

Polynomial Modular Number Systems and the roots of their reduction polynomial in the field $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$

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Context

Modular operations occur in several of today's public key cryptography algorithms as RSA, Diffie-Hellman key exchange and ECC.

Polynomial Modular Number System (PMNS) is introduced in 2004, allowing

- The implementation of an effective modular arithmetic, involving only additions and multiplications.
- > A fast polynomial arithmetic and easy parallelization for an arbitrary *p*.
- Algorithms more efficient than known methods such as Montgomery and Barrett, and without any division.

Number of PMNS

Construction of PMNS $B = (p, n, \gamma, \rho)_{E(X)}$ based on sparse polynomials E(X), called *reduction polynomials* whose roots γ are the radices of this kind of positional representation.

The number of PMNS systems for an integer p

The number of suitable $E(X) \times The$ number of roots of each E(X) in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

Problematic

- The existing theorem on PMNS only proves the existence of at least one PMNS from an integer p, for a polynomial E(X) of the specific form $E(X) = X^n + aX + b$.
- Building such systems from a given p is not trivial : one has to seek a sparse polynomial E(X) satisfying the conditions of the theorem.
- > and find one of its roots in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ in an exhaustive way,
- Reductions during calculations are performed using tables that contain a lot of data.

Idea

We want to provide as many PMNS bases as possible for a fixed prime number p,

- to choose the most efficient systems in terms of calculation and storage.
- to use the different representations produced to mask the computations (protection against attacks as DPA)

different coding of variables from one execution to another.

Our approach

We propose a new theorem wich proves the existence of PMNS for any kind of reduction polynomial E.

✓ Offers new possibilities in the choice of PMNS parameters.

> We improves the initial bound on the digits of the system.

✓ Allows to create more compact PMNS with a lower redundancy that initially proved.

> We introduce classes of irreducible polynomials E(X) with good reduction properties.

- \checkmark Eligible for the role of reduction polynomial, and allowing efficient reductions.
- ✓ Allow to describe how many PMNS systems we can built from a prime p, by evaluating the number of their roots modulo p.

> We count the minimum number of PMNS we can reach

Two special cases where E(X) has a specific form, then the case when E(X) is irreducible, whatever its the form.

Summary

- Definitions and properties
- The new theorem of PMNS
- Classes of suitable reduction polynomials
- Number of PMNS from the roots of their reduction polynomial modulo *p*

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Classical positional number system

For β a fixed integer greater than 2 call the *radix*, an integer $x \in \mathbb{N}$ with $x < \beta^m$ is represented by a unique sequence of integers $(x_i)_{i=0...m-1}$ such that

$$x = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} x_i \beta^i$$

 x_i 's : digits, $x_i \in \mathbb{N}$, $0 \le x_i < \beta$, m : max number of digits.

Polynomial representation

An integer $a < \beta^m$ is represented by the polynomial $A(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_i X^i$,

with $a_i \in \mathbb{N}$, $0 \le a_i < \beta$, satisfying $A(\beta) = a$.

The coefficients of A(X) are the digits of the representation.

Modular reduction a modulo p

Idea : compute $c \equiv a \mod p$, $c < \beta^n$, since $p < \beta^n$.

• An iterative approach with no division :

If $\beta^n \equiv \delta \pmod{p}$, with $\delta \ll p$, $\delta < \beta^t$, δ represented by $\Delta(X)$ on at most t digits, then

$$\beta^{n} \equiv \delta \pmod{p}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \beta^{n} - \delta \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \beta^{n} - \Delta(\beta) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

► $E(X) = X^n - \Delta(X)$, satisfies $E(\beta) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

We put c = a, and replace β^n with δ modulo p in c until $c < \beta^n$.

> Equivalent to A(X) modulo E(X).

The reduction modulo E returns a polynomial with at most deg(E(X)) digits representing the same element modulo p.

The more sparse E(X) is, the less computations are needed in the reduction.

Such polynomials will serve to ensure the stability of the system.

PMNS system

A Polynomial Modular Number System (PMNS) is defined by

> a quadruple (p, n, γ, ρ)

➤ a polynomial $E(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, called *reduction polynomial with respect to p*, such that for each integer x in [0, p], there exists (x_{n-1}, \ldots, x_0) with

$$x\equiv\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}x_i\gamma^i\pmod{p},$$

where $x_i \in \mathbb{N}$, $0 \le x_i < \rho$, $1 < \gamma < p$, $E(\gamma) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and deg E = n.

Representations of an integer

The set of representations of *a* in the PMNS $\mathfrak{B} = (p, n, \gamma, \rho)_{E(X)}$, denoted $a_{\mathfrak{B}}$ is define as

$$A \in a_{\mathfrak{B}} \iff \begin{cases} A(\gamma) \equiv a \pmod{p}, \\ \deg A < n, \\ \|A\|_{\infty} < \rho, \end{cases}$$

with $\left\|.\right\|_{\infty}$ the infinity norm.

Example of PMNS

We condiser the PMNS $\mathfrak{B} = (p, n, \gamma, \rho)_{E(X)}$ with p = 31, n = 3, $\gamma = 11$ and $\rho = 4$

> to represent the elements of \mathbb{Z}_{31} as vectors with 3 digits and components in $\{0,1,2,3\}$.

Here $E(X) = X^3 + 2$ because we remark $\gamma^3 + 2 = 0 \mod 31$.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(0, 0, 0)	(0, 0, 1)	(0, 0, 2)	(0, 0, 3)	(0, 1, 0)	(0, 1, 1)	(0, 1, 2)	(0, 1, 3)
(1, 3, 3)	(2, 0, 0)	(2, 0, 1)	(2, 0, 2)	(2, 0, 3)	(2, 1, 0)	(2, 1, 1)	(2, 1, 2)
(3, 3, 2)	(3, 3, 3)						
8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
(0, 2, 0)	(0, 2, 1)	(0, 2, 2)	(0, 2, 3)	(0, 3, 0)	(0, 3, 1)	(0, 3, 2)	(0, 3, 3)
(2, 1, 3)	(2, 2, 0)	(2, 2, 1)	(2, 2, 2)	(2, 2, 3)	(2, 3, 0)	(2, 3, 1)	(2, 3, 2)
16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
(1, 0, 0)	(1, 0, 1)	(1, 0, 2)	(1, 0, 3)	(1, 1, 0)	(1, 1, 1)	(1, 1, 2)	(1, 1, 3)
(2, 3, 3)	(3, 0, 0)	(3, 0, 1)	(3, 0, 2)	(3, 0, 3)	(3, 1, 0)	(3, 1, 1)	(3, 1, 2)
24	25	26	27	28	29	30	
(1, 2, 0)	(1, 2, 1)	(1, 2, 2)	(1, 2, 3)	(1, 3, 0)	(1, 3, 1)	(1, 3, 2)	
(3, 1, 3)	(3, 2, 0)	(3, 2, 1)	(3, 2, 2)	(3, 2, 3)	(3, 3, 0)	(3, 3, 1)	

FIGURE: The elements of \mathbb{Z}_{31} in the PMNS B = MNS(31, 3, 11, 4)

Summary

- Definitions and properties
- The new theorem of PMNS
- Classes of suitable reduction polynomials
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Notations

The induced norm for an $m \times n$ matrix **A**, $\|\mathbf{A}\|_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$, where $a_{i,j}$ are the coefficients of **A**. The *i*-th power of a matrix **C** is denoted by \mathbf{C}^{i} .

