

RINGS OF INTEGERS WITHOUT A POWER BASIS

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Let K be a number field, with degree n and ring of integers \mathcal{O}_K . If $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbf{Z}[\alpha]$ for some $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$, then $\{1, \alpha, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}\}$ is a \mathbf{Z} -basis of \mathcal{O}_K . We call such a basis a *power basis*.

When K is a quadratic field or a cyclotomic field, \mathcal{O}_K admits a power basis, and the use of these two fields as examples in algebraic number theory can lead to the impression that rings of integers always have a power basis. This is false. While it is always true that

$$\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbf{Z}e_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbf{Z}e_n$$

for some e_1, \dots, e_n , often we can not choose the e_i 's to be powers of a single number.

The first example of a ring of integers lacking a power basis is due to Dedekind [2, pp. 30–36]. It is the field $\mathbf{Q}(\theta)$ where θ is a root of $T^3 - T^2 - 2T - 8$.¹ (Dedekind wrote about this field in a less explicit form earlier in [1, pp. 1490–1492].) The ring of integers of $\mathbf{Q}(\theta)$ has \mathbf{Z} -basis $\{1, \theta, (\theta + \theta^2)/2\}$ but no power basis. We will return to this example in Remark 2, but our main purpose here is to give infinitely many examples of number fields whose ring of integers does not have a power basis. The examples will be Galois cubic extensions of \mathbf{Q} .

Fix a prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. The field $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_p)/\mathbf{Q}$ has cyclic Galois group $(\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})^\times$, and in particular there is a unique cubic subfield F_p , so F_p/\mathbf{Q} is Galois with degree 3. The Galois group $\text{Gal}(F_p/\mathbf{Q})$ is the quotient of $(\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})^\times$ by its subgroup of cubes. In particular, for each prime $q \neq p$, q splits completely in F_p if and only if its Frobenius in $\text{Gal}(F_p/\mathbf{Q})$ is trivial, which is equivalent to q being a cube modulo p .

Theorem 1 (Hensel). *If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ and 2 is a cube in $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$, then $\mathcal{O}_{F_p} \neq \mathbf{Z}[\alpha]$ for all $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_{F_p}$.*

Proof. Suppose $\mathcal{O}_{F_p} = \mathbf{Z}[\alpha]$ for some α . Let α have minimal polynomial $f(T)$ over \mathbf{Q} , so f is an irreducible cubic in $\mathbf{Z}[T]$. Then

$$\mathcal{O}_{F_p} = \mathbf{Z}[\alpha] \cong \mathbf{Z}[T]/f(T).$$

Since 2 is a cube mod p , 2 splits completely in F_p , so f splits completely in $(\mathbf{Z}/2\mathbf{Z})[T]$. However, a cubic in $(\mathbf{Z}/2\mathbf{Z})[T]$ can't split completely: there are only two (monic) linear polynomials mod 2. \square

The set of primes that fit the hypotheses of Theorem 1 are those $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ such that $2^{(p-1)/3} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. These are the primes that split completely in the splitting field of $T^3 - 2$ over \mathbf{Q} , and by the Chebotarev density theorem there is a positive proportion (precisely, 1/6) of such primes. The first few of them are 31, 43, 109, and 127. For each such p , Theorem 1 tells us the ring of integers of F_p does *not* have a power basis.

Remark 2. The proof that the integer ring of Dedekind's field $\mathbf{Q}(\theta)$ lacks a power basis operates on the same principle as Theorem 1: show 2 splits completely in the integers of $\mathbf{Q}(\theta)$, and that implies there is no power basis for the same reason as in Theorem 1.

¹Some references use the cubic $T^3 + T^2 - 2T + 8$, which is the minimal polynomial for $-\theta$. This mixture of positive and negative coefficients makes it harder to *remember* the example, so don't use it.

However, to show 2 splits completely in $\mathbf{Q}(\theta)$ requires different techniques than the ones we used in the fields F_p , since Dedekind's field does not lie in a cyclotomic field (for example, $\mathbf{Q}(\theta)$ is not a Galois extension of \mathbf{Q}).

