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LOW GENUS ALGEBRAIC CURVES IN CRYPTOGRAPHY

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty

of

Purdue University

by

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To my family.

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ABSTRACT

Ning Shang Ph.D., Purdue University, May, 2009. Low Genus Algebraic Curves in Cryptography. Major Professors: Samuel S. Wagstaff, Jr. and Michael J. Jacobson, Jr.

Preserving a strong connection between mathematics and information security, elliptic and hyperelliptic curve cryptography are playing an increasingly important role during the past decade. We present some problems that relate low genus curves and cryptography.

We first discuss a new application of elliptic curve cryptography (ECC) to a realworld problem of access control in secure broadcasting of data. The asymmetry, introduced by the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem, is the key to achieving the required security feature that existing methods fail to obtain.

We then talk about the use of genus 2 curves in the "real model" in cryptography, and present explicit divisor doubling formulas for such curves. These formulas are particularly important for implementation purposes.

Finally, we present a new method for finding cryptographically strong parameters for the CM construction of genus 2 curves. This method uses the idea of polynomial parameterization, which allows suitable parameters to be generated in batches. We give a brief analysis of the algorithm. We also provide algorithms for generating parameters for genus 2 curves to be used in pairing-based cryptography. Our method is an adaptation of the Cocks-Pinch construction for pairing-friendly elliptic curves. Our methods start from a prescribed embedding degree k and a primitive quartic CM field K, and output a prime subgroup order r of the Jacobian over a prime field \mathbb{F}_p , with $\rho = 2\log(p)/\log(r) \approx 8$.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Information security is playing an increasingly important role as communications over computer networks and the deployment of digital storage media start to spread their domination over the world. *Cryptography*, as the "study of mathematics techniques related to aspects of information security such as confidentiality, data integrity, entity identification, and data origin authentication" [1], since its first invention in the ancient times, has seen a remarkably rapid development in recent decades.

The 1976 paper [2] of W. Diffie and M. Hellman brought to people's attention for the first time one of the most important discoveries in the history of cryptography, the notion of *public-key cryptography*. Based on the idea of *trapdoor functions*, public-key cryptography (aka asymmetric cryptography) has provided practical new solutions to many problems in information security, such as secure key exchange over nonsecure channels, authentication and digital signatures, which traditional secret-key (aka symmetric-key) cryptography alone is unable to do. Though advantageous to use for secure communications, public-key cryptography is computationally costly for encryption/decryption compared to secret-key cryptographic algorithms. Hence in many cases, public-key cryptography is used to transmit the symmetric keys of secret-key algorithms. In the meantime, a lot of effort has been put into research of efficiency improvement for public-key cryptographic schemes.

Nowadays, two types of public-key cryptosystem have survived the examination of researchers and practitioners in areas of academia and industry, and are regarded as practical to use. Among these two types, schemes like RSA [3] were first recognized and studied; these are based on the difficulty of factoring large integers.

The other type of system is based on the discrete logarithm problem (DLP) in certain finite cyclic groups. The Pohlig-Hellman algorithm [4] for solving the DLP implies that only finite groups of prime order are suitable candidates. Such a system can be implemented in various ways, e.g., by using the multiplicative group of the invertible elements of a finite field [2] or abelian varieties over finite fields [5,6]. The best known generic algorithms such as Shanks' Baby Step Giant Step, Pollard's ρ and λ methods solve the DLP in exponential time $O(\sqrt{N})$, where N is the order of the cyclic group. In every efficient implementation, besides the intractability of the DLP, two related fundamental questions need to be addressed: 1) compact representation (i.e. encoding) of group elements and 2) efficient arithmetic for the group operation. As abelian varieties, elliptic curves succeed in providing positive answers to both the above questions. Because no subexponential algorithm is known for solving the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem (ECDLP) in general, they outdo the multiplicative groups \mathbb{F}_q^{\times} of finite fields \mathbb{F}_q in offering the same level of security with a faster speed. Note that there exist subexponential methods (e.g. the index calculus, see |7|) for solving the DLP in \mathbb{F}_q^{\times} .

The theory of elliptic curves has been studied extensively during past centuries. Their application to cryptography helps promote further research. Motivated by the case of elliptic curves, cryptographic research on Jacobians of curves of higher genus has started to emerge and attract attention. The use of Jacobians of curves of higher genus has the advantage of being suitable for implementation on small processor architectures. However, for hyperelliptic curves of genus ≥ 3 there are index calculus attacks (see [8–13]) which are faster than the generic attacks. This implies a potential insecurity of using such hyperelliptic curves from a cryptographic perspective¹. In this thesis, we discuss problems related to elliptic curves (genus 1) and hyperelliptic curves of genus 2.

¹The best attack described in [13] takes time $\tilde{O}(q^{2-\frac{2}{g}})$, which is asymptotically slightly faster than the generic algorithms. Here $\tilde{O}(f(q))$ is a function that is bounded by f(q) times a polynomial in $\log(f(q))$ for large enough q.

We define an algebraic curve C to be a projective variety of dimension one. Moreover, in this thesis, we always work on a nonsingular affine model of the curve defined over the underlying perfect field K of interest, which usually is a finite field \mathbb{F}_q . Furthermore, we assume the curve is *absolutely irreducible*, i.e., it is irreducible as a closed set with respect to the Zariski topology of projective space \mathbb{P}^2 over \bar{K} , a separable (algebraic) closure of K.

We define an elliptic curve E over K to be a nonsingular absolutely irreducible algebraic curve defined over K of genus 1 with one K-rational point ∞ , and refer to it by its model given by the following Weierstraß equation

$$E: y^{2} + a_{1}xy + a_{3}y = x^{3} + a_{2}x^{2} + a_{4}x + a_{6}, \quad a_{i} \in K.$$

We define a hyperelliptic curve C over K to be a nonsingular absolutely irreducible algebraic curve of genus $g \ge 2$, given by a model

$$C: y^{2} + h(x)y = f(x), \quad h(x), f(x) \in K[x], \deg(h) \le g + 1, \deg(f) \le 2g + 2,$$

such that the associated function field K(C), which is the field of fractions of the coordinate ring of C, is a separable extension of degree 2 of the rational function field K(x) of \mathbb{P}^1_K for some function x; We will introduce another definition of a hyperelliptic curve and discuss more about it in Chapter 3.

Given an algebraic curve C over a field K, a *divisor* of C over K is a formal sum

$$D = \sum_{\mathfrak{p}} n_{\mathfrak{p}} \mathfrak{p},$$

where \mathfrak{p} runs over all places of the function field K(C), $n_{\mathfrak{p}} \in \mathbb{Z}$, and only finitely many $n_{\mathfrak{p}}$ are different from 0. The degree of the residue field $K(C)_{\mathfrak{p}}/K$ is defined to be deg(\mathfrak{p}); the *degree* of a divisor D is $\sum_{\mathfrak{p}} n_{\mathfrak{p}} \operatorname{deg}(\mathfrak{p})$. A divisor D is called *effective*, written $D \ge 0$, if we have all $n_{\mathfrak{p}} \ge 0$. For any function $f \in K(C)^*$ we define the *divisor of* f to be

$$(f) = \sum_{\mathfrak{p}} v_{\mathfrak{p}}(f)\mathfrak{p},$$

where $v_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is the usual discrete valuation defined using uniformizers at \mathfrak{p} . We also call a divisor obtained in this way a *principal divisor*. Note that (f) is a divisor of degree 0. We say two divisors D_1 and D_2 are *equivalent*, written $D_1 \sim D_2$ if $D_1 = D_2 + (f)$ for some $f \in K(C)$.

Definition 1 (Riemann-Roch Space of a Divisor) For a divisor D of an algebraic curve C over K, the Riemann-Roch space of D is

$$L(D) = \{ f \in K(C)^* | (f) + D \ge 0 \} \cup \{ 0 \}.$$

It follows easily that L(D) is a vector space over K, and $L(D_1) \simeq L(D_2)$ as K-vector spaces if $D_1 \sim D_2$. We write dim L(D) as the K-dimension of L(D).

Theorem 2 (Riemann-Roch [14]) Let C be an absolutely irreducible algebraic curve over K with function field K(C). There exists an integer $g \ge 0$ such that for every divisor D of C over K

 $\dim L(D) \ge \deg(D) - g + 1.$

For all divisors D with $\deg(D) > 2(g-1)$, one has equality

$$\dim L(D) = \deg(D) - g + 1.$$

Definition 3 (Genus [14]) The integer g from Theorem 2 is called the genus of K(C) or the geometric genus of C. If C is projective nonsingular then g is called the genus of C.

Note that if C has genus 1, then it is elliptic; if C has genus 2, the it is hyperelliptic.

Let $Div_{K}^{0}(C)$ be the set of all degree 0 divisors defined over K, i.e., stable under the Galois action of $Gal(\overline{K}/K)$. Let $Prin_{K}(C)$ be the set of all principal divisors (associated with function $f \in K(C)^{*}$). Then $Prin_{K}(C)$ is a subgroup of $Div_{K}^{0}(C)$. Note that $Prin_{K}(C)$ is the image of the map

$$\phi: \quad K(C)^* \to Div^0_K(C), \quad f \mapsto (f).$$

Definition 4 (Divisor Class Group) The divisor class group of an algebraic curve C over a field K is the quotient group

$$Pic_K^0(C) = Div_K^0(C)/Prin_K(C).$$

From an arithmetic point of view, we define the *Jacobian variety*, or *Jacobian*, of a curve C to be the divisor class group of C over \overline{K} , an algebraic closure of K, i.e.,

$$Jac_{\bar{K}}(C) = Pic^{0}_{\bar{K}}(C).$$

This is equivalent to saying that the following sequence is short exact:

$$\{1\} \to \bar{K}(C)^*/\bar{K}^* \xrightarrow{\phi} Div^0_{\bar{K}}(C) \to Jac_{\bar{K}}(C) \to \{0\},$$
(1.1)

where $\phi : \overline{K}(C)^* / \overline{K}^* \to Div^0_{\overline{K}}(C)$ is given by $\phi(f) = (f)$.

