

Very basic number theory fact sheet

Part I: Arithmetic modulo primes**Basic stuff**

1. We are dealing with primes p on the order of 300 digits long, (1024 bits).
2. For a prime p let $\mathbb{Z}_p = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$.
Elements of \mathbb{Z}_p can be added modulo p and multiplied modulo p .
3. Fermat's theorem: for any $g \neq 0 \pmod p$ we have: $g^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$.
Example: $3^4 \pmod 5 = 81 \pmod 5 = 1$
4. The *inverse* of $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ is an element a satisfying $a \cdot x = 1 \pmod p$.
The inverse of x modulo p is denoted by x^{-1} .
Example: 1. $3^{-1} \pmod 5 = 2$ since $2 \cdot 3 = 1 \pmod 5$.
2. $2^{-1} \pmod p = \frac{p+1}{2}$.
5. All elements $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ except for $x = 0$ are invertible.
Simple inversion algorithm: $x^{-1} = x^{p-2} \pmod p$.
Indeed, $x^{p-2} \cdot x = x^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$.
6. Denote by \mathbb{Z}_p^* the set of invertible elements in \mathbb{Z}_p . Hence, $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$.
7. We now have algorithm for solving linear equations: $a \cdot x = b \pmod p$.
Solution: $x = b \cdot a^{-1} = b \cdot a^{p-2} \pmod p$.
What about an algorithm for solving quadratic equations?

Structure of \mathbb{Z}_p^*

1. \mathbb{Z}_p^* is a *cyclic group*.
In other words, there exists $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ such that $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{p-2}\}$.
Such a g is called a *generator* of \mathbb{Z}_p^* .
Example: in \mathbb{Z}_7^* : $\langle 3 \rangle = \{1, 3, 3^2, 3^3, 3^4, 3^5, 3^6\} = \{1, 3, 2, 6, 4, 5\} \pmod 7 = \mathbb{Z}_7^*$.
2. Not every element of \mathbb{Z}_p^* is a generator.
Example: in \mathbb{Z}_7^* we have $\langle 2 \rangle = \{1, 2, 4\} \neq \mathbb{Z}_7^*$.
3. The *order* of $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ is the smallest positive integer a such that $g^a = 1 \pmod p$.
The order of $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ is denoted $\text{ord}_p(g)$.
Example: $\text{ord}_7(3) = 6$ and $\text{ord}_7(2) = 3$.
4. Lagrange's theorem: for all $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ we have that $\text{ord}_p(g)$ divides $p-1$.

5. If the factorization of $p - 1$ is known then there is a simple and efficient algorithm to determine $\text{ord}_p(g)$ for any $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$.

Quadratic residues

1. The *square root* of $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ is a number $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ such that $y^2 = x \pmod p$.
 Example: 1. $\sqrt{2} \pmod 7 = 3$ since $3^2 = 2 \pmod 7$.
 2. $\sqrt{3} \pmod 7$ does not exist.
2. An element $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ is called a *Quadratic Residue* (QR for short) if it has a square root in \mathbb{Z}_p .
3. How many square roots does $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ have?
 If $x^2 = y^2 \pmod p$ then $0 = x^2 - y^2 = (x - y)(x + y) \pmod p$.
 Since \mathbb{Z}_p is an “integral domain” we know that $x = y$ or $x = -y \pmod p$.
 Hence, elements in \mathbb{Z}_p have either zero square roots or two square roots.
 If a is the square root of x then $-a$ is also a square root of x modulo p .
4. Euler’s theorem: $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ is a QR if and only if $x^{(p-1)/2} = 1 \pmod p$.
 Example: $2^{(7-1)/2} = 1 \pmod 7$ but $3^{(7-1)/2} = -1 \pmod 7$.
5. Let $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$. Then $a = g^{(p-1)/2}$ is a square root of 1. Indeed, $a^2 = g^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$.
 Square roots of 1 modulo p are 1 and -1 .
 Hence, for $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ we know that $g^{(p-1)/2}$ is 1 or -1 .
6. Legendre symbol: for $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ define
$$\left(\frac{x}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is a QR in } \mathbb{Z}_p \\ -1 & \text{if } x \text{ is not a QR in } \mathbb{Z}_p \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \pmod p \end{cases} .$$
7. By Euler’s theorem we know that $\left(\frac{x}{p}\right) = x^{(p-1)/2} \pmod p$.
 \implies the Legendre symbol can be efficiently computed.
8. Easy fact: let g be a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* . Let $x = g^r$ for some integer r .
 Then x is a QR in \mathbb{Z}_p if and only if r is even.
 \implies **the Legendre symbol reveals the parity of r .**
9. Since $x = g^r$ is a QR if and only if r is even it follows that exactly half the elements of \mathbb{Z}_p are QR’s.
10. When $p = 3 \pmod 4$ computing square roots of $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ is easy.
 Simply compute $a = x^{(p+1)/4} \pmod p$.
 $a = \sqrt{x}$ since $a^2 = x^{(p+1)/2} = x \cdot x^{(p-1)/2} = x \cdot 1 = x \pmod p$.
11. When $p = 1 \pmod 4$ computing square roots in \mathbb{Z}_p is possible but somewhat more complicated (randomized algorithm).

12. We now have an algorithm for solving quadratic equations in \mathbb{Z}_p .
We know that if a solution to $ax^2 + bx + c = 0 \pmod p$ exists then it is given by:

$$x_{1,2} = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \pmod p$$

Hence, the equation has a solution in \mathbb{Z}_p if and only if $\Delta = b^2 - 4ac$ is a QR in \mathbb{Z}_p . Using our algorithm for taking square roots in \mathbb{Z}_p we can find $\sqrt{\Delta} \pmod p$ and recover x_1 and x_2 .

13. What about cubic equations in \mathbb{Z}_p ? There exists an efficient randomized algorithm that solves any equation of degree d in time polynomial in d .

Computing in \mathbb{Z}_p

1. Since p is a huge prime (e.g. 1024 bits long) it cannot be stored in a single register.
2. Elements of \mathbb{Z}_p are stored in buckets where each bucket is 32 or 64 bits long depending on the processor's chip size.
3. Adding two elements $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ can be done in linear time in the *length* of p .
4. Multiplying two elements $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ can be done in quadratic time in the *length* of p . If p is n bits long, more clever (and practical) algorithms work in time $O(n^{1.7})$ (rather than $O(n^2)$).
5. Inverting an element $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ can be done in quadratic time in the length of p .
6. Using the repeated squaring algorithm, $x^r \pmod p$ can be computed in time $(\log_2 r)O(n^2)$ where p is n bits long. Note, the algorithm takes linear time in the length of r .

Summary

Let p be a 1024 bit prime. Easy problems in \mathbb{Z}_p :

1. Generating a random element. Adding and multiplying elements.
2. Computing $g^r \pmod p$ is easy even if r is very large.
3. Inverting an element. Solving linear systems.
4. Testing if an element is a QR and computing its square root if it is a QR.
5. Solving polynomial equations of degree d can be done in polynomial time in d .

Problems that are believed to be hard in \mathbb{Z}_p :

1. Let g be a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* . Given $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ find an r such that $x = g^r \pmod p$. This is known as the *discrete log problem*.

2. Let g be a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* . Given $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ where $x = g^{r_1}$ and $y = g^{r_2}$. Find $z = g^{r_1 r_2}$. This is known as the *Diffie-Hellman problem*.
3. Finding roots of sparse polynomials of high degree.
For example finding a root of: $x^{(2^{500})} + 7 \cdot x^{(2^{301})} + 11 \cdot x^{(2^{157})} + x + 17 = 0 \pmod{p}$.