

# QUADRATIC RESIDUES

LECTURE NOTES: MATH 422, CSUSM, SPRING 2009. PROF. WAYNE AITKEN

When is an integer a square modulo  $p$ ? When does a quadratic equation have roots modulo  $p$ ? These are the questions that will concern us in this handout.

## 1. THE LEGENDRE SYMBOL

The *Legendre Symbol* is a notation developed by Legendre for indicating whether or not an integer is a square or not. It uses values  $0, 1, -1$  to indicate three basic possibilities. Before discussing the Legendre Symbol, we first define some notation for  $\mathbb{F}_p$ :

**Definition 1.** Let  $b \in \mathbb{F}_p$  where  $p$  is a prime. We call  $b$  a *square* if there is an element  $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$  such that  $b = a^2$ . Non-zero squares are also called *quadratic residues*.

The set of quadratic residues is written  $(\mathbb{F}_p^\times)^2$  or  $Q_p$ . We will see later that  $(\mathbb{F}_p^\times)^2$  is closed under multiplication (in other words, it is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ ).

We are most interested in the case where  $p \neq 2$ . When  $p = 2$  the situation is very easy: both elements are squares.

**Definition 2.** If  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  then the class  $a$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  is called the *image of  $a$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$* . This terminology is based on the function  $x \mapsto \bar{x}$  called the *canonical homomorphism  $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_m$* .

**Definition 3.** Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and let  $p$  be an odd prime. Then the *Legendre symbol*  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  is defined to be  $0, +1$ , or  $-1$ .

The Legendre symbol  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  is defined to be  $0$  if the image of  $a$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is the zero element. This case occurs if and only if  $p \mid a$ .

The Legendre symbol  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  is defined to be  $+1$  if the image of  $a$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is a quadratic residue. In other words, it is  $+1$  if and only if  $\bar{a} \in (\mathbb{F}_p^\times)^2$ .

The Legendre symbol  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  is defined to be  $-1$  in any other case. In other words, it is  $-1$  whenever the image of  $a$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is not a square.

*Remark.* The values  $0, +1, -1$  are usually thought of as integers, but they can be thought of as elements of  $\mathbb{F}_p$  whenever it is convenient, or even as abstract symbols whose multiplication table is defined in the usual way.

Likewise, the symbol  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  is usually defined for  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , but one can also consider it as defined for  $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ .

**Exercise 1.** Calculate  $\left(\frac{a}{11}\right)$  for all  $0 \leq a < 11$  directly from the definition (without using results developed below).

## 2. EVEN AND ODD POWERS OF GENERATORS

Given a generator  $g$  for  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ , the quadratic residues are simply the even powers of  $g$  and the quadratic nonresidues are the odd powers.

**Theorem 1.** *Suppose  $p$  is an odd prime and let  $g$  be a generator of  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ . If  $e$  is even then  $g^e$  is a quadratic residue. If  $e$  is odd then  $g^e$  is not a square.*

*Proof.* If  $e$  is even, then  $e = 2k$  for some  $k$ . Thus  $g^e = g^{2k} = (g^k)^2$ . Hence  $g^e$  is a square. It is not zero, so it is a quadratic residue.

Suppose  $e$  is odd. We will show  $g^e$  cannot be a square by assuming otherwise, and deriving a contradiction. Suppose that  $g^e = b^2$  for some  $b \in \mathbb{F}_p$ . Since  $g$  is a generator and  $b$  is nonzero, we have  $b = g^k$  for some  $k$ . Thus  $g^e = g^{2k}$ . Since the order of  $g$  is  $p - 1$  this implies that  $e \equiv 2k$  modulo  $p - 1$ . Observe that  $2 \mid (p - 1)$  since  $p$  is odd. Thus  $e \equiv 2k$  modulo 2. In other words,  $e \equiv 0$  modulo 2, contradicting the assumption that  $e$  is odd.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.** *Suppose  $p$  is an odd prime and let  $g$  be a generator of  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ . If  $a$  is a quadratic residue then  $a = g^e$  for an even  $e$ . If  $a$  is a quadratic nonresidue then  $a = g^e$  for an odd  $e$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $g$  is a generator, we can write any nonzero  $a$  as  $g^e$  for some integer  $e$ . If  $a$  is a quadratic residue, then  $e$  odd contradicts the above theorem, so  $e$  is even. If  $a$  is a quadratic nonresidue then  $e$  even contradicts the above theorem, so  $e$  is odd.  $\square$

