Primes - Problem Sheet 4 - Solutions

Properties of quadratic forms

Q1) Let $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ be a quadratic form (with coefficients over some ring $R \supset \mathbb{Z}$). Show that

f is integral implies 2f is *classically* integral.

Solution: Integral means

$$\operatorname{mat}(f) = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \frac{1}{2}a_{ij} \\ \frac{1}{2}a_{ij} & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

implies

$$\operatorname{mat}(2f) = \begin{pmatrix} 2a_{11} & a_{ij} \\ a_{ij} & 2a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

which means 2f is classically integral.

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- Q2) Suppose that $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is a non-primitive integral quadratic form. Show that $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ can represent at most one prime. **Solution:** Since f is not primitive, let $d = \gcd(r_i j)$ be the common divisor of all coefficients. Then for any $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ we have $d \mid f(a_1, \ldots, a_i)$. If f represents the prime p, then $d \mid p$, so d = p. Hence all values represented by $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ are divisible by p. The only prime divisible by p is p itself.
- Q3) Suppose $f(x,y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$ is an integral binary quadratic form, with discriminant $D = b^2 - 4ac$.
 - i) Show that f is indefinite if D > 0.
 - ii) Show that f is positive (respectively negative) definite if D < 0 and a > 0(respectively a < 0).
 - iii) What happens when D = 0? What happens if D > 0 is a perfect square? Hint: Complete the square! Solution: We write

$$af(x,y) = a(ax^{2} + bxy + cy^{2}) = (ax + by/2)^{2} - \underbrace{(b^{2}/4 - ac)}_{D/4} y^{2}.$$

If D < 0, then af(x,y) is the sum of two squares, so is ≥ 0 . It equals 0 if and only if y = 0 and ax + by/2 = 0, i.e. x = y = 0. So f(x, y) = $\frac{1}{a}((ax+by/2)^2 - \underbrace{(b^2/4 - ac)}_{D/4}y^2) \text{ is positive-definite if } a > 0 \text{ and negative definite}$

if a < 0. Since D < 0, we cannot have a = 0.

For D > 0, not a perfect square, we must have $a \neq 0$. (Else $D = b^2$.) Write $f(x,y) = \frac{1}{a}(ax + by/2)^2 - \frac{D}{4a}y^2$. Taking y = 0, and x = 1 gives a. Taking y = 2a and x = b gives $f(b, -2a) = -\frac{D}{4a}(2a)^2$, which has the opposite sign to a. Hence f(x, y) is indefinite.

For D a perfect square, then we can factor the polynomial (over \mathbb{Q} at first, and so over \mathbb{Z} by the Gauss lemma for polynomials). If D = 0, then the root $r = \frac{\beta}{\alpha}$ of f(x, 1) is repeated, so we factor f(x, y) as $a(\beta x - \alpha y)^2$. (Note $f(x, y) = y^2 f(x/y, 1)$.) If a = 0 the polynomial is identically 0. If a > 0it is positive-semidefinite by taking $y = \beta, y = \alpha$. If a < 0, it is negativesemidefinite.

If $D \neq 0$, then f(x, 1) takes some positive values and some negative values, between the roots and outside the roots we get different signs! Let x = p/qgive a positive, and x = r/s a negative. Then $f(p,q) = q^2 f(p/q, 1) > 0$ and $f(r,s) = s^2 f(r/s, 1) < 0$. So f(x, y) is indefinite (and non-trivially represents 0). (Perhaps this should be semi-indefinite?)

- Q4) Let $f(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$ be a binary quadratic form, of discriminant $D = b^2 4ac$. Show that $D \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$, and that every such D occurs. Solution: By reducing modulo 4, we see that $D \equiv b^2 \pmod{4}$, and the squares modulo 4 are 0^2 , $(\pm)1^2$, $2^2 \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$. Conversely, if D = 4k, then $x^2 - ky^2$ has discriminant 4k. Whereas for D = 4k + 1, $x^2 + xy - ky^2$ has discriminant 4k + 1.
- Q5) Show that R-equivalence is an equivalence relation on n-ary quadratic forms over R. Show
 - i) The form f is equivalent to f,
 - ii) If f is equivalent to g, then g is equivalent to f, and
 - iii) If f equivalent to g, and g equivalent to h, then f equivalent to h. Check also for $SL_n(\mathbb{Z})$ -equivalence, when $R = \mathbb{Z}$. Solution:
 - The identity matrix $B = I_n$ shows f is $\operatorname{SL}_n(\mathbb{Z}) / \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ -equivalent to f.
 - If B gives equivalence of f to g then B⁻¹ gives equivalence of g to f. As det(B) = det(B⁻¹), this works for SL_n(ℤ) equivalence too.
 - If B gives equivalence f to g, and C gives equivalence g to h. Then BC gives the equivalence f to h. Since $\det(BC) = \det(B) \det(C)$, this holds for $\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ equivalence too.
- Q6) Suppose f and g are $\operatorname{GL}_n(R)$ -equivalent quadratic forms. Show
 - i) $\det(f)$ and $\det(g)$ differ by a square

