# QUADRATIC FORMS OVER QUADRATIC EXTENSIONS OF FIELDS WITH TWO QUATERNION ALGEBRAS 

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1. Introduction. In this paper, we analyze what happens with respect to quadratic forms when a square root is adjoined to a field $F$ which has exactly two quaternion algebras. There are many such fields-the real numbers and finite extensions of the $p$-adic numbers being two familiar examples. For general quadratic extensions, there are many unanswered questions concerning the quadratic form structure, but for these special fields we can clear up most of them.

It is assumed char $F \neq 2$ and $K=F(\sqrt{ } a)$ where $a \in \dot{F}-\dot{F}^{2}$. $\dot{F}$ denotes the non-zero elements of $F$. Generally the letters $a, b, c, \ldots$ and $\alpha, \beta, \ldots$ refer to elements from $\dot{F}$ and $x, y, z, \ldots$ come from $\dot{K}$. Diagonalized quadratic forms are denoted by $\varphi=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ and $D_{K}(\varphi)=\{y \in \dot{K} \mid \varphi$ represents $y$ over $K\}$. The number of quaternion algebras over $K$ is $m(K), q(K)=\left|\dot{K} / \dot{K}^{2}\right|$, and $u(K)$ is the $u$-invariant. If $A \subseteq \dot{K}$, then $\langle A\rangle$ is the subgroup in $\dot{K}$ generated by $A$. This symbol will also refer to $F$, but the context will always make clear which is meant.

A subgroup of central importance throughout will be the radical, $R(K)=$ $\left\{x \mid D_{K}(1,-x)=\dot{K}\right\}$. Another formulation for $R(K)$ is $\{x \mid[x, y] \cong[1,-1]$ for all $y \in \dot{K}\}$ where $[x, y]$ is the quaternion algebra over $K$ with structure constants $x, y$. For more on $R(K)$, see [1], [2], and [6]. In [2], it was shown the role $R(F)$ plays when $q(F)<\infty, m(F)=2$, and $F$ is non-formally real. The Witt ring (and hence the quadratic form structure) is determined by the level (Stufe), $q(F),\left|{ }^{D(1,1)} / \dot{F}^{2}\right|$, and $\left|R(F) / \dot{F}^{2}\right|$. When $F$ is formally real and $m(F)=2$, then it follows from the proof of Proposition 2.3 in $[\mathbf{1 0 ]}$ that $R(F)$ has index 2 in $\dot{F}$. The quadratic form structure is now given by Theorem 1 of $[\mathbf{6}]$ and is rather uncomplicated. In fact from the above, it is easy to see that for real $F$, $m(F)=2$ if and only if $R(F)$ has index 2 . Moreover, $D_{F}(1,1)=R(F)$.

The main results of this paper are the following two theorems.
Theorem (3.8, 4.8). Let $F$ be a field with $m(F)=2$ and let $K=F(\sqrt{ } a)$ where $a \in \dot{F}-\dot{F}^{2}$. Then $m(K)=4$ when $a \in R(F)$ and $m(K) \leqq 2$ when $a \notin R(F)$. Moreover, for a $\forall R(F), m(K)=1$ if and only if $F$ is formally real.

Theorem (3.10, 4.14). If $m(F)=2, q(F)<\infty$, and $K=F(\sqrt{ } a)$ where $a \in \dot{F}-\dot{F}^{2}$, then $N_{K / F}(x) \in R(F)$ if and only if there is an $f \in \dot{F}$ such that $f x \in R(K)$. Moreover, $\left|{ }^{R(K)} / \dot{K}^{2}\right|=\left|{ }^{R(F)} / \dot{F}^{2}\right|^{2}$ when $a \forall R(F)$ and $\left|\left.\right|^{R(K)} / \dot{K}^{2}\right|=$ $\left.\frac{1}{2}\right|^{R(\boldsymbol{F})} /\left.\dot{F}^{2}\right|^{2}$ when $a \in R(F)$.

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2. Some preliminaries. If $m(F)=2$, then it is well known that $D_{F}(1,-b)$ has index 1 or 2 for all $b \in \dot{F}$. From Theorem 1, 2 in [6], it follows that if $D_{F}(1,-b)$ has index 1 or 2 for all $b \in \dot{F}$ (and is 2 for at least one $b$ ), then $m(F)=2$. This is how we will show $m(K) \leqq 2$ when $a \notin R(F)$ and $m(K) \geqq 4$ when $a \in R(F)$. Another result that will be used frequently is Lemma 1 of [2]. Namely, for $m(F)=2$ and $b, c \in \dot{F}, D_{F}(1, b)=D_{F}(1, c)$ if and only if $b c \in R(F)$. Actually one direction of this is true more generally for any field; i.e., $D_{F}\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)=D_{F}\left(r_{1} a_{1}, \ldots, r_{n} a_{n}\right)$ for all $n \geqq 2$ and $r_{i} \in R(F)$. See [1].

A helpful lemma which we apply is given below. We will use this often with no further mention. An easy but interesting corollary of the lemma and $R(F)=\bigcap_{b \in F} D_{F}(1, b)$ (see [2]) is also given.

Lemma. Let $b, c \in \dot{F}$. Then $D_{F}(1,-b) \cap D_{F}(1,-c) \subseteq D_{F}(1,-b c)$.
Corollary. $R(F)=\cap_{b \in B} D_{F}(1,-b)$ where $B \subseteq \dot{F}$ and $\langle R(F), B\rangle=\dot{F}$.
We are now ready to obtain results which are needed to analyze $K$ when $m(F)=2$.

Proposition 2.1. If $m(F)=2$ and if $d \in \dot{F}-R(F)$, then every quaternary form over $F$ of determinant $d$ is isotropic.

