

# On the number of cubic orders of bounded discriminant having automorphism group $C_{3}$, and related problems 

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For a binary quadratic form $Q$, we consider the action of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}$ on a 2-dimensional vector space. This representation yields perhaps the simplest nontrivial example of a prehomogeneous vector space that is not irreducible, and of a coregular space whose underlying group is not semisimple. We show that the nondegenerate integer orbits of this representation are in natural bijection with orders in cubic fields having a fixed "lattice shape". Moreover, this correspondence is discriminant-preserving: the value of the invariant polynomial of an element in this representation agrees with the discriminant of the corresponding cubic order.

We use this interpretation of the integral orbits to solve three classical-style counting problems related to cubic orders and fields. First, we give an asymptotic formula for the number of cubic orders having bounded discriminant and nontrivial automorphism group. More generally, we give an asymptotic formula for the number of cubic orders that have bounded discriminant and any given lattice shape (i.e., reduced trace form, up to scaling). Via a sieve, we also count cubic fields of bounded discriminant whose rings of integers have a given lattice shape. We find, in particular, that among cubic orders (resp. fields) having lattice shape of given discriminant $D$, the shape is equidistributed in the class group $\mathrm{Cl}_{D}$ of binary quadratic forms of discriminant $D$. As a by-product, we also obtain an asymptotic formula for the number of cubic fields of bounded discriminant having any given quadratic resolvent field.

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## 1. Introduction

An order in a cubic field (or cubic order for short) has either 1 or 3 automorphisms. The number of cubic orders with trivial automorphism group and bounded discriminant, ${ }^{1}$ and the corresponding number of fields, were computed asymptotically in the classical work of Davenport and Heilbronn [1971]. A corresponding asymptotic formula for the number of cubic fields with an automorphism of order 3 (called $C_{3}$-cubic fields) was obtained by Cohn [1954], but a formula for $C_{3}$-cubic orders has not previously been obtained. In this article, we prove the following theorem:

Theorem 1. The number of cubic orders having automorphism group isomorphic to a cyclic group of order 3 , and discriminant less than $X$, is

$$
\frac{\pi}{6 \sqrt{3}} X^{1 / 2}+O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)
$$

More generally, we prove asymptotics for the number of cubic orders having any given "lattice shape". To be more precise, a cubic ring is a commutative ring with unit that is free of rank 3 as a $\mathbb{Z}$-module. Such a ring $R$ is endowed with a linear map $\operatorname{Tr}: R \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ called the trace, which sends $z \in R$ to the trace of the endomorphism $\times z: R \rightarrow R$ defined by multiplication by $z$. The discriminant Disc $R$ of a cubic ring $R$ with $\mathbb{Z}$-basis $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}$ is defined to be $\operatorname{det}\left(\operatorname{Tr}\left(\alpha_{i} \alpha_{j}\right)\right) \in \mathbb{Z}$. A cubic order is a cubic ring that is also an integral domain.

For a cubic ring $R$, the restriction of the trace form $\operatorname{Tr}\left(z^{2}\right)$ to the trace-zero part of $\mathbb{Z}+3 R$ is an integer-valued binary quadratic form. If $R$ has nonzero discriminant, then, via a choice of basis, this form can be written as $n Q(x, y)$, where $Q$ is a primitive integral binary quadratic form and $n$ is a positive integer. We define the shape of $R$ to be the $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence class of the binary quadratic form $Q(x, y)$. Since it is often convenient, we will usually refer to $Q$ itself (or an equivalent form) as the shape of $R .^{2}$

If $Q$ is a primitive integral binary quadratic form, then we define $N_{3}(Q, X)$ to be the number of cubic orders having shape $Q$ and absolute discriminant less than $X$. It is easy to see that, by definition, the shape $Q$ of a cubic ring cannot be negative definite; hence all quadratic forms $Q$ in this paper are assumed to be either positive definite or indefinite. The following theorem gives an asymptotic formula for $N_{3}(Q, X)$ as $X \rightarrow \infty$.

[^1]Theorem 2. Let $Q$ be a primitive integral binary quadratic form with nonsquare discriminant $D$. Set $\alpha=1$ if $3 \mid D$ and $\alpha=0$ otherwise. Set $\beta=1$ if $D>-4$ and $\beta=0$ otherwise. Set $\gamma=1$ if $Q$ is ambiguous ${ }^{3}$ and $\gamma=0$ otherwise. Then

$$
N_{3}(Q, X)=\frac{3^{\alpha+\beta-3 / 2} \cdot L\left(1, \chi_{D}\right)}{2^{\gamma} \cdot h(D) \sqrt{|D|}} X^{1 / 2}+O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)
$$

Here, $L\left(s, \chi_{D}\right)$ is the Dirichlet $L$-function associated to the primitive quadratic character $\chi_{D}$ of conductor $D$ and $h(D)$ denotes the size of the narrow class group of binary quadratic forms of discriminant $D$ up to $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence.

A cubic ring has three automorphisms if and only if its shape is equivalent to the quadratic form $Q(x, y)=x^{2}+x y+y^{2}$ (see proof of Theorem 14). Thus, for this choice of $Q$, the quantity $N_{3}(Q, X)$ is the number of cubic orders with discriminant less than $X$ that have three automorphisms, and Theorem 1 follows from Theorem 2.

The main term in Theorem 2 is nearly a function of the discriminant $D$ of $Q$; only the factor of $2^{\gamma}$ depends on the particular equivalence class of $Q$. With this in mind, we introduce the notion of an oriented cubic ring, which is a pair $(R, \delta)$ consisting of a cubic ring $R$ and an isomorphism $\delta: \wedge^{3} R \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$. We usually refer to an oriented cubic ring $(R, \delta)$ simply as $R$, with the accompanying isomorphism $\delta$ being implied. The shape of an oriented cubic ring $R$ is defined as before, but now using oriented bases and $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence.

We define $N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ to be the number of isomorphism classes of oriented cubic orders having shape $Q$ and absolute discriminant less than $X$. Notice that $Q(x, y)$ is ambiguous if and only if its $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence class coincides with its $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence class. If $Q$ is not ambiguous, then its $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-class splits into two $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-classes. In other words,

$$
N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)=2^{\gamma} N_{3}(Q, X)
$$

where $\gamma$ is defined as in Theorem 2. Thus Theorem 2 is equivalent to the following.
Theorem 3. Let $Q$ be a primitive integral binary quadratic form with nonsquare discriminant $D$. Set $\alpha=1$ if $3 \mid D$ and $\alpha=0$ otherwise, and set $\beta=1$ if $D>-4$ and $\beta=0$ otherwise. Then

$$
N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)=\frac{3^{\alpha+\beta-3 / 2} \cdot L\left(1, \chi_{D}\right)}{h(D) \sqrt{|D|}} X^{1 / 2}+O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)
$$

In particular, among oriented cubic orders with shape of discriminant $D$, the shape is equidistributed in the class group $\mathrm{Cl}_{D}$ of binary quadratic forms of discriminant $D$.

[^2]The exponent $\frac{1}{4}$ in the error term in Theorem 3 is optimal. If we count cubic rings (instead of just cubic orders) having shape $Q$, then we find that the main term in Theorem 3 stays the same (that is, the number of cubic rings of a given shape $Q$ that are not orders in cubic fields is negligible), but the error term becomes smaller.

Via a suitable sieve, we use Theorem 3 to determine asymptotics for the number $M_{3}(Q, X)$ (resp. $M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ ) of maximal cubic orders (resp. maximal oriented cubic orders) having shape $Q$ and discriminant bounded by $X$. Thus $M_{3}(Q, X)$ is the number of cubic fields with absolute discriminant less than $X$ whose rings of integers have shape $Q$. As before we have $M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)=2^{\gamma} M_{3}(Q, X)$, where $\gamma=1$ if $Q$ is ambiguous and $\gamma=0$ otherwise.

Theorem 4. Let $Q$ be a primitive integral binary quadratic form of discriminant $D$. Suppose that either $D$ or $-D / 3$ is a nonsquare fundamental discriminant. Set $\alpha=1$ if $3 \mid D$ and $\alpha=0$ otherwise. Also, set $\beta=1$ if $D>-4$ and $\beta=0$ otherwise. Then $M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ $=\frac{3^{\alpha+\beta+1 / 2} \mu_{3}(D)}{4 \pi^{2} \sqrt{|D|}} \cdot \frac{L\left(1, \chi_{D}\right)}{h(D)} \prod_{\substack{(D / p)=1 \\ p \neq 3}}\left(1-\frac{2}{p(p+1)}\right) \prod_{\substack{p \mid D \\ p \neq 3}}\left(\frac{p}{p+1}\right) X^{1 / 2}+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right)$,
where

$$
\mu_{3}(D)= \begin{cases}\frac{16}{27} & \text { if } 3 \nmid D \\ \frac{22}{27} & \text { if } 3 \| D, \\ \frac{2}{3} & \text { if } 9 \| D\end{cases}
$$

For all other nonsquare values of $D$, we have $M_{3}(Q, X)=0$.
As in Theorem 3, we see that the shapes of rings of integers in oriented cubic fields (when ordered by absolute discriminant) are equidistributed in the respective class groups $\mathrm{Cl}_{D}$ of binary quadratic forms of discriminant $D$. The error term in Theorem 4 can certainly be improved, although we shall not investigate the issue in this paper.

Applying Theorem 4 to the form $Q(x, y)=x^{2}+x y+y^{2}$ yields the following result of Cohn [1954] on the number of abelian cubic fields having bounded discriminant (though our methods are completely different!).

Theorem 5 [Cohn 1954]. The number of abelian cubic fields having discriminant less than $X$ is

$$
\frac{11 \sqrt{3}}{36 \pi} \prod_{p \equiv 1(3)}\left(1-\frac{2}{p(p+1)}\right) \cdot X^{1 / 2}+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

Finally, Theorem 4 can also be used to count the number $N(d, X)$ of cubic fields with absolute discriminant bounded by $X$ and whose quadratic resolvent
field is $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$. To this end, let $M_{3}^{D}(X)$ be the number of cubic fields $K$ with shape of discriminant of $D$ and $|\operatorname{Disc} K|<X$. Then by Theorem 4, we have $M_{3}^{D}(X) \sim \frac{1}{2} h(D) M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ as $X \rightarrow \infty$, for any primitive integral form $Q$ of discriminant $D$. Regarding $N(d, X)$, we prove:

Theorem 6. Suppose $d \neq-3$ is a fundamental discriminant. Then

$$
N(d, X)= \begin{cases}M_{3}^{-3 d}(X) & \text { if } 3 \nmid d \\ M_{3}^{-3 d}(X)+M_{3}^{-d / 3}(X) & \text { if } 3 \mid d\end{cases}
$$

Combining this with Theorem 4, we obtain the following.
Theorem 7. Let $d \neq-3$ be a fundamental discriminant, and set $D=-d / 3$ if $3 \mid d$ and $D=-3 d$ otherwise. Set $\alpha=1$ if $3 \mid D$ and $\alpha=0$ otherwise. Also set $\beta=1$ for $D>-4$ and $\beta=0$ otherwise. Then

$$
N(d, X)=\frac{3^{\alpha+\beta-1 / 2} \cdot C_{0}}{\pi^{2} \sqrt{|D|}} \cdot \prod_{p \mid D} \frac{p}{p+1} \cdot L(D) \cdot X^{1 / 2}+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right),
$$

where

$$
L(D)=\prod_{p}\left(1+\left(\frac{D}{p}\right) \frac{1}{p+1}\right)=L\left(1, \chi_{D}\right) \prod_{\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=1}\left(1-\frac{2}{p(p+1)}\right)
$$

and

$$
C_{0}= \begin{cases}\frac{11}{9} & \text { if } d \not \equiv 0(\bmod 3) \\ \frac{5}{3} & \text { ifd } \equiv 3(\bmod 9) \\ \frac{7}{5} & \text { if } d \equiv 6(\bmod 9)\end{cases}
$$

We note that this latter result on the asymptotic number of cubic fields having a given quadratic resolvent field was recently obtained independently by Cohen and Morra [2011, Theorem 1.1(2), Corollary 7.6] using very different methods, and with an explicit error term of $O\left(X^{1 / 3+\varepsilon}\right)$.

