Delta(r, s) \neq \square$ for $rs \neq 0$ and the necessity of the condition is proven. To prove sufficiency we observe that $\Delta(0, s) = (s^2 - 1)^2$ and $\Delta(r, 0) = (r^2 + 1)^2$.

Since $g_d(r, s)$ is the square-free part of $4r^2s^2 + (r^2 - s^2 + 1)^2$, we conclude that $g_d(r, s)$ is of the form $a^2 + b^2$, where a and b are relatively prime integers, and, $ab = 0$ if and only if $rs = 0$. The next theorem demonstrates that each form with $ab \neq 0$ is represented by some $g_d(r, s)$. We prove, in fact, rather more. We first recall the following lemma:

LEMMA.⁴ Let $d > 1$ be an integer of the form $\prod P_i^{a_i}$ where each prime P_i is of the form $4N + 1$. Then there exists at least one pair of integers (a, b) such that $d = a^2 + b^2$ and $(a, b) = 1$.

THEOREM 1.2. (i) Let $c = a^2 + b^2 \neq \square$. Then there exists a sequence $\{(r_n, s_n)\}$, $1 \leq n < \infty$, such that $r_n < r_{n+1}$, $s_n < s_{n+1}$, and $\Delta(r_n, s_n) = c \cdot \square$.

(ii) Further, if c is a product of primes of the form $4N + 1$, there exists a sequence $\{(r'_n, s'_n)\}$, $1 \leq n < \infty$, such that

$$r'_n < r'_{n+1}, s'_n < s'_{n+1}, \Delta(r'_n, s'_n) = c \cdot \square$$

and $\delta(r'_n, s'_n) = cd_n \cdot \square$, where d_n is some integer relatively prime to c .

Proof. Let $f_0 + g_0\sqrt{c}$ denote any solution of the equation $f^2 - cg^2 = 1, f_0, g_0 > 0$. Write $c = \prod_{i=1}^m P_i^{\beta_i}$ where the primes P_i are distinct and each $\beta_i > 0$. Further, write $g_0 = k \prod_{i=1}^m P_i^{\alpha_i}$, where each $\alpha_i \geq 0$ and $(k, c) = 1$. Define $c' = g_0/k$ and $d = (c')^2 c$. Then we have

$$(1.1) \quad f_0^2 - k^2 d = f_0^2 - g_0^2 c = 1.$$

We define $f_n + g_n\sqrt{d} = (f_0 + k\sqrt{d})^{2n}$ and $x_n + y_n\sqrt{d} = (f_n + g_n\sqrt{d})^2 = f_n^2 + g_n^2 d + 2f_n g_n\sqrt{d}$, $n \geq 1$, so that $f_n^2 - g_n^2 d = 1 = x_n^2 - y_n^2 d$, $x_n = f_{2n}$, and $y_n = g_{2n}$. Clearly $x_n > x_{n-1}$ and $y_n > y_{n-1}$, $n > 1$. We can write $d = a_1^2 + b_1^2$ for some integers $a_1, b_1 > 0$. If each $P_i \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ then by the lemma we can choose a_1 and b_1 to be relatively prime. We

⁴ A proof of this result can be found in [3], pp. 164-6.

now define

$$\begin{aligned} u_n + v_n\sqrt{d} &= (d + b_1\sqrt{d})(x_n + y_n\sqrt{d}) \\ &= d(x_n + b_1y_n) + (b_1x_n + dy_n)\sqrt{d}, n \geq 1. \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that

$$(1.2) \quad u_n^2 - v_n^2d = d^2 - b_1^2d.$$

Further, $u_n \equiv 0, v_n \equiv b_1 \pmod{d}$, since $x_n \equiv f_n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$, $n \geq 1$. It follows that $2u_n/d, 2(v_n - b_1)/d$ are integers which we shall denote by m_n, k_n , respectively, $n \geq 1$. Clearly $u_n > u_{n-1}$ so that $k_n > k_{n-1}$. From (1.2) we have $4d^2 - 4b_1^2d = dm_n^2 - d(dk_n + 2b_1)^2$. Simplifying and dividing by d^2 , we get

$$(1.3) \quad dk_n^2 + 4b_1k_n + 4 = m_n^2.$$

We now define

$$r_n = k_na_1, s_n = k_nb_1 + 1, \quad n \geq 1.$$

Then $r_n < r_{n+1}, s_n < s_{n+1}, r_n^2 + (s_n - 1)^2 = k_n^2d$, and $r_n^2 + (s_n + 1)^2 = m_n^2$, from (1.3). Clearly $\Delta(r_n, s_n) = d \cdot \square = c \cdot \square, n \geq 1$, so that (i) is proven.

