

GREENBERG'S CONJECTURE AND RELATIVE UNIT GROUPS FOR REAL QUADRATIC FIELDS

TAKASHI FUKUDA (福田隆・日大生産工)

ABSTRACT. For an odd prime number p and a real quadratic field k , we consider relative unit groups for intermediate fields of the cyclotomic \mathbb{Z}_p -extension of k and discuss the relation to Greenberg's conjecture.

1. INTRODUCTION

Greenberg's conjecture claims that $\mu_p(k)$ and $\lambda_p(k)$ both vanish for any prime number p and any totally real number field k (cf. [9]). Here $\mu_p(k)$ and $\lambda_p(k)$ denote the Iwasawa invariants for the cyclotomic \mathbb{Z}_p -extension of k . A Galois extension K/k is called a \mathbb{Z}_p -extension if the Galois group $G(K/k)$ is topologically isomorphic to the additive group of the ring of p -adic integers \mathbb{Z}_p and said to be cyclotomic if it is contained in the field obtained by adjoining all p -power-th roots of unity to k (cf. [13]). This conjecture is still open in spite of the efforts of many mathematicians (cf. [3], [4], [6], [8], [10], [11], [15], [16], [18], [19]) even in real quadratic case. In [3], we verified numerically the conjecture for $p = 3$ and some real quadratic fields k in which 3 splits, using the invariants $n_0^{(2)}$ and $n_2^{(2)}$ which were defined generally in [20]. In order to calculate $n_0^{(2)}$ and $n_2^{(2)}$, we introduced the notion of relative unit group in [3]. In this paper, we study the structure of the relative unit groups for all intermediate fields of the cyclotomic \mathbb{Z}_p -extension of k , and see that the relative unit group is closely related to Greenberg's conjecture.

2. RELATIVE UNIT GROUP

Let p be an odd prime number and k a real quadratic field. Let $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Q}_0 \subset \mathbb{Q}_1 \subset \cdots \subset \mathbb{Q}_\infty$ and $k = k_0 \subset k_1 \subset \cdots \subset k_\infty$ be the cyclotomic \mathbb{Z}_p -extensions. Note that \mathbb{Q}_n is a cyclic extension of degree p^n over \mathbb{Q} , $k_n = k\mathbb{Q}_n$ is a cyclic extension of degree $2p^n$ over \mathbb{Q} and $k \cap \mathbb{Q}_n = \mathbb{Q}$. We denote by $E(F)$ the unit group of an algebraic number field F and by $N_{L/F}$ the norm map for a finite

1991 *Mathematics Subject Classification*. Primary 11R23, 11R11, 11R27.

Key words and phrases. Iwasawa invariants, real quadratic fields, unit groups.

Galois extension L/F . We define the relative unit group $E_{n,R}$ for k_n by

$$E_{n,R} = \{ \varepsilon \in E(k_n) \mid N_{k_n/\mathbb{Q}_n}(\varepsilon) = \pm 1, N_{k_n/k}(\varepsilon) = \pm 1 \}.$$

Note that this definition is slightly different from the original one of Leopoldt (cf. [17]).

Lemma 2.1. *The free rank of $E_{n,R}$ is $p^n - 1$.*

Proof. Let ε be any element of $E(k_n)$. Then,

$$\varepsilon^{2p^n} N_{k_n/\mathbb{Q}_n}(\varepsilon)^{-p^n} N_{k_n/k}(\varepsilon)^{-2} \in E_{n,R},$$

and hence

$$E(k_n)^{2p^n} \subset E(\mathbb{Q}_n)E(k)E_{n,R} \subset E(k_n).$$

Since $E(\mathbb{Q}_n)E(k) \cap E_{n,R} = \{ \pm 1 \}$, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}}(E_{n,R}) &= \text{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}}(E(k_n)) - \text{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}}(E(\mathbb{Q}_n)) - \text{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}}(E(k)) \\ &= 2p^n - 1 - (p^n - 1) - 1 \\ &= p^n - 1. \end{aligned}$$

□

The Galois group $G(k_n/\mathbb{Q})$ acts on $E(k_n)$ and $E_{n,R}$. We investigate the Galois module structure of $E_{n,R}$. It is well known that there exists so called Minkowski unit in $E(k_n)$. We see that $E_{n,R}$ also has such a unit.

Lemma 2.2. *Let K_1 and K_2 be finite Galois extensions over \mathbb{Q} satisfying $K_1 \cap K_2 = \mathbb{Q}$ and let $L = K_1K_2$. Let*

$$E_R = \{ \varepsilon \in E(L) \mid N_{L/K_i}(\varepsilon) = \pm 1 \text{ for } i = 1, 2 \}.$$

Then there exists $\eta \in E_R$ such that

$$(E_R : \langle \eta^\sigma \mid \sigma \in G(L/\mathbb{Q}) \rangle) < \infty.$$

Proof. Let $G = G(L/\mathbb{Q})$ and let $H_i = G(L/K_i)$, $h_i = |H_i|$ for $i = 1, 2$. For $\varepsilon \in E(L)$ and $\sigma \in G$, we see that

$$N_{L/K_i}(\varepsilon)^\sigma = \prod_{\tau \in H_i} \varepsilon^{\tau\sigma} = \prod_{\tau \in H_i} \varepsilon^{\sigma(\sigma^{-1}\tau\sigma)} = N_{L/K_i}(\varepsilon^\sigma).$$

Therefore E_R is stable under the action of G . Let ε be a Minkowski unit of L . Then $m = (E(L) : \langle \varepsilon^\sigma \mid \sigma \in G \rangle)$ is finite and

$$\eta = \varepsilon^{h_1 h_2} N_{L/K_1}(\varepsilon)^{-h_2} N_{L/K_2}(\varepsilon)^{-h_1} \in E_R.$$

Let ξ be any element of $E_{n,R}$. We can write

$$\xi^m = \prod_{\sigma \in G} \varepsilon^{a_\sigma \sigma}$$

with suitable integers a_σ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{\sigma \in G} \eta^{a_\sigma \sigma} &= \xi^{mh_1 h_2} N_{L/K_1}(\xi)^{-mh_2} N_{L/K_2}(\xi)^{-mh_1} \\ &= \pm \xi^{mh_1 h_2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have $E_R^{mh_1 h_2} \subset \langle -1, \eta^\sigma \mid \sigma \in G \rangle \subset E_R$. \square

We fix a topological generator σ of $G(k_\infty/\mathbb{Q})$ and write $\varepsilon_i = \varepsilon^{\sigma^i}$ for $\varepsilon \in E(k_\infty)$ and $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Our argument in this section is based on the following simple property of conjugation in $E_{n,R}$. Let $r = p^n - 1$.

