

# A survey of hyperelliptic pairings

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- ▶ I suggested using supersingular hyperelliptic curves, to get larger embedding degrees.
- ▶ We can ask: Was this a good suggestion?
- ▶ After 6 years of research, the answer is: Yes and No.
- ▶ Yes: Generated lots of interesting research and open problems.
- ▶ No: Hyperelliptic curves usually less practical for pairings than elliptic curves.

## Executive summary

With current knowledge on pairing implementation, I recommend using elliptic curves for pairing-based cryptography.



# Plan of talk

Joint work with Florian Hess and Frederik Vercauteren

- ▶ Brief introduction to hyperelliptic curves.
- ▶ Ate pairings and pairing implementation.
- ▶ Comparison between elliptic and hyperelliptic curves.
- ▶ Rubin-Silverberg compression.
- ▶ Torsion structure.
- ▶ Conclusions and open problems.
- ▶ If time: Pairing inversion.

# Hyperelliptic curves

A **hyperelliptic curve** over a field  $\mathbb{F}_q$  is the curve associated with a non-singular equation of the form

$$C : y^2 + h(x)y = f(x)$$

where  $h(x), f(x) \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$ .

Usually:  $\deg(f(x)) = 2g + 1$  and  $\deg(h(x)) \leq g$  in which case there is a single point  $\infty$  and the curve has genus  $g$ .

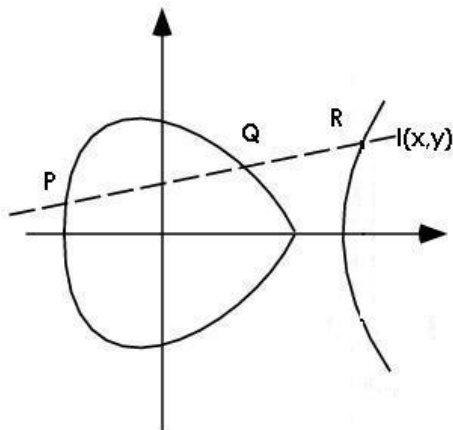
If the genus is 1 then we call the curve **elliptic**.

**Example:**  $y^2 = x^5 + 1$  has genus 2.

## Elliptic curve group law

For elliptic curves there is a group law on points given by a geometric procedure.

The rule is that  $P + Q + R = 0$  if  $P$ ,  $Q$  and  $R$  are the points of intersection (counting multiplicities) of the curve with a line.



## Hyperelliptic group law

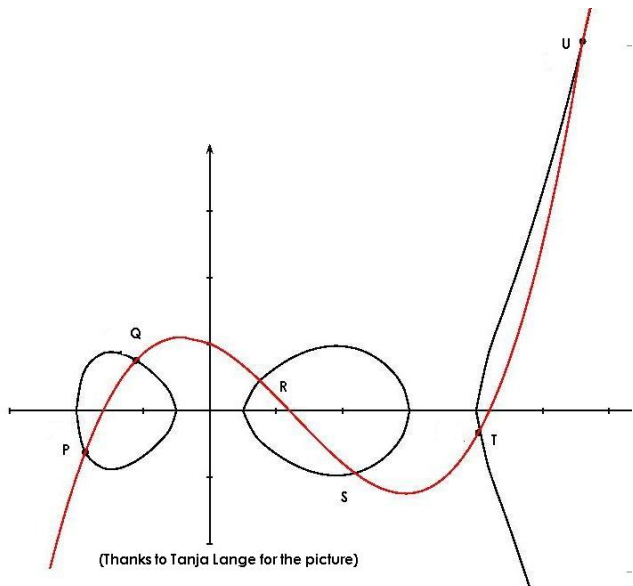
For genus  $g \geq 2$  there is not a group law on points, but one can obtain a geometric group law on sets of points.

Let  $D_1, D_2, D_3$  be (multi-)sets of points.

Then  $D_1 + D_2 + D_3 = 0$  if there is curve  $F$  such that the intersection of  $C$  and  $F$  (counting multiplicities) is exactly the (multi-)set  $D_1 \cup D_2 \cup D_3$ .

## Hyperelliptic group law

$$\{P, Q\} + \{R, S\} + \{T, U\} = 0$$



# Divisor class group of a curve

The precise definitions use the language of divisors. See the *Handbook of Elliptic and Hyperelliptic Cryptography* for background.

Get divisor class group  $\text{Pic}_{\mathbb{F}_q}^0(C)$ .

In the case of genus 1,  $\text{Pic}_{\mathbb{F}_q}^0(E) = E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ .

# Mumford representation for divisors

Each divisor class has a **reduced representative**

$$E - d(\infty)$$

where  $d \leq g$  and  $E = (P_1) + (P_2) + \cdots + (P_d)$  where  $P_i = (x_i, y_i) \in C(\overline{\mathbb{F}}_q)$  and  $P_i \neq -P_j$  for  $i \neq j$ .

Such a divisor is represented as a pair  $u_E(x), v_E(x) \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$  where

$$u_E(x) = \prod_{i=1}^d (x - x_i),$$

$$v_E(x_i) = y_i$$

and

$$v_E(x)^2 + h(x)v_E(x) - f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{u_E(x)}.$$

# Addition of divisors

Cantor's algorithm gives addition and reduction of divisors in Mumford representation.

See Algorithm 1 in the paper.

It is straightforward to obtain the functions needed for Miller's algorithm.

For fast implementations use optimised explicit formulae (Harley, Lange,...).



## Group sizes

**Theorem:** If  $C$  is a curve of genus  $g$  then the divisor class group has order

$$(\sqrt{q} - 1)^{2g} \leq \#\mathrm{Pic}_{\mathbb{F}_q}^0(C) \leq (\sqrt{q} + 1)^{2g}.$$

If  $q$  is large compared with  $g$  then this is  $\approx q^g$ .

## Advantages of hyperelliptic over elliptic

- ▶ Security of the DLP depends on the size of the largest prime divisor of the order of the group.

So for elliptic curves over  $\mathbb{F}_q$  need  $q > 2^{160}$ .

For genus 2 can have  $q \approx 2^{80}$  and for genus 3 can have  $q \approx 2^{54}$ .

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In other words, *have a more complicated group law but over a smaller field.*
- ▶ Use special curve equations to simplify explicit formulae for the group law (see Lange and Lange-Stevens).
- ▶ Use **degenerate divisors**  $(P) - (\infty)$  rather than  $(P_1) + (P_2) + \cdots + (P_g) - g(\infty)$  (Katagi-Akishita-Kitamura-Takagi).

# Pairings on hyperelliptic curves

- ▶ T. Okamoto and K. Sakurai, CRYPTO 1991.
- ▶ G. Frey and H.-G. Rück, Math. Comp. 1994.

# Pairings

I assume that everyone here knows something about pairings.

Let  $C$  be a curve over  $\mathbb{F}_q$ .

Let  $r \mid \#\text{Pic}_{\mathbb{F}_q}^0(C)$ .

Let  $k$  be smallest positive integer such that  $r \mid (q^k - 1)$ .  
We call  $k$  the embedding degree.

Let  $P, Q \in \text{Pic}_{\mathbb{F}_{q^k}}^0(C)$  have order  $r$ .

Let  $G_1 = \langle P \rangle$  and  $G_2 = \langle Q \rangle$ .

Let  $G_T = \mu_r = \{z \in \mathbb{F}_{q^k} : z^r = 1\}$ .

For security need, say,  $r > 2^{160}$  and  $q^k > 2^{1024}$  (or  $2^{2048}$ ?)

# Tate-Lichtenbaum pairing

There is a function  $f_{r,P}$  which has a zero of multiplicity  $r$  at  $P$  and pole of multiplicity  $r$  at  $\infty$  and which is normalised appropriately at  $\infty$ .

The **reduced Tate-Lichtenbaum pairing** is

$$e(P, Q) = f_{r,P}(Q)^{(q^k-1)/r}.$$

**Lemma:** If  $r \mid N \mid (q^k - 1)$  then

$$e(P, Q) = f_{N,P}(Q)^{(q^k-1)/N}.$$

## Developments in pairing implementation

- ▶ Duursma and Lee were the first to exploit values  $N$  which are not multiples of  $r$ .  
These ideas were extended by Barreto, Galbraith, O hÉigearthaigh and Scott (eta pairing) and Hess, Smart, Vercauteren (ate pairing).



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- ▶ One of the key ideas is to use values  $N$  which are smaller than the order of  $P$ .  
This is called **loop shortening**.

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- ▶ One of the key ideas is to use values  $N$  which are smaller than the order of  $P$ .  
This is called **loop shortening**.
- ▶ One gets fast pairing computation on certain curves.

## Elliptic ate pairing

Allows loop shortening depending on the size of the trace of Frobenius  $t$ .

Suitable curves maybe generated using the Brezing-Weng method.

Other talks, such as Mike Scott's, will present examples of this.

