UNIT GROUPS AND CLASS NUMBERS OF REAL CYCLIC OCTIC FIELDS

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ABSTRACT. The generating polynomials of D. Shanks' simplest quadratic and cubic fields and M.-N. Gras' simplest quartic and sextic fields can be obtained by working in the group $PGL_2(Q)$. Following this procedure and working in the group $\mathbf{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2}))$, we obtain a family of octic polynomials and hence a family of real cyclic octic fields. We find a system of independent units which is close to being a system of fundamental units in the sense that the index has a uniform upper bound. To do this, we use a group theoretic argument along with a method similar to one used by T. W. Cusick to find a lower bound for the regulator and hence an upper bound for the index. Via Brauer-Siegel's theorem, we can estimate how large the class numbers of our octic fields are. After working out the first three examples in §5, we make a conjecture that the index is 8. We succeed in getting a system of fundamental units for the quartic subfield. For the octic field we obtain a set of units which we conjecture to be fundamental. Finally, there is a very natural way to generalize the octic polynomials to get a family of real 2^n -tic number fields. However, to select a subfamily so that the fields become Galois over Q is not easy and still a lot of work on these remains to be done.

1. Introduction

To calculate the class number of an abelian algebraic number field via the analytic class number formula usually involves a calculation of the regulator of the field, which in turn requires finding a system of fundamental units. To do this, in general, is a very hard job. For real quadratic fields, there is an easy algorithm to find a fundamental unit. For higher degree real algebraic number fields, the situation is more difficult. However, for the so-called "simplest fields", we can find a system of fundamental units easily.

Daniel Shanks [8] selected a family of real cubic fields, which are generated by a root w_3 of

$$X^3 - aX^2 - (a+3)X - 1$$
, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$,

and a conjugate of w_3 is $(-w_3 - 1)/w_3$.

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In the same paper, he studied the analogous real quadratic fields. We may call them "the simplest quadratic fields", which are generated by a root w_2 of

$$X^2 - aX - 1$$
, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$,

and a conjugate of w_2 is $-1/w_2$.

Marie-Nicole Gras [3] gave analogues for cyclic quartic and sextic fields. We may call them "the simplest quartic fields", and "simplest sextic fields". The quartic fields are generated by a root w_4 of

$$X^4 - aX^3 - 6X^2 + aX + 1$$
, $a \in \mathbb{Z} - \{0, \pm 3\}$,

and a conjugate of $\,w_4\,$ is $\,(w_4-1)/(w_4+1)\,.$ The sextic fields are generated by a root $\,w_6\,$ of

$$X^{6} - aX^{5} - (\frac{5}{2}a + 15)X^{4} - 20X^{3} + \frac{5}{2}aX^{2} + (a + 6)X + 1,$$

$$a \in 2\mathbb{Z} - \{0, -6, 10, -16\},$$

and a conjugate of w_6 is $(w_6 - 1)/(w_6 + 2)$.

The main interest in these fields is that they have an explicit system of fundamental units which are relatively small and hence a relatively large class number. Gary Cornell and Larry Washington [1] pointed out a systematic way to construct these generating polynomials, which is as follows:

The quadratic ones come from the matrix

$$A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} ,$$

which is of order 2 in the group $PGL_2(\mathbf{Q})$, and is similar to the diagonal matrix

$$\left(\begin{matrix} \zeta_4 & 0 \\ 0 & \zeta_4^{-1} \end{matrix} \right) \, .$$

The cubic ones come from the matrix

$$A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

which is of order 3 in the group $\mathbf{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Q})$, and is similar to the diagonal matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \zeta_6 & 0 \\ 0 & \zeta_6^{-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The quartic ones come from the matrix

$$A_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} ,$$

which is of order 4 in the group $\mathbf{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Q})$, and is similar to the diagonal matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1+\zeta_4 & 0 \\ 0 & 1+\zeta_4^{-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The sextic ones come from the matrix

$$A_6 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix},$$

which is of order 6 in the group $\mathbf{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Q})$, and is similar to the diagonal matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1+\zeta_6 & 0 \\ 0 & 1+\zeta_6^{-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The construction for each case goes like this:

Given θ . Let $\theta_i = A^{i-1}\theta$, i = 1, 2, ..., n, where A acts on θ by

$$A\theta = \frac{\alpha\theta + \beta}{\gamma\theta + \delta}$$
 if $A = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix}$.

Then θ satisfies the polynomial

$$X^{n} - a_1 X^{n-1} + a_2 X^{n-2} - a_3 X^{n-3} + \cdots,$$

where $a_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i$, $a_2 = \sum_{i < j} \theta_i \theta_j$, etc. Using this method, we are trying to find "the simplest octic fields". So we need a matrix A_8 , which is of order 8 in the group $\mathbf{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Q})$. Since $\zeta_8 =$ $\sqrt{2}/2 + i(\sqrt{2}/2)$, we cannot find a matrix of order 8 in the group $\mathbf{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Q})$. In fact, if A is of order n in $PGL_2(\mathbf{Q})$, then A is conjugate in $GL_2(\mathbf{C})$ to the matrix

$$\lambda \begin{pmatrix} \zeta_n & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 for some λ .

Therefore

$$\frac{(\operatorname{tr} A)^2}{\det A} = \frac{(\zeta_n + 1)^2}{\zeta_n} = 2 + 2\cos\frac{2\pi}{n}.$$

This is in Q only for n = 1, 2, 3, 4, 6. Thus we have to work on the quadratic field $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$.

So now, we are looking for a matrix A_8 , which is order 8 in the group $\mathbf{PGL}_{2}(\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2}))$. Of course, we start with the matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1+\zeta_8 & 0 \\ 0 & 1+\zeta_8^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \zeta_{16} & 0 \\ 0 & \zeta_{16}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

However, it turns out that the diagonal matrix

$$D_8 = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2}(1+\zeta_8) & 0\\ 0 & \sqrt{2}(1+\zeta_8^{-1}) \end{pmatrix}$$

is a better one to start with. Note that D_8 has trace 2ε and norm $2\varepsilon + 2$, where $\varepsilon = \sqrt{2} + 1$. Any matrix which is similar to D_8 must have the same trace and norm. One such A is $\begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon & -1 \\ 1 & \varepsilon \end{pmatrix}$, since $\varepsilon^2 = 2\varepsilon + 1$.

Using this matrix, we will construct a family of octic polynomials in §2 and select an interesting subfamily so that the generating fields are totally real cyclic octic fields. In §3, we will study these fields, finding a system of independent units, which is close to being a system of fundamental units. To show how

close it is, we get a lower bound on the regulator and hence an upper bound on the index in $\S 4$. In fact, we obtain an upper bound which works for all fields in the family. Also via Brauer-Siegel's theorem we can estimate how large the class number is. After that we will do some calculations in $\S 5$ on the first few examples and then make a conjecture that the index is 8. From this conjecture, we succeed in getting a system of fundamental units for the quartic subfield. For the octic field, we obtain a set of units which we conjugate to be fundamental. Finally, there is a very natural way to generalize the polynomials we constructed in $\S 2$ to get a family of real 2^n -tic algebraic number fields. However, to select a subfamily so that the fields are Galois over \mathbb{Q} is not easy and still a lot of work on these remains to be done.

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2. The construction of the octic polynomials

Let $\varepsilon = \sqrt{2} + 1$ and let $A = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon - 1 \\ 1 & \varepsilon \end{pmatrix}$. Then A is of order 8 in the group $\mathbf{PGL}_2(\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2}))$, since

$$A^{2} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^{3} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\varepsilon \\ \varepsilon & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^{4} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^{5} \sim \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -\varepsilon \\ \varepsilon & -1 \end{pmatrix},$$
$$A^{6} \sim \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^{7} \sim \begin{pmatrix} -\varepsilon & -1 \\ 1 & -\varepsilon \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^{8} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let $\theta_1 = \theta$ and let $\theta_i = A^{i-1}\theta$, i = 2, ..., 8. Writing them out, we have

$$\begin{array}{ll} \theta_1 = \theta \;, & \theta_2 = \frac{\varepsilon \theta - 1}{\theta + \varepsilon} \;, & \theta_3 = \frac{\theta - 1}{\theta + 1} \;, \\ \theta_4 = \frac{\theta - \varepsilon}{\varepsilon \theta + 1} \;, & \theta_5 = \frac{-1}{\theta} \;, & \theta_6 = \frac{-\theta - \varepsilon}{\varepsilon \theta - 1} \;, \\ \theta_7 = \frac{-\theta - 1}{\theta - 1} \;, & \theta_8 = \frac{-\varepsilon \theta - 1}{\theta - \varepsilon} \;. \end{array}$$

Clearly, $\prod_{i=1}^{8} \theta_i = 1$. Therefore θ satisfies the octic polynomial

$$X^{8} - a_{1}X^{7} + a_{2}X^{6} - a_{3}X^{5} + a_{4}X^{4} - a_{5}X^{3} + a_{6}X^{2} - a_{7}X + 1$$
,

where $a_1 = \sum_{i=1}^8 \theta_i$, $a_2 = \sum_{i < j} \theta_i \theta_j$, etc. A straightforward calculation yields that

$$a_{1} = \theta + \frac{-1}{\theta} + \frac{-2}{\theta - 1} + \frac{-2}{\theta + 1} + \frac{-2 - 2\varepsilon}{\theta - \varepsilon} + \frac{-2 - 2\varepsilon}{\theta + \varepsilon} + \frac{-6 + 2\varepsilon}{\theta - \varepsilon^{-1}} + \frac{-6 + 2\varepsilon}{\theta + \varepsilon^{-1}},$$

$$a_{2} = -28, \quad a_{3} = -7a_{1}, \quad a_{4} = 70, \quad a_{5} = 7a_{1}, \quad a_{6} = -28, \quad a_{7} = -a_{1}.$$

So we have a family of octic polynomials

$$(2.2) P(X) = X^8 - a_1 X^7 - 28X^6 + 7a_1 X^5 + 70X^4 - 7a_1 X^3 - 28X^2 + a_1 X + 1.$$

Remark. It takes a lot of time to get the above straightforward calculation done. Don Zagier pointed out that we have a much quicker method to avoid such a lengthy calculation. For our case, it goes like this: The matrix A is similar to the diagonal matrix

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon + i & 0 \\ 0 & \varepsilon - i \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore $A = B^{-1}DB$ for some invertible B. A calculation shows that we may choose B to be the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ 1 & -i \end{pmatrix}$. Thus θ satisfies the following polynomial:

$$P(X) = \prod_{\nu=1}^{8} (X - A^{\nu} \theta).$$

Hence we have

$$\begin{split} P(X) &= 0 \Leftrightarrow X = A^k \theta = B^{-1} D^k B \theta \,, \\ &\Leftrightarrow B X = \left(\frac{\varepsilon + i}{\varepsilon - i}\right)^k B \theta \,, \\ &\Leftrightarrow \left(B X\right)^8 = \left(B \theta\right)^8 \,, \quad \text{since } \frac{\varepsilon + i}{\varepsilon - i} = \zeta_8 \,, \\ &\Leftrightarrow \left(\frac{X + i}{X - i}\right)^8 = \left(\frac{\theta + i}{\theta - i}\right)^8 \,. \end{split}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{split} P(X) &= \frac{(\theta-i)^8(X+i)^8 - (\theta+i)^8(X-i)^8}{(\theta-i)^8 - (\theta+i)^8} \\ &= \sum_{\nu=0}^8 \binom{8}{\nu} X^{8-\nu} \alpha_{\nu} \,, \end{split}$$

where

$$\alpha_{\nu} = \frac{i^{\nu} (\theta - i)^8 - (-i)^{\nu} (\theta + i)^8}{(\theta - i)^8 - (\theta + i)^8} \,.$$

It is easy to see that

$$\alpha_{\nu} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \left(-1\right)^{\nu/2} & \text{if } \nu \text{ is even,} \\ \left(-1\right)^{(\nu-1)/2} \alpha_{1} & \text{if } \nu \text{ is odd.} \end{array} \right.$$

Let $a_1=8\alpha_1$; then we get the polynomial P(X) in equation (2.2). Note that $\alpha_1\in {\bf R}$, since $\overline{\alpha}_1=\alpha_1$.

