# Chapter 4

## Characters and Gauss sums

#### 4.1 Characters on finite abelian groups

In what follows, abelian groups are multiplicatively written, and the unit element of an abelian group A is denoted by 1. We denote the order (number of elements) of A by |A|.

Let A be a finite abelian group. A *character* on A is a group homomorphism  $\chi: A \to \mathbb{C}^*$  (i.e.,  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  with multiplication).

If |A| = n then  $a^n = 1$ , hence  $\chi(a)^n = 1$  for each  $a \in A$  and each character  $\chi$  on A. Therefore, a character on A maps A to the roots of unity.

The product  $\chi_1\chi_2$  of two characters  $\chi_1, \chi_2$  on A is defined by  $(\chi_1\chi_2)(a) = \chi_1(a)\chi_2(a)$  for  $a \in A$ . With this product, the characters on A form an abelian group, the so-called *character group of* A, which we denote by  $\widehat{A}$  (or  $\text{Hom}(A, \mathbb{C}^*)$ ). The unit element of  $\widehat{A}$  is the trivial character  $\chi_0^{(A)}$  that maps A to 1. Since any character on A maps A to the roots of unity, the inverse  $\chi^{-1}: a \mapsto \chi(a)^{-1}$  of a character  $\chi$  is equal to its complex conjugate  $\overline{\chi}: a \mapsto \overline{\chi(a)}$ .

It would have been possible to develop the theory of characters using the fact that every finite abelian groups is the direct sum of cyclic groups, but we prefer to start from scratch.

Let B be a subgroup of A and  $\chi$  a character on B. By an extension of  $\chi$  to A we mean a character  $\chi'$  on A such that  $\chi'|_B = \chi$ , i.e.,  $\chi'(b) = \chi(b)$  for  $b \in B$ .

**Lemma 4.1.** Let A be a finite abelian group, B a subgroup of A such that A/B is cyclic, and  $\chi$  a character on B. Then  $\chi$  has precisely |A|/|B| extensions to A.

Proof. The order of A/B is precisely t := |A|/|B|. Let  $g \in A$  be such that  $\overline{g} := gB$  is a generator of A/B. Then  $h := g^t \in B$ . If  $\chi'$  is an extension of  $\chi$  to A, then necessarily  $\chi'(g)^t = \chi(h)$ . We show that conversely, for each of the t roots  $\rho$  of  $\rho^t = \chi(h)$  there is a unique extension  $\chi_{\rho}$  of  $\chi$  to A such that  $\chi_{\rho}(g) = \rho$ ; this clearly implies our lemma.

Notice that  $A = \{bg^k : b \in B, k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . The character  $\chi_\rho$ , if it exists, necessarily has to satisfy  $\chi_\rho(bg^k) = \chi(b)\rho^k$ , for  $b \in B$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We now define  $\chi_\rho$  in this way and show that it is well-defined, i.e., independent of the choice of b and k. Indeed, suppose that  $b_1g^{k_1} = b_2g^{k_2}$ , with  $b_1, b_2 \in B$  and  $k_1, k_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ , i.e.  $g^{k_1-k_2} = b_1^{-1}b_2$ . Then  $\overline{g}^{k_1-k_2} = \overline{1}$ , so  $q := (k_2 - k_1)/t \in \mathbb{Z}$ , hence  $h^q = b_1^{-1}b_2$ . This implies  $\rho^{k_1-k_2} = \chi(h)^q = \chi(b_1)^{-1}\chi(b_2)$ , hence  $\chi(b_2)\rho^{k_2} = \chi(b_1)\rho^{k_1}$ . This shows that indeed  $\chi_\rho$  is well-defined. It is easily shown to be a character.

**Proposition 4.2.** Let A be a finite abelian group, B a subgroup of A, and  $\chi$  a character on B. Then  $\chi$  has precisely |A|/|B| extensions to A.

Proof. We proceed by induction on |A|/|B|. If |A|/|B| = 1 we are done. Assume that |A|/|B| > 1. Choose  $g \in A \setminus B$  and define  $B' := B\langle g \rangle$ . Then B'/B is cyclic, so by Lemma 4.1, the character  $\chi$  has precisely |B'|/|B| extensions to B'. Since |B'| > |B|, we can apply the induction hypothesis and infer that each of these extensions to B' has precisely |A|/|B'| extensions to A. Thus it follows that  $\chi$  has precisely |A|/|B| extensions to A.

Corollary 4.3. Let A be a finite abelian group. Then  $|\widehat{A}| = |A|$ .

*Proof.* Apply Proposition 4.2 with  $B = \{1\}$ .

**Corollary 4.4.** Let A be a finite abelian group, and  $g \in A$  with  $g \neq 1$ . Then there is a character  $\chi$  on A with  $\chi(g) \neq 1$ .

*Proof.* Assume g has order r > 1. A character on  $\langle g \rangle$  is uniquely determined by its value in g, so there is precisely one character  $\chi_0$  on  $\langle g \rangle$  with  $\chi_0(g) = 1$ . By Proposition 4.2, this character has precisely  $|A|/|\langle g \rangle| = |A|/r$  extensions to A. Hence there are characters  $\chi$  on A that do not extend  $\chi_0$ , i.e., for which  $\chi(g) \neq 1$ .

For a finite abelian group A, let  $\widehat{A}$  denote the character group of  $\widehat{A}$ . Each element  $a \in A$  gives rise to a character  $\widehat{a}$  on  $\widehat{A}$ , given by  $\widehat{a}(\chi) := \chi(a)$ .

