

Public-key Cryptography

Theory and Practice

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Chapter 4: The Intractable Mathematical Problems

The Intractable Problems

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- Certain special cases have been discovered to be cryptographically weak. For practical designs, it is essential to avoid these special cases.
- Polynomial-time quantum algorithms are known for factoring integers and computing discrete logarithms in finite fields.

Discrete Logarithms

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- Let \mathbb{F}_q be a finite field, g a generator of \mathbb{F}_q^* , and $a \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$. There exists a unique integer $x \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, q - 1\}$ such that $a = g^x$. We call x the *index* or *discrete logarithm* of a to the base g . We denote this by $x = \text{ind}_g a$.

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- Indices follow arithmetic modulo $q-1$.

$$\text{ind}_g(ab) \equiv \text{ind}_g a + \text{ind}_g b \pmod{q-1},$$

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- The concept of discrete logarithms can be extended to other finite groups (including the elliptic curve group).

Discrete Logarithm: Example

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- Take $p = 17$ and $g = 3$.

a	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
$\text{ind}_3 a$	0	14	1	12	5	15	11	10	2	3	7	13	4	9	6	8

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- $\text{ind}_3 6 = 15$ and $\text{ind}_3 11 = 7$. Since $6 \times 11 = 15 \pmod{17}$, we have $\text{ind}_3 15 \equiv \text{ind}_3 6 + \text{ind}_3 11 \equiv 15 + 7 \equiv 6 \pmod{16}$.

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Integer factorization problem (IFP): Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, compute the complete prime factorization of n . Suppose there is an algorithm A that computes a non-trivial factor of n . We can use A repeatedly in order to compute the complete factorization of n . If $n = pq$ (with $p, q \in \mathbb{P}$), then computing p or q suffices.

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- The converse is only believed to be true.

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- Let $Q_1 = 3P = (5, 0)$ and $Q_2 = 4P = (6, 1)$. Then,
 $(3 \times 4)P = 12P = 0P = \mathcal{O}$.

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- Computing a generator of \mathbb{F}_q^* requires the complete factorization of $q - 1$.
- **Generalized Discrete Logarithm Problem (GDLP)**
Let G be a (multiplicative) Abelian group of size n and let g be an element of G of order m (we have $m \mid n$). Let H be the subgroup of G generated by g . Given $a \in G$, determine whether $a \in H$, and if so, determine the unique integer $x \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m - 1\}$ such that $a = g^x$.

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- Pollard's rho method
- Pollard's $p - 1$ method (efficient if $p - 1$ has only small prime factors for some prime divisor p of n)
- Williams' $p + 1$ method (efficient if $p + 1$ has only small prime factors for some prime divisor p of n)

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In the worst case, these algorithms take exponential (in $\log n$) running time.

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Modern Factoring Algorithms

Subexponential running time:

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Algorithm	Inventor(s)	Running time
Continued fraction method (CFRAC)	Morrison & Brillhart (1975)	$L(n, 1/2, c)$
Quadratic sieve method (QSM)	Pomerance (1984)	$L(n, 1/2, 1)$
Cubic sieve method (CSM)	Reyneri	$L(n, 1/2, 0.816)$
Elliptic curve method (ECM)	H. W. Lenstra (1987)	$L(n, 1/2, c)$
Number field sieve method (NFSM)	A. K. Lenstra, H. W. Lenstra, Manasse & Pollard (1990)	$L(n, 1/3, 1.923)$

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- Trial division is efficient if n has only small prime factors (except possibly one).

Pollard's Rho Method

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- By the **Birthday Paradox**, the expected running time of Pollard's rho method is $O(\sqrt[4]{n})$.

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- The first 20 terms in the x sequence are:
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- $\gcd(61986 - 48778, n) = 127$.

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Objective

To find integers $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ such that $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$. Unless $x \equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$, $\gcd(x - y, n)$ is a non-trivial divisor of n .

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If n is composite (but not a prime power), then for a randomly chosen pair (x, y) with $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$, the probability that $x \not\equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$ is at least $1/2$.

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Suppose $T(c)$ factors over small primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_t :

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The left side is already a square.

The right side is also a square if each α_j is even.

But this is very rare.

