

# Quadratic Residue Summary and Examples

## Summary of Theorems and Properties

**Quadratic Residues and Non-residues:** An element  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is a *quadratic residue* modulo  $p$  if the congruence  $x^2 \equiv_p a$  has a solution.  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is a *quadratic non-residue* modulo  $p$  if the congruence  $x^2 \equiv_p a$  does *not* have a solution.

### Euler's Criterion:

- $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is a quadratic residue if and only if  $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv_p +1$ .
- $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is a quadratic non-residue if and only if  $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv_p -1$ .

### Legendre Symbol:

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

**Various facts used to compute  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ .** For all of these, let  $p, q$  be odd primes ( $p \neq q$ ) and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ .

- (Restating Euler's Criterion)  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = +1 \iff a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv_p +1$ , and  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1 \iff a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv_p -1$ .
- $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv_p a^{\frac{p-1}{2}}$
- If  $a \equiv_p b$ , then  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$ .
- $\left(\frac{a \cdot b}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$
- $\sum_{a=1}^{p-1} \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 0$
- (Law of Quadratic Reciprocity)

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

(The book states it slightly differently - I think this way is more convenient when performing calculations.)

- (Gauss' Lemma) Let  $n$  be the number of elements in the set  $S = \left\{a, 2a, \dots, \left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)a\right\}$  that reduce to an element greater than  $\frac{p}{2}$  modulo  $p$ . Then

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

Here are a few specific values of which you should be aware. There are others stated in the book and homework, but these are the most important:

- $\left(\frac{1}{p}\right) = 1$
- $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$
- $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8} \end{cases}$

## Examples

1.

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{3}{97}\right) &= (-1)^{\frac{97-1}{2} \cdot \frac{3-1}{2}} \left(\frac{97}{3}\right) \\ &= (-1)^{48} \left(\frac{97}{3}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

2.

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{3}{389}\right) &= (-1)^{\frac{389-1}{2} \cdot \frac{3-2}{1}} \left(\frac{389}{3}\right) \\ &= (-1)^{194} \left(\frac{389}{3}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \\ &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

3.  $\left(\frac{22}{11}\right) = 0$

4.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left(\frac{5!}{7}\right) &= \binom{5}{7} \binom{4}{7} \binom{3}{7} \binom{2}{7} \binom{1}{7} \\
 &= \binom{5}{7} \binom{2}{7}^2 \binom{3}{7} \binom{2}{7} \binom{1}{7} = \binom{5}{7} \binom{3}{7} \binom{2}{7}^3 \cdot 1 \\
 &= (-1)^{\frac{5-1}{2} \cdot \frac{7-1}{2}} \binom{7}{5} (-1)^{\frac{3-1}{2} \cdot \frac{7-1}{2}} \binom{7}{3} \cdot 1^3 \\
 &= (-1)^6 \binom{2}{5} (-1)^3 \binom{1}{3} \\
 &= (1)(-1)(-1)(1) = 1
 \end{aligned}$$

5.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left(\frac{880}{863}\right) &= \binom{2^4 \cdot 5 \cdot 11}{863} \\
 &= \left(\frac{2}{863}\right)^4 \binom{5}{863} \binom{11}{863} \\
 &= 1 \cdot (-1)^{\frac{5-1}{2} \cdot \frac{863-1}{2}} \binom{863}{5} (-1)^{\frac{11-1}{2} \cdot \frac{863-1}{2}} \binom{863}{11} \\
 &= \left(\frac{3}{5}\right) (-1) \binom{5}{11} \\
 &= (-1)(-1) \binom{5}{11} \\
 &= (-1)^{\frac{5-1}{2} \cdot \frac{11-1}{2}} \binom{11}{5} \\
 &= \binom{1}{5} \\
 &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

6. “Show that there are infinitely many primes of the form  $4k + 1$ .”

*Proof.* Assume that there are finitely many such primes, say  $p_1 (= 5), p_2, \dots, p_n$ , and let  $N = 4p_1^2 \dots p_n^2 + 1$  and  $x = 2p_1 \dots p_n$ . Now  $N$  is of the form  $4k + 1$ , and  $N > p_i$  for all  $i$ , so  $N$  must be composite. Since  $N$  is odd, its prime divisors are odd (and not of the form  $4k + 1$ ). If  $p$  is a prime divisor of  $N$ ,  $p|x^2 + 1$ , so  $x^2 + 1 \equiv_p 0$  and  $x^2 \equiv_p -1$ . Thus  $-1$  is a quadratic modulo  $p$ , so  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  (by exercise 4.1.6) and  $p = 4k + 1$  for some  $k$ . But then  $p|N$  and  $p|p_1 \dots p_n$  implies  $p|4p_1^2 \dots p_n^2$  (since  $p$  is one of those primes) and thus  $p|N - (N - 1) = 1$ , a contradiction. Thus there are infinitely many such primes. **Q.E.D.**

7. “Show that there are infinitely many primes of the form  $6k + 1$ .” [Proof uses the result of and hint from Exercise 4.3.4.]

*Proof.* Assume that there are finitely many such primes, say  $p_1 (= 7), p_2, \dots, p_n$ , and let  $N = 4p_1^2 \dots p_n^2 + 3$  and  $x = 2p_1 \dots p_n$ . Note that  $N > p_i$  for all  $i$ , and  $N = 4(6(\dots) + 1) + 3 \equiv_6 7 \equiv_6 1$  so  $N$  is of the form  $6k + 1$ , and so  $N$  must be composite. Since  $N$  is odd, its prime

divisors are odd (and not of the form  $6k + 1$ ). If  $p$  is a prime divisor of  $N$ ,  $p|x^2 + 3$ , so  $x^2 + 3 \equiv_p 0$  and  $x^2 \equiv_p -3$ . Thus  $-3$  is a quadratic modulo  $p$ , so  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$  (by exercise 4.3.4) and  $p = 6k + 1$  for some  $k$ . But then  $p|N$  and  $p|p_1 \dots p_n$  implies  $p|4p_1^2 \dots p_n^2$  (since  $p$  is one of those primes) and thus  $p|N - (N - 1) = 1$ , a contradiction. Thus there are infinitely many such primes. **Q.E.D.**