Factoring Class Polynomials over the Genus Field

Marcel Martin
m.martin@ellipsa.net

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Abstract

Aimed at computer scientists, this *how to* describes a method (with detailed algorithms) that allows to compute the factors of a class polynomial over the genus field. Though we only consider polynomials having real factors over the genus field, it is not difficult to adapt the method so that it works when these factors are complex.

Keywords: complex multiplication, genus field, class polynomial, factoring.

Introduction

Primality proving... Cryptography... As soon as we want to build an elliptic curve with a known order over a $\mathbb{Z}/p$ field using the so-called *complex multiplication*, we have to find a root of a class polynomial. Depending on the degree of this polynomial (and on the size of p), this operation might be very lengthy. More concretely, suppose we have to find a root of $H_{-12932920}(x)$ (the degree of this polynomial is 832). Suppose now we can compute a factor of degree 13 more quickly than we can compute the whole polynomial $H_{-D}(x)$ itself... Of course, it would make the task easier. But how to do that?

Let $h(-D)$ and $g(-D)$, denoted h and g in the sequel, be the class number and the genus number associated with a negative fundamental discriminant $-D$. The class number h is the number of primitive reduced forms (a, b, c) of discriminant $-D = b^2 - 4ac$. The genus number g is the number of genera associated with $-D$ (see, for instance, [3, pp. 221–230] or [4, pp. 53–63]).

Our goal is to build the factors of a class polynomial $H_{-D}(x)$ [1] (when, of course, these factors exist, i.e., when $g > 1$ [2]) over a compositum of quadratic fields called the *genus field*. The genus field, denoted K_G in the sequel, is a field extension of $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$ [3]. More precisely, we want to obtain

$$H_{-D}(x) = \prod_{i=0}^{g-1} Q_i(x)$$

$$\text{with} \quad Q_i(x) = \frac{1}{g} \sum_{j=0}^{\frac{h}{g}-1} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{g-1} S_{i,k}\, B_k\, M_{k,j} \right) x^j \; + \; x^{\frac{h}{g}} \tag{1}$$

where S is a sign matrix (its coefficients are ± 1), B is a basis and M is a coefficient matrix (each of its column vectors consists of the coefficients of an integer of K_G multiplied by g). Note that the matrix S and the basis B could be merged into a single matrix equal to $S * \text{Diag}(B)$. They are not mainly for computational convenience: not only does the representation used minimize the memory needed to store the values, but B is not the same over $\mathbb{Z}/p$ as it is over $\mathbb{C}$ whereas S is the same for both cases.

Let K_H be the splitting field of $H_{-D}(x)$ [4]. $H_{-D}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ being monic and irreducible, K_G being a subfield of K_H such that $[K_H : K_G] = h/g$, not only the factorization (1) exists when $g > 1$ but the $Q_i(x)$'s are conjugate polynomials over K_G, i.e., the g coefficients of degree j of the $Q_i(x)$'s are the g conjugates of an integer of K_G.

Before going further, let us see the purpose of the sign matrix S with a small (and artificial) example.
Let $L = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$. L is a field extension of $\mathbb{Q}$ containing all the numbers of the form $u = a + b\sqrt{2} + c\sqrt{3} + d\sqrt{6}$ with $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Q}$. By definition, the Galois group $\text{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q})$ consists of all the field automorphisms $\sigma: L \to L$ that fix $\mathbb{Q}$, i.e., such that $\sigma(q) = q$ for any $q \in \mathbb{Q}$. L being a Galois

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[1] In the sequel, $H_{-D}(x)$ is used to denote any class polynomial, i.e., not the Hilbert ones only.

[2] If $g = 1$, there is a single factor, $H_{-D}(x)$ itself.

[3] K_G is the maximal unramified extension of K which is an Abelian extension of $\mathbb{Q}$.

[4] K_H, called the *Hilbert class field* of K, is the maximal unramified Abelian extension of K.

extension (because L is the splitting field of the separable polynomial $(x^2-2)(x^2-3) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ [5]), there are exactly $[L : \mathbb{Q}] = 4$ such automorphisms:

σ_0, the identity map on L,
σ_1, that takes $\sqrt{2}$ to $-\sqrt{2}$ and that fixes $\sqrt{3}$,
σ_2, that takes $\sqrt{3}$ to $-\sqrt{3}$ and that fixes $\sqrt{2}$,
σ_3, equal to $\sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2$.

With these σ_k's, we can compute the conjugates of u. We get [6]

$$\sigma_0(u) = a + b\sqrt{2} + c\sqrt{3} + d\sqrt{6},$$
$$\sigma_1(u) = a - b\sqrt{2} + c\sqrt{3} - d\sqrt{6},$$
$$\sigma_2(u) = a + b\sqrt{2} - c\sqrt{3} - d\sqrt{6},$$
$$\sigma_3(u) = a - b\sqrt{2} - c\sqrt{3} + d\sqrt{6}.$$

In a matrix form, with $u = (a, b, c, d)$, i.e., with u expressed with respect to the basis $B' = (1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{6})$, the previous equalities can be written

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_0(u) \\ \sigma_1(u) \\ \sigma_2(u) \\ \sigma_3(u) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} + & + & + & + \\ + & - & + & - \\ + & + & - & - \\ + & - & - & + \end{pmatrix} * \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{6} \end{pmatrix} * \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix}.$$

Clearly, the line vectors of the sign matrix, let us call it S', consist of all the conjugates of the number $(1, 1, 1, 1)$ expressed with respect to the basis B'. Though the representation depends on the basis used, these lines represent the field automorphisms of $L/\mathbb{Q}$ [7] and they allow to compute any of the conjugates of any number $(a, b, c, d) \in L$, expressed with respect to B', simply by doing dot products. For instance, with $v = (1, -2, 3, -4)$,

$$\sigma_2(v) = (+, +, -, -) \times (1, -2, 3, -4) = (1, -2, -3, 4).$$

In the equation (1), the matrix S represents the field automorphisms of K_G/K [8] exactly like S' represents the ones of $L/\mathbb{Q}$. In particular, being given $w = (a_0, \dots, a_{g-1})$, a number of K_G expressed with respect to the basis B, the matrix S allows to get all of the conjugates of w.

In the sequel, the symbol $\oplus$ indicates the **xor** (bitwise exclusive **or**) operator. For instance, $5 \oplus 9 = 12$, i.e., $\overline{0101} \oplus \overline{1001} = \overline{1100}$ with a binary representation.

As numeric examples, all along the eight steps, we will use the data obtained with $-D = -2184$ for which we have $h = 24$ and $g = 8$.

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[5] A polynomial is *separable* if it has distinct roots.

[6] Instead of $\sigma(x)$, mathematicians often make use of σx or even of x^σ.

[7] In fact, the line vectors of S', with the dot product operation, are a group isomorphic to $\mathrm{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q})$ (we obviously have $S'_{\sigma_i} \times S'_{\sigma_j} = S'_{\sigma_i \circ \sigma_j}$ for any $\sigma_i, \sigma_j \in \mathrm{Gal}(L/\mathbb{Q})$).