Proof. Let $\varphi$ be any (non-singular) quaternary form over $F$. Since $\varphi$ is isotropic if and only if $b \varphi$ is, we may assume $1 \in D_{F}(\varphi)$. So $\varphi \cong(1,-a,-b, a b d)$. Since $d \notin R(F),[-a b c, d]$ takes on both possible values as $c$ runs through $\dot{F}$. In particular, there is a $c \in \dot{F}$ such that $[-a b c, d]=[a, b]$. It follows from [7, Theorem 3.21, p. 124] that $(-1, c,-c d) \cong(-a,-b, a b d)$. Thus $\varphi \cong$ $(1,-1, c,-c d)$ is isotropic.

The norm $N_{K / F}$ will play an important role in everything that follows. We abbreviate $N_{K / F}$ to $N$; and $K, F$ are always related for the remainder of the paper as stated in the introduction; i.e., $K=F(\sqrt{ } a)$ where $a \in \dot{F}-\dot{F}^{2}$. An immediate consequence of Elman's and Lam's Norm Principle [4, Theorem 2.11] with $\varphi=(1)$ is the next proposition.

Proposition 2.2. If $x \in \dot{K}$ and $N(x) \in \dot{F}^{2}$, then there is a $\beta \in \dot{F}$ and $a y \in \dot{K}$ such that $x=\beta y^{2}$.

Theorem 2.13 in [4] is also called the Norm Principle. It states for $K, F$ as above that given a quadratic form $\varphi$ over $F$ and $x \in \dot{K}$, then $N(x) \in$ $D_{F}(\varphi) \cdot D_{F}(\varphi)$ if and only if $x \in \dot{F} \cdot D_{K}(\varphi)$. We will have frequent occasion to apply this result and will refer to it as the Norm Principle.

Proposition 2.3. If $m(F)=2$, then $\dot{F} \cap R(K)=R(F) \cup a R(F)$.
Proof. $R(F) \cup a R(F) \subseteq \dot{F} \cap R(K)$ follows from the Corollary to Proposition 3 in [1]. On the other hand, if $c \in \dot{F} \cap R(K)$, then $x \in D_{K}(1,-c)$ for all $x \in \dot{K}$. Hence the Norm Principle implies $N(x) \in D_{F}(1,-c)$ and so $D_{F}(1,-a) \subseteq$ $D_{F}(1,-c)$. Thus $c \in R(F) \cup a R(F)$ by the first paragraph of this section.

Corollary 2.4. If $m(F)=2$ and $R(F)=\dot{F}^{2}$, then $R(K)=\dot{K}^{2}$.
Proof. If $x \in R(K)$, then the Norm Principle gives $N(x) \in R(F)=\dot{F}^{2}$. So by Proposition 2.2, $x \equiv \beta\left(\bmod \dot{K}^{2}\right)$ for some $\beta \in \dot{F}$. But $\beta \in \dot{F} \cap R(K)=$ $R(F) \cup a R(F) \subseteq \dot{K}^{2}$.

Much of the later work depends heavily on Scharlau's method of transfer [9]. For $y=b+c \sqrt{ } a \in \dot{K}$, let $S_{y}$ be the linear functional on $K$ defined by $S_{y}(\alpha+\beta \sqrt{ } a)=\alpha c-\beta b$ for all $\alpha, \beta \in F$. Then ker $S_{y}=F y$. If $S_{y}{ }^{*}$ denotes the transfer with respect to $S_{y}$ and $\varphi$ is any $K$-form, then $S_{y}{ }^{*}(\varphi)$ is isotropic if and only if $D_{K}(\varphi)$ contains $f y$ for some $f \in \dot{F}$.

Proposition 2.5. If $x, y \in \dot{K}$, then $S_{y}{ }^{*}(x)=\alpha(1,-N(x y))$ where $\alpha$ is any member of $D_{F}\left[S_{y}{ }^{*}(x)\right]$.

Proof. Let $x=\alpha+\beta \sqrt{ } a, y=b+c \sqrt{ } a$. Then with respect to the basis $\{1, \sqrt{ } a\}$ for $K$ over $F$, the bilinear form associated with $S_{y}{ }^{*}(x)$ has the matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha c-\beta b & a \beta c-\alpha b \\
a \beta c-\alpha b & a(\alpha c-\beta b)
\end{array}\right)
$$

The determinant of this matrix is $-N(x) N(y)$ and the result follows.
Proposition 2.6. Let $m(F)=2$ and suppose $x, y \in \dot{K}$. If $N(x) \notin R(F)$, then there exists an $f \in \dot{F}$ such that $f y \in D_{K}(1,-x)$.

Proof. Such an $f$ exists if and only if $S_{y}{ }^{*}(1,-x)$ is isotropic. By Proposition 2.5

$$
S_{y}^{*}(1,-x)=\alpha(1,-N(y))-\beta(1,-N(x y))
$$

for particular $\alpha, \beta \in \dot{F}$. So the determinant of $S_{y}{ }^{*}(1,-x)$ is $N(x)$, and by Proposition 2.1, $S_{y}^{*}(1,-x)$ is isotropic.

We conclude this section by recalling from [5, pp. 298-299] how to find basis representatives for $\dot{K} / \dot{K}^{2}$. Let $B \cup\{a\}$ be a set of representatives for a basis of $\dot{F} / \dot{F}^{2}$ and let $C$ be a set of representatives for a basis of $D_{F}(1,-a)$. For each $\alpha=e^{2}-a f^{2} \in C$, let $\bar{\alpha}=e+f \sqrt{ } a$. Then a set of representatives for a basis of $\dot{K} / \dot{K}^{2}$ is given by $\{b\} \cup\{\bar{\alpha}\}$ where $b \in B, \alpha \in C$.
3. The case $a \notin R(F)$. Throughout this section, we assume $a \notin R(F)$ and $m(F)=2$. These assumptions will not be stated in the propositions but will be in the main results.

