

Algorithms for Computing Discrete Logarithms

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Algorithms for solving Discrete log problem

- Exhaustive search
- Baby-step giant-step algorithm
- Pollard's rho algorithm for logarithms
- Pohlig-Hellman algorithm
- Index-calculus algorithm

Exhaustive search

- Successively compute $\alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^n$
- This method takes $O(n)$ multiplications, where n is the order of α
- Inefficient if n is large

Baby-step giant-step algorithm

- Developed by Shanks
- Let G be a cyclic group of order n , α is a generator of G .
- $m = \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil$
- If $\beta = \alpha^x$, then write $x = qm + r$, where $0 \leq q, r < m$.
- Therefore $\alpha^x = \alpha^{qm} \alpha^r$ i.e. $\beta (\alpha^{-m})^q = \alpha^r$
- The algorithm
 - **Baby Step:** If for some r , $\beta \alpha^{-r} = 1$, then $\beta = \alpha^r$
 - **Giant step:** Find $\beta \alpha^{-mq}$; $q = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
Compare this with α^r ; $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ till $\beta \alpha^{-mq} = \alpha^r$

Baby-step giant-step algorithm

Given: a generator α of a cyclic group of order n and an element β

Set $m \leftarrow \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil$

for $r = 0$ to $m - 1$

 compute $\alpha^r \pmod n$ and store the pair (j, α^r) in a table.

 easily searchable on the first coordinate

compute α^{-m}

$\gamma \leftarrow \beta$

for $q = 0$ to $m - 1$

 if $\gamma = \alpha^r$ for some r in the table

 return $qm + r$

 else $\gamma \leftarrow \gamma \cdot \alpha^{-m} \pmod n$

Time complexity of Baby-step giant-step algorithm

- Memory (storage) requirement $O(\sqrt{n})$
- Construction of table: It requires $O(\sqrt{n})$ multiplications
- Sorting the table: Sort the table by second component, it requires $O(\sqrt{n} \lg n)$ comparisons
 - Alternatively, use hashing on the second component to store the entries in a hash table; placing an entry, and searching for an entry in the table takes constant time.
- For all q where $0 \leq q < m$, it is required to search α^r , which is equal to γ . It requires $O(\sqrt{n})$ multiplications and $O(\sqrt{n})$ table look-ups
- The running time of the algorithm is $O(\sqrt{n})$ multiplications.

Example: Let $p = 113$, $\alpha = 3$ and $\beta = 57$

$$m = \lceil \sqrt{112} \rceil = 11$$

r	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$3^r \bmod 113$	1	3	9	27	81	17	51	40	7	21	63

Find $\alpha^{-1} = 3^{-1} \bmod 113 = 38$, $\alpha^{-m} = 58$

$\gamma = \beta \alpha^{-mq} \bmod 113$ for $q = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ is computed until a value in the second row of the table is obtained.

q	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$\gamma = 57 \cdot 58^q \bmod 113$	57	29	100	37	112	55	26	39	2	3

Since $\beta \alpha^{-mq} \bmod 113 = 3 = \alpha^1$, $qm + r = 9 \times 11 + 1 = 100$

$$\therefore \log_3 57 = 100$$

Pollard's rho algorithm for Discrete Logarithms

- Pollard proposed an elegant algorithm in 1978
- Pollard's rho algorithm for computing discrete logarithms is a randomized algorithm
- Its expected running time is same as the baby-step giant-step algorithm i.e. $O(\sqrt{p})$
- It requires a negligible amount of storage.
- Therefore, it is far preferable to baby-step giant-step algorithm for problems of practical interest.

Pollard's rho algorithm for Discrete Logarithms

- Let G be a cyclic group of order n (prime), with generator α , $\beta \in G$
- Find integers a, b, A, B s.t. $\alpha^a \beta^b = \alpha^A \beta^B$
- The solution of equation $(B - b) x = (A - a)$ is $x = \log_{\alpha} \beta$
- For finding a, b, A, B , Floyd's cycle-finding algorithm can be used to find a cycle in the sequence $x_i = \alpha^{a_i} \beta^{b_i}$. i.e. to find two group elements x_i and x_{2i} such that $x_i = x_{2i}$.
- Hence $\alpha^{a_i} \beta^{b_i} = \alpha^{a_{2i}} \beta^{b_{2i}} \Rightarrow \beta^{b_i - b_{2i}} = \alpha^{a_{2i} - a_i}$
- Therefore, by taking log both sides $(b_i - b_{2i}) \log_{\alpha} \beta = (a_i - a_{2i}) \bmod n$ provided $b_i \not\equiv b_{2i} \bmod n$. (note: $b_i \equiv b_{2i} \bmod n$ occurs with probability ≈ 0)
- Solution to this equation can be easily obtained using Euclidean algorithm.