QSM (contd)

Collect many relations:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l}
 \text{Relation 1: } (H + c_1)^2 = p_1^{\alpha_{11}} p_2^{\alpha_{12}} \dots p_t^{\alpha_{1t}} \\
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Let $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_r \in \{0, 1\}$.

$$\left[(H + c_1)^{\beta_1} (H + c_2)^{\beta_2} \cdots (H + c_r)^{\beta_r} \right]^2 \equiv p_1^{\gamma_1} p_2^{\gamma_2} \cdots p_t^{\gamma_t} \pmod{n}.$$

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Tune $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_r$ to make each γ_i even.

QSM (contd)

$$\alpha_{11}\beta_1 + \alpha_{21}\beta_2 + \cdots + \alpha_{r1}\beta_r = \gamma_1,$$

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...

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Linear system with t equations and r variables $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_r$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \alpha_{21} & \cdots & \alpha_{r1} \\ \alpha_{12} & \alpha_{22} & \cdots & \alpha_{r2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ \alpha_{1t} & \alpha_{2t} & \cdots & \alpha_{rt} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_t \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{2}.$$

QSM (contd)

For $r \geq t$, there are non-zero solutions for $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_r$. Take

$$x \equiv (H + c_1)^{\beta_1} (H + c_2)^{\beta_2} \dots (H + c_r)^{\beta_r} \pmod{n},$$

$$y \equiv p_1^{\gamma_1/2} p_2^{\gamma_2/2} \dots p_t^{\gamma_t/2} \pmod{n}.$$

If $x \not\equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$, then $\gcd(x - y, n)$ is a non-trivial factor of n .

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If $x \not\equiv \pm y \pmod{n}$, then $\gcd(x - y, n)$ is a non-trivial factor of n .

Let $p = p_i$ be a small prime.

$p \mid T(c)$ implies $(H + c)^2 \equiv n \pmod{p}$.

If n is not a quadratic residue modulo p , then $p \nmid T(c)$ for any c .

Consider only the small primes p modulo which n is a quadratic residue.

Example of QSM: Parameters

$$n = 7116491.$$

$$H = \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil = 2668.$$

Take all primes < 100 modulo which n is a square:

$$B = \{2, 5, 7, 17, 29, 31, 41, 59, 61, 67, 71, 79, 97\}.$$

$$t = 13.$$

Take $r = 13$. (In practice, one takes $r \approx 2t$.)

Example of QSM: Relations

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{Relation 1:} \quad (H + 3)^2 \equiv 2 \times 5^3 \times 71 \\
 \text{Relation 2:} \quad (H + 8)^2 \equiv 5 \times 7 \times 31 \times 41 \\
 \text{Relation 3:} \quad (H + 49)^2 \equiv 2 \times 41^2 \times 79 \\
 \text{Relation 4:} \quad (H + 64)^2 \equiv 7 \times 29^2 \times 59 \\
 \text{Relation 5:} \quad (H + 81)^2 \equiv 2 \times 5 \times 7^2 \times 29 \times 31 \\
 \text{Relation 6:} \quad (H + 109)^2 \equiv 2 \times 7 \times 17 \times 41 \times 61 \\
 \text{Relation 7:} \quad (H + 128)^2 \equiv 5^3 \times 71 \times 79 \\
 \text{Relation 8:} \quad (H + 145)^2 \equiv 2 \times 71^2 \times 79 \\
 \text{Relation 9:} \quad (H + 182)^2 \equiv 17^2 \times 59^2 \\
 \text{Relation 10:} \quad (H + 228)^2 \equiv 5^2 \times 7^2 \times 17 \times 61 \\
 \text{Relation 11:} \quad (H + 267)^2 \equiv 2 \times 7^2 \times 17 \times 29 \times 31 \\
 \text{Relation 12:} \quad (H + 382)^2 \equiv 7 \times 59 \times 67 \times 79 \\
 \text{Relation 13:} \quad (H + 411)^2 \equiv 2 \times 5^4 \times 31 \times 61
 \end{array}
 \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} \text{Relation 1:} \\ \text{Relation 2:} \\ \text{Relation 3:} \\ \text{Relation 4:} \\ \text{Relation 5:} \\ \text{Relation 6:} \\ \text{Relation 7:} \\ \text{Relation 8:} \\ \text{Relation 9:} \\ \text{Relation 10:} \\ \text{Relation 11:} \\ \text{Relation 12:} \\ \text{Relation 13:} \end{array}} \right\} \pmod{n}.$$