**Theorem 4.5** (Duality). Let A be a finite abelian group. Then the map  $a \mapsto \widehat{a}$  defines an isomorphism from A to  $\widehat{A}$ .

Proof. The map  $\varphi: a \mapsto \widehat{a}$  obviously defines a group homomorphism from A to  $\widehat{A}$ . We show that it is injective. Let  $a \in \operatorname{Ker}(\varphi)$ ; then  $\widehat{a}(\chi) = 1$  for all  $\chi \in \widehat{A}$ , i.e.,  $\chi(a) = 1$  for all  $\chi \in \widehat{A}$ , which by Corollary 4.4 implies that a = 1. So indeed,  $\varphi$  is injective. But then  $\varphi$  is surjective as well, since by Corollary 4.3,  $|\widehat{A}| = |\widehat{A}| = |A|$ . Hence  $\varphi$  is an isomorphism.

**Theorem 4.6** (Orthogonality relations for characters). Let A be a finite abelian group.

(i) For any two characters  $\chi_1, \chi_2$  on A we have

$$\sum_{a \in A} \chi_1(a) \overline{\chi_2(a)} = \begin{cases} |A| & \text{if } \chi_1 = \chi_2, \\ 0 & \text{if } \chi_1 \neq \chi_2. \end{cases}$$

(ii) For any two elements a, b of A we have

$$\sum_{\chi \in \widehat{A}} \chi(a) \overline{\chi(b)} = \begin{cases} |A| & \text{if } a = b, \\ 0 & \text{if } a \neq b. \end{cases}$$

Proof. Part (ii) follows by applying part (i) with  $\widehat{A}$  instead of A, and using Theorem 4.5 and Corollary 4.3. So we prove only (i). Let  $\chi_1, \chi_2 \in \widehat{A}$  and put  $S := \sum_{a \in A} \chi_1(a) \overline{\chi_2(a)}$ . Let  $\chi := \chi_1 \overline{\chi_2} = \chi_1 \chi_2^{-1}$ . Then  $S = \sum_{a \in A} \chi(a)$ . Clearly, if  $\chi_1 = \chi_2$  then  $\chi = \chi_0^{(A)}$ , hence S = |A|. Let  $\chi_1 \neq \chi_2$ . Then  $\chi \neq \chi_0^{(A)}$ , hence there is  $g \in A$  with  $\chi(g) \neq 1$ . Further,

$$\chi(g)S = \sum_{a \in A} \chi(ga) = S,$$

since qa runs through the elements of A. Hence S=0.

This will not be needed later, but for completeness we show that there is also an isomorphism from a finite abelian group A to its character group  $\widehat{A}$ . But unlike the isomorphism in Theorem 4.5 this is not canonical, since it will depend on a choice of generators for A.

**Lemma 4.7.** Let A be a cyclic group of order n. Then  $\widehat{A}$  is also a cyclic group of order n.

Proof. Let  $A = \langle g \rangle$ . Then  $A = \{1, g, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$  and  $g^n = 1$ . A character  $\chi$  on A is determined by  $\chi(g)$ . Let  $\rho_1$  be a primitive n-th root of unity. It is easy to see that there is a character  $\chi_1$  on A with  $\chi_1(g) = \rho_1$ , that  $\chi_0^{(A)}, \chi_1, \dots, \chi_1^{n-1}$  are distinct, and  $\chi_1^n = \chi_0^{(A)}$ . Further, if  $\chi$  is any character on A, then  $\chi(g)^n = 1$ , which implies that  $\chi$  is a power of  $\chi_1$ . So  $\widehat{A} = \langle \chi_1 \rangle$  is a cyclic group of order n.

**Lemma 4.8.** Let  $A = A_1 \times \cdots \times A_r$  be the direct product of finite abelian groups  $A_1, \ldots, A_r$ . Then  $\widehat{A}$  is isomorphic to  $\widehat{A_1} \times \cdots \times \widehat{A_r}$ .

*Proof.* It suffices to prove this for r=2; then the proof of the lemma can be completed by induction on r. Denote by 1 the unit element of A. Let  $A=A_1\times A_2=\{g_1g_2:g_1\in A_1,g_2\in A_2\}$  where  $g_1g_2=1$  if and only if  $g_1=g_2=1$ . Define a map

$$\varphi: \widehat{A_1} \times \widehat{A_2} \to \widehat{A}: (\chi_1, \chi_2) \mapsto \chi_1 \chi_2,$$

where  $\chi_1\chi_2(g_1g_2) := \chi_1(g_1)\chi_2(g_2)$  for  $g_1 \in A_1, g_2 \in A_2$ . It is easy to see that  $\varphi$  is a group homomorphism. Substituting  $g_1 = 1$ , respectively  $g_2 = 1$ , we see that  $\chi_2, \chi_1$  are uniquely determined by  $\chi_1\chi_2$ . Hence  $\varphi$  is injective. Since  $\widehat{A_1} \times \widehat{A_2}$  and  $\widehat{A}$  have the same cardinality, it follows also that  $\varphi$  is surjective.

**Proposition 4.9.** Every finite abelian group is a direct product of cyclic groups.

*Proof.* See S. Lang, Algebra, Chap.1,  $\S 10$ .

**Theorem 4.10.** Let A be a finite abelian group. Then there exists an isomorphism from A to  $\widehat{A}$ .

*Proof.* By Proposition 4.9, A is a direct product  $C_1 \times \cdots \times C_r$  of finite cyclic groups. By Lemmas 4.8, 4.7,  $\widehat{A}$  is isomorphic to  $\widehat{C_1} \times \cdots \times \widehat{C_r}$ , where  $\widehat{C_i}$  is a cyclic group of the same order as  $C_i$ , for  $i = 1, \ldots, r$ . Now the isomorphism from A to  $\widehat{A}$  can be established by mapping a generator of  $C_i$  to one of  $\widehat{C_i}$ , for  $i = 1, \ldots, r$ .