Proposition 3.1. For every $c \in \dot{F}, \dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-c)$.
Proof. Suppose $b, c \in \dot{F}$. Since $a \notin R(F),[a, \alpha]$ takes on both possible values as $\alpha$ runs through $\dot{F}$. Choose $\alpha$ such that $[b, c] \cong[a, \alpha]$. Then over $F$,

$$
(1,-b) \otimes(1,-c)=(1,-b,-c, b c) \cong(1,-a) \otimes(1,-\alpha)
$$

Hence, $(1,-b) \otimes(1,-c)$ is hyperbolic over $K$ and $b \in D_{K}(1,-c)$. Thus $\dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-c)$.

The next corollary now follows immediately from the Norm Principle.
Corollary 3.2. For $x \in \dot{K}$ and $c \in \dot{F}, x \in D_{K}(1,-c)$ if and only if $N(x) \in$ $D_{F}(1,-c)$.

Corollary 3.3. If $c \in \dot{F}$, then $D_{K}(1,-c)$ has index 1 or 2 in $\dot{K}$.
Proof. Suppose $x, y \notin D_{K}(1,-c)$. By the above, $N(x), N(y) \notin D_{F}(1,-c)$. But $m(F)=2$ then implies $N(x y) \in D_{F}(1,-c)$ and so $x y \in D_{K}(1,-c)$.

The next two results are immediate consequences of Corollary 3.2.
Corollary 3.4. If $x \in \dot{K}$, then $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-x)=D_{F}(1,-N(x))$.
Corollary 3.5. For $x \in \dot{K}, \dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-x)$ if and only if $N(x) \in R(F)$.
Proposition 3.6. If $x \in \dot{K}$ and $N(x) \notin R(F)$, then $D_{K}(1,-x)$ has index 2 in $\dot{K}$.

Proof. By Corollary 3.4, $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-x)$ has index 2 in $\dot{F}$. So there is a $c \in \dot{F}$ such that exactly one of $f$ or $f c$ is in $D_{K}(1,-x)$ for $f \in \dot{F}$. Consider $y \in \dot{K}$. By Proposition 2.6, there is an $f \in \dot{F}$ such that $f y \in D_{K}(1,-x)$. Hence either $y$ or $c y$ must be in $D_{K}(1,-x)$.

Proposition 3.7. If $x \in \dot{K}$ and $N(x) \in R(F)$, then $D_{K}(1,-x)$ has index 1 or 2 in $\dot{K}$.

Proof. Suppose $D_{K}(1,-x) \neq \dot{K}$ and let $y_{1}, y_{2} \notin D_{K}(1,-x)$. It suffices to show $y_{1} y_{2} \in D_{K}(1,-x)$. If $N\left(y_{1}\right) \in R(F)$, then $S_{y_{1}}{ }^{*}(1,-x)=\alpha\left(1,-N\left(y_{1}\right)\right)$ $-\beta\left(1,-N\left(x y_{1}\right)\right)$ is clearly isotropic. Therefore there is an $f \in \dot{F}$ such that $f y_{1} \in D_{K}(1,-x)$. But then by Corollary $3.5, y_{1} \in D_{K}(1,-x)$. This contradiction shows $N\left(y_{1}\right), N\left(y_{2}\right) \notin R(F)$, and so $D_{K}\left(1,-y_{i}\right), i=1,2$, have index 2 in $\dot{K}$. If $N\left(y_{1} y_{2}\right) \in R(F)$, then as above $y_{1} y_{2} \in D_{K}(1,-x)$. If $N\left(y_{1} y_{2}\right) \not \neg R(F)$, then $D_{F}\left(1,-N\left(y_{1}\right)\right) \neq D_{F}\left(1,-N\left(y_{2}\right)\right)$ by Lemma 1 of $[\mathbf{2}]$. So there is a $\beta \in \dot{F}-\left[D_{F}\left(1,-N\left(y_{1}\right) \cup D_{F}\left(1,-N\left(y_{2}\right)\right]\right.\right.$ and Corollary 3.4 now gives

$$
\beta \notin D_{K}\left(1,-y_{1}\right) \cup D_{K}\left(1,-y_{2}\right) .
$$

But $x$ does not belong to the union either means we must have $\beta x \in D_{K}\left(1,-y_{i}\right)$, $i=1,2$. Therefore $y_{i} \in D_{K}(1,-\beta x)$ for each $i=1,2$ and so $y_{1} y_{2} \in D_{K}(1,-\beta x)$. Moreover, $\beta \notin D_{K}\left(1,-y_{i}\right), i=1,2$ implies $y_{1}, y_{2} \forall D_{K}(1,-\beta)$. So $y_{1} y_{2} \in$ $D_{K}(1,-\beta)$ by Corollary 3.3. Finally $y_{1} y_{2} \in D_{K}(1,-\beta) \cap D_{K}(1,-\beta x) \subseteq$ $D_{K}(1,-x)$.

Since $D_{K}(1,-x)$ has index 1 or 2 for every $x \in \dot{K}$, we now have $m(K) \leqq 2$ (see the first paragraph of Section 2). If $m(K)=1$, then $R(K)=\dot{K}$ and by Proposition 2.3, $\dot{F}=R(F) \cup a R(F)$. Thus $R(F)$ has index 2 in $\dot{F}$ and so $F$
must be a formally real field [ $\mathbf{6}$, Lemma 2]. Conversely, if $F$ is a real field with $m(F)=2$, then $R(F)$ has index 2 in $\dot{F}$. Consequently $-a \in R(F)$ and $D_{F}(1$, $-a)=D_{F}(1,1)=R(F)$. In particular, $N(x) \in R(F)$ for all $x \in \dot{K}$. Fix $x, y \in \dot{K}$. Then

$$
S_{y}^{*}(1,-x)=\alpha(1,-N(y))-\beta(1,-N(x y))
$$

is clearly isotropic over $F$, and there must be an $f \in \dot{F}$ satisfying $f y \in D_{K}(1$, $-x)$. But $\dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-x)$ by Corollary 3.5 then gives $y \in D_{K}(1,-x)$. It now follows that $x \in R(K)$. So $R(K)=\dot{K}$ and therefore $m(K)=1$.