Example of QSM: Linear System

$$\begin{pmatrix}
 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 4 \\
 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
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 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
 \end{pmatrix}
 \begin{pmatrix}
 \beta_1 \\
 \beta_2 \\
 \beta_3 \\
 \beta_4 \\
 \beta_5 \\
 \beta_6 \\
 \beta_7 \\
 \beta_8 \\
 \beta_9 \\
 \beta_{10} \\
 \beta_{11} \\
 \beta_{12} \\
 \beta_{13}
 \end{pmatrix}
 \equiv
 \begin{pmatrix}
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0 \\
 0
 \end{pmatrix}
 \pmod{2}.$$

Example of QSM: Solution of Relations

$(\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \dots, \beta_{13})$	x	y	$\gcd(x - y, n)$
(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	1	1	7116491
(1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	1755331	560322	1847
(0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	526430	459938	1847
(1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	7045367	7045367	7116491
(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	2850	1003	1847
(1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	6916668	6916668	7116491
(0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	5862390	5862390	7116491
(1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)	3674839	6944029	1847
(0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1)	1079130	3965027	3853
(1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1)	5466596	1649895	1
(0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1)	5395334	1721157	1
(1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1)	6429806	3725000	3853
(0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1)	1196388	5920103	1
(1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1)	1799801	3818773	3853
(0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1)	5081340	4129649	3853
(1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1)	7099266	17225	1

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Algorithm	Inventor(s)	Running time
Basic ICM	Western & Miller (1968)	$L(q, 1/2, c)$
Linear sieve method (LSM) Residue list sieve method Gaussian integer method	Coppersmith, Odlyzko & Schroepel (1986)	$L(q, 1/2, 1)$
Cubic sieve method (CSM)	Reyneri	$L(q, 1/2, 0.816)$
Number field sieve method (NFSM) [for \mathbb{F}_p only]	Gordon (1993)	$L(q, 1/3, 1.923)$
Coppersmith's method [for \mathbb{F}_{2^n} only]	Coppersmith	$L(q, 1/3, 1.526)$

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- If a search is successful, we have $ag^{-jm} = g^i$ for some i, j , that is, $a = g^{jm+i}$, that is, $\text{ind}_g(a) = jm + i$.

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Take $G = \mathbb{F}_{43}^*$ with size $n = 42$, $m = \lceil \sqrt{42} \rceil = 7$, and $g = 19$.

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- $j = 3$: $ag^{-3m} \equiv 40 \pmod{43}$ is not in the table.
- $j = 4$: $ag^{-4m} \equiv 22 \equiv g^3 \pmod{43}$, so $\text{ind}_g(a) = 4 \times 7 + 3 = 31$.

The Basic ICM for Prime Fields: Precomputation

Goal: To compute $\text{ind}_g(a)$ in \mathbb{F}_p^* to a primitive root g modulo p .

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Linear equation in t variables d_1, d_2, \dots, d_t :

$$j \equiv \alpha_1 d_1 + \alpha_2 d_2 + \dots + \alpha_t d_t \pmod{p-1}$$

The Basic ICM: Precomputation (contd)

Generate $r \geq t$ relations for different values of j :

$$\left. \begin{array}{l}
 \text{Relation 1: } j_1 \equiv \alpha_{11}d_1 + \alpha_{12}d_2 + \cdots + \alpha_{1t}d_t \\
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 \dots \\
 \text{Relation } r: j_r \equiv \alpha_{r1}d_1 + \alpha_{r2}d_2 + \cdots + \alpha_{rt}d_t
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Solve the system modulo $p - 1$ to determine d_1, d_2, \dots, d_t .

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Substitute the values of d_1, d_2, \dots, d_t to get $\text{ind}_g a$.

The Basic ICM: Example (Precomputation)

Parameters: $p = 839$, $g = 31$, $B = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11\}$, $t = 5$, $r = 10$.

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Relations

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{Relation 1: } g^{118} \equiv 2^3 \times 5^2 \\
 \text{Relation 2: } g^{574} \equiv 2^7 \times 5 \\
 \text{Relation 3: } g^{318} \equiv 2^2 \times 3^3 \\
 \text{Relation 4: } g^{46} \equiv 2^7 \\
 \text{Relation 5: } g^{786} \equiv 2^2 \times 3^3 \times 7 \\
 \text{Relation 6: } g^{323} \equiv 2 \times 3 \times 11 \\
 \text{Relation 7: } g^{606} \equiv 3^4 \\
 \text{Relation 8: } g^{252} \equiv 2^3 \times 3^2 \times 7 \\
 \text{Relation 9: } g^{160} \equiv 3 \times 5^2 \\
 \text{Relation 10: } g^{600} \equiv 2 \times 3^3 \times 5
 \end{array}
 \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array}} \right\} \pmod{p}.$$

The Basic ICM: Example (Precomputation)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \\ d_3 \\ d_4 \\ d_5 \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 118 \\ 574 \\ 318 \\ 46 \\ 786 \\ 323 \\ 606 \\ 252 \\ 160 \\ 600 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{p-1}.$$

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The coefficient matrix has full column rank (5) modulo $p - 1 = 838$.

