DISTRIBUTION OF QUADRATIC NON-RESIDUES WHICH ARE NOT PRIMITIVE ROOTS

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Abstract. In this article we study, using elementary and combinatorial methods, the distribution of quadratic non-residues which are not primitive roots modulo p^h or $2p^h$ for an odd prime p and $h \ge 1$ an integer.

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1. Introduction

Distribution of quadratic residues, non-residues and primitive roots modulo nfor any positive integer n is one of the classical problems in Number Theory. In this article, by applying elementary and combinatorial methods, we will study the distribution of quadratic non-residues which are not primitive roots modulo odd prime powers.

Let n be any positive integer and p any odd prime number. We denote the additive cyclic group of order n by \mathbb{Z}_n . The multiplicative group modulo n is denoted by \mathbb{Z}_n^* of order $\varphi(n)$, the Euler phi function.

Definition 1.1. A primitive root g modulo n is a generator of \mathbb{Z}_n^* whenever \mathbb{Z}_n^* is cyclic.

A well known result of C. F. Gauss says that \mathbb{Z}_n^* has a primitive root g if and only if n=2,4 or p^h or $2p^h$ for any prime number p and a positive integer $h\geqslant 1$. Moreover, the number of primitive roots modulo these n's is equal to $\varphi(\varphi(n))$.

Definition 1.2. Let $n \ge 2$ and a be integers such that (a, n) = 1. If the quadratic congruence

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

has an integer solution x, then a is called a *quadratic residue modulo* n. Otherwise, a is called a *quadratic non-residue modulo* n.

Whenever \mathbb{Z}_n^* is cyclic and g is a primitive root modulo n, then g^{2l-1} for $l=1,2,\ldots,\varphi(n)/2$ are all the quadratic non-residues modulo n and g^{2l} for $l=0,1,\ldots,\varphi(n)/2-1$ are all the quadratic residues modulo n. Also, g^{2l-1} for all $l=1,2,\ldots,\varphi(n)/2$ such that $(2l-1,\varphi(n))>1$ are all the quadratic non-residues which are not primitive roots modulo n.

For a positive integer n, set

$$M(n) = \{g \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*; g \text{ is a primitive root modulo } n\}$$

and

$$K(n) = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*; a \text{ is a quadratic non-residue modulo } n\}.$$

Note that $M(1) = K(1) = \emptyset$, $M(2) = \{1\}$ and $K(2) = \emptyset$. When $n \ge 3$, we know that $|K(n)| \ge \varphi(n)/2$ and whenever n = 2, 4 or p^a or $2p^a$, we have $|K(n)| = \varphi(n)/2$. Also, it can be easily seen that if $n \ge 3$, then

$$M(n) \subset K(n)$$
.

We shall denote a quadratic non-residue which is not a primitive root modulo n by QNRNP modulo n. Therefore, any $x \in K(n) \setminus M(n)$ is a QNRNP modulo n.

Recently, Křížek and Somer [2] proved that M(n) = K(n) iff n is either a Fermat prime (primes of the form $2^{2^r} + 1$) or 4 or twice a Fermat prime. Moreover, they proved that for $n \ge 2$, |M(n)| = |K(n)| - 1 if and only if n = 9 or 18, or either n or n/2 is equal to a prime p, where (p-1)/2 is also an odd prime. They also proved that when |M(n)| = |K(n)| - 1, then $n - 1 \in K(n) \setminus M(n)$.

In this article, we will prove the following theorems.

Theorem 1.1. Let r and h be any positive integers. Let $n = p^h$ or $2p^h$ for an odd prime p. Then $|M(n)| = |K(n)| - 2^r$ if and only if n is either (i) p or 2p whenever $p = 2^{r+1}q + 1$ with q is also a prime or (ii) p^2 or $2p^2$ whenever $p = 2^{r+1} + 1$ is a Fermat prime. In this case, the set $K(n) \setminus M(n)$ is nothing but the set of all generators of the unique cyclic subgroup H of order 2^{r+1} of \mathbb{Z}_n^* .

When p is not a Fermat prime, then it is clear from the above discussion that $\nu := |K(p) \setminus M(p)| = (p-1)/2 - \varphi(p-1) > 0$. When $\nu \ge 2$, a natural question is whether there exists any consecutive pair of QNRNP modulo p. From Theorem 1.1, we know that $\nu = 2$ for all primes p = 4q + 1 where q is also a prime number.

