Prime Numbers

密碼學與應用

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Prime Numbers

- **Prime number**: an integer p>1 that is divisible only by 1 and itself, ex. 2, 3,5, 7, 11, 13, 17…
- **Composite number**: an integer n>1 that is not prime
- **Fact**: there are infinitely many prime numbers. (by Euclid)

pf:
- on the contrary, assume a_n is the largest prime number
- let the finite set of prime numbers be $\{a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots a_n\}$
- the number $b = a_0*a_1*a_2*\ldots*a_n + 1$ is not divisible by any a_i

  i.e. b does not have prime factors $\le a_n$

2 cases:
- if b has a prime factor d, $b>d> a_n$, then "d is a prime number that is larger than a_n" … contradiction
- if b does not have any prime factor less than b, then "b is a prime number that is larger than a_n" … contradiction

Prime Number Theorem

- **Prime Number Theorem**:
  - Let $\pi(x)$ be the number of primes less than x
  - Then
  $$\pi(x) \approx \frac{x}{\ln x}$$
  in the sense that the ratio $\pi(x) / (x/\ln x) \to 1$ as $x \to \infty$
  - Also, $\pi(x) \ge \frac{x}{\ln x}$ and for $x \ge 17$, $\pi(x) \le 1.10555 \frac{x}{\ln x}$
- Ex: number of 100-digit primes

$$\pi(10^{100}) - \pi(10^{99}) \approx \frac{10^{100}}{\ln 10^{100}} - \frac{10^{99}}{\ln 10^{99}} \approx 3.9 \times 10^{97}$$

Factors

- Every composite number can be expressible as a product a·b of integers with 1 < a, b< n
- Every positive integer has a unique representation as a product of prime numbers raised to different powers.
  - Ex. $504 = 2^3 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 7$, $1125 = 3^2 \cdot 5^3$

Factors

✧ Lemma: p is a prime number and p | a·b $\Longrightarrow$ p | a or p | b,
more generally, p is a prime number and p | a·b·...·z
$\Longrightarrow$ p must divide one of a, b, …, z

- proof:
  - case 1: p | a
  - case 2: p ∤ a,
    - p ∤ a and p is a prime number ⇒ gcd(p, a) = 1 ⇒ 1 = a x + p y
    - multiply both side by b, b = <u>b a</u> x + b <u>p</u> y
    - p | a b ⇒ p | b
  - In general: if p | a then we are done, if p ∤ a then p | bc…z, continuing this way, we eventually find that p divides one of the factors of the product

Factorization into primes

✧ Theorem: Every positive integer is a product of primes. This factorization into primes is unique, up to reordering of the factors.

• Empty product equals 1.
• Prime is a one factor product.

- Proof: product of primes
  - assume there exist positive integers that are not product of primes
  - let n be the smallest such integer
  - since n can not be 1 or a prime, n must be composite, i.e. n = a·b
  - since n is the smallest, both a and b must be products of primes.
  - n = a·b must also be a product of primes, contradiction
- Proof: uniqueness of factorization
  - assume $n = r_1^{c_1} r_2^{c_2} \cdots r_k^{c_k} p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_s^{a_s} = r_1^{c_1} r_2^{c_2} \cdots r_k^{c_k} q_1^{b_1} q_2^{b_2} \cdots q_t^{b_t}$ where p_i, q_j are all distinct primes.
  - let $m = n / (r_1^{c_1} r_2^{c_2} \cdots r_k^{c_k})$
  - consider p_1 for example, since p_1 divide $m = q_1 q_1 .. q_1 q_2 \ldots q_t$, p_1 must divide one of the factors q_j, contradict the fact that "p_i, q_j are distinct primes"

("Fair-MAH")

Fermat's Little Theorem

✧ If p is a prime, p ∤ a then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p$

Proof:
- let S = {1, 2, 3, …, p-1} (Z_p^*), define ψ(x) ≡ a · x (mod p) be a mapping ψ: S→Z
- ∀x ∈ S, ψ(x) ≠ 0 (mod p) ⇒ ∀x ∈ S, ψ(x) ∈ S, i.e. ψ: S→S

  if ψ(x) ≡ a · x ≡ 0 (mod p) ⇒ x ≡ 0 (mod p) since gcd(a, p) = 1
- ∀ x, y ∈ S, if x ≠ y then ψ(x) ≠ ψ(y) since

  if ψ(x) ≡ ψ(y) ⇒ a · x ≡ a · y ⇒ x ≡ y since gcd(a, p) = 1
- from the above two observations, ψ(1), ψ(2),... ψ(p-1) are distinct elements of S
- $1 \cdot 2 \cdot \ldots \cdot (p-1) \equiv \psi(1) \cdot \psi(2) \cdot \ldots \cdot \psi(p-1) \equiv (a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdot \ldots \cdot (a \cdot (p-1))$
  $\equiv a^{p-1} (1 \cdot 2 \cdot \ldots \cdot (p-1)) \pmod p$
- since gcd(j, p) = 1 for j ∈ S, we can divide both side by 1, 2, 3, … p-1, and obtain $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p$

Fermat's Little Theorem

✧ Ex: $2^{10} = 1024 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$
$2^{53} = (2^{10})^5 2^3 \equiv 1^5 2^3 \equiv 8 \pmod{11}$
i.e. $2^{53} \equiv 2^{53 \bmod 10} \equiv 2^3 \equiv 8 \pmod{11}$

✧ if n is prime, then $2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod n$
i.e. if $2^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod n$ then n is not prime ←(∗)
usually, if $2^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod n$, then n is prime

- exceptions: $2^{561-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{561}$ although 561 = 3·11·17
  $2^{1729-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{1729}$ although 1729 = 7·13·19
- (∗) is a quick test for eliminating composite number

Euler's Totient Function $\phi(n)$

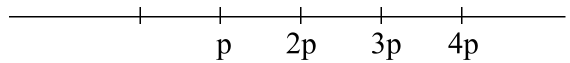
- $\phi(n)$: the number of integers $1 \le a < n$ s.t. $\gcd(a,n)=1$
  - ex. $n=10$, $\phi(n)=4$ the set is $\{1,3,7,9\}$
- properties of $\phi(\bullet)$
  - $\phi(p) = p-1$, if p is prime
  - $\phi(p^r) = p^r - p^{r-1} = (1-1/p) \cdot p^r$, if p is prime
  - $\phi(n \cdot m) = \phi(n) \cdot \phi(m)$ if $\gcd(n,m)=1$ 排容原理

    $n\, m - (n-\phi(n))\, m - (m-\phi(m))\, n + (n-\phi(n))\, (m-\phi(m)) = \phi(n)\, \phi(m)$
  - $\phi(n \cdot m) = \phi((d_1/d_2/d_3)^2) \cdot \phi(d_2^{\,3}) \cdot \phi(d_3^{\,3}) \cdot \phi(n/d_1/d_2) \cdot \phi(m/d_1/d_3)$

    if $\gcd(n,m)=d_1$, $\gcd(n/d_1,d_1)=d_2$, $\gcd(m/d_1,d_1)=d_3$
  - $\phi(n) = n \prod_{p|n} (1-1/p)$
- ex. $\phi(10)=(2-1)\cdot(5-1)=4$ $\phi(120)=120(1-1/2)(1-1/3)(1-1/5)=32$

How large is $\phi(n)$?

