# Computational Introduction to Number Theory Part II

#### Ferucio Laurențiu Țiplea

Department of Computer Science "Al.I.Cuza" University of Iași Iași 700506, Romania e-mail: ferucio.tiplea@uaic.ro

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 $Linear\ congruential\ equations$ 

The Chinese remainder theorem

 $Quadratic\ residues$ 

 $The\ Legendre\ symbol$ 

The Jacobi symbol

#### $Linear\ congruential\ equations$

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# Linear congruential equations

#### Theorem 1

Let  $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $m \ge 1$ . Then, the equation

$$ax \equiv b \mod m$$

is solvable in  $\mathbb{Z}$  iff (a, m)|b. Moreover, if it is solvable, then it has exactly (a, m) solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  which are of the form

$$\left(x_0+i\frac{m}{(a,m)}\right) \mod m,$$

where  $x_0$  is an arbitrary integer solution and  $0 \le i < (a, m)$ .

#### Example 2

The equation

$$5x \equiv 25 \mod 10$$

has (5,10) = 5 solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}_{10}$ : 1, 3, 5, 7, 9.

# Linear congruential equations

#### **Algorithm 1:** Solving linear congruential equations

```
input: m > 1 and a, b \in \mathbb{Z};
output: all solutions modulo m of ax \equiv b \mod m;
begin
   compute gcd(a, m) := \alpha a + \beta m;
   if gcd(a, m)|b then
       b' := b/gcd(a, m);
       x_0 := \alpha b':
       for i := 0 to gcd(a, m) - 1 do
        print ((x_0 + im/gcd(a, m)) \mod m)
   else
        "no integer solutions"
```

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### The Chinese remainder theorem

According to D.Wells, the following problem was posed by Sun Tsu Suan-Ching (4th century AD):

There are certain things whose number is unknown. Repeatedly divided by 3, the remainder is 2; by 5, the remainder is 3; and by 7, the remainder is 2. What will be the number?

The mathematical form of this problem is:

$$\begin{cases} x \equiv 2 \mod 3 \\ x \equiv 3 \mod 5 \\ x \equiv 2 \mod 7 \end{cases}$$

This system of equations has a least integer solution which is x = 23.

### The Chinese remainder theorem

#### Theorem 3 (Chinese Remainder Theorem)

Let  $k \geq 1$  and  $m_1, \ldots, m_k$  be pairwise co-prime integers. Then, for any  $b_1, \ldots, b_k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , the following system (S) of equations has a unique solution modulo  $m_1 \cdots m_k$ 

$$(S) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x \equiv b_1 \mod m_1 \\ \cdots \\ x \equiv b_k \mod m_k \end{array} \right.$$

The solution can be obtained as follows:

- compute  $c_i = \prod_{j=1, i \neq i}^k m_j$ ;
- compute an integer solution  $x_i$  of the equation  $c_i x \equiv b_i \mod m_i$ , for any i;
- $x = (c_1x_1 + \cdots + c_kx_k) \mod (m_1 \cdots m_k)$  is the unique solution modulo  $m_1 \cdots m_k$  of the system.

# The Chinese remainder theorem: example

#### Example 4

Let (S) be the system

$$(S) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x \equiv 2 \mod 3 \\ x \equiv 3 \mod 5 \\ x \equiv 2 \mod 7 \end{array} \right.$$

#### Then:

- $c_1 = 35$ ,  $c_2 = 21$ , and  $c_3 = 15$ :
- $x_1 = 1$  is a solution of  $35x \equiv 2 \mod 3$ ;
- $x_2 = 3$  is a solution of  $21x \equiv 3 \mod 5$ :
- $x_3 = 2$  is a solution of  $15x \equiv 2 \mod 7$ :
- $x = (35 \cdot 1 + 21 \cdot 3 + 15 \cdot 2) \mod 105 = 128 \mod 105 = 23$  is the unique solution modulo 105 of the system (S).