Pollard's rho algorithm for Discrete Logarithms

- Divide the group G into three pairwise disjoint subsets S_0 , S_1 and S_2 with $G = S_0 \cup S_1 \cup S_2$ roughly equal in size.
- Let $f: G \rightarrow G$ defined by

$$x_{i+1} = f(x_i) = \begin{cases} \beta \cdot x_i & \text{if } x_i \in S_0 \\ x_i^2 & \text{if } x_i \in S_1 \\ \alpha \cdot x_i & \text{if } x_i \in S_2 \end{cases}$$

The initial term is $x_0 = \alpha^{a_0} \beta^{b_0}$ for random values of a_0 & b_0 ,
 $1 \notin S_2$

- This sequence of group elements in turn defines two sequences of integers a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots and b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots satisfying $x_i = \alpha^{a_i} \beta^{b_i} \bmod p$ for $i \geq 0$.

- For $i \geq 0 : a_0 = 0, b_0 = 0$ (both may be randomly selected elements of Z_p)

define

$$a_{i+1} = \begin{cases} a_i & \text{if } x_i \in S_0 \\ 2a_i \bmod n & \text{if } x_i \in S_1 \\ a_i + 1 \bmod n & \text{if } x_i \in S_2 \end{cases}$$

and

$$b_{i+1} = \begin{cases} b_i + 1 \bmod n & \text{if } x_i \in S_0 \\ 2b_i \bmod n & \text{if } x_i \in S_1 \\ b_i & \text{if } x_i \in S_2 \end{cases}$$

- Find two group elements x_i and x_{2i} such that $x_i = x_{2i}$

Pollard's rho algorithm for computing discrete logarithms

Given: a generator α of a cyclic group G of order n , and an element $\beta \in G$

Set $x_0 = 1, a_0 = 0, b_0 = 0$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots$

 find x_i, a_i, b_i , and x_{2i}, a_{2i}, b_{2i}

 if $x_i = x_{2i}$

 set $r = b_i - b_{2i} \bmod n$.

 if $r = 0$ then terminate the algorithm with failure

 else

 return $x = r^{-1} (a_{2i} - a_i) \bmod n$

- In rare case it terminates with failure, the procedure can be repeated by selecting random integers a_0, b_0 in the interval $[1, n - 1]$, and $x_0 = \alpha^{a_0} \beta^{b_0}$

Pollard's rho algorithm: Example

Let $\alpha = 5$ be a generator of a cyclic group Z_{2017}^*
 $\beta = 1736$

Divide the set $S = \{1, 2, \dots, 2016\}$ into 3 sets

$S_i = \{a \mid a \in S \text{ \& } a \equiv i \pmod{3}\}$ for $i = 0, 1, 2$

Initialization: Let $a_0 = 27$, $b_0 = 0$,

$$x_0 = \alpha^{a_0} \beta^{b_0} = 5^{27} \pmod{2017} \equiv 710$$

i	x_i	S_0	S_1	S_2	a_i	b_i
0	$x_0 = 710$			710	27	0
1	$x_1 = \alpha \cdot x_0 \bmod 2017 = 1533$	1533			28	0
2	$x_2 = \beta \cdot x_1 \bmod 2017 = 865$		865		28	1
3	$x_3 = x_2^2 \bmod 2017 = 1935$	1935			56	2
4	$x_4 = \beta \cdot x_3 \bmod 2017 = 855$	855			56	3
5	$x_5 = \beta \cdot x_4 \bmod 2017 = 1785$	1785			56	4
6	$x_6 = \beta \cdot x_5 \bmod 2017 = 648$	648			56	5
7	$x_7 = \beta \cdot x_6 \bmod 2017 = 1459$		1459		56	6
8	$x_8 = x_7^2 \bmod 2017 = 746$			746	112	12
9	$x_9 = \alpha \cdot x_8 \bmod 2017 = 1713$	1713			113	12
10	$x_{10} = \beta \cdot x_9 \bmod 2017 = 710$			710	113	13

