

Number Theory 2

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1. 1, 1, 1, 1.

2. $p = 3, 7$ works. For $p \neq 3, 5$ we need $\left(\frac{21}{p}\right) = 1$ and so $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)\left(\frac{p}{7}\right) = \left((-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\right)^2 = 1$ (or you simply compute this as a Jacobi symbol) and so $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{7}\right) = 1$ which gives $p \equiv 1, 4, 16 \pmod{21}$ or $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{7}\right) = -1$ which gives $p \equiv 5, 17, 20 \pmod{21}$.

3. If $2^n - 1$ is a prime then n is a prime and since $n > 2$ so n is odd. Therefore $2^n - 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.
3. By reciprocity law

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

4. The number of quadratic residues is equal to the number of non-residues, and so there are $\frac{p-1}{2}$ quadratic residues. When $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, x is a quadratic residue if and only if $p-x$ is. Therefore there are exactly $\frac{p-1}{4}$ pairs of quadratic residues where the sum of each pair is p . Similarly there are $\frac{p-1}{4}$ pairs of quadratic non-residues where the sum of each pair is p .

This does not hold for $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. For example when $p = 3$ the only quadratic residue is 1 and the only non-residue is 2.

5. Since $\left(\frac{0}{p}\right) = 0$ so we can write $\tau = \sum_{a=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \zeta^a$.

$$\tau^2 = \sum_{a=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \zeta^a \sum_{b=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{b}{p}\right) \zeta^b = \sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \sum_{b=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) \zeta^{a+b}$$

because when $a = 0$ the sum $\sum_{b=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) \zeta^{a+b} = 0$. Now let $i = a + b \pmod{p}$ so $b = i - a$, and so we have

$$\tau^2 = \sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{ai - a^2}{p}\right) \zeta^i = \sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{a^2}{p}\right) \left(\frac{ia^{-1} - 1}{p}\right) \zeta^i = \sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{ia^{-1} - 1}{p}\right) \zeta^i.$$

Write $ia^{-1} - 1 = j$ and for each $a \neq 0$, the map $\{0, 1, \dots, p-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$ by sending i to j is a bijection and $i = a(j+1)$, so

$$\tau^2 = \sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{j}{p}\right) \zeta^{a(j+1)} = \sum_{j=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{j}{p}\right) \sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \zeta^{a(j+1)}.$$

For each $j \neq p-1$ we see $\sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \zeta^{a(j+1)} = \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \zeta^k = -1$ because the map $\{0, 1, \dots, p-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$ by sending a to k is a bijection when $j \neq p-1$ as the inverse of $(j+1)$ exists. When $j = p-1$ we have $\sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \zeta^{ap} = p-1$. Therefore we conclude

$$\tau^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{p-2} \left(\frac{j}{p}\right) (-1) + \left(\frac{p-1}{p}\right) (p-1) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) + \left(\frac{p-1}{p}\right) (p-1) = p \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)$$

and so τ^2 is p when $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $-p$ when $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Alternatively, note that the sum $\sum_{s=0}^{p-1} \zeta^{rs}$ is p if $r \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and 0 otherwise. Let Q_1 be the set of quadratic residue mod p and Q_2 be the set of quadratic non-residue mod p . Then note that $1 + \zeta + \zeta^2 + \dots + \zeta^{p-1} = 0$ and so $1 + \sum_{x \in Q_1} \zeta^x + \sum_{y \in Q_2} \zeta^y = 0$ and so $\sum_{y \in Q_2} \zeta^y = -1 - \sum_{x \in Q_1} \zeta^x$. So we have

$$\tau = \sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \zeta^a = \sum_{x \in Q_1} \zeta^x - \sum_{y \in Q_2} \zeta^y = 1 + 2 \sum_{x \in Q_1} \zeta^x = \sum_{m=0}^{p-1} \zeta^{m^2}$$

because for each $x \in Q_1$ there are exactly two m such that $m^2 = x$. So if $\bar{\tau}$ is the complex conjugate of τ then

$$\tau \bar{\tau} = \sum_{m=0}^{p-1} \zeta^{m^2} \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \zeta^{n^2} = \sum_{m=0}^{p-1} \zeta_{n=0}^{p-1} \zeta^{(m-n)(m+n)} = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \sum_{s=0}^{p-1} \zeta^{rs} = p$$

because for each r, s there exists unique m, n such that $m - n \equiv r \pmod{p}$ and $m + n \equiv s \pmod{p}$. Finally, if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ then $x \in Q_1$ if and only if $-x \in Q_1$ so by using $\tau = \sum_{x \in Q_1} \zeta^x - \sum_{y \in Q_2} \zeta^y$ we see $\bar{\tau} = \tau$ so τ is real and so $\tau^2 = \tau \bar{\tau} = p$. If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ then $x \in Q_1$ if and only if $-x \in Q_2$ so $\bar{\tau} = -\tau$ and so τ is purely imaginary, in which case $\tau^2 = -\tau \bar{\tau} = -p$.