Theorem 1.2. Let p be a prime such that p = 4q + 1, where q is also a prime. Then there exists no pair of consecutive QNRNP modulo p.

In contrast to Theorem 1.2, we will prove the following

Theorem 1.3. Let p be any odd prime such that $\varphi(p-1)/(p-1) < \frac{1}{6}$. Then there exists a pair of consecutive QNRNP modulo p.

In the next theorem, we will address a weaker question than Theorem 1.3; however, it works for an arbitrary length k.

Theorem 1.4. Let q > 1 be any odd integer and $k > 1, h \geqslant 1$ integers. Then there exists a positive integer N = N(q, k) depending only on q and k such that for every prime p > N and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ we have an arithmetic progression of length k whose terms are QNRNP modulo n, where $n = p^h$ or $2p^h$. Moreover, we can choose the common difference to be a QNRNP modulo n, whenever $n = p^h$.

2. PRELIMINARIES

In this section we shall prove some preliminary lemmas which will be useful for proving our four theorems.

Proposition 2.1. Let h be any positive integer and let $n = p^h$ or $2p^h$ for an odd prime p. Then an integer g is a primitive root modulo n if and only if

$$g^{\varphi(n)/q} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

for every prime divisor q of $\varphi(n)$.

Proof. We omit the proof as it is straightforward.

The following proposition gives a criterion for QNRNP modulo n whenever $n = p^h$ or $2p^h$.

Proposition 2.2. Let h be any positive integer. Let n be any positive integer of the form p^h or $2p^h$ where p is an odd prime. Then an integer a is a QNRNP modulo n if and only if for some odd divisor q > 1 of $\varphi(n)$ we have

$$a^{\varphi(n)/2q} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$$
.

Proof. Suppose a is a QNRNP modulo n. Then

$$a^{\varphi(n)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$$
.

If n is a Fermat prime or twice a Fermat prime, then we know that every non-residue is a primitive root modulo n. Therefore, by the assumption, n is not such a number. Thus there exists an odd integer q > 1 which divides $\varphi(n)$. Since a is not a primitive root modulo n, by Proposition 2.1 there exists an odd prime q_1 dividing q and satisfying

$$a^{\varphi(n)/q_1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$
.

Therefore, by taking the square-root of $a^{\varphi(n)/q_1}$ modulo n, we see that

$$a^{\varphi(n)/2q_1} \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}$$
.

If

$$a^{\varphi(n)/2q_1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$$

then by taking the q_1 -th power of both the sides it follows that a is a quadratic residue modulo p, which is a contradiction. Hence, we get $a^{\varphi(n)/2q_1} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$.

Conversely, let a be an integer satisfying

(1)
$$a^{\varphi(n)/2q} \equiv -1 \pmod{n},$$

where q > 1 is an odd divisor of $\varphi(n)$. Then by squaring both the sides of (1) we conclude by Proposition 2.1 that a cannot be a primitive root modulo n. By taking the q-th power of both sides of (1), we see that the right-hand side of the congruence is still -1 as q is odd and hence we conclude that a is a quadratic non-residue modulo n. Thus the proposition follows.

Corollary 2.3. Let p be a prime. Suppose p is not a Fermat prime and 4 divides p-1. If a is a QNRNP modulo p, then $\pm a^{(p-1)/4q}$ is a square root of -1 modulo p for some odd divisor q of p-1.

Proof. By Lemma 2.2 it follows that there exists an odd divisor q of p-1 such that $a^{(p-1)/2q} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Since 4 divides p-1, it is clear that $(a^{(p-1)/4q})^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ and hence the result.

Lemma 2.4 (Křížek and Somer, [2]). Let $m \ge 3$ be an odd positive integer. Then |K(2m)| = |K(m)| and |M(2m)| = |M(m)|.

Theorem 2.5 (Brauer, [1]). Let r, k and s be positive integers. Then there exists a positive integer N = N(r, k, s) depending only on r, k and s such that for any partition of the set

$$\{1, 2, \dots, N\} = C_1 \cup C_2 \cup \dots \cup C_r$$

into r-classes we have positive integers $a, a+d, \ldots, a+(k-1)d \leq N$ and $sd \leq N$ lie in only one of the C_i 's.

