MODEL ANSWERS TO THE FIFTH HOMEWORK

3.5.9. It is clear that \mathcal{O}_p is a ring. Suppose that α and β are two non-zero *p*-adic integers. Then

 $\alpha = p^m(a_0 + a_1 p^2 + \dots)$ and $\beta = p^n(b_0 + b_1 p^2 + \dots),$

where a_0 and b_0 are non-zero. In this case

$$\alpha\beta = p^{n+m}(c_0 + c_1p + \dots),$$

where $c_0 \equiv a_0 b_0 \mod p$. In particular $c_0 \neq 0$, so that \mathcal{O}_p has no zero divisors.

If $|\alpha|_p = 1$ then

$$\alpha = a_0 + a_1 p + \dots,$$

where $a_0 \neq 0$. It follows that we may find b_0 such that $a_0b_0 \equiv 1 \mod p$. Note that

$$(a_0 + a_1 p + \dots + a_m p^m) \cdot b_0 \equiv 1 \mod p,$$

for all n. Therefore we can solve the equation

$$(a_0 + a_1 p + \dots + a_m p^m) x \equiv 1 \mod p^n$$

for all m And n. This defines

$$\beta \in \mathcal{O}_p$$
 such that $\alpha \beta = 1$.

Hence α is a unit. Conversely, if

 $\alpha\beta = 1$

then

$$\nu_p(\alpha) + \nu_p(\beta) = 0,$$

so that $\nu_p(\alpha) = 0$ and

$$|\alpha|_p = 1.$$

3.5.10. Suppose that

$$a = \frac{b}{c}$$

is a non-zero rational number. As the norm is multiplicative, we may assume that c = 1, so that $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is a non-zero integer. We may also assume that a > 0 so that a is a natural number. As the norm is multiplicative, we may assume that a = p is a prime. In this case

$$|a|_q = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p} & \text{if } q = p\\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

As |a| = p the result follows. 3.5.11. Consider the *p*-adic integer

$$\alpha = 1 + p^k + p^{2k} + \dots$$

We have

$$\alpha - 1 = p^k + p^{2k} + p^{3k} + \dots$$
$$= p^k (1 + p^k + p^{2k} + \dots)$$
$$= p^k \alpha.$$

Thus

$$\alpha = \frac{-1}{p^k - 1} \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

Suppose that

$$\alpha = p^n (a_0 + a_1 p + a_2 p^2 + a_3 p^3 + \dots).$$

We may assume that n = 0 so that α is a *p*-adic integer. If a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots is eventually periodic then we can find b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k and l such that if n > l then

$$a_n = b_r,$$

where r is the remainder after dividing k into n - l. It follows that

$$\alpha = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_k$$

where

$$\alpha_{0} = a_{0} + a_{1}p + \dots + a_{l}p^{l} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\alpha_{1} = b_{1}p^{l+1}(1 + p^{k} + p^{2k} + \dots)$$

$$\alpha_{2} = b_{2}p^{l+2}(1 + p^{k} + p^{2k} + \dots)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\alpha_{k} = b_{k}p^{l+k}(1 + p^{k} + p^{2k} + \dots).$$

By what we have already proved, every term $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k$ is a rational number and so α is a rational number.

Now suppose that $\alpha = a/b$ is a rational number. There is no harm in assuming that $a = \pm 1$, since multiplying α by an integer preserves periodicity.

Note that Euler's theorem implies that

 $p^{\varphi(b)} \equiv 1 \mod b,$

so that b divides $p^k - 1$, where $k = \varphi(b)$. It follows that

$$\frac{-1}{b} = \frac{c}{\frac{p^k - 1}{2}},$$

where c is an integer. But we already saw that the expression on the right has an eventually periodic expression as a p-number.

3.5.12. One direction is clear; if the series converges the terms must be going to zero, so that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} |a_k|_p = 0.$$

Now suppose that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} |a_k|_p = 0.$$

Pick $\epsilon > 0$. Then we may find k_0 such that if $k \ge k_0$ then

$$|a_k|_p < \epsilon$$

But then

$$|\sum_{k_0 \le k \le k_1} a_k|_p = \max_{k_0 \le k \le k_1} (|a_k|_p)$$
$$< \epsilon.$$

Thus the series converges, as the partial sums are going to zero. 3.5.13. Immediate from 3.5.12.

8.2.1. First note that the last result is false as stated. Consider

$$x^2 + y^2 = 2.$$

This has the integral solution x = y = 1. We have

$$p = -4$$
 $q = 0$ $r = 8$ so that $k = -32$.

