

The function $n \mapsto \left(\frac{d}{n}\right)$

Fix a square-free integer $d \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0, 1\}$. The Jacobi symbol $\left(\frac{d}{n}\right)$ is defined for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ relatively prime to $2d$. However, the reciprocity law $\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = \left(\frac{b}{a}\right) (-1)^{\frac{a-1}{2} \cdot \frac{b-1}{2}}$ allows us to extend the definition of $n \mapsto \left(\frac{d}{n}\right)$ to a larger set of integers, while preserving the multiplicativity property $\left(\frac{d}{n_1 n_2}\right) = \left(\frac{d}{n_1}\right) \left(\frac{d}{n_2}\right)$. Most astonishingly, the value of this extended function will depend only on the residue class of n modulo a suitable integer depending on d .

Ex 1. $(d = -1)$ $\left(\frac{-1}{n}\right)$ is defined for $n \geq 1$ relatively prime to 2.

For such n we have $\left(\frac{-1}{n}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} = \begin{cases} 1, & n \equiv 1 [4] \\ -1, & n \equiv 3 [4]. \end{cases}$

The expression $(-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}}$ is defined for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ relatively prime to 2, ~~and~~ depends only on $n \pmod{4}$, and satisfies $(-1)^{\frac{mn-1}{2}} = (-1)^{\frac{m-1}{2}} (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}}$.

Ex 2. $(d = -3)$ $\left(\frac{-3}{n}\right)$ is defined for $n \geq 1$ relatively prime to 6.

For such n we have $\left(\frac{-3}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{n}{3}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & n \equiv 1 [3] \\ -1, & n \equiv 2 [3]. \end{cases}$

The expression $\left(\frac{n}{3}\right)$ is defined for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ relatively prime to 3, depends only on $n \pmod{3}$, and satisfies $\left(\frac{n_1 n_2}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{n_1}{3}\right) \left(\frac{n_2}{3}\right)$.

Ex 3. $(d = 5)$ $\left(\frac{5}{n}\right)$ is defined for $n \geq 1$ relatively prime to 10.

For such n we have $\left(\frac{5}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{n}{5}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & n \equiv \pm 1 [5] \\ -1, & n \equiv \pm 2 [5]. \end{cases}$

The expression $\left(\frac{n}{5}\right)$ is defined for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ relatively prime to 5, depends only on $n \pmod{5}$, and satisfies $\left(\frac{n_1 n_2}{5}\right) = \left(\frac{n_1}{5}\right) \left(\frac{n_2}{5}\right)$.

Ex 4. $(d = -5)$ $\left(\frac{-5}{n}\right)$ is defined for $n \geq 1$ relatively prime to 10.

For such n we have $\left(\frac{-5}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{n}\right) \left(\frac{5}{n}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \left(\frac{n}{5}\right)$. The expression

$(-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \left(\frac{n}{5}\right)$ is defined for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ relatively prime to 10, depends only on $n \pmod{20}$, and satisfies $(-1)^{\frac{mn-1}{2}} \left(\frac{mn}{5}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{m-1}{2}} \left(\frac{m}{5}\right) (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \left(\frac{n}{5}\right)$

Explicitly, $\left(\frac{-5}{n}\right) = 1$ is equivalent to

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \left\{ \begin{aligned} \left(\frac{-1}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{5}{n}\right) = 1 & \iff n \equiv 1 [4] \text{ and } n \equiv \pm 1 [5] \iff n \equiv 1, 9 [20] \\ \text{OR} \\ \left(\frac{-1}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{5}{n}\right) = -1 & \iff n \equiv 3 [4] \text{ and } n \equiv \pm 2 [5] \iff n \equiv 3, 7 [20] \end{aligned} \right\} \\ \text{hence } \left(\frac{-5}{n}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & n \equiv 1, 3, 7, 9 [20] \\ -1, & n \equiv 11, 13, 17, 19 [20] \end{cases} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

The general case goes as follows (χ_D below is the Kronecker symbol)

Exercise. Let $d \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ be a square-free integer. Writing

$d = \pm 2^s q_1^* \cdots q_r^*$ ($q_i \neq 2$ prime, $q_i^* = (-1)^{\frac{q_i-1}{2}} q_i$) and applying the reciprocity law for the Jacobi symbol, show that

there is a unique map $\chi_D : (\mathbb{Z}/|D|\mathbb{Z})^\times \rightarrow \{\pm 1\}$

(where $D = \begin{cases} d, & d \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ 4d, & d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$) such that

(i) $\left(\frac{d}{n}\right) = \chi_D(n \pmod{|D|})$ if $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ is relatively prime to $2d$.

(ii) $\chi_D(ab) = \chi_D(a)\chi_D(b)$.

[The notation χ_D is justified by the fact that $d \neq d' \Rightarrow D \neq D'$.

Moreover, $|D| \geq 1$ is the smallest positive integer with the above property.

Analytic formulation of unique factorisation (continued)

Recall: ① UFD property of \mathbb{Z} is equivalent to

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n^s} = \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p^s} + \frac{1}{p^{2s}} + \dots \right) = \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s} \right)^{-1}$$

② UFD property of $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ is equivalent to

$$\sum_{\alpha \in (\mathbb{Z}[i] \setminus \{0\}) / \mathbb{Z}[i]^{\times}} \frac{1}{N(\alpha)^s} = \prod_{\pi \in \mathbb{Z}[i]_{\text{irr}} / \mathbb{Z}[i]^{\times}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{N(\pi)^s} \right)^{-1} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^s} \right)^{-1} \prod_{p \equiv 1[4]} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s} \right)^{-2} \prod_{p \equiv 3[4]} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s} \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \zeta(s) \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P} \setminus \{2\}} \left(1 - \left(\frac{-1}{p} \right) \frac{1}{p^s} \right)^{-1}$$

$$L\left(\left(\frac{-1}{\cdot}\right)_1, s\right) = \sum_{\substack{n \geq 1 \\ 2 \nmid n}} \left(\frac{-1}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n^s} = \sum_{\substack{n \geq 1 \\ 2 \nmid n}} (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \frac{1}{n^s}$$

$\frac{1}{4} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \setminus \{0,0\}} \frac{1}{(x^2+y^2)^s}$. As a result, $r_{x^2+y^2}(n) = |\{(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \mid x^2+y^2=n\}|$ is given by the formula

$$\frac{1}{4} r_{x^2+y^2}(n) = \sum_{2 \nmid d \mid n} \left(\frac{-1}{d}\right) = \prod_{\substack{p \mid n \\ p \neq 2}} \sum_{j=0}^{v_p(n)} \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)^j = \prod_{\substack{p \mid n \\ p \neq 2}} \left(1 + v_p(n) \right) \prod_{p \mid n} \begin{cases} 1, & 2 \nmid v_p(n) \\ 0, & 2 \mid v_p(n) \end{cases}$$

Ex. $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_3]$ ($\zeta_3 = e^{2\pi i/3} = \frac{-1+i\sqrt{3}}{2}$) is a UFD, $\alpha = u+v\zeta_3$ ($u,v \in \mathbb{Z}$)
 $N(\alpha) = \alpha\bar{\alpha} = u^2 - uv + v^2$

$$\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_3]^{\times} = \{\pm 1, \pm \zeta_3, \pm \zeta_3^2\}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_3]_{\text{irr}} / \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_3]^{\times} = \left\{ \frac{\zeta_3 - \zeta_3^2}{i\sqrt{3}} \right\} \cup \{p \mid p \equiv 2[3]\} \cup \{\pi_p \bar{\pi}_p \mid \pi_p \bar{\pi}_p = p \equiv 1[3]\}$$

As in ② above,

$$\sum_{\alpha \in (\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_3] \setminus \{0\}) / \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_3]^{\times}} \frac{1}{N(\alpha)^s} = \prod_{\pi \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_3]_{\text{irr}} / \mathbb{Z}[\zeta_3]^{\times}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{N(\pi)^s} \right)^{-1} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{3^s} \right)^{-1} \prod_{p \equiv 1[3]} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s} \right)^{-2} \prod_{p \equiv 2[3]} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^s} \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \zeta(s) \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P} \setminus \{3\}} \left(1 - \left(\frac{-3}{p} \right) \frac{1}{p^s} \right)^{-1}$$

Therefore

$$L\left(\left(\frac{-3}{\cdot}\right)_1, s\right) = \sum_{\substack{n \geq 1 \\ 3 \nmid n}} \left(\frac{-3}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n^s}$$

$$\frac{1}{6} r_{x^2-xy+y^2}(n) = \sum_{3 \nmid d \mid n} \left(\frac{-3}{d}\right) = \prod_{\substack{p \mid n \\ p \neq 3}} \left(1 + v_p(n) \right) \cdot \prod_{p \mid n} \begin{cases} 1, & 2 \nmid v_p(n) \\ 0, & 2 \mid v_p(n) \end{cases}$$

Ex. The ring $\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}] = \{ \alpha = u + i\sqrt{5}v \mid u, v \in \mathbb{Z} \}$ is NOT a UFD:

$$2 \cdot 3 = 6 = (1+i\sqrt{5})(1-i\sqrt{5}), \quad 3 \cdot 7 = 21 = (4+i\sqrt{5})(4-i\sqrt{5})$$

All elements $2, 3, 7, 1 \pm i\sqrt{5}, 4 \pm i\sqrt{5}$ are irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]$

We have $N(\alpha) = \alpha\bar{\alpha} = u^2 + 5v^2$, hence $\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]^\times = \{ \pm 1 \}$.

