REPRESENTATION OF NUMBERS IN TERNARY QUADRATIC FORMS

E. ROSENTHALL

We employ integral quaternions $t = t_0 + t_1i_1 + t_2i_2 + t_3i_3$, where the coordinates t_i range over rational integers, while the i_1 , i_2 , i_3 , satisfy the multiplication table

$$i_1^2 = i_2^2 = -2, \ i_3^2 = -3, \ i_2 i_3 = 2i_1 - i_2 = (\overline{i_3 i_2}),$$

 $i_3 i_1 = -i_1 + 2i_2 = (\overline{i_1 i_3}), \ i_1 i_2 = -1 + i_3 = (\overline{i_2 i_1}),$

and $\bar{t} = t_0 - t_1 i_1 - t_2 i_2 - t_3 i_3$ is the conjugate to t. The norm N(t) of t is $t\bar{t} = \bar{t}t = t_0^2 + 2t_1^2 + 2t_2^2 + 2t_1t_2 + 3t_3^2$. The norm of a product of two quaternions equals the product of their norms, and $\overline{vt} = \bar{t}\bar{v}$ for any two quaternions. The associative law $rs \cdot t = r \cdot st$ holds.

The quaternary quadratic $Q = t_0^2 + 2t_1^2 + 2t_2^2 + 2t_1t_2 + 3t_3^2$ has determinant 9, the g.c.d. of the literal coefficients of the adjoint to Q is 3, and the second concomitant of Q represents no residues 1 modulo 3, and as there is only one form of determinant 9 with these properties in Charve's table* of reduced quaternary quadratic forms, Q belongs to a genus of one class. Since Q represents 1 for two values of t_0, \dots, t_3 , we have, † a proper quaternion being defined as one having coprime coordinates, the following theorem:

THEOREM 1. A proper quaternion $v = v_0 + v_1i_1 + v_2i_2 + v_3i_3$ whose norm is divisible by a positive integer m prime to 6 has exactly two rightdivisors (left-divisors) t and -t of norm m.

Every proper pure quaternion $s = s_1i_1 + s_2i_2 + s_3i_3$ of norm km^2 is of form $\bar{t}at$ where N(a) = k and N(t) = m. For, s = vt where N(t) = m by Theorem 1; $\bar{s} = -s = \bar{t}\bar{v}$, and \bar{t} is a left-divisor of s. Hence, since N(v) = km, \bar{t} is a left-divisor of the proper quaternion v, $v = \bar{t}a$. Hence $s = \bar{t}at$, N(a) = k. Clearly a is pure since $\bar{t}\bar{a}t = -\bar{t}at$, $\bar{a} = -a$.

THEOREM 2. Consider the equation $24n+1 = x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 + 2x_3^2 - 2x_2x_3$. If $24n+1 = m^2$, (m > 0), then all proper solutions are of type A if $m \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ but of type B if $m \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, where

 $A: x_1 \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}, B: x_1 \equiv \pm 5 \pmod{12}.$

^{*} L. Charve, Comptes Rendus de l'Académie des Sciences, vol. 96 (1883), p. 773.

[†] G. Pall, On the factorization of generalized quaternions, submitted to the Duke Mathematical Journal.

If 24n+1 is not a square, there are equally many solutions of each type A and B.

A proof for the case in which $24n+1 = m^2$ follows. Consider

(1)
$$h = x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 + 2x_3^2 - 2x_2x_3.$$

Then

$$3h = 3x_1^2 + 2(-x_2 - x_3)^2 + 2(-x_2 - x_3)(2x_2 - x_3) + 2(2x_2 - x_3)^2.$$

Put $h = m^2$, and let $x = i_1(-x_2-x_3) + i_2(2x_2-x_3) + i_3x_1$ represent a solution (x_1, x_2, x_3) of (1); then all proper pure quaternions x are given by $x = \overline{i}at$, N(t) = m, N(a) = 3, and from the latter condition we must have $a = \pm i_3$. Expanding $\overline{i}at$ gives $x_1 = 3t_3^2 - 2t_1^2 - 2t_2^2 - 2t_1t_2 + t_0^2$ where only $a = i_3$ is considered since $a = -i_3$ merely changes the sign of x_1 which leaves A and B unaltered.

