

Mathematics W4043 Algebraic Number Theory

Assignment # 10

Benjamin Church

Worked With Matthew Lerner-Brecher

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6.22 Consider the equation $y^2 = x^3 - 2$. Reducing modulo 2, $y \equiv x \pmod{2}$ so either both x and y are even or they are both odd. If x and y are both even then $4 \mid x^3 - y^2 = 2$ which is a contradiction. Thus, x and y are even. We can rewrite this equation as,

$$x^3 = y^2 + 2 = (y + i\sqrt{2})(y - i\sqrt{2})$$

Therefore, the element $y^2 + 2 = (y + i\sqrt{2})(y - i\sqrt{2})$ is a square in $\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{2}]$. Let $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2})$ then $\mathcal{O}_K = \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}] = \mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{2}]$ because $-2 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

I claim that $a = y + i\sqrt{2}$ and $b = y - i\sqrt{2}$ are coprime. If $d \mid y + i\sqrt{2}$ and $d \mid y - i\sqrt{2}$ then $d \mid 2i\sqrt{2}$. Therefore, $N_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(d) \mid N_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(2i\sqrt{2}) = 8$. Therefore either $d = \pm 1$ or $N_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(d)$ is even. However, $d \mid y + i\sqrt{2}$ so $N_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(d) \mid N_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(y + i\sqrt{2}) = y^2 + 2$ which is odd if y is odd. Therefore $d = 1$. However, $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ is a PID and therefore a UFD. Thus, if $(y + i\sqrt{2})(y - i\sqrt{2})$ is a cube then $y + i\sqrt{2}$ is a cube as well. Now suppose that,

$$y + i\sqrt{2} = (a + bi\sqrt{2})^3 = a^3 - 6ab^2 + (3a^2 - 2b^2)bi\sqrt{2}$$

with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Because $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational, the coefficients must themselves be equal. Therefore, $(3a^2 - 2b^2)b = 1$ thus $b = \pm 1$ and $3a^2 - 2b^2 = \pm 1$ so $3a^2 = 3$ or $3a^2 = 1$. Since the latter is impossible, we have $a = \pm 1$ and $b = \pm 1$. Thus, $y = a^3 - 6ab^2 = a(a^2 - 6b^2) = a(1 - 6) = -5a$ which takes on the values ± 5 because $a = \pm 1$.

The corresponding values of x are given by the norm of $a + bi\sqrt{2}$ because if $y + i\sqrt{2} = (a + bi\sqrt{2})^3$ then $N_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(y + i\sqrt{2}) = y^2 + 2 = (N_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(a + bi\sqrt{2}))^3 = x^3$. Thus, $x = N_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(\pm 1 \pm i\sqrt{2}) = 1 + 2 = 3$. No other values of x are possible because, if, using the known solution for y , $x^3 = y^2 + 2 = 25 + 2 = 27$ then $x = 3$. Therefore, the only solutions to $y^2 = x^3 - 2$ are $(x, y) = (3, \pm 5)$.

6.23 (a) Suppose that $A\vec{c} = \vec{c}$. Then for each i ,

$$\sum_{j=1}^r a_{ij}c_j = 0 \quad \text{thus} \quad a_{ii}c_i + \sum_{j \neq i} a_{ij}c_j = 0$$

Therefore,

$$|a_{ii}||c_i| = \left| \sum_{j \neq i} a_{ij}c_j \right| \leq \sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}||c_j|$$

using the hypothesis and assuming that $|c_i| \neq 0$,

$$\left(\sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}| \right) |c_i| < |a_{ii}| |c_i|$$

Let c_m be the coefficients with the maximum absolute value. Then, $|c_j| \leq |c_m|$ so,

$$\left(\sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}| \right) |c_i| < |a_{ii}| |c_i| \leq \sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}| |c_j| \leq \left(\sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}| \right) |c_m|$$

and thus, $|c_i| < |c_m|$ which cannot hold for every i because then we can choose $i = m$ and $|c_m| < |c_m|$ is clearly false. Therefore, $c_m = 0$ which implies that $c_i = 0$ for each i because the maximum absolute value of all these coefficients is zero. Thus, the null space of A is trivial so A is invertible because it is a square matrix.

