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Today we will see some concrete one-way function candidates that arise from number theory, and abstract out some of their other special properties that will be useful when we proceed to investigate pseudorandomness.

## 1 Collections of OWFs

Our generic definition of a one-way function is concise, and very useful for complexity-theoretic crypto. However, it tends not to be as appropriate for the kinds of hard functions that we use in "real-life" crypto; below we give a more flexible definition. (In your homework, you will show that the generic OWF definition is equivalent to this one.)

**Definition 1.1.** A collection of one-way functions is a family  $F = \{f_s \colon D_s \to R_s\}_{s \in S}$  satisfying the following conditions:

- 1. Easy to sample a function: there is a PPT algorithm S such that S() outputs some  $s \in S$  (according to some arbitrary distribution).
- 2. Easy to sample from domain: there is a PPT algorithm D such that D(s) outputs some  $x \in D_s$  (according to some arbitrary distribution).
- 3. Easy to evaluate function: there is a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm F for which  $F(s,x) = f_s(x)$  for all  $s \in S$ ,  $x \in D_s$ .
- 4. *Hard to invert:* for any non-uniform PPT algorithm  $\mathcal{I}$ ,

$$\Pr_{s \leftarrow \mathsf{S}(1^n), x \leftarrow \mathsf{D}(s)} \left[ \mathcal{I}(s, f_s(x)) \in f_s^{-1}(f_s(x)) \right] = \mathrm{negl}(n).$$

For example, the subset-sum function  $f_{ss}$  is more naturally defined as a collection, as follows. Let  $S_n = (\mathbb{Z}_N)^n$  where  $N = 2^n$ , and let the full index set  $S = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} S_n$ . Define the domain  $D_{\vec{a}} = \{0,1\}^n$  and the range  $R_{\vec{a}} = \mathbb{Z}_N$ , for all  $\vec{a} = (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in S_n$ . The corresponding function is defined as

$$f_{\vec{a}}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i \cdot x_i \bmod N.$$

The algorithms S (function sampler), D (domain sampler), and F (function evaluator) are all straightforward. In the remainder of the lecture, we will see other examples of OWF collections (some with other special properties) that arise from number theory.

## 2 Number Theory Background

**Definition 2.1.** For positive integers  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ , their *greatest common divisor*  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  is the largest integer d such that  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$ .

As a consequence of Algorithm 1 below, there always exist integers  $x,y\in\mathbb{Z}$  such that  $ax+by=\gcd(a,b)$ . We say that a and b are *co-prime* (or *relatively prime*) if  $\gcd(a,b)=1$ , i.e.,  $ax=1 \mod b$ . From this, x is the multiplicative inverse of a modulo b, and likewise y is the multiplicative inverse of b modulo a. The following deterministic algorithm shows that  $\gcd(a,b)$  (and additionally, the integers x and y) can be computed efficiently.

**Algorithm 1** Algorithm ExtendedEuclid(a, b) for computing the greatest common divisor of a and b.

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Input: Positive integers a \ge b > 0.

Output: (x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 such that ax + by = \gcd(a,b).

1: if b \mid a then

2: return (0,1)

3: else

4: Let a = b \cdot q + r for r \in \{1, \dots, b-1\}

5: (x',y') \leftarrow \mathsf{ExtendedEuclid}(b,r)

6: return (y',x'-q\cdot y')

7: end if
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**Theorem 2.2.** Extended Euclid is correct and runs in polynomial time in the lengths of a and b, i.e., in  $poly(\log a + \log b)$  time.

*Proof.* For correctness, we argue by induction on the second argument b. Clearly the algorithm is correct when b=1. If  $b\mid a$ , then  $\gcd(a,b)=b$ , hence ExtendedEuclid correctly returns (0,1). If  $b\nmid a$  then by the inductive hypothesis (using b>r), the recursive call correctly returns (x',y') such that  $bx'+ry'=\gcd(b,r)$ . It can be checked that  $\gcd(a,b)=\gcd(b,r)$ , because any common divisor of a and b is also a divisor of r. Finally, observe that

$$\gcd(b, r) = bx' + ry' = bx' + (a - b \cdot q)y' = ay' + (x' - q \cdot y')b.$$

Hence ExtendedEuclid correctly returns  $(y', x' - q \cdot y')$ .

For the running time, observe that all the basic operations (not including the recursive call) can be implemented in polynomial time. The following claim establishes the overall efficiency.

