

Now: HW4 Solutions.

Quadratic Reciprocity

1. Compute $\left(\frac{47}{67}\right)$

2. Compute $\left(\frac{-2}{p}\right)$

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

4. ∞ many primes $3 \pmod 8$.

$$\left(\frac{47}{67}\right) = \left(\frac{67}{47}\right) (-1)^{\frac{47-1}{2} \frac{67-1}{2}}$$

odd

$$= - \left(\frac{67}{47}\right) = - \left(\frac{20}{47}\right)$$

$$= - \left(\frac{2^2 \cdot 5}{47}\right) = - \left(\frac{2}{47}\right)^2 \left(\frac{5}{47}\right)$$

$$= - \left(\frac{5}{47}\right) = - \left(\frac{47}{5}\right) (-1)^{\frac{5-1}{2} \frac{47-1}{2}}$$

even

$$= - \left(\frac{47}{5} \right) = - \left(\frac{2}{5} \right)$$

Is 2 square mod 5? NO.

a	1	2	3	4
a ²	1	4	4	1

$$\downarrow = -(-1) = +1.$$

Conclusion: 47 is square mod 67.

Since 67 is prime, there are exactly two square roots. My computer found them:

$$\sqrt{47} = 28 \text{ or } 39 \text{ mod } 67.$$

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p} \right) = \begin{cases} +1 & p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1 & p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

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

Goal: Compute $\left(\frac{-2}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \left(\frac{2}{p}\right)$.

$$= \begin{cases} +1 & p=1(4) \text{ \& } p=1,7(8) \\ +1 & p=3(4) \text{ \& } p=3,5(8) \\ -1 & p=1(4) \text{ \& } p=3,5(8) \\ -1 & p=3(4) \text{ \& } p=1,7(8) \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} +1 & p=1 \pmod 8 \\ +1 & p=3 \pmod 8 \\ -1 & p=5 \pmod 8 \\ -1 & p=7 \pmod 8 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} +1 & p=1,3(8) \\ -1 & p=5,7(8) \end{cases}$$

4. Let p_1, \dots, p_k be any primes of the form $3 \pmod 8$. We will find another prime $p=3 \pmod 8$ that is not in the list.

TRICK: $N = (p_1 p_2 \dots p_k)^2 + 2$.

Since $p_i = 3 \pmod 8$
 $p_i^2 = 1 \pmod 8$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} N &= p_1^2 p_2^2 \cdots p_k^2 + 2 \\ &= 1 \cdot 1 \cdots 1 + 2 = 3 \pmod{8}. \end{aligned}$$

(In particular, N is odd.)

For any prime $p \mid N$ we have

$$0 = N \pmod{p}.$$

$$0 = (p_1 \cdots p_k)^2 + 2 \pmod{p}$$

$$-2 = (p_1 \cdots p_k)^2 \pmod{p}.$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{-2}{p} \right) = +1$$

$$\Rightarrow p = 1 \text{ or } 3 \pmod{8}.$$

Now factor N into primes:

$$N = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_l$$

we know $q_i = 1 \text{ or } 3 \pmod{8} \forall i$.

Suppose $q_i = 1 \pmod{8} \forall i$. Then

$$N = 1 \cdot 1 \cdots 1 = 1 \pmod{8}.$$

Contradicts the fact $N = 3 \pmod{8}$.

Therefore \exists some factor $q_i = 3 \pmod{8}$.

We have shown \exists prime p such that $p \mid N$ (i.e. $N = 0 \pmod{p}$)

and $p = 3 \pmod{8}$. I claim that this p is not in the list p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k .

Indeed, for any i we have

$$N = p_i (\text{something}) + 2$$

$$= 2 \pmod{p_i}$$

If $p = p_i$ then this contradicts the fact that $N = 0 \pmod{p}$.

(Because $p \neq 2$ hence $0 \neq 2 \pmod{p}$.)

Q.E.D.

3. Compute $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right)$, $p > 3$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Q.R.: } \left(\frac{3}{p}\right) &= \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) (-1)^{\frac{3-1}{2} \frac{p-1}{2}} \\ &= \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & p \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \\ -1 & p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

$$(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \begin{cases} +1 & p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1 & p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

Hence:

$$\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & p \equiv 1(3) \text{ \& } p \equiv 1(4) & p \equiv 1(12) \\ +1 & p \equiv 2(3) \text{ \& } p \equiv 3(4) & p \equiv 11(12) \\ -1 & p \equiv 1(3) \text{ \& } p \equiv 3(4) & p \equiv 7(12) \\ -1 & p \equiv 2(3) \text{ \& } p \equiv 1(4) & p \equiv 5(12) \end{cases}$$

Recall the CRT bijection

$$(\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z})^\times \longrightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z})^\times \times (\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^\times$$

$x \bmod 12$

$(x \bmod 3, x \bmod 4)$

1

(1, 1)

5

(2, 1)

7

(1, 3)

11

(2, 3)

Summary:

$$\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & p = 1, 11 \bmod 12 \\ -1 & p = 5, 7 \bmod 12 \end{cases}$$

Does this simplify any further?