All these results may be extended to the case of square discriminant. The cubic fields with shape of square discriminant are precisely the pure cubic fields - that is, those of the form $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{m})$ for some integer $m$ — while the orders with such a shape are the orders in pure cubic fields (see Lemma 33). The asymptotic growth in the case of a square discriminant is somewhat larger:

Theorem 8. Let $Q_{D}$ be a primitive integral binary quadratic form of square discriminant $D$. Set $\alpha=1$ if $3 \mid D$ and $\alpha=0$ otherwise. Then
$N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}\left(Q_{D}, X\right)=\frac{3^{\alpha-3 / 2}}{2 D} X^{1 / 2} \log X+\frac{3^{\alpha-3 / 2}}{D}\left(2 \gamma-1+\frac{3}{2} \log \frac{D}{3}\right) X^{1 / 2}+O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)$,
where $\gamma$ is Euler's constant. Also, we have

$$
M_{3}\left(Q_{1}, X\right)=\frac{C}{15 \sqrt{3}} X^{1 / 2}\left(\log X-\frac{16}{5} \log 3+4 \gamma+12 \kappa-2\right)+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

and

$$
M_{3}\left(Q_{9}, X\right)=\frac{C}{40 \sqrt{3}} X^{1 / 2}\left(\log X-\frac{1}{5} \log 3+4 \gamma+12 \kappa-2\right)+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

where $C=\prod_{p}\left(1-3 / p^{2}+2 / p^{3}\right)$ and $\kappa=\sum_{p}(\log p) /\left(p^{2}+p-2\right)$. For all other square values of $D$, we have $M_{3}\left(Q_{D}, X\right)=0$.

Finally, $N(-3, X)=M_{3}\left(Q_{1}, X\right)+2 M_{3}\left(Q_{9}, X\right)$; hence the density of pure cubic fields is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
N(-3, X)=\frac{7 C}{60 \sqrt{3}} X^{1 / 2}\left(\log X-\frac{67}{35} \log 3+4 \gamma+12 \kappa-2\right)+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, Theorem 8 shows that, when counting cubic orders with shape of a given square discriminant $D$, both the first and second main terms of the asymptotics become equidistributed in the class group $\mathrm{Cl}_{D}$. We note that Equation (1) corresponds to Theorem 1.1(1) in [Cohen and Morra 2011], where again an explicit error term of $O\left(X^{1 / 3+\varepsilon}\right)$ is proved.

There are two types of pure cubic fields: those with shape of discriminant $D=1$ and those with shape of discriminant $D=9$. These turn out to correspond to Dedekind's notion [1899] of pure cubic fields of Types 1 and 2, respectively. In fact, the asymptotics for $N(-3, X)$ can be deduced fairly easily from Dedekind's work, as we explain in the last remark of the paper. In general, Theorem 6 shows that there are two distinct types of cubic fields whenever the discriminant $d$ of the quadratic resolvent algebra is a multiple of 3. In that case, there are cubic fields of shape of discriminant $-d / 3$ and of discriminant $-3 d$, and these are precisely the cubic fields of Type 1 and Type 2, respectively.

Our methods are mostly quite elementary, involving primarily geometry-ofnumbers arguments. However, these methods also fit into a larger context. Let $G$ be an algebraic group and $V$ a representation of $G$. Then the pair ( $G, V$ ) is called a prehomogeneous vector space if $G$ possesses an open orbit; the pair $(G, V)$ is called a coregular space if the ring of invariants of $G$ on $V$ is free. A classification of all irreducible reductive prehomogeneous vector spaces was attained in [Sato and Kimura 1977], while a similar classification of simple (resp. semisimple and irreducible) coregular spaces was accomplished in [Schwarz 1978] (resp. [Littelmann 1989]). The rational and integer orbits in such spaces tend to have a very rich arithmetic interpretation (see, for example, [Gauss 1801; Delone and Faddeev 1964; Wright and Yukie 1992; Bhargava 2004a; 2004b; 2004c; 2008;

Cremona et al. 2010; Bhargava and Ho 2013]), and have led to several numbertheoretic applications, particularly to the study of the density of discriminants of number fields and statistical questions involving elliptic and higher genus curves [Davenport and Heilbronn 1971; Datskovsky and Wright 1988; Bhargava 2005; 2010; Bhargava and Shankar 2010; Bhargava and Gross 2012].

In this paper, we prove Theorems 1-8 and related results by considering the simplest nontrivial example of a coregular space whose underlying group is not semisimple (namely, an action of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})$ on $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ for a binary quadratic form $Q$ ). It also yields the simplest prehomogeneous vector space that is not irreducible (namely, an action of $\mathrm{GO}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})$ on $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ ). We show that the integer orbits on this space, even in this nonirreducible and nonsemisimple scenario, also have a rich and nontrivial number-theoretic interpretation, namely, the integer orbits classify cubic rings whose lattice shape is $Q$.

In light of these results, we note that there has not been a classification of general reducible prehomogeneous vector spaces nor of general nonsemisimple coregular spaces, akin to the work of Sato and Kimura or Schwarz and Littelmann, respectively, leading to two interesting questions in representation theory. As we hope this paper will illustrate, the solution of these two problems may also have important consequences for number theory.

The problems that we address in this paper are related to problems considered in [Terr 1997], [Mantilla-Soler 2010] and [Zhao 2013]. Terr showed that the shape of cubic rings (ordered by absolute discriminant) is equidistributed amongst lattices, which are viewed as points in Gauss's fundamental domain $\mathscr{F}$. More precisely, the number of cubic rings (of bounded discriminant) having shape lying in some subset $W \subset \mathscr{F}$ is proportional to the area of $W$ (with respect to the hyperbolic measure on $\mathscr{F}$ ). Terr's work is somewhat orthogonal to our own in that it implies that $N(Q, X)=o(X)$, but it does not say anything more about a single shape $Q(x, y)$. The related problem treated by Mantilla-Soler is to determine when a cubic field is determined by its trace form, which is a finer invariant than the shape. Finally, Zhao carried out a detailed study of the distribution of cubic function fields by discriminant, in which the geometric Maroni invariant of trigonal curves plays an important role. In particular, he has suggested an analogue of the Maroni invariant for cubic number fields, which turns out to be closely related to the notion of "shape".

## 2. Preliminaries

In order to count cubic rings of bounded discriminant, we use a parametrization, due to Delone and Faddeev [1964] and recently refined by Gan, Gross, and Savin [Gan et al. 2002], that identifies cubic rings with integral binary cubic forms.
2.1. The Delone-Faddeev correspondence. We follow the exposition of [Gan et al. 2002]. Consider the space of all binary cubic forms

$$
f(x, y)=a x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+d y^{3}
$$

with integer coefficients, and let an element $\gamma \in \mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ act on this space by the twisted action

$$
\gamma \cdot f(x, y)=\frac{1}{\operatorname{det}(\gamma)} \cdot f((x, y) \gamma)
$$

This action is faithful and defines an equivalence relation on the space of integral binary cubic forms.

The discriminant of a binary cubic form $f(x, y)=a x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+d y^{3}$ is defined by

$$
\text { Disc } f=b^{2} c^{2}-4 a c^{3}-4 b^{3} d-27 a^{2} d^{2}+18 a b c d
$$

The discriminant polynomial is invariant under the action of $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$.
Theorem 9 [Gan et al. 2002]. There is a canonical bijection between isomorphism classes of cubic rings and $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence classes of integral binary cubic forms. Under this bijection, the discriminant of a binary cubic form is equal to the discriminant of the corresponding cubic ring. Furthermore, a cubic ring is an integral domain (that is, a cubic order) if and only if the corresponding binary cubic form is irreducible over $\mathbb{Q}$.

Proof. See [Gan et al. 2002, §4; Bhargava et al. 2013, §2].
Remark 10. To parametrize oriented cubic rings, one must use $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence in the correspondence of Theorem 9 , rather than $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence. Recall that the shape of an oriented cubic ring is then well-defined up to $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence.

Not only does Theorem 9 give a bijection between cubic rings and cubic forms, but it also shows that certain properties and invariants of each type of object translate nicely. Next, we describe how the shape of a cubic ring translates into the language of binary cubic forms.
2.2. Hessians and shapes. Let $f(x, y)=a x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+d y^{3}$ be an integral binary cubic form. The integral binary quadratic form

$$
H_{f}(x, y)=-\frac{1}{4} \operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x^{2}} & \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial x \partial y} \\
\frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y \partial x} & \frac{\partial f(x, y)}{\partial y^{2}}
\end{array}\right)
$$

is called the Hessian of $f$. The Hessian has the following properties [Gan et al. 2002].

Proposition 11. The Hessian is a $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-covariant of integral binary cubic forms; that is, if two binary cubic forms $f$ and $g$ are equivalent under the twisted action of $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$, then the corresponding Hessians $H_{f}$ and $H_{g}$ are also equivalent under the same action but without the twisting factor (that is, the factor of the determinant). For any binary cubic form $f$, we have $\operatorname{Disc}\left(H_{f}\right)=-3 \cdot \operatorname{Disc} f$.

The relevance of the Hessian of a binary cubic form is that it gives the shape of the corresponding cubic ring:
Proposition 12. Suppose that a cubic ring (resp. oriented cubic ring) $R$ corresponds to a binary cubic form $f(x, y)$ as in Theorem 9. Then the $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ (resp. $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ )-equivalence class of the primitive part of the Hessian $H_{f}(x, y)$ coincides with the shape of $R$.
Proof. If we write

$$
\gamma=x \alpha+y \beta=\frac{\operatorname{Tr}(\gamma)}{3}+\gamma_{0}
$$

with $\gamma_{0} \in \frac{1}{3} R$ of trace zero, then a computation gives $H_{f}(x, y)=\frac{3}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(\gamma_{0}^{2}\right)$ [Gan et al. 2002].
Example 13. Suppose $R$ is a cubic ring having an order- 3 automorphism and corresponding binary cubic form $f(x, y)$. Then the Hessian $H_{f}(x, y)$ of $f$ must have an order-3 automorphism as well, and so it must be equivalent to an integer multiple of the quadratic form $Q(x, y)=x^{2}+x y+y^{2}$. Conversely, we show in the next section that any ring having the form $Q(x, y)$ as its shape must be a $C_{3}$-cubic ring.

## 3. On cubic orders having automorphism group $C_{3}$

In this section we will prove Theorems 1 and 5. As mentioned in the introduction, these theorems are actually special cases of Theorems 2 and 4, respectively. We prove these cases separately because the argument is better motivated and understood after seeing a concrete example. Moreover, the results in this case are interesting in their own right due to their connection with $C_{3}$-cubic orders in abelian cubic fields.
3.1. The action of $\mathbf{S O}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})$ on $\mathbb{C}^{2}$. Set $Q(x, y)=x^{2}+x y+y^{2}$, and let $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})$ denote the subgroup of elements of $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{C})$ preserving the quadratic form $Q(x, y)$ via its natural (left) action on binary quadratic forms; that is,

$$
\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})=\left\{\gamma \in \mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{C}): Q(x, y)=Q((x, y) \gamma)\right\}
$$

We define the cubic action of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})$ on $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ by $\gamma \cdot v=\gamma^{3} v$ for a column vector $v=(b, c)^{t} \in \mathbb{C}^{2}$. The adjoint quadratic form $Q^{\prime}(b, c):=b^{2}-b c+c^{2}$ of $Q(x, y)$ is an invariant polynomial for this latter action, and it generates the full ring of invariants.

Let $L \subset \mathbb{C}^{2}$ be the lattice $\left\{(b, c)^{t}: b, c \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}, b \equiv c(\bmod 3)\right\}$. We will see that $L$ is preserved under $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$, the group of integer matrices in $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})$.
Theorem 14. The $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-orbits on nonzero lattice vectors $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ are in natural bijection with $C_{3}$-cubic oriented rings $R$. Under this bijection, Disc $R=$ $Q^{\prime}(b, c)^{2}$.

Proof. Let $R$ be a $C_{3}$-cubic ring with automorphism $\sigma$ of order 3, and let

$$
f(x, y)=a x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+d y^{3}
$$

be a binary cubic form corresponding to $R$ under the Delone-Faddeev correspondence. Also let $H(x, y)$ denote the Hessian of $f(x, y)$. Then $\sigma$ induces an order-3 automorphism on $f$ and hence on $H$. Up to $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ equivalence and scaling, there is only one integral binary quadratic form having an $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-automorphism of order 3, namely $Q(x, y)=x^{2}+x y+y^{2}$. Thus, after a change of basis, we may assume that $H(x, y)=n Q(x, y)$ for some nonzero $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Hence we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
b^{2}-3 a c=n, \quad b c-9 a d=n, \quad c^{2}-3 b d=n . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The first equation implies $a=\left(b^{2}-n\right) / 3 c$, while the third implies $d=\left(c^{2}-n\right) / 3 b$ (assuming $b, c$ nonzero). Substituting these values of $a, d$ into the second equation gives

$$
b^{2} c^{2}-\left(b^{2}-n\right)\left(c^{2}-n\right)=n b c .
$$

Expanding out and dividing by $n$, we obtain

$$
b^{2}-b c+c^{2}=Q^{\prime}(b, c)=n
$$

We now have

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=\frac{b c-c^{2}}{3 c}=\frac{b-c}{3} \quad \text { and } \quad d=\frac{b c-b^{2}}{3 b}=\frac{c-b}{3} ; \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

one easily checks that this gives the unique solution for $a$ and $d$ even when one of $b$ or $c$ is zero. Furthermore, $f$ has integer coefficients precisely when $(b, c)^{t} \in L$, that is, $b, c$ are integers congruent modulo 3 .

