

# Quadratic reciprocity

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Let  $p$  be an odd prime number. We consider which numbers  $a \not\equiv 0$  are squares modulo  $p$ . If  $a \equiv b^2$  then  $a \equiv (-b)^2$  and as  $b \not\equiv -b \pmod{p}$  then  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  has precisely the two solutions  $x \equiv \pm b \pmod{p}$ . It follows that there are exactly  $\frac{1}{2}(p-1)$  such  $a$  up to congruence modulo  $p$ , which are  $1^2, 2^2, \dots, [\frac{1}{2}(p-1)]^2$ . These are the *quadratic residues* modulo  $p$ . The  $\frac{1}{2}(p-1)$  remaining values modulo  $p$ , for which the congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  is insoluble are the *quadratic nonresidues* modulo  $p$ . We define the *Legendre symbol*  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  as follows:

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p \mid a, \\ 1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic residue modulo } p, \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic nonresidue modulo } p. \end{cases}$$

The Legendre symbol  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  depends only on  $a$  modulo  $p$ , that is,

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right) \quad \text{whenever } a \equiv b \pmod{p}.$$

**Theorem 1 (Euler's criterion)** *Let  $p$  be an odd prime and let  $a \in \mathbf{Z}$ . Then*

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}. \quad (*)$$

**Proof** If  $p \mid a$  then both sides of  $(*)$  are zero modulo  $p$ . We may thus suppose that  $p \nmid a$ . Let  $g$  be a primitive root modulo  $p$ . Then  $g^{(p-1)/2} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  but  $[g^{(p-1)/2}]^2 = g^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . It follows that  $g^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . Now  $a \equiv g^k \pmod{p}$  for some integer  $k \geq 0$  and so

$$a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv g^{k(p-1)/2} \equiv [g^{(p-1)/2}]^k \equiv (-1)^k \equiv \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k \text{ is even,} \\ -1 & \text{if } k \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Let us attempt to solve the congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \equiv g^k \pmod{p}$ . The solution must have the form  $x \equiv g^r \pmod{p}$  and so  $g^{2r} \equiv g^k \pmod{p}$ . This is equivalent to the congruence  $2r \equiv k \pmod{p-1}$ . As  $2 \mid (p-1)$  this linear congruence is soluble if and only if  $k$  is even. Hence if  $a$  is a quadratic residue then  $k$  is even and  $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \pmod{p}$ , while if  $a$  is a quadratic nonresidue then  $k$  is odd and  $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1 = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \pmod{p}$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 1** *Let  $p$  be an odd prime, and let  $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$ . Then*

$$\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right).$$

*In particular if  $a$  and  $b$  are both quadratic residues modulo  $p$  or both quadratic nonresidues modulo  $p$ , then  $ab$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$ , while if one of  $a$  and  $b$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$  and the other is a quadratic nonresidue modulo  $p$ , then  $ab$  is a quadratic nonresidue modulo  $p$ .*

**Proof** By Euler's criterion

$$\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) \equiv (ab)^{(p-1)/2} \equiv a^{(p-1)/2} b^{(p-1)/2} \equiv \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right) \pmod{p}.$$

Both sides of this congruence lie in the set  $\{-1, 0, 1\}$  and as  $p \geq 3$  no two distinct elements of this set are congruent modulo  $p$ . Hence we have equality, not just congruence:

$$\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right).$$

$\square$

**Corollary 2** *Let  $p$  be an odd prime. Then*

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

**Proof** By Euler's criterion

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \equiv (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}.$$

If  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  then  $(p-1)/2$  is even, and so  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ ; consequently  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1$ . If  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  then  $(p-1)/2$  is odd, and so  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ ; consequently  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = -1$ .  $\square$

We now prove Gauss's lemma, which gives a useful if opaque characterization of the Legendre symbol.

**Theorem 2 (Gauss's lemma)** *Let  $p$  be an odd prime and let  $a$  be an integer coprime to  $p$ . Let  $R = \{j \in \mathbf{N} : 0 < j < p/2\}$  and  $S = \{j \in \mathbf{N} : p/2 < j < p\}$ . Then  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^\mu$  where  $\mu$  is the number of  $j \in R$  for which the least nonnegative residue of  $aj$  modulo  $p$  lies in  $S$ .*

**Proof** It is convenient to introduce some notation. If  $m$  is an integer, it is congruent modulo  $p$  to exactly one integer between  $-p/2$  and  $p/2$ . Let  $\langle m \rangle$  denote this integer: that is,  $\langle m \rangle \equiv m \pmod{p}$  and  $|\langle m \rangle| < p/2$ . Then  $m$  is congruent modulo  $p$  to an element of  $S$  if and only if  $\langle m \rangle < 0$ .