The new theorem of PMNS

Theorem 1 :

Let p, n > 1, E(X) be an irreducible monic polynomial of degree n in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$, **C** its companion matrix and γ be a root of E(X) in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$.

Then, the smallest integer ρ_{\min} for which $\mathfrak{B} = (p, n, \gamma, \rho)_{\mathcal{E}(X)}$ with $\rho \ge \rho_{\min}$ is a PMNS, is such that

$$\rho_{\min} \leq p^{1/n} s,$$

where
$$s = \min\{ \| (\mathbf{C}^0 | \mathbf{C}^1 | \cdots | \mathbf{C}^{n-1})^T \|_{\infty}, \left(\det(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{C}^i (\mathbf{C}^i)^T) \right)^{1/n} \}.$$

Step 1 : we consider the lattice $\mathfrak L$ composed of the PMNS representations of 0 in $\mathbb Z/p\mathbb Z.$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -\gamma^{n-1} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -\gamma^{n-2} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 & -\gamma^{n-3} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 & 0 & -\gamma^2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 & -\gamma \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & p \end{pmatrix}$$

$${\mathcal A}_0(X)=p$$
 and ${\mathcal A}_i(X)=X^i-\gamma^i$ for $1\leq i\leq n-1$

 \mathcal{L} has a dimension n :

n linearly independent vectors $\Rightarrow \mathcal{L}$ is a full-rank lattice and det(\mathcal{L}) = *p*

All vectors representing in the PMNS the same element of $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ are equivalent modulo the lattice $\mathcal{L}.$



FIGURE: Elements of a PMNS representing the same integer modulo p.

Step 2 : Thanks to Minkowski's theorem ,

$$\exists V \in \mathcal{L}$$
 tel que $0 < \left\| V
ight\|_{\infty} \leq det(\mathcal{L})^{1/n} = p^{1/n}$

Construction of a sub-lattice $\mathfrak{L}' \subseteq \mathfrak{L}$, of base *B* composed of the *n* vectors B_i with $B_i \in \mathbb{Z}[X]/(E)$ defined as follows

$$B_i(X) = X^i \times V(X) \mod E(X).$$

B is a base : the B_i are linearly independent. Otherwise, there exists $l \neq 0$ such that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} l_i B_i(X) = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} l_i X^i V(X) = 0 \mod E$$

$$\Leftrightarrow L(X) V(X) = 0 \mod E$$

deg(E(X)) = n, and L(X), $V(X) \neq 0$ of degrees strictly between 0 and n: we have a factorization of E(X). The irreducibility of E(X) in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ hypothesis makes this case impossible.

Étape 3 : The fundamental domain ${\mathcal H}$ of the sub-lattice ${\mathfrak L}'$ is defined as follows



FIGURE: Fundamental domain ${\mathcal H}$ of ${\mathfrak L}'$

We consider \mathcal{H}_0 which intersects a half of \mathcal{H} and another half of $-\mathcal{H}$.



FIGURE: Domain \mathcal{H}_0 of \mathfrak{L}'

To bound $\mathcal{H}_0 \Leftrightarrow$ To bound B

We use *the companion matrix* \mathbf{C} of E(X) to construct the base B.

For $E(X) = X^n + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$,

$$\mathsf{C} := egin{pmatrix} -a_{n-1} & -a_{n-2} & \ldots & -a_1 & -a_0 \ 1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots & dots \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots & dots \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots & dots \ 0 & 0 & \ldots & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

 $XV(X) \mod E(X) \Leftrightarrow V \times \mathbf{C},$

Then $B_i = V \times \mathbf{C}^i$. For bounding **B**, i.e. the quantity $\max_{B_i(X) \in \mathbf{B}} ||B_i||_{\infty}$, we present two approaches that depend on how **B** is built.

First method : from Minkowski's theorem, $V \in \mathfrak{L}$ such that $\|V\|_{\infty} \leq p^{1/n}$.

We can recover the base **B** with the $n \times n^2$ matrix $\mathbf{C}^0 | \mathbf{C}^1 | \cdots | \mathbf{C}^{n-1}$,

$$(\mathbf{C}^{0}|\mathbf{C}^{1}|\cdots|\mathbf{C}^{n-1})^{T}\times V^{T}=B.$$

B is a n^2 column vector containing the components of the *n* vectors of the base **B**. To bound the $\max_{B_i(X)\in \mathbf{B}} ||B_i||_{\infty} \Leftrightarrow$ to bound $||B||_{\infty}$.

The induced norm for the matrices is consistent with the infinity norm,

$$\|B\|_{\infty} \leq \|V\|_{\infty} imes \|(\mathbf{C}^{0}|\mathbf{C}^{1}|\cdots|\mathbf{C}^{n-1})^{T}\|_{\infty}$$

$$\|\mathbf{B}\|_{\infty} \leq p^{1/n} \times \|(\mathbf{C}^0|\mathbf{C}^1|\cdots|\mathbf{C}^{n-1})^T\|_{\infty}.$$

Second method : we can extract directly the base **B** as a n^2 vector of the extended lattice \mathfrak{D} with base $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{A} \times (\mathbf{C}^0 | \mathbf{C}^1 | \cdots | \mathbf{C}^{n-1})$, where **A** is the base of \mathfrak{L} .

D is an $n \times n^2$ matrix, and determinant of det $(\mathfrak{D}) = \sqrt{\det(\mathbf{D} \times \mathbf{D}^T)}$. From Minkowski's theorem,

$$\|\mathbf{B}\|_{\infty} \leq \left(\sqrt{\det(\mathbf{D} \times \mathbf{D}^{T})}\right)^{1/n}$$

We note, $\mathbf{K} = (\mathbf{C}^0 | \mathbf{C}^1 | \cdots | \mathbf{C}^{n-1})$. Thus $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{K}$ and

$$det(\mathbf{D} \times \mathbf{D}^{\mathsf{T}}) = det(\mathbf{A}) \times det(\mathbf{K} \times \mathbf{K}^{\mathsf{T}}).$$

n

and

$$\|\mathbf{B}\|_{\infty} \leq \left(p imes \sqrt{\det(\mathbf{K} imes \mathbf{K}^{ op})}
ight)^{1/2}$$

We remark that, $\mathbf{K} imes \mathbf{K}^{ op} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{C}^{i} (\mathbf{C}^{i})^{ op}$.

Step 4 : \mathcal{H}_0 that we have bounded contains all the vectors representing in \mathfrak{B} an element of $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$



Système PMNS

Un système AMNS vérifiant les conditions de ce théorème d'existence est appelé *Système de représentation modulaire polynomial* (PMNS).

