## Lecture 7: Quadratic Reciprocity

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**Definition** (Quadratic Residue). Fix a prime p. An integer a not divisible by p is a quadratic residue modulo p if a is a square modulo p; otherwise, a is a quadratic nonresidue.

For example, the squares modulo 5 are

$$1^2 = 1$$
,  $2^2 = 4$ ,  $3^2 = 4$ ,  $4^2 = 1$ , (mod 5)

so 1 and 4 are both quadratic residues and 2 and 3 are quadratic non-residues.

**Definition** (Legendre Symbol). Let p be an odd prime and let a be an integer. Set

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 0 & \textit{if } \gcd(a,p) \neq 1, \\ +1 & \textit{if } a \textit{ is } a \textit{ } quadratic \textit{ } residue, \textit{ } and \\ -1 & \textit{if } a \textit{ } is \textit{ } a \textit{ } quadratic \textit{ } nonresidue. \end{cases}$$

We call this symbol the Legendre Symbol.

For example, we have

$$\left(\frac{1}{5}\right)=1,\quad \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)=-1,\quad \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)=-1,\quad \left(\frac{4}{5}\right)=1,\quad \left(\frac{5}{5}\right)=0.$$

**Lemma.** The map  $\psi : (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \to \{\pm 1\}$  given by  $\psi(a) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  is a surjective group homomorphism.

**Theorem** (Gauss's Quadratic Reciprocity Law). Suppose p and q are distinct odd primes. Then

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{q-1}{2}} \left(\frac{q}{p}\right).$$

Also

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

In our example, Gauss's theorem implies that

$$\left(\frac{5}{p}\right) = (-1)^{2 \cdot \frac{p-1}{2}} \left(\frac{p}{5}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{5}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{5}. \end{cases}$$

**Example 1.** Is 69 a square modulo the prime 389? We have

$$\left(\frac{69}{389}\right) = \left(\frac{3 \cdot 23}{389}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{389}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{23}{389}\right) = (-1) \cdot (-1) = 1.$$

Here

$$\left(\frac{3}{389}\right) = \left(\frac{389}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = -1,$$

and

Thus 69 is a square modulo 389.

**Proposition** (Euler's Criterion). We have  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$  if and only if

$$a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

**Corollary.** The equation  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  has no solution if and only if  $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . Thus  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}$ .

*Proof.* This follows from Euler's Criterion and the fact that the polynomial  $x^2 - 1$  has no roots besides +1 and -1.

**Example 2.** Suppose p = 11. By squaring each element of  $(\mathbb{Z}/11\mathbb{Z})^*$ , we see that the squares modulo 11 are  $\{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\}$ . We compute  $a^{(p-1)/2} = a^5$  for each  $a \in (\mathbb{Z}/11\mathbb{Z})^*$  and get

$$1^5 = 1$$
,  $2^5 = -1$ ,  $3^5 = 1$ ,  $4^5 = 1$ ,  $5^5 = 1$ ,  $6^5 = -1$ ,  $7^5 = -1$ ,  $8^5 = -1$ ,  $9^5 = 1$ ,  $10^5 = -1$ .

Thus the a with  $a^5 = 1$  are  $\{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\}$ , just as Euler's Criterion predicts.

**Lemma** (Gauss's Lemma). Let p be an odd prime and let a be an integer  $\not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Form the numbers

$$a, 2a, 3a, \ldots, \frac{p-1}{2}a$$

and reduce them modulo p to lie in the interval  $(-\frac{p}{2}, \frac{p}{2})$ , i.e., for each of the above products  $k \cdot a$  find a number in the interval  $(-\frac{p}{2}, \frac{p}{2})$  that is congruent to  $k \cdot a$  modulo p. Let v be the number of negative numbers in the resulting set. Then

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

**Lemma.** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Then for any integer n,

$$\#((a,b)\cap\mathbb{Z}) \equiv \#((a,b+2n)\cap\mathbb{Z}) \pmod{2}$$

and

$$\#((a,b)\cap\mathbb{Z})\equiv\#((a-2n,b)\cap\mathbb{Z})\pmod{2}$$

provided that each interval involved in the congruence is nonempty.