Lemma 2.3. *We have $\varepsilon_r = \pm (\varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_2 \cdots \varepsilon_{r-2})(\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_3 \cdots \varepsilon_{r-1})^{-1}$ for $\varepsilon \in E_{n,R}$.*

Proof. Since $N_{k_n/\mathbb{Q}_n}(\varepsilon) = \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_{r+1} = \pm 1$, we have $\varepsilon_{r+1} = \pm \varepsilon_0^{-1}$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} N_{k_n/k}(\varepsilon) &= \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_2 \cdots \varepsilon_{r-2} \varepsilon_r \varepsilon_{r+2} \cdots \varepsilon_{2r} \\ &= \varepsilon_0 \varepsilon_2 \cdots \varepsilon_{r-2} \varepsilon_r (\varepsilon_1 \cdots \varepsilon_{r-1})^{-1} \\ &= \pm 1. \end{aligned}$$

From this we have the desired relation. \square

The next corollary follows from Lemmas 2.2 and 2.3, and this leads us to the following definition.

Corollary 2.4. *There exists $\varepsilon \in E_{n,R}$ such that*

$$(E_R : \langle -1, \varepsilon_0, \varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_{r-1} \rangle) < \infty.$$

Definition 2.5. We say that $E_{n,R}$ has a p -normal basis if there exists $\varepsilon \in E_{n,R}$ such that $\langle -1, \varepsilon_0, \varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_{r-1} \rangle$ has a finite index prime to p in $E_{n,R}$.

We put

$$E_{n,R,p^n} = \{ \varepsilon \in E_{n,R} \mid \varepsilon^{1+\sigma} \in E_{n,R}^{p^n} \}.$$

We see that E_{n,R,p^n} is a fairly small subgroup of $E_{n,R}$. Indeed, if we put

$$V_n = E_{n,R,p^n} / E_{n,R}^{p^n},$$

then V_n is a finite group.

Proposition 2.6. *The order of V_n is p^n .*

Now, we define the p -rank $r(V_n)$ of V_n to be $\dim_{\mathbb{F}_p}(V_n/V_n^p)$. Since the map $V_n \ni \Phi E_{n,R}^{p^n} \mapsto \Phi^p E_{n+1,R}^{p^{n+1}} \in V_{n+1}$ is injective, we obtain the following lemma.

Lemma 2.7. *$r(V_n) \leq r(V_{n+1})$ for all $n \geq 1$.*

On the other hand, as we shall see in the following sections, $r(V_n)$ is bounded. The following proposition states a relation between the group structure of V_n and the Galois module structure of $E_{n,R}$.

Proposition 2.8. V_n is cyclic if and only if $E_{n,R}$ has a p -normal basis.

In order to prove Propositions 2.6 and 2.8, we have to prepare some lemmas. For a subgroup E of $E(k_n)$, we put $\bar{E} = E/\text{tor}(E)$ and denote by $\bar{\varepsilon}$ the image of ε under the homomorphism $E \rightarrow \bar{E}$.

Lemma 2.9. The endomorphism $1 + \sigma$ of $\bar{E}_{n,R}$ is injective.

Proof. Let ε be an element of $E_{n,R}$ satisfying $\varepsilon^{1+\sigma} = \pm 1$. Then we have $\varepsilon_1 = \pm \varepsilon_0^{-1}$ and $\varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_0$. Since r is even, we have $\varepsilon_0 = \varepsilon_r = \pm \varepsilon_0^{-r}$ from Lemma 2.3. Hence $\varepsilon^{r+1} = \pm 1$. Since k_n is real, we have $\varepsilon = \pm 1$. \square

Lemma 2.10. Let $\varepsilon \in E_{n,R}$ and $N = \langle -1, \varepsilon_0, \varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_{r-1} \rangle$. If $(E_{n,R} : N)$ is finite, then $\bar{N}/\bar{N}^{1+\sigma} \simeq \mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. It is clear from Lemma 2.9 that $\{\bar{\varepsilon}_0, \bar{\varepsilon}_1, \dots, \bar{\varepsilon}_{r-1}\}$ forms a free basis of \bar{N} over \mathbb{Z} and $\{\bar{\varepsilon}_0^{1+\sigma}, \bar{\varepsilon}_1^{1+\sigma}, \dots, \bar{\varepsilon}_{r-1}^{1+\sigma}\}$ forms a free basis of $\bar{N}^{1+\sigma}$ over \mathbb{Z} . From Lemma 2.3, we have $\bar{\varepsilon}_{r-1}^{1+\sigma} = (\bar{\varepsilon}_0\bar{\varepsilon}_2 \cdots \bar{\varepsilon}_{r-2})^{-1} \bar{\varepsilon}_1\bar{\varepsilon}_3 \cdots \bar{\varepsilon}_{r-3}\bar{\varepsilon}_{r-1}^2$. It is easy to see that the invariant of $r \times r$ matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 & \cdots & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

is $(1, 1, \dots, 1, p^n)$. The desired isomorphism immediately follows from this. \square

Lemma 2.11. Let M be a finitely generated free \mathbb{Z} -module and f an injective endomorphism of M . If N is a submodule of M such that $(M : N) < \infty$ and $f(N) \subset N$, then $(M : f(M)) = (N : f(N))$.

