

Some new evaluations of the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{a+b\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$

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1. Introduction. The principal positive-definite integral binary quadratic form of discriminant d (< 0) is

$$p_d(x, y) := \begin{cases} x^2 - \frac{d}{4}y^2 & \text{if } d \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \\ x^2 + xy + \frac{1-d}{4}y^2 & \text{if } d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

It is well-known that if $d \in \{-3, -4, -7, -8, -11, -19, -43, -67, -163\}$ and p is an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = 1$ then there are integers x and y such that $p = p_d(x, y)$. Moreover the number of such pairs of integers (x, y) is

$$\begin{cases} 12 & \text{if } d = -3, \\ 8 & \text{if } d = -4, \\ 4 & \text{if } d = -7, -8, -11, -19, -43, -67, -163, \end{cases}$$

by a theorem of Dirichlet (see [7]). Knowing the number of such pairs enables us to specify a unique solution (x, y) to $p = p_d(x, y)$ for each $d \in \{-3, -4, -7, -8, -11, -19, -43, -67, -163\}$. For these d , if A is an integer such that $p_d(A, 1)$ (resp. $p_{-28}(A, 1)$) if $d \neq -7$ (resp. $d = -7$) is an odd prime q , we show that for odd primes p satisfying $\left(\frac{d}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$ there are integers $r \equiv r(A)$ and $s \equiv s(A)$ such that the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{r+s\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero whatever square root of q is taken modulo p , and we give its value explicitly. We prove nine theorems of this type, one for each of the nine values of d .

The central element in each of the proofs of our theorems is the law of quadratic reciprocity in the imaginary quadratic field

$$\begin{cases} \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d}) & \text{if } d = -3, -7, -11, -19, -43, -67, -163, \\ \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d/4}) & \text{if } d = -4, -8, \end{cases}$$

of class number 1. This law is due to Dörrie [4] and is stated in Section 2.

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We prove the following theorems in Sections 3–7. In Theorems 1.1–1.9, \sqrt{q} denotes any solution of the congruence $w^2 \equiv q \pmod{p}$.

THEOREM 1.1. ($d = -3$) *Let $q = A^2 + A + 1$ ($A \in \mathbb{Z}$) be a prime. Replacing A by $-A - 1$ if necessary we may suppose that $A \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Let p be an odd prime such that*

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1.$$

Then there is a unique solution $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ to $p = x^2 + xy + y^2$ satisfying

$$(1.1) \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad y \equiv 3(p-1) \pmod{8}, \quad (1 - (-1)^{(p-1)/2})x + y > 0.$$

Further $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{-2A-1-2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero, and

$$\left(\frac{-2A-1-2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{x-Ay}{q}\right).$$

We remark that $A \rightarrow -A - 1$ leaves $A^2 + A + 1$ invariant and changes $2A + 1 \rightarrow -(2A + 1)$ so that

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{-2A-1-2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) &\rightarrow \left(\frac{(2A+1)-2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{2A+1+2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) \left(\frac{-2A-1-2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right). \end{aligned}$$

The special case $A = -2$ of Theorem 1.1 is:

COROLLARY 1.1.1. ($A = -2$) *Let p be an odd prime with $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = 1$, equivalently $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$. Let $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ be the unique solution to $p = x^2 + xy + y^2$ satisfying (1.1). Then*

$$\left(\frac{3+2\sqrt{3}}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } x - y \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ -1 & \text{if } x - y \equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

For a prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$ the classical criterion for -3 to be a quartic residue modulo p is

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right)_4 = 1 \quad \text{if and only if} \quad b \equiv 0 \pmod{3},$$

where $p = a^2 + b^2$, a odd, b even (see for example [1, Theorem 7.2.1, p. 216]). Corollary 1.1.1 enables us to give a new criterion for -3 to be a quartic residue modulo a prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$. As $2(2 + \sqrt{3}) = (1 + \sqrt{3})^2$ we

have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{3+2\sqrt{3}}{p}\right) &= \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{p}\right)\left(\frac{2+\sqrt{3}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{p}\right)_4 \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{3}{p}\right)_4 \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)_4 = \left(\frac{-3}{p}\right)_4, \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right)_4 = 1 \quad \text{if and only if} \quad x - y \equiv 1 \pmod{3}.$$

We can use this result to give another proof of the criterion of Hudson and Williams [5, Theorem 2, p. 135] for 3 to be a fourth power modulo p , which was originally proved using cyclotomic numbers of order 6. We define integers c, d, u and v uniquely by

$$\begin{cases} p = c^2 + 3d^2, & c \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, d > 0, \\ p = u^2 + 3v^2, & u \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, v > 0. \end{cases}$$

Clearly, we have

$$c = \left(\frac{-3}{u}\right)u, \quad u = \left(\frac{-4}{c}\right)c, \quad d = v,$$

and

$$u = (-1)^{(p-1)/4}(x + y/2), \quad v = y/2.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{3}{p}\right)_4 = 1 &\Leftrightarrow \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)_4 = \left(\frac{-3}{p}\right)_4 \\ &\Leftrightarrow p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}, x - y \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \\ &\text{or} \\ &p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}, x - y \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \\ &\Leftrightarrow u \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \Leftrightarrow c = u \Leftrightarrow c \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \end{aligned}$$

which is the Hudson–Williams criterion.

Our second corollary to Theorem 1.1 evaluates the symbol $\left(\frac{-2A-1-2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ when $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ in terms of a and b , where $p = a^2 + 3b^2$.

