

Lecture Notes 8:

Computational Number Theory

Recommended Reading.

- Katz-Lindell 7, 8.1, 8.2, 8.4, 8.5

1 Sampling a Random Prime

Fact 1 (Prime Number Theorem) $\#\{\text{primes} \leq x\} \sim \frac{x}{\ln x}$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

How do we sample a random n -bit prime number in time $\text{poly}(n)$?

2 Modular arithmetic: \mathbb{Z}_N and \mathbb{Z}_N^*

Basic definitions:

- $x \equiv y \pmod{N}$ if $N|(x - y)$.
- $x \bmod N \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} [\text{unique } x' \in \{0, \dots, N - 1\} \text{ s.t. } x \equiv x' \pmod{N}]$.
- $\mathbb{Z}_N \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$ with arithmetic $(+, \cdot)$ modulo N .

Fact 2 (Extended Euclidean Algorithm) For any $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists two integers a, b such that $ax + by = \gcd(x, y)$. Moreover, such a and b can be found in polynomial time.

Definition of \mathbb{Z}_N^*

$\mathbb{Z}_N^* \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N : \gcd(x, N) = 1\}$ = elements of \mathbb{Z}_N with multiplicative inverses

By a multiplicative inverse for x we mean an element $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N$, denoted $y = x^{-1}$, such that $x \cdot y \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$. (the equality is proved using the Extended Euclidean Algorithm). Given N and $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$, we can compute x^{-1} in polynomial time.

Euler phi function

$$\phi(N) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\mathbb{Z}_N^*|$$

Fact 3

$$\phi(N) = N \cdot \prod_{\text{primes } p|N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) \geq \frac{N}{6 \log \log N}$$

This lower bound means that we can generate random elements from \mathbb{Z}_N^* in time $\text{poly}(|N|) = \text{poly}(n)$: we pick a random element in \mathbb{Z}_N and compute its gcd with N . If the gcd is equal to 1 then we have found an element of \mathbb{Z}_N^* . The probability of success is $\frac{\phi(N)}{N}$ so the expected number of trials is $\Theta\left(\frac{N}{\phi(N)}\right) = O(\log \log N) = O(\log ||N||)$.

Computing $\phi(N)$ from N is as hard as factoring.

Groups

- A group G is a set G with binary operation \star satisfying associativity, identity, inverses. All ours will also be commutative.
- Examples: \mathbb{Z}_N under addition, \mathbb{Z}_N^* under multiplication.
- Fact: In any group G , $\underbrace{x \star x \star \dots \star x}_{|G|} = \text{id}$ for all $x \in G$.

Corollary : $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*, x^{\phi(N)} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$

Facts about \mathbb{Z}_p when p prime

- $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\}$ (because $\phi(p) = p - 1$) and \mathbb{Z}_p is a *field*.
- **Fermat's Little Theorem:** For every $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*, a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.
- A polynomial of degree d has at most d solutions mod p .
- For every prime p , there is a $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ such that $\{1 \pmod{p}, g \pmod{p}, g^2 \pmod{p}, g^3 \pmod{p}, \dots, g^{p-2} \pmod{p}\} = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$. Such a g is called a *generator* of \mathbb{Z}_p^* .
- Discrete logarithm: For $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*, \log_g x \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} [\text{unique } i \in \{0, \dots, p-2\} \text{ s.t. } g^i \equiv x \pmod{p}]$. Computing the discrete logarithm is believed to be hard, even if p and g are known.
- **Fact 4** We can generate random n -bit prime p together with a (random) generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* time $\text{poly}(n)$.

3 Chinese Remainder Theorem

Fact 5 (Chinese Remainder Theorem) *Let $N = pq$ with $\gcd(p, q) = 1$. Then the map $x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$ from \mathbb{Z}_N to $\mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q$ is one-to-one and onto. In particular, for every $(y, z) \in \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q$, there exists a unique $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ s.t. $x \equiv y \pmod{p}$ and $x \equiv z \pmod{q}$. Moreover, x can be found in polynomial time given (y, z, p, q) .*

Proof: We will describe the inverse. By Extended Euclidean algorithm, can find a, b such that $ap + bq = \gcd(p, q) = 1$. Let $c = bq, d = ap$ (*Chinese Remainder Coefficients*). Then $c \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, $c \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, $d \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ and $d \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. The inverse map is $(y, z) \mapsto x = cy + dz \bmod N$.

We have

$$cy + dz \equiv 1 \cdot y + 0 \cdot z \equiv y \pmod{p}$$

and

$$cy + dz \equiv 0 \cdot y + 1 \cdot z \equiv z \pmod{q}$$

This shows that the map is onto and $|\mathbb{Z}_N| = |\mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q|$ so the map is also one-to-one. The computation of x can be done in polynomial time because the extended Euclidean algorithm is $\text{poly}(|p|, |q|)$ and we can compute c and d efficiently. ■

Using the Chinese Remainder Theorem, an arithmetic question modulo N can be reduced to an arithmetic problem modulo p and modulo q , *provided we know the factorization of N .*

4 Quadratic Residues

We define $\text{QR}_N \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x^2 \bmod N : x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*\}$.

Proposition 6 *When p odd prime, $|\text{QR}_p| = |\mathbb{Z}_p^*|/2 = (p-1)/2$.*

Proof: Consider the map from $\mathbb{Z}_p^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, given by $x \mapsto x^2$. A square in \mathbb{Z}_p^* has at least two square roots because $a^2 \equiv (-a)^2 \pmod{p}$ and $a \not\equiv -a \pmod{p}$ as p is odd. A square in \mathbb{Z}_p^* has at most two square roots: \mathbb{Z}_p is a field so a polynomial of degree d has at most d roots modulo p . We consider the polynomial $x^2 - c \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$: for any c , the polynomial has at most two roots in \mathbb{Z}_p . The map is hence exactly 2 to 1. ■

Proposition 7 *When $N = pq$ for odd primes p, q , $|\text{QR}_N| = |\mathbb{Z}_N^*|/4$ and $x \mapsto x^2$ is 4-to-1 on \mathbb{Z}_N^* .*

Proof: Let us prove that $y \in \text{QR}_N \iff (y \bmod p \in \text{QR}_p) \text{ and } (y \bmod q \in \text{QR}_q)$.

Thus, by the Chinese Remainder Theorem $y \equiv (cx + dz)^2 \pmod{N}$. The map $x \mapsto x^2$ is 4-to-1 on \mathbb{Z}_N^* .

$$|\text{QR}_N| = |\mathbb{Z}_N^*|/4 = \frac{(p-1)}{2} \cdot \frac{(q-1)}{2}$$