Theorem 3.8. Let $F$ be a field with $m(F)=2$ and $K=F(\sqrt{ } a)$ where $a \in \dot{F}-$ $\dot{F}^{2}$. If $a \notin R(F)$, then $m(K) \leqq 2$. Moreover $m(K)=1$ if and only if $F$ is formally real.

Recall that quadratic forms over fields with exactly one quaternion algebra are determined up to equivalence by just their determinant and dimension. Quadratic form structure over non-formally real fields with exactly two quaternion algebras depends heavily on the radical. Under certain finiteness conditions, we can say a lot more about $R(K)$.

Proposition 3.9. Let $|\dot{F} / R(F)|<\infty$ and suppose $x \in \dot{K}$. If $N(x) \in R(F)$, then there is an $f \in \dot{F}$ such that $f x \in R(K)$.

Proof. If $R(F)=\dot{F}^{2}$, then the proposition follows immediately from Proposition 2.2. So we may assume $\left|R\left(F^{2}\right) / \dot{F}^{2}\right|>1$. Suppose $N(x) \in R(F)$ but $\dot{F x} \cap$ $R(K)=\emptyset$. By the above we must also have $N(x) \notin \dot{F}^{2}$.

Using the remarks at the end of Section 2, we will now construct a set of representatives for a basis of $\dot{K} / \dot{K}^{2}$. Let $\left\{\alpha_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a basis for $R(F)$ over $\dot{F}$ $\left(\bmod \dot{F}^{2}\right)$ and adjoin $\left\{\beta_{j}\right\}_{j=1}^{k}$ to get a basis for $D_{F}(1,-a)$. If there are no such $\beta_{i}$, then $F$ is formally real [ $\mathbf{6}$, Lemma 2] and $m(K)=1$. Hence $R(K)=\dot{K}$ and the proposition follows. So we assume $1 \leqq k<\infty$ and we may also take one of the $\alpha_{i}$ to be $N(x)$. Now $D_{F}(1,-a)$ has index 2 in $\dot{F}$ so there is a $\beta \in$ $\dot{F}-D_{F}(1,-a)$ so that

$$
\left\{\alpha_{i}\right\}_{i \in I} \cup\left\{\beta_{j}\right\}_{j=1}^{k} \cup\{\beta\}
$$

forms a basis for $\dot{F}$. Moreover, we choose $\beta=a$ if $a \notin D_{F}(1,-a)$ and $\beta_{k}=a$ if $a \in D_{F}(1,-a)$. For each $\alpha_{i}$ and $\beta_{j}$, choose $x_{i}$ and $y_{j}$ such that $N\left(x_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i}$ and $N\left(y_{j}\right)=\beta_{j}$. For $\alpha_{i}=\alpha$, select $x_{i}=x$. Finally let $\gamma=\beta$ if $a \in D_{F}(1,-a)$ and let $\gamma=\beta_{k}$ otherwise. Then

$$
\left\{\alpha_{i}\right\}_{i \in I} \cup\left\{\beta_{j}\right\}_{j=1}^{k-1} \cup\{\gamma\} \cup\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i \in I} \cup\left\{y_{j}\right\}_{j=1}^{k}
$$

is a set of representatives for a basis of ${ }^{K} / \dot{K}^{2}$.
We are working under the assumptions $F$ is non-real (so $m(K)=2$ ) and $\dot{F} x \cap R(K)=\emptyset$. By Lemma 1 of $[\mathbf{2}]$ and Proposition 2.3, the set of $D_{K}(1,-f x)$ as $f$ runs through distinct square classes of $\left\langle\beta_{1}, \ldots \beta_{k-1}, \gamma\right\rangle$ are distinct subgroups in $\dot{K}$ of index 2. By Corollary 3.5, $\dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-f x)$ for all $f \in \dot{F}$; and it
follows just as in the discussion prior to Theorem 3.8 that $x_{i} \in D_{K}(1,-f x)$ for $i \in I$. So if we denote $\left\langle y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}\right\rangle \dot{K}^{2}$ by $V$, then the set of $D_{K}(1,-f x) \cap V$ form $2^{k}$ distinct subspaces of $V$ of dimension $k-1$. But there are only $2^{k}-1$ distinct hyperplanes in a vector space over $G F(2)$ of dimension $k$. This is a contradiction and so it was false to assume $\dot{F} x \cap R(K)=\emptyset$.

Theorem 3.10. Suppose $m(F)=2, q(F)<\infty$, and $K=F(\sqrt{ } a)$ where $a \in \dot{F}-R(F)$. Then for $x \in \dot{K}, N(x) \in R(F)$ if and only if there is an $f \in \dot{F}$ so that $f x \in R(K)$. Moreover, $\left|{ }^{R(K)} / \dot{K}^{2}\right|=\left|R(\boldsymbol{F}) / \dot{F}^{2}\right|^{2}$.

Proof. The sufficiency follows from the Norm Principle, and the necessity comes from Proposition 3.9.

