# Scribe Notes for Algorithmic Number Theory Class 24—June 19, 1998

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#### 1 Abstract

In this section, we continue to discuss the  $L^3$  algorithm. First we will complete the proof that it terminates and we will state the time complexity. Then we will show three applications of the algorithm, namely polynomial factorization, the subset-sum problem, and Merkle-Hellman knapsack encryption.

# 2 Termination of the $L^3$ Algorithm

Define

$$d_{i} = |\det(\langle b_{j}, b_{k} \rangle)_{1 \leq j, k \leq i}|$$

$$= |\det(\langle b_{j}^{*}, b_{k}^{*} \rangle)_{1 \leq j, k \leq i}|.$$
(1)

The equality (1) holds, because, from the previous class, we know

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} -b_{1} - \\ -b_{2} - \\ \vdots \\ -b_{n} - \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \mu_{21} & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \mu_{31} & \mu_{32} & 1 & & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mu_{i1} & \mu_{i2} & \mu_{i3} & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -b_{1}^{*} - \\ -b_{2}^{*} - \\ \vdots \\ -b_{n}^{*} - \end{pmatrix}$$

$$B_{i} = M_{i} \qquad B_{i}^{*}$$

$$i \times n \qquad i \times i \qquad i \times n$$

The j, k-entry in  $B_i B_i^T$  is precisely  $\langle b_j, b_k \rangle$ . Also,

$$B_i B_i^T = (M_i B_i^*) (M_i B_i^*)^T$$
  
=  $M_i (B_i^* B_i^*)^T M_i^*$ .

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
\det(\langle b_j, b_k \rangle) &= \det(B_i B_i^T) \\
&= \det(M_i) \det(B_i^* B_i^{*T}) \det(M_i)^T \\
&= 1 \cdot \det(\langle b_j^*, b_k^* \rangle) \cdot 1 \\
&= \det(\langle b_j^*, b_k^* \rangle).
\end{aligned}$$

We can rewrite  $d_i$  as

$$d_i = \prod_{j=1}^i \|b_j^*\|^2,$$

for  $0 \le i \le n$ . Each  $d_i > 0$ ,  $d_0 = 1$ , and  $d_n = (d(L))^2$ . Define

$$D = \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} d_i.$$

When we swap  $b_{k-1}$  and  $b_k$ ,  $d_{k-1}$  is reduced by a factor less than  $\frac{3}{4}$ . We need a lower bound on  $d_i$ . Define

$$m(L) = \min \left\{ \|x\|^2 : x \in L - \{0\} \right\}.$$

We know that  $m(L) \leq n(d(L))^{\frac{2}{n}}$ . This bound is true for each i, i.e.,

$$m(L) \le i d_i^{2/i}$$
.

Hence,

$$\left(\frac{m(L)}{i}\right)^{\frac{i}{2}} \le d_i,$$

and therefore  $L^3$  terminates.

### 3 Time Complexity of the $L^3$ Algorithm

Let

$$B = \max_{1 \le i \le n} \|b_i\|^2.$$

Then  $L^3$  requires  $O(n^4 \lg B)$  arithmetic operations on integers of size  $O(n \lg B)$ . The bit complexity of  $L^3$  is  $O(n^6 (\lg B)^3)$ .

## 4 Applications of the $L^3$ Algorithm

#### 4.1 Factorization of Polynomials with Integer Coefficients

**Theorem 4.1.** Let  $f \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$  be such that the greatest common divisor<sup>1</sup> of its coefficients is 1. Then  $L^3$  can be used to factor f in  $O(n^{12} + n^9(\lg f)^3)$  bit operations, where  $n = \lg f$ , and  $\lg f$  is the number of bits necessary to represent the polynomial f.

#### 4.2 The Subset-Sum Problem

**Definition 4.2.** The Subset-Sum Problem is defined as follows:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The greatest common divisor here is the greatest integer that divides each of the coefficients. This statement <u>does not</u> imply that the coefficients are pairwise relatively prime.

Instance: A set  $S = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n\}$  of positive integers and a positive integer s. Solution: A subset of S that sums to s. This can also be thought of as a sequence  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in \{0, 1\}$  such that

$$s = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i a_i.$$

**Theorem 4.3.** The decision version of Subset-Sum is NP-complete.

**Theorem 4.4.** Using dynamic programming, Subset-Sum can be solved in O(ns) time.

The hard case for this algorithm is when  $s \gg n$ .

Define the density of S as

$$density(S) = \frac{n}{\max_{1 \le i \le n} \lg a_i}.$$

Now we can state the  $L^3$  Subset-Sum algorithm:

$$L^3\text{-Subset-Sum }(a_1,\,a_2,\,\ldots,\,a_n,s)$$

$$m \leftarrow \left\lceil \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{n} \right\rceil$$
Let  $b_1,\,b_2,\,\ldots,\,b_{n+1}$  be the rows of the following matrix:
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & ma_1 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & ma_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 & ma_n \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \cdots & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & ms \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(b_1,\,b_2,\,\ldots,\,b_{n+1}) \leftarrow L^3(b_1,\,b_2,\,\ldots,\,b_{n+1})$$
for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n+1$  do
$$\text{Let } b_i = (Y_1,\,Y_2,\,\ldots,\,Y_{n+1})$$
if  $Y_{n+1} = 0$  and  $Y_i \in \{-\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}\},\,1 \leq i \leq n,\,$  then 
$$sum \leftarrow 0$$
for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do
$$X_j \leftarrow Y_j + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$sum \leftarrow sum + X_j a_j$$
if  $sum = s,\,$  then return  $(X_1,\,X_2,\,\ldots,\,X_n)$ 

$$sum \leftarrow 0$$
for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do
$$X_j \leftarrow -Y_j + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$sum \leftarrow sum + X_j a_j$$
if  $sum = s,\,$  then return  $(X_1,\,X_2,\,\ldots,\,X_n)$ 
return Failure  $\{no\,$  solution or bad luck $\}$ 

If  $(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)$  is a solution, then

$$Y = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i b_i\right) - b_{n+1}$$

has the form  $(\pm \frac{1}{2}, \ldots, \pm \frac{1}{2}, 0)$  and has length  $||Y|| = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{n}$ .