**Remark.** The isomorphism constructed above depends on choices for generators of  $C_i$ ,  $\hat{C}_i$ , for i = 1, ..., r. So it is not canonical.

#### 4.2 Dirichlet characters

Let  $q \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$ . Denote the residue class of  $a \mod q$  by  $\overline{a}$ . Recall that the prime residue classes mod q,  $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^* = \{\overline{a} : \gcd(a,q) = 1\}$  form a group of order  $\varphi(q)$  under multiplication of residue classes. We can lift any character  $\widetilde{\chi}$  on  $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^*$  to a map  $\chi : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{C}$  by setting

$$\chi(a) := \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \widetilde{\chi}(\overline{a}) & \text{if } \gcd(a,q) = 1; \\ 0 & \text{if } \gcd(a,q) > 1. \end{array} \right.$$

Notice that  $\chi$  has the following properties:

- (i)  $\chi(1) = 1$ ;
- (ii)  $\chi(ab) = \chi(a)\chi(b)$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ;
- (iii)  $\chi(a) = \chi(b)$  if  $a \equiv b \pmod{q}$ ;
- (iv)  $\chi(a) = 0 \text{ if } \gcd(a, q) > 1.$

Any map  $\chi : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{C}$  with properties (i)–(iv) is called a *(Dirichlet) character modulo* q. Conversely, from a character  $\chi$  mod q one easily obtains a character  $\widetilde{\chi}$  on  $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^*$  by setting  $\widetilde{\chi}(\overline{a}) := \chi(a)$  for  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\gcd(a, q) = 1$ .

Let G(q) be the set of characters modulo q. We define the product  $\chi_1\chi_2$  of  $\chi_1, \chi_2 \in G(q)$  by  $(\chi_1\chi_2)(a) = \chi_1(a)\chi_2(a)$  for  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . With this operation, G(q) becomes a group, with unit element the *principal character modulo* q given by

$$\chi_0^{(q)}(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \gcd(a, q) = 1; \\ 0 & \text{if } \gcd(a, q) > 1. \end{cases}$$

The inverse of  $\chi \in G(q)$  is its complex conjugate

$$\overline{\chi}: a \mapsto \overline{\chi(a)}.$$

It is clear, that this makes G(q) into a group that is isomorphic to the character group of  $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^*$ .

One of the advantages of viewing characters as maps from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to  $\mathbb{C}$  is that this allows to multiply characters of different moduli: if  $\chi_1$  is a character mod  $q_1$  and  $\chi_2$  a character mod  $q_2$ , then their product  $\chi_1\chi_2$  is a character mod  $\operatorname{lcm}(q_1, q_2)$ .

We can easily translate the orthogonality relations for characters of  $(\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z})^*$  into orthogonality relations for Dirichlet characters modulo q. Recall that a *complete* 

residue system modulo q is a set, consisting of precisely one integer from every residue class modulo q, e.g.,  $\{3, 5, 11, 22, 104\}$  is a complete residue system modulo 5.

**Theorem 4.11.** Let  $q \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$ , and let  $S_q$  be a complete residue system modulo q.

(i) Let  $\chi_1, \chi_2 \in G(q)$ . Then

$$\sum_{a \in S_a} \chi_1(a) \overline{\chi_2(a)} = \begin{cases} \varphi(q) & \text{if } \chi_1 = \chi_2; \\ 0 & \text{if } \chi_1 \neq \chi_2. \end{cases}$$

(ii) Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then

$$\sum_{\chi \in G(q)} \chi(a) \overline{\chi(b)} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \varphi(q) & \text{if } \gcd(ab,q) = 1, \ a \equiv b \ (\text{mod} \ q); \\ 0 & \text{if } \gcd(ab,q) = 1, \ a \not\equiv b \ (\text{mod} \ q); \\ 0 & \text{if } \gcd(ab,q) > 1. \end{array} \right.$$

Proof. Exercise.

Let  $\chi$  be a character mod q and d a positive divisor of q.

We say that q is *induced* by a character  $\chi'$  mod d if  $\chi(a) = \chi'(a)$  for every  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\gcd(a,q) = 1$ . Here we define the principal character mod 1 by  $\chi_0^{(1)}(a) = 1$  for  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . For instance,  $\chi_0^{(q)}$  is induced by  $\chi_0^{(1)}$ . Notice that if  $\gcd(a,d) = 1$  and  $\gcd(a,q) > 1$ , then  $\chi'(a) \neq 0$  but  $\chi(a) = 0$ .

The character  $\chi$  is called *primitive* if there is no divisor d < q of q such that  $\chi$  is induced by a character mod d.

**Theorem 4.12.** Let  $q \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geqslant 2}$  and  $\chi$  a character mod q. Then there are a unique divisor f of q, and a unique primitive character  $\chi_0$  mod f, such that  $\chi$  is induced by  $\chi_0$ .

The integer f from Theorem 4.12 is called the *conductor* of  $\chi$ .

To prove this, we need some lemmas.

**Lemma 4.13.** Let a be an integer with gcd(a,d) = 1. Then there is  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a \equiv b \pmod{d}$ , gcd(b,q) = 1.

