



# Intro. Number Theory

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## Notation

# Background

We will use a bit of number theory to construct:

- Key exchange protocols
- Digital signatures
- Public-key encryption

This module: crash course on relevant concepts

More info: read parts of Shoup's book referenced  
at end of module

# Notation

From here on:

- $N$  denotes a positive integer.
- $p$  denote a prime.

Notation:  $\mathbb{Z}_N = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1\}$

Can do addition and multiplication modulo  $N$

# Modular arithmetic

Examples: let  $N = 12$

$$9 + 8 = 5 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{Z}_{12}$$

$$5 \times 7 = 11 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{Z}_{12}$$

$$5 - 7 = 10 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{Z}_{12}$$

Arithmetic in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  works as you expect, e.g.  $x \cdot (y+z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$

# Greatest common divisor

**Def**: For ints.  $x, y$ :  $\text{gcd}(x, y)$  is the greatest common divisor of  $x, y$

Example:  $\text{gcd}(12, 18) = 6$   $\boxed{2} \times 12 \boxed{-1} \times 18 = 6$

**Fact**: for all ints.  $x, y$  there exist ints.  $a, b$  such that

$$a \cdot x + b \cdot y = \text{gcd}(x, y)$$

$a, b$  can be found efficiently using the extended Euclid alg.

If  $\text{gcd}(x, y) = 1$  we say that  $x$  and  $y$  are relatively prime

# Modular inversion

Over the rationals, inverse of 2 is  $\frac{1}{2}$ . What about  $\mathbb{Z}_N$ ?

**Def:** The **inverse** of  $x$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  is an element  $y$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  s.t.  $x \cdot y = 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$

$y$  is denoted  $x^{-1}$ .

Example: let  $N$  be an odd integer. The inverse of 2 in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  is  $\frac{N+1}{2}$

$$2 \cdot \left(\frac{N+1}{2}\right) = N+1 = 1 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_N$$

# Modular inversion

Which elements have an inverse in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$ ?

**Lemma:**  $x$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  has an inverse if and only if  $\gcd(x, N) = 1$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(x, N) = 1 &\Rightarrow \exists a, b: a \cdot x + b \cdot N = 1 \implies a \cdot x = 1 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_N \\ &\implies x^{-1} = a \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_N \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(x, N) > 1 &\Rightarrow \forall a: \gcd(a \cdot x, N) > 1 \Rightarrow a \cdot x \neq 1 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_N \\ \gcd(x, N) = 2 &\implies \forall a: a \cdot x \text{ is even} \implies \frac{\text{even}}{a \cdot x} \neq \frac{\text{odd}}{b \cdot N + 1} \end{aligned}$$

# More notation

**Def:**  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$  = (set of invertible elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$ ) =  
=  $\{ x \in \mathbb{Z}_N : \gcd(x, N) = 1 \}$

Examples:

1. for prime  $p$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\} = \{1, 2, \dots, p - 1\}$
2.  $\mathbb{Z}_{12}^* = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$

For  $x$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ , can find  $x^{-1}$  using extended Euclid algorithm.



# Solving modular linear equations

Solve:  $a \cdot x + b = 0$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$

Solution:  $x = -b \cdot a^{-1}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$

Find  $a^{-1}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  using extended Euclid. Run time:  $O(\log^2 N)$

What about modular quadratic equations?

next segments

End of Segment



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## Fermat and Euler

# Review

$N$  denotes an  $n$ -bit positive integer.  $p$  denotes a prime.

