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# Abstract

The discrete logarithm problem has been studied during the past decades for its important application in cryptography and other fields. It is very useful in the public key cryptography, which is widely used for Internet safety. Using current computers to solve general discrete logarithm problem seems still not possible within reasonable time, since no polynomial time algorithms has been found for general cases. However, over finite fields of small characteristic, the factor base discrete logarithm can be solved much faster with heuristic polynomial time algorithms.

This thesis is mainly based on the previous study of factor base discrete logarithm in Kummer extension ( $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2(q-1)}}$ ) which is published recently by Xiao-Zhuang-Cheng [14] and we focused on further calculation in this study. The previous research, based on the hypothesis of the determinant of lattices and the discrete logarithm, was confirmed with calculation for all  $q$ 's such that  $\log_2(q^{2(q-1)}) \leq 5000$ , and in this thesis we pushed the limit to  $\log_2(q^{2(q-1)}) \leq 10000$ . During the calculation, we tried different strategies to improve the efficiency, by transferring the matrices and splitting  $q$ 's into several groups. We achieved 1000% speed-up for most  $q$ 's in the range and discovered some possible structures to group  $q$ 's in calculation.

In the thesis, we'll go through the basic backgrounds of the study, and then in-

troduce the main methods and experiments done in the study. We'll discuss the grouping of  $q$ 's and the efficiency improvement. In the end we'll summarize the progress and the possible future work of this study.

**Keywords:** Cryptography, Discrete logarithm, Kummer extension, Lattice

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Backgrounds

In the past several decades, public key cryptography was heavily based on discrete logarithm study [5], and we believe that it still takes longer than reasonable time to solve the general cases using current computing method and resources [13]. Although new methods were invented and improved as time went on, this assumption holds unless quantum computers are developed with productivity. However, some recent study showed that if the characteristic of the field is small, the calculation can be accelerated significantly [6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12]. With the help of index calculus, function field sieve and number field sieve [1, 2], we collect linear relations for the discrete logarithm, and then solve the discrete logarithm with the relations. The smoothness of the polynomial affects the efficiency if exhaustive search is used, but guided searching algorithm can accelerate the process with loss of correctness to assumptions of smoothness [3, 4].

In the public key cryptography, an important part is the Diffie-Hellman key

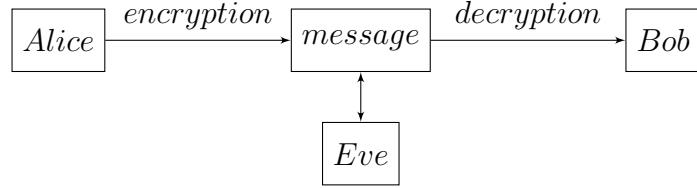


Figure 1.1: Cryptography in communication

exchange based on discrete logarithm. As is shown in Figure 1, if Alice and Bob wants to share the key in a safe channel, they can use this algorithm to get same secret while Eve can't solve it.

Assume Alice and Bob agree to use  $g$  and  $p$  as the base and modulus. At first Alice hold the secret  $a$  and Bob hold the secret  $b$ . Alice then transfers  $A = g^a \bmod p$  to Bob and Bob transfers  $B = g^b \bmod p$  to Alice. Now Alice can get the secret  $s = B^a \bmod p$  and Bob can get the same secret  $s = A^b \bmod p$ . Eve can see the  $g$ ,  $p$ ,  $A$  and  $B$  but can't get the secret  $s$ . Here we can see the algorithm relies on the difficulty of discrete logarithm with the current computing resources.

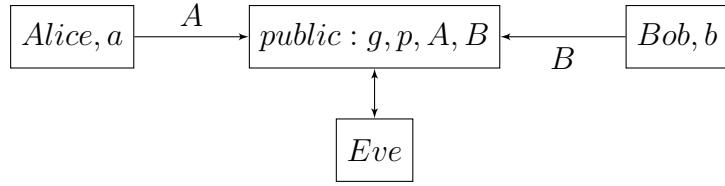


Figure 1.2: Diffie-Hellman public key exchange

In the previous research, matrices related to discrete logarithm in Kummer extension were studied in order to solve the factor base discrete logarithm problems [14]. The research went through the new algorithm from building the matrices related to the index calculus to solving and verifying the determinant of resulting matrices. The detailed steps will not be discussed in this study but main processes and definitions will be introduced in the later chapters.

## 1.2 Motivation

The previous research provided theoretical evidence to support the algorithm, as well as verified the results for all  $q$ 's such that  $\log_2(q^{2(q-1)}) \leq 5000$ . However, it takes quite a long time to reach that limit with the current computers. Since the transformation of matrices related to the lattice is not suitable for parallel computing, it's important to speed up the process by shortening the time of each step. There are several ways of improving the calculation speed and the most efficient one we found was to reduce the size of elements in the matrices during the beginning period. However, it was not always working on current computers due to some possible special structures in the matrices. So we tried to reduce the matrix size by partitioning field at the beginning, and this worked for the outliers from the first case. We also try to minimize the space usage if it's possible although the new algorithm sacrifices space for time in most cases.

## 1.3 Progress

In this study, the main improvement from the previous work is to push the limit of the  $q$ 's to  $\log_2(q^{2(q-1)}) \leq 10000$  with several attempts in different aspects. The direct speed up from the new calculation of Hermite Normal Form accelerated the calculation by more than 1000% for eligible  $q$ 's. For the outliers, the new calculation could not be handled by our computers, but by dividing those  $q$ 's into cases and transforming the calculation to smaller matrices, we also got more than 1000% speed-up. As for the space usage, most cases were affordable in both cases, although the new algorithm has a weaker relation of space usage and  $q$ 's. The calculation was done on a computer with 3.6GHz CPU and 32G memory.

We used SAGE under LINUX system for the study.

# Chapter 2

## Methods

### 2.1 Definitions

#### 2.1.1 Finite Fields

We'll start the definitions from the group theory.