*Proof.* Write  $q = q_1q_2$ , where  $q_1$  is composed of the primes occurring in the factorization of d, and where  $q_2$  is composed of primes not dividing d. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, there is  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with

$$b \equiv a \pmod{d}, \quad b \equiv 1 \pmod{q_2}.$$

This integer b is coprime with d, hence with  $q_1$ , and also coprime with  $q_2$ , so it is coprime with q.

**Lemma 4.14.** Let d be a divisor of q. Then there is at most one character mod d that induces  $\chi$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\chi$  is induced by the character  $\chi_1 \mod d$ . Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\gcd(a,d)=1$  and choose b with  $a \equiv b \pmod{d}$  and  $\gcd(b,q)=1$ . Then  $\chi_1(a)=\chi_1(b)=\chi(b)$ . Hence  $\chi_1$  is uniquely determined by  $\chi$ .

The next lemma gives a method to verify if a character  $\chi$  is induced by a character mod d.

**Lemma 4.15.** Let  $\chi$  be a character mod q, and d a divisor of q. Then the following assertions are equivalent:

- (i)  $\chi$  is induced by a character mod d;
- (ii)  $\chi(a) = \chi(b)$  for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a \equiv b \pmod{d}$  and  $\gcd(ab, q) = 1$ ;
- (iii)  $\chi(a) = 1$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$  and  $\gcd(a, q) = 1$ .

*Proof.* The implications (i) $\Rightarrow$ (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (iii) are trivial.

- $(iii) \Rightarrow (ii)$ . Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a \equiv b \pmod{d}$  and  $\gcd(ab, q) = 1$ . There is  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\gcd(c, q) = 1$  such that  $a \equiv bc \pmod{q}$ . For this c we have  $c \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$ . Now by (iii) we have  $\chi(a) = \chi(b)\chi(c) = \chi(b)$ .
- $(ii) \Rightarrow (i)$ . We define a character  $\chi' \mod d$  as follows. For  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\gcd(a,d) > 1$  put  $\chi'(a) := 0$ . For  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $\gcd(a,d) = 1$ , choose  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a \equiv b \pmod{d}$  and  $\gcd(b,q) = 1$  (which is possible by Lemma 4.13), and put  $\chi'(a) := \chi(b)$ . By (ii) this gives a well-defined character mod d that clearly induces  $\chi$ .

**Lemma 4.16.** Let  $\chi$  be a character mod q. Assume that  $\chi$  is induced by characters  $\chi_1 \mod d_1$ ,  $\chi_2 \mod d_2$ , where  $d_1, d_2$  are divisors of q. Then  $\chi$  is induced by a character mod  $gcd(d_1, d_2)$  which in turn induces  $\chi_1, \chi_2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $d = \gcd(d_1, d_2)$ ,  $d_0 := \operatorname{lcm}(d_1, d_2)$ . We first show that  $\chi_1$  is induced by a character mod d. We apply criterion (iii) of the previous lemma. That is, we have to show that if a is an integer with  $\gcd(a, d_1) = 1$  and  $a \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$ , then  $\chi_1(a) = 1$ .

Take such a. Then a=1+td with  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ . There are  $x,y \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $xd_1+yd_2=d$ . Hence  $a=1+txd_1+tyd_2$ . The number  $c:=1+tyd_2$  is coprime with  $d_1$  since a is coprime with  $d_1$ , and also coprime with  $d_2$ , hence it is coprime with  $d_0$ . By Lemma 4.13, there is b with  $b \equiv c \pmod{d_0}$  and  $\gcd(b,q)=1$ . We have  $b \equiv a \pmod{d_1}$ ,  $b \equiv 1 \pmod{d_2}$ , hence  $\chi_1(a)=\chi(b)=\chi_2(1)=1$ .

It follows that  $\chi_1$  is induced by a character, say  $\chi_3$  mod d. Similarly,  $\chi_2$  is induced by a character  $\chi'_3$  mod d. Both  $\chi_3, \chi'_3$  induce  $\chi$ . So by Lemma 4.14,  $\chi_3 = \chi'_3$ .

Proof of Theorem 4.12. Let f be the smallest divisor of q such that  $\chi$  is induced by a character mod f. This character, say  $\chi_0$ , is necessarily primitive. Assume there is another primitive character  $\chi'_0$  mod f' that induces  $\chi$ . By the previous lemma,  $\chi$  is induced by a character  $\chi''_0$  mod  $\gcd(f, f')$  that in turn induces  $\chi_0$  and  $\chi'_0$ . But this is possible only if f = f'. By Lemma 4.14 it follows that also  $\chi_0 = \chi'_0$ .

## 4.3 Computation of G(q)

We give a method to compute the character group modulo q. We first make a reduction to prime powers.

**Theorem 4.17.** Let  $q = p_1^{k_1} \cdots q_t^{k_t}$ , where  $p_1, \dots, p_t$  are distinct primes and  $k_1, \dots, k_t$  positive integers. Then the map

$$G(p_1^{k_1}) \times \cdots \times G(p_t^{k_t}) \to G(q) : (\chi_1, \dots, \chi_t) \mapsto \chi_1 \cdots \chi_t$$

is a group isomorphism.

*Proof.* Let f denote the map under consideration. Then f is a homomorphism. We show that it is injective. Let  $\chi_i \in G(p_i^{k_i})$  (i = 1, ..., t) be such that  $\chi_1 \cdots \chi_t = \chi_0^{(q)}$ . Let  $i \in \{1, ..., t\}$  and choose  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $gcd(a, p_i) = 1$ . By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, there is  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$b \equiv a \pmod{p_i^{k_i}}, \quad b \equiv 1 \pmod{p_j^{k_j}} \text{ for } j \neq i.$$

Then with this b we have

$$\chi_i(a) = \prod_{j=1}^t \chi_j(b) = \chi_0^{(q)}(b) = 1.$$

Hence  $\chi_i = \chi_0^{(p_i^{k_i})}$ . This holds for i = 1, ..., t, so f is injective.

