

Problem 1.

- (i) Suppose P is not an inflection point on the curve E . This means that the tangent line to E on P meets the curve in a third point Q where $Q \neq P$. Now again if we draw the tangent line to E on Q , if it meets the curve in Q 3 times, it means that Q is an inflection point and this case was solved in class. So assume that Q also is not an inflection point, which means that the tangent line on Q meets the curve in a third point R , where $R \neq Q$ and $R \neq P$. Now consider the matrix:

$$M_\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} P_x & Q_x & R_x \\ P_y & Q_y & R_y \\ P_z & Q_z & R_z \end{bmatrix}$$

Since these three points are not on the same line, then they are linearly independent. This means that $\det(M_\alpha) \neq 0$. Then suppose $\alpha = M_\alpha^{-1}$. Now it is easy to see that α maps P and Q and R respectively to $[1; 0; 0]$, $[0; 1; 0]$ and $[0; 0; 1]$. Suppose that E after transformation with M_α has the form:

$$G(u, v, w) = ku^3 + lu^2v + muv^2 + nv^3 + pu^2w + quvw + rv^2w + suw^2 + tw^2 + fw^3 = 0$$

Now since $G(1, 0, 0) = G(0, 1, 0) = G(0, 0, 1) = 0$, then we have $k = n = f = 0$. Now the line tangent to P and passing through Q is now the line that is tangent to $[1; 0; 0]$ and passing through $[0; 1; 0]$. It is easy to see that this line is $W = 0$. Now consider intersections of this line and G :

$$\begin{aligned} G(u, v, 0) &= lu^2v + muv^2 = 0 \\ &= uv(lu + mv) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Now note that uv has roots $[1; 0; 0]$ and $[0; 1; 0]$. The third root is also $[1; 0; 0]$. Therefore $lu + mv$ has root $[1; 0; 0]$:

$$l \cdot 1 + 0 = 0 \implies l = 0$$

Also since $[0; 1; 0]$ is not its root, then :

$$l \cdot 0 + m \cdot 1 \neq 0 \implies m \neq 0$$

Also the tangent line to Q which goes through R is now transformed to line tangent to $[0; 1; 0]$ and goes through $[0; 0; 1]$. It is not hard to see that this line is $U = 0$. Now if we see the intersections of this line with the curve, we get three points, $[0; 1; 0]$ two times, and $[0; 0; 1]$ one time. This means that $[0; 1; 0]$ is root of the below equation 2 times, and $[0; 0; 1]$ is the root of it one time:

$$\begin{aligned} G(0, v, w) &= rv^2w + tw^2 = 0 \\ &= vw(rv + tw) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Now vw has roots $[0; 1; 0]$ and $[0; 0; 1]$, thus $[0; 1; 0]$ is root of $rv + tw$, and $[0; 0; 1]$ is not, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} r \cdot 1 + t \cdot 0 &= 0 \implies r = 0 \\ r \cdot 0 + t \cdot 1 &\neq 0 \implies t \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

This gives us the form:

$$G(u, v, w) = muv^2 + pu^2w + quvw + suw^2 + tvw^2 = 0$$

Now here if we do the substitution $(u, v, w) \rightarrow (K^2, LN, KN)$, we have:

$$mK^2L^2N^2 + pk^5N + qk^3LN^2 + sK^4N^2 + tK^2LN^3 = 0$$

And here dividing by K^2N , we get:

$$\begin{aligned} mL^2N + pK^3 + qKLN + sK^2N + tLN^2 &= 0 \\ mL^2N + qKLN + tLN^2 &= -pK^3 - sK^2N \end{aligned}$$

Dehomogenizing in L we get:

$$mL^2 + (qK + t)L = -pK^3 - sK^2$$

Now replace L with $(L - \frac{1}{2}(qK + t))$ we get:

$$L^2 = \text{cubic in } K.$$

The cubic in K might not have leading coefficient 1, but we can adjust that by replacing K and L by λK and $\lambda^2 L$, where λ is the leading coefficient of the cubic. So we do finally get an equation in Weierstrass form.

