# On the Analysis of Cryptographic Assumptions in the Generic Ring Model* 

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#### Abstract

At Eurocrypt 2009 Aggarwal and Maurer proved that breaking RSA is equivalent to factoring in the generic ring model. This model captures algorithms that may exploit the full algebraic structure of the ring of integers modulo $n$, but no properties of the given representation of ring elements. This interesting result raises the question how to interpret proofs in the generic ring model. For instance, one may be tempted to deduce that a proof in the generic model gives some evidence that solving the considered problem is also hard in a general model of computation. But is this reasonable?

We prove that computing the Jacobi symbol is equivalent to factoring in the generic ring model. Since there are simple and efficient non-generic algorithms computing the Jacobi symbol, we show that the generic model cannot give any evidence towards the hardness of a computational problem. Despite this negative result, we also argue why proofs in the generic ring model are still interesting, and show that solving the quadratic residuosity and subgroup decision problems is generically equivalent to factoring.


## 1 Introduction

The security of asymmetric cryptographic systems relies on assumptions that certain computational problems, mostly from number theory and algebra, are intractable. Since proving useful lower complexity bounds in a general model of computation ${ }^{1}$ seems to be impossible with currently available techniques, these assumptions have been analyzed in restricted models, see [Sho97, Mau05, Bro05, AM09], for instance. A natural and very general class of algorithms is considered in the generic ring model. This model captures all algorithms solving problems defined over an algebraic ring without exploiting specific properties of a given representation of ring elements. Such algorithms work in a similar way for arbitrary representations of ring elements, thus are generic. ${ }^{2}$

Considering fundamental cryptographic problems in the generic model is motivated by the following ideas. First, showing that a cryptographic assumption holds with respect to a restricted but meaningful class of algorithms might indicate that the idea of basing the security of cryptosystems on this assumption is not totally flawed, and may therefore be seen as evidence that the assumption is also valid in a general model of computation. Second, showing that a large class of algorithms is not able to solve a computational problem efficiently is an important insight for the search for

[^0]cryptanalytic algorithms, and can be used to deduce the optimality of certain classes of algorithms. Moreover, the generic model is a valuable tool to study the relationship among computational problems, such as the equivalence of the discrete logarithm and the Diffie-Hellman problem, as done in [BL96, MW98, MW99, MR07, AJR08], for instance.

In this paper we prove a general theorem which states that solving certain subset membership problems in the ring $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is equivalent to factoring $n$. This main theorem allows us to provide an example for a computational problem with high cryptographic relevance which is easy to solve in general, but equivalent to factoring in the generic model. Concretely, we show that computing the Jacobi symbol is equivalent to factoring in the generic ring model.

For many common idealized models in cryptography it has been shown that a cryptographic reduction in the ideal model need not guarantee security in the "real world". Well-known examples are, for instance, the random oracle model [CGH04], the ideal cipher model [Bla06], and the generic group model [Fis00, Den02]. All these results have in common that they provide somewhat "artificial" computational problems that deviate from standard cryptographic practice. ${ }^{3}$ In contrast, our result on the generic equivalence of computing the Jacobi symbol and factoring is an example for a truly practical computational problem that is provably hard in the generic model, but easy to solve in general. This is an important aspect for interpreting results in the generic ring model, like [BV98, Bro05, LR06, AJR08, AM09]. Thus a proof in the generic model is unfortunately not even an indicator that the considered problem is indeed useful for cryptographic applications.

This negative result does not affect the other mentioned motivations for the analysis of computational problems in the generic ring model. A lower bound in this model allows to deduce the optimality of certain classes of algorithms, and gives insight into the relationship between cryptographic problems, which is also of interest. Motivated by this fact, we also show that solving the quadratic residuosity and subgroup decision problems is generically equivalent to factoring. For the latter problem we show that the equivalence holds even in presence of a Diffie-Hellman oracle. Thus, a Diffie-Hellman oracle does not help in solving the subgroup decision problem.

By taking a closer look at the construction of the simulator used in the proof of our main theorem, we furthermore deduce that for a certain class of computational problems there exists an efficient generic ring algorithm if and only if there is an efficient straight line program solving the problem.

In contrast to previous work [Bro05, LR06, AJR08, AM09], where integer factorization is reduced to solving search problems (in the sense that the algorithm has to search for a certain ring element or integer), we show that in order to factor $n$ it suffices to be able to solve decisional problems in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. We consider algorithms that may exploit the full algebraic structure of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. Our results do not only cover the case where $n$ is the product of two different odd primes, but hold in the general case where $n$ is the product of at least two different primes.

### 1.1 Related Work

Previous work considering fundamental cryptographic assumptions in the generic model considered primarily discrete logarithm-based problems and the RSA problem. Starting with Shoup's seminal paper [Sho97], it was proven that solving the discrete logarithm problem, the Diffie-Hellman problem, and related problems [MW98, Mau05, RLB $\left.{ }^{+} 08\right]$ is hard with respect to generic group algorithms. Damgård and Koprowski showed the generic intractability of root extraction in groups of hidden order [DK02].

[^1]Brown [Bro05] reduced the problem of factoring integers to solving the low-exponent RSA problem with straight line programs, which are a subclass of generic ring algorithms. Leander and Rupp [LR06] augmented this result to generic ring algorithms, where the considered algorithms may only perform the operations addition, subtraction and multiplication modulo $n$, but not multiplicative inversion operations. Recently, Aggarwal and Maurer [AM09] extended this result from low-exponent RSA to full RSA and to generic ring algorithms that may also compute multiplicative inverses. Boneh and Venkatesan [BV98] have shown that there is no straight line program reducing integer factorization to the low-exponent RSA problem, unless factoring integers is easy.

The notion of generic ring algorithms has also been applied to study the relationship between the discrete logarithm and the Diffie-Hellman problem and the existence of ring-homomorphic encryption schemes [BL96, MR07, AJR08].

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Notation

For a set $A$ and a probability distribution $\mathcal{D}$ on $A$, we denote with $a \underset{\leftarrow}{\leftarrow} A$ the action of sampling an element $a$ from $A$ according to distribution $\mathcal{D}$. We denote with $U$ the uniform distribution. When sampling $k$ elements $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k} \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{\leftarrow} A$, we assume that all elements are chosen independently.

Throughout the paper we let $n$ be the product of at least two different primes, and denote with $n=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{e_{i}}$ the prime factor decomposition of $n \operatorname{such}$ that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(p_{i}^{e_{i}}, p_{j}^{e_{j}}\right)=1$ for $i \neq j$.

Let $P=\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{m}\right)$ be a finite sequence. Then $|P|$ denotes the length of $P$, i.e. $|P|=m$. For $k \leq m$ we denote with $P_{k}$ the subsequence $\left(S_{1}, \ldots, S_{k}\right)$ of $P$. For a sequences $P$ with we write $P_{k} \sqsubseteq P$ to denote that $P_{k}$ is a subsequence of $P$ such that $P_{k}$ consists of the first $\left|P_{k}\right|$ elements of $P$.

### 2.2 Uniform Closure

By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, for $n=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{e_{i}}$ the ring $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is isomorphic to the direct product of rings $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}^{e_{1}}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{k} e_{k}}$. Let $\phi$ be the isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}^{e_{1}}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{k} e_{k}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$, and for $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ let $\mathcal{C}_{i}:=\left\{y \bmod p_{i}^{e_{i}} \mid y \in \mathcal{C}\right\}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$.