Question: is there a relation between

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}} \frac{1}{(x^2+5y^2)^s} = \sum_{\alpha \in (\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}] \setminus \{0\}) / \mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]^\times} \frac{1}{N(\alpha)^s} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{r_{x^2+5y^2}(n)}{n^s} \quad \text{and}$$

$$\zeta(s) L\left(\left(\frac{-5}{\cdot}\right), s\right), \quad \text{where } L\left(\left(\frac{-5}{\cdot}\right), s\right) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \left(\frac{-5}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n^s} = \prod_{p \neq 2,5} \left(1 - \left(\frac{-5}{p}\right) \frac{1}{p^s}\right)^{-1}$$

$\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{a(n)}{n^s}$

$$\left(\frac{-1}{d}\right) \left(\frac{d}{5}\right)$$

As above, $a(n) = \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ (d,10)=1}} \left(\frac{-5}{d}\right) = \prod_{p|n} (1 + r_p(n)) \prod_{p|n} \begin{cases} 1, & 2 | r_p(n) \\ 0, & 2 \nmid r_p(n) \end{cases}$

$\left(\frac{-5}{p}\right) = 1$ $\left(\frac{-5}{p}\right) = -1$

In particular, for a prime $p \neq 2, 5$,

$$a(p) = \begin{cases} 2, & \left(\frac{-5}{p}\right) = 1 \\ 0, & \left(\frac{-5}{p}\right) = -1 \end{cases} \iff \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{5}\right) = 1 \quad \text{OR} \quad \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{5}\right) = -1$$

On the other hand, if $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ is relatively prime to 10 and $r_{x^2+5y^2}(n) \neq 0$, then $n = x^2 + 5y^2 \quad (x, y \in \mathbb{Z}) \equiv x^2 \equiv \pm 1 [5] \Rightarrow \left(\frac{n}{5}\right) = 1$
 $\equiv x^2 + y^2 \equiv 1 [4] \Rightarrow \left(\frac{-1}{n}\right) = 1$.

Conclusion: for $p \neq 2, 5$

$$r_{x^2+5y^2}(p) \neq 0 \implies \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{5}\right) = 1 \quad (\iff p \equiv 1, 9 [20])$$

$$a(p) \neq 0 \iff \left. \begin{cases} \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{5}\right) = 1 \\ \text{OR} \\ \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{5}\right) = -1 \end{cases} \right\} \leftarrow$$

$p \equiv 3, 7 [20]$

So $\sum \frac{1}{N(\alpha)^s}$ does not contain the terms $\frac{1}{p^s}$ for p satisfying \leftarrow !!

What is going on? We need to convert the condition

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{5}\right) = -1 \quad \text{into} \quad \left(\frac{-1}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{n}{5}\right) = 1, \quad \text{this can be done}$$

by choosing $q \in \mathbb{P}$ such that $\left(\frac{-1}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{5}\right) = -1$ and letting $n = pq$. Then there will be a chance of n being of the form $x^2 + 5y^2 = N(x + iy\sqrt{5})$.

The simplest choice is $q = 3$.

When is $3 \mid (x^2 + 5y^2)$, $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$?

$$3 \mid (x^2 + 5y^2) \Leftrightarrow 3 \mid (x^2 - y^2) = (x-y)(x+y) \Leftrightarrow x \equiv \pm y \pmod{3} \Leftrightarrow x = 3u \pm y.$$

$$\text{In this case} \quad \frac{x^2 + 5y^2}{3} = \frac{(3u \pm y)^2 + 5y^2}{3} = 3u^2 \pm 2uy + 2y^2.$$

So we should also consider a contribution from $\left(\frac{-1}{3}\right) = -1$:

Improved question: is there a relation between

$$\textcircled{*} \quad \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}} \frac{1}{(x^2 + 5y^2)^s} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}} \frac{1}{(3x^2 + 2xy + 2y^2)^s} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{r_{x^2+5y^2}(n) + r_{3x^2+2xy+2y^2}(n)}{n^s}$$

and $\zeta(s) L\left(\left(\frac{-5}{\cdot}\right), s\right)$?

Answer: Yes! The two expressions are equal to each other!

~~Also~~ In addition,

$$\textcircled{*} \quad \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}} \frac{1}{(x^2 + 5y^2)^s} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\}} \frac{1}{(3x^2 + 2xy + 2y^2)^s} = \underbrace{L\left(\left(\frac{-1}{\cdot}\right), s\right)}_{\sum_{n \geq 1} \left(\frac{-1}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n^s}} \underbrace{L\left(\left(\frac{5}{\cdot}\right), s\right)}_{\sum_{n \geq 1} \left(\frac{5}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n^s}}$$

This is the simplest example of genus theory for binary quadratic forms in action.

A most puzzling question: how can one express the sum

$\textcircled{*}$ in terms of the ring $\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]$? The fact that this sum is equal to $\zeta(s) L\left(\left(\frac{-5}{\cdot}\right), s\right)$ seems to be suggesting that there is some kind of unique factorisation lurking behind, even though unique factorisation fails in $\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]$.

This phenomenon was first encountered by Kummer during his investigation of rings $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ (p prime). He noticed that for small values of p there seemed to be a simple rule for factorisation of primes $l \neq p$ in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ ("small" meaning $p \leq 19$), but the rule broke down for $p = 23$. Kummer's solution of the puzzle was very imaginative: he postulated existence of certain "ideal numbers" living outside $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta_p]$ for ~~which~~ which unique factorisation holds.

For the ring $A = \mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]$ this would mean that the inequivalent factorisations $2 \cdot 3 = (1+i\sqrt{5})(1-i\sqrt{5})$ irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]$

could be refined into $2 = P_1 P_2$, $3 = Q_1 Q_2$, $1+i\sqrt{5} = P_1 Q_1$, $1-i\sqrt{5} = P_2 Q_2$, for some "ideal numbers" P_1, P_2, Q_1, Q_2 .

Dedekind realised that all one needed to know about an "ideal number" D was the set of elements of A divisible by D . This turned out to be an ideal of A . Dedekind not only introduced the concept of an ideal, but he showed that rings such as $\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]$ are "Dedekind rings" in the sense that their non-zero ideals admit unique factorisation into prime ideals.

For $A = \mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]$ this says that the sum $(*)$

$$\sum_{I \subset \mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]} \frac{1}{N(I)^s} = \sum_{\alpha \in (\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}] - \{0\}) / \mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]^*} \frac{1}{N(\alpha)^s} + \left(\text{the contribution of non-principal ideals} \right)$$

$I =$ non-zero ideal of $\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]$

corresponds to principal ideals $I = (\alpha)$

is equal to $\prod_P \left(1 - \frac{1}{N(P)^s} \right)^{-1}$.

non-zero prime ideals of $\mathbb{Z}[i\sqrt{5}]$

Structure of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ and $(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ (p prime)

Chinese remainder thm: if $(m, n) = 1$, then $\mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ (ring isom.)

$$\Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z}, +) \xrightarrow{\sim} (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, +) \oplus (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, +)$$

$$(\mathbb{Z}/mn\mathbb{Z})^\times \xrightarrow{\sim} (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^\times \oplus (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times \quad (\text{isom. of abelian groups})$$

Cor: If $n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{r_i}$ ($p_i \in \mathcal{P}$ distinct), then $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times \xrightarrow{\sim} \bigoplus_{i=1}^k (\mathbb{Z}/p_i^{r_i}\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

Structure of $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$

Thm (Gauss) For each prime p , $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times = \mathbb{F}_p^\times$ is a cyclic group (of order $\varphi(p) = p-1$).
 In other words, $\exists a \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\} \pmod{p}$ such that $\{a \pmod{p}, a^2 \pmod{p}, \dots, a^{p-1} \pmod{p}\} = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$.
 We say that a is a primitive root modulo p .

