MEM204-NUMBER THEORY

8th virtual lecture

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THE JACOBI SYMBOL

Let n > 1 be an odd integer and let

$$n=p_1^{n_1}\cdots p_k^{n_k}$$

be its prime factorization. Then, if $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is such that (a, n) = 1, the Jacobi symbol ($\sigma \dot{\nu} \mu \beta o \lambda o$ Jacobi) of a modulo n is

$$\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p_1}\right)^{n_1} \cdots \left(\frac{a}{p_k}\right)^{n_k},$$

where $\left(\frac{a}{p_i}\right)$ stands for the Legendre symbol of *a* modulo p_i (i = 1, ..., k).

- Clearly, $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) \in \{\pm 1\}$.
- If *n* is an odd prime, then the Jacobi symbol $(\frac{a}{n})$ coincides with the Legendre symbol $(\frac{a}{n})$. This means that the Jacobi symbol generalizes the Legendre symbol.
- As we will see today, the two symbols share even more properties.

Remark

Some times in the literature, both the Legendre and the Jacobi symbols are defined without the restriction (a, n) = 1. In this case, by definition, $(\frac{a}{n}) = 0$.

Remark

As we will see in more detail in the upcoming exercise set, if $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = -1$, then a is not a quadratic residue modulo n. However, the inverse is not true.

Proposition

Let m,n> 1 be odd numbers and $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}$ be co-prime to both m and n. Then the following hold:

1.
$$\left(\frac{ab}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{n}\right)\left(\frac{b}{n}\right)$$
.
2. $\left(\frac{a}{mn}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{m}\right)\left(\frac{a}{n}\right)$.
3. $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{n}\right)$.
4. $\left(\frac{a^2}{n}\right) = 1$.

Proof

Assume that $n = p_1^{n_1} \cdots p_k^{n_k}$ and $m = p_1^{m_1} \cdots p_k^{m_k}$ $(n_i, m_i \ge 0)$.

1.
$$\left(\frac{ab}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{ab}{p_1}\right)^{n_1} \cdots \left(\frac{ab}{p_k}\right)^{n_k} = \left(\frac{a}{p_1}\right)^{n_1} \cdots \left(\frac{a}{p_k}\right)^{n_k} \left(\frac{b}{p_1}\right)^{n_1} \cdots \left(\frac{b}{p_k}\right)^{n_k} = \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) \left(\frac{b}{n}\right).$$

2.
$$\left(\frac{a}{mn}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p_1}\right)^{m_1+n_1} \cdots \left(\frac{a}{p_k}\right)^{m_k+n_k} = \left(\frac{a}{p_1}\right)^{m_1} \cdots \left(\frac{a}{p_k}\right)^{m_k} \left(\frac{a}{p_1}\right)^{n_1} \cdots \left(\frac{a}{p_k}\right)^{n_k} = \left(\frac{a}{m}\right) \left(\frac{a}{n}\right).$$

3. Let $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$. Then, clearly, $a \equiv b \pmod{p_i}$ for every *i*. Hence

$$\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p_1}\right)^{n_1} \cdots \left(\frac{a}{p_k}\right)^{n_k} = \left(\frac{b}{p_1}\right)^{n_1} \cdots \left(\frac{b}{p_k}\right)^{n_k} = \left(\frac{b}{n}\right).$$

$$4. \quad \left(\frac{a^2}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a^2}{p_1}\right)^{n_1} \cdots \left(\frac{a^2}{p_k}\right)^{n_k} = 1.$$

Proposition

Let n be an odd number. Then

$$\left(\frac{-1}{n}\right) = (-1)^{(n-1)/2}$$

and

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

Proof

Assume that $n = p_1 \cdots p_k$, where the numbers p_1, \ldots, p_k are (not necessarily distinct) odd primes. Then

$$\left(\frac{-1}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p_1}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{-1}{p_k}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p_1-1}{2}} \cdots (-1)^{\frac{p_k-1}{2}} = (-1)^p,$$

where $P = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{p_i - 1}{2}$. Thus it suffices to show that

$$P \equiv (n - 1)/2 \pmod{2}$$
.

The above follows from the fact that, if p, q are odd primes,

$$(p-1)(q-1) \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \Rightarrow pq-1 \equiv p+q-2 \pmod{4},$$

that is,

$$\frac{pq-1}{2} \equiv \frac{p-1}{2} + \frac{q-1}{2} \pmod{2}.$$

Proof (cont.)