Proof. Let $\text{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}}(M) = n$. There exist $v_i \in M$, $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ ($1 \leq i \leq n$) such that

$$M = \bigoplus_{1 \leq i \leq n} \mathbb{Z}v_i, \quad N = \bigoplus_{1 \leq i \leq n} \mathbb{Z}x_i v_i.$$

We write

$$f(v_i) = \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n} a_{ij} v_j$$

with suitable integers a_{ij} . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
(M : N)(N : f(N)) &= (M : f(N)) \\
&= |\det(x_i a_{ij})| \\
&= \left| \prod_i x_i \right| \cdot |\det(a_{ij})| \\
&= (M : N)(M : f(M)).
\end{aligned}$$

From the finiteness of this expression, we have $(M : f(M)) = (N : f(N))$. \square

Proof of Proposition 2.6. From Corollary 2.4, we can choose $\eta \in E_{n,R}$ such that $N = \langle -1, \eta_0, \eta_1, \dots, \eta_{r-1} \rangle$ has a finite index in $E_{n,R}$. Then we have

$$(1) \quad (\bar{E}_{n,R} : \bar{E}_{n,R}^{1+\sigma}) = (\bar{N} : \bar{N}^{1+\sigma}) = p^n$$

from Lemmas 2.9, 2.11 and 2.10. We claim that

$$\bar{E}_{n,R,p^n}^{1+\sigma} = \bar{E}_{n,R}^{p^n}.$$

Indeed, $\bar{E}_{n,R,p^n}^{1+\sigma} \subset \bar{E}_{n,R}^{p^n}$ is clear from definition. Conversely, take $\varepsilon \in E_{n,R}$. Then $\bar{\varepsilon}^{p^n} \in \bar{E}_{n,R}^{1+\sigma}$ from (1) and hence $\bar{\varepsilon}^{p^n} = \bar{\gamma}^{1+\sigma}$ for some $\gamma \in E_{n,R}$. It is clear that $\gamma \in E_{n,R,p^n}$ and so $\bar{\varepsilon}^{p^n} \in \bar{E}_{n,R,p^n}^{1+\sigma}$. Then we have

$$(2) \quad V_n \simeq \bar{E}_{n,R,p^n} / \bar{E}_{n,R}^{p^n} \simeq \bar{E}_{n,R,p^n}^{1+\sigma} / \bar{E}_{n,R}^{p^n(1+\sigma)} = \bar{E}_{n,R}^{p^n} / \bar{E}_{n,R}^{p^n(1+\sigma)} \simeq \bar{E}_{n,R} / \bar{E}_{n,R}^{1+\sigma}$$

from Lemma 2.9. Therefore (1) implies that $|V_n| = p^n$. \square

Lemma 2.12. Let M be a finitely generated \mathbb{Z} -module, N a submodule of M and p a prime number. If $M = pM + N$, then $(M : N)$ is finite and prime to p .

Proof. The assertion follows from $p(M/N) = (pM + N)/N = M/N$. \square

Proof of Proposition 2.8. First assume that V_n is cyclic. Then there exists $\Phi \in E_{n,R}$ such that $V_n = \langle \Phi E_{n,R}^{p^n} \rangle$. We choose $\varphi \in E_{n,R}$ such that $\Phi^{1+\sigma} = \varphi^{p^n}$. The isomorphism (2) implies that $\bar{E}_{n,R} = \langle \bar{\varphi} \rangle \bar{E}_{n,R}^{1+\sigma}$. Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{E}_{n,R} &= \langle \bar{\varphi} \rangle \bar{E}_{n,R}^{1+\sigma} \\
&= \langle \bar{\varphi}, \bar{\varphi}^{1+\sigma} \rangle \bar{E}_{n,R}^{(1+\sigma)^2} \\
&\vdots \\
&= \langle \bar{\varphi}, \bar{\varphi}^{1+\sigma}, \dots, \bar{\varphi}^{(1+\sigma)^r} \rangle \bar{E}_{n,R}^{(1+\sigma)^{r+1}} \\
&= \langle \bar{\varphi}_0, \bar{\varphi}_1, \dots, \bar{\varphi}_{r-1} \rangle \bar{E}_{n,R}^p
\end{aligned}$$

because $\bar{E}_{n,R} \supset \bar{E}_{n,R}^p \supset \bar{E}_{n,R}^{(1+\sigma)^{p^n}}$. Hence, Lemma 2.12 immediately shows that $E_{n,R}$ has a p -normal basis. Conversely assume that there exists $\varphi \in E_{n,R}$ such that $N = \langle -1, \varphi_0, \varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_{r-1} \rangle$ has a finite index prime to p in $E_{n,R}$. Put

$$\Phi = \varphi_0 \varphi_1^{-2} \varphi_2^3 \cdots \varphi_{r-1}^{-r}.$$

We see from Lemma 2.3 that $\Phi^{1+\sigma} = \pm (\varphi_0 \varphi_1^{-1} \varphi_2 \cdots \varphi_{r-1}^{-1})^{p^n}$ and hence $\Phi \in E_{n,R,p^n}$. If the order of $\Phi E_{n,R}^{p^n}$ in V_n is less than p^n , then $\Phi^{p^{n-1}} \in E_{n,R}^{p^n}$ and so $\Phi^{1/p} \in E_{n,R}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle -1, \varphi_0, \varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_{r-1} \rangle &= \langle -1, \Phi, \varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_{r-1} \rangle \\ &\subsetneq \langle -1, \Phi^{1/p}, \varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_{r-1} \rangle \\ &\subset E_{n,R} \end{aligned}$$

shows that $(E_{n,R} : N)$ is divisible by p . This is a contradiction. Hence, the order of $\Phi E_{n,R}^{p^n}$ is not less than p^n and $V_n = \langle \Phi E_{n,R}^{p^n} \rangle$ from Proposition 2.6. \square

We give two more lemmas to use in the following sections. Throughout the following, we abbreviate $E_n = E(k_n)$.

Lemma 2.13. *Let ϕ be the fundamental unit of k and s an integer such that $0 \leq s \leq n$. Then $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) \supset E_0^{p^s}$ if and only if $\phi^{p^s} \eta \in E_n^{p^n}$ for some $\eta \in E_{n,R,p^n}$.*

Proof. First assume that $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) \supset E_0^{p^s}$ and take $\varepsilon \in E_n$ such that $N_{k_n/k}(\varepsilon) = \phi^{p^s}$. Then

$$\eta = \varepsilon^{2p^{n-s}} N_{k_n/\mathbb{Q}_n}(\varepsilon)^{-p^{n-s}} \phi^{-2} \in E_{n,R}$$

and moreover $\eta^{p^s} \in E_{n,R,p^n}$. We see that $\phi^{2p^s} \eta^{p^s} \in E_n^{p^n}$. Conversely, if $\phi^{p^s} \eta = \varepsilon^{p^n}$ for some $\eta \in E_{n,R,p^n}$ and $\varepsilon \in E_n$, then $N_{k_n/k}(\varepsilon)^{p^n} = \pm \phi^{p^{n+s}}$ and hence $N_{k_n/k}(\varepsilon) = \pm \phi^{p^s}$ because k is real. \square