Definition 1 (Uniform Closure). We say that $\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}] \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is the uniform closure of $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$, if

$$
\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]=\left\{y \in \mathbb{Z}_{n} \mid y=\phi\left(y_{1} \ldots, y_{k}\right), y_{i} \in \mathcal{C}_{i} \text { for } 1 \leq i \leq k\right\} .
$$

A simple example is given in Appendix B.
In particular note that $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$, but not necessarily $\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}] \subseteq \mathcal{C}$. The following lemma follows directly from the above definition.
Lemma 1. Sampling $y \underset{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ uniformly random from $\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ is equivalent to sampling $y_{i}$ uniformly and independently from $\mathcal{C}_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ and setting $y=\phi\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{k}\right)$.

### 2.3 Straight Line Programs

A straight line program over a ring $R$ is a generic ring algorithm performing a fixed sequence of ring operations, without branching, that outputs an element of $R$. Thus straight line programs are a subclass of generic ring algorithms. The following definition is a simple extension of [Bro05, Definition 1] to straight line programs that may also compute multiplicative inverses.

Definition 2 (Straight Line Programs). A straight line program $P$ of length $m$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is a sequence of tuples

$$
P=\left(\left(i_{1}, j_{1}, \circ_{1}\right), \cdots,\left(i_{m}, j_{m}, \circ_{m}\right)\right)
$$

where $-1 \leq i_{k}, j_{k}<k$ and $\circ_{i} \in\{+,-, \cdot, /\}$ for $i \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$. The output $P(x)$ of straight line program $P$ on input $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is computed as follows.

1. Initialize $L_{-1}:=1 \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ and $L_{0}:=x$.
2. For $k$ from 1 to $m$ do:

- if $\circ_{k}=/$ and $L_{j_{k}} \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ then return $\perp$,
- else set $L_{k}:=L_{i_{k}} \circ L_{j_{k}}$.

3. Return $P(x)=L_{m}$.

We say that each triple $(i, j, \circ) \in P$ is a SLP-step.
For notational convenience, for a given straight line program $P$ we will denote with $P_{k}$ the straight line program given by the sequence of the first $k$ elements of $P$, with the additional convention that $P_{-1}(x)=1$ and $P_{0}(x)=x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$.

### 2.4 Generic Ring Algorithms

Similar to straight line programs, generic ring algorithms perform a sequence of ring operations on the input values $1, x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$. However, while straight line programs perform the same fixed sequence on ring operations to any input value, generic ring algorithms can decide adaptively which ring operation is performed next. The decision is made either based on equality checks, or on coin tosses. Moreover, the output of generic ring algorithms is not restricted to ring elements.

We formalize the notion of generic ring algorithms in terms of a game between an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ and a black-box $\mathcal{O}$, the generic ring oracle. The generic ring oracle receives as input a secret value $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$. It maintains a sequence $P$, which is set to the empty sequence at the beginning of the game, and implements two internal subroutines test() and equal().

- The test () -procedure takes a tuple $(j, \circ) \in\{-1, \ldots,|P|\} \times\{+,-, \cdot, /\}$ as input. The procedure returns false if $\circ=/$ and $P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$, and true otherwise.
- The equal()-procedure takes a tuple $(i, j) \in\{-1, \ldots,|P|\} \times\{-1, \ldots,|P|\}$ as input. The procedure returns true if $P_{i}(x) \equiv P_{j}(x) \bmod n$ and false otherwise.

In order to perform computations, the algorithm submits SLP-steps to $\mathcal{O}$. Whenever the algorithm submits $(i, j, \circ)$ with $\circ \in\{+,-, \cdot, /\}$, the oracle runs test $(j, \circ)$. If $\operatorname{test}(j, \circ)=$ false, the oracle returns the error symbol $\perp$. Otherwise $(i, j, \circ)$ is appended to $P$. Moreover, the algorithm can query the oracle to check for equality of computed ring elements by submitting a query ( $i, j, \circ$ ) such that $\circ \in\{=\}$. In this case the oracle returns equal $(i, j)$. We measure the complexity of $\mathcal{A}$ by the number of oracle queries.

### 2.5 Some Lemmas on Straight Line Programs over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$

In the following we will state a few lemmas on straight line programs over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ that will be useful for the proof of our main theorem.

Lemma 2. Suppose there exists a straight line program $P$ such that for $x, x^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ holds that $P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \neq \perp$ and $P(x)=\perp$. Then there exists $P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ such that $P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ and $P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$.

Proof. $P(x)=\perp$ means that there exists an SLP-step $(i, j, \circ) \in P$ such that $\circ=/$ and $L_{j}=P_{j}(x) \notin$ $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$. However, $P\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ does not evaluate to $\perp$, thus it must hold that $P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$.

The following lemma provides a lower bound on the probability of factoring $n$ by evaluating a certain straight line program $P$ with $y \underset{ }{\longleftrightarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ and computing $\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y))$, relative to the probability that $P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ and $P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ for randomly chosen $x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$.

Lemma 3. For any straight line program $P$ and $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ holds that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \leq\left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y)) \notin\{1, n\} \mid y{ }^{U} \underset{\mathcal{U}}{ }[\mathcal{C}]\right] .
$$

Similar to the above, the following lemma provides a lower bound on the probability of factoring $n$ by computing $\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y)-Q(y))$ with $y \stackrel{\cup}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ for two given straight line programs $P$ and $Q$, relative to the probability $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\left(P(x) \equiv_{n} Q(x)\right.\right.$ and $\left.\left.P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} Q\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right]$.

Lemma 4. For any pair $(P, Q)$ of straight line programs and $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ holds that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \equiv_{n} Q(x) \text { and } P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} Q\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \\
\leq & \left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} \operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y)-Q(y)) \notin\{1, n\} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proofs for Lemma 3 and 4 are given in Appendix C and D, respectively. We also discuss the intuition behind these lemmas in Appendix E.

## 3 Subset Membership Problems in the Generic Ring Model

Definition 3 (Subset Membership Problem). Let $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ and $\mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ be subsets of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ such that $\mathcal{V} \subseteq \mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$. The subset membership problem defined by $(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})$ is: given $x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$, decide whether $x \in \mathcal{V}$.

Whenever considering a subset membership problem in the following we assume that $|\mathcal{V}|>1$.
Let $(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})$ be subsets of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ defining a subset membership problem. We formalize the notion of subset membership problems in the generic ring model in terms of a game between an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ and a generic ring oracle $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$. Oracle $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$ is defined exactly like the generic ring oracle described in Section 2.4, except that $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$ receives a uniformly random element $x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$ as input. We say that $\mathcal{A}$ wins the game, if $x \in \mathcal{V}$ and $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}}(n)=1$, or $x \notin \mathcal{V}$ and $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}}(n)=0$.

Note that any algorithm for a given subset membership problem $(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})$ has at least the trivial success probability $\Pi(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V}):=\max \{|\mathcal{V}| /|\mathcal{C}|, 1-|\mathcal{V}| /|\mathcal{C}|\}$ by guessing, due to the fact that $x$ is sampled uniformly from $\mathcal{C}$. For an algorithm solving the subset membership problem given by $(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})$ with success probability $\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{S}]$, we denote with

$$
\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{smp}}}(n)\right):=|\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{S}]-\Pi(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})|
$$

the advantage of $\mathcal{A}$.

Theorem 1. For any generic ring algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ solving a given subset membership problem $(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})$ over $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ with advantage $\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{smp}}}(n)\right)$ by performing $m$ queries to $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$, there exists an algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ that outputs a factor of $n$ with success probability at least

$$
\frac{\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{smp}}}(n)\right)}{2 m\left(m^{2}+5 m+3\right)} \cdot\left(\frac{|\mathcal{C}|}{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}\right)^{2}
$$

by running $\mathcal{A}$ once and performing $O\left(m^{3}\right)$ additional operations in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, $m$ gcd-computations on $\left\lceil\log _{2} n\right\rceil$-bit numbers, and sampling $m$ random elements from $\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$.