If $\left|{ }^{R(F)} / \dot{F}^{2}\right|=1$, then $\left|{ }^{R(K)} / \dot{K}^{2}\right|=1$ by Corollary 2.4. If $\left|{ }^{R(F)} / \dot{F}^{2}\right|>1$, let $\left\{\alpha_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ be a set of representatives for a basis of ${ }^{R(\boldsymbol{F})} / \dot{F}^{2}$. Choose $x_{i} \in \dot{K}$ satisfying $N\left(x_{i}\right)=\alpha_{i}$. By the above there exist $f_{i} \in \dot{F}$ such that $f_{i} x_{i} \in R(K)$; and moreover, $\left\{\alpha_{i}\right\} \cup\left\{f_{i} x_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ form an independent set modulo $\dot{K}^{2}$. Since $R(F) \subseteq$ $R(K)$ [1, Proposition 3], we have

$$
V=\left\langle\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}, f_{1} x_{1}, \ldots, f_{n} x_{n}\right\rangle \dot{K}^{2} \bmod \dot{K}^{2}
$$

is a $2 n$-dimension subspace of ${ }^{R(K)} / \dot{K}^{2}$. Now suppose $x \in R(K)$. Then $N(x) \in$ $R(F)$ implies there must be $y \in\left\langle f_{1} x_{1}, \ldots, f_{n} x_{n}\right\rangle \dot{K}^{2}$ so that $N(x) \equiv N(y)$ $\left(\bmod \dot{F}^{2}\right)$. By Proposition 2.2, $x y=\beta z^{2}$ where $\beta \in \dot{F}, z \in \dot{K}$. But $x, y \in R(K)$ give $\beta \in R(K) \cap \dot{F}=R(F)$. So $x \equiv \beta y\left(\bmod \dot{K}^{2}\right)$ and $x \in V$. Consequently $V=R(K)$ and $\left|\begin{array}{ll}R(K)\end{array} \dot{K}^{2}\right|=\left|R(F) / \dot{F}^{2}\right|^{2}$ follows.

It would seem as if some result similar to Proposition 3.9 would hold without any finiteness conditions. Then the same proof as for Theorem 3.10 would enable us to write a basis for $R(K)$. But as yet we have been unable to find such a result or to discover a counterexample.
4. The case $a \in R(F)$. Throughout this section it is assumed $m(F)=2$ and $a \in R(F)$. The results when $a \in R(F)$ are not as simple as for $a \theta R(F)$. The primary reason for this is that $\dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-c)$ is no longer true for all $c \in \dot{F}$. The next proposition, which does not depend on $m(F)=2$, shows what can be said.

Proposition 4.1. For every $c \in \dot{F}, \dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-c)=D_{F}(1,-c)$.
Proof. Clearly $D_{F}(1,-c) \subseteq \dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-c)$. So suppose $b \in \dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-c)$. Then $(1,-c) \otimes(1,-b)$ is isotropic over $K$ and hence hyperbolic [8, Theorem 2]. Therefore, by [9, Remark 2.29] there are $e, f \in \dot{F}$ such that $(1,-c) \otimes$ $(1,-b) \cong(1,-a) \otimes(e, f)$ over $F$. But $a \in R(F)$ implies $(1,-a) \otimes(e, f)$ is isotropic and so $b \in D_{F}(1,-c)$.

Corollary 4.2. Let $c \in \dot{F}$. Then $\dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-c)$ if and only if $c \in R(F)$. Moreover, $c \in R(F)$ if and only if $c \in R(K)$.

Proposition 4.3. If $c \in \dot{F}-R(F)$, then $D_{K}(1,-c)$ has index 4 in $\dot{K}$.

Proof. $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-c)=D_{F}(1,-c)$ has index 2 in $\dot{F}$. Choose $b \in \dot{F}-$ $D_{F}(1,-c)$ and select $y \in \dot{K}$ satisfying $N(y)=b$. By the Norm Principle $y$, by $\notin D_{K}(1,-c)$. Hence $D_{K}(1,-c)$ has index at least 4 in $\dot{K}$. But for $x \in \dot{K}$, either $N(x)$ or $N(x y) \in D_{F}(1,-c)$. Thus again by the Norm Principle, either $x$ or $x y \in \dot{F} \cdot D_{K}(1,-c)=D_{K}(1,-c) \cup b D_{K}(1,-c)$. So $x$ is in one of the cosets of $D_{K}(1,-c)$ represented by $1, b, y$, or $b y$.

So we see already that $m(K) \geqq 4$ since $(x, y) \cong(u, v)$ if and only if $x y \equiv u v$ $\left(\bmod \dot{K}^{2}\right)$ and $[x, y]=[u, v]$. We will show equality holds here.

Proposition 4.4. If $x \in \dot{K}$, then $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-x)$ has index either 1 or 2 in $D_{F}(1,-N(x))$.

Proof. By the Norm Principle, $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-x) \subseteq D_{F}(1,-N(x))$. So it suffices to show that $\alpha \beta \in D_{K}(1,-x)$ whenever $\alpha, \beta \in D_{F}(1,-N(x))-D_{K}(1,-x)$. Now $\alpha, \beta \in D_{F}(1,-N(x))$ implies

$$
N(x) \in D_{F}(1,-\alpha) \cap D_{F}(1,-\beta) ;
$$

and so by the Norm Principle,

$$
x \in \dot{F} \cdot D_{K}(1,-\alpha) \cap \dot{F} \cdot D_{K}(1,-\beta) .
$$

Also $\alpha, \beta \notin D_{K}(1,-x)$ means $\alpha, \beta \notin R(K)$ and therefore $\alpha, \beta \notin R(F)$ as well. Hence $D_{F}(1,-\alpha)$ and $D_{F}(1,-\beta)$ have index 2 in $\dot{F}$, and $b$ can be chosen so that $b \in \dot{F}-\left(D_{F}(1,-\alpha) \cup D_{F}(1,-\beta)\right)$. Using the above and $x \notin D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$ $\cup D_{K}(1,-\beta)$, we obtain $x \in b D_{K}(1,-\alpha) \cap b D_{K}(1,-\beta)$. That is, $b x \in$ $D_{K}(1,-\alpha) \cap D_{K}(1,-\beta)$ which is contained in $D_{K}(1,-\alpha \beta)$. But $b \notin D_{F}(1,-\alpha)$ $\cup D_{F}(1,-\beta)$ yields $\alpha, \beta \notin D_{F}(1,-b)$ which means $\alpha \beta \in D_{F}(1,-b)$. Consequently $b \in D_{K}(1,-\alpha \beta)$ and this combined with $b x \in D_{K}(1,-\alpha \beta)$ gives $x \in D_{K}(1,-\alpha \beta)$. Thus $\alpha \beta \in D_{K}(1,-x)$.