We may write the polynomial P(X) in equation (2.2) as

$$(2.3) X^8 - 28X^6 + 70X^4 - 28X^2 + 1 - a_1X(X^2 - 1)(X^2 - \varepsilon^2)(X^2 - \varepsilon^{-2}).$$

An easy calculation via equation (2.3) yields

$$\begin{split} P(-\infty) > 0 \,, & P(-\varepsilon) < 0 \,, \\ P(-\varepsilon^{-1}) < 0 \,, & P(0) = 1 > 0 \,, \\ P(1) = 16 > 0 \,, & P(\varepsilon) < 0 \,, & P(+\infty) > 0 \,. \end{split}$$

Hence P(X) = 0 has eight distinct real roots. Let θ be the largest one. Then we have the following results:

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_1 \in (\varepsilon, \infty) \,, & \theta_2 \in (1, \varepsilon) \,, & \theta_3 \in (\varepsilon^{-1}, 1) \,, \\ \theta_4 \in (0, \varepsilon^{-1}) \,, & \theta_5 \in (-\varepsilon^{-1}, 0) \,, & \theta_6 \in (-1, -\varepsilon^{-1}) \,, \\ \theta_7 \in (-\varepsilon, -1) \,, & \theta_8 \in (-\infty, -\varepsilon) \,. \end{aligned}$$

They are all units in the ring of algebraic integers of the field $\mathbf{Q}(\theta, \sqrt{2})$ if a_1 is an algebraic integer of the field $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$. Now let us check the irreducibility of the polynomial P(X). For this, we have the following proposition. The proof is very long, but straightforward (see Shen [9]).

Proposition 1. The octic polynomial P(X) in equation (2.2) is irreducible over the field \mathbf{Q} of rational numbers for $a_1 \in \mathbf{Z} - \{0, \pm 6, \pm 15\}$.

Remark. For $a_1 = 0$, ± 6 , ± 15 , the polynomial P(X) does factor, and factors in the following way:

$$(X^4 + 4X^3 - 6X^2 - 4X + 1)(X^4 - 4X^3 - 6X^2 + 4X + 1),$$

 $(X^4 \pm 2X^3 - 6X^2 \mp 2X + 1)(X^4 \mp 8X^3 - 6X^2 \pm 8X + 1),$
 $(X^4 \pm X^3 - 6X^2 \mp X + 1)(X^4 \mp 16X^3 - 6X^2 \pm 16X + 1).$

Now let θ be a root of P(X)=0 for $a_1\in \mathbf{Z}-\{0,\pm 6,\pm 15\}$, and let $\theta_i=A^{i-1}\theta$, $i=1,2,3,\ldots,8$. Then they are all roots of P(X)=0. Let $y=\frac{1}{2}(\theta_1+\theta_5)$ and $z=\frac{1}{4}(\theta_1+\theta_3+\theta_5+\theta_7)$. Then we have the following proposition. For a proof, see Shen [9].

Proposition 2. (a) The minimal polynomial of y over Q is

$$X^4 - \frac{1}{2}a_1X^3 - 6X^2 + \frac{1}{2}a_1X + 1$$
,

and hence $\mathbf{Q}(y)$ is a "simplest quartic field".

(b) The minimal polynomial of z over \mathbf{Q} is $X^2 - \frac{1}{4}a_1X - 1$, and hence $\mathbf{Q}(z) = \mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{a_1^2 + 64})$.

(c) We have
$$\mathbf{Q}(z) = \mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$$
 if $a_1 \in \{a_1 \in \mathbf{Z} | a_1 + b_1 \sqrt{2} = \pm 8\varepsilon^{2n+1}, n \in \mathbf{Z}\}$.

Remark. In (b), when a_1^2+64 is a square in **Z**, then $a_1=0$, ± 6 , ± 15 . These are the degenerate cases, which made the polynomial P(X) reducible in Proposition 1.

Because of the special form for a_1 in the last statement of Proposition 2, put $a_1 = 8a$, and let us work with the octic polynomial of the following form from now on:

(2.5)
$$Q(X) = X^8 - 8aX^7 - 28X^6 + 56aX^5 + 70X^4 - 56aX^3 - 28X^2 + 8aX + 1$$
 for $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let ρ be the largest root of $Q(X) = 0$ and let $\rho_i = \sigma^{i-1}\rho$ for $i = 1, 2, 3, ... 8$, where $\sigma \in \text{Gal}(\mathbb{Q}(\rho)/\mathbb{Q})$ is determined by

$$\rho \mapsto \frac{\varepsilon \rho - 1}{\rho + \varepsilon}.$$

Note that $\rho_i = \theta_i$ for i = 1, 2, 5, 6. However,

$$\rho_3 = \theta_7$$
, $\rho_4 = \theta_8$, $\rho_7 = \theta_3$, $\rho_8 = \theta_4$.

We have a different ordering since $\sigma(\varepsilon) = -\varepsilon^{-1}$.

Let $K_a=\mathbf{Q}(\rho)$. Since $K_{-a}=K_a$ for $a\in\mathbf{Z}$, we may assume a>0, $a\in\mathbf{Z}$ hereafter. As above, we let $y=\frac{1}{2}(\rho_1+\rho_5)$ and $z=\frac{1}{4}(\rho_1+\rho_3+\rho_5+\rho_7)$. Then $y=\frac{1}{2}(\rho-1/\rho)$ and $z=\frac{1}{2}(y-1/y)$, and hence we have the following proposition.

Proposition 3. (a) The polynomial Q(X) in equation (2.5) is irreducible over Q.

- (b) The minimal polynomial of y over **Q** is $X^4 4aX^3 6X^2 + 4aX + 1$.
- (c) The minimal polynomial of z over \mathbf{Q} is $X^2 2aX 1$.
- (d) The minimal polynomial of ρ over $\mathbf{Q}(y)$ is $X^2 2yX 1$.
- (e) The minimal polynomial of y over $\mathbf{Q}(z)$ is $X^2 2zX 1$.
- (f) The minimal polynomial of ρ over $\mathbf{Q}(z)$ is $X^4 4zX^3 6X^2 + 4zX + 1$.

Remarks. (a) We have

$$Q(X) = \Re(X+i)^8 - a\Im(X+i)^8,$$

$$X^4 - 4aX^3 - 6X^2 + 4aX + 1 = \Re(X+i)^4 - a\Im(X+i)^4,$$

and

$$X^{2} - 2aX - 1 = \Re(x+i)^{2} - a\Im(x+i)^{2}$$
.

(b) We may say that $\mathbf{Q}(\rho)$ is a simplest quartic field over $\mathbf{Q}(z)$.

Let $y_i = \sigma^{i-1}y$, i = 1, 2, 3, 4, and let $z_i = \sigma^{i-1}z$, i = 1, 2. Proposition 3 tells us that

(2.6)
$$z_1 = a + \sqrt{a^2 + 1}, \qquad z_2 = a - \sqrt{a^2 + 1},$$

(2.7)
$$y_i = z_i + \sqrt{z_i^2 + 1}, \quad y_{i+2} = z_i - \sqrt{z_i^2 + 1}, \quad i = 1, 2,$$

(2.8)
$$\theta_i = y_i + \sqrt{y_i^2 + 1}$$
, $\theta_{i+4} = y_i - \sqrt{y_i^2 + 1}$, $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$.

Thus we have

$$z_1 z_2 = -1;$$
 $y_i y_{i+2} = -1,$ $i = 1, 2;$ $\theta_i \theta_{i+4} = -1,$ $i = 1, 2, 3, 4.$

Note that if $\rho = \theta$ then

$$\begin{array}{lll} \rho_1 = \theta_1 \,, & \rho_2 = \theta_2 \,, & \rho_3 = \theta_7 \,, & \rho_4 = \theta_8 \,, \\ \rho_5 = \theta_5 \,, & \rho_6 = \theta_6 \,, & \rho_7 = \theta_3 \,, & \rho_8 = \theta_4 \,. \end{array}$$

Also, as $a \to \infty$, the above formulas imply that

$$(2.9) z_1 \sim 2a, z_2 \rightarrow 0,$$

(2.10)
$$y_1 \sim 4a$$
, $y_2 \to 1$, $y_3 \to 0$, $y_4 \to -1$,

(2.11)
$$\rho_1 \sim 8a$$
, $\rho_2 \to \varepsilon$, $\rho_3 \to -1$, $\rho_4 \to -\varepsilon$.

For later use we express each y_i in term of a as follows:

$$y_{1} = a + \sqrt{a^{2} + 1} + \sqrt{2(a^{2} + 1) + 2a\sqrt{a^{2} + 1}},$$

$$y_{2} = a - \sqrt{a^{2} + 1} + \sqrt{2(a^{2} + 1) - 2a\sqrt{a^{2} + 1}},$$

$$y_{3} = a + \sqrt{a^{2} + 1} - \sqrt{2(a^{2} + 1) + 2a\sqrt{a^{2} + 1}},$$

$$y_{4} = a - \sqrt{a^{2} + 1} - \sqrt{2(a^{2} + 1) - 2a\sqrt{a^{2} + 1}}.$$

3. The totally real cyclic octic fields

Let $S = \{a_n \in \mathbf{Z} | a_n + b_n \sqrt{2} = \varepsilon^{2n+1}, n \in \mathbf{N} \}$, and let $K_n = K_{a_n}$, where $a_n \in S$. Then K_n/\mathbf{Q} is Galois (since $\sqrt{2} \in K_n$) and σ is an automorphism of K_n/\mathbf{Q} . We have the following theorem from the previous proposition.

Theorem 1. (a) For $a_n \in S$, the field K_n is a totally real cyclic octic field, whose Galois group $Gal(K_n/\mathbb{Q})$ is $\langle \sigma \rangle \simeq \mathbb{Z}/8\mathbb{Z}$.

(b) The unique quartic subfield of K_n is a "simplest quartic field" $\mathbf{Q}(y_n)$, where y_n is a root of the polynomial

$$X^4 - 4a_nX^3 - 6X^2 + 4a_nX + 1$$
.

(c) The unique quadratic subfield of K_n is always $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$.

Remark. For $a_n \in S$, $a_n^2 + 1 = 2b_n^2$ and $b_n > 0$. Thus $\sqrt{a_n^2 + 1} = b_n \sqrt{2}$. Formulas in (2.12) and the above relation give us that

$$y_n = a_n + b_n \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{2\sqrt{2}b_n(a_n + b_n \sqrt{2})}$$
.

But $a_n + b_n \sqrt{2} = \varepsilon^{2n+1}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$. So we have

$$y_n = \varepsilon^{2n+1} + \varepsilon^n \sqrt{b_n (4 + 2\sqrt{2})}.$$

Claim. The quotient

$$\frac{b_m(4+2\sqrt{2})}{b_n(4+2\sqrt{2})} = \frac{b_m}{b_n}$$

is not a square in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ for infinitely many m and n. Therefore there are infinitely many distinct octic fields K_n .

Proof. We now prove this claim. For any b_m , $a_m^2+1=2b_m^2$. Say $b_m=s^2b_n$ for some $s\in \mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$. Then $b_m^2=s^4b_n^2$, and hence $a_m^2+1=2b_n^2s^4$. A result due to Siegel [10] implies that $a^2+1=cs^4$ has only finite many integral solutions. Thus it follows easily that for any b_m , there are only finitely many b_n which differ from b_m be a square in $\mathbf{Z}[\sqrt{2}]$. Hence the claim is true.