Lemma 2.14. *Assume further that $V_n = \langle \Phi E_{n,R}^{p^n} \rangle$ is cyclic under the same conditions in Lemma 2.13. Then $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) = E_0^{p^s}$ if and only if $\phi^i \Phi \in E_n^{p^{n-s}}$ for some integer i and $\phi^j \Phi \notin E_n^{p^{n-s+1}}$ for any integer j .*

Proof. First we give a notice when $s = 0$. Namely, we have $\phi^j \Phi \notin E_n^{p^{n+1}}$ for any integer j . Indeed, if $\phi^j \Phi \in E_n^{p^{n+1}}$ for some j , then $\phi^j \Phi = \alpha^{p^{n+1}}$ for some $\alpha \in E_n$. It easily follows that j is prime to p and that $\phi \in E_0^p$ by applying $N_{k_n/k}$, which is a contradiction. Now assume that $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) \supset E_0^{p^s}$. Then, from the above lemma, $\phi^{p^s} \eta \in E_n^{p^n}$ for some $\eta \in E_{n,R,p^n}$. Since $V_n = \langle \Phi E_{n,R}^{p^n} \rangle$, we can write $\eta = \Phi^j \alpha^{p^n}$ for some $j \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\alpha \in E_{n,R}$. We see that $\phi^{p^s} \Phi^j \in E_n^{p^n}$ and hence $j = p^s j'$ with $(j', p) = 1$. Hence, $\phi \Phi^{j'} \in E_n^{p^{n-s}}$. Since j' is prime to p , there exists

an integer i such that $\phi^i \Phi \in E_n^{p^{n-s}}$. Conversely, if $\phi^i \Phi \in E_n^{p^{n-s}}$ for some integer i , then we easily see that $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) \supset E_0^{p^s}$. Hence we have

$$N_{k_n/k}(E_n) \supset E_0^{p^s} \iff \phi^i \Phi \in E_n^{p^{n-s}} \quad \text{for some } i.$$

This completes the proof because $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) = E_0^{p^s}$ is equivalent to $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) \supset E_0^{p^s}$ and $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) \not\supset E_0^{p^{s-1}}$. \square

3. APPLICATION TO GREENBERG'S CONJECTURE (NON-SPLIT CASE)

Throughout this section, we assume that p does not split in k . We discuss a relation between V_n and Greenberg's conjecture of this case. Let A_n be the p -Sylow subgroup of the n -th layer k_n of the cyclotomic \mathbb{Z}_p -extension of k . Let $\iota_{n,m} : k_n \rightarrow k_m$ be the inclusion map for $0 \leq n \leq m$. The equality

$$(3) \quad (E_0 : N_{k_n/k}(E_n)) = |\text{Ker}(A_0 \rightarrow A_n)|$$

which was proved in [12] is fundamental in this case. The following theorem gives an necessary and sufficient condition for the conjecture in this case.

Theorem 3.1 (Theorem 1 in [9]). $\mu_p(k) = \lambda_p(k) = 0$ if and only if $\iota_{0,n} : A_0 \rightarrow A_n$ is zero map for some $n \geq 1$.

The capitulatory affair of $A_0 \rightarrow A_n$ is related to the property of V_n through Lemmas 2.13 and 2.14. We first state the boundedness of $r(V_n)$.

Lemma 3.2. If $|\text{Ker}(A_0 \rightarrow A_n)| \leq p^s$, then $r(V_n) \leq s + 1$.

Proof. Since $|\text{Ker}(A_0 \rightarrow A_n)| \leq p^n$ from (3), we may assume that $s \leq n$. Furthermore, if $n - 1 \leq s \leq n$, then the claim is clear from proposition 2.6. So we assume that $s < n - 1$. We have $(E_0 : N_{k_n/k}(E_n)) \leq p^s$ again from (3). Therefore $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) \supset E_0^{p^s}$ and $\phi^{p^s} \eta \in E_0^{p^n}$ for some $\eta \in E_{n,R,p^n}$ from Lemma 2.13. If $r(V_n) \geq s + 2$, then the exponent of V_n is less than p^{n-s} from Proposition 2.6. Therefore $\eta^{p^{n-s-1}} \in E_{n,R}^{p^n}$ and so $\eta \in E_{n,R}^{p^{s+1}}$. It follows that $\phi \in E_n^p$, which is a contradiction. Hence, $r(V_n) \leq s + 1$. \square

Corollary 3.3. If $|A_0| = p^s$, then $r(V_n) \leq s + 1$ for all $n \geq 1$.

Corollary 3.4. If $\iota_{0,n} : A_0 \rightarrow A_n$ is injective, then V_n is cyclic.

As we shall see later, the converse of Corollary 3.4 is not always true. But we have the following theorem.

Theorem 3.5. $\iota_{0,n} : A_0 \rightarrow A_n$ is injective for all $n \geq 1$ if and only if V_n is cyclic for all $n \geq 1$.

Proof. Assume that $\iota_{0,m} : A_0 \rightarrow A_m$ is not injective for some $m \geq 1$. Since $|\text{Ker}(A_0 \rightarrow A_n)|$ is bounded, there exists $n \geq 1$ such that

$$|\text{Ker}(A_0 \rightarrow A_n)| = |\text{Ker}(A_0 \rightarrow A_{n+1})| = p^s > 1.$$

If V_{n+1} is cyclic, then V_n is also cyclic from Lemma 2.7. Let $V_{n+1} = \langle \Psi E_{n+1,R}^{p^{n+1}} \rangle$ and $V_n = \langle \Phi E_{n,R}^{p^n} \rangle$. Let $\Phi^p = \Psi^j \alpha^{p^{n+1}}$ for some $j \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\alpha \in E_{n+1,R}$. Since Ψ is not p -th power in $E_{n+1,R}$ and Φ is not p -th power in $E_{n,R}$, j is divisible by p but not divisible by p^2 . Hence $\Psi = \Phi^i \beta^{p^n}$ for some $\beta \in E_{n+1,R}$ and integer i prime to p . Now, $N_{k_{n+1}/k}(E_{n+1}) = E_0^{p^s}$ and Lemma 2.14 imply that $\phi^j \Psi = \phi^j \Phi^i \beta^{p^n} \in E_{n+1}^{p^{n-s+1}}$ for some integer j . It follows that $\phi^j \Phi^i \in E_{n+1}^{p^{n-s+1}}$ because $s \geq 1$ and that $\phi^j \Phi^i \in E_n^{p^{n-s+1}}$ because k_{n+1}/k_n is a cyclic extension of degree p of real fields. Hence $\phi^{j'} \Phi \in E_n^{p^{n-s+1}}$ for some integer j' because i is prime to p . This is a contradiction in view of $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) = E_0^{p^s}$ and Lemma 2.14. This completes the proof. \square

We give a few examples when $p = 3$. Let $H_n = \text{Ker}(A_0 \rightarrow A_n)$. The calculations have been done with a computer.