**Corollary 3.** *Suppose  $p$  is an odd prime. Then there are  $(p - 1)/2$  quadratic residues, and  $(p - 1)/2$  quadratic nonresidues in  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $g$  be a generator. Every element of  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$  can be written uniquely as  $g^e$  where  $0 \leq e < p - 1$ . Half of such  $e$  are even and the other half are odd.  $\square$

**Corollary 4.** *Suppose  $p$  is an odd prime and  $g$  is a generator of  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ . Then  $g$  is not a square.*

*Proof.* Observe that  $g = g^1$  and  $e = 1$  is odd.  $\square$

## 3. EULER'S CRITERIA AND FORMULA FOR THE LEGENDRE SYMBOL

We begin with a simple lemma:

**Lemma 5.** *Suppose  $p$  be an odd prime and let  $g$  be a generator (primitive root) of  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ . Then*

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

*Proof.* Recall that  $g$  has order  $p - 1$  since it is a generator. Let  $a = g^{(p-1)/2}$ . So

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

Since  $a^2 = 1$ , the element  $a$  is a root of the polynomial  $x^2 - 1$ . Thus  $a$  is 1 or  $-1$ . However,  $a = g^{(p-1)/2}$  is not 1 since the order of  $g$  is  $p - 1$  which is greater than  $(p - 1)/2$ . Therefore,  $a = -1$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 6** (Euler's Criterion). *Let  $p$  be an odd prime. If  $a \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times$  then  $a^{(p-1)/2}$  is either 1 or  $-1$ . Furthermore,  $a$  is a quadratic residue if and only if  $a^{(p-1)/2} = 1$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $g$  be a generator of  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ . Write  $a = g^e$ . Then Lemma 5 gives us that

$$a^{(p-1)/2} = (g^e)^{(p-1)/2} = (g^{(p-1)/2})^e = (-1)^e.$$

If  $e$  is even then  $a$  is a quadratic residue, and the above simplifies to 1. If  $e$  is odd then  $a$  is a quadratic nonresidue and the above simplifies to  $-1$ . The result follows easily.  $\square$

**Theorem 7.** *If  $p$  is an odd prime and  $a$  is an integer, then*

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

*Proof.* There are three cases to consider.

First suppose that  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 0$ . By definition of the Legendre Symbol,  $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Thus  $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . The result follows.

Next suppose that  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = +1$ . By definition of the Legendre Symbol, the image of  $a$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$  is a quadratic residue. The result follows from Theorem 6.

Finally, suppose that  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$ . By definition of the Legendre Symbol, the image of  $a$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$  is a quadratic nonresidue. The result follows from Theorem 6.  $\square$

**Exercise 2.** Calculate  $\left(\frac{a}{11}\right)$  for all  $0 \leq a < 11$  using Theorem 7. Compare your answer to Exercise 1.

#### 4. BASIC PROPERTIES OF THE LEGENDRE SYMBOL

Here are some very useful properties to know in order to calculate  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ . Throughout this section, let  $p$  be an odd prime.

**Property 1.** *If  $a \equiv r \pmod{p}$  then  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{r}{p}\right)$ . In particular,  $\left(\frac{p}{p}\right) = 0$ .*

*Proof.* If  $a \equiv r \pmod{p}$  then  $a$  and  $r$  have the same image in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . Since Definition 3 depends only on the images in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  the result follows.  $\square$

**Property 2.** *If  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  then  $\left(\frac{a^2}{p}\right) = 1$ . In particular,  $\left(\frac{1}{p}\right) = 1$ .*

*Proof.* The image of  $a^2$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$  is trivially a square.  $\square$

**Property 3.**  $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2}$ . *In particular:*

$$\text{If } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad \text{then } \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1.$$

$$\text{If } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, \quad \text{then } \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = -1.$$

*Proof.* The first equation follows from Theorem 7.