We attribute Theorem 1 to Hensel, but he actually proved something that has the following stronger result as a special case: if K is a cubic field then the index $[\mathcal{O}_K : \mathbf{Z}[\alpha]]$ is even for all $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K - \mathbf{Z}$ if and only if 2 splits completely in K . Having that index always be even of course means \mathcal{O}_K can't be $\mathbf{Z}[\alpha]$ for some α .

The broader context for $[\mathcal{O}_K : \mathbf{Z}[\alpha]]$ always being even is a number field K for which a prime number p satisfies $p \mid [\mathcal{O}_K : \mathbf{Z}[\alpha]]$ for all $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K$ of full degree $[K : \mathbf{Q}]$ over \mathbf{Q} . Call such p a *common index divisor* for K . There being such p is sufficient for \mathcal{O}_K not to have a power basis.² Hensel [5, p. 138] showed a prime p is a common index divisor for a number field K if and only if there is $d \geq 1$ such that the number of different prime ideal factors of $p\mathcal{O}_K$ with residue field degree d is greater than the number of monic irreducibles of degree d in $\mathbf{F}_p[T]$. There is a monic irreducible in $\mathbf{F}_p[T]$ of each degree, so the formula $\sum_{i=1}^g e_i f_i = [K : \mathbf{Q}]$ for the prime p implies $2d \leq [K : \mathbf{Q}]$. Thus when $[K : \mathbf{Q}] = 3$, a prime p can only be a common index divisor for K using $d = 1$, which means $p\mathcal{O}_K$ has more than p different prime ideal factors of residue field degree 1. In a cubic field a prime number has at most 3 different prime ideal factors, so the only p that can be a common index divisor for a cubic field is 2. (In general, a prime p that is a common index divisor for a number field K must be less than $[K : \mathbf{Q}]$ by a theorem of von Zylinski [9].) There are two monic irreducibles of degree 1 in $\mathbf{F}_2[T]$, so for a cubic field K Hensel's work implies that $[\mathcal{O}_K : \mathbf{Z}[\alpha]]$ is even for all $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}_K - \mathbf{Z}$ if and only if 2 splits completely in K . See [3] for further details, including a proof that there are infinitely many cubic fields without a power basis for which this even-index condition does *not* apply.

The integer ring of F_p (for $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$) has some \mathbf{Z} -basis, which we now know need not be a power basis. What is a \mathbf{Z} -basis for this ring?

Theorem 3. *For $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ let*

$$\eta_0 = \text{Tr}_{\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_p)/F_p}(\zeta_p) = \sum_{t^{(p-1)/3} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}} \zeta_p^t.$$

Fixing an element $r \in (\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})^\times$ with order 3, let

$$\eta_1 = \sum_{t^{(p-1)/3} \equiv r \pmod{p}} \zeta_p^t, \quad \eta_2 = \sum_{t^{(p-1)/3} \equiv r^2 \pmod{p}} \zeta_p^t.$$

Then $\mathcal{O}_{F_p} = \mathbf{Z}\eta_0 + \mathbf{Z}\eta_1 + \mathbf{Z}\eta_2$.

The numbers η_i are examples of (cyclotomic) periods [8, pp. 16–17].

Proof. For $c \in (\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})^\times$, $c^{(p-1)/3}$ is a cube root of unity and therefore is in $\{1, r, r^2\}$. For suitable c each of the three values is achieved. Let $\sigma_c \in \text{Gal}(\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_p)/\mathbf{Q})$ send ζ_p to ζ_p^c . Then

$$\sigma_c(\eta_i) = \sigma_c \left(\sum_{t^{(p-1)/3} \equiv r^i \pmod{p}} \zeta_p^t \right) = \sum_{t^{(p-1)/3} \equiv r^i \pmod{p}} \zeta_p^{ct} = \sum_{t^{(p-1)/3} \equiv c^{(p-1)/3} r^i \pmod{p}} \zeta_p^t,$$