Example 3.6. Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{257})$. Then $|H_1| = |A_0| = 3$ (cf. [6]) and $V_1 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$. This is a trivial counter example for the converse of Corollary 3.4. Next let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{443})$. Then $|H_1| = 1$, $|H_2| = |A_0| = 3$ (cf. [6]) and $V_2 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/9\mathbb{Z}$. This is a non-trivial counter example.

Example 3.7. Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{1937})$. In Table 1 of [6], the value of $\lambda_3(k)$ was not known. But we see that $V_2 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ and that $A_0 \rightarrow A_2$ is zero map from Corollary 3.4. Hence $\lambda_3(k) = 0$ from Theorem 3.1. The same argument can be applied for $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{3305})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5063})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{6995})$.

Example 3.8. There are 31 k 's in Table 1 of [6] for which the value of $|H_2|$ is not known. For four k 's in Example 3.7, we have $|H_2| = 3$ because $A_0 \rightarrow A_2$ is zero map. For the rest 27 k 's, we verified that V_2 is cyclic and $|H_2| = 1$ by constructing numerically a unit ε of k_2 such that $N_{k_2/k}(\varepsilon) = \phi$ using Lemma 2.14.

Example 3.9. Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{254})$. Then $|A_0| = 3$. We could verify that $A_0 \rightarrow A_3$ is injective by constructing a unit ε of k_3 such that $N_{k_3/k}(\varepsilon) = \phi$ using Lemma 2.14. It seems that $A_0 \rightarrow A_4$ is also injective. But the calculation exceeded the capacity of computer.

Remark. In recent papers [10], [15] and [16], it was proved independently that $\lambda_3(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{254})) = 0$. Their arguments show that $A_0 \rightarrow A_5$ is zero map.

We discuss a relation about a normal integral basis. We say that a \mathbb{Z}_p -extension K/F has a normal p -integral basis if $\mathfrak{D}_{F_n}[1/p]$ is a free $\mathfrak{D}_F[1/p][G(F_n/F)]$ -module for each intermediate field F_n of K/F . Here \mathfrak{D}_{F_n} denotes the ring of integers of

F_n . We restrict our argument to the case $p = 3$ because a connection to a normal integral basis becomes clear in this case. Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ for a positive square-free integer d which is congruent to 2 modulo 3 and $k^- = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3d})$. It is known that k^- has the \mathbb{Z}_3 -extension k_∞^- such that k_∞^- is a Galois extension over \mathbb{Q} and $G(k_\infty^-/\mathbb{Q})$ is isomorphic to the semi direct product of $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$ and \mathbb{Z}_3 . It is called the anti-cyclotomic \mathbb{Z}_3 -extension of k^- . Then the next result is known (cf. Corollary 3.9 of [1]). See also Theorem 2.3 of [14] and Theorem of [5].

Theorem 3.10. k_∞^-/k^- has a normal 3-integral basis if and only if $A_0 \rightarrow A_n$ is injective for all $n \geq 1$.

Using Proposition 2.8 and Theorem 3.5, we can give equivalent conditions in terms of relative unit groups.

Theorem 3.11. The following three conditions are equivalent.

- (1) k_∞^-/k^- has a normal 3-integral basis.
- (2) $E_{n,R}$ has a 3-normal basis for all $n \geq 1$.
- (3) V_n is cyclic for all $n \geq 1$.

Viewing Theorems 3.1 and 3.10, we are led to the next conjecture which is weaker than Greenberg's conjecture.

Conjecture 3.12. Let k be a real quadratic field in which 3 remains prime. If the class number of k is divisible by 3, then k_∞^-/k^- does not have a normal 3-integral basis.

Professor K. Komatsu first told the author the importance of studying this conjecture in connection with Greenberg's one. Concerning this conjecture, we give two examples.

Example 3.13. Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{32009})$. Then $A_0 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ and $|H_1| = 3$. Hence, k_∞^-/k^- does not have a normal 3-integral basis from Theorem 3.10. Furthermore, we can see that $V_2 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ and $|H_2| = 9$ using Lemma 2.13. Hence $\lambda_3(k) = 0$ from Theorem 3.1. This example is interesting by reason that A_0 is not cyclic. Similar examples in the split case are given in [7].

Example 3.14. Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{53678})$. Then $A_0 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ and $|H_1| = 1$. we can see that V_2 is cyclic and $|H_2| = 3$ using Lemma 2.14. Hence k_∞^-/k^- does not have a normal 3-integral basis. We do not know whether $\lambda_3(k) = 0$.

Remark. Dr. Sumida kindly informed the author that he verified $\lambda_3(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{53678})) = 0$ with the method in [11].

4. APPLICATION TO GREENBERG'S CONJECTURE (SPLIT CASE)

Throughout this section, we assume that p splits in k . As in the preceding section, we discuss a relation between V_n and Greenberg's conjecture in this case. Let $(p) = \mathfrak{p}\mathfrak{p}'$ be the prime decomposition of p in k and \mathfrak{p}_n the prime ideal of k_n lying over \mathfrak{p} . Let $D_n = \langle \text{cl}(\mathfrak{p}_n) \rangle \cap A_n$ and B_n the subgroup of A_n consisting of elements which are invariant under the action of $G(k_n/k)$. We note that $D_n \subset B_n$. The following theorem is known as a necessary and sufficient condition for the conjecture in this case.

Theorem 4.1 (Theorem 2 in [9]). $\mu_p(k) = \lambda_p(k) = 0$ if and only if $B_n = D_n$ for all sufficiently large n .

An integer n_2 was defined in [4] by

$$(p)^{n_2} \parallel (\phi^{p-1} - 1),$$

where ϕ denotes the fundamental unit of k . Then the behavior of $|B_n|$ is explicitly described as follows.

Proposition 4.2 (Proposition 1 in [4]). We have $|B_n| = |A_0|p^{n_2-1}$ for all $n \geq n_2 - 1$.

