An introduction to the Hasse principle
through examples

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Outline of the talk
(1) Motivation
(2) $p$-adic numbers
(3) The Hasse principle
(4) Elliptic curves
(3) Advanced topics
$3 a^{3}+4 u^{3}=\because$

tasse?

Let's study some equations

## $3 x+5 y=1$

## $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
3 x+5 y=1 & x, y \in \mathbb{Q} \\
(x, y)=\left(t, \frac{1-3 t}{5}\right) & t \in \mathbb{Q}
\end{array}
$$

$$
x^{2}+y^{2}=1 \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

Setting $x=t$ does not work because $y=\sqrt{1-t^{2}}$ may not be rational.

$$
x^{2}+y^{2}=1 \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

By using geometric arguments, we can prove that the solutions are either $(x, y)=(-1,0)$ or $(x, y)=\left(\frac{1-t^{2}}{1+t^{2}}, \frac{2 t}{1+t^{2}}\right)$ with $t \in \mathbb{Q}$

Let's study some equations

$$
x^{2}+y^{2}=0 \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

Let's study some equations

$$
\begin{gathered}
x^{2}+y^{2}=0 \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Q} \\
x=0, \quad y=0
\end{gathered}
$$

Let's study some equations

$$
x^{2}-3 y^{2}=2 \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

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$$

## No solutions!

Consider the equivalent equation $X^{2}-3 Y^{2}=2 Z^{2} \quad X, Y, Z \in \mathbb{Z} \backslash\{0\}$
$X^{2} \equiv 2 Z^{2}(\bmod 3)$ can only happen if $X \equiv Z \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$ because 2 is not a square modulo 3 .

This implies that $3|X, 3| Z$ and $3 \mid Y$. Contradiction!

OH! DIOPHANTINE
EQUATIONS ARE
SUPER EASY


## Conclusions of our little study

(1) Studying the solutions of Diophantine equations is (generally) hard.
(2) Finding the real solutions of a Diophantine equation can help us determine the existence (or not) of solutions.
(3) Considering the homogeneous equations modulo $n$ for appropriate $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we can sometimes determine if an equation does not have integer solutions.

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## $p$-adic absolute value

Fix a prime $p$. Let $x=p^{n} \frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$ non-zero, with $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a, b$ coprime to $p$. Then, the $\boldsymbol{p}$-adic absolute value of $x$ is defined to be

$$
|x|_{p}=p^{-n}
$$

## Examples

$$
|10|_{5}=\frac{1}{5} \quad\left|\frac{3}{4}\right|_{5}=1 \quad\left|\frac{1}{125}\right|_{5}=125
$$

## $p$-adic numbers

## $p$-adic numbers

The field of $\boldsymbol{p}$-adic numbers $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ is the completion of $\mathbb{Q}$ with respect to the absolute value $\left|\left.\right|_{p}\right.$.

- The completions of $\mathbb{Q}$ with respect to a valuation are known as local fields of the ring $\mathbb{Q}$. These are either $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ for some $p$ prime.
- The field $\mathbb{Q}$ is known as the global field of $\mathbb{R}$ and $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$.

What do local fields look like?

$\rightarrow$ Elegant
$\rightarrow$ Easy to think of
$\rightarrow$ Used by engineers

3-adic numbers

$\rightarrow$ Alien looking
$\rightarrow$ Mostly used in algebra and number theory

Real numbers

p-adic numbers
$\longleftrightarrow$ Hensel 's lemma
To solve $x \in \mathbb{Q}_{p} p$ with $p(x)=0$ $\longleftrightarrow$ we consider the limit of $x_{n}$ where $x_{n+1}=x_{n}-\frac{f\left(x_{n}\right)}{p^{\prime}\left(x_{n}\right)}$ for appropriate initial $x_{0}$.

## Application of Hensel's lemma

Let $b \in \mathbb{Z}, x^{2}=b$ has a solution $x \in \mathbb{R}$ iff $b \geq 0$. Let's see what happens in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$.

## Theorem

The equation $x^{2}=b$ has a solution $x \in \mathbb{Q}_{2}$ if and only if $b$ is of the form $b=2^{2 n} b_{0}$ with $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ and $b_{0} \equiv 1(\bmod 8)$.

For any odd prime $p$, the equation $x^{2}=b$ has a solution $x \in \mathbb{Q}_{p}$ if and only if $b$ is of the form $b=p^{2 n} b_{0}$ with $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ and $b_{0}$ a quadratic residue modulo $p$ (this means $b_{0} \equiv a_{0}^{2}$ $(\bmod p)$ for some $\left.a_{0}\right)$.