- $\phi(n) \approx n \cdot 6/\pi^2$ as n goes large
- Probability that a prime number p is a factor of a random number r is 1/p



- Probability that two independent random numbers r_1 and r_2 both have a given prime number p as a factor is $1/p^2$
- The probability that they do not have p as a common factor is thus $1 - 1/p^2$
- The probability that two numbers r_1 and r_2 have no common prime factor is $P = (1-1/2^2)(1-1/3^2)(1-1/5^2)(1-1/7^2)\ldots$

Pr{ r_1 and r_2 relatively prime }

- Equalities:

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1+x+x^2+x^3+\ldots$$

$$1 + 1/2^2 + 1/3^2 + 1/4^2 + 1/5^2 + 1/6^2 + \ldots = \pi^2/6$$

- $P = (1-1/2^2)(1-1/3^2)(1-1/5^2)(1-1/7^2) \cdot \ldots$

$= ((1+1/2^2+1/2^4+\ldots)(1+1/3^2+1/3^4+\ldots) \cdot \ldots)^{-1}$

$= (1+1/2^2+1/3^2+1/4^2+1/5^2+1/6^2+\ldots)^{-1}$

$= 6/\pi^2$

≈ 0.61

each positive number has a unique prime number factorization

ex. $45^2 = 3^4 \cdot 5^2$

How large is $\phi(n)$?

- $\phi(n)$ is the number of integers less than n that are relative prime to n
- $\phi(n)/n$ is the probability that a randomly chosen integer is relatively prime to n
- Therefore, $\phi(n) \approx n \cdot 6/\pi^2$
- P_n = Pr { n random numbers have no common factor }
  - n independent random numbers all have a given prime p as a factor is $1/p^n$
  - They do not all have p as a common factor $1 - 1/p^n$
  - $P_n = (1+1/2^n+1/3^n+1/4^n+1/5^n+1/6^n+\ldots)^{-1}$ is the Riemann zeta function $\zeta(n)$ http://mathworld.wolfram.com/RiemannZetaFunction.html
  - Ex. $n=4$, $\zeta(4) = \pi^4/90 \approx 0.92$

Euler's Theorem

This is true even when $n = p^2$

✧ If gcd(a,n)=1 then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Proof: ✡ let S be the set of integers $1 \le x < n$, with gcd(x, n) = 1, define $\psi(x) \equiv a \cdot x \pmod{n}$ be a mapping $\psi: S \to Z$

✡ $\forall x \in S$ and gcd(a, n) = 1,

if $\psi(x) \equiv a \cdot x \equiv 0 \pmod{n} \Rightarrow x \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$

gcd(a, n)=1 and gcd(x, n) = 1

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} \psi(x) \ne 0 \pmod{n} \\ \gcd(\psi(x), n) = 1 \end{array}\right\} \Rightarrow \forall x \in S,\ \psi(x) \in S, \text{ i.e. } \psi: S \to S$$

✡ $\forall\ x, y \in S$, 'if $x \ne y$ then $\psi(x) \not\equiv \psi(y) \pmod{n}$'

if $\psi(x) \equiv \psi(y) \Rightarrow a \cdot x \equiv a \cdot y \Rightarrow x \equiv y$ since gcd(a, n) = 1

✡ from the above two observations, $\forall x \in S$, $\psi(x)$ are distinct elements of S (i.e. $\{\psi(x) \mid \forall x \in S\}$ is S)

✡ $$\prod_{x \in S} x \equiv \prod_{x \in S} \psi(x) \equiv a^{\phi(n)} \prod_{x \in S} x \pmod{n}$$

✡ since gcd(x, n) = 1 for $x \in S$, we can divide both side by $x \in S$ one after another, and obtain $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Euler's Theorem

✧ Example: What are the last three digits of 7^{803}?

i.e. we want to find $7^{803} \pmod{1000}$

$1000 = 2^3 \cdot 5^3$, $\phi(1000) = 1000(1\text{-}1/2)(1\text{-}1/5) = 400$

$7^{803} \equiv 7^{803 \pmod{400}} \equiv 7^3 \equiv 343 \pmod{1000}$

✧ Example: Compute $2^{43210} \pmod{101}$?

$101 = 1 \cdot 101$, $\phi(101) = 100$

$2^{43210} \equiv 2^{43210 \pmod{100}} \equiv 2^{10} \equiv 1024 \equiv 14 \pmod{101}$

A second proof of Euler's Theorem

Euler's Theorem: $\forall a \in Z_n^*$, $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

✧ We have proved the above theorem by showing that the function $\psi(x) \equiv a \cdot x \pmod{n}$ is a permutation.

✧ We can also prove it through Fermat's Little Theorem

consider $n = p \cdot q$,

$\forall a \in Z_p^*$, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow (a^{p-1})^{q-1} \equiv a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

$\forall a \in Z_q^*$, $a^{q-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q} \Rightarrow (a^{q-1})^{p-1} \equiv a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$

from CRT, $\forall a \in Z_n^*$ (i.e. $p \nmid a$ and $q \nmid a$),

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

note: the above proof is not valid when p=q

Carmichael Theorem

Carmichael's Theorem:

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} \forall a \in Z_n^*,\ a^{\lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \text{ and } a^{n \cdot \lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n^2} \\ \quad \text{where } n = p \cdot q,\ p \ne q,\ \lambda(n) = \text{lcm}(p-1, q-1),\ \lambda(n) \mid \phi(n) \end{array}}$$

✧ like Euler's Theorem, we can prove it through Fermat's Little Theorem, consider $n = p \cdot q$, where $p \ne q$,

$\forall a \in Z_p^*$, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow (a^{p-1})^{(q-1)/\gcd(p-1,q-1)} \equiv a^{\lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

$\forall a \in Z_q^*$, $a^{q-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q} \Rightarrow (a^{q-1})^{(p-1)/\gcd(p-1,q-1)} \equiv a^{\lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$

from CRT, $\forall a \in Z_n^*$ (i.e. $p \nmid a$ and $q \nmid a$), $a^{\lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

therefore, $\forall a \in Z_n^*$, $a^{\lambda(n)} = 1 + k \cdot n$

raise both side to the n-th power, we get $a^{n \cdot \lambda(n)} = (1 + k \cdot n)^n$,

$\Rightarrow a^{n \cdot \lambda(n)} = 1 + n \cdot k \cdot n + \ldots \Rightarrow \forall a \in Z_n^*$ (or $Z_{n^2}^*$), $a^{n \cdot \lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n^2}$

Basic Principle to do Exponentiation

- Let a, n, x, y be integers with $n \ge 1$, and $\gcd(a,n)=1$ if $x \equiv y \pmod{\phi(n)}$, then $a^x \equiv a^y \pmod{n}$.
- If you want to work mod n, you should work mod $\phi(n)$ or $\lambda(n)$ in the exponent.

