A few more index calculus algorithms for the ECDLP

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Abstract

The introduction of summation polynomials for elliptic curves by Semaev has opened up new avenues of investigation in index calculus type algorithms for the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem, and several recent papers have explored their use. Most papers use Gröbner basis computations at some point. We question if Gröbner bases are needed at all, and we propose a faster algorithm to solve the ECDLP that does not involve Gröbner basis computations, and does not involve a linear algebra step either. We further propose an even faster algorithm that does not involve Gröbner basis computations, or a linear algebra step, or summation polynomials. Our algorithms are aimed at prime order fields, although they are valid for any finite field. We give a complexity analysis of our algorithms and provide extensive computational data.

Keywords

elliptic curves, ECDLP, index calculus, summation polynomials.

1 Introduction

Let E be an elliptic curve over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q , where q is a prime power. In practice, q is often a prime number or a large power of 2. Let P and Q

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be points on E. The elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem (ECDLP) is finding an integer l (if it exists) such that Q = lP. l is called the discrete logarithm of Q to base P.

The ECDLP is a hard problem that underlies many cryptographic schemes and is thus an area of active research. The introduction of summation polynomials by [Sem04] has led to algorithms that resemble the index calculus algorithm of the DLP over finite fields. We outline how the algorithm works in general first.

Let G be a cyclic group with given generator g. We wish to find the discrete logarithm of a target element h to the base g. A sketch of the index calculus algorithm for G is the following.

- 1. Factor Base step. Define a subset $\mathcal{F} \subseteq G$, called the factor base.
- 2. Relation step. Collect linear relations involving factor base elements.
- 3. Linear Algebra step. Combine and solve relations using linear algebra.
- 4. Solving step. Use the results to find the discrete logarithm of the target element h.

When the group G is the multiplicative group of a finite field, typically the first three steps do not depend on the target element. Steps 1-3 will result in the logs of the factor base elements, and only in the final step will the target element be used, when its log will be calculated. This is different from normal index calculus algorithms for the ECDLP, where the relations in Step 2 depend on the target element, although the choice of factor base in Step 1 does not (see Section 1.2). In the algorithms under discussion in this paper, the choice of factor base in Step 1 *does* depend on the target element.

It is a priori not clear how to choose the factor base, and a feature of the algorithms under discussion in this paper is that the factor base is chosen randomly. One advantage of this is that the size of the factor base is very easy to change.

It is also not a priori clear how to find relations in Step 2. Summation polynomials enable a decomposition over the factor base in certain cases for elliptic curves, and we give their definition in Section 1.1. Section 1.2 shows how this decomposition can be achieved for certain choices of factor base.

Most papers have focused on elliptic curves over an extension field \mathbb{F}_{q^n} , and use subfields in the algorithm. The case of elliptic curves over prime order fields seems to be much harder to tackle. In section 2, we give an brief overview of the different approaches to the prime field case using summation polynomials.

A recent article [APS17] has shown how to simplify these algorithms to avoid the linear algebra step and reduce the number of Gröbner basis computations. We summarize their algorithm (Algorithm 2.2) in Section 2.

In section 3 we develop the algorithm in [APS17] to a new algorithm (Algorithm 3.1) which, unlike all other algorithms using summation polynomials, does not involve a Gröbner basis computation. This leads to a significant speedup over the other prime field algorithms.

In Section 4 we then further develop our Algorithm 3.1 to Algorithm 4.1 which does not use summation polynomials at all, as well as not using Gröbner bases and not using a linear algebra step. This algorithm is fastest among all the algorithms discussed here, both in practice and in complexity.

Section 5 contains a complexity analysis of the algorithm in [APS17], as well as a complexity analysis of our two algorithms presented here. We will see that Algorithm 4.1 is best, followed by Algorithm 3.1 and last comes Algorithm 2.2. The algorithms have exponential complexity, which one would expect with a randomly chosen factor base. Our analysis shows that all these algorithms are worse than the well known generic square-root algorithms such as Pollard-Rho. Nevertheless, we claim that Algorithm 4.1 is the best index calculus algorithm for prime order fields at the present time. As far as we are aware, there is so far no demonstrated advantage to using Gröbner bases or summation polynomials over prime order fields.

Finally we present computational results for small primes in Section 6, which happily agree with the complexity analysis.

