so that

$$
\sum_{1}^{\infty} \beta_{i} \leqq c
$$

The points of $E$ are now enclosed in the open intervals $\alpha_{i j}$, so that each point is inside of an infinite number of intervals, and $\phi(x)$ is defined to be the sum of all the $\alpha$-intervals or parts thereof which lie to the left of $x$.

Thus $\phi(x)$ is monotone and can easily be shown to be absolutely continuous as follows:

If $i+j=N$ is chosen sufficiently large, the $\phi_{N}(x)$ formed for this finite set of intervals will be absolutely continuous and as near as we please to $\phi(x)$ for all values of $x$. Hence $\phi(x)$ is absolutely continuous.

If the set $E$ is not an inner limiting set, the set $E^{\prime \prime}=$ $E+\bar{E}$, which lies inside an infinite number of $\alpha$ intervals, will be such a set, and $\phi(x)$ will have an infinite derivative at all the points of $E^{\prime \prime}$ and no others. The set $E$ may itself be an inner limiting set, in which case $\bar{E}=0$.

It would be interesting to determine whether all absolutely continuous functions are of the form

$$
F(x)+\phi(x),
$$

where $F(x)$ has limited derivates.
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## ON THE REPRESENTATION OF NUMBERS IN THE FORM $x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}-3 x y z$.

BY PROFESSOR R. D. CARMICHAEL.
(Read before the American Mathematical Society, August 3, 1915.)
If by $g(x, y, z)$ we denote the form

$$
\begin{align*}
g(x, y, z) & =x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}-3 x y z  \tag{1}\\
& =(x+y+z)\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}-x y-y z-z x\right)
\end{align*}
$$

then it is well known that

$$
\begin{array}{r}
g(x, y, z) \cdot g(u, v, w)=g(x u+y w+z v, x v+y u+z w \\
x w+y v+z u) .
\end{array}
$$

By interchanging the rôles of $v$ and $w$, we also have

$$
\begin{array}{r}
g(x, y, z) \cdot g(u, v, w)=g(x u+y v+z w, x w+y u+z v, \\
x v+y w+z u) .
\end{array}
$$

Obviously these two representations of the product are identical if $v=w$. Since $g$ is a symmetric function of its arguments it is easy to see that they are identical in each of the following six cases: $v=w, v=u, w=u, x=y, x=z, y=z$. On the other hand if we assume that the two representations are identical we are led to one of the preceding six equalities. Thus we have the following theorem:*

Theorem I. If r, s, t have either of the two sets of values $\left(r_{1}, s_{1}, t_{1}\right)$ and ( $r_{2}, s_{2}, t_{2}$ ), where

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
r_{1}=x u+y w+z v, & r_{2}=x u+y v+z w \\
s_{1}=x v+y u+z w, & s_{2}=x w+y u+z v  \tag{2}\\
t_{1}=x w+y v+z u, & t_{2}=x v+y w+z u
\end{array}
$$

then

$$
g(x, y, z) \cdot g(u, v, w)=g(r, s, t)
$$

In order that the two expressions $g(r, s, t)$ shall be non-identical it is necessary and sufficient that each of the two sets $(x, y, z)$ and $(u, v, w)$ shall consist of distinct members.

It may be observed that for each set of values $(r, s, t)$ we have

$$
r+s+t=(x+y+z)(u+v+w)
$$

If $a$ and $b$ are both representable in the form $g$, then the product $a b$ is representable in the same form, as is seen from the foregoing theorem. The question arises as to whether all the representations of $a b$ are obtained by means of Theorem I from the representations of $a$ and $b$. That this is to be answered in the negative follows from the simplest examples. Thus it is easy to show that 2 is represented in the form $g$ in only one way, namely, $2=g(1,1,0)$. From this and Theorem I we have $4=g(2,1,1)$, the two sets $(r, s, t)$ being equivalent in this case. But we have also $4=g(1,1,-1)$. That is, 4 is capable of a representation in the form $g$ not obtainable by means of Theorem I from the representation of its proper factors.

[^0]From these two representations of 4 it follows that a number may be represented in two ways by the form $g$ and yet these representations not result from writing the product of its factors in two ways in the form $g$ by means of Theorem I. Two other examples illustrating this are afforded by the following relations: $20=g(3,1,1)=g(7,7,6) ; 91=g(6,4,3)$ $=g(31,30,30)$.