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Suitable reduction polynomials for PMNS

To build compact systems with an efficient arithmetic on representations, we need polynomials E(X) with good reduction properties, which ensure

- a reduction with a limited number of steps,
- > a low bound on ρ_{\min} for the digits.

For these reasons, a polynomial is said suitable for reduction if

• $E(X) = X^n + a_k X^k + \dots + a_1 X + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$, with $n \ge 2$ and $k \le \frac{n}{2}$

 $\checkmark\,$ to garantee a reduction in only two steps.

E(X) is sparse, with few non-zero coefficients, small, if possible equal to 1.
 ✓ to ensure a small bound on ρ_{min} which depends on E(X)

ClassCyclo(n)

For a fixed $n \ge 2$, the first class of polynomials eligible for the role of reduction polynomial, called ClassCyclo(n), is the set composed of the three cyclotomics of degree n,

• $\Phi_{2n}(X) = X^n + 1$, if *n* is a power of 2

•
$$\Phi_{\frac{3n}{2}}(X) = X^n + X^{\frac{n}{2}} + 1$$
, if *n* is even and $\frac{n}{2} = 3^k$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$

•
$$\Phi_{3n}(X) = X^n - X^{\frac{n}{2}} + 1$$
, if *n* is even $\frac{n}{2} = 2^i \cdot 3^j$ for $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$

Let $m \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$.

The roots of $\Phi_m(X)$ are exactly the primitive roots m - th of unity

$$\Phi_m(X) = \prod_{\substack{k=1\\k \land m=1}}^m (X - \zeta^k).$$

For all *m*, the polynomial $\Phi_m(X)$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$.

To satisfy the reduction properties : a polynomial of degree n must have its second non-zero term of degree lower than n/2.

• $\Phi_m(X)$ of degree $n = \varphi(m)$ is self-reciprocal for $m \ge 2$,

i.e.
$$a_i = a_{n-i}$$
, for $0 \le i \le n$.

▶ for $n \ge 2$, the only ones possible have two terms, one of degree *n* and one constant, or three, with the middle term of degree n/2.

Bound of rho for ClassCyclo(n) : determinant vs norm



FIGURE: Graph of the average bound of rho depending on the degree n of E(X) in ClassCyclo(n)

Number of PMNS with a cyclotomic reduction polynomial

Let p prime, $m \ge 3$ such that $\varphi(m)$ is even and $p \equiv 1 \mod m$.

Then there exists $\varphi(m)$ PMNS $(p, n, \gamma_i, \rho)_{E(X)}$ with

- $\rightarrow n = \varphi(m),$
- $\rightarrow E(X) = \Phi_m(X),$
- $\rightarrow \ \rho \leq \lceil 2 p^{1/\varphi(m)} \rceil$

 \rightarrow and γ_i one of the $\varphi(m)$ distinct roots of E(X) modulo p, $0 \leq i < \varphi(m)$.

The roots ζ of a cyclotomic polynomial $\Phi_m(X)$ are of order m.

We write $\deg_{\mathbb{F}_p}(\zeta)$ the degree of a root ζ on the field of p elements with p prime. For every ζ , $\deg_{\mathbb{F}_p}(\zeta) = \operatorname{ord}_{(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}}(p)$. As we want $\zeta \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ $\Leftrightarrow \deg_{\mathbb{F}_p}(\zeta) = 1$ $\Leftrightarrow \operatorname{ord}_{(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times}}(p) = 1$ $\mathcal{F}_p(\zeta)$ $\operatorname{deg}_{\mathbb{F}_p}(\zeta)$ \mathbb{F}_p

The only element of order 1 of a multiplicative group is the neutral element 1.

▶
$$p \equiv 1 \mod m$$
.

All roots ζ have the same order, they all have the same degree on \mathbb{F}_p .

The roots of $\Phi_m(X)$ are the roots of $P(X) = X^m - 1$, and P(X) and $P'(X) = mX^{m-1}$ have no common root, then all the roots of $\Phi_m(X)$ are distinct.

▶ the $\varphi(m)$ distincts roots of $\Phi_m(X)$ are in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ if and only if $p \equiv 1 \mod m$.

Table of the reduction polynomials from which we can generate PMNS bases

E(X)	$E(X)$ irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$	roots of $E(X) \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x]$
$\begin{array}{c} \Phi_{2n} \\ \Phi_{\frac{3n}{2}} \\ \Phi_{3n} \end{array}$	if <i>n</i> is a power of 2 if $n \equiv 0 \mod 2$ and $\frac{n}{2} = 3^k$ if $n \equiv 0 \mod 2$ and $\frac{n}{2} = 2^i \cdot 3^j$	all iff $p \equiv 1 \mod n'$ where n' is the order of the roots

Number of PMNS from *ClassCyclo*(*n*)

Let p prime, $n \ge 2$ such that $n = 2^i 3^j$, with $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$.

- If $\nu_2(n) > 0$, $\nu_3(n) = 0$, and 2n divides p 1, then there exist n PMNS $(p, n, \gamma_i, \rho)_{E(X)}$ with $E(X) = \Phi_{2n}(X) = X^n + 1$ and γ_i one of its n distinct roots modulo p.
- If $\nu_2(n) = 1$, $\nu_3(n) \ge 0$, and 3n/2 divides p-1, then there exist n PMNS $(p, n, \gamma_i, \rho)_{E(X)}$ with $E(X) = \Phi_{\frac{3n}{2}}(X) = X^n + X^{\frac{n}{2}} + 1$ and γ_i one of its n distinct roots modulo p.
- If $\nu_2(n) \ge 1$, $\nu_3(n) \ge 0$, and 3n divides p 1, then there exist n PMNS $(p, n, \gamma_i, \rho)_{E(X)}$ with $E(X) = \Phi_{3n}(X) = X^n X^{\frac{n}{2}} + 1$ and γ_i one of its n distinct roots modulo p.

Example

Construction of 8 PMNS with a cyclotomic reduction polynomial for p = 22273 and n = 4

E(X)	γ	$ ho_{min}$
$X^4 + 1$	1254	9
	4991	9
	17282	9
	21019	9
$X^4 - X^2 + 1$	1355	9
	7512	9
	14761	9
	20918	9

ClassBinomial(n, c)

For a fixed $n\geq 2$, and $c\in\mathbb{Z}$ such that there exists μ prime satisfying

 $c = q\mu^k$, with $gcd(q, \mu) = 1$ and gcd(k, n) = 1,

the fourth class of polynomials eligible for the role of reduction polynomial, and call ClassBinomial(n, c), is the singleton $\{X^n + c\}$.

Dumas's criterion : For $P(X) = a_n X^n + \dots + a_1 X + a_0 \in Z[X]$, if $\exists \mu$ prime such that 1) $\frac{\nu_{\mu}(a_i)}{i} > \frac{\nu_{\mu}(a_n)}{n}$ for $1 \le i \le n - 1$, 2) $\nu_{\mu}(a_0) = 0$, 3) $gcd(\nu_{\mu}(a_n), n) = 1$,

then P(X) irreducible in Q[X].