# The Chinese remainder theorem: application

There is an important application of CRT to the problem of solving equations of the form  $f(x) \equiv 0 \mod m$ , where f(x) is a polynomial with integer coefficients and variables x.

#### Theorem 5

Let f(x) be a polynomial with integer coefficients, and  $m_1, \ldots, m_k$  be pairwise co-prime integers. Then,  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  is a solution to the equation

$$f(x) \equiv 0 \mod m_1 \cdots m_k \tag{1}$$

if and only if a is a solution to each of the equations

$$f(x) \equiv 0 \mod m_i, \quad 1 \le i \le k. \tag{2}$$

Moreover, the number of solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}_{m_1\cdots m_k}$  of the equation (1) is the product of the numbers of solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}_{m_i}$  of the equations (2).

# The Chinese remainder theorem: application

#### Example 6

1. The equation

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \mod p$$
,

where p > 2 is a prime number, has exactly 2 solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , namely x = 1 and x = p - 1.

2. The equation

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \mod p_1 \cdots p_k$$

where  $p_1, \ldots, p_k$  are distinct odd primes  $(k \ge 2)$ , has exactly  $2^k$ solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}_{p_1 \cdots p_k}$ .

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### Quadratic residues - motivation

#### Proposition 1 (Solving quadratic congruences)

Let p > 2 be a prime and  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that (a, p) = 1. Then, the quadratic congruence

$$ax^2 + bx + c \equiv 0 \mod p$$

has

- 1. two roots in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , if  $\Delta \equiv y^2 \mod p$  for some  $y \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $p \nmid y$ ;
- 2. one root in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , if  $\Delta \equiv 0 \mod p$ ;
- 3. no roots, otherwise,

where  $\Delta = b^2 - 4ac$ .

How hard is to decide if a given  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  satisfies  $a \equiv y^2 \mod p$  for some  $y \in \mathbb{Z}$  ?

# Quadratic residues and non-residues

#### Definition 7

Let p > 2 be a prime and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  non-divisible by p. a is called a quadratic residue modulo p if  $a \equiv x^2 \mod n$  for some integer x.

If a is neither divisible by p nor a quadratic residue modulo p then a is called a quadratic non-residue modulo p.

#### Remark 1

An integer a non-divisible by a prime p > 2 is a quadratic (non-)residue modulo p if and only if a mod p is a quadratic (non-)residue modulo p.

#### Denote

- $QR_p = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^* | a \text{ is a quadratic residue modulo } p\}$
- $QNR_p = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^* | a \text{ is a quadratic non-residue modulo } p\}$

# Quadratic residues. Basic properties

#### Proposition 2

Let p > 2 be a prime. Then,  $|QR_p| = |QNR_p| = \frac{p-1}{2}$ .

#### Proposition 3

Let p > 2 be a prime. Then:

- 1.  $a, b \in QR_p \Rightarrow (ab \mod p) \in QR_p$ ;
- 2.  $a \in QR_p \land b \in QNR_p \Rightarrow (ab \mod p) \in QNR_p$ ;
- 3.  $a, b \in QNR_p \Rightarrow (ab \mod p) \in QR_p$ .

#### Theorem 8 (Euler's Criterion)

Let p > 2 be a prime and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ . Then,

- 1.  $a \in QR_p$  if and only if  $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 1 \mod p$ ;
- 2.  $a \in QNR_p$  if and only if  $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv -1 \mod p$ .

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Introduced by Adrien-Marie Legendre in 1798 when trying to prove the law of quadratic reciprocity.

#### Definition 9

Let p > 2 be a prime. The Legendre symbol of  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , denoted  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ , is defined by

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 0, & \textit{if } p \mid a \\ 1, & \textit{if } p \not\mid a \textit{ and } a \textit{ is a quadratic residue modulo } p \\ -1, & \textit{if } p \not\mid a \textit{ and } a \textit{ is a quadratic non-residue modulo } p \end{cases}$$

Remark that the Legendre symbol is only defined for primes p > 2. For p=2, all even integers are divisible by p and all odd integers are quadratic residues modulo p.

