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SYMMETRIES FOR SUMS OF THE LEGENDRE SYMBOL

WELLS JOHNSON AND KEVIN J. MITCHELL

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SYMMETRIES FOR SUMS OF THE LEGENDRE SYMBOL

Wells Johnson and Kevin J. Mitchell

Symmetries are presented for sums of the Legendre symbol (a/p) over certain subintervals of (0, p). The results follow from an elementary theorem which establishes linear relations among these sums. The list of subintervals of (0, p) for which the number of quadratic residues equals the number of non-residues is extended. Some simple applications to the determination of the class number of the imaginary quadratic fields $Q(\sqrt{-p})$ are also given.

1. Introduction. If p is an odd prime, let (a/p) denote the Legendre symbol for $p \nmid a$. The sums S_r^n are defined by

$$S^n_r = \sum_{(r-1)(p|n) \le a < r(p|n)} (a/p)$$
, $1 \le r \le n$.

Clearly $S_1^i = \sum_{0 \le a \le p} (a/p) = 0$ and $S_r^n = (-1/p)S_{n-r+1}^n$, which together imply that $S_1^2 = 0$ if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, however, Dirichlet (cf. [3], page 346) showed that S_1^2 is a multiple of the class number h(-p) of the imaginary quadratic field $Q(\sqrt{-p})$. Because of the symmetry given above, it has been customary to take neven, and to evaluate S_r^n only for $1 \le r \le (n/2)$.

According to Karpinski [8], the sums S_r^n were first studied by Gauss and Dedekind for certain small values of r and n. Their results were extended by Karpinski [8], Holden [6], and, more recently, by Berndt and Chowla [2]. In this paper an elementary, but general theorem is proved and shown to reduce to many of the results in the references above in special cases. Repeated applications of the theorem produce linear relations among the sums S_r^n , which, in turn, imply certain symmetries for these sums. Many of these symmetries are tabulated in the third section. Several instances where the values of S_r^n are known to vanish for certain primes pare listed as well. Finally, the relationships between the values of the sums S_r^n and the class numbers of imaginary quadratic fields are discussed.

2. Main theorem. The following elementary theorem forms the basis for the tables of symmetries which follow. The ideas in the proof go back to Gauss and Dedekind, and the proof itself closely parallels that given by Berndt and Chowla [2].

THEOREM. Suppose p is a prime and $p \nmid q$. Then for $1 \leq r \leq n$,

$$\Bigl(rac{q}{p}\Bigr)S_r^{n} = \sum_{j=0}^{\lceil (q-1)/2
ceil}S_{jn+r}^{nq} + \Bigl(rac{-1}{p}\Bigr)\sum_{j=1}^{\lceil q/2
ceil}S_{jn-r+1}^{nq}$$
 .

Proof. Write $S_r^n = \sum_{j=-\lfloor (q-1)/2 \rfloor}^{\lfloor q/2 \rfloor} S_r^n(j)$, where $S_r^n(j) = \sum_j (a/p)$, and where the sum \sum_j runs over those integers a in the indexing set of S_r^n for which $a \equiv jp \pmod{q}$. Clearly each index a in S_r^n occurs exactly once in some unique $S_r^n(j)$. By a simple change of variable, if j > 0, then $S_r^n(j) = (-q/p)S_{jn-r+1}^{nq}$, while $S_r^n(j) = (q/p)S_{j|n+r}^{nq}$ for $j \leq 0$. The result follows by multiplying both sides of the equation by (q/p).

The indices jn - r + 1 and jn + r are all $\leq nq/2$ for $r \leq n/2$. In the particular case that $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ and n = 2, r = 1, the theorem reduces to a theorem of Holden [6], as stated and proved by Berndt and Chowla [2]:

COROLLARY 1 (H. Holden). If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ and $p \nmid q$, then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\lfloor q/2
floor} S_{2j}^{2q} = 0 \qquad ext{if} \ \left(rac{q}{p}
ight) = 1 ext{, and} \ \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor (q-1)'2
floor} S_{2j+1}^{2q} = 0 \qquad ext{if} \ \left(rac{q}{p}
ight) = -1 ext{.}$$

All the corollaries of [2] thus follow, including $S_1^4 = 0$ for $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$, $S_2^4 = 0$ for $p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$, and $S_2^6 = 0$ for $p \equiv 11 \pmod{12}$. When $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, analogous results can be derived from the theorem. A summary of these results these appear in the tables in the next section.