Conversely, if $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ is nonzero, then we can define integers $a$ and $d$ as in (3) and set $f(x, y)=a x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+d y^{3}$; this cubic form has Hessian $H_{f}(x, y)=n Q(x, y)$, where $n=Q^{\prime}(b, c)$. A calculation shows that the order-3 transformation

$$
S=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
-1 & 1  \tag{4}\\
-1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

is an automorphism of $f(x, y)$, and hence the ring $R$ corresponding to $f$ is a $C_{3}$-cubic ring.

Suppose we have binary cubic forms $f, f^{\prime}$ corresponding to $(b, c)^{t},\left(b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}\right)^{t} \in L$.

Then $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalent if and only if they are $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalent, since they both have Hessian equal to $n Q$. Write

$$
f(x, y)=\frac{b-c}{3} x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+\frac{c-b}{3} y^{3}
$$

and $f^{\prime}=\gamma f$ with $\gamma \in \mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$. Then an elementary computation shows that

$$
(\gamma f)(x, y)=f((x, y) \gamma)=\frac{b^{\prime}-c^{\prime}}{3} x^{3}+b^{\prime} x^{2} y+c^{\prime} x y^{2}+\frac{c^{\prime}-b^{\prime}}{3} y^{3}
$$

where $\left(b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}\right)^{t}=\gamma^{3}(b, c)^{t}$. (The cubic action here is to be expected because the cube roots of the identity generated by $S \in \mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ must lie in the kernel of the action of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ on $L$.) It follows that $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalent if and only if $(b, c)^{t}$ and $\left(b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}\right)^{t}$ are $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalent under the cubic action. This proves the first part of the theorem. Finally, by Propositions 11 and 12, we know that Disc $R=\operatorname{Disc} f=-\frac{1}{3}$ Disc $H$, and we compute $-\frac{1}{3}$ Disc $H=n^{2}=Q^{\prime}(b, c)^{2}$.
3.2. The number of $C_{3}$-cubic orders of bounded discriminant. To prove Theorem 1 we need the following lemma, which shows that the reducible forms $f(x, y)$ corresponding to $C_{3}$-cubic rings are negligible in number. This will allow us to prove asymptotics for $C_{3}$-cubic orders rather than just $C_{3}$-cubic rings.

Lemma 15. The number of $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence classes of reducible integral binary cubic forms having Hessian a multiple of $Q(x, y)=x^{2}+x y+y^{2}$, and discriminant less than $X$, is $O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)$.

Proof. We give an upper estimate for the number of $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence classes of reducible forms $f$ of discriminant less than $X$ whose Hessian is a multiple of $Q$. It will suffice to count first the primitive forms $f$, and then we will sum over all possible contents for $f$. Now any such primitive reducible $f$ with Hessian $n Q$ has a linear factor $g x+h y$ with $g$ and $h$ relatively prime integers. Furthermore, the order-3 automorphism (4) permutes the three roots of $f$ in $\mathbb{P}^{1}$, and hence $f$ must factor into the three primitive linear factors that are obtained by successively applying $S$ to $g x+h y$. Thus we have

$$
f(x, y)=(g x+h y)((h-g) x-g y)(-h x+(g-h) y) .
$$

Computing the discriminant of $f$, we find

$$
\text { Disc } f=\left(g^{2}-g h+h^{2}\right)^{6}=Q^{\prime}(g, h)^{6}
$$

Thus, if Disc $f<X$, then $Q^{\prime}(g, h)<X^{1 / 6}$, and hence the total number of values for the pair $(g, h)$, and thus $f$, is at most $O\left(X^{1 / 6}\right)$.

In order to count the total number of forms $f$ and not just the primitive ones, we sum over all possible values of the content $c$ of $f$. Since $\operatorname{Disc}(f / c)=\operatorname{Disc}(f) / c^{4}$,
we thus obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{c=1}^{X^{1 / 4}} O\left(\left(\frac{X}{c^{4}}\right)^{1 / 6}\right)=O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

as an upper estimate for the total number of $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence classes of reducible forms $f$ of discriminant less than $X$ whose Hessian is a multiple of $Q$, as desired.

Proof of Theorem 1. By Theorem 14 and Lemma 15, it now suffices to count elements $(b, c)^{t} \in L$, up to $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence, subject to the condition $Q^{\prime}(b, c)^{2}=$ $\left(b^{2}-b c+c^{2}\right)^{2}<X$. The number of integral points inside the elliptic region cut out by the latter inequality is approximately equal to its area $(2 \pi / \sqrt{3}) X^{1 / 2}$, with an error of at most $O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)$ [Cohn 1980]. Meanwhile, being the (orientation-preserving) symmetry group of the triangular lattice, $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ is isomorphic to $C_{6}$, the cyclic group of order 6 . Since this is the cubic action, the cyclic subgroup $C_{3} \subset \mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ of order 3 acts trivially. Up to equivalence, we thus obtain

$$
\frac{2 \pi}{2 \sqrt{3}} X^{1 / 2}+O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)
$$

points inside the ellipse. The number of such points with $b \equiv c(\bmod 3)$ is therefore

$$
\frac{\pi}{3 \sqrt{3}} X^{1 / 2}+O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)
$$

This is the number of oriented $C_{3}$-cubic rings with discriminant bounded by $X$. By Lemma 15, the $C_{3}$-cubic rings that are not orders will be absorbed by the error term. After dividing by 2 to account for the fact that we counted oriented rings, we obtain the formula in Theorem 1.
3.3. An elementary proof of Cohn's theorem on the number of abelian cubic fields of bounded discriminant. Now we wish to count those points $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ of bounded discriminant corresponding to maximal cubic orders. This is equivalent to counting abelian cubic extensions of $\mathbb{Q}$ of bounded discriminant. Since maximality is a local property, it suffices to determine how many $C_{3}$-cubic rings $R$ satisfy the condition that the $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$-algebra $R \otimes \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ is maximal for every prime $p$. The following lemma gives a useful criterion to determine when a cubic ring $R$ is maximal at $p$.

Lemma 16 [Bhargava et al. 2013, Lemma 13]. If $f$ is a binary cubic form over $\mathbb{Z}$ ( or $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ ), then $R(f)$ is not maximal at $p$ if and only if one of the following conditions holds:

- $f(x, y) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$.
- $f$ is $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalent to a form $f^{\prime}(x, y)=a x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+d y^{3}$ such that $a \equiv 0(\bmod p)^{2}$ and $b \equiv 0(\bmod p)$.

In particular, if $\operatorname{Disc} f$ is nonzero $\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ then $R(f)$ is maximal at $p$.
With the help of this lemma, we now determine conditions for when the cubic order $R(f)$ corresponding to the binary cubic form

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x, y)=\frac{b-c}{3} x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+\frac{c-b}{3} y^{3} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

is maximal at $p$. We consider three cases, corresponding to the three possible residue classes of $p(\bmod 3)$.

First suppose that $p \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. We have $\operatorname{Disc} f=Q^{\prime}(b, c)^{2}$ by Theorem 14 , and $Q^{\prime}(x, y)=x^{2}-x y+y^{2}$ does not factor $(\bmod p)$. Then, by the lemma, $R(f)$ is maximal at $p$ as long as $(b, c) \not \equiv(0,0)(\bmod p)$. We conclude that for $p \equiv 2$ $(\bmod p)$, the $p$-adic density of elements $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ corresponding to maximal rings (at $p$ ) is $1-1 / p^{2}$.

Next, suppose $p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. In order for $Q^{\prime}(b, c)$ to vanish modulo $p$, we need $c \equiv \zeta b(\bmod p)$, where $\zeta$ is a primitive sixth root of unity in $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$. In that case, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x, y) \equiv \frac{b}{3} \zeta^{-1}\left(x^{3}+3 \zeta x^{2} y+3 \zeta^{2} x y^{2}+\zeta^{3} y^{3}\right) \equiv \frac{b}{3} \zeta^{-1}(x+\zeta y)^{3}(\bmod p) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $b \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, then $f(x, y) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ and so $R$ is not maximal at $p$. Otherwise, if we have a pair $(b, c)$ with $c \equiv \zeta b(\bmod \mathrm{p})$ and $b \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, then we may send the unique multiple root of $f(x, y)$ in $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{F}_{p}}^{1}$ to the point $(0,1)$ via a transformation in $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$. Then, modulo $p$, the form $f(x, y)$ is congruent to a multiple of $y^{3}$. A proportion of $1 / p$ of these forms satisfy $a \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$, where $a$ is the coefficient of $x^{3}$. By Lemma 16, the $p$-adic density of points $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ corresponding to rings maximal at $p$ is therefore

$$
1-\frac{1+2(p-1) / p}{p^{2}}=\frac{p^{3}-3 p+2}{p^{3}}=\frac{(p-1)^{2}(p+2)}{p^{3}}
$$

since there are two primitive sixth roots of unity $\zeta$ in $\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z}$ if $p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$.
Finally, if $p=3$, then we wish to know the density of all $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ for which the binary cubic form $f(x, y)$ in (6) yields a cubic ring maximal at 3 . Clearly, we need $b \equiv-c(\bmod 3)$ for the discriminant $\left(b^{2}-b c+c^{2}\right)^{2}$ of the corresponding cubic ring to vanish modulo 3 . Since already $b \equiv c(\bmod 3)$, we must have $b \equiv c \equiv 0$ $(\bmod 3)$ to obtain a ring that is not maximal at 3 . Write $b=3 B$ and $c=3 C$. Then we wish to know when the binary cubic

$$
g(x, y)=(B-C) x^{3}+3 B x^{2} y+3 C x y^{2}+(C-B) y^{3}
$$

corresponds to a cubic ring not maximal at 3 . Note that $g(x, y) \equiv(B-C)(x-y)^{3}$ $(\bmod 3)$ and $g(x, y) \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$ if and only if $B \equiv C(\bmod 3)$. Otherwise, we
can send the unique multiple root of $g(x, y)$ in $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbb{F}_{p}}^{1}$ to $(0,1)$, which transforms $g(x, y)$ to a multiple of $y^{3}$. As before, a proportion of $\frac{1}{3}$ of such forms will have $x^{3}$ coefficient congruent to $0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$. By Lemma 16, it follows that a proportion of $\frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{1}{3}+\frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3}\right)=\frac{5}{27}$ of such $g(x, y)$ will correspond to a cubic ring not maximal at 3 . We conclude that the density of $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ that yield a cubic ring maximal at 3 is $\frac{22}{27}$.

We have proven the following proposition.
Proposition 17. Let $S_{\max }$ denote the set of all $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ corresponding to rings maximal at $p$ under the bijection of Theorem 14. Then the p-adic density $\mu_{p}\left(S_{\max }\right)$ of $S_{\text {max }}$ in $L$ is given by

$$
\mu_{p}\left(S_{\max }\right)= \begin{cases}(p-1)^{2}(p+2) / p^{3} & \text { if } p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)  \tag{8}\\ 1-1 / p^{2} & \text { if } p \equiv 2(\bmod 3) \\ \frac{22}{27} & \text { if } p=3\end{cases}
$$

The proof of Theorem 1 gives the total number $N(L ; X)$ of points in $L$, up to $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence, having discriminant at most $X$. We may similarly determine the number $N(S ; X)$ of points, up to $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence, having discriminant at most $X$, where $S$ is any $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-invariant subset of $L$ defined by finitely many congruence conditions.

Proposition 18. Let $S \subset L$ be an $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-invariant subset that is defined by congruence conditions modulo finitely many prime powers. Then the number $N(S ; X)$ of points in $S$, up to $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence, having discriminant at most $X$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
N(S ; X)=\frac{\pi}{6 \sqrt{3}} \prod_{p} \mu_{p}(S) \cdot X^{1 / 2}+O_{S}\left(X^{1 / 4}\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mu_{p}(S)$ denotes the $p$-adic density of $S$ in $L$.
The proposition follows from arguments essentially identical to those in the proof of Theorem 1.