Primitive Roots modulo p

- When p is a prime number, a primitive root modulo p is a number whose powers yield every nonzero element mod p. (equivalently, the order of a primitive root is p-1)
- ex: $3^1 \equiv 3, 3^2 \equiv 2, 3^3 \equiv 6, 3^4 \equiv 4, 3^5 \equiv 5, 3^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$
  3 is a primitive root mod 7
- sometimes called a multiplicative generator
- there are plenty of primitive roots, actually $\phi(p-1)$
  - ex. $p=101$, $\phi(p-1)=100\cdot(1-1/2)\cdot(1-1/5)=40$
    $p=143537$, $\phi(p-1)=143536\cdot(1-1/2)\cdot(1-1/8971)=71760$

Primitive Testing Procedure

- How do we test whether h is a primitive root modulo p?
  - naïve method:
    go through all powers $h^2, h^3, \ldots, h^{p-2}$, and make sure $\neq 1$ modulo p
  - faster method:
    assume p-1 has prime factors $q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_n$,
    for all q_i, make sure $h^{(p-1)/q_i}$ modulo p is not 1,
    then h is a primitive root

Intuition: let $h \equiv g^a \pmod{p}$, if $\gcd(a, p-1)=d$ (i.e. g^a is not a primitive root), $(g^a)^{(p-1)/q_i} \equiv (g^{a/q_i})^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for some $q_i \mid d$

Primitive Testing Procedure (cont'd)

- Procedure to test a primitive g:

assuming p-1 has prime factors $q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_n$, (i.e. $p-1 = q_1^{r_1} \ldots q_n^{r_n}$)
for all q_i, make sure $g^{(p-1)/q_i} \pmod{p}$ is not 1

Proof:

(a) by definition, $g^{ord_p(g)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, $g^{\phi(p)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ therefore $ord_p(g) \le \phi(p)$
if $\phi(p) = ord_p(g) * k + s$ with $s < ord_p(g)$
$g^{\phi(p)} \equiv g^{ord_p(g) * k} g^s \equiv g^s \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, but $s < ord_p(g) \Rightarrow s = 0$
$\Rightarrow$ $ord_p(g) \mid \phi(p)$ and $ord_p(g) \le \phi(p)$

(b) assume g is not a primitive root i.e $ord_p(g) < \phi(p)=p-1$
then $\exists$ i, such that $ord_p(g) \mid (p-1)/q_i$ i.e. $g^{(p-1)/q_i} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for some q_i

(c) if for all q_i, $g^{(p-1)/q_i} \neq 1 \pmod{p}$
then $ord_p(g) = \phi(p)$ and g is a primitive root modulo p

Number of Primitive Root in Z_p^*

- Why are there $\phi(p-1)$ primitive roots?
  - let g be a primitive root (the order of g is p-1)
  - $g, g^2, g^3, \ldots, g^{p-1}$ is a permutation of 1,2,…,p-1

    an integer less than p-1
  - if gcd(a, p-1)=d, then $(g^a)^{(p-1)/d} \equiv (g^{a/d})^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ which says that the order of g^a is at most (p-1)/d, therefore, g^a is not a primitive root $\Rightarrow$ There are at most $\phi(p-1)$ primitive roots in Z_p^*
  - For an element g^a in Z_p^* where gcd(a, p-1) = 1, it is guaranteed that $(g^a)^{(p-1)/q_i} \neq 1 \pmod p$ for all q_i (q_i is factors or p-1)

    assume that for a certain q_i, $(g^a)^{(p-1)/q_i} \equiv 1 \pmod p$

    $\Rightarrow p-1 \mid a \cdot (p-1) / q_i$

    $\Rightarrow \exists$ integer k, $a \cdot (p-1) / q_i = k \cdot (p-1)$ i.e. $a = k \cdot q_i$

    $\Rightarrow q_i \mid a$

    $\Rightarrow q_i \mid \gcd(a, p-1)$ contradiction

Multiplicative Generators in Z_n^*

- How do we define a multiplicative generator in Z_n^* if n is a composite number?
  - Is there an element in Z_n^* that can generate all elements of Z_n^*?
  - If $n = p \cdot q$, the answer is negative. From Carmichael theorem, $\forall a \in Z_n^*$, $a^{\lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod n$, gcd(p-1, q-1) is at least 2, $\lambda(n)$ = lcm(p-1, q-1) is at most $\phi(n) / 2$. The size of a maximal possible multiplicative subgroup in Z_n^* is therefore less than $\lambda(n)$.
  - How many elements in Z_n^* can generate the maximal possible subgroup of Z_n^*?

Finding Square Roots mod n

- For example: find x such that $x^2 \equiv 71 \pmod{77}$
  - Is there any solution?
  - How many solutions are there?
  - How do we solve the above equation systematically?
- In general: find x s.t. $x^2 \equiv b \pmod n$,

  where $b \in QR_n$, $n = p \cdot q$, and p, q are prime numbers
- Easier case: find x s.t. $x^2 \equiv b \pmod p$,

  where p is a prime number, $b \in QR_p$

Note: QR_n is "Quadratic Residue in Z_n^*" to be defined later

Finding Square Root mod *p*

- Given $y \in Z_p^*$, find x, s.t. $x^2 \equiv y \pmod p$, p is prime

  Two cases:
  - $p \equiv 1 \pmod 4$ (i.e. $p = 4k + 1$) : probabilistic algorithm
  - $p \equiv 3 \pmod 4$ (i.e. $p = 4k + 3$) : deterministic algorithm
- Is there any solution?

  check $y^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \stackrel{?}{\equiv} 1 \pmod p$ Is y a QR_p?
- $p \equiv 3 \pmod 4$

  $$x \equiv \pm y^{\frac{p+1}{4}} \pmod p$$

  - $(p+1)/4 = (4k+3+1)/4 = k+1$ is an integer
  - $x^2 = y^{(p+1)/2} = y^{(p-1)/2} \cdot y \equiv y \pmod p$

Finding Square Root mod p

- $p \equiv 1 \pmod 4$
  - Peralta, Eurocrypt'86, $p = 2^s q + 1$
  - 3-step probabilistic procedure
    1. Choose a random number r, if $r^2 \equiv y \pmod p$, output $x = r$
    2. Calculate $(r + z)^{(p-1)/2} \equiv u + v\,z \pmod{f(z)}$, $\quad f(z) = z^2-y$
    3. If $u = 0$ then output $x \equiv v^{-1} \pmod p$, else goto step 1

    note: $(b+cz)(d+ez) \equiv (bd+ce\,z^2) + (be+cd)\,z$

    $\equiv (bd+ce\,y) + (be+cd)\,z \pmod{z^2-y}$

    use *square-multiply* algorithm to calculate $(r + z)^{(p-1)/2}$
  - the probability to successfully find x for each $r \geq 1/2$

Finding Square Root mod p

- ex: finding x such that $x^2 \equiv 12 \pmod{13}$

  solution:
  - $13 \equiv 1 \pmod 4$
  - choose $r = 3$, $3^2 = 9 \neq 12$
  - $(3 + z)^{(13-1)/2} = (3 + z)^6 \equiv 12 + 0\,z \pmod{z^2-12}$
  - choose $r = 7$, $7^2 \equiv 10 \neq 12$
  - $(7 + z)^{(13-1)/2} = (7 + z)^6 \equiv 0 + 8\,z \pmod{z^2-12}$

    $\Rightarrow x = 8^{-1} = 5 \pmod{13}$

  Why does it work???

  Why is the success probability > ½ ???

Finding Square Roots mod n

- Now we return to the question of solving square roots in Z_n^*, i.e.

  for an integer $y \in QR_n$,

  find $x \in Z_n^*$ such that $x^2 \equiv y \pmod n$
- We would like to transform the problem into solving square roots mod p.
- Question: for $n=p \cdot q$

  Is solving "$x^2 \equiv y \pmod n$" equivalent to solving

  "$x^2 \equiv y \pmod p$ and $x^2 \equiv y \pmod q$"???

