# Primary Elements in Cyclotomic Fields with Applications to Power Residue Symbols, and More 

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#### Abstract

Higher-order power residues have enabled the construction of numerous public-key encryption schemes, authentication schemes, and digital signatures. Their explicit characterization is however challenging; an algorithm of Caranay and Scheidler computes $p^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbols, with $p \leqslant 13$ an odd prime, provided that primary elements in the corresponding cyclotomic field can be efficiently found. In this paper, we describe a new, generic algorithm to compute primary elements in cyclotomic fields; which we apply for $p=3,5,7,11,13$. A key insight is a careful selection of fundamental units as put forward by Dénes. This solves an essential step in the Caranay-Scheidler algorithm. We give a unified view of the problem. Finally, we provide the first efficient deterministic algorithm for the computation of the $9^{\text {th }}$ and $16^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbols.


## 1 MOTIVATION

Quadratic residues played a central role in building the first provably secure public-key cryptosystems [10]. A number is a quadratic residue modulo $n$ when it can be expressed as the square of an integer modulo $n$, although that integer may be hard to find. This notion, along with generalizations to higher powers (called higher-order power residues), have enabled the construction of numerous public-key encryption schemes, authentication schemes, and digital signatures $[26,21,22,1,2,18]$.

The computation of $p^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbols, when $p$ is an odd prime $\leqslant 13$, can be performed by a generic algorithm of Caranay and Scheidler [4, § 7], although the concrete implementation for a given $p$ remains challenging (see, e.g., [12] for the $11^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbol and [3] for the $13^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbol). The computation of the $4^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbol [25, 7] and of the $8^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbol [15, Chap. 9] (see also [11]) was solved independently. Finally, a generic algorithm was proposed by de Boer and Pagano [8], but it is inherently a probabilistic method which makes it unusable in most cryptographic settings. This leaves open the question to deterministically compute $9^{\text {th }}$ residue symbols, and all power residue symbols above the $13^{\text {th }}$.

In this paper, we provide a unified and simplified approach to compute primary elements in cyclotomic fields, encompassing all previously-known results. This makes the Caranay-Scheidler algorithm practical, as it fundamentally relies on the (hitherto specialized) determination of primary elements. We also describe efficient deterministic algorithms for computing the $9^{\text {th }}$ and $16^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbols, which were open problems.

## 2 DEFINITIONS AND NOTATION

Throughout this paper, unless otherwise specified, $p \leqslant 13$ denotes an odd rational prime.
Let $\zeta:=\zeta_{p}=e^{2 \pi i / p}$ be a primitive $p^{\text {th }}$ of unity and let $\omega=1-\zeta$. The ring of integers in the cyclotomic field $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$ is $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$. It is known to be norm-Euclidean $[16,14]$; in particular, $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ is a unique factorization domain. Two elements $\alpha$ and $\beta$ of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ are called associates if they differ only by a unit factor. We write $\alpha \sim \beta \Longleftrightarrow \exists v \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]^{\times}$ such that $\alpha=v \beta$. The element $\omega$ is a prime in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ above $p$; we have $\omega^{p-1} \sim p$.

Since $\zeta$ is a root of the $p^{\text {th }}$ cyclotomic polynomial, $\Phi_{p}(z)=z^{p-1}+\cdots+z+1$, any algebraic integer $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ can be expressed as

$$
\alpha=\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} a_{j} \zeta^{j} \quad \text { with } a_{j} \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

The powers $\omega^{k}$ with $0 \leqslant k \leqslant p-2$ also form an integral basis of $\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$. Given $\alpha=\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} a_{j} \zeta^{j}$, an application of the binomial theorem leads to

$$
\begin{align*}
\alpha & =\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} a_{j} \zeta^{j}=\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} a_{j}(1-\omega)^{j}=\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} a_{j} \sum_{k=0}^{j}\binom{j}{k}(-\omega)^{k}=\sum_{k=0}^{p-2} \sum_{j=k}^{p-2} a_{j}\binom{j}{k}(-\omega)^{k} \\
& :=\sum_{k=0}^{p-2} \mathrm{C}_{k}(\alpha) \omega^{k} \quad \text { where } \mathrm{C}_{k}(\alpha)=(-1)^{k} \sum_{j=k}^{p-2} a_{j}\binom{j}{k} . \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

Namely, an algebraic integer $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ can be equally written as $\alpha=\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} c_{j} \omega^{j}$ with $c_{j}=\mathrm{C}_{j}(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}$. Note also that writing $\alpha=\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} a_{j} \zeta^{j}$, we have $\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)=\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} a_{j}$ and $\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha)=-\sum_{j=1}^{p-2} a_{j} j$.

The norm and trace of $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ are the rational integers respectively given by $\mathbf{N}(\alpha)=\prod_{k=1}^{p-1} \sigma_{k}(\alpha)$ and $\mathbf{T}(\alpha)=\sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \sigma_{k}(\alpha)$, where $\sigma_{k}: \zeta \mapsto \zeta^{k}$. Note that $\mathbf{T}(\alpha) \equiv-\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)(\bmod p)$. The complex conjugate of $\alpha$ is $\sigma_{-1}(\alpha)$ and is denoted by $\bar{\alpha}$. If $\bar{\alpha}=\alpha$ then $\alpha$ is said to be real.

## 3 PRIMARY ELEMENTS

We start with the definition as given by Kummer [13, p. 158]. We use the notations of the previous section.
Definition 1. An element $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ is said to be primary whenever it satisfies

$$
\alpha \not \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod \omega), \quad \alpha \equiv B \quad\left(\bmod \omega^{2}\right), \quad \alpha \bar{\alpha} \equiv B^{2} \quad(\bmod p)
$$

for some $B \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Remark 1. If only the two first conditions are met, $\alpha$ is said to be semi-primary.
The next two propositions establish simple criteria for semi-primary and primary elements.
Proposition 1. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$. Then $\alpha$ is semi-primary if $\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ and $\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$.
Proof. From Eq. (1), we get $\alpha \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)+\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha) \omega\left(\bmod \omega^{2}\right)$. Hence, letting $B=\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have (i) $\alpha \not \equiv 0$ $(\bmod \omega) \Longleftrightarrow \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \not \equiv 0(\bmod \omega)$ and $(\mathrm{ii}) \alpha \equiv B\left(\bmod \omega^{2}\right) \Longleftrightarrow \mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha) \omega \equiv 0\left(\bmod \omega^{2}\right) \Longleftrightarrow \mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha) \equiv 0$ $(\bmod \omega)$. As rational integers are congruent modulo $\omega$ if and only if they are congruent modulo $p$, we so obtain the equivalent conditions (i) $\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ and (ii) $\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$.