This is a special case of

Thm'. K field, $A \subset K^\times = (K \setminus \{0\}, \cdot)$ finite subgroup $\Rightarrow A$ is cyclic.

PF (following Gauss' proof of Thm). Let $n := |A|$. We are going to count the number of elements $g \in A$ of a given order ($\forall g \in A$ order(g)/ n)

Disjoint union $A = \bigsqcup_{d|n} U_d$, $U_d := \{g \in A \mid \text{order}(g) = d\}$

$$|A| = \sum_{d|n} |U_d|$$

$$n = \sum_{d|n} \varphi(d)$$

Goal: $U_n \neq \emptyset$ (\Rightarrow each $g \in U_n$ will be a generator ^{of A})

$$\Rightarrow \forall d|n \quad |U_d| = \varphi(d) \Rightarrow |U_n| = \varphi(n) > 0$$

$U_n \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow$ Thm!

Key Lemma: $\forall d|n \quad |U_d| = 0$ or $\varphi(d)$

PF of Key Lemma: use

(a) $\forall g \in U_d \quad \forall k \geq 1 \quad \text{order}(g^k) = d / (d, k)$.

(b) L field, $f \in L[X] \setminus L \Rightarrow |\{a \in L \mid f(a) = 0\}| \leq \deg(f)$.

If $d|n$ and $U_d \neq \emptyset$: choose $g \in U_d$; then

$$U_d \hookrightarrow \{a \in K \mid a^d - 1 = 0\} \xleftarrow{\text{equality}} \{g, g^2, \dots, g^d = 1\}$$

$\leq d$ elements (by (b)) d distinct elements

$$U_d = U_d \cap \{g^k \mid 1 \leq k \leq d, (d, k) = 1\} \stackrel{(a)}{=} \{g^k \mid 1 \leq k \leq d, (d, k) = 1\}$$

$\varphi(d)$ elements

$(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is cyclic

Thm. Let K be a field. Any finite multiplicative subgroup $A \subset K^\times$ is cyclic.

Cor (Gauss) For any prime number p the group $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is cyclic.

Pf of Thm (inspired by the treatment of the Legendre symbol $(\frac{a}{p})$ in terms of the factorisation $X^{p-1} - 1 = \prod_{a \in \mathbb{F}_p^\times} (X-a) \in \mathbb{F}_p[X]$):

If $n = |A|$ is the order of A , then $\forall a \in A$ $a^n = 1$, which means that the polynomial $\prod_{a \in A} (X-a) \in K[X]$ must divide $X^n - 1 \in K[X]$.

For reasons of degree, the two polynomials must be equal:

$X^n - 1 = \prod_{a \in A} (X-a) \in K[X]$. We now compare this factorisation

to the factorisation $X^n - 1 = \prod_{d|n} \Phi_d(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ into cyclotomic polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$, which gives rise to an analogous

factorisation in $K[X]$ (recall that $\mu_n = \mu_n(\mathbb{C}) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid z^n = 1\} =$

$= \{\zeta_n^b \mid b \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}\}$ decomposes as $\mu_n = \prod_{d|n} \mu_d^\circ$, where

$\mu_n^\circ = \mu_n \setminus \bigcup_{m < n} \mu_m = \{\zeta_n^b \mid b \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times\}$; then $\Phi_n(X) = \prod_{b \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times} (X - \zeta_n^b)$.

There exists $a \in A$ such that $X-a$ divides

$\Phi_n(X) \in K[X]$. This implies that $X-a$ does not divide (in $K[X]$)

any of the factors $\Phi_d(X)$ of $X^n - 1$ with $d|n$, $d < n$.

If $m \nmid n$ and $m < n$, the factorisation $X^m - 1 = \prod_{d|m} \Phi_d(X)$

then implies that $a^m \neq 1$. Therefore $a \in A$ is an element

of order $n = |A|$, hence a generator of A .

From $1+p\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r}$ to $(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ ($p \neq 2, r \geq 1$)

Properties of $G[m] := \{g \in G \mid g^m = 1\}$
 $G^m := \{g^m \mid g \in G\}$ } subgroups of G (G abelian group, $m \geq 1$)

(1) $G \xrightarrow{\alpha} G$, $G[m] = \text{Ker}(\alpha)$, $G^m = \text{Im}(\alpha)$
 $\downarrow \Psi$ $\downarrow \Psi$
 $g \mapsto g^m$

So $|G| = |G[m]| \cdot |G^m|$, provided $|G| < \infty$.

(2) If $|G| < \infty$ and $G = G[m] \Rightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ $|G| \mid m^k$

(If g_1, \dots, g_k generate G , then $\beta: (\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^k \rightarrow G$
 $(a_1, \dots, a_k) \mapsto g_1^{a_1} \dots g_k^{a_k}$
 is a surjective morphism $\Rightarrow |G| = |(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z})^k| / |\text{Ker}(\beta)|$)

(3) If $G \cong C_n$ cyclic group of order n , and $m \mid n$, then
 (generated by $g \in G$)

$G^m =$ cyclic, generated by g^m , $G^m = \{g^m, (g^m)^2, \dots, (g^m)^{n/m}\} \cong C_{n/m}$
 $G[m] = \{g^k \mid g^{km} = 1\} =$ cyclic, generated by $g^{n/m}$, $\cong C_m$
 $\Leftrightarrow n/km \Leftrightarrow \frac{n}{m} \mid k$

$\Rightarrow G^m = G[n/m]$.

(4) $m \mid n \Rightarrow G[m] \subset G[n]$, $G^m \supset G^n$.

(5) $G[m] \cap G[n] = G[\underbrace{\text{gcd}(m, n)}_d]$

PR: (5) \Leftarrow (4); (5) $d = mu + nv$, $g \in G[m] \cap G[n] \Rightarrow g^d = (g^m)^u (g^n)^v = 1$

(6) $G[m] + G[n] = G[\underbrace{\text{lcm}(m, n)}_{mn/d}]$

PR: (6) \Leftarrow (4); (6) $g \in G[mn/d] \Rightarrow g = g^1 = \underbrace{g^{\frac{m}{d}v}}_{g_1} \underbrace{g^{\frac{m}{d}u}}_{g_2}$, $g_1^m = (g^{\frac{mn}{d}})^v = 1$
 $g_2^n = (g^{\frac{mn}{d}})^u = 1$

(7) If $(m, n) = 1 \Rightarrow G[m] \oplus G[n] = G[mn]$

(\Rightarrow primary decomposition: $G[\prod_1^k p_i^{r_i}] = \bigoplus_1^k G[p_i^{r_i}]$)

(8) $G = G[n] \Rightarrow G[m] = G[m] \cap G[n] = G[\underbrace{\text{gcd}(m, n)}_d]$

(9) $G = G[n] \Rightarrow G^m = G^d$ [PR: (5) \Leftarrow (4); (5) $d = mu + nv$, $g^d = g^{mu} g^{nv} = (g^u)^m g^n \in G^m$]

(10) $G \cong C_n \xrightarrow{(3), (8), (9)} G[m] \cong C_{(m, n)}$, $G^m \cong C_{n/(m, n)}$

(11) $G \cong \bigoplus_j C_{n_j} \xrightarrow{(10)} G[m] \cong \bigoplus_j C_{(m, n_j)}$

$G^m \cong \bigoplus_j C_{n_j / (m, n_j)}$

From $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ to $(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ (p prime, $r \geq 1$)

Prop. (Frobenius morphism $x \mapsto x^p$ improves congruences). let $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

(a) If $p \in P, t \geq 1, x \equiv y [p^t] \Rightarrow x^p \equiv y^p [p^{t+1}]$.