The set $S_{\max }$ of elements in $L$ that correspond to maximal cubic rings, however, is defined by infinitely many congruence conditions. To show that (9) still holds for such a set, we require a uniform estimate on the error in (9) when the congruence conditions defining $S_{\max }$ are imposed only at the finitely many primes $\leq Y$, as $Y \rightarrow \infty$. This is the content of the next result:

Proposition 19. Let $S_{\max }^{\leq Y}$ denote the subset of $L$ corresponding to cubic rings maximal at all primes $\leq Y$. Then

$$
N\left(S_{\max }^{\leq Y} ; X\right)-N\left(S_{\max } ; X\right)=O\left(\frac{X^{1 / 2}}{Y}\right)
$$

Proof. Let $W_{p}$ denote the subset of elements in $L$ corresponding to cubic rings $R$ that are not maximal at $p$. Any such ring $R$ is contained in a maximal ring $R^{\prime}$, where $R^{\prime}$ also has shape $x^{2}+x y+y^{2}$ (this is because the field containing $R$ must have an order-3 automorphism, and then so does $R^{\prime}$ ). The number of such possible $R^{\prime}$ (up to isomorphism) with discriminant less than $X$ is $O\left(X^{1 / 2}\right)$ by Theorem 1 . To count all orders $R$ in such $R^{\prime}$ having discriminant less than $X$, we require the following lemma.

Lemma 20 [Datskovsky and Wright 1988]. If $R^{\prime}$ is any maximal cubic ring, then the number of orders $R \subset R^{\prime}$ of index $m=\prod p_{i}^{e_{i}}$ is $O_{\epsilon}\left(\prod p_{i}^{(1+\epsilon)\left\lfloor e_{i} / 3\right\rfloor}\right)$ for any $\epsilon>0$.

The lemma implies that the total number of cubic rings $R$ of discriminant less than $X$ that are not maximal at $p$ and are contained in maximal rings $R^{\prime}$ of shape $x^{2}+x y+y^{2}$ is at most

$$
\left(\sum_{e=1}^{\infty} \frac{p^{(1+\epsilon)\lfloor e / 3\rfloor}}{p^{2 e}}\right) \prod_{q \neq p}\left(\sum_{e=0}^{\infty} \frac{q^{(1+\epsilon)\lfloor e / 3\rfloor}}{q^{2 e}}\right) O\left(X^{1 / 2}\right)=O\left(\frac{X^{1 / 2}}{p^{2}}\right)
$$

Since $\sum_{p \geq Y} O\left(\frac{X^{1 / 2}}{p^{2}}\right)=O\left(\frac{X^{1 / 2}}{Y}\right)$, we obtain the desired estimate.
Thus, by choosing $Y$ large enough, we can make $N\left(S_{\max }^{\leq Y} ; X\right)-N\left(S_{\max } ; X\right) \leq$ $c X^{1 / 2}$ for any $c>0$. We conclude that the number of $C_{3}$-cubic fields of discriminant less than $X$ is asymptotic to

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\pi}{6 \sqrt{3}} \cdot \frac{22}{27} \prod_{p \equiv 1(3)} \frac{(p-1)^{2}(p+2)}{p^{3}} \prod_{p \equiv 2(3)} & \left(1-\frac{1}{p^{2}}\right) \cdot X^{1 / 2} \\
& =\frac{11 \pi}{3^{4} \sqrt{3}} \cdot \frac{6}{\pi^{2}} \cdot \frac{9}{8} \prod_{p \equiv 1(3)} \frac{(p-1)(p+2)}{p(p+1)} \cdot X^{1 / 2}
\end{aligned}
$$

which is

$$
\frac{11 \sqrt{3}}{36 \pi} \prod_{p \equiv 1(3)}\left(1-\frac{2}{p(p+1)}\right) \cdot X^{1 / 2}
$$

and this is the result of Cohn [1954].

## 4. On cubic orders having a general fixed lattice shape

Let $Q(x, y)$ be a primitive integral binary quadratic form with nonsquare discriminant. In this section we determine asymptotics for the number $N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ of oriented cubic orders having absolute discriminant bounded by $X$ and shape $Q$;
that is, we prove Theorem 3. To accomplish this, we generalize the proofs of the previous section.

We choose to work with oriented cubic rings for a couple of reasons. First, this allows us to ignore the determinant -1 automorphisms in $\mathrm{GO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$, making the proof a bit simpler. Second, Theorem 3 shows that, at least asymptotically, lattice shapes are equidistributed within the (narrow) class group, suggesting that oriented rings are the natural framework for our analysis.
4.1. A more general action of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})$ on $\mathbb{C}^{2}$. Recall that the shape of a cubic ring $R$ is an equivalence class of binary quadratic forms. We begin by fixing a representative of this class, say $Q(x, y)=r x^{2}+s x y+t y^{2}$. As in the $C_{3}$-cubic ring case, we consider a lattice $L=L(Q)$ of elements $(b, c)^{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}$, defined by the congruence conditions

$$
s b \equiv r c(\bmod 3 t) \quad \text { and } \quad s c \equiv t b(\bmod 3 r)
$$

Let $Q^{\prime}(x, y)=t x^{2}-s x y+r y^{2}$ denote the adjoint quadratic form of $Q(x, y)$. Let $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})$ denote the subgroup of transformations $\gamma \in \mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ that fix $Q$ via $(\gamma Q)(x, y)=Q((x, y) \gamma)$. Then we define the cubic action of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})$ on $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ just as before, namely $\gamma \cdot v=\gamma^{3} v$ for $v \in \mathbb{C}^{2}$. We will see that $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$, the subgroup of elements in $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{C})$ having integer entries, preserves $L$, and the quadratic form $Q^{\prime}$ gives an invariant polynomial on $L$. Define the subset

$$
L(Q)^{+}=\left\{(b, c)^{t} \in L(Q): \frac{Q^{\prime}(b, c)}{r t}>0\right\} \subset L(Q)
$$

Then we have the following generalization of Theorem 14.
Theorem 21. Let $Q(x, y)=r x^{2}+s x y+t y^{2}$ be a primitive integral quadratic form with nonsquare discriminant, and let $Q^{\prime}(x, y)=t x^{2}-s x y+r y^{2}$ denote the adjoint quadratic form of $Q(x, y)$. Then the orbits of the cubic action of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ on lattice points $(b, c)^{t} \in L(Q)^{+}$are in natural bijection with the isomorphism classes of oriented cubic rings $R$ having shape $Q$. Under this bijection, we have

$$
\operatorname{Disc} R=-\frac{Q^{\prime}(b, c)^{2} \operatorname{Disc} Q}{3 r^{2} t^{2}}
$$

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Theorem 14. Let $R$ be a cubic ring with shape $Q$. Then, by applying an appropriate $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-transformation, we may assume that the corresponding integral cubic form $f(x, y)=a x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+d y^{3}$ has Hessian

$$
H(x, y)=n\left(r x^{2}+s x y+t y^{2}\right)=n Q(x, y)
$$

with $n$ positive. From the definition of the Hessian, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
b^{2}-3 a c=n r, \quad b c-9 a d=n s, \quad c^{2}-3 b d=n t \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some positive integer $n$. Assuming $b, c$ are nonzero, these equations imply that

$$
a=\frac{b^{2}-n r}{3 c} \quad \text { and } \quad d=\frac{c^{2}-n t}{3 b}
$$

Using the middle equation in (10), we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
t b^{2}-s b c+r c^{2}=n t r \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

We then get

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=\frac{s b-r c}{3 t}, \quad d=\frac{s c-t b}{3 r} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

(note that $r$ and $t$ are nonzero because Disc $Q$ is not a square), and one checks that this is the unique solution even if $b$ or $c$ is zero. Notice that $f(x, y)$ has integer coefficients if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
s b \equiv r c(\bmod 3 t) \quad \text { and } \quad s c \equiv t b(\bmod 3 r) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

that is, $(b, c)^{t} \in L$. In this case, we even have $(b, c)^{t} \in L(Q)^{+}$, since $n$ is positive. We see that the form $f(x, y)$ is determined once we specify the shape $Q$ and the middle coefficients $b$ and $c$. Conversely, given any element $(b, c)^{t} \in L(Q)^{+}$, we may use the equations in (12) to define a cubic form $f=(a, b, c, d)$ such that $R(f)$ has shape $Q$ and the Hessian of $f$ is $n Q$ for some positive integer $n$.

Now suppose $f=(a, b, c, d)$ and $f^{\prime}=\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$ are two binary cubic forms chosen such that the Hessians are $n Q$ and $n^{\prime} Q$ with integers $n, n^{\prime}>0$; thus, the respective conditions in (12) and (13) hold for the coefficients of $f$ and $f^{\prime}$. Then $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalent if and only if they are $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalent. A computation as in the proof of Theorem 14 shows that if $f^{\prime}=\gamma f$ for $\gamma \in \mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$, then $\left(b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}\right)^{t}=\gamma^{3}(b, c)^{t}$. It follows that $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalent if and only if $(b, c)^{t}$ and $\left(b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}\right)^{t}$ are $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalent under the cubic action.

Thus we have proved the bijection described in the theorem. Further, we have

$$
\operatorname{Disc} R=\operatorname{Disc} f=-\frac{n^{2} \operatorname{Disc} Q}{3}
$$

by Proposition 11, and combining with $Q^{\prime}(b, c)=n r t$, which was Equation (11), we obtain the desired result.

Remark 22. If $Q$ is positive definite, then $L(Q)^{+}$is the set of nonzero vectors in $L(Q)$. If $Q$ is negative definite, then $L(Q)^{+}$is empty. If $Q$ is indefinite, then nonzero elements of $L$ not in $L(Q)^{+}$correspond to cubic rings with shape $-Q$.
4.2. The number of cubic orders of bounded discriminant and given lattice shape. We are nearly ready to prove Theorem 3. We consider the cases of definite and indefinite $Q$ separately.
4.2.1. Definite case. In this case, we have the following well known lemma.

Lemma 23. Let $Q(x, y)$ be a definite integral binary quadratic form. The order of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ is either 6,4 , or 2 depending on whether the form $Q$ (up to equivalence and scaling) is $x^{2}+x y+y^{2}, x^{2}+y^{2}$, or any other definite form.

We next prove the analogue of Lemma 15 for general definite forms.
Lemma 24. Let $Q(x, y)$ be a definite integral binary quadratic form of nonsquare discriminant $D$. Then the number of $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence classes of reducible cubic forms $f$ having shape $Q$ and $\mid$ Disc $f \mid<X$ is $O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)$.

Proof. We give an upper estimate for the number of $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence classes of forms $f$ of discriminant less than $X$ whose Hessian is a multiple of the fixed definite binary quadratic form $Q(x, y)=r x^{2}+s x y+t y^{2}$ of discriminant $D$. As in the proof of Lemma 15, it suffices to first count just those $f$ that are primitive.

Now an order-3 automorphism of such a primitive $f$ (over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ ) of determinant 1 is given by

$$
S=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-\frac{-\sqrt{D}-s \sqrt{-3}}{2 \sqrt{D}} & r \sqrt{\frac{-3}{D}} \\
-t \sqrt{\frac{-3}{D}} & -\frac{-\sqrt{D}+s \sqrt{-3}}{2 \sqrt{D}}
\end{array}\right)
$$

The transformation $S$ permutes the roots of $f$ in $\mathbb{P}^{1}(\overline{\mathbb{Q}})$. So if $g x+h y$ is a linear factor of $f(x, y)$ with $g$ and $h$ coprime integers, then by computing the two other linear factors (obtained by applying $S$ and $S^{-1}$ ) and multiplying all three factors together, we obtain a polynomial $f_{0}$ that must agree with $f$ up to scaling. Since $\sqrt{D} S$ is an integral matrix of discriminant $D$, the content of $f_{0}$ must divide $D^{2}$. Computing the discriminant of $f_{0}$, we obtain

$$
\text { Disc } f 0)=-\frac{27}{D^{6}}\left(t g^{2}-s g h+r h^{2}\right)^{6}=-\frac{27}{D^{6}} Q^{\prime}(g, h)^{6} .
$$

Since $Q^{\prime}$ is definite and Disc $\left.f 0\right) \leq D^{8}$ Disc $f<D^{8} X=O(X)$, we see that the total number of choices for $(g, h)$, and thus $f$, is $O\left(X^{1 / 6}\right)$.