**Definition 2.1.** Group

The group is a structure of set of elements ( $G$ ) and operations( $\bullet$ ). To form a group, the operation need to be used on the elements and generate an element with the following properties:

Closure:  $\forall a, b \in G, a \bullet b \in G$

Associativity:  $\forall a, b, c \in G, (a \bullet b) \bullet c = a \bullet (b \bullet c)$

Identity:  $\exists e, \forall a \in G, a \bullet e = e \bullet a = a$

Invertibility:  $\exists b, \forall a \in G, a \bullet b = b \bullet a = e$

From the definitions above, we denote the  $e$  as the identity element and  $b = a^{-1}$  as the inverse of  $a$ . If the invertibility doesn't hold, we call that a monoid. If further the identity doesn't hold, we call that a semigroup.

**Definition 2.2.** Abelian Group

The abelian group is a group with the following property:

$$\forall a, b \in G, a \bullet b = b \bullet a$$

With these definitions, we can see that integers ( $\mathbb{Z}$ ) with addition (+) forms an abelian group  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ . If we remove 0 from  $\mathbb{Q}$  (denoted as  $\mathbb{Q}^* = \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$ ), it also forms an abelian group with multiplication  $(\mathbb{Q}^*, *)$ , otherwise it's a monoid.

**Definition 2.3.** Ring

The ring is a set( $R$ ) with two binary operations  $(\bullet, \circ)$  satisfying the following properties:

$(R, \bullet)$  is an abelian group.

$(R, \circ)$  is a semigroup.

$$\text{Distributive law holds: } a \circ (b \bullet c) = (a \bullet b) \circ (a \bullet c)$$

For integers it's easy to see that with + and \* we can form an integer ring  $(\mathbb{Z}, +, *)$ . For example,  $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, +, *)$  is an integer ring where  $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}) = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m - 1\}$ . We can easily verify the properties needed above.

**Definition 2.4.** Zero divisor

A zero divisor in the ring ( $\mathbb{R}$ ) is, a non-zero element  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\exists b \neq 0$  such that  $b * a = 0$ .

For example, in  $(\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}, +, *)$ , 2 is a zero divisor since  $2 * 3 = 0$  in  $(\mathbb{Z}/6\mathbb{Z}, +, *)$ . Also, 3 and 4 are zero divisors in this ring but 5 is not because it has inverse of 5. Zero divisor doesn't have multiplicative inverse.

**Definition 2.5.** Field

A field  $\mathbb{F}$  in number theory is usually defined as a ring in which each nonzero element has its multiplicative inverse.

For example,  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, *)$  is a field since every element except 0 has its inverse.

For prime number  $p$ ,  $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}, +, *)$  is a field. Let  $p = 3$ ,  $(\mathbb{Z}/3\mathbb{Z}, +, *) = \{0, 1, 2\}$ . We can easily see that 1 has its inverse 1 and 2 has its inverse 2.

For non-prime number  $m$ ,  $(\mathbb{Z}/m\mathbb{Z}, +, *)$  is not a field. Let  $m = 4$ ,  $(\mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z}, +, *) = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ . We can see that 2 doesn't have its inverse.

**Definition 2.6.** Characteristic of field

The characteristic of a field  $\mathbb{F}$ ,  $Ch(\mathbb{F})$  is defined as 0 or the smallest positive integer  $n$  such that  $n * 1_{\mathbb{F}} = 0$  if it exists.

**Definition 2.7.** Finite field

A finite field is a field with finite number of elements.

Denote  $\mathbb{F}_q$  be a finite field with  $q$  elements, where  $q$  is a prime number or a prime power.

With these basic field definitions, now we can describe the discrete logarithm problem.

### 2.1.2 Discrete logarithm

Discrete logarithm has been used in public key cryptography for a long time, and the definition can be described as follow:

**Definition 2.8.** Discrete logarithm over finite field.

For  $\mathbb{F}_q$ , if  $\alpha^x = \beta$  was given for  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$ , the discrete logarithm problem is to find the integer  $x$ .

Here's an example of a simple discrete logarithm problem:

|         |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| x       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| $\beta$ | 3 | 2 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 1 |

Table 2.1: A simple discrete logarithm in  $\mathbb{F}_7$  when  $\alpha = 3$

Here with the table we can find  $x$  for given  $\beta$ , but when the field is much larger, it'll take very long time since no polynomial algorithm has been found.

As is mentioned above, the general algorithms solving discrete logarithm problem are sub-exponential time complexity, such as number field sieve and function field sieve.

However, special cases with small characteristic field can be solved much faster. In these cases, the Kummer extension is very useful in testing the algorithms due to its structure. So we focus on these cases in the study.

### 2.1.3 Kummer Extensions

When we try to solve the discrete logarithm problem, the Kummer extension could be a starting point although it's considered not safe enough to be used in real world cryptography. The Kummer extension can be described as follow:

**Definition 2.9.** Kummer extension:

In general, a field extension  $L/K$  is called a Kummer extension if for some given integer  $n > 1$ :

K contains n distinct n-th roots of unity.

$L/K$  has abelian Galois group of exponent n.

For example, the Kummer extension  $\mathbb{F}_{q^{2(q-1)}}$  could be very interesting since the recent breakthrough suggests fast algorithms in this field and the right hand of the relations would be automatically linear. In this study,  $\mathbb{F}_{q^2}[x]/(x^{q-1} - A)$  is used to model the Kummer extension where  $A \in \mathbb{F}_{q^2}$  and  $x^{q-1} - A$  is irreducible

over  $\mathbb{F}_{q^2}$ .

### 2.1.4 Lattice

Lattice study is growing popular because of its resistance to quantum computers. In this study, we built the  $(q + 1)$ -dimensional lattice for the conjecture and calculated the determinant related to the matrices.

**Definition 2.10.** Lattice:

A lattice in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and it's isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}^m$ .

