Chapter 4. Quadratic Residues

4.1 Note: Given $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ (or $a \in U_n$), how can we determine whether there exists $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ (or $x \in U_n$) such that $x^2 = a$? This is the problem that we address in this chapter.

4.2 Definition: For $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ (or U_n), we say that a is a **quadratic residue** (modulo n) when there exists $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ (or U_n) such that $x^2 = a$. Note that if $a \in U_n$ and $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ with $x^2 = a$, then we have $gcd(x^2, n) = gcd(a, n) = 1$, hence gcd(x, n) = 1, so that $x \in U_n$. We denote the set of quadratic residues in \mathbb{Z}_n and U_n by S_n and Q_n , respectively, so we have

$$S_n = \left\{ a \in \mathbb{Z}_n \mid a = x^2 \text{ for some } x \in \mathbb{Z}_n \right\},\$$
$$Q_n = \left\{ a \in U_n \mid a = x^2 \text{ for some } x \in U_n \right\}.$$

Note that Q_n is a group, since $1 \in Q_n$ and if $a, b \in Q_n$ with, say $a = x^2$ and $y = b^2$ then we have $ab = (xy)^2$ and we have $a^{-1} = (x^{-1})^2$.

4.3 Theorem: Let $k, \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $gcd(k, \ell) = 1$. The bijective map $F : \mathbb{Z}_{k\ell} \to \mathbb{Z}_k \times \mathbb{Z}_\ell$ given by F(u) = (u, u) restricts to give a bijective map $F : S_{k\ell} \to S_k \times S_\ell$, and it restricts further to give a group isomorphism $F : Q_{k\ell} \to Q_k \times Q_\ell$.

Proof: For $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $a = x^2 \mod k\ell$ then we also have $a = x^2 \mod k$ and $a = x^2 \mod \ell$ and so F restricts to a map $F : S_{k\ell} \to S_k \times S_\ell$. On the other hand, if $b = y^2 \mod k$ and $c = z^2 \mod \ell$ and $F(a) = (b, c) = (y^2, z^2) = (y, z)^2$, then we have $a = x^2$ where $x = F^{-1}(y, z)$. Thus the map F restricts to give a bijective map $F : S_{k\ell} \to S_k \times S_\ell$. We have already seen that F restricts to give a group isomorphism $F : U_{k\ell} \to U_k \times U_\ell$ and the above argument shows that F restricts further to give a group isomorphism $F : Q_{k\ell} \to Q_k \times Q_\ell$.

4.4 Remark: In light of the above theorem, it suffices to understand the sets S_n and Q_n in the case that $n = p^k$ for some prime p and some $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. We shall focus our attention on the group Q_n with $n = p^k$.

4.5 Note: We point out some properties of quadratic residues which follow immediately from our understanding of the structure of the group of units U_n when n is a prime power. (1) We have $Q_2 = \{1\}$, and $Q_4 = \{1\}$ and for $k \ge 3$, since $U_{2^k} = \{\pm 5^j \mid 0 \le j < 2^{k-2}\}$ we have

$$Q_{2^k} = \left\{ x^2 \middle| x \in U_{2^k} \right\} = \left\{ 5^{2j} \middle| 0 \le j < 2^{k-3} \right\} = \langle 25 \rangle$$

so that Q_{2^k} is cyclic with $|Q_{2^k}| = \frac{1}{4}|U_{2^k}| = 2^{k-3}$. Also note, in the case $k \ge 3$, that $U_{2^k} = \{\pm 5^j\}$ is equal to the disjoint union

$$U_{2^{k}} = \left\{5^{0}, 5^{2}, 5^{4}, \cdots\right\} \cup \left\{5^{1}, 5^{3}, 5^{5}, \cdots\right\} \cup \left\{-5^{0}, -5^{2}, -5^{4}, \cdots\right\} \cup \left\{-5^{1}, -5^{3}, -5^{5}, \cdots\right\}$$

and modulo 8, the elements in these sets are all equal to 1, 5, 7 and 3, respectively. Thus for $a \in U_{2^k}$, we have