Now since  $G(p_1^{k_1}) \times \cdots \times G(p_t^{k_t})$  and G(q) have the same order  $\varphi(q)$ , the map f is also surjective.

To compute  $G(p^k)$  for a prime power  $p^k$ , we need some information about the structure of  $(\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z})^*$ . This is provided by the following theorem.

**Theorem 4.18.** (i) Let p be a prime  $\geqslant 3$ . Then the group  $(\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z})^*$  is cyclic of order  $p^{k-1}(p-1)$ .

(ii)  $(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z})^*$  is cyclic of order 2.

Further, if  $k \ge 3$  then  $(\mathbb{Z}/2^k\mathbb{Z})^* = <\overline{-1}> \times <\overline{5}>$  is the direct product of a cyclic group of order 2 and a cyclic group of order  $2^{k-2}$ .

We skip the proof of k = 1 of (i), which belongs to a basic algebra course. For the proof of the remaining parts, we need a lemma.

For a prime number p, and for  $a \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , we denote by  $\operatorname{ord}_p(a)$  the largest integer k such that  $p^k$  divides a.

**Lemma 4.19.** Let p be a prime number and a an integer such that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(a-1) \geqslant 1$  if  $p \geqslant 3$  and  $\operatorname{ord}_p(a-1) \geqslant 2$  if p = 2. Then

$$\operatorname{ord}_p(a^{p^k} - 1) = \operatorname{ord}_p(a - 1) + k.$$

*Proof.* We prove the assertion only for k=1; then the general statement follows easily by induction on k. Our assumption on a implies that  $a=1+p^tb$ , where  $t \ge 1$  if  $p \ge 3$ ,  $t \ge 2$  if p=2, and where b is an integer not divisible by p. Now by the binomial formula,

$$a^{p} - 1 = \sum_{j=1}^{p} {p \choose j} (p^{t}b)^{j} = p^{t+1}b^{j} + p^{t+2}(\cdots).$$

Here we have used that all binomial coefficients  $\binom{p}{j}$  are divisible by p except the last. But the last term  $(p^tb)^p$  is divisible by  $p^{pt}$ , and the exponent pt is larger than

t+1 (the assumption  $t \ge 2$  for p=2 is needed to ensure this). This shows that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(a^p-1)=t+1$ .

Proof of Theorem 4.18. (i). We take for granted that  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$  is cyclic of order p-1, and assume that  $k \geq 2$ . We construct a generator for  $(\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z})^*$ . Let g be an integer such that  $g \pmod{p}$  is a generator of  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ . We show that we can choose g such that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(g^{p-1}-1)=1$ . Indeed, assume that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(g^{p-1}-1)\geq 2$  and take g+p. Then

$$(g+p)^{p-1} - 1 = \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} {p-1 \choose j} g^{p-1-j} p^j = (p-1)g^{p-2}p + p^2(\cdots)$$
$$= -g^{p-2}p + p^2(\cdots)$$

hence  $\operatorname{ord}_p((g+p)^{p-1}-1)=1$ . So, replacing g by g+p if need be, we get an integer g such that  $g\pmod{p}$  generates  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$  and  $\operatorname{ord}_p(g^{p-1}-1)=1$ .

We show that  $\overline{g} := g \pmod{p^k}$  generates  $(\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z})^*$ . Let n be the order of  $\overline{g}$  in  $(\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z})^*$ ; that is, n is the smallest positive integer with  $g^n \equiv 1 \pmod{p^k}$ . On the one hand,  $g^n \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , hence p-1 divides n. On the other hand, n divides the order of  $(\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z})^*$ , that is,  $p^{k-1}(p-1)$ . So  $n=p^s(p-1)$  with  $s \leqslant k-1$ . By Lemma 4.19 we have

$$\operatorname{ord}_p(g^n - 1) = \operatorname{ord}_p(g^{p-1} - 1) + s = s + 1.$$

This has to be equal to k, so s = k - 1. Hence  $n = p^{k-1}(p-1)$  is equal to the order of  $(\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z})^*$ . It follows that  $(\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z})^* = \langle \overline{g} \rangle$ .

(ii). Assume that  $k \ge 3$ . Define the subgroup of index 2,

$$H:=\{\overline{a}\in (\mathbb{Z}/2^k\mathbb{Z})^*:\, a\equiv 1\, (\operatorname{mod} 4)\}.$$

Then

$$(\mathbb{Z}/2^k\mathbb{Z})^* = H \cup (-H) = \{(\overline{-1})^k \overline{a} : k \in \{0, 1\}, \overline{a} \in H\}$$

and  $(\overline{-1})^k \overline{a} = \overline{1}$  if and only if k = 0 and  $\overline{a} = \overline{1}$ . Hence  $(\mathbb{Z}/2^k \mathbb{Z})^* = \langle \overline{-1} \rangle \times H$ . Similarly as above, one shows that H is cyclic of order  $2^{k-2}$ , and that  $H = \langle \overline{5} \rangle$ .  $\square$ 

Corollary 4.20. Let p be a prime and  $k \ge 1$ .

- (i) If p = 2, k = 1, 2 or p > 2 then  $G(p^k)$  is cyclic of order  $p^{k-1}(p-1)$ .
- (ii) If p = 2,  $k \ge 3$ , then  $G(p^k)$  is the direct product of a cyclic group of order 2 and a cyclic group of order  $2^{k-2}$ .