In this study, it's defined as

$$\mathcal{L} = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \mathbf{b}_i \mid x_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\},$$

where  $n \leq m$  and  $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n$  are linearly independent and  $\mathbf{b}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

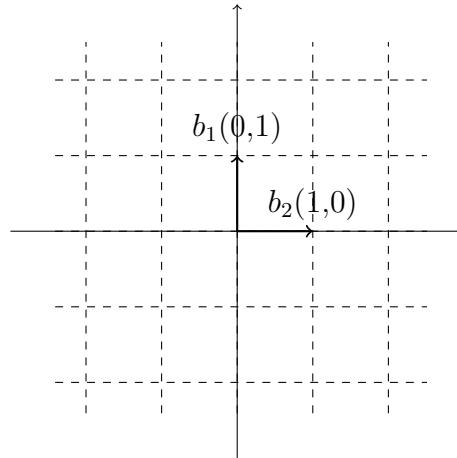


Figure 2.1: Lattice generated by  $b_1(0, 1)$  and  $b_2(1, 0)$

If  $m = n$  in the lattice defined above, the set of vectors  $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n$  is called

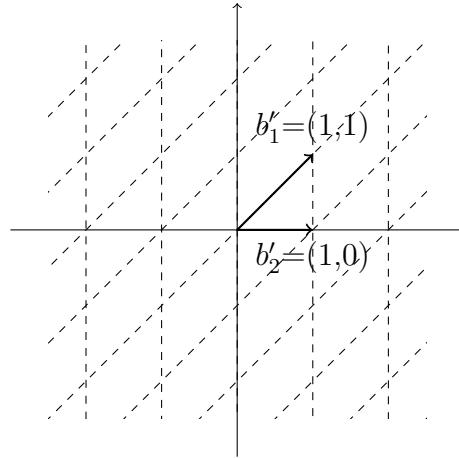


Figure 2.2: Lattice generated by  $b'_1(1,1)$  and  $b'_2(1,0)$

a lattice basis and it can be represented as

$$B = [\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n],$$

**Definition 2.11.** Determinant of a lattice:

For a lattice  $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(B)$ , the determinant of the lattice( $\det(\mathcal{L})$ ), is the  $n$ -dimensional volume of the fundamental parallelepiped  $P(B)$ .

Now we can go on to the matrices used in the study and explain the transformation chosen on the matrices representing the lattice.

### 2.1.5 Normal forms

In linear algebra, normal forms are used for matrix transformation in order to generalize and clarify the information of the matrix. Here are the two normal forms used in the study and some transforming methods.

Here we only use row transformation in the study, so the normal forms are transformed by rows unless otherwise specified.

**Definition 2.12.** Gaussian elimination:

The Gaussian elimination is an operation to change the left lower corner of the matrix into zeros by swapping rows, multiplying rows by non-zero numbers, or adding rows or multiplied rows to another.

**Definition 2.13.** (Row) Echelon form:

The resulting matrix from the Gaussian elimination is an echelon form.

**Definition 2.14.** GaussJordan elimination:

If we add the following restriction to Gaussian elimination, it's called GaussJordan elimination: the resulting matrix has leading coefficient of 1 for all rows, and they are the only non-zero numbers in their columns.

**Definition 2.15.** Reduced (row) echelon form:

The resulting matrix of GaussJordan elimination is called the reduced echelon form. Each matrix only has one unique reduced echelon form.

Note that in this study, row echelon form is used in all calculation if not specified in the following.

**Definition 2.16.** Hermite normal form:

The Hermite normal form is basically similar with reduced echelon form but it's over integers  $\mathbb{Z}$ . All transformations should be done over  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Note that only swapping or adding rows, or adding rows with nonzero integer multiplication are allowed in the transformation since solely multiplying rows with integers may change the determinant.

**Definition 2.17.** Smith normal form:

The Smith normal form is defined for matrices with entries in a principal ideal

domain (such as  $\mathbb{Z}$ ) and calculated by multiplying the left and right invertible square matrices.

Here's an example of the transformation between normal forms (row transformation).

Say we have matrix  $A$ :

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 9 \\ 2 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 4 & 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

Here when we transform the matrix to reduced row echelon form ( $E$ ). It's calculated in  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Here we transform the matrix to Hermite normal form ( $H$ ). It's calculated in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Note that it has the same absolute determinant value with  $A$ .

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now we transform it into Smith normal form( $S$ ). Here we can see

$$S = S_{left} * A * S_{right}.$$

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 20 \end{pmatrix}, S_{left} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -3 & -2 \\ -4 & -1 & 14 & 11 \end{pmatrix}, S_{right} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 & 3 & 15 \\ -1 & -4 & 5 & 24 \\ 2 & 4 & -7 & -33 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

The previous study was done mainly in Smith normal form, but we changed the verification calculation into Hermite normal form in this study. We'll explain the reason of the change in the later chapters.

## 2.2 Calculation

### 2.2.1 Matrix transformation

The first step is to prepare for parameters used in the calculation.

We start from the  $q$  used for the verification and calculate the  $N$  with the following method:

1. Calculate  $q^{2(q-1)} - 1$ .
2. Remove prime factors from  $q^{2(q-1)} - 1$  until the smallest factor is larger than  $q^2$ .

Then we build the field with  $N$  from above. Now we can form the matrices need in the calculation:

$$G(x^k) = x^k \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_q} x^{\log_g(g+\alpha)}$$

$$T(x^k) = x^k x^{\log_g \frac{Ag^{k(q-1)} - 1}{g^q - g}}$$

The next step is to get  $M = GT$  and relate it to the lattice. Here we define  $\tilde{M}$  with a transformation from  $\mathbb{F}_{q^2}$  to  $\mathbb{F}_q$ , and  $M_1$  as in the matrix

$$M = U^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} M_0 & & & \\ & M_1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & M_{q-2} \end{pmatrix} U$$

If we denote  $L$  as the map from an integer matrix to the lattice and construct

the following:

$$\mathcal{L}_1 = L(\tilde{M}_1 - I) + N\mathbb{Z}^{q+1}.$$

Then We have  $N|\det(\mathcal{L}_1)|N^{q+1}$ .

The hypothesis need to verify  $\det(\mathcal{L}_1) = N$  with  $q$ 's as large as possible.

### 2.2.2 Example q = 7

Here's an example when  $q = 7$ .

First, we calculate N.

$$q^{2(q-1)} - 1 = 2^5 * 3^2 * 5^2 * 13 * 19 * 43 * 181$$

After removing factors no larger than  $q^2 = 49$ , we got  $N = 181$ .