Finding Square Roots mod p·q

- find x such that $x^2 \equiv 71 \pmod{77}$
  - $77 = 7 \cdot 11$
  - "x* satisfies $f(x^*) \equiv 71 \pmod{77}$" $\Leftrightarrow$ "x* satisfies both $f(x^*) \equiv 1 \pmod 7$ and $f(x^*) \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$"
  - since 7 and 11 are prime numbers, we can solve $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod 7$ and $x^2 \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$ far more easily than $x^2 \equiv 71 \pmod{77}$

    $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod 7$ has two solutions: $x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod 7$

    $x^2 \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$ has two solutions: $x \equiv \pm 4 \pmod{11}$
  - put them together and use CRT to calculate the four solutions

    $x \equiv 1 \pmod 7 \equiv 4 \pmod{11} \Rightarrow x \equiv 15 \pmod{77}$

    $x \equiv 1 \pmod 7 \equiv 7 \pmod{11} \Rightarrow x \equiv 29 \pmod{77}$

    $x \equiv 6 \pmod 7 \equiv 4 \pmod{11} \Rightarrow x \equiv 48 \pmod{77}$

    $x \equiv 6 \pmod 7 \equiv 7 \pmod{11} \Rightarrow x \equiv 62 \pmod{77}$

Computational Equivalence to Factoring

- Previous slides show that once you know the factoring of n to be p and q, you can easily solve the square roots of n
- Indeed, if you can solve the square roots for one single quadratic residue mod n, you can factor n.
  - from the four solutions ±a, ±b on the previous slide

    $x \equiv c \pmod p \equiv d \pmod q \Rightarrow x \equiv a \pmod{p\cdot q}$

    $x \equiv c \pmod p \equiv -d \pmod q \Rightarrow x \equiv b \pmod{p\cdot q}$

    $x \equiv -c \pmod p \equiv d \pmod q \Rightarrow x \equiv -b \pmod{p\cdot q}$

    $x \equiv -c \pmod p \equiv -d \pmod q \Rightarrow x \equiv -a \pmod{p\cdot q}$

    we can find out $a \equiv b \pmod p$ and $a \equiv -b \pmod q$

    (or equivalently $a \equiv -b \pmod p$ and $a \equiv b \pmod q$)
  - therefore, $p \mid (a-b)$ i.e. $\gcd(a-b, n) = p$ (ex. $\gcd(15-29, 77)=7$)

    $q \mid (a+b)$ i.e. $\gcd(a+b, n) = q$ (ex. $\gcd(15+29, 77)=11$)

Quadratic Residues

- Consider $y \in Z_n^*$, if $\exists\, x \in Z_n^*$, such that $x^2 \equiv y \pmod n$, then y is called a quadratic residue mod n, i.e. $y \in QR_n$
- If the modulus is a prime number p, there are $(p-1)/2$ quadratic residues in Z_p^*
  - let g be a primitive root in Z_p^*, $\{g, g^2, g^3, \ldots, g^{p-1}\}$ is a permutation of $\{1,2,\ldots p-1\}$
  - in the above set, $\{g^2, g^4, \ldots, g^{p-1}\}$ are quadratic residues (QR_p)
  - $\{g, g^3, \ldots, g^{p-2}\}$ are quadratic non-residues (QNR_p), out of which there are $\phi(p-1)$ primitive roots

Quadratic Residues in Z_p^*

1st proof:

- For each $x \in Z_p^*$, $p-x \neq x \pmod p$ (since if x is odd, p-x is even), it's clear that x and p-x are both square roots of a certain $y \in Z_p^*$,
- Because there are only p-1 elements in Z_p^*, we know that $|QR_p| \leq (p-1)/2$
- Because $|\{g^2, g^4, \ldots, g^{p-1}\}| = (p-1)/2$, there can be no more quadratic residues outside this set. Therefore, the set $\{g, g^3, \ldots, g^{p-2}\}$ contains only quadratic non-residues

Quadratic Residues in Z_p^*

2nd proof:

- Because the squares of x and p-x are the same, the number of quadratic residues must be less than p-1 (i.e. some element in Z_p^* must be quadratic non-residue)
- Consider this set $\{g, g^3, \ldots, g^{p-2}\}$ directly
- If $g \in QR_p$, then g cannot be a primitive (because g^k must all be quadratic residues)
- If $g^{2k+1} \equiv g^{2k} \cdot g \in QR_p$, then there exists an $x \in Z_p^*$ such that $x^2 \equiv g^{2k} \cdot g \pmod p$
- Because $\gcd(g^{2k}, p)=1$, $g \equiv x^2 \cdot (g^{2k})^{-1} \equiv (x\cdot(g^{-1})^k)^2 \in QR_p$ contradiction
- i.e. $g^{2k+1} \in QNR_p$

$$(g^{2k})^{-1}(g^{2k}) \equiv (g^{2k})^{-1} g\cdot g\cdot \ldots \cdot g \equiv 1 \pmod p$$
$$\Rightarrow (g^{2k})^{-1} \equiv g^{-1}\cdot g^{-1}\cdot \ldots \cdot g^{-1} \equiv (g^{-1})^{2k} \equiv ((g^{-1})^k)^2$$

Quadratic Residues in Z_p^*

✧ ex. p=143537, p-1=143536=$2^4 \cdot 8971$,

$\phi(p\text{-}1)=2^4 \cdot 8971 \cdot (1-1/2) \cdot (1-1/8971)=71760$

primitives,

$(p\text{-}1)/2$=71768 QR_p's and 71768 QNR_p's

- Note: if g is a primitive, then g^3, g^5 … are also primitives except the following 8 numbers g^{8971}, $g^{8971 \cdot 3}$,… $g^{8971 \cdot 15}$
- Elements in Z_p^* can be classified further according to their order since $\forall x \in Z_p^*$, $ord_p(x) \mid p\text{-}1$, we can list all possible orders

$ord_p(x)$	p-1	$\frac{p-1}{2}$	$\frac{p-1}{4}$	$\frac{p-1}{8}$	$\frac{p-1}{16}$	$\frac{p-1}{8971}$	$\frac{p-1}{8971 \cdot 2}$	$\frac{p-1}{8971 \cdot 4}$	$\frac{p-1}{8971 \cdot 8}$	$\frac{p-1}{8971 \cdot 16}$
	QNR_p	QR_p	QR_p	QR_p	QR_p	QNR_p	QR_p	QR_p	QR_p	QR_p
#	$\phi(p\text{-}1)$					8				

Composite Quadratic Residues

✧ If y is a quadratic residue modulo n, it must be a quadratic residue modulo all prime factors of n.

$\exists\, x \in Z_n^*$ s.t. $x^2 \equiv y \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow x^2 = k \cdot n + y = k \cdot p \cdot q + y$

$\Rightarrow x^2 \equiv y \pmod{p}$ and $x^2 \equiv y \pmod{q}$

✧ If y is a quadratic residue modulo p and also a quadratic residue modulo q, then y is a quadratic residue modulo n.