 $a \in Q_{2^k} \iff a = 1 \mod 8.$

(2) Let p be an odd prime and let $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Choose $u \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $U_{p^k} = \langle u \rangle$. Then $\operatorname{ord}_{p^k}(u) = \varphi(p^k) = p^{k-1}(p-1)$, which is even, and $U_{p^k} = \left\{ u^j \mid 0 \leq j < p^{k-1}(p-1) \right\}$ so

$$Q_{p^k} = \left\{ x^2 \mid x \in U_{p^k} \right\} = \left\{ u^{2j} \mid 0 \le j < \frac{1}{2} p^{k-1} (p-1) \right\} = \langle u^2 \rangle$$

and so Q_{p^k} is cyclic with $|Q_{p^k}| = \frac{1}{2}|U_{p^k}| = \frac{1}{2}p^{k-1}(p-1)$. Also note that for $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \not\mid a$ we have

$$a \in Q_{p^k} \iff a = u^{2j} \text{ for some } j \iff a \in Q_p.$$

4.6 Remark: When $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $2 \not\mid a$ and $k \ge 3$, by the above note, $a \in Q_{2^k} \iff a = 1 \mod 8$. When p is an odd prime, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \not\mid a$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, by the above note, $a \in Q_{p^k} \iff a \in Q_p$. It remains, then, to determine whether $a \in Q_p$ when p is an odd prime and $p \not\mid a$.

4.7 Definition: For an odd prime p and for $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, we define the **Legendre symbol**

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } p | a \text{ so } a \notin U_p \\ 1 & \text{if } a \in Q_p , \\ -1 & \text{if } a \in U_p \setminus Q_p . \end{cases}$$

4.8 Note: When $a \in U_p = \langle u \rangle$ with say $a = u^k$, we have $a \in Q_p \iff k$ is even, and so $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^k$.

4.9 Theorem: (Multiplicative Property) Let p be an odd prime and let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $\left(\frac{ab}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{n}\right)\left(\frac{b}{n}\right).$

Proof: If $a \notin U_p$ or $b \notin U_p$, that is if p|a or p|b, then we have p|ab so that

$$\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = 0 = \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)\left(\frac{b}{p}\right).$$

If $a, b \in U_p = \langle u \rangle$, say $a = u^k$ and $b = u^\ell$, then we have $ab = u^{k+\ell}$ so $\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = (-1)^{k+\ell} = (-1)^k (-1)^\ell = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right).$

4.10 Note: By the multiplicative property of the Legendre symbol, when $a = \prod_{i=1}^{c} p_i^{k_i}$

where p_1, \dots, p_ℓ are distinct primes and $k_1, \dots, k_\ell \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, we have $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} \left(\frac{p_i}{p}\right)^{k_i}$. Thus to determine the value of $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ it suffices to determine the value of $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$ when p and q are primes. We make a table, listing the values $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$ for some odd primes p and q.

$p \backslash q$	3	5	7	11	13	17	19	23	29
3	0	-1	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1	-1
5	-1	0	-1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1
7	-1	-1	0	1	-1	-1	-1	1	1
11	1	1	-1	0	-1	-1	-1	1	-1
13	1	-1	-1	-1	0	1	-1	1	1
17	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	0	1	-1	-1
19	-1	1	1	1	-1	1	0	1	-1
23	1	-1	-1	-1	1	-1	-1	0	1
29	-1	1	1	-1	1	-1	-1	1	0

The table appears to be symmetric with $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)$ except when $p = q = 3 \mod 4$ in which case $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = -\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)$. This pattern was conjectured to hold by Euler and Legendre and was first proven by Gauss.

4.11 Theorem: (Euler's Criterion) Let p be an odd prime and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = a^{(p-1)/2} \mod p.$

Proof: If $a \notin U_p$, that is if p|a, then in Z_p we have a = 0, hence $a^{(p-1)/2} = 0 = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$. Suppose that $a \in U_p = \langle u \rangle$, say $a = u^k$. Note that, in U_p we have $u^{(p-1)/2} = -1$ because $u^{(p-1)/2} \neq 1$ and $\left(u^{(p-1)/2}\right)^2 = 1$ and -1 is the only element of order 2 in the cyclic group U_p . Thus

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^k = \left(u^{(p-1)/2}\right)^k = (u^k)^{(p-1)/2} = a^{(p-1)/2}$$

4.12 Theorem: (Gauss' Lemma) Let p be an odd prime. Let $P = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}\}$ and let $N = \{-1, -2, -3, \dots, -\frac{p-1}{2}\}$. Then for all $a \in U_p$ we have

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^{|aP \cap N|}$$

where $aP = \left\{a \cdot 1, a \cdot 2, a \cdot 3, \cdots, a \cdot \frac{p-1}{2}\right\} \subseteq U_p.$

