

## Lecture Notes 13

### 1 Quadratic Residues

#### 1.1 Squares and square roots

An integer  $a$  is called a *quadratic residue (or perfect square) modulo  $n$*  if  $a \equiv b^2 \pmod{n}$  for some integer  $b$ . Such a  $b$  is said to be a *square root* of  $a$  modulo  $n$ . We let

$$\text{QR}_n = \{a \in \mathbf{Z}_n^* \mid a \text{ is a quadratic residue modulo } n\}.$$

be the set of quadratic residues in  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$ , and we denote the set of non-quadratic residues in  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$  by  $\text{QNR}_n = \mathbf{Z}_n^* - \text{QR}_n$ .

#### 1.2 Square roots modulo a prime

**Claim 1** *For an odd prime  $p$ , every  $a \in \text{QR}_p$  has exactly two square roots in  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$ , and exactly 1/2 of the elements of  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$  are quadratic residues.*

For example, take  $p = 11$ . The following table shows all of the elements of  $\mathbf{Z}_{11}^*$  and their squares.

$a$	$a^2 \pmod{11}$
1	1
2	4
3	9
4	5
5	3
6 = -5	3
7 = -4	5
8 = -3	9
9 = -2	4
10 = -1	1

Thus, we see that  $\text{QR}_{11} = \{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\}$  and  $\text{QNR}_{11} = \{2, 6, 7, 8, 10\}$ .

**Proof:** We now prove Claim 1. Consider the mapping  $\text{sq} : \mathbf{Z}_p^* \rightarrow \text{QR}_p$  defined by  $b \mapsto b^2 \pmod{p}$ . We show that this is a 2-to-1 mapping from  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$  onto  $\text{QR}_p$ .

Let  $a \in \text{QR}_p$ , and let  $b^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  be a square root of  $a$ . Then  $-b$  is also a square root of  $a$ , and  $b \not\equiv -b \pmod{p}$  since  $p \nmid 2b$ . Hence,  $a$  has at least two distinct square roots  $\pmod{p}$ . Now let  $c$  be any square root of  $a$ .

$$c^2 \equiv a \equiv b^2 \pmod{p}.$$

Then  $p \mid c^2 - b^2$ , so  $p \mid (c - b)(c + b)$ . Since  $p$  is prime, then either  $p \mid (c - b)$ , in which case  $c \equiv b \pmod{p}$ , or  $p \mid (c + b)$ , in which case  $c \equiv -b \pmod{p}$ . Hence  $c \equiv \pm b \pmod{p}$ . Since  $c$  was an arbitrary square root of  $a$ , it follows that  $\pm b$  are the only two square roots of  $a$ . Hence,  $\text{sq}()$  is a 2-to-1 function, and  $|\text{QR}_p| = \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{Z}_p^*|$  as desired. ■

### 1.3 Square roots modulo the product of two primes

**Claim 2** Let  $n = pq$  for  $p, q$  distinct odd primes. Then every  $a \in \text{QR}_n$  has exactly four square roots in  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$ , and exactly  $1/4$  of the elements of  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$  are quadratic residues.

**Proof:** Consider the mapping  $\text{sq} : \mathbf{Z}_n^* \rightarrow \text{QR}_n$  defined by  $b \mapsto b^2 \pmod n$ . We show that this is a 4-to-1 mapping from  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$  onto  $\text{QR}_n$ .

Let  $a \in \text{QR}_n$  and let  $b^2 \equiv a \pmod n$  be a square root of  $a$ . Then also  $b^2 \equiv a \pmod p$  and  $b^2 \equiv a \pmod q$ , so  $b$  is a square root of  $a \pmod p$  and  $b$  is a square root of  $a \pmod q$ . Conversely, if  $b_p$  is a square root of  $a \pmod p$  and  $b_q$  is a square root of  $a \pmod q$ , then by the Chinese Remainder theorem, the unique number  $b \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$  such that  $b \equiv b_p \pmod p$  and  $b \equiv b_q \pmod q$  is a square root of  $a \pmod n$ . Since  $a$  has two square roots mod  $p$  and two square roots mod  $q$ , it follows that  $a$  has four square roots mod  $n$ . Thus,  $\text{sq}()$  is a 4-to-1 function, and  $|\text{QR}_n| = \frac{1}{4}|\mathbf{Z}_n^*|$  as desired. ■

### 1.4 Euler criterion

There is a simple test due to Euler for whether a number is in  $\text{QR}_p$  for  $p$  prime.

**Claim 3 (Euler Criterion):** An integer  $a$  is a non-trivial<sup>1</sup> quadratic residue modulo  $p$  iff

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

**Proof:** Let  $a \equiv b^2 \pmod p$  for some  $b \not\equiv 0 \pmod p$ . Then

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

by Euler's theorem.

For the other direction, suppose  $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ . Let  $g$  be a primitive root of  $p$ , and choose  $k$  so that  $a \equiv g^k \pmod p$ . Then

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

Because  $g$  is a primitive root,  $g^\ell \equiv 1 \pmod p$  implies that  $\ell$  is a multiple of  $p-1$  for any  $\ell$ . Taking  $\ell = (p-1)k/2$ , we have that  $p-1 \mid (p-1)k/2$ , from which we conclude that  $2 \mid k$ . Hence,  $k/2$  is an integer, and  $b = g^{k/2} \not\equiv 0 \pmod p$  is a square root of  $a$ , so  $a$  is a non-trivial quadratic residue modulo  $p$ . ■

### 1.5 Finding square roots

The Euler criterion lets us test membership in  $\text{QR}_p$  for prime  $p$ , but it doesn't tell us how to find square roots. In case  $p \equiv 3 \pmod 4$ , there is an easy algorithm for finding the square roots of any member of  $\text{QR}_p$ .