1.1 Summation Polynomials

Definition 1.1: [Sem04] Let E be an elliptic curve over a field K. For $n \geq 2$, we define the summation polynomial $S_n = S_n(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)$ of E by the following property. Let $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in \overline{K}$, then $S_n(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = 0$ if and only if $\exists y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n \in \overline{K}$ such that $(x_i, y_i) \in E(\overline{K})$ and $(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) + \ldots + (x_n, y_n) = \mathcal{O}$, where \mathcal{O} is the identity element of E.

Semaev showed in [Sem04] how to compute the summation polynomials for elliptic curves in Weierstrass form:

Theorem 1.2: Let *E* be an elliptic curve given by $Y^2 = X^3 + AX + B$ over a field *K* with characteristic $\neq 2, 3$. Then the summation polynomials are given by $S_{2}(X_{1}, X_{2}) = X_{1} - X_{2},$ $S_{3}(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}) = (X_{1} - X_{2})^{2}X_{3}^{2} - 2((X_{1} + X_{2})(X_{1}X_{2} + A) + 2B)X_{3} + ((X_{1}X_{2} - A)^{2} - 4B(X_{1} + X_{2})),$ $S_{n}(X_{1}, \dots, X_{n}) = Res_{X}(S_{n-k}(X_{1} \dots, X_{n-k-1}, X), S_{k+2}(X_{n-k} \dots, X_{n}, X))$

for $n \ge 4$ and any $1 \le k \le n-3$. Furthermore, the polynomials S_n , $n \ge 3$, are symmetric, of degree 2^{n-2} in each variable, of total degree $(n-1)2^{n-2}$, and absolutely irreducible.

For more detail and for other characteristics, see [Sem04].

1.2 Point Decomposition with Summation Polynomials

The following is a more detailed version of the index calculus algorithm as normally used for elliptic curves, see [Gau09] for example. We include it for comparison with our algorithms developed in this paper.

Definition 1.3: (Index Calculus) Let G be a cyclic group of points on an elliptic curve defined over \mathbb{F}_q (here we use additive notation), let P be a generator of G, and Q another element in G whose discrete logarithm we wish to compute. The index calculus algorithm for G is the following.

- 1. Factor Base step. Define a subset $\mathcal{F} \subseteq G$, called the factor base.
- 2. Relation step. Collect relations that decompose over the factor base: Let R = aP + bQ (a, b random integers), and try to write R as a sum of factor base elements, $R = P_1 + ... + P_m$, with $P_1, ..., P_m \in \mathcal{F}$. Store the relations in matrix and vector format.
- 3. Linear Algebra step. Perform linear algebra on the matrix-vector equation to get an equation of the form $\alpha P + \beta Q = 0$.
- 4. Solving step. If β is invertible modulo the group order r, then the discrete logarithm of Q is $-\alpha/\beta \mod r$.

Let $\mathcal{F} = \{P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_s\}$ be the factor base of points on E, where $s = |\mathcal{F}|$ is the size of the factor base. Let r_1, r_2 be random integers and let $R = r_1P + r_2Q$. In order to write $R = P_1 + \ldots + P_m$, with $P_1, \ldots, P_m \in \mathcal{F}$, we use the $(m + 1)^{th}$ summation polynomial: writing $R = (x_R, y_R)$, we try to find a solution (x_1, \ldots, x_m) of $S_{m+1}(X_1, \ldots, X_m, x_R) = 0$ such that $\exists y_i$ such that $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{F}, 1 \leq i \leq m$. Then $\exists \varepsilon_i = \pm 1$ such that $\varepsilon_1(x_1, y_1) + \ldots + \varepsilon_m(x_m, y_m) \pm R = \mathcal{O}$.

Once we have found at least s + 1 independent relations of this form, we can find $log_P(Q)$ by solving the matrix equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_{1,1} & \dots & \varepsilon_{1,s} \\ \varepsilon_{2,1} & \dots & \varepsilon_{2,s} \\ & \dots & \\ \varepsilon_{s+1,1} & \dots & \varepsilon_{s+1,s} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} log_P(P_1) \\ log_P(P_2) \\ \dots \\ log_P(P_s) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r_{1,1} \\ r_{2,1} \\ \dots \\ r_{s+1,1} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} r_{1,2} \\ r_{2,2} \\ \dots \\ r_{s+1,2} \end{pmatrix} log_P(Q)$$

where $\varepsilon_{i,j} \in \{0, 1, -1\}, 1 \le i \le s + 1, 1 \le j \le s$.