*Proof.* Immediate consequence of Theorem 4.18 and Lemmas 4.7 and 4.8.

Following the proofs of Lemmas 4.7, 4.8, we can give an explicit description for the groups  $G(p^k)$ .

Clearly,  $G(2) = \{\chi_0^{(2)}\}$  and  $G(4) = \{\chi_0^{(4)}, \chi_4\}$ , where  $\chi_4(a) = 1$  if  $a \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ ,  $\chi_4(a) = -1$  if  $a \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ ,  $\chi_4(a) = 0$  if a is even.

If p > 2, choose  $g \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $g \pmod{p^k}$  generates  $(\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z})^*$ , and choose a primitive  $p^{k-1}(p-1)$ -th root of unity  $\rho$ . Then  $G(p^k) = \langle \chi_1 \rangle$  where  $\chi_1$  is the Dirichlet character determined by  $\chi_1(g) = \rho$ .

As for  $2^k$  with  $k \ge 3$ , choose a primitive  $2^{k-2}$ -th root of unity  $\rho$ . Then  $G(2^k) = \langle \chi_1 \rangle \times \langle \chi_2 \rangle$ , where  $\chi_1, \chi_2$  are given by

$$\chi_1(-1) = -1, \ \chi_1(5) = 1; \ \chi_2(-1) = 1, \ \chi_2(5) = \rho.$$

#### 4.4 Gauss sums

Let  $q \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$ . For a character  $\chi \mod q$  and for  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we define the Gauss sum

$$\tau(b,\chi) := \sum_{x \in S_q} \chi(x) e^{2\pi i b x/q},$$

where  $S_q$  is a full system of representatives modulo q. This does not depend on the choice of  $S_q$ . The Gauss sum  $\tau(1,\chi)$  occurs for instance in the functional equation for the L-function  $L(s,\chi) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \chi(n) n^{-s}$  (later).

We prove some basic properties of Gauss sums.

**Theorem 4.21.** Let  $q \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$  and let  $\chi$  be a character mod q. Further, let  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

- (i) If gcd(b, q) = 1, then  $\tau(b, \chi) = \overline{\chi(b)} \cdot \tau(1, \chi)$ .
- (ii) If gcd(b,q) > 1 and  $\chi$  is primitive, then  $\tau(b,\chi) = \overline{\chi(b)} \cdot \tau(1,\chi) = 0$ .

*Proof.* (i) Suppose  $\gcd(b,q)=1$ . If x runs through a complete residue system  $S_q \mod q$ , then bx runs to another complete residue system  $S_q' \mod q$ . Write y=bx. Then  $\chi(y)=\chi(b)\chi(x)$ , hence  $\chi(x)=\overline{\chi(b)}\chi(y)$ . Therefore,

$$\tau(b,\chi) = \sum_{x \in S_q} \chi(x) e^{2\pi i b x/q} = \sum_{y \in S_q'} \overline{\chi(b)} \chi(y) e^{2\pi i y/q}$$
$$= \overline{\chi(b)} \tau(1,\chi).$$

(ii) We use the following observation: if  $q_1$  is any divisor of q with  $1 \leq q_1 \leq q$ , then there is  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $c \equiv 1 \pmod{q_1}$ ,  $\gcd(c,q) = 1$ , and  $\chi(c) \neq 1$ . Indeed, this is obvious if  $q_1 = q$ . If  $q_1 < q$ , then Lemma 4.15 implies that if there is no such integer c then  $\chi$  is induced by a character mod  $q_1$ , contrary to our assumption that  $\chi$  is primitive.

Now let  $d := \gcd(b, q)$ , put  $b_1 := b/d$ ,  $q_1 := q/d$ , and choose c according to the observation. Then

$$\chi(c)\tau(b,\chi) = \sum_{x \in S_q} \chi(cx)e^{2\pi ibx/q}.$$

If x runs through a complete residue system  $S_q \mod q$ , then y := cx runs through another complete residue system  $S_q' \mod q$ . Further, since  $c \equiv 1 \pmod{q_1}$  we have

$$e^{2\pi ixb/q} = e^{2\pi ixb_1/q_1} = e^{2\pi icxb_1/q_1} = e^{2\pi iyb/q}.$$

Hence

$$\chi(c)\tau(b,\chi) = \sum_{y \in S_q} \chi(y)e^{2\pi i b y/q} = \tau(b,\chi).$$

Since  $\chi(c) \neq 1$  this implies that  $\tau(b, \chi) = 0$ .

**Theorem 4.22.** Let  $q \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$  and let  $\chi$  be a primitive character mod q. Then

$$|\tau(1,\chi)| = \sqrt{q}.$$

*Proof.* We have by Theorem 4.21,

$$\begin{split} |\tau(1,\chi)|^2 &= \overline{\tau(1,\chi)} \cdot \tau(1,\chi) = \sum_{x=0}^{q-1} \overline{\chi(x)} e^{-2\pi i x/q} \tau(1,\chi) \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^{q-1} e^{-2\pi i x/q} \tau(x,\chi) = \sum_{x=0}^{q-1} e^{-2\pi i x/q} \left( \sum_{y=0}^{q-1} \chi(y) e^{2\pi i x y/q} \right) \\ &= \sum_{x=0}^{q-1} \left( \sum_{y=0}^{q-1} \chi(y) e^{2\pi i x (y-1)/q} \right) \\ &= \sum_{y=0}^{q-1} \chi(y) \left( \sum_{x=0}^{q-1} e^{2\pi i x (y-1)/q} \right) = \sum_{y=0}^{q-1} \chi(y) S(y), \text{ say.} \end{split}$$

If y = 1, then  $S(y) = \sum_{x=0}^{q-1} 1 = q$ , while if  $y \neq 1$ , then

$$S(y) = \frac{e^{2\pi i(y-1)} - 1}{e^{2\pi i(y-1)/q} - 1} = 0.$$

Hence 
$$|\tau(1,\chi)|^2 = \chi(1)q = q$$
.