Lemma 1. If $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta], \alpha \not \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)(\bmod p)$, is real then $\alpha \equiv B+C \omega^{2 k}\left(\bmod \omega^{2 k+1}\right)$ for some $B, C \in \mathbb{Z}, C \not \equiv 0$ $(\bmod p)$, and $1 \leqslant k \leqslant \frac{p-3}{2}$. Moreover, $k$ is uniquely determined by $\alpha$.

Proof. Given $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$, we can uniquely express $\alpha$ as $\alpha=\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)+\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha) \omega+\cdots+\mathrm{C}_{p-2}(\alpha) \omega^{p-2}$. Now, since $\alpha \not \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)(\bmod p)$, there exists an index $1 \leqslant j \leqslant p-2$ with $\mathrm{C}_{j}(\alpha) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$-recall that $p \sim \omega^{p-1}$. If we set $m=\arg \min _{1 \leqslant j \leqslant p-2}\left(\mathrm{C}_{j}(\alpha) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)\right)$, we can write $\alpha \equiv B+C \omega^{m}\left(\bmod \omega^{m+1}\right)$ with $B=\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)$ and $C=\mathrm{C}_{m}(\alpha)$. Its complex conjugate verifies $\bar{\alpha} \equiv B+C \bar{\omega}^{m} \equiv B+C\left(-\sum_{j=1}^{m} \omega^{j}\right)^{m} \equiv B+C(-\omega)^{m}\left(\bmod \omega^{m+1}\right)$. The condition $\alpha$ being real (i.e., $\alpha=\bar{\alpha}$ ) implies that $m$ is even; say, $m=2 k \in\{1, \ldots, p-2\} \Longleftrightarrow 1 \leqslant k \leqslant \frac{p-3}{2}$.

Proposition 2. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$, $\alpha$ semi-primary. Then $\alpha$ is primary if $\mathrm{C}_{2 j}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ for all $1 \leqslant j \leqslant \frac{p-3}{2}$.
Proof. Define $B=\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)$ and $\beta=\alpha \bar{\alpha}$. From $\beta \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\beta)+\mathrm{C}_{1}(\beta) \omega+\cdots+\mathrm{C}_{p-2}(\beta) \omega^{p-2}(\bmod p)$ and since $p \sim \omega^{p-1}$, we have $\mathrm{C}_{0}(\beta) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)^{2} \equiv B^{2}(\bmod \omega) \Longleftrightarrow \mathrm{C}_{0}(\beta) \equiv B^{2}(\bmod p)$. Consequently, the third condition in Definition 1 becomes $\mathrm{C}_{j}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod \omega) \Longleftrightarrow \mathrm{C}_{j}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, for all $1 \leqslant j \leqslant p-2$.

If $\beta \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\beta)(\bmod p)$ then $\beta \equiv B^{2}(\bmod p)$ and thus $\alpha$ is primary. We henceforth assume that $\beta \neq \mathrm{C}_{0}(\beta)$ $(\bmod p))$. Noticing that $\beta=\alpha \bar{\alpha}$ is real, we can apply Lemma 1. We obtain $\beta \equiv B^{2}+C \omega^{2 k}\left(\bmod \omega^{2 k+1}\right)$ for some $1 \leqslant k \leqslant \frac{p-3}{2}$ and where $C \equiv \mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\beta)(\bmod p)$. In particular, this implies $\mathrm{C}_{1}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. Furthermore, by assumption, $\mathrm{C}_{2 j}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ for all $1 \leqslant j \leqslant \frac{p-3}{2}$. It remains to show that $\mathrm{C}_{2 j+1}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ for all $1 \leqslant j \leqslant \frac{p-3}{2}$. This follows by successive applications of Lemma $1: \mathrm{C}_{1}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ and $\mathrm{C}_{2}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ imply $C_{3}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$; in turn, together with $\mathrm{C}_{4}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ imply $\mathrm{C}_{5}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$; and so on... until $\mathrm{C}_{p-2}(\beta) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$.

## 4 OBTAINING PRIMARY ASSOCIATES

As a consequence of Dirichlet's unit theorem, the group of units of $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ is the direct product of $\langle \pm \zeta\rangle$ and a free abelian group $\mathcal{E}$ of rank $r=\frac{p-3}{2}$. The generators of $\mathcal{E}$ are called fundamental units and will be denoted by $\eta_{1}, \ldots, \eta_{r}$.

The next proposition states that among the associates of an algebraic integer, we may distinguish one (up to the sign) which is primary. Clearly, from Definition 1 , if $\alpha^{*}$ is primary then $-\alpha^{*}$ is also primary.

Proposition 3. Every element $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ with $\alpha \not \equiv 0(\bmod \omega)$ has a primary associate $\alpha^{*}$ of the form

$$
\alpha^{*}= \pm \zeta^{e_{0}} \eta_{1}{ }^{e_{1}} \cdots \eta_{r}^{e_{r}} \alpha \quad \text { where } 0 \leqslant e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r} \leqslant p-1
$$

Moreover, $\alpha^{*}$ is unique up to its sign.
Proof. See [4, Lemma 2.6].
The following lemma is useful.
Lemma 2. If $\alpha, \alpha^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ are semi-primary then so is $\alpha \alpha^{\prime}$.
Proof. Let $\alpha, \alpha^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ with $\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha), \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ and $\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. Write $\alpha=$ $\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} a_{j} \zeta^{j}$. It is worth seeing that $\alpha^{p} \equiv\left(a_{0}+a_{1} \zeta+\cdots+a_{p-2} \zeta^{p-2}\right)^{p} \equiv \sum_{j=0}^{p-2} a_{j} \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)(\bmod p)$, and similarly for $\alpha^{\prime}$. Hence, we obtain $\mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right) \equiv\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right)^{p} \equiv \alpha^{p} \alpha^{\prime p} \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)(\bmod p)$.

