

Efficient pairing computation on Barreto-Naehrig elliptic curves of embedding degree 12

Séminaire 3A – Option Mathématiques Appliquées
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Cryptography 1/3 : context

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- ▶ *Cryptography* : “practice and study of techniques for secure communication in the presence of third parties” (Wikipedia).
- ▶ *Basic setting* : Alice, Bob, Eve.
- ▶ *Applications* : nearly everywhere.

Cryptography 2/3 : setting

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- ▶ (*Symmetric-key crypto* : shared, secret, key)
- ▶ (*Public-key crypto* : public/private key (pk/sk))
- ▶ (*Basic setting* : finite groups and fields)

Intermission : Diffie-Hellman key agreement

Alice and Bob want to agree on a key.

- ▶ They agree on $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Z}/181\mathbb{Z}$.
- ▶ They agree on $g = 42$ ($\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{K}$)
- ▶ Alice chooses her secret key $a = 107$
- ▶ Bob chooses his secret key $b = 99$
- ▶ Alice computes her public key $A = ag = 4494 \equiv 150 \pmod{181}$
- ▶ Bob computes his public key $B = bg = 4158 \equiv 176 \pmod{181}$
- ▶ They share their public keys.

Alice can compute $aB = 8$, Bob can compute $Ab = 8$. Bingo.

Cryptography 3/3 : hypotheses and limits

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Fundamental assumption of public-key crypto :

- ▶ $sk \rightarrow pk$ *easy*
- ▶ $pk \rightarrow sk$ *very hard*

Discrete logarithm problem (DLP) :

$$a = x^b, \quad x = ?$$

On usual groups $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})$, not always that hard...

Larger groups ? Other groups ?

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Elliptic curves 1/5 : definition

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Definition

An elliptic curve over a field $\mathbb{K}$ is a non-singular complete curve of genus 1, with a distinguished point “at infinity”.

In the cases we are interested in [20, 16] :

Definition

An *elliptic curve* E over a field $\mathbb{K}$ is defined by an equation of the form

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{K} \quad (\text{Weierstrass equation})$$

along with a distinguished point P_∞

Elliptic curves 2/5 : illustration

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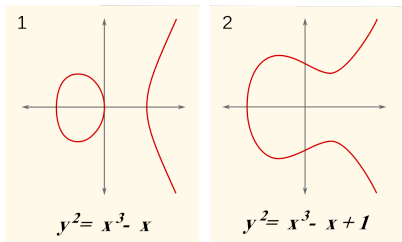


Figure: Two different elliptic curves considered in $\mathbb{R}$.

Elliptic curves 3/5 : abelian group structure

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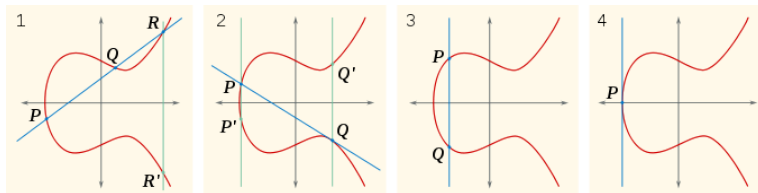


Figure: Sums on an elliptic curve. Four different cases are presented, the general one (1), when $Q = R$ (2), when $P = -Q$ (3) and when $P = Q = R$ (4)

We can use elliptic curves for their group structure

- ▶ $k \cdot P = P + \dots + P$
- ▶ $P = (x, y) \Rightarrow -P = (x, -y)$
- ▶ P_∞ is the identity

No sub-exponential solution to the DLP known !

- ▶ Same “old” algorithms : RSA, etc.
- ▶ Smaller keys for the same level of security

Not all curves are suitable for cryptography... oftentimes, special properties are understood as weaknesses and looked upon warily.

But we can turn weaknesses into strengths !

- ▶ Endomorphisms !
- ▶ Pairings !

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Point multiplication : the operation of computing

$$k \cdot P = P + \cdots + P$$

- ▶ Adding is tiresome (remember)
- ▶ Doubling is not harder : double-and-add algorithm

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} 33 \cdot P &= 100001_2 \cdot P \\ &= P + 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot P \end{aligned}$$

(5 doublings + 1 addition)

Remember : small multiplications are faster.