Therefore, in order to investigate Greenberg's conjecture, it is important to study the behavior of $|D_n|$. Since \mathbb{Q}_n is contained in $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta_{p^{n+1}})$, the unique prime ideal of \mathbb{Q}_n lying over p is principal. We fix a generator π_n of it and put

$$\Theta_n = (p\pi_n^{-p^n})^{r/2},$$

where $r = p^n - 1$ as before. Then Θ_n is a unit of \mathbb{Q}_n and satisfies

$$(4) \quad \Theta_n^{1-\sigma} \in E_n^{p^n},$$

$$(5) \quad p\Theta_n^2 \in k_n^{p^n}$$

and

$$(6) \quad \Theta_n/\Theta_{n+1} \in E_{n+1}^{p^n}.$$

We note that Θ_n can be written explicitly in terms of cyclotomic units in certain cases (cf. Lemma 3.1 of [3]). Then the order of D_n is described using Θ_n and V_n as follows.

Lemma 4.3. Let ϕ be the fundamental unit of k and s an integer such that $0 \leq s \leq n$. Let d be the order of $\text{cl}(\mathfrak{p})$ and take a generator $\alpha \in k$ of \mathfrak{p}^d . Then $|D_n| \leq p^s |D_0|$ if and only if $\alpha^{p^s} \Theta_n^{dp^s} \phi^i \eta \in k_n^{p^n}$ for some $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\eta \in E_{n,R,p^n}$.

Proof. Note that $\alpha^{1+\sigma} = \pm p^d$. Assume that $|D_n| \leq p^s |D_0|$ and take a generator $\beta \in k_n$ of $\mathfrak{p}_n^{dp^s}$. Then $(\beta^{p^{n-s}}) = \mathfrak{p}_n^{dp^n} = \mathfrak{p}^d = (\alpha)$. Hence, $\beta^{p^{n-s}} = \alpha\varepsilon$ for some $\varepsilon \in E_n$. From this, we see that $N_{k_n/k}(\varepsilon) \in E_0^{p^{n-s}}$. Let $N_{k_n/\mathbb{Q}_n}(\varepsilon) = \tau$ and $N_{k_n/k}(\varepsilon) = \pm \phi^{ip^{n-s}}$. Then, $\eta = \varepsilon^{2p^s} \tau^{-p^s} \phi^{-2i} \in E_{n,R}$ and $\alpha^{2p^s} \tau^{p^s} \phi^{2i} \eta \in k_n^{p^n}$. Taking norm from k_n to \mathbb{Q}_n , we see that $p^{2dp^s} \tau^{2p^s} \in k_n^{p^n}$ and hence $\tau^{p^s} \Theta_n^{-2dp^s} \in k_n^{p^n}$ from (5). Therefore, $\alpha^{2p^s} \Theta_n^{2dp^s} \phi^{2i} \eta \in k_n^{p^n}$. Since $(\alpha \Theta_n)^{1+\sigma} = \pm p^d \Theta_n^{d(1+\sigma)} \equiv \Theta_n^{-d(1-\sigma)} \pmod{k_n^{p^n}}$, we have $(\alpha \Theta_n)^{1+\sigma} \in k_n^{p^n}$ from (4). Therefore, we see that $\eta \in E_{n,R,p^n}$. Since p is odd, we completed one side of the proof. Conversely, if $\alpha^{p^s} \Theta_n^{dp^s} \phi^i \eta = \beta^{p^n}$ with $\beta \in k_n$, then $\mathfrak{p}_n^{dp^{n+s}} = \mathfrak{p}^{dp^s} = (\alpha)^{p^s} = (\beta)^{p^n}$ and hence $\mathfrak{p}_n^{dp^s} = (\beta)$. \square

If V_n is cyclic, then Lemma 4.3 becomes the following form.

Lemma 4.4. *Assume further that $V_n = \langle \Phi E_{n,R}^{p^n} \rangle$ is cyclic under the same conditions in Lemma 4.3. Then $|D_n| = p^s |D_0|$ if and only if $\alpha^{p^s} \Theta_n^{dp^s} \phi^i \Phi^j \in k_n^{p^n}$ for some integers i, j and $\alpha^{p^{s-1}} \Theta_n^{dp^{s-1}} \phi^i \Phi^j \notin k_n^{p^n}$ for any integers i, j .*

Proof. The proof is straightforward. We only give a remark in the case that $s = 0$. Namely it holds that $\alpha^{p^{-1}} \Theta_n^{dp^{-1}} \phi^i \Phi^j \notin k_n^{p^n}$ for any integers i, j . Indeed, if $\alpha \Theta_n^d \phi^i \Phi^j = \beta^{p^{n+1}}$ for some $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\beta \in k_n$, then $\mathfrak{p}^d = (N_{k_n/k}(\beta))^p$. This is a contradiction. \square

Now, we can describe the boundedness of $r(V_n)$.

Lemma 4.5. *If $|D_n| \leq p^s |D_0|$, then $r(V_n) \leq s + 1$.*

Proof. Since $|D_n| \leq p^n |D_0|$, we may assume that $s \leq n$. Furthermore, if $n - 1 \leq s \leq n$, then the claim is clear from Proposition 2.6. So we assume that $s < n - 1$. Applying Lemma 4.3 with the same notations, we have $\alpha^{p^s} \Theta_n^{dp^s} \phi^i \eta \in k_n^{p^n}$ for some $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\eta \in E_{n,R,p^n}$. If $r(V_n) \geq s + 2$, then the exponent of V_n is less than p^{n-s} , so $\eta^{p^{n-s-1}} \in E_n^{p^n}$ and $\eta \in E_n^{p^{s+1}}$. From this, we see that i is divisible by p^s and $\alpha \Theta_n^d \phi^j \in k_n^p$ for some $j \in \mathbb{Z}$. If we put $\beta = \alpha \phi^j$, then we see that $\beta^{1-\sigma} \in k_n^p$ from (4), and hence $\beta^{1-\sigma} = \gamma^p$ for some $\gamma \in k$ because k is real. Then $(\mathfrak{p}^{1-\sigma})^d = (\alpha^{1-\sigma}) = (\beta^{1-\sigma}) = (\gamma)^p$ implies that p divides d . Thus, from $p^d = \pm \alpha^{1+\sigma} = \pm \beta^{1+\sigma} = \pm \beta^2 \gamma^{-p}$, we can write $\beta = \delta^p$ for some $\delta \in k$. Then we have $\mathfrak{p}^d = (\alpha) = (\beta) = (\delta)^p$, and hence $\mathfrak{p}^{d/p} = (\delta)$, which contradicts the fact that d is the order of $\text{cl}(\mathfrak{p})$. Hence $r(V_n) \leq s + 1$. \square