Moreover, from $\alpha \omega=\sum_{k=0}^{p-2} \mathrm{C}_{k}(\alpha) \omega^{k+1} \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-2} \mathrm{C}_{k-1}(\alpha) \omega^{k}+\mathrm{C}_{p-2}(\alpha) \omega^{p-1} \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-2} \mathrm{C}_{k-1}(\alpha) \omega^{k}(\bmod p)$ and $\alpha \omega=\sum_{k=0}^{p-2} \mathrm{C}_{k}(\alpha \omega) \omega^{k} \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{p-2} \mathrm{C}_{k}(\alpha \omega) \omega^{k}(\bmod p)$ since $\mathrm{C}_{0}(\omega)=0$, it follows that $\mathrm{C}_{k}(\alpha \omega) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{k-1}(\alpha)$ $(\bmod p)$, for $1 \leqslant k \leqslant p-2$. In particular, we have $\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha \omega) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)(\bmod p)$. Letting $\alpha^{\prime}=\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} c_{j}^{\prime} \omega^{j}$ with $c_{j}^{\prime}=\mathrm{C}_{j}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)$, we so get $\mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha \sum_{j=0}^{p-2} c_{j}^{\prime} \omega^{j}\right)=\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} c_{j}^{\prime} \mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha \omega^{j}\right) \equiv c_{0}^{\prime} \mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha)+\sum_{j=1}^{p-2} c_{j}^{\prime} \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha \omega^{j-1}\right) \equiv$ $c_{0}^{\prime} \mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha)+c_{1}^{\prime} \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)+\sum_{j=2}^{p-2} c_{j}^{\prime} \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \mathrm{C}_{0}(\omega)^{j-1} \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right) C_{1}(\alpha)+\mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right) \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)(\bmod p)$.

As a result, from $\mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)(\bmod p)$ and $\mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)+\mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right) \mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha)(\bmod p)$, we get $\mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ and $\mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$; that is, $\alpha \alpha^{\prime}$ is semi-primary.

Theorem 1. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ with $\alpha \not \equiv 0(\bmod \omega)$. Then $\alpha \zeta^{s}$ with $s=\frac{\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha)}{\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)} \bmod p$ is semi-primary.
Proof. Note that the condition $\alpha \not \equiv 0(\bmod \omega)$ is equivalent to $\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. Let $\alpha^{[1]}=\alpha \zeta^{s}$ with $s=\frac{\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha)}{\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)} \bmod p$. We need to check the conditions of Proposition 1. In the proof of Lemma 2, we showed that, for every $\alpha, \alpha^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta], \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)(\bmod p)$ and $\mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha \alpha^{\prime}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)+\mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right) \mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha)(\bmod p)$. By induction, we therefore get $\mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\zeta^{s}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\zeta)^{s} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$ and $\mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\zeta^{s}\right) \equiv s \mathrm{C}_{1}(\zeta) \equiv-s(\bmod p)$. So, we have $\mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha^{[1]}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha \zeta^{s}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\zeta^{s}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)(\bmod p)$ and thus $\mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha^{[1]}\right) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$. We also have $\mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha^{[1]}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha \zeta^{s}\right) \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\zeta^{s}\right)+\mathrm{C}_{0}(\zeta)^{s} \mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha) \equiv-s \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)+\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ since $s=\frac{\mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha)}{\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha)} \bmod p$.

Theorem 1 provides an efficient way to produce a semi-primary associate. Now, suppose we are given two semi-primary integers $\alpha, \varepsilon_{k} \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$. Lemma 2 teaches that $\alpha \varepsilon_{k}$ is also semi-primary. The same holds true by induction for $\alpha \leftarrow \alpha \varepsilon_{k}{ }^{e_{k}}$, for any exponent $e_{k} \geqslant 1$.

Suppose further that the resulting $\alpha$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{C}_{2 j}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod p) \quad \text { for all } 1 \leqslant j \leqslant k \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

As will become apparent (cf. Theorem 2), by Proposition 2, iterating this process for $k=1, \ldots, \frac{p-3}{2}$ eventually yields a primary element. Moreover, if all involved $\varepsilon_{k}$ are units then the so-obtained primary element is also an associate. In order to make the above process work, the updating step (i.e., $\alpha \leftarrow \alpha \varepsilon_{k}{ }^{e_{k}}$ ) should be such that Equation (2) remains fulfilled for the new $\alpha$ when $k$ is incremented. This can achieved by selecting real units $\varepsilon_{k}$ of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon_{k} \equiv E_{k}+F_{k} \omega^{2 k} \quad\left(\bmod \omega^{2 k+1}\right) \quad \text { with } E_{k}, F_{k} \in \mathbb{Z} \text { and } E_{k}, F_{k} \not \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod p), \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $1 \leqslant k \leqslant \frac{p-3}{2}$; cf. Lemma 1. Note that as defined by Eq. (3), units $\varepsilon_{k}$ are semi-primary.
Theorem 2. Given some integer $k \geqslant 1$, let $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$, $\alpha$ semi-primary, such that $\mathrm{C}_{2 j}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ for all $1 \leqslant j \leqslant k-1$ and a real unit $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ such that $\varepsilon \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon)+\mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\varepsilon) \omega^{2 k}\left(\bmod \omega^{2 k+1}\right)$ with $\mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon), \mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\varepsilon) \not \equiv 0$ $(\bmod p)$. Then $\alpha^{\prime}:=\alpha \varepsilon^{t}$ with $t=-\frac{\mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon)}{2 \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\varepsilon)} \bmod p$ is semi-primary and $\mathrm{C}_{2 j}\left(\alpha^{\prime} \overline{\alpha^{\prime}}\right) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ for all $1 \leqslant j \leqslant k$.