**Claim 2.3.** For  $2^n > a \ge b > 0$ , Extended Euclid makes at most 2n recursive calls.

We use induction. The claim is true when  $a < 2^1$ . Suppose the claim is true for all  $a < 2^n$ , and suppose  $a < 2^{n+1}$ . Two cases arise:

- If  $b < 2^n$ , the first recursive call is on (b, r). Since  $b < 2^n$ , by the inductive hypothesis we make at most 2n more recursive calls. Hence the total number of recursive calls is at most 1 + 2n < 2(n + 1).
- If  $b \ge 2^n$ , i.e.,  $2^{n+1} > a \ge b \ge 2^n$ , we have  $a = b \cdot 1 + r$  for  $r = a b < 2^n < b$ . The first recursive call is on  $(b \ge 2^n, r < 2^n)$ . In turn, its recursive call uses  $r < 2^n$  as its first parameter. By the inductive hypothesis, the number of recursive calls following the second one is at most 2n. Hence the total number of recursive calls is at most  $2 + 2n \le 2(n+1)$ .

We frequently work with the ring  $(\mathbb{Z}_N, +, \cdot)$  of integers modulo a positive integer N.

**Lemma 2.4** (Chinese remainder theorem, special case). Let  $N = p \cdot q$  for distinct primes p, q. The ring  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  is isomorphic to the product ring  $\mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q$ , via the isomorphism  $h(x) = (x \mod p, x \mod q)$ .

A few remarks about the above lemma:

• In the product ring  $\mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q$ , addition and multiplication are coordinate-wise.

• Clearly the isomorphism h is efficiently computable. Less obvious is that it is also efficiently *invertible*. Suppose we know some elements  $c_p, c_q \in \mathbb{Z}_N$  such that  $h(c_p) = (1,0)$  and  $h(c_q) = (0,1)$ ; such a pair is sometimes called a *CRT basis*. Then given  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q$ , it is easy to see that  $h^{-1}(x,y) = \bar{x} \cdot c_p + \bar{y} \cdot c_q$ , where  $\bar{x}, \bar{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_N$  are any elements such that  $\bar{x} = x \pmod{p}$  and  $\bar{y} = y \pmod{q}$ . (For example, we could take the "smallest" elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  that have the required residues modulo p and q, respectively.)

**Question 1.** For the CRT isomorphism on  $\mathbb{Z}_{15}$ , verify that the following example equations hold:  $h(7 \cdot 9) = h(7) \cdot h(9)$  and h(6+11) = h(6) + h(11).

**Question 2.** Show that  $h^{-1}(x,y) = \bar{x} \cdot c_p + \bar{y} \cdot c_q$ , as claimed above.

**Question 3.** Show how to compute  $c_p$ ,  $c_q$  efficiently (hint: use ExtendedEuclid on p,q).

**Definition 2.5.** The multiplicative group  $\mathbb{Z}_N^* := \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N : x \text{ is invertible mod } N, \text{ i.e., } \gcd(x, N) = 1\}.$ 

Here are some useful facts about the multiplicative group  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ :

- For a prime  $p, \mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, \dots, p-1\}.$
- When N = pq for distinct primes p, q, we have  $\mathbb{Z}_N^* \cong \mathbb{Z}_p^* \times \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ .

**Definition 2.6.** For  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , Euler's *totient function*  $\varphi(N)$  is defined to be  $|\mathbb{Z}_N^*|$ , i.e., the number of positive integers  $a \leq N$  that are relatively prime to N.

Here are some useful facts about the totient function:

- For a prime p, we have  $\varphi(p) = p 1$ .
- For a prime p and positive integer a, we have  $\varphi(p^a)=(p-1)p^{a-1}=p^a-p^{a-1}.$
- If gcd(a, b) = 1, then  $\varphi(a \cdot b) = \varphi(a) \cdot \varphi(b)$ .

**Definition 2.7.** The subgroup of *quadratic residues* is defined as

$$\mathbb{QR}_N^* = \{ y \in \mathbb{Z}_N^* : \exists \ x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^* \text{ s.t. } y = x^2 \text{ mod } N \} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_N^*.$$

Here are some useful facts about  $\mathbb{QR}_N^*$ :

- For an odd prime p,  $|\mathbb{QR}_p^*| = \frac{p-1}{2}$ , because  $x \mapsto x^2$  is 2-to-1 over  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ . (Exercise: prove this.)
- When N=pq for distinct odd primes p,q, we have  $\mathbb{QR}_N^*\cong \mathbb{QR}_p^*\times \mathbb{QR}_q^*$ , hence  $|\mathbb{QR}_N^*|=\frac{p-1}{2}\cdot \frac{q-1}{2}$ .
- For an odd prime p, we have  $-1 \in \mathbb{QR}_p^*$  if and only if  $p = 1 \mod 4$ .