[8] It should be noted that $\mathrm{Gal}(K_G/K)$ is not a subset (let alone a subgroup) of $\mathrm{Gal}(K_H/K)$. As a matter of fact, $\mathrm{Gal}(K_H/K_G)$ being a normal subgroup of $\mathrm{Gal}(K_H/K)$, $\mathrm{Gal}(K_G/K)$ is isomorphic to the quotient group $\mathrm{Gal}(K_H/K)/\mathrm{Gal}(K_H/K_G)$ or, equivalently, to $\mathrm{Gal}_K(H_{-D}(x))/\mathrm{Gal}_{K_G}(Q_i(x))$.

Step 1: Factoring the discriminant

A negative discriminant $-D$ is *fundamental* if D is a positive integer not divisible by the square of an odd prime and if $D \equiv 3 \pmod 4$ or $D \equiv 4, 8 \pmod{16}$.

First of all, we have to compute a small table F containing all the prime factors, possibly signed, of $-D$. For this operation -1 is regarded as a prime factor. Though this is not the way it is implemented, the factorization is simple: for all q's that are odd prime factors of D, we put $q^* = (-1)^{(q-1)/2} q$ in F, then we divide $-D$ by the product of all the q^*'s and the remaining even factor, if any, is divided by 4 and added to F.

For computational convenience, the first part of F, denoted $F-$ in the sequel, contains the negative factors in decreasing order (this part is never empty); the second part contains the positive factors in increasing order.

Algorithm 1.1 *(Factoring the discriminant)*
input
   D, absolute value of a fundamental discriminant (small integer)
outputs
   F, array of factors (small integers)
   g, genus number associated with $-D$ (small integer)
begin
   $i \leftarrow 0$
   $j \leftarrow 0$
   if *(D mod 16)* $= 4$ **then**
      $F_0 \leftarrow -1$
      $i \leftarrow 1$
      $D \leftarrow D/4$
   elseif *(D mod 32)* $= 8$ **then**
      $F_0 \leftarrow -2$
      $i \leftarrow 1$
      $D \leftarrow D/8$
   elseif *(D mod 32)* $= 24$ **then**
      $T_0 \leftarrow 2$ *// T is a temporary table*
      $j \leftarrow 1$
      $D \leftarrow D/8$
   endif
   while $D > 1$ **do** *// here D is a square-free product of odd primes*
      $p \leftarrow$ *smallest prime factor of D*
      $D \leftarrow D/p$
      if *(p mod 4)* $= 3$ **then**
         $F_i \leftarrow -p$
         $i \leftarrow i + 1$
      else
         $T_j \leftarrow p$

$$j \leftarrow j + 1$$
endif
endwhile
for k **from** 0 **to** $j - 1$ **do** $F_{i+k} \leftarrow T_k$ *// append T to F*
$$g \leftarrow 2^{i+j-1}$$
end

With $-D = -2184$, we have $-D = -8 * -3 * -7 * 13$, so we get $F = (-2, -3, -7, 13)$ and $g = 8$.

Using F, we can describe the genus field of $K = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2184}) = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-546})$ as an extension of $\mathbb{Q}$, $K_G = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-2}, \sqrt{-3}, \sqrt{-7}, \sqrt{13})$, as well as an extension of K, $K_G = K(\sqrt{-3}, \sqrt{-7}, \sqrt{13})$. In the latter case, there are several possible descriptions. In the sequel, we implicitly make use of $K_G = K(\sqrt{6}, \sqrt{14}, \sqrt{13})$ (the real extensions allow us to build a basis B, for K_G/K, that has no imaginary parts).

Step 2: The basis

In order to express the integers of K_G as tuples of coefficients, we need a basis. For our purposes, this basis consists of the square roots of the g possible positive products $\prod_{i=0}^{Size(F)-1} F_i^{e_i}$ where the e_i exponents are in $\{0, 1\}$.

The possible values of the exponents suggest to use the binary representation of a small integer to code them. In the algorithm 2.1, we use the local variable x. Since we only want the positive products, we don't take in account the values of x such that $x \bmod 2^{Size(F-)}$ has an odd Hamming weight. With $-D = -2184$, we have $F = (-2, -3, -7, 13)$, so, for instance, the integer $x = \overline{1011}$ represents the product $F_0^1 * F_1^1 * F_2^0 * F_3^1 = -2 * -3 * 1 * 13 = 78$.

Algorithm 2.1 *(Computing the basis)*
inputs
    F, factors of $-D$ *(array of small integers)*
    g, genus number of $-D$ *(small integer)*
output
    A, dot square of the basis *(array[g] of small integers)*
begin
    $i \leftarrow 0$
    for j **from** 0 **to** $g + g - 1$ **do**
        if the bit parity of $(j \bmod 2^{Size(F-)})$ is even **then**
            $A_i \leftarrow 1$
            $x \leftarrow j$
            $k \leftarrow 0$
            while $x > 0$ **do**
                if *odd(x)* **then** $A_i \leftarrow A_i * F_k$ **endif**
                $x \leftarrow x/2$
                $k \leftarrow k + 1$
            endwhile
            $i \leftarrow i + 1$
        endif
    endfor
end

With $F = (-2, -3, -7, 13)$, we get $A = (1, 6, 14, 21, 13, 78, 182, 273)$ and the basis is $B = (1, \sqrt{6}, \sqrt{14}, \sqrt{21}, \sqrt{13}, \sqrt{78}, \sqrt{182}, \sqrt{273})$.

It is not difficult to check that, with the composition law $\otimes$ defined as

$$A_i \otimes A_j = \frac{A_i * A_j}{\gcd(A_i, A_j)^2} \,, \tag{2}$$

the set of the A_k values is a group isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^t$ with $t = \log_2(g)$. Moreover, due to the one-to-one correspondence between the A_k's and the exponents used to build them (these exponents, with the $\oplus$ operation, are a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^{t+1}$ isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^t$), A is

ordered such that

$$A_i \otimes A_j = A_{i \oplus j} \,. \tag{3}$$

Since $A_i * A_j = (A_i \otimes A_j) * \gcd(A_i, A_j)^2$ and since $D \equiv 0 \pmod{A_k}$, the equality (3) implies

$$\mathrm{Jacobi}(A_i * A_j, n) = \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_{i \oplus j}, n) \tag{4}$$

for any n such that $n > 1$ and $\gcd(n, 2D) = 1$.

Note that we could have built A using the field description $K_G = K(\sqrt{6}, \sqrt{14}, \sqrt{13})$ as a seed. First, we would have set $A_1 = 6$, $A_2 = 14$ and $A_4 = 13$ (i.e., we would have set all the A_{2^i}'s), then we would have used (3) to compute the other A_k's. In the algorithm 2.1, we made use of the exponent trick because, from a computational point of view, this is more efficient (especially when working over $\mathbb{Z}/p$ fields as we will have to do at Step 8) but both methods are equivalent.