For later purposes we need the following variation on this result. A real character mod q is one which assumes only real values. This implies that  $\chi(a) \in \{\pm 1\}$  if  $\gcd(a,q)=1$ .

**Theorem 4.23.** Let  $\chi$  be a primitive real character mod q. Then  $\tau(1,\chi)^2 = \chi(-1)q$ .

*Proof.* Similarly as in the proof of Theorem 4.22 we have

$$\tau(1,\chi)^2 = \sum_{x=0}^{q-1} \chi(x) e^{2\pi i x/q} \tau(1,\chi)$$

and by following the same reasoning,

$$\tau(1,\chi)^2 = \sum_{y=0}^{q-1} \chi(y) \left( \sum_{x=0}^{q-1} e^{2\pi i x(y+1)/q} \right) = \sum_{y=0}^{q-1} \chi(y) T(y),$$

say. As is easily seen, T(q-1)=q, while T(y)=0 for  $y=0,\ldots,q-2$ . This implies Theorem 4.23.

**Remark.** Theorem 4.22 implies that  $\varepsilon_{\chi} := \tau(1,\chi)/\sqrt{q}$  lies on the unit circle. Gauss gave an explicit expression for  $\varepsilon_{\chi}$  in the case that  $\varepsilon_{\chi}$  is a primitive real character mod q. There is no general method known to compute  $\varepsilon_{\chi}$  for non-real characters  $\chi$  modulo large values of q.

### 4.5 Quadratic reciprocity

We give a proof of Gauss' Quadratic Reciprocity Theorem using Gauss sums. This section requires a little bit more algebraic background.

Let p > 2 be a prime number. An integer a is called a quadratic residue modulo p if  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  is solvable in  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $p \nmid a$ , and a quadratic non-residue modulo

p if  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  is not solvable in  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Further, a quadratic (non-)residue class modulo p is a residue class modulo p represented by a quadratic (non-)residue.

We define the Legendre symbol

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic residue modulo } p; \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic non-residue modulo } p; \\ 0 & \text{if } p|a. \end{cases}$$

Lemma 4.24. Let p be a prime > 2.

- (i)  $\left(\frac{\cdot}{p}\right)$  is a primitive character mod p. (ii) There are precisely  $\frac{1}{2}(p-1)$  quadratic residue classes, and precisely  $\frac{1}{2}(p-1)$ quadratic non-residue classes modulo p.

(iii) 
$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}$$
 for  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

- *Proof.* (i) The group  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$  is cyclic of order p-1. Let g(mod p) be a generator of this group. Take  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  with gcd(a,p) = 1. Then there is  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a \equiv g^t \pmod{p}$ . Now clearly,  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  is solvable in  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  if and only if t is even. Hence  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^t$ . This shows that  $\left(\frac{\cdot}{p}\right)$  is a character mod p.
- (ii) The group  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$  consists of  $g^t \pmod{p}$   $(t=0,\ldots,p-1)$ . Clearly, the quadratic residue classes are those with t even, and the quadratic non-residue classes those with t odd. This implies (ii). This shows also that  $\left(\frac{\cdot}{p}\right)$  is not the principal character mod p, and so, since p is a prime, it must be primitive.
- (iii) The assertion is clearly true if p|a. Assume that  $p \nmid a$ . Then there is  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ with  $a \equiv g^t \pmod{p}$ . Note that  $(g^{(p-1)/2})^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , hence  $g^{(p-1)/2} \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}$ . But  $g^{(p-1)/2} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  since  $g \pmod{p}$  is a generator of  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ . Hence  $g^{(p-1)/2} \equiv$  $-1 \pmod{p}$ . As a consequence,

$$a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (-1)^t \equiv \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \pmod{p}.$$

The following is immediate:

Corollary 4.25. Let p be a prime > 2. Then

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

Gauss' Quadratic Reciprocity Theorem is as follows:

**Theorem 4.26.** Let p, q be distinct primes > 2. Then

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)(q-1)/4} = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} -1 & \textit{if } p \equiv q \equiv 3 \, (\text{mod } 4), \\ 1 & \textit{otherwise}. \end{array} \right.$$

Furthermore, as a supplement we have:

**Theorem 4.27.** Let p be a prime > 2. Then

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p^2 - 1)/8} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

**Example.** Check if  $x^2 \equiv 33 \pmod{97}$  is solvable.

We prove only Theorem 4.26 and leave Theorem 4.27 as an exercise. We first make some preparations and then prove some lemmas.

Let  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$  denote the ring of polynomials with coefficients in  $\mathbb{Q}$ . A number  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$  is called algebraic if there is a non-zero polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$  such that  $f(\alpha) = 0$ . Among all non-zero polynomials from  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$  having  $\alpha$  as a zero, we choose one of minimal degree. By multiplying such a polynomial with a suitable constant, we obtain one which is monic, i.e., of which the coefficient of the highest power of X is 1. There is only one monic polynomial in  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$  of minimal degree having  $\alpha$  as a zero, for if there were two, their difference would give a non-zero polynomial in  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$  of smaller degree having  $\alpha$  as a zero. This unique monic polynomial in  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$  of minimal degree having  $\alpha$  as a zero is called the minimal polynomial of  $\alpha$ , denoted by  $f_{\alpha}$ .