## Example of application of this theorem

$x^{2}=17$ for some $x \in \mathbb{Q}_{2}$, as $17 \equiv 1(\bmod 8)$.
$x^{2}=2$ for some $x \in \mathbb{Q}_{17}$, as $6^{2} \equiv 2(\bmod 17)$.

## Hasse Principle

No solution in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ for some $p$ or no solution in $\mathbb{R} \Rightarrow$ No solution in $\mathbb{Q}$.

## Hasse Principle (The converse statement)

If a system of polynomial equations with rational coefficients has a solution in $\mathbb{R}$ and in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ for every prime $p$, then it has a solution in $\mathbb{Q}$.

## Does this principle always hold?

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## Counterexample to the Hasse principle

Consider the equation $\left(x^{2}-2\right)\left(x^{2}-17\right)\left(x^{2}-34\right)=0$. It has

- Six real solutions $\{ \pm \sqrt{2}, \pm \sqrt{17}, \pm \sqrt{34}\}$.
- At least two 2-adic solutions (as $x^{2}-17=0$ for some $x \in \mathbb{Q}_{2}$ ).
- At least two 17 -adic solutions (as $x^{2}-2=0$ for some $x \in \mathbb{Q}_{17}$ ).
- At least two $p$-adic solutions for any other prime $p$ (because if 2 and 17 are not quadratic residues modulo $p$, then 34 is a quadratic residue and so, at least one of the equations

$$
x^{2}-2=0 \quad x^{2}-17=0 \quad x^{2}-34=0
$$

must have solutions in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ ).

- No rational solutions.


## Hasse principle for curves

Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a curve (smooth, projective, irreducible variety) over $\mathbb{Q}$.

## Theorem

Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a curve over $\mathbb{Q}$ of genus 0 . Then, it is $\mathbb{Q}$-birationally equivalent either to a line or to a conic section of the form $a X^{2}+b Y^{2}+c Z^{2}=0$, with $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Q}$.

## Theorem (Hasse-Minkowski)

Every curve of genus 0 satisfies the Hasse principle.

## Hasse principle for curves

For curves with genus $g>0$, the Hasse principle does not generally apply.

## Challenge

Finding counterexamples to the Hasse principle in curves.

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Lind and Reichart (1940)

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2 y^{2}=1-17 x^{4}
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Selmer (1951)

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3 x^{3}+4 y^{3}=5
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$$
y^{2}=x^{3}+17 x
$$

Selmer (1951)

$$
3 x^{3}+4 y^{3}=5
$$

$$
\uparrow
$$

$$
y^{2}=x^{3}-2^{8} 3^{5} 5^{2}
$$

## A crash course on elliptic curves

## Elliptic curve

An elliptic curve $\mathcal{E}$ is a non-singular curve of genus 1 with a rational point. We denote by $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})$ its set of rational points.

An elliptic curve can always be transformed into a curve that in affine coordinates has equation

$$
y^{2}=x^{3}+A x+B
$$

$$
\text { with } A, B \in \mathbb{Q}
$$

# We can "sum" points in an elliptic curve and $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})$ is a group with respect to this operation 



## Some relevant concepts in elliptic curves

## Multiplication-by-m isogeny

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[m]: \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) } & \longrightarrow \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) \\
P & \longmapsto \underbrace{P+\cdots+P}_{m \text { terms }}
\end{aligned}
$$

m-torsion subgroup

$$
\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})[m]=\{P \in \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}):[m] P=\underline{o}\} .
$$

We will denote by $\mathcal{E}_{\text {tors }}(\mathbb{Q})$ the points of finite order in $\mathcal{E}$, i.e.,

$$
\mathcal{E}_{\text {tors }}(\mathbb{Q})=\bigcup_{m=2}^{\infty} \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})[m] .
$$

## Example of torsion points



## Theorem (Mordell-Weil)

Let $\mathcal{E}$ be an elliptic curve. Then, the group $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})$ is finitely generated and so

$$
\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathcal{E}_{\text {tors }}(\mathbb{Q}) \times \mathbb{Z}^{r}
$$

where $\mathcal{E}_{\text {tors }}(\mathbb{Q})$ is finite, and $r$ is called the rank of $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})$.
Computing the rank of an elliptic curve is generally hard and there are many questions that we don't know about it. For instance,

Unsolved problem

## Galois cohomology of an elliptic curve

## DON'T WANT TO OPEN THIS!



That sequence can be extended [Har20. Theorem 1.17] to a sequence between cohomology groups