If q = 2 and r = 1, then for arbitrary $n \ge 1$, the theorem becomes

$$\Bigl(rac{2}{p}\Bigr)S_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{\scriptscriptstyle n}=\Bigl(rac{2}{p}\Bigr)(S_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{\scriptscriptstyle 2n}+S_{\scriptscriptstyle 2}^{\scriptscriptstyle 2n})=S_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{\scriptscriptstyle 2n}+\Bigl(rac{-1}{p}\Bigr)S_{\scriptscriptstyle n}^{\scriptscriptstyle 2n}$$
 .

Thus if (2/p) = 1, the following general symmetry holds:

COROLLARY 2. For $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}$, $S_2^{2n} = (-1/p)S_n^{2n}$ for $n \ge 1$.

If (2/p) = -1, there is merely a general linear relation among S_1^{2n} , S_2^{2n} and S_n^{2n} :

COROLLARY 3. If $p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}$, then $2S_1^{2n} + S_2^{2n} + (-1/p)S_n^{2n} = 0$ for all $n \ge 1$.

If n = 3r - 1 for $r \ge 1$, and q = 2 in the theorem, it follows that

$$\Bigl(rac{2}{p}\Bigr)S_r^n=\Bigl(rac{2}{p}\Bigr)(S_{2r-1}^{2n}+S_{2r}^{2n})=S_r^{2n}+\Bigl(rac{-1}{p}\Bigr)S_{2r}^{2n}$$
 .

Hence for (2/p) = (-1/p), the following general symmetry holds:

COROLLARY 4. If $p \equiv 1, 3 \pmod{8}$ and n = 3r - 1 for $r \ge 1$, then $S_r^{2n} = (2/p)S_{2r-1}^{2n}$.

This corollary implies again the known result $S_1^4 = 0$ for $p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$, as well as $S_2^{10} = (2/p)S_3^{10}$, $S_3^{16} = (2/p)S_5^{16}$, $S_4^{22} = (2/p)S_7^{22}$, etc. for $p \equiv 1$ or 3 (mod 8).

For $1 \leq i \leq n$, the theorem implies that $(2/p)S_i^n = S_i^{2n} + (-1/p)S_{n-i+1}^{2n}$. Now if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and n is odd, $n \geq 3$, then the sum of all of the above equations for $1 \leq i \leq (n-1)/2$ gives

$$\Bigl(rac{2}{p}\Bigr)(S_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{\scriptscriptstyle 2}-S_{\scriptscriptstyle n}^{\scriptscriptstyle 2n})=S_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{\scriptscriptstyle 2}-S_{\scriptscriptstyle (n+1)/2}^{\scriptscriptstyle 2n}$$
 .

However, $S_1^2 = 0$ in this case, so that the following general symmetry holds:

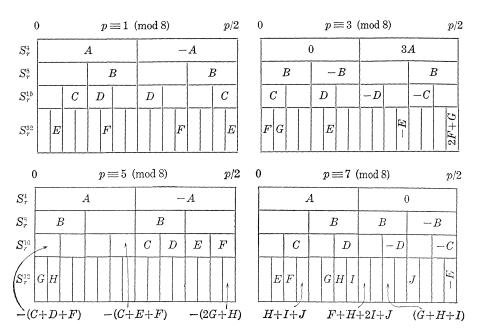
COROLLARY 5. If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and n is odd, $n \ge 3$, then $S_n^{2n} = (2/p)S_{(n+1)/2}^{2n}$.

Particular cases of the general symmetries of Corollaries 2-5 appear often in the tables of the next section.