$\exists\, r_1 \in Z_p^*$ and $r_2 \in Z_q^*$ such that

$y \equiv r_1^2 \pmod{p} \equiv (r_1 \bmod p)^2 \pmod{p}$

$\equiv r_2^2 \pmod{q} \equiv (r_2 \bmod q)^2 \pmod{q}$

from CRT, $\exists!\, r \in Z_n^*$ such that $r \equiv r_1 \pmod{p} \equiv r_2 \pmod{q}$

therefore, $y \equiv r^2 \pmod{p} \equiv r^2 \pmod{q}$

again from CRT, $y \equiv r^2 \pmod{p \cdot q}$

Legendre Symbol

✧ Legendre symbol L(a, p) is defined when a is any integer, p is a prime number greater than 2

- L(a, p) = 0 if p | a
- L(a, p) = 1 if a is a quadratic residue mod p
- L(a, p) = -1 if a is a quadratic non-residue mod p

✧ Two methods to compute (a/p)

- $(a/p) = a^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}$
- recursively calculate by $L(a \cdot b, p) = L(a, p) \cdot L(b, p)$
  1. If a = 1, L(a, p) = 1
  2. If a is even, $L(a, p) = L(a/2, p) \cdot (-1)^{(p^2-1)/8}$
  3. If a is odd prime, $L(a, p) = L((p \bmod a), a) \cdot (-1)^{(a-1)(p-1)/4}$

✧ Legendre symbol $L(a, p) = -1$ if $a \in QNR_p$

$L(a, p) = 1$ if $a \in QR_p$

Legendre Symbol

$$y \in QR_p \Leftrightarrow y^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

($\Rightarrow$)

- If $y \in QR_p$
- Then $\exists x \in Z_p^*$ such that $y \equiv x^2 \pmod{p}$
- Therefore, $y^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (x^2)^{(p-1)/2} \equiv x^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

($\Leftarrow$)

- If $y \notin QR_p$ i.e. $y \in QNR_p$
- Then $y \equiv g^{2k+1} \pmod{p}$
- Therefore, $y^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (g^{2k} \cdot g)^{(p-1)/2} \equiv g^{k(p-1)}\, g^{(p-1)/2} \equiv g^{(p-1)/2} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

$ord_p(g) = p\text{-}1$

Jacobi Symbol

- Jacobi symbol J(a, n) is a generalization of the Legendre symbol to a composite modulus n
- If n is a prime, J(a, n) is equal to the Legendre symbol i.e. $J(a, n) \equiv a^{(n-1)/2} \pmod{n}$
- Jacobi symbol can not be used to determine whether a is a quadratic residue mod n (unless n is a prime)

  ex. $J(7, 143) = J(7, 11)\cdot J(7, 13) = (-1)\cdot(-1) = 1$

  however, there is no integer x such that

  $x^2 \equiv 7 \pmod{143}$

Calculation of Jacobi Symbol

- The following algorithm computes the Jacobi symbol J(a, n), for any integer a and odd integer n, recursively:
  - Def 1: J(0, n) = 0 also If n is prime, J(a, n) = 0 if n|a
  - Def 2: If n is prime, J(a, n) = 1 if $a \in QR_n$ and J(a, n) = -1 if $a \notin QR_n$
  - Def 3: If n is a composite, $J(a, n) = J(a, p_1\cdot p_2\ldots\cdot p_m) = J(a,p_1)\cdot J(a,p_2)\ldots\cdot J(a,p_m)$
  - Rule 1: J(1, n) = 1
  - Rule 2: J(a·b, n) = J(a, n) · J(b, n)
  - Rule 3: J(2, n) = 1 if $(n^2-1)/8$ is even and J(2, n) = -1 otherwise
  - Rule 4: J(a, n) = J(a mod n, n)
  - Rule 5: J(a, b) = J(-a, b) if a <0 and (b-1)/2 is even,

    J(a, b) = -J(-a, b) if a<0 and (b-1)/2 is odd
  - Rule 6: $J(a, b_1\cdot b_2) = J(a, b_1) \cdot J(a, b_2)$
  - Rule 7: if gcd(a, b)=1, a and b are odd
    - 7a: J(a, b) = J(b, a) if (a-1)·(b-1)/4 is even
    - 7b: J(a, b) = -J(b, a) if (a-1)·(b-1)/4 is odd

QR_n and Jacobi Symbol

- Consider $n = p\cdot q$, where p and q are prime numbers

  $\forall x\in Z_n^*, x \in QR_n$

  $\Leftrightarrow x \in QR_p$ and $x \in QR_q$

  $\Leftrightarrow J(x, p) = x^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $J(x, q) = x^{(q-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$

  $\Rightarrow J(x, n) = J(x, p) \cdot J(x, q) = 1$

	J(x, p)	J(x, q)	J(x, n)	
Q_{00}	1	1	1	$x\in QR_n$
Q_{01}	1	-1	-1	$x\in QNR_n$
Q_{10}	-1	1	-1	$x\in QNR_n$
Q_{11}	-1	-1	1	$x\in QNR_n$

Wilson's Theorem

$$(p\text{-}1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$

Proof:

Goal: $(p-1)! \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots (p-1) \equiv -1 \equiv (p-1) \pmod{p}$

- Since $\gcd(p-1, p) = 1$, the above is equivalent to $(p-2)!\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
- e.g. $p = 5$, $3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$

  $p = 7$, $5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$
- We know that $1^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $(-1)^{-1} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$
- Claim: $\forall i\in Z_p^*\backslash\{1,-1\}, i^{-1} \neq i$ (pf: if $i^{-1} \neq i$ then $i^2 \equiv 1$, $i\in\{1,-1\}$)
- Claim: $\forall i_1\neq i_2\in Z_p^*\backslash\{1,-1\}, i_1^{-1} \neq i_2^{-1}$ (pf: if $i_1^{-1}\equiv i_2^{-1}$ then $i_1 \cdot i_2^{-1} \equiv 1$ i.e. $i_1\equiv i_2$, contradiction)
- Out of the set {2, 3, … p-2}, we can form $(p-3)/2$ pairs such that $i \cdot j \equiv 1$ (mod p), multiply them together, we obtain $(p-2)! \equiv 1$

Another Proof

$$y \in QR_p \Leftrightarrow y^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod p$$

($\Rightarrow$)

- If $y \in QR_p$
- Then $\exists x \in Z_p^*$ such that $y \equiv x^2 \pmod p$
- Therefore, $y^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (x^2)^{(p-1)/2} \equiv x^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod p$

($\Leftarrow$)

- Since $\forall i \in Z_p^*$, $\gcd(i, p)=1$, $\exists j$ such that $i \cdot j \equiv y \pmod p$
- If $y \notin QR_p$, the congruence $x^2 \equiv y \pmod p$ has no solution, therefore, $j \neq i \pmod p$
- We can group the integers 1, 2, …, p-1 into (p-1)/2 pairs (i, j), each satisfying $i \cdot j \equiv y \pmod p$
- Multiply them together, we have $(p-1)! \equiv y^{(p-1)/2} \pmod p$
- From Wilson's theorem, $y^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod p$

Exactly Two Square Roots

Every $y \in QR_p$ has exactly two square roots i.e. x and $p-x$ such that $x^2 \equiv y \pmod p$

pf:
- $QR_p = \{g^2, g^4, \ldots, g^{p-1}\}$, $|Z_p^*| = p-1$, and $|QR_p| = (p-1)/2$
- For each $y \equiv g^{2k}$ in QR_p, there are at least two distinct $x \in Z_p^*$ s.t. $x^2 \equiv y \pmod p$, i.e., g^k and $p-g^k$ (if one is even, the other is odd)
- Since $|QR_p| = (p-1)/2$, we can obtain a set of p-1 square roots $S=\{g, p-g, g^2, p-g^2, \ldots, g^{(p-1)/2}, p-g^{(p-1)/2}\}$
- Claim: the elements of S are all distinct (1. $g^i \neq g^j \pmod p$ when $i \neq j$ since g is a primitive, 2. $g^i \neq -g^j \pmod p$ when $i \neq j$, otherwise $(g^i+g^j)(g^i-g^j) \equiv g^{2i}-g^{2j} \equiv 0 \pmod p$ implies $i \equiv j \pmod{(p-1)/2}$, 3. $g^i \neq -g^i \pmod p$ since if one is even, the other is odd)
- If there is one more square root z of $y \equiv g^{2k}$ which is not g^k and $-g^k$, it must belong to S (which is Z_p^*), say g^j, $j \neq k$, which would imply that $g^{2j} \equiv g^{2k} \pmod p$, and leads to contradiction