COROLLARY 1.1.2. *Let $q = A^2 + A + 1$ be a prime, where $A \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$, so that $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let p be an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$. Then there are integers a and b such that $p = a^2 + 3b^2$ and for any such pair (a, b) we have*

$$\left(\frac{-2A - 1 - 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a - (2A + 1)b}{q}\right).$$

Thus for example with $A = 8$ we see that if p is an odd prime with $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{73}{p}\right) = 1$ then

$$\left(\frac{-17 - 2\sqrt{73}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a - 17b}{73}\right)$$

for any integers a and b with $p = a^2 + 3b^2$.

THEOREM 1.2. ($d = -4$) *Let $q = A^2 + 1$ ($A \in \mathbb{N}$) be an odd prime so that $A \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let p be an odd prime such that*

$$\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1.$$

Then there are unique integers x and y such that

$$(1.2) \quad p = x^2 + y^2, \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad y \equiv \frac{1}{2}(p - 1) \pmod{4}, \quad y > 0.$$

Further $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{A + \sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero, and

$$\left(\frac{A + \sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{x - Ay}{q}\right).$$

Theorem 1.2 is a simple consequence of the rational reciprocity laws of Burde [3] and Scholz [10]. As $p = x^2 + y^2$ (x odd) and $q = 1^2 + A^2$ (A even), Burde's law [9, p. 167] gives

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)_4 \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)_4 = \left(\frac{x - Ay}{q}\right).$$

As $A + \sqrt{q}$ is the fundamental integral unit of $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{q})$, Scholz's law [9, p. 167] gives

$$\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)_4 \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)_4 = \left(\frac{A + \sqrt{q}}{p}\right).$$

Equating these two expressions, we obtain Theorem 1.2.

The special case $A = 2$ of Theorem 1.2 is:

COROLLARY 1.2.1. ($A = 2$) *Let p be an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{-4}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{5}{p}\right) = 1$, equivalently $p \equiv 1, 9 \pmod{20}$. Let $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ be the unique solution to $p = x^2 + y^2$ satisfying (1.2). Then*

$$\left(\frac{2 + \sqrt{5}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{x - 2y}{5}\right).$$

Corollary 1.2.1 is a theorem of E. Lehmer [8]. The fundamental unit of the real quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{5})$ is $\epsilon_5 = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2$. We note that $\epsilon_5^3 = 2 + \sqrt{5}$

so that $\left(\frac{2+\sqrt{5}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{\epsilon_5}{p}\right)$. Also

$$\begin{cases} p \equiv 1 \pmod{5} & \Leftrightarrow (x, y) \equiv (0, \pm 1) \text{ or } (\pm 1, 0) \pmod{5}, \\ p \equiv 4 \pmod{5} & \Leftrightarrow (x, y) \equiv (0, \pm 2) \text{ or } (\pm 2, 0) \pmod{5}. \end{cases}$$

Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} p \equiv 1 \pmod{5}, y \equiv 0 \pmod{5} & \text{ or } p \equiv 4 \pmod{5}, x \equiv 0 \pmod{5} \\ \Rightarrow x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5}, y \equiv 0 \pmod{5} & \text{ or } x \equiv 0 \pmod{5}, y \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{5} \\ \Rightarrow x - 2y \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5} & \Rightarrow \left(\frac{x - 2y}{5}\right) = 1 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\epsilon_5}{p}\right) = 1, \end{aligned}$$

and similarly

$$\begin{aligned} p \equiv 1 \pmod{5}, x \equiv 0 \pmod{5} & \text{ or } p \equiv 4 \pmod{5}, y \equiv 0 \pmod{5} \\ & \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\epsilon_5}{p}\right) = -1. \end{aligned}$$

These two assertions comprise Lehmer's theorem.

Since $p_{-7}(A, 1) = A^2 + A + 2$ is always even, it cannot represent an odd prime. Thus in Theorem 1.3 we use $p_{-28}(A, 1) = A^2 + 7$ in place of $p_{-7}(A, 1)$.

THEOREM 1.3. ($d = -7$) *Let $q = A^2 + 7$ ($A \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$) be a prime (so that $A \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$). Let p be an odd prime such that*

$$\left(\frac{-7}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1.$$

If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ there is a unique solution $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ to $p = x^2 + 7y^2$ satisfying

$$(1.3) \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad y \equiv \frac{1}{2}(p - 1) \pmod{4}, \quad y > 0.$$

If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ there is a unique solution $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ to $p = x^2 + 7y^2$ satisfying

$$(1.4) \quad x \equiv \frac{1}{2}(p - 7) \pmod{4}, \quad x > 0, \quad y \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Further $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{A+\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero, and

$$\left(\frac{A + \sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)(q-3)/8} \left(\frac{x - Ay}{q}\right).$$

The special case $A = 0$ gives a criterion for 7 to be a quartic residue modulo p in terms of the residue of $x \pmod{7}$ where $p = x^2 + 7y^2$. Criteria for the quartic reciprocity of 7 modulo a prime p were first given by Bickmore [2]. These were in terms of the representation $p = a^2 + b^2$ (see [1, pp. 230–231]). Another criterion for 7 to be a fourth power modulo a prime $p \equiv 1 \pmod{28}$ was given by Hudson and Williams [6].