(ii)

Problem 2.

$C(x, y, z)$ is a projective curve of degree 3:

$$ax^3 + bx^2y + cx^2z + dxy^2 + exz^2 + fy^3 + gy^2z + hyz^2 + iz^3 + jxyz = 0$$

First note that \mathcal{O} is on the curve, then $C(0, 1, 0) = fy^3 = 0$. Thus $f = 0$. Since the line $z = 0$ intersects with the curve 3 times in \mathcal{O} , then:

$$C(x, y, 0) = ax^3 + bx^2y + dxy^2 = x(ax^2 + bxy + dy^2) = 0$$

has the root $[0; 1; 0]$, 3 times. x has one root $[0; 1; 0]$. Now since $[0; 1; 0]$ is the root of $ax^2 + bxy + dy^2$, then we have: $d(1)^2 = 0$, which suggests that $d = 0$.

$$C(x, y, 0) = ax^3 + bx^2y = x^2(ax + by) = 0$$

Since x^2 has two roots, then $ax + by$ has one root, $[0; 1; 0]$. This means that $b(1) = 0$ and $b = 0$. Rewriting $C(x, y, z)$ we have:

$$C(x, y, z) = ax^3 + cx^2z + exz^2 + gy^2z + hyz^2 + iz^3 + jxyz = 0$$

Dividing by g and then replacing x with $x/\sqrt[3]{a}$ we get:

$$y^2z + h'yz^2 + j'xyz = x^3 + c'x^2z + e'xz^2 + i'z^3$$

Which is in Weierstrass form. Note that since \mathbb{C} is algebraically closed, then $\sqrt[3]{a}$ is also in \mathbb{C} , and transformations are all valid.

Problem 3.

First we have to show that the curve is smooth. We Homogenize the equation:

$$y^2z + xyz - x^3 - z^3 = 0$$

Then we calculate all partial derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = -3x^2 + yz \quad \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = 2yz + xz \quad \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} = -3z^2 + y^2 + xy$$

Since we want to find the answers in \mathbb{F}_2 , then we have:

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = x^2 + yz \quad \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = yz + xz \quad \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} = z^2 + y^2 + xy$$

If a point is singular, then it vanishes in all three derivatives:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x^2 + yz = 0 \\ yz + xz = 0 \end{array} \right\} \implies x^2 - xz = 0 \implies x(x - z) = 0$$

Then we have two cases:

a) $x = 0$

Then since $x^2 + yz = 0$, we get $yz = 0$. Now either $y = 0$ or $z = 0$, WLOG suppose that $y = 0$. Then since $z^2 + y^2 + xy = 0$, we have $z^2 = 0$ and $z = 0$, but this point $(0, 0, 0)$ is not on the plane.

b) $x = 1, x = z$

In this case note that $x^2 + yz = 0$, then $1 + y = 0$, which means that $y = 1$. But then we have $z^2 + y^2 + xy = 1$, and therefore this point is non-singular. Thus all points on this curve are non-singular and the curve is smooth. Also since the point $(1, 1, 1)$ is on the curve, then this curve is indeed an elliptic curve.

Now we have to show that the point $(1, 1, 1)$ is of order 4. Only points on this curve are: $\mathcal{O} = [0; 1; 0], [1; 0; 1], [0; 1; 1], [1; 1; 1]$. So we only need to show that $P = (1, 1, 1)$ is not of order 2. For this we find $2P$.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}(P) &= -3x^2 + y = (x^2 + y)(P) = 2 = 0 \\ \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}(P) &= (2y + x)(P) = x(P) = 1\end{aligned}$$