Gaudry suggests in [Gau09] a way to solve $S_{n+1}(X_1, \ldots, X_n, x_R) = 0$, if E is defined over $\mathbb{F}_{q^n} = \mathbb{F}_q[t]/f(t)$, q a prime power, f irreducible of degree n. He defines the factor base to be all points with x-coordinate in \mathbb{F}_q , $\mathcal{F} = \{(x, y) \in E(\mathbb{F}_{q^n}) : x \in \mathbb{F}_q\}$. Note that we only need to include one of $\{(x, y), (x, -y)\}$ in the factor base if we allow coefficients ± 1 in the decomposition of R. Now writing $S_{n+1}(X_1, \ldots, X_n, x_R) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \varphi_i(X_1, \ldots, X_n)t^i$, we instead solve $\varphi_i(X_1, \ldots, X_n) = 0$ over \mathbb{F}_q , $0 \leq i \leq n-1$, obtaining a polynomial systems of n equations in n unknowns (Weil descent). We then solve this system with Gröbner basis techniques.

2 Factor base over prime fields

If the elliptic curve is defined over a prime field, i.e. \mathbb{F}_p for p a prime number, Semaev suggests in [Sem04] to define the factor base to be all points with "small" *x*-coordinate (taking the finite field elements to lie in the interval [0, ..., p-1] and treating them as integers in order to bound them). However, we don't know how to find these small points efficiently.

Petit-Kosters-Messeng showed in [PKM16] how to define the factor base as points on the curve with x-coordinate a solution of the composition of some small-degree rational maps. The decompositions are then found by solving the polynomial system obtained from these rational maps and summation polynomials. Their approach seems to be the first working case for curves defined over prime fields, but it is only feasible for small parameters.

Amadori-Pintore-Sala [APS17] showed a different way of defining the factor base that enabled them to significantly reduce the number of polynomial systems that need to be solved, and also avoid the linear algebra step, leading to a huge improvement in the running time. We will explain their approach now and give a complexity analysis in section 5.

Step 1. Let s be the desired size of the factor base (we will show later how to select s). Compute random integers $a_1, ..., a_s, b_1, ..., b_s$. Then the factor base \mathcal{F} is all points $\{a_1P + b_1Q, ..., a_sP + b_sQ\}$.

Step 2. Find a relation of the form $P_1 + \ldots + P_m = \mathcal{O}$ with $P_i \in \mathcal{F}$.

Step 3. Substitute each P_i with the corresponding $a_i P + b_i Q$ and get the relation

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i P + \sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i Q = \mathcal{O}.$$
(1)

Then $Q = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} (a_i/b_i)P$ provided $\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i$ is invertible modulo the order of E (if $\sum_{i=1}^{m} b_i$ is not invertible, start again). We have thus solved for the discrete logarithm of Q without doing a linear algebra step.

Remark 2.1: Note that the factor base is chosen randomly, as opposed to the methods mentioned in the first two paragraphs of this section. The algorithm may fail, and if so then it is run again and the re-run will involve a different choice of random factor base. This is in contrast to the other methods, where the factor base is clearly defined, and re-running the algorithm does not result in a different factor base.

In step 2, Amadori et al propose the following system of polynomial equations to find relations. Let V be the set of x-coordinates of all the points in the factor base, i.e. $V = \{x | (x, y) \in \mathcal{F}\}$. Let $f(x) = \prod_{v \in V} (x - v)$. Then they solve (via Gröbner basis techniques such as F4 or F5) the system

$$S_m(X_1, \dots, X_m) = 0$$

$$f(X_1) = 0$$

$$\dots$$

$$f(X_m) = 0$$
(2)

Hence, they only consider solutions to $S_m(X_1, \ldots, X_m) = 0$ of the form $(x_1, \ldots, x_m) \in V^m$, i.e. corresponding to points in the factor base.

Since f has degree s, which is the size of the factor base and could be quite large, the resolution of the system could be slow. So they propose instead using m different polynomials, by partitioning the factor base into m different factor bases \mathcal{F}_i of more or less equal size $\frac{s}{m}$. V is partitioned into m sets V_i accordingly, giving *m* polynomials $f_i(x) = \prod_{v \in V_i} (x - v)$. They then solve the system

$$S_m(X_1, \dots, X_m) = 0$$

$$f_1(X_1) = 0$$

$$\dots$$

$$f_m(X_m) = 0$$
(3)

Now each of the f_i only has degree $\frac{s}{m}$ approximately, and therefore the Gröbner basis compution is less expensive. However, this also reduces the probability of finding a solution in the factor base. We shall give more details about this in section 5 on complexity analysis.