The special case $A = 2$ is:

COROLLARY 1.3.1. ($A = 2$) Let p be an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{-7}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{11}{p}\right) = 1$. Let $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ be the unique solution to $p = x^2 + 7y^2$ specified in (1.3) if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and in (1.4) if $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Then

$$\left(\frac{2 + \sqrt{11}}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } x - 2y \equiv 1, 3, 4, 5, 9 \pmod{11}, \\ -1 & \text{if } x - 2y \equiv 2, 6, 7, 8, 10 \pmod{11}. \end{cases}$$

THEOREM 1.4. ($d = -8$) Let $q = A^2 + 2$ ($A \in \mathbb{N}$) be an odd prime (so that $A \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ and $q \equiv 3 \pmod{8}$). Replace A by $-A$ if necessary so that $A \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let p be an odd prime such that

$$\left(\frac{-8}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1.$$

Then there is a unique solution $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ to $p = x^2 + 2y^2$ satisfying

$$(1.5) \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad y \equiv \begin{cases} 0 \pmod{2}, y > 0, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}, \\ 3 \pmod{4} & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

Further $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{A + \sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero, and

$$\left(\frac{A + \sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p+1)y/4} \left(\frac{x - Ay}{q}\right).$$

The special case $A = 1$ is:

COROLLARY 1.4.1. ($A = 1$) Let p be an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{-8}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = 1$, equivalently $p \equiv 1, 11 \pmod{24}$. Let $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ be the unique solution to $p = x^2 + 2y^2$ satisfying (1.5). If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{24}$ then

$$\left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{3}}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } x - y \equiv 1, 11 \pmod{12}, \\ -1 & \text{if } x - y \equiv 5, 7 \pmod{12}, \end{cases}$$

and if $p \equiv 11 \pmod{24}$ then

$$\left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{3}}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } y \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, \\ -1 & \text{if } y \equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

THEOREM 1.5. ($d = -11$) Let $q = A^2 + A + 3$ ($A \in \mathbb{Z}$) be a prime. Replace A by $-A - 1$ if necessary so that $A \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Let p be an odd prime such that

$$\left(\frac{-11}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1.$$

Then there is a unique solution $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ of $p = x^2 + xy + 3y^2$ satisfying

$$(1.6) \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad y \equiv 1 - p \pmod{8}, \quad (1 - (-1)^{(p-1)/2})x + y > 0,$$

or

$$(1.7) \quad x \equiv 3 - p \pmod{8}, \quad y \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Further $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{2A+1+2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero, and

$$\left(\frac{2A + 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{x-Ay}{q}\right) & \text{if (1.6) holds,} \\ (-1)^{(p+1)(q+1)/4-1} \left(\frac{x-Ay}{q}\right) & \text{if (1.7) holds.} \end{cases}$$

The next corollary is the special case $A = -2$.

COROLLARY 1.5.1. ($A = -2$) Let p be an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{-11}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{5}{p}\right) = 1$. Let $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ be the unique solution of $p = x^2 + xy + 3y^2$ given by (1.6) or (1.7). Then

$$\left(\frac{3 + 2\sqrt{5}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{x + 2y}{5}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } x + 2y \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5}, \\ -1 & \text{if } x + 2y \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{5}. \end{cases}$$

If we impose the requirement that $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ then $(-1)^{(p+1)(q+1)/4-1} = (-1)^{(p-1)/2}$ and Theorem 1.5 gives the following result.

COROLLARY 1.5.2. Let $q = A^2 + A + 3$ be a prime where $A \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ so that $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let p be an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{-11}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$. Then there are integers a and b such that $4p = a^2 + 11b^2$ and for any such pair (a, b) we have

$$\left(\frac{-2A - 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{(a - (2A + 1)b)/2}{q}\right).$$

In particular with $A = -2$ we have

$$\left(\frac{3 + 2\sqrt{5}}{p}\right) = -\left(\frac{a - 2b}{5}\right)$$

for any integers a and b with $4p = a^2 + 11b^2$.

THEOREM 1.6. ($d = -19$) Let $q = A^2 + A + 5$ be a prime ($A \in \mathbb{Z}$). Replace A by $-A - 1$ if necessary so that $A \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Let p be an odd prime such that

$$\left(\frac{-19}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1.$$

Then there is a unique solution $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ of $p = x^2 + xy + 5y^2$ satisfying

$$(1.8) \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad y \equiv 1 - p \pmod{8}, \quad (1 - (-1)^{(p-1)/2})x + y > 0,$$

or

$$(1.9) \quad x \equiv 5 - p \pmod{8}, \quad y \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Further $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{2A+1+2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero, and

$$\left(\frac{2A + 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{x-Ay}{q}\right) & \text{if (1.8) holds,} \\ (-1)^{(p+1)(q+1)/4-1} \left(\frac{x-Ay}{q}\right) & \text{if (1.9) holds.} \end{cases}$$

The next corollary results from imposing the condition $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ in Theorem 1.6.

COROLLARY 1.6.1. *Let $q = A^2 + A + 5$ be a prime where $A \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ so that $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let p be an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{-19}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$. Then there are integers a and b such that $4p = a^2 + 19b^2$ and for any such pair (a, b) we have*

$$\left(\frac{-2A - 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{(a - (2A + 1)b)/2}{q}\right).$$

In particular with $A = -4$ we have

$$\left(\frac{7 + 2\sqrt{17}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a + 7b}{17}\right),$$

for any integers a and b with $4p = a^2 + 19b^2$.

THEOREM 1.7. ($d = -43$) *Let $q = A^2 + A + 11$ ($A \in \mathbb{Z}$) be a prime. Replace A by $-A - 1$ if necessary so that $A \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Let p be an odd prime such that*

$$\left(\frac{-43}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1.$$

Then there is a unique solution $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ of $p = x^2 + xy + 11y^2$ satisfying

$$(1.10) \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad y \equiv 1 - p \pmod{8}, \quad (1 - (-1)^{(p-1)/2})x + y > 0,$$

or

$$(1.11) \quad x \equiv 3 - p \pmod{8}, \quad y \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Further $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{2A+1+2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero, and

$$\left(\frac{2A + 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{x-Ay}{q}\right) & \text{if (1.10) holds,} \\ (-1)^{(p+1)(q+1)/4-1} \left(\frac{x-Ay}{q}\right) & \text{if (1.11) holds.} \end{cases}$$

COROLLARY 1.7.1. *Let $q = A^2 + A + 11$ be a prime where $A \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ so that $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let p be an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{-43}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$.*

Then there are integers a and b such that $4p = a^2 + 43b^2$ and for any such pair (a, b) we have

$$\left(\frac{-2A - 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{(a - (2A + 1)b)/2}{q}\right).$$

In particular with $A = -2$ we have

$$\left(\frac{3 + 2\sqrt{13}}{p}\right) = -\left(\frac{a + 3b}{13}\right),$$

for any integers a and b with $4p = a^2 + 43b^2$.

