

## 17. JACOBI SYMBOL

It is convenient to extend the definition of the Legendre symbol to the case that the term on the bottom is not prime.

**Definition 17.1.** *Let  $a$  and  $b$  be two integers where  $b$  is odd.*

$$\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{a}{p_2}\right) \left(\frac{a}{p_3}\right) \cdots \left(\frac{a}{p_r}\right),$$

where  $b = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r$  is the factorisation of  $b$  into primes.

The Jacobi symbol has all of the properties of the Legendre symbol, except one. Even if

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

it is not clear that  $a$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $b$ .

**Example 17.2.** *Is 2 a square modulo 15?*

The answer is no.  $15 = 3 \cdot 5$  and so if 2 is a square modulo 15 it is a square modulo 3. But 2 is not a square modulo 3. Let's compute the Jacobi symbol:

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{2}{15}\right) &= \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \left(\frac{2}{5}\right) \\ &= (-1)^2 \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

Note however if the Jacobi symbol is negative then  $a$  is not a quadratic residue modulo  $b$ , since there must be one prime factor of  $b$  for which the Legendre symbol is  $-1$ .

**Theorem 17.3.** *We have the following relations for the Jacobi symbol, whenever these symbols are defined:*

(1)

$$\left(\frac{a_1 a_2}{b}\right) = \left(\frac{a_1}{b}\right) \left(\frac{a_2}{b}\right).$$

(2)

$$\left(\frac{a}{b_1 b_2}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{b_1}\right) \left(\frac{a}{b_2}\right).$$

(3) *If  $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{b}$  then*

$$\left(\frac{a_1}{b}\right) = \left(\frac{a_2}{b}\right).$$

(4)

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

(5)

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

(6) If  $(a, b) = 1$  then

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

**Example 17.4.** *Is 1001 a quadratic residue modulo 9907?*

We already answered this type of question using Legendre symbols, let's now use Jacobi symbols.

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{1001}{9907}\right) &= \left(\frac{9907}{1001}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{898}{1001}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{1001}\right) \left(\frac{449}{1001}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1001}{449}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{103}{449}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{449}{103}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{37}{103}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{103}{37}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{29}{37}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{37}{29}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{8}{29}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{29}\right) \\ &= -1. \end{aligned}$$

Thus 1001 is not a quadratic residue modulo 9907.

*Proof of (17.3).* We first prove (1). Suppose that  $b = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$  is the prime factorisation of  $b$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{a_1 a_2}{b}\right) &= \left(\frac{a_1 a_2}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{a_1 a_2}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(\frac{a_1 a_2}{p_r}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{a_1}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{a_2}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{a_1}{p_2}\right) \left(\frac{a_2}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(\frac{a_1}{p_r}\right) \left(\frac{a_2}{p_r}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{a_1}{b}\right) \left(\frac{a_2}{b}\right). \end{aligned}$$

This is (1).

We now prove (2). Suppose that  $b_1 = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$  and  $b_2 = q_1 q_2 \dots q_s$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{a}{b_1 b_2}\right) &= \left(\frac{a}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{a}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(\frac{a}{p_r}\right) \left(\frac{a}{q_1}\right) \left(\frac{a}{q_2}\right) \dots \left(\frac{a}{q_s}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{a}{b_1}\right) \left(\frac{a}{b_2}\right). \end{aligned}$$

This is (2).

We now prove (3). Suppose that  $b = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$  is the prime factorisation of  $b$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{a_1}{b}\right) &= \left(\frac{a_1}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{a_1}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(\frac{a_1}{p_r}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{a_2}{p_1}\right) \left(\frac{a_2}{p_2}\right) \dots \left(\frac{a_2}{p_r}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{a_2}{b}\right). \end{aligned}$$

This is (3).

We now prove (4). Suppose that  $b = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$  is the prime factorisation of  $b$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{-1}{b}\right) &= \prod_{i=1}^r \left(\frac{-1}{p_i}\right) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^r (-1)^{(p_i-1)/2} \\ &= (-1)^{1/2 \sum_{i=1}^r (p_i-1)}. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, as  $m$  and  $n$  are odd, we have

$$\begin{aligned}(m-1)(n-1) &\equiv 0 \pmod{4} \\ mn-1 &\equiv (m-1) + (n-1) \pmod{4} \\ \frac{mn-1}{2} &\equiv m-12 + \frac{n-1}{2} \pmod{2}.\end{aligned}$$

By induction on  $r$  it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^r \frac{p_i-1}{2} &= \frac{\prod_{i=1}^r p_i-1}{2} \pmod{2} \\ &= \frac{b-1}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus is (4).

We now prove (5). Suppose that  $b = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$  is the prime factorisation of  $b$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\frac{2}{b}\right) &= \prod_{i=1}^r \left(\frac{2}{p_i}\right) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^r (-1)^{(p_i^2-1)/8} \\ &= (-1)^{1/8 \sum_{i=1}^r (p_i^2-1)}.\end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, as  $m$  and  $n$  are odd, we have  $m^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$  so that

$$\begin{aligned}(m^2-1)(n^2-1) &\equiv 0 \pmod{64} \\ m^2 n^2 - 1 &\equiv (m^2-1) + (n^2-1) \pmod{64} \\ \frac{m^2 n^2 - 1}{8} &\equiv \frac{m^2-1}{8} + \frac{n^2-1}{8} \pmod{8}.\end{aligned}$$

By induction on  $r$  it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^r \frac{p_i^2-1}{8} &= \frac{\prod_{i=1}^r p_i^2-1}{8} \pmod{8} \\ &= \frac{b^2-1}{8}.\end{aligned}$$

Thus is (5).