Example Pollard Rho algorithm

- Since 710 appears twice in the 0th and 10th rows, we have

$$\alpha^{27} \beta^0 = \alpha^{113} \beta^{13} \Rightarrow \beta^{13-0} = \alpha^{27-113}$$

$$\Rightarrow (\alpha^x)^{13} = \alpha^{27-113}$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha^{13x} = \alpha^{27-113}$$

$$\Rightarrow 13x = (27 - 113) \bmod 2016$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 13^{-1} \times 1930 \bmod 2016$$

$$= 1861 \times 1930 \bmod 2016$$

$$= 1234$$

Pohlig-Hellman (Silver Pohling-Hellman) algorithm

- Discovered by Roland Silver, but first published by Stephen Pohlig and Martin Hellman.
- It applies to groups whose order is a primes power
- Consider a finite cyclic abelian group Z_p^* , with order $p - 1$.

$$p - 1 = p_1^{e_1} \cdot p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$$

- Idea: compute $x \bmod p_i^{e_i}$ for each i , $1 \leq i \leq k$ then compute $x \bmod (p - 1)$ using Chinese remainder theorem

The Pohlig-Hellman Algorithm

Consider prime p , α is a generator of Z_p^* and $\beta \in Z_p^*$.

Goal: to determine $x = \log_{\alpha} \beta \pmod{p-1}$

Let $p-1 = p_1^{e_1} \cdot p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$ where the p_i 's are distinct primes

Idea: compute $x \pmod{p_i^{e_i}}$ for each i , $1 \leq i \leq k$ then compute $x \pmod{p-1}$ using Chinese remainder theorem

Suppose that $q = p_i$ and $e = e_i$,

How to compute the value $a = x \pmod{q^e}$?

Express a in radix q representation as

$$a = x_0 + x_1 q + \dots + x_{e-1} q^{e-1} ; \quad 0 \leq x_i \leq q-1$$

$$a = x \pmod{q^e} \Rightarrow x = a + q^e s \text{ for some integer } s.$$

$$\therefore x = x_0 + x_1 q + \dots + x_{e-1} q^{e-1} + s q^e$$

Step 1: to find x_0 . x_0 can be computed using the fact

$$\text{Fact: } \beta^{\frac{p-1}{q}} \equiv \alpha^{\frac{x_0(p-1)}{q}} \pmod{p} \quad \dots (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proof: } \beta^{\frac{p-1}{q}} &\equiv (\alpha^x)^{\frac{(p-1)}{q}} \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv \left(\alpha^{x_0 + x_1 q + \dots + x_{e-1} + s q^e} \right)^{\frac{(p-1)}{q}} \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv (\alpha^{x_0 + K q})^{\frac{(p-1)}{q}} \pmod{p} \quad \text{where } K \text{ is an integer} \\ &\equiv \alpha^{x_0 \left(\frac{p-1}{q} \right)} \alpha^{K(p-1)} \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv \alpha^{x_0 \left(\frac{p-1}{q} \right)} \pmod{p} \quad \text{because } \alpha^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

Algorithm to compute x_0

Compute $\beta^{\frac{p-1}{q}}$

If $\beta^{\frac{p-1}{q}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ then $x_0 = 0$

Otherwise successively compute

$$\gamma = \alpha^{\frac{p-1}{q}} \pmod{p}, \gamma^2 \pmod{p}, \dots$$

$$\text{until } \gamma^i \equiv \beta^{\frac{p-1}{q}} \pmod{p}$$

return ($x_0 = i$)

step 2: to compute x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{e-1} if $e > 1$

Define $\beta_0 = \beta$, and

$$\beta_j = \beta \alpha^{-(x_0 + x_1 q + \dots + x_{j-1} q^{j-1})} \bmod p, \text{ for } 0 \leq j \leq e - 1$$

Consider the generalization of equation (1)

$$(\beta_j)^{\frac{p-1}{q^{j+1}}} \equiv \alpha^{\frac{x_j(p-1)}{q}} \bmod p \quad \dots \quad (2)$$

Proof: When $j = 0$, this equation reduces to equation (1)