Finally, to obtain an upper estimate for the count of all $f$ that are not necessarily primitive, we sum over all possible contents $c$ of $f$ as in (5). We obtain a total of $O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)$ possibilities for $f$, as desired.

We denote by $C(Q)$ the cardinality of the subgroup of cubes in $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$. Thus $C(Q)=\left|\mathrm{SO}_{Q}\right|$ unless $Q$ has discriminant -3 (which is the $C_{3}$ case already dealt with in Section 3).

Theorem 25. Let $Q(x, y)=r x^{2}+s x y+t y^{2}$ be a positive definite primitive integral quadratic form of discriminant $-D$. Let $\alpha=1$ if $3 \mid D$ and $\alpha=2$ otherwise. Then

$$
N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)=\frac{2 \pi \sqrt{3}}{3^{\alpha} C(Q) D} X^{1 / 2}+O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)
$$

Proof. By Theorem 21 and Lemma 24, it suffices to count equivalence classes of elements $(b, c)^{t}$ in $L(Q)^{+}$such that

$$
\frac{Q^{\prime}(b, c)^{2} D}{3 r^{2} t^{2}}<X
$$

or equivalently,

$$
t b^{2}-s b c+r c^{2}<\frac{\sqrt{3} r t X^{1 / 2}}{\sqrt{D}}
$$

In this case, $L(Q)^{+}$is simply the set of nonzero vectors in $L(Q)$. The number of $L(Q)$-points in the elliptic region in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ defined by the inequality above is approximately given by the area of this ellipse ${ }^{4}$ divided by the area $\operatorname{Vol}(L)$ of a fundamental parallelogram of $L$. The error is at most ${ }^{5} O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)$, where the implied constant depends on the shape of $L$ and thus on $Q$ [Cohn 1980]. So we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
N_{3}^{Q}(X)=\frac{2 \pi r t \sqrt{3} X^{1 / 2}}{\operatorname{Vol}(L) D}+O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

We further divide by $C(Q)$ to obtain the number of points in $L$ satisfying the inequality up to the cubic action equivalence. Thus the theorem follows from the following lemma.
Lemma 26. Let $r, s, t$ be integers with no common prime factor and set $D=s^{2}-4 r t$. Also set $\alpha=1$ if $3 \mid D$ and $\alpha=2$ otherwise. Then the lattice

$$
L(Q)=\left\{(b, c)^{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}: s b \equiv r c(\bmod 3 t) \text { and } s c \equiv t b(\bmod 3 r)\right\}
$$

has volume $3^{\alpha} r$ r.
Proof. This proof is due to Julian Rosen. Let $L^{\prime}$ be the lattice in $\mathbb{Z}^{2}$ generated by $(3 t, 0)^{t}$ and $(0,3 r)^{t}$. Then $L$ is the inverse image of $L^{\prime}$ under the map $\mathbb{Z}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^{2}$ that sends $(x, y)^{t}$ to $(s x-r y, t x-s y)^{t}$. $\operatorname{Then} \operatorname{Vol}(L)=\operatorname{Vol}\left(L^{\prime}\right) / \operatorname{Vol}(C)$, where $C$ is the lattice spanned by columns of the matrix

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
s & -r & 3 t & 0 \\
t & -s & 0 & 3 r
\end{array}\right)
$$

[^3]Since $\operatorname{Vol}(C)$ is the greatest common divisor of the two-by-two minors of $M$, which is precisely $3^{2-\alpha}$, we have $\operatorname{Vol}(L)=9 r t / 3^{2-\alpha}=3^{\alpha} r t$ as claimed.

This concludes the proof of Theorem 25.
Remark 27. It is natural to sum the main term of Theorem 25 over all shapes of negative discriminant to try to recover Davenport's count [1951] of the number of cubic rings with positive discriminant bounded by $X$. The method of [Siegel 1944] makes it possible to compute this sum, but it turns out not to equal Davenport's main term $\left(\pi^{2} / 72\right) X$. Evidently, the error term in Theorem 25 is contributing to the main term of this sum.
4.2.2. Indefinite case. Next we consider counting cubic orders having an indefinite shape $Q(x, y)$. Again, write $Q(x, y)=r x^{2}+s x y+t y^{2}$. The equations (12) are not well-defined if either $r$ or $t$ is zero, so we assume that $D=\operatorname{Disc} Q=s^{2}-4 r t$ is not a square. We may also assume that $t>0$.

As in the proof of Theorem 25, we need to count elements $(b, c)^{t}$ in $L(Q)^{+}$up to $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence, such that

$$
\left|\frac{Q^{\prime}(b, c)^{2} D}{3 r^{2} t^{2}}\right|<X, \quad \text { or in other words } \quad\left|t b^{2}-s b c+r c^{2}\right|<\left|\frac{\sqrt{3} r t X^{1 / 2}}{\sqrt{D}}\right|
$$

This inequality cuts out a region in the plane bounded by a hyperbola, and we need to count the orbits of the cubic action of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ on $L(Q)^{+}$that intersect this region. But $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ is now an infinite group, so we must construct a fundamental domain for the action at hand (the construction and the ensuing volume computation are taken from [Davenport 2000, Chapter 6]).

In what follows, it is useful to define $\theta=(s+\sqrt{D}) / 2 t$ and $\theta^{\prime}=(s-\sqrt{D}) / 2 t$. We then have

$$
Q^{\prime}(x, y)=t x^{2}-s x y+r y^{2}=t(x-\theta y)\left(x-\theta^{\prime} y\right)
$$

We also have the following well known facts.
Proposition 28. - The integral solutions $(U, W)$ of the generalized Pell's equation $u^{2}-D w^{2}=4$ are given by

$$
\frac{1}{2}(U+W \sqrt{D})= \pm\left[\frac{1}{2}\left(U_{0}+W_{0} \sqrt{D}\right)\right]^{n},
$$

where $n$ is any integer and $\left(U_{0}, W_{0}\right)$ is a minimal solution.

- Every element $M$ in $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ is of the form

$$
M=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{1}{2}(U+s W) & -r W \\
t W & \frac{1}{2}(U-s W)
\end{array}\right)
$$

for some solution $(U, W)$ to $u^{2}-D w^{2}=4$.

If $(X, Y)^{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}$ and $M \cdot(X, Y)^{t}=(x, y)^{t}$ for some $M \in \mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$, then the second part of the proposition implies

$$
\frac{x-\theta^{\prime} y}{x-\theta y}=\frac{\frac{1}{2}(U+W \sqrt{D})}{\frac{1}{2}(U-W \sqrt{D})} \cdot \frac{X-\theta^{\prime} Y}{X-\theta Y}
$$

for some solution $(U, W)$ to Pell's equation. If we define $\epsilon=\frac{1}{2}\left(U_{0}+W_{0} \sqrt{D}\right)>1$, then the first part gives

$$
\frac{1}{2}(U+W \sqrt{D})= \pm \epsilon^{m} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{1}{2}(U-W \sqrt{D})= \pm \epsilon^{-m}
$$

for some integer $m$. Thus, in each orbit of $L(Q)^{+}$there is a single element $(x, y)^{t}$ such that

$$
1 \leq \frac{x-\theta^{\prime} y}{x-\theta y}<\epsilon^{2}
$$

and $x-\theta y>0$.
Our goal, then, is to count the number of integer points $(x, y)^{t}$ obeying the constraints

$$
t x^{2}-s x y+r y^{2} \leq N=\left|\frac{\sqrt{3} r t X^{1 / 2}}{\sqrt{\operatorname{Disc} Q}}\right|, \quad x-\theta y>0, \quad 1 \leq \frac{x-\theta^{\prime} y}{x-\theta y}<\epsilon^{2}
$$

This region is a sector emanating from the origin bounded by a hyperbola. Just as in the positive definite case, we can approximate this count by computing the area of this region.

Changing coordinates from $x, y$ to

$$
\xi=x-\theta y, \quad \eta=x-\theta^{\prime} y
$$

this region is

$$
\xi \eta \leq \frac{N}{t}, \quad \xi>0, \quad \xi \leq \eta<\epsilon^{2} \xi
$$

These conditions can be rewritten as

$$
0<\xi \leq\left(\frac{N}{t}\right)^{1 / 2}, \quad \xi \leq \eta<\min \left(\epsilon^{2} \xi, \frac{N}{t \xi}\right)
$$

If we define $\xi_{1}=\epsilon^{-1}(N / t)^{1 / 2}$, then the area of this region is

$$
\int_{0}^{\xi_{1}}\left(\epsilon^{2} \xi-\xi\right) d \xi+\int_{\xi_{1}}^{(N / t)^{1 / 2}}\left(\frac{N}{t \xi}-\xi\right) d \xi
$$

Evaluating the integrals, we obtain

$$
\left(\epsilon^{2}-1\right) \frac{1}{2} \xi_{1}^{2}+\frac{N}{2 t} \log \left(\frac{N}{t}\right)-\left(\frac{N}{t}\right) \log \xi_{1}-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{N}{t}\right)+\frac{1}{2} \xi_{1}^{2}
$$

which simplifies to $(N / t) \log \epsilon$. This is the area in the $\xi, \eta$-coordinate system; to get the area in $x, y$-coordinates, we divide by

$$
\frac{\partial(\xi, \eta)}{\partial(x, y)}=\theta-\theta^{\prime}=\frac{\sqrt{D}}{t}
$$

Thus the desired area is $(N / \sqrt{D}) \log \epsilon$. However, recall that we are interested in the orbits of the cubic action of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}$ on the lattice $L(Q)$, so we must replace $\epsilon$ by $\epsilon^{3}$ in the previous calculation. In the final area estimate, this yields an extra factor of 3 (since $\log \epsilon^{3}=3 \log \epsilon$ ).

We may now continue as in the rest of the proof of Theorem 25 . The proof of Lemma 24 carries over to the indefinite case because we can again bound the number of points of discriminant $<X$ in the fundamental domain in terms of the corresponding area. The final result is:

Theorem 29. Let $Q(x, y)=r x^{2}+s x y+t y^{2}$ be a primitive integral quadratic form having nonsquare discriminant $D>0$. Let $\alpha=1$ if $3 \mid D$ and $\alpha=2$ otherwise. Then

$$
N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)=\frac{3 \sqrt{3} \log \epsilon}{3^{\alpha} D} X^{1 / 2}+O\left(X^{1 / 4}\right)
$$

Dirichlet's class number formula [Davenport 2000] states that

$$
h(D)=\frac{w \sqrt{|D|}}{2 \pi} L\left(1, \chi_{D}\right)
$$

for $D<0$, where $w$ is the number of roots of unity in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$, and

$$
h(D)=\frac{\sqrt{D}}{\log \epsilon} L\left(1, \chi_{D}\right)
$$

for $D>0 .{ }^{6}$ Using these equations, we see that Theorems 25 and 29 can be combined and the result is Theorem 3.
4.3. The number of maximal cubic orders of bounded discriminant and given lattice shape. As before, let $Q(x, y)=r x^{2}+s x y+t y^{2}$ be a quadratic form over $\mathbb{Z}$, with $D=s^{2}-4 r t$ not a square, and let us further assume that $Q$ is primitive.

In this subsection, we use the results of Subsection 4.2 to provide asymptotics for $M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$, the number of isomorphism classes of maximal oriented cubic orders having shape $Q$. We may ignore those maximal cubic rings that are not orders, because such rings can be written as $\mathbb{Z} \oplus S$, where $S$ is a maximal quadratic ring of discriminant (a rational square multiple of) -3 Disc $Q$. But there is at most one such maximal quadratic ring and this one exception will be absorbed by the error term. Thus $M_{3}(Q, X)$ (resp. $M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ ) is essentially the number of cubic

[^4]fields (resp. oriented cubic fields) with ring of integers of shape $Q$ and absolute discriminant less than $X$.

Just as in the $C_{3}$ case in Section 3, we compute the $p$-adic density of those elements in $L=L(Q)$ corresponding to cubic rings of shape $Q$ that are maximal at $p$. For every such ring, we can choose a corresponding integral binary cubic form to be

$$
f(x, y)=\frac{s b-r c}{3 t} x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+\frac{s c-t b}{3 r} y^{3}
$$

for some pair $(b, c)^{t}$ in the lattice $L$ defined by the congruence conditions $s b \equiv$ $r c(\bmod 3) t$ and $s c \equiv t b(\bmod 3) r$. We proved in the previous section that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Disc} f=\frac{D}{3 r^{2} t^{2}} Q^{\prime}(b, c)^{2} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Q^{\prime}(x, y)=t x^{2}-s x y+r y^{2}$.
As it differs from other primes, we first consider primes other than $p=3$, and then treat $p=3$ separately. The reader only interested in the results may consult Table 1 on page 77.