There are many ways to compute the bit parity of a small integer (as required by the algorithm 2.1). In the software *Primo* [9] [10], we make use of the following assembler routine

```
function ParityEven(N: Longword):Boolean;
assembler; register; nostackframe;
asm
   mov    edx, eax  // edx := N
   shr    eax, 16
   xor    eax, edx
   xor    al, ah
   setpe al         // the result is returned in al
end;
```

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[9]*Primo* was the first ECPP implementation that built class polynomials (and factored them over the genus field) *on the fly*.

Step 3: List of primitive reduced forms

A binary quadratic form is a polynomial $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ denoted (a, b, c) for short. Its discriminant is $-D = b^2 - 4ac$.

A form is *primitive* if $\gcd(a, b, c) = 1$. When its discriminant is negative, a form is *positive definite* if $a > 0$ and $c > 0$ and it is *reduced* if $|b| \leq a \leq c$ and if $b \geq 0$ whenever $a = c$ or $a = |b|$. The set of the h positive definite, primitive and reduced binary quadratic forms of negative discriminant $-D$, with a law called *composition of forms* (see [2, pp. 247–249]) and denoted $\circ$, is a commutative group called the *class group* and denoted $\mathcal{C}(-D)$ in the sequel. The *principal form* is the identity element of $\mathcal{C}(-D)$. A form is *ambiguous* if it is its own inverse. The ambiguous forms are of the types $(a, 0, c)$, (a, a, c) or (a, b, a).

The algorithm 3.1 fills up a list L with $(h + g)/2$ positive definite, primitive and reduced forms (a, b, c) of discriminant $-D$. There are g forms of L that are ambiguous. Since we only store a form (a, b, c) and not its inverse $(a, -b, c)$, the remaining $(h - g)/2$ forms are half of all the non-ambiguous forms. The ordering of the forms in the list L has no importance.

Algorithm 3.1 *(Generating the forms)*

input
   D, absolute value of a fundamental discriminant (small integer)
outputs
   g, genus number (small integer)
   h, class number (small integer)
   L, list of primitive reduced forms (a, b, c) (small integers)
     $b^2 - 4ac = -D$ *for each L_i*
begin
   $bmax \leftarrow \left\lfloor \sqrt{D/3} \right\rfloor$
   $b \leftarrow D \bmod 2$
   $i \leftarrow 0$
   if $b = 0$ **then**
      $q \leftarrow D/4$
      $a \leftarrow 1$
      $s \leftarrow 1$
      repeat
         if $(q \bmod a) = 0$ **then**
            $L_i \leftarrow (a, 0, q/a)$
            $i \leftarrow i + 1$
         endif
         $s \leftarrow s + a$
         $a \leftarrow a + 1$
         $s \leftarrow s + a$ $// s = a^2$
      until $s > q$
      $b \leftarrow 2$
   endif

```
    g ← i
    while b ≤ bmax do
        a ← b
        s ← a * a
        q ← (s + D) / 4
        repeat
            if (q mod a) = 0 then
                c ← q/a
                L_i ← (a, b, c)
                i ← i + 1
                if (a = b) or (a = c) then g ← g + 1 endif
            endif
            s ← s + a
            a ← a + 1
            s ← s + a   // s = a²
        until s > q
        b ← b + 2
    endwhile
    h ← i + i − g
end
```

With $-D = -2184$, we obtain $h = 24$, $g = 8$, and the list of the table 1.

	(a, b, c)
L_0	$(1, 0, 546)$
L_1	$(2, 0, 273)$
L_2	$(3, 0, 182)$
L_3	$(6, 0, 91)$
L_4	$(7, 0, 78)$
L_5	$(13, 0, 42)$
L_6	$(14, 0, 39)$
L_7	$(21, 0, 26)$
L_8	$(5, 4, 110)$
L_9	$(10, 4, 55)$
L_{10}	$(11, 4, 50)$
L_{11}	$(22, 4, 25)$
L_{12}	$(15, 6, 37)$
L_{13}	$(17, 14, 35)$
L_{14}	$(19, 18, 33)$
L_{15}	$(23, 22, 29)$

Table 1: List of forms

In our example, the ambiguous forms are all located at the beginning of the list L. This is not always the case with other discriminants. The produced lists being sorted on b, ambiguous forms

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of the kind $a = b$ or $a = c$, if any, might be located anywhere.

To generate the primitive reduced forms one can also make use of the algorithm proposed in [7, §A.13.2] but note that, instead of fundamental discriminants $-D$, they make use of "reduced" discriminants $-d$ that are equal to either $-D$ or $-D/4$. The forms their algorithm produces are not always the same than the ones produced by the algorithm 3.1. With P1363 forms, the discriminant $-d$ is equal to $b^2 - ac$, not to $b^2 - 4ac$.

It is easy to get one value knowing the other one:

- **if** *((d mod 4) = 1) or ((d mod 4) = 2)* **then** $D \leftarrow d * 4$ **else** $D \leftarrow d$ **endif**
- **if** *(D mod 4) = 0* **then** $d \leftarrow D/4$ **else** $d \leftarrow D$ **endif**

Step 4: Weighting the genera

An integer n is *represented* by a form (a, b, c) if $ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 = n$ for some integers (x, y). A *genus* is a set of forms. The *principal genus*, denoted $\mathcal{G}_0(-D)$ (or simply $\mathcal{G}_0$), is the genus containing the principal form. $\mathcal{G}_0$ is a subgroup of the class group $\mathcal{C}(-D)$ constituted of all the "squares" $(a, b, c) \circ (a, b, c)$. The other genera are cosets of $\mathcal{G}_0$.

For each form (a, b, c) of the list L, we compute an integer n such that $n > 1$, $\gcd(n, 2D) = 1$ and n is represented by the form (with non-ambiguous forms, we compute n only for (a, b, c) since n is also represented by $(a, -b, c)$ [10]). Then we compute $\Phi_{(a,b,c)} = (\mathrm{Jacobi}(F_i, n))$ (Φ is a tuple of $Size(F)$ signs identifying the genus of (a, b, c), see [4, pp. 53–54]) and we give it a weight w such that $0 \le w < g$.