²This sufficient criterion is not necessary: it can happen that two indices $[\mathcal{O}_K : \mathbf{Z}[\alpha]]$ and $[\mathcal{O}_K : \mathbf{Z}[\beta]]$ are relatively prime, and thus K has no common index divisor, without \mathcal{O}_K having a power basis. An example is $K = \mathbf{Q}(\sqrt[3]{175})$.

so σ_c permutes $\{\eta_0, \eta_1, \eta_2\}$ the same way multiplication by $c^{(p-1)/3}$ permutes $\{1, r, r^2\}$. Therefore η_0, η_1 , and η_2 are \mathbf{Q} -conjugates, and since F_p is the unique cubic subfield of $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_p)$ each of η_0, η_1, η_2 generates F_p as a field extension of \mathbf{Q} .

The standard basis of $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_p)$ over \mathbf{Q} is $\{1, \zeta_p, \dots, \zeta_p^{p-2}\}$, and this is also a basis for $\mathbf{Z}[\zeta_p]$ over \mathbf{Z} . It is more convenient to multiply through by ζ_p and use instead $\mathcal{B} = \{\zeta_p, \zeta_p^2, \dots, \zeta_p^{p-1}\}$ as a basis of $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_p)$ over \mathbf{Q} or $\mathbf{Z}[\zeta_p]$ over \mathbf{Z} , since this is a basis of Galois conjugates (a normal basis over \mathbf{Q}). For example, η_0, η_1, η_2 are sums of different numbers in \mathcal{B} , so η_0, η_1 , and η_2 are linearly independent over \mathbf{Q} and thus form a \mathbf{Q} -basis of F_p .

Each $x \in \mathcal{O}_{F_p}$ can be written as $x = a_0\eta_0 + a_1\eta_1 + a_2\eta_2$ for rational a_0, a_1 , and a_2 . On the left side, since x is an algebraic integer in $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_p)$ it is a \mathbf{Z} -linear combination of the numbers in \mathcal{B} . Expanding the right side in terms of \mathcal{B} , the coefficients are a_0, a_1 , and a_2 , so comparing coefficients of the numbers in \mathcal{B} on both sides shows a_0, a_1 , and a_2 are all integers. \square

To measure how far $\mathbf{Z}[\eta_0]$ is from the full ring of integers \mathcal{O}_{F_p} we'd like to compute the index $[\mathcal{O}_{F_p} : \mathbf{Z}[\eta_0]]$. This can be expressed in terms of discriminants: if $f(T) \in \mathbf{Z}[T]$ is the minimal polynomial of η_0 over \mathbf{Q} then

$$(1) \quad \text{disc}(f(T)) = [\mathcal{O}_{F_p} : \mathbf{Z}[\eta_0]]^2 \text{disc}(\mathcal{O}_{F_p}).$$

What are these discriminants?

Theorem 4. For $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, $\text{disc}(\mathcal{O}_{F_p}) = p^2$.

Proof. The discriminant of \mathcal{O}_{F_p} is the 3×3 determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} \text{Tr}(\eta_0^2) & \text{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1) & \text{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_2) \\ \text{Tr}(\eta_1\eta_0) & \text{Tr}(\eta_1^2) & \text{Tr}(\eta_1\eta_2) \\ \text{Tr}(\eta_2\eta_0) & \text{Tr}(\eta_2\eta_1) & \text{Tr}(\eta_2^2) \end{vmatrix},$$

where $\text{Tr} = \text{Tr}_{F_p/\mathbf{Q}}$. Since η_0, η_1, η_2 are \mathbf{Q} -conjugates, as are $\eta_0\eta_1, \eta_0\eta_2$, and $\eta_1\eta_2$, we have

$$(2) \quad \begin{aligned} \text{disc}(\mathcal{O}_{F_p}) &= \begin{vmatrix} \text{Tr}(\eta_0^2) & \text{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1) & \text{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1) \\ \text{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1) & \text{Tr}(\eta_0^2) & \text{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1) \\ \text{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1) & \text{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1) & \text{Tr}(\eta_0^2) \end{vmatrix} \\ &= a^3 - 3ab^2 + 2b^3, \end{aligned}$$

where $a = \text{Tr}(\eta_0^2)$ and $b = \text{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1)$.