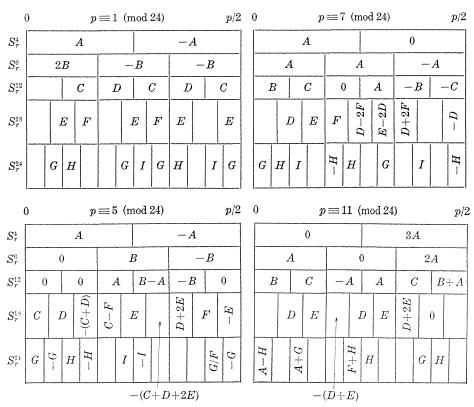
3. Tables of symmetries. Various choices for the values of n, r, and q in the theorem produce linear relations among the S_r^n . The tables below summarize some of the simpler symmetries for the S_r^n which follow from these linear relations. Not all known linear relations among the S_r^n are presented, and a blank merely indicates that no simple symmetry exists. These tables were first suggested to us by a computer search over several primes. Each can be proved quite easily from the theorem (although some require considerable patience). The columns are arranged so that the primes $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ are on the right. Also, 0 stands for the value "zero," and not the letter "oh."

The first set of tables displays symmetries which depend upon the quadratic character of -1 and 2 (mod p):

WELLS JOHNSON AND KEVIN J. MITCHELL

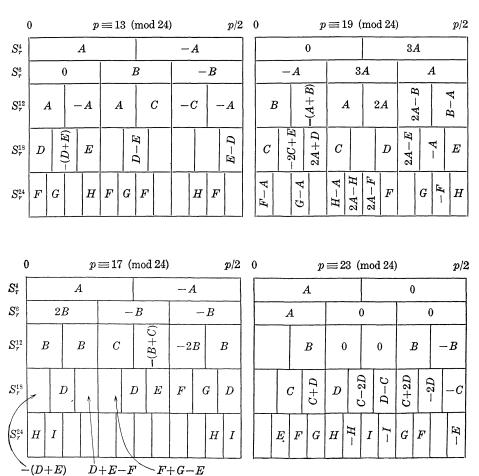


The next set of tables presents symmetries which depend upon the quadratic character of -1, 2, and 3 (mod p):



SYMMETRIES FOR SUMS OF THE LEGENDRE SYMBOL

121



The following tables, which are presented in a slightly different format, show symmetries which depend upon the quadratic character of -1, 2, 5 and -1, 2, 7 (mod p), respectively:

		p/2			
$p \pmod{40}$	S_1^{10}	S_2^{10}	S_{8}^{10}	S_{4}^{10}	S_{5}^{10}
$p \equiv 1,9,17,33$	В	A	A	-(B+3A)	A
$p \equiv 3,27$	0	A	-A		A
$p \equiv 7,23$	2B	A	A-2B	В	-A
$p \equiv 11, 19$	В	-A	A	A	2B-A
$p \equiv 13, 21, 29, 37$	A + B	-(A+2B)	A	В	-A
$p \equiv 31,39$		A	3 <i>A</i>	-A	-A

)						p/2
$p \pmod{56}$	S_{1}^{14}	S_{2}^{14}	S_{3}^{14}	S_{4}^{14}	S_{5}^{14}	S_{6}^{14}	S_{7}^{14}
$p \equiv 1,9,17,25,33,41$		A	В	A		В	A
$p \equiv 3, 19, 27$	В	A	0	-A		0	2B+A
$p \equiv 5, 13, 29, 37, 45, 53$	A	B		2A+B	A+B		-(2A+B)
$p \equiv 11, 43, 51$	В	D	-A	2A-D	С	A	A-B-C
$p \equiv 15, 23, 39$	В	A	C	D	A-B-C	A - (C + D)	-A
$p \equiv 31, 47, 55$		A	2A	В	$\frac{1}{2}(3A+B)$	-(A+B)	- A