Let $Gal(\bar{K}/K)$ be the absolute Galois group of K. $\forall \sigma \in Gak(\bar{K}/K)$, σ induces an action on $C_{\bar{K}}$ by

$$\sigma: (x_0, y_0) \mapsto (\sigma(x_0), \sigma(y_0)),$$

where $\mathfrak{p} \in C(\bar{K}) = (x_0, y_0)$ is a point in $C_{\bar{K}}$, hence it induces an action on $Jac_{\bar{K}}(C)$ by

$$\sigma: D \mapsto \sum n_{\mathfrak{p}} \sigma(\mathfrak{p}),$$

where $D = \sum n_{p} \mathfrak{p}$. We define the Jacobian over K of C, or the K-rational points of the Jacobian to be

$$Jac_K(C) = Jac_{\bar{K}}(C)^{Gal(K/K)},$$

i.e., the elements fixed by the action of $Gal(\overline{K}/K)$.

Taking Galois cohomology of (1.1), we obtain

$$1 \to K(C)^*/K^* \to Div_K^0(C) \to Jac_K(C) \to H^1(Gal(\bar{K}/K), Prin_{\bar{K}}(C)), \quad (1.2)$$

where $Gal(\bar{K}/K)$ acts canonically on $Prin_{\bar{K}}(C)$.

Therefore, the divisor class group of C over K is a subgroup of the K-rational points of the Jacobian. If furthermore, the curve C has a K-rational point, then the Jacobian of a curve over any field K can be identified with its divisor class group over K, by the following theorem.

Theorem 5 (Galbraith, et al., 1998, [15]) Let C/K be a curve with a K-rational point. Then

$$H^1(Gal(\bar{K}/K), Prin_{\bar{K}}(C)) = \{\theta\}.$$

In this thesis, this is always the case we consider. We shall identify $Jac_K(C)$ with $Pic_K^0(C)$ throughout the discussion.

1.2 Contribution of the Thesis

The research described in this thesis focuses on solving mathematical problems related to elliptic and hyperelliptic curve cryptography. The thesis makes three main contributions to the field of elliptic and hyperelliptic curve cryptography.

First, the thesis proposes a encryption/decryption key management scheme for access control in a hierarchy for which the keys are updated with time. Such a scheme has a practical important use in settings like communications and e-commerce. The method proposed in the thesis employs elliptic curve cryptography in construction of the key management scheme, which makes it resistant to attacks that break earlier proposals of such schemes. The key management scheme is published in [16]. The portion of the work described in Chapter 2 of this thesis was done entirely by the author at the suggestion of Professors E. Bertino and S. Wagstaff.

Schemes like the above can be alternatively implemented by using genus 2 curves. The arithmetic on such curves needs to be considered. Second, the thesis gives explicit formulas for divisor doubling for "real" genus 2 hyperelliptic curves over finite fields of positive characteristic. Such explicit formulas are useful for efficient implementation of cryptographic protocols (see, e.g. [17]) using the infrastructure of the principal ideal class of the function field associated with the curve. The formulas presented in this thesis cover the most common case in divisor doubling arithmetic as well as all special cases, for two major representations of divisors. This consists of part of a research project the author participated in with Dr. S. Erickson, Professor M. Jacobson, Dr. S. Shen and Professor A. Stein. Other formulas and improvements are

being developed by other researchers. Theorem 8 for equivalent change of coordinates of real hyperelliptic curves in Section 3.3.3 was suggested and proved by the author. The divisor class doubling formulas, including the most common case and special cases, presented in Section 3.6.2 were derived by the author.

In order to use Jacobians of genus 2 hyperelliptic curves for discrete logarithm based or pairing based cryptography, some parameters, e.g. the underlying finite field, the cardinality of the Jacobian, and the "embedding degree," need to be considered. The third contribution of the thesis includes new approaches to generating such parameters for the complex multiplication method of constructing equations of genus 2 curves. The contribution also includes analysis of the polynomial parameterization method of generating cryptographically strong parameters for genus 2 curves, following the Bateman-Horn philosophy, and a quantitative analysis of the scarcity of "pairing-friendly" genus 2 curves, based on the Riemann Hypothesis. This research was suggested by Dr. K. Lauter during the author's internship at Microsoft Research in 2007. The portion of the work described in Chapters 4 and 5 was entirely done by the author.

1.3 Structure of the Thesis

The rest of the thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 describes a solution to a practical problem of access control for secure broadcasting of information which uses the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem. Chapter 3 presents some results on the arithmetic of genus 2 real hyperelliptic curves, which is useful for a class of DLP-like cryptographic protocols. Chapter 4 shows a method to generate parameters for constructing genus 2 curves via the complex multiplication (CM) method. Chapter 5 reports progress on finding parameters for generating pairing-friendly genus 2 curves over prime fields for the CM method. Chapter 6 summarizes and suggests future work.

2. A CRYPTOGRAPHIC APPLICATION OF ELLIPTIC CURVES

In this chapter we present an efficient time-bound hierarchical key management scheme for secure broadcasting of encrypted data content. Elliptic curve cryptography is used in the construction of the scheme to help resist attacks that break earlier schemes. Part of the research described in this chapter can be found in [16].

2.1 Background

In a web-based environment, such as one involving electronic newspapers, data can be organized according to different access control policies, encrypted using distinct encryption keys, then broadcast to all users. Usually these data can be organized as a hierarchical tree. We need a key management scheme so that a higher class can retrieve information that a lower class is authorized to access — but not the other way around. Moreover, in many applications, such as electronic newspaper/journal subscription, pay TV broadcasting, etc., there is a time bound associated with each access control policy, so that a user is assigned to a certain class for just a period of time. The users' keys need to be updated periodically to ensure that the delivery of the information follows the access control policies of the data source. An ideal timebound hierarchical key management scheme should be able to perform the above task in an efficient manner and minimize the storage and communication of keys. In 2002, W.G. Tzeng [18] attempted to solve this problem. W.G. Tzeng's scheme is efficient in terms of its space requirement, but is computationally inefficient, since a Lucas function operation is used to construct the scheme, and this incurs heavy computational load. Moreover, it is insecure against collusion attacks as shown by X. Yi and Y. Ye [19].

Another time-bound hierarchical key assignment scheme, based on a tamperresistant device and a secure hash function, was proposed by H.Y. Chien [20] in 2004. This scheme greatly reduces computational load and implementation cost. However, it has a security hole against X. Yi 's three-party collusion attack [21]. Inspired by H.Y. Chien's idea, we propose in this thesis a new method for access control using elliptic curve cryptography. This scheme is efficient and secure against X. Yi 's three-party collusion attack.

Although there have been attacks on smart cards [22] and some other tamperresistant devices, such attacks require special equipment which would cost more than a subscription. The only really valuable data on the smart cards our scheme uses is the master key. It must be kept secret because an attacker who obtained it could derive all the keys for the data that one could get with this smart card. Assuming the master key can be protected, there is good reason to believe that our scheme that uses tamper-resistant devices can have practical important applications, in areas such as digital rights management.

Our original motivation for this work was to provide a better key management scheme for [23], in which data are encoded in XML and broadcast to a hierarchy.

The rest of this chapter is organized as follows: Section 2.2 presents the notation and definitions needed to give a hierarchical structure to the data source. Section 2.3 proposes the new time-bound key management scheme applied to a hierarchy. Section 2.4 contains further discussion of the key management scheme.

2.2 Definitions and Notation

Let S be the data source to broadcast. We assume S is partitioned into blocks of data called *nodes*.

The policy base \mathcal{PB} is the set of access control policies defined for \mathcal{S} . In our setting, each access control policy $\mathsf{acp} \in \mathcal{PB}$ contains a temporal interval I among

its components, which specifies the time period in which the access control policy is valid. A sample access control policy for XML documents might look like

$$acp = (I, P, sbj-spec, prot-obj-spec, priv, prop-opt)$$

where I, P, sbj-spec, prot-obj-spec, priv and prop-opt are the temporal interval, the periodic expression, the credential specification, the protection object specification, the privilege and the propagation option of acp, respectively. For example, the temporal interval I may specify a time period in which a particular resource can be used by a particular entity. Since this chapter does not focus on access control policies, we do not intend to get into more details about them. Interested readers may refer to [24] and [23] for details.

It is important to notice that several policies may apply to each node in S. In what follows we refer to the set of policies applying to a node in S as the **policy** configuration associated with the node. Also, in what follows $\mathcal{PC}_{\mathcal{PB}}$ denotes the set of all possible policy configurations which can be generated by policies in \mathcal{PB} .

We now introduce the notion of a class of nodes, a relevant notion in our approach. Intuitively, a class of nodes corresponds to a given policy configuration and identifies all nodes to which the configuration applies. Intuitively, a class of nodes includes the set of nodes to which the same set of access control policies apply.