The trace of η_0 is $\text{Tr}(\eta_0) = \eta_0 + \eta_1 + \eta_2 = \sum_{(t,p)=1} \zeta_p^t = -1$. To compute $\text{Tr}(\eta_0^2)$, we compute

$$(3) \quad \begin{aligned} \eta_0^2 &= \sum_{a^{(p-1)/3}=1} \sum_{b^{(p-1)/3}=1} \zeta_p^{a+b} \\ &= \sum_{a^{(p-1)/3}=1} \sum_{b^{(p-1)/3}=1} \zeta_p^{a(1+b)} \\ &= \sum_{b^{(p-1)/3}=1} \sum_{a^{(p-1)/3}=1} \zeta_p^{a(1+b)} \\ &= \frac{p-1}{3} + \sum_{b^{(p-1)/3}=1, b \neq -1} \sigma_{1+b}(\eta_0) \\ &= \frac{p-1}{3} + c_0\eta_0 + c_1\eta_1 + c_2\eta_2, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 &= |\{b \neq 0, -1 : b^{(p-1)/3} = 1, (1+b)^{(p-1)/3} = 1\}|, \\ c_1 &= |\{b \neq 0, -1 : b^{(p-1)/3} = 1, (1+b)^{(p-1)/3} = r\}|, \\ c_2 &= |\{b \neq 0, -1 : b^{(p-1)/3} = 1, (1+b)^{(p-1)/3} = r^2\}|. \end{aligned}$$

(Recall r and r^2 are the elements of order 3 in $(\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})^\times$.)

Taking the trace of both sides of (3) gives

$$\mathrm{Tr}(\eta_0^2) = (p-1) + (c_0 + c_1 + c_2) \mathrm{Tr}(\eta_0) = p-1 - (c_0 + c_1 + c_2).$$

The sum of the c_i 's is the number of solutions to $b^{(p-1)/3} = 1$ in $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$ except for $b = -1$, so

$$(4) \quad \mathrm{Tr}(\eta_0^2) = p-1 - \left(\frac{p-1}{3} - 1\right) = \frac{2}{3}(p-1) + 1.$$

Writing

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Tr}(\eta_0^2) &= \eta_0^2 + \eta_1^2 + \eta_2^2 \\ &= (\eta_0 + \eta_1 + \eta_2)^2 - 2(\eta_0\eta_1 + \eta_1\eta_2 + \eta_0\eta_2) \\ &= (\mathrm{Tr} \eta_0)^2 - 2 \mathrm{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1) \\ (5) \quad &= 1 - 2 \mathrm{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1), \end{aligned}$$

we compare (4) and (5) to see that $\mathrm{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1) = -(p-1)/3$.

Feeding the formulas for $\mathrm{Tr}(\eta_0^2)$ and $\mathrm{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1)$ into the discriminant formula (2) gives

$$\mathrm{disc}(\mathcal{O}_{F_p}) = \left(\frac{2}{3}(p-1) + 1\right)^3 - 3 \left(\frac{2}{3}(p-1) + 1\right) \left(\frac{p-1}{3}\right)^2 - 2 \left(\frac{p-1}{3}\right)^3 = p^2.$$

□

Remark 5. The discriminant of F_p can be calculated using ramification rather than a basis: the extension $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_p)/\mathbf{Q}$ is ramified only at p , so if K is an intermediate field then it is ramified only at p too. Since $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_p)/\mathbf{Q}$ is totally ramified at p , K is totally ramified at p as well. If a number field is totally ramified at a prime p and has degree n not divisible by p then it can be shown that its discriminant is divisible by p^{n-1} but not p^n . Therefore if $[K : \mathbf{Q}] = d$, $\mathrm{disc}(K) = \pm p^{d-1}$. The sign of $\mathrm{disc}(K)$ is $(-1)^{r_2(K)}$ [8, Lemma 2.2], and when $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ the cubic field F_p has $r_2 = 0$ since a Galois cubic with a real embedding has $r_2 = 0$, so $\mathrm{disc}(F_p) = p^{3-1} = p^2$.