Algorithm 4.1 *(Weighting the genera)*

inputs
    F, *factors of* $-D$ *(array of small integers)*
    g, *genus number of* $-D$ *(small integer)*
    h, *class number of* $-D$ *(small integer)*
    L, *list of* $(h + g)/2$ *primitive reduced forms (3-tuples of small integers)*
output
    W, *weights (array[$(h + g)/2$] of small integers)*
begin
    for i **from** 0 **to** $(h + g) / 2 - 1$ **do**
        $n \leftarrow$ *integer such that* $n > 1$, $\gcd(n, 2D) = 1$ *and* n *represented by* L_i
        $W_i \leftarrow 0$
        for j **from** $Size(F) - 1$ **downto** $Size(F-)$ **do**
            $W_i \leftarrow W_i * 2$
            if $\mathrm{Jacobi}(F_j, n) < 0$ **then** $W_i \leftarrow W_i + 1$ **endif**
        endfor
        if $Size(F-) > 1$ **then**
            $u \leftarrow \mathrm{Jacobi}(F_0, n)$
            for j **from** $Size(F-) - 1$ **downto** 1 **do**
                $W_i \leftarrow W_i * 2$
                if $\mathrm{Jacobi}(F_j, n) \ne u$ **then** $W_i \leftarrow W_i + 1$ **endif**
            endfor
        endif
    endfor
end

In order to obtain the Φ tuples, by using the *Kronecker symbol* (see [2, pp. 28–30] for a description of this symbol) instead of the Jacobi symbol in the algorithm 4.1, we could avoid to compute the

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[10]If n is represented by (a, b, c) with (x, y), it is represented by $(a, -b, c)$ with $(x, -y)$ or $(-x, y)$.

integers n represented by the forms since, for any i such that $0 \le i < \text{Size}(F)$,

$$
\Phi_{(a,b,c),\,F_i} = \begin{cases} \text{Kronecker}(F_i, a), & \text{if } \begin{cases} ((F_i = -1) \text{ and } (a \text{ is odd})) \\ \text{or} \\ (a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{F_i}) \end{cases} \\ \text{Kronecker}(F_i, c), & \text{if } \begin{cases} ((F_i = -1) \text{ and } (c \text{ is odd})) \\ \text{or} \\ (c \not\equiv 0 \pmod{F_i}) \end{cases} \end{cases}.
$$

The form (a, b, c) being primitive, if $F_i = -1$, a and c cannot be both even, and, if $F_i \ne -1$, a and c cannot be both divisible by F_i.

	(a,b,c)	(x,y)	n	J(-2,n)	J(-3,n)	J(-7,n)	J(13,n)	weight
L_0	$(1, 0, 546)$	$(1, 1)$	547	$+$	$+$	$+$	$+$	0
L_1	$(2, 0, 273)$	$(1, 1)$	275	$+$	$-$	$+$	$-$	5
L_2	$(3, 0, 182)$	$(1, 1)$	185	$+$	$-$	$-$	$+$	3
L_3	$(6, 0, 91)$	$(1, 1)$	97	$+$	$+$	$-$	$-$	6
L_4	$(7, 0, 78)$	$(1, 1)$	85	$-$	$+$	$+$	$-$	7
L_5	$(13, 0, 42)$	$(1, 1)$	55	$-$	$+$	$-$	$+$	1
L_6	$(14, 0, 39)$	$(1, 1)$	53	$-$	$-$	$+$	$+$	2
L_7	$(21, 0, 26)$	$(1, 1)$	47	$-$	$-$	$-$	$-$	4
L_8	$(5, 4, 110)$	$(1, 0)$	5	$-$	$-$	$-$	$-$	4
L_9	$(10, 4, 55)$	$(0, 1)$	55	$-$	$+$	$-$	$+$	1
L_{10}	$(11, 4, 50)$	$(1, 0)$	11	$+$	$-$	$+$	$-$	5
L_{11}	$(22, 4, 25)$	$(0, 1)$	25	$+$	$+$	$+$	$+$	0
L_{12}	$(15, 6, 37)$	$(0, 1)$	37	$-$	$+$	$+$	$-$	7
L_{13}	$(17, 14, 35)$	$(1, 0)$	17	$+$	$-$	$-$	$+$	3
L_{14}	$(19, 18, 33)$	$(1, 0)$	19	$+$	$+$	$-$	$-$	6
L_{15}	$(23, 22, 29)$	$(1, 0)$	23	$-$	$-$	$+$	$+$	2

Table 2: List of weighted forms

With $F = (-2, -3, -7, 13)$, the algorithm 4.1 produces the values reported in the table 2. In this table, we see that each genus (the forms having the same weight w are in the same genus) contains exactly one ambiguous form. This is not always the case with other discriminants. In fact, there is one ambiguous form in each genus if and only if h/g is odd (see [11, p. 44]).

The table 3 shows how the genera are weighted. In the table 2, the first Jacobi symbol column, which is always associated with F_0, is combined (dot product) with all other columns associated with negative F_i's. If, for some discriminant, only F_0 is negative, then the first column is simply ignored. Doing so, the $J(*, n)$'s of the table 3 header are always $(\text{Jacobi}(A_{2^i}, n))$ with the A_{2^i}'s computed at Step 2. Then we replace the value x of each cell by $(1 - x)/2$ and we get the binary

expressions of the weights. More concisely, we define the weight w of each genus as being

$$w = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{log_2(g)-1} \left(\frac{1 - \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_{2^i}, n)}{2} * 2^i \right). \tag{5}$$

J(6,n)	J(14,n)	J(13,n)	bit #0	bit #1	bit #2	weight
+	+	+	0	0	0	0
−	+	−	1	0	1	5
−	−	+	1	1	0	3
+	−	−	0	1	1	6
−	−	−	1	1	1	7
−	+	+	1	0	0	1
+	−	+	0	1	0	2
+	+	−	0	0	1	4

Table 3: Weights

Let $\mathcal{G}_w$ be the genus of weight w and let N_w be any n such that $\gcd(n, 2D) = 1$, $n > 1$ and n is represented by any form of $\mathcal{G}_w$. For instance, using the table 2, N_3 could be equal to 185 or to 17 (as a matter of fact, N_w represents an equivalence class containing an infinity of values). Using N_w, let us rewrite (5) as

$$w = \bigoplus_{i=0}^{log_2(g)-1} \left(\frac{1 - \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_{2^i}, N_w)}{2} * 2^i \right). \tag{6}$$

We get

$$\mathrm{Jacobi}(A_{2^i}, N_{2^j}) = \begin{cases} -1, & \text{if } i = j \\ +1, & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases} \tag{7}$$

and

$$\mathrm{Jacobi}(A_i, N_m * N_n) = \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_i, N_{m \oplus n}). \tag{8}$$

To show (6) $\Rightarrow$ (7), it is sufficient to replace w by 2^j in (6). All the terms of the right hand side should be equal to 0 except the one for which $i = j$.

To show (6) $\Rightarrow$ (8), one can use the fact that (6) induces the group isomorphism $\Phi_i \times \Phi_j = \Phi_{i \oplus j}$ (each Φ being indexed with its associated weight) [11]. Since $\Phi_m = (\mathrm{Jacobi}(F_i, N_m))$, we have $(\Phi_m \times \Phi_n = \Phi_{m \oplus n}) \Rightarrow ((\mathrm{Jacobi}(F_i, N_m)) \times (\mathrm{Jacobi}(F_i, N_n)) = (\mathrm{Jacobi}(F_i, N_{m \oplus n})))$. So $(\mathrm{Jacobi}(F_i, N_m * N_n)) = (\mathrm{Jacobi}(F_i, N_{m \oplus n}))$ and since A_i is either equal to 1 or to the product of some F_i's...