Definition 1 (Class of nodes) Let Pc_i be a policy configuration belonging to $\mathcal{PC}_{\mathcal{PB}}$. The class of nodes marked with Pc_i , denoted by C_i , is the set of nodes belonging to the data source S marked by all and only the policies in Pc_i . Note that the empty set could be a class of nodes marked with a certain policy configuration. We denote by C the set of all classes of nodes defined over S marked with the policy configurations in $\mathcal{PC}_{\mathcal{PB}}$, and we have the following requirement: we distinguish and include in C the empty sets, if marked by policy configurations consisting of only one access control policy, and exclude from C the empty sets marked by any other policy configurations. Note that C corresponds to a subset of $\mathcal{PC}_{\mathcal{PB}}$.

We distinguish and include the empty sets corresponding to different singleton policy configurations so that keys can be assigned to these classes, which enable users belonging to these classes to derive required decryption keys of lower classes. This key derivation process will be described in Section 2.3.

The idea for the secure broadcasting mode of the data source is this: the portions of the source marked by different classes of nodes are encrypted by different secret keys, and are broadcast periodically to the subscribers. Subscribers receive only the keys for the document sources that they can access according to the policies.

The following definition introduces a partial order relation defined over \mathcal{C} .

Definition 2 (Partial order relation on *C)* Let C_i and C_j be two classes of nodes marked by Pc_i and Pc_j , respectively, where Pc_i and Pc_j are policy configurations in $\mathcal{PC}_{\mathcal{PB}}$. We say that C_i dominates C_j , written $C_j \leq C_i$, if and only if $Pc_i \subseteq Pc_j$. We also write $C_j \prec C_i$ if $C_j \leq C_i$ but $C_j \neq C_i$. We also say that C_i directly dominates C_j , written $C_j \prec_d C_i$, if and only if $C_i \neq C_j$ and $C_j \leq C_* \leq C_i$ implies $C_* = C_i$ or $C_* = C_j$. We call " $C_j \prec_d C_i$ " a directed edge. We say C_i dominates C_j via n directed edges if there exists $\{C_{i_k}\}_{1\leq k\leq n-1} \subseteq C$ such that $C_j \prec_d C_{i_1}$, $C_{i_{n-1}} \prec_d C_j$ and $C_{i_{k-1}} \prec_d C_{i_k}$ for $2 \leq k \leq n-1$.

2.3 Key Management Scheme Using Elliptic Curves

2.3.1 Initialization

Suppose we have already generated the set C of classes of nodes of the data source S marked with the policy configurations Pc_i in \mathcal{PB} . Such a set is partially ordered with respect to \preceq . Let n be the cardinality of C.

In this step, the system parameters are initialized and the system's class keys K_i are generated.

- 1. The vendor chooses an elliptic curve E over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q so that the discrete logarithm problem is hard on $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$.¹ The vendor also chooses a point $Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ with a large prime order, say, p. The vendor then chooses 2n integers n_i , g_i , relatively prime to p, such that $n_i g_i$ are all different modulo p for $1 \leq i \leq n$. The vendor computes $P_i = [n_i]Q$ on $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ and h_i such that $g_i h_i \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. The class key $K_i = [g_i]P_i$ is computed for class \mathcal{C}_i . The points $R_{i,j} = g_i K_j + ([-1]K_i)$ are also computed whenever $\mathcal{C}_j \prec \mathcal{C}_i$ (not just when $\mathcal{C}_j \prec_d \mathcal{C}_i$).
- 2. The vendor chooses two random integers a, b and a keyed-hash message authentication code (HMAC) [26] $H_K(-)$ built with a hash function H(-) and a fixed secret key K. K serves as the system's master key and is only known to the vendor.
- 3. The vendor publishes $R_{i,j}$ on an authenticated board, whereas the integers g_i , h_i , a and b are kept secret. Parties can verify the validity of the $R_{i,j}$ obtained from the board. This can be realized by using digital signatures.

The public values $R_{i,j}$ are constructed in such a way that the owner of the key K_j of the lower class C_j cannot obtain any information about the class key K_i of the higher class C_i without knowing the secret value g_i , and the owner of the higher class key K_i cannot compute K_j on its own, due to the the difficulty of solving the discrete logarithm problem. It turns out that such construction is secure against the attack [21] which breaks H.Y. Chien's earlier scheme [20]. We will discuss this in section 2.4.3.3.

2.3.2 Encrypting Key Generation

In this step we generate the temporal encryption class keys $K_{i,t}$ at time granule t by using the system's class keys K_i .

¹For more background on elliptic curve cryptography, see [25].

The class of nodes $C_i \in C$ is encrypted by a symmetric encryption algorithm, e.g., AES [27]. We denote by $K_{i,t}$ the secret key for C_i at time granule $t \in [T_b, T_e] = [1, Z]$. The generation process for $K_{i,t}$ is given by the formula below:

$$K_{i,t} = H_K \left(K_i \parallel H^t(a) \parallel H^{Z-t}(b) \parallel ID_i \right),$$

where $H^m(x)$ is the *m*-fold iteration of H(-) applied to x, ID_i is the identity of C_i , all components of the input of H(-) are encoded as bit strings, and \parallel is the bit string concatenation. Note that we can choose H(-) properly in the initialization process so that the output of H_K is the right length for a key for the symmetric encryption algorithm we use.

The one-way property of the hash function H ensures that $H^t(a)$ and $H^{Z-t}(b)$ can be calculated only when the values $H^{t_1}(a)$ and $H^{Z-t_2}(b)$ are available for some t_1, t_2 with $t_1 \leq t \leq t_2$. This is the idea for the construction of the "time-bound" of the key management scheme.

2.3.3 User Subscription

This is the user subscription phase, in which a tamper-resistant device storing important information is issued to the subscriber.

Upon receiving a subscription request, an appropriate access control policy acp_i is searched until there is a match, then the policy configuration in \mathcal{PB} which contains **only** acp_i is found, and thus the corresponding class of nodes marked with it, say C_i , is identified. Note that C_i , which could be an empty set, is always in C by the construction in Definition 1. We define the **encryption information**, $EncInf_i$, as follows:

$$EncInf_{i} = \{ (H^{t_{1}}(a), H^{Z-t_{2}}(b)) \},\$$

where the set on the right side is defined for all acceptable time intervals $[t_1, t_2]$ for acp_i .

The vendor distributes the class key K_i to the subscriber through a secure channel. The vendor also issues the subscriber a tamper-resistant device storing H_K (thus H, K), E, \mathbb{F}_q , ID_i , h_i and $EncInf_i$. There is also a secure clock embedded in the device which keeps track of current time. The device is tamper-resistant in the sense that no one can recover K, h_i , $EncInf_i$, change the values of ID_i , or change the time of the clock.

2.3.4 Decrypting Key Derivation

In this step the temporal keys for a class and the classes below it are reconstructed by the tamper-resistant device.

Assume that the subscription process mentioned above is completed for a subscriber U associated with class C_i . U can then use the information received from the vendor to decrypt the data in class C_j , with $C_j \leq C_i$, as follows:

- 1. If $C_j = C_i$, U inputs only K_i into the tamper-resistant device; otherwise if $C_j \prec C_i$, U first retrieves $R_{i,j}$ from the authenticated public board, then inputs it together with the class identity ID_j of C_j and its secret class key K_i .
- 2. If K_j is the only input, the next step is executed directly. Otherwise, the tamper-resistant device computes the secret class key of C_j :

$$K_j = [h_i](R_{i,j} + K_i).$$

3. If $t \in [t_1, t_2]$ for some acceptable time interval $[t_1, t_2]$ of acp_i , the tamper-resistant device computes

$$H^{t}(a) = H^{t-t_{1}}(H^{t_{1}}(a)), \qquad H^{Z-t}(b) = H^{t_{2}-t}(H^{Z-t_{2}}(b)),$$

and $K_{j,t} = H_K(K_j \parallel H^t(a) \parallel H^{Z-t}(b) \parallel ID_j)$. Note that the values $H^{t_1}(a)$ and $H^{Z-t_2}(b)$ are pre-computed and stored in the tamper-resistant device.

4. At time granule t, the protected data belonging to class C_j can be decrypted by applying the key $K_{j,t}$.

2.3.5 An Example

We now provide an example to illustrate the above process.

Consider an electronic newspaper system. Let **one day** be a tick of time in this system and Z = 70 be the life time of the system, i.e., the system exists in the temporal interval [1, 70]. Let U be a user wishing to subscribe to the sports portion of the newspaper for one week, say, the period I = [8, 14]. We could match U with an access control policy $acp_1 = ([8,14], \text{All days}, \text{Subscriber/type="full"}, \text{Sports_supplement},$ view, CASCADE). Then we can find the class of nodes C_1 marked with policy configuration acp_1 from a pre-generated table. These nodes are encrypted and broadcast periodically. U can derive the decryption key for the subscription period using the issued class key K_1 and the tamper-resistant device storing H_K , E, \mathbb{F}_q , ID_1 , h_1 and $H^8(a)$, $H^{56}(b) = H^{70-14}(b)$. For example, U inputs K_1 into the device. To obtain the decryption key $K_{1,10}$ at time granule t = 10, the device computes

$$H^{10}(a) = H^2(H^8(a)), H^{60}(b) = H^4(H^{56}(b))$$

then $K_{1,10} = H_K(K_1 \parallel H^{10}(a) \parallel H^{60}(b) \parallel ID_1)$, the very thing needed. To obtain the decryption key at t = 13 for a class $\mathcal{C}_2 \preceq \mathcal{C}_1$, U inputs K_1 , ID_2 and $R_{1,2}$ into the device. The device first computes the class key of \mathcal{C}_2

$$K_2 = [h_1](R_{1,2} + K_1).$$

Then it computes

$$H^{13}(a) = H^5(H^8(a)), H^{57}(b) = H(H^{56}(b))$$

and $K_{2,13} = H_K(K_2 \parallel H^{13}(a) \parallel H^{57}(b) \parallel ID_2)$, the decryption key needed.