Proof: For $k, \ell \in P$ we have

$$ak = a\ell \Longrightarrow a(k-\ell) = 0 \Longrightarrow k = \ell \in U_p.$$

Also, if $k, \ell \in P$ then

$$ak = -a\ell \Longrightarrow a(k+\ell) = 0 \Longrightarrow k = -\ell \in U_p$$

but this is not possible since $k \in P$ and $-\ell \in N$ and U_p is the disjoint union of P and Q. Thus the set aP consists of one element from each pair $\{\pm 1\}, \{\pm 2\}, \dots, \{\pm \frac{p-1}{2}\}$. For each $k \in P$ choose $\varepsilon_k \in \{\pm 1\}$ so that $\varepsilon_k \cdot a \cdot k \in P$. Then we have

$$P = \left\{1, 2, \cdots, \frac{p-1}{2}\right\} = \left\{\varepsilon_1 \cdot a \cdot 1, \varepsilon_2 \cdot a \cdot 2, \cdots, \varepsilon_{(p-1)/2} \cdot a \cdot \frac{p-1}{2}\right\}$$

Multiply all the elements in theses sets to get

$$\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)! = \left(\prod_{k\in P}\varepsilon_k\right) \cdot a^{(p-1)/2} \cdot \left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!$$

Multiply both sides by the inverse of $\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)$! then apply Euler's Criterion to get

$$1 = \left(\prod_{k \in P} \varepsilon_k\right) \cdot a^{(p-1)/2} = \left(\prod_{k \in P} \varepsilon_k\right) \cdot \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$$

Note that by our choice of ε_k , the number of elements $k \in P$ such that $\varepsilon_k = -1$ is equal to the number of $k \in P$ such that $ak \in N$, which is equal to $|aP \cap N|$, and so

$$\prod_{k \in P} \varepsilon_k = (-1)^{|aP \cap N|}.$$

Thus $1 = (-1)^{|aP \cap N|} \cdot \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ and hence $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^{|aP \cap N|}$, as required.

4.13 Theorem: (Quadratic Reciprocity) Let p and q be distinct odd primes. Then

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) , \text{ if } p = 1 \mod 4 \text{ or } q = 1 \mod 4 \\ -\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) , \text{ if } p = q = 3 \mod 4. \end{cases}$$

Equivalently, we have

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\cdot\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)(q-1)/4}.$$

Proof: Let $P = \{1, 2, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}\}$ and $N = \{-1, -2, \dots, -\frac{p-1}{2}\}$, and let $Q = \{1, 2, \dots, \frac{q-1}{2}\}$ and $M = \{-1, -2, \dots, -\frac{q-1}{2}\}$. By Gauss' Lemma, we have

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = (-1)^{|qP \cap N|} (-1)^{|pQ \cap M|} = (-1)^{|qP \cap N| + |pQ + M|}$$

where $qP \cap N \subseteq U_p$ and $pQ \cap M \subseteq U_q$. Note that $|qP \cap N|$ is equal to the number of elements $x \in P$ with $qx \in N \mod p$, which is equal to the number of $x \in P$ such that $qx - py \in N$ for some $y \in \mathbb{Z}$. Also note that

$$\begin{aligned} qx - py \in N \iff py - qx \in P \iff 1 \le py - qx \le \frac{p-1}{2} \iff 0 < py - qx < \frac{p}{2} \\ \iff qx < py < qx + \frac{p}{2} \iff \frac{q}{p}x < y < \frac{q}{p}x + \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

and so $|qP \cap N|$ is equal to the number of ordered pairs of integers (x, y) in the rectangle $R = \left[1, \frac{p-1}{2}\right] \times \left[1, \frac{q-1}{2}\right]$ such that $\frac{q}{p}x < y < \frac{q}{p}x + \frac{1}{2}$. Similarly, $|pQ \cap M|$ is equal to the number of ordered pairs of integers (x, y) in the rectangle R such that $\frac{p}{q}y < x < \frac{p}{q}y + \frac{1}{2}$. Note that since gcd(p,q) = 1 there are no points (x, y) which lie on the line $y = \frac{q}{p}x$. To summarize, we have $\binom{p}{q} \cdot \binom{q}{p} = (-1)^m$ where m = |qP + N| + |pQ + M| which is equal to the number of ordered pairs of integers $(x, y) \in R$ which lie strictly between the lines $y = \frac{q}{p}x + \frac{1}{2}$ and $x = \frac{p}{q}y + \frac{1}{2}$. Since these two lines are symmetric in the rectangle R, we also have m = r - 2s where r is the number of $(x, y) \in R$ and s is the number of $(x, y) \in R$ with $y \ge \frac{q}{p}x + \frac{1}{2}$. Since $r = \frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{q-1}{2}$ and 2s is even, we have $\binom{p}{q} \cdot \binom{q}{p} = (-1)^{(p-1)(q-1)/4}$, as required.