Similarly,

$$\left(\frac{2}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{p_1}\right)\cdots\left(\frac{2}{p_k}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p_1^2-1}{8}}\cdots(-1)^{\frac{p_k^2-1}{8}} = (-1)^Q,$$

where $Q = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{p_i^2 - 1}{8}$. Thus it suffices to show that

$$Q \equiv (n^2 - 1)/8 \pmod{2}$$
.

The above follows from the fact that, if p, q are odd primes, then $p^2 \equiv q^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$, hence

 $(p^2-1)(q^2-1) \equiv 0 \pmod{64} \Rightarrow (pq)^2-1 \equiv p^2+q^2-2 \pmod{64},$ that is,

$$\frac{(pq)^2 - 1}{8} \equiv \frac{p^2 - 1}{8} + \frac{q^2 - 1}{8} \pmod{8}.$$

Theorem (The quadratic reciprocity law for the Jacobi symbol)

Let m, n > 1 be odd, co-prime numbers. Then

$$\left(\frac{m}{n}\right)\left(\frac{n}{m}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{(m-1)(n-1)}{4}}.$$

Proof.

Omitted.

A FEW EXAMPLES AND APPLICATIONS

An interesting application

Theorem

Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1,$$

for all odd primes p, if and only if $a = b^2$, for some $b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. If $a = b^2$, for some *b*, then clearly for every odd prime p, $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{b^2}{p}\right) = 1$. Now assume that $a \neq b^2$, for all $b \in \mathbb{Z}$. It suffices to show that there exists some positive odd number *P*, such that $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$, since, in this case, there exists a prime factor *p* of *P*, with $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$. We distinguich three cases:

Proof (cont.)

If $a = \pm 2^k b$, where k, b are odd positive numbers. The Chinese Remainder Theorem implies that there exists some P, with

$$P \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$$
 and $P \equiv 1 \pmod{b}$.

It follows that 4 | P - 1, which combined with the fact that b - 1 is even, yields that $\frac{(P-1)(b-1)}{4}$ is even. Now the quadratic reciprocity law yields

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{b}{P} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{P}{b} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{b} \end{pmatrix} = 1.$$

Moreover, $P \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$, implies $\left(\frac{-1}{P}\right) = 1$ and $\left(\frac{2}{P}\right) = -1$. Hence,

$$\binom{a}{P} = \binom{\pm 1}{P} \binom{2}{P}^k \binom{b}{P} = 1 \cdot (-1)^k \cdot 1 = -1.$$

Proof (cont.)

If $a = \pm 2^{2h}q^k b$, where q is an odd prime and k, b are odd numbers and $q \nmid b$. The Chinese Remainder Theorem implies that there exists some P, with

 $P \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, $P \equiv 1 \pmod{b}$ and $P \equiv c \pmod{q}$, where c is a non-quadratic residue modulo q. It follows that $4 \mid P - 1$, which combined with the fact that b - 1 is even, yields that $\frac{(P-1)(b-1)}{4}$ is even. Now the quadratic reciprocity law yields

$$\left(\frac{b}{P}\right) = \left(\frac{P}{b}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{b}\right) = 1.$$

Similarly, $\left(\frac{q^k}{P}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{P}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{c}{q}\right) = -1$. Finally, we get that

$$\binom{a}{P} = \binom{\pm 1}{P} \binom{2^{2h}}{P} \binom{q^k}{P} \binom{b}{P} = -1.$$

If $a = -b^2$, where $b \in \mathbb{Z}$. As before, let P be such that

$$P \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$$
 and $(P, b) = 1$,

then

$$\binom{a}{P} = \binom{-1}{P} \binom{b^2}{P} = -1.$$

This concludes the proof.

An example

We will show that, if *n* is a positive odd number,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 6\\ \overline{n} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n \equiv \pm 1 \text{ or } \pm 5 \pmod{24}, \\ -1, & \text{if } n \equiv \pm 7 \text{ or } \pm 11 \pmod{24}. \end{cases}$$

We have that

$$\binom{6}{n} = \binom{2}{n}\binom{3}{n} = (-1)^{(n^2-1)/8}\binom{3}{n} = (-1)^{\frac{n^2-1}{8} + \frac{n-1}{2}}\binom{n}{3}.$$

The result follows from the facts

$$(-1)^{\frac{n^2-1}{8}+\frac{n-1}{2}} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \text{ or } 3 \pmod{8}, \\ -1, & \text{if } n \equiv -1 \text{ or } -3 \pmod{8}, \end{cases}$$
$$\binom{n}{3} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ -1, & \text{if } n \equiv -1 \pmod{3}, \end{cases}$$

and the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

Stay home, stay safe!