

Exercise Sheet 4

Algebraic Number Theory

January 9, 2026

Exercise 1 (Quadratic reciprocity, again). Recall that the quadratic reciprocity law says that for all distinct *odd prime* numbers p, q it holds that

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}\frac{q-1}{2}},$$

where $\left(\frac{\cdot}{p}\right)$ is the Legendre symbol. In this exercise we give a second proof of this result, which historically is the sixth published proof by Gauss. Define

$$\tau = \sum_{a \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times} \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) e^{\frac{2\pi ai}{p}}.$$

1. Prove that for all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $(ab, p) = 1$ one has

$$\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)\left(\frac{b}{p}\right).$$

2. Prove that

$$\tau^2 = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} p.$$

Hint: Recall from Exercise Sheet 3 the Euler criterion. **Remark** By Galois theory, $\mathbb{Q}[\tau] \subseteq \mathbb{Q}[e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}}]$ is the unique quadratic extension (of \mathbb{Q}) in $\mathbb{Q}[e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}}]$. That was the historical motivation for considering the quadratic Gauss sum.

3. Prove that the ideals generated by q and τ are coprime in $\mathbb{Z}[e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}}]$.
4. Prove that

$$\tau^{q-1} \equiv \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \pmod{q}.$$

5. Conclude

Solution. 1. It follows from the fact that

$$\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) \equiv (ab)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p} \equiv a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} b^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p} \equiv \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)\left(\frac{b}{p}\right) \pmod{p},$$

and since $\left(\frac{\cdot}{p}\right)$ takes values in ± 1 the above is already an equality over \mathbb{Z} .

2. We compute

$$\begin{aligned}
\tau^2 &= \sum_{a,b \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times} \left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i(a+b)}{p}} \\
&\stackrel{c=ab}{=} \sum_{a,c \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times} \left(\frac{c}{p}\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i(a+a^{-1}c)}{p}} \\
&\stackrel{c=a^2c}{=} \sum_{a,c \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times} \left(\frac{c}{p}\right) e^{2\pi ia(1+c)} \\
&= \sum_{c \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times} \left(\frac{c}{p}\right) \left(\sum_{a \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}} e^{2\pi ia(1+c)} - 1 \right) \\
&= \sum_{c \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times} \left(\frac{c}{p}\right) \sum_{a \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}} e^{2\pi ia(1-c)} - \sum_{c \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times} \left(\frac{c}{p}\right).
\end{aligned}$$

The inner sum of the left summand is equal to p if $c = -1$ and to 0 otherwise. The second summand is 0, since the numbers of squares and non squares in \mathbb{F}_p^\times are equal. Hence we get

$$\tau^2 = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) p = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} p.$$

3. Since q, p^2 are coprime in \mathbb{Z} there $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $1 = aq + bp^2$. Then $1 = aq + b'\tau^2$, with $b' = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} b$. In particular q and τ^2 are coprime in $\mathbb{Z}[e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}}]$.
4. The binomial expansion gives $(a+b)^q = \sum_{k=0}^q \binom{q}{k} a^k b^{q-k}$. Hence by induction we get

$$\begin{aligned}
\tau^q &= \left(\sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) e^{\frac{2\pi ia}{p}} \right)^q \\
&= \sum_{k_1 \geq k_2 \geq \dots \geq k_{p-2} \geq 0} \binom{q}{k_1} \dots \binom{k_{p-3}}{k_{p-2}} \left(\left(\frac{1}{p}\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}} \right)^{q-k_1} \left(\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i 2}{p}} \right)^{k_1-k_2} \dots \left(\left(\frac{p-1}{p}\right) e^{\frac{2\pi i(p-1)}{p}} \right)^{k_{p-2}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Now notice that $q | \binom{q}{k_1} \dots \binom{k_{p-2}}{k_{p-1}}$ whenever there is $0 < k_i < q$, in fact if $0 < k_1 < q$, then $\binom{q}{k_1} = \frac{q!}{(q-k_1)!k_1!}$. Notice q divides $q!$ and it does not divide any of the terms in the denominator (by uniqueness of the factorization) and so again by uniqueness $q | \binom{q}{k_1}$. Suppose $k_1 = \dots = k_j = q$ and $0 < k_{j+1} < q$, then we have

$$\binom{q}{k_1} \dots \binom{k_{p-3}}{k_{p-2}} = \binom{q}{k_{j+1}} \dots \binom{k_{p-3}}{k_{p-2}}$$

which is for the same reason as before divisible by q . Hence the only we get (mod q)

$$\tau^q \equiv \sum_{1 \leq a \leq p-1} \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)^q e^{\frac{2\pi iaq}{p}} \pmod{q}.$$