Now we calculate  $(-1)^{(p-1)/2}$  in each case.

if  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , then  $p-1 = 4k$  for some  $k$ . Thus  $(p-1)/2 = 2k$ . In this case  $(-1)^{(p-1)/2} = (-1)^{2k} = 1$ .

If  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , then  $p-1 = 4k+2$  for some  $k$ . Thus  $(p-1)/2 = 2k+1$ . In this case  $(-1)^{(p-1)/2} = (-1)^{2k+1} = -1$ .  $\square$

**Property 4.** For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $\left(\frac{ab}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{b}{p}\right)$ .

*Proof.* This follows from Theorem 7:

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

Since all the numbers on the left and right are  $\pm 1$  we can replace congruence with equality (1 and  $-1$  are distinct modulo  $p$  since  $p > 2$ ).  $\square$

**Exercise 3.** Use Property 4 to show that the product of two quadratic residues is a quadratic residue. Thus the set  $U_p = (\mathbb{F}_p^\times)^2$  of quadratic residues is closed under multiplication. (In fact, it is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ .)

**Exercise 4.** Use Property 4 to show that if  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times$  are units such that one of them is a quadratic residue but the other is not, then  $ab$  is *not* a quadratic residue.

**Exercise 5.** Use Property 4 to show that if  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times$  are units that are both non-quadratic residues, then  $ab$  is a quadratic residue.

*Remark.* If you know abstract algebra, you will observe that Property 4 tells us that the map  $\bar{a} \mapsto \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  is a group homomorphism  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$ . The kernel of this homomorphism is the subgroup  $(\mathbb{F}_p^\times)^2$  of quadratic residues. The quadratic residues form a subgroup, but the non-quadratic residues only form a coset.

**Exercise 6.** Give a multiplication table for the group  $Q_{11} = (\mathbb{F}_{11}^\times)^2$ . Hint: it should have 5 rows and columns.

## 5. ADVANCED PROPERTIES OF THE LEGENDRE SYMBOL

The properties of this section will be stated without proof.

**Property 5.** Let  $p$  be an odd prime, then  $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)$  is determined by what  $p$  is modulo 8.

$$\text{If } p \equiv 1 \text{ or } p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}, \quad \text{then } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = 1.$$

$$\text{If } p \equiv 3 \text{ or } p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}, \quad \text{then } \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = -1.$$

The following is a celebrated theorem of Gauss.

**Property 6 (Quadratic Reciprocity).** Let  $p$  and  $q$  be distinct odd primes. Then

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{q-1}{2}} \left(\frac{p}{q}\right).$$

*Remark.* As we discussed above,  $\frac{p-1}{2}$  is even if  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , but is odd if  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . Similarly, for  $q$ . So  $\frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{q-1}{2}$  is even if either  $p$  or  $q$  is congruent to 1 modulo 4, but is odd if both are congruent to 3. So

$$\text{If } p \equiv 1 \text{ or } q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \text{ then } \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right).$$

$$\text{If } p \equiv 3 \text{ and } q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, \text{ then } \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = -\left(\frac{q}{p}\right).$$

*Remark.* Sometimes quadratic reciprocity is written as follows:

$$\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \cdot \frac{q-1}{2}}.$$

## 6. SQUARE ROOTS

If  $b^2 = a$  in a field  $F$  then  $b$  is called a *square root* of  $a$ . In this section we discuss a few basic results concerning square roots in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  and other fields.

Recall that every field  $F$  has a multiplicative identity 1. The element  $2 \in F$  is defined to be  $1 + 1$ . In some fields  $2 = 0$ , for example in  $F = \mathbb{F}_2$ . In other fields  $2 \neq 0$ . For example, if  $F = \mathbb{R}$  or if  $F = \mathbb{F}_p$  with  $p$  an odd prime then  $2 \neq 0$ . In this handout we focus mainly on fields where  $2 \neq 0$ .

