Quadratic Reciprocity via Linear Algebra

Steve Fan

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- 2 A Little Linear Algebra
- Gauss Sums
- 4 Proof of Quadratic Reciprocity

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Quadratic Residues & Non-residues

Let p be an odd prime and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $p \nmid a$. We say that a is a quadratic residue (mod p) if the congruence equation $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ is soluble in \mathbb{Z} , i.e., $a \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times 2}$.

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An integer $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is called a *quadratic non-residue* (mod p) if $a \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times} \setminus \mathbb{F}_p^{\times 2}$.

Examples

- $\mathfrak{P}_{17}^{\times 2} = \{\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 8\} \Rightarrow 3 \text{ is a quadratic non-residue (mod 17)}.$

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Facts

- For any odd prime p, $\#\mathbb{F}_p^{\times 2} = \#(\mathbb{F}_p^{\times} \setminus \mathbb{F}_p^{\times 2}) = (p-1)/2$.
- 2 $R \times R = R$, $N \times N = R$, and $R \times N = N$.

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The Legendre Symbol

We define the Legendre symbol by

$$\left(rac{a}{
ho}
ight) = \left\{egin{array}{ll} 1, & ext{if } a \in \mathbb{F}_{
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Then Fact 2 can be reformulated as

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

for $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_p^{\times}$.

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Proposition 1.1 (Euler's Criterion)

Let p be an odd prime and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $p \nmid a$. Then

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

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The Law of Quadratic Reciprocity

Theorem 1.2 (Euler)

For any odd prime p, $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p^2-1}{8}}$.

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The Law of Quadratic Reciprocity

Theorem 1.2 (Euler)

For any odd prime p, $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p^2-1}{8}}$.

Theorem 1.3 (Law of Quadratic Reciprocity)

Let p and q be distinct odd primes. Then

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

The Law of Quadratic Reciprocity

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Theorem 1.3 (Law of Quadratic Reciprocity)

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Example

3 is a quadratic non-residue (mod 17), because

$$\left(\frac{3}{17}\right) = \left(\frac{17}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = -1.$$

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Counting Proofs of Theorem 1.3

There are now over 240 published proofs!

- Induction
- Binary quadratic forms
- Gauss sums
- Lattice points counting
- Trigonometric functions
- Galois theory applied to cyclotomic fields
- Matrix theory
- **1** Fourier analysis on $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$

- Dedekind sums
- Brauer groups
- K-groups
- Formal groups
- Theta functions
- Recurring sequences
- Elliptic curves

. . .

Quaternion algebras

I will present a simple, elementary proof, essentially due to Schur, based on tools from linear algebra.

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Starting with A Matrix

It all starts with the symmetric matrix $A = (\zeta_n^{rs})$:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \zeta_n & \zeta_n^2 & \zeta_n^3 & \dots & \zeta_n^{n-1} \\ 1 & \zeta_n^2 & \zeta_n^4 & \zeta_n^6 & \dots & \zeta_n^{2(n-1)} \\ 1 & \zeta_n^3 & \zeta_n^6 & \zeta_n^9 & \dots & \zeta_n^{3(n-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \zeta_n^{n-1} & \zeta_n^{2(n-1)} & \zeta_n^{3(n-1)} & \dots & \zeta_n^{(n-1)^2} \end{bmatrix},$$

where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is odd and $\zeta_n := e^{2\pi i/n}$.

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where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is odd and $\zeta_n := e^{2\pi i/n}$. Note that A is an $n \times n$ Vandermonde matrix with trace

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \zeta_n^{r^2}.$$

The Magic within A^2

One can compute

$$A^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} n & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & n \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & n & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & n & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Note that A^2/n is a permutation matrix with determinant $(-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}}$. So $\det(A^2) = (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} n^n$.

We compute the determinant of A as follows:

$$\det(A) = \prod_{0 \le s < r \le n-1} (\zeta_n^r - \zeta_n^s) = \prod_{0 \le s < r \le n-1} \zeta_{2n}^{r+s} \left(\zeta_{2n}^{r-s} - \zeta_{2n}^{-(r-s)} \right).$$

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Observe

$$2\sum_{0 \le s < r \le n-1} (r+s) = \sum_{0 \le s < r \le n-1} (r+s) + \sum_{0 \le r < s \le n-1} (r+s)$$

$$= \sum_{r,s=0}^{n-1} (r+s) - \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} 2r$$

$$= 2n\sum_{r=0}^{n-1} r - 2\sum_{r=0}^{n-1} r$$

$$= 2(n-1) \cdot \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = n(n-1)^{2}.$$

So

$$\sum_{0 \le s < r \le n-1} (r+s) = 2n \left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right)^2 \in \mathbb{N}.$$

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Hence

$$\det(A) = \prod_{0 \le s < r \le n-1} \left(\zeta_{2n}^{r-s} - \zeta_{2n}^{-(r-s)} \right) = i^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} P_n,$$

where

$$P_n := \prod_{0 \le s \le r \le n-1} 2 \sin \frac{(r-s)\pi}{n} > 0.$$

It is clear that $\det(A^2) = \det(A)^2 = (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} P_n^2$.

So

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It is clear that $\det(A^2) = \det(A)^2 = (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} P_n^2$. But we just proved that $\det(A^2) = (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} n^n$. Therefore, $P_n = n^{\frac{n}{2}}$ and $\det(A) = i^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}} n^{\frac{n}{2}}$.