For completeness, we give the full algorithm from [APS17] with this approach:

Algorithm 2.2: [APS17]

Input: elliptic curve E over \mathbb{F}_p , points P and Q on E, integers m, s, summation polynomial S_m

Output: $log_P(Q)$

- 1. Let s be the size of the factor base. Compute random integers $a_1, ..., a_s$, $b_1, ..., b_s$. The factor base \mathcal{F} is all points $\{a_1P + b_1Q, ..., a_sP + b_sQ\}$. The corresponding set containing only the x-coordinates of the factor base points is $V = \{x | (x, y) \in \mathcal{F}\}$. Partition this set into m sets V_i of approximately equal size. Let $f_i(x) = \prod_{v \in V_i} (x v), i = 1, ..., m$.
- 2. Using a Gröbner basis algorithm like F4 or F5, solve the system

$$S_m(X_1, \dots, X_m) = 0$$

$$f_1(X_1) = 0$$

$$\dots$$

$$f_m(X_m) = 0$$

If there is no solution, go back to step 1.

3. If $\{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ is a solution to the above system, then each $x_i \in V_i$ and there exist y_i such that $(x_1, y_1) + \ldots + (x_m, y_m) = \mathcal{O}$ where either (x_i, y_i) or $-(x_i, y_i)$ are in \mathcal{F} . Substituting each $\pm (x_i, y_i)$ with the corresponding $\pm (a_i P + b_i Q)$, we get (as in (1)) a relation of the form $\sum_{i=1}^m \pm a_i P + \sum_{i=1}^m \pm b_i Q = \mathcal{O}$ and can solve for the discrete logarithm of Q, provided $\sum_{i=1}^m \pm b_i$ is invertible modulo the order of E.

3 Avoiding Gröbner basis computations and Linear Algebra step

While systems (2) and (3) are a way of algebraically describing that the solutions to S_m lie in the factor base, it seems to us that there should be a better way to solve this problem than feeding the polynomial system into a Gröbner basis algorithm. This approach essentially treats the polynomial f(or the f_i) as input polynomials to find their common roots with S_m even though we already know their complete factorisation.

We therefore propose the following alternative to Algorithm 2.2, which does not use a Gröbner basis algorithm.

Algorithm 3.1:

Input: elliptic curve E over \mathbb{F}_p , points P and Q on E, integers m, s, summation polynomial S_m

Output: $log_P(Q)$

- 1. Let s be the size of the factor base. Compute random integers $a_1, ..., a_s$, $b_1, ..., b_s$. The factor base \mathcal{F} consists of all points $\{a_1P + b_1Q, ..., a_sP + b_sQ\}$. The corresponding set containing only the x-coordinates of the factor base points is denoted $V = \{x | (x, y) \in \mathcal{F}\}$.
- 2. Choose $\{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$ a multiset of size m with each $x_i \in V$ and check if $S_m(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$. If not, repeat with another multiset. If S_m is non-zero for all multisets, go back to step 1.
- 3. If $S_m(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = 0$ for some $\{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$, then there exist y_i such that $(x_1, y_1) + \ldots + (x_m, y_m) = \mathcal{O}$ where either (x_i, y_i) or $-(x_i, y_i)$ are in \mathcal{F} . Substituting each $\pm (x_i, y_i)$ with the corresponding $\pm (a_i P + b_i Q)$, we get (as in (1)) a relation of the form $\sum_{i=1}^m \pm a_i P + \sum_{i=1}^m \pm b_i Q = \mathcal{O}$ and can solve for the discrete logarithm of Q, provided $\sum_{i=1}^m \pm b_i$ is invertible modulo the order of E.

Remark 3.2: In step 2, we can alternatively choose a multiset of m points $\{P_1, \ldots, P_m\}$ from the factor base, and sum those points to see if they give the point at infinity. This avoids using summation polynomials, and is in fact faster in practice and in theory (see Sections 5 and 6). We omit the details for this algorithm. We refine this idea in the next section, and obtain an even faster algorithm.