Furthermore, from this sequence we can deduce the fundamental exact short sequence
$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{E}^{\prime}(K) / \phi(\mathcal{E}(K)) \stackrel{\delta}{\longrightarrow} H^{1}\left(G_{\bar{K} / K}, \mathcal{E}(\bar{K})[\phi]\right) \longrightarrow H^{2}\left(G_{\bar{K} / K}, \mathcal{E}(\bar{K})\right)[\phi] \longrightarrow 0$

# Graduate Texts in Mathematics 

Joseph H. Silverman
The Arithmetic of Elliptic Curves

2nd Edition

## Computing the rank

To find the rank of an elliptic curve, we can study the group $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) / 2 \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})$, as

$$
\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) / 2 \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})[2] \times(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{r}
$$

By the theory of Galois cohomology we get a short exact sequence
$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) / 2 \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) \longrightarrow H^{1}(\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})[2]) \xrightarrow{\psi} W C(\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}))[2] \longrightarrow 0$

- $H^{1}(\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})[2])$ is a finite subgroup of $\mathbb{Q}^{\times} /\left(\mathbb{Q}^{\times}\right)^{2} \times \mathbb{Q}^{\times} /\left(\mathbb{Q}^{\times}\right)^{2}$.
- $W C(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})[2]$ is a group whose elements are homogeneous spaces.
- $\operatorname{ker}(\psi) \cong \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) / 2 \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})$ are the elements of $H^{1}(\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})[2])$ whose images homogeneous spaces do not have rational points.


## What does this have to do with the Hasse principle?

We can study "Galois cohomology with respect to local fields" to get

$$
0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) / 2 \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Sel}^{(2)}(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q}) \longrightarrow \amalg
$$

where

- $\operatorname{Sel}^{(2)}(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})$ is the 2-Selmer group, which is the subgroup of all elements of $H^{1}(\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})[2])$ whose images homogeneous spaces have points in $\mathbb{R}$ and in $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$ for every $p$.
- $\amalg(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})$ is the Tate-Shaferevich group, which is a group that measures to what extent all possible homogeneous spaces associated to $\mathcal{E}$ satisfy the Hasse principle.


If we are able to prove that $\amalg(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})$ is non-trivial (for instance, by proving that $Ш(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})[2]$ is non-trivial), then some of the homogeneous spaces of $\mathcal{E}$ are counterexamples of the Hasse principle.

In fact, $2 y^{2}=1-17 x^{4}$ is a counterexample of the Hasse principle, because it is a homogeneous space associated to the curve $\mathcal{E}: y^{2}=x^{3}+17 x$, which has $Ш(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})[2] \cong(\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z})^{2}$.

## The Tate-Shaferevich group is mysterious

## Conjecture

The Tate-Shaferevich group is finite.
If this conjecture is true, then the order of $\amalg(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})$ is a square and so is the order of any of the $p$-primary components of $\amalg(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})$.

From

$$
0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) / 2 \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) \longrightarrow \operatorname{Sel}^{(2)}(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q}) \longrightarrow \amalg
$$

we deduce that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}} \amalg(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})[2] & =\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Sel}^{(2)}(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})-\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}} \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) / 2 \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q}) \\
& =\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}} \operatorname{Sel}^{(2)}(\mathcal{E} / \mathbb{Q})-\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z} / 2 \mathbb{Z}} \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})[2]-\operatorname{rank}_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{Q})
\end{aligned}
$$

## Why are we interested in the Hasse principle?

Conjecture (Birch and Swinnerton-Dyer). The Taylor expansion of $L(C, s)$ at $s=1$ has the form

$$
L(C, s)=c(s-1)^{r}+\text { higher order terms }
$$


with $c \neq 0$ and $r=\operatorname{rank}(C(\mathbb{Q}))$.
In particular this conjecture asserts that $L(C, 1)=0 \Leftrightarrow C(\mathbb{Q})$ is infinite.
Remarks. 1. There is a refined version of this conjecture. In this version one has to define Euler factors at primes $p \mid 2 \Delta$ to obtain the completed $L$-series, $L^{*}(C, s)$. The conjecture then predicts that $L^{*}(C, s) \sim c^{*}(s-1)^{r}$ with

$$
c^{*}=\left|\amalg_{C}\right| R_{\infty} w_{\infty} \prod_{p \mid 2 \Delta} w_{p} /\left|C(\mathbb{Q})^{\text {tors }}\right|^{2} .
$$

Here $\left|Ш_{C}\right|$ is the order of the Tate-Shafarevich group of the elliptic curve $C$.

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Thank you!