**Question 4.** Verify that the CRT isomorphism works in  $\mathbb{Z}_{15}$  by checking that  $h(7 \cdot 9) = h(7) \cdot h(9)$ .

**Question 5.** Show that  $h^{-1}(x,y) = x \cdot c_p + y \cdot c_q$ .

## **3 Factoring-Related Functions**

We can abstract out a modulus generation algorithm S, which given the security parameter  $1^n$  outputs the product N of two primes p,q. For example, S might choose p and q to be uniformly random and independent n-bit primes.

Rabin's function  $f_N \colon \mathbb{Z}_N^* \to \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{R}_N^*$  is defined as follows:

$$f_N(x) = x^2 \bmod N.$$

Precisely defining the collection according to Definition 1.1 is a simple exercise. Note that  $f_N$  is 4-to-1, because each  $y \in \mathbb{QR}_N^*$  has two square roots modulo p, and two modulo q.

**Theorem 3.1.** *If factoring is hard (with respect to* S)*, then the Rabin collection (with function generator* S) *is one-way.* 

*Proof.* First, as already discussed it is easy to generate a function, sample its domain, and evaluate the function. The main fact we use to prove one-wayness is the following.

**Claim 3.2.** Let N = pq be the product of distinct odd primes. Given any  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  such that  $x_1^2 = x_2^2 \mod N$  but  $x_1 \neq \pm x_2 \mod N$ , the factors of N can be computed efficiently.

Proof of Claim. We have  $x_1^2 = x_2^2 \mod p$  and  $x_1^2 = x_2^2 \mod q$ , which implies  $x_1 = \pm x_2 \mod p$  and  $x_1 = \pm x_2 \mod q$ . But we cannot have both + or both -, by assumption. Wlog, we have  $x_1 = +x_2 \mod p$  and  $x_1 = -x_2 \mod q$ . Then  $p \mid (x_1 - x_2)$  but  $q \nmid (x_1 - x_2)$ , otherwise we'd have  $q \mid (2x_2) \Rightarrow q \mid x_2 \Rightarrow x_2 \notin \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ . Then  $\gcd(x_1 - x_2, N) = p$ , which we can compute efficiently.  $\square$ 

Continuing with the proof of Theorem 3.1, we prove one-wayness by contrapositive, via a reduction. Assuming we have an inverter for the Rabin function, the idea is to choose our own  $x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  and invoke the inverter on  $y = f_N(x_1) = x_1^2 \mod N$ . The square root  $x_2$  it returns will be  $\neq \pm x_1$ , with probability 1/2. In such a case, we get the prime factorization of N by Claim 3.2. We now proceed more formally.

Assume a non-uniform PPT inverter  $\mathcal{I}$  violating the one-wayness of the Rabin collection, i.e.,

$$\Pr_{N \leftarrow \mathsf{S}(1^n), x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*} [\mathcal{I}(N, y = x^2 \bmod N) \in \sqrt{y} \bmod N] = \delta(n)$$

is non-negligible.

Our factoring algorithm  $\mathcal{A}(N)$  works as follows: first, generate a uniform  $x_1 \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ . Let  $y = x_1^2 \mod N$  and let  $x_2 \leftarrow \mathcal{I}(N,y)$ . If  $x_2^2 = y \mod N$  but  $x_1 \neq \pm x_2 \mod N$ , then compute the factorization of N by Claim 3.2.

We now analyze the reduction. First, N and y are distributed as expected, so  $\mathcal{I}$  outputs  $x_2$  such that  $x_2^2 = y \mod N$  with probability  $\delta$ . Conditioned on the fixed value of y, there are four possible values for  $x_1$ , each equally likely by construction. So we have  $x_2^2 = y \mod N$  and  $x_2 \neq \pm x_1 \mod N$  with prob  $\delta/2$ , which is non-negligible by assumption.  $\square$ 

Suppose  $p,q=3 \mod 4$ . Then -1 is not a square modulo p (respectively, q). So for any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  (resp.,  $\mathbb{Z}_q^*$ ), exactly one of  $\pm x$  is a square modulo p (resp., q). From this it can be seen that if we restrict the Rabin function to have domain  $\mathbb{QR}_N^*$ , i.e.,  $f_N \colon \mathbb{QR}_N^* \to \mathbb{QR}_N^*$ , it becomes a *permutation* (bijection).

**Question**: Our proof that  $f_N$  is one-way used (quite essentially) the fact that  $f_N$  is 4-to-1. Now that we have changed its domain to make  $f_N$  a permutation, is the proof still valid?