We divide P(X) by its leading coefficient a_n ,

>
$$\nu_{\mu}(a_n/a_n) = 0$$
 and $\nu_{\mu}(a_0/a_n) = -\nu_{\mu}(a_n)$.

A binomial $P(X) = X^n + a_0$ respects Dumas's criterion as soon as there exists μ prime such that

 $\gcd(
u_{\mu}(a_0), n) = 1,$

i.e. $P(X) = X^n + c\mu^k$, $c \in \mathbb{Z}$, μ prime, $gcd(c, \mu) = 1$ and gcd(k, n) = 1, where $k = \nu_{\mu}(c\mu^k)$. Gauss's lemma : P(X) is irreducible over \mathbb{Z} .

Bound of rho for ClassBinomial(n, c), c = 3: determinant vs norm



FIGURE: Graph of the average bound of rho depending on the degree n of E(X) in *ClassBinomial*(n, 3)

Number of PMNS from ClassBinomial(n, c)

Let p prime, $n \geq 2$, $c \in \mathbb{Z}$, $|c| \geq 2$, such that there exists a prime μ satisfying

 $\gcd(
u_{\mu}(c) \ , \ n) = 1.$

Let g a generator of $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times},$ and y such that $g^{y}\equiv c\mod p$ and

gcd(n, p-1)|y.

Then there exist gcd(n, p-1) PMNS $(p, n, \gamma_i, \rho)_{E(X)}$, with

$$\rightarrow E(X) = X^n - c$$
,

 $\rightarrow \rho = \lceil cp^{1/n} \rceil$

 \rightarrow and γ_i one of the gcd(n, p - 1) distinct roots of E(X) modulo $p, 0 \leq i <$ gcd(n, p - 1).

Existence

 $p \text{ prime} \Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is a field and $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{ imes}$ is cyclic;

 $\exists g \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \text{ such that } \forall x \in (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}, \exists y \text{ such that } g^{y} \equiv x \mod p.$

Let $c \in \mathbb{Z}$, $|c| \geq 2$ for wich $\exists \mu$ prime satisfying $gcd(\nu_{\mu}(c) \ , \ n) = 1$.

In particular, $\exists y$ tel que

$$g^{\gamma} \equiv c \mod p.$$
 (1)

We denote d = pgcd(n, p - 1)

Extended Euclidean Theorem : $\exists u \text{ and } v \text{ such that }$:

$$un + v(p-1) = d$$

We assume $d \mid y$, i.e. $\exists m$ such that y = dm.

$$unm + v(p-1)m = dm = y \tag{2}$$

Existence

We replace (2) in (1)

$$g^{unm+v(p-1)m} \equiv c \mod p$$

 $(g^{um})^n (g^{(p-1)})^{vm} \equiv c \mod p$

Fermat's little theorem : if p is prime, $g^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \mod p$, then

$$(g^{um})^n \equiv c \mod p$$

 $\gamma = g^{um}$ is a root of $X^n - c \mod p$.

Roots *d*-th of unity

 $d \mid p-1 \Rightarrow p \equiv 1 \mod d$. ω_i for $1 \leq i \leq d$, the *d* roots *d*-th of unity, of order d_i dividing *d* verify

$$\mathsf{deg}_{\mathbb{F}_p}(\omega_i) = \mathsf{ord}_{(\mathbb{Z}/d_i\mathbb{Z})^{ imes}}(p) \ = 1$$

Then for $1 \leq i \leq d$, $\omega_i \in \mathbb{F}_p$.

Number of roots

 γ une racine de $X^n - c \mod p$ For $1 \le i \le d$,

$$(w_i\gamma)^n = w_i^n\gamma^n \mod p$$

Since $d \mid n$, we obtain

$$w_i^n \gamma^n = (w_i^d)^{\frac{n}{d}} \gamma^n \mod p$$

= $c \mod p$

 $\Rightarrow d$ distinct roots $w_i\gamma$, $1 \leq i \leq d$, of $X^n - c$ in \mathbb{F}_p . \Box

Table of the reduction polynomials from which we can generate PMNS bases

E(X)	$E(X)$ irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$	roots of $E(X) \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x]$
	if <i>n</i> is a power of 2 if $n \equiv 0 \mod 2$ and $\frac{n}{2} = 3^k$ if $n \equiv 0 \mod 2$ and $\frac{n}{2} = 2^i \cdot 3^j$	all iff $p \equiv 1 \mod n'$ where n' is the order of the roots
$X^n + c\mu^k$, $c \in \mathbb{Z}$	μ prime, $\gcd(c,\mu)=1$ and $\gcd(k,n)=1$	$\begin{array}{l} 1 \text{ if } \gcd(n, p-1) = 1 \\ \text{or} \\ \gcd(n, p-1) \text{ if } \\ \gcd(n, p-1) \mid y \\ \text{with } g^Y \equiv c \mod p \\ \text{where } g \text{ generates } (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times} \end{array}$

Proposition 1

Let $E(X) = X^n - c$, $c \in \mathbb{Z}$, $|c| \ge 2$, satisfying the Theorem 1 for a prime p, with $gcd(n, p-1) \mid \frac{p-1}{2}$.

Then $E'(X) = X^n + c$ is also a reduction binomial with respect to p and allows to construct the same number of PMNS.

Proposition 2

Let p prime, $n \ge 2$, $c \in \mathbb{Z}$, $|c| \ge 2$, such that there exists a prime μ satisfying $gcd(\nu_{\mu}(c), n) = 1$, and g a generator of $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ relatively prime to μ .

Then there exist gcd(n, p-1) PMNS $(p, n, \gamma_i, \rho)_{E(X)}$, where

→ $E(X) = X^n - cg^t$ is the unique reduction binomial with respect to p for t in [|0, gcd(n, p - 1) - 1|],

 $\rightarrow \rho = \lceil cg^t p^{1/n} \rceil$

→ and γ_i one of the gcd(n, p - 1) distinct roots of E(X) modulo $p, 0 \le i < gcd(n, p - 1)$.

Proposition 3

Let *p* prime, $n \ge 2$ and two reduction polynomials with respect to *p*, $E(X) = X^n - c$ and $E'(X) = X^n - c'$, satisfying $gcd(\nu_\mu(a_0), n) = 1$, and such that at least one prime μ satisfying $gcd(\nu_\mu(c), n) = 1$ is relatively prime to c'.

Then there exist gcd(n, p - 1) PMNS $(p, n, \gamma_i'', \rho)_{E''}$, with $E''(X) = X^n - (cc')$, $\rho = \lceil cc'p^{1/n} \rceil$ and γ_i one of the gcd(n, p - 1) distinct roots of E''(X) modulo p, $0 \le i < gcd(n, p - 1)$.

Example

For the prime p = 317, n = 4. Here gcd(n, p - 1) = 4.