4.14 Theorem: Let *p* be an odd prime. Then

 $\begin{array}{ll} (1) & -1 \in Q_p \iff p = 1 \mod 4, \\ (2) & 2 \in Q_p \iff p = \pm 1 \mod 8, \\ (3) & -2 \in Q_p \iff p = 1 \text{ or } 3 \mod 8, \text{ and} \\ (4) & 3 \in Q_p \iff p = \pm 1 \mod 12. \end{array}$

Proof: To prove Part 1, note that by Euler's Criterion we have

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1 \text{ if } \frac{p-1}{2} \text{ is even} \\ -1 \text{ if } \frac{p-1}{2} \text{ is odd} \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1 \text{ if } p = 1 \text{ mod } 4 \\ -1 \text{ if } p = 3 \text{ mod } 4 \end{array} \right\}.$$

To prove Part 2, note that by Gauss' Lemma we have $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{|2P \cap N|}$.

Case 1: suppose that $p = 1 \mod 4$ so that $\frac{p-1}{2}$ is even. The sets P and 2P decompose as the disjoint unions

$$P = \left\{1, 2, \cdots, \frac{p-1}{4}\right\} \cup \left\{\frac{p+3}{4}, \cdots, \frac{p-1}{2}\right\},$$
$$2P = \left\{2, 4, \cdots, \frac{p-1}{2}\right\} \cup \left\{\frac{p+3}{2}, \cdots, p-1\right\}.$$

The first of the two sets which decompose 2P lies in P and the second set lies in N, so we have $|2P \cap P| = \frac{p-1}{4}$ and $|2P \cap N| = \frac{p-1}{2} - \frac{p-1}{4} = \frac{p-1}{4}$. Thus when $p = 1 \mod 4$ we have

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{|2P \cap N|} = (-1)^{(p-1)/4} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1 \text{ if } \frac{p-1}{4} \text{ is even} \\ -1 \text{ if } \frac{p-1}{4} \text{ is odd} \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1 \text{ if } p = 1 \text{ mod } 8 \\ -1 \text{ if } p = 5 \text{ mod } 8 \end{array} \right\}.$$

Case 2: suppose that $p = 3 \mod 4$ so that $\frac{p-1}{2}$ is odd. Then P and 2P are the disjoint unions

$$P = \left\{1, 2, \cdots, \frac{p-3}{4}\right\} \cup \left\{\frac{p+1}{4}, \cdots, \frac{p-1}{2}\right\}$$
$$2P = \left\{2, 4, \cdots, \frac{p-3}{2}\right\} \cup \left\{\frac{p+1}{2}, \cdots, p-1\right\}$$

The first of the sets which decompose 2P lies in P and the second lies in N so we have $|2P \cap P| = \frac{p-3}{4}$ and $|2P \cap N| = \frac{p-1}{2} - \frac{p-3}{4} = \frac{p+1}{4}$. Thus when $p = 3 \mod 4$ we have

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{|2P \cap N|} = (-1)^{(p-1)/4} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1 \text{ if } \frac{p+1}{4} \text{ is even} \\ -1 \text{ if } \frac{p+1}{4} \text{ is odd} \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1 \text{ if } p = 7 \mod 8 \\ -1 \text{ if } p = 3 \mod 8 \end{array} \right\}.$$

Combining the results from Cases 1 and 2 gives

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 1 \text{ if } p = 1,7 \mod 8\\ -1 \text{ if } p = 3,5 \mod 8 \end{array} \right\}.$$

Part 3 follows from Parts 1 and 2 using Theorem 7.9. Indeed, since

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \left\{\begin{array}{ll} 1 & \text{if } p = 1,5 \mod 8\\ -1 & \text{if } p = 3,7 \mod 8\end{array}\right\} \text{ and } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \left\{\begin{array}{ll} 1 & \text{if } p = 1,7 \mod 8\\ -1 & \text{if } p = 3,5 \mod 8\end{array}\right\}$$