## Hyperelliptic ate pairing

$G_1 = \text{Pic}_{\mathbb{F}_q}^0(C)[r]$  (1-eigenspace of  $\pi := q$ -power Frobenius)

$G_2 = \text{Pic}_{\mathbb{F}_{q^k}}^0(C)[r] \cap \ker(\pi - q)$  ( $q$ -eigenspace of  $\pi$ )

**Theorem:** (Granger, Hess, Oyono, Thériault, Vercauteren)

Let  $D_1 = E_1 - d_1(\infty) \in G_1$  and  $D_2 = E_2 - d_2(\infty) \in G_2$  be reduced divisors. (Assume supports of  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are disjoint).

Let  $[q]D_2$  be the reduced divisor equivalent to  $qD_2$ . Denote by  $f_{q,D_2}$  the function with divisor  $qD_2 - [q]D_2$  with leading coefficient 1 with respect to an  $\mathbb{F}_q$ -rational uniformizer at  $\infty$ .

Then

$$a(D_2, D_1) = f_{q,D_2}(E_1)$$

defines a non-degenerate bilinear pairing

$$a : G_2 \times G_1 \rightarrow \mu_r.$$

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- ▶ **Note:** No final exponentiation!
- ▶ But only if all denominators computed.  
In practice, it is better to avoid computing denominators and use a final exponentiation.
- ▶ Hence, there seems to be no practical advantage to not needing the final exponentiation!
- ▶ Worse: lack of final exponentiation may make pairing inversion easier.

# Implementation of the ate pairing

- ▶ As usual, one uses Miller's algorithm with various standard implementation tricks.
- ▶ Have to evaluate functions at divisor  $E = (u_E(x), y - v_E(x))$ . This can be done using resultants.



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- ▶ There is a connection with norms in function fields.
- ▶ See the paper for more details.

## Example (Barreto, G., Ó hÉigeartaigh, Scott)

(Using eta pairing)

Consider

$$C : y^2 + y = x^5 + x^3 + d \quad d \in \{0, 1\}$$

over  $\mathbb{F}_{2^m}$  with  $\gcd(m, 6) = 1$ .

Genus 2, embedding degree  $k = 12$ .

Pairing degenerate divisors using the eta pairing over  $\mathbb{F}_{2^{103}}$  gives the fastest pairing computation time in software.

## Example (Barreto, G., Ó hÉigearthaigh, Scott)

But:

- ▶ The implementation exploits 128-bit architecture.
- ▶ Degenerate divisors not necessarily secure for these parameters.  
(e.g., if using  $H(ID) = (P) - (\infty)$  then probability of hash collision only about  $1/2^{52}$ .)  
Using non-degenerate divisors slower than elliptic case.

# Comparing elliptic and hyperelliptic pairings

Consider

$$e : G_1 \times G_2 \rightarrow G_T.$$

Many criteria for comparison:

- ▶ Computation time for  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$ ,  $G_T$  and pairing computation.
- ▶ Size of representation for  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$ ,  $G_T$ .
- ▶ Flexibility and efficiency of parameter generation.
- ▶ Any other special properties.

See paper for full details.

## Comparing elliptic and hyperelliptic pairings

Recall that one of the main advantages of hyperelliptic curves is that  $q$  can be smaller (i.e., *have a more complicated group law but over a smaller field*).

However, for pairings applications the field  $\mathbb{F}_{q^k}$  has to be large independent of the genus.

Hence, at least one of  $G_1, G_2$ , *have a more complicated group law but over the same sized field*.

Similarly, in Miller's algorithm, evaluating more complicated functions at more complicated divisors over the same sized field. Hence, intuitively, pairings on curves of genus  $g \geq 2$  cannot be faster than elliptic curves.

# Comparison of loop shortening methods

In genus  $g$  the loop shortening is by a factor  $1/g$ .

For elliptic curves the loop shortening can be by a factor  $\varphi(k)$ .  
(Note: also need  $k$  quite large, maximising  $\varphi(k)$  alone is not desirable.)

Hence, one can usually match the loop shortening in the hyperelliptic case by using elliptic curves.

## Embedding degrees

- ▶ The original motivation for hyperelliptic curves was larger  $k$ .
- ▶ Since group size is  $q^g$  and embedding is into (a subfield of)  $\mathbb{F}_{q^k}^*$  the right measure of security expansion is  $k/g$ .



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But supersingular curves have  $k/g \leq 7.5$  for small genus  $g$ .
- ▶ Future security needs larger  $k/g$ , so use ordinary curves.
- ▶ In the elliptic case there has been great success with ordinary pairing-friendly curves (e.g., Cocks-Pinch, Barreto-Lynn-Scott, Brezing-Weng, Barreto-Naehrig, Freeman-Scott-Teske).
- ▶ Much less success for hyperelliptic curves (Freeman).  
Indeed, no good non-supersingular example known, which is a pity.  
Improving these methods is an interesting research problem.