We set c = 5, and pick 2 as a generator of $(\mathbb{Z}/317\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ and gcd(2,5) = 1. From Proposition 2, there exists a unique reduction binomial $E(X) = X^n - 5 \cdot 2^t$ for t in [|0,3|].

The following Tables show the roots of the four polynomials considered for c = 5, and for c = -5.

P(X) for $c = 5$	roots in $\mathbb{Z}/317\mathbb{Z}$	P(X) for $c = -5$	roots in $\mathbb{Z}/317\mathbb{Z}$
$X^{4} - 5$	/	$X^{4} + 5$	/
$X^4 - 5 \cdot 2$	71	$X^4 + 5 \cdot 2$	/
	148	$X^4 + 5 \cdot 2^2$	/
	169	$X^4 + 5 \cdot 2^3$	77
	246		98
$X^4 - 5 \cdot 2^2$	/		219
$X^4 - 5 \cdot 2^3$	/		240

ClassTrinomials(n)

For a fixed $n \ge 2$, the second class of polynomials eligible for the role of reduction polynomial, and call ClassTrinomials(n), is the set of trinomials of degree n satisfying the criteria of the Theorem of Ljunggren, described as follow,

if $n = n_1 d$, $m = m_1 d$, with d = gcd(n, m), $n \le 2m$, then the polynomial $X^n + \delta X^m + \epsilon$, with δ and ϵ equal to ± 1 , is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$, apart from the three cases :

- n₁ and m₁ are both odd
- n₁ is even and e = 1
- *m*₁ is even and δ = ε

where P(X) is a product of the polynomial $X^{2d} + \delta^m \epsilon^n X^d + 1$ and a second irreducible polynomial.

Bound of rho for ClassTrinomials(n) : determinant vs norm



FIGURE: Graph of the average bound of rho depending on the degree n of E(X) in ClassTrinomials(n)

Table of the reduction polynomials from which we can generate PMNS bases

E(X)	$E(X)$ irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$	roots of $E(X) \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x]$
$\begin{array}{c} \Phi_{2n} \\ \Phi_{\frac{3n}{2}} \\ \Phi_{3n} \end{array}$	if <i>n</i> is a power of 2 if $n \equiv 0 \mod 2$ and $\frac{n}{2} = 3^k$ if $n \equiv 0 \mod 2$ and $\frac{n}{2} = 2^i \cdot 3^j$	all iff $p \equiv 1 \mod n'$ where n' is the order of the roots
$X^n + c\mu^k$, $c \in \mathbb{Z}$	μ prime, $\gcd(c,\mu) = 1$ and $\gcd(k,n) = 1$	1 if $gcd(n, p - 1) = 1$ or gcd(n, p - 1) if gcd(n, p - 1) y with $g^{y} \equiv c \mod p$ where g generates $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$
$X^{n} + \delta X^{m} + \epsilon,$ with $n \le 2m$ $\delta = \pm 1, \epsilon = \pm 1$	$\begin{array}{l} \underbrace{ \begin{array}{l} \text{yes, apart from the three cases :} \\ \frac{n}{\gcd(n,m)} \text{ and } \frac{m}{\gcd(n,m)} \text{ are both odd,} \\ \frac{n}{\gcd(n,m)} \text{ is even and } \epsilon = 1, \\ \frac{m}{\gcd(n,m)} \text{ is even and } \delta = \epsilon. \end{array}}$	
$X^{n} + 2X - 1$ $X^{2m+1} + 2X + 1$ $X^{2m} - 2X - 1$	yes	

Example

Construction of 8 PMNS with a reduction trinomial and $\pi=2$

(<i>p</i> , <i>n</i>)	E(X)	γ	$ ho_{min}$
(22273, 3)	$X^3 + X + 1$	18048	19
	$X^3 - X + 1$	1105	18
		3912	20
		17256	16
	$X^3 + X - 1$	4225	19
	$X^3 - X - 1$	5017	16
		18361	20
		21168	18

ClassQuadrinomials(*n*)

For a fixed $n \ge 2$, the third class of polynomials eligible for the role of reduction polynomial, and call ClassQuadrinomials(n), is the set of quadrinomials of degree n satisfying the criteria of the Theorem of Ljunggren, described as follow,

let $P(X) = X^n + X^m + X^q \pm 1$, where $n \ge m + \mu$. We set $n = n_1 d$, $m = m_1 d$, $q = q_1 d$ and $(n_1, m_1, q_1) = 1$. If n_1, m_1 and q_1 are odd integers then P(X) is irreducible over \mathbb{Z} .

Bound of rho for ClassQuadrinomials(n) : determinant vs norm



FIGURE: Graph of the average bound of rho depending on the degree n of E(X) in ClassQuadrinomials(n)

Table of the reduction polynomials from which we can generate PMNS bases

E(X)	$E(X)$ irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$	roots of $E(X) \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x]$
$X^n + X^m + X^p \pm 1$ with $n \ge m + p$	$n/\gcd(n, m, p), m/\gcd(n, m, p)$ and $p/\gcd(n, m, p)$ are odd integers	

Lemma 1 Let $P(X) = X^n + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \dots + a_0 \in \mathbb{C}[X]$, if $|a_k| > 1 + |a_{n-1}| + \dots + |a_{k+1}| + |a_{k-1}| + \dots + |a_0|$, then exactly k roots of P(X) lie strictly inside the unit circle, i.e. are such that |r| < 1,

and the n - k other roots lie strictly outside the unit circle, i.e. are such that |r| > 1.

$ClassPrimeCst(n, \mu)$

For a fixed $n \ge 2$, and a prime μ , the fifth class of polynomials eligible for the role of reduction polynomial, and call ClassPrimeCst (n, μ) , is the set composed of the polynomials $X^n + \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} \epsilon_i X^i \pm \mu$, with $\epsilon_i \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$.

We find a contradiction in the case k = 0, assuming a_0 is prime.

If P(X) is reducible in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$, it admits a decomposition of the form

$$P(X) = X^{n} + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \ldots + a_{0} = G(X)H(X)$$

Since $|a_0|$ is prime, |G(0)| or |H(0)| is equal to 1, hence we assume |G(0)| = 1.

As the complex zeros of G(X) satisfy $\prod_{z \mid G(z)=0} |z| = \frac{1}{lc(G)} \leq 1$,

> at least one root, suppose z_0 , is such that $|z_0| \le 1$.

But P(X) also verifies Lemma 1 for k = 0,

> all its roots z satisfy |z| > 1,

which leads to the expected contradiction, then P is irreducible over \mathbb{Z} .

Bound of rho for *ClassPrimeCst*(n, μ), $\mu = 3$: determinant vs norm



FIGURE: Graph of the average bound of rho depending on the degree n of E(X) in *ClassPrimeCst*(n, 3)

 $\begin{array}{l} \hline ClassPerron(n,a_1) \\ \mbox{For a fixed } n \geq 2, \mbox{ and an integer } a_1 \in \mathbb{N}, \mbox{ the sixth class of polynomials eligible for the role of reduction polynomial, and call ClassPerron(n,a_1), is the set composed of the polynomials <math>X^n + \sum_{i=2}^{n/2} \epsilon_i X^i \pm a_1 X \pm 1$, with $\epsilon_i \in \{-1,0,1\}$.

