

Since the Jacobi symbol has essentially the same properties as the Legendre symbol, we can compute them in essentially the same way; extract factors of 2 from the top (and  $-1$ ), and use reciprocity to compute the rest. The advantage: we don't need to factor the top any further, any odd number will work fine.

$$\text{Example: } \left(\frac{2225}{3333}\right) = \left(\frac{3333}{2225}\right)(-1)^{1666 \cdot 1112} = \left(\frac{2225+1108}{2225}\right) = \left(\frac{2^2 \cdot 277}{2225}\right) = \left(\left(\frac{2}{2225}\right)\right)^2 \left(\frac{277}{2225}\right) = \left(\frac{2225}{277}\right)(-1)^{1112 \cdot 138} = \left(\frac{277 \cdot 9 + 182}{277}\right) = \left(\frac{182}{277}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{277}\right) \left(\frac{91}{277}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{277^2-1}{8}} \left(\frac{277}{91}\right)(-1)^{138 \cdot 45} = (-1)^{9591} \left(\frac{91 \cdot 3 + 4}{91}\right) = (-1) \left(\frac{4}{91}\right) = (-1) \left(\left(\frac{2}{91}\right)\right)^2 = -1$$

One basic result coming from reciprocity: for a fixed (odd)  $a$ , we can determine for which primes  $p$  the equation  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  will have solutions.

$1 = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{a}\right)(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \frac{a-1}{2}}$  is determined by  $\left(\frac{p}{a}\right)$  (which only depends on  $p \pmod{a}$ ) and (if  $a \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ ) on  $p \pmod{4}$  (to determine the parity of  $\frac{p-1}{2} \frac{a-1}{2}$  - if  $a \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  it is always even). So  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  depends on  $p \pmod{a}$  and on  $p \pmod{4}$  (when  $a \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ ), so it depends at most on  $p \pmod{4a}$ . So the primes for which  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  have solutions fall *precisely* into certain equivalence classes mod  $a$  or  $4a$ , depending upon  $a$ . If we include even values for  $a$ , then we need to extract 2's, and the result will depend upon  $p \pmod{8}$  (for the  $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)$ 's) and, at worst, on  $p \pmod{a/2}$ , and so it still depends at most on  $p \pmod{4a}$ .

A brief interlude: we know that there are infinitely many primes. But how are they distributed? For example,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  diverges, but  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} < \infty$ . So how about  $\sum_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{p}$ ? We will show that this sum diverges, so that we know that, in some sense, primes are more common than perfect squares....

To show this, pick a positive number  $N$ , and let  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  be the primes  $\leq N$ . Then let

$$A = \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p_1^{i_1} \dots p_k^{i_k}} = \left(\sum_{i_1=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{p_1}\right)^{i_1}\right) \dots \left(\sum_{i_k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{p_k}\right)^{i_k}\right) = \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{p_1}} \dots \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{p_k}} = \frac{p_1}{p_1-1} \dots \frac{p_k}{p_k-1}.$$

But the initial sum includes all denominators  $\leq N$ , since every  $k \leq N$  is a product of primes  $\leq N$ , i.e., is a product of the primes  $p_1, \dots, p_k$ . So  $A \geq \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{n} \geq \int_1^N \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln(N)$  by the integral test. So  $\frac{p_1}{p_1-1} \dots \frac{p_k}{p_k-1} \geq \ln(N)$ . Taking logs of both sides, we have  $\sum_{i=1}^k \ln\left(\frac{p_i}{p_i-1}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^k \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{p_i-1}\right) \geq \ln(\ln(N))$ . But from power series we know that for  $|x| < 1$ ,  $\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots \leq x$  (since it is an alternating series with terms decreasing to 0 (or, if you prefer, by using  $\frac{1}{1+x} \leq 1$  and integrating from 1 to  $x$ )), so  $\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{p_i-1} \geq \sum_{i=1}^k \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{p_i-1}\right) \geq \ln(\ln(N))$ . But  $\frac{1}{p_i-1} \leq \frac{p_i+2}{p_i^2} = \frac{1}{p_i} + \frac{2}{p_i^2}$  (since  $(p_i-1)(p_i+2) = p_i^2 + p_i - 2 \geq p_i^2$ ), so  $\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{p_i} + \frac{2}{p_i^2} \geq \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{p_i-1} \geq \ln(\ln(N))$ . So  $\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{p_i} \geq \ln(\ln(N)) - \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{2}{p_i^2} \geq \ln(\ln(N)) - \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{n^2} = \ln(\ln(N)) - \frac{\pi^2}{3} \geq \ln(\ln(N)) - 4$ . So the sum of the reciprocals of the primes  $\leq N$  is  $\geq \ln(\ln(N)) - 4$ . Since  $\ln(\ln(N))$  tends to  $\infty$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$  (albeit very slowly), the sum of the reciprocals of the primes diverges.

It is in fact true that as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $(\sum_{p \text{ prime}, p \leq n} \frac{1}{p}) - \ln(\ln(n))$  converges to a finite constant  $M$ , known as the *Meissel-Mertens constant*. Its value is, approximately, 0.26149721284764278... .