THEOREM 1.8. ($d = -67$) Let $q = A^2 + A + 17$ ($A \in \mathbb{Z}$) be a prime. Replace A by $-A - 1$ if necessary so that $A \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Let p be an odd prime such that

$$\left(\frac{-67}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1.$$

Then there is a unique solution $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ of $p = x^2 + xy + 17y^2$ satisfying

$$(1.12) \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad y \equiv 1 - p \pmod{8}, \quad (1 - (-1)^{(p-1)/2})x + y > 0,$$

or

$$(1.13) \quad x \equiv 1 - p \pmod{8}, \quad y \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Further $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{2A+1+2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero, and

$$\left(\frac{2A + 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{x - Ay}{q}\right) & \text{if (1.12) holds,} \\ (-1)^{(p+1)(q+1)/4-1} \left(\frac{x - Ay}{q}\right) & \text{if (1.13) holds.} \end{cases}$$

For $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, Theorem 1.8 yields the following corollary.

COROLLARY 1.8.1. Let $q = A^2 + A + 17$ be a prime where $A \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ so that $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let p be an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{-67}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$. Then there are integers a and b such that $4p = a^2 + 67b^2$ and for any such pair (a, b) we have

$$\left(\frac{-2A - 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{(a - (2A + 1)b)/2}{q}\right).$$

In particular with $A = -4$ we have

$$\left(\frac{7 + 2\sqrt{29}}{p}\right) = -\left(\frac{a + 7b}{29}\right)$$

for any integers a and b with $4p = a^2 + 67b^2$.

THEOREM 1.9. ($d = -163$) *Let $q = A^2 + A + 41$ ($A \in \mathbb{Z}$) be a prime. Replace A by $-A - 1$ if necessary so that $A \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Let p be an odd prime such that*

$$\left(\frac{-163}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1.$$

Then there is a unique solution $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ of $p = x^2 + xy + 41y^2$ satisfying

$$(1.14) \quad x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad y \equiv 1 - p \pmod{8}, \quad (1 - (-1)^{(p-1)/2})x + y > 0,$$

or

$$(1.15) \quad x \equiv 1 - p \pmod{8}, \quad y \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Further $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{2A+1+2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero, and

$$\left(\frac{2A + 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{x-Ay}{q}\right) & \text{if (1.14) holds,} \\ (-1)^{(p+1)(q+1)/4-1} \left(\frac{x-Ay}{q}\right) & \text{if (1.15) holds.} \end{cases}$$

We impose the condition $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ in Theorem 1.9 to obtain our final corollary.

COROLLARY 1.9.1. *Let $q = A^2 + A + 41$ be a prime where $A \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ so that $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let p be an odd prime such that $\left(\frac{-163}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$. Then there are integers a and b such that $4p = a^2 + 163b^2$ and for any such pair (a, b) we have*

$$\left(\frac{-2A - 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{(a - (2A + 1)b)/2}{q}\right).$$

In particular with $A = -4$ we have

$$\left(\frac{7 + 2\sqrt{53}}{p}\right) = -\left(\frac{a + 7b}{53}\right)$$

for any integers a and b with $4p = a^2 + 163b^2$.

For an overview of evaluations of the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{a+b\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$, see [1] and [9].

2. Dörrie’s law of quadratic reciprocity. Let K denote an imaginary quadratic field. Let O_K denote the ring of integers of K . We assume that O_K is a unique factorization domain. Stark [11], [12] has shown that this occurs only for the nine imaginary quadratic fields $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-1})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-7})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-11})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-19})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-43})$, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-67})$ and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-163})$. We have $O_K = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$, where

$$(2.1) \quad \omega = \begin{cases} \sqrt{m} & \text{if } m = -1, -2, \\ \frac{1+\sqrt{m}}{2} & \text{if } m = -3, -7, -11, -19, -43, -67, -163. \end{cases}$$

Let π be a prime of O_K with $(\pi, 2) = 1$. For $\alpha \in O_K$ with $(\pi, \alpha) = 1$ we define the symbol $\left[\frac{\alpha}{\pi}\right]$ of quadratic reciprocity (mod π) in O_K by

$$(2.2) \quad \left[\frac{\alpha}{\pi}\right] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the congruence } \beta^2 \equiv \alpha \pmod{\pi} \\ & \text{is solvable for some } \beta \in O_K, \\ -1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Now let $\pi = a + b\omega$ ($a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$) and $\kappa = c + d\omega$ ($c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$) be two primes in O_K with $\pi\bar{\pi} = p$ and $\kappa\bar{\kappa} = q$, where p and q are distinct odd rational primes.