Coster, et.al. show this algorithm will succeed with high probability when

#### 4.3 Merkle-Hellman Knapsack Encryption

We wish to encrypt a message  $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ . A super-increasing sequence is a sequence  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  of positive integers such that

$$X_i > \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} X_j,$$

for  $1 \leq j \leq n$ .

**Example 4.5.** Let m = 101101. Then we can encode m with the super-increasing sequence 3, 5, 14, 33, 70, 197.

To encode a message m, we compute the sum

$$s = \sum X_i m_i.$$

In the example above, the encoding of m would be

$$s = (1)3 + (0)5 + (1)14 + (1)33 + (0)70 + (1)197$$
$$= 3 + 14 + 33 + 197$$
$$= 247.$$

Because we have a super-increasing sequence, decoding is easy. We start with  $X_n$  and compare it to s. If  $X_n \geq s$ , then  $m_n = 1$ . Otherwise,  $m_n = 0$ . Then we can simply subtract  $m_n X_n$  from s, decrement n, and repeat until we have all the  $m_n s$ .

**Example 4.6.** Here's a decoding of the example above:

Choose p to be a prime greater than  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ . Note that, because we have a super-increasing sum,  $s = s \mod p$ . Choose a random integer c between 1 and p - 1, and compute the inverse d modulo p, that is,

$$cd \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$
.

Now, define

$$Y_i = cX_i \pmod{p}$$
.

In general, the sequence  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  is not super-increasing. To encrypt a message m, all we must do is create the message t, where

$$t = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i m_i \pmod{p}.$$

To decrypt t, all we have to do is compute  $s = dt \mod p$ , and then we can just decode s as before.

We can use this scheme for public-key encryption by making the following values public and secret:

public: 
$$Y_1, \ldots, Y_n, p$$
  
secret:  $c, d, X_1, \ldots, X_n$ 

**Example 4.7.** Continuing with the example above, let p = 509 and let c = 428. We can compute d = 465. Now, we get the following values for  $Y_i$ :

$$Y_1 = 266$$
 $Y_2 = 104$ 
 $Y_3 = 393$ 
 $Y_4 = 381$ 
 $Y_5 = 438$ 
 $Y_6 = 331$ .

With these values, the encryption of m is

$$t = (1)266 + (0)104 + (1)393 + (1)381 + (0)438 + (1)331 \mod p$$
  
= 353.

To decrypt this message, we just compute

$$dt \mod p = (465)(353) \mod p$$
  
= 247.

**Definition 4.8.** We can now define the Subset-Sum problem for Merkle-Hellman:

Instance: Encrypted message t, public keys consisting of a prime p and a sequence

of integers  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ , satisfying  $1 \le Y_i \le p-1$ .

Solution: A sequence of bits  $m_1, \ldots, m_n$  such that  $t = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i Y_i$ .

#### 4.4 Simultaneous Diophantine Approximation

**Definition 4.9.** We define the Simultaneous Diophantine Approximation problem as

Instance:  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}$ , a bound  $Q \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and a real error bound  $\epsilon$ .

Solution:  $q, p_1, \ldots, p_d \in \mathbb{Z}, 1 \leq q \leq Q$  such that

$$\left|\alpha_r - \frac{p_r}{q}\right| \le \frac{\epsilon}{q}$$

for all r satisfying  $1 \le r \le d$ .

**Theorem 4.10.** (Dirichlet) Simultaneous Diophantine Approximation has a solution when  $\epsilon \geq Q^{-1/d}$ .

**Theorem 4.11.**  $L^3$  can solve simultaneous Diophantine Approximation in polynomial time when  $\epsilon > 2^{(d+1)/4}Q^{-1/d}$  or, equivalently,  $\epsilon^d \geq 2^{d(d+1)/4}Q^{-1}$ .

*Proof.* Let

and let  $b_1, \ldots, b_{d+1}$  be the reduced basis from  $L^3$ . We know

$$||b_1^*||^2 \leq 2^{i-1}||b_i^*||^2,$$

for  $1 \le i \le d + 1$ .

Taking the product

$$||b_1||^{2(d+1)} \le 2^{(0+1+\cdots+d)} \prod_{i=1}^{d+1} ||b_1^*||^2$$
  
=  $2^{\frac{d(d+1)}{2}} (d(L))^2$ ,

we obtain

$$||b_1|| \le 2^{\frac{d}{4}} (d(L))^{1/(d+1)}.$$

Now

$$\epsilon^{d+1} \ge \frac{\epsilon}{Q} 2^{d(d+1)/4},$$

so

$$d(L) = \frac{\epsilon}{Q} \le \frac{\epsilon^{d+1}}{2^{d(d+1)/4}}$$

and

$$||b_1|| \leq \epsilon.$$

Now, we note that  $b_1 = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_d, q)$  is an integer combination of the rows of B. Hence, we can write

$$\left|\alpha_r - \frac{p_r}{q}\right| \le \frac{\epsilon}{q},$$

and therefore,

$$|p_r - \alpha_r q| \le \epsilon.$$

## 5 Next Time

In the next class, we will begin to discuss primality testing and RSA Encryption.