



Quadratic
reciprocity and
higher
reciprocity laws

Henry Twiss

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Quadratic reciprocity and higher reciprocity laws

Henry Twiss

University of Minnesota

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- Legendre (1785) proved the law of quadratic reciprocity in special cases.
- First complete proof due to Gauss (April 8, 1796).
- Gauss published six distinct proofs of the law before his death.
- By 1921 there were 56 know proofs.
- Eisenstein is credited with the proofs of the laws of cubic and biquadratic reciprocity.



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Definition 2.1

If $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \neq 0$, we say that a is congruent to b modulo m if m divides $a - b$. This relation is written

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}.$$

This is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} . We say

$$\bar{a} = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n \equiv a \pmod{m}\}$$

is the congruence class of a modulo m . We write $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}$ for the set of congruence classes modulo m . As a set, $\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \dots, \overline{m-1}\}$. It is a ring under the operations

$$\bar{a} + \bar{b} = \overline{a+b} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{a}\bar{b} = \overline{ab}.$$

When $m = p$ a prime, $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is a field.



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Let p be prime. It is an interesting question to ask when $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ has a square root in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$. This is equivalent to a solution to the equation

$$x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}.$$

If this equation has a solution, we say a is a quadratic residue mod p ; if not we say a is a quadratic nonresidue mod p . From now on we assume p is odd.

For example, $1^2, 2^2, 3^2, 4^2, 5^2,$ and 6^2 are congruent to 1, 4, 2, 2, 4, and 1, respectively mod 7. So 1, 2, and 4 are the quadratic residues mod 7 while 3, 5, and 6 are the nonresidues. This is a tedious process of finding quadratic residues!



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It is natural to ask the following questions:

- If $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ has a solution, how many solutions are there?
- How many quadratic residues mod p are there?
- Is there a quick way to determine if a is a quadratic residue mod p ?

The first question is easy to answer. If $a = 0$, $x = 0$ is the only solution, and if $a \neq 0$ then there are either zero or two solutions. The latter two questions are more difficult and will require the Legendre symbol.



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Definition 2.2

Let p be an odd prime and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. The Legendre symbol (a/p) is defined by

$$(a/p) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic residue mod } p, \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic nonresidue mod } p, \\ 0 & \text{if } p \mid a. \end{cases}$$

It satisfies the following properties:

- $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (a/p) \pmod{p}$.
- $(ab/p) = (a/p)(b/p)$.
- If $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$, then $(a/p) = (b/p)$.

This induces a well-defined homomorphism

$$(-/p) : (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \rightarrow \{\pm 1\} \quad \bar{a} \mapsto (a/p).$$



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Definition 2.2

Let p be an odd prime and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. The Legendre symbol (a/p) is defined by

$$(a/p) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic residue mod } p, \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic nonresidue mod } p, \\ 0 & \text{if } p \mid a. \end{cases}$$

It satisfies the following properties:

- $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (a/p) \pmod{p}$.
- $(ab/p) = (a/p)(b/p)$.
- If $a \equiv b \pmod{p}$, then $(a/p) = (b/p)$.

This induces a well-defined homomorphism

$$(-/p) : (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \rightarrow \{\pm 1\} \quad \bar{a} \mapsto (a/p).$$



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We can now answer the second question. Since

$$\left(-\middle/p\right) : (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \rightarrow \{\pm 1\} \quad \bar{a} \mapsto (a/p)$$

is a homomorphism, $\ker(-\middle/p)$ (the set of quadratic residues) is an index 2 subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$. So there are as many quadratic residues as nonresidues and they are $(p-1)/2$ in size.

We also have the supplementary laws:

$$\left(-1\middle/p\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \quad \text{and} \quad \left(2\middle/p\right) = (-1)^{(p^2-1)/8}.$$

They are both necessary to prove the law of quadratic reciprocity.



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The law of quadratic reciprocity relates (p/q) and (q/p) .

Theorem 3.1

Let p and q be distinct odd primes. Then

$$(p/q)(q/p) = (-1)^{((p-1)/2)((q-1)/2)}.$$

The law of quadratic reciprocity lets us compute (a/p) efficiently. In this respect, it answers our third question in the affirmative.



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$$\begin{aligned}(79/101) &= (101/79) && \text{(law of quadratic reciprocity)} \\ &= (22/79) && (101 \equiv 22 \pmod{79}) \\ &= (2/79)(11/79) && \text{(multiplicativity)} \\ &= (11/79) && \text{(second supplementary law)} \\ &= -(79/11) && \text{(law of quadratic reciprocity)} \\ &= -(2/11) && (79 \equiv 2 \pmod{11}) \\ &= 1 && \text{(second supplementary law)}.\end{aligned}$$

We conclude 79 is a quadratic residue mod 101. Indeed, $33^2 \equiv 79 \pmod{101}$. This process is significantly more efficient to compute quadratic residues.