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\beta_j)^{\frac{p-1}{q^{j+1}}} &\equiv \left(\beta \alpha^{-(x_0 + x_1 q + \dots + x_{j-1} q^{j-1})} \right)^{\frac{p-1}{q^{j+1}}} \mod p \\
 &\equiv \left(\alpha^{x - (x_0 + x_1 q + \dots + x_{j-1} q^{j-1})} \right)^{\frac{p-1}{q^{j+1}}} \mod p \\
 &\equiv \left(\alpha^{x_j q^j + \dots + x_{e-1} q^{e-1} + s q^e} \right)^{\frac{p-1}{q^{j+1}}} \mod p \\
 &\equiv \left(\alpha^{x_j q^j + K q^{j+1}} \right)^{\frac{p-1}{q^{j+1}}} \mod p \text{ where } K \text{ is an} \\
 &\hspace{25em} \text{integer} \\
 &\equiv \alpha^{\frac{x_j(p-1)}{q}} (\alpha^{p-1})^K \mod p \\
 &\equiv \alpha^{\frac{x_j(p-1)}{q}} \mod p
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence we can compute x_j using this equation

Computation of $\log_{\alpha}\beta \bmod p_i^{e_i}$

Since $\beta_j = \beta \alpha^{-(x_0 + x_1 q + \dots + x_{j-1} q^{j-1})} \bmod p,$
for $0 \leq j \leq e - 1$

$$\therefore \beta_{j+1} = \beta_j \alpha^{-x_j q^j} \bmod p \quad \dots (3)$$

Now compute $x_0, \beta_1, x_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_{e-1}, x_{e-1}$ by alternatively applying equation (2) and (3).

$$\log_{\alpha}\beta \bmod p_i^{e_i} = \sum_{i=0}^{e-1} x_i q^i$$

Algorithm: Pohlig-Hellman to compute $\log_{\alpha} \beta \pmod{q^e}$

- Compute $\gamma_i = \alpha^{(p-1)i/q} \pmod{p}$ for $0 \leq i \leq q-1$
- set $j = 0$ and $\beta_j = \beta$
- while $j \leq e-1$

compute $\delta = (\beta_j)^{\frac{(p-1)}{q^{j+1}}} \pmod{p}$

find i such that $\delta = \gamma_i$

$x_j = i$

$\beta_j = \beta \alpha^{-x_j q^j} \pmod{p}$

$j = j + 1$

Example: $p = 29$, $\alpha = 2$, $\beta = 18$

$$p - 1 = 28 = 2^2 \cdot 7$$

$$q = 2, e = 2;$$

$$\gamma_0 = 1$$

$$\gamma_1 = \alpha^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p = 2^{14} \bmod 29 \equiv 28$$

$$\delta = \beta^{28/2} \bmod 29 = 18^{14} \bmod 29 = 28$$

Hence $x_0 = 1$.

$$\text{Compute } \beta_1 = \beta_0 \alpha^{-1} \bmod 29 = 9$$

$$\text{And } (\beta_1)^{28/4} = 9^7 \bmod 29 = 28; \text{ since } \gamma_1 = 28$$

$$\text{Therefore } x_1 = 1; \text{ Hence } x = 3 \bmod 4$$

$$\text{Similarly for } q = 7, x = 4 \bmod 7$$

Using CRT $x = 11 \bmod 28$. i.e. $\log_2 18$ in \mathbb{Z}_{29} is 11.

References

- Cryptography: Theory and Practice by Douglas R. Stinson
- The PohligHellman Algorithm by D.R. Stinson
http://anh.cs.luc.edu/331/notes/PohligHellmanp_k2p.pdf

Index-calculus algorithm

- The index-calculus algorithm is the most powerful method for computing discrete logarithms.
- This is a subexponential-time algorithm.
- The index-calculus algorithm requires the selection of a relatively small subset S of elements of G , called the factor base, in such a way that a significant fraction of elements of G can be efficiently expressed as products of elements from S .

Computing Discrete Logarithms modulo p

- Initial processing stage
 - Computes the discrete logarithms of a set S of elements of Z_p^*
 - i.e. find a number of equations in the logarithms of S and solve over modulo $p - 1$.
- Final processing stage
 - Logarithm of any other may be found relatively quickly utilizing the logarithms of the elements of S .

Index Calculus Algorithm for DL in Cyclic Group

- Given: α generator of cyclic group Z_p , $\beta \in Z_p$.
- 1. Select factor base S : Consider a set of first t primes
 $S = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_t\}$
- 2. Collect linear relations involving logarithms of elements in S
 - 2.1 Select a random integer $k \in [0, p-1]$, and compute α^k
 - 2.2 factorize α^k as a product of elements in S :

$$\alpha^k = \prod_{i=1}^t p_i^{e_i}$$

If successful, take logarithms of both sides of equation to obtain a linear relation