---

[11]By definition, the Φ's, with the dot product operation, are a subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^{t+1}$ isomorphic to $(\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z})^t$ with $t = \log_2(g)$. Each of the g different Φ's has $t + 1$ signs but the product of the signs of a Φ is always equal to $+$ (because the product of the F_i's is equal to $-D$ or to $-D/4$ and $\mathrm{Jacobi}(-D, N_w) = 1$ for any w).

Let $J_{i,k}$ be equal to $\mathrm{Jacobi}(A_{2^k}, N_i)$ (for instance, in the table 3, $(J_{5,0}, J_{5,1}, J_{5,2}) = (-, +, -)$) and let us rewrite (6) as

$$i = \bigoplus_{k=0}^{log_2(g)-1} \left(2^k * (1 - J_{i,k})/2 \right).$$

Since $A_0 = 1$, we obviously have $A_{2^k * \alpha} = A_{2^k}^{\alpha}$ whenever $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}$. Using this, as well as the previous equality and the equality (4), we get

$$\mathrm{Jacobi}(A_i, N_j) = \mathrm{Jacobi}\left(A_{\bigoplus_{k=0}^{log_2(g)-1}(2^k*(1-J_{i,k})/2)}, N_j \right)$$

$$= \prod_{k=0}^{log_2(g)-1} \mathrm{Jacobi}\left(A_{2^k*(1-J_{i,k})/2}, N_j \right)$$

$$= \prod_{k=0}^{log_2(g)-1} \mathrm{Jacobi}\left(A_{2^k}^{(1-J_{i,k})/2}, N_j \right)$$

$$= \prod_{k=0}^{log_2(g)-1} \mathrm{Jacobi}\left(A_{2^k}, N_j \right)^{(1-J_{i,k})/2}$$

$$= \prod_{k=0}^{log_2(g)-1} J_{j,k}^{(1-J_{i,k})/2}$$

and, since $\alpha^{(1-\beta)/2} = \beta^{(1-\alpha)/2}$ always holds with $\alpha, \beta \in \{\pm 1\}$, we always have

$$\mathrm{Jacobi}(A_i, N_j) = \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_j, N_i). \tag{9}$$

As we will see at Step 5, the equality (9) implies that the sign matrix S is symmetric.

To end this step, note that with any form $f_i \in \mathcal{G}_i$ and any form $f_j \in \mathcal{G}_j$, the composed form $(f_i \circ f_j)$ is in $\mathcal{G}_{i \oplus j}$. This can be shown using $\Phi_i \times \Phi_j = \Phi_{i \oplus j}$.

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Step 5: The sign matrix

Let $u = (1, 1, \ldots, 1)$ be an integer of K_G expressed with respect to the basis B, then the line vector of the matrix S associated with the genus $\mathcal{G}_w$ is

$$\sigma_w(u) = (\text{Jacobi}(A_0, N_w), \ \text{Jacobi}(A_1, N_w), \ \ldots, \ \text{Jacobi}(A_{g-1}, N_w)) \ [^{12}]$$

(the σ_w's are the field automorphisms of K_G/K) so, building the matrix S is straightforward. We set the table 4 using our example $-D = -2184$. The most left column of the table contains the weights w. The four next columns reproduce the Φ tuples obtained at Step 4 for each genus $\mathcal{G}_w$. Except for $A_0 = 1$, the sign matrix (the $8 * 8$ matrix on the right of the table) was obtained by means of dot products. For instance, the column $A_5 = 78 = -2 * -3 * 13$ is simply the product of the columns -2, -3 and 13.

w	-2	-3	-7	13	1	6	14	21	13	78	182	273
0	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
1	−	+	−	+	+	−	+	−	+	−	+	−
2	−	−	+	+	+	+	−	−	+	+	−	−
3	+	−	−	+	+	−	−	+	+	−	−	+
4	−	−	−	−	+	+	+	+	−	−	−	−
5	+	−	+	−	+	−	+	−	−	+	−	+
6	+	+	−	−	+	+	−	−	−	−	+	+
7	−	+	+	−	+	−	−	+	−	+	+	−

Table 4: Sign matrix

The sign matrix has an important property: $g * S^{-1} = {}^tS$ (the transposed of S).
1. Since the lines of S represent the conjugates of $u = (1, 1, \ldots, 1)$ in K_G, their sum is equal to $\text{Trace}(u)_{K_G/K} = (g, 0, \ldots, 0)$.
2. $\text{Jacobi}(A_i * A_j, N_k) = \text{Jacobi}(A_{i \oplus j}, N_k)$ (see Step 2).
So, if $c_{i,j}$ is a cell of ${}^tS * S$, we have

$$c_{i,j} = \sum_{k=0}^{g-1} {}^tS_{i,k} * S_{k,j} = \sum_{k=0}^{g-1} S_{k,i} * S_{k,j} = \sum_{k=0}^{g-1} \text{Jacobi}(A_i * A_j, N_k)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{g-1} \text{Jacobi}(A_{i \oplus j}, N_k) = \begin{cases} g, & \text{if } i = j. \\ 0, & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Thus ${}^tS * S = g * I_g$.

The interesting consequence of the previous equality is that we have no matrix to inverse. The inverse we will use at Step 7 is given for free.

---

[12]This can be shown using the action of $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}_w)$ (the Artin symbol associated with $\mathcal{G}_w$) on u. This action can be described using Φ_w. $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{G}_w) = \sigma_w \in \text{Gal}(K_G/K)$ is the map that takes $\sqrt{F_i}$ to $\Phi_{w, F_i} * \sqrt{F_i}$ for all F_i.

At this point, we could build S using the Φ tuples as explained above but we can do a little better. With our orderings on the weights and on the A_k's, the sign matrix we get is particularly nice: it is symmetric, it depends only on g and it can be recursively built for any g starting with $S^{(1)} = (+)$.

In order to prove the previous claim, it is sufficient to show that, with $0 \le i < 2^k$ and $0 \le j < 2^k$, we always have $S_{i,\,j+2^k} = S_{i+2^k,\,j} = S_{i,\,j}$ and $S_{i+2^k,\,j+2^k} = -S_{i,\,j}$ for any $k \ge 0$.