(b) If $p \in P, t \geq 1, p^t > 2, x \equiv y [p^t], x \not\equiv y [p^{t+1}] \Rightarrow x^p \equiv y^p [p^{t+1}], x^p \not\equiv y^p [p^{t+2}]$

(the improvement in (a) cannot be improved, if $p^t > 2$)

Pr: $x = y + p^t z, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ ($p^t z$ in (b))

$$x^p = (y + p^t z)^p = y^p + p^{t+1} y^{p-1} z + \underbrace{\binom{p}{2} y^{p-2} (p^t z)^2 + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1} y (p^t z)^{p-1}}_{\equiv 0 [p^{t+2}]} + p^{tp} z^p$$

$tp \geq 2t \geq t+1 \Rightarrow (a)$
 $p^t > 2 \Rightarrow tp \geq t+2 \Rightarrow (b)$

Natural filtrations: (1) On the additive group $\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z}$: (p prime)

$$\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z} \supset p\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z} \supset p^2\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z} \supset \dots \supset p^{k-1}\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z} \supset p^k\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z} = \{0\}$$

$|p^j\mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z}| = p^{k-j} \quad (0 \leq j \leq k)$

(2) On the multiplicative group $G := (\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ (p prime, $r \geq 1$)

$$\underbrace{(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^{\times}}_G \supset \underbrace{1+p\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r}}_{G_1} \supset \underbrace{1+p^2\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r}}_{G_2} \supset \dots \supset \underbrace{1+p^{r-1}\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r}}_{G_{r-1}} \supset \underbrace{\{1\} \pmod{p^r}}_{G_r}$$

For $1 \leq t \leq r, |G_t| = p^{r-t}$ ($G_t = 1+p^t j \pmod{p^r}, j \in \mathbb{Z}/p^{r-t}\mathbb{Z}$)

$$G_t = \text{Ker} \left((\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \xrightarrow{\text{surjective morphism}} (\mathbb{Z}/p^t\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \right)$$

$a \pmod{p^r} \mapsto a \pmod{p^t}$

Goal: compare (1) and (2) in terms of suitable exponential/logarithm maps

Toy model: for $b \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, $\exp_b(x) := \exp(x \ln(b))$ defines group isomorphisms

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \exp_b: \mathbb{C}/\frac{2\pi i}{\ln(b)}\mathbb{Z} & \xrightarrow{\sim} & \mathbb{C}^{\times} \\ \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \mathbb{R} & \xrightarrow{\sim} & \mathbb{R}_{>0}^{\times} \end{array} \quad \text{Inverse: } \log_b$$

Reformulation of Prop: (a) $x \in G_t \setminus G_{t+1} \Rightarrow x^p \in G_{t+1} \setminus G_{t+2}$ ($1 \leq t \leq r-1$)
 (b) $p^t > 2, x \in G_t \setminus G_{t+1} \Rightarrow x^p \in G_{t+1} \setminus G_{t+2}$ ($1 \leq t \leq r-2$)

Cor 1. $p^t > 2, 1 \leq t \leq r-1 \Rightarrow \{x \in (\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \mid x^{p^{r-t}} \equiv 1 [p^r]\} = G_t = 1+p^t\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r}$
 $[x^p \equiv 1 [p] \Rightarrow x \equiv 1 [p]]$

Note: $p^t > 2 \Leftrightarrow (p \neq 2 \text{ or } (p=2, t \geq 2))$

Cor 2. $p^t > 2, 1 \leq t \leq r-1 \Rightarrow \forall b \equiv 1 [p^t] \neq 1 [p^{t+1}]$ the "discrete exponential" induces a well-defined group isomorphism $\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow b^{\mathbb{Z}} (z \in \mathbb{Z})$

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbb{Z}/p^{r-t}\mathbb{Z}, +) &\supset (\mathbb{Z}/p^{r-t-1}\mathbb{Z}, +) \supset \dots \supset (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, +) \supset \{0\} \\ \exp_b \downarrow & \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow & \qquad \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\ 1+p^t\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r} &\supset 1+p^{t+1}\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r} \supset \dots \supset 1+p^{r-1}\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r} \supset \{1\} \\ (\exp_b(z \pmod{p^{r-t}}) &= b^z \pmod{p^r}) \end{aligned}$$

Cor 3. $p^t > 2, 1 \leq t \leq r-1, b \equiv 1 [p^t] \neq 1 [p^{t+1}] \Rightarrow b$ is a generator of $1+p^t\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r}$ cyclic, order = p^{r-t}
 Moreover, if $0 \leq j \leq r-t$, b^{p^j} is a generator of $1+p^{t+j}\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r}$ cyclic, order = p^{r-t-j}

Cor 4. ($p \neq 2, t=1$) If $p \neq 2$ and $r \geq 1$, $1+p\mathbb{Z} \pmod{p^r} = \text{Ker}((\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times)$ is cyclic of order p^{r-1} , generated by any $b \equiv 1 [p], b \not\equiv 1 [p^2]$ (e.g., by $b=1+p$)

$$(\exp_b : \mathbb{Z}/p^{r-1}\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\sim} (\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times, z \pmod{p^{r-1}} \mapsto b^z \pmod{p^r})$$

Cor 5. ($p=2, t=2$) If $r \geq 2$, $1+4\mathbb{Z} \pmod{2^r} = \text{Ker}((\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z})^\times \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/2^2\mathbb{Z})^\times)$ is cyclic of order 2^{r-2} , generated by any $b \equiv 1 [2^2], b \not\equiv 1 [2^3]$ (e.g., by $b=5$).

Cor 6. If $r \geq 2$, $\{\pm 1\} \times \mathbb{Z}/2^{r-2}\mathbb{Z} \xrightarrow{\sim} (\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ isomorphism
 $(\varepsilon, x \pmod{2^{r-2}}) \mapsto \varepsilon \cdot 5^x \pmod{2^r}$

Cor 7. If $p \neq 2$, ~~and~~ $r \geq 2$ and $p \nmid a$, then

$$[\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \quad x^p \equiv a [p^r] \iff \exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \quad x^p \equiv a [p^2]]$$

If: $(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times \xrightarrow{\alpha} (\mathbb{Z}/p^2\mathbb{Z})^\times$ all four morphisms are surjective
 $G \downarrow \quad H \downarrow$
 $G/G^p \xrightarrow{\bar{\alpha}} H/H^p$

$$|G/G^p| = |G/pG| \stackrel{\text{Cor. 1}}{=} |G_{r-1}| = p = \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{the same} \\ \text{for } r \text{ replaced by } 2 \end{array} \right) = |H/H^p|$$

$\Rightarrow \bar{\alpha}$ is an isomorphism \Rightarrow Cor. 7.

Exercise. What about $x^{p^j} \equiv a [p^r]$ (including for $p=2$)?

Thm. $p \neq 2$ prime, $r \geq 1 \Rightarrow G = (\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is cyclic.

Pr: $r=1$: - proved by Gauss.

$r \geq 2$: ① Elementary proof: take any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that pta and $a \pmod{p}$ generates $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$. then $b := a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

①a) If $b \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$ ~~then~~ $\xrightarrow{(p-1, p^{r-1})=1}$ order of $b \pmod{p^r}$ in G is equal to p^{r-1}
 $\xrightarrow{(p-1, p^{r-1})=1}$ order of $\underbrace{a \pmod{p^r}}$ in G is equal to $(p-1)p^{r-1} = |G|$
 \Rightarrow " is a generator of G .

①b) If $b \equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$, replace a by $a' = (1+p)a$. Then $b' = a'^{p-1}$ satisfies $b' \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, but $b' \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$ (since $(1+p)^p \equiv 1 \equiv (1+p)(1-p) \pmod{p^2}$)
 $(b' \equiv b \cdot (1-p) \pmod{p^2} \equiv 1-p \pmod{p^2})$. The argument in ①a) applies to $a' \Rightarrow$ result.

② Scientific proof: $|G| = (p-1)p^{r-1}$, $(p-1, p^{r-1}) = 1$

$\Rightarrow G = G[p-1] \oplus G[p^{r-1}]$, $|G[p-1]| = p-1$, $|G[p^{r-1}]| = p^{r-1}$.
 We know that $G_1 := \text{Ker}(\underbrace{(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times}_{G} \xrightarrow{p^r} (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times) = G[p^{r-1}]$, but this is not necessary for the argument.

Consider the morphism $\alpha: G[p-1] \hookrightarrow G \xrightarrow{p^r} (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

$|\text{Ker}(\alpha)| = |G[p-1] \cap \underbrace{\text{Ker}(p^r)}_{G_1}|$ divides $(\underbrace{|G[p-1]|}_{p-1}, \underbrace{|G_1|}_{p^{r-1}}) = 1$

$\Rightarrow \alpha$ is injective. But $|G[p-1]| = p-1 = |(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times| \Rightarrow$
 α is an isomorphism $\Rightarrow G[p-1]$ is cyclic, since $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is.