We consider the numbers  $\langle aj \rangle$  for  $j \in R$ . Then  $\mu$  is the number of  $j \in R$  for which  $\langle aj \rangle < 0$ . Let us write  $\langle aj \rangle = \varepsilon_j b_j$  where  $\varepsilon_j = \pm 1$  and  $b_j = |\langle aj \rangle|$ . Then  $(-1)^\mu = \prod_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} \varepsilon_j$ . I claim that the numbers  $b_1, \dots, b_{(p-1)/2}$  are the same as the numbers in  $R$  in some order. Certainly  $b_j \neq 0$  for if  $b_j = 0$  then  $p \mid aj$  contrary to Euclid's lemma ( $p \nmid a$  and  $p \nmid j$ ). Suppose there were integers  $j$  and  $k$  with  $0 < j < k < p/2$  and  $b_j = b_k$ . Then  $ak \equiv \varepsilon_k b_k = \varepsilon_j b_j \equiv \varepsilon_j \varepsilon_k a_j \pmod{p}$ . So  $p \mid a(k \pm j)$  and as  $p \nmid a$  then  $p \mid (k \pm j)$ . But  $0 < k + j < p$  and  $0 < k - j < p/2$ . Neither  $k + j$  nor  $k - j$  is a multiple of  $p$ . This contradiction shows that all the  $b_j$  are distinct, and so the  $b_j$  are the elements of  $R$  in some order.

It follows that  $\prod_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} b_j = (\frac{1}{2}(p-1))!$  and so

$$a^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)! = \prod_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} (aj) \equiv \prod_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} (\varepsilon_j b_j) = (-1)^\mu \left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)! \pmod{p}.$$

As  $(\frac{1}{2}(p-1))!$  is coprime to  $p$ , we may cancel it and get  $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (-1)^\mu \pmod{p}$ . Applying Euler's criterion gives  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^\mu$ .  $\square$

In the proof of the following theorem, we adopt the following notation. If  $x < y$  then  $N(x, y)$  denotes the number of integers  $n$  with  $x < n < y$ . It is useful to note several simple properties of  $N(x, y)$ .

- $N(x, y) = N(-y, -x)$ ;
- if  $a$  is an integer, then  $N(x + a, y + a) = N(x, y)$ ;
- if  $a$  is a positive integer, then  $N(x, y + a) = N(x, y) + a$ ;
- if  $a$  is a positive integer, and  $x$  is not an integer, then  $N(x, x + a) = a$ ;
- if  $x < y < z$  and  $y$  is not an integer, then  $N(x, z) = N(x, y) + N(y, z)$ .

The proofs of all of these are straightforward, and left as exercises.

**Theorem 3** Let  $a \in \mathbf{N}$ , and let  $p$  and  $q$  be distinct odd primes, each coprime to  $a$ . If  $q \equiv \pm p \pmod{4a}$  then  $\left(\frac{a}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ .

**Proof** By Gauss's lemma,  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^\mu$  where  $\mu$  is the number of integers  $j \in (0, p/2)$  and with  $aj$  having least positive residue modulo  $p$  in the interval  $(p/2, p)$ . If  $0 < j < p/2$  then  $0 < aj < ap/2$  and so  $\mu$  is the number of integers  $j$  with

$$aj \in \bigcup_{k=1}^b \left( \left(k - \frac{1}{2}\right)p, kp \right)$$

where  $b = a/2$  or  $b = (a-1)/2$  according to whether  $a$  is even or  $a$  is odd. Hence  $\mu$  is the number of integers in the set

$$\bigcup_{k=1}^b \left( \frac{(2k-1)p}{2a}, \frac{kp}{a} \right),$$

that is

$$\mu = \sum_{k=1}^b N \left( \frac{(2k-1)p}{2a}, \frac{kp}{a} \right).$$

Similarly  $\left(\frac{a}{q}\right) = (-1)^\nu$  where

$$\nu = \sum_{k=1}^b N \left( \frac{(2k-1)q}{2a}, \frac{kq}{a} \right).$$

Suppose first that  $q \equiv p \pmod{4a}$ . Without loss of generality,  $q > p$ , and we may write  $q = p + 4ar$  with  $r \in \mathbf{N}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \nu &= \sum_{k=1}^b N \left( \frac{(2k-1)p}{2a} + (4k-2)r, \frac{kp}{a} + 4kr \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^b N \left( \frac{(2k-1)p}{2a}, \frac{kp}{a} + 2r \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^b \left[ N \left( \frac{(2k-1)p}{2a}, \frac{kp}{a} \right) + 2r \right] \\ &= \mu + 2rb. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently

$$\left(\frac{a}{q}\right) = (-1)^\nu = (-1)^{\mu+2rb} = (-1)^\mu = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right).$$