The first few primes $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ are

$$7, 13, 19, 31, 37, 43, 61, 67, 73, 79, 97.$$

For every prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ we can write $4p = A^2 + 27B^2$ and such an equation determines A and B up to sign [6, p. 119]. The table below gives the positive A and B for the above p .

p	7	13	19	31	37	43	61	67	73	79	97
(A, B)	(1,1)	(5,1)	(7,1)	(4,2)	(11,1)	(8,2)	(1,3)	(5,3)	(7,3)	(17,1)	(19,1)

Numerically, for each of the above p a calculation of $f(T)$ as $(T-\eta_0)(T-\eta_1)(T-\eta_2)$ shows the discriminant of $f(T)$ is $(pB)^2$. By (1) and Theorem 4, the formula $\mathrm{disc}(f(T)) = (pB)^2$ is equivalent to $[\mathcal{O}_{F_p} : \mathbf{Z}[\eta_0]] = |B|$, so by the above table $\mathbf{Z}[\eta_0]$ has index 2 in \mathcal{O}_{F_p} when p is 31 and 43, the index is 3 when p is 61, 67, and 73, and the index is 1 (*i.e.*, $\mathcal{O}_{F_p} = \mathbf{Z}[\eta_0]$) for the other p in the table. For a more rigorous discussion of the formula $\mathrm{disc}(f(T)) = (pB)^2$,

see [4]. Claude Quitte observed numerically for the above p an index formula using A : $[\mathcal{O}_{F_p} : \mathbf{Z}[\eta_0 - \eta_1]] = |A|$.

The formula $\text{disc}(f(T)) = (pB)^2$ leads to a formula for $f(T)$. In terms of its roots η_i ,

$$\begin{aligned} f(T) &= (T - \eta_0)(T - \eta_1)(T - \eta_2) \\ &= T^3 - (\eta_0 + \eta_1 + \eta_2)T^2 + (\eta_0\eta_1 + \eta_0\eta_2 + \eta_1\eta_2)T - \eta_0\eta_1\eta_2 \\ &= T^3 - \text{Tr}(\eta_0)T^2 + \text{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1)T - \eta_0\eta_1\eta_2 \\ &= T^3 - (-1)T^2 - \frac{p-1}{3}T - \eta_0\eta_1\eta_2 \\ &= T^3 + T^2 - \frac{p-1}{3}T - \eta_0\eta_1\eta_2. \end{aligned}$$

We want to write the constant term of $f(T)$ in terms of p . The general formula

$$\text{disc}(T^3 + T^2 + aT + b) = -4a^3 + a^2 + 18ab - 27b^2 - 4b$$

with $a = -(p-1)/3$ and $b = -\eta_0\eta_1\eta_2$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{4}{27}p^3 - \frac{1}{3}p^2 + \left(\frac{2}{9} - 6b\right)p - 27b^2 + 2b - \frac{1}{27} &= \frac{p^2}{27} \left(4p - 9 - \frac{6(27b-1)}{p} - \frac{(27b-1)^2}{p^2}\right) \\ &= \frac{p^2}{27} \left(4p - \left(3 + \frac{27b-1}{p}\right)^2\right). \end{aligned}$$

Setting $4p = A^2 + 27B^2$, this discriminant is

$$\frac{p^2}{27} \left(A^2 + 27B^2 - \left(3 + \frac{27b-1}{p}\right)^2 \right) = \frac{p^2}{27} \left(A^2 - \left(3 + \frac{27b-1}{p}\right)^2 \right) + (pB)^2.$$