Identifying $S_{r,\,s}$ with $\mathrm{Jacobi}(A_s, N_r)$ and using the equations (4) and (8), it comes

- $S_{r,\,s\oplus t} = \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_{s\oplus t}, N_r) = \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_s * A_t, N_r) = S_{r,\,s} * S_{r,\,t},$
- $S_{r\oplus s,\,t} = \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_t, N_{r\oplus s}) = \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_t, N_r * N_s) = S_{r,\,t} * S_{s,\,t}.$

Since $(0 \le a < 2^b) \Rightarrow (a = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{b-1}(\alpha_n * 2^n)$ with $\alpha_n \in \{0,1\})$ ($\overline{\alpha_{b-1}\ldots\alpha_1\alpha_0}$ is simply the binary representation of a), using the equations (4), (7) and (8), we get

- $S_{i,\,2^k} = \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_{2^k}, N_i) = \prod_{n=0}^{k-1}\mathrm{Jacobi}(A_{2^k}, N_{\alpha_n*2^n}) = 1,$
- $S_{2^k,\,j} = \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_j, N_{2^k}) = \prod_{n=0}^{k-1}\mathrm{Jacobi}(A_{\alpha_n*2^n}, N_{2^k}) = 1,$
- $S_{2^k,\,2^k} = \mathrm{Jacobi}(A_{2^k}, N_{2^k}) = -1.$

Now, since $(0 \le a < 2^b) \Rightarrow (a + 2^b = a \oplus 2^b)$, with the previous results, we finally get

- $S_{i,\,j+2^k} = S_{i,\,j} * S_{i,\,2^k} = S_{i,\,j},$
- $S_{i+2^k,\,j} = S_{i,\,j} * S_{2^k,\,j} = S_{i,\,j},$
- $S_{i+2^k,\,j+2^k} = S_{i,\,j} * S_{i,\,2^k} * S_{2^k,\,j} * S_{2^k,\,2^k} = -S_{i,\,j}.$

So, assuming the table A is built as explained at Step 2 and assuming the genera are weighted as indicated at Step 4, for any discriminant $-D$, the sign matrix can be built with

$$S^{(2m)} = \begin{pmatrix} S^{(m)} & S^{(m)} \\ S^{(m)} & -S^{(m)} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad S^{(1)} = (+).$$

Since we are interested in $S^{(8)}$ (for $-D = -2184$), here it is

$$S^{(8)} = \begin{pmatrix} S^{(4)} & S^{(4)} \\ S^{(4)} & -S^{(4)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} S^{(2)} & S^{(2)} & S^{(2)} & S^{(2)} \\ S^{(2)} & -S^{(2)} & S^{(2)} & -S^{(2)} \\ S^{(2)} & S^{(2)} & -S^{(2)} & -S^{(2)} \\ S^{(2)} & -S^{(2)} & -S^{(2)} & S^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$\begin{pmatrix}
+ & + & + & + & + & + & + & + \\
+ & - & + & - & + & - & + & - \\
+ & + & - & - & + & + & - & - \\
+ & - & - & + & + & - & - & + \\
+ & + & + & + & - & - & - & - \\
+ & - & + & - & - & + & - & + \\
+ & + & - & - & - & - & + & + \\
+ & - & - & + & - & + & + & -
\end{pmatrix}$$

Of course, the obtained matrix is equal to the sign matrix of the table 4.

Algorithm 5.1 *(Computing the sign matrix)*

input

   g, genus number (small integer)

output

   S, sign matrix (array[g,g] of small integers (± 1))

begin

   $S_{0,0} \leftarrow 1$

   $k \leftarrow 1$

   while $k < g$ **do**

      for i **from** 0 **to** $k-1$ **do**

         for j **from** 0 **to** $k-1$ **do**

            $S_{i+k,\,j} \leftarrow S_{i,\,j}$

            $S_{i,\,j+k} \leftarrow S_{i,\,j}$

            $S_{i+k,\,j+k} \leftarrow -S_{i,\,j}$

         endfor

      endfor

      $k \leftarrow k * 2$

   endwhile

end

Note that $S_{i,\,j} = (-1)^{W(i,j)}$ where $W(i,j)$ is the Hamming weight of $(i \wedge j)$ [13]. It is not difficult to show it since, with $0 \le i < 2^k$ and $0 \le j < 2^k$, we always have

- $W(i + 2^k, j) = W(i, j + 2^k) = W(i, j)$,
- $W(i + 2^k, j + 2^k) = W(i, j) + 1$.

---

[13]The symbol $\wedge$ indicates the bitwise **and** operator.

Step 6: Floating point approximations of the $Q_i(x)$'s

In order to compute a class polynomial, the best known method consists in computing floating point approximations of its roots and to use them to build the polynomial (see [5, §8] for a comparison between different methods). Though it is impossible to know in advance the exact precision required, there are rules to overestimate it. For the class invariants described in [7, §A.13.3] (these invariants are based on the Weber functions $\mathfrak{f}$, $\mathfrak{f}_1$ and $\mathfrak{f}_2$), we use the rules proposed in [8, §4]. Let p be the precision found with their rules. Since we are not computing the whole class polynomial but only factors, we can lower the precision and we use $p * 0.5$. Note that we use $p * 0.5$ with P1363 class invariants but with all others (for instance, j or $\gamma 2$) we would use $p * 0.67$ [14]. Also note that when their rules give a small p, say, less than 128, we make use of the full precision p.

L_i	(a,b,c)	Associated root
L_0	$(1, 0, 546)$	$+33012526.575181343490717679407\ldots$
...		
L_{11}	$(22, \pm 4, 25)$	$+0.078563664817619751654349053359\ldots$
		$\pm 0.5309426973939815701950361803\ldots\ i$
...		

Table 5: Roots

We compute the roots associated with all the forms of the list L. Then, we build g polynomials of degree h/g by regrouping the roots according to the genus of their associated forms. These polynomials, that always have real coefficients [15], are stored in a matrix $T[0..g-1, 0..h/g-1]$. We don't store the leading coefficients of the polynomials since they are always equal to 1. In the matrix T, the polynomial $T[k, \ldots]$ is simply the polynomial built with the roots associated with the forms of $\mathcal{G}_k$ (the genus of weight k). For instance, with $-D = -2184$, using the roots associated with the 3 forms of $\mathcal{G}_0$ (see Table 5), we get

$$T_0(x) = T_{0,0} + T_{0,1}\, x + T_{0,2}\, x^2 + x^3$$

where

$$T_{0,0} = -9509997.672946907958889621393 6\ldots$$
$$T_{0,1} = +5187170.43334302052348378610 04\ldots$$
$$T_{0,2} = -33012526.732308673125957182715\ldots$$

---

[14]As a matter of fact, most of the time, we could use a coefficient smaller than 0.5 (or than 0.67) but it remains to find a rule depending on $-D$, on the invariant used, on g and on h/g, and that gives a sufficient precision for any discriminant.

[15]Assuming that, like here, we use a class invariant such that two conjugate roots are associated with two forms belonging to a same genus. With, for instance, the double η invariants of A. Enge and R. Schertz [6], this is not always the case.

Step 7: The coefficient matrix

When expressed with respect to a basis B as computed at Step 2, the integers of K_G have coefficients [16] that are not in $\mathbb{Z}$ but in $(\frac{1}{g})\mathbb{Z}$, so we can write them as $\frac{1}{g}\sum_{i=0}^{g-1} a_i B_i$ where the a_i's are in $\mathbb{Z}$. It is the reason why there is a $\frac{1}{g}$ factor in the equation (1). The column vectors of M are coefficients of integers of K_G multiplied by g so that they are integers and not fractions.