Using Theorem 2.5, Brauer [1] proved that for all primes p large enough, one can find an arbitrary long sequence of consecutive quadratic residues (or non-residues) modulo p. Also, in a series of papers, E. Vegh [3], [4], [5], [6], [7] studied the distribution of primitive roots modulo p^h or $2p^h$.

3. Proof of Theorem 1.1

Lemma 3.1. Let h and r be any positive integers. Let $n = p^h$ or $2p^h$ for an odd prime p. Then $|M(n)| = |K(n)| - 2^r$ if and only if n is either (i) p or 2p whenever $p = 2^{r+1}q + 1$ with q being also a prime or (ii) p^2 or $2p^2$ whenever $p = 2^{r+1} + 1$ is a Fermat prime.

Proof. In view of Lemma 2.4, it is enough to assume that $n = p^h$. Let $p = 2^l q + 1$ where l, q are positive integers such that $2 \nmid q$.

Case (i) (h = 1). We have

$$|M(p)| = \varphi(\varphi(p)) = 2^{l-1}\varphi(q)$$

and

$$|K(p)| - 2^r = \frac{\varphi(p)}{2} - 2^r = \frac{p-1}{2} - 2^r = 2^{l-1}q - 2^r.$$

Hence, $|M(p)| = |K(p)| - 2^r$ implies

$$2^{l-1}\varphi(q) = 2^{l-1}q - 2^r \Longrightarrow l - 1 = r$$

and $\varphi(q) = q - 1$. Since the positive integer q satisfies $\varphi(q) = q - 1$, q must be a prime number. Therefore, the primes p which satisfy the hypothesis are of the form $2^{r+1}q + 1$, where q is also a prime number.

Case (ii) $(h \ge 2)$. We have

$$\begin{split} |M(p^h)| &= \varphi(\varphi(p^h)) = \varphi(p^{h-1}(p-1)) = \varphi(p^{h-1})\varphi(p-1) \\ &= p^{h-2}(p-1)\varphi(p-1) = p^{h-2}2^lq2^{l-1}\varphi(q) = 2^{2l-1}q\varphi(q)p^{h-2}. \end{split}$$

Now,

$$|K(p^h)| = \frac{\varphi(p^h)}{2} = \frac{p^{h-1}(p-1)}{2} = p^{h-1}2^{l-1}q.$$

Therefore, $|M(p^h)| = |K(p^h)| - 2^r$ implies

$$2^{2l-1}q\varphi(q)p^{h-2} = p^{h-1}2^{l-1}q - 2^r$$

and hence, we get l-1=r and q=1. Thus we have $2^{r+1}p^{h-2}=p^{h-1}-1$ which implies h cannot be greater than 2. If h=2, then we have $p=2^{r+1}+1$. That is, if $h \ge 2$, then the only integers n that satisfy the hypothesis are p^2 , where p is a Fermat prime.

The converse is trivial to establish.

Proof of Theorem 1.1. Given $|M(n)| = |K(n)| - 2^r$, then by Lemma 3.1 we have two cases.

Case (i) $(n = p \text{ or } 2p, \text{ where } p = 2^{r+1}q + 1 \text{ is prime and } q \text{ is also a prime}).$

Let $g \in K(n) \setminus M(n)$ be an arbitrary element. Then g is a quadratic non-residue modulo n, but not a primitive root modulo n. Therefore, by Proposition 2.2, we know that there exists an odd divisor l > 1 of $\varphi(n)$ that satisfies

$$g^{\varphi(n)/2l} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$$
.

Since $\varphi(n) = p - 1 = 2^{r+1}q$, where q is the only odd divisor of $\varphi(n)$, we have l = q. Therefore,

$$g^{(p-1)/2q} \equiv -1 \pmod{n} \Rightarrow g^{2^r} \equiv -1 \pmod{n} \Rightarrow g^{2^{r+1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$

Let H be the unique cyclic subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_n^* . Then $g \in H$ with order of g being 2^{r+1} . Hence, as g is arbitrary, $K(n) \setminus M(n)$ is the set of all generators of H.