We find a contradiction in the case k = 1, assuming $|a_0| = 1$.

If P(X) is reducible in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$, it admits a decomposition of the form

$$P(X) = X^{n} + a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + \ldots + a_{0} = G(X)H(X)$$

Here $|G(0)| = |H(0)| = |a_0| = 1$.

As the complex zeros of G(X) satisfy $\prod_{z \mid G(z)=0} |z| = \frac{1}{lc(G)} \leq 1$ (same with H(X)),

➤ at least one root of G(X) and one root of H(X), suppose z_{G(X)} and z_{H(X)}, are such that |z_{G(X)}| ≤ 1 and |z_{H(X)}| ≤ 1.

But P(X) also verifies Lemma 1 for k = 1,

> only one of its roots z satisfies $|z| \leq 1$,

which leads to the expected contradiction, then P is irreducible over $\mathbb Z.$

Bound of rho for ClassPerron (n, a_1) , $a_1 = 3$: determinant vs norm



FIGURE: Graph of the average bound of rho depending on the degree n of E(X) in ClassPerron(n, 3)

Table of the reduction polynomials from which we can generate PMNS bases

E(X)	$E(X)$ irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$	roots of $E(X) \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x]$
$X^{n} + X^{m} + X^{p} \pm 1$ with $n \ge m + p$	<pre>n/ gcd(n, m, p), m/ gcd(n, m, p) and p/ gcd(n, m, p) are odd integers</pre>	
$X^{n} + a_{k}X^{k} + \dots + a_{0}$ with $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}, \ 0 \le i \le k$ and $k \le \frac{n}{2}$	$\begin{split} a_0 > 1 + a_{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 \\ & \text{and } a_0 \text{ prime} \\ & \text{or} \\ a_1 > 1 + a_{n-1} + \cdots + a_2 + a_0 \\ & \text{and } a_0 = 1 \end{split}$	

Summary

- Definitions and properties
- The new theorem of PMNS
- Classes of suitable reduction polynomials
- Number of PMNS from the roots of their reduction polynomial modulo *p*

Number of systems when E(X) is irreducible

Theorem 2 :

Let p prime, n > 2, E a polynomial of degree n and irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$, and $D(X) = \text{gcd}(X^p - X, E(X)) \mod p$.

If D(X) is non constant, then E(X) is a reduction polynomial with respect to p and :

- If the discriminant of D(X) is not null, there exists deg(D(X)) PMNS $(p, n, \gamma_i, \rho \leq \lceil p^{1/n}s \rceil)_{E(X)}$, where C is the companion matrix of E(X), and $s = \min\{ \| (C^0C^1 \cdots C^{n-1})^T \|_{\infty}, \det(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} C^i(C^i)^T) \}.$
- If the discrimiant of D(X) is null, there exists at least one PMNS with the same property.

Since p is prime, $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is a field. A root γ of P(X) belongs to $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ is also a root $X^p - X \mod p$.

The number of roots of P(X) in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ = $\deg(D(X))$ with $D(X) = \gcd(X^p - X, P(X)) \mod p$, D(X) non constant.

We denote NrP_p the number of roots of P(X) modulo p.

Two cases :

→ The discriminant of D(X) is not null, D(X) is separable, i.e. it has no multiple root.

 $\succ NrP_p = \deg(D(X)).$

ightarrow The discriminant of D(X) is null, D(X) has at least one multiple root

▶ $1 \leq NrP_p < \deg(D(X)).$

If P(X) is irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[X]$, from Theorem 1 the result is proved.

Example

We choose a prime p = 57896044618658097711785492504343953926-634992332820282019728792003956566811073 on 256 bits,

n = 8, and we fix $||E(X)||_{\infty} \leq 7$.

Classes are given with the corresponding minimum number of PMNS we can reach from them.

ClassCyclo(n) : at least 8 systems	ClassTrinomials(n) : at least 24 systems
ClassQuadrinomials(n) : no system	ClassBinomials(n, 3) : no system
ClassBinomials(n, 4) : no system	ClassBinomials(n, 5) : no system
ClassBinomials(n, 6) : at least 16 systems	ClassBinomials(n, 7) : no system
ClassPrimeCst(n, 3) : at least 6 systems	${\tt ClassPrimeCst}(n,5): {\tt at least 158 systems}$
${\tt ClassPrimeCst}(n,7): {\tt at least 190 systems}$	ClassPerron(n, 3) : at least 8 systems
ClassPerron(n, 4) : at least 38 systems	ClassPerron(n, 5) : at least 78 systems
ClassPerron(n, 6) : at least 104 systems	ClassPerron(n, 7) : at least 112 systems

► There are at least 742 systems in total.

Table of the reduction polynomials from which we can generate PMNS bases

E(X)	$E(X)$ irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$	roots of $E(X) \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x]$
$\begin{array}{c} \Phi_{2n} \\ \Phi_{\frac{3n}{2}} \\ \Phi_{3n} \end{array}$	if n is a power of 2 if $n \equiv 0 \mod 2$ and $\frac{n}{2} = 3^k$ if $n \equiv 0 \mod 2$ and $\frac{n}{2} = 2^i \cdot 3^j$	all iff $p \equiv 1 \mod n'$ where n' is the order of the roots
$X^n + c\mu^k$, $c \in \mathbb{Z}$	μ prime, $\gcd(c,\mu)=1$ and $\gcd(k,n)=1$	1 if gcd(n, p - 1) = 1 or gcd(n, p - 1) if gcd(n, p - 1) y with $g^{y} \equiv c \mod p$ where g generates $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$
$ \begin{array}{ll} X^n + \delta X^m + \epsilon, \\ \text{with } n \leq 2m \\ \delta = \pm 1, \ \epsilon = \pm 1 \\ & \begin{matrix} n \\ \gcd(n,m) \\ \gcd(n,m) \end{matrix} \text{ and } \begin{matrix} \frac{m}{\gcd(n,m)} \\ \gcd(n,m) \\ \gcd(n,m) \end{matrix} \text{ is even and } \epsilon = 1, \\ & \begin{matrix} \frac{n}{\gcd(n,m)} \\ \frac{g \csc(n,m)}{\gcd(n,m)} \\ \gcd(n,m) \end{matrix} \text{ is even and } \delta = \epsilon. \\ & X^n + 2X - 1 \\ X^{2m+1} + 2X + 1 \\ X^{2m} - 2X - 1 \end{matrix} $		$\leq \deg(\gcd(X^p - X, E(X)) \mod p)$ $O(\frac{\log p}{\log \log p})$ when $p \to +\infty$