Note that all computations are executed by the tamper-resistant device. The device can prevent the results of the computations from being revealed, so that even the user U does not know the class key K_2 of the class of nodes $\mathcal{C}_2 \prec \mathcal{C}_1$.

2.4 Analysis of The Scheme

We have proposed a key assignment scheme for secure broadcasting based on a tamper-resistant device. A secure hash function and the intractability of the discrete logarithm problem on elliptic curves over the finite field \mathbb{F}_q are also assumed.

2.4.1 Tamper-resistant Devices

The tamper-resistant device plays an important role in our scheme. The system's master key, K, must be protected by the device. Leak of $EncInf_i$ will not help the attackers much, because they are not able to compute the HMAC, thus the temporal class keys, without knowing K. Although it is unlikely to happen, a leak of h_i will enable the user of class C_i to obtain the class key K_j of C_j , where $C_j \leq C_i$, by computing

$$K_j = [h_i](R_{i,j} + K_i),$$

as is done by the device. As pointed out by Professor Jacobson in a private correspondence, similarly, a leak of h_k of class C_k allows the user of class $C_i \leq C_k$ to obtain K_k , by computing

$$K_k = [g_k](K_i + [-h_i]R_{k,i}).$$

Unless K is also discovered, the attacks to retrieve $EncInf_i$ and h_i on individual devices are not effective. With the use of a tamper-resistant device, the security of the scheme is strong enough. From an implementational point of view, the **Trusted Platform Module** (TPM) technology [28], which is good for storing and using secret keys, can well suit our need. We are aware that there are attacks on TPMs [29]. There are countermeasures against those attacks [29]. Moreover, none of these attacks is capable of extracting the exact secret information being protected (in our case, e.g., the system key K). Hence the attackers are not able to perform the HMAC operations. Therefore an attack relying on the knowledge of K is not feasible in practice. We believe the use of the tamper-resistant hardware is practical and secure in reality. One might argue that if we need such a strong tamper-resistant device, then we might as well store the needed temporal decryption keys on it directly and discard the key management scheme. However, that approach is not practical, because the number of needed keys can be large, considering the temporal intervals and hierarchy. And in that case, the system's class keys can not be easily updated. Our proposed scheme is elegant and more efficient in terms of storage on the tamper-resistant devices.

2.4.2 Hash Functions and ECDLP

Some of the most widely used hash functions, e.g. SHA-0, MD4, Haval-128, RipeMD-128, MD5, were broken years ago; SHA-1 was announced broken early in the year 2005. Essentially, these hash functions have been proven not to be collisionfree; but it is still hard to find a pre-image to a given digest in a reasonable time. In view of this, these attacks on hash functions will not affect the security of our scheme, as long as the discrete logarithm problem on the elliptic curves is still hard. So far there is no foreseeable breakthrough in solving DLP on elliptic curves.

Without having to keep $Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ secret, no one, including the user U_i , can recover the secret values g_i , h_i of the system due to the difficulty of the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem.

2.4.3 Security Against Possible Attacks

Note that the tamper-resistant device in our scheme is an oracle that does calculation in the Decrypting Key Derivation process. This raises the question of whether such a device can be attacked by an adversary to gain secret information to subvert this process. This concern is necessary since H.Y. Chien's scheme has been successfully attacked (see X. Yi [21]) due to the weakness of the oracle. We face a similar situation here. We set up the attack model for our scheme as follows:

Attack model

We denote the adversary by \mathcal{A} , and assume

- 1. \mathcal{A} either contains an individual attacker who is not a valid user but captures a device belonging to a user of the system, or a team of valid users who have access to their assigned devices;
- 2. \mathcal{A} can query the device with trial messages;
- 3. all the members (if there are multiple ones) of \mathcal{A} share the information and resources they have.

The goal of \mathcal{A} is to derive any valid temporal key $K_{i,t}$ which is not supposed to be used by any member of \mathcal{A} .

Based on the attack model above, we shall analyze the security of the proposed scheme. This analysis will not provide proofs of security (i.e. written in the language of provable security), but it will give some ideas how the design of the scheme helps secure the system.

2.4.3.1 Attack From Outside

Suppose an adversary \mathcal{A} , who is an individual attacker, captures a device of class \mathcal{C}_i , but it does not know the associated class key K_i . \mathcal{A} can query the device with a value K_* , hoping the device to output the valid decryption key $K_{i,t}$ at time t.

We claim that any attempt of \mathcal{A} to gain the temporal decrypting key with only one input K_* to the device with identity ID_i has very low probability of success.

This is so because even if we assume \mathcal{A} queries the device at time granule t which is in the subscription period, we have that the probability that the device outputs the correct decrypting key in response to a randomly chosen query message K_* is

$$Prob \left\{ H_K \left(K_* \parallel H^t(a) \parallel H^{Z-t}(b) \parallel ID_i \right) = H_K \left(K_i \parallel H^t(a) \parallel H^{Z-t}(b) \parallel ID_i \right) \right\}$$

= $Pr_1 + Pr_2$,

where

$$Pr_1 = Prob\left\{K_* = K_i\right\},\,$$

and

$$Pr_{2} = Prob \{ K_{*} \neq K_{i} \text{ and} \\ H_{K} (K_{*} \parallel H^{t}(a) \parallel H^{Z-t}(b) \parallel ID_{i}) = H_{K} (K_{*} \parallel H^{t}(a) \parallel H^{Z-t}(b) \parallel ID_{i}) \}$$

Because K_i is secret to \mathcal{A} , the first probability, Pr_1 , is not significantly larger than 1/p. Recall that p is the order of the elliptic curve subgroup in which we do cryptography. The second probability, Pr_2 is the same as that of finding a collision for the HMAC $H_K(-)$. Both probabilities are negligible. Therefore, it is very unlikely that \mathcal{A} will succeed with a random query message.

The collision resistance of the HMAC also effectively prevents the attacker to correlate the results of multiple random queries to avoid trying points (messages) other than those whose y-coordinates are the same as that of the previously tried points. Therefore the probability of success of the adversary is not significantly better than a brute-force attack.

2.4.3.2 Collusion Attack

We consider the case that \mathcal{A} contains multiple valid users with their assigned devices as well as class keys. These users collude by trying to use their assigned class keys and devices to retrieve a valid temporal key that should not be owned by any of these users. Since it is difficult to combine the HMAC output to infer useful information about the input, we focus on the case that only one device is being queried. We assume this device is associated with class C_i , and it is owned by a member of \mathcal{A} .

Assuming the tamper-resistance of the device and the intractability of the discrete logarithm problem, we claim that any collusion attack on the scheme will fail.

Since the encryption information $EncInf_i$ for a device with identity ID_i and the embedded clock cannot be modified because of the tamper-resistance of the device, the device will respond to a single input K_* with a correct decrypting key if and only if $K_* = K_i$. On the one hand, if K_i is one of the attacker's issued class key, then this attempt is a valid regular query, and it will not produce any extra information that the attacker is not supposed to know. On the other hand, if K_i is not owned by \mathcal{A} , for an attack to succeed, then it must be derived by \mathcal{A} via collusion, given the infeasibility of guessing, as analyzed in Section 2.4.3.1 above. However, given that all g_j are kept secret, we do not see any way to accomplish this computation without solving the discrete logarithm problem on $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$, even with all $R_{i,j}$ on the public board being available.

Now we consider collusion attacks with more than one input to the device. In this case, \mathcal{A} wants to let the device in class \mathcal{C}_i compute temporal decrypting keys for a class \mathcal{C}_m which is no lower than \mathcal{C}_i . Note that such an attack must have \mathcal{ID}_m as one of the three input messages, and carefully choose the other two query messages. The attack inevitably involves the computation (by the device) of the class key K_m . According to Step 2 of the Decrypting Key Derivation process, $g_i K_m$ must be computable by the device in respond to the input parameters. However, we do not know how this computation can be performed, even with the knowledge of K_m , when g_i is unknown.

The analysis in this section implies that it is unlikely that a device is able to effectively compute the temporal keys outside its assigned time period and for classes no lower than itself. Thus it can only function as designated.

2.4.3.3 X. Yi's Attack

As a particular case of the collusion attack just described, X. Yi's attack [21] against H.Y. Chien's scheme [20] cannot be replayed here to break our scheme. We will demonstrate this case to give an impression of how the asymmetry introduced by elliptic curve cryptography helps to strengthen the scheme.

X. Yi's attack can not apply directly to our scheme due to our different construction. The idea of the attack is like this: two users collude to derive certain information Inf and pass it to a third user, U, so that U can input Inf together with its secret key to the tamper-resistant device to derive the decryption keys of a class no lower than U's. We claim that this analogue of X. Yi's three-party attack does not succeed for our scheme.

Suppose U belongs to class C_j and U wants to derive decryption keys $K_{i,t}$ of C_i , which is no lower than C_j . Then K_i needs to be computed by the device and passed to the HMAC. An analogue of X. Yi's attack requires the information passed to U be $Inf = [g_j]K_i + ([-1]K_j)$, so that when U inputs Inf, ID_i and K_j , the tamper-resistant device will compute

$$[h_j](Inf + K_j) = [h_j]([g_j]K_i + K_j + [-1]K_j) = K_i.$$

In order to obtain Inf, someone must be able to have knowledge of $g_j K_i$. Given that class C_i is no lower than C_j , $[g_j]K_i$ is not a summand of any of the published values on the authenticated board, and thus it cannot be produced via collusion, considering the fact that all g_j are secret and the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem is hard.