Define nonnegative integers B, D and H , and odd integers b', d' and h' , by

$$(2.3) \quad b = 2^B b', \quad d = 2^D d', \quad ad - bc = 2^H h'.$$

Dörrie’s law of quadratic reciprocity for O_K [4] states that

$$(2.4) \quad \left[\frac{\pi}{\kappa}\right] \left[\frac{\kappa}{\pi}\right] = \pi_1 \kappa_1,$$

where

$$(2.5) \quad \pi_1 = (-1)^{(B+H)\frac{p^2-1}{8} + (\frac{b'-1}{2} + \frac{-h'-1}{2})\frac{p-1}{2}},$$

$$(2.6) \quad \kappa_1 = (-1)^{(D+H)\frac{q^2-1}{8} + (\frac{d'-1}{2} + \frac{h'-1}{2})\frac{q-1}{2}}.$$

Since $(p^2 - 1)/8$, $(p - 1)/2$, $(q^2 - 1)/8$ and $(q - 1)/2$ are specified modulo 2, if p and q are known modulo 8, we can simplify the expression for $\pi_1 \kappa_1$ given by multiplying (2.5) and (2.6) together (see Table 1).

Table 1. Values of $\pi_1 \kappa_1$

p (mod 8)	q (mod 8)	$\pi_1 \kappa_1$	p (mod 8)	q (mod 8)	$\pi_1 \kappa_1$
1	1	1	5	1	$(-1)^{B+H}$
1	3	$(-1)^{D+H + \frac{d'-1}{2} + \frac{h'-1}{2}}$	5	3	$(-1)^{B+D + \frac{d'-1}{2} + \frac{h'-1}{2}}$
1	5	$(-1)^{D+H}$	5	5	$(-1)^{B+D}$
1	7	$(-1)^{\frac{d'-1}{2} + \frac{h'-1}{2}}$	5	7	$(-1)^{B+H + \frac{d'-1}{2} + \frac{h'-1}{2}}$
3	1	$(-1)^{B+H + \frac{b'-1}{2} + \frac{h'+1}{2}}$	7	1	$(-1)^{\frac{b'-1}{2} + \frac{h'+1}{2}}$
3	3	$(-1)^{B+D + \frac{b'-1}{2} + \frac{d'+1}{2}}$	7	3	$(-1)^{D+H + \frac{b'-1}{2} + \frac{d'+1}{2}}$
3	5	$(-1)^{B+D + \frac{b'-1}{2} + \frac{h'+1}{2}}$	7	5	$(-1)^{D+H + \frac{b'-1}{2} + \frac{h'+1}{2}}$
3	7	$(-1)^{B+H + \frac{b'-1}{2} + \frac{d'+1}{2}}$	7	7	$(-1)^{\frac{b'-1}{2} + \frac{d'+1}{2}}$

3. Proof of Theorem 1.1. As $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, there are integers x and y such that $p = x^2 + xy + y^2$. By Dirichlet’s theorem [7] there are 12 such

pairs (x, y) . If (x, y) is one of these solutions, all of them are

$$(3.1) \quad \begin{cases} (x, y), (x + y, -x), (y, -x - y), \\ (-x, -y), (-x - y, x), (-y, x + y), \\ (y, x), (x + y, -y), (x, -x - y), \\ (-y, -x), (-x - y, y), (-x, x + y). \end{cases}$$

As p is odd, at least one of x and y is odd. Replacing (x, y) by (y, x) if necessary we may take x to be odd. Replacing (x, y) by $(x, -x - y)$ if necessary we may suppose that y is even. Replacing (x, y) by $(-x, -y)$ if necessary we may suppose that $x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ then $y \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ so replacing (x, y) by $(x + y, -y)$ if necessary we may suppose that $y > 0$. If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ then $y \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ so replacing (x, y) by $(-x - y, y)$ if necessary we may suppose that $2x + y > 0$. Thus $p = x^2 + xy + y^2$ has a solution $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ satisfying

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \quad y \equiv p - 1 \pmod{4}, \quad \left(1 - \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)\right)x + y > 0.$$

Reducing $p = x^2 + xy + y^2$ modulo 8, we obtain $p \equiv 1 + 3y \pmod{8}$, so that $y \equiv 3(p - 1) \pmod{8}$. It is easily seen from (3.1) that the solution (x, y) determined in this manner is unique. This proves (1.1).

Let (x, y) be the unique solution of $p = x^2 + xy + y^2$ satisfying (1.1). Suppose $x - Ay \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$. Then $p = x^2 + xy + y^2 \equiv (A^2 + A + 1)y^2 = qy^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, so, as p and q are both primes, we have $p = q$. This contradicts $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$. Hence $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$.

As $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$, the congruence $w^2 \equiv q \pmod{p}$ is solvable and has exactly two solutions modulo p , namely w and $-w$. Since we are writing \sqrt{q} for one of these solutions, the other solution is $-\sqrt{q}$. As

$$\left(\frac{2A + 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) \left(\frac{2A + 1 - 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{(2A + 1)^2 - 4q}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = 1,$$

we see that $2A + 1 \pm 2\sqrt{q} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and

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

Hence $\left(\frac{2A+1+2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero.

We now work in the ring of integers of the imaginary quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})$. This ring is $O_{\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-3})} = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$, where $\omega = \frac{1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}$. It is a unique factorization domain. Let $\pi = x + y\omega \in \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$ and $\kappa = A + \omega \in \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$. Then $N(\pi) = N(x + y\omega) = x^2 + xy + y^2 = p$ and $N(\kappa) = N(A + \omega) = A^2 + A + 1 = q$. By Dörrie’s law of quadratic reciprocity in $\mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$, we

have

$$\left[\frac{\pi}{\kappa} \right] \left[\frac{\kappa}{\pi} \right] = \pi_1 \kappa_1,$$

where $\pi_1 \kappa_1$ is given in Table 1. Here in the notation of (2.3) we have

$$a = x, \quad b = y, \quad c = A, \quad d = 1, \quad ad - bc = x - Ay,$$

so

$$2^B \parallel y, \quad b' = y/2^B, \quad D = 0, \quad d' = 1, \quad H = 0, \quad h' = x - Ay \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