Some curves have *shortcuts* :

$$\phi : P \mapsto Q = \lambda P$$

where ϕ is “easy” to compute. Example [25, 11] :

$$\begin{aligned} E_1 : y^2 &= x^3 + ax \\ \phi : (x, y) &\mapsto (-x, \beta y) \end{aligned}$$

where β is an element of order 4.

Gallant, Lambert and Vanstone [11, 25] propose to use such endomorphisms to *speed-up point multiplication*

- ▶ Identify ϕ such that $\phi(P) = \lambda P$
- ▶ Break down $kP = k_1P + k_2\lambda P = k_1P + k_2\phi(P)$
- ▶ Compute $k_1P + k_2\phi(P)$

1 big multiplication $\Rightarrow$ 2 small ones + 1 addition

Gallant-Lambert-Vanstone method

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The hard part:

- ▶ Find an efficient endomorphism ϕ
- ▶ Find k_1 and k_2

The reward:

- ▶ Faster computation, hence, algorithms

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- ▶ Introduced in ECC to attack the DLP (Menezes, Okamoto and Vanstone [19]).
- ▶ Have many interesting applications : identity-based encryption, short signatures...
- ▶ Make “weak” curves more interesting

A pairing is essentially a function

$$e : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$$

so that

$$e(aP, Q) = e(P, Q)^a = e(P, aQ)$$

$$e(P, Q) \neq 1 \text{ if } P, Q \neq P_\infty$$

Examples : Weil pairing, Tate pairing (Eta pairing, Ate pairing, twisted Ate pairing...)

Definition

A *divisor* $D \in \text{Div}(E)$ is a formal sum of points on the elliptic curve E :

$$D = \sum_{P \in E} a_P(P)$$

with $a_P \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a_P = 0$ except for finitely many $P \in E$.

Definition

Given f a function defined on the elliptic curve E , the *divisor of f* is :

$$\text{div}(f) = \sum_{P \in E} \text{ord}_P(f)(P)$$

where $\text{ord}_P(f)$ is the order of the zero (or the pole) which f has at the point P and it is positive if P is a zero and negative otherwise.

Definition

Tate pairing of P and Q :

$$\mathcal{A}_P \sim (P) - (P_\infty)$$

$$\mathcal{A}_Q \sim (Q) - (P_\infty)$$

$$f_P \text{ s.t. } \operatorname{div}(f_P) = n\mathcal{A}_Q$$

$$t_l(P, Q) = f_P(\mathcal{A}_Q)$$

it has to be raised to the power $(q^k - 1)/l$ to obtain a unique value.

Properties of the Tate pairing

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- bilinearity:

$$t_l(P_1 + P_2, Q) = t_l(P_1, Q)t_l(P_2, Q)$$

$$t_l(P, Q_1 + Q_2) = t_l(P, Q_1)t_l(P, Q_2)$$

- non-degeneracy:

$$\text{if } t_l(P, Q) = 1 \text{ for all } Q \text{ then } P = P_\infty$$

- compatibility:

$$P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)[l], Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_{q^k})[hl] \Rightarrow t_{hl}(h \cdot P, Q) = t_l(P, Q)^h$$

How to compute the Tate pairing

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- ▶ (modified) Miller's algorithm
- ▶ Essentially modified double-and-add...
- ▶ Can we improve computation with efficient endomorphisms à la GLV ?

Security versus efficiency

Definition

E defined on $\mathbb{F}_q$

r a number prime to q such that $r \mid \#E(\mathbb{F}_q)$

embedding degree with respect to r : $k \in \mathbb{N}$ minimal with $r \mid (q^k - 1)$.

Definition

ρ -value :

$$\rho = \frac{\log q}{\log r}$$

Security versus efficiency

- ▶ k high : security improved
- ▶ ρ low : faster arithmetics

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Ionică-Joux pairing [13]

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The idea is to design a pairing based on an efficiently computable endomorphism ϕ such that its characteristic equation is $X^2 + aX + b = 0$.

Done on two types of curves :

- ▶ NSS : of form $y^2 = x^3 + B$ so take $\phi : (x, y) \rightarrow (\beta x, y)$ with β non trivial square root of unity ($k = 2$ and $\rho \sim 2$)
get an equation for $\lambda : \lambda^2 + \lambda + 1 = cr$
- ▶ Cocks-Pinch with $k = 4, 6$: take ϕ satisfying $x^2 + ax + b = 0$, get an equation for $\lambda : \lambda^2 + a\lambda + b = cr$

The pairing that is obtained is a power of the Tate Pairing.