Therefore, an obvious generalization of X. Yi's attack cannot be modified to attack our scheme.

2.4.3.4 Remarks on Security Proofs

We want to remark that the analysis above does not provide rigorous security proofs. We do not know yet if choosing suitable input parameters for a device so that it is able to compute a class key belonging to a class no lower than the device's assigned class is equivalent to the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem. We have not shown rigorously that without knowing the valid class key obtaining a useful decrypting key by querying the device with one input message is equivalent to finding a collision of the HMAC. We do not know if knowing temporal keys is equivalent to knowing the corresponding class key.

We suggest some remaining problems like those above as future research topics. To achieve the security proofs a more formal definition of security will be needed.

2.4.4 Yet Another Good Feature

An important advantage of our scheme is that the vendor can change the class keys of the system at any time without having to re-issue new devices to the users, while only the user's class keys and the public information $R_{i,j}$ need to be updated. In this case, the class keys need to be delivered to users through a secure channel, and the vendor can simply update the database with new values of $R_{i,j}$ on the public board. However, when an individual user wants to change the subscription, a new device needs to be issued. This also needs to be done when a different class is desired.

2.4.5 Space and Time Complexity

Our scheme publishes one value $R_{i,j}$ for each partial order relation $C_j \prec C_i$. The total number of public values is at most $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$, when n is the number of classes in C. On the user's side, the tamper-resistant device stores only H_K , E, \mathbb{F}_q , ID_i , h_i and $EncInf_i$.

At any time granule t, the tamper-resistant device needs to perform $(t - t_1) + (t_2 - t) + 2 = t_2 - t_1 + 2 \leq Z$ hash iterations. Note that there are two hash iterations per HMAC operation [26]. In a system of life period 5 years which updates user keys every hour, Z is approximately 43800. We did an experiment using SHA-1 as the hash function on a Gateway MX3215 laptop computer which has a 1.40GHz Intel(R) Celeron(R) M processor, 256 MB of memory and runs Ubuntu 6.10 Edgy Eft. The code is written in C and built with GNU C compiler version 4.1.2. The result showed that 43800 hash iterations took .0800 second of processing time. In practice, $t_2 - t_1$ is usually much smaller than Z and the hash computation is really fast.

The bulk of the computation performed by the tamper-resistant device is the calculation of $K_j = [h_i](R_{i,j}+K_i)$ in Step 2 of the Decrypting Key Derivation phase. A rough estimate [30] shows that a 160-bit prime p (the order of Q on $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$) should give us 80-bit security against the best (generic) elliptic curve discrete logarithm attack in this situation. In this case, the calculation of K_j is comparable to elliptic curve scalar

multiplication computation with required precomputation done online. Section 3.7 of [31] gives rough estimates and experimental results for this computational cost, for NIST-recommended curves P-192, B-163 and K-163. The results show that the computation can be performed in several milliseconds on an 800MHz Intel Pentium III using general-purpose registers. A smart card (with a 32-bit processor running at 25 to 32 MHz) can also do this efficiently [32]. Our scheme is in fact slower than H.Y. Chien's scheme, in which only hash computations are widely used. However it is still very efficient from the point of view of application and provides enhanced security.

In Table 2.1 below, we shows a comparison of the three time-bound hierarchical key management schemes.

Table 2.1: A comparison of three time-bound hierarchicalkey management schemes

Comparison of three schemes						
	Tzeng	Chien	Ours			
Implementation	Lucas function	Tamper-resistant	Tamper-resistant			
requirements		device	device, ECC			
# of public values	n+6	n-1	n(n-1)/2			
# of operations to	$(t_2 - t_1)T_e,$	$(t_2 - t_1 + 1)T_h$	$(t_2 - t_1 + 2)T_h$			
derive temporal se-	$(t_2 - t_1)T_L, T_h$					
cret key of own class						
# of operations to	$(t_2 - t_1 + r)T_e,$	$(t_2 - t_1 + 2)T_h$	$(t_2 - t_1 + 2)T_h, T_E$			
derive temporal se-	$(t_2 - t_1)T_L, T_h$					
cret key of direct						
child class						

# of operations to	$(t_2 - t_1 + r)T_e,$	$(t_2 - t_1 + 1 + l)T_h$	$(t_2 - t_1 + 2)T_h, T_E$
derive temporal se-	$(t_2 - t_1)T_L, T_h$		
cret key of <i>l</i> -edge-			
distance child class			
security against Yi	insecure	secure	secure
and Ye's attack			
security against X.	N/A	insecure	secure
Yi's attack			

Suppose $C_j \preceq C_i, t \in [t_1, t_2].$

Notation:

n: number of classes $|\mathcal{C}|$

r: number of child classes C_i on path from C_i to C_j

 T_h : hashing operation

 T_e : modular exponentiation

 $T_L:$ Lucas function operation

 $T_E:$ elliptic curve scalar multiplication

2.5 Future Work and Remarks

Some future directions of this research are:

- Construction of an efficient key management scheme which is provably secure.
- Construction of an efficient key management scheme which does not have to use a tamper-proof device.

• Implementation of the scheme on smart cards and testing.

We want to remark that the choice of the group of an elliptic curve is not intrinsic for this key management scheme: it can be alternatively implemented with small modifications by using any suitable finite group, e.g. the Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve. In any case, a compact representation of the group element and an efficient group operation must be available. The requirement leads to the subject of the following Chapter 3.
3. ARITHMETIC ON JACOBIANS OF GENUS 2 REAL HYPERELLIPTIC CURVES

3.1 Introduction and Motivation

Since first proposed by N. Koblitz [33] in 1989, the use of the Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve in public-key cryptography has drawn attention from both academia and industry. With the best known attacks running exponential time, hyperelliptic curves offer a better key-per-bit security compared to conventional schemes like RSA. The attack described in [13] implies that only genus 2 curves provide the same key-perbit security as elliptic curves. For efficient cryptographic implementation, optimized explicit formulas (e.g. [34]) have been developed for genus 2 imaginary hyperelliptic curves. In [17], a cryptographic key exchange protocol is presented for genus 2 **real** hyperelliptic curves. However, explicit formulas for such curves have not been studied as widely as their imaginary counterparts.

This chapter contains two contributions to the research of explicit formulas for real models of genus 2 hyperelliptic curves:

- 1. It shows a new result in Theorem 8, which presents an equivalent change of coordinates for a hyperelliptic curve in the real model. This is useful for obtaining a short representation of a curve equation, so that the arithmetic is simplified.
- 2. The explicit divisor doubling formulas are presented for genus 2 real hyperelliptic curves. These formulas cover all cases of positive characteristic except characteristic 3, for two major representations (i.e. the adapted basis and the reduced basis) of divisors. Explicit formulas for special cases of divisor doubling are also presented. The result shown in Section 3.6 supersedes the doubling for-

mulas found in [35], which deals with characteristic > 3 and divisors represented in the reduced basis.

3.2 Background

For arithmetic purposes, in this chapter, we consider elliptic curves as hyperelliptic curves of genus one. For interests in cryptography, we concentrate on curves over finite fields \mathbb{F}_q . We use the definition of hyperelliptic curves by their nonsingular models as follows.

Definition 6 (Hyperelliptic Curves of Genus g, [35]) A hyperelliptic curve C of genus g defined over \mathbb{F}_q is an absolutely irreducible nonsingular curve defined by an equation

$$C: y^{2} + h(x)y = f(x), \qquad (3.1)$$

where $f, h \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$ are such that $y^2 + h(x)y - f(x)$ is absolutely irreducible; if $b^2 + h(a)b - f(a) = 0$ for $(a,b) \in \overline{\mathbb{F}_q}^2$, then $2b + h(a) \neq 0$ or $h'(a)b - f'(a) \neq 0$. A hyperelliptic curve is called

- 1. an imaginary hyperelliptic curve if f is monic, $\deg(f) = 2g + 1$, and $\deg(h) \leq g$.
- 2. a real hyperelliptic curve if the following hold: If q is odd, then f is monic, h = 0, deg(f) = 2g+2. If q is even, then h is monic, deg(h) = g+1, and either
 (a) deg(f) ≤ 2g + 1 or (b) deg(f) = 2g + 2 and the leading coefficient of f is of the form β² + β for some β ∈ 𝔽^{*}_g.

Let $\mathbb{F}_q(C)$ be the corresponding function field. Let $\mathbb{F}_q[C] = \mathbb{F}_q[x, y]/(y^2 + h(x)y - f(x))$ be the coordinate ring of C. Then $\mathbb{F}_q[C]$ is the integral closure of $\mathbb{F}_q[x]$ in $\mathbb{F}_q(C)$. Let \mathcal{P}_∞ be the place at infinity of $\mathbb{F}_q(x)$. Then an imaginary hyperelliptic curve C corresponds to the case that \mathcal{P}_∞ ramifies in $\mathbb{F}_q(C)$, and a real hyperelliptic curve C corresponds to the case that \mathcal{P}_{∞} splits in $\mathbb{F}_q(C)$ (cf. [36], Chapter 14). We say the curve C has "one point at infinity" or "two points at infinity" accordingly.

Note that according to the above definition, there are models of hyperelliptic curves that are neither imaginary nor real [35] – those that correspond to an inert P_{∞} . We call such curves *unusual* and exclude such curves from our discussion in this thesis.