Let us suppose that each $P_i \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and that we have chosen a_1, b_1 to be relatively prime. We observe that

$$(1.4) \quad f_n \equiv 1 \pmod{d}, \quad n \geq 1.$$

For, $f_1 = f_0 + k^2d = 2k^2d + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$ by (1.1). Also, if $f_{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$, then $f_n = f_{n-1}f_1 + g_{n-1}g_1d \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$. We also observe that

$$(1.5) \quad (g_1, d) = (2f_0k, d) = (2f_0, d) = 1,$$

by (1.1) and the fact that d is odd. Further, we show by induction that

$$(1.6) \quad g_n \equiv ng_1 \pmod{d}, \quad n \geq 1.$$

We assume that $g_{n-1} \equiv (n-1)g_1 \pmod{d}, n \geq 2$. Then

$$g_n = g_{n-1}f_1 + f_{n-1}g_1 \equiv g_{n-1} + g_1 \equiv ng_1 \pmod{d}$$

by (1.4) and the induction is complete. We consider the equation $f(y) = y^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{P_i}, i = 1, \dots, m$. Since each $P_i \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, we can find a solution y_i to this equation, for each i . Then we can choose⁵ integers y'_i such that $y'_i \equiv y_i \pmod{P_i}, f(y'_i) \equiv 0 \pmod{P_i^{2\alpha_i + \beta_i}}$, since $f'(y_i) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{P_i}, i = 1, \dots, m$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem we can choose z such that $z \equiv y'_i \pmod{P_i^{2\alpha_i + \beta_i}}$ for all i , and

⁵ For a proof of this statement, see for instance [4], page 87.

hence

$$(1.7) \quad z^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{d}.$$

Since $(2b_1, d) = 1$, by (1.5) and (1.6) it is clear that the integers $2b_1g_{td+i}$, $i = 1, \dots, d$, represent a complete residue system modulo d , for any integer $t \geq 0$. Hence we can choose an integer $N > 0$ such that $2b_1g_N \equiv 2b_1g_{td+N} \equiv z - 1 \pmod{d}$, for every $t \geq 0$. Then

$$(2b_1g_{td+N} + 1)^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{d}$$

by (1.7). Moreover

$$(1.8) \quad \begin{aligned} \delta(r_{td+N}, s_{td+N}) &= -(k_{td+N}b_1 + 2)^2 + k_{td+N}^2d \\ &= -(k_{td+N}b_1 + 2)^2 \pmod{d} \end{aligned}$$

In general, we can show that

$$\begin{aligned} k_n &= 2(b_1x_n + dy_n - b_1)/d \\ &= 2(b_1(f_n^2 + g_n^2d - 1)/d + 2f_ng_n) \equiv 4(b_1g_n^2 + g_n) \pmod{d}, \end{aligned}$$

using (1.4). Hence

$$(1.9) \quad k_{td+N}b_1 + 2 \equiv (2b_1g_{td+N} + 1)^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{d},$$

so that by (1.8), $\delta(r_{td+N}, s_{td+N}) \equiv 0 \pmod{d}$, $t \geq 0$. We can show that $((\delta(r_{td+N}, s_{td+N}))/d, d) = 1$. For, assume the contrary. Then

$$P_i^{2\alpha_i + \beta_{i+1}} \mid \delta(r_{td+N}, s_{td+N}),$$

for some i . By (1.9) we know that $P_i^{2(\alpha_i + \beta_i)} \mid (k_{td+N}b_1 + 2)^2$. Hence, by (1.8), $P_i^{2\alpha_i + \beta_{i+1}} \mid k_{td+N}^2d$ so that $P_i \mid k_{td+N}$. This is however a contradiction by (1.9). Hence $\delta(r_{td+N}, s_{td+N}) = dd'_{t+1} = cd'_{t+1} \cdot \square$ where $(d'_{t+1}, c) = (d_{t+1}, c) = 1$, $t \geq 0$. If we set $m = (n-1)d + N$, $r'_n = r_m$, $s'_n = s_m$, the proof of (ii) is complete.