Proof Outline. We replace $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$ with a simulator $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sim }}$. Let $\mathcal{S}_{\text {sim }}$ denote the event that $\mathcal{A}$ is successful when interacting with the simulator, and let $\mathcal{F}$ denote the event that $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sim }}$ answers a query of $\mathcal{A}$ different from how $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$ would have answered. Then $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$ and $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sim }}$ are indistinguishable unless $\mathcal{F}$ occurs. Therefore the success probability $\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{S}]$ of $\mathcal{A}$ in the simulation game is upper bound by $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{S}_{\text {sim }}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}]$ (cf. the Difference Lemma [Sho06, Lemma 1]). We derive a bound on $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{S}_{\text {sim }}\right]$ and describe a factoring algorithm whose success probability is lower bound by $\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}]$.

### 3.1 Introducing a Simulation Oracle

We replace oracle $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$ with a simulator $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sim }}$. $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sim }}$ receives $x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$ as input, but never uses this value throughout the game. Instead, all computations are performed independent of the challenge value $x$. Note that the original oracle $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$ uses $x$ only inside the test () and equal () procedures. Let us therefore consider an oracle $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sim }}$ which is defined exactly like $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$, but replaces the procedures test() and equal() with procedures testsim() and equalsim().

- The testsim ()-procedure samples $x_{r} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$ and returns false if $\circ=/$ and $P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$, and true otherwise (even if $P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp$ ).
- The equalsim( )-procedure samples $x_{r} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$ and returns true if $P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \equiv P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \bmod n$ and false otherwise (even if $P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp$ or $P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp$ ).

Note that the simulator samples $m$ random values $x_{r}, r \in\{1, \ldots, m\}$. Also note that all computations of $\mathcal{A}$ are independent of the challenge value $x$ when interacting with $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sim }}$. Hence, any algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ has at most trivial success probability in the simulation game, and therefore

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{S}_{\text {sim }}\right] \leq \Pi(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V}) .
$$

### 3.2 Bounding the Probability of Simulation Failure

We say that a simulation failure, denoted $\mathcal{F}$, occurs if $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sim }}$ does not simulate $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$ perfectly. Observe that an interaction of $\mathcal{A}$ with $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sim }}$ is perfectly indistinguishable from an interaction with $\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}$, unless at least one of the following events occurs.

1. The testsim()-procedure fails to simulate test() perfectly. This means that testsim() returns false on a procedure call where test() would have returned true, or testsim() returns true where test() would have returned false. Let $\mathcal{F}_{\text {test }}$ denote the event that this happens on at least one call of testsim().
2. The equalsim( )-procedure fails to simulate equal() perfectly. This means that equalsim() has returned true where equal() would have returned false, or equalsim() has returned false where equal() would have returned true. Let $\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}$ denote the event that this happens at at least one call of equalsim().

Since $\mathcal{F}$ implies that at least one of the events $\mathcal{F}_{\text {test }}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}$ has occurred, it holds that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}] \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {test }}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}\right] .
$$

In the following we will bound $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {test }}\right]$ and $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}\right]$ separately.

### 3.2.1 Bounding the Probability of $\mathcal{F}_{\text {test }}$.

The testsim()-procedure fails to simulate test() only if either testsim() has returned false where test() would have returned true, or testsim() has returned true where test() would have returned false. A necessary condition ${ }^{4}$ for this is that there exists $P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ and $x_{r} \in\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}$ such that

$$
\left(P_{j}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) \text { or }\left(P_{j}(x)=\perp \text { and } P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right),
$$

or

$$
\left(P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) \text { or }\left(P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp \text { and } P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) .
$$

We can simplify this condition a little by applying Lemma 2. The existence of $P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ and $x_{r}$ such that $\left(P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)$ implies the existence of $P_{k} \sqsubseteq P$ such that $k<j$ and $\left(P_{k}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin\right.$ $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ and $\left.P_{k}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)$. An analogous argument holds for the case $\left(P_{j}(x)=\perp\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)$. Hence, testsim()-procedure fails to simulate test() only if there exists $P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ such that

$$
\left(P_{j}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) \text { or }\left(P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)
$$

## Proposition 1.

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {test }}\right] \leq 2 m(m+2) \max _{0 \leq j \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]\right\}
$$

The proof of Proposition 1 is deferred to Appendix F.

### 3.2.2 Bounding the Probability of $\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}$

The equalsim()-procedure fails to simulate equal() only if either equalsim() has returned false where equal() would have returned true, or equalsim() has returned true where equal() would have returned false. A necessary ${ }^{5}$ condition for this is that there exist $P_{i}, P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ and $x_{r} \in\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}$ such that

$$
\left(P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)\right) \text { or }\left(P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and }\left(P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp \text { or } P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp\right)\right)
$$

or

$$
\left(P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \text { and } P_{i}(x) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right) \text { or }\left(P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \text { and }\left(P_{i}(x)=\perp \text { or } P_{j}(x)=\perp\right)\right) .
$$

Again we can apply Lemma 2 to simplify this a little: the existence of $P_{j} \in P$ and $x_{r}$ such that $\left(P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}(x) \neq \perp\right)$ implies the existence of $P_{k} \in P$ such that $\left(P_{k}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right.$ and $P_{k}(x) \in$ $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ ). Analogous arguments hold for the other cases where one straight line program evaluates to $\perp$. Hence, equalsim()-procedure fails to simulate equal() only if there exist $P_{i}, P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ or $P_{k} \sqsubseteq P$ such that

$$
\left(P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)\right) \text { or }\left(P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \text { and } P_{i}(x) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right)
$$

or

$$
\left(P_{k}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{k}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) \text { or }\left(P_{k}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{k}\left(x_{r}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) .
$$

[^2]
## Proposition 2.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}\right] & \leq 2 m\left(m^{2}+3 m+1\right) \max _{-1 \leq i<j \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}\right]\right\} \\
& +2 m(m+1) \max _{0 \leq k \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{k}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{k}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \longleftarrow \mathcal{C}\right]\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

The proof of Proposition 2, which is based on the same ideas as the proof of Proposition 1, is given in Appendix G.

### 3.2.3 Bounding the Probability of $\mathcal{F}$.

Summing up, we obtain that the total probability of $\mathcal{F}$ is at most

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}] & \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {test }}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}\right] \\
& \leq 2 m\left(m^{2}+3 m+1\right) \max _{-1 \leq i<j \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]\right\} \\
& +4 m(m+1) \max _{0 \leq k \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{k}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{k}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{\mathcal{C}}{\leftarrow}\right]\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.3 Bounding the Success Probability

Since all computations of $\mathcal{A}$ are independent of the challenge value $x$ in the simulation game, any algorithm has only the trivial success probability when interacting with the simulator. Thus the success probability of any algorithm when interacting with the original oracle is bound by

$$
\Pi(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})+\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{smp}}}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{S}] \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{S}_{\text {sim }}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}] \leq \Pi(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})+\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}]
$$

which implies

$$
\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}}\right) \leq \operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}] .
$$

### 3.4 The Factoring Algorithm

Consider a factoring algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ running $\mathcal{A}$, recording the sequence of queries $\mathcal{A}$ issues, and proceeding as follows.

- Whenever the algorithm submits $(i, j, \circ)$ with $\circ \in\{+,-, \cdot, /\}$ in its $r$-th query, the algorithm samples $y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ and computes $\operatorname{gcd}\left(P_{k}(y), n\right)$ for $0 \leq k \leq r$.
- Whenever the algorithm submits $(i, j, \circ)$ with $\circ \in\{=\}$ in its $r$-th query, the algorithm samples $y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ and computes $\operatorname{gcd}\left(P_{i}(y)-P_{j}(y), n\right)$ for $-1 \leq i<j \leq r$.