$$k = \sum_{i=1}^t e_i \log_{\alpha}(p_i) \bmod (p-1)$$

- 2.3 Repeat until $t + c$ relations of the form are obtained

Index Calculus Algorithm for DL in Cyclic Group

3. Find the logarithms of elements in S : Solve the linear congruent system of $t + c$ equations (in t unknowns) collected in step 2 to obtain the values of $\log_{\alpha} p_i$; $1 \leq i \leq t$.
4. Compute $\log_{\alpha} \beta$
 - 4.1 Select a random integer k , $0 \leq k \leq n - 1$, & compute $\beta \cdot \alpha^k \bmod p$
 - 4.2 factorize $\beta \cdot \alpha^k \bmod p$ in S

$$\beta \alpha^k = \prod_{i=1}^t p_i^{f_i}$$

If the attempt is unsuccessful then repeat step 4.1.

Otherwise, taking logarithms of both sides & compute $\log_{\alpha} \beta$

$$\log_{\alpha}(\beta) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^t f_i \log_{\alpha}(p_i) \bmod (p - 1) - k$$

- Example: Index calculus for DL

Let $p = 229$ and its generator is $\alpha = 6$, $\beta = 13$

Factor base $S = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11\}$

Generation of relations: Pick random numbers

$$k = 100 \quad 6^{100} \bmod 229 \equiv 180 = 2^2 \times 3^2 \times 5$$

$$k = 18 \quad 6^{18} \bmod 229 \equiv 176 = 2^4 \times 11$$

$$k = 12 \quad 6^{12} \bmod 229 \equiv 165 = 3 \times 5 \times 11$$

$$k = 62 \quad 6^{62} \bmod 229 \equiv 154 = 2 \times 7 \times 11$$

$$k = 143 \quad 6^{143} \bmod 229 \equiv 198 = 2 \times 3^2 \times 11$$

$$k = 206 \quad 6^{206} \bmod 229 \equiv 210 = 2 \times 3 \times 5 \times 7$$

Taking log with base α , both sides

Taking log with base α , both sides

$$100 = 2 \log_6 2 + 2 \log_6 3 + \log_6 5 \pmod{228}$$

$$18 = 4 \log_6 2 + \log_6 11 \pmod{228}$$

$$12 = \log_6 3 + \log_6 5 + \log_6 11 \pmod{228}$$

$$62 = \log_6 2 + \log_6 7 + \log_6 11 \pmod{228}$$

$$143 = \log_6 2 + 2 \log_6 3 + \log_6 11 \pmod{228}$$

$$206 = \log_6 2 + \log_6 3 + \log_6 5 + \log_6 7 \pmod{228}.$$

- Solving the linear system equations:

$$\log_6 2 = 21, \log_6 3 = 208, \log_6 5 = 98, \log_6 7 = 107, \log_6 11 = 162.$$

- Computing the value:

Let $k = 77$ is selected.

$$\beta \cdot \alpha^k = 13 \cdot 6^{77} \pmod{229} = 147 = 3 \cdot 7^2$$

$$\therefore \log_6 13 = (\log_6 3 + 2 \log_6 7 - 77) \pmod{228} = 117.$$

Running time of Index Calculus Algorithm

- Computing discrete logarithms modulo a prime is only a little harder than factoring integers of the same size.
- With an optimal choice of t , the index-calculus algorithm for \mathbb{Z}_p^* has an expected running time $L_p [1/2, c]$ where $c > 0$ is a constant.

$$L_n [\alpha, c] = O(\exp((c (\ln n)^\alpha (\ln \ln n)^{1-\alpha})))$$

$$L_p [1/2, c] = O(\exp(c \sqrt{\ln n \ln \ln n}))$$

- The best algorithm known for computing logarithms in \mathbb{Z}_p^* is index-calculus algorithm using number field sieve, with an expected running time of $L_p [1/3, 1.923]$.

L -notation

- L -notation is an asymptotic notation
- It is analogous to big- O notation
- Denoted as $L_n [\alpha, c]$ for a bound variable $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$$L_n [\alpha, c] = O(\exp((c (\ln n)^\alpha (\ln \ln n)^{1-\alpha})))$$

where c is a positive constant, and α is a constant satisfying $0 < \alpha < 1$.

- L -notation is used mostly in computational number theory, to express the complexity of algorithms
- If $\alpha = 0$, then $L_n [0, c] = (\ln n)^c$ is a polynomial of $\ln n$.
- If $\alpha = 1$, then $L_n [1, c] = n^c$ is a polynomial in n .
- When $0 < \alpha < 1$, then the function is subexponential and the algorithm is subexponential time algorithm.