We shall eventually want b_n squarefree in **Z**. It is probably very hard to prove this happens infinitely often, though it is surely true. Since $a_n - b_n \sqrt{2} = -\varepsilon^{-(2n+1)}$.

$$b_n = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4} (\varepsilon^{2n+1} + \varepsilon^{-(2n+1)}),$$

and hence

$$b_n = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4} \varepsilon^{-(2n+1)} (\varepsilon^{4n+2} + 1).$$

The situation is similar to proving that there are infinitely many squarefree Mersenne numbers $2^n - 1$, which is not yet proved.

Our main interest in K_n is that we can give a system of independent units explicitly, hence an upper bound on the regulator which is relatively small. We know that ρ_1 , ρ_2 , ρ_3 , ρ_4 , y_1 , y_2 and ε are all units in the ring of algebraic integers of the real cyclic octic field $K_n = \mathbf{Q}(\rho)$. Even better, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 2. The units ρ_1 , ρ_2 , ρ_3 , ρ_4 , y_1 , y_2 , and ε in the ring of algebraic integers of the real cyclic octic field K_n are independent.

Proof. See Shen [9]. Note that it also follows from the fact (see below) that $R_o \to \infty$ as $a \to \infty$ that the result is true for sufficiently large a.

Next, we calculate the regulator

$$R_1 = \text{Reg}(\rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3, \rho_4, y_1, y_2, \varepsilon)$$

of ρ_1 , ρ_2 , ρ_3 , ρ_4 , y_1 , y_2 , and ε . A calculation yields

(3.1)
$$R_1 = 16 \log \varepsilon (\log^2 |y_1| + \log^2 |y_2|) R_{\rho},$$

where R_{ρ} is the regulator of ρ_1 , ρ_2 , ρ_3 , and ρ_4 . In fact, it is

$$(3.2) R_{\rho} = \sum_{i=1}^{4} A_{i}^{4} + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{2} A_{i}^{2} A_{i+2}^{2} + 4(A_{1}A_{2} + A_{3}A_{4})(A_{1}A_{4} - A_{2}A_{3}),$$

where $A_i = \log |\rho_i| = -\log |\rho_{i+4}|, i = 1, 2, 3, 4$.

Remark. From (2.10) and (2.11), as $a \to \infty$ we have

$$R_{\rho} \sim (\log^2(8a) + 2\log^2 \varepsilon)^2$$
,

and hence we have the asymptotic approximation for R_1 as $a \to \infty$, as follows:

$$(3.3) R_1 \sim 16 \log \varepsilon \log^2(4a) (\log^2(8a) + 2 \log^2 \varepsilon)^2 \sim 16 \log \varepsilon \log^6 a.$$

The discriminant $d(K_n)$ of $K_n = \mathbf{Q}(\rho)$ may be computed as follows: For $a \in S$,

$$a + b\sqrt{2} = (\sqrt{2} + 1)^{2n+1}$$
 and $a^2 + 1 = 2b^2$.

Both a and b are odd. We will make the following assumption henceforth:

Assume that b is squarefree in \mathbb{Z} .

Since the discriminant $d(\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})) = 8$, the conductor of $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ is 8. From the remark right after Theorem 1, we know that

$$y = (\sqrt{2} + 1)^{2n+1} + (\sqrt{2} + 1)^n \sqrt{2} \sqrt{(2 + \sqrt{2})b}$$

and hence we have

$$\mathbf{Q}(y) = \mathbf{Q}\left(\sqrt{(2+\sqrt{2})b}\right) \,.$$

Proposition 4. The set $\{1, \sqrt{(2+\sqrt{2})b}\}$ forms an integral basis of $\mathbf{Q}(y)$ over $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$.

Proof. See Shen [9].

Proposition 5. The discriminant $d(\mathbf{Q}(y))$ of the quartic subfield $\mathbf{Q}(y)$ of K_n is $2^{11}h^2$.

Proof. By Proposition 4, we have

$$d(\mathbf{Q}(y)) = d\left(\sqrt{(2+\sqrt{2})b}\right) \,.$$

Using the tower property of discriminants, we have

$$\begin{split} d\left(\sqrt{(2+\sqrt{2})b}\right) &= \left(d(\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2}))\right)^2 N_{\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})/\mathbf{Q}} \left(d_{\mathbf{Q}(y)/\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})} \left(\sqrt{(2+\sqrt{2})b}\right)\right)\,, \\ &= 8^2 N_{\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})} (4b(2+\sqrt{2}))\,, \\ &= 2^6 4^2 b^2 (2+\sqrt{2})(2-\sqrt{2})\,, \end{split}$$

and hence $d(\mathbf{Q}(y)) = 2^{11}b^2$.

There are eight Dirichlet characters corresponding to the field K_n . Denote the trivial one by χ_0 , the quadratic one by χ_2 , the quartic ones by χ_4 , $\chi_4^3 = \overline{\chi}_4$, and the octic ones by χ_8 , χ_8^3 , $\chi_8^5 = \overline{\chi}_8^3$, $\chi_8^7 = \overline{\chi}_8$. Clearly $f_{\chi_0} = 1$ and $f_{\chi_2} = 8$. What are f_{χ_4} and f_{χ_8} ? We have the following proposition.

Proposition 6. The conductor of χ_4 is $f_{\chi_4} = 16b$.

Proof. From the conductor-discriminant formula, we obtain

$$2^{11}b^2 = d(\mathbf{Q}(y)) = f_{\chi_0} f_{\chi_2} f_{\chi_4} f_{\overline{\chi}_4} = 8f_{\chi_4}^2.$$

The result follows immediately.

To calculate the conductor f_{χ_8} , we have to work a little bit harder. But, it is easy to see the possible candidates as follows: A calculation yields

$$\mathbf{Q}(\rho) = \mathbf{Q}\left(\sqrt{(2+\sqrt{2})\left(2b+(\sqrt{2}+1)^n\sqrt{(2+\sqrt{2})b}\right)}\right).$$

Therefore the discriminant of the octic field $K_n = \mathbf{Q}(\rho)$ must divide

$$(2^{11}b^2)^2 N_{\mathbf{Q}(y)/\mathbf{Q}} \left(d_{\mathbf{Q}(\rho)/\mathbf{Q}(y)} \sqrt{(2+\sqrt{2}) \left(2b+(\sqrt{2}+1)^n \sqrt{(2+\sqrt{2})b}\right)} \right) \, ,$$

which is $2^{33}b^6$. Again invoking the conductor-discriminant formula, we have

$$2^{3}(2^{4}b)^{2}f_{\chi_{e}}^{4}|2^{33}b^{6}$$
.

Hence $f_{\chi_8} \leq 32b$. Since $f_{\chi_4} = 16b$, we conclude that f_{χ_8} is either 16b or 32b .

Theorem 3. The conductor of χ_8 is $f_{\chi_8} = 32b$, and hence $d(K_n) = 2^{31}b^6$.

Proof. See Shen [9]. Since f_{χ_8} is either 16b or 32b, a much shorter argument is as follows: We can write $\chi_8 = \psi \theta$, where the conductor f_{ψ} of ψ is a power of 2 and 2 does not divide the conductor of θ . Since 2 ramifies in $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$, which corresponds to the character χ_8^4 , we must have $\psi^4 \neq 1$. Therefore ψ has order 8. This can only happen if the conductor of ψ is at least 32, since otherwise $(\mathbf{Z}/\mathbf{f}_{\psi}\mathbf{Z})^{\times}$ does not have a cyclic quotient of order 8. Therefore 32 divides f_{χ_6} , which yields the result.

4. An estimate for the regulator

We want to estimate (and hopefully calculate) the class number of the real cyclic octic field $K_n = \mathbf{Q}(\rho)$. So let us look at the analytic class number formula:

$$\frac{2^{r_1}(2\pi)^{r_2}hR}{w\sqrt{d}} = \prod_{\chi \neq 1} L(1,\chi).$$

For K_n , $r_1 = 8$, $r_2 = 0$, w = 2, $d = 2^{31}b^6$, and therefore

$$\frac{hR}{2^8\sqrt{2}b^3} = L(1, \chi_2)|L(1, \chi_4)|^2|L(1, \chi_8)|^2|L(1, \chi_8^3)|^2.$$

We know that $L(1, \chi_2) = \log \varepsilon / \sqrt{2}$, since $h(\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})) = 1$. So we have

(4.1)
$$h = \frac{2^8 b^3 \log \varepsilon}{R} |L(1, \chi_4)|^2 |L(1, \chi_8)|^2 |L(1, \chi_8^3)|^2.$$

To calculate $|L(1, \chi)|$, we may use the following (since χ is even)

$$(4.2) |L(1,\chi)| = \frac{2}{\sqrt{f}} \left| \sum_{k < f/2} \chi(k) \log \sin \frac{k\pi}{f} \right|,$$

which is part of Theorem 46 in Marcus' book [7].

So now it is clear that, in an algebraic number field, estimating the class number h is equivalent to estimating the regulator R. In general, it is hard to estimate R. However, Theorem 2 provides us hope.

Recall formula (3.1),

$$R_1 = 16 \log \varepsilon (\log^2 |y_1| + \log^2 |y_2|) R_{\rho}.$$

Let $q = R_1/R$; then q is an integer. In fact, q is the index $[U:U_1]$, where U is the unit group of K_n and $U_1 = \langle -1, \varepsilon, y_1, y_2, \rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3, \rho_4 \rangle$. We may

estimate R_1 in terms of a. To determine q, we need a lower bound for R. One such lower bound due to J. H. Silverman [11] says that $R > c_8 \log^4(\gamma_8 D_8)$, where $D_8 = |d(K_n)| = 2^{31}b^6$, and c_8 , γ_8 are constants depending on K_n . Since

$$D_8 = 2^{28} (2b^2)^3 = 2^{28} (a^2 + 1)^3$$

 $R > d_8 \log^4 a$, where d_8 is a constant. This lower bound is not good enough for our purpose, since $R_1 \sim 16 \log \varepsilon \log^6 a$. So we need some other technique to get a lower bound of order $\log^6 a$.

In the following, we denote the norm from K_n to the quartic field $\mathbf{Q}(y)$ by $N_{8/4}$, the norm from $\mathbf{Q}(y)$ to $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$ by $N_{4/2}$, etc.

Let $U_0=\{\eta\in U|N_{8/4}(\eta)=\pm 1\}$. Then $U/\{\pm 1\}$ and $U_0/\{\pm 1\}$ are both $\mathbb{Z}[G]$ -modules, where

$$G = \operatorname{Gal}(K_n/\mathbf{Q}) = \langle \sigma \rangle \simeq \mathbf{Z}/8\mathbf{Z}.$$

Let $N=1+\sigma^4$ be the norm $N_{8/4}$. Then we have $\mathbf{Z}[G]/\langle N \rangle \simeq \mathbf{Z}[\zeta_8]$, which is a principal ideal domain. We may regard $U_0/\{\pm 1\}$ as a $\mathbf{Z}[\zeta_8]$ -module. Since ρ_1 , ρ_2 , ρ_3 , $\rho_4 \in U_0$ are independent, the **Z**-rank of $U_0/\{\pm 1\}$ is at least 4. Let U_y be the unit group of $\mathbf{Q}(y)$, and let $U_{y0}=\{\xi\in U_y|N_{4/2}(\xi)=\pm 1\}$.