Proof. Since $\varepsilon$ is semi-primary, $\alpha^{\prime}=\alpha \varepsilon^{t}$ is semi-primary for any $t$ by Lemma 2. Further, since $\varepsilon$ is real (i.e., $\varepsilon=\bar{\varepsilon}$ ), it follows that $\alpha^{\prime} \overline{\alpha^{\prime}}=\alpha \bar{\alpha} \varepsilon^{2 t}$. From Lemma 1, as $\alpha \bar{\alpha}$ is real and since $\mathrm{C}_{2 j}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ for all $1 \leqslant j \leqslant k-1$, we deduce that $\alpha \bar{\alpha} \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha \bar{\alpha})+\mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \omega^{2 k}\left(\bmod \omega^{2 k+1}\right)$. Hence, we get $\alpha^{\prime} \overline{\alpha^{\prime}} \equiv$ $\left(\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha \bar{\alpha})+\mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \omega^{2 k}\right)\left(\mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon)+\mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\varepsilon) \omega^{2 k}\right)^{2 t} \equiv\left(\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha \bar{\alpha})+\mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \omega^{2 k}\right)\left(\mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon)^{2 t}+2 t \mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon)^{2 t-1} \mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\varepsilon) \omega^{2 k}\right)$ $\left(\bmod \omega^{2 k+1}\right)$ and thus $\mathrm{C}_{2 k}\left(\alpha^{\prime} \overline{\alpha^{\prime}}\right) \equiv 2 t \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon)^{2 t-1} \mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\varepsilon)+\mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon)^{2 t}(\bmod p)$. Consequently, since $\mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, we so have $\mathrm{C}_{2 k}\left(\alpha^{\prime} \overline{\alpha^{\prime}}\right) \equiv 0(\bmod p) \Longleftrightarrow 2 t \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\varepsilon)+\mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon) \equiv 0$ $(\bmod p) \Longleftrightarrow t \equiv-\frac{\mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon)}{2 \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\varepsilon)}(\bmod p)$ since $\mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)(\alpha \bar{\alpha}$ being semi-primary from Lemma 2) and $\mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\varepsilon) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$ by assumption.

The existence of a set of fundamental real units $\left\{\varepsilon_{1}, \ldots, \varepsilon_{r}\right\}$ with $r=\frac{p-3}{2}$ of the form (3) is a result of Dénes [9]; see also [20, pp. 192-193] and [23, Theorem 2]. Let $\varepsilon^{+}=\left(\zeta^{g / 2}-\zeta^{-g / 2}\right) /\left(\zeta^{\frac{1}{2}}-\zeta^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right)$ where $g$ is an odd primitive root modulo $p$. Then the units $\varepsilon_{k}, 1 \leqslant k \leqslant r$, given by

$$
\begin{align*}
\varepsilon_{k} & =\left(\varepsilon^{+}\right)^{\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} \sigma_{g}{ }^{j} g^{-2 j k} \bmod p \quad \text { where } \sigma_{g}: \zeta \mapsto \zeta^{g}} \\
& =\prod_{j=0}^{p-2}\left(\frac{\zeta^{\frac{g^{j+1}}{2}}-\zeta^{-\frac{g^{j+1}}{2}}}{\zeta^{\frac{g^{j}}{2}}-\zeta^{-\frac{g^{j}}{2}}}\right)^{g^{-2 j k} \bmod p} \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

are real and satisfy Equation (3) with $E_{k} \equiv \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\varepsilon_{k}\right)(\bmod p)$ and $F_{k} \equiv \mathrm{C}_{2 k}\left(\varepsilon_{k}\right)(\bmod p)$.
We now have all the ingredients to obtain a primary element $\alpha^{*}$ as per Proposition 3. Starting with $\alpha^{[0]} \leftarrow \alpha$ and iterating as

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\alpha^{[1]} \leftarrow \alpha^{[0]} \zeta^{e_{0}} \text { with } e_{0}=\frac{\mathrm{C}_{1}\left(\alpha^{[0]}\right)}{\mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\alpha^{[0]}\right)} \bmod p \quad \text { (Theorem 1) } \\
\alpha^{[k+1]} \leftarrow \alpha^{[k]} \varepsilon_{k}{ }^{e_{k}} \text { with } e_{k}=-\frac{\mathrm{C}_{2 k}\left(\beta^{[k]}\right) \mathrm{C}_{0}(\varepsilon)}{2 \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\beta^{[k]}\right) \mathrm{C}_{2 k}(\varepsilon)} \bmod p \quad \text { (Theorem 2), for } 1 \leqslant k \leqslant r
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\beta^{[k]}=\alpha^{[k]} \overline{\alpha^{[k]}}$ and $r=\frac{p-3}{2}$, we obtain $\alpha^{[r+1]} \leftarrow \alpha^{[0]} \zeta^{e_{0}} \varepsilon_{1}^{e_{1}} \cdots \varepsilon_{r}{ }^{e_{r}}$, which is primary. Knowing that two primary associates only differ by a $p^{\text {th }}$-power unit, exponents $e_{j}(0 \leqslant j \leqslant r)$ can be reduced modulo $p$. Finally, if the resulting primary associate has to be expressed with respect to a given set of fundamental units $\left\{\eta_{1}, \ldots, \eta_{r}\right\}$, from the decompositions $\varepsilon_{j}=\zeta^{f_{j}, 0} \prod_{k=1}^{r} \eta_{k} f_{j, k}$ with $f_{j, k} \in \mathbb{Z}$, we write $\alpha^{[r+1]} \leftarrow \alpha^{[0]} \zeta^{e_{0}} \prod_{j=1}^{r} \varepsilon_{j}^{e_{j}}=$ $\alpha^{[0]} \zeta^{e_{0}} \prod_{j=1}^{r}\left(\zeta^{e_{j} f_{j}, 0} \prod_{k=1}^{r} \eta_{k} e_{j} f_{j, k}\right)=\alpha^{[0]} \zeta^{e_{0}^{\prime}} \prod_{k=1}^{r} \eta_{k}{ }^{e_{k}^{\prime}}$ where $e_{0}^{\prime}=e_{0}+\sum_{j=1}^{r} e_{j} f_{j, 0}$ and $e_{k}^{\prime}=\sum_{j=1}^{r} e_{j} f_{j, k}$, for $1 \leqslant k \leqslant r$, or using matrix notation,

$$
\left(e_{0}^{\prime}, \ldots, e_{r}^{\prime}\right)=\mathcal{T}\left(e_{0}, \ldots, e_{r}\right) \quad \text { with } \mathcal{T}\left(e_{0}, \ldots, e_{r}\right)=\left[\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & f_{1,0} & \ldots & f_{r, 0} \\
0 & f_{1,1} & \ldots & f_{r, 1} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
0 & f_{1, r} & \ldots & f_{r, r}
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}
e_{0} \\
e_{1} \\
\vdots \\
e_{r}
\end{array}\right)\right]^{\top}
$$

We define

$$
\alpha^{*}=\alpha^{[0]} \zeta^{e_{0}^{\prime} \bmod p} \eta_{1}^{e_{1}^{\prime} \bmod p} \cdots \eta_{r}^{e_{r}^{\prime} \bmod p}
$$

Putting it all together, this yields a generic algorithm for finding primary associates along with their representation; see Algorithm 1. On input $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ with $\mathbf{T}(\alpha) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)$, the algorithm outputs the primary associate $\alpha^{*}$ with respect to basis $\left\{\eta_{1}, \ldots, \eta_{r}\right\}$ and the representation vector $\left(e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right)$, such that $\alpha^{*}=\zeta^{e_{0}} \eta_{1}{ }^{e_{1}} \cdots \eta_{r} e_{r} \alpha$. We write primary $(\alpha) \leftarrow \alpha^{*}$ and $\operatorname{repr}(\alpha) \leftarrow\left(e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right)$. The algorithm internally makes use of the set of real units $\left\{\varepsilon_{1}, \ldots, \varepsilon_{r}\right\}$ as defined in Eq. (4) and corresponding conversion transform $\mathcal{T}$.