2. Further relations between $F(M(r, s))$ and $F(N(r, s))$. The following theorems are concerned with various comparisons of the fields $F(M(r, s))$ and $F(N(r, s))$. We observe from Theorem 1.2 (ii) that, for every square-free odd integer $c = a^2 + b^2$ there exist infinitely many pairs (r, s) , $rs \neq 0$, $s \neq -1$, such that $g_d(r, s) \mid g_s(r, s)$ and $g_d(r, s) = c$. In this section we will demonstrate that if $c = a^2 + b^2$ is a square-free integer then there exist infinitely many pairs (r, s) , $rs \neq 0$, $s \neq -1$, such that $g_d(r, s) \mid g_s(r, s)$ and $g_s(r, s) = c$. We first prove the following theorem, which essentially states the conclusion of Theorem 1.2 (ii) for the case $c = 2$.

THEOREM 2.1. *There exists a sequence $\{(r_n, s_n)\}$, $1 \leq n < \infty$, of*

pairs of integers such that $g_d(r_n, s_n) = 2$, $g_s(r_n, s_n) = 2d_n$, where d_n is some odd integer and $|s_n| < |s_{n+1}|$, $n \geq 1$.

Proof. Define integers x_n, y_n by the relation $x_n + y_n\sqrt{2} = (1 + \sqrt{2})^{2n-1}$, $n \geq 1$. Then $x_n^2 - 2y_n^2 = -1$ and $x_n \equiv y_n \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$. Also define integers f_n, s_n by the relations: $|f_n| = x_n, |s_n| = y_n, f_n \equiv s_n \equiv -1 \pmod{4}$, $n \geq 1$. Further define $r_n = f_n + s_n$. Then $r_n^2 - s_n^2 + 1 - 2r_n s_n = 0$ so that $\Delta(r_n, s_n) = (r_n^2 - s_n^2 + 1)^2 + 4r_n^2 s_n^2 = 8r_n^2 s_n^2$. Hence $g_d(r_n, s_n) = 2$, $n \geq 1$. Furthermore, $\delta(r_n, s_n) = 4((f_n + s_n)^2/4 - s_n)$, and since $f_n + s_n \equiv -2 \pmod{4}$, we have $\delta(r_n, s_n)/4 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$. Hence $g_s(r_n, s_n) = 2d_n$, where d_n is odd, $n \geq 1$.

We will prove the following theorem:

THEOREM 2.2. *Let $c = a^2 + b^2$ be a square-free integer. Then there exist infinite sequences $\{r_n\}$, $\{s_n\}$, and $\{s'_n\}$, such that $r_n < r_{n+1}$, $s_n \neq 0, -1$, $g_s(r_n, s_n) = c$, $g_d(r_n, s_n) = cc_n$, $g_s(r_n, s'_n) = -c$, and $g_d(r_n, s'_n) = cc'_n$, where c_n and c'_n are integers relatively prime to c , $n = 1, 2, \dots$.*

We first prove three lemmas:

LEMMA 1. *Suppose $c = t^2 u > 0$, u odd. Further suppose that $c \mid r^2 + 4$, for some integer $r > 0$. Then there exists an integer $s \neq 0, -1$ such that $F(M(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{c})$ and $F(N(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{cc'})$, where c' is some integer relatively prime to c .*

Proof. We define an integer f to be c or $c/4$ according as c is odd or even. Now $r^2 + 4 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{16}$ so that it is clear that $f \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. We define an integer $d = (r^2 + 4)/f$. Clearly $d \equiv 0$ or $1 \pmod{4}$. We can therefore define a positive integer k as follows:

$$k = \begin{cases} 2fd + 1 & \text{if } d \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ f(d + 1) + 1 & \text{if } d \equiv 0 \pmod{8} \\ 3f(d + 1) + 1 & \text{if } d \equiv 4 \pmod{8} \end{cases}.$$

Observe that $k^2 \equiv d \pmod{4}$. Define the integer $s = f((d - k^2)/4) - 1$. Evidently $s < -1$. Also, $\delta(r, s) = fk^2$. Furthermore, since $(f, rk) = 1$ it is clear that $\Delta(r, s) = fc_1$, where $c_1 = (k^2 + f((d - k^2)/4)^2)(r^2 + (s + 1)^2)$ and $(c_1, f) = 1$. Hence $F(M(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{c})$, $F(N(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{cc_1})$, and if c is odd, $(c, c_1) = (f, c_1) = 1$ and the proof is complete. If c is even then $k^2 \equiv d \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$, $(d - k^2)/4 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and $r^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$. Hence c_1 is odd and $(c, c_1) = 1$.