Corollary 4.6. *If $|A_0/D_0| = p^s$, then $r(V_n) \leq n_2 + s$ for all $n \geq 1$.*

Proof. We have $|D_n| \leq p^{n_2+s-1} |D_0|$ from Proposition 4.2 for all sufficiently large n and apply Lemmas 4.5 and 2.7. \square

Corollary 4.7. *If $|D_n| = |D_0|$, then V_n is cyclic.*

We remark a difference between split case and non-split case. In the split case, if $A_0 = D_0$, then the genus formula for k_n/k yields that

$$|D_n| = |D_0| \frac{p^n}{(E_0 : N_{k_n/k}(E_n))}.$$

Hence, we see the following.

non-split case:

$$N_{k_n/k}(E_n) = E_0 \iff |\text{Ker}(A_0 \longrightarrow A_n)| = 1 \implies V_n : \text{cyclic}$$

split case with $A_0 = D_0$:

$$N_{k_n/k}(E_n) = E_0^{p^n} \iff |D_n| = |D_0| \implies V_n : \text{cyclic}$$

Namely, the opposite properties of the norm map $N_{k_n/k} : E_n \longrightarrow E_0$ both implies the cyclicity of V_n . We notice some relations between the norm map and the order of D_n that hold without the assumption $A_0 = D_0$.

Lemma 4.8 (cf. Proposition 6.3 of [2]). *If $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) = E_0$, then $|D_n| = p^n |D_0|$.*

Proof. Let B'_n denote the subgroup of B_n consisting of ideal classes which contain an ideal invariant under the action of $G(k_n/k)$. Then $B_n = \iota_{0,n}(A_0)D_n$ and the genus formula for k_n/k yields that

$$|B'_n| = |A_0| \frac{p^n}{(E_0 : N_{k_n/k}(E_n))} = p^n |A_0|.$$

Hence, from

$$p^n |A_0| = \frac{|i_{0,n}(A_0)| |D_n|}{|i_{0,n}(A_0) \cap D_n|} \leq \frac{|i_{0,n}(A_0)| |D_n|}{|i_{0,n}(D_0) \cap D_n|} = \frac{|i_{0,n}(A_0)| |D_n|}{|D_n^{p^n}|} \leq p^n |i_{0,n}(A_0)|,$$

we see that $|i_{0,n}(A_0)| = |A_0|$ and hence $i_{0,n}$ is injective. Therefore, we have that

$$\frac{|D_n|}{|D_0|} = \frac{|D_n|}{|i_{0,n}(D_0)|} = \frac{|D_n|}{|D_n^{p^n}|} = p^n.$$

□

Lemma 4.9. *If $|D_n| = |D_0|$, then $N_{k_n/k}(E_n) = E_0^{p^n}$.*

Proof. We see that V_n is cyclic from Corollary 4.7 and apply Lemma 4.4 with the same notations. Namely we have $\alpha \Theta_n^d \phi^i \Phi^j \in k_n^{p^n}$ for some $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now assume that $\phi^{j'} \Phi \in E_n^p$ for some $j' \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then we see that $\alpha \Theta_n^d \phi^{i'} \in k_n^p$ for some $i' \in \mathbb{Z}$ and derive a contradiction as in the proof of Lemma 4.5. Hence $\phi^{j'} \Phi \notin E_n^p$ for any $j' \in \mathbb{Z}$ and the claim follows from Lemma 2.14. □

Corollary 4.7 indicate a relation between the cyclicity of V_n and the order of D_n . But the converse of Corollary 4.7 is not always true. Furthermore an analogue to

Theorem 3.5 is also not true. Namely we can not conclude that $|D_n| = |D_0|$ for all $n \geq 1$ even if V_n is cyclic for all $n \geq 1$. However, by numerical calculations, we are led to the following conjecture.

Conjecture 4.10. $A_n = D_n$ for all $n \geq 0$ if and only if V_n is cyclic for all $n \geq 1$.

At present, concerning this conjecture, we can only prove that the first condition implies the second one. First we give a remark about the first condition. Remember the integer n_0 defined in [20]. Namely, let d be the order of $\text{cl}(\mathfrak{p})$ and take a generator α of \mathfrak{p}^d . Then n_0 is defined to be the integer satisfying

$$\mathfrak{p}'^{n_0} \parallel (\alpha^{p-1} - 1).$$

The inequality $n_0 \leq n_2$ is needed for the uniqueness of n_0 . Then we obtain the following lemma.

Lemma 4.11. *The following three conditions are equivalent:*

- (1) $A_n = D_n$ for all $n \geq 0$.
- (2) $A_1 = D_1$.
- (3) $A_0 = D_0$ and $n_0 = 1$.

Proof. It is clear that (1) implies (2). Next assume (2). Then it follows that $A_0 = D_0$ because norm maps $A_1 \rightarrow A_0$ and $D_1 \rightarrow D_0$ are both surjective. If $n_0 \geq 2$, then $n_2 \geq 2$ and so $|D_1| = p|D_0|$ from Proposition 4.2. Let d be the order of $\text{cl}(\mathfrak{p})$ and take a generator α of \mathfrak{p}^d . Then, by local class field theory, α is a \mathfrak{p}' -adic norm for k_1/k and also \mathfrak{l} -adic norm if \mathfrak{l} is a prime ideal of k_1 prime p . Hence, by the product formula of the norm residue symbol and Hasse's norm theorem, α is a global norm. Let $\alpha = N_{k_1/k}(\alpha_1)$ for some $\alpha_1 \in k_1$ and $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{p}_1^d(\alpha_1^{-1})$. Then $N_{k_1/k}(\mathfrak{a}) = (1)$ and hence $\mathfrak{a} = \mathfrak{b}^{\rho-1}$ for some ideal \mathfrak{b} of k_1 , where ρ is a generator of $G(k_1/k)$. Therefore $D_1^d \subset A_1^{\rho-1}$. Since $|D_1| = p|D_0|$, it follows that $A_1^{\rho-1} \neq 1$, which contradicts the assumption $A_1 = D_1$. Hence $n_0 = 1$. Therefore (2) implies (3). Finally assume (3). Since $n_0 = n_1$ in the case that $A_0 = D_0$, Theorem 1 in [4] shows that $A_n = D_n$ for all sufficiently large n . Noting that norm maps $A_{n+1} \rightarrow A_n$ and $D_{n+1} \rightarrow D_n$ are both surjective for any n , we conclude that (1) holds. \square

Now we give a partial answer for Conjecture 4.10.