4. Zero sums. If $S_r^n = 0$, then the number of quadratic residues equals the number of nonresidues in the interval ((r-1)(p/n), r(p/n)). Berndt and Chowla [2] listed several instances where $S_r^n = 0$ for primes $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Using the theorem and the tables, this list can now be expanded somewhat:

$S_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{\scriptscriptstyle 2}=0$	for $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$
$S_1^4 = 0$	for $p\equiv 3\pmod{8}$
$S_2^4=0$	for $p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$
$S_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{\scriptscriptstyle 6}=0$	for $p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$
$S_2^{\scriptscriptstyle 6}=0$	for $p \equiv 11 \pmod{12}$
$S_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{\scriptscriptstyle 12}=S_{\scriptscriptstyle 2}^{\scriptscriptstyle 12}=S_{\scriptscriptstyle 6}^{\scriptscriptstyle 12}=0$	for $p \equiv 5 \pmod{24}$
$S_{3}^{_{12}}=0$	for $p \equiv 7 \pmod{24}$
$S_{8}^{_{18}}=0$	for $p \equiv 11 \pmod{24}$
$S_{\scriptscriptstyle 3}^{\scriptscriptstyle 6}=S_{\scriptscriptstyle 3}^{\scriptscriptstyle 12}=S_{\scriptscriptstyle 4}^{\scriptscriptstyle 12}=0$	for $p \equiv 23 \pmod{24}$
$S_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}^{\scriptscriptstyle 10}=S_{\scriptscriptstyle 6}^{\scriptscriptstyle 20}=0$	for $p\equiv 3,27\pmod{40}$
$S_{\scriptscriptstyle 3}^{\scriptscriptstyle 14}=S_{\scriptscriptstyle 6}^{\scriptscriptstyle 14}=0$	for $p\equiv 3, 9, 27 \pmod{56}$
$S_{\scriptscriptstyle 10}^{\scriptscriptstyle 30}=0$	for $p \equiv 11, 59 \pmod{120}$
$S_7^{_{30}}=0$	for $p \equiv 17, 113 \pmod{120}$.

In addition, there are other subintervals of (0, p) for which the sum of Legendre symbols vanishes:

 $\begin{array}{lll} S_{2}^{i}+S_{3}^{i}=0 & \text{for } p\equiv 5 \pmod{8} \\ S_{6}^{24}+S_{7}^{24}=0 & \text{for } p\equiv 5 \pmod{24} \\ S_{2}^{12}+S_{3}^{12}=S_{4}^{12}+S_{5}^{12}=0 & \text{for } p\equiv 13 \pmod{24} \\ S_{2}^{12}+S_{3}^{12}+S_{4}^{12}=0 & \text{for } p\equiv 17 \pmod{24} \\ S_{2}^{18}+S_{4}^{18}+S_{4}^{18}=0 & \text{for } p\equiv 11 \pmod{24} \\ S_{2}^{10}+S_{3}^{10}=0 & \text{for } p\equiv 3,11,19,27 \pmod{40} \\ S_{4}^{14}+S_{5}^{14}=0 & \text{for } p\equiv 3,19,27 \pmod{56} \\ S_{4}^{30}+S_{5}^{30}=0 & \text{for } p\equiv 11,59 \pmod{120}. \end{array}$

5. Class numbers. For $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ in the first two sets of tables above, it is always true (by Dirichlet) that A = h(-p), and hence A > 0. In a preliminary version of this paper, the first-named

author [7] derived from the Voronoi congruences for the Bernoulli numbers the values of S_1^6 , S_3^{12} , S_4^{12} , S_3^6 in terms of h(-p) for primes $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. The results are originally due to Holden [6], who gave a more complicated proof depending upon class number formulas for binary quadratic forms. Apostol [1] used the properties of the Bernoulli polynomials to obtain some of the same results.