Order q Subgroup G_q of Z_p^*

- Let p be a prime number, g be a primitive in Z_p^*
- Let $p = k \cdot q + 1$ i.e. $q \mid p-1$ where q is also a prime number
- Let $G_q = \{g^k, g^{2k}, \ldots, g^{q \cdot k} \equiv 1\}$
- Is G_q a subgroup in Z_p^*? YES

  $\forall x, y \in G_q$, it is clear that $z \equiv g^{i \cdot k} \equiv x \cdot y \equiv g^{(i_1+i_2) \cdot k} \pmod p$ is also in G_q, where $i \equiv i_1 + i_2 \pmod q$
- Is the order of the subgroup G_q q? YES

  $\forall i_1, i_2 \in Z_q, i_1 \neq i_2$, $g^{i_1 \cdot k} \neq g^{i_2 \cdot k} \pmod p$ otherwise g is not a primitive in Z_p^*, also $g^{q \cdot k} \equiv 1 \pmod p$
- How many generators are there in G_q? $\phi(q)=q-1$

  a. there are $\phi(p-1)$ generators in $Z_p^*=\{g^1, g^2, \ldots, g^x, \ldots, g^{p-1}\}$, since $\gcd(p-1, x) = d > 1$ implies that $ord_p(g^x) = (p-1)/d$

Order q Subgroup G_q (cont'd)

also $(g^x)^y \equiv 1 \pmod p$ and $g^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ implies that either $x \cdot y \mid p-1$ or $p-1 \mid x \cdot y$, $\gcd(x, p-1) = 1$ implies that $p-1 \mid y$ therefore, $ord_p(g^x) = p-1$

b. there are $\phi(q)$ primitives in $G_q = \{g^k, g^{2k}, \ldots, g^{q \cdot k} \equiv 1\}$ since q is also a prime number

- **Is G_q a unique order q subgroup in Z_p^* ?** YES

  Let S be an order-q cyclic subgroup, $S= \{g, g^2, \ldots, g^q \equiv 1\}$. Since p is prime, $\exists$ a unique k-th root $g_1 \in Z_p^*$, s.t. $g \equiv g_1^k \pmod p$

  Let $g_1 \neq g$ be another primitive, clearly $g_1 \equiv g^s \pmod p$,

  Is the set $S=\{g_1^k, g_1^{2k}, \ldots, g_1^{q \cdot k} \equiv 1\}$ different from G_q?

  let $x \in S$, i.e. $x \equiv g_1^{i_1 \cdot k} \pmod p$, $i_1 \in Z_q$

  $x \equiv g_1^{i_1 \cdot k} \equiv g^{s \cdot i_1 \cdot k} \equiv g^{i \cdot k} \pmod p$ where $i \equiv s \cdot i_1 \pmod q$, i.e. $S \subseteq G_q$

  The proof is similar for $G_q \subseteq S$. Therefore, $S = G_q$

Gauss' Lemma

Lemma: let p be a prime, a is an integer s.t. gcd(a, p)=1,
define $\alpha_j \equiv j\cdot a \pmod p\}_{j=1,\ldots,(p-1)/2}$,
let n be the number of α_j's s.t. $\alpha_j > p/2$ then $L(a, p) = (-1)^n$

pf.

- $\alpha_j \in \{r_1, \ldots, r_n\}$ if $\alpha_j > p/2$ and $\alpha_j \in \{s_1, \ldots, s_{(p-1)/2-n}\}$ if $\alpha_j < p/2$
- Since gcd(a, p)=1, r_i and s_i are all distinct and non-zero
- Clearly, $0 < p-r_i < p/2$ for i=1,…,n
- no $p-r_i$ is an s_j: if $p-r_i=s_j$ then $s_j \equiv -r_i \pmod p$
  rewrite in terms of a: $u\, a \equiv -v\, a \pmod p$ where $1 \le u, v \le (p-1)/2$
  $\Rightarrow u \equiv -v \pmod p$ where $1 \le u, v \le (p-1)/2 \Rightarrow$ impossible

$\Rightarrow \{s_1, \ldots, s_{(p-1)/2-n}, p-r_1, \ldots, p-r_n\}$ is a reordering of $\{1, 2,\ldots, (p-1)/2\}$

- Thus, $((p-1)/2)! \equiv s_1\cdots s_{(p-1)/2-n}\cdot(-r_1)\cdots(-r_n) \equiv (-1)^n s_1\cdots s_{(p-1)/2-n}\cdot r_1\cdots r_n$
  $\equiv (-1)^n ((p-1)/2)!\, a^{(p-1)/2} \pmod p \Rightarrow L(a, p) = (-1)^n$

Theorem: $J(2, p) = (-1)^{(p^2-1)/8}$

Theorem: let p be a prime, gcd(a, p) = 1 then $L(a, p) = (-1)^t$

where $t = \sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} \lfloor j\cdot a/p\rfloor$. Also $L(2, p) = (-1)^{(p^2-1)/8}$

pf.

- $\alpha_j \in \{r_1, \ldots, r_n\}$ if $\alpha_j > p/2$ and $\alpha_j \in \{s_1, \ldots, s_{(p-1)/2-n}\}$ if $\alpha_j < p/2$
- $j\, a = p\lfloor j\cdot a/p\rfloor + \alpha_j$ for j=1, …, (p-1)/2
  $\Rightarrow \sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} j\, a = \sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} p\lfloor j\cdot a/p\rfloor + \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j + \sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2-n} s_j$
- $\{s_1, \ldots, s_{(p-1)/2-n}, p-r_1, \ldots, p-r_n\}$ is a reordering of $\{1, 2,\ldots, (p-1)/2\}$
  $\Rightarrow \sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} j = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (p-r_j) + \sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2-n} s_j = np - \sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j + \sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2-n} s_j$
- Subtracting the above two equations, we have

$$(a - 1)\sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} j = p\left(\sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} \lfloor j\cdot a/p\rfloor - n\right) + 2\sum_{j=1}^{n} r_j$$

$J(2, p) = (-1)^{(p^2-1)/8}$ (cont'd)

- $\sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} j = 1 + \ldots + (p-1)/2 = (p-1)/2\, (1 + (p-1)/2) / 2 = (p^2-1)/8$
- Thus, we have $(a-1)\,(p^2-1)/8 \equiv \sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} \lfloor j\cdot a/p\rfloor - n \pmod 2$

- If a is odd, $n \equiv \sum_{j=1}^{(p-1)/2} \lfloor j\cdot a/p\rfloor$
- If a = 2, $\lfloor j\cdot 2/p\rfloor = 0$ for j=1, …, (p-1)/2, $n \equiv (p^2-1)/8 \pmod 2$

  therefore, $J(2, p) = (-1)^{(p^2-1)/8}$

Lemma. ord-k elements in $Z_p^* \le \phi(k)$

Lemma. There are at most $\phi(k)$ ord-k elements in Z_p^*, k | p-1

pf.