Theorem

Let E on $\mathbb{F}_q$, r a prime number such that $r \mid \#E(\mathbb{F}_q)$, k the embedding degree with respect to r . Let ϕ be an efficiently computable separable endomorphism of E , whose characteristic equation is $X^2 + aX + b = 0$. Let $\mathbb{G}_1$ and $\mathbb{G}_2$ be the subgroups of order r whose elements are eigenvectors of ϕ defined over $\mathbb{F}(q)$ and $\mathbb{F}(q^k)$ respectively. Let λ be the eigenvalue of ϕ on $\mathbb{G}_1$, verifying $\lambda^2 + a\lambda + b = cr$ with $r \nmid bc$. Then the map $a_\phi(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q^k}^* / (\mathbb{F}_{q^k}^*)^r$ is a bilinear non-degenerate pairing :

$$a_\phi(P, Q) = f_{\lambda, P}^{\lambda+a}(bQ) f_{\lambda, P}^b(\hat{\phi}(Q)) f_{a, \lambda P}(bQ) f_{b, P}(bQ) \times$$

$$\left(\prod_{K \in \text{Ker } \phi \setminus \{P_\infty\}} \text{corr}_{P, K}(\hat{\phi}(Q)) \right)^{-\lambda} \left(\prod_{K \in \text{Ker } \phi \setminus \{P_\infty\}} \text{corr}_{\lambda P, K}(\hat{\phi}(Q)) \right) \times$$

$$\text{corr}_{\lambda^2 P, a\lambda P}(bQ) / \text{corr}_{\lambda^2 P + a\lambda P, bP}(bQ)$$

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Pairing-friendly curves

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Pairing-friendly : elliptic curve that has a small embedding degree and a large prime-order subgroup [8].

How to find such curves ?

- ▶ Chance ?
- ▶ Complex multiplication methods: Cocks-Pinch algorithm, Barreto-Naehrig curves etc.

Definition

A *BN curve* [1] is an elliptic curve E_b of the form $y^2 = x^3 + b$ defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$ such that $b \neq 0$ and $n = \#E_b(\mathbb{F}_p)$ and n, q and t (the trace of the Frobenius) are given by :

$$q = q(u) = 36u^4 + 36u^3 + 24u^2 + 6u + 1$$

$$n = n(u) = 36u^4 + 36u^3 + 18u^2 + 6u + 1$$

$$t = t(u) = 6u^2 + 1$$

Such a curve has embedding degree 12.

Example of BN curve

160 bits BN curve of prime order p and $k = 12$ [1]:

$$p = 1461501624496790265145448589920785493717258890819$$

$$n = 1461501624496790265145447380994971188499300027613$$

$$t = 1208925814305217958863207$$

$$b = 3$$

$$y = 2$$

Endomorphisms on BN curves

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BN curves are of the form

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + b$$

On these curves there exist an efficient endomorphism

$$\begin{aligned}\phi : E &\rightarrow E \\ (x, y) &\mapsto (\beta x, y)\end{aligned}$$

where β is a non-trivial third root of unity. This endomorphism satisfies $\phi^2 + \phi + 1 = 0$ ($a = b = 1$).

Example: on previous curve, $y^2 = x^3 + 3$. A third root of unity in $\mathbb{F}_p$ is

$$\beta = 2923003248995208495450923854321783187178438239430$$

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Ionică-Joux pairings

In the theorem, we use :

$$r = n = 1461501624496790265145447380994971188499300027613$$

$$k = 12$$

$$a = b = 1$$

$$c = 2$$

$$\lambda = 187659270257192420140128694203749166360656435260$$

We can check that $r \mid \#E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ and $r \nmid bc$.

$$P = (1, 2)$$

$$Q = (3255930320049722182981478447479429177, 1461501624496790265145447380994971188499300027613)$$

$$a(P, Q) = 2923003248996836460610944484172923855446079484403$$

which is a third root of unity.

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- ▶ Work may be done more quickly in the dual world, thanks to a skew Frobenius map [22] ;
- ▶ Computing independent functions in parallel and then computing products could improve performance [23] ;
- ▶ GLV enables faster computation directly in $\mathbb{G}_2$ and $\mathbb{G}_T$ when computing a pairing $\mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$ [10]



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