Actually there is a pattern.

For odd primes $p \neq q$ it is true that

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = +1 \iff p = \pm \beta^2 \bmod 4q, \\ \text{for an odd integer} \\ 1 \leq \beta < \sqrt{4q}.$$

Example:

$$\left(\frac{7}{p}\right) = +1 \iff p = \pm 1, \pm 9, \pm 25 \bmod 28.$$

It turns out this is hard to prove.
Actually, it is equivalent to Q.R.

The end of Q.R. (for us).

What Next?

Solve the equation $x^2 + y^2 = z$
by studying prime factorization in
the ring of "Gaussian integers"

$$\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-1}] = \left\{ a + b\sqrt{-1} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

It turns out this ring has the
"unique prime factorization" property.

We will prove a more general result that
also applies to the rings

$$\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-2}], \mathbb{Z}\left[\frac{1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}\right], \text{ and others...}$$

First let's just think about \mathbb{Z} .

Def: Say $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ is prime if
for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$a|p \Rightarrow a=1 \text{ or } a=p.$$

This implies that 1 is prime.

Do we want that?

Fancier Definition: First note that
 $ab=1 \Rightarrow a=\pm 1 \text{ or } -1.$

We say that ± 1 are the units of
the ring \mathbb{Z} , i.e., the elements that
have "multiplicative inverse."

Say $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ is prime if $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$p=ab \Rightarrow a=\pm 1 \text{ or } b=\pm 1$$

(a or b is a unit).

$$(|a|=1 \text{ or } |b|=1)$$

Note: This definition allows negative

numbers to be prime.

$\pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 5, \pm 7, \dots$ are prime.

What about ± 1 ?

Rephrase: p is prime if

- p not a unit
- $p = ab \Rightarrow a$ or b is a unit.

Same idea works in the ring of polynomials $\mathbb{F}[x]$ over a field \mathbb{F} .

What are the units?

When is $\frac{1}{f(x)}$ a polynomial?

Answer: When $f(x)$ is a nonzero constant.

Def: Polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ is prime (a.k.a. "irreducible") when

- $f(x)$ not a unit
- $f(x) = g(x)h(x) \Rightarrow g(x)$ or $h(x)$ is a unit.

Example: $x^2 + 1 \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is prime.

So is $2x^2 + 2$. For any $0 \neq a \in \mathbb{Q}$,
the polynomial $ax^2 + a \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ is prime

What about Gaussian integers?

What are the units?

$$i = \sqrt{-1}$$

$$(a+bi)(c+di) = 1 + 0i.$$

TRICK: Consider the squared absolute value.

$$|a+bi|^2 |c+di|^2 = |1+0i|^2$$

$$(a^2+b^2)(c^2+d^2) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow a^2+b^2 = \pm 1$$

$$a^2+b^2 = +1 \quad (\text{positive}).$$

Since $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ this implies that

$$(a, b) = (1, 0), (-1, 0), (0, 1), (0, -1)$$

$$a+bi = 1, -1, i, -i.$$

The ring $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ has 4 units

For the purpose of factorization we should just ignore the units.

Def: Say $a+bi \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ is prime if

• $a+bi \notin \{\pm 1, \pm i\}$

• for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$,

$$a+bi = \alpha\beta \implies \alpha \in \{\pm 1, \pm i\} \text{ or } \beta \in \{\pm 1, \pm i\}.$$

Sounds complicated, but need to define it this way if we want unique factorization.

Examples:

$$5 = 2^2 + 1^2 = (2+i)(2-i)$$

So $5 \in \mathbb{Z}$ is prime

but $5 \in \mathbb{Z}[i]$ is not prime.

More generally, if a prime $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ can be written as $p = a^2 + b^2$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$,

Then p is not a "Gaussian prime"
because

$$p = a^2 + b^2 = (a+bi)(a-bi)$$

It will turn out that prime $p \in \mathbb{Z}$
is a Gaussian prime $\Leftrightarrow p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

To prove uniqueness there are
two steps.

(1) Show that every number is
a product of primes.

(2) Show that for a, b, p with p prime
we have $\boxed{p \mid ab \Rightarrow p \mid a \text{ or } p \mid b.}$
"Euclid's Lemma"

Quick Example: Suppose

$$p_1 p_2 = q_1 q_2 \quad (p_1, p_2, q_1, q_2 \text{ prime})$$

$$p_1 \mid q_1 q_2 \Rightarrow p_1 \mid q_1 \text{ or } p_1 \mid q_2.$$

Say $p_1 | q_1$. Say $q_1 = p_1 k$.

Since q_1 is prime this means

~~p_1 unit~~ or k unit. ✓

Conclude $p_1 = q_1$ (same unit).

$p_1 \sim q_1$ "basically the same".

Then it also follows that

$$p_2 \sim q_2.$$

Hence $p_1 p_2 = q_1 q_2$ "uniqueness"

$$\Rightarrow p_1 \sim q_1 \text{ \& } p_2 \sim q_2$$