### 3.4.1 Running time.

By assumption, $\mathcal{A}$ submits $m$ queries. Thus, the algorithm evaluates $O\left(m^{2}\right)$ straight line programs. Each query can be evaluated by performing at most $m$ steps, which yields $O\left(m^{3}\right)$ operations in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. Moreover, the algorithm samples $m$ random values $y$ from $\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ and performs $m$ gcd-computations on $\left\lceil\log _{2} n\right\rceil$-bit numbers.

### 3.4.2 Success probability.

$\mathcal{B}$ evaluates any straight line program $P_{k}$ with a uniformly random element $y$ of $\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$. In particular, $\mathcal{B}$ computes $\operatorname{gcd}\left(P_{k}(y), n\right)$ for $y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ and the straight line program $P_{k} \sqsubseteq P$ satisfying

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{k}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{k}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \\
=\max _{0 \leq k \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{k}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{k}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Let $\gamma_{1}:=\max _{0 \leq k \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{k}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right.\right.$ and $\left.\left.P_{k}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right]\right\}$, then by Lemma 3 algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ finds a factor in this step with probability at least $\gamma_{1}\left(\frac{|\mathcal{C}|}{|\mathcal{U}| \mathcal{C}| |}\right)^{2}$.

Moreover, $\mathcal{B}$ evaluates any pair $P_{i}, P_{j}$ of straight line programs in $P$ with a uniformly random element $y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$. So in particular $\mathcal{B}$ evaluates $\operatorname{gcd}\left(P_{i}(y)-P_{j}(y), n\right)$ with $y \underset{\cup}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ for the pair of straight line programs $P_{i}, P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ satisfying

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \longleftarrow \mathcal{C}\right] \\
=\max _{-1 \leq i<j \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \longleftarrow \mathcal{C}\right]\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Let $\gamma_{2}:=\max _{-1 \leq i<j \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right.\right.$ and $\left.\left.P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right]\right\}$, then by Lemma 4 algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ succeeds in this step with probability at least $\gamma_{2}\left(\frac{|\mathcal{C}|}{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}\right)^{2}$.

So, for $\gamma:=\max \left\{\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}\right\}$, the total success probability of algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ is at least

$$
\gamma\left(\frac{|\mathcal{C}|}{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}\right)^{2} .
$$

### 3.4.3 Relating the success probability of $\mathcal{B}$ to the advantage of $\mathcal{A}$.

Using the above definitions of $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2}$, and $\gamma$, the fact that $\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{smp}}}(n)\right) \leq \operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}]$, and the derived bound on $\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}]$, we can obtain a lower bound on $\gamma$ by

$$
\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{smp}}}(n)\right) \leq \operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}] \leq 4 m(m+1) \gamma_{1}+2 m\left(m^{2}+3 m+1\right) \gamma_{2} \leq 2 m\left(m^{2}+5 m+3\right) \gamma,
$$

which implies the inequality

$$
\gamma \geq \frac{\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{smp}}}(n)\right)}{2 m\left(m^{2}+5 m+3\right)}
$$

Therefore the success probability of $\mathcal{B}$ is at least

$$
\frac{\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{smp}}}(n)\right)}{2 m\left(m^{2}+5 m+3\right)} \cdot\left(\frac{|\mathcal{C}|}{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}\right)^{2}
$$

## 4 Computing the Jacobi Symbol with Generic Ring Algorithms

Let us denote with $\mathrm{QR}_{n} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ the set of quadratic residues modulo $n$, i.e.

$$
\mathrm{QR}_{n}:=\left\{x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x \equiv y^{2} \bmod n, y \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right\}
$$

Let $(x \mid n)$ denote the Jacobi symbol [Sho05, p.287] and let $J_{n}:=\left\{x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n} \mid(x \mid n)=1\right\}$ be the set of elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ having Jacobi symbol 1. Recall that $\mathrm{QR}_{n} \subseteq J_{n}$, and therefore given $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n} \backslash J_{n}$ it is easy to decide that $x$ is not a quadratic residue by computing the Jacobi symbol.

There exist simple efficient algorithms computing the Jacobi symbol in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ without factoring $n$. These algorithms are not generic, cf. [Sho05, p.288]. However, let us consider the subset membership problem $(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})$ with $\mathcal{C}=\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ and $\mathcal{V}=J_{n}$. The following theorem states that there is no efficient generic algorithm solving this problem, unless factoring $n$ is easy.

Theorem 2. Suppose there exist a generic ring algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ solving the subset membership problem given by $(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})$ with $\mathcal{C}=\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ and $\mathcal{V}=J_{n}$ with advantage $\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}}(n)\right)$ by performing $m$ ring operations. Then there exists an algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ finding a factor of $n$ with probability at least

$$
\frac{\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{smp}}}(n)\right)}{2 m\left(m^{2}+5 m+3\right)}
$$

by running $\mathcal{A}$ once and performing $O\left(m^{3}\right)$ additional operations in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, $m$ gcd-computations on $\left\lceil\log _{2} n\right\rceil$-bit numbers, and sampling $m$ random elements from $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$.
Proof. The theorem follows by applying Theorem 1 and the fact that $\mathcal{U}\left[\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right]=\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$, since

$$
\left(\frac{|\mathcal{C}|}{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}\right)^{2}=\left(\frac{\left|\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right|}{\left|\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right|}\right)^{2}=1
$$

## 5 The Generic Quadratic Residuosity Problem and Factoring

Definition 4 (Quadratic Residuosity Problem). The quadratic residuosity problem is the subset membership problem given by $\mathcal{C}=J_{n}$ and $\mathcal{V}=\mathrm{QR}_{n}$.

Given the factorization of $n$, solving the quadratic residuosity problem in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is easy, also for generic ring algorithms. Thus, in order to show the equivalence of generic quadratic residuosity and factoring, we have to prove the following theorem.
Theorem 3. Suppose there exist a generic ring algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that solves the quadratic residuosity problem in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ with advantage $\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\text {smp }}}(n)\right)$ by performing $m$ ring operations. Then there exists an algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ finding a factor of $n$ with probability at least

$$
\frac{\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{smp}}}(n)\right)}{8 m\left(m^{2}+5 m+3\right)}
$$

by running $\mathcal{A}$ once and performing $O\left(m^{3}\right)$ additional operations in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, $m$ gcd-computations on $\left\lceil\log _{2} n\right\rceil$-bit numbers, and sampling $m$ random elements from $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$.
Proof. The cardinality $\left|J_{n}\right|$ of the set of elements having Jacobi symbol 1 depends on whether $n$ is a square in $\mathbb{N}$.

$$
\left|J_{n}\right|=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\phi(n) / 2, \text { if } n \text { is not a square in } \mathbb{N}, \\
\phi(n), \text { if } n \text { is a square in } \mathbb{N},
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\phi(\cdot)$ is the Euler totient function [Sho05, p.24]. Note also that $\mathcal{U}\left[J_{n}\right]=\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]=\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$. Therefore it holds that $\left|J_{n}\right|=|\mathcal{C}| \geq \phi(n) / 2$ and $|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|=\left|\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right|=\phi(n)$. Thus we can apply Theorem 1 , using that

$$
\left(\frac{|\mathcal{C}|}{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}\right)^{2}=\left(\frac{\left|J_{n}\right|}{\left|\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right|}\right)^{2} \geq\left(\frac{\phi(n) / 2}{\phi(n)}\right)^{2}=\frac{1}{4}
$$

## 6 The Generic Subgroup Decision Problem and Factoring

Let $n=p q$ and let $\mathbb{G}$ be a cyclic group of order $n$. Then there exists a subgroup $\mathbb{G}_{p} \subseteq \mathbb{G}$ of order $p$.