**Lemma 8.** *Let  $F$  be a field where  $2 \neq 0$ . In such a field,  $b \neq 0$  implies  $b \neq -b$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose otherwise that,  $b = -b$ . Add  $b$  to both side giving  $b + b = 0$ . This implies  $2b = 0$ . But  $2$  is a unit, so  $2^{-1}2b = 2^{-1}0$ . We conclude  $b = 0$ , a contradiction.  $\square$

**Proposition 9.** *Let  $F$  be a field where  $2 \neq 0$ . If  $a \in F$  has a square root  $b$  then  $-b$  is also a square root. Furthermore,  $\pm b$  are the only square roots of  $a$ .*

*Proof.* Observe that  $(-b)^2 = b^2 = a$ . So the first statement follows.

Now we must show that  $\pm b$  are the only square roots of  $a$ . First assume  $b \neq 0$ . Then by Lemma 8,  $b$  and  $-b$  are two distinct solutions to  $x^2 = a$ . However, the polynomial  $x^2 - a$  has at most two roots since its degree is two. So  $b$  and  $-b$  are the only square roots.

Finally, consider the case where  $b = 0$ . So  $-b = 0$  and  $a = 0$  as well. Now suppose  $c$  is a non-zero square root of  $a = 0$ . Then  $c$  is a unit. Thus  $c^2$  is a unit since units are closed under multiplication. This is a contradiction since  $c^2 = a = 0$ . So  $b = 0$  is the only square root of  $a$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 10.** *Let  $F$  be a field where  $2 \neq 0$ . If  $a, b \in F$  are such that  $a^2 = b^2$  then  $a = \pm b$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $c = a^2$ . Then  $a$  and  $b$  are both square root of  $c$ . The result follows from the previous proposition.  $\square$

**Proposition 11.** *Let  $p$  be an odd prime. Then the number of square roots of  $a$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is given by the formula  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) + 1$ .*

*Proof.* There are three cases.

CASE  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 0$ . By definition,  $a = 0$ , which has 0 for a square root. By Proposition 9 the square roots are  $\pm 0$ . So 0 is the unique square root: there is exactly one square root. Observe that  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) + 1 = 0 + 1 = 1$  gives the correct answer in this case.

CASE  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$ . By definition,  $a$  is a non-zero square, so it has a square root  $b$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . Clearly  $b$  is non-zero (otherwise  $a$  would be  $0^2$ , but  $a$  is non-zero). By Proposition 9 and Lemma 8 there is exactly one other square root, namely  $-b$ . So there are two square roots. Observe that  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) + 1 = 1 + 1 = 2$  gives the correct answer in this case.

CASE  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = -1$ . By definition,  $a$  is not a square in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . So there are no roots. Observe that  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) + 1 = -1 + 1 = 0$  gives the correct answer in this case.  $\square$

**Exercise 7.** Find all the square roots of all the elements of  $\mathbb{F}_{11}$ . For more practice try  $\mathbb{F}_7$  or  $\mathbb{F}_5$ .

**Exercise 8.** For which primes  $p$  is it true that  $-1$  has a square root? Find the first eight primes with this property. For a few of these, find square roots of  $-1$ .

## 7. QUADRATIC EQUATIONS IN GENERAL

In this section we will consider quadratic equations in a field  $F$  with  $2 \neq 0$ . Define  $4$  to be  $2^2$ . Since  $2$  is a unit, then  $4$  is also a unit in  $F$ . Thus  $2^{-1}$  and  $4^{-1}$  exist in  $F$ . We use fractional notation for units. For example, let  $b/2$  denote  $2^{-1}b$ .