It follows that

$$\left(\frac{-2}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \left\{\begin{array}{c} 1 \text{ if } p = 1, 3 \mod 8\\ -1 \text{ if } p = 5, 7 \mod 8 \end{array}\right\}$$

Finally, we shall prove Part 4 using Quadratic Reciprocity. Fist note that $3 \notin Q_3$ so we can assume that p > 3 and hence that $p = 1, 2 \mod 3$. By Quadratic Reciprocity, we have

$$\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) \text{ if } p = 1 \mod 4\\ -\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) \text{ if } p = 3 \mod 4 \end{array} \right\}.$$

In the case that $p = 1 \mod 4$, since $1 \in Q_3$ and $2 \notin Q_3$, we have $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = 1$ when $p = 1 \mod 3$, that is when $p = 1 \mod 12$, and we have $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = -1$ when $p = 2 \mod 3$, that is when $p = 5 \mod 12$. Similarly, in the case that $p = 3 \mod 4$ we have $-\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = 1$ when $p = 2 \mod 3$, that is when $p = 11 \mod 12$ and we have $-\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = -1$ when $p = 1 \mod 3$, that is when $p = 7 \mod 12$. Part 4 follows by combing the results of both cases.

4.15 Example: Determine whether $7 \in Q_{43}$.

Solution: We provide 4 solutions. First we make a table showing the values of k^2 , 7^k and 7k for half of the values of $k \in U_{43}$ (that is the values $k \in P$).

k	k^2	7^k	7k	k	k^2	7^k	7k
1	1	7	$\overline{7}$	12	1	1	-2
2	4	6	14	13	40	7	5
3	9	-1	21	14	24	6	12
4	16	-7	-15	15	10	-1	19
5	25	-6	-8	16	41	-7	-17
6	36	1	-1	17	31	-6	-10
7	6	7	6	18	23	1	-3
8	21	6	13	19	17	7	4
9	38	-1	20	20	13	6	11
10	14	-7	-16	21	11	-1	18
11	35	-6	-9				

For the first solution, note that since the column listing the values of k^2 does not include 7, it follows from the definition of Q_{43} that $7 \notin Q_{43}$.

For the second solution, we apply Euler's Criterion, using the column listing the values of 7^k , to obtain $\left(\frac{7}{43}\right) = (-1)^{(43-1)/2} = (-1)^{21} = -1$ so that $7 \notin Q_{43}$, hence $7 \notin Q_{43}$.

For the third solution, we apply Gauss' Lemma, using the column which lists the values of 7k for $k \in P$. Note that this column indicates, for each $k \in P$, whether $7k \in P$ or $7k \in N$. Since 9 of the entries in this column are negative, we have $|7P \cap N| = 9$ and so $\left(\frac{7}{43}\right) = (-1)^{|7P \cap N|} = (-1)^9 = -1$.

For the fourth solution, we use Quadratic Reciprocity. Since $7 = 3 \mod 4$ and $43 = 3 \mod 4$ we have $\left(\frac{7}{43}\right) = -\left(\frac{43}{7}\right) = -\left(\frac{1}{7}\right) = -1$ and so $7 \notin Q_{43}$.

4.16 Example: Determine whether $136 \in Q_{421}$.

Solution: First we determine whether 421 is prime. Since $\lfloor \sqrt{421} \rfloor = 20$, it suffices to check each of the primes 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19 to see whether they are factors. We find that none of those primes are factors, and so 421 is prime. Since $136 = 2^3 \cdot 17$ we have

$$\left(\frac{136}{421}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{421}\right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{2}{421}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{17}{421}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{421}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{17}{421}\right).$$

Since for an odd prime p we have $2 \in Q_p \iff p = 1 \mod 8$, and since $421 = 5 \mod 8$, we have $2 \notin Q_{421}$ so that $\left(\frac{2}{421}\right) = -1$. Also, by applying Quadratic Reciprocity twice, since $421 = 1 \mod 4$ and $13 = 1 \mod 4$ we have $\left(\frac{17}{421}\right) = \left(\frac{421}{17}\right) = \left(\frac{13}{17}\right) = \left(\frac{17}{13}\right) = \left(\frac{4}{13}\right) = 1$. Thus

$$\left(\frac{136}{421}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{421}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{17}{421}\right) = (-1)(1) = -1$$
, and so $136 \notin Q_{421}$.

