A Concrete Introduction to Number Theory and Algebra–Quadratic Residue

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First Question.

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Let p be an odd prime and a an integer relatively prime to p, is a a perfect square modulo p? Equivalently, we need to dicide whether there exists $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that:

$$x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$$
.

Naive Solution.

Easy jobs.

Let p=11, and a=5, is a a perfect square modulo p? We write a simple program to square every number from 1 to 10. The output is :

More data.

а	a^2
1	1
2	4
3	4
4	1

Table: $a^2 \mod 5$

More data.

а	a^2
1	1
2	4
3	2
4	2
5	4
6	1

Table: $a^i \mod 7$

More data.

а	a^2
1	1
2	4
3	9
4	3
5	12
6	10
7	10
8	12
9	3
10	9
11	4
12	1

Table: $a^i \mod 13$

To find some patterns.

Pattern!

Can you find some patterns from the tables?

One easy conclusion.

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Do you see why?

Easy proof.

It is easy to prove that:

$$(p-1)^2 = p^2 - 2p + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$
.

The pattern means that the congruence $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ has two solutions, 1 and p-1.

Another easy conclusion.

Every second columns of these tables is reflectional symmetric (反射对称)that can be described by the following formula.

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The proof is similar, since:

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This formula means the congruence $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ has two incongruent solutions, a and p-a.

One formally stated property.

Proposition

Let p be an odd prime and b an integer not divisible by p. Then, the congruence

$$x^2 \equiv b \pmod{p}$$

has either no solutions or exactly two incongruent solutions modulo p.

One formally stated property.

Proof.

We know $x^2 \equiv b \pmod{p}$ has two incongruent solutions.

Then we must show that there are no more than two incongruent solutions. Assume that x_0 and x_1 are two solutions of $x^2 \equiv b \pmod{p}$. Then

$$x_0^2 \equiv x_1^2 \equiv b \pmod{p},$$

thus

$$x_0^2 - x_1^2 = (x_0 - x_1)(x_0 + x_1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Hence, $p \mid (x_0 - x_1)$ or $p \mid (x_0 + x_1)$, which means $x_0 \equiv x_1 \pmod{p}$ or $x_0 \equiv -x_1 \pmod{p}$. Therefore, if there is a solution, there are exactly two incongruent solutions.

Quadratic Residues (二次剩余) and Quadratic Non-Residue (二次非剩余).

Definition

QR and QNR.

Example

From these tables we have showed, we know that, the **QR** modulo 7 are $\{1,2,4\}$; the **QR** modulo 13 are $\{1,3,4,9,10,12\}$; the **QNR** modulo 7 are $\{3,5,6\}$; the **QNR** modulo 13 are $\{2,5,6,7,8,11\}$.

QR and QNR.

Theorem

Let p be an odd prime, then there are exactly (p-1)/2 **QRs** modulo p and exactly (p-1)/2 **QNRs** modulo p.

QR and QNR.

Proof.

We map the integers from \mathbb{Z}_p^* to \mathbf{QRs} modulo p by squaring. since Propostion 1 tell us that, two incongruent integers map to one \mathbf{QR} , and we have p-1 squares to consider, then there are exactly (p-1)/2 \mathbf{QRs} modulo p. The remaining (p-1)/2 integers are \mathbf{QNRs} modulo p.

Quadratic Residues Group.

Proposition

Let \mathbb{QR}_p denotes the set of every \mathbf{QR} modulo p, \mathbb{QR}_p is a group under multiplication.

Proof.

It is easy to prove by checking every axioms of group.



Quadratic Residues Group.

The map from \mathbb{Z}_p^* to \mathbb{QR}_p is a group homomorphism, if we denote it as ϕ , then by earlier observation we know $\ker \phi = \{1, p-1\}$. By using the First Isomorphism Theorem from Chapter 9, we have a new proof for last Theorem

Quadratic Residues vs Quadratic Non-Residues .

Proposition

Let p be an odd prime, then

(1.) The product of two QRs modulo p is a QR, denoted as

$$\mathbf{QR} \times \mathbf{QR} = \mathbf{QR},$$

(2.) The product of a **QR** modulo p and a **QNR** modulo p is a **QNR** modulo p, denoted as

$$QR \times QNR = QNR$$
,

(3.) The product of two QNRs modulo p is a QR, denoted as

$$QNR \times QNR = QR$$
.

Quadratic Residues vs Quadratic Non-Residues .

Proof.

$$QR \times QNR = QNR$$
,

Let b be a **QNR**, and a be a **QR**, then there exists $a_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a \equiv a_1^2 \pmod{p}$. Assume that ab is a **QR**, then there exists $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$c^2 \equiv ab \equiv a_1^2 b \pmod{p}$$
.

We know that $gcd(a_1, p) = 1$, then there exists $a_1^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a_1 a_1^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, therefore we have

$$c^2(a_1^{-1})^2 \equiv b \pmod{p}.$$

This means that b is a **QR** contradicting the assumtion that b is a **QNR**.