**Lemma 12** (Completing the square: part 1). *Suppose  $b \in F$ . Then*

$$x^2 + bx = (x + b/2)^2 - b^2/4.$$

*Proof.* Use the distributive law to simplify the right-hand side. □

**Lemma 13** (Completing the square: part 2). *Suppose  $b, c \in F$ . Then*

$$x^2 + bx + c = (x + b/2)^2 - (b^2 - 4c)/4.$$

*Proof.* Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + bx + c &= ((x + b/2)^2 - b^2/4) + c && \text{(Lemma 12)} \\ &= (x + b/2)^2 - (b^2/4 - 4c/4) \\ &= (x + b/2)^2 - (b^2 - 4c)/4. \end{aligned}$$

□

**Lemma 14** (Completing the square: part 3). *Suppose  $a, b, c \in F$  where  $a \neq 0$ . Then*

$$ax^2 + bx + c = a \left( x + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 - \frac{b^2 - 4ac}{4a}.$$

*Proof.* First divide the given polynomial by  $a$ . In other words, let  $b' = b/a$  and  $c' = c/a$  and consider  $x^2 + b'x + c'$ . By Lemma 13,

$$x^2 + b'x + c' = (x + b'/2)^2 - (b'^2 - 4c')/4 = (x + b/(2a))^2 - (b^2/a^2 - 4c/a)/4.$$

Now multiply both sides by  $a$  and simplify. □

*Remark.* We call  $b^2 - 4ac$  the *discriminant* of  $ax^2 + bx + c$ .

**Theorem 15.** *Suppose  $F$  is a field with  $2 \neq 0$ . Consider a quadratic polynomial  $ax^2 + bx + c$  where  $a, b, c \in F$  with  $a \neq 0$ . If  $ax^2 + bx + c$  has a root in  $F$  then  $b^2 - 4ac$  is a square in  $F$ . In this case, the roots are*

$$\frac{-b \pm d}{2a}$$

where  $d$  is a square root of  $b^2 - 4ac$ .

*Conversely, if  $b^2 - 4ac$  is a square in  $F$  then  $ax^2 + bx + c$  has roots in  $F$ . If  $b^2 - 4ac$  is a non-zero square, then there are two roots. If  $b^2 - 4ac = 0$  there is a unique root.*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $x = x_0$  is a root of  $ax^2 + bx + c$ . By Lemma 14,

$$a \left( x_0 + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 - \frac{b^2 - 4ac}{4a} = 0$$

Thus

$$b^2 - 4ac = \left( x_0 + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 4a^2 = \left( \left( x_0 + \frac{b}{2a} \right) 2a \right)^2.$$

This shows that  $b^2 - 4ac$  is a square. Let  $d$  be a square root. So

$$d^2 = b^2 - 4ac = \left( \left( x_0 + \frac{b}{2a} \right) 2a \right)^2 = (2ax_0 + b)^2.$$

By Corollary 10,  $2ax_0 + b = \pm d$ . Thus  $x_0 = (-b \pm d)/2a$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $b^2 - 4ac$  is a square in  $F$ . Let  $d$  be a square root. Then  $(-b \pm d)/2a$  are clearly roots of

$$a \left( x + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 - \frac{b^2 - 4ac}{4a}.$$

By Lemma 14, these give roots of  $ax^2 + bx + c$ .

We still must show that the roots are distinct if  $b^2 - 4ac$  is a non-zero square. In this case  $d \neq 0$  (otherwise  $d^2 = b^2 - 4ac$  would be zero). By Lemma 8  $d \neq -d$ . Now suppose the roots are not distinct:  $(-b + d)/2a = (-b - d)/2a$ . Then  $b + d = -b - d$ . This implies  $d = -d$ , a contradiction. Thus we have two distinct roots. If  $b^2 - 4ac = 0$  then  $d = 0$  (otherwise  $d^2 \neq 0$ , a contradiction). So  $(-b + d)/2a = (-b - d)/2a$ . Hence there is exactly one root.  $\square$

Now we focus on the case where  $F = \mathbb{F}_p$  where  $p$  is an odd prime.