As $y \equiv 3(p - 1) \pmod{8}$, we have

$$\begin{cases} B \geq 3 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}, \\ B = 2 & \text{if } p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}, \\ B = 1, b' \equiv 1 \pmod{4} & \text{if } p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

Then from Table 1 we deduce $\pi_1 \kappa_1 = (-1)^{(p-1)/2}$ so that

$$\left[\frac{\pi}{\kappa} \right] \left[\frac{\kappa}{\pi} \right] = \left(\frac{-1}{p} \right).$$

As $\left(\frac{-3}{p} \right) = 1$, there is an integer v such that $v^2 \equiv -3 \pmod{p}$. Now

$$2(2A + 1 + v)(2A + 1 + 2w) \equiv (2A + 1 + v + 2w)^2 \pmod{p}$$

so

$$\left(\frac{2}{p} \right) \left(\frac{2A + 1 + v}{p} \right) \left(\frac{2A + 1 + 2w}{p} \right) = 1.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{2A + 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p} \right) &= \left(\frac{2A + 1 + 2w}{p} \right) = \left(\frac{2}{p} \right) \left(\frac{2A + 1 + v}{p} \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{A + \frac{1+v}{2}}{p} \right) = \left[\frac{A + \omega}{x + y\omega} \right] = \left(\frac{-1}{p} \right) \left[\frac{x + y\omega}{A + \omega} \right] \\ &= \left(\frac{-1}{p} \right) \left[\frac{x - Ay}{A + \omega} \right] = \left(\frac{-1}{p} \right) \left(\frac{x - Ay}{q} \right), \end{aligned}$$

which gives the asserted formula. Theorem 1.1 is proved.

Proof of Corollary 1.1.2. Let (x, y) be the unique solution to $p = x^2 + xy + y^2$ satisfying (1.1). As $y \equiv 3(p - 1) \pmod{8}$, we have $y \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Define integers a and b by

$$a = x + y/2, \quad b = y/2$$

so that

$$(3.2) \quad p = a^2 + 3b^2.$$

Now $x - Ay = a - b - 2Ab = a - (2A + 1)b$ so that by Theorem 1.1 we have

$$\left(\frac{-2A - 1 - 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a - (2A + 1)b}{q}\right).$$

As $(a, b), (a, -b), (-a, b), (-a, -b)$ are all the solutions of (3.2), and $\left(\frac{-1}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{a - (2A + 1)b}{q}\right) &= \left(\frac{a + (2A + 1)b}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{-a - (2A + 1)b}{q}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{-a + (2A + 1)b}{q}\right) \end{aligned}$$

and the corollary follows. ■

4. Proof of Theorem 1.2. As $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, there are integers x and y such that $p = x^2 + y^2$. By Dirichlet’s theorem there are eight solutions $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ of $p = x^2 + y^2$. Let (x, y) be one of these solutions. Then all of them are

$$(4.1) \quad \begin{cases} (x, y), (-x, y), (x, -y), (-x, -y), \\ (y, x), (-y, x), (y, -x), (-y, -x). \end{cases}$$

As p is odd, exactly one of x and y is odd. Replacing (x, y) by (y, x) if necessary we may suppose that x is odd and y is even. Replacing (x, y) by $(-x, y)$ if necessary we may suppose that $x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Then replacing (x, y) by $(x, -y)$ if necessary we may suppose that $y > 0$, so that the solution satisfies (1.2). Appealing to (4.1) we easily see that this solution is unique. Taking $p = x^2 + y^2$ modulo 8, as $x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $y \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, we obtain $y \equiv \frac{1}{2}(p - 1) \pmod{4}$.

Let $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ be the unique solution to $p = x^2 + y^2$ satisfying (1.2). Suppose $x - Ay \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$. Then $p = x^2 + y^2 \equiv (A^2 + 1)y^2 = qy^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, so, as p and q are both primes, we have $p = q$, contradicting $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$. Hence $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$.

As $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$, the congruence $w^2 \equiv q \pmod{p}$ is solvable and has precisely two solutions modulo p , namely w and $-w$. Since we are writing \sqrt{q} for one of these solutions, the other is $-\sqrt{q}$. Now

$$\left(\frac{A + \sqrt{q}}{p}\right) \left(\frac{A - \sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{A^2 - q}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1,$$

so that $A \pm \sqrt{q} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and

$$\left(\frac{A + \sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{A - \sqrt{q}}{p}\right).$$

Hence $\left(\frac{A + \sqrt{q}}{p}\right)$ is well-defined and nonzero.

We now make use of the arithmetic of the ring of integers of the imaginary quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-1})$. This ring is $O_{\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-1})} = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}i$. It is a unique factorization domain. Let $\pi = x + yi \in \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}i$ and $\kappa = A + i \in \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}i$. Then

$$N(\pi) = x^2 + y^2 = p, \quad N(\kappa) = A^2 + 1 = q.$$

By Dörrie's law of quadratic reciprocity in $\mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}i$, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \pi \\ \kappa \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \kappa \\ \pi \end{bmatrix} = \pi_1 \kappa_1,$$

where $\pi_1 \kappa_1$ is given in Table 1.