The same argument yields that $U_{y0}/\{\pm 1\}$ is a $\mathbf{Z}[\zeta_4]$ -module, and the **Z**-rank of $U_{y0}/\{\pm 1\}$ is at least 2, since y_1 , $y_2 \in U_{y0}$ are independent. Clearly, the **Z**-rank of the subgroup generated by ε , U_{y0} , and U_0 is at most 7. Therefore, the **Z**-rank of $U_0/\{\pm 1\}$ must be 4, and that of $U_{y0}/\{\pm 1\}$ must be 2. Hence $U_0/\{\pm 1\}$ is a free $\mathbf{Z}[\zeta_8]$ -module of rank 1, and $U_{y0}/\{\pm 1\}$ is a free $\mathbf{Z}[\zeta_4]$ -module of rank 1. Therefore, there exist units $\eta_1 \in U_0$ and $\xi_1 \in U_{y0}$ such that $\{\eta_i = \eta_1^{\sigma^{i-1}} | i = 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ generates $U_0/\{\pm 1\}$, and $\{\xi_i = \xi_1^{\sigma^{i-1}} | i = 1, 2\}$ generates $U_{y0}/\{\pm 1\}$.

Let U' be the group generated by the elements -1, ε , ξ_1 , ξ_2 , η_1 , η_2 , η_3 , η_4 , and let $R' = \text{Reg}(\varepsilon, \xi_1, \xi_2, \eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3, \eta_4)$ be the regulator. Then we have

$$q = [U:U_1] = [U:U'][U':U_1] = q_1q_1',$$

where $q_1 = [U:U']$ and $q_1' = [U':U_1]$.

Let $i_v = [U_v: \langle -1, \varepsilon, \xi_1, \xi_2 \rangle]$. We may calculate q_1 as follows:

Proposition 7. For $\xi \in U_y$, we have

$$N_{4/1}(\xi) = 1 \Leftrightarrow \xi \in \langle -1 \,,\, \varepsilon \,,\, \xi_1 \,,\, \xi_2 \rangle \,.$$

Proof. For any $\xi \in U_y$ with $N_{4/1}(\xi)=1$, we have $N_{4/2}(\xi)=\pm \varepsilon^a$ for some $a\in {\bf Z}$. Thus

$$1 = N_{4/1}(\xi) = N_{2/1}(N_{4/2}(\xi)) = N_{2/1}(\pm \varepsilon^{a}) = (-1)^{a},$$

and hence a is even, say a=2A, for some $A\in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore $N_{4/2}(\xi)=\pm \varepsilon^{2A}$, and so $N_{4/2}(\xi/\varepsilon^A)=\pm 1$. Hence we have $\xi/\varepsilon^A\in U_{y0}=\langle -1\,,\,\xi_1\,,\,\xi_2\rangle$, which means $\xi\in\langle -1\,,\,\varepsilon\,,\,\xi_1\,,\,\xi_2\rangle$. The converse is obvious. This completes the proof.

Corollary 1. If $N_{4/1}(\xi) = 1$ for all $\xi \in U_v$, then $i_v = 1$.

Corollary 2. If $N_{4/1}(\xi) = -1$ for some $\xi \in U_v$, then $i_v = 2$.

Proof. Let $E_k=\{\xi\in U_y|N_{4/1}(\xi)=k\}$, k=1,-1. Then the above proposition just says $E_1=\langle -1\,,\, \varepsilon\,,\, \xi_1\,,\, \xi_2\rangle$. Choose $\xi_0\in E_{-1}$. Then

$$E_{-1} = \xi_0 E_1$$
, $U_{\nu} = E_1 \cup E_{-1}$, and $E_1 \cap E_{-1} = \emptyset$.

The result follows.

Proposition 8. For $\eta \in U$, we have

$$N_{8/1}(\eta) = 1 \Leftrightarrow \eta^2 \in U'$$
.

Proof. For any $\eta \in U$ with $N_{8/1}(\eta) = 1$, Proposition 7 implies

$$N_{8/4}(\eta) = \pm \varepsilon^a \xi_1^b \xi_2^c$$
 for some $a, b, c \in \mathbf{Z}$,

since $N_{4/1}(N_{8/4}(\eta))=N_{8/1}(\eta)=1$. Therefore $N_{8/4}(\eta^2)=\varepsilon^{2a}\xi_1^{2b}\xi_2^{2c}$, and hence $N_{8/4}(\eta^2/\varepsilon^a\xi_1^b\xi_2^c)=1$. This gives us

$$\frac{\eta^{2}}{\varepsilon^{a}\xi_{1}^{b}\xi_{2}^{c}}\in U_{0}=\left\langle -1\,,\,\eta_{1}\,,\,\eta_{2}\,,\,\eta_{3}\,,\,\eta_{4}\right\rangle ,$$

and we have $\eta^2 \in \langle -1, \varepsilon, \xi_1, \xi_2, \eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3, \eta_4 \rangle = U'$. Conversely, write $\eta^2 = \pm \varepsilon^a \xi_1^b \xi_2^c \eta_1^d \cdots \eta_4^e$. Then $N_{8/4}(\eta)^2 = \varepsilon^{2a} \xi_1^{2b} \xi_2^{2c}$, and hence $N_{8/4}(\eta) = \pm \varepsilon^a \xi_1^b \xi_2^c$. Therefore, we have

$$N_{4/2}(N_{8/4}(\eta)) = \varepsilon^{2a}(\pm 1), \quad N_{8/1}(\eta) = N_{2/1}(\pm \varepsilon^{2a}) = (-1)^{2a} = 1.$$

This completes the proof.

Let $U_0'=\{\eta\in U|N_{8/1}(\eta)=1\}$. The same argument as in Proposition 7 yields that $[U:U_0']=1$ or 2. Proposition 8 says that $U_0'=\{\eta\in U|\eta^2\in U'\}$. How large is $[U_0':U']$? This index must be 1, 2, 4, or 8. To see this, we write

$$\eta^2 = \pm \varepsilon^a \xi_1^b \xi_2^c \eta_1^d \cdots \eta_4^e \quad \text{for } \eta \in U_0'.$$

Assume a, b, c are even, say a = 2A, b = 2B, c = 2C. Then

$$N_{8/4}(\eta)^2 = \varepsilon^{2a} \xi_1^{2b} \xi_2^{2c} = \varepsilon^{4A} \xi_1^{4B} \xi_2^{4C},$$

and hence

$$N_{8/4} \left(\frac{\eta}{\varepsilon^A \xi_1^B \xi_2^C} \right)^2 = 1$$
 and $N_{8/4} \left(\frac{\eta}{\varepsilon^A \xi_1^B \xi_2^C} \right) = \pm 1$.

Therefore

$$\frac{\eta}{\varepsilon^{A}\xi_{1}^{B}\xi_{2}^{C}}\in U_{0}=\left\langle -1\:,\:\eta_{1}\:,\:\eta_{2}\:,\:\eta_{3}\:,\:\eta_{4}\right\rangle ,$$

and hence $\eta \in \langle -1, \varepsilon, \xi_1, \xi_2, \eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3, \eta_4 \rangle = U'$.

Now let us look at the norm $N_{8/4}(\eta)$ for $\eta \in U_0'$. Since $N_{4/1}(N_{8/4}(\eta)) = N_{8/1}(\eta) = 1$, Proposition 7 tells us that

$$N_{8/4}(\eta) = \pm \varepsilon^a \xi_1^b \xi_2^c$$
 for some $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$.

The above result says that $\eta \in U'$, whenever a, b, c are all even. Therefore

$$U' = \{ \eta \in U'_0 | N_{8/4}(\eta) = \pm \varepsilon^{\text{even}} \xi_1^{\text{even}} \xi_2^{\text{even}} \} .$$

All other possibilities, $\{\eta\in U_0'|N_{8/4}(\eta)=\pm\varepsilon^{\mathrm{odd}}\xi_1^{\mathrm{even}}\xi_2^{\mathrm{even}}\},\ldots$, are cosets of U' in U_0' . Hence the index $[U_0':U']$ divides 8, and the result follows. Putting everything together, we have the following:

Theorem 4. Let U be the unit group of K_n , and let U' be the subgroup generated by the units -1, ε , ξ_1 , ξ_2 , η_1 , η_2 , η_3 , η_4 . Then we have the following:

- (a) The index $q_1 = [U : U']$ is 2^r , $r \le 4$.
- (b) If $N_{8/1}(\eta) = 1 \quad \forall \eta \in U$, then the index $q_1 = [U:U'] = 2^r$, $r \leq 3$.

Remark. The result here cannot be improved for general cyclic octic fields. Consider the field

$$\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{17})^{+} = \mathbf{Q}\left(\cos\frac{2\pi}{17}\right)\,,$$

which is a real cyclic octic field and has class number 1. Let σ_3 be the Galois action determined by $\zeta_{17} \mapsto \zeta_{17}^3$. Then the Galois group of $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{17})^+$ over \mathbf{Q} is

$$\langle \sigma_3 \rangle \simeq {\bf Z}/8{\bf Z} \simeq \{\sigma_3\,,\,\sigma_9\,,\,\sigma_{10}\,,\,\sigma_{13}\,,\,\sigma_5\,,\,\sigma_{15}\,,\,\sigma_{11}\,,\,1\}\,.$$

Note that $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{17})^+$ has a unique quadratic subfield $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{17})$, whose fundamental unit is

$$\varepsilon = 4 + \sqrt{17} \sim 8.12310562562$$
.

By Theorem 8.2 of Washington's book [13], the cyclotomic units

$$\left\{ \psi_a = \sin \frac{\pi a}{17} / \sin \frac{\pi}{17} | a = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 \right\}$$

form a system of fundamental units. Thus $U=\langle -1\,,\,\psi_a|a=2\,,\,3\,,\,\ldots\,,\,8\rangle$. Note that we have

$$\psi_a = \zeta_{17}^{(1-a)/2} \frac{1 - \zeta_{17}^a}{1 - \zeta_{17}}$$

and hence

$$\psi_a^{\sigma_i} = \frac{\psi_{ai}}{\psi_i} \text{ for } a, i = 2, 3, \dots, 16.$$

Also, we have

$$\begin{split} \psi_a &= \psi_{17-a} \quad \text{for } a = 2\,,\,3\,,\,\dots\,,\,16\,. \\ N_{8/4}(\psi_a) &= \psi_a^{1+\sigma_{-4}}\,, \qquad N_{8/2}(\psi_a) = \psi_a^{1+\sigma_{-8}+\sigma_{-4}+\sigma_{-2}}\,. \end{split}$$

Note that we have

$$\varepsilon = 4 + \sqrt{17} = \psi_2^{-1} \psi_3 \psi_4^{-1} \psi_5 \psi_6 \psi_7 \psi_8^{-1} \,.$$

Let

$$\xi_1 = \psi_2 \psi_8 \psi_4^{-1}, \qquad \xi_2 = \psi_3 \psi_5 \psi_6^{-1} \psi_7^{-1},
\eta_1 = \psi_2 \psi_8^{-1}, \qquad \eta_2 = \psi_3^{-1} \psi_5, \qquad \eta_3 = \psi_4, \qquad \eta_4 = \psi_6 \psi_7^{-1}.$$

 $\eta_1 = \psi_2 \psi_8^{-1} \;, \qquad \eta_2 = \psi_3^{-1} \psi_5 \;, \qquad \eta_3 = \psi_4 \;, \qquad \eta_4 = \psi_6 \psi_7^{-1} \;.$ Then $\eta_1 \;, \; \eta_2 \;, \; \eta_3 \;, \; \eta_4 \;$ form a basis of $U_0 \;$, and $\xi_1 \;$ and $\xi_2 \;$ form a basis for $U_{y0} \;$ (see Shen [9]). Therefore

$$\begin{pmatrix} \log |\varepsilon| \\ \log |\xi_1| \\ \log |\xi_2| \\ \log |\eta_1| \\ \log |\eta_2| \\ \log |\eta_3| \\ \log |\eta_4| \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \log |\psi_2| \\ \log |\psi_3| \\ \log |\psi_4| \\ \log |\psi_5| \\ \log |\psi_6| \\ \log |\psi_7| \\ \log |\psi_8| \end{pmatrix}.$$

A calculation yields that the determinant equals 16, and hence [U:U'] = 16. This is the case r = 4 in Theorem 4.