Corollary 4.5. Let $x \in \dot{K}$ with $N(x) \notin R(F)$. Then $D_{K}(1,-x)$ has index 2 or 4 in $\dot{K}$ depending on whether $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-x)$ has index 1 or 2 respectively in $D_{F}(1,-N(x))$.

The proof of the corollary follows exactly the same steps as the proof for Proposition 3.6. We see that the coset representatives for $D_{K}(1,-x)$ in $\dot{K}$ can be chosen to be any set of coset representatives for $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-x)$ in $\dot{F}$.

Corollary 4.6. If $\dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-x)$, then

$$
\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-b x)=D_{F}(1,-b) \text { for all } b \in \dot{F}
$$

Proof. By Proposition 4.4, N(x) $\in R(F)$. Thus $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-b x)$ has index 1 or 2 in $\dot{F}$. But

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-b x)=\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-b x) \cap D_{K}(1,-x) \subseteq \dot{F} \cap & D_{K}(1,-b) \\
& =D_{F}(1,-b) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So we are done if $b \notin R(F)$. If $b \in R(F)$, then $D_{K}(1,-b x)=D_{K}(1,-x)$ and this, too, yields our claim.

Suppose $b \in \dot{F}-R(F)$. Then by Proposition 4.3, $D_{K}(1,-b)$ has index 4 in $\dot{K}$. In particular there are (up to isomorphism) exactly 4 quaternion algebras, $[b, y]$, as $y$ runs through $\dot{K}$. The next proposition says this set of quaternion algebras is independent of $b$.

Proposition 4.7. If $b, c \in \dot{F}-R(F)$, then the four quaternion algebras over $K$ of the form $[b, y], y \in \dot{K}$ are the same as those of the form $[c, z], z \in \dot{K}$.

Proof. If $b c \in R(F)$, then $[b c, x]$ is split for all $x \in \dot{K}$ and $[b, x]=[c, x]$. So we assume $b c \notin R(F)$, and by Lemma 1 of $[\mathbf{2}], D_{F}(1,-b) \nsubseteq D_{F}(1,-b c)$. We may choose an $\alpha \in \dot{F}-\left[D_{F}(1,-b) \cup D_{F}(1,-c)\right]$. Pick $x \in \dot{K}$ such that $N(x) \equiv \alpha\left(\bmod \dot{F}^{2}\right)$. Since $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-b c)=D_{F}(1,-b c)$ has index 2 in $\dot{F}$, we may choose $x$ (by adjusting with an $\dot{F}$-scalar if necessary) so that $x \notin D_{K}(1,-b c)$. Since $N(x) \notin D_{F}(1,-b) \cup D_{F}(1,-c)$, the Norm Principle implies $x, \alpha x \notin D_{K}(1,-b) \cup D_{K}(1,-c)$. Hence $1, \alpha, x, \alpha x$ are representatives for all four cosets of both $D_{K}(1,-b)$ and $D_{K}(1,-c)$. The four quaternion algebras then of the form $[b, y]$ are $[b, 1],[b, \alpha],[b, x]$, and $[b, \alpha x]$; similarly for $[c, z]$. Clearly $[b, 1]=[c, 1]$. Also $\alpha \notin D_{F}(1,-b) \cup D_{F}(1,-c)$ yields $b, c \notin$ $D_{F}(1,-\alpha)$ which means $b c \in D_{F}(1,-\alpha)$. Hence $[b, \alpha]=[c, \alpha]$.

Claim. $[b, x]=[c, \alpha x]$.
This will be true if and only if

$$
(1,-b,-x, b x) \cong(1,-c,-\alpha x, c \alpha x)
$$

[7, Proposition 2.5, p. 57]. Consider $D_{K}(-x, b x) \cap D_{K}(-\alpha x, c \alpha x)$. This set will be non-empty if and only if

$$
V=D_{K}(1,-b) \cap \alpha D_{K}(1,-c) \neq \emptyset
$$

Now $\alpha \notin D_{F}(1,-c)$, and so

$$
D_{F}(1,-b)=\left[D_{F}(1,-b) \cap D_{F}(1,-c)\right] \cup V
$$

But $D_{F}(1,-b) \cap D_{F}(1,-c) \subseteq D_{F}(1,-b c)$ and the initial fact that $D_{F}(1,-b)$ $\nsubseteq D_{F}(1,-b c)$ imply there is $\beta \in V-D_{F}(1,-b c)$.

So $V \neq \emptyset$ and in fact $-\beta x \in D_{K}(-x, b x) \cap D_{K}(-\alpha x, c \alpha x)$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (1,-b,-x, b x) \cong(1,-b,-\beta x, b \beta x) \text { and } \\
& (1,-c,-\alpha x, c \alpha x) \cong(1,-c,-\beta x, c \beta x)
\end{aligned}
$$

All four of these are equivalent if and only if $(-b, b \beta x) \cong(-c, c \beta x)$ which is true if and only if $\beta x \in D_{K}(1,-b c)$.

From Proposition 4.3 and its proof, the coset representatives of $D_{K}(1,-b c)$ are $1, \beta, y, \beta y$ where $y$ is chosen with $N(y)=\beta$. Since $N(x)=\alpha \notin D_{F}(1,-b) \cup$ $D_{F}(1,-c), N(x) \in D_{F}(1,-b c)$. Thus from the Norm Principle,

$$
x \in \dot{F} \cdot D_{K}(1,-b c)=D_{K}(1,-b c) \cup \beta D_{K}(1,-b c)
$$

But $x$ was chosen not to be in $D_{K}(1,-b c)$. So $\beta x \in D_{K}(1,-b c)$ and the claim is established.