It follows that for $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, $S_1^6 = \pm h(-p)$, the minus sign holding only for $p \equiv 19 \pmod{24}$. Hence for $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, the interval (0, p/6) always contains more residues than non-residues unless $p \equiv 19 \pmod{24}$, when the opposite is true. Tables for the class numbers h(-p) for $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ have been compiled for p < 166,807 by Ordman [11] and Newman [10] using the theory of reduced quadratic forms. Other techniques were employed by Duport and Dussaud [4, 5]. We have computed tables of h(-p) for $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, p < 200,000, by simply evaluating S_1^6 directly. These results agree with those reported earlier.

This theory can also be used to obtain in an elementary way some rough upper bounds for the values of h(-p) when $p \equiv 3$ (mod 4). If $p \equiv 19 \pmod{24}$, for example, it follows from the fact that $S_i^{12} = 2h(-p)$ that $h(-p) \leq (p+5)/24$. Since h(-p) is known to be odd, it follows that h(-p) = 1 for p = 19 and p = 43 without any computation whatsoever. Similarly, if $p \equiv 43$ or 67 (mod 120), the tables imply that $2h(-p) = S_{10}^{30}$. Hence $h(-p) \leq (p+17)/60$ if $p \equiv 43 \pmod{120}$ and $h(-p) \leq (p-7)/60$ if $p \equiv 67 \pmod{120}$. In particular, h(-43) = h(-67) = 1, again with absolutely no computation needed. It should be noted that there are better bounds for h(-p), especially for large p, namely the bound $(1/3)\sqrt{p} \log p$ obtained by Slavutskii [12] using analytic methods.

Karpinski [8] showed that many of the values A, B, C, \cdots in the tables can be expressed as linear combinations of the class numbers h(-kp), $k = 1, 2, 3, \cdots$. It follows from his resuts that, among other things, there are always more residues than nonresidues in the intervals (p/8, p/4) and (p/4, 3p/8) for $p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$. For more results along these lines, the reader is referred to Lerch [9], and the unpublished work of B. Berndt and Y. Yamamoto.

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V. V. Anh and P. D. Tuan, <i>On starlikeness and convexity of certain analytic functions</i>	1
Willard Ellis Baxter and L. A. Casciotti, <i>Rings with involution and the prime radical</i>	11
Manuel Phillip Berriozabal, Hon-Fei Lai and Dix Hayes Pettey, Noncompact, minimal regular spaces	19
Sun Man Chang, Measures with continuous image law	25
John Benjamin Friedlander, <i>Certain hypotheses concerning</i> <i>L-functions</i>	37
Moshe Goldberg and Ernst Gabor Straus, On characterizations and	
integrals of generalized numerical ranges	45
Pierre A. Grillet, On subdirectly irreducible commutative semigroups	55
Robert E. Hartwig and Jiang Luh, <i>On finite regular rings</i>	73
Roger Hugh Hunter, Fred Richman and Elbert A. Walker, <i>Finite direct sums</i> of cyclic valuated p-groups	97
Atsushi Inoue, On a class of unbounded operator algebras. III	105
Wells Johnson and Kevin J. Mitchell, <i>Symmetries for sums of the Legendre</i> <i>symbol</i>	117
Jimmie Don Lawson, John Robie Liukkonen and Michael William Mislove,	11/
Measure algebras of semilattices with finite breadth	125
Glenn Richard Luecke, A note on spectral continuity and on spectral	
properties of essentially G_1 operators	141
Takahiko Nakazi, Invariant subspaces of weak-* Dirichlet algebras	151
James William Pendergrass, <i>Calculations of the Schur group</i>	169
Carl Pomerance, On composite n for which $\varphi(n) \mid n - 1$. If	177
Marc Aristide Rieffel and Alfons Van Daele, <i>A bounded operator approach</i>	
to Tomita-Takesaki theory	187
Daniel Byron Shapiro, <i>Spaces of similarities</i> . <i>IV</i> . (<i>s</i> , <i>t</i>)- <i>families</i>	223
Leon M. Simon, Equations of mean curvature type in 2 independent variables	245
Joseph Nicholas Simone, Metric components of continuous images of ordered compacta	269
William Charles Waterhouse, <i>Pairs of symmetric bilinear forms in characteristic</i> 2	275