In what follows, we denote the reduction $(\bmod p)$ of the form $Q(x, y)$ by $Q_{p}(x, y)$.
4.3.1. The $p$-adic density for maximality $(p \neq 3)$. We naturally divide into three cases.

Case $1\left(Q_{p}(x, y)\right.$ has distinct roots in $\left.\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. Using an $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-transformation, we may arrange for $Q_{p}(x, y)$ to be $s x y$. The congruence conditions defining $L$ imply that $b \equiv c \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ in this case. Then

$$
f(x, y) \equiv A x^{3}+D y^{3}(\bmod p)
$$

where $A, D \in \mathbb{Z}$ are independent parameters. Since Disc $f \equiv-27 A^{2} D^{2}(\bmod p)$, the cubic ring $R(f)$ is maximal unless either $A$ or $D$ is $0(\bmod p)$. By Lemma 16, $R(f)$ is not maximal at $p$ precisely when either one of $A$ or $D$ is $0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ or they simultaneously vanish $(\bmod p)$. Thus the $p$-adic density of the set of $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ that give rise to maximal rings at $p$ is

$$
1-\frac{1}{p^{2}}-\frac{2(p-1)}{p^{3}}=\frac{(p-1)^{2}(p+2)}{p^{3}}
$$

Case $2\left(Q_{p}(x, y)\right.$ has distinct roots in $\left.\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}-\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. The discriminant $D$, as well as the outer coefficients $r$ and $t$, must be nonzero $(\bmod p)$ in this case. Since $Q_{p}$ (and hence $Q_{p}^{\prime}$ ) does not factor modulo $p$, we see from (15) that $p$ divides Disc $f$ if and only if $b \equiv c \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, in which case $f(x, y)$ vanishes $(\bmod p)$ and so $R(f)$ is not maximal at $p$. Thus the $p$-adic density of the set of $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ that give rise to maximal rings at $p$ in this case is $1-1 / p^{2}$.

Case $3\left(Q_{p}(x, y)\right.$ has a double root in $\left.\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. The quadratic form $Q_{p}$ has a double root in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ if and only if $p$ divides the discriminant $D$ of $Q$. By sending the double $\operatorname{root}(\bmod p)$ of $Q_{p}$ to 0 via a transformation in $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$, we may assume that $Q_{p}$ is the form $r x^{2}(\bmod p)$.

Since $t \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, we see that $c \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ for all $(b, c)^{t} \in L$, by the definition of $L$. Thus in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$, we have

$$
f(x, y) \equiv \frac{s b-r c}{3 t} x^{3}+b x^{2} y \equiv x^{2}\left(\frac{s b-r c}{3 t} x+b y\right) .
$$

The coefficient $(s c-t b) / 3 r$ of $y^{3}$ in $f(x, y)$ is $0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ precisely when $p^{2}$ divides $t b$. If $p>3$, then $p^{2}$ divides $t$ if and only if it divides $D=s^{2}-4 r t$. Thus for $p>3$, the $p$-adic density of the set of $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ that give rise to maximal rings at $p$ is 0 if $p^{2} \mid D$ and $1-1 / p$ if $p \| D$. If $p=2$, then we write $D=4 m$ and note that $4 \mid t$ if and only if $m$ is congruent to 0 or $1(\bmod 4)$. Thus the density is 0 when $m$ is congruent to 0 or $1(\bmod 4)$ and is $\frac{1}{2}$ when $m$ is congruent to 2 or $3(\bmod 4)$.
4.3.2. The 3-adic density for maximality. We again divide into three cases.

Case $1\left(Q_{3}(x, y)\right.$ has distinct roots in $\left.\mathbb{F}_{3}\right)$. In this case, it is most convenient to assume that $Q_{3}(x, y)=x(x+y)$. The congruence conditions defining $L$ imply that $b \equiv c \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. We then find that

$$
f(x, y) \equiv-N x^{3}-M y^{3}=-(N X+M Y)^{3}
$$

for parameters $N, M \in \mathbb{Z}$. After sending the single root of $f(x, y)$ over $\mathbb{F}_{3}$ to 0 , we see that aside from the degenerate form, one third of these forms will have the coefficient of $y^{3}$ congruent to $0\left(\bmod 3^{2}\right)$. By Lemma 16 , the 3 -adic density of the set of $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ that give rise to maximal rings at 3 is

$$
1-\frac{1+\frac{1}{3}\left(3^{2}-1\right)}{3^{2}}=\frac{16}{27} .
$$

Case $2\left(Q_{3}(x, y)\right.$ has distinct roots in $\left.\mathbb{F}_{9}-\mathbb{F}_{3}\right)$. Now we may assume that $Q_{3}(x, y)$ is the form $x^{2}+y^{2}$. Then the conditions defining the lattice $L$ imply that $b \equiv c \equiv 0$ $(\bmod 3)$ for all $(b, c)^{t} \in L$. So over $\mathbb{F}_{3}$ we have

$$
f(x, y) \equiv-C x^{3}-B y^{3}=-(C X+B Y)^{3}
$$

where $b=3 B$ and $c=3 C$. Arguing as in the previous case, we conclude that the 3 -adic density of the set of $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ that give rise to maximal rings at 3 is $\frac{16}{27}$.

Case $3\left(Q_{3}(x, y)\right.$ has a double root in $\left.\mathbb{F}_{3}\right)$. We may assume that $Q_{3}(x, y)=r x^{2}$, so $c \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$ for all $(b, c)^{t} \in L$. We first consider the case where $3 \| D$, which
implies that $3 \| t$. Notice that

$$
\text { Disc } f=\frac{D}{3 r^{2} t^{2}} Q^{\prime}(b, c)^{2}
$$

is divisible by 3 if and only if $b \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. But if $b \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$, then $c \equiv 0$ $(\bmod 9)$,

$$
f(x, y) \equiv \frac{s b-r c}{3 t} x^{3}(\bmod 3)
$$

and the coefficient of $y^{3}$ vanishes modulo $p^{2}$ precisely when $b \equiv 0(\bmod 9)$. Thus the 3 -adic density of the set of $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ that give rise to maximal rings at 3 is

$$
1-\frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{1}{3}+\frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3}\right)=\frac{22}{27}
$$

Next we assume that 9 divides $D$, so that 9 divides $t$ as well. By definition, $s b \equiv r c(\bmod 27)$ for all $(b, c)^{t} \in L$; in particular $c \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. We also have that

$$
f(x, y) \equiv \frac{s b-r c}{3 t} x^{3}+b x^{2} y(\bmod 3)
$$

By Lemma 16, it suffices to determine when the coefficient $(s c-t b) / 3 r$ vanishes modulo 9 , that is, when $s c-t b$ vanishes modulo 27. This happens when 3 divides $b$ (because then 9 divides $c$ ). If 3 does not divide $b$, since $s b \equiv r c(\bmod 27)$, the congruence $s c \equiv t b(\bmod 27)$ is equivalent to $s^{2} \equiv r t(\bmod 27)$, which is equivalent to $27 \mid D$. Thus if $27 \mid D$, then there are no maximal rings $R(f)$, and if $9 \| D$, then the 3-adic density of the set of $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ that give rise to maximal rings at 3 is $\frac{2}{3}$.

Table 1 shows the $p$-adic density of points $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ giving rise to a maximal ring at $p$. In practice, one determines whether a particular prime fits into Case 1, 2, or 3 based on whether the quadratic residue $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)$ is $-1,1$, or 0 , respectively. For $p=2$, this is not well defined, but for convenience we define

$$
\left(\frac{D}{2}\right)=\left\{\begin{aligned}
1 & \text { if } D \equiv 1(\bmod 8) \\
-1 & \text { if } D \equiv 5(\bmod 8)
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

These densities, which we denote by $\mu_{p}(D)$, are in fact a function of the discriminant $D$ of $Q$, that is, they are independent of the particular equivalence class of $Q$.

|  | $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=-1$ | $\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=1$ | $p \\| D$ | $p^{2} \\| D$ | $p^{3} \\| D$ | $p^{4} \mid D$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $p=2$ | $\frac{3}{4}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ |  | $\frac{1}{2}$ or 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ | 0 |
| $p=3$ | $\frac{16}{27}$ | $\frac{16}{27}$ | $\frac{22}{27}$ | $\frac{2}{3}$ | 0 | 0 |
| $p \geq 5$ | $1-1 / p^{2}$ | $(p-1)^{2}(p+2) / p^{3}$ | $1-1 / p$ | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 1. Densities $\mu_{p}(D)$ of $(b, c)^{t} \in L$ corresponding to rings maximal at $p$.

In this table, there is an ambiguity in the case where $p=2$ and $4 \| D$. To resolve the ambiguity, one writes $D=4 m$, and if $m \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, then the density is 0 , whereas if $m \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then the density is $\frac{1}{2}$. The table implies the following proposition.
Proposition 30. If $R(f)$ is a maximal cubic ring with shape $Q(x, y)$ of discriminant $D$, then either $D$ is a fundamental discriminant or $-D / 3$ is a fundamental discriminant.

We can now use Theorem 25, together with the analogue of the uniformity estimate of Proposition 19 (the proof carries over to any $L$ via Proposition 30), to compute the number of maximal cubic orders (equivalently, cubic fields) of bounded discriminant and with shape $Q(x, y)$. The uniformity estimate allows us (as in Subsection 3.3) to multiply each $p$-adic density of rings maximal at $p$, for a given shape $Q(x, y)$, to obtain the proportion of maximal cubic orders of that shape. By the previous proposition, we need only consider quadratic forms with discriminant $D$ squarefree away from 2 or 3 .

Recall that $M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ denotes the number of oriented maximal cubic orders with shape $Q$ and absolute discriminant less than $X$, and $N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ denotes the number of oriented cubic orders with shape $Q$ and absolute discriminant less than $X$.

Theorem 31. Let $Q(x, y)$ be a quadratic form whose discriminant is not a square. Then

$$
M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)=N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X) \prod_{p} \mu_{p}(D)+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

As a corollary, we prove Theorem 4.
Proof of Theorem 4. Using Theorem 3, we compute the main term of $M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ (in the following products over primes, $p=3$ is never included):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{3^{\alpha+\beta-3 / 2} L\left(1, \chi_{D}\right)}{h(D) \sqrt{|D|}} \\
& \cdot \mu_{3}(D) \prod_{\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=-1}\left(1-\frac{1}{p^{2}}\right) \prod_{\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=1}\left(\frac{(p-1)^{2}(p+2)}{p^{3}}\right) \prod_{p \mid D}\left(1-\frac{1}{p_{i}}\right) X^{1 / 2} \\
&= \frac{3^{\alpha+\beta-3 / 2} L\left(1, \chi_{D}\right)}{h(D) \sqrt{|D|}} \\
& \cdot \mu_{3}(D) \cdot \frac{6}{\pi^{2}} \cdot \frac{9}{8} \prod_{\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=1}\left(1-\frac{2}{p(p+1)}\right) \prod_{p \mid D}\left(\frac{p_{i}-1}{p_{i}} \cdot \frac{p_{i}^{2}}{p_{i}^{2}-1}\right) X^{1 / 2} \\
&= \frac{3^{\alpha+\beta+1 / 2} L\left(1, \chi_{D}\right)}{4 \pi^{2} h(D) \sqrt{|D|}} \mu_{3}(D) \prod_{\left(\frac{D}{p}\right)=1}\left(1-\frac{2}{p(p+1)}\right) \prod_{p \mid D}\left(\frac{p_{i}}{p_{i}+1}\right) X^{1 / 2},
\end{aligned}
$$

with the first equality following from the fact that $\zeta(2)=\pi^{2} / 6$.

## 5. On cubic fields having a given quadratic resolvent field

Suppose $K$ is a cubic field whose ring of integers $R_{K}$ has shape $Q(x, y)$ and Disc $Q=D$ is not a square. If $f$ is an integral cubic form corresponding to the cubic ring $R_{K}$, then $K=\mathbb{Q}(\theta)$, where $\theta$ is a root of $f(x, 1)$. Since $\sqrt{\operatorname{Disc} f}$ is the product of differences of the roots of $f$, we see that the field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\text { Disc } f})$ is contained in the Galois closure of $K$. Unless $D=-3$ (which is when $K$ is Galois), this field will be quadratic. The field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{\operatorname{Disc} f})$ is called the quadratic resolvent field of $K$.