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$$\left. \begin{array}{l} d_1 \equiv \text{ind}_{31} 2 = 246 \\ d_2 \equiv \text{ind}_{31} 3 = 780 \\ d_3 \equiv \text{ind}_{31} 5 = 528 \\ d_4 \equiv \text{ind}_{31} 7 = 468 \\ d_5 \equiv \text{ind}_{31} 11 = 135 \end{array} \right\} \pmod{p - 1}.$$

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Take $a = 561$.

$$ag^{312} \equiv 600 \equiv 2^3 \times 3 \times 5^2 \pmod{p}, \quad \text{that is,}$$

$$\text{ind}_{31} 561 \equiv -312 + 3 \times 246 + 780 + 2 \times 528 \equiv 586 \pmod{p-1}.$$

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Take $a = 89$.

$$ag^{342} \equiv 99 \equiv 3^2 \times 11 \pmod{p}, \quad \text{that is,}$$

$$\text{ind}_{31} 89 \equiv -342 + 2 \times 780 + 135 \equiv 515 \pmod{p-1}.$$

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Take $a = 625$.

$$ag^{806} \equiv 70 \equiv 2 \times 5 \times 7 \pmod{p}, \quad \text{that is,}$$

$$\text{ind}_{31} 625 \equiv -806 + 246 + 528 + 468 \equiv 436 \pmod{p-1}.$$

The Basic ICM for \mathbb{F}_{2^n}

Represent $\mathbb{F}_{2^n} = \mathbb{F}_2(\alpha)$, where $f(\alpha) = 0$. Let $g(\alpha)$ be a generator of $\mathbb{F}_{2^n}^*$. We plan to compute $\text{ind}_{g(\alpha)} t(\alpha)$.

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$$t(\alpha)g(\alpha)^j = \prod_{u(\alpha) \in B} u(\alpha)^{\delta_{u(\alpha)}}.$$

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- **Relations in the first stage**

$$g(\alpha)^7 = \alpha^6 + \alpha^2 = \alpha^2(\alpha + 1)^4,$$

$$g(\alpha)^{101} = \alpha^4 + \alpha^3 + \alpha + 1 = (\alpha + 1)^2(\alpha^2 + \alpha + 1),$$

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- **Linear system of congruences**

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d_\alpha \\ d_{\alpha+1} \\ d_{\alpha^2+\alpha+1} \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 101 \\ 121 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{127},$$

where $d_\beta = \text{ind}_{g(\alpha)}(\beta)$.

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- Supersingular and anomalous curves are not used in cryptography.
- The **Xedni calculus method** applies to general curves, but is found to be impractical.

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- If A is sparse, there are $O^\sim(n^2)$ -time algorithms.

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Lanczos Method

Let A be a symmetric positive-definite matrix with real entries.

We plan to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.

We generate a set of pairwise orthogonal directions

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- **Initialization**

$$\mathbf{d}_0 = \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{v}_1 = A\mathbf{d}_0, \mathbf{d}_1 = \mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{d}_0(\mathbf{v}_1^t A\mathbf{d}_0)/(\mathbf{d}_0^t A\mathbf{d}_0),$$

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- **Iteration:** For $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, repeat:

$$\mathbf{v}_{i+1} = A\mathbf{d}_i.$$

$$\mathbf{d}_{i+1} = \mathbf{v}_{i+1} - \mathbf{d}_i(\mathbf{v}_{i+1}^t \mathbf{d}_i) / (\mathbf{d}_i^t \mathbf{d}_i) - \mathbf{d}_{i-1}(\mathbf{v}_{i+1}^t \mathbf{d}_{i-1}) / (\mathbf{d}_{i-1}^t \mathbf{d}_{i-1}).$$

$$a_i = (\mathbf{d}_i^t \mathbf{b}) / (\mathbf{d}_i^t A\mathbf{d}_i).$$

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- **Remedy**
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 - Solve $D(A^t A)\mathbf{x} = D A^t \mathbf{b}$ for random non-singular diagonal matrices D .

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- **Block Wiedemann method:** The block implementation of the Wiedemann method for systems modulo 2.