- Z_p^* is a field $\Rightarrow x^k-1 \equiv 0 \pmod p$ has at most k roots
- if $\boldsymbol{a}$ is a nontrivial root ($\boldsymbol{a}\neq 1$), then $\{\boldsymbol{a}^0, \boldsymbol{a}^1, \boldsymbol{a}^2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{a}^{k-1}\}$ is the set of the k distinct roots.
- In this set, those a^ℓ with $\gcd(\ell, k) = d > 1$ have order at most k/d.
- Only those a^ℓ with $\gcd(\ell, k) = 1$ might have order k.
- Hence, there are at most $\phi(k)$ elements (out of k elements) that have order equal to k.

Lemma. $\Sigma_{k|p-1}\ \phi(k) = p-1$

Lemma. $\Sigma_{k|p-1}\ \phi(k) = p-1$

pf.

$$p-1 = \Sigma_{k|p-1} (\#\ a \text{ in } Z_p^* \text{ s.t. } \gcd(a, p-1) = k)$$
$$= \Sigma_{k|p-1} (\#\ b \text{ in } \{1,\ldots,(p-1)/k\} \text{ s.t. } \gcd(b, (p-1)/k) = 1)$$
$$= \Sigma_{k|p-1}\ \phi((p-1)/k)$$
$$= \Sigma_{k|p-1}\ \phi(k)$$

ex. $\{\phi(1), \phi(2), \phi(3), \phi(4), \phi(6), \phi(12)\}$, p=13

Z_p^* is a cyclic group

Theorem: Z_p^* is a *cyclic* group for a prime number p

pf.

Lemma 1: # of ord-k elements in $Z_p^* \le \phi(k)$, where $k \mid p-1$

Lemma 2: $\Sigma_{k|p-1}\ \phi(k) = p-1$

The order k of every element in Z_p^* divides p-1

$\Rightarrow \Sigma_{k|p-1}$ (# of elements with order k) = p-1

$\Rightarrow \Sigma_{k|p-1}\ \phi(k) \ge p-1$, combined with lemma 2, we know that # of ord-k elements in $Z_p^* = \phi(k)$

$\Rightarrow$ # of ord-(p-1) elements in $Z_p^* = \phi(p-1) > 1$

$\Rightarrow$ There is at least one generator in Z_p^*, i.e. Z_p^* is cyclic

Ex. p=13, p-1 = $\underbrace{|\{1,5,7,11\}|}_{k=1} + \underbrace{|\{2,10\}|}_{k=2} + \underbrace{|\{3,9\}|}_{k=3} + \underbrace{|\{4,8\}|}_{k=4} + \underbrace{|\{6\}|}_{k=6}$

Generators in QR_n

- Number of generators in Z_p^*: $\phi(p-1)$
  - Let g be a primitive, $Z_p^* = \langle g\rangle = \{g, g^2, g^3, \ldots, g^k, \ldots, g^{p-1}\}$
  - if $\gcd(k, p-1) = d \ne 1$ then g^k is not a primitive
    - since $(g^k)^{(p-1)/d} = (g^{k/d})^{p-1} = 1$, i.e. $ord_p(g^k) \le (p-1)/d$
  - if $\gcd(k, p-1) = 1$ and g^k is not a primitive, then $d=ord_p(g^k) < p-1$, i.e.
    - $(g^k)^d = 1$; g is a primitive $\Rightarrow p-1 \mid k\,d \Rightarrow p-1 \mid d$ contradiction.
- Z_n^* is not a cyclic group ($n = p\,q$, $p=2p'+1$, $q=2q'+1$, $\lambda(n)=2p'q'$)
  - Since $x^{\lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod n$, there is no generator that can generate all members in Z_n^*
- QR_n is a cyclic group of order $\lambda(n)/2 = \mathrm{lcm}(p-1, q-1)/2 = p'\,q'$
  - $\forall x \in Z_n^*$, $x^{\lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod n$ Carmichael's Theorem
    - clearly, $(x^2)^{\lambda(n)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod n$, $QR_n = \{x^2 \mid \forall x \in Z_n^*\}$
      - i.e. $\forall y \in QR_n$, $ord_n(y) \mid p'\,q'$ $(ord_n(y) \in \{1, p', q', p'q'\})$

Generators in QR_n (cont'd)

cyclic? $\exists x^* \in Z_n^*$ $ord_n(x^*) = \lambda(n) = 2\,p'\,q'$ $\Rightarrow$

$\exists y^* (=(x^*)^2) \in QR_n$ s.t. $ord_n(y^*) = \lambda(n)/2 = p'\,q'$

- Let y be a random element in QR_n, the probability that y is a generator is close to 1
  - Let y^* be a generator of QR_n,
    - $QR_n = \langle y^*\rangle = \{y^*, (y^*)^2, (y^*)^3, \ldots, (y^*)^k, \ldots, (y^*)^{p'q'}\}$
  - if $\gcd(k, p'q') = d \ne 1$ then $(y^*)^k$ is not a generator
    - since $((y^*)^k)^{p'q'/d} = ((y^*)^{k/d})^{p'q'} = 1$, i.e. $ord_p((y^*)^k) \le (p'q')/d$
  - $\phi(p'q') = \phi(p')\,\phi(q') = (p'-1)(q'-1) = p'q' - p' - q' + 1$
    - $= p'q' - (p'-1) - (q'-1) - 1$
      - $\forall x \in \{(y^*)^{q'}, (y^*)^{2q'}, \ldots, (y^*)^{(p'-1)q'}\}$ $ord_n(x) = p'$
      - $\forall x \in \{(y^*)^{p'}, (y^*)^{2p'}, \ldots, (y^*)^{(q'-1)p'}\}$ $ord_n(x) = q'$
      - $ord_n(1) = 1$
  - $\Pr\{x \text{ is a generator} \mid x \in_R QR_n\} = \phi(p'q') / (p'q')$ is close to 1

Subgroups in Z_n^*

Consider $n = p\,q$, $p=2p'+1$, $q=2q'+1$, $m=p'q'$, $\lambda(n) = \mathrm{lcm}(p-1, q-1)=2m$,

$\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = 4m$

- **Z_n^*** is not a cyclic group
  - Carmichael's theorem asserts that no element in Z_n^* can generate all elements in Z_n^*. (maximum order is 2m instead of 4m)
  - However, Z_n^* is still a group over modulo n multiplication.
- **QR_n** is a <u>cyclic</u> subgroup of order $m = \lambda(n)/2$, $QR_n = \{x^2 \mid \forall\, x \in Z_n^*\}$
  - $J_{00} = \{x \in Z_n^* \mid J(x,p)=1 \text{ and } J(x,q)=1\}$
  - If there exists an element in Z_n^* whose order is 2m, then QR_n is clearly a cyclic group. (Will the precondition be true?)
  - $\forall\, x\in Z_n^*\ x^{2m} \equiv 1 \pmod n$ implies that $\forall\, y\in QR_n\ \mathrm{ord}_n(y) \mid p'q'$ i.e. $\mathrm{ord}_n(y)$ is either 1, p', q', or p'q' (if there is one y s.t. $\mathrm{ord}_n(y)=m$ then y is a generator and QR_n is cyclic). Let's construct one.