Next, we calculate the index q'_1 as follows: Clearly, we have $q'_1 = R_1/R'$. Equation (3.1) implies that

$$R_1 = 16R(\varepsilon)R(y_1, y_2)R(\rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3, \rho_4).$$

Exactly the same calculation yields

$$R' = 16R(\varepsilon)R(\xi_1\,,\,\xi_2)R(\eta_1\,,\,\eta_2\,,\,\eta_3\,,\,\eta_4)\,.$$

 $\text{Let } q_2 = [\langle \xi_1 \,,\, \xi_2 \rangle : \langle y_1 \,,\, y_2 \rangle] \,, \text{ and let } \ q_3 = [\langle \eta_1 \,,\, \eta_2 \,,\, \eta_3 \,,\, \eta_4 \rangle : \langle \rho_1 \,,\, \rho_2 \,,\, \rho_3 \,,\, \rho_4 \rangle] \,.$ Then

$$q_2 = \frac{R(y_1\,,\,y_2)}{R(\xi_1\,,\,\xi_2)} \quad \text{and} \quad q_3 = \frac{R(\rho_1\,,\,\rho_2\,,\,\rho_3\,,\,\rho_4)}{R(\eta_1\,,\,\eta_2\,,\,\eta_3\,,\,\eta_4)} \,.$$

Therefore $q_1'=q_2q_3$ and $q=q_1q_2q_3$. To estimate q_2 and q_3 , we need lower bounds for $R(\xi_1,\xi_2)$ and $R(\eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3, \eta_4)$. Our approach below is similar to Cusick's [2]. Let $\varepsilon_1 \in U_{v0}$, and let $\varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_1^{\sigma}$. Then by the definition of U_{y0} , we have

$$\varepsilon_1^{\sigma^2} = \pm \frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} \quad \text{and} \quad \varepsilon_2^{\sigma^2} = \pm \frac{1}{\varepsilon_2}.$$

Consider the norm $N_{2/1}(d_{4/2}(\varepsilon_1))$, where $d_{4/2}$ is the discriminant from $\mathbf{Q}(y)$ to $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2})$. A calculation yields

$$\left(\varepsilon_1 \pm \frac{1}{\varepsilon_1}\right)^2 \left(\varepsilon_2 \pm \frac{1}{\varepsilon_2}\right)^2$$
,

or

$$\left(1\pm\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1^2}\right)^2\left(1\pm\frac{1}{\varepsilon_2^2}\right)^2\varepsilon_1^2\varepsilon_2^2.$$

Replacing ε_i by $1/\varepsilon_i$ or possibly using ε_2 in place of ε_1 and $\varepsilon^{-1}=\pm\varepsilon_2^\sigma$ in place of ε_2 if necessary, we may assume $|\varepsilon_i|\geq 1$ for i=1,2. Then the above expression is less than or equal to $2^4\varepsilon_1^2\varepsilon_2^2$. Since $N_{2/1}(d_{4/2}(\mathbf{Q}(y)))=2^5b^2$, we have $2^5b^2\leq 2^4\varepsilon_1^2\varepsilon_2^2$. Therefore we have the following inequality by Cauchy-Schwarz:

$$\begin{split} \log(a^2) &< \log(a^2+1) = \log(2b^2) \leq 2 \sum_{i=1}^2 \log|\varepsilon_i| \\ &\leq 2\sqrt{2} \sqrt{\log^2|\varepsilon_1| + \log^2|\varepsilon_2|} \,. \end{split}$$

Hence we have

(4.3)
$$\log^2 |\varepsilon_1| + \log^2 |\varepsilon_2| > \frac{1}{2} \log^2 a.$$

Since $\{\xi_1, \xi_2\}$ generates $U_{v0}/\{\pm 1\}$,

$$\varepsilon_1 = \pm \xi_1^{x_1} \xi_2^{x_2}$$
 for some $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbf{Z}$.

Therefore

$$\log|\varepsilon_1| = x_1 \log|\xi_1| + x_2 \log|\xi_2|,$$

and hence

$$\log|\varepsilon_2| = x_1 \log|\xi_2| - x_2 \log|\xi_1| \,.$$

Define a quadratic form $Q(x_1, x_2)$ in x_1, x_2 by

$$Q(x_1, x_2) = \log^2 |\varepsilon_1| + \log^2 |\varepsilon_2| = \sum_{i, j=1}^2 a_{ij} x_i x_j.$$

A simple calculation gives that

$$Q(x_1, x_2) = R(\xi_1, \xi_2)(x_1^2 + x_2^2).$$

Thus $Q(1,0) = R(\xi_1, \xi_2)$, and the inequality (29) gives a lower bound for $R(\xi_1, \xi_2)$, as follows:

(4.4)
$$R(\xi_1, \xi_2) > \frac{1}{2} \log^2 a.$$

Similarly, we can do the same thing as above to get a lower bound for $R(\eta_1\,,\,\eta_2\,,\,\eta_3\,,\,\eta_4)$. However, the situation is a little bit complicated. Let $\varepsilon_1\in U_0$, and let $\varepsilon_i=\varepsilon_1^{\sigma^{i-1}}$, $i=1\,,\,2\,,\,3\,,\,4$. Then by the definition of U_0 , we have $\varepsilon_i^{\sigma^4}=\pm 1/\varepsilon_i\,,\,\,i=1\,,\,2\,,\,3\,,\,4$. Consider the norm $N_{4/1}(d_{8/4}\varepsilon_1)$. A calculation yields

$$\left(\varepsilon_1 \pm \frac{1}{\varepsilon_1}\right)^2 \left(\varepsilon_2 \pm \frac{1}{\varepsilon_2}\right)^2 \left(\varepsilon_3 \pm \frac{1}{\varepsilon_3}\right)^2 \left(\varepsilon_4 \pm \frac{1}{\varepsilon_4}\right)^2,$$

or

$$\left(1\pm\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1^2}\right)^2\cdots\left(1\pm\frac{1}{\varepsilon_4^2}\right)^2\varepsilon_1^2\varepsilon_2^2\varepsilon_3^2\varepsilon_4^2.$$

Again, we may assume that $|\varepsilon_i| \ge 1$ for i = 1, 2. Then the above expression is less than or equal to $2^8 \varepsilon_1^2 \varepsilon_2^2 \varepsilon_3^2 \varepsilon_4^2$. Since $N_{4/1}(d_{8/4}K_n) = 2^9 b^2$,

$$2^9b^2 \leq 2^8\varepsilon_1^2\varepsilon_2^2\varepsilon_3^2\varepsilon_4^2.$$

Therefore, we have

$$2\log a = \log(a^2) < \log(a^2 + 1) = \log(2b^2) \le 2\sum_{i=1}^4 \log|\epsilon_i|.$$

By Cauchy-Schwarz, the above is less than or equal to

$$2\sqrt{4}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{4}\log^{2}\left|\varepsilon_{i}\right|\right)^{1/2}$$
.

Thus we have

$$(4.5) \qquad \log^2|\varepsilon_1| + \log^2|\varepsilon_2| + \log^2|\varepsilon_3| + \log^2|\varepsilon_4| > \frac{1}{4}\log^2 a.$$

Since $\{\eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3, \eta_4\}$ generates $U_0/\{\pm 1\}$,

$$\varepsilon_1 = \pm \eta_1^{x_1} \eta_2^{x_2} \eta_3^{x_3} \eta_4^{x_4}$$
 for some $x_i \in \mathbf{Z}$.

Therefore we have

$$\log |\varepsilon_1| = x_1 \log |\eta_1| + x_2 \log |\eta_2| + x_3 \log |\eta_3| + x_4 \log |\eta_4|,$$

and hence

$$\begin{split} \log |\varepsilon_2| &= x_1 \log |\eta_2| + x_2 \log |\eta_3| + x_3 \log |\eta_4| - x_4 \log |\eta_1| \,, \\ \log |\varepsilon_3| &= x_1 \log |\eta_3| + x_2 \log |\eta_4| - x_3 \log |\eta_1| - x_4 \log |\eta_2| \,, \\ \log |\varepsilon_4| &= x_1 \log |\eta_4| - x_2 \log |\eta_1| - x_3 \log |\eta_2| - x_4 \log |\eta_3| \,. \end{split}$$

Define a quadratic form $Q(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$ in x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 by

(4.6)
$$Q(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \sum_{i=1}^{4} \log^2 |\varepsilon_i| = \sum_{i=1}^{4} a_{ij} x_i x_j.$$

A calculation shows that the determinant of the quadratic form Q is

(4.7)
$$\det(Q) = \det(a_{ij}) = R(\eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3, \eta_4)^2.$$

In fact,

$$(a_{ij}) = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} A & B & 0 & -B \\ B & A & B & 0 \\ 0 & B & A & B \\ -B & 0 & B & A \end{array} \right) \,,$$

where $A = \sum_{i=1}^4 \log^2 |\eta_i|$ and $B = \log |\eta_1| \log |\eta_2| + \log |\eta_2| \log |\eta_3| + \log |\eta_3| \log |\eta_4| - \log |\eta_4| \log |\eta_1|$. An old result due to A. Korkine and G. Zolotareff [5] gives us that there exist integers x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 not all zero, such that

$$Q(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \le (4 \det(Q))^{1/4}$$
.

Putting (4.5)-(4.7) together, we get a lower bound of $R(\eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3, \eta_4)$:

(4.8)
$$R(\eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3, \eta_4) > 2^{-5} \log^4 a.$$

Since $R'/R = q_1 = 1, 2, 4, 8$ or 16,

$$R > 2^{-4}R'$$
.

Recall the formula

$$R' = 16 \log \varepsilon R(\xi_1, \xi_2) R(\eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3, \eta_4).$$

Then (4.4) and (4.8) give us a lower bound for R as follows:

Theorem 5. Let R be the regulator of the field K_n . Then a lower bound for R is

$$(2^{-6}\log \varepsilon)\log^6 a \ (\approx 0.0137714623\log^6 a)$$
.

This bound is much better than Silverman's bound, since we have used more information about the field K_n . So we have an upper bound for the index $q = [U: U_1]$, where $U_1 = \langle -1, \varepsilon, y_1, y_2, \rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3, \rho_4 \rangle$.

Corollary. An upper bound for the index $q = [U:U_1]$ is $2^{10}R_yR_\rho\log^{-6}a$, where $R_y = R(y_1, y_2)$ and $R_\rho = R(\rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3, \rho_4)$.

Remark. As $a \to \infty$, from (3.3) we have

$$2^{10}R_{\nu}R_{a}\log^{-6}a \rightarrow 2^{10}$$
.

So the index $q = [U : U_1]$ is uniformly bounded.

To emphasize this result, we state it as follows:

Theorem 6. Let U be the unit group of K_n , and let U_1 be the subgroup generated by the units ρ_1 , ρ_2 , ρ_3 , ρ_4 , γ_1 , γ_2 , and ε . Then the index $q = [U:U_1]$ is bounded, independent of a.

