Solvability of p-adic diagonal equations

by

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1. Introduction. Let p be a prime, let \mathbb{Q}_p denote the p-adic numbers, and let K be a finite extension of \mathbb{Q}_p . One of the fundamental questions in the study of diophantine equations asks: when does an equation of the form

(1)
$$a_1 x_1^k + \ldots + a_s x_s^k = 0, \quad a_i \in K, \ k \ge 2,$$

have a non-trivial solution over K? (By "non-trivial solution" we mean a non-zero vector $\mathbf{x}=(x_1,\ldots,x_s)\in K^s$ satisfying (1).) When $K=\mathbb{Q}_p$, it is well known that it suffices to have $s\geq k^2+1$. More generally, suppose $k=p^tm$, (m,p)=1, f is the residue class degree of K, and $d=(m,p^f-1)$. Birch [B] has shown that for any K, it suffices to have $s\geq (2t+3)^k(d^2k)^{k-1}$. It is the purpose of this note to improve the result of Birch, by essentially reducing the exponent k to $\log k$. Specifically, we prove the following theorem.

THEOREM. If $s \ge k((k+1)^{\max(2t,1)}-1)+1$, then any equation of the form (1) has a non-trivial solution over K. In particular, if (k,p)=1, then it suffices to have $s \ge k^2+1$.

If K is unramified over \mathbb{Q}_p , then it is possible to replace the 2t of the Theorem with a constant. A proof of such a result is indicated in [D]. It is also possible to generalize the results of Schmidt [S] for simultaneous additive equations, at least in the case (k, p) = 1. However, in order to keep our exposition as elementary as possible, we do not treat either of these problems in this paper.

2. Notation and preliminaries. In what follows, \mathfrak{O} is the ring of integers of K, $\mathfrak{p} = (\pi)$ is the maximal ideal of \mathfrak{O} , f is the residue class degree of K, e is the ramification index of p, and t and m are integers such that $k = p^t m$, with (m, p) = 1. Also, L is the maximal unramified subfield

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of K, and \mathfrak{o} is the ring of integers of L. Recall that $\{1, \pi, \dots, \pi^{e-1}\}$ is an \mathfrak{o} -basis of \mathfrak{O} .

Clearly, we lose no generality by assuming that $a_i \in \mathfrak{O}$ for all i, so henceforth we shall do so.

We write $\Gamma(k)$ for the least positive integer such that if $s \geq \Gamma(k)$, then any equation of the form (1) is solvable non-trivially over K. We use $\Gamma_1(k)$ to denote the similar function for those equations of the form (1) with the additional restriction that $a_i \not\equiv 0 \mod \pi$ for all i.

We write that \mathbf{x} is a "non-trivial solution mod π^n " if $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_s) \in \mathfrak{D}^s$ is a solution of (1) modulo π^n and if $x_j \not\equiv 0 \mod \pi$ for some j. We let $\Phi(k,n)$ denote the least positive integer such that if $s \geq \Phi(k,n)$, then any equation of the form (1) has a non-trivial solution mod π^n .

Our first lemma reduces the proof of the Theorem to showing that $\Phi(k,e) \leq k+1$.

LEMMA 1. (i) $\Gamma(k) \le k(\Gamma_1(k) - 1) + 1$.

- (ii) $\Gamma_1(k) \leq \Phi(k, \max(2et, 1))$.
- (iii) $\Phi(k, (r+1)e) \le \Phi(k, e)\Phi(k, re) \le \Phi(k, e)^{r+1}$.
- (iv) If $\Phi(k, e) \leq (k+1)$, then

$$\Gamma(k) \le k((k+1)^{\max(2t,1)} - 1) + 1.$$

Proof. (i) Write $a_i = \pi^{r_i k + c_i} b_i$ with $r_i \ge 0$, $0 \le c_i < k$ and $(b_i, \pi) = 1$. If s > k(c-1), then by the Box Principle at least c of the c_i 's are the same. We may assume the corresponding i's to be $i = 1, \ldots, c$. Thus it suffices to find a non-trivial solution of the equation

(2)
$$b_1 x_1^k + b_2 x_2^k + \ldots + b_c x_c^k = 0, \quad (b_i, \pi) = 1.$$

That such a solution exists if $c \geq \Gamma_1(k)$ is a consequence of the definition of $\Gamma_1(k)$.