Definition 5 (Subgroup Decision Problem). The subgroup decision problem is the subset membership problem $(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})$ with $\mathcal{C}=\mathbb{G}$ and $\mathcal{V}=\mathbb{G}_{p}$.

Clearly solving the subgroup membership problem is easy if the factorization of $n$ is given. In the following we will show that solving the subgroup membership problem is equivalent to factoring $n$ with respect to generic algorithms, even if the algorithm has access to an oracle solving the DiffieHellman problem in $\mathbb{G}$. We are not able to apply the framework described in Section 3 directly, because there we had to require that the challenge is sampled uniformly from $\mathcal{C}$. Therefore we introduce a different technique that is more specific, but works for challenges chosen according to an distribution $\mathcal{D}$ such that $\operatorname{Pr}[x \in \mathcal{V} \mid x \underset{\mathcal{D}}{\leftarrow}] \approx 1 / 2$, even though $\mathcal{C}$ is exponentially larger than $\mathcal{V}$.

### 6.1 The Subgroup Decision Problem in the Generic Model

Recall that any cyclic group of order $n$ is isomorphic to the additive group of integers $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n},+\right)$. Now, since we are going to consider generic algorithms, we may assume that the algorithm operates on the group $\mathbb{G}=\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n},+\right)$, of course without exploiting any property of this representation. ${ }^{6}$ Assuming an oracle $D H$ solving the Diffie-Hellman problem in $\mathbb{G}$, we observe that this operation corresponds to the multiplication in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. Hence, the group $\mathbb{G}$ together with oracle $D H$ exhibits the same algebraic structure as the $\operatorname{ring} \mathbb{Z}_{n}$.

By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, the ring $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is isomorphic to the direct product $\mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. Let $\phi: \mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ denote this isomorphism. The subgroup $\mathbb{G}_{p}$ of $\mathbb{G}$ with order $p$ consists of the elements $\mathbb{G}_{p}=\left\{\phi\left(x_{p}, 0\right) \mid x_{p} \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}\right\}$. So for generic ring algorithms the subgroup decision problem can be stated as: given $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$, decide whether $x \equiv 0 \bmod q$.

In order to model the generic subgroup decision problem, consider an oracle $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sdp }}$ which is defined exactly like the generic ring oracle described in Section 2.4, except that it does not provide the operation $/ . \mathcal{O}_{\text {sdp }}$ receives an element $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ as input, where $x$ is constructed as follows: sample $\left(x_{p}, x_{q}\right) \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and bit $b \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}$ uniformly random, and let $x:=\phi\left(x_{p}, b x_{q}\right)$. An algorithm can query the oracle for the (inverse) group operation by submitting a query ( $i, j, \circ$ ) with $\circ \in\{+,-\}$. The Diffie-Hellman oracle is queried by submitting $(i, j, \circ)$ with $\circ \in\{\cdot\}$.

We say that the algorithm wins the game, if $x \in \mathbb{G}_{p}$ and $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{sdp}}}(n)=1$, or $x \notin \mathbb{G}_{p}$ and $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{sdp}}}(n)=0$. We define the advantage of an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ solving the subgroup decision problem with probability $\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{S}]$ as

$$
\operatorname{Adv}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{sdp}}}(n)\right):=\left|\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{S}]-\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{q}\right)\right| .
$$

Remark 1. If we would also allow to query the oracle for divisions (which correspond to an "inverse Diffie-Hellman oracle" in the above setting), then there would be a simple algorithm determining whether $x \in \mathbb{G}_{p}$ by returning true iff division by $x$ fails. Interestingly, we will show that there is no generic algorithm making similar use of a standard Diffie-Hellman oracle, unless factoring $n$ is easy. Therefore a further consequence of the theorem presented in the following section is that a standard Diffie-Hellman oracle does not imply a inverse Diffie-Hellman oracle in general, unless factoring is easy.

[^3]Remark 2. The subgroup decision problem was introduced in [BGN05] for groups with bilinear pairing. Essentially such a pairing can be added to the generic model by allowing the algorithm to perform a single multiplication operation when evaluating the bilinear pairing map, ${ }^{7}$ as done in [BB08]. By providing a Diffie-Hellman oracle, we do not restrict the algorithm to a fixed number of multiplications. Hence, our proof includes the problem stated in [BGN05] as a special case.

### 6.2 The Subgroup Decision Problem is Generically Equivalent to Factoring

It is easy to see that there exists a generic algorithm solving the subgroup decision problem, if the factorization of the group order is known. In order to show the equivalence of the generic subgroup decision problem and factoring, it remains to reduce factoring integers to the generic subgroup decision problem. In the sequel we show that solving the subgroup decision problem in groups of order $n$ is as hard as factoring $n$, even if the algorithm has access to an oracle solving the Diffie-Hellman problem.

Theorem 4. Suppose there exist a generic ring algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ solving the subgroup membership problem in $\mathbb{G}$ with advantage $\operatorname{Adv}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{sdp}}}(n)\right)$ by making $m$ queries to an oracle performing the (inverse) group operation and solving the Diffie-Hellman problem. Then there exists an algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ finding a factor of $n$ with probability at least $\operatorname{Adv}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{sdp}}}(n)\right)$ by running $\mathcal{A}$ once and performing $O\left(m^{3}\right)$ additional operations in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ and $m$ gcd-computations on $\left\lceil\log _{2} n\right\rceil$-bit numbers.

Proof. Let us consider an interaction of $\mathcal{A}$ with an oracle $\mathcal{O}_{p}$ which is defined as follows. $\mathcal{O}_{p}$ works similar to $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sdp }}$, but performs all computations in $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$. That is, the equal ()-procedure returns true on input $(i, j)$ iff $P_{i}(x) \equiv P_{j}(x) \bmod p$. Note that now all computations are performed in the $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$-component of the decomposition $\mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, hence the algorithm receives no information on whether $x \equiv 0 \bmod q$. Thus in the simulation game any algorithm has only trivial success probability $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{S}_{\text {sim }}\right]=1 / 2+1 / q$.

Now consider an interaction of $\mathcal{A}$ with oracle $\mathcal{O}_{\text {sdp }}$. Either this interaction is indistinguishable from an oracle $\mathcal{O}_{p}$, in which case the algorithm has only trivial success probability, or there exist $P_{i}, P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ with such that $P_{i}(x) \equiv P_{j}(x) \bmod p$, but $P_{i}(x) \not \equiv P_{j}(x) \bmod n$. In this case a factor of $n$ is found by computing $\operatorname{gcd}\left(P_{i}(x)-P_{j}(x), n\right)$. Note that

$$
\frac{1}{2}+\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{sdp}}}(n)\right) \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{S}_{\text {sim }}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}] \Longleftrightarrow \operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\mathrm{sdp}}}(n)\right) \leq \operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{F}]
$$

Thus, $n$ is factored this way by running $\mathcal{A}$, recording $P$ and computing $\operatorname{gcd}\left(P_{i}(x)-P_{j}(x), n\right)$ for all $-1 \leq i<j \leq m$ with probability at least $\operatorname{Adv}_{(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{V})}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{O}_{\operatorname{sdp}}}(n)\right)$.

The above proof generalizes from $n=p q$ to $n=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{e_{i}}$ for all subgroups with prime-power order $p_{i}^{e_{i}}$ in a straightforward manner.