To conclude this section, let us go back to estimate the class numbers of our real cyclic octic fields K_n , which was one of our original goals mentioned in the very beginning of this section. Since we have a sequence of cyclic octic number fields K_n with the property (by Theorem 3)

$$\frac{[K_n : \mathbf{Q}]}{\log |d(K_n)|} = \frac{8}{\log(2^{31}b_n^6)} \to 0 \quad \text{as } n \to \infty,$$

we may apply Brauer-Siegel's theorem (see Lang [6, p. 321]), which yields

$$\frac{\log(hR)}{\log\sqrt{d(K_n)}}\to 1.$$

But $R_1/R = q$ is uniformly bounded by Theorem 6, thus

$$C' \log^6 a < R < C \log^6 a$$
 for some C , C' .

Therefore we have

$$\frac{\log h}{\frac{1}{2}\log(d(K_n))}\to 1\,,$$

and hence

$$\log h \sim \frac{1}{2} \log(d(K_n)) \sim 3 \log(a_n).$$

This means that the class number h of the field K_n is very large, as $n \to \infty$. So we have the following corollary of Theorem 6.

Corollary. Let h be the class number of the field K_n . Then $\log h \sim 3\log(a_n)$ as $n \to \infty$.

5. Examples and conjectures

We are trying to make a conjecture on the index $q=[U:U_1]$ mentioned in Theorem 6 for the octic field K_n .

Since $a_n + b_n \sqrt{2} = (\sqrt{2} + 1)^{\frac{n}{2n+1}}$, we have the following recursion formulas and a table for a_n and b_n :

$$a_{n+1} = 3a_n + 4b_n$$
, $b_{n+1} = 2a_n + 3b_n$.

Table for a_n and b_n

n	a_n	b_n
0	1	1
1	7	5
2	41	29
3	239	169
4	1393	985
5	8119	5741
6	47321	33461
7	275807	195025
8	1607521	1136689
9	9369319	6625109
10	54608393	38613965
11	318281039	225058681
12	1855077841	1311738121
13	10812186007	7645370045
14	63018038201	44560482149
15	367296043199	259717522849

Note that since $b_3 = 13^2$ and $b_7 = 5^2 \times 7801$ are not squarefree, both are excluded from our discussion.

Now recall formula (27),

$$h = \frac{2^8 b^3 \log \varepsilon}{R} |L(1\,,\,\chi_4)|^2 |L(1\,,\,\chi_8)|^2 |L(1\,,\,\chi_8^3)|^2\,.$$

To simplify the calculation of $|L(1, \chi)|$ we need the following:

Proposition 9. Let χ be a primitive character with conductor f, which is divisible by 4. Then $\chi(a+\frac{f}{2})=-\chi(a)$, and hence $\chi(\frac{f}{2}-a)=-\chi(a)$ if χ is even.

Proof. Since 4|f,

$$\left(1 + \frac{f}{2}\right)^2 = 1 + f + \frac{f}{4}f \equiv 1 \pmod{f}.$$

Therefore, $\chi(1+\frac{f}{2})=\pm 1$. For a odd, since $\frac{f}{2}(a-1)\equiv 0\pmod{f}$,

$$a\left(1+\frac{f}{2}\right)=a+a\frac{f}{2}\equiv a+\frac{f}{2}\pmod{f},$$

and hence

$$\chi\left(a+\frac{f}{2}\right)=\chi(a)\chi\left(1+\frac{f}{2}\right)\,.$$

Note that $\chi(1+\frac{f}{2})$ must be -1, otherwise $\chi(a+\frac{f}{2})=\chi(a) \ \forall \text{odd } a$; which means that χ is not primitive, a contradiction. Therefore $\chi(a+\frac{f}{2})=-\chi(a)$ for all odd a. For even a, both are zero. This completes the proof.

Corollary. Let χ be a primitive even character with conductor f which is divisible by 4. Then

(5.1)
$$|L(1,\chi)| = \frac{2}{\sqrt{f}} \left| \sum_{a < f/4} \chi(a) \log \tan \left(\frac{a\pi}{f} \right) \right|.$$

Proof. If follows from (4.2) and the above proposition

Now we are ready to set up the calculations of the quotient q/h, for the first few examples, n=0, 1, 2. Let us denote the quartic characters of K_n by χ_{16b} , $\overline{\chi}_{16b}=\chi_{16b}^3$, and denote the octic ones by χ_{32b} , $\chi'_{32b}=\chi_{32b}^3$, $\overline{\chi}'_{32b}=\chi_{32b}^5$, $\overline{\chi}_{32b}=\chi_{32b}^7$. With $q=R_1/R$ in mind, put (3.1), (4.1), and (5.1) together; we have the following formula for q/h:

Theorem 7. Let h be the class number of K_n , and let $q = [U:U_1]$ be the index mentioned in Theorem 6. Then we have

$$\frac{q}{h} = \frac{16R_{y}R_{\rho}}{L_{16h}L_{32h}L'_{32h}},$$

where

$$\begin{split} R_{y} &= \log^{2}|y_{1}| + \log^{2}|y_{2}|, \qquad y_{i} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\rho_{i} - \frac{1}{\rho_{i}} \right), \quad i = 1, 2; \\ R_{\rho} &= \pm \det \begin{vmatrix} A_{1} & A_{2} & A_{3} & A_{4} \\ A_{2} & A_{3} & A_{4} & -A_{1} \\ A_{3} & A_{4} & -A_{1} & -A_{2} \\ A_{4} & -A_{1} & -A_{2} & -A_{3} \end{vmatrix}, \qquad A_{i} = \log|\rho_{i}|, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, 4; \\ L_{16b} &= \left| \sum_{k < 4b} \chi_{16b}(k) \log \tan \left(\frac{k\pi}{16b} \right) \right|^{2}, \\ L_{32b} &= \left| \sum_{k < 8b} \chi_{32b}(k) \log \tan \left(\frac{k\pi}{32b} \right) \right|^{2}, \\ L'_{32b} &= \left| \sum_{k < 8b} \chi_{32b}^{3}(k) \log \tan \left(\frac{k\pi}{32b} \right) \right|^{2}. \end{split}$$

In the examples below, to determine which is the correct choice of χ , we have used Proposition 25 in Chapter 1 of Lang's book [6], along with the following fact:

Fact. Let p be an unramified rational prime in a number field K. Then we have

$$\chi(p) = \begin{cases} 1, & g = 8 \ (p \text{ splits}), \\ -1, & g = 4, \\ \pm i, & g = 2, \\ \pm \zeta_8^{1,3,5,7}, & g = 1 \ (p \text{ inert}), \end{cases}$$

where g is the number of primes in K lying above p, and χ is a generator of the character group.

Remarks. (a) Note also our χ 's are always even characters, since our number fields are all totally real.

- (b) We know that $(\mathbf{Z}/16\mathbf{Z})^{\times}$ is generated by 3 and -1, thus χ_{16} is deter-
- mined by $\chi_{16}(3)$ and $\chi_{16}(-1)$. Clearly, $\chi_{16}(3) = \pm i$ and $\chi_{16}(-1) = \pm 1$. (c) Similarly, we have $\chi_{32}(3) = \pm \zeta_8^{1,3,5,7}$ and $\chi_{32}(-1) = \pm 1$. Here are the calculations: Let $\zeta = \zeta_8 = \exp(2\pi i/8)$.

(A) For
$$n=0$$
, $a=1$, $b=1$: $f=16$
$$\rho_1 \sim 10.1531703876, \qquad A_1 \sim 2.31778601017,$$

$$\rho_2 \sim 1.87086841179, \qquad A_2 \sim 0.626402714402,$$

$$\rho_3 \sim -1.21850352559, \qquad A_3 \sim 0.197623487464,$$

$$\rho_4 \sim -3.29655820893, \qquad A_4 \sim 1.19287895721,$$

$$y_1 \sim 5.0273394921, \qquad y_2 \sim 0.66817863792.$$

Therefore,

$$R_{\rho} \sim 50.4046133952$$
, $R_{\nu} \sim 2.77044268466$.

Note that the quartic character χ_{16} is determined by $\chi_{16}(3) = i$ and $\chi_{16}(-1) = 1$, and the octic character χ_{32} is determined by $\chi_{32}(3) = \zeta$ and $\chi_{32}(-1) = 1$. Therefore, we have

$$\begin{split} L_{16} &= \left| \sum_{a < 4} \chi_{16}(a) \log \tan \left(\frac{a\pi}{16} \right) \right|^2 \sim 2.77044268468 \,, \\ L_{32} &= \left| \sum_{a < 8} \chi_{32}(a) \log \tan \left(\frac{a\pi}{32} \right) \right|^2 \sim 8.57489233007 \,, \\ L_{32}' &= \left| \sum_{a < 8} \chi_{32}^3(a) \log \tan \left(\frac{a\pi}{32} \right) \right|^2 \sim 5.87816247538 \,. \end{split}$$

A calculation yields $q/h \sim 16.0000009745$. Therefore we must have q/h = 16 in the field K_0 . Note that K_0 is contained in the cyclotomic field $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{32})$, whose class number is 1. Since $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{32})/K_0$ is totally ramified, we must have h=1, by class field theory (Theorem 10.1 in Washington's book [13]), and hence q=16.

Remarks. (a) Observe that we have $L_{16} = R_v$ and $L_{32}L'_{32} = R_o$.

(b) Let

$$\begin{split} B_1 &= \log \tan \left(\pi/32 \right) \,, \qquad B_2 &= \log \tan \left(5\pi/32 \right) \,, \\ B_3 &= \log \tan \left(7\pi/32 \right) \,, \qquad B_4 &= \log \tan \left(3\pi/32 \right) \,. \end{split}$$

Then

$$L_{32}L_{32}' = \sum_{i=1}^{4} B_i^4 + 2(B_1^2 B_3^2 + B_2^2 B_4^2) + 4(B_1 B_2 + B_3 B_4)(B_1 B_4 - B_2 B_3),$$

which is the determinant as in R_{ρ} , i.e.,

$$L_{32}L_{32}' = \pm \begin{vmatrix} B_1 & B_2 & B_3 & B_4 \\ B_2 & B_3 & B_4 & -B_1 \\ B_3 & B_4 & -B_1 & -B_2 \\ B_4 & -B_1 & -B_2 & -B_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

(c) Even better, we have

$$\rho_1 = \cot(\pi/32), \qquad \rho_2 = \cot(5\pi/32),
\rho_3 = -\cot(7\pi/32), \qquad \rho_4 = \cot(3\pi/32).$$

(B) For
$$n=1$$
, $a=7$, $b=5$: $f=160$

$$\rho_1 \sim 56.3729885432$$
, $A_1 \sim 4.03199011724$,
$$\rho_2 \sim 2.29805856808$$
, $A_2 \sim 0.832064665647$,
$$\rho_3 \sim -1.03611869347$$
, $A_3 \sim 0.0354817062613$,
$$\rho_4 \sim -2.54076252734$$
, $A_4 \sim 0.932464243591$,
$$y_1 \sim 28.1776247756$$
, $y_2 \sim 0.931454324485$.

Therefore,

$$R_{o} \sim 317.319066816$$
, $R_{v} \sim 11.1508127982$.