4.17 Example: Determine whether $468 \in Q_{697}$.

First we determine whether 697 is prime. Since $\lfloor \sqrt{697} \rfloor = 26$, it suffices to check each of the primes 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23 to see whether they are factors. We find that in fact 17 is a factor and that 697 = 17.41, and so we need to determine whether $468 \in Q_{17}$ and whether $468 \in Q_{41}$. Since $468 = 9 = 3^2 \mod 17$ we have $468 \in Q_{17}$. Reducing modulo the denominator and applying Quadratic Reciprocity three times gives

$$\left(\frac{468}{41}\right) = \left(\frac{17}{41}\right) = \left(\frac{41}{17}\right) = \left(\frac{7}{17}\right) = \left(\frac{17}{7}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{7}\right) = -\left(\frac{7}{3}\right) = -\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = -1$$

so $468 \notin Q_{41}$ hence $468 \notin Q_{697}$.

4.18 Example: Find a polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ which has a root in \mathbb{Z}_n for every $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ but which has no root in \mathbb{Z} .

Solution: Note that $13 \in Q_{17}$ (indeed $13 = 8^2 \mod 17$), and $17 \in Q_{13}$ ($17 = 2^2 \mod 13$), and $17 = 1 \mod 8$, and $13 \cdot 17 = 221$, and consider the polynomial

$$f(x) = (x^2 - 13)(x^2 - 17)(x^2 - 221)$$

Note that f(x) has real roots $\pm\sqrt{13}$, $\pm\sqrt{17}$, $\pm\sqrt{221}$ so it has no roots in \mathbb{Z} (or \mathbb{Q}). Since $17 = 1 \mod 8$ we have $17 \in Q_{2^k}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and hence f(x) has a root in \mathbb{Z}_{2^k} for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Since $13 \in Q_{17}$ we also have $13 \in Q_{17^k}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, and it follows that f(x) has a root in \mathbb{Z}_{17^k} for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Since $17 \in Q_{13}$ we also have $17 \in Q_{13^k}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, and it follows that f(x) has a root in \mathbb{Z}_{17^k} for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Since $17 \in Q_{13}$ we also have $17 \in Q_{13^k}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, and it follows that f(x) has a root in \mathbb{Z}_{13^k} for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. For any prime $p \neq 2, 13, 17$ we have $\left(\frac{221}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{13}{p}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{17}{p}\right)$ and it follows that one of the three Legendre symbols $\left(\frac{13}{p}\right), \left(\frac{17}{p}\right)$ or $\left(\frac{221}{p}\right)$ must be equal to 1, and so either $13 \in Q_p$ or $17 \in Q_p$ or $221 \in Q_p$, and hence for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, either f(13) = 0 or f(17) = 0 or f(221) = 0 in \mathbb{Z}_{p^k} . Thus f(x) has a root in \mathbb{Z}_{p^k} for every prime p and every $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. For each index i, choose $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $f(a_i) = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{k_i}}$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, we can choose $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $x = a_i \mod p_1^{k_i}$ for all indices i. Then, for all indices i, we have $f(x) = f(a_i) = 0 \mod p_i^{k_i}$ and hence, by the Chinese Remainder Theorem, we have $f(x) = 0 \mod n$.

4.19 Remark: We can extend the Legendre symbol to the **Jacobi symbol** $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)$, defined for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ with b odd, by defining

$$\left(\frac{a}{\prod p_i^{k_i}}\right) = \prod \left(\frac{a}{p_i}\right)^{k_i}.$$

As an optional exercise, you can verify that the Jacobi symbol satisfies the following properties.

$$(1) \left(\frac{ab}{c}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{c}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{b}{c}\right), \\(2) \left(\frac{a}{bc}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{b}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{a}{c}\right), \\(3) \left(\frac{a}{c}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{c}\right) \text{ when } a = b \mod c, \\(4) \left(\frac{a}{b}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{b}{a}\right) = (-1)^{(a-1)(b-1)/4}, \\(5) \left(\frac{-1}{a}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } a = 1 \mod 4 \\ -1 \text{ if } a = 3 \mod 4 \end{cases} \text{ and } \left(\frac{2}{a}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } a = 1, 7 \mod 8 \\ -1 \text{ if } a = 3, 5 \mod 8 \end{cases}.$$