- $Z_N = \{ 0, 1, \dots, N-1 \}$
- $(Z_N)^* = (\text{set of invertible elements in } Z_N) =$   
 $= \{ x \in Z_N : \gcd(x, N) = 1 \}$

Can find inverses efficiently using Euclid alg.: time =  $O(n^2)$

# Fermat's theorem (1640)

**Thm:** Let  $p$  be a prime

$$\forall x \in (\mathbb{Z}_p)^* : x^{p-1} = 1 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_p$$

Example:  $p=5$ .  $3^4 = 81 = 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_5$

So:  $x \in (\mathbb{Z}_p)^* \Rightarrow x \cdot x^{p-2} = 1 \Rightarrow x^{-1} = x^{p-2}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$

another way to compute inverses, but less efficient than Euclid

# Application: generating random primes

Suppose we want to generate a large random prime

say, prime  $p$  of length 1024 bits ( i.e.  $p \approx 2^{1024}$  )

Step 1: choose a random integer  $p \in [ 2^{1024} , 2^{1025}-1 ]$

Step 2: test if  $2^{p-1} = 1$  in  $Z_p$

If so, output  $p$  and stop. If not, goto step 1 .

Simple algorithm (not the best).  **$\text{Pr}[ p \text{ not prime } ] < 2^{-60}$**

# The structure of $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$

**Thm** (Euler):  $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$  is a **cyclic group**, that is

$$\exists g \in (\mathbb{Z}_p)^* \text{ such that } \{1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{p-2}\} = (\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$$

$g$  is called a **generator** of  $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$

Example:  $p=7$ .  $\{1, 3, 3^2, 3^3, 3^4, 3^5\} = \{1, 3, 2, 6, 4, 5\} = (\mathbb{Z}_7)^*$

Not every elem. is a generator:  $\{1, 2, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5\} = \{1, 2, 4\}$

# Order

For  $g \in (Z_p)^*$  the set  $\{1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots\}$  is called  
the **group generated by  $g$** , denoted  $\langle g \rangle$

**Def**: the **order** of  $g \in (Z_p)^*$  is the size of  $\langle g \rangle$

$$\text{ord}_p(g) = |\langle g \rangle| = (\text{smallest } a > 0 \text{ s.t. } g^a = 1 \text{ in } Z_p)$$

Examples:  $\text{ord}_7(3) = 6$  ;  $\text{ord}_7(2) = 3$  ;  $\text{ord}_7(1) = 1$

**Thm** (Lagrange):  $\forall g \in (Z_p)^* : \text{ord}_p(g)$  divides  $p-1$



# Euler's generalization of Fermat (1736)

**Def:** For an integer  $N$  define  $\varphi(N) = |(Z_N)^*|$  (Euler's  $\varphi$  func.)

Examples:  $\varphi(12) = |\{1,5,7,11\}| = 4$  ;  $\varphi(p) = p-1$

For  $N=p \cdot q$ :  $\varphi(N) = N-p-q+1 = (p-1)(q-1)$

**Thm** (Euler):  $\forall x \in (Z_N)^* : x^{\varphi(N)} = 1$  in  $Z_N$

Example:  $5^{\varphi(12)} = 5^4 = 625 = 1$  in  $Z_{12}$

Generalization of Fermat. Basis of the RSA cryptosystem

End of Segment



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## Modular $e$ 'th roots

# Modular e'th roots

We know how to solve modular linear equations:

$$\mathbf{a \cdot x + b = 0} \quad \text{in } \mathbb{Z}_N \quad \text{Solution: } \mathbf{x = -b \cdot a^{-1}} \quad \text{in } \mathbb{Z}_N$$

What about higher degree polynomials?


Example: let  $p$  be a prime and  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Can we solve:

$$x^2 - c = 0 \quad , \quad y^3 - c = 0 \quad , \quad z^{37} - c = 0 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{Z}_p$$

# Modular e'th roots

Let  $p$  be a prime and  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ .

**Def:**  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  s.t.  $x^e = c$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is called an **e'th root** of  $c$ .

Examples:  $7^{1/3} = 6$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{11}$    $6^3 = 216 = 7$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{11}$

$$3^{1/2} = 5 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{11}$$

$2^{1/2}$  does not exist in  $\mathbb{Z}_{11}$

$$1^{1/3} = 1 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{11}$$

# The easy case

When does  $c^{1/e}$  in  $Z_p$  exist? Can we compute it efficiently?