Then we find the polynomial  $G$ .

$$G_{poly} = x^{38} + x^{36} + x^{31} + x^{11} + x^5 + x^2 + x$$

And we get  $\tilde{G}$  from  $G$  with modulus of  $x^{q+1} - q^2$ .

$$\tilde{G}_{poly} = 180x^7 + x^5 + 132x^4 + 49x^3 + x^2 + x$$

| $\alpha$ | 0 | 1 | 2  | 3  | 4 | 5  | 6  |
|----------|---|---|----|----|---|----|----|
| $DL$     | 1 | 5 | 38 | 36 | 2 | 11 | 31 |

Table 2.2: Discrete logarithm of  $g + \alpha$  in  $G$

Next step is to build the matrix  $\tilde{G}$  and  $\tilde{T}$ .

$$\tilde{G} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 49 & 132 & 1 & 132 & 180 \\ 132 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 49 & 132 & 1 & 132 \\ 133 & 132 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 49 & 132 & 1 \\ 49 & 133 & 132 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 49 & 132 \\ 133 & 49 & 133 & 132 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 49 \\ 48 & 133 & 49 & 133 & 132 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 49 & 48 & 133 & 49 & 133 & 132 & 0 & 1 \\ 49 & 49 & 48 & 133 & 49 & 133 & 132 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{T} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 180 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 48 & 0 \\ 180 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 180 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 132 \\ 0 & 132 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 48 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now we calculate M and append the diagonal matrix of N.

$$\tilde{M}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 179 & 48 & 0 & 132 & 132 & 133 & 48 & 132 \\ 180 & 131 & 49 & 180 & 49 & 1 & 0 & 48 \\ 0 & 48 & 47 & 180 & 1 & 48 & 1 & 133 \\ 49 & 133 & 132 & 180 & 1 & 1 & 49 & 132 \\ 48 & 132 & 48 & 49 & 180 & 180 & 180 & 132 \\ 132 & 132 & 133 & 48 & 132 & 47 & 49 & 0 \\ 48 & 0 & 132 & 132 & 133 & 48 & 131 & 48 \\ 133 & 48 & 132 & 48 & 49 & 0 & 180 & 179 \\ 181 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 181 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 181 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 181 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 181 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 181 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 181 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 181 \end{pmatrix}$$

At last we calculate the Hermite normal form of the matrix above. The resulting matrix will be as follow:

$$HNF = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 155 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 141 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 59 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 170 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 77 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 35 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 46 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 181 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

### 2.2.3 Verification

We follow the steps above to verify whether  $\det(\mathcal{L}_1) = N$ . In the previous study, all  $q$ 's such that  $\log_2(q^{2(q-1)}) \leq 5000$ , which means  $q \leq 307$ , was verified. Here we increased the  $q$ 's until  $\log_2(q^{2(q-1)}) \leq 10000$ , which means  $q \leq 613$ , and changed the algorithm of verification.

As for the output, we expect to get the diagonal of the resulting matrix as  $[1, 1, 1, \dots, N]$ , and only printed the diagonal instead of the full matrix which should be as follow:

$$HNF = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & x_1 \\ & 1 & x_2 \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & N \end{pmatrix}$$

### 2.2.4 Modification

The first change to the algorithm is using Hermite normal form instead of Smith normal form during the calculation. The reason is that we tested different combinations of normal form and transformation, and then found that the Smith normal form is relatively stable under transformation. In other words it's not suitable for the speed up. For the Hermite normal form, we found different speed when we attach the diagonal matrix of  $N$  to the  $M = GT$  in different directions. Then we picked the faster one as the new algorithm.

The second change is only made for the outliers which doesn't work with the new algorithm. Due to limited time and space, some  $q$ 's exceeded our computing resources when we apply the new algorithm. So we divided  $q$ 's into several cases and treated the outliers with different algorithm. According to known factor-

ization of specific structures, we divided the  $N$ 's into smaller integers, and then applied the old algorithm on those partitions. The other steps are exactly the same.

### 2.2.5 Evaluation

The main concern of the study is the time efficiency of the verification, so we set a series of reading of CPU time during the calculation. The threshold of the whole process was the calculation of the Hermite normal form. To compare the efficiency of this part, we record the CPU time separately for different calculations.

We also considered the space consumption during the verification. Since some of the  $q$ 's took way too much memory and caused overflow, we compare the memory usage in different cases.

# Chapter 3

## Results

### 3.1 Correctness

All  $q$ 's such that  $311 \leq q \leq 613$  were verified in addition to previous  $q$ 's such that  $q \leq 307$ . Although some of the  $q$ 's doesn't fit in the new algorithm, they were all verified by the second modification. Also, the outliers could be divided into three cases as shown in Table 3.1. According to  $q - 1$ 's factors, we can see that they contain small factors such as 2 or 4, and another large prime factor. But not all the  $q$ 's with these structures are outliers. For example, 317 and 383 has similar structures but they can go through the new algorithm.

For these outliers of the new algorithm, we partitioned the  $N$  into several factors with known factorization. Then we ran the smallest partition with old algorithm and other partitions with new algorithm. All the partitions returned

|                |                    |
|----------------|--------------------|
| $4 \mid q - 1$ | 389, 557           |
| $2 \mid q - 1$ | 467, 479, 503, 587 |
| others         | 311, 313, ..., 613 |

Table 3.1: Grouped prime numbers  $311 \leq q \leq 613$

correct relation and the product of the determinants is exact N.

We are going to show a sample of this situation,  $q = 389$ , in the third section in this chapter.