We now prove (6). Suppose that  $a = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$  and  $b = q_1 q_2 \dots q_s$ . As  $(a, b) = 1$ ,  $p_i \neq q_j$  for all  $i$  and  $j$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) \left(\frac{b}{a}\right) &= \prod_{i=1}^r \left(\frac{a}{q_i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^s \left(\frac{b}{p_j}\right) \\
&= \prod_{j=1}^s \prod_{i=1}^r \left(\frac{p_j}{q_i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^s \prod_{i=1}^r \left(\frac{q_i}{p_j}\right) \\
&= \prod_{j=1}^s \prod_{i=1}^r \left(\frac{p_j}{q_i}\right) \left(\frac{q_i}{p_j}\right) \\
&= \prod_{j=1}^s \prod_{i=1}^r (-1)^{\frac{p_j-1}{2} \frac{q_i-1}{2}} \\
&= (-1)^{\sum_{j=1}^s \sum_{i=1}^r \frac{p_j-1}{2} \frac{q_i-1}{2}} \\
&= (-1)^{\sum_{j=1}^s \frac{p_j-1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^r \frac{q_i-1}{2}} \\
&= (-1)^{\sum_{j=1}^s \frac{a-1}{2} \frac{b-1}{2}}. \quad \square
\end{aligned}$$

We now use Jacobi symbols to give an ideal characterisation of when a number is a square, using only modular arithmetic.

**Theorem 17.5.** *An integer  $a$  is a square if and only if it is a square modulo every prime  $p$ .*

*Proof.* One direction is clear; if  $a = b^2$  then  $a \equiv b^2 \pmod{p}$ .

Now suppose that  $a$  is a square modulo every prime  $p$ . More precisely the equation

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

has a solution for every prime  $p$ .

The proof divides into four cases. Consider the prime factorisation of  $a$ . The first two cases cover the case when some prime factor has odd exponent and the last two cases deal with the case when  $a$  is a square up to sign. More precisely

- I The exponent of 2 is odd.
- II The exponent of 2 is even but some odd prime factor has odd exponent.
- III  $-a$  is a square.
- IV  $a$  is a square.

We show that we cannot be in cases (I), (II) or (III) by exhibiting an integer  $P$  with the property that the Jacobi symbol

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

In this case there must be a prime factor  $p$  of  $P$  with the property that the Legendre symbol

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

Case I: We may write  $a = \pm 2^k b$  where  $b$  and  $k$  are odd. Since  $b$  is odd, by the Chinese remainder theorem we may pick  $P$  such that

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

We have

$$\left(\frac{2}{P}\right) = 1,$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{-2}{P}\right) &= \left(\frac{-1}{P}\right) \left(\frac{2}{P}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{P}\right) \\ &= -1. \end{aligned}$$

As  $k$  is odd,  $k - 1$  is even and so

$$\left(\frac{2^{k-1}}{P}\right) = 1.$$

Finally, since  $P \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$  we have  $P \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and so

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{b}{P}\right) &= \left(\frac{P}{b}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{b}\right) \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{a}{P}\right) &= \left(\frac{\pm 2}{P}\right) \left(\frac{2^{k-1}}{P}\right) \left(\frac{b}{P}\right) \\ &= -1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \\ &= -1. \end{aligned}$$

Case II: We may write  $a = \pm 2^{2h} q^k b$  where  $b$  and  $k$  are odd,  $q$  is an odd prime and  $(q, b) = 1$ . Pick an integer  $n$  which is not a quadratic

residue modulo  $q$ . Since 4,  $b$  and  $q$  are pairwise coprime, by the Chinese remainder theorem we may pick  $P$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} P &\equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ P &\equiv 1 \pmod{b} \\ P &\equiv n \pmod{q}. \end{aligned}$$

We have

$$\left(\frac{\pm 1}{P}\right) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{2^{2h}}{P}\right) = 1.$$

Further, since  $P \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{b}{P}\right) &= \left(\frac{P}{b}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{b}\right) \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{q^k}{P}\right) &= \left(\frac{q}{P}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{P}{q}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{n}{q}\right) \\ &= -1. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{a}{P}\right) &= \left(\frac{\pm 1}{P}\right) \left(\frac{2^{2h}}{P}\right) \left(\frac{b}{P}\right) \left(\frac{q^k}{P}\right) \\ &= 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot -1 \\ &= -1. \end{aligned}$$

Case III: We may write  $a = -b^2$ . Pick  $P \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  such that  $P$  is coprime to  $b$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{a}{P}\right) &= \left(\frac{-b^2}{P}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{-1}{P}\right) \left(\frac{b^2}{P}\right) \\ &= -1 \cdot 1 \\ &= -1. \end{aligned}$$

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