4 Avoiding Summation Polynomials and Gröbner bases and Linear Algebra step

The following algorithm is a variation of our Algorithm 3.1. Here, we choose a multiset of m-1 points from the factor base, and check if the sum of those points lies in the factor base:

Algorithm 4.1:

Input: elliptic curve E over \mathbb{F}_p , points P and Q on E, integers m, sOutput: $log_P(Q)$

- 1. Let s be the size of the factor base. Compute random integers $a_1, ..., a_s$, $b_1, ..., b_s$. The factor base \mathcal{F} is all points $\{a_1P + b_1Q, ..., a_sP + b_sQ\}$.
- 2. Choose $\{P_1, \ldots, P_{m-1}\}$ a multiset of size m-1 with each $P_i \in \mathcal{F}$. Choose $v \in \mathbb{F}_2^{m-1}$, and let $P_v = (-1)^{v_1}P_1 + \ldots + (-1)^{v_{m-1}}P_{m-1}$. Check if $P_v \in \mathcal{F}$. If $P_v \notin \mathcal{F}$ for all $v \in \mathbb{F}_2^{m-1}$, repeat with another multiset. If there is no solution for all multisets, go back to step 1.
- 3. If $P_v \in \mathcal{F}$ for some v then let $P_m = -P_v$ and we get the relation $(-1)^{v_1}P_1 + \ldots + (-1)^{v_{m-1}}P_{m-1} + P_m = \mathcal{O}$. Substituting each $\pm P_i$ with the corresponding $\pm (a_iP + b_iQ)$, we get (as in (1)) a relation of the form $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \pm a_iP + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \pm b_iQ = \mathcal{O}$ and can solve for the discrete logarithm of Q, provided $\sum_{i=1}^{m} \pm b_i$ is invertible modulo the order of E.

We will provide a complexity analysis of all of these approaches in section 5.

Remark 4.2: The motivation for the three given algorithms was the ECDLP over prime fields. However, none of the algorithms require the field to be of prime order. They all work for any finite field.

Remark 4.3: Algorithms 2.2 and 3.1 use summation polynomials, and therefore the input value of m must be ≤ 8 because the largest summation polynomial that has been computed so far is S_8 as far as we are aware (see [FHJ⁺14]). Algorithm 4.1 does not suffer from this problem, and larger values of m can readily be used.

5 Complexity Analysis

Table 1 summarises the complexity of operations in \mathbb{F}_p obtained from [AMV96] and of operations on an elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_p from [Sil09].

Operation	Bit complexity
Addition	$O(\log p)$
Multiplication	$O(\log^2 p)$
Inversion	$O(\log^2 p)$
Point addition	$O(\log^2 p)$
Point multiplication	$O(\log^3 p)$
Searching a sequence of length s	O(s)

Table 1: Bit complexity of basic operations in \mathbb{F}_p and on an elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_p

Lemma 5.1: The probability of obtaining a relation of length m in \mathcal{F} is $\approx \frac{2^{m-1}s^m}{p \cdot m!}$, where $s = |\mathcal{F}|$.

Proof: The number of ways of choosing m elements from a set of size s, allowing repetitions, is $\binom{s+m-1}{m} \approx \frac{s^m}{m!}$ for $m \ll s$. Relations can be of the form $P_1 \pm \ldots \pm P_m = \mathcal{O}$ with $P_i \in \mathcal{F}$, so we get $\approx \frac{2^{m-1}s^m}{m!}$ possibilities. The number of points on the curve is approximately p.

Lemma 5.2: The probability of obtaining a relation of length m with each point coming from a different partition of the factor base of size $\frac{s}{m}$ is $\frac{2^{m-1}s^m}{p \cdot m^m}$.

Proof: There are $\frac{s}{m}$ ways of choosing each point in the relation giving $2^{m-1}(\frac{s}{m})^m$ possibilities for relations of the form $P_1 \pm \ldots \pm P_m = \mathcal{O}$ with each P_i coming from the factor base partition \mathcal{F}_i of size $\frac{s}{m}$.

Lemma 5.3: The complexity of computing a factor base of size s is $O(s \log^3 p)$. *Proof:* See Table 1. We have to do 2s point multiplications of $O(\log^3 p)$ and s point additions of $O(\log^2 p)$.

Remark 5.4: There may be faster ways of computing the points aP + bQ at the expense of more memory.