Identifying the coefficients (except the leading ones) of the factors $Q_i(x)$ with the matrix T computed at Step 6, let us rewrite the equation (1) in a matrix form. It comes

$$\frac{1}{g} * S * \mathrm{Diag}(B) * M = T$$

$$\frac{1}{g} * M = \mathrm{Diag}(B)^{-1} * S^{-1} * T$$

$$M = \mathrm{Diag}(B)^{-1} * {}^tS * T \quad (\text{using } g * S^{-1} = {}^tS)$$

and, since we are working with floating point approximations and not with exact values, we finally get

$$M_{i,j} = \mathrm{Round}\left(\frac{1}{B_i}\sum_{k=0}^{g-1} S_{k,i}\, T_{k,j}\right)$$

Algorithm 7.1 *(Computing the matrix M)*
inputs
    C, basis over $\mathbb{C}$ (inversed, i.e., $C_i = 1/\sqrt{A_i}$) (array[g] of big reals)
    g, genus number (small integer)
    h, class number (small integer)
    S, sign matrix (array[g,g] of small integers (± 1))
    T, matrix computed at Step 6 (array[g,h/g] of big reals)
output
    M, coefficient matrix (array[g,h/g] of big integers)
begin
    for i **from** 0 **to** $g-1$ **do**
        for j **from** 0 **to** $h/g-1$ **do**
            $x \leftarrow T_{0,j}$ *// we know that $S_{0,i} = 1$*
            for k **from** 1 **to** $g-1$ **do** $x \leftarrow x + S_{k,i} * T_{k,j}$ **endfor**
            $M_{i,j} \leftarrow \mathrm{Round}(x * C_i)$
        endfor
    endfor
end

Of course, all the operations with the floating point numbers x and C_i's should be done using the precision found at Step 6.

---

[16] The $Q_i(x)$ polynomials having real coefficients, we only need the real integers of K_G, so, since the basis B has no imaginary parts, the coefficients of these integers are in $K \cap \mathbb{R}$, i.e., they are real.

With our example, $-D = -2184$, we get a matrix M equal to

$$\begin{pmatrix} -9509688 & 5187192 & -33012360 \\ -3882456 & 2117808 & -13477368 \\ -2541664 & 1386432 & -8823008 \\ -2075184 & 1131936 & -7203888 \\ -2637584 & 1438560 & -9155984 \\ -1076832 & 587328 & -3737952 \\ -704952 & 384496 & -2447064 \\ -575568 & 313920 & -1998000 \end{pmatrix}$$

Here, even if we did not multiply (implicitly) the coefficients by g, they would have been integers since they are all divisible by $g = 8$ but this is not always the case with other discriminants.

At this point, we have all we need in order to express the $Q_i(x)$'s of (1). For instance

$$Q_4(x) = \frac{1}{8} \sum_{j=0}^{2} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{7} S_{4,k} \, B_k \, M_{k,j} \right) x^j + x^3$$
$$= Q_{4,0} + Q_{4,1} \, x + Q_{4,2} \, x^2 + x^3$$

where

$$Q_{4,0} = -1188711 - 485307\sqrt{6} - 317708\sqrt{14} - 259398\sqrt{21}$$
$$+ 329698\sqrt{13} + 134604\sqrt{78} + 88119\sqrt{182} + 71946\sqrt{273}$$
$$Q_{4,1} = +648399 + 264728\sqrt{6} + 173304\sqrt{14} + 141492\sqrt{21}$$
$$- 179820\sqrt{13} - 73416\sqrt{78} - 48062\sqrt{182} - 39240\sqrt{273}$$
$$Q_{4,2} = -4126545 - 1684671\sqrt{6} - 1102876\sqrt{14} - 900486\sqrt{21}$$
$$+ 1144498\sqrt{13} + 467244\sqrt{78} + 305883\sqrt{182} + 249750\sqrt{273}$$

The $Q_i(x)$ polynomials being conjugate over K_G, to quickly get any coefficient $Q_{k,j}$ from $Q_{i,j}$ (expressed as tuples of coefficients with respect to the basis B), it is sufficient to make the dot products $Q_{i,j} \times S_i \times S_k$ where S_n is the (n+1)-th line vector of the matrix S. In fact, due to the ordering we are using since the beginning, we can also compute it with $Q_{k,j} = Q_{i,j} \times S_{i \oplus k}$. For instance,

$$Q_{3,0} = Q_{4,0} \times S_7$$
$$= Q_{4,0} \times (+, -, -, +, -, +, +, -)$$
$$= (-1188711, 485307, 317708, -259398, -329698, 134604, 88119, -71946)$$

and, finally,

$$Q_{3,0} = -1188711 + 485307\sqrt{6} + 317708\sqrt{14} - 259398\sqrt{21}$$
$$- 329698\sqrt{13} + 134604\sqrt{78} + 88119\sqrt{182} - 71946\sqrt{273}.$$

Step 8: Working over $\mathbb{Z}/p$ fields

The factorization (1) is also valid over any $\mathbb{Z}/p$ field assuming p is a prime such that $\gcd(p, 2D) = 1$ and $4p = x^2 + Dy^2$ for some $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$.
In the sequel, we will use the prime $p = \frac{1418446^2 + 2184 * 809283^2}{4} = 358099677116323$ to go on with our example $-D = -2184$.

Computing the basis over $\mathbb{Z}/p$ is not as straightforward as computing it over $\mathbb{C}$. We have to count the number of negative factors, except F_0, used for each B_i and to apply the rule $\sqrt{-1} * \sqrt{-1} = -1$ in order to select the right root.

Algorithm 8.1 *(Computing the basis over $\mathbb{Z}/p$)*
input
    F, factors of $-D$ (array of small integers)
    g, genus number of $-D$ (small integer)
    p, odd prime such that $4p = x^2 + Dy^2$ for some $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ (big integer)
output
    B, basis over $\mathbb{Z}/p$ (array[g] of big integers)
begin
    for i **from** 0 **to** $Size(F) - 1$ **do**
        $R_i \leftarrow Sqrt(F_i) \bmod p$ *// any of the 2 possible roots is ok*
    endfor
    $i \leftarrow 0$
    for j **from** 0 **to** $g + g - 1$ **do**
        if *the bit parity of $(j \bmod 2^{Size(F-)})$ is even* **then**
            $B_i \leftarrow 1$
            $x \leftarrow j$
            $k \leftarrow 0$
            $n \leftarrow 0$
            while $x > 0$ **do**
                if *odd(x)* **then**
                    $B_i \leftarrow (B_i * R_k) \bmod p$
                    // count the negative factors but F_0
                    if $(k > 0)$ *and* $(k < Size(F-))$ **then** $n \leftarrow n + 1$ **endif**
                endif
                $x \leftarrow x/2$
                $k \leftarrow k + 1$
            endwhile
            if *odd(n/2)* **then** $B_i \leftarrow p - B_i$ **endif** *// "negate" the root*
            $i \leftarrow i + 1$
        endif
    endfor
end

With $-D = -2184$ and $p = 358099677116323$, we obtain the basis

$B_0 = 1$

$B_1 = 138579447850272$

$B_2 = 195858486873162$

$B_3 = 206988590703680$

$B_4 = 345798145618681$

$B_5 = 203082986192536$

$B_6 = 316722244248718$

$B_7 = 289064347795142$

At Step 7, we implicitly multiplied the coefficients of the matrix M by g. We can now cancel this operation, done in order to get integers and not fractions, by dividing the coefficients of the basis by g modulo p. We divide the coefficients of the basis and not the ones of the matrix M simply because there is generally less work to do (the basis and the matrix contain respectively g and h coefficients and we always have $g \le h$).