The easy case: suppose  $\gcd(e, p-1) = 1$

Then for all  $c$  in  $(Z_p)^*$ :  $c^{1/e}$  exists in  $Z_p$  and is easy to find.

Proof: let  $d = e^{-1}$  in  $Z_{p-1}$ . Then

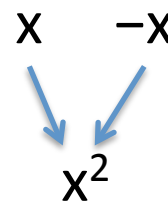
$$c^{1/e} = c^d \text{ in } Z_p$$

$$d \cdot e = 1 \text{ in } Z_{p-1} \Rightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} : d \cdot e = k \cdot (p-1) + 1 \Rightarrow \\ \Rightarrow (c^d)^e = c^{d \cdot e} = c^{k \cdot (p-1) + 1} = [c^{p-1}]^k \cdot c = c \text{ in } Z_p$$

# The case $e=2$ : square roots

If  $p$  is an odd prime then  $\gcd(2, p-1) \neq 1$

**Fact:** in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ ,  $x \rightarrow x^2$  is a 2-to-1 function



**Example:** in  $\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*$ :

1	10	2	9	3	8	4	7	5	6
↙ ↘	↙ ↘	↙ ↘	↙ ↘	↙ ↘	↙ ↘	↙ ↘	↙ ↘	↙ ↘	↙ ↘
1	4	9	5	3					

**Def:**  $x$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is a **quadratic residue** (Q.R.) if it has a square root in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$

$p$  odd prime  $\Rightarrow$  the # of Q.R. in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is  $(p-1)/2 + 1$

# Euler's theorem

**Thm:**  $x$  in  $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$  is a Q.R.  $\iff x^{(p-1)/2} = 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  (p odd prime)

Example:

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{in } \mathbb{Z}_{11} : \quad 1^5, 2^5, 3^5, 4^5, 5^5, 6^5, 7^5, 8^5, 9^5, 10^5 \\ = \quad \quad \quad 1 \quad -1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1, \quad -1, \quad -1, \quad -1, \quad 1, \quad -1 \end{array}$$

Note:  $x \neq 0 \implies x^{(p-1)/2} = (x^{p-1})^{1/2} = 1^{1/2} \in \{1, -1\}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$

**Def:**  $x^{(p-1)/2}$  is called the **Legendre Symbol** of  $x$  over  $p$  (1798)



# Computing square roots mod $p$

Suppose  $p = 3 \pmod{4}$

**Lemma**: if  $c \in (\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$  is Q.R. then  $\sqrt{c} = c^{(p+1)/4}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$

Proof:  $\left[ c^{\frac{p+1}{4}} \right]^2 = c^{\frac{p+1}{2}} = \underbrace{c^{\frac{p-1}{2}}}_{=1} \cdot c = c$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$

When  $p = 1 \pmod{4}$ , can also be done efficiently, but a bit harder

run time  $\approx O(\log^3 p)$

# Solving quadratic equations mod $p$

Solve:  $a \cdot x^2 + b \cdot x + c = 0$  in  $Z_p$

Solution:  $x = (-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4 \cdot a \cdot c}) / 2a$  in  $Z_p$

- Find  $(2a)^{-1}$  in  $Z_p$  using extended Euclid.
- Find square root of  $b^2 - 4 \cdot a \cdot c$  in  $Z_p$  (if one exists)  
using a square root algorithm

# Computing $e$ 'th roots mod $N$ ??

Let  $N$  be a composite number and  $e > 1$

When does  $c^{1/e}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  exist? Can we compute it efficiently?