~~Therefore~~ ~~$G = G[p-1] \oplus G_1$~~

Moreover, $G[p-1] \oplus G_1 \hookrightarrow G$ is injective by the previous discussion, and $|G[p-1] \oplus G_1| = |G| \Rightarrow G = \underbrace{G[p-1]}_{C_{p-1}} \oplus \underbrace{G_1}_{C_{p^{r-1}}} \cong C_{(p-1)p^{r-1}}$ (since $(p-1, p^{r-1}) = 1$).
 is cyclic.

Thm: $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ is cyclic $\Leftrightarrow n = 1, 2, 4, p^r, 2p^r$ ($p \neq 2$ prime, $r \geq 1$).

Pr: (\Rightarrow) We have proved this already (\Leftarrow improved version of Euler's thm)

(\Leftarrow) • $n = 1, 2, 4$ - easy.

$$(\mathbb{Z}/2p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times = \underbrace{(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^\times}_0 \oplus \underbrace{(\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times}_{\text{cyclic}}$$

~~is cyclic~~

Decomposition of $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ into cyclic groups:

Thm: (1) p prime, $r \geq 1 \Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/p^r\mathbb{Z})^\times \simeq \begin{cases} C_{\phi(p^r)} = C_{p-1} \oplus C_{p^{r-1}}, & p \neq 2 \text{ OR } p=2, r \leq 2 \\ C_2 \oplus C_{2^{r-2}}, & p=2, r \geq 2. \end{cases}$

(2) $n = \prod_p p^{r_p(n)} \Rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times \simeq \bigoplus_{\substack{p|n \text{ prime} \\ p \neq 2}} (C_{p-1} \oplus C_{p^{r_p(n)-1}}) \oplus \begin{cases} 0, & 4 \nmid n \\ C_2 \oplus C_{2^{r_2(n)-2}}, & 4 | n \end{cases}$

Exercise: Determine the number of solutions of $x^{30} \equiv 1 [240]$.

Exercise: If $k, r \geq 1$, $a \in \mathbb{Z}, 2 \nmid a$, show that:

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \quad x^{(2^k)} \equiv a [2^r] \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} a \equiv 1 [2^r], & r \leq k+2 \\ \exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \quad x^{(2^k)} \equiv a [2^{k+2}], & r \geq k+2. \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow a \equiv 1 [2^{\min(r, k+2)}].$$

Exercise: If $p \neq 2$ prime, $k, r \geq 1$, $a \in \mathbb{Z}, p \nmid a$, show that:

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \quad x^{(p^k)} \equiv a [p^r] \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} a^{p-1} \equiv 1 [p^r] & r \leq k+1 \\ \exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \quad x^{(p^k)} \equiv a [p^{k+1}] & r \geq k+1 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow a^{p-1} \equiv 1 [p^{\min(r, k+1)}]$$

Uniform formulation: If $p = \text{prime}$, $a \in \mathbb{Z}, p \nmid a, k, r \geq 1$, then:

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \quad x^{(p^k)} \equiv a [p^r] \Leftrightarrow a^{p-1} \equiv 1 [p^{\min(r, k+1 + \delta_{p2})}]$$

\nearrow Kronecker's delta

Exercise. let $p \equiv 1 [3]$ be a prime, ~~show that:~~ let $n \geq 2$. Show that:

(1) $\exists \bar{a} \in (\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ of order 3 in $(\mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z})^\times$.

(2) $\bar{a} + 1 = -\bar{a}^2 \in \mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z}$.

(3) If $\bar{a} = a \pmod{p}$ ($a \in \mathbb{Z}$), then $(a+1)^p \equiv a^p + 1^p [p^n]$.
($a \neq 0, \pm 1 [p]$)

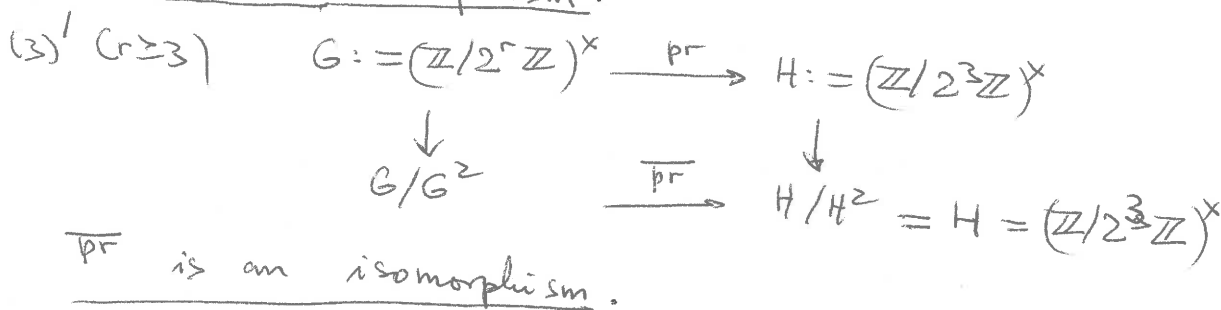
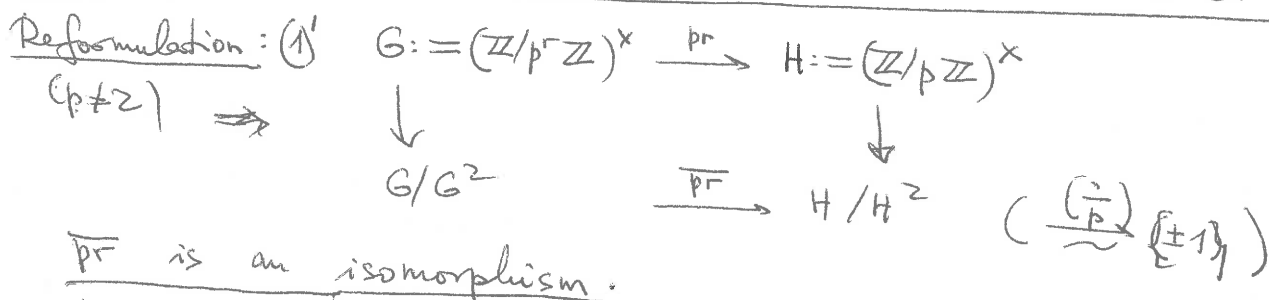
Question: Does $(a+1)^p \equiv a^p + 1 [p^2]$ have a solution $a \neq 0, \pm 1 [p]$ for some $p \equiv -1 [3]$? [YES, for $p=59$, for example]

Solvability of $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{n}$

If $n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{r_i}$, then: $\left[\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \ x^2 \equiv a \pmod{n} \iff \forall i=1, \dots, k \ \exists x_i \in \mathbb{Z} \ x_i^2 \equiv a \pmod{p_i^{r_i}} \right]$

Thm. Let $p = \text{prime}$, $r \geq 1$, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $p \nmid a$.

- (1) If $p \neq 2$: $\left[\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \ x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p^r} \iff \exists y \in \mathbb{Z} \ y^2 \equiv a \pmod{p} \right] \iff \left(\frac{a}{p} \right) = 1$.
- (2) If $p=2$, $r \leq 3$: $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \ x^2 \equiv a \pmod{2^r} \iff a \equiv 1 \pmod{2^r}$ (~~method~~ easy)
- (3) If $p=2$, $r \geq 3$: $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \ x^2 \equiv a \pmod{2^r} \iff \exists y \in \mathbb{Z} \ y^2 \equiv a \pmod{2^3} \iff a \equiv 1 \pmod{2^3}$.



IP: (1)', (3)' All four morphisms in either diagram are surjective.

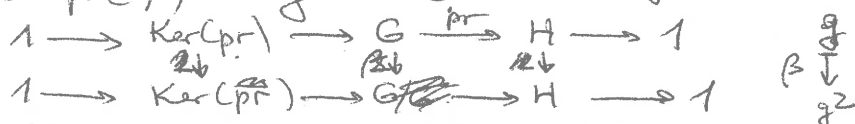
So it is enough to check that $\underbrace{|G/G^2|}_{|G[2]|} \stackrel{?}{=} \underbrace{|H/H^2|}_{|H[2]|}$

But in (1)': $G[2] = \{ \text{solutions of } x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p^r} \} = \{ \pm 1 \pmod{p^r} \}$ (exercise)
 $H[2] = \{ \text{--- " ---} \pmod{p} \} = \{ \pm 1 \pmod{p} \}$
 so $|G[2]| = 2 = |H[2]|$.