## 5 COMPUTING SYMBOLS

If $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ is norm-Euclidean, there exists for all pairs $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ with $\beta \neq 0$ an element $\rho \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ such that $\alpha \equiv \rho(\bmod \beta)$ and $\mathbf{N}(\rho)<\mathbf{N}(\beta)$. Explicit algorithms for finding $\rho$ are known; see [16] for $p \leqslant 11$ and [17] for $p=13$. We refer to such an algorithm as euclid_div(). The Caranay-Scheidler algorithm [4] (initially given in the context of $p=7$ ) can then be extended to compute higher-order power residue symbols. Recall that $\omega=1-\zeta$. For $\alpha, \pi \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ with $\pi$ a prime such that $\pi \nsim \omega$ and $\pi \nmid \alpha$, the $p^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbol $\left[\frac{\alpha}{\pi}\right]_{p}$ is defined to be the $p^{\text {th }}$ root of unity $\zeta^{i}$ such that

$$
\alpha^{(\mathbf{N}(\pi)-1) / p} \equiv \zeta^{i} \quad(\bmod \pi)
$$

and the integer $i$ is called the index of $\alpha$ with respect to $\pi$, henceforth denoted $\operatorname{ind}_{\pi}(\alpha)$. In a way similar to the Legendre symbol, the definition generalizes: If $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ is non-unit and $\operatorname{gcd}(\lambda, \omega) \sim 1$ then, writing $\lambda=\prod_{j} \pi_{j}{ }^{{ }_{j}}$

```
Algorithm 1: Computing \(\alpha^{*} \sim \alpha\) and its representation
    Input: \(\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]\) with \(\mathbf{T}(\alpha) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)\)
    Output: \(\alpha^{*} \leftarrow \operatorname{primary}(\alpha)\) and \(\left(e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right) \leftarrow \operatorname{repr}(\alpha)\) with \(\alpha^{*}=\zeta^{e_{0}} \eta_{1}^{e_{1}} \cdots \eta_{r}^{e_{r}} \alpha\) and \(r=\frac{p-3}{2}\)
    \(e_{0} \leftarrow \mathrm{C}_{1}(\alpha) / \mathrm{C}_{0}(\alpha) \bmod p\)
    \(\alpha \leftarrow \zeta^{e_{0}} \alpha ; \beta \leftarrow \alpha \bar{\alpha}\)
    for \(k=1\) to \(\frac{p-3}{2}\) do
        \(e_{k} \leftarrow-\frac{\mathrm{C}_{2 k}^{2}(\beta) \mathrm{C}_{0}\left(\varepsilon_{k}\right)}{2 \mathrm{C}_{0}(\beta) \mathrm{C}_{2 k}\left(\varepsilon_{k}\right)} \bmod p\)
        \(\beta \leftarrow \beta \varepsilon_{k}^{2 e_{k}}\)
    end
    \(\left(e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right) \leftarrow \tau\left(e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right) \bmod p\)
    \(\alpha^{*} \leftarrow \zeta^{e_{0}} \eta_{1}{ }^{e_{1}} \cdots \eta_{r}{ }^{e_{r}} \alpha\)
    return \(\left[\alpha^{*},\left(e_{0}, e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}\right)\right]\)
```

for primes $\pi_{j}$ in $\mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$, the (generalized) $p^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbol $\left[\frac{\alpha}{\lambda}\right]_{p}$ is defined as $\left[\frac{\alpha}{\lambda}\right]_{p}=\prod_{j}\left[\frac{\alpha}{\pi_{j}}\right]_{p}^{e_{j}}$. Provided that $p$ is a regular prime (which is verified for all odd primes $p \leqslant 13$ ), Kummer's reciprocity law [13] states that for any two primary elements $\alpha, \lambda \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$,

$$
\left[\frac{\alpha}{\lambda}\right]_{p}=\left[\frac{\lambda}{\alpha}\right]_{p} .
$$

This leads to Algorithm 2 given below (where for compactness we have set $\eta_{0}=\zeta$ ).

```
Algorithm 2: Computing the \(p^{\text {th }}\) power residue symbol
    Input: \(\alpha, \lambda \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]\) with \(\operatorname{gcd}(\alpha, \lambda) \sim 1\) and \(\mathbf{T}(\lambda) \not \equiv 0(\bmod p)\)
    Output: \(\left[\frac{\alpha}{\lambda}\right]_{p}\)
    \(\lambda^{*} \leftarrow \operatorname{primary}(\lambda)\)
    \(j \leftarrow 0\)
    while \(\mathbf{N}\left(\lambda^{*}\right)>1\) do
        \(\rho \leftarrow\) euclid_div( \(\left.\alpha, \lambda^{*}\right)\)
        \(s \leftarrow 0\)
        while \(\mathbf{T}(\rho) \equiv 0(\bmod p)\) do
            \(s \leftarrow s+1\)
            \(\rho \leftarrow \rho \div \omega\)
        end
        \(\left[\rho^{*},\left(e_{0}, \ldots, e_{r}\right)\right] \leftarrow[\operatorname{primary}(\rho), \operatorname{repr}(\rho)]\)
        \(j \leftarrow j+s \cdot \operatorname{ind}_{\lambda^{*}}(\omega)\)
        for \(i=0\) to \(r\) do
            \(j \leftarrow j-e_{i} \cdot \operatorname{ind}_{\lambda^{*}}\left(\eta_{i}\right)\)
        end
        \(\alpha \leftarrow \lambda^{*} ; \lambda^{*} \leftarrow \rho^{*}\)
    end
    return \(\zeta^{j}\)
```