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We would like to understand solutions to the equation

$$x^3 \equiv a \pmod{p}.$$

It is best to work in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ where ω is the primitive cube root of unity. In $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ we have a norm N defined by

$$N\alpha := a^2 - ab + b^2 \quad (\text{for } \alpha = a + b\omega \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]).$$

If $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ is a prime such that $N\pi \neq 3$ and $\pi \nmid \alpha$, then there is a unique integer $m = 0, 1, 2$ such that

$$\alpha^{(N\pi-1)/3} \equiv \omega^m \pmod{\pi}.$$

This additional setup only appears for higher reciprocity laws since $-1 \in \mathbb{Z}$.



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We would like to understand solutions to the equation

$$x^3 \equiv a \pmod{p}.$$

It is best to work in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ where ω is the primitive cube root of unity. In $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ we have a norm N defined by

$$N\alpha := a^2 - ab + b^2 \quad (\text{for } \alpha = a + b\omega \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]).$$

If $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ is a prime such that $N\pi \neq 3$ and $\pi \nmid \alpha$, then there is a unique integer $m = 0, 1, 2$ such that

$$\alpha^{(N\pi-1)/3} \equiv \omega^m \pmod{\pi}.$$

This additional setup only appears for higher reciprocity laws since $-1 \in \mathbb{Z}$.



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Definition 4.1

Let π and m be as before. Then the cubic residue symbol $(\alpha/\pi)_3$ is defined by

$$(\alpha/\pi)_3 := \begin{cases} \omega^m & \text{if } \pi \nmid \alpha, \\ 0 & \text{if } \pi \mid \alpha. \end{cases}$$

We say α is a cubic residue mod π if $(\alpha/\pi)_3 = 1$ and a cubic nonresidue otherwise. The cubic residue symbol satisfies properties analogous to the Legendre symbol:

- $(\alpha/\pi)_3 = 1$ if and only if $x^3 \equiv \alpha \pmod{\pi}$ is solvable.
- $\alpha^{(N\pi-1)/3} \equiv (\alpha/\pi)_3 \pmod{\pi}$.
- $(\alpha\beta/\pi)_3 \equiv (\alpha/\pi)_3(\beta/\pi)_3$.
- If $\alpha \equiv \beta \pmod{\pi}$, then $(\alpha/\pi)_3 = (\beta/\pi)_3$.



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The units in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ are $\{\pm 1, \pm\omega, \pm\omega^2\}$. We single out associates of primes to play the role of positive primes in \mathbb{Z} .

Definition 4.2

If π is a prime in $\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$, we say π is primary if $\pi \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$.

Among the associates of π , exactly one is primary.

Theorem 4.1

Let λ and π be primary such that $N\lambda \neq 3$, $N\pi \neq 3$ and $N\lambda \neq N\pi$. Then

$$(\lambda/\pi)_3 = (\pi/\lambda)_3.$$



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We work in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$; there is a norm $N\pi = \pi\bar{\pi}$. If π is prime such that $N\pi \neq 2$, there is a unique $m \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ such that

$$\alpha^{(N\pi-1)/4} \equiv i^m \pmod{\pi}.$$

Let this define the biquadratic residue symbol $(\alpha/\pi)_4$. It satisfies analogous properties to the Legendre symbol. There is a notion of primary primes in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$.

Theorem 4.2

Let λ and π are primary with $N\lambda \neq 2$, $N\pi \neq 2$, and $N\lambda \neq N\pi$. Then

$$(\lambda/\pi)_4(\pi/\lambda)_4 = (-1)^{((N\lambda-1)/4)((N\pi-1)/4)}.$$



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Unifying Proofs of Reciprocity Laws

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With multiple proofs of quadratic, cubic, and biquadratic reciprocity, it is natural to ask if there is a “unifying idea” to prove all three. Gauss sums are this idea.

- Studied first by Gauss regarding quadratic reciprocity.
- Developed early in the 19th century in conjunction with Jacobi sums.
- They can be used to count solutions of polynomial equations over finite fields and thus zeta functions.



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A character χ on $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ is a multiplicative homomorphism

$$\chi : (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^* \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^*.$$

The Legendre symbol (t/p) is an example of a (quadratic) character on $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$. If ζ is a primitive p -th root of unity and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

$$g_a(\chi) := \sum_{t=0}^{p-1} \chi(t)\zeta^{at} = \chi(a) \sum_{t=0}^{p-1} \chi(t)\zeta^t$$

is called a Gauss sum. When $\chi(t) = (t/p)$ we call the sum a quadratic Gauss sum. Manipulations of quadratic Gauss sums lead to an elegant proof of the law of quadratic reciprocity. Similarly one can use cubic and biquadratic Gauss sums to prove the laws of cubic and biquadratic reciprocity.



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The Legendre symbol (t/p) is an example of a (quadratic) character on $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$. If ζ is a primitive p -th root of unity and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

$$g_a(\chi) := \sum_{t=0}^{p-1} \chi(t)\zeta^{at} = \chi(a) \sum_{t=0}^{p-1} \chi(t)\zeta^t$$

is called a Gauss sum. When $\chi(t) = (t/p)$ we call the sum a quadratic Gauss sum. Manipulations of quadratic Gauss sums lead to an elegant proof of the law of quadratic reciprocity.

Similarly one can use cubic and biquadratic Gauss sums to prove the laws of cubic and biquadratic reciprocity.



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Thanks!

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