Thus the tangent line to P is $1(y - 1) = 0$ or simply $y = 1$. For us to find the third point we find the roots of:

$$1 + x = x^3 + 1$$

This equation has 0 as its roots once and 1 as its roots twice. Thus the third intersection of the line and the curve is $(1, 1)$. In other words $P * P = P$. To find $P + P$ we need to find $P * \mathcal{O}$. Consider the equation in homogenized form:

$$y^2z + xyz = x^3 + z^3$$

Suppose the line $ax + by + cz = 0$ is passing through P and \mathcal{O} . Then $b = 0$ and $a = c$, or $x = z$. Substitution gives us:

$$\begin{aligned}y^2x + x^2y &= x^3 + x^3 = 2x^3 = 0 \\ \implies xy(y + x) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

If $x = z = 0$, then gives us the root $\mathcal{O} = [0; 1; 0]$. If $x = z = 1$, then gives us the roots $[1; 0; 1]$ and $[1; 1; 1]$. Therefore we have $P + P = P * \mathcal{O} = [1; 0; 1] \neq \mathcal{O}$. Then P is not of order 2. Therefore P has order 4.

Problem 4.

- (i) Note that $v(1 \times 1) = v(1) + v(1)$, thus $v(1) = 0$, hence $v(1) = v(-1) + v(-1)$, resulting $v(-1) = 0$. Now we can write $v(-n) = v(-1) + v(n)$, which gives us $v(n) = v(-n)$. Suppose that $v(x) < v(y)$. We can write:

$$v(x + y) = v(x) + v(1 + \frac{y}{x})$$

Since $v(x + y) \geq \min\{v(x), v(y)\} = v(x)$, we have $v(1 + \frac{y}{x}) \geq 0$. Now we have:

$$0 = v(1) = v(1 + \frac{y}{x} - \frac{y}{x}) \geq \min\{v(1 + \frac{y}{x}), v(-\frac{y}{x})\}$$

Since $v(-\frac{y}{x}) = v(\frac{y}{x}) = v(y) + v(\frac{1}{x}) = v(y) - v(x) > 0$, then we have $v(1 + \frac{y}{x}) = 0$, which gives us $v(x + y) = v(x)$.

- (ii) Since the sum is finite, WLOG suppose that $a_1 = \min\{a_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$. Then for any a_i , either $v(a_1) = v(a_i)$, and we are done, then assume otherwise, using the first part, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} & \forall i, v(a_1) \neq v(a_i) \\ \implies & \forall i, v(a_1 + a_i) = \min\{a_1, a_i\} = a_1 \end{aligned}$$

Now note that:

$$\begin{aligned} & v(a_1 + a_2) = v(a_1) \\ v(a_1 + a_2) = v(a_1) \neq v(a_2) & \implies v(a_1 + a_2 + a_3) = \min\{v(a_1 + a_2), v(a_3)\} = v(a_1) \\ & \vdots \\ v(a_1 + \dots + a_{n-2}) = v(a_1) \neq v(a_{n-1}) & \implies \\ & v(a_1 + \dots + a_{n-1}) = \min\{v(a_1 + \dots + a_{n-2}), v(a_{n-1})\} \\ & = \min\{v(a_1), v(a_{n-1})\} = v(a_1) \end{aligned}$$

Note that $0 = v(1) = v(-1 \times -1) = v(-1) + v(-1)$, hence $v(-1) = 0$. Then we have:

$$v(-n) = v(-1) + v(n) = v(n)$$

Now note that $a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{n-1} = -a_n$, This means that $v(a_1 + \dots + a_{n-1}) = v(a_n)$ therefore $v(a_1) = v(a_n)$. Which gives us a contradiction since we assumed there is no i such that $v(a_1) = v(a_i)$.

Problem 5.

- (i) First we show that $1_F \in R_v$. For this we show that $v(1) = v(1) + v(1)$, which means that $v(1) = 0$, then since $R_v = \{x \in F | v(x) \geq 0\}$. Thus $1_F \in R_v$.

$$0 = v(1) = v(a) + v(a^{-1})$$

This means that either $v(a) \geq 0$ or $v(a^{-1}) \geq 0$, therefore either $a \in R_v$ or $a^{-1} \in R_v$.