We would like the probability of finding a relation in the factor base to be close to 1, i.e. in the case of Lemma 5.2, we want $\frac{2^{m-1}s^m}{m^m} \approx p$, so we should choose the factor base size *s* accordingly. However, the authors of [APS17] propose $s = p^{1/m}$ as was chosen in other papers, e.g. [Gau09]. With this choice we will have to run (steps 1 and 2 of) Algorithm 2.2 an expected number of $\frac{m^m}{2^{m-1}}$ times. So even though we only require the computation of one Gröbner basis each time we choose a factor base, we will in general have computed several factor bases before finding a relation, and thus we require several Gröbner basis computations in the overall discrete log algorithm (Algorithm 2.2). If one were to increase *s* in order to reduce the number of Gröbner basis computations needed, then the polynomial degrees are increasing accordingly, making each Gröbner basis computation slower. It may therefore be better to keep $s = p^{1/m}$, but it should be noted that this choice requires several Gröbner basis computations and not only one as is claimed in [APS17].

The following theorem gives the complexity of *one* Gröbner basis computation.

Theorem 5.5: The complexity of solving the system (3) is approximately $O(p^{\omega-\omega/m})$ for $s = p^{1/m}$ and $m \ll s$, where $\omega \approx 3$ is the linear algebra constant.

Proof: The complexity of a Gröbner basis computation can be approximated with $\binom{N+D_{reg}-1}{D_{reg}}^{\omega}$, (see [Bar04]) where N is the number of variables of the input polynomials, D_{reg} is the degree of regularity, and ω is the linear algebra constant. If the number of polynomials is N + 1, then D_{reg} can be calculated using the formula $D_{reg} = \sum_{i=1}^{N+1} \frac{d_i-1}{2}$ for N large (see Theorem 4.1.1 of [Bar04]) where d_i is the degree of the i^{th} input polynomial.

Here N = m, S_m has total degree $(m-1) \cdot 2^{m-2}$ (Theorem 1.2) and each f_i has degree $\approx \frac{s}{m}$. So we get $D_{reg} = \frac{(m-1) \cdot 2^{m-2} - 1 + m(\frac{s}{m} - 1)}{2} = (m-1) \cdot 2^{m-3} + \frac{s-m-1}{2}$. Thus,

$$\binom{N+D_{reg}-1}{D_{reg}} = \binom{N+D_{reg}-1}{N-1}$$

$$= \binom{m+(m-1)\cdot 2^{m-3}+\frac{s-m-1}{2}-1}{m-1}$$

$$= \frac{(\frac{s}{2}+(m-1)\cdot 2^{m-3}+\frac{m}{2}-\frac{3}{2})!}{(m-1)!(\frac{s}{2}+(m-1)\cdot 2^{m-3}-\frac{m}{2}-\frac{1}{2})!}$$

$$= \frac{(\frac{s}{2}+(m-1)\cdot 2^{m-3}+\frac{m}{2}-\frac{3}{2})\dots(\frac{s}{2}+(m-1)\cdot 2^{m-3}-\frac{m}{2}+\frac{1}{2})}{(m-1)!}.$$

There are m-1 terms in the numerator, each dominated by $\frac{s}{2}$. So we

approximate $\binom{N+D_{reg}-1}{D_{reg}} \approx \frac{\binom{s}{2}^{m-1}}{\binom{m-1}{m-1}!}$. Thus,

$$\binom{N+D_{reg}-1}{D_{reg}}^{\omega} \approx \frac{\left(\frac{s}{2}\right)^{\omega \cdot m-\omega}}{(m-1)!^{\omega}} = \frac{p^{\omega-\omega/m}}{(2^{m-1}(m-1)!)^{\omega}}.$$

Remark 5.6: It may be possible that the degree of regularity of system (3) is smaller than the one we calculate here using a rather generic formula that holds for large N. We do not investigate this possibility in this paper.

Corollary 5.7: The complexity of Algorithm 2.2 is approximately

$$\frac{m^m}{2^{m-1}}(O(p^{\omega-\omega/m}) + O(p^{1/m}\log^3 p)) \approx O(p^{\omega-\omega/m})$$

for $s = p^{1/m}$ and $m \ll s$, where $\omega \approx 3$ is the linear algebra constant. **Remark 5.8:** With $\omega = 3$ and m = 3 the complexity of Algorithm 2.2 is approximately $O(p^2)$. This roughly agrees with our experiments.