# Rubin-Silverberg compression

- ▶ Rubin and Silverberg proposed an alternative way to view pairings on abelian varieties.
- ▶ They observe that many supersingular abelian varieties can be identified with subvarieties of Weil restrictions of supersingular elliptic curves.
- ▶ An alternative way to view their method is as a form of point compression for elliptic curves.
- ▶ Their method has the effect of making an elliptic curve look like it has larger embedding degree.
- ▶ Their method works for all elliptic curves, not only supersingular curves.
- ▶ For details see the paper.

## Rubin-Silverberg compression

For example, the supersingular genus 2 curve over  $\mathbb{F}_{2^m}$  with  $k = 12$  has group order  $2^{2m} \pm 2^{(3m+1)/2} + 2^m \pm 2^{(m+1)/2} + 1$ .

A subgroup of the same order can be obtained using a supersingular elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{F}_{2^{3m}}$  with  $k = 4$ .

The Rubin-Silverberg compression means that group elements require the same storage.

Hence one gets more-or-less the same functionality using elliptic curves with  $k = 4$  as with the genus 2 curve with  $k = 12$ .

# Torsion structures

- ▶ Some protocols in pairing-based cryptography (or even non-pairing cryptography, e.g., vector decomposition problem) use fact that elliptic curves give non-cyclic groups.
- ▶ Subgroup membership can be tested using the Weil pairing as, for  $P, Q \neq \infty$  of prime order  $r$  we have

$$e_r(P, Q) = 1 \text{ iff } Q \in \langle P \rangle.$$

- ▶ In genus  $g \geq 2$  then the torsion structures are even more rich. Are there new applications for this?

## Torsion structures

**Lemma:** Let  $A$  be a supersingular abelian surface over  $\mathbb{F}_q$  with characteristic polynomial of Frobenius  $T^4 + aT^2 + q^2$ .

Let  $r \parallel \#A(\mathbb{F}_q)$

Then the eigenvalues of Frobenius on  $A[r]$  are  $1, -1, q, -q$ .

Let  $D_1, D_2, D_3, D_4$  be an ordered eigenbasis for  $A[r]$ .

Let  $e$  be a Galois invariant non-degenerate pairing.

Then

$$e(D_i, D_j) = 1$$

unless  $(i, j) = (1, 3), (3, 1), (2, 4), (4, 2)$ .

# Conclusions

- ▶ For non-pairing cryptography there are potential advantages of using hyperelliptic curves of genus  $g \geq 2$ .  
It is thus natural to consider hyperelliptic curves for pairing-based cryptography.
- ▶ Our analysis indicates that, in practice, hyperelliptic curves are not more efficient than elliptic curves for general pairing applications.
- ▶ The only potentially significant advantage seems to be the speed of operations in  $G_1$ .  
Hence, hyperelliptic curves may be preferable for protocols with few pairing computations but many operations in  $G_1$ .
- ▶ But, hyperelliptic pairings still a good research area!

## Open problems

- ▶ Can further loop shortening be performed for the hyperelliptic Tate pairing?
- ▶ Give methods to construct non-supersingular pairing friendly curves of genus  $g \geq 2$  and  $k$  in the range, say,  $6g \leq k \leq 30g$ . Ideally, these curves would have a single point at infinity and would have useful twists.
- ▶ Work in progress of my student Dave Mireles gives fast methods to compute pairings on hyperelliptic curves with two points at infinity.
- ▶ Can also consider implementation of pairings for non-hyperelliptic curves, although security is less good due to Diem's index calculus method.
- ▶ Consider whether efficient and secure pairing-based cryptosystems can be developed for curves of genus  $g > 3$ , in spite of the index calculus attacks on curves in this case.



## Open problems

- ▶ Exploit the richer torsion structure available for abelian varieties.  
In particular, find cryptographic applications of pairings on groups which require 3 or more generators.  
A related problem is to give efficient methods to choose divisors in the particular subgroups.
- ▶ Improve the efficiency of the Rubin-Silverberg elliptic curve point decomposition method.
- ▶ Generalise the Rubin-Silverberg method to divisor class groups of curves of genus  $g \geq 2$ .
- ▶ Recall in the Rubin-Silverberg construction one can identify certain abelian varieties with subvarieties of the Weil restriction of supersingular curves.  
In the case where the abelian variety is a Jacobian, is there a way to compute explicit homomorphisms between the elliptic curve representation and the Jacobian representation?

# Pairing inversion

Pairing-based cryptography relies on new computational problems.

It is important that these problems are studied, to give assurance that pairing-based cryptography is secure.