LEMMA 2. *Suppose $c = t^2 u > 0$, u odd. Suppose also that $c \mid r^2 + 4$*

for some even integer $r > 0$. Then there exists an integer $s > 0$ such that $F(M(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{-c})$ and $F(N(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{cc_1})$ for some integer c_1 relatively prime to c .

Proof. (Observe that the requirement that r be even is necessary since $c > 0$, $c \mid r^2 + 4$, and $\delta(r, s) \equiv 0$ or $1 \pmod{4}$.) We define an integer $r_1 = r/2$ and define integers f and d as in the preceding proof. We also define an integer $e = d/4$ and can choose an integer $j > 0$ such that $(j, f) = 1$ and $e \not\equiv j \pmod{2}$, since f is odd. The reader may verify that if we choose $s = f(e + j^2) - 1$, the lemma is proven.

LEMMA 3. Suppose $c = 2t^2u > 0$ where u is a square-free odd integer. Suppose also that $c \mid r^2 + 4$ and $\varepsilon = \pm 1$. Then:

(i) If $r^2 + 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$ there exists an integer $s \neq 0, -1$ such that $F(M(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{\varepsilon c})$ and $F(N(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{cc_1})$ where c_1 is some integer relatively prime to c .

(ii) If $r^2 + 4 \equiv 4 \pmod{8}$ there exist no integers s and c_1 such that $F(M(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{\varepsilon c})$, $F(N(r, s)) = R(\sqrt{cc_1})$ and $(c_1, c/t^2) = 1$.

Proof. We can define an integer $r_1 = r/2$. To prove (i) we suppose that $r^2 + 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$ and define integers d and e as in the proof of Lemma 2. We also define $f = c/4$ or c according as $c \equiv 0$ or $c \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$. We can further define an odd integer $f_1 = f/2$ and choose an even integer $j > 0$ so that $(f_1, j) = 1$, $j > 2e$. To complete the proof of (i) we define $s = f(e - \varepsilon j^2) - 1$ and note that $f_1 \equiv 1 \equiv e \pmod{4}$, $r_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$. Details are left to the reader.

To prove (ii) we assume that $r^2 + 4 \equiv 4 \pmod{8}$, and assume the conclusion false. Then there exist integers s and c_1 (we may assume c_1 is square-free) such that

$$(2.1) \quad g_s(r, s) = 2\varepsilon u$$

$$(2.2) \quad g_d(r, s) = 2c_1u, \quad (c_1, 2u) = 1.$$

Define an odd integer $g = (r^2 + 4)/4u$. Then, by (2.1),

$$\delta(r, s) = 4ug - 4(s + 1) = 2k^2u\varepsilon,$$

for some integer $k > 0$. We conclude that $k/2$ is an integer, m say, since u is odd. We also conclude that

$$A(r, s) = u(2k^2\varepsilon + u(g - 2m^2\varepsilon)^2) \cdot (4r_1^2 + u^2(g - 2m^2\varepsilon)^2) \equiv 1 \pmod{2},$$

which contradicts (2.2). Hence (ii) is proven.

Proof of Theorem 2.2. Write $c = \prod_{i=1}^t P_i$ where the P_i are distinct primes of the form $4N + 1$ or 2 . Let x_i be an integer such that $x_i^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{P_i}$, $i = 1, \dots, t$ and choose z such that $z \equiv x_i \pmod{P_i}$,

$i = 1, \dots, t$. Also, define $r_n = 2(z + (n-1)c)$, $n \geq 1$. Clearly $r_n^2 + 4 \equiv 4(z^2 + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{c}$, $n \geq 1$. Assume c is odd. Then by Lemma 1 there exists an integer $s_n \neq 0, -1$ such that $g_\delta(r_n, s_n) = c$ and $g_\Delta(r_n, s_n) = cc_n$, where c_n is some integer relatively prime to c . Further, since r_n is even, by Lemma 2 there exists an integer $s'_n > 0$ such that $g_\delta(r_n, s'_n) = -c$ and $g_\Delta(r_n, s'_n) = cc'_n$, where $(c, c'_n) = 1$. Hence if c is odd the theorem is proven. We assume c is even. Then z is odd so that $r_n/2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ and hence $r_n^2 + 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$, $n \geq 1$. We take $\varepsilon = 1, -1$ successively in Lemma 3 and the theorem is proven.