(ii) Assume $a_1 \not\equiv 0 \mod \pi$ for all i. Put $r = \max(1, 2te)$. If $s \geq \Phi(k, r)$, then by the definition of $\Phi(k, r)$, there exists a non-trivial solution of (1) $\mod \pi^r$. Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_s)$ be such a solution. We may assume that $x_1 \not\equiv 0$ $\mod \pi$. Choose $y_2, \dots, y_s \in \mathfrak{o}$ such that $y_i \equiv x_i \mod \pi^r$. Let $d = \sum_{i=2}^s a_i y_i^k$. Since $a_1 x_1^k + d \equiv 0 \mod \pi^r$, it follows from Hensel's Lemma [La, II, Prop. 2] that we can find $y_1 \in \mathfrak{o}$ such that $y_1 \equiv x_1 \mod \pi^r$ and $a_1 y_1^k + d = 0$. Thus $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_c)$ is a non-trivial solution of (1).

(iii) Let $h = \Phi(k, re)$, $l = \Phi(k, e)$ and let

$$F_j(\mathbf{x}_j) = a_{jh+1}x_{jh+1}^k + \dots + a_{(j+1)h}x_{(j+1)h}^k, \quad j = 0, \dots, l-1.$$

Then (1) becomes

$$F_0(\mathbf{x}_0) + F_1(\mathbf{x}_1) + \ldots + F_{l-1}(\mathbf{x}_{l-1}) + \sum_{i=lh+1}^s a_i x_i^k = 0.$$

Thus, it suffices to find a non-trivial solution of

(3)
$$F_0(\mathbf{x}_0) + \ldots + F_{l-1}(\mathbf{x}_{l-1}) \equiv 0 \bmod \pi^{(r+1)e}.$$

By definition of $\Phi(k, re)$ there exist non-trivial solutions \mathbf{y}_j of the l equations

$$F_j(\mathbf{x}_j) \equiv 0 \mod \pi^{re}, \quad j = 0, \dots, l - 1.$$

Let $f_j = F_j(\mathbf{y}_j)$. Substituting $\mathbf{x}_j = t_j \mathbf{y}_j$ in (3) we get the new equation

(4)
$$f_0 t_0^k + \ldots + f_{l-1} t_{l-1}^k \equiv 0 \mod \pi^{(r+1)e}, \quad f_j \equiv 0 \mod \pi^{re}.$$

From the definition of $\Phi(k, e) = l$, (4) has a non-trivial solution $\mathbf{t} = (t_0, \dots, t_{\Phi(k, e)-1})$. Thus, $\mathbf{y} = (t_0 \mathbf{y}_0, \dots, t_{\Phi(k, e)-1} \mathbf{y}_{\Phi(k, e)-1}, 0, \dots, 0) \in \mathfrak{o}^s$ is a non-trivial solution of (1) modulo $\pi^{(r+1)e}$.

- (iv) This follows upon combining parts (i)–(iii). ■
- 3. Some results about linear systems. Before we can prove that $\Phi(k,e) \leq k+1$, we need some facts about linear systems of a particular type.

In this section, F is an arbitrary field, and for any non-negative integers a and b, $\mathbf{M}_{a,b}(F)$ is the ring of matrices over F of size $a \times b$.

Let c, r, and n be positive integers, and let

(5a)
$$A_{ij} \in \mathbf{M}_{r_i,n}(F), \quad i = 1, \dots, c, \ j = 1, \dots, i, \ r_i \le r,$$

be arbitrary matrices. We allow "empty" matrices (i.e. $r_i = 0$). Consider the block matrix

(5b)
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ A_{c1} & \dots & & A_{cc} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Definition. We say that any matrix A of the form (5a,b) is (c,r,n)-good if

- 1. for each i, the non-zero row vectors of A_{ii} are linearly independent over F, and
- 2. for each q, the qth row of $(A_{i1} \ A_{i2} \ \dots \ A_{ii})$ is non-zero iff the qth row of A_{ii} is non-zero.

Note that both conditions are trivially satisfied by matrices with $r_i = 0$. The following lemma partially motivates our use of the adjective "good."

LEMMA 2. Suppose A is (c,r,n)-good with n > r, and suppose $\mathbf{X} = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is a non-zero solution of the linear system

$$A_{11}X = 0.$$

(For A_{11} empty, any **X** is a solution.) Then the linear system

$$A\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{0}$$

has a solution $\mathbf{Y} = (y_1, \dots, y_{cn})$ such that $y_i = x_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Proof. We will proceed by induction on c. The claim is trivially true for c = 1. Suppose c > 1. Write

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} B_1 & 0 \\ B_2 & A_{cc} \end{pmatrix}.$$