Theorem 5.9: The complexity of Algorithm 3.1 is approximately $O(p \log^2 p)$. *Proof:* As noted in the proof of Lemma 5.1, there are about $\frac{s^m}{m!}$ ways of choosing *m* elements from the set \mathcal{F} of size *s*, allowing repetitions, for small *m*. Evaluating S_m is approximately $O(\log^2 p)$, giving a total of $\frac{s^m}{m!}O(\log^2 p)$. Now by Lemma 5.1, we need an expected number of $\frac{p \cdot m!}{2^{m-1}s^m}$ trials, giving $\frac{p \cdot m!}{2^{m-1}s^m} (\frac{s^m}{m!} O(\log^2 p) + O(s \log^3 p)) \approx O(p \log^2 p)$ when $\frac{s^{m-1}}{m!} \ge \log p$. **Remark 5.10:** Of course, once we have found a solution of $S_m(x_1, \ldots, x_m) =$ 0 in the factor base, we can stop, so in general, we need to do less than $\frac{s^m}{m!}$ evaluations.

Remark 5.11: Replacing the evaluation of S_m by adding m points together as in Remark 3.2, gives a complexity of $(m-1)O(p\log^2 p) \approx O(p\log^2 p)$ for small m.

Remark 5.12: It is reasonable to assume that m is small when using summation polynomials, since the largest summation polynomial that has been computed so far is S_8 .

Theorem 5.13: The complexity of Algorithm 4.1 is approximately O(p) for

s not too small (i.e. $s \ge (m-2)\log^2 p$). Proof: There are about $2^{m-1} \frac{s^{m-1}}{(m-1)!}$ different ways of forming the sum $\pm P_1 \pm p$ $\dots \pm P_{m-1}$, with $P_i \in \mathcal{F}$, allowing repetitions, for small m and $s = |\mathcal{F}|$. Let $P_m = \pm P_1 \pm \ldots \pm P_{m-1}$. The complexity of each sum is $(m-2)O(\log^2 p)$. For each combination, we check if P_m is in \mathcal{F} , which is O(s). If the sum is in \mathcal{F} , we get a relation of the form $\pm P_1 \pm \ldots \pm P_{m-1} - P_m = \mathcal{O}$. So we still get a relation with probability 5.1, so the complexity of this algorithm is $\frac{p \cdot m!}{2^{m-1}s^m} (2^{m-1} \frac{s^{m-1}}{(m-1)!} ((m-2)O(\log^2 p) + O(s)) + O(s\log^3 p)).$ If $s \ge (m-2)\log^2 p$ then this is $\frac{p \cdot m}{s} O(s) \approx O(p)$ for small m. \square

6 Experimental Results

We ran experiments in Magma V2.21-6 [BCP97] with m = 3 and m = 4 to time

- the Algorithm 2.2 first given in [APS17] (Type Gröbner),

- our Algorithm 3.1 (Type Eval S_m)

– our Algorithm 4.1 (Type Sum in \mathcal{F}),

all with the same parameters. We have used a factor base size of $s = \lceil p^{1/m} \rceil$ in line with [APS17]. The results are summarised in Table 2 and 3, where

 $-T_{\mathcal{F}}(s)$ denotes the time in seconds it took to compute the factor bases (step 1 of the algorithms)

 $-T_{solve}(s)$ denotes the time in seconds it took to find a solution (step 2).

– We did not include the timings for step 3 as they are negligible.

- The column "trials" shows the number of times we had to compute a factor base before finding a solution (i.e. how many times step 1 and 2 were done.)

The experiments in Table 2 clearly show that for those field sizes our algorithm 4.1 is the fastest, which agrees with the complexity analysis. So our algorithms are faster than algorithm 2.2 first given in [APS17], and they show that their algorithm is faster than the one in [PKM16].

As we remarked in section 5, the experiments also show that we need to run several Gröbner basis computations in order to solve the discrete log problem using the approach reported in [APS17] (Algorithm 2.2). This contradicts their claim of only needing one Gröbner basis computation.

As expected by Lemma 5.1 and 5.2, when m = 4, more trials are needed before a relation in the factor base is found, suggesting that the size of the factor base is too small. In fact, the complexity of our algorithms 3.1 and 4.1 grows with m so it may be an advantage to keep to m = 3 and increase the size of the factor base.

Table 4 shows experimental results for $s = (m! \cdot p \cdot 2^{1-m})^{1/m}$ using our algorithm 4.1, over prime fields of bigger size. (This choice of *s* gives a probability of obtaining a relation in the factor base of approximately 1 according to Lemma 5.1.) The other algorithms could not finish in reasonable time with *p* this size. They again show that m = 3 is faster than m = 4. For m = 2, step 2 of the algorithm $(T_{solve}(s))$ is faster than for m = 3, but building the factor base $(T_{\mathcal{F}}(s))$ takes more time, so overall m = 2 is slower than m = 3. So it seems that for algorithm 4.1, m = 3 is the best choice. Both versions of our algorithm require much less memory than the Gröbner basis approach.