#### Proposition 4

Let p > 2 be a prime and  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If  $a \equiv b \mod p$  then  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$ . Therefore,  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a \mod p}{p}\right)$ .

#### Proposition 5

Let p > 2 be a prime. Then, for any  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \mod p$ .

#### Proposition 6

Let p > 2 be a prime. Then, for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$ .

According to the above properties, computing the Legendre symbol modulo p comes down to computing  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)$  and  $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$ , for any prime q with 2 < q < p.

#### Proposition 7

Let p > 2 be a prime. Then,

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

### Theorem 10 (Gauss' Criterion)

Let p > 2 be a prime and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  non-divisible by p. Then,  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^r$ , where

$$r = |\{i \in \{1, \dots, (p-1)/2\}| \text{ia mod } p > p/2\}|.$$

#### Proposition 8

Let p > 2 be a prime. Then,

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p^2 - 1}{8}} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \mod 8 \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \mod 8 \end{cases}$$

Theorem 11 (Quadratic reciprocity law)

Let p, q > 2 be distinct primes. Then,

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

Equivalently,

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} -\left(\frac{p}{q}\right), & \text{if } p, q \equiv 3 \mod 4 \\ \left(\frac{p}{q}\right), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example 12

$$\left(\frac{7}{59}\right) = -\left(\frac{59}{7}\right) = -\left(\frac{3}{7}\right) = \left(\frac{7}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = 1$$

Basic rules for computing the Legendre symbol (review):

1. if 
$$a \equiv b \mod p$$
 then  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$ 

$$2. \left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$$

3. 
$$\left(\frac{1}{p}\right) = 1$$

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

5. 
$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \mod 8 \\ -1, & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \mod 8 \end{cases}$$

6. 
$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{p}{q}\right), & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \mod 4 \text{ or } q \equiv 1 \mod 4 \\ -\left(\frac{p}{q}\right), & \text{if } p \equiv q \equiv 3 \mod 4 \end{cases}$$

for any distinct primes p, q > 2 and  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

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### The Jacobi symbol

Introduced by Carl Gustav Jacob Jacobi in 1837 as a generalization of the Legendre symbol.

#### Definition 13

Let n > 0 be an odd integer. The Jacobi symbol of  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , denoted  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right)$ , is defined by

$$\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 1\\ \left(\frac{a}{p_1}\right)^{e_1} \cdots \left(\frac{a}{p_k}\right)^{e_k}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where  $n = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$  is the prime factorization of n.

#### Remark 2

- 1. The Jacobi symbol is defined only for odd integers n > 0.
- 2. (a, n) = 1 if and only if  $(\frac{a}{n}) \neq 0$ , for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and n > 0 odd.

## The Jacobi symbol

#### Theorem 14

The following properties hold:

1. if 
$$a \equiv b \mod n$$
 then  $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{n}\right)$ 

2. 
$$\left(\frac{ab}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) \left(\frac{b}{n}\right)$$

3. 
$$\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) = 1$$

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

5. 
$$\left(\frac{2}{n}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n \equiv \pm 1 \mod 8 \\ -1, & \text{if } n \equiv \pm 3 \mod 8 \end{cases}$$

6. 
$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{n}{m}\right), & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \mod 4 \text{ or } m \equiv 1 \mod 4 \\ -\left(\frac{n}{m}\right), & \text{if } n \equiv m \equiv 3 \mod 4 \end{cases}$$

for any distinct odd integers n, m > 0 and  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

### The Jacobi symbol

#### Algorithm 2: Computing the Jacobi symbol

```
input: integer a and odd integer n > 0;
output: (\frac{a}{n})
begin
    b := a \mod n: c := n: s := 1:
   while b > 2 do
        while 4|b| do b := b/4;
       if 2|b then
           if c \mod 8 \in \{3,5\} then s := -s;
           b := b/2;
       if b = 1 then quit;
       if b \mod 4 = 3 = c \mod 4 then
         | s := -s; 
 (b, c) := (c \mod b, b); 
    return s \cdot b;
```

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