Notice that $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)^q \equiv \left(\frac{a}{q}\right) \pmod{q}$. By a change of variables $b = aq$ we see then that

$$\tau^q \equiv \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \tau \pmod{q}$$

and so $\tau^{q-1} \equiv \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \pmod{q}$ or $\tau \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, but the latter cannot happen since τ and q are coprime in $\mathbb{Z}[e^{\frac{2\pi i}{p}}]$.

5. We have

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \equiv (\tau^2)^{\frac{q-1}{2}} \equiv ((-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} p)^{\frac{q-1}{2}} \equiv (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \frac{q-1}{2}} \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \pmod{q}.$$

Again the equality is already over \mathbb{Z} since every term is ± 1 .

Exercise 2. Consider the Diophantine equation

$$Y^2 = X^3 - 2. \tag{1}$$

We are interested in integer solutions of this equation.

1. Show that $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$ is an euclidean domain, hence a PID.
2. Use the above information to find all integer solutions of (1).

Solution. 1. Let $a, q \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$, $q \neq 0$. Let $\frac{a}{q} = x + y\sqrt{-2}$. Let $a_0, b_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $|x - a_0|, |y - b_0| \leq \frac{1}{2}$. Then $|\frac{a}{q} - (a_0 + b_0\sqrt{-2})|^2 \leq \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2} < 1$. Set $r = a - q(a_0 + b_0\sqrt{-2})$ and we are done.

2. We have $y^2 = x^3 - 2$ if and only if $y^2 + 2 = x^3$.

Suppose $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ is a solution, in particular $y \neq 0$. Then $x^3 = (y - \sqrt{-2})(y + \sqrt{-2}) \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}]$.

We claim that $y + \sqrt{-2}$ and $y - \sqrt{-2}$ are coprime, in fact if π divides $y + \sqrt{-2}$ and $y - \sqrt{-2}$, then it divides $2\sqrt{-2}$. We compute the divisors of $2\sqrt{-2}$. Note that if $(a + b\sqrt{-2})|(2\sqrt{-2})$, then

$$|a + b\sqrt{-2}|^2 = a^2 + 2b^2 \mid |2\sqrt{-2}|^2 = 8.$$

Hence, the set of divisors of $2\sqrt{-2}$ is contained in (and readily is) the set

$$\{\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm\sqrt{-2}, \pm 2\sqrt{-2}\}.$$

The only possible non-unit divisors of $y + \sqrt{-2}$ in the above set are $\pm\sqrt{-2}$ and $\pm 2\sqrt{-2}$, and in fact if they are, then y is even. We claim that y must be odd.

We go back to the equality $x^3 = y^2 + 2$. We claim that both x and y are odd. First, x and y have the same parity. Suppose they are both even, then $x^3 \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$, which would imply that $y^2 \equiv 6 \pmod{8}$, but 6 is not a square $\pmod{8}$ (the only squares $\pmod{8}$ are 0, 1, 4).

Going back to our problem, we deduce finally that $y + \sqrt{-2}$ and $y - \sqrt{-2}$ are coprime.

As in the previous exercise sheet, we deduce that both $(y + \sqrt{-2})$ and $(y - \sqrt{-2})$ are cubes, up to unit. So suppose $(a + b\sqrt{-2})^3 = y + \sqrt{-2}$. Expanding the cube we get

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

Comparing coefficients, we have

$$ab(3a - 2b^2) = 1,$$

which implies $a = \pm 1$. If $a = 1$, then $b = 1$ as well, if $a = -1$, then there is no solution (since in this case $3a - 2b^2 < -1$).

The unique solutions of the equation are $(x, y) = (3, \pm 5)$ (the fact that $y = 5$ is also a solutions is hidden into the *up to unit*).