Now suppose that  $q \equiv -p \pmod{4a}$ . Then  $p + q = 4as$  with  $s$  an integer. Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\nu &= \sum_{k=1}^b N\left((4k-2)s - \frac{(2k-1)p}{2a}, 4ks - \frac{kp}{a}\right) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^b N\left(\frac{kp}{a} - 4ks, \frac{(2k-1)p}{2a} - (4k-2)s\right) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^b N\left(\frac{kp}{a}, \frac{(2k-1)p}{2a} + 2s\right).\end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\mu + \nu &= \sum_{k=1}^b \left[ N\left(\frac{(2k-1)p}{2a}, \frac{kp}{a}\right) + N\left(\frac{kp}{a}, \frac{(2k-1)p}{2a} + 2s\right) \right] \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^b N\left(\frac{(2k-1)p}{2a}, \frac{(2k-1)p}{2a} + 2s\right) \\ &= 2sb.\end{aligned}$$

Consequently

$$\left(\frac{a}{q}\right) = (-1)^\nu = (-1)^{-\mu+2sb} = (-1)^\mu = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right).$$

□

We can now prove the law of quadratic reciprocity

**Theorem 4 (Quadratic reciprocity)** *Let  $p$  and  $q$  be distinct odd primes. Then*

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)$$

*unless  $p \equiv q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  in which case*

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = -\left(\frac{p}{q}\right).$$

**Proof** Suppose first that  $p \equiv q \pmod{4}$ . Without loss of generality,  $q > p$  so that  $q = p + 4a$  with  $a \in \mathbf{N}$ . Then

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p+4a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{4a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$$

and

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{q-4a}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{-4a}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{q}\right) \left(\frac{a}{q}\right).$$

By Theorem 3

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

and then

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

Thus if  $p \equiv q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  then

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

while if  $p \equiv q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  then

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

Now suppose that  $p \equiv -q \pmod{4}$ . Then  $p+q=4a$  with  $a \in \mathbf{N}$ . Then

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{4a-p}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{4a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$$

and

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{4a-q}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{4a}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{q}\right).$$

By Theorem 3

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

and then

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right).$$

□

When applying quadratic reciprocity, it is useful to have a version involving the *Jacobi symbol*. This is denoted by  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right)$ , like the Legendre symbol, but in the Legendre symbol the number  $n$  must be an odd prime, in the Jacobi symbol  $n$  can be any positive odd integer and  $a$  any integer at all. We define the Jacobi symbol as follows: if  $n$  is a positive odd integer, write  $n = p_1 \dots p_k$  with the  $p_j$  prime. Then set

$$\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \prod_{j=1}^k \left(\frac{a}{p_j}\right).$$

It is immediate that the Jacobi symbol shares some of the formal properties of the Legendre symbol:

- $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \pm 1$  if  $a$  and  $n$  are coprime and  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = 0$  otherwise,
- $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{n}\right)$  whenever  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ ,
- $\left(\frac{ab}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) \left(\frac{b}{n}\right)$  and  $\left(\frac{a}{mn}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{m}\right) \left(\frac{a}{n}\right)$ .

The most convenient property is that quadratic reciprocity is true for the Jacobi symbol too. Let  $m$  and  $n$  be coprime odd positive integers. Write  $m = p_1 \dots p_r$  and  $n = q_1 \dots q_s$  where the  $p_j$  and  $q_k$  are primes. By quadratic reciprocity,

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) = \prod_{j=1}^r \prod_{k=1}^s \left(\frac{p_j}{q_k}\right) = \prod_{j=1}^r \prod_{k=1}^s \varepsilon_{j,k} \left(\frac{q_k}{p_j}\right) = (-1)^\mu \left(\frac{n}{m}\right)$$

where  $\varepsilon_{j,k} = 1$  unless  $p_j \equiv q_k \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  in which case  $\varepsilon_{j,k} = -1$  and  $\mu$  is the number of pairs  $(j, k)$  with  $\varepsilon_{j,k} = -1$ . But  $\mu = ab$  where  $a$  is the number of  $p_j$  which are 3 modulo 4 and  $b$  is the number of  $q_k$  which are 3 modulo 4. Then  $m \equiv 3^a \equiv (-1)^a \pmod{4}$  and  $n \equiv 3^b \equiv (-1)^b \pmod{4}$ . Then  $(-1)^{ab} = 1$  unless both  $a$  and  $b$  are odd when  $(-1)^\mu = -1$ . Thus  $(-1)^\mu = -1$  if and only if  $m \equiv n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ :

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{n}{m}\right)$$

unless  $m \equiv n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  in which case

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) = -\left(\frac{n}{m}\right).$$

(This even holds when  $m$  and  $n$  are non-coprime positive odd integers, for then both sides are zero.)