Here in the notation of (2.3) we have

$$a = x, \quad b = y, \quad c = A, \quad d = 1, \quad ad - bc = x - Ay,$$

so

$$2^B \parallel y, \quad b' = y/2^B, \quad D = 0, \quad d' = 1, \quad H = 0, \quad h' = x - Ay \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

As $y \equiv \frac{1}{2}(p - 1) \pmod{4}$, we have

$$\begin{cases} B \geq 2 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}, \\ B = 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

Then from Table 1 we deduce

$$\pi_1 \kappa_1 = (-1)^{(p-1)/4}$$

so that

$$(4.2) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \pi \\ \kappa \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \kappa \\ \pi \end{bmatrix} = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right).$$

As $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = 1$, there is an integer v such that $v^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Recall that $w^2 \equiv q \pmod{p}$. Now

$$2(A + v)(A + w) \equiv (A + v + w)^2 \pmod{p},$$

so

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \left(\frac{A + v}{p}\right) \left(\frac{A + w}{p}\right) = 1.$$

Hence, appealing to (4.2), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{A + \sqrt{q}}{p}\right) &= \left(\frac{A + w}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \left(\frac{A + v}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \left[\frac{A + i}{x + yi}\right] = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \left[\frac{\kappa}{\pi}\right] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \pi \\ \kappa \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + yi \\ A + i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x - Ay \\ A + i \end{bmatrix} = \left(\frac{x - Ay}{q}\right), \end{aligned}$$

as asserted.

5. Proof of Theorem 1.3. As $\left(\frac{-7}{p}\right) = 1$, there are integers u and v such that $p = u^2 + uv + 2v^2$. Set $r = 2u + v \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $s = v \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $4p = r^2 + 7s^2$. Hence, as p is odd, we have $r^2 + 7s^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{8}$, so $r \equiv s \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. Set $r = 2x$ and $s = 2y$, where $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $p = x^2 + 7y^2$. It is easily checked that the only solutions to $p = x^2 + 7y^2$ are

$$(5.1) \quad (x, y), (x, -y), (-x, y), (-x, -y).$$

If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ then $x \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ and $y \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and a unique solution is given by (1.3). If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ then $x \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and $y \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ and a unique solution is given by (1.4). Taking $p = x^2 + 7y^2 \pmod{8}$, we obtain

$$\begin{cases} y \equiv \frac{1}{2}(p - 1) \pmod{4} & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ x \equiv \frac{1}{2}(p - 7) \pmod{4} & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

Let (x, y) be the unique solution of $p = x^2 + 7y^2$ given by (1.3) if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and by (1.4) if $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. It is easy to check that $x - Ay \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$ and $\left(\frac{A+\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{A-\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) \neq 0$.

We now make use of the arithmetic of the ring of integers of the imaginary quadratic field $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-7})$. This ring is $O_{\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-7})} = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$, where $\omega = (1 + \sqrt{-7})/2$. It is a unique factorization domain. Let $\pi = x + y\sqrt{-7} = x - y + 2y\omega \in \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$ and $\kappa = A + \sqrt{-7} = A - 1 + 2\omega \in \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$. We have $N(\pi) = x^2 + 7y^2 = p$ and $N(\kappa) = A^2 + 7 = q$. In the notation of (2.3) we have

$$\begin{aligned} a &= x - y, & b &= 2y = 2^B b', & c &= A - 1, & d &= 2 = 2^D d', \\ ad - bc &= 2(x - Ay) = 2^H h', \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$2^{B-1} \parallel y, \quad b' = \frac{y}{2^{B-1}}, \quad D = d' = 1, \quad 2^{H-1} \parallel x - Ay, \quad h' = \frac{x - Ay}{2^{H-1}}.$$

Suppose first that $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. In this case $x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and $y \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, so $x - Ay \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ and thus

$$H = 1, \quad h' = x - Ay \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

From $y \equiv \frac{1}{2}(p - 1) \pmod{4}$ we deduce that

$$\begin{cases} B \geq 3 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}, \\ B = 2 & \text{if } p \equiv 5 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

Appealing to Table 1 for the cases $(p, q) \equiv (1, 3), (1, 7), (5, 3)$ and $(5, 7)$

(mod 8), we obtain

$$(5.2) \quad \pi_1 \kappa_1 = (-1)^{(p-1)/4} \quad \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Now suppose that $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. In this case $x \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and $y \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, so

$$B = 1, \quad b' = y \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Also $x - Ay \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and thus $H \geq 2$. From $x \equiv \frac{1}{2}(p - 7) \pmod{4}$, we deduce that

$$\begin{cases} x \equiv 2 \pmod{4} & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}, \\ x \equiv 0 \pmod{4} & \text{if } p \equiv 7 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

Taking $q = A^2 + 7$ modulo 8, we get

$$\begin{cases} A \equiv 2 \pmod{4} & \text{if } q \equiv 3 \pmod{8}, \\ A \equiv 0 \pmod{4} & \text{if } q \equiv 7 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

Thus

$$\begin{cases} x - Ay \equiv 0 \pmod{4} & \text{if } p \equiv q \pmod{8}, \\ x - Ay \equiv 2 \pmod{4} & \text{if } p \not\equiv q \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

Hence

$$\begin{cases} H \geq 3 & \text{if } p \equiv q \pmod{8}, \\ H = 2 & \text{if } p \not\equiv q \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

Appealing to Table 1 for the cases $(p, q) = (3, 3), (3, 7), (7, 3)$ and $(7, 7) \pmod{8}$, we obtain

$$(5.3) \quad \pi_1 \kappa_1 = (-1)^{(p+q-2)/4} \quad \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}.$$

In view of (5.2) and (5.3) set

$$\epsilon := \begin{cases} (-1)^{(p-1)/4} & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ (-1)^{(p+q-2)/4} & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, \end{cases}$$

so that by Dörrie's law of quadratic reciprocity we have

$$(5.4) \quad \left[\frac{\pi}{\kappa} \right] \left[\frac{\kappa}{\pi} \right] = \epsilon.$$