6. Let $a = b^2 \prod_j q_j 2^\epsilon$ where q_1, \dots are distinct odd prime, $\epsilon = 0$ or 1 and $q_i \nmid b$ for any b (write a as the product of the squared part and square free part). We will firstly construct one such prime p . Let m be an integer which satisfies the following

$$m \equiv 1 \pmod{8}, m \equiv c \pmod{q_1} \text{ where } \left(\frac{c}{q_1}\right) = -1, m \equiv 1 \pmod{q_i}, i \neq 1.$$

Then by reciprocity law (as we pick $m \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$) we have

$$\left(\frac{a}{m}\right) = \left(\frac{2^\epsilon}{m}\right) \left(\frac{b^2}{m}\right) \prod_i \left(\frac{q_i}{m}\right) = \prod_i \left(\frac{m}{q_i}\right) = -1$$

by our choice of m . This shows that there exists a prime factor p of m such that $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$. In fact, we see that given each m satisfying the above condition, there exists $p|m$ such that $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$ and so suppose we only have finitely many such p , say p_1, \dots, p_r . Then we take m satisfying the above condition and the additional condition that $m \equiv 1 \pmod{p_1 \cdots p_r}$. Such m exists because $\left(\frac{a}{p_i}\right) = -1$ and so $p_i \nmid a$. In particular $p_i \neq q_j$ for all i, j . Now by construction m is coprime to p_i for each i and then the prime factor $p|m$ with $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$ is different from p_1, \dots, p_r .

7. $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ so -1 is not a square mod p . The map $\{(p+1)/2, \dots, p-1\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, (p-1)/2\}$ by sending a to $p-a$ is a bijection. So

$$\sum_{a=1}^{p-1} a \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} a \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) + (p-a) \left(\frac{p-a}{p}\right) = \sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} a \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) - (p-a) \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} (2a-p) \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$$

which gives the first equality. For the second equality, we consider

$$\sum_{a=1}^{p-1} a \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} 2a \left(\frac{2a}{p}\right) + \sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} (p-2a) \left(\frac{p-2a}{p}\right)$$

where the first term is the sum over all even numbers less than p and the second one is the sum over odd numbers less than p , and since $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$ so 2 is not a square but -2 is a square so

$$\sum_{a=1}^{p-1} a \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} -2a \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) + \sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} (p-2a) \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} (p-4a) \left(\frac{a}{p}\right).$$

Now if $p > 3$ then $2p$ is coprime to 3 and so it suffices to show

$$\sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} 2p \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv 0 \pmod{3}.$$

But by the previous part,

$$\sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} (2a-p) \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} (p-4a) \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$$

and we rearrange the equation so

$$\sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} 2p \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} 6a \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$$

in particular $\sum_{a=1}^{(p-1)/2} 2p \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ is divisible by 3.

8. No they have different discriminant. No, observe

$$15x^2 - 15xy + 4y^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{3}, 3x^2 + 9xy + 8y^2 \equiv 2y^2 \pmod{3}$$

so the first one represents some integer which is 1 mod 3 (by picking $x = 0, y = 1$ etc.) and the second one cannot represent any integer which is 1 mod 3.

9. This becomes obvious if we write each binary quadratic form in terms of $(x, y)A(x, y)^T$ for some 2×2 symmetric matrix A .

10. $d = 8, \langle 1, 0, 2 \rangle$. $d = 11, \langle 1, 1, 3 \rangle$. $d = 12, \langle 1, 0, 3 \rangle, \langle 2, 0, 2 \rangle$. $d = 16, \langle 1, 0, 4 \rangle$. $d = 19, \langle 1, 1, 5 \rangle$.
 $d = 23, \langle 1, 1, 6 \rangle, \langle 2, 1, 3 \rangle, \langle 2, -1, 3 \rangle$. $d = 163, \langle 1, 1, 41 \rangle$.