Case (ii) $(n = p^2 \text{ or } 2p^2, \text{ where } p = 2^{r+1} + 1 \text{ is a prime and } r + 1 \text{ is a power of 2}).$

Let $g \in K(n) \setminus M(n)$. Then by Proposition 2.2, we know that there exists an odd divisor q of $\varphi(n)$ satisfying

$$g^{\varphi(n)/2q} = g^{p(p-1)/2p} = g^{2^r} \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$$

and hence, $g^{2^{r+1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. Thus, $g \in H$, where H is the unique subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_n^* of order 2^{r+1} .

4. Proof of Theorem 1.2

Lemma 4.1. Let p be a prime such that p = 4q + 1, where q is also a prime. If (a, a + 1) is a pair of QNRNP modulo p, then $a \equiv -1/2 \pmod{p}$.

Proof. Let a and a+1 be QNRNP modulo p. Therefore, by Proposition 2.2, we have

$$a^{(p-1)/2q} = a^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$
 and $(a+1)^{(p-1)/2q} = (a+1)^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$.

That is,
$$(a+1)^2 = a^2 + 2a + 1 \equiv 2a \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$
. Hence the result.

Proof of Theorem 1.2. By Lemma 3.1, we know that for these primes, there are exactly two QNRNP modulo p. Suppose that these two QNRNP modulo p are a consecutive pair, say, (a, a + 1). Then by Lemma 4.1, we get $a \equiv -1/2 \pmod{p}$. To complete the proof, we shall show that a is a primitive root modulo p and we arrive at a contradiction. To prove a is a primitive root, we have to prove that the order of a = -1/2 in \mathbb{Z}_p^* is p-1. Since the order of -1 is 2 and the order of 2 is equal to the order of 1/2, it is enough to prove that 2 is a primitive root modulo p. By Proposition 2.1, we have to prove that $2^{(p-1)/m} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for every prime divisor m of p-1. In this case, we have m=2 and m=q. If m=q, then (p-1)/q=4 and so $16=2^4\not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, as p=4q+1. Hence, it is enough to prove that $2^{(p-1)/2}\not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Indeed, by the quadratic reciprocity law, we know that $2^{(p-1)/2}\equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ and hence the theorem follows.

5. Proof of Theorem 1.3

Lemma 5.1. Let p > 3 be a prime such that $p \neq 2^l + 1$. Let ν denote the total number of QNRNP modulo p. Then exactly $(\nu - 1)/2$ QNRNP modulo p are followed by a quadratic non-residue modulo p whenever p = 2m + 1, where m > 1 is an odd integer; otherwise, exactly half of QNRNP modulo p is followed by a quadratic non-residue modulo p.

Proof. First note that $\nu = (p-1)/2 - \varphi(p-1)$ is odd if and only if (p-1)/2 is odd if and only if p = 2m + 1, where m > 1 is an odd integer.

Let Φ_1 be a QNRNP modulo p. Let g be a fixed primitive root modulo p. Then there exists an odd integer l satisfying $1 < l \le p-2$, (l,p-1) > 1 and $\Phi_1 = g^l$. Therefore, $\Phi_2 = g^{p-1-l}$ is also a QNRNP modulo p. Then we have

$$\Phi_1(1 + \Phi_2) = \Phi_1 + \Phi_1\Phi_2 \equiv \Phi_1 + 1 \pmod{p}.$$

This implies $\Phi_2 + 1$ is a quadratic residue modulo p if and only if $\Phi_1 + 1$ is a quadratic non-residue modulo p. Therefore, to complete the proof of this lemma, it is enough to show that if $\chi = g^r$ is a QNRNP modulo p and $\chi \not\equiv \Phi_1, \Phi_2 \pmod{p}$, then $g^{p-1-r} \not\equiv \Phi_1, \Phi_2 \pmod{p}$. Suppose not, that is, $g^{p-1-r} \equiv \Phi_1 = g^l \pmod{p}$. Then $p-1-r \equiv l \pmod{p}$. Since $1 < p-1-r \leqslant p-2$, it is clear that p-1-r = l, which would imply p-1-l = r and therefore, we get $\chi = g^r \equiv g^{p-1-l} = \Phi_2 \pmod{p}$, a contradiction and hence, $g^{p-1-r} \not\equiv \Phi_2 \pmod{p}$. Similarly, we have $g^{p-1-r} \not\equiv \Phi_1 \pmod{p}$. Note that $\varphi_1 \equiv \Phi_2 \pmod{p}$ if and only if $l \equiv p-1-l \pmod{p-1}$, which would imply l = (p-1)/2, as 1 < l < p-2. Since l is odd, this happens precisely when p = 2m+1, where m > 1 is an odd integer. Hence the lemma. \square