## 6 NINTH- AND SIXTEENTH-POWER RESIDUE SYMBOLS

In this section, we study the $9^{\text {th }}-$ and the $16^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbols.
$9^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbol For $p=9$, the ring $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{9}\right]$ is known to be norm-Euclidean [5]; see [6, §3] for a division algorithm. The previous framework does not readily apply to this case; we nevertheless still obtain a reciprocity law and complementary laws through decomposition. Let $\zeta:=\zeta_{9}$ and $\omega=1-\zeta$. For $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ co-prime with $\omega$,
we can write

$$
\alpha=\prod_{i=1}^{15}\left(1+\omega^{i}\right)^{e_{i}} \quad \bmod \omega^{15}, \quad \beta=\prod_{i=1}^{15}\left(1+\omega^{i}\right)^{f_{i}} \quad \bmod \omega^{15}
$$

with integer exponents $e_{i}, f_{i}$ and $e_{1}, f_{1} \in\{0,1\}$. There are $4 \times 15$ integer constants $U_{j, i}$ so that

$$
k_{j}=\sum_{i=1}^{15} U_{j, i} e_{i}
$$

makes the following "complementary laws" hold:

$$
\left[\frac{\zeta}{\alpha}\right]_{9}=z^{k_{1}}, \quad\left[\frac{1+\zeta}{\alpha}\right]_{9}=z^{k_{2}}, \quad\left[\frac{1+\zeta^{2}}{\alpha}\right]_{9}=z^{k_{3}}, \quad\left[\frac{\omega}{\alpha}\right]_{9}=z^{k_{4}} .
$$

Importantly, the constants $U_{j, i}$ do not depend on $\alpha$. Similarly there is a fixed $15 \times 15$ matrix $\left(T_{i, j}\right)$ with integer coefficients so that we have this ninth reciprocity law:

$$
\left[\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right]_{9}=\left[\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right]_{9} \cdot z^{k} \quad \text { where } k=\sum_{i, j} T_{i, j} e_{i} f_{j} .
$$

The matrices are given below:


A complete algorithm for computing the $9^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbol using these matrices is given in Appendix A.
$\mathbf{1 6}^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbol The same can be done very similarly in the norm-Euclidean ring $\mathbb{Z}\left[\zeta_{16}\right]$ (see [19] for a proof of the division property and [ $6, \S 5$ ] for a division algorithm) with $\zeta:=\zeta_{16}$ a $16^{\text {th }}$ root of unity and $\omega=1-\zeta$. Then, for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}[\zeta]$ co-prime with 2 , we can write:

$$
\alpha=\prod_{i=1}^{40}\left(1+\omega^{i}\right)^{e_{i}} \quad \bmod \omega^{41}, \quad \beta=\prod_{i=1}^{40}\left(1+\omega^{i}\right)^{f_{i}} \quad \bmod \omega^{41}
$$

with integer exponents $e_{i}, f_{i}$ and $e_{1}, f_{1} \in\{0,1\}$. There are $5 \times 40$ integer constants $U_{j, i}$ so that

$$
k_{j}=\sum_{i=1}^{40} U_{j, i} e_{i}
$$

makes the following equalities hold:

$$
\left[\frac{\zeta}{\alpha}\right]_{16}=z^{k_{1}}, \quad\left[\frac{1+\zeta+\zeta^{2}}{\alpha}\right]_{16}=z^{k_{2}}, \quad\left[\frac{1+\zeta^{2}+\zeta^{4}}{\alpha}\right]_{16}=z^{k_{3}}, \quad\left[\frac{1+\zeta^{3}+\zeta^{6}}{\alpha}\right]_{16}=z^{k_{4}}, \quad\left[\frac{\omega}{\alpha}\right]_{16}=z^{k_{5}}
$$

Again, the constants $U_{j, i}$ do not depend on $\alpha$. Similarly there is a fixed $40 \times 40$ matrix $\left(T_{i, j}\right)$ with integer coefficients so that we have this sixteenth reciprocity law:

$$
\left[\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right]_{16}=\left[\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right]_{16} \cdot z^{k} \quad \text { where } k=\sum_{i, j} T_{i, j} e_{i} f_{j}
$$

The matrices $T$ and $U$ are given below:



## 7 CONCLUSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

The methods described in this paper enable the computation of $p^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbols up to and including $p=13$ when $p$ is prime. Whether for $p=17$ and $p=19$ there is an Euclidean division seems (to the best of our understanding) currently unknown and perhaps an alternative strategy must be found. The problem gets harder beyond $p=23$, as the ideal class group is no longer trivial, and in particular is difficult for $p=37$ which is not a regular prime (and therefore Kummer's theory does not apply).

We also provide algorithms for the $9^{\text {th }}$ and $16^{\text {th }}$ power residue symbols, which may be extended albeit may require a more compact formulation.

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## A COMPUTING NINTH RESIDUE SYMBOLS

## A. 1 COMMENTED CODE

We use in this section the following conventions: $\perp$ denotes failure, $\lfloor x\rceil$ consists in rounding $x$ arithmetically, and if $P(\zeta)$ be a polynomial in the variable $\zeta$ we denote:

- by $P_{\chi}$ the reduction of $P$ modulo the polynomial $\chi(\zeta)=1+\zeta^{3}+\zeta^{6}$;
- by $P \| \ell\rceil$ the polynomial $P$ in which $\zeta$ was replaced by $\ell$. $\ell$ may be a polynomial in $\zeta$ or any other expression;
- by $f_{c}$ and $f_{n}$ the following functions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{c}[P]=\left(P \llbracket \zeta^{2} \rrbracket \cdot P \llbracket \zeta^{4} \rrbracket \cdot P \llbracket \zeta^{5} \rrbracket \cdot P \llbracket \zeta^{7} \rrbracket \cdot P \llbracket \zeta^{8} \rrbracket\right)_{\chi}, \\
& f_{n}[P]=\left(P \cdot f_{c}[P]\right)_{\chi}
\end{aligned}
$$