Let $Cl(\mathbb{F}_q[C])$ be the ideal class group of the affine algebra $\mathbb{F}_q[C]$. For cryptography, it is worth mentioning the connection between $Cl(\mathbb{F}_q[C])$ and the \mathbb{F}_q -rational points of the Jacobian of C, described via the following exact sequences: If C is imaginary, i.e., P_{∞} ramifies in K(C), then

$$0 \to Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C) \to Cl(\mathbb{F}_q[C]) \to 0.$$
(3.2)

If C is real, i.e., P_{∞} splits in K(C), with ∞_1 and ∞_2 above it, then

$$0 \to \langle \infty_1 - \infty_2 \rangle \to Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C) \to Cl(\mathbb{F}_q[C]) \to 0.$$
(3.3)

If P_{∞} is inert in K(C), then

$$0 \to Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C) \to Cl(\mathbb{F}_q[C]) \to \mathbb{Z}/(2) \to 0.$$

This is a reinterpretation of [36], Propositions 14.6 and 14.7.

3.3 Equivalent Change of Coordinates

Instead of working on curve equations in the most general form, sometimes it is more efficient (and more convenient) to deal with curves given by equations with fewer terms. In this section, we discuss some transformations that can be performed on a curve equation in the general form to obtain an equivalent model of the curve given by a shorter equation. We say two models of a curve are equivalent if they correspond to isomorphic coordinate rings.

3.3.1 Elliptic Curves

It is well-known (see, e.g., [25]) that an elliptic curve given by the (generalized) Weierstraß equation of the form

$$y^{2} + a_{1}xy + a_{3}y = x^{3} + a_{2}x^{2} + a_{4}x + a_{6}, \quad a_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{q},$$
(3.4)

under a change of coordinates, is equivalent to a short Weierstraß equation of the form

- 1. $y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$, if the characteristic of the field is not 2 or 3;
- 2. $y^2 = x^3 + a'_2 x^2 + a'_6$, if the characteristic of the field is 3 and $j(E) \neq 0$;
- 3. $y^2 = x^3 + a'_4 x + a'_6$, if the characteristic of the field is 3 and j(E) = 0;
- 4. $y^2 + xy = x^3 + a'_2 x^2 + a'_6$, if the characteristic of the field is 2 and $a_1 \neq 0$;
- 5. $y^2 + a'_3 y = x^3 + a'_4 x + a'_6$, if the characteristic of the field is 2 and $a_1 = 0$.

3.3.2 Imaginary Hyperelliptic Curves

This case occurs when the curve C has an \mathbb{F}_q -rational Weierstraß point ∞ , i.e., dim $L(2\infty) > 1$, where $L(2\infty)$ is the Riemann-Roch space of the divisor 2∞ . Given a Weierstraß equation of the form

$$y^{2} + h(x)y = f(x), \quad \deg(h) \le g, \deg(f) = 2g + 1,$$
(3.5)

the following theorem gives guidelines for obtaining equivalent models.

Theorem 7 (Lockhart, 1994, [37]) The equation given by (3.5) of a hyperelliptic curve with genus g is unique up to a change of coordinate of the form

$$x = u^2 \hat{x} + r, \quad y = u^{2g+1} \hat{y} + t(\hat{x}),$$

where $u \in \mathbb{F}_q^*, r \in \mathbb{F}_q$ and t is a polynomial over \mathbb{F}_q of degree $\leq g$.

This allows us to justify the isomorphic transformations of imaginary hyperelliptic curves of genus 2 described in [34]:

If char(\mathbb{F}_q) is odd, then Equation (3.5) can be shortened as $y^2 = x^5 + f_4 x^4 + f_3 x^3 + f_2 x^2 + f_1 x + f_0$; if in addition char $\mathbb{F}_q \neq 5$, we further have $f_4 = 0$.

If char(\mathbb{F}_q) = 2, then Equation (3.5) can be transformed to $y^2 + (x^2 + h_1 x + h_0)y = x^5 + f_1 x + f_0$, or $y^2 + (h_1 x + h_0)y = x^5 + f_4 x^4 + f_2 x^2 + f_1 x + f_0$.

3.3.3 Real Hyperelliptic Curves

This case occurs when the infinite place of the subfield $\mathbb{F}_q(x)$ of $\mathbb{F}_q(C)$ splits and the curve is given by the model

$$y^{2} + h(x)y = f(x), \quad \deg(h) \le g + 1, \deg(f) \le 2g + 2.$$
 (3.6)

We adapt the statement and proof of Theorem 7 to the case of real hyperelliptic curves, and present them as follows.

Theorem 8 The equation given by (3.6) of a hyperelliptic curve is unique up to a change of coordinates of the form

$$x = u\hat{x} + r, \quad y = \pm u^{g+1}\hat{y} + t(\hat{x}),$$

where $u \in \mathbb{F}_q^*, r \in \mathbb{F}_q$ and t is a polynomial over \mathbb{F}_q with t = 0 if q is odd, and $\deg(t) \leq g + 1$ if q is even.

Proof Let us first briefly review how Equation (3.6) is obtained. Let P_{∞} be the place at infinity of $\mathbb{F}_q(x)$, which splits in $\mathbb{F}_q(C)$ with $\{\infty_1, \infty_2\}$ lying above. Then by construction, we have that the Riemann-Roch space $L(P_{\infty})$ has basis $\{1, x\}$. For $1 \leq j \leq g$ we have dim $L(jP_{\infty}) \geq 2j - g + 1$, by the Riemann-Roch theorem, and the elements $\{1, x, x^2, \ldots, x^j\}$ are linearly independent over \mathbb{F}_q in $L(jP_{\infty})$. We also have dim $L(gP_{\infty}) = \deg(gP_{\infty}) - g + 1 = g + 1$, dim $L((g+1)P_{\infty}) = \deg((g+1)P_{\infty}) - g + 1 = g + 3$, for deg $(gP_{\infty}) = 2g > 2(g-1)$ and deg $((g+1)P_{\infty}) = 2g + 2 > 2(g-1)$. The g + 1 functions $1, x, x^2, \ldots, x^g$ form a basis for $L(gP_{\infty})$.

The function $x^{g+1} \in L((g+1)P_{\infty}) \setminus L(gP_{\infty})$. To form a basis for $L((g+1)P_{\infty})$, there must be another function, y, which is linearly independent of the powers of x, in $L((g+1)P_{\infty}) \setminus L(gP_{\infty})$. Now we look at $L(2(g+1)P_{\infty})$, which is (3g+5)dimensional and contains the 3g+6 functions

$$1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{g+1}, y, x^{g+2}, xy, \dots, x^{2g+2}, x^{g+1}y, y^2.$$
(3.7)

Therefore there is a nontrivial \mathbb{F}_q -linear relationship among them. Since the functions of powers of x in (3.7) are linearly independent over \mathbb{F}_q and $y \notin K[x]$, the coefficient of y^2 must not be 0. Multiplying the linear relation with the multiplicative inverse of the coefficient of y^2 we obtain the model of the curve in the form of (3.6). Furthermore, W.L.O.G¹, we may assume the conditions on coefficients and degrees as in Definition 6 are satisfied.

Now suppose \hat{x} and \hat{y} are another such pair of functions as x and y above. Then $\hat{x} \in L(P_{\infty})$, and we must have $x = a\hat{x} + r$ for some $a \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$, $r \in \mathbb{F}_q$. Similarly, $\hat{y} \in L((g+1)P_{\infty})$, and thus we have $y = b\hat{y} + t(\hat{x})$ for $b \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$ and $t(\hat{x}) \in \mathbb{F}_q[\hat{x}]$, $\deg(t) \leq g+1$.

If q is odd, then the monicity of the coefficients for \hat{x}^{2g+2} and \hat{y}^2 and degeneracy of the term $\hat{x}\hat{y}$ implies that $b^2 = a^{2g+2}$ and t(x) = 0. Let u = a. Then $u \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$ and $b = \pm u^{g+1}$.

If q is even, then the model in x and y is in the form of (3.6) with h monic of degree g + 1, and either (a) $\deg(f) \leq 2g + 1$, or (b) $\deg(f) = 2g + 2$ and f has a leading coefficient $\beta^2 + \beta$ for some $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$. Let t_1 be the coefficient of \hat{x}^{g+1} in $t(\hat{x})$. We look at the coefficients of the terms in \hat{x} and \hat{y} with pole order 2g + 2 at ∞_1 (or ∞_2). In case (a), we have $b^2\hat{y}^2 + a^{g+1}b\hat{x}^{g+1}\hat{y} = (t_1^2 + a^{g+1}t_1)\hat{x}^{2g+2}$, i.e., $\hat{y}^2 + (a^{g+1}/b)\hat{x}^{g+1}\hat{y} = (1/b^2)(t_1^2 + a^{g+1}t_1)\hat{x}^{2g+2}$. Therefore, we must have $a^{g+1}/b = 1$, i.e., $b = a^{g+1}$. Let u = a. Then $b = u^{g+1}$. And either the coefficient of \hat{x}^{2g+2} is 0, if $t_1 = 0$, or it is equal to $z^2 + z$, where $z = t_1/u^{g+1} \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$ with $t_1 \neq 0$. Similarly, in case (b), we let u = a. Then we have $b = u^{g+1}$ and \hat{x}^{2g+2} has coefficient of the form $z^2 + z$, where $z = \beta + t_1/b$. This completes the proof.

¹If q is odd, make the change of variable $y \leftarrow y - h(x)/2$; if q is even, cf. [38], Theorem 7.