Proof of Theorem 1.3. Let p be any prime such that $\varphi(p-1) < (p-1)/6$. If possible, we will assume that there is no pair of consecutive QNRNP modulo p. Let $k = (p-1)/2 - \varphi(p-1)$. Therefore, clearly, k > (p-1)/2 - (p-1)/6 = (p-1)/3. By Lemma 5.1, we know that exactly half of QNRNP modulo p are followed by a quadratic non-residue modulo p. This implies that $k/2 \ge (p-1)/6$ QNRNP modulo p are followed by primitive roots modulo p. Since there are at most (p-1)/6 - 1 primitive roots available, it follows that there exists a QNRNP modulo p followed by a QNRNP modulo p.

6. Proof of Theorem 1.4

Given that q > 1 is an odd integer and k > 1 is an integer, put r = 2q and s = 1 in Theorem 2.5. We get a natural number N = N(q, k) depending only on q and k such that for any r-partitioning of the set $\{1, 2, \ldots, N\}$, we have positive integers $a, a + d, a + 2d, \ldots, a + (k - 1)d$ and d which are less than or equal to N and are lying in exactly one of the classes.

Choose a prime p > N such that $p \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$. By Dirichlet's prime number theorem on arithmetic progression, such a prime p exists and there are infinitely many such primes. Let g be a fixed primitive root modulo p^h . Note that for each $j; 1 \leq j \leq p-1$, there exists a unique integer $\lambda_j; 1 \leq \lambda_j \leq p^{h-1}(p-1)$ satisfying $g^{\lambda_j} \equiv j \pmod{p^h}$.

We partition the set $\{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ into r=2q parts as follows.

$$\{1, 2, \dots, p-1\} = C_1 \cup C_2 \cup \dots \cup C_r$$

with $j \in C_i$ if and only if $\lambda_j \equiv i \pmod{r}$.

Since $p-1 \ge N$, there exists an arithmetic progression of length k, say $a, a+d, \ldots, a+(k-1)d$, together with its common difference d lying in C_{τ} for some

 $\tau = 1, 2, \dots, r$. By the definition of our partition, we have

$$a + id \equiv g^{\tau_i} \pmod{p^h}$$
 and $d \equiv g^{\tau_k} \pmod{p^h}$,

where $\tau_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ for each $i = 0, 1, \dots, k$, satisfies

$$\tau_0 \equiv \tau_1 \equiv \ldots \equiv \tau_k \equiv \tau \pmod{r}$$
.

Since τ_i 's run through a single residue class modulo r, we can as well assume, if necessary applying a suitable translation, that $\tau \equiv 0 \pmod{r}$. Now, choose an integer κ such that $\kappa \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ and $\kappa \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$. Then we see that

$$\tau_0 + \kappa \equiv \tau_1 + \kappa \equiv \ldots \equiv \tau_k + \kappa \equiv \kappa \pmod{r}.$$

Since κ is an odd integer and τ_i' s are even integers, we get that $\tau_i + \kappa$ are odd integers together with $\tau_i + \kappa \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$. Therefore, q divides the $\gcd(\tau_i + \kappa, p - 1)$. Putting $a_0 \equiv g^{\kappa} \pmod{p^h}$, we get

$$a_0a, a_0a + a_0d, \dots, a_0a + (k-1)a_0d, a_0d$$

are QNRNP p^h .

If g is an odd integer, then g is also a primitive root modulo $2p^h$. If g is an even integer, then put $g' = g + p^h$ which is an odd integer and hence, it is a primitive root modulo $2p^h$. Now the proof is similar to the case when $n = p^h$ and we leave it to the reader.

Before we conclude this section, we wish to raise the following open questions.

- (1) Can Theorem 1.4 be true for all large enough primes p?
- (2) What is the general property of the set of all positive integers n satisfying M(n) = K(n) m for a given positive integer $m \neq 1, 2^r$?

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