In (3)': $H[2] = \{ \text{solutions of } x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2^3} \} = H = \{ \pm 1, \pm 5 \pmod{2^3} \}$
 $G[2] = \{ \text{solutions of } x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2^r} \} = \{ \pm 1, \pm(1+2^{r-1}) \pmod{2^r} \}$
 ($r \geq 3$) so $|G[2]| = 4 = |H[2]|$.

Elementary proof of (1): If $y^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$, take ~~any~~ $z \equiv 1$ then $(yz)^2 \equiv a \pmod{p^r}$, $b \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. But $b^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^r} \implies b \equiv z^2 \pmod{p^r}$, $z = b$
 $\implies a \equiv (yz)^2 \pmod{p^r}$.

Exercise: Prove (1)' (resp. (3)') using snake lemma for



Remarks on $\mathbb{F}_p^{x^m}$

(p prime)

Fix a prime p . For each $m \geq 1$,
 (since $\mathbb{F}_p^x = \mathbb{F}_p^{x[p-1]}$). So it is enough to investigate $\mathbb{F}_p^{x^m}$ for $m | (p-1)$
 $\mathbb{F}_p^{x^m} = \mathbb{F}_p^{x^d}$, $d = (m, p-1) | (p-1)$

Prop. If $p = \text{prime}$, $m | (p-1)$, $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $p \nmid a$, then:

$$a \pmod{p} \in \mathbb{F}_p^{x^m} \iff a^{\frac{p-1}{m}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

("Euler's criterion")

$$\mathbb{F}_p^x = \mathbb{C}_{p-1} \implies \mathbb{C}_{p-1}^m = \mathbb{C}_{p-1}[(p-1)/m]$$

Example: For which $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ does one have $2 \in \mathbb{F}_p^{x^3}$?

(always, if $p \equiv -1 \pmod{3}$, since $\mathbb{F}_p^{x^3} = \mathbb{F}_p^x$ then)

If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$: $2 \in \mathbb{F}_p^{x^3} \iff 2^{\frac{p-1}{3}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

$p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$	7	13	19	31	37	43	61	67	73	79	97	103	109
$\frac{p-1}{3}$	2	4	6	10	12	14	20	22	24	26	32	34	36
$2^{\frac{p-1}{3}} \pmod{p}$	4	3	7	1	-11	1							1
$2 \in \mathbb{F}_p^{x^3}$	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES

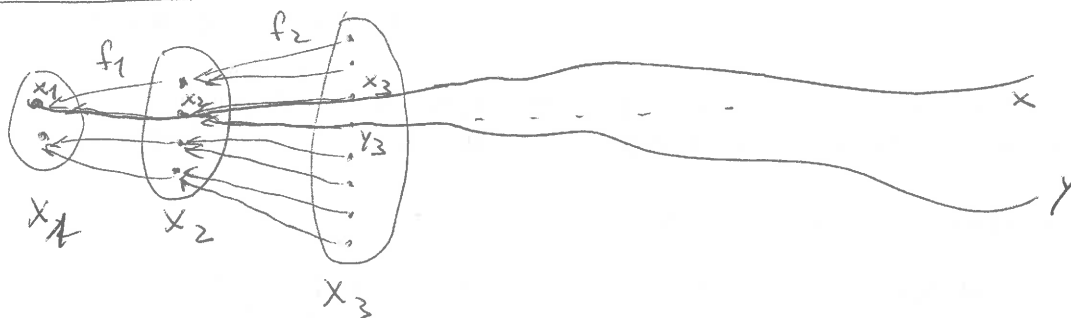
So: for $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, $2 \in \mathbb{F}_p^{x^3} \iff p = 31, 43, 109, \dots$
 What is the rule?

Projective limits (abstract theory)

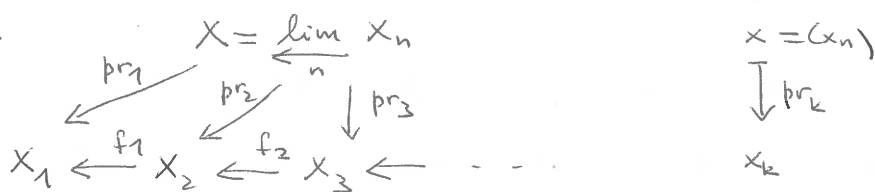
Recall: if $X_1 \xleftarrow{f_1} X_2 \xleftarrow{f_2} \dots \xleftarrow{f_n} X_{n+1} \xleftarrow{\dots}$
 is a sequence of sets (X_n) together with "transition maps" ($f_n = X_{n+1} \rightarrow X_n$)
 (a "projective system of sets indexed by $\mathbb{N}_+ = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ "), its
projective limit consists of compatible systems of elements of the X_n 's

$$X = \varprojlim_n X_n := \{x = (x_n)_{n \geq 1} \mid \forall n \ x_n \in X_n, f_n(x_{n+1}) = x_n\} \subset \prod_{n \geq 1} X_n.$$

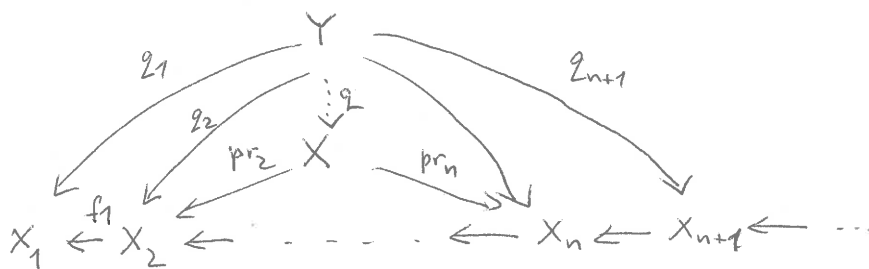
Picture:



There are canonical maps



such that $\forall n \geq 1 \ f_n \circ \text{pr}_{n+1} = \text{pr}_n$, and X is a universal object among the sets having this property: ~~⚡~~



if Y is a set equipped with maps $q_n : Y \rightarrow X_n$
 such that $\forall n \ f_n \circ q_{n+1} = q_n$, then there is a unique
 map $q : Y \rightarrow X$ such that $\forall n \geq 1 \ q_n = \text{pr}_n \circ q$

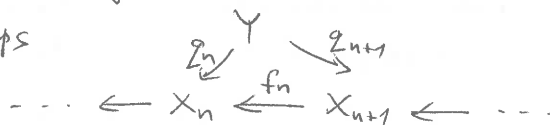
(indeed, we can define $q(y) = (q_n(y))_{n \geq 1} \ (y \in Y)$, and
 this is the only map that works).

If each X_n is a $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{group} \\ \text{ring} \end{array} \right\}$ and each f_n is a $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{group} \\ \text{ring} \end{array} \right\}$ homo-
 morphism, $X = \varprojlim_n X_n$ is again a $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{group} \\ \text{ring} \end{array} \right\}$ (a $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{subgroup} \\ \text{subring} \end{array} \right\}$ of $\prod_{n \geq 1} X_n$),
 and the universal property holds for $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{group} \\ \text{ring} \end{array} \right\}$ homomorphisms.

Projective limits of topological spaces

Assume that each X_n is a topological space and each map $f_n: X_{n+1} \rightarrow X_n$ is continuous.