Algorithm 8.2 *(Dividing the basis by g modulo p)*

inputs

    B, basis over $\mathbb{Z}/p$ (array[g] of big integers)

    g, genus number of $-D$ (small integer)

    p, odd prime (big integer)

output

    B, basis over $\mathbb{Z}/p$ divided by g modulo p (array[g] of big integers)

begin

    $k \leftarrow g$

    while $k > 1$ **do**

        for i **from** 0 **to** $g - 1$ **do**

            if $odd(B_i)$ **then** $B_i \leftarrow B_i + p$ **endif**

            $B_i \leftarrow B_i/2$

        endfor

        $k \leftarrow k/2$

    endwhile

end

With $-D = -2184$ and $p = 358099677116323$, we obtain

$B_0 = 223812298197702$

$B_1 = 17322430981284$

$B_2 = 114007230138226$

$B_3 = 25873573837960$

$B_4 = 267037066400037$

$B_5 = 25385373274067$

$B_6 = 308165038368332$

$B_7 = 304707801311635$

At last!

Algorithm 8.3 *(Computing one factor of $H_{-D}(x)$ over $\mathbb{Z}/p$)*
inputs
   B, *basis over $\mathbb{Z}/p$ divided by g modulo p (array of big integers)*
   g, *genus number of $-D$ (small integer)*
   h, *class number of $-D$ (small integer)*
   i, *index of the wished factor (small integer in $0..g-1$)*
   M, *coefficient matrix (array[g,h/g] of big integers)*
   p, *odd prime such that $4p = x^2 + Dy^2$ for some $(x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ (big integer)*
   S, *sign matrix (array[g,g] of small integers (± 1))*
output
   Q, *polynomial of degree h/g, factor of $H_{-D}(x)$ over $\mathbb{Z}/p$*
begin
   $Q_{h/g} \leftarrow 1$
   for j **from** 0 **to** $h/g - 1$ **do**
      $Q_j \leftarrow B_0 * M_{0,j}$ *// we know that $S_{i,0} = 1$*
      for k **from** 1 **to** $g - 1$ **do** $Q_j \leftarrow Q_j + S_{i,k} * B_k * M_{k,j}$ **endfor**
      $Q_j \leftarrow Q_j \bmod p$
   endfor
end

Called with i running through $0..7$, the algorithm 8.3 produces the following $Q_i(x)$ polynomials modulo p

$Q_0(x) = x^3 + 349411664140631\, x^2 + 236118815942277\, x + 121688504601529$
$Q_1(x) = x^3 + 168320784679033\, x^2 + 99689071127264\, x + 274269421593516$
$Q_2(x) = x^3 + 280369563518210\, x^2 + 206498150577522\, x + 114371282890567$
$Q_3(x) = x^3 + 43259257063184\, x^2 + 213239562466426\, x + 19424900783462$
$Q_4(x) = x^3 + 142239847045079\, x^2 + 70353977608422\, x + 104800940627475$
$Q_5(x) = x^3 + 337091300899581\, x^2 + 128594135500790\, x + 251124699723139$
$Q_6(x) = x^3 + 221712819911823\, x^2 + 91086453164646\, x + 217088197522536$
$Q_7(x) = x^3 + 248093115311714\, x^2 + 28718870148814\, x + 329630751213380$

And each of these 8 polynomials is a factor, over $\mathbb{Z}/p$, of

$$H_{-2184}(x) = x^{24} - 33012360\, x^{23} - 5499066444\, x^{22} - 38191097592\, x^{21}$$
$$-860945475774\, x^{20} + 2860345968552\, x^{19} + 7390791596004\, x^{18}$$
$$+18071068156632\, x^{17} + 49152082910703\, x^{16} + 73526500711728\, x^{15}$$
$$+80616276081768\, x^{14} + 104922626382288\, x^{13} + 137712813694364\, x^{12}$$
$$+104922626382288\, x^{11} + 80616276081768\, x^{10} + 73526500711728\, x^{9}$$
$$+49152082910703\, x^8 + 18071068156632\, x^7 + 7390791596004\, x^6$$
$$+2860345968552\, x^5 - 860945475774\, x^4 - 38191097592\, x^3$$
$$-5499066444\, x^2 - 33012360\, x + 1$$

Of course, when only one factor of $H_{-D}(x)$ is needed (for instance, in the context of an ECPP implementation), by merging the algorithms 7.1 and 8.3, we compute and make use of the coefficients of the matrix M without storing them. Note that, when $g > h/g$, it is better to divide by g not the basis but the coefficients (up to the degree $h/g - 1$) of the returned polynomial.

Algorithm 8.4 *(Computing a factor of $H_{-D}(x)$ over $\mathbb{Z}/p$ without matrix M)*
inputs
    B, *basis over $\mathbb{Z}/p$ divided by g modulo p (array of big integers)*
    C, *basis over $\mathbb{C}$ (inversed, i.e., $C_i = 1/\sqrt{A_i}$) (array of big reals)*
    g, *genus number of $-D$ (small integer)*
    h, *class number of $-D$ (small integer)*
    p, *odd prime such that $4p = x^2 + Dy^2$ for some $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ (big integer)*
    S, *sign matrix (array[g,g] of small integers (± 1))*
    T, *matrix computed at Step 6 (array[g,h/g] of big reals)*
output
    Q, *polynomial of degree h/g, factor of $H_{-D}(x)$ over $\mathbb{Z}/p$*
begin
    $Q_{h/g} \leftarrow 1$
    for j **from** 0 **to** $h/g - 1$ **do**
        $Q_j \leftarrow 0$
        for i **from** 0 **to** $g - 1$ **do**
            $x \leftarrow T_{0,j}$ *// we know that $S_{0,i} = 1$*
            for k **from** 1 **to** $g - 1$ **do** $x \leftarrow x + S_{k,i} * T_{k,j}$ **endfor**
            $Q_j \leftarrow Q_j + B_i * Round(x * C_i)$
        endfor
        $Q_j \leftarrow Q_j \bmod p$
    endfor
end

Conclusion

We have detailed a method that is not difficult to implement and that works well in practice [17]. This method can be seen as an extension, working when $h \geq g$ [18], of the method of D. Bernardi as it is presented in [9, §6.2.3].

The only other method (that works when $h \geq g$) we are aware of is the one proposed by A. Atkin and F. Morain in [1, §7.3]. But, having never implemented it, the only thing we can say is that it seems a little more complicated than the one we have presented.

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[17]Our ECPP implementation, the software *Primo* [10], makes use of it since now five years.

[18]The method of D. Bernardi only works when $h = g$, i.e., it only works with 56 discriminants (counting the ones such that $g > 1$) called *Euler numbers* or *convenient numbers* (numeri idonei).

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