 B_1 is (c-1,r,n)-good, so by hypothesis there exists a solution $\mathbf{Y}_1 = (y_1,\ldots,y_{(c-1)n})$ of the linear system

$$B_1 \mathbf{Y}_1 = \mathbf{0}$$

such that $y_1 = x_1$ for i = 1, ..., n. Let $\mathbf{D} = B_2 \mathbf{Y}_1$. It follows from Part 2 of the definition of a good matrix that the qth entry of \mathbf{D} is zero if the qth row of A_{cc} is zero. By Part 1 of the definition of a good matrix, the non-zero rows of A_{cc} are linearly independent. Thus, since $n > r \ge \operatorname{rank}(A_{cc})$ the linear system

$$A_{cc}\mathbf{Y}_2 = -\mathbf{D}$$

has a solution in F. It follows that $\mathbf{Y} = (\mathbf{Y}_1, \mathbf{Y}_2)$ is the desired solution to (6). \blacksquare

Next, we consider a slightly more general system, though still of a very special type. Again, let c, r, n be positive integers. Let

(7a)
$$M_{i,j} \in \mathbf{M}_{r_j,n}(F)$$
, $i = 1, \dots, c, \ j = 1, \dots, c - i + 1, \ \sum_{j=1}^{c} r_j \le r$.

We allow empty matrices (i.e. $r_i = 0$). Consider the block matrix

(7b)
$$M = \begin{pmatrix} M_{1,1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ M_{1,2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ M_{1,c} & 0 & & \dots & 0 \\ M_{2,1} & M_{1,1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ M_{2,c-1} & M_{1,c-1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ M_{c,1} & M_{c-1,1} & M_{c-2,1} & \dots & M_{11} \end{pmatrix}.$$

LEMMA 3. If M is any matrix of the form (7a,b), then there exists an invertible matrix P such that M' = PM is (c, r, n)-good.

Proof. We will proceed again by induction on c. There is an invertible Q such that $QM_{1,1}=\binom{N_{1,1}}{0}$, where the rows of $N_{1,1}$ are non-zero and linearly independent. Suppose that $N_{1,1}$ has ν rows, so that $QM_{1,1}$ has $r_1-\nu$ zero rows. For every $k=1,\ldots,c$,

(8)
$$Q(M_{k,1} M_{k-1,1} \dots M_{1,1}) = \begin{pmatrix} N_{k,1} & \dots & N_{2,1} & N_{1,1} \\ N_{k,1}^* & \dots & N_{2,1}^* & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, there exists an invertible matrix P_1 such that

$$P_{1}M = \begin{pmatrix} N_{1,1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ N_{2,1}^{*} & & & & \\ M_{1,2} & & & & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ M_{1,c} & 0 & & \dots & 0 \\ N_{2,1} & N_{1,1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ N_{3,1} & N_{2,1}^{*} & & & & \\ M_{2,2} & M_{1,2} & & & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ M_{2,c-1} & M_{1,c-1} & 0 & & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ N_{c,1} & N_{c-1,1} & N_{c-2,1} & \dots & N_{1,1} \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

where there are $r_1 - \nu$ rows of zeros at the bottom. Put

$$R_{i,1} = \begin{pmatrix} N_{i,1} \\ N_{i+1,1}^* \\ M_{i,2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad i = 1, \dots, c-1,$$

$$R_{i,j} = M_{i,j+1}, \quad i = 1, \dots, c-1, \quad j = 2, \dots, c-i$$

Let $v_j = \text{(number of rows of } R_{i,j}\text{)}$. Then by (8) and the definition of M, we see that

(10)
$$\sum_{j=1}^{c-1} v_j = \sum_{j=1}^{c} r_j \le r.$$

Put

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} R_{1,1} & 0 & & \dots & 0 \\ R_{1,2} & 0 & & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \vdots \\ R_{1,c-1} & 0 & & \dots & 0 \\ R_{2,1} & R_{1,1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ R_{2,c-2} & R_{1,c-2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ R_{c-1,1} & R_{c-2,1} & R_{c-3,1} & \dots & R_{11} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then

$$P_1 M = \begin{pmatrix} R & 0 \\ * & N_{1,1} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

From (10) it follows that R is of the form (7a,b) with c replaced by c-1. By the induction hypothesis, there exists an invertible P_2 such that P_2R is (c-1,r,n)-good. Then

$$\begin{pmatrix} P_2 & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} P_1 M = \begin{pmatrix} P_2 R & 0 \\ * & N_{1,1} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

This is clearly (c, r, n)-good, and we have found the desired P.

4. Proof of the Theorem. By Lemma 1, we need only show that any equation of the form

(11)
$$a_1 x_1^k + \ldots + a_s x_s^k \equiv 0 \mod \pi^e, \quad a_i \in \mathfrak{O},$$

has a non-trivial solution mod π^e , provided $s \geq k + 1$.