Claim: there is a canonical topology on $X = \varprojlim_n X_n$ for which each $pr_n: X \rightarrow X_n$ is continuous and which makes X into a universal object among topological spaces Y equipped with continuous maps

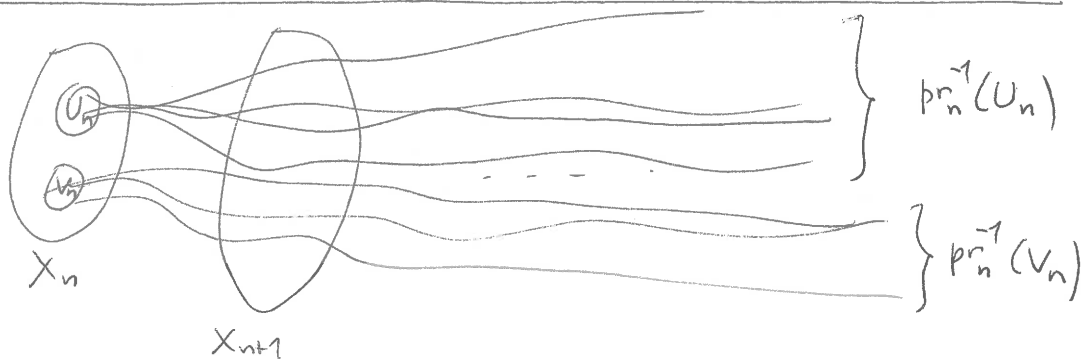


satisfying $f_n \circ \varrho_{n+1} = \varrho_n$

Equivalent descriptions of this projective limit topology:

- ① equip $\prod_{n \geq 1} X_n$ with the product topology and take the induced topology on $\varprojlim_n X_n \subset \prod_{n \geq 1} X_n$.
- ② ~~A~~ A basis of this topology is given by the sets $pr_n^{-1}(U_n)$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ and $U_n \subset X_n$ is open (note that a finite intersection $\bigcap_{i=1}^k pr_{n_i}^{-1}(U_{n_i})$ can be written as $pr_n^{-1}(U_n)$, where $n \geq \max\{n_i \mid i=1, \dots, k\}$ and $U_n = \bigcap_{i=1}^k f_{n/n_i}^{-1}(U_{n_i})$; here $f_{m/m}: X_m \xrightarrow{f_{m-1}} X_{m-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_{m+1} \xrightarrow{f_m} X_m$).

Picture:



Note: If each X_n is Hausdorff, so is $X = \varprojlim_n X_n$.

Indeed, if $x, y \in X$ and $x \neq y$, then $x_n \neq y_n$ for some $n \geq 1$.

If $U_n \ni x_n, V_n \ni y_n$ are open sets in X_n such that $U_n \cap V_n = \emptyset$, then $U := pr_n^{-1}(U_n) \ni x, V := pr_n^{-1}(V_n) \ni y$ are open in X and $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

- ③ In fact, it is enough to take in ② only $pr_n^{-1}(U_n)$ for U_n belonging to a basis of the topology of X_n ($n \geq 1$).

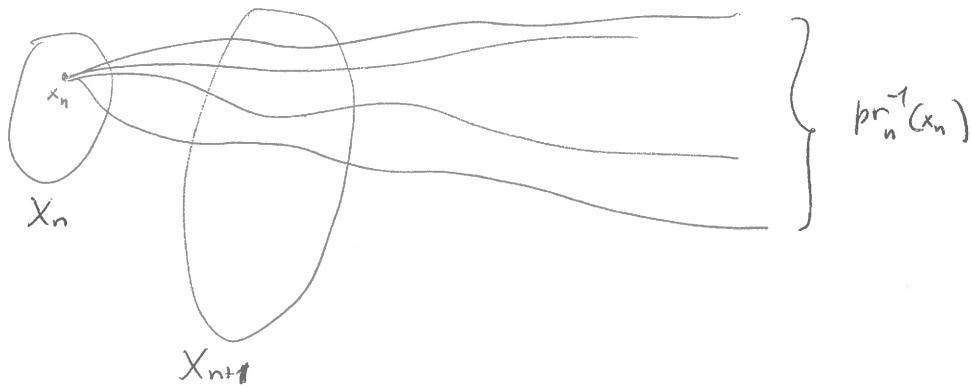
The prodiscrete case

Assume each X_n is equipped with discrete topology (every subset of X_n is open). The projective limit topology on $X = \varprojlim_n X_n$ has as a basis the sets $pr_n^{-1}(x_n)$ ($n \in \mathbb{N}_+$, $x_n \in X_n$).

Note: the set $pr_n^{-1}(x_n)$ is both open and closed in X ,

since
$$X - pr_n^{-1}(x_n) = \bigcup_{y_n \in X - \{x_n\}} pr_n^{-1}(y_n).$$

We also know that X is Hausdorff, since each X_n is.



Claim: there is a natural class of ~~metrics~~ metrics defining the above topology on $X = \varprojlim_n X_n$.

Indeed, we first define

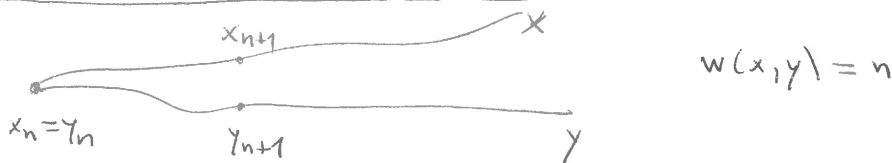
$$w: X \times X \longrightarrow \mathbb{N} \cup \{+\infty\}$$

$$\text{by } w(x, y) = \begin{cases} +\infty & \text{if } x=y \\ n & \text{if } x_n=y_n, x_{n+1} \neq y_{n+1} \end{cases}$$

then we fix a strictly decreasing map

$$\lambda: \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{>0} \text{ such that } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda(n) = 0 \text{ and define}$$

$$d(x, y) := \lambda(w(x, y)) \quad (\lambda(+\infty) := 0).$$



Note: (a) $w(x, y) = w(y, x) \implies d(x, y) = d(y, x)$

(b) $x \neq y \iff w(x, y) < +\infty \iff d(x, y) \neq 0$

(c) $[x_n = y_n \text{ and } y_n = z_n \implies x_n = z_n] \implies w(x, z) \geq \min(w(x, y), w(y, z))$

$$\iff d(x, z) \leq \max(d(x, y), d(y, z))$$

ultrametric property of d

The profinite case

Thm. Let $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be a projective system of non-empty finite sets.

- (1) $X = \varprojlim_n X_n$ is non-empty.
- (2) Equip each X_n with discrete topology and X with the corresponding projective limit topology. Then every sequence in X contains a convergent subsequence.
- (3) X is compact (it is Hausdorff and every open covering $X = \bigcup_\alpha U_\alpha$ has a finite subcovering $X = U_{\alpha_1} \cup \dots \cup U_{\alpha_k}$).

Pf. (1) Define $X_n^k := \text{Im}(X_{n+k} \rightarrow X_{n+k-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow X_{n+1} \rightarrow X_n) \quad (k \geq 0)$

We have $X_n = X_n^0 \supset X_n^1 \supset X_n^2 \supset \dots$ with each X_n^k nonempty finite

$\Rightarrow X_n^\infty := \bigcap_{k \geq 0} X_n^k \subset X_n$ is nonempty (and finite).

By definition, $f_n(X_{n+1}^\infty) \subset X_n^\infty$, so $\varprojlim_n (X_n^\infty) \subset \varprojlim_n (X_n) = X$ is defined. On the other hand, for each $x = (x_n) \in X$ $\forall n, x_n \in X_n^\infty$, hence $\varprojlim_n (X_n^\infty) = X$.

Claim: $\forall n, X_{n+1}^\infty \xrightarrow{f_n} X_n^\infty$ is surjective

(this implies (1), since we can take $x_1 \in X_1^\infty, x_2 \in f_1^{-1}(x_1) \cap X_2^\infty, x_3 \in f_2^{-1}(x_2) \cap X_3^\infty$ etc. to obtain $(x_n) \in X$.)

Pf of Claim: if $\exists a \in X_n^\infty \setminus f_n(X_{n+1}^\infty)$, then $\forall b \in f_n^{-1}(a) \subset X_{n+1}$ $b \notin X_{n+1}^\infty \Rightarrow \exists k_b \in \mathbb{N}_+$ $b \notin \text{Im}(X_{n+k_b} \rightarrow X_{n+1})$. But $|f_n^{-1}(a)| < \infty$, and so $k = \sup \{k_b \mid f_n(b) = a\} < \infty \Rightarrow a \notin \text{Im}(X_{n+k} \rightarrow X_n)$ contradiction with $a \in X_n^\infty$.

Pf of (2). Given a sequence $x^{(k)} \quad (k \geq 1)$ of elements

$x^{(k)} = (x_n^{(k)})_{n \geq 1} \in X \quad (x_n^{(k)} \in X_n)$, the finiteness of each X_n

implies that $\forall n, Y_n := \{y_n \in X_n \mid \exists \infty k, \text{pr}_n(x^{(k)}) = y_n\} \subset X_n$ is nonempty. Moreover, $f_n(Y_{n+1}) \subset Y_n$, so

$\exists \gamma = (\gamma_n) \in \varprojlim_n Y_n \subset X$, by (1). For each $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ choose $k_n \in \mathbb{N}_+$

such that $k_n > k_{n-1}$ and $\gamma_n = \text{pr}_n(x^{(k_n)})$. The subsequence

$x^{(k_n)}$ then converges to γ in X .