11. The reduced form is $2x^2 - xy + 4y^2$ so the smallest 3 positive integers it represent are 2, 4, 5.

12. Suppose $p = x^2 + 3y^2$ then $p = 3$ or $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. Conversely, we know an integer p is represented by a form of discriminant d if and only if $x^2 \equiv d \pmod{4p}$ is solvable. We know $p = 2$ is not represented by $x^2 + 3y^2$ so we assume $p \geq 3$. We see the only primitive (meaning the coefficients have greatest common divisor 1) reduced form of discriminant -12 is $x^2 + 3y^2$. So we want either $p = 3$ or by CRT $x^2 \equiv -12 \pmod{4}$ and $x^2 \equiv -12 \pmod{p}$ are both solvable which is equivalent to

$$\left(\frac{-12}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = 1$$

but this is equal to $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)$ by reciprocity law and so it is equivalent to $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

13. The first one is $x^2 + 2y^2$. It represents 2 and it is the only reduced form of discriminant -8 and a prime is represented by a form of discriminant -8 if and only if $\left(\frac{-2}{p}\right) = 1$, if and only if $p \equiv 1, 3 \pmod{8}$. The second one is $x^2 + y^2$ and we check it works by the same argument. For the last one, there does not exist such a binary form. If it exists then we may assume it is reduced, and it represents 2, 7 but it does not represent 3, 5 so consider the possible reduced form which represent 2, 7 but not 3, 5

$$f_1 = \langle 2, \pm 1, 7 \rangle, f_2 = \langle 2, 0, 7 \rangle$$

using the fact that the smallest integers represented by a reduced form $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$ are $a, c, a + c - b$. Then we see f_1 represents 43 ($x = 4, y = 1$) which is not 1, 7 mod 8 and f_2 does not represent 17.

14. These two are the only reduced forms of discriminant -15 so n is represented by one of them if and only if $x^2 \equiv -15 \pmod{4n}$ is solvable. Write $n = 2^a 3^b 5^c \prod_i p_i^{e_i}$ where $p_i \neq 3, 5$ and so we require, by CRT

$$x^2 \equiv -15 \pmod{2^a}, x^2 \equiv -15 \pmod{3^b}, x^2 \equiv -15 \pmod{5^c}, x^2 \equiv -15 \pmod{p_i^{e_i}}$$

are all solvable.

By Hensel's Lemma (or using the proof of Hensel's Lemma) $x^2 \equiv -15 \pmod{2^n}, n \geq 3$ is always solvable and so $a \geq 0$. It is clear that $x^2 \equiv -15 \pmod{9}, x^2 \equiv -15 \pmod{25}$ are not solvable so $b, c \leq 1$. Finally, if $p \neq 2, 3, 5$ then by Hensel's Lemma we require $\left(\frac{-15}{p}\right) = 1$ which then implies $p \equiv 1, 2, 4, 8 \pmod{15}$. This classifies the possible prime factors (and their indices) of n . If now n is prime to 15, if $n = x^2 + xy + 4y^2$ then $n \equiv x^2 - 2xy + y^2 = (x + y)^2 \pmod{3}$ so $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. If $n = 2x^2 + xy + 2y^2$ then $n \equiv -x^2 - 2xy - y^2 = -(x + y)^2 \pmod{3}$ so $n \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$.

In case he doesn't cover Hensel's Lemma in this course, here is something useful. Let $p \geq 3$ be a prime, and a an integer coprime to p , then $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$ if and only if $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p^n}$ is solvable for all n . To prove this, one direction is obvious and so we assume $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$ so $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ is solvable. Suppose we have a solution to $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p^n}$, then $x^2 = a + p^n b$ for some integer b . Then let $y = x + p^n t$ and so

$$y^2 = x^2 + 2p^n tx + p^{2n} t^2 = a + p^n(b + 2tx) + p^{n+1} p^{n-1} t^2 \equiv a + p^n(b + 2tx) \pmod{p^{n+1}}.$$

Since $(a, p) = 1$ so $(x, p) = 1$ and as $p > 2$ so $(2x, p) = 1$. In particular $(2x)^{-1}$ exists in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$. Therefore, take $t \equiv b(2x)^{-1} \pmod{p}$ we obtain a solution y such that $y^2 \equiv a \pmod{p^{n+1}}$. By induction, this shows that $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p^n}$ has a solution for all n . Another way to see this is, since $(\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is cyclic, pick a generator g for the group. If a is not a square then $a = g^{2k+1}$ for some k . But g is also a generator for $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ so $a = g^{2k+1}$ where now both a, g are considered as elements in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ and this shows a is not a square mod p , which is a contradiction.

The statement for $p = 2$ is similar. Let a be an odd number, then a is a square mod 8 if and only if a is a square mod $2^n, n \geq 3$. Again you can show this by induction, suppose $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{2^n}$, so $x^2 = a + 2^n b$ for some b . Take $y = x + 2^{n-1} t$ then

$$y^2 = x^2 + 2^n tx + 2^{2n-2} t^2 = a + 2^n(b + tx) + 2^{n+1} 2^{n-3} t^2 \equiv a + 2^n(b + tx) \pmod{2^{n+1}}$$

because $n \geq 3$ and since a is odd so x must be odd and so take t which has the same parity as b we see $y^2 \equiv a \pmod{2^{n+1}}$.