Answering these questions requires the factorization of  $N$   
(as far as we know)

End of Segment



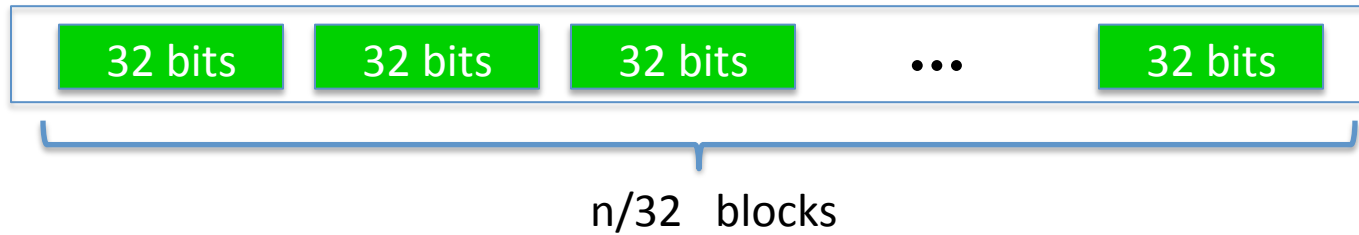
# Intro. Number Theory

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## Arithmetic algorithms

# Representing bignums

Representing an  $n$ -bit integer (e.g.  $n=2048$ ) on a 64-bit machine



Note: some processors have 128-bit registers (or more) and support multiplication on them

# Arithmetic

Given: two  $n$ -bit integers

- **Addition and subtraction:** linear time  $O(n)$
- **Multiplication:** naively  $O(n^2)$ . Karatsuba (1960):  $O(n^{1.585})$

$\log_2 3$   
↓

Basic idea:  $(2^b x_2 + x_1) \times (2^b y_2 + y_1)$  with 3 mults.

Best (asymptotic) algorithm: about  $O(n \cdot \log n)$ .

- **Division with remainder:**  $O(n^2)$ .

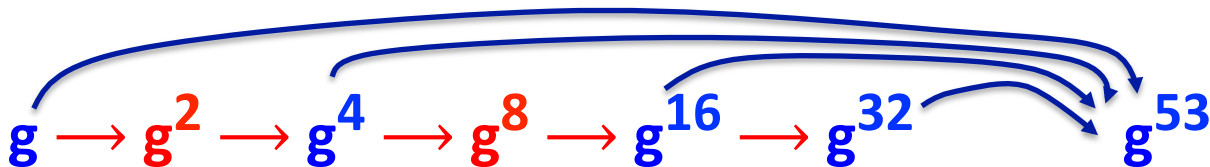
# Exponentiation

Finite cyclic group  $G$  (for example  $G = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  )

Goal: given  $g$  in  $G$  and  $x$  compute  $g^x$

**Example**: suppose  $x = 53 = (110101)_2 = 32+16+4+1$

$$\text{Then: } g^{53} = g^{32+16+4+1} = g^{32} \cdot g^{16} \cdot g^4 \cdot g^1$$





# The repeated squaring alg.

**Input:**  $g$  in  $G$  and  $x > 0$  ; **Output:**  $g^x$

write  $x = (x_n x_{n-1} \dots x_2 x_1 x_0)_2$

$y \leftarrow g$  ,  $z \leftarrow 1$

for  $i = 0$  to  $n$  do:

if  $(x[i] == 1)$ :  $z \leftarrow z \cdot y$

$y \leftarrow y^2$

output  $z$

example:  $g^{53}$

$y$

$z$

$g^2$

$g$

$g^4$

$g$

$g^8$

$g^5$

$g^{16}$

$g^5$

$g^{32}$

$g^{21}$

$g^{64}$

**$g^{53}$**

# Running times

Given  $n$ -bit int.  $N$ :

- **Addition and subtraction in  $Z_N$ :** linear time  $T_+ = O(n)$
- **Modular multiplication in  $Z_N$ :** naively  $T_x = O(n^2)$
- **Modular exponentiation in  $Z_N$  ( $g^x$ ):**

$$O((\log x) \cdot T_x) \leq O((\log x) \cdot n^2) \leq O(n^3)$$

End of Segment



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## Intractable problems

# Easy problems

- Given composite  $N$  and  $x$  in  $Z_N$  find  $x^{-1}$  in  $Z_N$
- Given prime  $p$  and polynomial  $f(x)$  in  $Z_p[x]$   
find  $x$  in  $Z_p$  s.t.  $f(x) = 0$  in  $Z_p$  (if one exists)  
Running time is linear in  $\deg(f)$ .