- (ii) Suppose that there exists some $x \in J$ such that $x \notin I$. If such element does not exist, then we have $J \subseteq I$ and we are done. Now Let $y \in I$. For any element of $k \in R_v$, we have $ky \in I$. This means that $ky \neq x$ for any $k \in R_v$. Now consider the element $xy^{-1} \in F$. If it were to have this element in R_v , then we would have $xy^{-1}y = x \in I$, which can not happen, thus $xy^{-1} \notin R_v$, and by part i, we have $(xy^{-1})^{-1} = yx^{-1} \in R_v$. Then we have $yx^{-1}x = y \in J$. Since y was an arbitrary element of I , we conclude that $I \subseteq J$.
- (iii) To show that this ring is a local, we first prove that it has a maximal ideal. Consider the ideal $I = \{x \in F | v(x) > 0\}$. To show that this is an ideal we have to show that for any $x, y \in I$ and $r \in R_v$ we have $rx - y \in I$.

$$v(rx - y) \geq \min\{v(rx), v(-y)\} = \min\{v(r) + v(x), v(y)\}$$

Since both $x, y \in I$, we have $v(x), v(y) > 0$. Thus $v(rx - y) > 0$, and $rx - y \in I$. Now we show that an element x in R_v is unit iff $v(x) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} v(x) = 0 &\implies v(1) = v(x) + v(x^{-1}) \implies v(x^{-1}) = 0 \implies x^{-1} \in R_v \\ x^{-1} \in R_v &\implies v(x^{-1}) \geq 0 \implies v(1) = v(x) + v(x^{-1}) = 0 \implies v(x^{-1}) = v(x) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Now this means that I is the ideal of all non-unit elements of R_v . I is maximal since adding any other element, means adding 1 to the ideal, hence the ideal is R_v . To show that this maximal ideal is unique, suppose we have some other J that is ideal. It is obvious that J can not contain any unit element, since it constructs R_v , then $J \subset I$. This gives us a contradiction as there is only R_v itself over J . Thus R_v has only one maximal ideal, and is local. Next we have to show that if it is a noetherian ring, then it is PID. Each ideal is finitely generated. Let $I = \langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$. And let a_1 be the element with the smallest valuation. We show that $I = \langle a_1 \rangle$. For this we have to show that there exists some element b_i such that $b_i a_1 = a_i$ for each $2 \leq i \leq n$. Let $b_i = a_i a_1^{-1}$. We only have to show that $b_i \in R_v$, for this note that:

$$v(b_i) = v(a_i) + v(a_1^{-1}) = v(a_i) - v(a_1) \geq 0$$

The last part is followed by the fact that we chose a_1 to have the minimum v among all a_i s. This shows that $b_i \in R_v$, and thus $I = \langle a_1 \rangle$, and since I was an arbitrary ideal, then R_v is a PID.

Problem 6.

- (i) First note that we know that $|\cdot|_p$ is non-archimedean, we show that if $|x|_p \neq |y|_p$ then $|x + y|_p = \max\{|x|_p, |y|_p\}$. WLOG suppose that $|x|_p > |y|_p$. we can write:

$$|x + y|_p \leq \max\{|x|_p, |y|_p\} = |x|_p$$

We can also write:

$$|x|_p = |x + y - y|_p \geq \max\{|x + y|_p, |-y|_p\}$$

Now note that $|-y|_p = |y|_p$, and since we had $|x|_p > |y|_p$, then we have that $\max\{|x + y|_p, |-y|_p\} = |x + y|_p$. Then we have $|x|_p = |x + y|_p$ and the claim is proven. Now suppose that we have a, b, c , three numbers each representing one vertex of the triangle, then sides of this triangle have lengths: $|a - b|_p, |b - c|_p, |a - c|_p$. If $|a - b|_p = |b - c|_p$, then we are done. Otherwise, by the fact proven above, we have that $|a - c|_p = |a - b + b - c|_p$, and since $|a - b|_p \neq |b - c|_p$, then $|a - c|_p = \max\{|a - b|_p, |b - c|_p\}$, which gives us two equal sides of the triangle, and we are done!