## 3.2 Efficiency

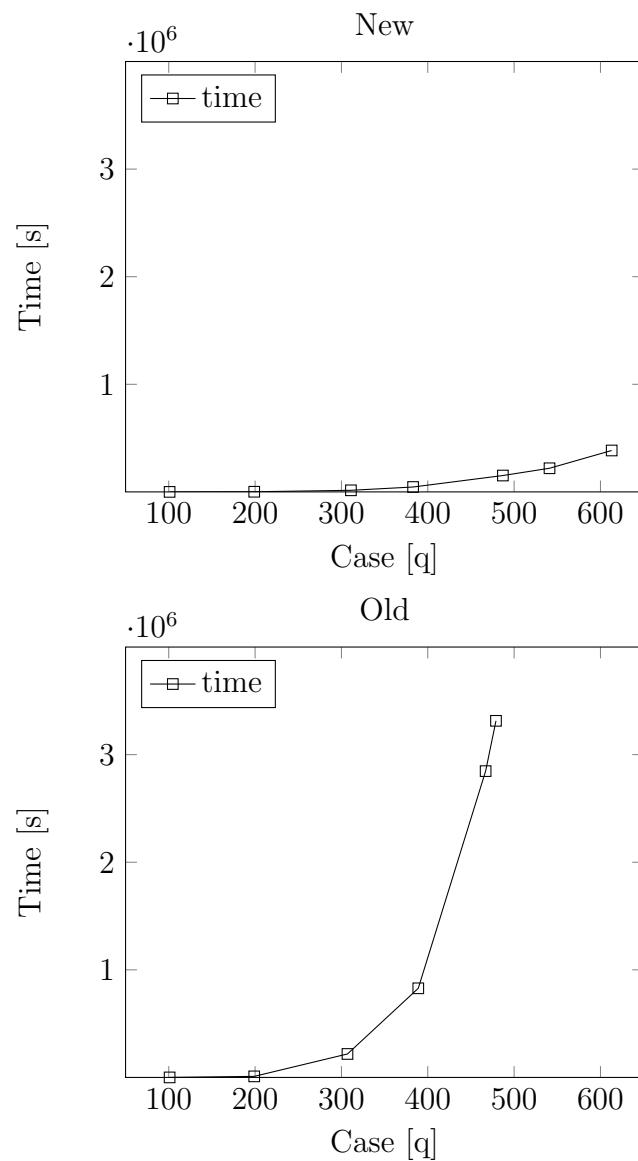


Figure 3.1: Selected HNF time of new and old algorithms

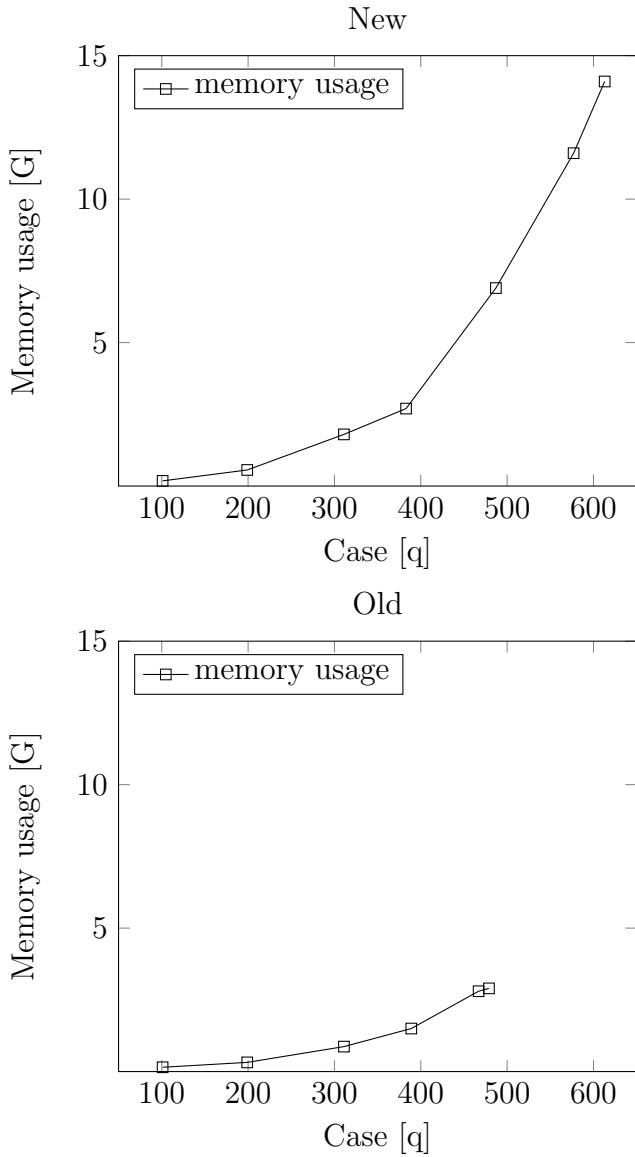


Figure 3.2: Selected memory usage of new and old algorithms

As is shown in Table 3.2, the largest part of time used in calculation is to calculate the HNF. Also, this study doesn't change the calculation method of getting G,T and M. So the efficiency evaluation in this section was referring to HNF time.

The general speed up of the algorithm is more than 1000% and vary with N's in

| Time to get | Time s     |
|-------------|------------|
| N           | 0.644      |
| G, T        | 873.816    |
| M           | 40727.372  |
| HNF         | 384903.052 |

Table 3.2: Calculation time of different steps in case  $q = 613$

the new algorithm. The threshold of the outliers are using the old algorithm to calculate the smallest partition, but we still found more than 1000% speed-up. With this improvement, we took similar time computing the case where  $q = 307$  with old algorithm and  $q = 613$  with new algorithm.

### 3.3 $q = 389$

The first outlier of the new algorithm is  $q = 389$ .

Since  $4 \mid q - 1$ , we partitioned  $N$  into  $N_1$  to  $N_4$  by dividing  $q$  as follow: The original method calculates  $N$  from  $389^{(2*389-2)} - 1$ , which could be factored as  $389^{388} + 1$ ,  $389^{194} + 1$ ,  $389^{97} + 1$ , and  $389^{97} - 1$ .

Each partition of  $N$  is verified individually but we choose different algorithm for each partition. The first three partition are eligible for the new algorithm while the last partition only can be done by the old algorithm. However, due to the decrease of size  $N$ , the last part finished much faster than using the old algorithm on original  $N$ . The space consumption almost doubled using the partitioning method even without parallel computing. But it was still affordable at this data size.

|                 | HNF time old  | HNF time new |
|-----------------|---------------|--------------|
| $389^{388} + 1$ | around 270000 | around 10000 |
| $389^{194} + 1$ | around 90000  | around 3000  |
| $389^{97} + 1$  | around 30000  | around 1000  |
| $389^{97} - 1$  | around 30000  | unfinished   |