Taking a different viewpoint we have:

THEOREM 2.3. *For every integer $r > 0$ there exist infinitely many distinct integers s such that $g_\delta(r, s) \mid g_\Delta(r, s)$, $|g_\delta(r, s)| \neq 1$.*

Proof. Assume first that $r \neq 2$. Then, since $r^2 + 4 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{16}$, we know that $r^2 + 4$ has an odd square-free divisor c , say, $c > 1$. We define $d = (r^2 + 4)/c$ and choose an integer $e > 0$ such that $e^2 \equiv d \pmod{4}$ and $(e, c) = 1$. We then define $k_n = 2cn + e$, $n \geq 0$. Clearly $k_n^2 \equiv d \pmod{4}$ and $(k_n, c) = 1$. Hence we can define $s_n = (c(d - k_n^2)/4) - 1$, $n \geq 0$, and, as in the proof of Lemma 1 (with $f = c$), we conclude that $g_\delta(r, s_n) = c$, $g_\Delta(r, s_n) = cc_n$, where c_n is some integer relatively prime to c . Hence if $r \neq 2$ the theorem is proven. In the case $r = 2$ we define $s_n = 1 - 2n^2$, $n \geq 1$, and observe that $\Delta(2, s_n) = 32c'_n$, $\delta(2, s_n) = 2 \cdot \square$, where c'_n is odd.

3. On the coincidence of $F(M(r, s))$ and $F(N(r, s))$. The following known theorem, which is a special case of a theorem by C.L. Siegel [5], will be applied frequently in this section.⁶

THEOREM A. *Let $f(x)$ be a polynomial of degree $n \geq 3$ with integral coefficients and distinct zeros and let A be a nonzero integer. Then the equation $f(x) = Ay^2$ has at most a finite number of integral solutions (x, y) .*

Computations for pairs of integers (r, s) satisfying the inequalities $0 \leq |r| \leq 600$, $0 \leq |s| \leq 800$ revealed five pairs (r, s) with $rs \neq 0$, $s \neq -1$ such that the fields $F(M(r, s))$ and $F(N(r, s))$ coincide. These are: $(r, s) = (6, 7)$, $(14, 47)$, $(11, -76)$, $(141, -236)$ and $(40, 31)$. The corresponding values of $g_\Delta(r, s)$ are: 2, 2, 17, 17, 41. In this section we will prove several theorems which resulted from a study of these five pairs, and which in some sense, limit the number of pairs (r, s) for

⁶ A proof of this theorem is given in [6], pp. 155-7.

which coincidence occurs.

We first observe that in three cases of coincidence we have $\delta(r, s) = 8$. This leads us to inquire if any additional pairs (r, s) exist with these properties. We find

THEOREM 3.1. *Suppose $g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s)$, $\delta(r, s) = 8$, and $r \geq 0$. Then $(r, s) = (2, -1)$, $(6, 7)$, or $(14, 47)$.*

Proof. Under the above hypotheses, $r^2 - 4s = 8$, $r^2 + (s + 1)^2 = (s + 3)^2$, $r^2 + (s - 1)^2 = (s + 1)^2 + 8$, and $\Delta(r, s) = 2 \cdot \square \neq 0$. Hence there exists an integer $k > 0$ such that $(s + 1)^2 + 8 = 2k^2$. Define an integer $x = r/2$. Clearly $(x^2 - 1)^2 + 8 = 2k^2$ so that x is odd and k is even. Define $y = k/2$ and observe that

$$(3.1) \quad ((x^2 - 1)/8)^2 = (y^2 - 1)/8.$$

We can then define⁷ integers u and v by $x = 2u - 1$, $y = 2v - 1$ so that (3.1) becomes $\binom{u}{2}^2 = \binom{v}{2}$. The only solutions⁸ of this equation are $(u, v) = (1, 1)$, $(2, 2)$ and $(4, 9)$ and these solutions correspond to $(r, s) = (2, -1)$, $(6, 7)$, and $(14, 47)$, respectively.

