

# Lecture 22: Binary Quadratic Forms II

## Basic Notions

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### 1 Introduction

A *binary quadratic form* is a homogeneous polynomial

$$ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y].$$

(There is a theory of quadratic forms in  $n$ -variables, but we will not study it in this course.) Chapter VI of Davenport's book is clear and well written. Read it.

**The Classic Problem:** Given a binary quadratic form  $f(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$ , what is the set of integers  $\{f(x, y) : x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ ?

That is, for which integers  $n$  are there integers  $x$  and  $y$  such that

$$ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 = n?$$

We gave a clean answer to this question in the last lecture in the case when  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ . The set of sums of two squares is the set of integers  $n$  such that any prime divisor  $p$  of  $n$  of the form  $4m + 3$  exactly divides  $n$  to an even power (along with 0). In your homework (Problem 5), you will give a simple answer to the question of which numbers are of the form  $x^2 + 2y^2$ . Is there a simple answer in general?

### 2 Equivalence

**Definition 2.1.** The modular group  $\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  is the group of all  $2 \times 2$  integer matrices with determinant  $+1$ .

If  $g = \begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  and  $f(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$  is a quadratic form, let

$$f|_g(x, y) = f(px + qy, rx + sy) = f\left(\begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ r & s \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right),$$

where for simplicity we will sometimes write  $f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right)$  for  $f(x, y)$ .

**Proposition 2.2.** *The above formula defines a right action of the group  $\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  on the set of binary quadratic forms, in the sense that*

$$f|_{gh} = (f|_g)|_h.$$

*Proof.*

$$f|_{gh}(x, y) = f\left(gh \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = f|_g\left(h \left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right)\right) = (f|_g)|_h(x, y).$$

□

**Proposition 2.3.** *Let  $g \in \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  and let  $f(x, y)$  be a binary quadratic form. The set of integers represented by  $f(x, y)$  is exactly the same as the set of integers represented by  $f|_g(x, y)$ .*

*Proof.* If  $f(x_0, y_0) = n$  then since  $g^{-1} \in \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ , we have  $g^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ , so

$$f|_g\left(g^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = f(x_0, y_0) = n.$$

Thus every integer represented by  $f$  is also represented by  $f|_g$ . Conversely, if  $f|_g(x_0, y_0) = n$ , then  $f\left(g \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ y_0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = n$ , so  $f$  represents  $n$ . □

Define an equivalence relation  $\sim$  on the set of all binary quadratic forms by declaring that  $f$  is equivalent to  $f'$  if there exists  $g \in \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  such that  $f|_g = f'$ .

For simplicity, we will sometimes denote the quadratic form  $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$  by  $(a, b, c)$ . Then, for example, since  $g = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ , we see that  $(a, b, c) \sim (c, -b, a)$ , since if  $f(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$ , then  $f(-y, x) = ay^2 - bxy + cx^2$ .

*Example 2.4.* Consider the binary quadratic form

$$f(x, y) = 458x^2 + 214xy + 25y^2.$$

Solving the representation problem for  $f$  might, at first glance, look hopeless. We find  $f(x, y)$  for a few values of  $x$  and  $y$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f(-1, -1) &= 17 \cdot 41 \\ f(-1, 0) &= 2 \cdot 229 \\ f(0, -1) &= 5^2 \\ f(1, 1) &= 269 \\ f(-1, 2) &= 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 13 \\ f(-1, 3) &= 41 \end{aligned}$$

Each number is a sum of two squares! Letting  $g = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ -17 & 13 \end{pmatrix}$ , we have

$$f|_g = 458(4x - 3y)^2 + 214(4x - 3y)(-17x + 13y) + 25(-17x + 13y)^2 = \cdots = x^2 + y^2!!$$

By Proposition 2.3,  $f$  represents an integer  $n$  if and only if  $n$  is a sum of two squares.

### 3 Discriminants

**Definition 3.1.** The *discriminant* of  $f(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$  is  $b^2 - 4ac$ .

*Example 3.2.*  $\text{disc}(x^2 + y^2) = -4$  and

$$\text{disc}(458, 214, 25) = 214^2 - 4 \cdot 25 \cdot 458 = -4.$$

That the discriminants are the same is a good hint that  $(1, 0, 1)$  and  $(458, 214, 25)$  are closely related. Inspecting discriminants is more effective than simply computing  $f(x, y)$  for many values of  $x$  and  $y$  and staring at the result.