(b) Introduce the embedding $\Phi : \mathcal{O}_K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{r_1} \times \mathbb{C}^{r_2}$ given by

$$\Phi(\alpha) = (\sigma_1(\alpha), \dots, \sigma_{r_1}(\alpha), \sigma_{r_1+1}(\alpha), \dots, \sigma_{r_1+r_2}(\alpha))$$

where σ_i runs over real embeddings and one of each conjugate pair of complex embeddings. Now for any positive real numbers $t_1, \dots, t_n \in \mathbb{R}$ with $n = r_1 + r_2$, consider the convex set,

$$B(t_1, \dots, t_n) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{r_1} \times \mathbb{C}^{r_2} \mid |x_i| \leq t_i\}$$

which has volume $V_B = 2^{r_1} \pi^{r_2} t_1 \cdots t_{r_1} \cdot t_{r_1+1}^2 \cdots t_{r_1+r_2}^2$. By Minkowski's theorem, we are guaranteed that $B(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ contains a lattice point if $V_B \geq 2^n V_L$ where V_L is the volume of a lattice cell. For a fixed i , we can ensure the volume satisfies this criterion by choosing $\tilde{t}_i > 2^{n-r_1} \pi^{-r_2} V_L$ then $B(1, \dots, \tilde{t}_i, \dots, 1)$ contains a non-zero lattice point. Therefore, $\exists \alpha_1 \in \mathcal{O}_K$ such that $\Phi(\alpha_1) \in B(1, \dots, \tilde{t}_i, \dots, 1)$. Now, we define a sequence of convex sets with $t_j = \frac{|\alpha_k|_j}{4}$ and $t_i = (4^k)^{r_1+2r_2-1} \tilde{t}_i$ where α_k begins with α_1 and then takes on the value of the last constructed algebraic integer. Therefore, when $i \leq r_1$,

$$V_n = 2^{r_1} \pi^{r_2} t_1 \cdots t_{r_1} \cdot t_{r_1+1}^2 \cdots t_{r_1+r_2}^2 < 2^{r_1} \pi^{r_2} \frac{1}{(4^k)^{r_1+2r_2-1}} (t_i)_k = 2^{r_1} \pi^{r_2} \tilde{t}_i > 2^n V_L$$

since $t_j \leq \frac{1}{4^k}$ because each α_k is chosen with $|\alpha_k|_j$ less than the previous t_j . Likewise when $i > r_1$ then

$$V_n = 2^{r_1} \pi^{r_2} t_1 \cdots t_{r_1} \cdot t_{r_1+1}^2 \cdots t_{r_1+r_2}^2 \leq 2^{r_1} \pi^{r_2} \frac{1}{(4^k)^{r_1+2r_2-2}} (t_i)_k^2 = 2^{r_1} \pi^{r_2} (4^k)^{r_1+2r_2} \tilde{t}_i > 2^n V_L$$

therefore, B_{k+1} contains a non-zero lattice point. Thus, take α_{k+1} such that $\Phi(\alpha_k) \in B_k$. Consider the ideals (α_k) which all have norm,

$$|\mathcal{N}_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(\alpha_k)| = \prod_{i=1}^{r_1+2r_2} |\sigma_i(\alpha_k)| < t_1 \cdots t_{r_1} \cdot t_{r_1+1}^2 \cdots t_{r_1+r_2}^2 < 2^n V_L$$