## 7 Analyzing Search Problems in the Generic Ring Model

In Section 3 we have constructed a simulator for a generic ring oracle for the ring $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. When interacting with the simulator, all computations are independent of the secret challenge value $x$. Therefore we have been able to conclude that any generic algorithm has only the trivial probability of success in solving certain decisional problems (namely the considered subset membership problems) when interacting with the simulator. Moreover, we have shown that any algorithm that can

[^4]distinguish between simulator and original oracle can be turned into a factoring algorithm with (asymptotically) the same running time.

In contrast to decisional problems, where the algorithm outputs a bit, our construction of the simulator can also be applied to prove the generic hardness of search problems where the algorithm outputs a ring element or integer. Let us sketch two possibilities. The first one is to formulate a suitable subset membership problem which reduces to the considered search problem and then apply Theorem 1. Another possibility is to use our construction of the simulator to bound the probability of a simulation failure relative to factoring. In order to bound the success probability in the simulation game, it remains to show that there exists no straight line program solving the considered problem efficiently under the factoring assumption.

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## A Comparing the Generic Ring Model to the Generic Group Model

The generic ring model (GRM) is an extension of the generic group model (GGM) (see [Sho97], for instance). Despite many similarities to the GGM, showing the hardness of computational problems in the GRM seems to be more involved than standard proofs in the GGM. The reason is that a typical proof in the GGM (cf. [Sho97, Mau05, LR06], for instance) introduces a simulation game where group elements are replaced with polynomials that are (implicitly) evaluated with some group elements corresponding to a given problem instance. A key argument in these proofs is that, by construction of the simulator, the degree of these polynomials cannot exceed a certain small bound (often degree one or two). Following Shoup's seminal work [Sho97], a lower bound on the success probability of any generic group algorithm for the given problem is then derived by bounding the number of roots of these polynomials by applying the Schwartz Lemma [Sch80, Sho97]. Usually the bound is useful if the number of roots is sufficiently small. Rupp et al. [RLB $\left.{ }^{+} 08\right]$ have even been able to describe sufficient conditions for the generic hardness of discrete log type problems, that essentially make sure that there is no possibility to compute polynomials with "too large" degree.

In the GGM the number of roots of polynomials is kept small by performing only addition operations on polynomials of degree one in the simulation game (sometimes also a small bounded number of multiplications, for instance when the model is extended to groups with bilinear pairing map, as done in [BB08]). However, in the generic ring model we explicitly allow for multiplication operations, and we do not want to bound the number of allowed multiplication explicitly, in order to keep the model as general as possible. Thus, by repeated squaring an algorithm may compute polynomials of exponential degree. In this case applying the Schwartz Lemma does not yield a useful bound on the number of roots. ${ }^{8}$

## B A Simple Example for $\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$

Let $p, q$ be different primes, $n=p q$, and $\phi$ be the isomorphism $\mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$. For $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ let $x_{p}:=x \bmod p$ and $x_{q}:=x \bmod q$. Consider the subset $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ such that

$$
\mathcal{C}=\{a, b, c\}=\left\{\phi\left(a_{p}, a_{q}\right), \phi\left(b_{p}, b_{q}\right), \phi\left(c_{p}, c_{q}\right)\right\} .
$$

The uniform closure $\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ of $\mathcal{C}$ is the set

$$
\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]=\left\{\phi\left(d_{p}, d_{q}\right) \mid d_{p} \in\left\{a_{p}, b_{p}, c_{p}\right\}, d_{q} \in\left\{a_{q}, b_{q}, c_{q}\right\}\right\} .
$$

[^5]
## C Proof of Lemma 3

## C. 1 Auxiliary Lemma

Let us first state a simple lemma which will be useful for the proofs of Lemma 3 and Lemma 4.
Lemma 5. For $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\mu_{i} \in[0,1]$ with $i \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$ holds that

$$
\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\mu_{i}\right)\right)^{k} \geq \prod_{i=1}^{k} \mu_{i}
$$

Proof. The lemma is proven easily by complete induction on $k$. The inequality holds obviously for $k=1$. Assuming the inequality holds for $k$, the step $k \rightarrow k+1$ proceeds as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k+1}\left(1-\mu_{i}\right)\right)^{k+1} & =\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k+1}\left(1-\mu_{i}\right)\right)^{k}\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k+1}\left(1-\mu_{i}\right)\right) \\
& \geq\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\mu_{i}\right)\right)^{k}\left(1-\left(1-\mu_{k+1}\right)\right) \\
& \geq \prod_{i=1}^{\text {hyp. }} \mu_{i} \cdot \mu_{k+1}=\prod_{i=1}^{k+1} \mu_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

## C. 2 Proving Lemma 3

For notational convenience, let us define $\Gamma(P):=\operatorname{Pr}\left[P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right.$ and $\left.P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]$ and $\Lambda(P):=\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y)) \notin\{1, n\} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]]$. Thus, in order to prove Lemma 3 we have to show that the inequality

$$
\left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} \Lambda(P) \geq \Gamma(P)
$$

holds. To this end, we will proceed as follows.

1. We define an auxiliary function $\nu_{i}(P)$.
2. We express $\Gamma(P)$ and $\Lambda(P)$ in terms of $\nu_{i}(P)$. More precisely, we will upper bound $\Gamma(P)$ by an expression in $\nu_{i}(P)$ and lower bound $\Lambda(P)$ by an expression in $\nu_{i}(P)$.
3. Then we can apply Lemma 5 to shows that resulting inequality holds.

## C.2.1 Defining an auxiliary function.

Recall that we denote with $n=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{e_{i}}$ the prime factor decomposition of $n$. Let

$$
\nu_{i}(P):=\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i} \mid x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]
$$

be the probability that $P(x) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i}$ for some prime $p_{i}$ dividing $n$ and $x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$. Recall that $\phi: \mathbb{Z}_{p_{1}^{e_{1}}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_{k}^{e_{k}}} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is a ringisomorphism, and $P$ performs only ring operations in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. Therefore $P$ implicitly performs all operations on each component $\mathbb{Z}_{p_{i}^{e_{i}}}$ separately (and
independently). Moreover, sampling $x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ is equivalent to sample $\phi\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ with $x_{i}$ chosen independently and uniform from $\mathcal{C}_{i}$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ (cf. Lemma 1). Thus we can express the probability that $P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ for $x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ as

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]=\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i} \mid x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}(P)\right) .
$$

## C.2.2 Bounding $\Gamma(P)$ in terms of $\nu_{i}(P)$.

For independently sampled $x, x^{\prime}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Gamma(P) & =\operatorname{Pr}\left[P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x \leftarrow \mathcal{C}\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that, since $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$, it holds that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right] & \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}[y \in \mathcal{C} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]]^{-1} \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right] \frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] & \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}[y \in \mathcal{C} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]]^{-1} \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right] \frac{\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}] \mid}{|\mathcal{C}|} \\
& =\left(1-\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]\right) \frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{align*}
\Gamma(P) & \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]\left(1-\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]\right)\left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} \\
& =\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}(P)\right)\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}(P)\right)\right)\left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

## C.2.3 Bounding $\Lambda(P)$ in terms of $\nu_{i}(P)$.

We can find a factor of $n$ by computing $\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y))$, if $P(y) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i}$ for at least one prime $p_{i}$ dividing $n$, and $P(y) \not \equiv 0 \bmod n$. Using similar arguments as above, we can therefore express $\Lambda(P)$ in terms of $\nu_{i}(P)$ as

$$
\begin{align*}
\Lambda(P) & =\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y)) \notin\{1, n\} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}] \\
& \geq 1-\prod_{i=1}^{k} \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]-\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]\right) \\
& =1-\prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}(P)-\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}(P)\right) \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

## C.2.4 Putting things together.

Combining (1) and (2), we see that the inequality

$$
\left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} \Lambda(P) \geq \Gamma(P)
$$

holds if inequality

$$
\begin{aligned}
1 & -\prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}(P)-\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}(P)\right) \geq \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}(P)\right)\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}(P)\right)\right) \\
& \Longleftrightarrow\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}(P)\right)\right)^{2} \geq \prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}(P)
\end{aligned}
$$

holds. Applying Lemma 5, we may conclude that this inequality holds for $k \geq 2$.