Quadratic Residues vs Quadratic Non-Residues .

Proof.

$$QNR \times QNR = QR.$$

Let a be a QNR and $p \nmid a$, then we know

$$a\mathbb{Z}_p^*=\mathbb{Z}_p^*.$$

We also know that there are (p-1)/2 **QRs** and (p-1)/2 **QNRs** in \mathbb{Z}_p^* . As we have proved, when we multiply a by a **QR** we get a **QNR**, hence the (p-1)/2 products $a \times \mathbf{QR}$ give all (p-1)/2 **QNRs** in \mathbb{Z}_p^* . Then when we multiply a by a **QNR**, the only possibility is that it gives one of the **QRs** in \mathbb{Z}_p^* .

Legendre symbol. (勒让德符号)

Definition

Let p be an odd prime and let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. The **Legendre symbol** (n/p) is defined as

$$\left(\frac{\textit{n}}{\textit{p}}\right) = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} 1 & \textit{if n is a quadratic residue mod p} \\ -1 & \textit{if n is a quadratic nonresidue mod p} \\ 0 & \textit{if p} \mid \textit{n}. \end{array} \right.$$

Legendre symbol 的属性.

Proposition

设 p 是奇素数, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ 且不被 p 整除。则有:

- **①** 如果 $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$,则 $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$;

Legendre symbol.

Proof.

It is naive by Proposition 6.



Legendre symbol.

Example

$$\left(\frac{75}{97}\right) = \left(\frac{3 \cdot 5 \cdot 5}{97}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{97}\right) = 1$$

Since $10^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{97}$, so 3 is a **QR**.

Legendre symbol.

Example

$$\left(\frac{75}{97}\right) = \left(\frac{3 \cdot 5 \cdot 5}{97}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{97}\right) = 1$$

Since $10^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{97}$, so 3 is a **QR**.

Example

$$\left(\frac{269}{97}\right) = \left(\frac{2 \cdot 97 + 75}{97}\right) = \left(\frac{75}{97}\right) = 1.$$

Euler's Criterion. (欧拉准则)

Theorem

(Euler's Criterion.) Let p be an odd prime and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $\gcd(a,p)=1$. Then

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

Proof.

We have two cases to consider. For the first case, we assume $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)=1$, which means that there exist $x\in\mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^2\equiv a\pmod{p}$. By Fermat's little theorem, we have that

$$x^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p},$$

and

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

Hence

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

Proof.

For the second case, we assume $\binom{a}{p}=-1$, which means that the congruence $x^2\equiv a\pmod p$ has no solutions. Using Fermat's little theorem again, we know that

$$0 \equiv a^{(p-1)} - 1 \equiv (a^{(p-1)/2} - 1)(a^{(p-1)/2} + 1) \pmod{p}.$$

Since
$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$$
, $a^{(p-1)/2} - 1 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, hence, it must be

$$a^{(p-1)/2} + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Therefore

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



Example

$$\left(\frac{3}{97}\right) = 3^{(97-1)/2} \mod 97 = 3^{48} \mod 97 = 1.$$

Thus 3 is a QR.

Theorem

Let p be an odd prime then

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}; \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv -1 \pmod{4}. \end{array} \right.$$

Proof.

It is easy by using Euler's criterion.



Theorem about $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)$.

Theorem

Let p be an odd prime. Then

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p^2-1)/8}.$$

Theorem about primes of the form 4k + 1.

Proposition

模 4 余 1 的素数有无穷多。

Proof.

假设模 4 余 1 的素数有限,枚举之 $S = \{1, p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$ 。令

$$N = (2p_1p_2\cdots p_n)^2 + 1 \tag{1}$$

显然,N 是一个奇数(注意上式构造中嵌入的那个 2),所以必然存在一个奇素数 p 使得 $p \mid N$ 。也就是说:

$$(2p_1p_2\cdots p_n)^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

即 $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1$ 。根据勒让德符号的属性,可知 p 是形如 4k+1 的素数,所以 $p \in S$ 。这说明 $p \mid (N - (2p_1p_2 \cdots p_n)^2)$,即 $p \mid 1$,矛盾!

Quadratic Reciprocity.

Theorem

(Quadratic Reciprocity, Version 1.) Let p, q be distinct odd primes.

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

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \text{ or } 7 \pmod{8}; \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \text{ or } 5 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) & \quad \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \text{ or } q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}; \\ -\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) & \quad \text{if } p \equiv q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{array} \right.$$

Quadratic Reciprocity.

Example

$$\left(\frac{14}{137}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{137}\right)\left(\frac{7}{137}\right) = \left(\frac{7}{137}\right) = \left(\frac{137}{7}\right) = \left(\frac{4}{7}\right) = 1.$$

Thus 14 is a QR.

Quadratic Reciprocity.

Theorem

(Quadratic Reciprocity, Version 2.) Let p, q be distinct odd primes. Then

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