$\{x^{(k)}\}_{k \geq 1}$

Pf of (3). It is enough to show:

if $X = \bigcup_{n \geq 1} pr_n^{-1}(Y_n)$ for some $Y_n \subset X_n$, then $\exists n_0$ $X = \bigcup_{n \leq n_0} pr_n^{-1}(Y_n)$.

Let $Y'_n := \bigcup_{m \leq n} f_{n/m}^{-1}(Y_m) \supset Y_n$; then $f_n^{-1}(Y'_n) \subset Y'_{n+1}$, hence

$f_n(X_{n+1} \setminus Y'_{n+1}) \subset X_n \setminus Y'_n$. We have

$$\phi = X \setminus \bigcup_{n \geq 1} pr_n^{-1}(Y'_n) = \bigcap_{n \geq 1} (X \setminus pr_n^{-1}(Y'_n)) = \bigcap_{n \geq 1} pr_n^{-1}(X_n \setminus Y'_n)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{\leftarrow n} (X_n \setminus Y'_n) = \phi \stackrel{(1)}{\Rightarrow} \exists n_0 \quad Y'_{n_0} = X_{n_0} \Rightarrow X = \bigcup_{n \leq n_0} pr_n^{-1}(Y'_n) = \bigcup_{n \leq n_0} pr_n^{-1}(Y_n)$$

Example: If $X = \mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z}$, then the open subsets $U_n = pr_n^{-1}(2^{n-1} \pmod{2^n})$ ($n \geq 1$) of $X = \varprojlim_n X_n = \mathbb{Z}_2$ are disjoint and nonempty, but their union misses the point $0 = (0)_{n \geq 1}$: $\bigsqcup_{n \geq 1} U_n = \bigsqcup_{n \geq 1} (2^{n-1} + 2^n\mathbb{Z}_2) = \mathbb{Z}_2 \setminus \{0\}$.

Cor. Assume that $X = \varprojlim_n X_n$ ($0 < |X_n| < \infty \forall n$) is as in Thm, that $\alpha: X \rightarrow Y$ is a continuous map to a Hausdorff topological space Y and that $x^{(k)} \in X$ ($k \geq 1$) is a sequence for which $\alpha(x^{(k)})$ converges to $y \in Y$. Then $\exists x \in X$ $\alpha(x) = y$.

Pf. Take $x \in X$ to be the limit of any convergent subsequence of $x^{(k)}$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Special case: } X = \varprojlim_n & (X_1 \leftarrow X_2 \leftarrow \dots \leftarrow X_n \xleftarrow{f_n} X_{n+1} \leftarrow \dots) \\ \alpha \downarrow & \downarrow \alpha_1 \quad \downarrow \alpha_2 \quad \quad \downarrow \alpha_n \quad \downarrow \alpha_{n+1} \\ Y = \varprojlim_n & (Y_1 \leftarrow Y_2 \leftarrow \dots \leftarrow Y_n \xleftarrow{g_n} Y_{n+1} \leftarrow \dots) \end{array}$$

$\forall n \quad \alpha_n \circ f_n = g_n \circ \alpha_{n+1}$ (" $(\alpha_n)_{n \geq 1}$ is a morphism of projective systems ")

$\Rightarrow \alpha: (X_n)_{n \geq 1} \rightarrow (\alpha_n(X_n))_{n \geq 1}$ is a morphism $\alpha: X \rightarrow Y$.

If all X_n, Y_n are topological spaces and all maps f_n, g_n, α_n are continuous (the continuity is automatic if all X_n, Y_n are discrete), then α is continuous.

In particular, if all X_n, Y_n are finite and non-empty (with discrete topology), Cor. above says the following:

if each α_n is surjective, then α is surjective.

More precisely, if we only assume that $\forall n \quad 0 < |X_n| < \infty$ and that $\forall n \quad Y_n$ is discrete, then

$$\alpha(X) = \{y \in Y \mid \forall n \geq 1 \quad pr_n(y) \in \alpha_n(X_n)\}.$$

Density

Recall: a subset Y of a topological space X is dense in X if its closure coincides with X . Equivalently, $Y \cap U \neq \emptyset$ for every nonempty open set $U \subset X$.

Prop. Let (X_n) be a projective system of topological spaces (with continuous transition maps $X_n \leftarrow X_{n+1}$). A subset $Y \subset X = \varprojlim_n X_n$ is dense in $X \iff \forall n \geq 1$ $pr_n(Y)$ is dense in X_n .

[If X_n is discrete, then the above condition $\iff pr_n(Y) = X_n$.]

Pf. Y is dense in $X \iff \forall n \forall \emptyset \neq U_n \subset X_n$ open $Y \cap pr_n^{-1}(U_n) \neq \emptyset$
 \uparrow
 $\{pr_n^{-1}(U_n)\}$ is a basis of topology of X $pr_n(Y) \cap U_n \neq \emptyset$.

Completeness

Recall: (a) A sequence of points $x^{(k)}$ ($k \geq 1$) of a metric space (X, d) is a Cauchy sequence if $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists k_0(\epsilon) \forall k, l \geq k_0(\epsilon) d(x^{(k)}, x^{(l)}) < \epsilon$.

(b) (X, d) is a complete metric space if every Cauchy sequence in X converges.

(c) A completion of a metric space (X, d) is a distance-preserving inclusion $(X, d) \hookrightarrow (X', d')$ to a complete metric space in which X is dense.

(d) A completion of (X, d) exists; any two completions are canonically isometric. For example, one can take

$X' = \{ \text{Cauchy sequences in } X \} / (\text{equivalence } \sim)$, with two Cauchy sequences being equivalent if their union is again a Cauchy sequence. The metric is given by

$$d' \left((x^{(k)})_{k \geq 1}, (y^{(k)})_{k \geq 1} \right) = \lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} d(x^{(k)}, y^{(k)}).$$

If X'' is another completion of X , then

$$X' \longrightarrow X''$$

$(x^{(k)}) \pmod{\sim} \mapsto \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x^{(k)} \text{ in } X''$

(the inclusion $X \hookrightarrow X'$ sends $x \in X$ to the constant sequence $x^{(k)} = x \forall k$) is the unique isometry extending the identity map $X \xrightarrow{id} X$.

Basic example: $X = \mathbb{Q}$, $d(x, y) = |x - y|$

The completion = \mathbb{R} .

Prop. The projective limit $X = \varprojlim_n X_n$ of an arbitrary projective system $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ of discrete topological spaces is a complete metric space (with respect to the metric $d(x, y) = \lambda(w(x, y))$, for any choice of $\lambda(1) > \lambda(2) > \dots > \lambda(n) > \dots > 0$ tending to 0 as $n \rightarrow +\infty$).

Pf. If $x^{(k)}$ ($k \geq 1$) is a Cauchy sequence in X , then, for each fixed $n \geq 1$ there exists $k_0(n) \in \mathbb{N}_+$ such that

$$\forall k, l \geq k_0(n) \quad \underbrace{d(x^{(k)}, x^{(l)})}_{w(x^{(k)}, x^{(l)}) \geq n} \leq \lambda(n) \iff (x^{(k)})_n = (x^{(l)})_n \in X_n.$$

Denote by $x_n \in X_n$ this common value of $(x^{(k)})_n$ for large enough k . As $x_n = (x^{(k)})_n = f_n((x^{(k)})_{n+1}) = f_n(x_{n+1})$ for $k \geq \max(k_0(n), k_0(n+1))$, we have $x = (x_n) \in X$. By construction, $d(x, x^{(k)}) \leq \lambda(n)$ if $k \geq k_0(n)$, hence $x = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x^{(k)}$ in X .

Cor. If $Y \subset X = \varprojlim_n X_n$ (with all X_n discrete topological spaces) satisfies $\forall n \quad \text{pr}_n(Y) = X_n$, then X is ~~the~~ a completion of Y (with respect to the (restriction to Y of the) metric $d(x, y) = \lambda(w(x, y))$).

Basic example: p prime number, $X_n = \mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z}$,

$X = \varprojlim_n \mathbb{Z}/p^n\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}_p$ the p -adic integers,

$$Y = \mathbb{Z}, \quad \lambda(n) = \frac{1}{p^n} \quad (\Rightarrow d_p(x, y) = \frac{1}{p^{r_p(x-y)}} = |x-y|_p) \\ w(x, y) = r_p(x-y) \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_p$$