## D Proof of Lemma 4

In the following, for straight line programs $P, Q$ let $\Gamma^{\prime}(P, Q):=\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \equiv_{n} Q(x)\right.$ and $P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n}$ $\left.Q\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right]$ and $\Lambda^{\prime}(P, Q):=\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y)-Q(y)) \notin\{1, n\} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]]$. Then, in order to prove our claim, we have to show that

$$
\left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} \Lambda^{\prime}(P, Q) \geq \Gamma^{\prime}(P, Q)
$$

The proof will proceed very similar to the proof of Lemma 3, except that we have to define a slightly different auxiliary function.

## D. 1 Defining an auxiliary function.

For $n=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{e_{i}}$, let

$$
\nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q):=\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y)-Q(y) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i}^{e_{i}} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\longleftarrow}[\mathcal{C}]\right] .
$$

Thus, for two straight line programs $P, Q$, the function $\nu_{i}^{\prime}$ determines the probability that $P(y)-$ $Q(y) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i}^{e_{i}}$ for uniform sampled $y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$. Using similar arguments as above, we can express the probability that $P(y) \equiv Q(y) \bmod n$ for $y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}[P(y) \equiv Q(y) \bmod n \mid y \leftarrow \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]] & =\operatorname{Pr}[P(y)-Q(y) \equiv 0 \bmod n \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}[\mathcal{C}]] \\
& =\prod_{i=1}^{k} \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y)-Q(y) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i}^{e_{i}} \mid y \leftarrow \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right] \\
& =\prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q) .
\end{aligned}
$$

From here the proof proceeds just like the proof of Lemma 3. We express $\Lambda^{\prime}(P, Q)$ and $\Gamma^{\prime}(P, Q)$ in terms of $\nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)$, and apply Lemma 5 to prove the resulting inequality.

## D. 2 Bounding $\Gamma^{\prime}(P, Q)$ in terms of $\nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)$.

Since $x, x^{\prime}$ are sampled independently, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Gamma^{\prime}(P, Q) & :=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\left(P(x) \equiv_{n} Q(x) \text { and } P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} Q\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right]\right. \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[\left(P(x) \equiv_{n} Q(x) \mid x \stackrel{\mathcal{C}}{\leftarrow}\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \not \equiv_{n} Q(x) \mid x \longleftarrow \mathcal{C}\right] .\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Again, in order to be able to sample from $\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ instead of $\mathcal{C}$, we use that $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ to bound

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \equiv_{n} Q(x) \mid x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \equiv_{n} Q(y) \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right] \frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \not \equiv_{n} Q(x) \mid x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \not \equiv_{n} Q(y) \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right] \frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|} .
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{align*}
\Gamma^{\prime}(P, Q) & =\operatorname{Pr}\left[\left(P(x) \equiv_{n} Q(x) \mid x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(x) \not \equiv_{n} Q(x) \mid x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right]\right. \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \equiv_{n} Q(y) \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right] \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \not \equiv_{n} Q(y) \mid y \leftarrow \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]\left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \equiv_{n} Q(y) \mid x \leftarrow \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]\left(1-\operatorname{Pr}\left[P(y) \equiv_{n} Q(y) \mid y \leftarrow \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]\right]\right)\left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} \\
& =\prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)\right)\left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} . \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

## D. 3 Bounding $\Lambda^{\prime}(P, Q)$ in terms of $\nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)$.

As above, we can find a factor of $n$ by computing $\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y))$, if $P(y) \equiv 0 \bmod p_{i}^{e_{i}}$ for at least one prime power $p_{i}^{e_{i}}$ dividing $n$, and $P(y) \not \equiv 0 \bmod n$. Thus we can express $\Lambda^{\prime}(P, Q)$ in terms of $\nu_{i}^{\prime}(P)$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Lambda^{\prime}(P, Q)=\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y)) \notin\{1, n\} \mid y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]] \geq 1-\prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)-\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)\right) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

## D. 4 Putting things together.

Combining (3) and (4), we see that

$$
\left(\frac{|\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]|}{|\mathcal{C}|}\right)^{2} \Lambda^{\prime}(P, Q) \geq \Gamma^{\prime}(P, Q)
$$

holds if

$$
\begin{gathered}
1-\prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)-\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)\right) \geq\left(\prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)\right)\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)\right) \\
\Longleftrightarrow\left(1-\prod_{i=1}^{k} \nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)\right)^{2} \geq \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

holds. By Lemma 5 the claim follows now for $k \geq 2$ by letting $\mu_{i}:=1-\nu_{i}^{\prime}(P, Q)$.

## E The Intuition behind Lemma 3 and 4

Simplifying a little, Lemma 3 and 4 state essentially ${ }^{9}$ that: if we are given a straight line program mapping "many" inputs to zero and "many" inputs to a non-zero value, then we can find a factor of $n$ by sampling $y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]$ and computing $\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y))$. At a first glance this seems counterintuitive.

For instance, consider the case $\mathcal{C}=\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, then we have $\mathcal{U}[\mathcal{C}]=\mathbb{Z}_{n}$. Assume a straight line program $P$ mapping half of the elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ to 0 , and the other half to 1 . Then $P$ maps "many" inputs to zero and "many" inputs to a non-zero value, but clearly computing $\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y))$ for any $y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ yields only trivial factors of $n$, hence this seems to be a counterexample to Lemma 3 and 4 . However, in fact this is not a counterexample, since there exists no straight line program $P$ satisfying the assumed property, if $n$ is the product of at least two different primes.

The reason for this is a consequence of the Chinese Remainder Theorem. Let $n=p q$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(p, q)=1$ ( $p$ and $q$ not necessarily prime, but $p, q>1$ ). By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, the ring $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q}$. Let $\phi: \mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ denote this isomorphism. Assume $x, x^{\prime} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ and a straight line program $P$ such that $P(x) \equiv 0 \bmod n$ and $P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \equiv 1 \bmod n$. Since $\phi$ is a ringisomorphism and $P$ performs only ring operations, it holds that

$$
P(x)=\phi(P(x) \bmod p, P(x) \bmod q)=\phi(0,0)
$$

and

$$
P\left(x^{\prime}\right)=\phi\left(P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \bmod p, P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \bmod q\right)=\phi(1,1) .
$$

The crucial observation is now that for each pair $\left(x, x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{2}$, there exist $c, d \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ such that $c=\phi\left(x^{\prime} \bmod p, x \bmod q\right)$ and $d=\phi\left(x \bmod p, x^{\prime} \bmod q\right)$. Evaluating $P$ with $c$ or $d$ yields

$$
P(c)=\phi\left(P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \bmod p, P(x) \bmod q\right)=\phi(1,0)
$$

or

$$
P(d)=\phi\left(P(x) \bmod p, P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \bmod q\right)=\phi(0,1) .
$$

We therefore have $\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(c))=q$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(d))=p$. Thus, if $P$ has the property that $P(x)=\phi(0,0)$ and $P\left(x^{\prime}\right)=\phi(1,1)$ with "high" probability for $x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{n}$, then we can also sample $y \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{n}$ such that $P(y)=\phi(0,1)$ or $P(y)=\phi(1,0)$ with "high" probability. A factor of $n$ can therefore be found by sampling $y$ and computing $\operatorname{gcd}(n, P(y))$.