**Claim 4** Let  $p \equiv 3 \pmod 4$ ,  $a \in \text{QR}_p$ . Then  $b = a^{(p+1)/4}$  is a square root of  $a \pmod p$ .

**Proof:** Under the assumptions of the claim,  $p+1$  is divisible by 4, so  $(p+1)/4$  is an integer. Then

$$b^2 \equiv (a^{(p+1)/4})^2 \equiv a^{(p+1)/2} \equiv a^{1+(p-1)/2} \equiv a \cdot a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv a \cdot 1 \equiv a \pmod p$$

by the Euler Criterion (Claim 3). ■

<sup>1</sup>A non-trivial quadratic residue is one that is not equivalent to 0 (mod  $p$ ).

## 2 QR Probabilistic Cryptosystem

Let  $n = pq$ ,  $p, q$  distinct odd primes. We can divide the numbers in  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$  into four classes depending on their membership in  $\text{QR}_p$  and  $\text{QR}_q$ .<sup>2</sup> Let  $Q_n^{11}$  be those numbers that are quadratic residues mod both  $p$  and  $q$ ; let  $Q_n^{10}$  be those numbers that are quadratic residues mod  $p$  but not mod  $q$ ; let  $Q_n^{01}$  be those numbers that are quadratic residues mod  $q$  but not mod  $p$ ; and let  $Q_n^{00}$  be those numbers that are neither quadratic residues mod  $p$  nor mod  $q$ . Under these definitions,  $Q_n^{11} = \text{QR}_n$  and  $Q_n^{00} \cup Q_n^{01} \cup Q_n^{10} = \text{QNR}_n$ .

**Fact** Given  $a \in Q_n^{00} \cup Q_n^{11}$ , there is no known feasible algorithm for determining whether or not  $a \in \text{QR}_n$  that gives the correct answer significantly more than 1/2 the time.

The Goldwasser-Micali cryptosystem is based on this fact. The public key consist of a pair  $e = (n, y)$ , where  $n = pq$  for distinct odd primes  $p, q$ , and  $y \in Q_n^{00}$ . The private key consists of  $p$ . The message space is  $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}$ .

To encrypt  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ , Alice chooses a random  $a \in \text{QR}_n$ . She does this by choosing a random member of  $\mathbf{Z}_n^*$  and squaring it. If  $m = 0$ , then  $c = a \bmod n$ . If  $m = 1$ , then  $c = ay \bmod n$ . The ciphertext is  $c$ .

It is easily shown that if  $m = 0$ , then  $c \in Q_n^{11}$ , and if  $m = 1$ , then  $c \in Q_n^{00}$ . One can also show that every  $a \in Q_n^{11}$  is equally likely to be chosen as the ciphertext in case  $m = 0$ , and every  $a \in Q_n^{00}$  is equally likely to be chosen as the ciphertext in case  $m = 1$ . Eve's problem of determining whether  $c$  encrypts 0 or 1 is the same as the problem of distinguishing between membership in  $Q_n^{00}$  and  $Q_n^{11}$ , which by the above fact is believed to be hard. Anyone knowing the private key  $p$ , however, can use the Euler Criterion to quickly determine whether or not  $c$  is a quadratic residue mod  $p$  and hence whether  $c \in Q_n^{11}$  or  $c \in Q_n^{00}$ , thereby determining  $m$ .

## 3 Legendre Symbol

Let  $p$  be an odd prime,  $a$  an integer. The *Legendre symbol*  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$  is a number in  $\{-1, 0, +1\}$ , defined as follows:

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a non-trivial quadratic residue modulo } p \\ 0 & \text{if } a \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is not a quadratic residue modulo } p \end{cases}$$

By the Euler Criterion (see Claim 3), we have

**Theorem 1** *Let  $p$  be an odd prime. Then*

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)} \pmod{p}$$

Note that this theorem holds even when  $p|a$ .

The Legendre symbol satisfies the following *multiplicative property*:

**Fact** Let  $p$  be an odd prime. Then

$$\left(\frac{a_1 a_2}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a_1}{p}\right) \left(\frac{a_2}{p}\right)$$

<sup>2</sup>To be strictly formal, we classify  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$  according to whether or not  $(a \bmod p) \in \text{QR}_p$  and whether or not  $(a \bmod q) \in \text{QR}_q$ .

Not surprisingly, if  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are both non-trivial quadratic residues, then so is  $a_1a_2$ . This shows that the fact is true for the case that

$$\left(\frac{a_1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a_2}{p}\right) = 1.$$

More surprising is the case when neither  $a_1$  nor  $a_2$  are quadratic residues, so

$$\left(\frac{a_1}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{a_2}{p}\right) = -1.$$

In this case, the above fact says that the product  $a_1a_2$  is a quadratic residue since

$$\left(\frac{a_1a_2}{p}\right) = (-1)(-1) = 1.$$

Here's a way to see this. Let  $g$  be a primitive root of  $p$ . Write  $a_1 \equiv g^{k_1} \pmod{p}$  and  $a_2 \equiv g^{k_2} \pmod{p}$ . Since  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are not quadratic residues, it must be the case that  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are both odd; otherwise  $g^{k_1/2}$  would be a square root of  $a_1$ , or  $g^{k_2/2}$  would be a square root of  $a_2$ . But then  $k_1 + k_2$  is even since the sum of any two odd numbers is always even. Hence,  $g^{(k_1+k_2)/2}$  is a square root of  $a_1a_2 \equiv g^{k_1+k_2} \pmod{p}$ , so  $a_1a_2$  is a quadratic residue.