Table 3.3: Partitions and calculation time of  $q = 389$

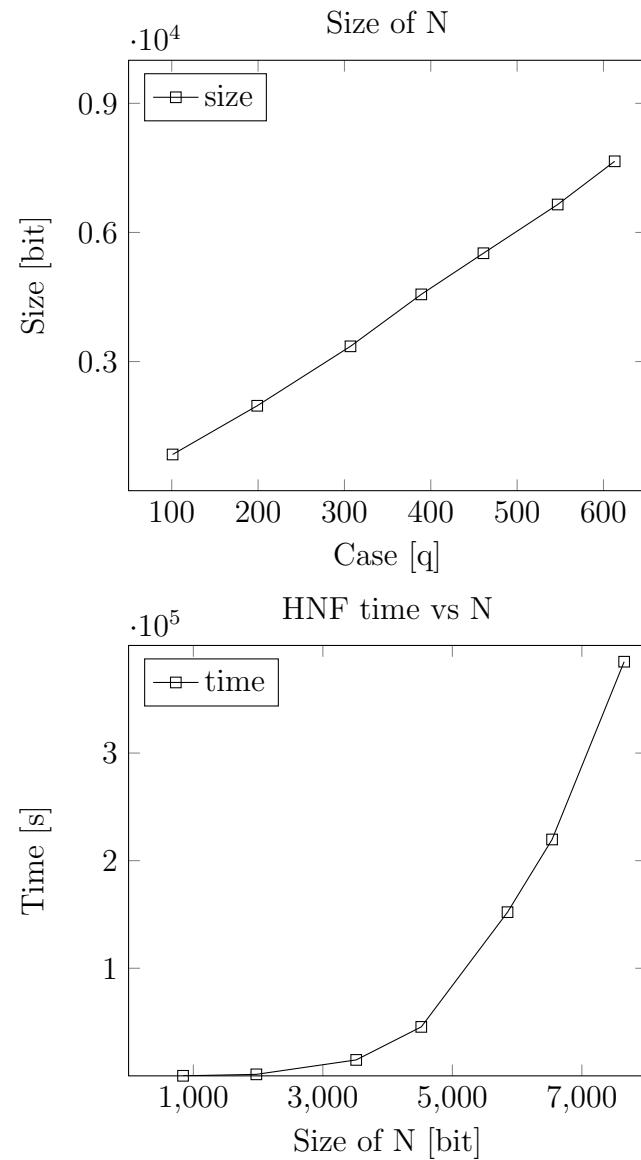


Figure 3.3: Size of N and HNF time vs Size of N

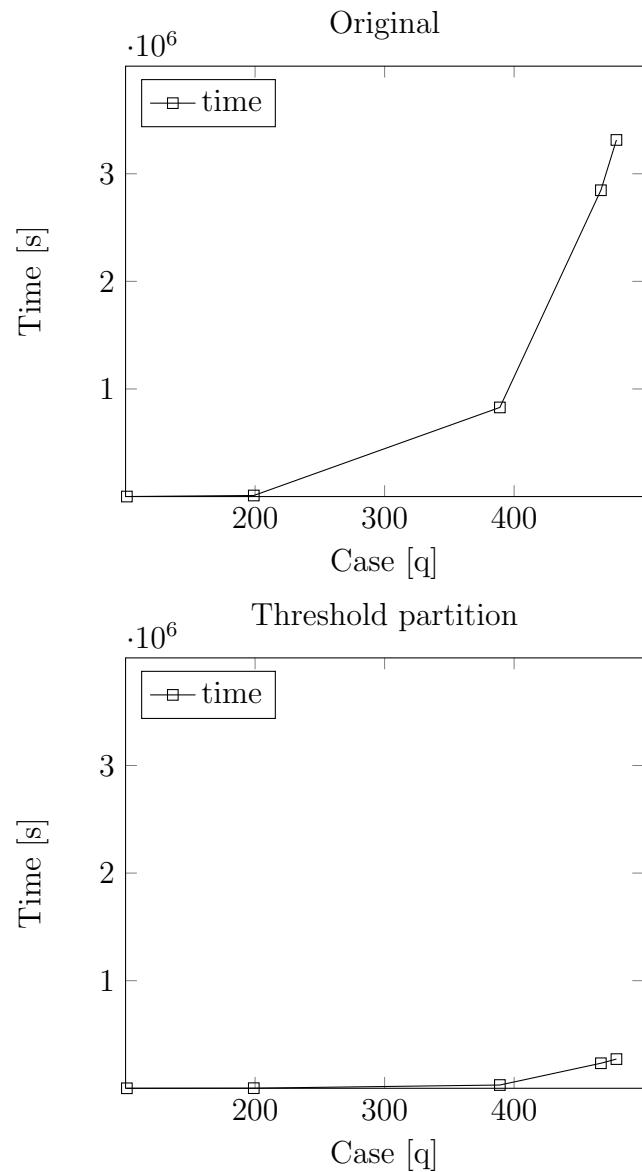


Figure 3.4: HNF time of threshold partitions and original

# Chapter 4

## Discussion

### 4.1 Matrices structure

During the calculation, the matrices M could be built in different ways. The previous algorithm appended GT after diagonal matrix with N and the new algorithm choose opposite direction. The difference between the time usage was great: the new algorithm is much faster for eligible  $q$ 's. However the space usage increased a bit.

$$M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \\ N \\ N \\ N \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M_2 = \begin{pmatrix} N & & \\ & N & \\ & & N \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

The possible reason for these results could be the default calculation process of the Hermite Normal Form in Sage. Elements in GT might be somehow sparse for eligible  $q$ 's, which could end up with smaller space usage at the beginning and sharp increase by the end. Space usage is unstable with each  $q$ 's structure. Smaller elements during the most calculation period reduced the time, but it also varies with  $q$ '.

The non-eligible  $q$ 's could have much more dense structures during the calculation, So the new algorithm with unstable space usage might cause overflow on our computer. But the old algorithm could solve those cases even without partitioning, using longer time.

| q   | factorization of q-1  |
|-----|-----------------------|
| 311 | 2 * 5 * 31            |
| 317 | 2 * 2 * 79            |
| 383 | 2 * 191               |
| 389 | 2 * 2 * 97            |
| 467 | 2 * 233               |
| 479 | 2 * 239               |
| 487 | 2 * 3 * 3 * 3 * 3 * 3 |
| 503 | 2 * 251               |
| 557 | 2 * 2 * 139           |
| 587 | 2 * 293               |
| 613 | 2 * 2 * 3 * 3 * 17    |

Table 4.1:  $q$ 's and factor of  $q - 1$

## 4.2 Grouping $q$ 's

The outliers of the new algorithm could be grouped by their factors, since all cases was found to contain only 2's or 4's with another large prime factor of  $q - 1'$ . The cause of the overflow during the matrix solving might be related to those large factors but that is not necessarily related.