A genus 2 real hyperelliptic curve C over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q can be given by the equation

$$y^2 + h(x)y = f(x),$$

where $h(x) = (h_3 x^3 + h_2 x^2 + h_1 x + h_0), f(x) = f_6 x^6 + f_5 x^5 + f_4 x^4 + f_3 x^3 + f_2 x^2 + f_1 x + f_0,$ and $h_i, f_j \in \mathbb{F}_q.$

If char(\mathbb{F}_q) is odd, then h = 0 and $f_6 = 1$. In particular, if char(\mathbb{F}_q) > 3, f(x) can be written as $f(x) = x^6 + f_4 x^4 + f_3 x^3 + f_2 x^2 + f_1 x + f_0$ with a linear change of variable $x \leftarrow x + f_5/6$. This shorter equation is equivalent to the original one, in the sense that they give the same coordinate ring.

If char(\mathbb{F}_q) = 2, then h(x) is monic, deg(h) = 3, and either deg(f) \leq 5, or deg(f) = 6 and f_6 is of form $\beta^2 + \beta \neq 0$ for some $e \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$.

Now suppose C is written in the form

$$y^{2} + (x^{3} + h_{2}x^{2} + h_{1}x + h_{0})y = f_{6}x^{6} + f_{5}x^{5} + f_{4}x^{4} + f_{3}x^{3} + f_{2}x^{2} + f_{1}x + f_{0}y^{2}$$

where $f_6 = e^2 + e \in \mathbb{F}_q$, which can be zero or nonzero. The change of variable $x \leftarrow x + h_2$ makes the h_2 term vanish.

$$C: y^{2} + (x^{3} + h_{1}x + h_{0})y = f_{6}x^{6} + f_{5}x^{5} + f_{4}x^{4} + f_{3}x^{3} + f_{2}x^{2} + f_{1}x + f_{0}.$$

Then $y \leftarrow y + f_5 x^2$ eliminates the f_5 term.

$$C: y^{2} + (x^{3} + h_{1}x + h_{0})y = f_{6}x^{6} + f_{4}x^{4} + f_{3}x^{3} + f_{2}x^{2} + f_{1}x + f_{0}.$$

Then $y \leftarrow y + f_4 x$ eliminates the f_4 term

$$C: y^{2} + (x^{3} + h_{1}x + h_{0})y = f_{6}x^{6} + f_{3}x^{3} + f_{2}x^{2} + f_{1}x + f_{0}.$$

Then $y \leftarrow y + f_3$ eliminates the f_3 term

$$C: y^{2} + (x^{3} + h_{1}x + h_{0})y = f_{6}x^{6} + f_{2}x^{2} + f_{1}x + f_{0}.$$

This is the shortest Weierstraß equation we can use.

3.4 Explicit Formulas for Elliptic and Genus 2 Imaginary Hyperelliptic Curves

3.4.1 Mumford Representation and Cantor's algorithm

In order to use the Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve in cryptography, we must have a compact encoding of its elements as well as efficient arithmetic operations on the elements. For imaginary hyperelliptic curves, the Mumford representation of the degree 0 divisor class and Cantor's algorithm provide the facilities to do so.

Theorem 9 (Mumford representation, cf. [14,39]) Let C be a genus g hyperelliptic curve given by $C : y^2 + h(x)y = f(x)$, where $h, f \in \mathbb{F}_q[x], \deg(f) = 2g + 1, \deg(h) \leq g$. Each nontrivial divisor class over \mathbb{F}_q can be represented via a unique pair of polynomials u(x) and $v(x), u, v \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$, where

- 1. u is monic,
- 2. $\deg(v) < \deg(u) \le g$,
- 3. $u|v^2 vh f$.

Let $D = \sum_{i=1}^{r} P_i - r\infty$, where $P_i \neq \infty$, $P_i \neq -P_j$ for $i \neq j$ and $r \leq g$. Put $P_i = (x_i, y_i)$. Then the divisor class of D is represented by

$$u(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} (x - x_i)$$

and if P_i occurs n_i times then

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)\left[v(x)^2 - v(x)h(x) - f(x)\right]|_{x=x_i} = 0, \text{ for } 0 \le j \le n_i - 1.$$

Such a pair [u, v] is called a Mumford representation of divisor class of the curve C (or ideal class of the corresponding affine coordinate ring $\mathbb{F}_q[C]$).

The Mumford representation is usually defined for elements of the Jacobian of an imaginary hyperelliptic curve, as described above. For real hyperelliptic curves, an analogous definition is also achievable for the *infrastructure* within the Jacobian of the curve. We will expose more on it in Section 3.5.

As an analogue of the composition of binary quadratic forms originated by Gauss, the Cantor's algorithm [33,40] realizes the hyperelliptic curve Jacobian group law by working on the Mumford representation of the elements.

Algorithm 1 Cantor's algorithm Input: Two divisor classes $\overline{D}_1 = [u_1, v_1]$ and $\overline{D}_2 = [u_2, v_2]$ on the curve $C : y^2 + h(x)y = f(x)$. Output: The unique reduced divisor D = [U, V] such that $\overline{D} = \overline{D}_1 \oplus \overline{D}_2$. 1: $d_1 \leftarrow \gcd(u_1, u_2); d_1 = e_1u_1 + e_2u_2$ 2: $d \leftarrow \gcd(d_1, h - v_1 - v_2); d = c_1d_1 + c_2(h - v_1 - v_2)$ 3: $s_1 \leftarrow c_1e_1, s_2 \leftarrow c_1e_2$ and $s_3 \leftarrow c_2$ 4: $U \leftarrow u_1u_2/d^2$ and $V \leftarrow (s_3(v_1v_2 + f) - s_1u_1v_2 - s_2u_2v_1)/d \pmod{U}$ 5: repeat 6: $U' \leftarrow (f + Vh - V^2)/U$ and $V' \leftarrow h - V \pmod{U'}$ 7: $U \leftarrow U'$ and $V \leftarrow V'$ 8: until deg $(U) \leq g$ 9: make U monic and return [U, V]

Again, Cantor's algorithm is designed to work for hyperelliptic curve in the imaginary model, but it can be modified for the infrastructure of real hyperelliptic curves. We will have more discussion in Section 3.5.

3.4.2 Elliptic Curves And Genus 2 Hyperelliptic Curves in the Imaginary Model

An elliptic curve E with a point ∞ at infinity is isomorphic to its degree 0 divisor class group $Pic^0(C)$. Applying Cantor's algorithm to E, the well-known group law can be explicitly described as follows. **Theorem 10 (Group Law Algorithm 2.3, [41])** Let E be an elliptic curve given by a Weierstraß equation

$$E: y^2 + a_1 x y + a_3 y = x^3 + a_2 x^2 + a_4 x + a_6.$$

(a) Let $P_0 = (x_0, y_0) \in E$. Then

$$-P_0 = (x_0, -y_0 - a_1 x_0 - a_3).$$

 $Now \ let$

$$P_1 + P_2 = P_3 \quad with \quad P_i = (x_i, y_i) \in E$$

(b) If $x_1 = x_2$ and $y_1 + y_2 + a_1x_2 + a_3 = 0$, then

$$P_1 + P_2 = \infty.$$

Otherwise let

$$\lambda = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}, \quad \mu = \frac{y_1 x_2 - y_2 x_1}{x_2 - x_1} \quad \text{if } x_1 \neq x_2;$$
$$\lambda = \frac{2x_1^2 + 2a_2 x_1 + a_4 - a_1 y_1}{2y_1 + a_1 x_1 + a_3},$$
$$\mu = \frac{-x_1^3 + a_4 x_1 + 2a_6 - a_3 y_1}{2y_1 + a_1 x_1 + a_3} \quad \text{if } x_1 = x_2.$$

(c) $P_3 = P_1 + P_2$ is given by

$$x_3 = \lambda^2 + a_1 \lambda - a_2 - x_1 - x_2,$$

$$y_3 = -(\lambda + a_1)x_3 - \mu - a_3.$$

(d) As special cases of (c), we have for $P_1 \neq \pm P_2$,

$$x(P_1 + P_2) = \left(\frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}\right)^2 + a_1\left(\frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}\right) - a_2 - x_1 - x_2;$$

and the doubling formula for $P = (x, y) \in E$,

$$x([2]P) = \frac{x^4 - b_4 x^2 - 2b_6 x - b_8}{4x^3 + b_2 x^2 + 2b_4 x + b_6},$$

where

$$b_2 = a_1^2 + 4a_2, \quad b_4 = 2a_4 + a_1a_3, \quad b_6 = a_3^2 + 4a_6 \quad and$$

 $b_8 = a_1^2a_6 + 4a_2a_6 - a_1a_3a_4 + a_2a_3^2 - a_4^2.$

The Riemann Hypothesis for abelian varieties over finite fields (cf. [42]) implies that the cardinality of the rational points of the Jacobian variety of a genus q curve over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q is approximately q^g . This is q^2 for the case of genus 2. It is the 1-1 correspondence, as shown in (3.2), between the categories of divisor class groups of imaginary genus 2 hyperelliptic and ideal class groups of the coordinate ring $\mathbb{F}_q[C]$ of the curve that makes the arithmetic on divisor class groups well understood. Thus it becomes clear how to do discrete logarithm based cryptography on Jacobians of imaginary genus 2 curves. Given that the best attacks to the discrete logarithm problem in a genus 2 Jacobian are the generic ones that have complexity $O(\sqrt{N})$, where N is the group order (cardinality), the use of Jacobians of genus 2 curves for discrete logarithm based cryptography versus elliptic curves (genus 1 case), though more complicated, has the advantage that to achieve the same level of security, it requires a smaller size of the underlying finite field in which we do the actual arithmetic. Genus 2 curves for cryptography are more suitable for smaller processor architectures, and may potentially offer us extra efficiency, compared to their elliptic curve counterpart [43]. The rigorous argument cannot be easily made; it is complicated by many factors, including design and implementation. To make such an estimate feasible, a first and very important step is to understand better the divisor arithmetic for genus 2 curves.