**Corollary 16.** *Let  $p$  be an odd prime, and consider the polynomial  $ax^2 + bx + c$  where  $a \neq 0$  and where  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{F}_p$ . Then the number of roots in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is given by the following (Legendre Symbol based) formula:*

$$\left( \frac{b^2 - 4ac}{p} \right) + 1.$$

## 8. ADDITIONAL PRACTICE PROBLEMS

**Exercise 9.** Compute  $\left(\frac{5}{71}\right)$  using the above properties. Likewise, compute  $\left(\frac{3}{71}\right)$ .

**Exercise 10.** Use the Legendre symbol to decide if 14 is a square in  $\mathbb{F}_{101}$ .

**Exercise 11.** How many roots does  $2x^2 + 3x + 4$  have in  $\mathbb{F}_{239}$ ?

**Exercise 12.** When is 5 a square modulo  $p$  where  $p$  is an odd prime? List the first eight primes where this happens. Check a few of these to see if you can find square roots of 5. (Hint: the answer depends on what  $p$  is modulo 5.)

**Exercise 13.** When is 7 a square modulo  $p$  where  $p$  is an odd prime? List the first eight primes where this happens. Check a few of these to see if you can find square roots of 7. (Hint: the answer depends on what  $p$  is modulo 28. Divide into two cases:  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . Use the Chinese Remainder Theorem.)

**Exercise 14.** Show that  $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{3}\right)$  for all odd primes  $p$ . (Hint: divide into three cases. (i)  $p = 3$ , (ii)  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , and (iii)  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  with  $p \neq 3$ .)

**Exercise 15.** For what odd primes  $p$  are there elements  $a$  and  $a + 1$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  that are multiplicative inverses to each other? List the first eight primes where this happens. Check a few of these to see if you can find  $a$ . (Hint: show this happens if and only if  $x^2 + x - 1 = 0$  has roots.)

**Exercise 16.** For what odd primes  $p$  are there elements  $a$  and  $b$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  that are both additive and multiplicative inverses to each other? List the first eight primes where this happens. Check a few of these to see if you can find  $a$  and  $b$ . (Hint: show this happens if and only if  $x^2 + 1$  has roots.)

**Exercise 17.** For what odd primes  $p$  are there elements  $a$  and  $b$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  that add to 3 but multiply to 2? Give examples.

**Exercise 18.** For what odd primes  $p$  are there elements  $a$  and  $b$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  that add to 2 but multiply to 3? List the first eight primes where this happens. Check a few of these to see if you can find  $a$  and  $b$ . (Hint: the answer depends on whether  $-2$  is a square modulo  $p$ . Compute the Legendre symbol for each possible value of  $p$  modulo 8. Observe that knowing  $p$  modulo 8 gives you knowledge of  $p$  modulo 4.)

**Exercise 19.** For what odd primes  $p$  is there a non-zero element in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  whose cube is equal to 3 times itself? List the first eight primes where this happens. Check a few of these primes to see if you can find the desired element in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . (Hint: show this happens if and only if  $x^2 = 3$  has a solution. Split into three cases:  $p = 3$  and  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  and  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .)

**Exercise 20.** Which odd primes can divide integers of the form  $N^2 + 1$ ? Give a list of seven such primes. Give and justify a general answer.  
Answer: primes such that  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ .

**Exercise 21.** Which odd primes can divide integers of the form  $N^2 - 5$ ? Give a list of seven such primes. Give and justify a general answer.  
Answer:  $p = 5$  and other primes such that  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  or  $p \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$ .

**Exercise 22.** Which odd primes can divide integers of the form  $N^2 + 5$ ? Give a list of seven such primes. Give and justify a general answer.  
Answer:  $p = 5$  and other primes such that  $p \equiv 1, 3, 7, 9 \pmod{20}$ .

**Exercise 23.** Which odd primes can divide integers of the form  $N^2 + N + 1$ ? Give a list of seven such primes. Give and justify a general answer.  
Answer:  $p = 3$  and other primes such that  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ .

**Exercise 24.** Which odd primes can divide integers of the form  $2N^2 + 5N + 1$ ? Give a list of seven such primes. Give and justify a general answer. Hint: it depends on what  $p$  is modulo 17.