Subgroups in Z_n^* (cont'd)

Let g_1 be a generator in Z_p^*, and g_2 be a generator in Z_q^*

Let $\mathbf{g \equiv g_1 \pmod p \equiv g_2 \pmod q}$, (note that $J(g, n) = 1$, $g \in J_{11}$)

$g^{p-1} \equiv g^{2p'} \equiv g_1^{2p'} \equiv 1 \pmod p$, $g^{q-1} \equiv g^{2q'} \equiv g_2^{2q'} \equiv 1 \pmod q$

$\Rightarrow\ g^{2p'q'} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ and $g^{2q'p'} \equiv 1 \pmod q$ i.e. $g^{2p'q'} \equiv 1 \pmod n$

if there exists a $k \in \{1, 2, p', q', 2p', 2q', p'q'\}$ s.t. $g^k \equiv 1 \pmod n$

then $\mathrm{ord}_n(g)$ is not $2p'q'$

1. $k=1$: $\Rightarrow g_1 \equiv 1 \pmod p$ contradict with $\mathrm{ord}_p(g_1) = p-1$
2. $k=p'$: $\Rightarrow g^{p'} \equiv g_1^{p'} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ contradict with $\mathrm{ord}_p(g_1) = 2p'$
3. $k=q'$: $\Rightarrow g^{q'} \equiv g_2^{q'} \equiv 1 \pmod q$ contradict with $\mathrm{ord}_q(g_2) = 2q'$
4. $k=2$: $\Rightarrow g_1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod p$ contradict with $\mathrm{ord}_p(g_1) = p-1$
5. $k=2p'$: $\Rightarrow g^{2p'} \equiv g_2^{2p'} \equiv 1 \pmod q$ contradict with $\mathrm{ord}_q(g_2) = 2q'$
6. $k=2q'$: $\Rightarrow g^{2q'} \equiv g_1^{2q'} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ contradict with $\mathrm{ord}_p(g_1) = 2p'$

Subgroups in Z_n^* (cont'd)

7. $k=p'q'$: $\Rightarrow g^{p'q'} \equiv g_1^{p'q'} \equiv 1 \pmod p$

since $g_1^{2p'} \equiv 1 \pmod p$ and

$\gcd(q', 2) = 1 \Rightarrow\ \exists$ a, b s.t. $a\,q' + b\,2 = 1$

$\Rightarrow g_1^{p'} \equiv g_1^{p'(a\,q' + b\,2)} \equiv (g_1^{p'q'})^a\,(g_1^{2p'})^b \equiv 1 \pmod p$

contradict with $\mathrm{ord}_p(g_1) = 2p'$

1~7 implies that $\mathrm{ord}_n(g) = 2p'q'$, i.e. $QR_o = \{g^2, g^4, \ldots, g^{p'q'}\}$ and QR_n is a cyclic group.

- Pr{Elements in QR_n being a generator} = $\phi(p'q') / (p'q')$

- **J_n** is a <u>cyclic</u> subgroup of order $2m = \lambda(n)$, $J_n = \{x \in Z_n^* \mid J(x,n)=1\}$
  - $J_{11} = \{x \in Z_n^* \mid J(x,p)=-1 \text{ and } J(x,q)=-1\}$
  - The above proof also shows that $J_n = \{g, g^2, \ldots, g^{2p'q'}\}$ is cyclic
  - Pr{Elements in J_n being a generator} = $\phi(p'q') / (2p'q')$
- **$J_{01}\cup J_{10}$** $= Z_n^* \setminus \{J_{00}\cup J_{11}\}$ is not a subgroup in Z_n^*
  - if $x \in J_{01}$ then $x * x \in J_{00}$

Generator in QR_n

- $n = p\,q$, $p=2p'+1$, $q=2q'+1$
- Find a generator in QR_n

1. Find a generator g_1 of Z_p^* (i.e. $Z_p^* = \langle g_1 \rangle$) and g_2 of Z_q^* (i.e. $Z_q^* = \langle g_2 \rangle$)
2. Calculate the generator $h_1 \equiv g_1^2 \pmod p$ of QR_p and $h_2 \equiv g_2^2 \pmod 1$ of QR_q
3. Let $h \equiv h_1 \pmod p \equiv h_2 \pmod q$.

It is clear that $h \equiv g^2 \pmod n$, i.e. $h\in QR_n$, where $g \equiv g_1 \pmod p \equiv g_2 \pmod q$.

Claim: h is a generator of QR_n

pf.

$y \in QR_n \Rightarrow\ y \in QR_p$ and $y \in QR_q$

i.e. $\exists\, x_1\in Z_{p'}$ and $x_2\in Z_{q'}$, $y \equiv h_1^{x_1} \pmod p \equiv h_2^{x_2} \pmod q$

$\Rightarrow y \equiv g_1^{2\,x_1} \pmod p \equiv g_2^{2\,x_2} \pmod q$

$\Rightarrow y \equiv g^{2\,x} \pmod n$ if $2\,x \equiv 2\,x_1 \pmod{p-1} \equiv 2\,x_2 \pmod{q-1}$

a unique $x \in Z_{p'q'}$ exists by CRT since $\gcd(p-1, q-1) = \gcd(2p', 2q') = 2$

$\Rightarrow y \equiv h^{x} \pmod n$

Generate Elements in Z_n^*

- Z_n^* is NOT a cyclic group ($n = p\,q$, $p=2p'+1$, $q=2q'+1$, $m=p'\,q'$)
- How do we generate random elements in Z_n^*?

  $Z_n^* = \{\, g^a\, u^{-e\, b_1} (-1)^{b_2} \mid g$ is a generator in QR_n, $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$,
  $u \in_R Z_n^*$ and $J(u,n) = -1$,
  $a \in \{0,\ldots,m-1\}$, $b_1 \in \{0,1\}$, and $b_2 \in \{0,1\}\,\}$

  Note: 1. $J(-1, n) = 1$ and $-1 \in J_n \setminus QR_n$ since $(-1)^{(p-1)/2} \equiv (-1)^{p'} \equiv -1 \pmod p$
  2. e is odd, $\phi(n)$-e is also odd, $J(u^{-e}, n) = J(u, n) = -1$
- We can view the above as 4 parts
  1. J_{00} (QR_n): $b_1 = b_2 = 0$, $J_{00} = \{g^a \mid a \in \{0,\ldots,m-1\}\}$
  2. J_{11} ($J_n \setminus QR_n$): $b_1 = 0$, $b_2 = 1$, $J_{11} = \{-g^a \mid a \in \{0,\ldots,m-1\}\}$

  Assume that $J(u, p) = -1$ and $J(u, q) = 1$

  3. J_{01}: $b_1 = 1$, $b_2 = 0$, $J_{01} = \{g^a\, u^{-e} \mid a \in \{0,\ldots,m-1\}\}$
  4. J_{10}: $b_1 = 1$, $b_2 = 1$, $J_{01} = \{-g^a\, u^{-e} \mid a \in \{0,\ldots,m-1\}\}$

- Lagrange’s Theorem: for any finite group G, the order (number of elements) of every subgroup H of G divides the order of G.
  - proof sketch: divide G into left cosets H – equivalence classes, and show that they have the same size.
- It implies that: the order of any element *a* of a finite group (i.e. the smallest positive integer number *k* with $a^k = 1$) divides the order of the group. Since the order of *a* is equal to the order of the cyclic subgroup generated by *a*. Also, $a^{|G|} = 1$ since order of *a* divides |G|.