**Proposition 3.3.** *If  $f \sim f'$ , then  $\text{disc}(f) = \text{disc}(f')$ .*

*Proof.* By tedious but elementary algebra (see page 133 of Davenport's book), one sees that if  $g \in \text{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ , then

$$\text{disc}(f|_g) = \text{disc}(f) \cdot (\det(g))^2 = \text{disc}(f).$$

Since  $f' = f|_g$  for some  $g \in \text{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$ , the proposition follows. □

**WARNING:** The converse of the proposition is false! Forms with the same discriminant need not be equivalent. For example, the forms  $(1, 0, 6)$  and  $(2, 0, 3)$  have discriminant  $-24$ , but are not equivalent. To see this, observe that  $(1, 0, 6)$  represents 1, but  $2x^2 + 3y^2$  does not represent 1.

**Proposition 3.4.** *The set of all discriminants of forms is exactly the set of integers  $d$  such that  $d \equiv 0$  or  $1 \pmod{4}$ .*

*Proof.* First note that  $b^2 - 4ac$  is a square modulo 4, so it must equal 0 or 1 modulo 4. Next suppose  $d$  is an integer such that  $d \equiv 0$  or  $1 \pmod{4}$ . If we set

$$c = \begin{cases} -d/4, & \text{if } d \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \\ -(d-1)/4 & \text{if } d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \end{cases}$$

then  $\text{disc}(1, 0, c) = d$  in the first case and  $\text{disc}(1, 1, c) = d$  in the second. □

**Definition 3.5.** The form  $(1, 0, -d/4)$  or  $(1, 1, -(d-1)/4)$  of discriminant  $d$  that appears in the proof of the previous proposition is called the *principal form* of discriminant  $d$ .

$d$	principal form
-4	$(1, 0, 1) \quad x^2 + y^2$
5	$(1, 1, -1) \quad x^2 + xy - y^2$
-7	$(1, 1, 2) \quad x^2 + xy + 2y^2$
8	$(1, 0, -2) \quad x^2 - 2y^2$
-23	$(1, 1, 6) \quad x^2 + xy + 6y^2$
389	$(1, 1, -97) \quad x^2 + xy - 97y^2$

## 4 Definite and Indefinite Forms

**Definition 4.1.** A quadratic form with negative discriminant is called *definite*. A form with positive discriminant is called *indefinite*.

Let  $(a, b, c)$  be a quadratic form. Multiply by  $4a$  and complete the square:

$$\begin{aligned}4a(ax^2 + bxy + cy^2) &= 4a^2x^2 + 4abxy + 4acy^2 \\ &= (2ax + by)^2 + (4ac - b^2)y^2\end{aligned}$$

If  $\text{disc}(a, b, c) < 0$  then  $4ac - b^2 = -\text{disc}(a, b, c) > 0$ , so  $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$  takes only positive or only negative values, depending on the sign of  $a$ . In this sense,  $(a, b, c)$  is very definite about its choice of sign. If  $\text{disc}(a, b, c) > 0$ , then  $(2ax + by)^2 + (4ac - b^2)y^2$  takes both positive and negative values, so  $(a, b, c)$  does also.

We will consider only definite forms in the next two lectures.

## 5 Real Life

The following text is from the documentation for binary quadratic forms in the MAGMA computer algebra system. A quick scan of the buzzwords emphasized (by me) below conveys an idea of where binary quadratic forms appear in mathematics.

A binary quadratic form is an integral form  $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$  which is represented in MAGMA by a tuple  $(a, b, c)$ . Binary quadratic forms play a central role in the *ideal theory of quadratic fields*, the classical theory of *complex multiplication*, and the theory of *modular forms*. Algorithms for binary quadratic forms provide efficient means of computing in the *ideal class group of orders in a quadratic field*. By using the explicit relation of definite quadratic forms with lattices with nontrivial endomorphism ring in the complex plane, one can apply *modular and elliptic functions* to forms, and exploit the analytic theory of complex multiplication.

The structures of quadratic forms of a given discriminant  $D$  correspond to ordered bases of ideals in an order in a *quadratic number field*, defined up to scaling by the rationals. A form is primitive if the coefficients  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are coprime. For negative discriminants the primitive reduced forms in this structure are in bijection with the *class group of projective or invertible ideals*. For positive discriminants, the reduced orbits of forms are used for this purpose. Magma holds efficient algorithms for composition, enumeration of reduced forms, *class group computations*, and *discrete logarithms*. A significant novel feature is the treatment of nonfundamental discriminants, corresponding to nonmaximal orders, and the collections of homomorphisms between different class groups coming from the inclusions of these orders.

The functionality for binary quadratic forms is rounded out with various functions for applying modular and elliptic functions to forms, and for *class polynomials* associated to *class groups* of definite forms.