In the preceding theorem we required that $\delta(r, s) = 8$. We now suppose that $\delta(r, s) = K$, a constant. We have:

THEOREM 3.2. *There exist at most a finite number of pairs (r, s) such that $g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s)$ and $\delta(r, s) = K$, a constant.*

Proof. If $K = 0$ the fields coincide only for $(r, s) = (0, 0)$. Hence we assume $K \neq 0$. We may also assume $K \neq 8$, by Theorem 3.1. We write $K = k^2Q$ where Q is square-free. Suppose $g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s)$. Then we must have $\Delta(r, s) = h^2Q$ for some integer h . Since $\delta(r, s) = r^2 - 4s = k^2Q$, this implies

$$(3.2) \quad (k^2Q + 4s + (s + 1)^2) \cdot (k^2Q + (s + 1)^2) = h^2Q.$$

The left-hand side of (3.2) is a polynomial in s of degree four with roots $s = -3 \pm (s - k^2Q)^{1/2}$, $-1 \pm k\sqrt{-Q}$, and, under our hypotheses, these four roots are distinct. Hence by Theorem A we conclude that (3.2) has at most a finite number of solutions (s, h) . This proves the theorem since K and s determine $|r|$ uniquely.

We apply a similar argument to prove the following more interesting result:

⁷ The author is indebted to H. Hasse for this transformation.

⁸ For a proof of this assertion, see [7], pages 202-7.

THEOREM 3.3. *For any integer $s \neq -1, 0$, there exist at most a finite number of integers r such that $g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s)$.*

We require the following lemma:

LEMMA. $g_s(r, 1) \neq g_d(r, 1)$ for all r .

Proof. Suppose the lemma false. Then, for some $r > 0$ there exist integers h, k such that $r^2 - 4 = k^2Q$, $(r^2 + 4)r^2 = h^2Q$, where $Q = g_s(r, 1) = g_d(r, 1) > 0$. We observe that we must have $hk \neq 0$, $r \neq 0$. Since Q is square-free, $r \mid h$. Hence we can define an integer $j = h/r$. Thus we conclude that $8 = (j^2 - k^2)Q$ and $Q = 1$ or 2 . If $Q = 1$ then $r^2 = k^2 + 4$ and if $Q = 2$ then $j^2 = k^2 + 4$ and both equations are impossible since $k \neq 0$.

Proof of Theorem 3.3. By the lemma we may assume $s \neq 1$. Hence let s and Q be fixed integers such that $s \neq 0, \pm 1$ and $Q > 0$ is square-free. Observe that the equation $g_d(r, s) = Q$ has at most a finite number of solutions r . For this equation implies that

$$(3.3) \quad \Delta(r, s) = h^2Q.$$

Now $\Delta(r, s)$ is a polynomial of degree four in r with distinct roots $r = \pm i(s \pm 1)$, ($i = \sqrt{-1}$) and hence for fixed $s \neq \pm 1, 0$, equation (3.3) has at most a finite number of pairs of solutions (r, h) , by Theorem A.

Now observe that for fixed $s \neq -1$ there exist at most a finite number of square-free integers Q such that

$$(3.4) \quad g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s) = Q.$$

For this equation implies, by (3.2), that $(s + 1)^2(s^2 + 6s + 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{Q}$. Combining these results, we have the theorem.

A similar theorem for fixed r is true:

THEOREM 3.4. *For a given integer $r \neq 0$ there exist at most a finite number of integers s such that $g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s)$.*

Proof. We observe that for fixed square-free integers Q and $r > 0$ equation (3.3) has at most a finite number of solutions (s, h) . For, the roots $s = \pm 1 \pm ir$ ($i = \sqrt{-1}$) are distinct and Theorem A applies. Further it is clear that if (3.4) is satisfied then $Q \mid (r^4 + 24r^2 + 16)(r^2 + 4)$. Hence, as above, the theorem is proven.