However, by Dedekind prime factorization, there are only finitely many ideals with norm less than some bound so we must have infinitely many α_k which generate the same ideal. Take $(\alpha_k) = (\alpha_l)$ with $k > l$ then $\alpha_k = u_l \alpha_l$ for $u \in \mathcal{O}_K^\times$. However, we can bound

the absolute values of this unit, when $j \neq i$, $|u_i|_j = |\sigma_j(u_i)| = |\sigma_j(\frac{\alpha_k}{\alpha_l})| = \frac{|\sigma_j(\alpha_k)|}{|\sigma_j(\alpha_l)|} \leq \frac{1}{4}$ because at each state the absolute value is reduced by at least $1/4$ and Minkowski's theorem ensures that none of the α_k are zero so none of the absolute values are zero. Also, because $|\mathbf{N}_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(u_i)| = |u_i|_1 \cdots |u_i|_{r_1} \cdot |u_i|_{r_1+1}^2 \cdots |u_i|_{r_1+r_2}^2 = 1$ then $|u_i|_i > 1$ since each other absolute value is less than 1. We have found a unit satisfying these criteria for each i .

- (c) Consider the matrix of log-absolute values, i.e. $a_{ij} = \log |u_i|_j$ where i and j range from 1 to $r = r_1 + r_2 - 1$. Now, because $|\mathbf{N}_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(u_i)| = |u_i|_1 \cdots |u_i|_{r_1}^2 \cdot |u_i|_{r_1+1} \cdots |u_i|_{r_1+r_2}^2 = 1$ then $|u_i|_i > 1$ we have that,

$$\sum_{j=1}^{r+1} \log |u_i|_j = \log 1 = 0$$

and thus,

$$\sum_{j=1}^r a_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^{r+1} \log |u_i|_j - \log |u_i|_{r+1} > 0$$

because $|u_i|_{r+1} \leq \frac{1}{4}$ so $-\log |u_i|_{r+1} > 0$. For $j \neq i$, the same condition applies i.e. $\log |u_i|_{r+1} < 0$ because $|u_i|_j \leq \frac{1}{4}$. Then,

$$|a_{ii}| = a_{ii} > -\sum_{j \neq i} a_{ij} = \sum_{j \neq i} |a_{ij}|$$

because $|u_i|_i > 1$ so $a_{ii} = \log |u_i|_i > 0$ and the other terms are negative. Thus, by part (a), a_{ij} is an invertible matrix so its rows are independent. Therefore, the set of units $\{u_1, \dots, u_r\}$ is independent because if $u_1^{e_1} \cdots u_r^{e_r} = 1$ then for any j ,

$$\log |u_1^{e_1} \cdots u_r^{e_r}|_j = \sum_{i=1}^r e_i \log |u_i|_j = \sum_{i=1}^r e_i a_{ij} = \log |1|_j = 0 \implies e_i = 0$$

because the matrix has independent rows.

2. (a) Let $\mathbf{1}$ denote the function $\mathbf{1}(n) = 1$. Now consider the convolution,

$$(\mathbf{1} * \mathbf{1})(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mathbf{1}(d) \mathbf{1}(\frac{n}{d}) = \sum_{d|n} 1 = |\{d \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \mid d \mid n\}| = \tau(n)$$

- (b) Let f and g be multiplicative functions, now consider the convolution of f and g applied to coprime a, b ,

$$(f * g)(ab) = \sum_{d|ab} f(d)g(\frac{ab}{d})$$

If $d \mid ab$ then let $d' = \frac{d}{(d,a)}$ which is coprime with $a' = \frac{a}{(d,a)}$. Furthermore, $d' \mid a'b$ but $(d', a') = 1$ so $d' \mid b$. Thus, $d = d'(d, a)$ which is a divisor of a times a divisor of b . Furthermore, I claim that if a and b are coprime then these products are distinct. This holds because if $e, f \mid a$ and $g, h \mid b$ and $eg = fh$ therefore $e \mid fh$ and $f \mid eg$. However,