For any $x \in \mathfrak{O}$ we have

$$x = x_0 + x_1 \pi + \ldots + x_{e-1} \pi^{e-1}, \quad x_i \in \mathfrak{o}.$$

Put $c = [e/p^t]$. Then

$$x^{p^t} \equiv x_0^{p^t} + x_1^{p^t} \pi^{p^t} + \dots + x_c^{p^t} \pi^{cp^t} \mod \pi^e.$$

Write

$$a_i = \sum_{j=0}^{e-1} a_{i,j} \pi^j, \quad x_i = \sum_{j=0}^{e-1} x_{i,j} \pi^j.$$

By the above comments, to solve (11) for $k = p^t$ it is sufficient to solve the

system

$$\sum_{i=1}^{s} a_{i,0} x_{i,0}^{p^{t}} \equiv 0 \mod p,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{s} a_{i,p^{t}-1} x_{i,0}^{p^{t}} \equiv 0 \mod p,$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{s} a_{i,p^{t}} x_{i,0}^{p^{t}} + \sum_{i=1}^{s} a_{i,0} x_{i,1}^{p^{t}} \equiv 0 \mod p,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{s} a_{i,2p^{t}-1} x_{i,0}^{p^{t}} + \sum_{i=1}^{s} a_{i,p^{t}-1} x_{i,1}^{p^{t}} \equiv 0 \mod p,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{s} a_{i,(c+1)p^{t}-1} x_{i,0}^{p^{t}} + \sum_{i=1}^{s} a_{i,cp^{t}-1} x_{i,1}^{p^{t}} + \dots + \sum_{i=1}^{s} a_{i,p^{t}-1} x_{i,c}^{p^{t}} \equiv 0 \mod p,$$

over \mathfrak{o} . Here $a_{i,j} = 0$ if $j \geq e$.

LEMMA 4. If $s \ge k+1$, then any system of the form (12) has a non-trivial solution such that

- (i) $x_{i,0} \not\equiv 0 \bmod p$ for some j.
- (ii) $x_{i,0}$ is an m-th power mod p for all j.

Proof. Since p is unramified in L, $L(p) = \mathfrak{o}/(p)$ is a finite field of characteristic p. Thus, $x \mapsto x^{p^t}$ is an automorphism of L(p). Therefore, to solve (12) it suffices to solve the associated linear system (i.e. replace $x_{i,j}^{p^t}$ with $y_{i,j}$) over the field L(p). We wish to find a solution such that $y_{i,0}$ is an mth power for $i = 1, \ldots, s$.

Observe that the matrix of coefficients of (12) is in the form of (7a,b), with c replaced by c+1, $r=p^t$, and n=s. By Lemma 3, (12) is equivalent via elementary row operations to a system whose coefficient matrix is $(c+1, p^t, s)$ -good. Suppose this new matrix is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ B_{21} & B_{22} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ * & * & * & * & * \end{pmatrix}, \quad B_{ij} \in \mathbf{M}_{r_i,s}(L(p)), \ r_i \leq p^t.$$

By the Thereom of Chevalley-Warning [Se, I, Thm. 3], if $s > p^t m = k$, then the system $B_{11}\mathbf{Y}_1 = \mathbf{0}$ has a non-trivial solution over L(p), say $\mathbf{Y}_1 = (y_1, \ldots, y_s)$, such that each y_i is an mth power. By Lemma 2 this can be extended to a solution \mathbf{Y} of the linear system associated with (12). By the remarks in the first paragraph of this proof, \mathbf{Y} corresponds to a solution of (12).

The proof of the Theorem now follows upon combining Lemma 1 with the following lemma.

LEMMA 5. For any k, an equation of the form (11) has a non-trivial solution mod π^e provided $s \ge k + 1$. Therefore, $\Phi(k, e) \le k + 1$.

Proof. By the previous lemma and the comments preceding it, we can find x_1, \ldots, x_s , not all zero modulo π , such that

$$a_1 x_1^{p^t} + \ldots + a_s x_s^{p^t} \equiv 0 \bmod \pi^e,$$

and

$$x_i \equiv y_i^m \mod \pi, \quad i = 1, \dots, s.$$

Since (m,p)=1, it follows from Hensel's Lemma that for each i we can find $z_i \in \mathfrak{O}$ such that $z_i^m \equiv x_i \mod \pi^e$. Thus $\mathbf{z}=(z_1,\ldots,z_s)$ is the desired solution of (11).

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