We observe that the pairs (r, s) such that $g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s)$ have

the property that $s \not\equiv 2 \pmod{4}$. This must always be the case as is seen by the following theorem

THEOREM 3.5. *Suppose $g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s)$. Then $s \not\equiv 2 \pmod{4}$.*

Proof. Suppose the theorem is false, for some (r, s) , $s \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$. Then there exist integers h and k such that

$$(3.5) \quad \delta(r, s) = r^2 - 4s = k^2Q$$

$$(3.6) \quad \Delta(r, s) = (r^2 + (s + 1)^2) \cdot (r^2 + (s - 1)^2) = h^2Q$$

where $Q = g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s) > 0$. We can see by Theorem 1.1 and the fact that $s \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ that $hk \neq 0$. Now Q is a square-free product of primes of the form $4N + 1$ or twice such a product. Hence $Q \equiv 1, 2$ or $5 \pmod{8}$. We show that Q is odd. For, (3.5) and (3.6) imply (3.2) which yields:

$$(k^2Q + 1) \cdot (k^2Q + 1) \equiv h^2Q \pmod{2}$$

since s is even. Hence $Q \equiv 1$ or $5 \pmod{8}$. We assume first that $Q \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$. Equation (3.5) implies $r^2 \equiv 5k^2 \pmod{8}$ so that r is even and $(r^2 + (s + 1)^2) \cdot (r^2 + (s - 1)^2) \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$. This contradicts (3.6). Hence we can assume $Q \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$. We can write

$$(3.7) \quad r^2 + (s + 1)^2 = \beta_1^2 Q_1 n$$

$$(3.8) \quad r^2 + (s - 1)^2 = \beta_2^2 Q_2 n$$

where $\beta_1, \beta_2, Q_1, Q_2, n$ are integers such that $Q_1 Q_2 = Q$ and n is square-free. Combining (3.5) and (3.7) we have $4s + k^2 Q_1 Q_2 + (s + 1)^2 = \beta_1^2 Q_1 n$ so that

$$(3.9) \quad 4s + (s + 1)^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{Q_1}.$$

Similarly, $(s + 1)^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{Q_2}$ so that $Q_2 | s + 1$. Now $Q_1 = \prod P_i$, where the P_i are distinct primes of the form $4N + 1$. We assert that each $P_i \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$. For, let x be the integer $s/2$ and observe that (3.9) implies $(2x + 3)^2 \equiv 8 \pmod{P_i}$.

Now⁹ $\left(\frac{8}{P_i}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{P_i}\right) = -1$ if $P_i \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$.

Hence $P_i \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ so that $Q_1 \equiv 1 \equiv Q_2 \pmod{8}$. Now from (3.5) we have $r^2 \equiv k^2 + 8$ or $9k^2 + 8 \pmod{16}$ so that $r^2 \equiv 1$ or $9 \pmod{16}$. Clearly $(s + 1)^2 \not\equiv (s - 1)^2 \pmod{16}$. Hence there are four possible cases

1. $(s + 1)^2 \equiv 1, \quad (s - 1)^2 \equiv 9, \quad r^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$
2. $(s + 1)^2 \equiv 9, \quad (s - 1)^2 \equiv 1, \quad r^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$

⁹ For a proof of this result see for instance [9], p. 75.

$$3. \quad (s+1)^2 \equiv 1, \quad (s-1)^2 \equiv 9, \quad r^2 \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$$

$$4. \quad (s+1)^2 \equiv 9, \quad (s-1)^2 \equiv 1, \quad r^2 \equiv 9 \pmod{16}$$

In cases 1 and 4 we have $r^2 + (s+1)^2 \equiv 2$, $r^2 + (s-1)^2 \equiv 10 \pmod{16}$. Hence from (3.7) and (3.8) we have

$$(3.10) \quad \beta_1^2 Q_1 n \equiv 2, \quad \beta_2^2 Q_2 n \equiv 10 \pmod{16}.$$

Clearly β_1 and β_2 are odd and n is even so that $\beta_1^2 Q_1 \equiv 1 \equiv \beta_2^2 Q_2 \pmod{8}$ and $n(\beta_1^2 Q_1 - \beta_2^2 Q_2) \equiv 0 \pmod{16}$ which is impossible by (3.10). Similarly in cases 2 and 4 we deduce a contradiction.