Thus $x_1 \equiv m \pmod{4}$. Since (m, 3) = 1, $x_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$; hence when $m \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, $x_1 \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}$, a solution of type A, but if $m \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then $x_1 \equiv \pm 5 \pmod{12}$, a solution of type B.

The case for h = 24n + 1 not a square will now be considered. Let x be a representative solution of (1) under this condition. We can choose an odd prime p such that simultaneously

(2)
$$(-3h \mid p) = 1, \quad p \equiv 11 \pmod{12}.$$

By the first equation in (2) we can choose x_0 so that $3x_0^2 + h \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then by Theorem 1, $3x_0 + x$ has exactly two right-divisors $\pm t$ of norm p, say

$$3x_0 + x = ut, \qquad N(t) = p.$$

Then

(3)
$$tx\overline{t} = py$$
, where $y = tu - 3x_0$,

and y represents another solution of (1). If t is replaced by -t, y is unchanged.

We shall prove that x and y are in opposite classes A and B in view of the second equation of (2), and as multiplication by p does not alter A or B, it will suffice to show that x and $tx\bar{t}$ are solutions of opposite types.

Setting $tx\bar{t} = i_1(-y_2 - y_3) + i_2(2y_2 - y_3) + i_3y_1$ and expanding gives

$$y_1 = x_1(t_0^2 + 3t_3^2 - 2t_2^2 - 2t_1^2 - 2t_1t_2) + x_2(6t_2t_3 + 4t_1t_0 + 2t_2t_0) + x_3(-6t_2t_3 - 6t_3t_1 + 2t_2t_0 - 2t_1t_0).$$

In (1), x_2 and x_3 are always even, and thus

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$$y_1 \equiv 3x_1 \pmod{4}, \qquad y_1 \equiv x_1 \pmod{3}$$

as $N(t) \equiv 11 \pmod{12}$. Hence *y* represents a solution of type opposite to *x*.

We can now establish the (1, 1) correspondence. We employ the preceding process for a fixed p, with x_0 for a solution of type A, but $-x_0$ for a solution of type B. Hence if our process carries x, a solution of type A, into y, then y is carried into x. For from (3)

$$3(-x_0) + y = (-\bar{u})\bar{t}, \qquad N(\bar{t}) = p.$$

Then, $\bar{t}yt = px$, $x = ut - 3x_0$. Further, two distinct solutions of one type cannot correspond to the same solution of the other type.

Application of other types of quaternions furnishes arithmetical proofs of the following additional results:

For representation of 24n+1 in $x_1^2+3x_2^2+3x_3^2$ the A and B relations are

 $A: x_1 \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}, x_2 \text{ and } x_3 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \\ x_1 \equiv \pm 5 \pmod{12}, x_2 \text{ and } x_3 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}, \\ B: x_1 \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}, x_2 \text{ and } x_3 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}, \\ x_1 \equiv \pm 5 \pmod{12}, x_2 \text{ and } x_3 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}.$

For $2(24n+1) = 3x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2$

A: (0; 1, 1), (0; 7, 7), (0; 11, 5), (4; 5, 5), (4; 11, 11), (4; 7, 1), B: (4; 1, 1), (4; 7, 7), (4; 11, 5), (0; 5, 5), (0; 11, 11), (0; 7, 1),

where each triplet $(x_1; x_2, x_3)$ lists the least absolute residues $x_1 \pmod{8}$, $x_2 \pmod{24}$, $x_3 \pmod{24}$ in a definite order.

For either form if $24n+1=m^2$, (m>0), all solutions are of type A if $m \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$, but of type B if $m \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$. But there are equally many solutions of each type if 24n+1 is not a square.

These results were proved in the writer's thesis at McGill University, 1938.

McGill University

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