It is also worth noting that our algorithms are embarrassingly parallel, while using a Gröbner basis to solve system (3) is much harder to parallelize.

Type	p	m	\boldsymbol{s}	trials	$T_{\mathcal{F}}(s)$	$T_{solve}(s)$	Mem(MB)
Gröbner	55673	3	39	5.00	6.80E-3	0.31	33.62
Eval S_m	55673	3	39	1.88	2.38E-3	0.06	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	55673	3	39	1.86	2.53E-3	0.05	33.62
Gröbner	719267	3	90	7.98	0.03	16.94	67.24
Eval S_m	719267	3	90	2.03	9.32E-3	0.86	33.56
Sum in \mathcal{F}	719267	3	90	1.95	7.79E-3	0.34	33.62
Gröbner	6443737	3	187	6.57	0.07	290.50	917.50
Eval S_m	6443737	3	187	2.00	0.02	7.30	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	6443737	3	187	2.05	0.02	1.97	33.62
Gröbner*	30056657	3	311	7.88	0.14	96384.00	4555.01
Eval S_m	30056657	3	311	2.33	0.04	42.62	33.56
Sum in \mathcal{F}	30056657	3	311	2.16	0.05	14.08	33.62

Table 2: Average values on 100 experiments for each p (the one marked with * was only run 8 times). Type Gröbner denotes Algorithm 2.2, Eval S_m denotes Algorithm 3.1, Sum in \mathcal{F} denotes Algorithm 4.1

Type	p	m	s	trials	$T_{\mathcal{F}}(s)$	$T_{solve}(s)$	Mem(MB)
Gröbner	55673	4	16	33.89	0.02	0.50	33.62
Eval S_m	55673	4	16	3.35	2.84E-3	0.79	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	55673	4	16	2.76	1.93E-3	0.20	33.62
Gröbner	719267	4	30	35.47	0.06	19.19	33.62
Eval S_m	719267	4	30	3.42	4.86E-3	9.50	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	719267	4	30	3.23	3.67E-3	1.54	33.56
Gröbner	6443737	4	51	32.92	0.09	412.00	169.34
Eval S_m	6443737	4	51	3.17	8.19E-3	66.25	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	6443737	4	51	3.69	9.00E-3	9.03	33.62
Eval S_m	30056657	4	75	3.06	0.01	288.50	33.56
Sum in \mathcal{F}	30056657	4	75	3.42	0.02	37.00	33.62

Table 3: Average values on 100 experiments for each p. Type Gröbner denotes Algorithm 2.2, Eval S_m denotes Algorithm 3.1, Sum in \mathcal{F} denotes Algorithm 4.1

Type	p	m	s	trials	$T_{\mathcal{F}}(s)$	$T_{solve}(s)$	Mem(MB)
Sum in \mathcal{F}	55673	2	236	2.80	0.03	3.67E-3	33.56
Sum in \mathcal{F}	55673	3	44	1.48	2.27E-3	0.04	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	55673	4	21	1.47	1.02E-3	0.17	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	719267	2	849	2.43	0.11	0.05	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	719267	3	103	1.62	6.34E-3	0.30	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	719267	4	39	1.52	2.76E-3	1.05	33.56
Sum in \mathcal{F}	6443737	2	2539	2.45	0.62	0.51	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	6443737	3	214	1.56	0.02	1.68	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	6443737	4	67	1.65	3.93E-3	6.71	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	30056657	2	5483	2.59	5.73	7.40	33.56
Sum in \mathcal{F}	30056657	3	356	1.54	0.04	11.58	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	30056657	4	98	1.39	7.87E-3	24.81	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	75426619	2	8685	2.77	14.94	20.72	33.56
Sum in \mathcal{F}	75426619	3	484	1.46	0.05	25.59	33.56
Sum in \mathcal{F}	75426619	4	123	1.84	0.01	90.12	33.56
Sum in \mathcal{F}	161532773	3	624	1.73	0.09	66.25	33.62
Sum in \mathcal{F}	4911016471	3	1946	1.69	0.91	1126.00	33.56
Sum in \mathcal{F}	30951732491	3	3595	1.67	2.10	6848.00	33.62

Table 4: Average values on 100 experiments for each p using algorithm 4.1

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