The proof will be complete if we show $[b, \alpha x]=[c, x]$. Viewing the following products in the Brauer group of $K$, we have $[b, x]=[c, \alpha x]=[c, \alpha][c, x]=$ $[b, \alpha][c, x]$ implies $[b, \alpha x]=[b, \alpha][b, x]=[c, x]$.

Theorem 4.8. Let $F$ be a field with $m(F)=2$ and $K=F(\sqrt{a})$ where $a \in \dot{F}-$ $\dot{F}^{2}$. If $a \in R(F)$, then $m(K)=4$.

Proof. From Proposition 4.7 it follows that the set of quaternion algebras over $K$ of the form $[b, x], b \in \dot{F}, x \in \dot{K}$ comprise a subgroup (of the Brauer group) of order 4. Call this subgroup $H$. Next we will show that if $N(y) \notin$ $R(F)$, then all $[x, y], x \in \dot{K}$, lie in $H$. By the remarks after Corollary 4.5, $D_{K}(1,-y)$ has coset representatives $\{1, \alpha\}$ or $\{1, \alpha, \beta, \alpha \beta\}$ where $\alpha, \beta \in \dot{F}$. Thus $[x, y]$ is isomorphic to one of $[1, y],[\alpha, y],[\beta, y]$, or $[\alpha \beta, y]$. In any case, $[x, y] \in H$.

To complete the proof, we must show $[x, y] \in H$ whenever $N(x), N(y) \in$ $R(F)$. For such $x, y$ we pick any $z \in \dot{K}$ with $N(z) \notin R(F)$. This is possible since $R(F) \subsetneq D_{F}(1,-a)=\dot{F}$. Then $N(x z) \notin R(F)$ and by Proposition 2.6, there exists $f \in \dot{F}$ satisfying $-f x y \in D_{K}(1,-x z)$. Therefore, $x z \in D_{K}(1, f x y)$ and

$$
(1, f x y) \cong(x z, f y z)
$$

So $(x, f y) \cong(z, f x y z)$, and this yields $[x, f y]=[z, f x y z]$ which implies

$$
[x, y]=[x, f] \cdot[z, f x y z] .
$$

But the factors on the right hand side have been shown to lie in $H$.
Corollary 4.8. If $N(x) \in R(F)$, then $D_{K}(1,-x)$ has index 1,2 , or 4 in $\dot{K}$.
Knowing $m(K)=4$ is useful. For example by [7, Corollary 4.12, P. 323], if $K$ is non-real, then $m(K)=4$ implies $u(K)=4$. Thus, quadratic forms are determined up to equivalence by dimension, determinant, and Hasse invariant.

Our last goal is to find a statement akin to Theorem 3.10. Some of the tools that are needed hold under no finiteness conditions, but once again we have been unable to free the major result of this hypothesis.

Proposition 4.9. Let $x \in \dot{K}$ and $f, g \in \dot{F}$. Then

$$
\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-f x)=\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-g x)
$$

if and only if $f g \in R(F) \cdot\langle N(x)\rangle$.
Proof. It follows from the Norm Principle that both $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-f x)$ and $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-g x)$ are contained in $D_{F}(1,-N(x))$. So

$$
\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-f x)=\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-g x)
$$

is equivalent to showing $\alpha \in D_{K}(1,-f x)$ if and only if $\alpha \in D_{K}(1,-g x)$ for all $\alpha \in D_{F}(1,-N(x))$. And this is equivalent to
(*) $^{*} f x$ and $g x$ are simultaneously in or out of $D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$ for all

$$
\alpha \in D_{F}(1,-N(x))
$$

Suppose $f g \in R(F) \cdot\langle N(x)\rangle$. Then either $f g \in R(F)$ or $f g \in N(x) \cdot R(F)$ and in either case $D_{F}(1,-N(x)) \subseteq D_{F}(1,-f g)$. Thus $\alpha \in D_{F}(1,-f g)$ and $f g \in D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$ for all $\alpha \in D_{F}(1,-N(x))$. Hence $\left(^{*}\right)$ holds.

Conversely, now suppose $\left(^{*}\right.$ ) holds. We will be done if we can show $f g \in$ $D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$ for all $\alpha \in D_{F}(1,-N(x))$. This is true since then $f g \in D_{F}(1,-\alpha)$ by Proposition 4.1, and so $\alpha \in D_{F}(1,-f g)$ would yield $D_{F}(1,-N(x)) \subseteq$ $D_{F}(1,-f g) . f g \in R(F) \cdot\langle N(x)\rangle$ now follows from Lemma 1 of [2]. If $f x, g x$ are both in $D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$, then clearly so is $f g$. Consider the case then where neither $f x$ nor $g x$ is in $D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$ for some $\alpha \in D_{F}(1,-N(x))$. Suppose $f g \notin D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$. Then $1, f x, g x, f g$ are the 4 coset representatives for $D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$ in $\dot{K}$. Choose $y \in \dot{K}-D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$ such that $N(y) \equiv f g\left(\bmod \dot{F}^{2}\right)$. This can always be done by multiplying some $y$ satisfying $N(y)=f g$ by an appropriate element of $\dot{F}$. The Norm Principle implies $f g y \notin D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$, and so $1, y, f g, f g y$ are also representatives for the 4 cosets of $D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$. Therefore $y$ must be in the same coset as either $f x$ or $g x$. The Norm Principle then says $N(f x y)$ or $N(g x y) \in$ $D_{F}(1,-\alpha)$. But $N(x) \in D_{F}(1,-\alpha)$ by assumption on $\alpha$ and the above now gives $N(y) \in D_{F}(1,-\alpha)$. This contradiction shows it was false to suppose $f g \notin D_{K}(1,-\alpha)$.

Corollary 4.10. If $|\dot{F} / R(F)|<\infty$ and $x \in \dot{K}$, then there is an $f \in \dot{F}$ such that $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-f x)=D_{F}(1,-N(x))$.