**Proposition** (Euler). Let p be an odd prime and let a be a positive integer with  $p \nmid a$ . If q is a prime with  $q \equiv \pm p \pmod{4a}$ , then  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{q}\right)$ .

**Proposition** (Legendre Symbol of 2). Let p be an odd prime. Then

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & if \ p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1 & if \ p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* When a = 2, the set  $S = \{a, 2a, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}a\}$  is

$${2,4,6,\ldots,p-1}.$$

We must count the parity of the number of elements of S that lie in the interval  $I = (\frac{p}{2}, p)$ . Writing p = 8c + r, we have

$$\begin{split} \#\left(I\cap S\right) &= \#\left(\frac{1}{2}I\cap\mathbb{Z}\right) = \#\left(\left(\frac{p}{4},\frac{p}{2}\right)\cap\mathbb{Z}\right) \\ &= \#\left(\left(2c + \frac{r}{4},4c + \frac{r}{2}\right)\cap\mathbb{Z}\right) \equiv \#\left(\left(\frac{r}{4},\frac{r}{2}\right)\cap\mathbb{Z}\right) \pmod{2}, \end{split}$$

where the last equality comes from Lemma . The possibilities for r are 1, 3, 5, 7. When r = 1, the cardinality is 0; when r = 3, 5 it is 1; and when r = 7 it is 2.

**Definition** (Root of Unity). An nth root of unity is a complex number  $\zeta$  such that  $\zeta^n = 1$ . A root of unity  $\zeta$  is a primitive nth root of unity if n is the smallest positive integer such that  $\zeta^n = 1$ .

For example, -1 is a primitive second root of unity, and  $\zeta = \frac{\sqrt{-3}-1}{2}$  is a primitive cube root of unity. More generally, for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  the complex number

$$\zeta_n = \cos(2\pi/n) + i\sin(2\pi/n)$$

is a primitive nth root of unity (this follows from the identity  $e^{i\theta} = \cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)$ ). For the rest of this section, we fix an odd prime p and the primitive pth root  $\zeta = \zeta_p$  of unity.

**Definition** (Gauss Sum). Fix an odd prime p. The Gauss sum associated to an integer a is

$$g_a = \sum_{n=1}^{p-1} \left(\frac{n}{p}\right) \zeta^{an},$$

where  $\zeta = \zeta_p = \cos(2\pi/p) + i\sin(2\pi/p) = e^{2\pi i/p}$ .

**Proposition** (Gauss Sum). For any a not divisible by p,

$$g_a^2 = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} p$$
.

**Lemma.** For any integer a,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \zeta^{an} = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* If  $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , then  $\zeta^a = 1$ , so the sum equals the number of summands, which is p. If  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , then we use the identity

$$x^{p} - 1 = (x - 1)(x^{p-1} + \dots + x + 1)$$

with  $x = \zeta^a$ . We have  $\zeta^a \neq 1$ , so  $\zeta^a - 1 \neq 0$  and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \zeta^{an} = \frac{\zeta^{ap} - 1}{\zeta^a - 1} = \frac{1 - 1}{\zeta^a - 1} = 0.$$

**Lemma.** If x and y are arbitrary integers, then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \zeta^{(x-y)n} = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } x \equiv y \pmod{p}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* This follows from last Lemma by setting a = x - y.

**Lemma.** We have  $g_0 = 0$ .

*Proof.* By definition

$$g_0 = \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \left( \frac{n}{p} \right). {1}$$

the map

$$\left(\frac{\cdot}{p}\right): (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \to \{\pm 1\}$$

is a surjective homomorphism of groups. Thus, half the elements of  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$  map to +1 and half map to -1 (the subgroup that maps to +1 has index 2). Since  $\left(\frac{0}{p}\right) = 0$ , the sum is 0.

**Lemma.** For any integer a,

$$g_a = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)g_1.$$

*Proof.* When  $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , the lemma follows from last Lemma, so suppose that  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Then,

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)g_a = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)\sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{n}{p}\right)\zeta^{an} = \sum_{n=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{an}{p}\right)\zeta^{an} = \sum_{m=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{m}{p}\right)\zeta^m = g_1.$$

Here, we use that multiplication by a is an automorphism of  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ . Finally, multiply both sides by  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  and use that  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)^2=1$ .