- (ii) Suppose that I is a non-null ideal of \mathbb{Z}_p . There exists some $x \in I$ such that $v_p(x) < \infty$, since the only x with valuation ∞ is 0. Since all members of \mathbb{Z}_p have valuation larger than 0, then let $k = \inf\{v_p(x) | x \in I\}$. Then there exists some $a \in I$ such that $v_p(a) = k$. Now note that since $|a|_p = (\frac{1}{p})^k$, where $v_p(a) = k$. Now we have:

$$|p^{-k}a|_p = |p^{-k}|_p \cdot |a|_p = p^k \cdot |a|_p = p^k \cdot (\frac{1}{p})^k = 1$$

Thus $p^{-k}a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^\times$, in other words, this is a unit in \mathbb{Z}_p . Then we can write $a = p^k u$, where $u = p^{-k}a$ is a unit in \mathbb{Z}_p . Now we see that $p^k \in I$.

$$p^k = au^{-1} \in I$$

This means that $\langle p^k \rangle = p^k \mathbb{Z}_p \subseteq I$. Now for any $x \in I$ we have that $r = v_p(x) \geq k$, by definition of k . Similarly we have $p^r w = x$, where w is a unit in \mathbb{Z}_p . Then we can write:

$$x = p^r w = p^k p^{r-k} w$$

And since $p^{r-k} w \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, then $x \in p^k \mathbb{Z}_p$. This follows that $I \subseteq p^k \mathbb{Z}_p$. Hence $I = p^k \mathbb{Z}_p$. And we know that $p^k \mathbb{Z}_p$ is describing $B(0, (\frac{1}{p})^k) = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_p \mid |x|_p < (\frac{1}{p})^k\}$. Hence the proof is complete.

(iii) We show that it is the union of $B(0, 1), B(1, 1), \dots, B(p-1, 1)$. First we need to show that these balls are disjoint. First we prove a lemma:

Lemma 1. *If $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $r, s \in \mathbb{R}^+$, then $B(a, r) \cap B(b, s) \neq \emptyset$ if and only if $B(a, r) \subset B(b, s)$ or vice versa.*

Proof. Suppose $s \leq r$. And let $c \in B(a, r) \cap B(b, s)$. Then we know that $B(a, r) = B(c, r)$ and also $B(c, s) = B(b, s)$. Now it is easy to see that:

$$B(b, s) = B(c, s) \subset B(c, r) = B(a, r)$$

□

The distance of any two number in $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ is exactly 1 since for any two distinct $i, j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ we have:

$$|i - j|_p = \left(\frac{1}{p}\right)^{v_p(i-j)} = 1$$

Since $p \nmid i - j$. Now since center of each ball is not contained in any of the other balls, then by lemma above, we have that they are disjoint. Now to show that these two are equal, first suppose, $\alpha \in \{x \in \mathbb{Q}_p \mid |x|_p \leq 1\}$. If $|\alpha|_p < 1$, then $\alpha \in B(0, 1)$. Otherwise if $|\alpha|_p = 1$, then $v_p(\alpha) = 0$. Now there exists i such that $|i - \alpha|_p \leq \frac{1}{p}$ where $1 \leq i \leq p-1$. Then clearly $\alpha \in B(i, 1)$. This shows that

$$B = \{x \in \mathbb{Q}_p \mid |x|_p \leq 1\} \subset B(0, 1) \cup B(1, 1) \cup \dots \cup B(p-1, 1)$$

Conversely if $\alpha \in B(0, 1)$, then it is obvious that $\alpha \in B$. And if $\alpha \in B(i, 1)$ with $i \neq 0$, then we have that:

$$\begin{aligned} |i - \alpha|_p < 1 &\implies v_p(i - \alpha) > 0 \\ 0 = v_p(i) &\geq \min\{v_p(i - \alpha), v_p(\alpha)\} \end{aligned}$$