Note that the quartic character is $\chi_{80}=\chi_5\chi_{16}$, where χ_5 is quadratic and is uniquely determined by $\chi_5(2)=-1$. It is easy to see that χ_5 is even, so we must choose an even χ_{16} ; one choice for χ_{16} is determined by $\chi_{16}(3)=i$ and $\chi_{16}(-1)=1$. Therefore, we have

$$L_{80} = \left| \sum_{a < 20} \chi_{80}(a) \log \tan \left(\frac{a\pi}{80} \right) \right|^2 \sim 22.3016255964.$$

For the octic character $\chi_{160}=\chi_5\chi_{32}$, where χ_5 is quartic and $\chi_5(2)$ has two choices, both are odd, and we choose the one determined by $\chi_5(2)=i$. Thus we need odd octic χ_{32} . There are four choices for $\chi_{32}(3)$. To make a right decision, we use Proposition 25 in Lang's book [6]. Reduced to modulo 23, Q(X) is factored into the product of four squares of irreducibles; this says g=4 and $\chi_{160}(23)$ must be -1, which forces us to choose $\chi_{32}(3)=\zeta$ and $\chi_{32}(-1)=-1$. Therefore, we have

$$L_{160} = \left| \sum_{a \le 40} \chi_{160}(a) \log \tan \left(\frac{a\pi}{160} \right) \right|^2 \sim 59.189069019$$

and

$$L'_{160} = \left| \sum_{a < 40} \chi^3_{160}(a) \log \tan \left(\frac{a\pi}{160} \right) \right|^2 \sim 10.7222176717.$$

A calculation yields $q/h \sim 4.00000032779$, and hence we must have q/h = 4. Note also, $L_{80} = 2R_y$ and $L_{160}L'_{160} = 2R_\rho$. To calculate the class number h, we use Theorem 3 of Van der Linden's paper [12], and Theorem 3.5 in Washington's book [13] as follows:

Since K_1 and its Hilbert class field $H(K_1) = H$ are both in the maximal real subfield $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{160})^+$ of the cyclotomic field $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{160})$, by Van der Linden's results and

$$[\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{160}) \colon \mathbf{Q}] = \phi(160) = 64, \qquad [K_1 \colon \mathbf{Q}] = 8,$$

we have $h = [H : K_1]$ divides 4. Therefore h = 1, 2 or 4. Thus we have

$$h = [H : K_1][\langle \chi_5, \chi_{32} \rangle_{\text{even}} : \langle \chi_{160} \rangle].$$

Since the order of χ_{160} is 8, and clearly

$$\langle \chi_5, \chi_{32} \rangle = \{ \chi_5^a \chi_{32}^b | a+b = \text{even} \}$$

has order 16, we have h = 2, and hence q = 8 in this case.

(C) For
$$n=2$$
, $a=41$, $b=29$: $f=928$

$$\rho_1 \sim 328.064014277$$
, $A_1 \sim 5.79320875482$,
$$\rho_2 \sim 2.39355130221$$
, $A_2 \sim 0.872778163592$,
$$\rho_3 \sim -1.00611501086$$
, $A_3 \sim 0.0060939005349$,
$$\rho_4 \sim -2.43518218298$$
, $A_4 \sim 0.890021572208$,
$$y_1 \sim 164.030483046$$
, $y_2 \sim 0.98788102681$.

Therefore,

$$R_{o} \sim 1233.06032039$$
, $R_{v} \sim 26.0106819565$.

The quartic character is $\chi_{464}=\chi_{29}\chi_{16}$, where χ_{29} is quadratic and even, which is determined by $\chi_{29}(2)=-1$. Thus we must choose χ_{16} even, which is determined by $\chi_{16}(3)=i$ and $\chi_{16}(-1)=1$. Therefore, we have

$$L_{464} = \left| \sum_{a < 1.16} \chi_{464}(a) \log \tan \left(\frac{a\pi}{464} \right) \right|^2 = |A + iB|^2 \sim 52.021363913,$$

where

$$A = \log\left(\frac{\tan(\pi/464)\cdots\tan(111\pi/464)}{\tan(7\pi/464)\cdots\tan(113\pi/464)}\right) \sim \sqrt{26.1350518997}$$

and

$$B = \log \left(\frac{\tan(11\pi/464) \cdots \tan(115\pi/464)}{\tan(3\pi/464) \cdots \tan(107\pi/464)} \right) \sim \sqrt{25.8863120133}.$$

Finally the octic character is $\chi_{928}=\chi_{29}\chi_{32}$, where χ_{29} , which is determined by $\chi_{29}(2)=-i$, is odd, and hence χ_{32} must be odd. As before, a correct one is determined by $\chi_{32}(3)=\zeta$ and $\chi_{32}(-1)=-1$. Therefore, we have

$$L_{928} = \left| \sum_{a \in 232} \chi_{928}(a) \log \tan \left(\frac{a\pi}{928} \right) \right|^2 = \left| B_1 + \zeta B_2 + i B_3 + \zeta^3 B_4 \right|^2,$$

where

$$\begin{split} B_1 &= \log \left(\frac{\tan(\pi/928) \cdots \tan(215\pi/928)}{\tan(33\pi/928) \cdots \tan(225\pi/928)} \right) \sim 0.849438364885 \,, \\ B_2 &= \log \left(\frac{\tan(21\pi/928) \cdots \tan(229\pi/928)}{\tan(11\pi/928) \cdots \tan(213\pi/928)} \right) \sim 10.707542956 \,, \\ B_3 &= \log \left(\frac{\tan(7\pi/928) \cdots \tan(199\pi/928)}{\tan(9\pi/928) \cdots \tan(231\pi/928)} \right) \sim -8.44603006283 \,, \\ B_4 &= \log \left(\frac{\tan(5\pi/928) \cdots \tan(219\pi/928)}{\tan(3\pi/928) \cdots \tan(221\pi/928)} \right) \sim -4.91537996272 \,. \end{split}$$

Therefore,

$$L_{928}L_{928}' = \pm \det egin{bmatrix} B_1 & B_2 & B_3 & B_4 \ B_2 & B_3 & B_4 & -B_1 \ B_3 & B_4 & -B_1 & -B_2 \ B_4 & -B_1 & -B_2 & -B_3 \ \end{bmatrix} \sim 41924.0508935 \,.$$

Observe that

$$L_{928}L'_{928} = 34R_{\rho}, \qquad L_{464} = 2R_{\nu}.$$

So we have

$$\frac{q}{h} = \frac{16R_{y}R_{\rho}}{(2R_{y})(34R_{\rho})} = \frac{4}{17}.$$

To calculate the class number, we let L be the quartic field between $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{29})$ and \mathbf{Q} . Clearly, our field K_2 is contained in $L(\zeta_{29})$. Theorem 10.4(b) in Washington's book [13], implies $2 \nmid h(L)$. Since 2 is a primitive root modulo 29, we have 2 is inert in $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{29})/\mathbf{Q}$, and hence (2) = prime in L. Thus, only one prime ramifies in $L(\zeta_{29})/L$. Theorem 10.4(a) in Washington's book implies $2 \nmid h(L(\zeta_{32}))$. Let $H_2 = 2$ -part of the Hilbert class field of K_2 . Then

$$H_2\subseteq L(\zeta_{32})\,,\quad \text{ since } 2\nmid h(L(\zeta_{32}))\,.$$

Again we have

$$[H_2:K_2] = [\langle \chi_{29}, \chi_{32} \rangle_{\text{even}} : \langle \chi_{928} \rangle] = 2.$$

Therefore 2-part of $h(K_2)$ is 2, and probably $h = 2 \times 17 = 34$. Hence, probably, we have q = 8, and we know that q is 8 times an odd number.

(**D**) For
$$n = 4$$
, $a = 1393$, $b = 985$: $f = 31520$

$$R_y = 74.3994141935$$
, $R_\rho = 7812.96909763$,

$$L_{16b}/R_y = 68$$
, $L_{32b}L_{32b}'/R_\rho = 4964 = 4 \cdot 1241$.

Hence $h/q=1241\cdot 17$. As above, genus theory implies that 8|h, but we do not know the exact power of 2 for h. This happens probably because 985 is a composite number. Therefore the only thing we can say is

$$8|q$$
,

and hence probably we have q = 8.

(E) For
$$n = 5$$
, $a = 8119$, $b = 5741$: $f = 183712$

$$\begin{split} R_{_{\mathcal{Y}}} &= 107.915875995\,, \qquad R_{_{\rho}} = 15463.2083598\,, \\ L_{16b}/R_{_{\mathcal{Y}}} &= 130 = 2\cdot65\,, \qquad L_{32b}L_{32b}'/R_{_{\rho}} = 135458 = 2\cdot67729\,. \end{split}$$

Hence $h/q=(67729\cdot 65)/4$. As above, genus theory implies that 2|h. Since 2 is a primitive root mod 5741, 2 is inert in the field $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{5741})$. This implies that 2 does not divide the class number of the genus field. Therefore 2|h, and hence $2^3|q$. Again we have

$$q = 8 \cdot (odd)$$
,

and hence probably we have q = 8.

So now from our examples above, we suspect that for n>0, the index q=8. For n=0, the index q=16, which is probably because the conductor of K_0 is a prime power. Therefore we may make the following conjecture.

Conjecture 1. For n > 0 with b_n squarefree, the index $q = [U:U_1]$ is 8.

From this conjecture, we should be able to find some unit whose square root is also a unit in U. To do so, it is better to observe what happens to the quartic subfield $\mathbf{Q}(y)$. By exactly the same argument as in Theorem 7, we have the following:

Proposition 10. Let h_y be the class number of $\mathbf{Q}(y)$, and let $q_y = [U_y : U_{1y}]$, where U_y is the full unit group of $\mathbf{Q}(y)$, and $U_{1y} = \langle \pm 1, \varepsilon, y_1, y_2 \rangle$. Then we have

$$\frac{q_y}{h_y} = \frac{2R_y}{L_{16h}},$$

where $R_{v} = \log^{2} |y_{1}| + \log^{2} |y_{2}|$ and

$$L_{16b} = \left| \sum_{k < 4b} \chi_{16b}(k) \log \tan \left(\frac{k\pi}{16b} \right) \right|^2.$$

A calculation yields $q_y=2$ for n=0,1,2. This says that there exists a unit in U_{1y} , whose square root is a unit in U_y . It is clear that such a unit must be totally positive and it is easy to see that $y_1y_2\varepsilon$ is one such unit in U_{1y} . We know $y_1=y$, $y_2=(y-1)/(y+1)$, and

$$z = \frac{1}{4}(\rho_1 + \rho_3 + \rho_5 + \rho_7) = \frac{1}{2}(y - \frac{1}{y})$$
$$= a + \sqrt{a^2 + 1} = a + \sqrt{2}b = \varepsilon^{2n+1},$$

by equation (9). So we have the following:

$$y_1y_2\varepsilon=y_1y_2z\varepsilon^{-2n}=y\left(\frac{y-1}{y+1}\right)\left(\frac{y^2-1}{2y}\right)\varepsilon^{-2n}=\frac{\left(y-1\right)^2}{2\varepsilon^{2n}}\,.$$

Therefore

$$\sqrt{y_1 y_2 \varepsilon} = \frac{y-1}{\sqrt{2} \varepsilon^n}$$
, since $y > 1$.

Let $\xi=(y-1)/(\sqrt{2}\epsilon^n)$; then $\xi\in \mathbf{Q}(y)$ and ξ is a unit. Therefore $\xi\in U_y$. Now the units ϵ , y, ξ are independent, and the index $[U_y:\langle\pm 1,y,\xi\rangle]$ must be 1 for n=0, 1, 2. Therefore they form a system of fundamental units of the quartic subfield $\mathbf{Q}(y)$ for n=0, 1, 2. In general, M.-N. Gras [4] showed that $q_y=1$ or 2, in any simplest quartic field. Thus the index q_y in our quartic subfield $\mathbf{Q}(y)$ must be 2 for all n with b_n squarefree, and hence we have the following:

Theorem 8. In the quartic subfield $\mathbf{Q}(y)$ of the octic field K_n , let h_y be its class number, and let $q_y = [U_y : U_{1y}]$, where U_y is the full unit group of $\mathbf{Q}(y)$, and $U_{1y} = \langle \pm 1, \varepsilon, y_1, y_2 \rangle$. Then for all $n \in \mathbf{N}$ with b_n squarefree, we have

- (a) $q_{v} = 2$,
- (b) the units ε , y, $\xi = (y-1)/(\sqrt{2}\varepsilon^n)$ form a system of fundamental units for $\mathbf{Q}(y)$,

(c)

$$h_{y} = \left| \sum_{k < 4b} \chi_{16b}(k) \log \tan \left(\frac{k\pi}{16b} \right) \right|^{2} / \left[\log^{2} y + \log^{2} \left(\frac{y - 1}{y + 1} \right) \right],$$

(d) $\log h_v \sim \log a$, as $n \to \infty$.