Table of the reduction polynomials from which we can generate PMNS bases

$E(X)$ $E(X)$ irreducible in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$		roots of $E(X) \in \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}[x]$
$\begin{array}{c} X^n + X^m + X^p \pm 1 \\ \text{with } n \geq m + p \end{array} \qquad \qquad \begin{array}{c} n/\gcd(n,m,p), \ m/\gcd(n,m,p) \\ \text{and } p/\gcd(n,m,p) \text{ are odd integers} \end{array}$		
$X^{n} + a_{k}X^{k} + \dots + a_{0}$ with $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \leq i \leq k$ and $k \leq \frac{n}{2}$	$\begin{split} a_0 > 1 + a_{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 \\ & \text{and } a_0 \text{ prime} \\ & \text{or} \\ a_1 > 1 + a_{n-1} + \cdots + a_2 + a_0 \\ & \text{and } a_o = 1 \end{split}$	$\leq \deg(\gcd(X^p - X, E(X)) \mod p)$

Change of the radix γ

> $\mathfrak{B}_1 = (p = 31, n = 3, \gamma = 3, \rho = 4)$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(0, 0, 0)	(0, 0, 1)	(0, 0, 2)	(0, 0, 3)	(0, 1, 1)	(0, 1, 2)	(0, 1, 3)	(0, 2, 1)	(0, 2, 2)	(0, 2, 3)
(3, 1, 1)	(3, 1, 2)	(3, 1, 3)	(0, 1, 0)	(3, 2, 2)	(3, 2, 3)	(0, 2, 0)	(3, 3, 2)	(3, 3, 3)	(0, 3, 0)
		(3, 2, 0)	(3, 2, 1)		(3, 3, 0)	(3, 3, 1)			(1, 0, 0)
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
(0, 3, 1)	(0, 3, 2)	(0, 3, 3)	(1, 1, 1)	(1, 1, 2)	(1, 1, 3)	(1, 2, 1)	(1, 2, 2)	(1, 2, 3)	(1, 3, 1)
(1, 0, 1)	(1, 0, 2)	(1, 0, 3)			(1, 2, 0)			(1, 3, 0)	(2, 0, 1)
		(1, 1, 0)						(2, 0, 0)	
20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
20 (1, 3, 2)	21 (1, 3, 3)	$\frac{22}{(2, 1, 1)}$	23 (2, 1, 2)	24 (2, 1, 3)	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 1)}$	26 (2, 2, 2)	27 (2, 2, 3)	28 (2, 3, 1)	29 (2, 3, 2)
20 (1, 3, 2) (2, 0, 2)	21 (1, 3, 3) (2, 0, 3)	$\frac{22}{(2, 1, 1)}$	23 (2, 1, 2)	24 (2, 1, 3) (2, 2, 0)	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 1)}$	$\frac{26}{(2, 2, 2)}$	27 (2, 2, 3) (2, 3, 0)	28 (2, 3, 1) (3, 0, 1)	29 (2, 3, 2) (3, 0, 2)
20 (1, 3, 2) (2, 0, 2)	21 (1, 3, 3) (2, 0, 3) (2, 1, 0)	22 (2, 1, 1)	23 (2, 1, 2)	24 (2, 1, 3) (2, 2, 0)	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 1)}$	$\frac{26}{(2, 2, 2)}$	27 (2, 2, 3) (2, 3, 0) (3, 0, 0)	28 (2, 3, 1) (3, 0, 1)	29 (2, 3, 2) (3, 0, 2)
20 (1, 3, 2) (2, 0, 2) 30	21 (1, 3, 3) (2, 0, 3) (2, 1, 0)	$\frac{22}{(2, 1, 1)}$	23 (2, 1, 2)	24 (2, 1, 3) (2, 2, 0)	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 1)}$	$\frac{26}{(2, 2, 2)}$	27 (2, 2, 3) (2, 3, 0) (3, 0, 0)	28 (2, 3, 1) (3, 0, 1)	29 (2, 3, 2) (3, 0, 2)
20 (1, 3, 2) (2, 0, 2) 30 (2, 3, 3)	21 (1, 3, 3) (2, 0, 3) (2, 1, 0)	$\frac{22}{(2, 1, 1)}$	23 (2, 1, 2)	24 (2, 1, 3) (2, 2, 0)	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 1)}$	$\frac{26}{(2, 2, 2)}$	27 (2, 2, 3) (2, 3, 0) (3, 0, 0)	28 (2, 3, 1) (3, 0, 1)	29 (2, 3, 2) (3, 0, 2)
20 (1, 3, 2) (2, 0, 2) 30 (2, 3, 3) (3, 0, 3)	21 (1, 3, 3) (2, 0, 3) (2, 1, 0)	$\frac{22}{(2, 1, 1)}$	23 (2, 1, 2)	24 (2, 1, 3) (2, 2, 0)	25 (2, 2, 1)	26 (2, 2, 2)	27 (2, 2, 3) (2, 3, 0) (3, 0, 0)	28 (2, 3, 1) (3, 0, 1)	29 (2, 3, 2) (3, 0, 2)

▶
$$\mathfrak{B}_2 = (p = 31, n = 3, \gamma = 4, \rho = 4)$$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(0, 0, 0)	(0, 0, 1)	(0, 0, 2)	(0, 0, 3)	(0, 1, 0)	(0, 1, 1)	(0, 1, 2)	(0, 1, 3)	(0, 2, 0)	(0, 2, 1)
(1, 3, 3)	(2, 0, 0)	(2, 0, 1)	(2, 0, 2)	(2, 0, 3)	(2, 1, 0)	(2, 1, 1)	(2, 1, 2)	(2, 1, 3)	(2, 2, 0)
(3, 3, 2)	(3, 3, 3)								
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
(0, 2, 2)	(0, 2, 3)	(0, 3, 0)	(0, 3, 1)	(0, 3, 2)	(0, 3, 3)	(1, 0, 0)	(1, 0, 1)	(1, 0, 2)	(1, 0, 3)
(2, 2, 1)	(2, 2, 2)	(2, 2, 3)	(2, 3, 0)	(2, 3, 1)	(2, 3, 2)	(2, 3, 3)	(3, 0, 0)	(3, 0, 1)	(3, 0, 2)
20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
(1, 1, 0)	(1, 1, 1)	(1, 1, 2)	(1, 1, 3)	(1, 2, 0)	(1, 2, 1)	(1, 2, 2)	(1, 2, 3)	(1, 3, 0)	(1, 3, 1)
(3, 0, 3)	(3, 1, 0)	(3, 1, 1)	(3, 1, 2)	(3, 1, 3)	(3, 2, 0)	(3, 2, 1)	(3, 2, 2)	(3, 2, 3)	(3, 3, 0)
30]								
(1, 3, 2) (3, 3, 1)									