Proof. There exist $b_{i} \in \dot{F}, 1 \leqq i \leqq n$, which form an independent set modulo $\dot{F}^{2}$, such that for $V=\left\langle b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right\rangle \dot{F}^{2}$ the following hold: 1) $\dot{F}$ is generated by $R(F), N(x)$, and $V$ and 2) $\langle R(F), N(x)\rangle \dot{F}^{2} \cap V=\dot{F}^{2}$. That is, $\left\{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right\}$ is a set of representatives for a basis of $F / R(F)$ when $N(x) \in R(F)$ and $\left\{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}, N(x)\right\}$ suffices when $N(x) \nexists R(F)$. Suppose there is no $f \in \dot{F}$ satisfying

$$
\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-f x)=D_{F}(1,-N(x)) .
$$

Then by Propositions 4.4 and $4.9,\left\{\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-f x)\left(\bmod \dot{F}^{2}\right) \mid f \in V\right\}$ is a set of $2^{n}$ subspaces of index 2 in $D_{F}(1,-N(x)) \bmod \dot{F}^{2}$. But there exist only $2^{n}-1$ hyperplanes in any vector space of dimension $n$ over $G F(2)$. This is a contradiction and so we must have a desired $f \in \dot{F}$.

Proposition 4.11. Let $x \in \dot{K}$ satisfy $N(x) \notin R(F)$ and $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-x)=$ $D_{F}(1,-N(x))$. Then $D_{K}(1,-N(x)) \subseteq D_{K}(1,-x)$.

Proof. By Proposition 4.9, $\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-x N(x))=D_{F}(1,-N(x))$. So from Corollary 4.5, $D_{K}(1,-x N(x))$ and $D_{K}(1,-x)$ both have index 2 in $\dot{K}$. Consesequently $D_{K}(1,-x N(x)) \cap D_{K}(1,-x)$ has index at most 4 . But this inter-
section is contained in $D_{K}(1,-N(x))$ which has index 4 by Proposition 4.3. Thus

$$
D_{K}(1,-x N(x)) \cap D_{K}(1,-x)=D_{K}(1,-N(x))
$$

and the result follows.
Corollary 4.12. Suppose $|\dot{F} / R(F)|<\infty$ and $x \in \dot{K}$. If $N(x) \in R(F)$, then there is an $f \in \dot{F}$ so that $f x \in R(K)$.

Proof. Corollary 4.10 says there exists an $f \in \dot{F}$ satisfying

$$
\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-f x)=D_{F}(1,-N(x)) ;
$$

i.e., $\dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-f x)$. We will show $f x \in R(K)$. If $y \in \dot{K}$ and $N(y) \in R(F)$, then as we have seen before (e.g. in the proof of 3.7 ), $y \in D_{K}(1,-f x)$. Consider then $N(y) \notin R(F)$. Again by 4.10 , there is a $g \in \dot{F}$ with

$$
\dot{F} \cap D_{K}(1,-g y)=D_{F}(1,-N(y))=D_{F}(1,-N(g y)) .
$$

Proposition 4.11 yields $D_{K}(1,-N(y)) \subseteq D_{K}(1,-g y)$. If we can show $g y \in$ $D_{K}(1,-f x)$, we will be done. Suppose $g y \notin D_{K}(1,-f x)$. Then $f x \notin D_{K}(1,-g y)$ and the above gives $f x \notin D_{K}(1,-N(y))$. So $N(y) \notin D_{K}(1,-f x)$. But this contradicts $\dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-f x)$.

From this corollary we can improve the statement in 4.8. For if $f x \in R(K)$, then $D_{K}(1,-x)=D_{K}(1,-f)$; and Proposition 4.3 now yields the next result.

Corollary 4.13. If $|\dot{F} / R(F)|<\infty, x \in \dot{K}$, and $N(x) \in R(F)$, then $D_{K}(1,-x)$ has index 1 or 4 in $\dot{K}$. Moreover, its index is 1 if and only if $\dot{F} \subseteq D_{K}(1,-x)$.

The proof of Theorem 3.10 now applies to the case where $a \in R(F)$. The only adjustment required is that the square class of $a$ in $F$ is lost when we move up to $K$. So when $q(F)<\infty, R(K)$ is only half the size it is when $a \notin R(K)$. We record these remarks and previous ones in the following theorem.

Theorem 4.14. Suppose $m(F)=2, q(F)<\infty$, and $K=F(\sqrt{a})$ where $a \in R(F)-\dot{F}^{2}$. Then for $x \in \dot{K}, N(x) \in R(F)$ if and only if there is an $f \in \dot{F}$ so that $f x \in R(K)$. Moreover, $\left|{ }^{R(K)} / \dot{K}\right|=\left.\frac{1}{2}\right|^{R(F)} /\left.\dot{F}^{2}\right|^{2}$.
5. Remarks. The important statement in Theorems 3.10 and 4.14 is that $N(x) \in R(F)$ if and only if there is an $f \in \dot{F}$ satisfying $f x \in R(K)$. It only depends on $|\dot{F} / R(F)|<\infty$-as Proposition 3.9 and Corollary 4.12 show-and not on $q(F)<\infty$. Unfortunately the arguments used to prove these relied on the finiteness conditions, and we have been unable to avoid this requirement. The major problem in finding a possible counterexample is that there are so few fields known having a radical which has the property $\dot{F}^{2} \subsetneq R(F) \subsetneq \dot{F}$.

Both real and non-real fields with "non-trivial" radical have been discovered (see [1], [11]), and further investigation is merited. The real significance of $R(F)$ is yet to be found. When $m(F)=2$, it has been shown what role $R(F)$
plays; and in fact, it was the missing link that supplied the complete answer to the quadratic form structure. This paper has shown that there is quite a difference for quadratic extensions, $F(\sqrt{a})$, depending on whether $a \in R(F)$. And even though $m(K) \leqq 4$ when $m(F)=2$, the case $m(K)=4$ is still not fully understood.

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