We observe that  $f_{\alpha}$  must be irreducible in  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ , that is, not a product of two non-constant polynomials from  $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ . For otherwise,  $\alpha$  would be a zero of one of these polynomials, which has degree smaller than that of  $f_{\alpha}$ .

Let q be a prime number > 2. We write  $\zeta_q := e^{2\pi i/q}$ . Define

$$R_q := \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_q] = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^r a_i \zeta_q^i : \ a_i \in \mathbb{Z}, \ r \geqslant 0 \right\}.$$

This set is closed under addition and multiplication, hence it is a ring.

Lemma 4.28.  $R_q \cap \mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof. We use without proof, that the minimal polynomial of  $\zeta_q$  is  $(X^q-1)/(X-1) = X^{q-1} + \cdots + X + 1$ . Hence  $\zeta_q^{q-1} = -\sum_{j=0}^{q-2} \zeta_q^j$ . By repeatedly substituting this into an expression  $\sum_{i=0}^r a_i \zeta_q^i$  with  $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we eventually get an expression  $\sum_{j=0}^{q-2} b_j \zeta_q^j$  with  $b_j \in \mathbb{Z}$  for all j. Hence all elements of  $R_q$  can be expressed in this form. Now if  $\alpha \in R_q \cap \mathbb{Q}$ , we get

$$\alpha = \sum_{j=0}^{q-2} b_j \zeta_q^j$$

with  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $b_j \in \mathbb{Z}$  for all j. This implies that  $\zeta_q$  is a zero of the polynomial  $b_{q-2}X^{q-2} + \cdots + b_0 - \alpha$ . Since the minimal polynomial of  $\zeta_q$  has degree q-1, this is possible only if  $b_0 = \alpha$  and  $b_1 = \cdots = b_{q-2} = 0$ . Hence  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Given  $\alpha, \beta \in R_q$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ , we write  $\alpha \equiv \beta \pmod{n}$  in  $R_q$  if  $(\alpha - \beta)/n \in R_q$ . Further, we write  $\alpha \equiv \beta \pmod{n}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$  if  $(\alpha - \beta)/n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . By the Lemma we just proved, for  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have that  $\alpha \equiv \beta \pmod{n}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

**Lemma 4.29.** Let p be any prime number. Then for  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_r \in R_q$  we have

$$(\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_r)^p \equiv \alpha_1^p + \dots + \alpha_r^p \pmod{p}$$
 in  $R_q$ .

*Proof.* By the multinomial theorem,

$$(\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_r)^p = \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_r = p} \frac{p!}{i_1! \cdots i_r!} \alpha_1^{i_1} \cdots \alpha_r^{i_r}.$$

All multinomial coefficients are divisible by p, except those where one index  $i_j = p$  and the others are 0.

*Proof of Theorem 4.26.* We use Gauss sums. For notational convenience we write  $\chi_q$  for  $\left(\frac{\cdot}{q}\right)$ . We work in the ring  $R_q$ .

Notice that by Theorem 4.23 and Corollary 4.25,

(4.1) 
$$\tau(1,\chi_q)^2 = \chi_q(-1)q = (-1)^{(q-1)/2}q.$$

Further, by Lemma 4.29 and Theorem 4.21,

$$\tau(1,\chi_q)^p \equiv \sum_{x=0}^{q-1} \chi_q(x)^p \zeta_q^{px} \equiv \sum_{x=0}^{q-1} \chi_q(x) \zeta_q^{px} \equiv \tau(p,\chi_q) \equiv \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \tau(1,\chi_q) \, (\text{mod } p) \quad \text{in } R_q.$$

On multiplying with  $\tau(1,\chi_q)$  and applying (4.1), we obtain

$$\tau(1, \chi_q)^{p+1} \equiv (-1)^{(q-1)/2} q \cdot \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \pmod{p} \text{ in } R_q.$$

On the other hand, by (4.1) and Lemma 4.28,

$$\begin{aligned} \tau(1,\chi_q)^{p+1} &= (-1)^{(q-1)(p+1)/4} q^{(p+1)/2} = (-1)^{(q-1)/2} q \cdot (-1)^{(q-1)(p-1)/4} q^{(p-1)/2} \\ &\equiv (-1)^{(q-1)/2} q \cdot (-1)^{(p-1)(q-1)/4} \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) (\operatorname{mod} p) & \text{in } R_q. \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence,

$$(-1)^{(q-1)/2}q \cdot \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \equiv (-1)^{(q-1)/2}q \cdot (-1)^{(q-1)(p-1)/4}\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \pmod{p} \quad \text{in } \mathbb{Z}.$$

Since q is coprime with p, this gives

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \equiv (-1)^{(p-1)(q-1)/4} \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) (\operatorname{mod} p) \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}.$$

Since integers equal to  $\pm 1$  can be congruent modulo p only if they are equal, this implies Theorem 4.26.

Exercise 4.1. Prove Theorem 4.27.

**Hint.** You have to follow the proof of Theorem 4.26, but instead of  $R_q$ ,  $\chi_q$ , you have to use the ring  $R_8 = \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_8]$  where  $\zeta_8 = e^{2\pi i/8}$ , and the character  $\chi_8$  mod 8, given by

$$\chi_8(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}, \\ -1 & \text{if } a \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}, \\ 0 & \text{if } a \equiv 0 \pmod{2}. \end{cases}$$

Use that  $\zeta_8$  has minimal polynomial  $X^4 + 1$ .