

## Lecture 11

### Square Roots, Tonelli's Algorithm, Number of Consecutive Pairs of Squares mod p

Defined the Jacobi Symbol - used to compute Legendre Symbol efficiently (quadratic character)

Eg.

$$\begin{aligned} (1729|223) &= (168|223) = (4 \cdot 42|223) = (42|223) \\ &= (2|223)(21|223) = (21|223) = (223|21) = (13|21) \\ &= (21|13) = (8|13) = (2|13) = -1 \end{aligned}$$

$$(-1|p) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \\ 1 & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

$$(2|p) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8} \\ 1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8} \end{cases}$$

**Lemma 43.** If  $p, q, r$  are distinct odd primes, and  $q \equiv r \pmod{4p}$ , then  $(p|q) = (p|r)$ .

*Proof.* We know  $(q|p) = (r|p)$  since  $q \equiv r \pmod{p}$ . Also,  $q$  and  $r$  are both either  $1 \pmod{4}$  or both  $3 \pmod{4}$ . So

$$\begin{aligned} (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \frac{q-1}{2}} &= (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \frac{r-1}{2}} \\ (p|q) &= (q|p)(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \frac{q-1}{2}} \\ &= (r|p)(-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2} \frac{r-1}{2}} \\ &= (p|r) \end{aligned}$$

■

**Eg.** Characterize the primes  $p$  for which 17 is a square mod  $p$ . It's clear that 17 is square mod 2. We see that since  $17 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ , so if  $q \equiv r \pmod{17}$  then  $(17|q) = (17|r)$ . So we only need to look mod 17 to see when  $(17|q) = (q|17) = 1$ . Go through mod 17:  $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 8 \pmod{17}$  are nonzero square classes, so 17 is a square mod  $q$  iff  $q = 2, 17$ , or  $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 4, \pm 8 \pmod{17}$ .

If we had asked for 19, we need to look at classes mod  $(4 \cdot 19)$ , since  $19 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . (If  $q = 1 \pmod{4}$  then  $(19|q) = (q|19)$ , so we need  $q$  to be a square mod 19. If  $q = 3 \pmod{4}$  then  $(19|q) = -(q|19)$ , we need  $q$  to be not square mod 19)

**Euclidean gcd Algorithm** - Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , not both 0, find  $(a, b)$

1. If  $a, b < 0$ , replace with negative
2. If  $a > b$ , switch  $a$  and  $b$
3. If  $a = 0$ , return  $b$
4. Since  $a > 0$ , write  $b = aq + r$  with  $0 \leq r < a$ . Replace  $(a, b)$  with  $(r, a)$  and go to Step 3.

**Tonelli's Algorithm** - To compute square roots mod  $p$  (used to solve  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ ). Need a quadratic non-residue mod  $p$ , called  $n$ . Let  $g$  be a primitive root mod  $p$ . Now let  $p - 1 = 2^s t$ , for  $t$  odd. We know  $n$  is a power of  $g$ , say  $n \equiv g^k$ . Set  $c \equiv n^t \equiv g^{kt}$ .

**Claim:** The order of  $c$  is exactly  $2^s$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
 c^{2^s} &\equiv (g^{kt})^{2^s} \\
 &\equiv (g^{t2^s})^k \\
 &\equiv (g^{p-1})^k \\
 &\equiv 1 \pmod{p}
 \end{aligned}$$

So  $\text{ord}(c)$  has to divide  $2^s$ , so it's a power of 2. If we can show that  $c^{2^{s-1}} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  then order has to be  $2^s$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 c^{2^{s-1}} &\equiv (g^{kt})^{2^{s-1}} \\
 &\equiv (g^{t2^{s-1}})^k \\
 &\equiv (g^{(p-1)/2})^k \pmod{p} \\
 &\equiv (-1)^k \pmod{p}, \text{ since } g \text{ is a primitive root}
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $k$  is odd since otherwise  $n \equiv g^k$  would be a quadratic residue, so we get  $c^{2^{s-1}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , proving claim that  $\text{ord}(c) = 2^s$  ■

**Lemma 44.** If  $a, b$  are coprime to  $p$  and have order  $2^j \pmod{p}$  (for  $j > 0$ ) then  $ab$  has order  $2^k$  for some  $k < j$ .

*Proof.* Since  $a^{2^j} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ ,  $(a^{2^{j-1}})^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , we have  $a^{2^{j-1}} \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}$ . So we must have  $a^{2^{j-1}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ , since  $\text{ord}(a) = 2^j$ . Similarly  $b^{2^{j-1}} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . Therefore,  $(ab)^{2^{j-1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , so order has to divide  $2^{j-1}$ , so  $k < j$ . ■

*Proof of Tonelli's Algorithm.* First check (by repeated squaring) if  $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ . If not, terminate with "false." So assume now on that  $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ .

Set  $A = a$  and  $b = 1$ . At each step  $a = Ab^2$  ( $a \equiv Ab^2 \pmod p$ ) At the end, want  $A = 1$ , so  $b$  is square root of  $a \pmod p$ .

Each step: decrease the power of 2 dividing the order of  $A$ . To start with,  $A^{(p-1)/2} = A^{2^{s-1}t} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ . Check if  $A^{(p-1)/4} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ .

If not, then  $A^{2^{s-2}t} \equiv -1 \pmod p$  (since  $(A^{2^{s-2}t})^2 \equiv 1 \pmod p$ ). So powers of 2 dividing  $\text{ord}(A)$  is exactly  $2^{s-1}$ . Same as the power of 2 dividing  $\text{ord}(c^2) = 2^{s-1}$ . So set  $A = Ac^{-2}$ ,  $b = bc \pmod p$ . Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} (Ac^{-2})^{2^{s-2}t} &= \frac{A^{2^{s-2}t}}{c^{2^{s-1}t}} \\ &\equiv (-1)(-1)^t \\ &\equiv 1 \pmod p \end{aligned}$$

$\text{ord}(Ac^{-2})$  divides  $2^{s-2}t$ , so power of 2 dividing the order is at most  $2^{s-2}$ , so has decreased by 1.

If yes, (ie.,  $A^{2^{s-2}t} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ ), do nothing.

Next step: check if  $A^{2^{s-3}t} = A^{(p-1)/8} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ .

If no, (ie.,  $A^{2^{s-3}t} \equiv -1 \pmod p$ , set  $A := Ac^{-4}$ ,  $b := bc^2$  ( $c^4$  has order  $2^{s-2}$ ).  $(Ac^{-4})^{2^{s-3}t} \equiv 1$ .

If yes, do nothing.

After at most  $s$  steps we'll reach the stage when  $a \equiv Ab^2 \pmod p$  and the power of 2 dividing  $\text{ord}(A)$  is 1 - ie.,  $\text{ord}(A)$  is odd. Now we just compute a square root of  $A$  as follows:  $\text{ord}(A)$  odd and divides  $p-1 \equiv 2^s t$ , so divides  $t$ . So  $A^t \equiv 1 \pmod p$  ( $t$  odd). Claim  $A^{(t+1)/2}$  is a square root of  $A \pmod p$ .

$$\begin{aligned} (A^{(t+1)/2})^2 &= A^{t+1} \\ &= A^t A \\ &\equiv 1 \cdot A \\ &\equiv A \pmod p \end{aligned}$$

So algorithm just returns  $bA^{(t+1)/2}$  as  $\sqrt{a}$  ■

**Eg.** If  $p \equiv 3 \pmod 4$ ,  $a$  is quadratic residue mod  $p$ , then a square root of  $a$  is  $a^{(p+1)/4}$  (square =  $a^{(p+1)/2} = a^{(p-1)/2}a \equiv a \pmod p$ )

Efficient poly-log time assuming we can find a quadratic non-residue  $n$  efficiently. A random number is quadratic non-residue with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$  so if

we run  $k$  trials, probability of not getting a quadratic non-residue is  $\frac{1}{2}^k$  which is  $\frac{1}{p^k}$  if  $k$  is  $\log p$ . So, this is an efficient randomized algorithm. No efficient deterministic algorithm has yet been found. Simplest is to check all primes, expect quadratic non-residue mod  $p$  which is less than  $c(\log(p))^2 \Rightarrow$  true if assume ERH.

**Question:** Pairs of squares problem. How many numbers  $x \pmod p$  such that  $x$  and  $x + 1 \pmod p$  are both squares mod  $p$ ?

Rough heuristic - if  $x, x + 1$  were independent, roughly  $\frac{p}{4}$  solutions.

Define  $(0|p) = 0$ . Then  $\sum_{x \pmod p} (x|p) = 0$ . Also, number of solutions to  $y^2 \equiv x \pmod p$  for fixed  $x$  is  $1 + (x|p)$ . Also, if  $x \not\equiv 0$  then  $\frac{1}{2}(1 + (x|p))$  is 1 if  $x$  is a square, 0 if  $x$  is not a square.

So, number of  $x$  that  $x, x + 1$  are squares:

$$\underbrace{1}_{x=0} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(1 + (-1|p))}_{x=-1} + \sum_{\substack{x \pmod p \\ x \neq 0, -1}} \frac{1}{2}(1 + (x|p)) \frac{1}{2}(1 + (x+1|p))$$

Now

$$\sum_{\substack{x \pmod p \\ x \neq 0, -1}} \frac{1}{4}(1 + (x|p) + (x+1|p) + (x|p)(x+1|p))$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{4} \sum 1 &= \frac{p-2}{4} \\
\frac{1}{4} \sum (x|p) &= \frac{1}{4} \left( \sum_{\text{all}} (x|p) - (0|p) - (-1|p) \right) \\
&= -\frac{1}{4}(-1|p) \\
\frac{1}{4} \sum (x+1|p) &= \frac{1}{4} \left( \sum_{\text{all}} (x+1|p) - (1|p) - (0|p) \right) \\
&= -\frac{1}{4} \\
\frac{1}{4} \sum (x|p)(x+1|p) &= \frac{1}{4} \sum (x|p)^{-1}(x+1|p) \\
&= \frac{1}{4} \sum \left( \left( \frac{x+1}{x} | p \right) \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{x \neq 0, -1} \left( \left( 1 + \frac{1}{x} | p \right) \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{x \neq 0, -1} (x|p) \\
&= -\frac{1}{4}
\end{aligned}$$

Add them up to get

$$\frac{p+2+(-1|p)}{4}$$

If we want  $x-1, x, x+1$  to all be squares, much more complicated

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