Now suppose $d$ is a fundamental discriminant. Proposition 30 and the equation

$$
\text { Disc } f=\frac{-D n^{2}}{3}
$$

(for some integer $n$ ) show that $K$ will have $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ as its quadratic resolvent if and only if the shape of $R_{K}$ has discriminant

$$
D= \begin{cases}-3 d & \text { if } d \not \equiv 0(\bmod 3) \\ -3 d \text { or } \frac{-d}{3} & \text { if } d \equiv 0(\bmod 3)\end{cases}
$$

Define $N(d, X)$ to be the number of cubic fields with absolute discriminant bounded by $X$ and with quadratic resolvent field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$. Also define $M_{3}^{D}(X)$ to be the number of cubic fields whose rings of integers have shape of discriminant $D$ and whose discriminant is less than $X$. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
N(d, X)=M_{3}^{-3 d}(X) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

if $d$ is not a multiple of 3 and

$$
\begin{equation*}
N(d, X)=M_{3}^{-3 d}(X)+M_{3}^{-d / 3}(X) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

if $d$ is a multiple of 3 . The result of Cohn proved earlier gives the asymptotics for $N(1, X)$, the number of abelian cubic extensions of $\mathbb{Q}$ of bounded discriminant. To generalize this result to general $d$, we require:

Proposition 32. Let $Q$ be a primitive integral binary quadratic form of nonsquare discriminant D. Then

$$
M_{3}^{D}(X)=\frac{1}{2} h(D) M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

Proof. Let $H(D)$ be the set of primitive integral binary quadratic forms of discriminant $D$. If $Q \in H(D)$, set $\gamma(Q)=1$ if $Q$ is an ambiguous form and set $\gamma(Q)=0$ otherwise. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{3}^{D}(X) & =\sum_{Q \in H(D) / \mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})} M_{3}(Q, X)+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right) \\
& =\sum_{Q \in H(D) / \mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})} 2^{-\gamma(Q)} M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right) \\
& =\sum_{Q \in H(D) / \mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})} \frac{1}{2} M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right)=\frac{1}{2} h(D) M_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}\left(Q_{0}, X\right)+o\left(X^{1 / 2}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $Q$ varies over representatives of the equivalence classes in the sums and $Q_{0}$ is an arbitrary element of $H(D)$.

Proof of Theorem 7. If $d$ is not a multiple of 3 , then we can estimate $N(d, X)$ by combining Theorem 4 (with $D=-3 d$ ), Proposition 32, and (16). In this case, we have $\alpha=1$ and $\mu_{3}(D)=\frac{22}{27}$. We need only check that the constants in the resulting main term agree with those in Theorem 7. Plugging in $\alpha=1, \mu_{3}(-3 d)=\frac{22}{27}$, and $C_{0}=\frac{11}{9}$, we immediately see that they do.

If $d$ is a multiple of 3 , we use (17) instead of (16). The extra summand in (17) makes the calculation slightly more involved. The key is to write all of the constants in the main term of $M_{3}^{-3 d}(X)$ as a function of the discriminant $D=-d / 3$. If we define $D_{1}=-3 d=9 D$, then our table of $p$-adic densities of maximalities gives $\mu_{3}\left(D_{1}\right)=\frac{2}{3}$ and $\mu_{3}(D)=\frac{16}{27}$. Also, one uses the fact that

$$
L\left(D_{1}\right)= \begin{cases}\frac{4}{3} L(D) & \text { if } d \equiv 3(\bmod 9) \\ \frac{4}{5} L(D) & \text { if } d \equiv 6(\bmod 9)\end{cases}
$$

After grouping the common factors, one then checks that the remaining numerical constant is equal to the value of $C_{0}$ stated in Theorem 7 .

## 6. On cubic orders with shape of square discriminant

6.1. Pure cubic rings. We begin by describing when a cubic order has shape of square discriminant.

Lemma 33. A cubic order has shape of square discriminant if and only if it is contained in a pure cubic field, that is, a field of the form $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt[3]{m})$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. Although this is well known, we include a proof here as we could not find one in the literature. Let $R$ be a cubic order with shape of square discriminant $D$. Then Disc $R=-n^{2} D / 3$ for some integer $n$. Since the discriminant of an order $R$ differs from the discriminant of the maximal order by a square factor, it suffices to prove the lemma for maximal orders $R=\mathscr{O}_{K}$. Note that $D$ is a square if and only if the quadratic resolvent field of $K$ is $F=\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})=\mathbb{Q}\left(\mu_{3}\right)$. If $K$ is a pure cubic field, then certainly its quadratic resolvent field is $F$.

Conversely, suppose $K$ has quadratic resolvent equal to $F$, and write $M$ for the Galois closure of $K / \mathbb{Q}$. By Kummer theory, $M=F(\theta)$, where $\theta$ is a root of $x^{3}-\alpha=0$, and where $\alpha=a+b \sqrt{-3} \in \mathscr{O}_{F}$ is cubefree. ${ }^{7}$ We are finished if $b=0$ or if $N_{M / K}(\theta) \notin \mathbb{Z}$, so assume $b \neq 0$ and $N_{M / K}(\theta)=n \in \mathbb{Z}$. In this case, $N_{F / \mathbb{Q}}(\alpha)=a^{2}+3 b^{2}=n^{3}$. The six conjugates of $\theta$ are the six cube roots of $a \pm b \sqrt{-3}$. Let $\theta^{\prime}$ be the conjugate of $\theta$ satisfying $\theta \theta^{\prime}=n$. Then $\theta+\theta^{\prime}$ is in $K$ and has minimal polynomial $g=x^{3}-3 n x-2 a$. But Disc $g=324 b^{2}$ is a square, so $K$ is Galois over $\mathbb{Q}$, a contradiction.

We consider a primitive integral quadratic form $Q(x, y)=r x^{2}+s x y+t y^{2}$ with discriminant $D=s^{2}-4 r t=m^{2}$, a square in $\mathbb{Z}$. The goal is to estimate the number $N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ of oriented cubic orders having discriminant bounded by $X$ and having shape $\tilde{Q}$, the $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence class of $Q$. It is not difficult to show that we may take $Q(x, y)$ of the form $r x^{2}+s x y$, with $0 \leq r<s=\sqrt{D}$. A representative form $Q$ of this type will be called reduced. The primitivity of $Q$ implies that $(r, s)=(r, D)=1$.

Recall that there is a bijective correspondence between isomorphism classes of oriented cubic rings having shape $Q$ and $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence classes of integral binary cubic forms $f(x, y)=a x^{3}+b x^{2} y+c x y^{2}+d y^{3}$ whose Hessian $H(x, y)$ is equal to $n Q(x, y)$ for some positive integer $n$; that is, the cubic form $f$ satisfies the equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
b^{2}-3 a c=n r, \quad b c-9 a d=n s, \quad c^{2}-3 b d=0 \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $r=0$, then the primitivity of $Q$ forces $s=1=D$. In this case, $b=c=0$, so the space of such cubic forms is precisely those of the form $f(x)=a x^{3}+d y^{3}$, with $a$ and $d$ nonzero. For square $D \neq 1$ we may assume that $r \neq 0$, and one checks that all the variables involved are nonzero. Combining the equations in (18), we find that $3 n r d=n s c$, and so

$$
c=\frac{3 r d}{s}, \quad b=\frac{3 r^{2} d}{s^{2}}=\frac{c r}{s} .
$$

We see that such forms are determined in a linear fashion by the outer coefficients $a$ and $d$. Using the equations (18) once more, we may write $n$ in terms of the other variables:

$$
n=\frac{9 d}{D^{2}}\left(r^{3} d-s^{3} a\right)
$$

We obtain the following formula for the discriminant of the associated cubic ring:
Disc $R=\operatorname{Disc} R(f(x, y))=-\frac{\operatorname{Disc} H(x, y)}{3}=-\frac{D n^{2}}{3}=-\frac{27}{D^{3}}\left(r^{3} d^{2}-s^{3} a d\right)^{2}$.

[^5]The cubic form

$$
f=a x^{3}+\frac{3 r^{2} d}{s^{2}} x^{2} y+\frac{3 r d}{s} x y^{2}+d y^{3}
$$

is integral if and only if $(a, d)^{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}$ lies in the lattice

$$
L(Q)=\left\{(a, d)^{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}: 3 d \equiv 0(\bmod D)\right\} .
$$

Thus, the set of oriented cubic rings having shape $Q$ is parametrized by the set $L(Q)^{+} \subset L(Q)$ of elements $(a, d)^{t}$ such that $n=9 d\left(r^{3} d-s^{3} a\right) / D^{2}>0$, modulo $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence. Here, $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ is the subgroup of $\gamma \in \mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ such that $\gamma \cdot Q=Q$. A simple computation shows that $\left|\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})\right|=2$ when $D$ is a square.

Lemma 24 continues to hold when $Q$ has square discriminant (the proof is similar), so we can again safely ignore the contribution coming from reducible cubic forms when counting cubic rings having shape $Q$. Thus the main term of $N_{3}^{\mathrm{Or}}(Q, X)$ is obtained by counting the number of lattice points $(a, d)^{t} \in L(Q)^{+}$ (modulo $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence) such that

$$
0<\left|r^{3} d^{2}-s^{3} a d\right|<\frac{D^{3 / 2} X^{1 / 2}}{3 \sqrt{3}}=N
$$

and $3 d \equiv 0(\bmod D)$. For $s=1$ (and hence $r=0)$, this problem amounts to counting lattice points under a rectangular hyperbola, for which there is Dirichlet's estimate

$$
2 N \log N+2(2 \gamma-1) N+O\left(N^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

where $\gamma$ is Euler's constant. For $s>1$, we use a similar estimate to find

$$
\frac{2 N}{s^{3}} \log N+\frac{2 N}{s^{3}}(2 \gamma-1)+O\left(N^{1 / 2}\right)
$$

such lattice points. We then divide by the size of $\mathrm{SO}_{Q}(\mathbb{Z})$ and the covolume of the lattice of points $(a, d)^{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}$ such that $3 d \equiv 0(\bmod D)$. If we set $\alpha=1$ if $3 \mid D$ and $\alpha=0$ otherwise, then this volume is $D / 3^{\alpha}$. Putting this all together, we obtain the first part of Theorem 8.
6.2. Pure cubic fields. As we did with shapes of nonsquare discriminant, we would like to take the product of local maximality densities at each prime $p$ to obtain a formula for the number $M_{3}(Q, X)$ of maximal cubic orders of shape $Q$ and discriminant bounded by $X$. However, the sieve we used does not work as well in this case, because the fundamental domain for cubic forms with shape of square discriminant is not convex. Instead, we describe the lattice points that give rise to maximal orders directly.

Proposition 34. If $R$ is a maximal cubic ring with shape $Q(x, y)$ and $D=\operatorname{Disc} Q$ is a square, then either $D=1$ or $D=9$.

Proof. If $D$ is not equal to 1 or 9 , then $p^{2} \mid D$ for some prime $p \neq 3$ (or $p=3$ and $\left.p^{3} \mid D\right)$ and so any cubic form

$$
f(x, y)=a x^{3}+\frac{3 r^{2} d}{s^{2}} x^{2} y+\frac{3 r d}{s} x y^{2}+d y^{3}
$$

with shape $Q$ has $p^{2} \mid d$ because $D \mid 3 d$. By Lemma 16, $R(f)$ is not maximal.
For discriminants $D=1$ and $D=9$, the points $(a, d)^{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}$ corresponding to maximal cubic rings have a simple description. When $D=1$, there is just one integral binary quadratic form of discriminant $D$, up to $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence, namely $Q_{1}(x, y)=x y$. The cubic rings of shape $Q_{1}$ have associated binary cubic forms $f(x, y)=a x^{3}+d y^{3}$ for $a, d \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Proposition 35. If $a, d \in \mathbb{Z}$, then the cubic form $f(x, y)=a x^{3}+d y^{3}$ corresponds to a maximal cubic ring if and only if a and $d$ are both squarefree, $\operatorname{gcd}(a, d)=1$, and $a^{2} \not \equiv d^{2}$ in $\mathbb{Z} / 9 \mathbb{Z}$.
Proof. First suppose $p \neq 3$ is a prime. Since Disc $f=-27 a^{2} d^{2}$, if $f$ is nonmaximal at $p$, then $a d \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. By Lemma $16, f$ is nonmaximal at $p$ if either $a \equiv d \equiv 0$ $(\bmod p)$ or if one of $a$ or $d$ is congruent to $0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$. This proves the proposition away from $p=3$.