If we could try different sequences during the calculation of solving the Hermite Normal Form in the future, we might find the relation to the structures and  $q$ 's. For example, if printing the matrix during the transformation is possible, we may find out the size of elements and distribution of sizes.

# Chapter 5

## Conclusion

In summary, this study is an expansion of cases in the previous paper and improvement of algorithm from the old one. The speed-up was significant and space usage was reasonable. It's interesting to find the different cases of  $q$ 's during the calculation.

In the future, we can look into the cause of grouping with more theoretical mathematics. Also, new way of verifying the determinant would be great if faster calculation or parallel computing could be introduced to the study.

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# Appendix

## Sage code

### q=31 code

```
#####
# This is the code when q = 31.
# Just change the initialization for other q's.
#####
# initialize q and calculate N
```

```
q=31
```

```
Adlog = -1
```

```
print "q=",q
```

```
t=cputime()
```

```
N=q^(2*q-2)-1
```

```
for i in range(2,q^2):
```

```
    while N%i==0:
```

```
        N=N/i
```

```

print "N=", N #calculate N = large prime factors of q^(2*q-2)-1
# print "=", factor(N)

#####
# initialize RING AND FIELD

II=Integer(N)
R.<x>=Integer(N) []
F2=GF(q^2, 'g')
F2_gen=F2.multiplicative_generator()
F1_gen=F2_gen^(q+1)
A=F2_gen^Adlog
# A can be changed here such as A=F2_gen
# Adlog can be changed here such as Adlog=1

#####
# find G

t=cputime()
k=0
for i in (F2):
    if i^q==i:
        l=F2_gen+i
        for j in range (q^2):

```

```

    if F2_gen^j==l:
        k=k+x^j
        break
G=k
print "G=",G

klog = []
# klog stores the logarithm of k
for i in range(q+1):
    k=(A*F2_gen^(i*(q-1))-1)/(F2_gen^q-F2_gen)
    for j in range (q^2-1):
        if F2_gen^j==k:
            klog.append(j)
            break
#####
# calculate HNF

def test(q,b,Sbase):
    t=cputime()
    #calculate Gx, Tx
    S = R.quotient(x^(q+1)-Sbase^b, 'a')
    XK=[]
    GK=matrix(R,q+1,q+1)

```

```
YK=[]
```

```
TK=matrix(R,q+1,q+1)
```

```
for i in range (q+1):
    XK.append(S(G*x^i))
    YK.append(S(x^(i+klog[i])))
```

```
for i in range(q+1):
    k=[]
    m=0
    for j in XK[i]:
        k.append(j)
        m+=1
    if m!=q:
        for j in range(m,q):
            k.append(0)
        GK.set_row(i,k)
```

```
for i in range(q+1):
    k=[]
    m=0
    for j in YK[i]:
        k.append(j)
        m+=1
    if m!=q:
```

```

for j in range(m,q):
    k.append(0)
    TK.set_row(i,k)

```

```

GKS=matrix(II,q+1,q+1)
TKS=matrix(II,q+1,q+1)
I = matrix.identity(q+1)

```

```

for i in range (q+1):
    GKS[ i ]=GK[ i ]
    TKS[ i ]=TK[ i ]

```

```

M=GKS*TKS
MN= matrix(ZZ,2*q+2,q+1)
for i in range(q+1):
    MN[ q+1+i , i ]=N
    MN[ i ]=(M-I)[ i ]

```

```

t=cputime()
M0=MN.hermite_form()
N0=vector(ZZ,q+1)
print 'HNF_time=' ,cputime()-t
for i in range(q+1):
    N0[ i ]=M0[ i ][ i ]
print N0

```

```
#####
##### main #####
#####

print 'begin\_test'
test(q,1,q^2)
```

## **q=31 output**

begin test

q= 31

N= 14262689885138844219395512550135986576099671732110992403211237371122891

N time= 0.0

G,T time= 0.024

M time= 0.176

HNF time= 0.064

(1, 1,

14262689885138844219395512550135986576099671732110992403211237371122891)

| $q$ | factor of $(q-1)$ | bits of N |
|-----|-------------------|-----------|
| 2   | 1                 | 0         |
| 3   | 2                 | 0         |
| 5   | $2^2$             | 5         |
| 7   | $2 * 3$           | 5         |
| 11  | $2 * 5$           | 36        |
| 13  | $2^2 * 3$         | 40        |
| 17  | $2^4$             | 71        |
| 19  | $2 * 3^2$         | 58        |
| 23  | $2 * 11$          | 123       |
| 29  | $2^2 * 7$         | 172       |
| 31  | $2 * 3 * 5$       | 162       |
| 37  | $2^2 * 3^2$       | 195       |
| 41  | $2^3 * 5$         | 248       |
| 43  | $2 * 3 * 7$       | 276       |
| 47  | $2 * 23$          | 336       |
| 53  | $2^2 * 13$        | 386       |
| 59  | $2 * 29$          | 446       |
| 61  | $2^2 * 3 * 5$     | 418       |
| 67  | $2 * 3 * 11$      | 497       |
| 71  | $2 * 5 * 7$       | 521       |
| 73  | $2^3 * 3^2$       | 524       |
| 79  | $2 * 3 * 13$      | 603       |
| 83  | $2 * 41$          | 698       |
| 89  | $2^3 * 11$        | 746       |