We recall from the lemma to Theorem 3.3 that $g_s(r, 1) \neq g_d(r, 1)$ for all r . For certain other odd integers s we can also demonstrate that $g_s(r, s) \neq g_d(r, s)$ for all r . We have

THEOREM 3.6. *Suppose $g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s)$. Then $s \neq 1, 3, 5, 11, 15, -3, -5$, and -13 .*

Proof. Let $s \neq 1$ be one of the values listed and assume the theorem is false. Then from (3.2),

$$g(s) = (s+1)((s+1)^2 + 4s) \equiv 0 \pmod{Q}$$

where $g_s(r, s) = g_d(r, s) = Q > 0$ is square-free and $g(s)$ is defined by this equation. We tabulate $g(s)$ for each $s \neq 1$ in the statement of the theorem and find that in each case Q can only be 1 or 2. It is clear by (3.5) and Theorem 1.1 that $Q \neq 1$ for the given values of s . Hence Q can only be 2 so that (3.5) becomes

$$(3.11) \quad r_1^2 - 2k_1^2 = s$$

where $r_1 = s/2$ and $k_1 = k/2$ are integers. Now the fundamental solution of the equation $x^2 - 2y^2 = 1$ is $3 + 2\sqrt{2}$. Hence, if (3.11) has solutions,¹⁰ one of them must satisfy

$$0 \leq k_1 \leq \sqrt{s/2} \text{ if } s > 0, \quad 0 < k_1 \leq \sqrt{|s|} \text{ if } s < 0.$$

For each $s \neq 1$ listed we test all possible k and discover that in fact (3.11) has no solutions and thus the theorem is proven.

We recall that $g_s(6, 7) = g_d(6, 7)$. We ask if there are other integers r such that $g_s(r, r+1) = g_d(r, r+1)$ or such that $g_s(r, 7) = g_d(r, 7)$. The following two theorems answer these questions.

THEOREM 3.7. *$g_s(r, r+1) = g_d(r, r+1)$ if and only if $r = -1$,*

¹⁰Here we have used Theorems 108, 108a, [4].

−2 or 6.

Proof. Sufficiency is clear. Hence we assume

$$(3.12) \quad g_s(r, r+1) = g_d(r, r+1)$$

for some $r \neq 0$. Let $s = r+1$. Then there exist positive integers h, k and Q such that Q is square-free and

$$(3.13) \quad \delta(r, s) = s^2 - 6s + 1 = k^2Q$$

$$(3.14) \quad \Delta(r, s) = 2r^2(s^2 + 1) = 2r^2h^2Q.$$

Hence

$$(3.15) \quad s^2 + 1 = h^2Q$$

$$(3.16) \quad 6s = (k^2 - h^2)Q.$$

Equation (3.16), together with (3.13) and (3.14) implies $Q = 1$ or 2 . If $Q = 1$ then $r = 0$ or -1 by Theorem 1.1. If $r = 0$, equation (3.12) is not satisfied.

Hence we assume $Q = 2$. Then, combining (3.15) and (3.16) we have

$$(3.17) \quad ((h^2 - k^2)/3)^2 = 2h^2 - 1.$$

We will show that (3.17) has only two solutions which correspond to $r = -2, 6$. Let $y = |h - k|$, $x = (h^2 - k^2)/3$ and suppose $h \geq 30$. We consider the cases $y \geq 5$, $y = 4$, $y = 3$ and find that in each case $x^2 > 2h^2 - 1$. Also, if $y = 1$ or 2 then $x^2 < 2h^2 - 1$ so that for $h \geq 30$ equation (3.17) has no solutions. Equation (3.17) implies that $2h^2 - 1 = \square$ and the solutions of this equation such that $h < 30$ are $h = 1, 5, 29$. Substituting in (3.17) we find solutions $(h, k) = (1, 2), (5, 2)$, so that $r = -2, 6$.

THEOREM 3.8. $g_s(r, 7) = g_d(r, 7)$ if and only if $|r| = 6$.

Proof. Suppose $g_s(r, 7) = g_d(r, 7) = Q$ for some $r > 0$. Then there exist positive integers h and k such that

$$(3.18) \quad \delta(r, 7) = r^2 - 28 = k^2Q$$

$$(3.19) \quad \Delta(r, 7) = (r^2 + 36)(r^2 + 64) = h^2Q$$

so that $Q \mid 32 \cdot 23$. Hence $Q = 1$ or 2 . By Theorem 1.1, $Q = 2$. By (3.18), $r^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{8}$ so that $r^2 + 64 \equiv 4 \pmod{8}$. Hence from (3.19) we can easily see that $r^2 + 64 = \square$ and $r^2 + 36 = 2 \cdot \square$. Hence $r/2$ is an integer, x , and $x^2 + 9 = 2y^2$ for some $y > 0$. Hence, from (3.18), $y^2 - z^2 = 8$, where z is the integer $k/2$. Hence $y = 3$, $z = 1$ so that

$r = 6$.

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