For $p=3$, note that $f(x, y) \equiv(a x+d y)^{3}(\bmod 3)$. If $a \equiv d \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$ or if $a$ or $d$ are divisible by 9 , then $R(f)$ is not maximal. Otherwise, we move the root $a x+d y$ to $x$, and one checks that the coefficient of $y^{3}$ is $0(\bmod 9)$ precisely when $a \equiv \pm d(\bmod 9)$, which proves the proposition.

When $D=9$, there are two $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalence classes of primitive integral quadratic forms whose reduced representatives are $Q_{9, r}(x, y)=r x^{2}+3 x y$ for $r=1,2$. The cubic rings of shape $Q_{9, r}$ have associated cubic forms

$$
f(x, y)=a x^{3}+\frac{r^{2} d}{3} x^{2} y+r d x y^{2}+d y^{3}
$$

for integers $a$ and $d$ such that $3 \mid d$.
Proposition 36. Let $f$ be determined by a and $d$ as above, and set $d^{\prime}=d / 3$ and $a^{\prime}=r^{3} d^{\prime}-9 a$. Then Disc $f=9\left(a^{\prime} d^{\prime}\right)^{2}$ and $f$ is maximal if and only if $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)=1$ and both $a^{\prime}$ and $d^{\prime}$ are squarefree.

Proof. This can be proved locally at each prime. For $p=3$, if $R(f)$ is not maximal at 3 , then $\operatorname{Disc} f \equiv 0(\bmod 9)$, which occurs if and only if $d^{\prime} \equiv a^{\prime} \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. Conversely, if $d^{\prime} \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$, then $R(f)$ is not maximal at 3 by Lemma 16 .

Next, suppose $p \geq 5$. Again we have $d=3 d^{\prime}$ for some integer $d^{\prime}$ and

$$
f(x, y)=a x^{3}+r^{2} d^{\prime} x^{2} y+3 r d^{\prime} x y^{2}+3 d^{\prime} y^{3}
$$

If $d^{\prime} \equiv a \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, then $f$ is imprimitive at $p$; hence $R(f)$ is nonmaximal. If $a \equiv 0 \not \equiv d(\bmod p)$, then Disc $f=-\frac{1}{27}\left(r^{3} d^{2}-27 a d\right)^{2} \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, so $R(f)$ is maximal and $a^{\prime} \equiv d^{\prime} \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. If $d \equiv 0 \not \equiv a(\bmod p)$, then $R(f)$ is maximal precisely when $d \not \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$. If both $a$ and $d$ are nonzero $(\bmod p)$, then Disc $f \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$ if and only if $9 a \equiv r^{3} d^{\prime}(\bmod p)$. In this case,

$$
f(x, y) \equiv \frac{d^{\prime}}{9}(r x+3 y)^{3}+k p x^{3}\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)
$$

where $k$ is a parameter in $\mathbb{Z}$. By Lemma $16, R(f)$ is nonmaximal precisely when $k \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, that is, $a^{\prime} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{2}\right)$. This proves the proposition for $p \geq 5$, and also for the case $p=2$ and $r=1$. If $p=r=2$, the proof from the previous paragraph does not work, but one checks easily that the proposition still holds.

The previous propositions reduce the task of counting cubic fields with shape of square discriminant to estimating the number of lattice points with squarefree and coprime coordinates inside of a rectangular hyperbola. We can perform this computation with a suitable adaptation of Dirichlet's hyperbola method.

Proof of Theorem 8. We have already proved the first part of the theorem, so we consider the second part. It will simplify expressions if we count the number of cubic fields with bounded conductor, instead of bounded discriminant. Recall that if the discriminant of a cubic field $K / \mathbb{Q}$ equals $d f^{2}$ with $d$ a fundamental discriminant, then $f$ is called the conductor of $K$. Thus for $D=\operatorname{Disc} Q$ equal to 1 or $9, M_{3}(Q, X)$ is the number of cubic fields with shape $Q$ and conductor bounded by $N:=(X / 3)^{1 / 2}$. First we will estimate $M_{3}(Q, X)$ when $D=9$. Since $Q_{9,1}$ and $-Q_{9,2}$ are $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ equivalent, elements of $L\left(Q_{9,1}\right)^{+}$correspond to cubic forms of shape $Q_{9,1}$ and elements of $L\left(Q_{9,1}\right)^{-}$correspond to cubic rings of shape $Q_{9,2}$. Thus we may write $Q_{9}$ for either $Q_{9,1}$ or $Q_{9,2}$ in the following. By Proposition 36, and since $\# \mathrm{GO}_{Q_{9,1}}(\mathbb{Z})=4$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{3}\left(Q_{9}, X\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4} \cdot \#\left\{(a, b)^{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}:(a, b)=1, \mu(a)^{2}=\mu(b)^{2}=1, a \equiv b(\bmod 9), a b \leq N\right\} \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \#\left\{(a, b)^{t} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}^{2}:(a, b)=1, \mu(a)^{2}=\mu(b)^{2}=1, a \equiv b(\bmod 9), a b \leq N\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We define $A_{2}(N)$ to be the size of this last set. Following Dirichlet's hyperbola method, we have

$$
A_{2}(N)=2 \sum_{\substack{a \leq \sqrt{N}}} \mu(a)^{2} \sum_{\substack{b \leq N / a \\(a, b)=1 \\ a \equiv b b(9)}} \mu^{2}(b)-\sum_{\substack{a \leq \sqrt{N}}} \mu(a)^{2} \sum_{\substack{b \leq \sqrt{N} \\(a, b)=1 \\ a \equiv b(9)}} \mu^{2}(b)
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =2 \sum_{\substack{a \leq \sqrt{N} \\
3 \nmid a}} \mu(a)^{2} \frac{N}{a} \frac{6}{\pi^{2}} \frac{\phi(a)}{a} \frac{9}{8} \frac{1}{9} \prod_{p \mid a} \frac{p^{2}}{p^{2}-1}-\sum_{\substack{a \leq \sqrt{N} \\
3 \nmid a}} \mu(a)^{2} \sqrt{N} \frac{6}{\pi^{2}} \frac{\phi(a)}{a} \frac{1}{9} \frac{9}{8}+O(\sqrt{N}) \\
& =\frac{6 N}{4 \pi^{2}} \sum_{\substack{a \leq \sqrt{N} \\
3 \nmid a}} \mu(a)^{2} \prod_{p \mid a} \frac{1}{p+1}-\frac{6 \sqrt{N}}{8 \pi^{2}} \sum_{\substack{a \leq \sqrt{N} \\
3 \nmid a}} \mu(a)^{2} \prod_{p \mid a} \frac{p}{p+1}+O(\sqrt{N}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We use Perron's formula to estimate both of these sums. For the first sum, define the function

$$
f(s)=\sum_{\substack{a \geq 1 \\ 3 \nmid a}} \mu(a)^{2} \prod_{p \mid a} \frac{1}{p+1}=\prod_{p \neq 3}\left(1+\frac{1}{p+1} p^{-s}\right),
$$

which converges for $\operatorname{Re}(s)>0$. Also define $h(s)=\frac{f(s)}{\zeta(s+1)}$, which converges for $\operatorname{Re}(s)>-\frac{1}{2}$. By Perron's formula,

$$
\sum_{\substack{a \leq \sqrt{N} \\ 3 \nmid a}} \mu(a)^{2} \prod_{p \mid a} \frac{1}{p+1}=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int_{c-i \infty}^{c+i \infty} h(s) \zeta(s+1) \sqrt{N}^{s} s^{-1} d s
$$

for any large $c$. This integral can be estimated by shifting the contour and using Cauchy's formula, which will pick up the residue of $h(s) \zeta(s+1) \sqrt{N}^{s} s^{-1}$ at $s=0$. Using Taylor series, we compute this residue to be

$$
h(0) \log (\sqrt{N})+h^{\prime}(0)+\gamma h(0)
$$

The same technique also works for the second sum in our formula for $A_{2}(N)$, and the residue turns out to be $h(0) \sqrt{N}$. Altogether, we obtain

$$
A_{2}(N)=\frac{C N}{10}\left(\log N+\frac{2}{5} \log 3+2 \gamma+6 \kappa-1\right)+o(N)
$$

since $\left(6 / \pi^{2}\right) h^{\prime}(0)=4 C / 5$ and $h^{\prime}(0) / h(0)=3 \kappa+\log 3 / 5$. Replacing $N$ with $(X / 3)^{1 / 2}$, we obtain the desired formula for $M_{3}\left(Q_{9}, X\right)$.

To compute $M_{3}\left(Q_{1}, X\right)$, note that by Proposition 35, we have

$$
M_{3}\left(Q_{1}, X\right)=\frac{\# \mathrm{GO}_{Q_{9}}(\mathbb{Z})}{\# \mathrm{GO}_{Q_{1}}(\mathbb{Z})} \cdot \frac{1}{2}\left(A\left(\frac{N}{3}\right)-2 A_{2}\left(\frac{N}{3}\right)\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left(A\left(\frac{N}{3}\right)-2 A_{2}\left(\frac{N}{3}\right)\right)
$$

where $A(N)$ has the same definition as $A_{2}(N)$ except without the congruence condition (mod 9). We can compute $A(N)$ exactly as before, except now the Euler factor at 3 will not be missing. Combining this with the formula for $A_{2}(N / 3)$ above gives the estimate for $M_{3}\left(Q_{1}, X\right)$ stated in the theorem.

By Lemma 33 and Proposition 34, we may add the estimates of $M_{3}(Q, X)$ for $Q=Q_{1}, Q_{9,1}$, and $Q_{9,2}$ to obtain a formula for $N(-3, X)$, and this gives Theorem 8.

Remark 37. There is an elementary way to count the density of discriminants of pure cubic fields. First, we note that two integers $d, d^{\prime}$ greater than one give rise to the same pure cubic field $K_{d}:=\mathbb{Q}\left(d^{1 / 3}\right)$ if and only if their quotient or product is a cube in $\mathbb{Q}$. Furthermore, if $d=a b^{2}$, with $d$ cubefree and $a$ and $b$ squarefree, then Dedekind [1899] computed the discriminant of $K_{d}$ to be $-3 k^{2}$, where

$$
k= \begin{cases}3 a b & \text { if } a^{2} \not \equiv b^{2}(\bmod 9) \\ a b & \text { if } a^{2} \equiv b^{2}(\bmod 9)\end{cases}
$$

Thus, counting pure cubic fields of bounded discriminant is a matter of counting lattice points with squarefree and coprime coordinates under a hyperbola. So our general method of computing the number of cubic fields having a fixed quadratic resolvent field and bounded discriminant reduces to the classical method in this special case of pure cubic fields. Furthermore, we see that Dedekind's pure cubic fields of Types 1 and 2 are exactly the pure cubic fields with shape of discriminant 1 and 9 , respectively.

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## Algebra \& Number Theory

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[^0]:    MSC2010: primary 11R16; secondary 11R45.
    Keywords: cubic fields, discriminant.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ When referring to the number of cubic orders or fields with a given property, we always mean the number of such objects up to isomorphism.
    ${ }^{2}$ The shape of $R$ may also be described in terms of the restriction of the trace form $\operatorname{Tr}\left(z^{2}\right)$ to the projection of the lattice $R$ onto the plane in $R \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ that is orthogonal to 1 . This yields the binary quadratic form $(n / 3) Q(x, y)$, and so scaling by $n / 3$ again gives the primitive integral binary quadratic form $Q$, which we call the shape. We prefer to use our definition in terms of $\mathbb{Z}+3 R$, as then we can work integrally and do not have to refer to $R \otimes \mathbb{Q}$.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Recall that a quadratic form $Q(x, y)=r x^{2}+s x y+t y^{2}$ is said to be ambiguous if there is an automorphism of $Q$ in $\mathrm{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$ with determinant -1 . Equivalently, $Q$ is ambiguous if it is $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$-equivalent to the form $Q^{\prime}=r x^{2}-s x y+t y^{2}$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ The area bounded by an ellipse with equation $Q(x, y)=N$ is $2 \pi N / \sqrt{D}$.
    ${ }^{5}$ In fact, work on Gauss's circle problem gives exponents considerably smaller than $\frac{1}{4}$ [Hardy 1915].

[^4]:    ${ }^{6}$ Recall that $h(D)$ is the narrow class number.

[^5]:    ${ }^{7}$ Since $\mathscr{C}_{F}$ is a UFD, this notion makes sense (up to roots of unity).

[^6]:    See inside back cover or msp.org/ant for submission instructions.
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