... but many problems are difficult

# Intractable problems with primes

Fix a prime  $p > 2$  and  $g$  in  $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$  of order  $q$ .

Consider the function:  $x \mapsto g^x$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$

Now, consider the inverse function:

$$\mathbf{Dlog}_g(g^x) = x \quad \text{where } x \text{ in } \{0, \dots, q-2\}$$

Example:

in $\mathbb{Z}_{11}$ :	1,	2,	3,	4,	5,	6,	7,	8,	9,	10
$\mathbf{Dlog}_2(\cdot)$ :	0,	1,	8,	2,	4,	9,	7,	3,	6,	5

# DLOG: more generally

Let  $\mathbf{G}$  be a finite cyclic group and  $\mathbf{g}$  a generator of  $G$

$$G = \{ 1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{q-1} \} \quad (q \text{ is called the order of } G)$$

**Def:** We say that **DLOG is hard in  $\mathbf{G}$**  if for all efficient alg.  $A$ :

$$\Pr_{g \leftarrow G, x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q} [ A(G, q, g, g^x) = x ] < \text{negligible}$$

Example candidates:

- (1)  $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$  for large  $p$ ,
- (2) Elliptic curve groups mod  $p$

# Computing Dlog in $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$ (n-bit prime p)

Best known algorithm (GNFS):      run time       $\exp(\tilde{O}(\sqrt[3]{n}))$

<u>cipher key size</u>	<u>modulus size</u>	<u>Elliptic Curve group size</u>
80 bits	1024 bits	160 bits
128 bits	3072 bits	256 bits
256 bits (AES)	<b><u>15360</u></b> bits	512 bits

As a result:    slow transition away from (mod p) to elliptic curves



# An application: collision resistance

Choose a group  $G$  where  $\text{Dlog}$  is hard (e.g.  $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$  for large  $p$ )

Let  $q = |G|$  be a prime. Choose generators  $g, h$  of  $G$

For  $x, y \in \{1, \dots, q\}$  define  $H(x, y) = g^x \cdot h^y$  in  $G$

**Lemma:** finding collision for  $H(.,.)$  is as hard as computing  $\text{Dlog}_g(h)$

Proof: Suppose we are given a collision  $H(x_0, y_0) = H(x_1, y_1)$

then  $g^{x_0} \cdot h^{y_0} = g^{x_1} \cdot h^{y_1} \Rightarrow g^{x_0 - x_1} = h^{y_1 - y_0} \Rightarrow h = g^{x_0 - x_1 / (y_1 - y_0)}$

# Intractable problems with composites

Consider the set of integers: (e.g. for  $n=1024$ )

$$\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}(n) := \{ N = p \cdot q \text{ where } p, q \text{ are } n\text{-bit primes} \}$$

**Problem 1:** Factor a random  $N$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}(n)$  (e.g. for  $n=1024$ )

**Problem 2:** Given a polynomial  $\mathbf{f(x)}$  where  $\text{degree}(f) > 1$

and a random  $N$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}(n)$

find  $x$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  s.t.  $f(x) = 0$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$

# The factoring problem

Gauss (1805): *“The problem of distinguishing prime numbers from composite numbers and of resolving the latter into their prime factors is known to be one of the most important and useful in arithmetic.”*

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Best known alg. (NFS): run time  $\exp(\tilde{O}(\sqrt[3]{n}))$  for n-bit integer

Current world record: **RSA-768** (232 digits)

- Work: two years on hundreds of machines
- Factoring a 1024-bit integer: about 1000 times harder  
⇒ likely possible this decade

# Further reading

- A Computational Introduction to Number Theory and Algebra, V. Shoup, 2008 (V2), Chapter 1-4, 11, 12

Available at [//shoup.net/ntb/ntb-v2.pdf](http://shoup.net/ntb/ntb-v2.pdf)

End of Segment