The function Random ${ }_{L}$ generates a random integer comprised between $-10^{L}$ and $10^{L}$. In the code we set $L=27$ for the sake of the example to generate numbers $\in\left[-10^{27}, 10^{27}\right]$. The function CoefficientList returns all the coefficients of $\zeta^{i}$ up to the indicated index $\ell \leqslant u$, i.e.:

$$
\operatorname{CoefficientList~}_{\ell}\left[\sum_{i=0}^{u} \epsilon_{i} \zeta^{i}\right]=\left\{\epsilon_{0}, \ldots, \epsilon_{\ell}\right\} .
$$

This section will make use of matrices $T$ and $U$ defined in Section 6 .
We implement both the algorithm and test test functions to experiment with it. The following auxiliary function generates a random prime in the cyclotomic field which is $1 \bmod \omega$.

```
Function FieldRandomPrime []
    p=1
    While[p is composite,
        \alpha\leftarrow1+(1-\zeta) \mp@subsup{\sum}{i=0}{5}\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{i}\cdot\mp@subsup{\mathrm{ Random}}{L}{}
        p\leftarrowfn[\alpha]
    ]
    Return[ }\alpha\chi
```

The following function computes $9^{\text {th }}$ power residues for prime elements $\beta$ and checks the result to validate the algorithm.

```
Function Resid[ }\alpha,\beta
    n\leftarrowfn[\beta]
    \gamma}\leftarrow\mp@subsup{f}{c}{}[\beta
    q\leftarrow(\mp@subsup{\alpha}{}{(n-1)/9}\mp@subsup{)}{\chi}{}\operatorname{mod}n
```



```
        Return[e]
    else
        Return[\perp]
```

Euclidean division is computed by the following function:

```
Function Euclid[\alpha, }\beta\mathrm{ ]
    s\leftarrow{-\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{8},\ldots,-\zeta,-1,0,1,\zeta,\cdots,\zeta}\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{8}
    q}\leftarrow(\frac{\alpha\cdot\mp@subsup{f}{c}{}[\beta]}{\mp@subsup{f}{\boldsymbol{n}}{[\beta]}}\mp@subsup{)}{\chi}{
    {c0,\ldots., c5}}\leftarrow\mp@subsup{\mp@code{CoefficientList}}{5}{}[\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{6}+q
    r\leftarrow \mp@subsup{\sum}{i=0}{5}\lfloor\mp@subsup{c}{i}{}\rceil\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{i}
    construct the list }z\leftarrow{\mp@subsup{f}{n}{}(q-r+\mp@subsup{s}{j}{})\mp@subsup{}}{1\leqslantj\leqslant19}{
    w\leftarrow\operatorname{arg}\mp@subsup{\operatorname{min}}{i}{}z[i]
    r\leftarrowr-sw
    Return[(\alpha-r\beta)}\mp@subsup{\chi}{\chi}{}
```

As its name indicates, OmegaExp computes the $\omega$ expansion of $\alpha$ up to $\omega^{15}$ :

```
Function OmegaExp[ }\alpha\mathrm{ ]
    v \leftarrow \{ 0 \} ^ { 1 6 }
    \eta\leftarrow\alpha
    For[\ell=1, \ell\leqslant15, \ell++,
        While [ffn[\eta-1]m\operatorname{mod}\mp@subsup{3}{}{\ell+1}>0,
            \eta}\leftarrow(\boldsymbol{\eta}(1+(1-\zeta\mp@subsup{)}{}{\ell})\mp@subsup{)}{\chi}{
            v}+
        ]
    ]
    Return[v]
```

The rest of the code tests the algorithm. In the (* Additional laws *) section we generate a random prime $\alpha$ (renamed $A$ for the sake of easier reference) and print it. We then print:

$$
\operatorname{Resid}[\zeta, \alpha], \operatorname{Resid}[1+\zeta, \alpha], \operatorname{Resid}\left[1+\zeta^{2}, \alpha\right], \operatorname{Resid}[1-\zeta, \alpha]
$$

compute $v=0$ megaExp $[\alpha]$ and display the value of:

$$
-\sum_{i=1}^{15} v_{i} \pi_{i} \bmod 9
$$

to visually check that results agree.
In the (* Reciprocity with prime elements *) section we generate and print two random primes $\alpha, \beta$ (again, denoted $A, B$ in the code for easier reference). Here we check visually that primality and coupling results agree, namely that:

$$
(\operatorname{Resid}[\alpha, \beta]-\operatorname{Resid}[\beta, \alpha]) \bmod 9 \equiv 0 \operatorname{megaExp}[\alpha] . T .0 \operatorname{megaExp}[\beta]
$$

In the (* Reciprocity with composite elements *) section we generate five random primes $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}$ and $\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}$. We let: $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2} \alpha_{3}\right)_{\chi}$ and $\beta=\left(\beta_{1} \beta_{2}\right)_{\chi}$. The test here consists in visually testing the equality:

$$
\sum_{x=1}^{3} \sum_{y=1}^{2}\left(\operatorname{Resid}\left[\alpha_{x}, \beta_{y}\right]-\operatorname{Resid}\left[\beta_{y}, \alpha_{x}\right]\right) \bmod 9 \equiv 0 \operatorname{megaExp}[\alpha] . T .0 \operatorname{megaExp}[\beta]
$$

The code then randomly refreshes $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{3}$ and $\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}$. We let again: $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2} \alpha_{3}\right)_{\chi}$ and $\beta=\left(\beta_{1} \beta_{2}\right)_{\chi}$. The program prints for visual inspection the value:

$$
\sum_{x=1}^{3} \sum_{y=1}^{2} \operatorname{Resid}\left[\alpha_{x}, \beta_{y}\right] \bmod 9
$$

Let $w=0$ and $\gamma=\alpha$. We instruct the computer to dynamically update on the screen the value of $f_{n}(\gamma)$ and perform the following operations:

```
While[fn}(\gamma)>1
    w\leftarroww+OmegaExp[\alpha].T.OmegaExp[\beta]
    {\alpha,\beta}}\leftarrow{\beta,\alpha
    \gamma}\leftarrow\operatorname{Euclid}[\alpha,\beta
        While [fn[\gamma] mod 3 \equiv0,
            \gamma\leftarrow(\frac{\gamma\cdotf}{c}[1-\zeta]}\mp@subsup{3}{\chi}{
            w}\leftarroww-\mp@subsup{\pi}{4}{}.0megaExp[\beta]\operatorname{mod}
        ]
    If[\gamma(1)\operatorname{mod}3\equiv2,\quad\gamma\leftarrow-\gamma]
    \alpha
]
```

Finally, we print the value of the symbol, OmegaExp $[\alpha] . T .0 \operatorname{megaExp}[\beta] \bmod 9$.