$(e, h) = 1$ so $e \mid f$ but $(f, g) = 1$ so $f \mid e$. Thus, $e = f$ and $g = h$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}(f * g)(ab) &= \sum_{d \mid ab} f(ab)g\left(\frac{ab}{d}\right) = \sum_{d_1 \mid a} \sum_{d_2 \mid b} f(d_1 d_2)g\left(\frac{ab}{d_1 d_2}\right) = \sum_{d_1 \mid a} \sum_{d_2 \mid b} f(d_1)f(d_2)g\left(\frac{a}{d_1}\right)g\left(\frac{b}{d_2}\right) \\ &= \left(\sum_{d_1 \mid a} f(d_1)g\left(\frac{a}{d_1}\right) \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{d_2 \mid b} f(d_2)g\left(\frac{b}{d_2}\right) \right) = (f * g)(a)(f * g)(b)\end{aligned}$$

- (c) Define $f(n) = n$ and $\mu(1) = 1$ and $\mu(p) = -1$ and $\mu(n) = 0$ iff n contains a square. First, we consider the function $f * \mu$ applied to prime powers. Because f and μ are multiplicative, $f * \mu$ is as well so the result will extend to all integers.

$$(f * \mu)(p^k) = \sum_{d \mid p^k} f(d)\mu\left(\frac{p^k}{d}\right)$$

The only divisors of p^k which are not sent to zero by μ are 1 and p so we only need to sum over $d = p^k$ and $d = p^{k-1}$. Therefore,

$$(f * \mu)(p^k) = f(p^k)\mu\left(\frac{p^k}{p^k}\right) + f(p^{k-1})\mu\left(\frac{p^k}{p^{k-1}}\right) = p^k \mu(1) + p^{k-1} \mu(p) = p^k - p^{k-1} = \phi(p^k)$$

Because both $f * \mu$ and ϕ are multiplicative and agree for prime powers, by unique factorization they agree on all integers. Therefore, $f * \mu = \phi$.

- (d) Define the function $\Lambda(p^k) = \log p$ and $\Lambda(n) = 0$ if n is not a prime power. Now, define,

$$D(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda(n)}{n^s}$$

We will apply the theorem proved in class to conclude that if $f(n) = O(n^\beta)$ then,

$$F(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{f(n)}{n^s}$$

converges for $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1 + \beta$. Take any $\beta > 0$ then because for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $|\log(n)| < n$ we have the inequality, $\log(n^\beta) < n^\beta$ so $\log(n) < \frac{1}{\beta} n^\beta$. Therefore,

$$|\Lambda(n)| \leq |\log(n)| < \frac{1}{\beta} n^\beta$$

so $\Lambda(n) = O(n^\beta)$ and thus $D(s)$ converges for $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1 + \beta$ for every $\beta > 0$. Take any s with $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1$ then choose $\beta = \frac{\operatorname{Re}(s)-1}{2} > 0$ then $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1 + \beta = \frac{\operatorname{Re}(s)+1}{2}$ so $D(s)$ converges on the right half plane $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1$.

Now in the right half plane $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1$ on which $\zeta(s)$ is a holomorphic function, the function,

$$f(s) = -\frac{d}{ds} \log \zeta(s) = -\frac{\zeta'(s)}{\zeta(s)}$$

exists and is holomorphic. Using the Euler product,

$$\begin{aligned} f(s) &= -\frac{d}{ds} \log \prod_p \frac{1}{1 - p^{-s}} = \frac{d}{ds} \sum_p \log (1 - p^{-s}) = \sum_p \frac{d}{ds} \log (1 - p^{-s}) = \sum_p \frac{p^{-s} \log p}{1 - p^{-s}} \\ &= \sum_p p^{-s} \log p \left(1 + \frac{1}{p^s} + \frac{1}{p^{2s}} + \cdots \right) = \sum_p \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\log p}{(p^k)^s} = \sum_p \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda(p)}{(p^k)^s} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Lambda(n)}{n^s} = D(s) \end{aligned}$$

where the sum can be extended from only prime powers to all positive integers because $\Lambda(n) = 0$ for all n which are not a prime power and the sums are all absolutely convergent so rearrangement poses no issue.