# The Number of Rational Points on Elliptic Curves $y^{2}=x^{3}+a^{3}$ on Finite Fields 

Musa Demirci, Nazlı Yıldız İkikardeş, Gökhan Soydan, İsmail Naci Cangül


#### Abstract

In this work, we consider the rational points on elliptic curves over finite fields $\mathbf{F}_{p}$. We give results concerning the number of points $\mathrm{N}_{p, a}$ on the elliptic curve $y^{2} \equiv x^{3}+a^{3}(\bmod p)$ according to whether a and x are quadratic residues or non-residues. We use two lemmas to prove the main results first of which gives the list of primes for which -1 is a quadratic residue, and the second is a result from [1]. We get the results in the case where $p$ is a prime congruent to 5 modulo 6 , while when p is a prime congruent to 1 modulo 6 , there seems to be no regularity for $\mathrm{N}_{p, a}$.


Keywords-Elliptic curves over finite fields, rational points, quadratic residue.

## I. Introduction

Let $\mathbf{F}$ be a field of characteristic greater than 3 . The study of rational points on elliptic curves

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{2}=x^{3}+A x+B \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

over $\mathbf{F}_{p}$ is very interesting and many mathematicians starting with Gauss have studied them, see ([9],p.68,[12],p.2). In this paper, a special class of these curves, called Bachet elliptic curves, is studied. These are given with the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{2}=x^{3}+a^{3} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a$ is an element in the field. We fix the number $a$ and let $x$ vary on $Q_{p}$ or $Q_{p}^{\prime}$, where these denote the sets of quadratic residues and non-residues, respectively.

In [6], starting with a conjecture from 1952 of Dénes which is a variant of Fermat-Wiles theorem, Merel illustrates the way in which Frey elliptic curves have been used by Taylor, Ribet, Wiles and the others in the proof of FermatWiles theorem. Serre, in [7], gave a lower bound for the Galois representations on elliptic curves over the field $Q$ of rational points. In the case of a Frey curve, the conductor N of the curve is given by the help of the constants in the $a b c$ conjecture. In [5], Ono recalls a result of Euler, known as Euler's concordant forms problem, about the classification of those pairs of distinct non-zero integers $M$ and $N$ for which there are integer solutions $(x, y, t, z)$ with $x y \neq 0$ to $x^{2}+M y^{2}=t^{2}$ and $x^{2}+N y^{2}=z^{2}$. When $M=-N$, this becomes the congruent number problem, and when $M=2 N$, by replacing $x$ by $x-N$ in $E(2 N, N)$, a special form of

Musa Demirci, Gokhan Soydan and Ismail Naci Cangul are with the Uludag University, Department of Mathematics, Faculty of Science, BursaTURKEY, emails: mdemirci@uludag.edu.tr, gsoydan@uludag.edu.tr, cangul@uludag.edu.tr. Nazli Yildiz İkikardes is with the Balikesir University, Department of Mathematics, Faculty of Science, Balkesir-TURKEY. email: nyildiz@balikesir.edu.tr. This work was supported by the research fund of Uludag University project no: F-2004/40 and F-2003/63.
the Frey elliptic curves is obtained as $y^{2}=x^{3}-N^{2} x$. Using Tunnell's conditional solution to the congruent number problem using elliptic curves and modular forms, Ono studied the elliptic curve $y^{2}=x^{3}+(M+N) x^{2}+M N x$ denoted by $E_{Q}(M, N)$ over $Q$. He classified all the cases and hence reduced Euler's problem to a question of ranks. In [3], Parshin obtaines an inequality to give an effective bound for the height of rational points on a curve. In [4], the problem of boundedness of torsion for elliptic curves over quadratic fields is settled.

If $F$ is a field, then an elliptic curve over $F$ has, after a change of variables, a form

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

where $A$ and $B \in F$ with $4 A^{3}+27 B^{2} \neq 0$ in $F$. Here $D=$ $-16\left(4 A^{3}+27 B^{2}\right)$ is called the discriminant of the curve. Elliptic curves are studied over finite and infinite fields. Here we take $F$ to be a finite prime field $F_{p}$ with characteristic $p>3$. Then $A, B \in F_{p}$ and the set of points $(x, y) \in F_{p} \times F_{p}$, together with a point $o$ at infinity is called the set of $F_{p}-$ rational points of $E$ on $F_{p}$ and is denoted by $E\left(F_{p}\right) . N_{p}$ denotes the number of rational points on this curve. It must be finite.

In fact one expects to have at most $2 p+1$ points (together with $o$ )(for every $x$, there exist a maximum of $2 y^{\prime}$ s). But not all elements of $F_{p}$ have square roots. In fact only half of the elements of $F_{p}$ have a square root. Therefore the expected number is about $p+1$.