|     |                 |      |
|-----|-----------------|------|
| 97  | $2^5 * 3$       | 777  |
| 101 | $2^2 * 5^2$     | 841  |
| 103 | $2 * 3 * 17$    | 874  |
| 107 | $2 * 53$        | 955  |
| 109 | $2^2 * 3^3$     | 901  |
| 113 | $2^4 * 7$       | 988  |
| 127 | $2 * 3^2 * 7$   | 1075 |
| 131 | $2 * 5 * 13$    | 1223 |
| 137 | $2^3 * 17$      | 1287 |
| 139 | $2 * 3 * 23$    | 1284 |
| 149 | $2^2 * 37$      | 1433 |
| 151 | $2 * 3 * 5^2$   | 1415 |
| 157 | $2^2 * 3 * 13$  | 1467 |
| 163 | $2 * 3^4$       | 1553 |
| 167 | $2 * 83$        | 1656 |
| 173 | $2^2 * 43$      | 1731 |
| 179 | $2 * 89$        | 1820 |
| 181 | $2^2 * 3^2 * 5$ | 1707 |
| 191 | $2 * 5 * 19$    | 1929 |
| 193 | $2^6 * 3$       | 1935 |
| 197 | $2^2 * 7^2$     | 2030 |
| 199 | $2 * 3^2 * 11$  | 1973 |
| 211 | $2 * 3 * 5 * 7$ | 2092 |
| 223 | $2 * 3 * 37$    | 2320 |
| 227 | $2 * 113$       | 2425 |

|     |                  |      |
|-----|------------------|------|
| 229 | $2^2 * 3 * 19$   | 2366 |
| 233 | $2^3 * 29$       | 2472 |
| 239 | $2 * 7 * 17$     | 2564 |
| 241 | $2^4 * 3 * 5$    | 2462 |
| 251 | $2 * 5^3$        | 2716 |
| 257 | $2^8$            | 2727 |
| 263 | $2 * 131$        | 2892 |
| 269 | $2^2 * 67$       | 2962 |
| 271 | $2 * 3^3 * 5$    | 2802 |
| 277 | $2^2 * 3 * 23$   | 2984 |
| 281 | $2^3 * 5 * 7$    | 3036 |
| 283 | $2 * 3 * 47$     | 3121 |
| 293 | $2^2 * 73$       | 3249 |
| 307 | $2 * 3^2 * 17$   | 3354 |
| 311 | $2 * 5 * 31$     | 3515 |
| 313 | $2^3 * 3 * 13$   | 3409 |
| 317 | $2^2 * 79$       | 3602 |
| 331 | $2 * 3 * 5 * 11$ | 3611 |
| 337 | $2^4 * 3 * 7$    | 3758 |
| 347 | $2 * 173$        | 4024 |
| 349 | $2^2 * 3 * 29$   | 3931 |
| 353 | $2^5 * 11$       | 4068 |
| 359 | $2 * 179$        | 4184 |
| 367 | $2 * 3 * 61$     | 4182 |
| 373 | $2^2 * 3 * 31$   | 4311 |

|     |                   |      |
|-----|-------------------|------|
| 379 | $2 * 3^3 * 7$     | 4261 |
| 383 | $2 * 191$         | 4520 |
| 389 | $2^2 * 97$        | 4561 |
| 397 | $2^2 * 3^2 * 11$  | 4565 |
| 401 | $2^4 * 5^2$       | 4651 |
| 409 | $2^3 * 3 * 17$    | 4765 |
| 419 | $2 * 11 * 19$     | 4990 |
| 421 | $2^2 * 3 * 5 * 7$ | 4782 |
| 431 | $2 * 5 * 43$      | 5126 |
| 433 | $2^4 * 3^3$       | 5065 |
| 439 | $2 * 3 * 73$      | 5256 |
| 443 | $2 * 13 * 17$     | 5303 |
| 449 | $2^6 * 7$         | 5333 |
| 457 | $2^3 * 3 * 19$    | 5477 |
| 461 | $2^2 * 5 * 23$    | 5517 |
| 463 | $2 * 3 * 7 * 11$  | 5505 |
| 467 | $2 * 233$         | 5676 |
| 479 | $2 * 239$         | 5875 |
| 487 | $2 * 3^5$         | 5852 |
| 491 | $2 * 5 * 7^2$     | 5909 |
| 499 | $2 * 3 * 83$      | 6081 |
| 503 | $2 * 251$         | 6234 |
| 509 | $2^2 * 127$       | 6291 |
| 521 | $2^3 * 5 * 13$    | 6385 |
| 523 | $2 * 3^2 * 29$    | 6420 |

|     |                  |      |
|-----|------------------|------|
| 541 | $2^2 * 3^3 * 5$  | 6540 |
| 547 | $2 * 3 * 7 * 13$ | 6649 |
| 557 | $2^2 * 139$      | 7001 |
| 563 | $2 * 281$        | 7096 |
| 569 | $2^3 * 71$       | 7124 |
| 571 | $2 * 3 * 5 * 19$ | 7100 |
| 577 | $2^6 * 3^2$      | 7134 |
| 587 | $2 * 293$        | 7435 |
| 593 | $2^4 * 37$       | 7450 |
| 599 | $2 * 13 * 23$    | 7577 |
| 601 | $2^3 * 3 * 5^2$  | 7438 |
| 607 | $2 * 3 * 101$    | 7702 |
| 613 | $2^2 * 3^2 * 17$ | 7653 |

Table 5.1: Factor of  $(q-1)$ 's and bits of N's

## Selected $q$ 's and determinants

$q=311$

$N = 12220411457481341798648123502938873888169864938486419458061779684519$   
 $633773718325807382423254560854121891872381196014855253725161140044501326$   
 $840291319765434176918675896823872774734003455372466148895851643435785224$   
 $626009714904235854356647470448102513132512659958395237446359110526454795$   
 $959177097885577601999780360566406370302177987327533213231942330332426897$   
 $893786185740955907652661699531167600216318185100691978130852121936769490$   
 $958999056294346567845100249788412392103908381648864114235372837619101634$   
 $856648623401207731452963462537018184481684290640409306322381702308295939$   
 $247119348497288093733740380345793466966323367569332795813194076393184394$   
 $585090377448437440179051089603043396280934495150890826106447800609207045$   
 $866225221768826271313973947765248326560131041325812591362336610694982552$   
 $719356874239881180561700880555873289430567531921717380049998010517230720$   
 $909956655060247530481467964474502154179720952919798058994446256251276835$   
 $469241111077252199650513993011290200921954199870571983961084496324555966$   
 $103674275690918673335780710423372758684182796492718777256080697208591157$   
 $882465160281146160203042977718927562171798903089885996738245775406342229$   
 $924627582132962202562863260335072480256211728775630884357861164063291314$   
 $443654448871159002687142735391915039896923028993710508489164161294235569$   
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