Since $v_p(i - \alpha) > 0$, then $v_p(\alpha) \leq 0$. On the other hand:

$$v_p(\alpha) \geq \min\{v_p(\alpha - i), v_p(i)\} = 0$$

Which gives us $v_p(\alpha) = 0$, and therefore $|\alpha|_p = 1$ and $\alpha \in B$. This proves that

$$B(0, 1) \cup B(1, 1) \cup \dots \cup B(p - 1, 1) \subset B$$

And thus:

$$B = \{x \in \mathbb{Q} \mid |x|_p \leq 1\} = B(0, 1) \cup B(1, 1) \cup \dots \cup B(p - 1, 1)$$

Problem 7.

- (i) Note that the answers to $x^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$ are 3 and 4. Now by Hensell's lemma, this gives us two sequences, $(3, a_2, a_3, \dots)$ and $(4, b_2, b_3, \dots)$, such that for any i :

$$\begin{aligned} a_i^2 &\equiv 2 \pmod{7^i} \\ a_i &\equiv a_{i-1} \pmod{7^{i-1}} \end{aligned}$$

Then $(9, a_2^2, a_3^2, \dots)$ and $(16, b_2^2, b_3^2, \dots)$ both converge to 2 since as i increases $|a_i^2 - 2|_7$ gets smaller, since 2 and a_i^2 are congruent modules 7^i .

Now if $\alpha = (a_1, a_2, \dots)$ is a sequence in \mathbb{Q} such that (a_1^2, a_2^2, \dots) converges to 3, then for any k , there exists N such that for any $n > N$, we have:

$$|a_n^2 - 3|_7 < \left(\frac{1}{7}\right)^k$$

This implies that $v_7(a_n^2 - 3) > k$:

$$\begin{aligned} 7^k \mid a_n^2 - 3 &\implies 7^k \mid \frac{m^2 - 3n^2}{n^2} \implies 7^k \mid m^2 - 3n^2 \\ &\implies m^2 \equiv 3n^2 \pmod{7^k} \end{aligned}$$

But since $x^2 \pmod{7}$ can only be 1, 3, 4, then the last equation has no answers, and thus there is no $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}_7$ such that $\alpha^2 = 3$.

- (ii) a) We find a_0 such that $|-1 - a_0|_5 < \frac{1}{5}$. Then $a_0 = 4$. Then we have:

$$-1 = -1 \cdot 5 + 4$$

Now we can write the same for -1 again: $-1 = -1 \cdot 5^2 + 4 \cdot 5 + 4$, and if we do this for ever we get the sequence:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} 4 \cdot 5^i$$

b) Since $|- \frac{23}{75}|_5 > 1$, then we find the sequence for $-\frac{23}{75} \times 25 = -\frac{23}{3}$. We find a_0 , such that $|- \frac{23}{3} - a_0|_5 < \frac{1}{5}$, we get $a_0 = 4$:

$$-\frac{23}{3} = -\frac{7}{3} \cdot 5 + 4$$

Now we write $-\frac{7}{3}$ as:

$$-\frac{7}{3} = -\frac{2}{3} \cdot 5 + 1$$

Then $-\frac{2}{3}$:

$$-\frac{2}{3} = -\frac{1}{3} \cdot 5 + 1$$

And $-\frac{1}{3}$ as:

$$-\frac{1}{3} = -\frac{2}{3} + 3$$

Here get a repeating pattern and we can write the sequence:

$$a_0 = 4, a_1 = 1, a_2 = 1, a_3 = 3$$

$$\forall n > 1 : a_{2n} = 1, a_{2n+1} = 3$$

$$-\frac{23}{3} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i 5^i$$

Then:

$$-\frac{23}{75} = \sum_{i=-2}^{\infty} a_{i+2} 5^i$$