Theorem 4.12. *If $A_n = D_n$ for all $n \geq 0$, then V_n is cyclic for all $n \geq 1$.*

Proof. We see that $A_0 = D_0$ and $n_0 = 1$ from Lemma 4.11. Let n be a sufficiently large integer. We have $|D_n| \leq p^{n_2-1}|D_0|$ from Proposition 4.2. Let d be the order of $\text{cl}(\mathfrak{p})$ and take a generator α of \mathfrak{p}^d satisfying $\mathfrak{p}' \parallel (\alpha^{p-1} - 1)$. From Lemma 4.3, we see that $\alpha^{p^{n_2-1}} \Theta_n^{dp^{n_2-1}} \phi^i \eta = \beta^{p^n}$ for some $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\eta \in E_{n,R,p^n}$ and $\beta \in k_n$. Then $N_{k_n/k}(\beta) = \pm \alpha^{p^{n_2-1}} \phi^i$. If p divides i , then $\mathfrak{p}'^{n_2} \parallel (N_{k_n/k}(\beta)^{p-1} - 1)$, which is a contradiction because n is sufficiently large. Hence p does not divide i . Now

assume that V_n is not cyclic. Then $\eta^{p^{n-1}} \in E_{n,R}^{p^n}$ and so $\eta \in E_{n,R}^p$. Therefore $\alpha^{p^{n_2-1}} \Theta_n^{dp^{n_2-1}} \phi^i \in k_n^p$. If $n_2 = 1$, then we see that $\alpha \Theta_n^d \phi^i \in k_n^p$, which is a contradiction as we have seen in the proof of Lemma 4.5. Otherwise, if $n_2 > 1$, then we see that $\phi \in k_n^p$ and so $\phi \in k^p$, which is also a contradiction. Hence V_n is cyclic for all sufficiently large n . The claim immediately follows from Lemma 2.7. \square

If we assume Greenberg's conjecture, then we can prove that the converse of Theorem 4.12 is also true.

Theorem 4.13. *Assume that Greenberg's conjecture holds for k and p . If V_n is cyclic for all $n \geq 1$, then $A_n = D_n$ for all $n \geq 0$.*

Proof. Let $|A_0/D_0| = p^t$ and $s = n_2 + t - 1$. Let n be sufficiently large. Since Greenberg's conjecture holds, we have

$$|D_n| = |D_{n-1}| = p^s |D_0|$$

from Theorem 4.1 and Proposition 4.2. Let $V_n = \langle \Phi E_{n,R}^{p^n} \rangle$ and $V_{n-1} = \langle \Psi E_{n-1,R}^{p^{n-1}} \rangle$. We may assume that $\Phi = \Psi \gamma^{p^{n-1}}$ with suitable $\gamma \in E_n$. Let d be the order of $\text{cl}(\mathfrak{p})$ and take a generator α of \mathfrak{p}^d satisfying $\mathfrak{p}^{n_0} \parallel (\alpha^{p-1} - 1)$. From Lemma 4.4, we see that $\alpha^{p^s} \Theta_n^{dp^s} \phi^i \Phi^j = \beta^{p^n}$ for some integers i, j and $\beta \in k_n$. First assume that $s \geq 1$. If p divides i , then p also divides j because $\Phi \notin k_n^p$. Let $i = pi'$ and $j = pj'$. Using (6), we see that $\alpha^{p^{s-1}} \Theta_{n-1}^{dp^{s-1}} \phi^{i'} \Psi^{j'} \in k_{n-1}^{p^{n-1}}$. Then Lemma 4.4 again shows that $|D_{n-1}| \leq p^{s-1} |D_0|$, which contradicts $|D_n| = |D_{n-1}|$. Therefore p does not divide i . Since $N_{k_n/k}(\beta) = \pm \alpha^{p^s} \phi^i$ is a \mathfrak{p}' -adic p^{n-1} -th power in k and n is sufficiently large, we conclude that $n_0 + s = n_2$. This means that $n_0 = 1$ and $t = 0$. Next assume that $s = 0$. Then $n_2 + t - 1 = 0$ implies that $n_2 = 1$ and $t = 0$. This completes the proof. \square

Finally we give a few examples when $p = 3$ based on calculations with a computer.

Example 4.14. Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{727})$. Then $|D_0| = 1$ and $|D_1| = 3$ (cf. [8]). This is a trivial counter example for the converse of Corollary 4.7. Next let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2713})$. Then $|D_0| = |D_1| = 1$ and $|D_2| = 3$ (cf. [3]). Furthermore we see that $V_2 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/9\mathbb{Z}$. This is a non-trivial counter example.

Example 4.15. Let $k = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{m})$ where $m = 3469, 5971, 6187$ and 7726 . For these k 's, we could not calculate the values of $n_0^{(2)}$ and $n_2^{(2)}$ in [3]. Now we see that $V_2 \simeq \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}$ for these k 's. Corollary 4.7, Proposition 4.2 and Theorem 4.1 immediately show that $\lambda_3(k) = 0$ for $m = 3469, 5971$ and 6187 . It can be also deduced from Theorem 2 in [8]. We calculated $n_0^{(2)}$ and $n_2^{(2)}$ using Lemmas 4.3 and 2.13. We show the results below.

m	$n_0^{(2)}$	$n_2^{(2)}$	$ D_2 $	$\lambda_3(k)$
3469	3	3	3	0
5971	3	4	3	0
6187	3	3	3	0
7726	3	3	3	?

For $m = 7726$, we can not decide the value of $\lambda_3(k)$.

Remark. In [11], it is shown that $\lambda_3(\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{7726})) = 0$.

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, COLLEGE OF INDUSTRIAL TECHNOLOGY, NIHON UNIVERSITY, 2-11-1 SHIN-EI, NARASHINO, CHIBA, JAPAN

E-mail: fukuda@math.cit.nihon-u.ac.jp