

QUADRATIC REPROCITY AND THE THETA FUNCTION

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ABSTRACT. We give the standard proof of the quadratic reciprocity law using Theta functions.

1. INTRODUCTION

Define the *theta function* $\vartheta(s)$ for any $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 0$ by the formula

$$\vartheta(s) := \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi n^2 s}.$$

It is easy to see that this converges to an analytic function on the right-half plane $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 0$. Since the Fourier transform of $f(x) = e^{-\pi x^2 s}$ is $\hat{f}(\xi) = s^{-1/2} e^{-\pi \xi^2 / s}$ (where we use the standard branch of the square root on the right-half plane, an easy application of the Poisson summation formula leads to the *functional equation*

$$\vartheta(s) = s^{-1/2} \vartheta(1/s). \quad (1)$$

Now we investigate the limiting behavior of $\vartheta(s)$ as s approaches the imaginary axis. We introduce the *Gauss sum*

$$S\left(\frac{a}{q}\right) := \frac{1}{q} \sum_{r=0}^{q-1} e^{-2\pi i a r^2 / q} = \frac{1}{q} \sum_{r \in \mathbf{Z}/q\mathbf{Z}} e^{-2\pi i a r^2 / q};$$

since the function $r \mapsto e^{-2\pi i a r^2 / q}$ is periodic with period q , we see that $S\left(\frac{a}{q}\right) = S\left(\frac{ka}{kq}\right)$ for any $k \geq 1$, so the notation is well-defined. Note that S is periodic modulo 1, so that only the residue class of a modulo q is relevant.

Lemma 1.1. *For any rational number p/q with $q > 0$, we have*

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon^{1/2} \vartheta\left(i\frac{p}{q} + \varepsilon\right) = S\left(\frac{p}{2q}\right).$$

Proof We have

$$\varepsilon^{1/2} \vartheta\left(i\frac{p}{q} + \varepsilon\right) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\pi p n^2 / q} \varepsilon^{1/2} e^{-\pi \varepsilon n^2}.$$

Writing $n = 2qm + r$, where $0 \leq r < 2q - 1$, observe that $\pi p n^2 / q$ and $\pi p r^2 / q$ differ by an integer multiple of 2π . We thus have

$$\varepsilon^{1/2} \vartheta\left(i\frac{p}{q} + \varepsilon\right) = \sum_{r=0}^{2q-1} e^{-i\pi p r^2 / q} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \varepsilon^{1/2} e^{-\pi \varepsilon (2qm+r)^2}.$$

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Writing $x = \varepsilon^{1/2}(2qm + r)$, we can write this as

$$\varepsilon^{1/2}\vartheta\left(i\frac{p}{q} + \varepsilon\right) = \frac{1}{2q} \sum_{r=0}^{2q-1} e^{-i\pi pn^2/q} \sum_{x \in \varepsilon^{1/2}(2q\mathbf{Z}+r)} e^{-\pi x^2} \Delta x$$

where $\Delta x = 2q\varepsilon^{1/2}$ is the spacing of x . Taking limits, and noting that the Riemann sum converges to the Riemann integral, we conclude

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon^{1/2}\vartheta\left(i\frac{p}{q} + \varepsilon\right) = \frac{1}{2q} \sum_{r=0}^{2q-1} e^{-i\pi pn^2/q} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\pi x^2} dx.$$

Since the integral equals 1, the claim follows. \blacksquare

We remark that an easy perturbation argument also gives

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon^{1/2}\vartheta\left(i\frac{p}{q} + \varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2)\right) = S\left(\frac{p}{2q}\right),$$

i.e. one can vary the approach region to $i\frac{p}{q}$ a little bit. Now from (1) we have

$$\vartheta\left(i\frac{p}{q} + \varepsilon\right) = \left(i\frac{p}{q} + \varepsilon\right)^{-1/2} \vartheta\left(-i\frac{q}{p} + \frac{q^2}{p^2}\varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2)\right).$$