An examination of cases yields

$$(5.5) \quad \left(\frac{2}{p} \right) \epsilon = (-1)^{(p-1)(q-3)/8}.$$

As $\left(\frac{-7}{p} \right) = \left(\frac{q}{p} \right) = 1$ there are integers v and w such that $v^2 \equiv -7 \pmod{p}$ and $w^2 \equiv q \pmod{p}$. As

$$2(A + v)(A + w) \equiv (A + v + w)^2 \pmod{p},$$

we have

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \left(\frac{A+v}{p}\right) \left(\frac{A+w}{p}\right) = 1.$$

Hence, appealing to (5.4) and (5.5), we deduce

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{A+\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) &= \left(\frac{A+w}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \left(\frac{A+v}{p}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \left[\frac{A+\sqrt{-7}}{x+y\sqrt{-7}}\right] = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \left[\frac{\kappa}{\pi}\right] = \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) \epsilon \left[\frac{\pi}{\kappa}\right] \\ &= (-1)^{(p-1)(q-3)/8} \left[\frac{x+y\sqrt{-7}}{A+\sqrt{-7}}\right] = (-1)^{(p-1)(q-3)/8} \left[\frac{x-Ay}{A+\sqrt{-7}}\right] \\ &= (-1)^{(p-1)(q-3)/8} \left(\frac{x-Ay}{q}\right), \end{aligned}$$

as asserted.

6. Proof of Theorem 1.4. As $\left(\frac{-8}{p}\right) = 1$, there are integers x and y such that $p = x^2 + 2y^2$. By Dirichlet’s theorem there are four solutions $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ to $p = x^2 + 2y^2$. If one of these is (x, y) , all four of them are

$$(x, y), (x, -y), (-x, y), (-x, -y).$$

Clearly $x \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ and $y \equiv \frac{1}{2}(p-1) \pmod{2}$. The existence and uniqueness of the solution satisfying (1.5) now follows easily.

The rest of the proof goes as for Theorems 1.1–1.3. Here we use $\pi = x + y\sqrt{-2} \in \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\sqrt{-2}$ and $\kappa = A + \sqrt{-2} \in \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\sqrt{-2}$ so that $N(\pi) = p$ and $N(\kappa) = q$. Dörrie’s law of quadratic reciprocity in $\mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\sqrt{-2}$ yields

$$\left[\frac{\pi}{\kappa}\right] \left[\frac{\kappa}{\pi}\right] = \pi_1 \kappa_1 = \begin{cases} (-1)^{y/2} & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{8}, \\ 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{8}, \end{cases}$$

and we continue as before.

7. Proofs of Theorems 1.5–1.9

Proof of Theorem 1.5. As $\left(\frac{-11}{p}\right) = 1$, there are integers x and y such that $p = x^2 + xy + 3y^2$. By Dirichlet’s theorem there are four solutions $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ to $p = x^2 + xy + 3y^2$. If one of these is (x, y) , all four of them are

$$(x, y), (-x, -y), (-x-y, y), (x+y, -y).$$

Clearly x and y are not both even as p is odd. If x and y are both odd, we can replace (x, y) by $(x+y, -y)$ if necessary to obtain $x \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and $y \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$. Then replacing (x, y) by $(-x, -y)$ if necessary we get a solution

with $x \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ and $y \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Then, from $p = x^2 + xy + 3y^2$ modulo 8, we deduce that $x \equiv 3 - p \pmod{8}$. If x is odd and y is even, we can replace (x, y) by $(-x, -y)$ if necessary to ensure that $x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Then, from $p = x^2 + xy + 3y^2$ modulo 8, we deduce that $y \equiv 1 - p \pmod{8}$. If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, so that $y \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$, we replace (x, y) by $(x + y, -y)$ if necessary so that $y > 0$. If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, so that $y \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$, we replace (x, y) by $(-x - y, y)$ if necessary so that $2x + y > 0$. The uniqueness of the determined solution follows easily.

The rest of the proof proceeds as in the previous theorems. Here we use $\pi = x + y\omega \in \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$ and $\kappa = A + \omega \in \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$, where $\omega = (1 + \sqrt{-11})/2$, so that $N(\pi) = p$ and $N(\kappa) = q$. Dörrie’s law of quadratic reciprocity in $\mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\omega$ yields

$$\left[\frac{\pi}{\kappa} \right] \left[\frac{\kappa}{\pi} \right] = \begin{cases} (-1)^{(p-1)/2} & \text{if (1.6) holds,} \\ (-1)^{(p+1)(q+1)/4-1} & \text{if (1.7) holds,} \end{cases}$$

and the remainder of the proof proceeds as in Theorem 1.1. ■

Proof of Corollary 1.5.2. As $\left(\frac{-11}{p}\right) = 1$, there are integers a and b such that $4p = a^2 + 11b^2$. Moreover the only such pairs are (a, b) , $(a, -b)$, $(-a, b)$ and $(-a, -b)$. As $\left(\frac{q}{p}\right) = 1$ and $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, by the law of quadratic reciprocity we have $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = 1$. Then it is easy to check that

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{a - (2A + 1)b}{q}\right) &= \left(\frac{a + (2A + 1)b}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{-a + (2A + 1)b}{q}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{-a - (2A + 1)b}{q}\right), \end{aligned}$$

so $\left(\frac{a - (2A + 1)b}{q}\right)$ is independent of the choice of (a, b) . Choose $a = 2x + y$ and $b = y$. By Theorem 1.5 we have

$$\left(\frac{2A + 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \left(\frac{x - Ay}{q}\right),$$

so as $a - (2A + 1)b = 2(x - Ay)$ we deduce

$$\left(\frac{-2A - 1 + 2\sqrt{q}}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{(a - (2A + 1)b)/2}{q}\right),$$

as claimed. ■

Proofs of Theorems 1.6–1.9. The proofs are very similar to that of Theorem 1.5 and we omit them.

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