**Definition 3.3** (One-Way Permutation). A collection  $F = \{f_s \colon D_s \to D_s\}_{s \in S}$  is a collection of *one-way permutations* if it is a collection of one-way functions  $f_s$  under the *uniform* distribution over  $D_s$ , and each  $f_s$  is a *permutation* of  $D_s$  (i.e., a bijection).

## **Answers**

**Question 1.** For the CRT isomorphism on  $\mathbb{Z}_{15}$ , verify that the following example equations hold:  $h(7 \cdot 9) = h(7) \cdot h(9)$  and h(6+11) = h(6) + h(11).

**Answer.** Note that 15 is the product of two primes, 3 and 5, so  $\mathbb{Z}_{15} \cong \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_5$ .

First, we consider  $h(7 \cdot 9)$ . We have  $7 \cdot 9 = 3 \pmod{15}$  and  $h(3) = (3 \mod 3, 3 \mod 5) = (0, 3)$ . Next,  $h(7) = (7 \mod 3, 7 \mod 5) = (1, 2)$  and  $h(9) = (9 \mod 3, 9 \mod 5) = (0, 4)$ . Finally, we multiply the pairs elementwise, recalling that the first elements of each pair are from  $\mathbb{Z}_3$  and the second elements are from  $\mathbb{Z}_5$ . We see that  $(1, 2) \cdot (0, 4) = (0 \mod 3, 8 \mod 5) = (0, 3)$ , as expected.

Now we consider h(6+11). We have  $6+11=2 \pmod{15}$  and  $h(2)=(2 \mod 3, 2 \mod 5)=(2,2)$ . Next,  $h(6)=(6 \mod 3, 6 \mod 5)=(0,1)$  and  $h(11)=(11 \mod 3, 11 \mod 5)=(2,1)$ . Finally, adding the pairs elementwise (and reducing modulo the appropriate moduli) yields (0,1)+(2,1)=(2,2), as expected.

**Question 2.** Show that  $h^{-1}(x,y) = \bar{x} \cdot c_p + \bar{y} \cdot c_q$ , as claimed above.

**Answer.** We use the CRT isomorphism several times:

$$(x,y) = (x,0) + (0,y)$$

$$= h(\bar{x}) \cdot (1,0) + h(\bar{y}) \cdot (0,1)$$

$$= h(\bar{x}) \cdot h(c_p) + h(\bar{y}) \cdot h(c_q)$$

$$= h(\bar{x} \cdot c_p + \bar{y} \cdot c_q),$$

and the result follows by applying the bijection  $h^{-1}$  to both sides.

**Question 3.** Show how to compute  $c_p$ ,  $c_q$  efficiently (hint: use Extended Euclid on p,q).

**Answer.** Because p, q are distinct primes, their gcd is 1, so ExtendedEuclid(p, q) returns integers  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $a \cdot p + b \cdot q = 1$ . We claim that  $c_p = b \cdot q \mod p$  and  $c_q = a \cdot p \mod q$ . To see this, observe that  $b \cdot q = 1 - a \cdot p = 1 \pmod{p}$  (because a is an integer) and  $b \cdot q = 0 \pmod{q}$  (because b is an integer), so  $h(b \cdot q) = (1, 0)$ , as needed. A similar calculation shows that  $h(a \cdot p) = (0, 1)$ .

**Question 4.** Verify that the CRT isomorphism works in  $\mathbb{Z}_{15}$  by checking that  $h(7 \cdot 9) = h(7) \cdot h(9)$ .

**Answer.** Note that 15 is the product of two primes: 3 and 5, so  $\mathbb{Z}_{15} \cong \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_5$ . First, we consider  $h(7 \cdot 9)$ .  $7 \cdot 9 \equiv 3 \pmod{15}$  and  $h(3) = (3 \mod 3, 3 \mod 5) = (0, 3)$ . Next,  $h(7) = (7 \mod 3, 7 \mod 5) = (1, 2)$  and  $h(9) = (9 \mod 3, 9 \mod 5) = (0, 4)$ . Finally we multiply the pairs elementwise, recalling that the first elements of each pair are from  $\mathbb{Z}_3$  and the second elements are from  $\mathbb{Z}_5$ .  $(1, 2) \cdot (0, 4) = (0, 3)$  as expected.

**Question 5.** Show that  $h^{-1}(x,y) = x \cdot c_p + y \cdot c_q$ .

Answer. Consider,

$$(x,y) = (x,0) + (0,y)$$

$$= h(x) \cdot (1,0) + h(y) \cdot (0,1)$$

$$= h(x) \cdot h(c_p) + h(y) \cdot h(c_q)$$

$$= h(x \cdot c_p + y \cdot c_q)$$

$$h^{-1}(x,y) = x \cdot c_p + y \cdot c_q$$