Therefore

$$\text{disc}(f(T)) = (pB)^2 \iff 3 + \frac{27b-1}{p} = \pm A.$$

Since $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ we have $3 + (27b-1)/p \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$, so if we choose the sign on A to make $A \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ then $3 + (27b-1)/p = -A$. Rewrite this as $b = (1 - p(A+3))/27$, so the minimal polynomial of η_0 over \mathbf{Q} is

$$(6) \quad f(T) = T^3 + T^2 - \frac{p-1}{3}T + \frac{1-p(A+3)}{27}$$

with $4p = A^2 + 27B^2$ and $A \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

Example 6. The first p fitting the hypotheses of Theorem 1 is $p = 31$, for which $4p = 124 = (4)^2 + 27(2)^2$. Therefore the cubic subfield of $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{31})$ is $\mathbf{Q}(\eta_0)$ where, by (6), η_0 has minimal polynomial

$$T^3 + T^2 - \frac{31-1}{3}T + \frac{1-31(4+3)}{27} = T^3 + T^2 - 10T - 8.$$

The field $\mathbf{Q}(\eta_0)$ is a cyclic cubic extension of \mathbf{Q} in which 2 splits completely and its ring of integers has no power basis.

Example 7. The second p fitting the hypotheses of Theorem 1 is $p = 43$, for which $4p = 172 = (-8)^2 + 27(2)^2$ (we use -8 so that $A = -8 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$). Thus the cubic subfield of $\mathbf{Q}(\zeta_{43})$ is $\mathbf{Q}(\eta_0)$ where η_0 has minimal polynomial

$$T^3 + T^2 - \frac{43-1}{3}T + \frac{1-43(-8+3)}{27} = T^3 + T^2 - 14T + 8$$

and this cubic field has the same properties as at the end of the previous example.

The minimal polynomial of $\eta_0 - \eta_1$ over \mathbf{Q} is $(T - (\eta_0 - \eta_1))(T - (\eta_1 - \eta_2))(T - (\eta_2 - \eta_0))$. Expanding this out, we get

$$(7) \quad T^3 + (\eta_0\eta_1 + \eta_0\eta_2 + \eta_1\eta_2 - \eta_0^2 - \eta_1^2 - \eta_2^2)T + (\eta_0 - \eta_1)(\eta_1 - \eta_2)(\eta_2 - \eta_0).$$

The coefficient of T is $3\operatorname{Tr}(\eta_0\eta_1) - (\operatorname{Tr}\eta_0)^2 = -3(p-1)/3 - (-1)^2 = -p$ and the constant term is $\sqrt{\operatorname{disc}(f(T))} = \pm p|B|$. The sign of the constant term in (7) is sensitive to the choice of ζ_p and nontrivial cube root of unity $r \bmod p$ in the definition of the η_i , *e.g.*, changing r can change η_1 into η_2 but $\eta_0 - \eta_1$ and $\eta_0 - \eta_2$ are not \mathbf{Q} -conjugates. In fact $\eta_0 - \eta_2$ has minimal polynomial $T^3 - pT \mp p|B|$ with constant term of opposite sign to the minimal polynomial of $\eta_0 - \eta_1$. When the definition of the η_i uses $\zeta_p = e^{2\pi i/p}$ and r is the numerically least nontrivial cube root of unity mod p in $\{1, \dots, p-1\}$ then for all $p < 100$ such that $p \equiv 1 \pmod 3$ the constant term of (7) turns out to be $p|B|$ except when $p = 61$.

The only $p < 500$ for which $p \equiv 1 \pmod 3$ and the class number of F_p is greater than 1 are 163, 277, 313, 349, and 397. For these p the class group of F_p is $\mathbf{Z}/2\mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z}/2\mathbf{Z}$ except for $p = 313$, when it is $\mathbf{Z}/7\mathbf{Z}$.

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