We observe that if the numbers $x, y, z, u, v, w$ in Theorem I are all non-negative then $r, s, t$ are likewise non-negative. This leads us to consider the problem of the representation of numbers in the form $g$ when the arguments are restricted to be non-negative. The fundamental theorem here is the following:

Theorem II. Every prime number $p$ other than 3 is representable in one way and in only one way in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
p=g(x, y, z) \equiv x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}-3 x y z \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the arguments $x, y, z$ are restricted to be non-negative.
In order to prove this let us seek to put $p$ in the form

$$
p=(x+y+z)\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}-x y-y z-z x\right)
$$

Since the numbers $x, y, z$ are to be non-negative it is clear that this equation can be satisfied only when

$$
\begin{equation*}
x+y+z=p, \quad x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}-x y-y z-z x=1 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Without loss of generality we may assume that $x \geqq y \geqq z$, and this we do. Let us write

$$
x=u+z, \quad y=v+z
$$

Then $u$, $v$, and $u-v$ are non-negative numbers. Equations (4) may now be written

$$
\begin{equation*}
3 z+u+v=p, \quad u^{2}-u v+v^{2}=1 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the latter equation we have $(u-v)^{2}+u v=1$. From this it follows that $u=v=1$ or $u=1, v=0$. From the first equation in (5) we see that the former set must be used when $p$ is of the form $3 k+2$ and the latter when $p$ is of the form $3 k+1$, in order that $z$ shall be an integer. In either case $u, v, z$, and therefore $x, y, z$, are uniquely determined. Hence the theorem.

Now $g(2,1,0)=9$. From this fact and Theorems I and II
it follows that every positive number is representable in the form $g(x, y, z)$ with non-negative arguments with the possible exception of those of the form $3 t$, where $t$ is not divisible by 3 . Now, we have

$$
g(x, y, z)=(x+y+z)\left\{(x+y+z)^{2}-3(x y+x z+y z)\right\}
$$

If the second member of this equation is divisible by 3 , so is $x+y+z$, and therefore this second member is divisible by 9 (whatever signs $x, y, z$ may have). Hence the form $g(x, y, z)$ does not contain any number $3 t$ where $t$ is an integer prime to 3 . Thence we have the following theorem:

Theorem III. The positive integers which may be represented in the form $g(x, y, z)$ include all positive integers with the sole exception of those which are divisible by 3 but not by 9 . In every case the arguments $x, y, z$ in the representation may be chosen so as to be all non-negative.

If $x, y, z$ are allowed to be negative it is no longer true that primes are always uniquely represented in the form $g(x, y, z)$. Thus we have $7=g(3,2,2)=g(2,-1,0), 13=g(5,4,4)$ $=g(2,-2,1)$. Then let us consider more generally the representation of a prime $p$ in the form

$$
p=g(x, y, z)=(x+y+z)\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}-x y-x z-y z\right)
$$

Writing $x=u+z, y=v+z$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
p=(3 z+u+v)\left(u^{2}-u v+v^{2}\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now $4\left(u^{2}-u v+v^{2}\right)=(u+v)^{2}+3(u-v)^{2}$, so that $u^{2}-$ $u v+v^{2}$ is not negative. Hence from (6) it follows that this expression has the value 1 or the value $p$. Therefore we have to examine the following two cases:

$$
\begin{align*}
& u^{2}-u v+v^{2}=1, \quad 3 z+u+v=p  \tag{a}\\
& u^{2}-u v+v^{2}=p, \quad 3 z+u+v=1 \tag{b}
\end{align*}
$$

Now the equation $u^{2}-u v+v^{2}=1$, or $(u+v)^{2}+3(u-v)^{2}=4$, has only the solutions obtained in the proof of Theorem II. Hence case ( $a$ ) gives rise only to the representation by means of non-negative arguments $x, y, z$ treated in Theorem II.

Let us next consider case (b). We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
4 p=(u+v)^{2}+3(u-v)^{2} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $p \neq 3$ it follows from this that $p \equiv 1 \bmod 3$, so that $p$ is of the form $6 n+1$. Equation (7) has a solution for every prime $p$ of the form $6 n+1$ such that $u+v \equiv 1 \bmod 3$.* Furthermore $u+v$ and $u-v$ are obviously both odd or both even, so that $u$ and $v$ are themselves integers. From the second equation in (b) it follows now that $z$, and hence $x$ and $y$, are integers. Thus we have a representation of $p$ in the desired form $g(x, y, z)$, one at least of the arguments $x, y, z$ being obviously negative. Furthermore it is clear that this representation is unique provided that $4 p$ has only one representation

$$
4 p=a^{2}+3 b^{2}, \quad a>0, \quad b>0,
$$

in which $a \equiv 1 \bmod 3$, since $u+v$ must have a value congruent to unity modulo 3 in order that $z$ shall be an integer. This latter fact concerning $4 p$ we shall now prove. Let $4 p$ have the representation

$$
4 p=\alpha^{2}+3 \beta^{2}, \quad \alpha>0, \quad \beta>0 .
$$

Then we have
(8) $16 p^{2}=(a \alpha+3 b \beta)^{2}+3(a \beta-\alpha b)^{2}=(a \alpha-3 b \beta)^{2}$

$$
+3(a \beta+\alpha b)^{2}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
4 p\left(\alpha^{2}-a^{2}\right)=3(\alpha b+a \beta)(\alpha b-a \beta) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence $p$ is a factor of $\alpha b+a \beta$ or of $\alpha b-a \beta$. Suppose that $p$ is a factor of $\alpha b+a \beta$, the complementary factor being $s$. Then from (8) it follows that $p$ is a factor of $a \alpha-3 b \beta$; let the complementary factor be $t$. Then from (8) we have