Now let us go back to the octic field K_n . We are looking for some totally positive units in U_1 . It is easy to see $-\rho_1\rho_3y_1$ is totally positive and

$$-\rho_1\rho_3y_1=-\rho\left(\frac{-\rho-1}{\rho-1}\right)\left(\frac{\rho^2-1}{2\rho}\right)=\frac{\left(\rho+1\right)^2}{2}\,.$$

Therefore $\sqrt{-\rho_1\rho_3y_1} = (\rho+1)/\sqrt{2}$. Let $\eta = (\rho+1)/\sqrt{2}$, and let $\eta_k = \eta^{\sigma_{k-1}}$, $k=1,2,3,\ldots,8$. Then

$$\eta_k = \frac{\rho_k + 1}{(-1)^{k-1}\sqrt{2}}, \qquad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 8.$$

Therefore we have

$$\prod_{k=1}^{8} \eta_k = \frac{1}{16} \prod_{k=1}^{8} (\rho_k + 1) = \frac{1}{16} P(1) = 1,$$

by equation (3). For the sum, we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{8} \eta_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (4z_1 - 4z_2) = 2\sqrt{2}(z_1 - z_2).$$

But $z_1 + z_2 = 2a$ and $z_1 z_2 = -1$ imply

$$z_1 - z_2 = \sqrt{4a^2 + 4} = 2\sqrt{2}b$$
.

Therefore

$$\sum_{k=1}^8 \eta_k = 8b.$$

It is very easy to see that η is a unit in U, since η^2 is a unit and $\eta \in K_n$. However, to work out its minimal polynomial takes a lot of time. A calculation yields that the minimal polynomial of η is

$$X^{8} - 8bX^{7} - 4aX^{6} + 40bX^{5} - 6X^{4} - 40bX^{3} + 4aX^{2} + 8bX + 1$$
.

Clearly, the units ε , y, ξ , ρ_1 , ρ_2 , η_1 , η_2 are independent in U, and for n = 1, 2, the index

$$[U:\langle \pm 1\,,\, y\,,\, \xi\,,\, \rho_1\,,\, \rho_2\,,\, \eta_1\,,\, \eta_2\rangle]=1\,.$$

Therefore these seven units form a system of fundamental units for n = 1, 2. Hence we make the following conjecture for all n > 0.

Conjecture 2. The units ε , y, ξ , ρ_1 , ρ_2 , η_1 , η_2 in the ring of algebraic integers of the field K_n form a system of fundamental units for all n > 0, such that b_n is squarefree.

6. A possible generalization to 2^n -tic fields

Now, let us analyse what we have so far. In the simplest quadratic field, we have the polynomial

$$P_2(X) = X^2 - aX - 1 = (X^2 - 1) - aX$$
.

Let $Q_1(X) = X$, and let $Q_2(X) = X^2 - 1$. Then

$$P_2(X) = Q_2(X) - aQ_1(X)$$
.

In the simplest quartic field, we have the polynomial

$$P_4(X) = X^4 - aX^3 - 6X^2 + aX + 1 = (X^4 - 6X^2 + 1) - aX(X^2 - 1)$$

Let
$$Q_4(X) = X^4 - 6X^2 + 1$$
. Then

$$P_4(X) = Q_4(X) - aQ_1(X)Q_2(X)$$
.

In the simplest octic field, we have the polynomial

$$P_8(X) = X^8 - aX^7 - 28X^6 + 7aX^5 + 70X^4 - 7aX^3 - 28X^2 + aX + 1$$

= $(X^8 - 28X^6 + 70X^4 - 28X^2 + 1) - aX(X^2 - 1)(X^4 - 6X^2 + 1)$.

Let
$$Q_8(X) = X^8 - 28X^6 + 70X^4 - 28X^2 + 1$$
. Then

$$P_8(X) = Q_8(X) - aQ_1(X)Q_2(X)Q_4(X)$$
.

Note that

$$\begin{split} Q_1(X) &= Q_{2^0}(X) = X = \Re(X+i)\,, \\ Q_2(X) &= X^2 - 1 = \Re(X+i)^2\,, \\ Q_4(X) &= X^4 - 6X^2 + 1 = X^4 - \binom{4}{2}X^2 + 1 = \Re(X+i)^4\,, \end{split}$$

and

$$Q_8(X) = X^8 - {8 \choose 2} X^6 + {8 \choose 4} X^4 - {8 \choose 6} X^2 + 1 = \Re(X+i)^8.$$

Hence the next one, $Q_{16}(X)$, should be the real part of $(X+i)^{16}$, and

$$P_{16}(X) = Q_{16}(X) - aQ_1(X)Q_2(X)Q_4(X)Q_8(X) \,. \label{eq:P16}$$

In general, for n = 0, 1, 2, ..., let $Q_{2^n}(X)$ be the real part of $(X+i)^{2^n}$, which is

$$X^{2^{n}} - {2^{n} \choose 2} X^{2^{n}-2} + {2^{n} \choose 4} X^{2^{n}-4} - + \dots + {2^{n} \choose 2^{n}-4} X^{4} - {2^{n} \choose 2^{n}-2} X^{2} + 1.$$

Let

$$P_{2^n}(X) = Q_{2^n}(X) - a \prod_{k=0}^{n-1} Q_{2^k}(X)$$
 for $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Write $P_{2^n}(X;a)=P_{2^n}(X)$. Then $Q_{2^n}(X)=P_{2^n}(X;0)=\Re(X+i)^{2^n}$. Note also that in fact, we have

(6.1)
$$P_{2^n}(X) = \Re(X+i)^{2^n} - \frac{a}{2^n} \Im(X+i)^{2^n}.$$

To prove equation (6.1), it suffices to prove

$$\prod_{k=0}^{n-1} \Re(X+i)^{2^k} = \frac{1}{2^n} \Im(X+i)^{2^n}.$$

But this is true by induction on n.

As expected, we have the following:

Proposition 11. Let $N = 2^n$. Then $P_N(X) = 0$ has 2^n distinct real roots.

Proof. The proof is by induction on n. See Shen [9].

Remark. Claim. If ρ is a real root of $P_N(X)=0$, then so is $(\epsilon \rho-1)/(\rho+\epsilon)$. To see this, we let

$$\alpha = \rho + i$$
, $\beta = \frac{\varepsilon \rho - 1}{\rho + \varepsilon} + i$.

Then

$$(6.2) P_N(\rho) = \Re(\alpha^N) - \frac{a}{N} \Im(\alpha^N) = 0.$$

A calculation shows

$$\beta = \frac{\alpha}{\rho + \varepsilon} (\varepsilon + i) \,.$$

Note that $\rho + \varepsilon \in \mathbf{R}$ and

$$(\varepsilon + i)^N = -(\Im(\varepsilon + i)^{N/2})^2 \in \mathbf{R}$$

since $\Re(\varepsilon+i)^{N/2}=Q_{N/2}(\varepsilon)=0$, and hence $(\varepsilon+i)^{N/2}=i\Im(\varepsilon+i)^{N/2}$ is purely imaginary. Therefore $\beta^N=c\alpha^N$ for some $c\in\mathbf{R}$. Hence we have

$$\begin{split} P_N\left(\frac{\varepsilon\rho-1}{\rho+\varepsilon}\right) &= \Re(\beta^N) - \frac{a}{N}\Im(\beta^N)\,,\\ &= c\Re(\alpha^N) - \frac{a}{N}c\Im(\alpha^N)\,,\\ &= c(\Re(\alpha^N) - \frac{a}{N}\Im(\alpha^N))\,,\\ &= 0 \quad \text{(by equation (6.2))}. \end{split}$$

This proves the claim.

Proposition 12. Let ρ be a root of $P_{2^n}(X) = 0$, and let ε be the largest root of $Q_{2^{n-1}}(X) = 0$. Then the transformation $\sigma(\rho) = (\varepsilon \rho - 1)/(\rho + \varepsilon)$ has order 2^n . In other words, the 2×2 matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon & -1 \\ 1 & \varepsilon \end{pmatrix},$$

is of order 2^n , in the group $PGL_2(\mathbf{R})$.

(The proof is given below.)

Examples. (a) For n=1. The root of $Q_1(X)=0$ is 0, thus $\varepsilon=0$, and hence $A=\left(\begin{smallmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$ is of order 2.

- (b) For n=2. The roots of $Q_2(X)=0$ are ± 1 , thus $\varepsilon=1$, and hence $A=\left(\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right)$ is of order 4.
- (c) For n=3. The roots of $Q_4(X)=0$ are $\pm(\sqrt{2}+1)$, $\pm(\sqrt{2}-1)$, thus $\varepsilon=\sqrt{2}+1$, and hence $A=\left(\begin{smallmatrix}\varepsilon&-1\\1&\varepsilon\end{smallmatrix}\right)$ is of order 8.
 - (d) For n = 4. The roots of $Q_8(X) = 0$ are

$$\pm \left(\sqrt{2}+1\pm \sqrt{4+2\sqrt{2}}\right)\,,\qquad \pm \left(\sqrt{2}-1\pm \sqrt{4-2\sqrt{2}}\right)\,.$$

Therefore

$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{2} + 1 + \sqrt{4 + 2\sqrt{2}} \sim 5.02733949213$$

and hence $A = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon & -1 \\ 1 & \varepsilon \end{pmatrix}$ is of order 16.

Proof of Proposition 12. We prove that A is of order 2^n . Since A has two distinct eigenvalues $\varepsilon + i$, and $\varepsilon - i$, A must be similar to the diagonal matrix

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon + i & 0 \\ 0 & \varepsilon - i \end{pmatrix}.$$

Clearly, A and D have the same order. Hence it suffices to show that D is of order 2^n . Now

$$D\rho = \frac{\varepsilon + i}{\varepsilon - i}\rho = \zeta\rho,$$

where $\zeta = (\varepsilon + i)/(\varepsilon - i)$. Note that ε is real and

$$Q_{2^{n-1}}(\varepsilon) = 0 = \Re(\varepsilon + i)^{2^{n-1}}.$$

Therefore

$$(\varepsilon+i)^{2^{n-1}} = \Re(\varepsilon+i)^{2^{n-1}} + i\Im(\varepsilon+i)^{2^{n-1}} = i\Im(\varepsilon+i)^{2^{n-1}},$$

and hence

$$(\varepsilon - i)^{2^{n-1}} = \overline{(\varepsilon + i)}^{2^{n-1}} = -i\Im(\varepsilon + i)^{2^{n-1}}.$$

All these imply

$$\zeta^{2^{n-1}} = \left(\frac{\varepsilon + i}{\varepsilon - i}\right)^{2^{n-1}} = -1,$$

and thus ζ is of order 2^n . But $D\rho = \zeta \rho$, so the result follows immediately.

Everything described above is very nice. However, when n is getting large, a lot of difficulties arise. In the octic case, we were able to select a family of a, so that the generating fields are cyclic, and $\mathbf{Q}(\sqrt{2}) = \mathbf{Q}(\varepsilon)$ is always the unique quadratic subfield in every field of the family. For $n \ge 4$, we have the same problem and the selection of a to make the generating fields cyclic or even Galois becomes much harder. Anyway, this is a possible generalization to 2^n -tic algebraic number fields, and still a lot of work remains to be done. So this is not the end of the story, instead it is the beginning of another story.

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