$$\det(f) = \lambda^2 \det(g) \,,$$

for some $\lambda \neq 0 \in \mathbb{R}^*$. How does λ arise from the equivalence of f to g?

ii) For $R = \mathbb{Z}$, conclude $\det(f) = \det(g)$, and explain why $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ -equivalent integral binary quadratic forms have the same discriminant.

Solution: Let B give the equivalence, then $mat(g) = B^{\top} mat(f)B$. Taking determinants gives

$$\det(g) = \det(B)^2 \det(f)$$

So $\lambda = \det(B)^{-1} \in R^*$.

Since $\mathbb{Z}^* = \{\pm 1\}$, we get $\lambda^2 = 1$, meaning equivalent integral forms have the same discriminant.

- Q7) Suppose f and g are $\operatorname{GL}_n(R)$ -equivalent quadratic forms. Show i) f represents $r \in R$ if and only if q represents $r \in R$.
 - ii) For $R = \mathbb{Z}$, f represents $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ properly, if and only if g represents $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ properly. Check also for $\mathrm{SL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ -equivalence. Use this to show that

$$x^{2} + 14y^{2}$$
, $2x^{2} + 7y^{2}$ and $3x^{2} + 2xy + 5y^{2}$

are not $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ -equivalent.

Solution: If $r = f(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$, and $g(\vec{x}) = f(B\vec{x})$, then $g(B^{-1}\vec{x}) = f(\vec{x})$. So we can write $g(B^{-1}(a_1, \ldots, a_n)^{\top}) = f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = r$, to see $(a'_1, \ldots, a'_n)^{\top} = B^{-1}(a_1, \ldots, a_n)^{\top}$ gives a representation of r by g.

By symmetry, we get f represents r if and only if g represents r.

This holds for $Bin \operatorname{GL}_n(R)$, and also for proper equivalence $B \in \operatorname{SL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$.

If $gcd(a_i) = 1$, then we cannot have $gcd(a'_i) > 1$. For if $gcd(a'_i) = d$, then $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)^\top = B^{-1}(a'_1, \ldots, a'_n)^\top$ and each entry is divisible by d, showing $gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \ge d$. So $f(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ is a proper representation of r implies $g(a'_1, \ldots, a'_n)$ is a proper representation of r.

Q8) Suppose f and g are integral n-ary quadratic forms. Then 2f and 2g are classically integral. Show that

f is $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ -equivalent to g if and only if 2f is $\operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ -equivalent to 2g.

Check also for $SL_n(\mathbb{Z})$ -equivalence.

Solution: Suppose f is equivalent to g via B. The matrix of 2f is given by $2 \operatorname{mat}(f)$. Then

$$g(\vec{x}) = x^{\top}Gx = x^{\top}B^{\top}GBx = x^{\top}Fx = f(B\vec{x})$$

if and only if

$$2g(\vec{x}) = x^{\top}(2G)x = x^{\top}B^{\top}(2G)Bxx^{\top}2(B^{\top}GB)x = x^{\top}2Fx = (2f)(B\vec{x}).$$

So 2f is equivalent to 2g via B. And conversely.

Q9) Suppose f, g, h are integral quadratic forms. Suppose f and g are improperly equivalent, and g and h are improperly equivalent. Show that f and h are properly equivalent.

Solution: Matrix *B* gives improper equivalence between *f* and *g*. Matrix *C* gives improper equivalence between *g* and *h*. Then $B, C \in \operatorname{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z})$ with $\det(B) = \det(C) = -1$.

The matrix CB gives equivalence between f and h, and $\det(CB) = \det(C) \det(B) = (-1)^2 = 1$. This is a proper equivalence between f and g.