(Here we allow the $O()$ errors to depend on p, q .) Multiplying by $\varepsilon^{1/2}$ and taking limits as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ using the above lemma, we obtain for $p, q > 0$ *Schaar's identity*

$$\sqrt{q}S\left(\frac{p}{2q}\right) = e^{-\pi i/4} \sqrt{p}S\left(\frac{q}{2p}\right).$$

Applying Schaar's identity for $p = 2$ we obtain

$$S\left(\frac{1}{q}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} e^{-\pi i/4} \sqrt{2}S\left(\frac{q}{4}\right).$$

The right-hand side can be computed explicitly, leading to the formulae

$$S\left(\frac{1}{q}\right) = \begin{cases} \frac{-1-i}{\sqrt{q}} & \text{when } q \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} & \text{when } q \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ 0 & \text{when } q \equiv 2 \pmod{4} \\ \frac{-i}{\sqrt{q}} & \text{when } q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

The other Gauss sums can now be computed by a couple change of variable tricks. Firstly observe that

$$S\left(\frac{an^2}{q}\right) = S\left(\frac{a}{q}\right) \text{ whenever } n \text{ is coprime to } q. \quad (3)$$

This is simply because the map $r \mapsto n^2r$ is a permutation of $\mathbf{Z}/q\mathbf{Z}$ in this case. In particular, we see that $S\left(\frac{a}{q}\right) = S\left(\frac{1}{q}\right)$ whenever a is a non-zero quadratic residue modulo q . Next, a simple Fourier series computation shows that if q is square-free, then

$$\sum_{a=0}^{q-1} S\left(\frac{a}{q}\right) = 1.$$

Since $S(0) = 1$, we conclude in particular that

$$\sum_{a=1}^{q-1} S\left(\frac{a}{q}\right) = 0.$$

Now suppose q is prime. Then the numbers between 1 and $q - 1$ split equally into quadratic residues and quadratic non-residues. We already know that $S(\frac{a}{q}) = S(\frac{1}{q})$ when a is a quadratic residue, and the value of $S(\frac{a}{q})$ must be the same for all quadratic non-residues thanks to (3). Thus $S(\frac{a}{q}) = -S(\frac{1}{q})$ for all quadratic non-residues. In other words we have

$$S(\frac{a}{q}) = \left(\frac{a}{q}\right) S(\frac{1}{q}) \tag{4}$$

whenever q is prime and a is coprime to q , where the *Jacobi symbol* $\left(\frac{a}{q}\right)$ is defined to equal 1 when a is a quadratic residue modulo p , and -1 when it is not a quadratic residue modulo p .

Next, we observe the identity

$$S(\frac{a}{pq}) = S(\frac{ap}{q})S(\frac{aq}{p})$$

whenever p, q are coprime. This reflects the fact (from the Chinese remainder theorem) that every residue class r in $\mathbf{Z}/pq\mathbf{Z}$ can be written uniquely as $r = pr_1 + qr_2$ where $0 \leq r_1 < q$ and $0 \leq r_2 < p$. Inserting this into the definition of the Gauss sum we obtain the claim. Applying this in particular to $a = 1$ and with p, q being distinct odd primes and using (4) we obtain

$$S(\frac{1}{pq}) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) S(\frac{1}{p})S(\frac{1}{q})$$

which when combined with (4) leads to Gauss's famous law of quadratic reciprocity:

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

Another identity in a similar spirit is

$$S(\frac{a}{p} + \frac{b}{q}) = S(\frac{a}{p})S(\frac{b}{q})$$

whenever p, q are coprime; this is again a consequence of the Chinese remainder theorem, essentially asserting that the distribution of an/p and bn/q modulo 1 are completely independent of each other. This implies the previous identity, since

$$S(\frac{ap}{q})S(\frac{aq}{p}) = S(\frac{ap}{q} + \frac{aq}{p}) = S(\frac{a(p^2 + q^2)}{pq}) = S(\frac{a(p+q)^2}{pq}) = S(\frac{a}{pq}).$$