Number theory and Cryptography



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Definition (Quadratic Residue)

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For example, the squares modulo 5 are

$$1^2 = 1$$
, $2^2 = 4$, $3^2 = 4$, $4^2 = 1$, (mod 5)

so 1 and 4 are both quadratic residues and 2 and 3 are quadratic nonresidues.

Definition (Legendre Symbol)

Let *p* be an odd prime and let *a* be an integer. Set

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \gcd(a, p) \neq 1, \\ +1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic residue, and} \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic nonresidue.} \end{cases}$$

We call this symbol the Legendre Symbol.

For example, we have

$$\binom{1}{5} = 1$$
, $\binom{2}{5} = -1$, $\binom{3}{5} = -1$, $\binom{4}{5} = 1$, $\binom{5}{5} = 0$.



Lemma

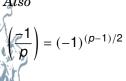
The map $\psi : (\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z})^* \to \{\pm 1\}$ given by $\psi(a) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ is a surjective group homomorphism.



Theorem (Gauss's Quadratic Reciprocity Law)

Suppose p and q are distinct odd primes. Then

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



$$\left(\frac{1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2}$$
 and $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$

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Also

$$\left(\frac{1}{p}\right) = (-1)^{(p-1)/2} \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$

In our example, Gauss's theorem implies that

$$\frac{5}{p} = (-1)^{2 \cdot \frac{p-1}{2}} \left(\frac{p}{5} \right) = \left(\frac{p}{5} \right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5} \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{5}. \end{cases}$$

Example

Is 69 a square modulo the prime 389? We have

$$\left(\frac{69}{389}\right) = \left(\frac{3 \cdot 23}{389}\right) = \left(\frac{3}{389}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{23}{389}\right) = (-1) \cdot (-1) = 1.$$
$$\left(\frac{3}{389}\right) = \left(\frac{389}{3}\right) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = -1,$$

$$\left(\frac{23}{389}\right) = \left(\frac{389}{23}\right) = \left(\frac{21}{23}\right) = \left(\frac{-2}{23}\right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{-1}{23}\right) \left(\frac{2}{23}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{23-1}{2}} \cdot 1 = -1.$$

Thus 69 is a square modulo 389.

Proposition (Euler's Criterion)

We have $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = 1$ if and only if

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



Corollary

The equation $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ has no solution if and only if $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Thus $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}$.



Corollary

The equation $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ has no solution if and only if $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Thus $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}$.

Proof.

This follows from Euler's Criterion and the fact that the polynomial $x^2 - 1$ has no roots besides +1 and -1.



Example

Suppose p = 11. By squaring each element of $(\mathbf{Z}/11\mathbf{Z})^*$, we see that the squares modulo 11 are $\{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\}$. We compute $\mathbf{z}^{(p-1)/2} = \mathbf{z}^5$ for each $\mathbf{z} \in (\mathbf{Z}/11\mathbf{Z})^*$ and get

$$1^5 = 1, 2^5 = -1, 3^5 = 1, 4^5 = 1, 5^5 = 1,$$

 $6^5 = -1, 7^5 = -1, 8^5 = -1, 9^5 = 1, 10^5 = -1.$

Thus the a with $a^5 = 1$ are $\{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\}$, just as Euler's Criterion predicts.



Lemma (Gauss's Lemma)

Let p be an odd prime and let a be an integer $\not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Form the numbers

$$a, 2a, 3a, \ldots, \frac{p-1}{2}a$$

and reduce them modulo p to lie in the interval $(-\frac{p}{2}, \frac{p}{2})$, i.e., for each of the above products $k \cdot a$ find a number in the interval $(-\frac{p}{2}, \frac{p}{2})$ that is congruent to $k \cdot a$ modulo p. Let v be the number of negative numbers in the resulting set. Then

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = (-1)^{\nu}.$$



Lemma

Let $a, b \in \mathbf{Q}$. Then for any integer n,

$$\#((a,b)\cap \mathbf{Z}) \equiv \#((a,b+2n)\cap \mathbf{Z}) \pmod{2}$$

and

$$\#((a,b) \cap \mathbf{Z}) \equiv \#((a-2n,b) \cap \mathbf{Z}) \pmod{2}$$

provided that each interval involved in the congruence is nonempty.



Proposition (Euler)

Let p be an odd prime and let a be a positive integer with $p \nmid a$. If q is a prime with $q \equiv \pm p \pmod{4a}$, then $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{q}\right)$.





Proposition (Euler)

Let p be an odd prime and let a be a positive integer with $p \nmid a$. If q is a prime with $q \equiv \pm p \pmod{4a}$, then $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{q}\right)$.

Proposition (Legendre Symbol of 2)

Let p be an odd prime. Then

$$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & if \ p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \\ -1 & if \ p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$$



Proof.

When
$$a = 2$$
, the set $S = \{a, 2a, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}a\}$ is $\{2, 4, 6, \dots, p-1\}.$

We must count the parity of the number of elements of S that lie in the interval $I = (\frac{\rho}{2}, p)$. Writing p = 8c + r, we have

$$\#(I \cap S) = \#\left(\frac{1}{2}I \cap \mathbf{Z}\right) = \#\left(\left(\frac{p}{4}, \frac{p}{2}\right) \cap \mathbf{Z}\right)$$
$$= \#\left(\left(2c + \frac{r}{4}, 4c + \frac{r}{2}\right) \cap \mathbf{Z}\right) \equiv \#\left(\left(\frac{r}{4}, \frac{r}{2}\right) \cap \mathbf{Z}\right) \pmod{2}$$

where the last equality comes from Lemma 9. The possibilities for r are 1, 3, 5, 7. When r = 1, the cardinality is 0; when r = 3, 5 it is 1; and when r = 7 it is 2.

Definition (Root of Unity)

An nth root of unity is a complex number ζ such that $\zeta^n = 1$. A root of unity ζ is a *primitive* nth root of unity if n is the smallest positive integer such that $\zeta^n = 1$.





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For example, -1 is a primitive second root of unity, and $\mathcal{E} = \frac{\sqrt{-3}-1}{2}$ is a primitive cube root of unity. More generally, for any $n \in \mathbf{N}$ the complex number

$$\zeta_n = \cos(2\pi/n) + i\sin(2\pi/n)$$

is a primitive nth root of unity (this follows from the identity $e^{i\theta} = \cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)$). For the rest of this section, we fix an odd prime p and the primitive pth root $\zeta = \zeta_p$ of unity.