$$
16=t^{2}+3 s^{2} ;
$$

whence $t=4, s=0$ or $t=s=2$. If the former solution is taken, we find from (9) that $a=\alpha$ and hence that the two representations of $4 p$ are identical. If we take the latter we have

$$
\alpha b+a \beta=2 p, \quad a \alpha-3 b \beta=2 p ;
$$

whence it follows readily that

$$
2 \alpha=a+3 b .
$$

[^1]Since $a \equiv 1 \bmod 3$ it follows that $\alpha \equiv 2 \bmod 3$. In a similar way one may treat the case when $\alpha b-a \beta$ is divisible by $p$ and with a similar result. Therefore $4 p$ can be represented in the form $a^{2}+3 b^{2}$ in only one way provided that $a$ is restricted to be congruent to unity modulo 3 .*

We are thus led to the following theorem:
Theorem IV. A prime number $p$ of the form $6 n+1$ may be represented in one and in only one way in the form

$$
p=g(x, y, z) \equiv x^{3}+y^{3}+z^{3}-3 x y z
$$

where one at least of the arguments $x, y, z$ is negative. No other prime number has such a representation. (Compare Theorem II.)

Let us next consider the representation of $p^{2}$ in the form $g(x, y, z), p$ being a prime number different from 3. $\dagger$ Writing $x=u+z, y=v+z$, we have

$$
p^{2}=(3 z+u+v)\left(u^{2}-u v+v^{2}\right)
$$

Since $u^{2}-u v+v^{2}$ cannot be negative it follows that there are three cases to be examined, namely:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
3 z+u+v=p^{2}, & u^{2}-u v+v^{2}=1 ; \\
3 z+u+v=p, & u^{2}-u v+v^{2}=p ;  \tag{b}\\
3 z+u+v=1, & u^{2}-u v+v^{2}=p^{2} .
\end{array}
$$

These may be treated by the methods already employed. We take up the cases in order.

The second equation in (a) has the two solutions $u=v=1$; $u=1, v=0$, and no others (if we take $u \geqq v$, as we may without loss of generality). Since $z$ must be integral it follows from the first equation in (a) that we must take $u=1, v=0$. We are thus led to the following conclusion:

There is a unique representation of $p^{2}(p \neq 3)$ in the form $g(x, y, z)$ subject to the condition $x+y+z=p^{2}$.
In case (b) it is easy to show from the second equation that $p$ is of the form $6 n+1$. Proceeding as in the proof of Theorem

[^2]IV, we find that there is a unique solution of equations (b) subject to the condition that $z$ is integral. We thus conclude:

In order that $p^{2}(p \neq 3)$ shall be representable in the form $g(x, y, z)$, with the condition $x+y+z=p$, it is necessary and sufficient that $p$ be of the form $6 n+1$ and this representation, when it exists, is unique.

In case (c) the second equation has the obvious solution $u=v=p$. This solution will yield integral $z$ only when $p$ has the form $3 k+2$. The solution is unique for such $p$ since it follows from the theory of binary quadratic forms that such a prime power $p^{2}$ can be represented in the form $u^{2}-u v$ $+v^{2}$ only when $u=v=p$ or $u=p, v=0$, the latter solution giving $z$ non-integral in the present case. If $p$ is of the form $3 k+1$ then the second equation in (c) has the solution $u=p$, $v=0$; this gives rise to integral $z$ and hence to a representation of the kind sought. The representation in this case is not necessarily unique, since the second equation in (c) may have a second solution giving rise to integral $z$. We have the following result:

The prime power $p^{2}(p \neq 3)$ can be represented in the form $g(x, y, z)$ subject to the condition $x+y+z=1$.

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# ON THE LINEAR CONTINUUM. 

BY DR. ROBERT L. MOORE.
(Read before the American Mathematical Society, April 24, 1915.)

## § 1. Introduction.

In the Annals of Mathematics, volume 16 (1915), pages 123-133, I proposed a set $G$ of eight axioms for the linear continuum in terms of point and limit. Betweenness was defined,* and it was stated that the set $G$ is categorical with respect to point and the thus defined betweenness. $\dagger$ In the present paper it is shown that, although this statement is true, nevertheless

[^3]
[^0]:    * The result in this theorem is well known, as we have just pointed out. The remaining theorems in the paper are believed to be new.

[^1]:    * See Bachmann's Kreistheilung, pp. 138-141.

[^2]:    * As a corollary of this argument we have the following result:

    If $p$ is a prime number of the form $6 n+1$ then $4 p$ can be represented in two and in only two ways in the form $a^{2}+3 b^{2}$, a and $b$ being positive, and in one of these ways $a$ is congruent to 1 and in the other $a$ is congruent to 2 modulo 3.
    $\dagger$ For the excluded case we have $9=g(2,1,0)$.

[^3]:    * See Definition 3, loc. cit., p. 125.
    $\dagger$ This statement, which is proved in the present paper, implies that if $K$ is any statement in terms of point and betweenness, then either it follows from Axioms 1-8 and Definition 3 that $K$ is true or it follows from Axioms $1-8$ and Definition 3 that $K$ is false.