See “Aspects of pairing inversion” cryptography eprint 2007/256.

Also see talk by Satoh.

# Pairing inversion problems

Let  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$  and  $\mu_r$  be cyclic groups of prime order  $r$ .

Consider any non-degenerate bilinear pairing

$$e : G_1 \times G_2 \longrightarrow \mu_r.$$

**Fixed Argument Pairing Inversion 1 (FAPI-1):** Given  $P \in G_1$  and  $z \in \mu_r$ , compute  $Q \in G_2$  such that  $e(P, Q) = z$ .

**Fixed Argument Pairing Inversion 2 (FAPI-2):** Given  $Q \in G_2$  and  $z \in \mu_r$ , compute  $P \in G_1$  such that  $e(P, Q) = z$ .

## Evidence that these are hard problems

- ▶ Verheul considered the problem of computing a group homomorphism from  $\mu_r$  to  $E(\mathbb{F}_q)[r]$  and showed a number of striking consequences.  
We generalise his result.

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- ▶ Verheul considered the problem of computing a group homomorphism from  $\mu_r$  to  $E(\mathbb{F}_q)[r]$  and showed a number of striking consequences.  
We generalise his result.
- ▶ **Theorem:** Let  $E$  be an elliptic curve with a pairing as above. Suppose one can solve FAPI-1 and FAPI-2 in polynomial time. Then the Diffie-Hellman problem in  $\mu_r$  and the Diffie-Hellman problem in  $E(\mathbb{F}_q)[r]$  may be solved in polynomial time.

## Connection to bilinear Diffie-Hellman

**Bilinear-Diffie-Hellman problem (BDH-1)** is: given  $P, aP, bP \in G_1$  and  $Q \in G_2$  to compute  $e(P, Q)^{ab}$ .

**Theorem:** Suppose one can solve FAPI-1 in polynomial time, then one can solve BDH-1 in polynomial time.

**Note:** It is sufficient to be able to invert **one** pairing on  $G_1 \times G_2$  to break BDH-1 for **all** pairings on  $G_1 \times G_2$ .

## Example

The curve  $E : y^2 = x^3 + 4$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  with  $p = 41761713112311845269$  has  $t = -1$ ,  $r = 715827883$ ,  $k = 31$  and  $D = -3$ .

Now  $T = -2$  and the ate pairing is

$$e(Q, P) = (y_P - (3x_Q^2)/(2y_Q)x_P - (-x_Q^3 + 8)/(2y_Q))^{(q^k-1)/(3r)}$$

Pairing inversion for fixed  $(Q, z)$  is to find  $x, y \in \mathbb{F}_p$  such that

$$(y - \lambda x - \nu)^d = z$$

for  $d = (q^k - 1)/(3r)$  and  $\lambda, \nu \in \mathbb{F}_{p^k}$  as above.

## Example

Problem is that there are too many  $d$ -th roots of  $z$  to try.

Is it possible to efficiently determine a  $d$ -th root of  $z$  of the correct form?

Seems that the final exponentiation gives the security in this case.



## Duursma-Lee example

Consider the Duursma-Lee curves

$$C : y^2 = x^p - x + b \quad \text{where} \quad b = \pm 1$$

over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  with  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .

Have genus  $g = (p - 1)/2$  and embedding degree  $k = 2p$

Take  $p = 83$ .

Then  $\#\text{Pic}_{\mathbb{F}_{83}}^0(C) \approx 2^{262}$  and  $k = 2p = 166$  so  $\mathbb{F}_{83^k} \approx 2^{1058}$ .

## Duursma-Lee example

Let  $P, Q \in C(\mathbb{F}_{83})$ .

The Duursma-Lee/eta pairing of  $P$  with  $\psi(Q)$  for usual distortion map  $\psi$  is

$$z = (g_P(\psi(Q)) / (x_{\psi(Q)} - x_P^{p^2} - 2b))^2.$$

To solve FAPI-1 for this pairing: For each square root  $z^{1/2}$ :

Compute  $f(x, y) = g_P(x, y) - z^{1/2}(x - x_P^{p^2} - 2b)$ .

Take resultant with  $y^2 = x^p - x + b$  to get a polynomial in  $x$  of degree  $p + 1$ .

Find roots in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , recover  $y$  and check solution.

## Duursma-Lee example

So pairing inversion to a single point is easy.

Problem is that expect the pre-image to be a general divisor.

Solving for a general divisor involves solving a large system of polynomial equations and seems to be hard.

# Conclusions

So far we have not found a single example of a pairing which can be efficiently inverted.

Hence our research supports the claim that pairing-based cryptography is secure.