Change of the radix γ

> $\mathfrak{B}_3 = (p = 31, n = 3, \gamma = 11, \rho = 4)$

0	4	0	0	1		0		0	0
U	1	2	3	4	Э	0		6	9
(0, 0, 0)	(0, 0, 1)	(0, 0, 2)	(0, 0, 3)	(0, 3, 2)	(0, 3, 3)	(2, 1, 1)	(2, 1, 2)	(1, 1, 0)	(1, 1, 1)
(1, 0, 3)	(1, 3, 2)	(0, 3, 0)	(0, 3, 1)	(3, 1, 2)	(2, 1, 0)			(2, 1, 3)	
(1, 3, 1)		(1, 3, 3)	(3, 1, 1)		(3, 1, 3)				
		(3, 1, 0)							
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
(1, 1, 2)	(0, 1, 0)	(0, 1, 1)	(0, 1, 2)	(0, 1, 3)	(3, 2, 2)	(2, 2, 0)	(2, 2, 1)	(2, 2, 2)	(1, 2, 0)
	(1, 1, 3)		(3, 2, 0)	(3, 2, 1)		(3, 2, 3)			(2, 2, 3)
20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
(1, 2, 1)	(1, 2, 2)	(0, 2, 0)	(0, 2, 1)	(0, 2, 2)	(0, 2, 3)	(2, 0, 1)	(2, 0, 2)	(1, 0, 0)	(1, 0, 1)
		(1, 2, 3)	(3, 0, 1)	(3, 0, 2)	(2, 0, 0)	(3, 3, 2)	(2, 3, 0)	(2, 0, 3)	(2, 3, 2)
		(3, 0, 0)		(3, 3, 0)	(3, 0, 3)		(3, 3, 3)	(2, 3, 1)	
					(3, 3, 1)				
30									
(1, 0, 2)									
(1, 3, 0)									
(2, 3, 3)									

> $\mathfrak{B}_4 = (p = 31, n = 3, \gamma = 17, \rho = 4)$

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(0, 0, 0)	(0, 0, 1)	(0, 0, 2)	(0, 0, 3)	(0, 2, 1)	(0, 2, 2)	(0, 2, 3)	(2, 1, 1)	(2, 1, 2)	(2, 1, 3)
(1, 3, 1)	(1, 3, 2)	(1, 3, 3)	(0, 2, 0)	(3, 2, 2)	(3, 2, 3)	(2, 1, 0)			(2, 3, 0)
(3, 0, 1)	(3, 0, 2)	(3, 0, 3)	(3, 2, 1)						
		(3, 2, 0)							
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
(1, 0, 0)	(1, 0, 1)	(1, 0, 2)	(1, 0, 3)	(1, 2, 1)	(1, 2, 2)	(1, 2, 3)	(0, 1, 0)	(0, 1, 1)	(0, 1, 2)
(2, 3, 1)	(2, 3, 2)	(2, 3, 3)	(1, 2, 0)			(3, 1, 0)	(3, 1, 1)	(3, 1, 2)	(3, 1, 3)
									(3, 3, 0)
20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
$\frac{20}{(0, 1, 3)}$	(0, 3, 1)	$\frac{22}{(0, 3, 2)}$	$\frac{23}{(0, 3, 3)}$	(2, 2, 1)	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 2)}$	26 (2, 2, 3)	27 (1, 1, 0)	28 (1, 1, 1)	$\frac{29}{(1, 1, 2)}$
20 (0, 1, 3) (0, 3, 0)	21 (0, 3, 1) (2, 0, 1)	22 (0, 3, 2) (2, 0, 2)	23 (0, 3, 3) (2, 0, 3)	$\frac{24}{(2, 2, 1)}$	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 2)}$	$\frac{26}{(2, 2, 3)}$	$\frac{27}{(1, 1, 0)}$	$\frac{28}{(1, 1, 1)}$	$\frac{29}{(1, 1, 2)}$
20 (0, 1, 3) (0, 3, 0) (2, 0, 0)	21 (0, 3, 1) (2, 0, 1) (3, 3, 2)	22 (0, 3, 2) (2, 0, 2) (3, 3, 3)	23 (0, 3, 3) (2, 0, 3) (2, 2, 0)	$\frac{24}{(2, 2, 1)}$	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 2)}$	$\frac{26}{(2, 2, 3)}$	27 (1, 1, 0)	$\frac{28}{(1, 1, 1)}$	$\frac{29}{(1, 1, 2)}$
20 (0, 1, 3) (0, 3, 0) (2, 0, 0) (3, 3, 1)	21 (0, 3, 1) (2, 0, 1) (3, 3, 2)	$\begin{array}{c} 22 \\ (0, 3, 2) \\ (2, 0, 2) \\ (3, 3, 3) \end{array}$	23 (0, 3, 3) (2, 0, 3) (2, 2, 0)	$\frac{24}{(2, 2, 1)}$	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 2)}$	26 (2, 2, 3)	27 (1, 1, 0)	28 (1, 1, 1)	$\frac{29}{(1, 1, 2)}$
$\begin{array}{c} 20 \\ (0, 1, 3) \\ (0, 3, 0) \\ (2, 0, 0) \\ (3, 3, 1) \\ \hline 30 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 21 \\ (0, 3, 1) \\ (2, 0, 1) \\ (3, 3, 2) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 22 \\ (0, 3, 2) \\ (2, 0, 2) \\ (3, 3, 3) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23 \\ (0, 3, 3) \\ (2, 0, 3) \\ (2, 2, 0) \end{array}$	$\frac{24}{(2, 2, 1)}$	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 2)}$	$\frac{26}{(2, 2, 3)}$	27 (1, 1, 0)	$\frac{28}{(1, 1, 1)}$	$\frac{29}{(1, 1, 2)}$
$\begin{array}{r} 20 \\ \hline (0, 1, 3) \\ (0, 3, 0) \\ (2, 0, 0) \\ (3, 3, 1) \\ \hline 30 \\ \hline (1, 1, 3) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 21 \\ (0, 3, 1) \\ (2, 0, 1) \\ (3, 3, 2) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 22 \\ (0, 3, 2) \\ (2, 0, 2) \\ (3, 3, 3) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23 \\ (0, 3, 3) \\ (2, 0, 3) \\ (2, 2, 0) \end{array}$	$\frac{24}{(2, 2, 1)}$	$\frac{25}{(2, 2, 2)}$	26 (2, 2, 3)	27 (1, 1, 0)	$\frac{28}{(1, 1, 1)}$	$\frac{29}{(1, 1, 2)}$
$\begin{array}{r} 20 \\ (0, 1, 3) \\ (0, 3, 0) \\ (2, 0, 0) \\ (3, 3, 1) \\ \hline 30 \\ (1, 1, 3) \\ (1, 3, 0) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 21 \\ (0, 3, 1) \\ (2, 0, 1) \\ (3, 3, 2) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 22\\ (0,3,2)\\ (2,0,2)\\ (3,3,3)\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 23 \\ (0, 3, 3) \\ (2, 0, 3) \\ (2, 2, 0) \end{array}$	24 (2, 2, 1)	25 (2, 2, 2)	26 (2, 2, 3)	27 (1, 1, 0)	28 (1, 1, 1)	$\frac{29}{(1, 1, 2)}$

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