## A. 2 SOURCE CODE

```
(* Defining cyclotomic field and norm function *)
```



```
fC[\alpha-] := PR[(\alpha/.\zeta->\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{2})(\alpha/.\zeta->\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{4})(\alpha/.\zeta->\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{5})(\alpha/.\zeta->\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{7})(\alpha/.\zeta->\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{8})];
fN[\alpha_] := PR[\alpha fC[\alpha]];
(* Generates a random prime in the cyclotomic field, which is 1 mod \omega *)
FieldRandomPrime[] := Module[{\alpha,p,L},
    {p,L}={1,27};
    While[!PrimeQ[p],
        \alpha=1+(1-\zeta) Sum[RandomInteger[{-1\mp@subsup{0}{}{L},1\mp@subsup{0}{}{L}}]\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{i},{i,0,5}];
        p=fN[\alpha];];
    Return[PR[\alpha]];
];
(* Computing ninth power residue in the case where \beta is a prime element *)
PolyExp := If[#2==0,1,PR[#0[PR[#1^2,#3],Floor[#2/2],#3] #1^Mod[#2,2],#3]]&[#1,#2,#3]&;
```

```
Resid[\mp@subsup{\alpha}{-}{},\mp@subsup{\beta}{-}{\prime}] := Module[{n,\gamma,q,e},
    {n,\gamma}={fN[\beta],fC[\beta]};
    q=PolyExp[\alpha,(n-1)/9,n];
    For [e=0, e\leqslant8,e++,
        If[PR[(q-\zeta}\mp@subsup{}{}{\textrm{e}})\gamma,\textrm{n}]==0,\operatorname{Return}[e]]
    ];
    Return["This should not happen!"];
];
(* Euclidean division - Not proven *)
s = Union[q=Table[\zeta'i},{i,0,8}],-q,{0}]
Euclid[\mp@subsup{\alpha}{-}{},\mp@subsup{\beta}{-}{}] := Module[{q,r,z,w},
    q = PR[\alpha fC[\beta]/fN[\beta]];
    r = Round[Delete[CoefficientList[\zeta6}+\textrm{q},\zeta],-1]].Table[\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{i},{i,0,5}]
    z = fN/@(q-r+s);
    w = Position[z,Min[z]][[1,1]];
    r = r-s[[w]];
    Return[PR[\alpha-r \beta]];
];
(* Compute }\boldsymbol{\omega}\mathrm{ -expansion of }\boldsymbol{\alpha}\mathrm{ up to }\mp@subsup{\omega}{}{\wedge}15 *
OmegaExp[的] := Module[{v,l, \eta},
    v = ConstantArray[0,15];
    \eta=\alpha;
    For[l=1,l\leqslant15,l++,
        While[Mod[fN[\eta-1], 3}\mp@subsup{}{}{1+1}]>0
            \eta = PR[\eta(1+(1-\zeta}\mp@subsup{\zeta}{}{l}))]
            v[[l]]++;
        ];
    ];
    Return[v];
];
53 T =( (lllllllllllllll}
```

(* Additional laws *)
Print[" $\alpha=$ ",A=FieldRandomPrime[]];
Print["Using primality: ",Resid[\#,A]\&/@ $\left.\left\{\zeta, 1+\zeta, 1+\zeta^{2}, 1-\zeta\right\}\right]$;
$\mathrm{v}=0 \mathrm{megaExp}[\mathrm{A}]$;
Print["Using structure: ", Mod[-Sum[v[[i]] U[[i]],\{i, 1, 15\}], 9]];
(* Reciprocity with prime elements *)
Print $["\{\alpha, \beta\}=",\{\mathrm{~A}, \mathrm{~B}\}=$ Array[FieldRandomPrime []\&, 2]];
Print["Using primality: ", Mod[Resid[A, B]-Resid[B,A], 9]];
Print["Using coupling : ",Mod[OmegaExp[A].T.OmegaExp[B],9]];
(* Reciprocity with composite elements *)
$\{\alpha[1], \alpha[2], \alpha[3], \beta[1], \beta[2]\}=$ Array[FieldRandomPrime [] \& , 5];
Print[" $\{\alpha, \beta\}=",\{\mathrm{~A}, \mathrm{~B}\}=\mathrm{PR} / @\{\alpha[1] \alpha[2] \alpha[3], \beta[1] \beta[2]\}]$;
Print["Using factors : ", Mod[Sum[Resid[ $\alpha[\mathrm{x}], \beta[\mathrm{y}]]-\operatorname{Resid}[\beta[\mathrm{y}], \alpha[\mathrm{x}]],\{\mathrm{x}, 1,3\},\{\mathrm{y}, 1,2\}], 9]]$;
Print["Using coupling : ", Mod[OmegaExp[A].T.OmegaExp[B],9]];
$\{\alpha[1], \alpha[2], \alpha[3], \beta[1], \beta[2]\}=$ Array[FieldRandomPrime[]\&,5];
$\operatorname{Print}["\{\alpha, \beta\}=",\{\mathrm{~A}, \mathrm{~B}\}=\mathrm{PR} / @\{\alpha[1] \quad \alpha[2] \alpha[3], \beta[1] \beta[2]\}]$;
Print["Using factors : ", Mod[Sum[Resid[ $\alpha[\mathrm{x}], \beta[\mathrm{y}]],\{\mathrm{x}, 1,3\},\{\mathrm{y}, 1,2\}], 9]]$;

```
{w,\gamma}={0,A};
Print["Norm : ",Dynamic[fN[\gamma]]];
While[fN[A]>1,
    (* Invert }\alpha\mathrm{ and }\beta\mathrm{ *)
    w = Mod[w+OmegaExp[A].T.OmegaExp [B],9];
    {A,B}={B,A};
    (* Reduce }\alpha\operatorname{mod}\beta*\mathrm{ *)
    \gamma=Euclid[A,B];
    While[Mod[fN[\gamma],3]==0,
        \gamma=PR[\gamma fC[1-\zeta]/3];
        w = Mod[w-((#[[4]])&/@ U).OmegaExp[B],9];
    ];
    If[Mod[(\gamma/.\zeta->1),3]==2,\gamma = - \gamma];
    A = \gamma;
];
Print["Algorithm : ", Mod[OmegaExp[A].T.OmegaExp[B],9]];
```