k is non-zero and p is not a square and yet

$$x^2 + y^2 = 2$$

has only finitely many solutions with bounded denominators. Consider the equation:

$$ax^{2} + bxy + cy^{2} + dx + ey + f = 0.$$

If we consider the LHS as a polynomial in x, then we get the equation

$$ax^{2} + (by + d)x + (cy^{2} + ey + f) = 0.$$

This has a rational solution in x provided

 $(by + d)^2 - 4a(cy^2 + ey + f)$

is a square. Expanding as a polynomial in y we get

$$(b^2 - 4ac)y^2 + (2bd - 4ae)y + (d^2 - 4af).$$

This reduces to

$$py^2 + 2qy + r$$

We want this to be a square, so we introduce another variable z. We have

$$z^2 = py^2 + 2qy + r.$$

Rearranging, we get

$$py^2 + 2qy + (r - z^2) = 0.$$

For this to have a solution we must have

$$4q^2 - 4p(r - z^2)$$

is a square. We introduce another variable w. Thus

$$w^2 = q^2 - pr + pz^2.$$

Rearranging we get

$$w^2 - pz^2 = k.$$

Suppose we have an integer solution w and z. It follows that

$$py^2 + 2qy + (r - z^2) = 0$$

has a rational solution. By the quadratic formula, it follows that there is a solution with $2py \in \mathbb{Z}$. As the equation

$$ax^{2} + (by + d)x + (cy^{2} + ey + f) = 0$$

has a rational solution, whose discriminant is an integer. Again by the quadratic formula it follows that there is a solution such that 4apx is an integer.

Conversely suppose we have rational numbers x and y such that 4apx and 2py are integers. Then we we get a rational solution to the equation

$$w^2 - pz^2 = k.$$

As the quadratic equation

$$py^2 + 2qy + (r - z^2) = 0$$

has a solution such that 2py is an integer, it must have a discriminant which is a square. As the discriminant is also an integer, it follows that z is an integer. But then w is an integer, as its square is an integer. Suppose that $k \neq 0$ and p > 0 is not a square. Then there are infinitely many units. As we have one solution this equation then has infinitely many solutions. 8.2.2. We follow the notation of 8.2.1. We have

$$p = 6^{2} - 4 \cdot 1 \cdot -4$$

= 36 + 16
= 52,
$$q = 6 \cdot -4 - 2 \cdot -12$$

= -24 + 24
= 0,
$$r = 4^{2} - 4 \cdot -19$$

= 4(4 + 19)
= 92,
$$k = -52 \cdot 92$$

= -2⁴ \cdot 13 \cdot 23
= -4784.

Using 8.2.1, we have to solve

$$w^2 - 52z^2 = -4784.$$

If we rewrite this equation as

$$w^2 = 2^2 \cdot 13(z^2 - 4 \cdot 23)$$

it is clear we have to choose z so that $z^2 - 4 \cdot 23$ is divisible by 13. Trial and error gives z = 12. In this case

 $144 - 4 \cdot 23 = 52 = 4 \cdot 13.$

Thus

$$z = 12$$
 and $w = 4 \cdot 13 = 52$

We have to solve

$$py^2 + 2qy + r = z^2.$$

This gives

$$52y^2 + 92 = 144,$$

so that $y^2 = 1$. Thus $y = \pm 1$. This gives

$$x^{2} + 2x - 35 = 0$$
 and $x^{2} - 10x - 11 = 0$.

This gives integral solutions

$$(x, y) = (5, 1)$$
 $(-7, 1)$ $(11, -1)$ and $(-1, -1)$.

8.2.3. We look for the fundamental solution $\delta = x + y\sqrt{d}$ by trial and error. Reducing modulo 2, we know that x has to be odd and reducing

modulo 4, we know that y has to be even. If we try x = 3 and y = 2 we get a solution and this is clearly the fundamental solution,

$$\delta = 3 + 2\sqrt{2}$$

It follows that the general solution is

$$\pm (3+2\sqrt{2})^n$$
.

8.2.5. Consider the equation

$$x^2 - 2y^2 = -1.$$

It has one solution x = y = 1 and so it has infinitely many in the same class. Hence it has infinitely many solutions with x and y > 0. We have

$$|x - y\sqrt{2}| = \frac{1}{|x + y\sqrt{2}|}$$

which goes to zero as y goes to infinity. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} |x + y\sqrt{2}| &= |x - y\sqrt{2} + 2y\sqrt{2}| \\ &\leq |x - y\sqrt{2}| + 2y\sqrt{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$|y|x - y\sqrt{2}| \le \frac{1+\epsilon}{2\sqrt{2}}.$$

Let $u = \lfloor n\sqrt{2} \rfloor$ and v = n. Note that

$$u^2 - 2v^2 < 0$$

and if

$$x^2 - 2y^2 < 0$$
 where $x > 0, y = n$

then

$$x^2 - 2y^2 \le u^2 - 2v^2$$

with equality if and only if x = u. Therefore there are infinitely many n such that

$$|u - v\sqrt{2}| < \frac{1+\epsilon}{2v\sqrt{2}}.$$

On the other hand, if

$$|u - v\sqrt{2}| < \frac{1 - \epsilon}{2v\sqrt{2}}$$

then

$$|u^{2} - 2v^{2}| < \frac{1 - \epsilon}{2v\sqrt{2}}|u - v\sqrt{2} + 2v\sqrt{2}|$$

$$< \frac{1}{v} + (1 - \epsilon).$$

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If v is sufficiently large then the last term is smaller than one and $u^2=2v^2,\,{\rm impossible}.$ Thus

$$a_n > \frac{1-\epsilon}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

for n sufficiently large. 8.2.6. If

$$x^2 - dy^2 = -1$$

then we have

$$x^2 \equiv -1 \mod d.$$

But then Theorem 2.5 implies that d has a primitive representation as a sum of squares.