Here we shall deal with Bachet elliptic curves $y^{2}=x^{3}+a^{3}$ modulo $p$. Some results on these curves have been given in [8], and [11].

A historical problem leading to Bachet elliptic curves is that how one can write an integer as a difference of a square and a cube. In another words, for a given fixed integer $c$, search for the solutions of the Diophantine equation $y^{2}-x^{3}=c$. This equation is widely called as Bachet or Mordell equation. This is because L. J. Mordell, in twentieth century, made a lot of advances regarding this and some other similar equations. The existance of duplication formula makes this curve interesting. This formula was found in 1621 by Bachet. When $(x, y)$ is a solution to this equation where $x, y \in Q$, it is easy to show that $\left(\frac{x^{4}-8 c x}{4 y^{2}}, \frac{-x^{6}-20 c x^{3}+8 c^{2}}{8 y^{3}}\right)$ is also a solution for the same equation. Furthermore, if $(x, y)$ is a solution such that $x y \neq 0$ and $c \neq 1,-432$, then this leads to infinitely many solutions, which could not proven by Bachet. Hence if an integer can be stated as the difference of a cube and a square, this could be done in infinitely many ways. For example if
we start by a solution $(3,5)$ to $y^{2}-x^{3}=-2$, by applying duplication formula, we get a series of rational solutions $(3,5), \quad\left(\frac{129}{10^{2}}, \frac{-383}{10^{3}}\right), \quad\left(\frac{2340922881}{7660^{2}}, \frac{113259286337292}{7660^{3}}\right), \quad . .$. Let $N_{p, a}$ denote the number of rational points on (2) modulo p. When $p \equiv 1(\bmod 6)$, there is no rule for $N_{p, a}$. In this paper, we calculate $N_{p, a}$ when $p \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$. First we have
Lemma 1.1: If $p \equiv 5(\bmod 12)$, then $-1 \in Q_{p}$, and if $p \equiv 11(\bmod 12)$, then $-1 \in Q_{p}^{\prime}$.
II. Calculating $N_{p, a}$ when $p \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$ IS prime.

Theorem 2.1: Let $p \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$ be prime and $a \in Q_{p}$ be fixed. Then for $x \in Q_{p}$

$$
N_{p, a}=\frac{p-3}{2} .
$$

Proof: When $x \in Q_{p}$, it is well-known that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& N_{p, a}=\sum_{x \in Q_{p}}\left(1+\chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right)\right) \\
& =\sum_{x \in Q_{p}} 1+\sum_{x \in Q_{p}} \chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right) \\
& =\frac{p-1}{2}+\sum_{x \in Q_{p}} \chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right) \\
& =\frac{p-1}{2}+\sum_{x \in Q_{p}} \chi\left(a^{3} x^{3}+a^{3}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

as the set of $a^{3} x^{3}$ 's is the same as the set of $x^{3}$ 's when $p \equiv 2$ (mod 3). Hence using the multiplicativity of $\chi$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
N_{p, a} & =\frac{p-1}{2}+\chi\left(a^{3}\right) \cdot \sum_{x \in Q_{p}} \chi\left(x^{3}+1\right) \\
& =\frac{p-1}{2}+\sum_{x \in Q_{p}} \chi\left(x^{3}+1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

as $\chi\left(a^{3}\right)=\chi(a)=1$ for $a \in Q_{p}$. Then we only need to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x \in Q_{p}} \chi\left(x^{3}+1\right)=-1 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that, as $x \in Q_{p}, x$ takes $\frac{p-1}{2}$ values between 1 and $p-1$. Therefore we can write (3) as

$$
\sum_{x \in Q_{p}}^{p-1} \chi\left(x^{3}+1\right)=-1
$$

For $x=p-1, \chi\left((p-1)^{3}+1\right)=0$. Then (3) becomes

$$
\sum_{x \in Q_{p}}^{p-2} \chi\left(x^{3}+1\right)=-1
$$

First, let $p \equiv 5(\bmod 12)$. Then as we can think of $p$ as $p \equiv 2$ $(\bmod 3)$, all elemets of $\mathbf{F}_{p}$ are cubic residues. Therefore the set consisting of the values of $x^{3}$ is the same with the set of values of $x$. Therefore the last eqnarray becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x \in Q_{p}}^{p-2} \chi(x+1)=-1 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall that the number of consecutive pairs of quadratic residues in $\mathbf{F}_{p}$ is given by the formula

$$
n_{p}=\frac{1}{4}\left(p-4-(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}}\right)
$$

see ([1], p.128).
There are two cases to consider.
A) Let $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$. Then by the Chinese reminder theorem we know that $p \equiv 5(\bmod 12)$. Here, $-1 \in Q_{p}$ by lemma 1. Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{p}=\frac{p-5}{4} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