Generalizing the notion described above, putting it into a more precise and formal language, and handling some technical obstacles, ${ }^{10}$ we obtain the proofs given in Appendices C and D.

## F Proof of Proposition 1

By construction of the simulator, $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {test }}\right]$ is bound by the probability that there exists $P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ such that either

1. testsim() has returned false where test() would have returned true, i.e. it holds that
(a) $\left(P_{j}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)$ or

[^6](b) $\left(P_{j}(x)=\perp\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)$
2. or testsim() has returned true where test() would have returned false, i.e. it holds that
(a) $\left(P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)$ or
(b) $\left(P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)$
for $x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$ and one of the values $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$ sampled by the simulator.
Note that if there exists $P_{j}$ such that $\left(P_{j}(x)=\perp\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \neq \perp\right)$, then this implies that there exists $P_{k} \sqsubseteq P$ with $k<j$ such that $\left(P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)$ by Lemma 2 . Hence, in order to bound the probability of $\mathcal{F}_{\text {test }}$, it suffices to consider the probability that there exists a straight line program $P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ such that
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) \text { or }\left(P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

for $x, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$.
For fixed $P_{j}$ we can bound this probability as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[\left(P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) \text { or }\left(P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) \mid x, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \\
\leq & m \operatorname{Pr}\left[\left(P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) \text { or }\left(P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right] \\
= & m\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \longleftarrow \mathcal{C}\right]\right) \\
= & m \operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \\
+ & m \operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \\
= & m \operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \longleftarrow \mathcal{C}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using this, we obtain the following bound on the probability that there exists any $P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ satisfying (5).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {test }}\right] & \leq 2 m \sum_{j=0}^{m} \operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right] \\
& \leq 2 m(m+1) \max _{0 \leq j \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{j}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## G Proof of Proposition 2

By construction of the simulator, $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}\right]$ is bound by the probability that there exist $P_{i}, P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ and $x_{r} \in\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}$ such that either

1. equalsim() has returned false where equal() would have returned true, i.e. it holds that
(a) $\left(P_{i}(x) \equiv{ }_{n} P_{j}(x)\right.$ and $\left.P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \not 三_{n} P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)\right)$ or
(b) $\left(P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right.$ and $\left.P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp\right)$ or
(c) $\left(P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)=\perp\right)$
2. or equalsim() has returned true where equal() would have returned false, i.e. it holds that
(a) $\left(P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right.$ and $\left.P_{i}(x) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right)$ or
(b) $\left(P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right.$ and $\left.P_{i}(x)=\perp\right)$ or
(c) $\left(P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right.$ and $\left.P_{j}(x)=\perp\right)$
for $x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$ and one of the values $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$ sampled by the simulator.
Applying Lemma 2 to cases 1.b), 1.c), 2.b), and 2.c), we see that in order to bound the probability of $\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}$, it suffices to consider the probability that there exist $P_{i}, P_{j} \sqsubseteq P$ or $P_{k} \sqsubseteq P$ such that
3. equalsim() has returned false where equal() would have returned true, i.e. it holds that
(a) $\left(P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right.$ and $\left.P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)\right)$ or
(b) $\left(P_{k}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right.$ and $\left.P_{k}\left(x_{r}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)$
4. or equalsim() has returned true where equal() would have returned false, i.e. it holds that
(a) $\left(P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)\right.$ and $\left.P_{i}(x) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right)$ or
(b) $\left(P_{k}\left(x_{r}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right.$ and $\left.P_{k}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}\right)$
for $x \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$ and one of the values $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}$ sampled by the simulator.
Let us first consider the cases 1.a) and 2.a). For fixed $P_{i}, P_{j}$ we can bound the probability of 1.a) and 2.a) as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left[\left(P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right)\right)\right. \\
& \text { or } \left.\left(P_{i}\left(x_{r}\right) \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x_{r}\right) \text { and } P_{i}(x) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right) \mid x, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right] \\
\leq & m \operatorname{Pr}\left[\left(P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right. \\
& \text { or }\left(\left(P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \text { and } P_{i}(x) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x)\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}\right] \\
= & m \operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right] \\
+ & m \operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \text { and } P_{i}(x) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \mid x, x^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}\right] \\
= & 2 m \operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the last term, the probability that there exists any pair $P_{i}, P_{j} \in P$ such that 1.a) or 2.a) holds is at most

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2 m \sum_{-1 \leq i<j \leq m} \operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{C}\right] \\
\leq & 2 m(m+2)(m+1) \max _{-1 \leq i<j \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]\right\} \\
= & 2 m\left(m^{2}+3 m+1\right) \max _{-1 \leq i<j \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{C}\right]\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Now let us consider the cases 1.b) and 2.b). Comparing these cases to Expression (5), the proof of Proposition 1 shows that the probability that there exists any $P_{k} \in P$ such that 1.b) or 2.b) holds is at most

$$
2 m(m+1) \max _{0 \leq k \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{k}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{k}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \longleftarrow \mathcal{C}\right]\right\}
$$

Since $\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}$ implies that there exists either a pair $P_{i}, P_{j} \in P$ such that 1.a) or 2.a) holds, or $P_{k} \in P$ such that 1.b) or 2.b) holds, we may conclude

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{F}_{\text {equal }}\right] & \leq 2 m\left(m^{2}+3 m+1\right) \max _{-1 \leq i<j \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{i}(x) \equiv_{n} P_{j}(x) \text { and } P_{i}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv_{n} P_{j}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]\right\} \\
& +2 m(m+1) \max _{0 \leq k \leq m}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[P_{k}(x) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \text { and } P_{k}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*} \mid x, x^{\prime} \stackrel{U}{\leftarrow}\right]\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$


[^0]:    *An extended abstract of this paper appears at ASIACRYPT 2009. This is the full version. The research leading to these results has received funding from the European Community (FP7/2007-2013) under grant agreement number ICT-2007-216646 - European Network of Excellence in Cryptology II (ECRYPT II).
    ${ }^{1}$ Such as the Turing machine model, for instance.
    ${ }^{2}$ See Appendix A for a comparison between the generic group and the generic ring model.

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ An exception is the result of [NS01], showing a (non-generic) attack on a scheme with provable security in the generic model. However, [KM06] note that this stems not from a weakness in the generic model, but from an incorrect security proof.

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ The condition is not sufficient, because algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ need not have queried a division by $P_{j}$ in its $r$-th query.
    ${ }^{5}$ The condition is not sufficient, because algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ need not have queried $(i, j,=)$ in its $r$-th query.

[^3]:    ${ }^{6}$ Technically, we assume that the generic group oracle uses the group $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n},+\right)$ for the internal representation of group elements.

[^4]:    ${ }^{7}$ Plus some minor technical details to distinguish between different groups.

[^5]:    ${ }^{8}$ There are also some technical obstacles when using the standard technique with polynomials for proofs in the generic ring model, which are one reason why we used the notion of straight line programs instead.

[^6]:    ${ }^{9}$ In case of Lemma 3 note that $P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ and $P\left(x^{\prime}\right) \notin \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ means that $P\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ is zero modulo at least one prime factor of $n$, while $P(x) \not \equiv 0$ modulo all prime factors of $n$. In case of Lemma 4 observe that if we have $P(x)-Q(x) \equiv 0 \bmod n$ and $P\left(x^{\prime}\right)-Q\left(x^{\prime}\right) \not \equiv 0 \bmod n$, then $x$ is mapped to zero and $x^{\prime}$ is not mapped to zero by the straight line program $S(x):=P(x)-Q(x)$.
    ${ }^{10}$ E.g. the fact that simulator and factoring algorithm sample from subsets of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ (what made it necessary to define the uniform closure of subsets of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ ).