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The Trace of A

Recall that

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \zeta_n^{r^2}.$$

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The Trace of A

Recall that

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \zeta_n^{r^2}.$$

From this it follows that

$$|\operatorname{tr}(A)|^{2} = \sum_{r,s=0}^{n-1} \zeta_{n}^{r^{2}-s^{2}} = \sum_{r,s=0}^{n-1} \zeta_{n}^{(r+s)(r-s)}$$

$$= \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \sum_{s=0}^{n-1} \zeta_{n}^{(t+2s)t} \qquad (t=r-s)$$

$$= n,$$

which gives $|tr(A)| = \sqrt{n}$.

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Let us revisit

$$A^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} n & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & n \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & n & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & n & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & n & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

One can show that $A^4 = n^2 I$ and that A^2 has eigenvalues n with multiplicity (n+1)/2 and -n with multiplicity (n-1)/2.

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One can show that $A^4 = n^2 I$ and that A^2 has eigenvalues n with multiplicity (n+1)/2 and -n with multiplicity (n-1)/2.

Suppose that A has eigenvalues $i^k \sqrt{n}$ with multiplicity a_k for each $k \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$. Then

$$a_0 + a_2 = \frac{n+1}{2}$$
 and $a_1 + a_3 = \frac{n-1}{2}$.

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Since
$$tr(A) = [(a_0 - a_2) + i(a_1 - a_3)]\sqrt{n}$$
, we have
$$n = |tr(A)|^2 = [(a_0 - a_2)^2 + (a_1 - a_3)^2]n,$$

which yields

$$(a_0 - a_2)^2 + (a_1 - a_3)^2 = 1.$$

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Moreover,

$$i^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}}n^{\frac{n}{2}} = \det(A) = \prod_{k=0}^{3} (i^k \sqrt{n})^{a_k} = i^{a_1 + 2a_2 + 3a_3}n^{\frac{n}{2}},$$

which implies

$$a_1 + 2a_2 + 3a_3 \equiv \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \pmod{4}.$$

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The Trace of A

In summary, we have proved the following:

1

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \zeta_n^{r^2} = [(a_0 - a_2) + i(a_1 - a_3)]\sqrt{n}.$$

2

$$a_0 + a_2 = \frac{n+1}{2}$$
 and $a_1 + a_3 = \frac{n-1}{2}$.

3

$$(a_0-a_2)^2+(a_1-a_3)^2=1, \quad a_k\in\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}.$$

4

$$a_1 + 2a_2 + 3a_3 \equiv \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \pmod{4}.$$

Combining these four facts, one can obtain

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \zeta_n^{r^2} = \begin{cases} \sqrt{n}, & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \text{ (mod 4)}, \\ i\sqrt{n}, & \text{if } n \equiv 3 \text{ (mod 4)}. \end{cases}$$

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For $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we define

$$S_n(m):=\sum_{r=0}^{n-1}\zeta_n^{r^2m},$$

so that $tr(A) = S_n(1)$.

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Proposition 3.1

Given $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ with gcd(m, n) = 1, we have $S_m(n)S_n(m) = S_{mn}(1)$.

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Proposition 3.1

Given $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ with gcd(m, n) = 1, we have $S_m(n)S_n(m) = S_{mn}(1)$.

Let p be an odd prime. We define the Gauss sum $G_p(m)$ by

$$G_p(m) := \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{r}{p}\right) \zeta_p^{rm}.$$

Clearly, $G_p(m) = 0$ if $p \mid m$.

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The relationship between S and G can be deduced as follows:

$$S_p(m) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \zeta_p^{r^2 m} = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \left(1 + \left(\frac{r}{p}\right)\right) \zeta_p^{rm} = G_p(m).$$

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The relationship between S and G can be deduced as follows:

$$S_p(m) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \zeta_p^{r^2 m} = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \left(1 + \left(\frac{r}{p}\right)\right) \zeta_p^{rm} = G_p(m).$$

Moreover, the values of $G_p(m)$ are completely determined by (m/p) and $G_p(1)$:

$$G_{p}(m) = \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{r}{p}\right) \zeta_{p}^{rm} = \left(\frac{m}{p}\right) \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{rm}{p}\right) \zeta_{p}^{rm}$$
$$= \left(\frac{m}{p}\right) \sum_{r=0}^{p-1} \left(\frac{r}{p}\right) \zeta_{p}^{r} = \left(\frac{m}{p}\right) G_{p}(1),$$

provided that $p \nmid m$.

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Proof of Quadratic Reciprocity

Let p and q be distinct odd primes. We have seen that

$$S_p(1) = G_p(1) = \operatorname{tr}(A) = \delta(p)\sqrt{p}$$

for n = p, where

$$\delta(p) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ i, & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

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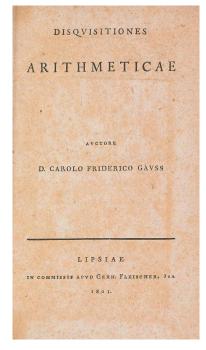
$$\delta(p) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ i, & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

By Proposition 3.1, we have

$$\delta(pq)\sqrt{pq} = G_{pq}(1) = G_q(p)G_p(q) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)G_q(1)G_p(1)$$

$$= \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)\delta(p)\delta(q)\sqrt{pq}. \qquad Q.E.D.$$

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The fundamental theorem must certainly be regarded as one of the most elegant of its type.

— C. F. Gauss

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