By lemma 1 , there are $\frac{p-1}{2}-1=\frac{p-3}{2}$ values of $x$ between 1 and $p-2$ lying in $Q_{p}$. By (5), $\frac{p-5}{4}$ of the values of $x+1$ are also in $Q_{p}$. Finally, in (4), there are $\frac{p-5}{4}$ times +1 and $\frac{p-3}{2}-\frac{p-5}{4}=\frac{p-1}{4}$ times -1 , implying the result.
B) Let $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. Then $-1 \in Q_{p}^{\prime}$ and by the Chinese reminder theorem we have $p \equiv 11(\bmod 12)$. Similarly to A), we deduce

$$
n_{p}=\frac{p-3}{4}
$$

By lemma 1 , there are $\frac{p-1}{2}-0=\frac{p-1}{2}$ values of $x$ between 1 and $p-2$ lying in $Q_{p}$, as $p-1 \in Q_{p}^{\prime}$. For such values of $x$, there are $\frac{p-3}{4}$ values of $x+1$ also in $Q_{p}$. Therefore in (4), there are $\frac{p-3^{4}}{4}$ times +1 and $\frac{p-1}{2}-\frac{p-3}{4}=\frac{p+1}{4}$ times -1 , implying the result.

We already have shown that the number $N_{p, a}$ is $\frac{p-3}{2}$ when $a$ and $x$ belong to $Q_{p}$. Authors, in [11], showed that, excluding the point at infinity, the total number of rational points on (2) is $p$. Therefore we can easily deduce the following:

Theorem 2.2: Let $p \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$ be prime and $a \in Q_{p}$ be fixed. Then for $x \in Q_{p}^{\prime}$

$$
N_{p, a}=\frac{p+3}{2}
$$

Proof: Immediately follows from Theorem 2 and the remark above.

This concludes the calculation of $N_{p, a}$ when $a \in Q_{p}$. Now we consider the other possibility.

Theorem 2.3: Let $p \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$ be prime and $a \in Q_{p}^{\prime}$ be fixed. Then for $x \in Q_{p}$

$$
N_{p, a}=\frac{p-1}{2}
$$

Recall that

$$
N_{p, a}=\frac{p-1}{2}+\sum_{x \in Q_{p}} \chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right)
$$

We first need
Lemma 2.1: a) Let $p \equiv 5(\bmod 12)$ be prime. Then $a \in$ $Q_{p} \Longleftrightarrow p-a \in Q_{p}$.
b) Let $p \equiv 11(\bmod 12)$ be prime. Then $a \in Q_{p} \Longleftrightarrow$ $p-a \in Q_{p}^{\prime}$.

Proof: a) Let $p \equiv 5(\bmod 12)$ be prime. Then

$$
\left(\frac{p-a}{p}\right)=\left(\frac{-a}{p}\right)=\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)
$$

where $(\dot{\bar{p}})$ denotes the Legendre symbol modulo $p$. By lemma 1 , we have $-1 \in Q_{p}$ and hence $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)=+1$. Therefore if $a \in Q_{p}$, we have $\left(\frac{p-a}{p}\right)=+1$; i.e. $p-a \in Q_{p}$.
b) Similarly follows.

Lemma 2.2: For $x=p-a, \chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right)=\left(\frac{x^{3}+a^{3}}{p}\right)=0$.

Now we have two cases to consider because of the lemma 6.
(i) Let $p \equiv 5(\bmod 12)$ be prime. Then $\left|\varphi_{p}\right|=\frac{p-1}{2_{3}}$ is even. Then for exactly half of the values of $x \in Q_{p}, \chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right)$ is +1 and for the other half, $\chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right)=-1$. Then

$$
\sum_{x \in Q_{p}} \chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right)=0
$$

(ii) Let $p \equiv 11(\bmod 12)$. Then $\frac{p-1}{2}$ is odd. By lemma 6 only for $x=p-a, \chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right)=0$, and the rest is divided into two as in (i) that is there are $\frac{p-3}{4}$ quadratic and $\frac{p-3}{4}$ non-quadratic residues together with 0 , implying

$$
\sum_{x \in Q_{p}} \chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right)=0
$$

Connecting (i) and (ii), we get
Let $p \equiv 5(\bmod 6)$ be prime. Then

$$
\sum_{x \in Q_{p}} \chi\left(x^{3}+a^{3}\right)=0
$$

This theorem completes the proof of Theorem 4.

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