Following T. Lange's pioneering work [34], extensive efforts have been put into the research on explicit formulas, i.e., formulas written in terms of actually field arithmetic, for imaginary genus 2 hyperelliptic curves of the following form:

$$C: y^{2} + h(x)y = f(x), \qquad (3.8)$$

where f(x) is a degree 5 polynomial defined over the finite field \mathbb{F}_q , and deg $(h) \leq 2$.

Such explicit formulas are computationally more efficient than the generic algorithm (the Cantor's algorithm) given in polynomial operations, for performing the group law in the Jacobian of genus 2 curves. The following Tables 3.1 and 3.2 show a performance comparison of the generic algorithm and the explicit formulas. The code is written in C++ and built over the libg2hec genus 2 crypto library [44] using

the gcc compiler version 4.2.3 with flag -O2. The libg2hec library uses field arithmetic provided by V. Shoup's NTL library [45], and implements the Cantor's algorithm as in Algorithm 1 and the explicit formulas for imaginary genus 2 curves in affine coordinates. The experiment was done on a Lenovo ThinkPad T61 laptop computer which has an Intel(R) Core 2 Duo processor (T7300 2.0GHz), 2 GB RAM, and runs Linux kernel version 2.6.24-19.

Table 3.1: Performance Comparison: average time (in ms) for one addition/doubling over prime fields of size ℓ (in bits)

Size ℓ (in bits)	Cant. add	Expli. add	Cant. doub.	Expli. doub.
80	0.07608	0.05528	0.08232	0.06728
160	0.09956	0.07396	0.10912	0.08948
256	0.13248	0.103	0.14564	0.1246
324	0.16784	0.13092	0.18616	0.15976
512	0.23188	0.17708	0.26068	0.21864
1024	0.52108	0.37364	0.57692	0.45828

Table 3.2: Ratio of Operational Times

Size ℓ (in bits)	80	160	256	324	512	1024
Cant./Expli. add	1.37627	1.34613	1.28621	1.282	1.30946	1.3946
Cant./Expli. doub.	1.22354	1.21949	1.16886	1.16525	1.19228	1.25888

3.5 Genus 2 Hyperelliptic Curves in Real Model

We shall consider another type of genus 2 curve, i.e., *real genus 2 hyperelliptic curves*. Recall that they have the form

$$C: y^{2} + h(x)y = f(x), \qquad (3.9)$$

where $f, h \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$ are such that $y^2 + h(x)y - f(x)$ is absolutely irreducible, i.e. irreducible over \mathbb{F}_q , and if $b^2 + h(a)b = f(a)$ for $(a, b) \in \mathbb{F}_q \times \mathbb{F}_q$, then $2b + h(a) \neq 0$ or $h'(a)b - f'(a) \neq 0$. If q is odd, then f is monic, $h = 0, \deg(f) = 6$. If q is even, then h is monic, $\deg(h) = 3$, and either (a) $\deg(f) \leq 5$ or (b) $\deg(f) = 6$ and the leading coefficient of f is of the form $\beta^2 + \beta$ for some $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$.

A genus 2 curve of this form has two "points at infinity." Unlike the case of imaginary genus 2 hyperelliptic curves, the divisor class group of a real genus 2 hyperelliptic curve does not correspond nicely to the ideal class group of the coordinate ring $\mathbb{F}_q[C]$ of the curve (cf. (3.3) or [36], Proposition 14.7). Moreover, as in the number field case, each ideal class of the function field K is not uniquely represented by reduced ideals. This creates obstacles for using the ideal class group of a real hyperelliptic curve for computation, hence limits the use of real hyperelliptic curves in discrete logarithm based cryptography. However, the *infrastructure* of the divisor class group leads us to look at the problem from a different perspective. The following theorem sets up a connection between the divisor class group and the set of reduced ideals of $\mathbb{F}_q(C)$.

Theorem 11 (Paulus-Rück, 1999, [46]) There is a canonical bijection between the divisor class group $Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C)$ and the set of pairs $\{(\mathfrak{a}, n)\}$, where \mathfrak{a} is a reduced ideal of $\mathbb{F}_q[C]$ and n is a non-negative integer with $0 \leq \deg(\mathfrak{a}) + n \leq g$.

For arithmetic purposes, we restrict our attention to the special subset $\mathcal{R} := \{(\mathfrak{a}, 0) : \mathfrak{a} \text{ reduced and principal}\}$ of the Jacobian (up to isomorphism). Define the

regulator R of $\mathbb{F}_q(C)$ in $\mathbb{F}_q[C]$ to be the order of $\infty_1 - \infty_2$ in $Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C)$. Recall from (3.3) the group isomorphism

$$Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C)/\langle \infty_1 - \infty_2 \rangle \simeq Cl(\mathbb{F}_q[C]).$$

Now it is clear that $\#\mathcal{R} \leq R$.

 \mathcal{R} can be made into a totally ordered set with an order introduced by a *distance* function $\delta(\cdot)$ as follows: Fix the trivial ideal $\mathfrak{a}_1 = (1) = \mathbb{F}_q[C] \in \mathcal{R}$. For any ideal $\mathfrak{b} \in \mathcal{R}$, by definition, there exists $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_q(C)^*$ such that $\mathfrak{b} = (\alpha)\mathfrak{a}_1$. Let $\delta(b) = -\nu_1(\alpha)$ (mod R), where ν_1 is the normalized valuation of $\mathbb{F}_q(C)$ at ∞_1 .² It follows that elements in R are uniquely determined by their distances, and that \mathcal{R} is a totally ordered set by distance [47]. More precisely, we can write $\mathcal{R} = {\mathfrak{a}_1, \mathfrak{a}_2, \ldots, \mathfrak{a}_m}$, where $m \leq R$ and $0 = \delta(\mathfrak{a}_1) < \delta(\mathfrak{a}_2) < \ldots < \delta(\mathfrak{a}_m) < R$. Given the one-to-one correspondence discussed in Theorem 11, this can also be written as

$$\mathcal{R} = \{\overline{D}_1, \overline{D}_2, \dots, \overline{D}_m\}, \text{ where } m \leq R, \text{ and } 0 = \delta(\overline{D}_1) < \dots < \delta(\overline{D}_m) < R,$$

in divisor class notation. The set \mathcal{R} with the distance function $\delta(\cdot)$ is called the *infrastructure* of the principal ideal class.

An algorithm for performing arithmetic operations in \mathcal{R} has been presented in [17, 46, 48]. It consists of three steps:

- (a) composition of reduced ideals,
- (b) reduction of the primitive part of the product, and
- (c) baby steps, i.e. adjusting the output of the reduction so that the degree condition of the theorem is satisfied.

Step (a) and (b) together are called a *giant step*. A giant step, often written as $\mathbf{a}_i \cdot \mathbf{a}_j$ (or equivalently, $\overline{D}_i + \overline{D}_j$), is the analogue of the group operation in the imaginary case. A baby step is unique to real hyperelliptic curves. As described in [35], it is the operation $\mathbf{a}_i \to \mathbf{a}_{i+1}$ (or equivalently, $\overline{D}_i \to \overline{D}_{i+1}$).

²The normalized valuation ν_1 takes value -1 at x.

Note that \mathcal{R} is not a group with respect to the giant step operation, because associativity does not necessarily hold [49]. However, it is true that for $D, D' \in \mathcal{R}$ we have

$$\delta(D+D') = \delta(D) + \delta(D') - d, \text{ where } 0 \le d \le 4,$$

and d can be efficiently computed (see, for example, Section 2 of [49]). This allows us to do cryptography in \mathcal{R} . Several key-exchange protocols based on arithmetic in \mathcal{R} have been presented in [49]. The need for efficient implementation of these protocols promotes investigations on explicit arithmetic in divisor class groups of real genus 2 hyperelliptic curves.

Our research focuses on the *explicit formulas*: we use the (affine) Mumford representation (defined in Section 3.6 below) of the divisor classes of real hyperelliptic curves, apply the composition and reduction algorithms for operations in \mathcal{R} , work on finite field arithmetic directly to derive the baby step and giant step (divisor addition and doubling) formulas, and optimize the results. We only present the result on divisor doubling formulas for the giant step in detail in this thesis. Further information about the baby step and addition formulas can be found in [35, 50, 51]

3.6 Explicit Formulas for the Real Model

We now restrict our attention to the arithmetic of the subset of $Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C)$ that corresponds to \mathcal{R} . Note that any element in \mathcal{R} corresponds uniquely to a reduced principal ideal \mathfrak{a} of $\mathbb{F}[C]$, which can be represented by a pair [u, v] of polynomials. Therefore, we only look at and perform operations on elements of $Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C)$ which are given by a pair $\overline{D} = [u, v]$ of polynomials over \mathbb{F}_q , such that

- 1. u is monic,
- 2. $\deg(u) \le g$,
- 3. $u|v^2 vh f$,
- 4. one of the following conditions is satisfied:

- (a) for the *adapted (standard) basis*: $\deg(v) < \deg(u)$, or
- (b) for the reduced basis: $-\nu_1(v-h-y) < -\nu_1(u) < -\nu_1(v+y)$.

If only 1, 3, and 4 are satisfied, \overline{D} is called *semi-reduced*. If all four conditions are satisfied, then \overline{D} is called *reduced*. For details on the above representation, see [35,47].

This is the Mumford representation of divisor classes in the infrastructure \mathcal{R} (in adapted/reduced basis). As with Cantor's algorithm in the case of imaginary hyperelliptic curves, operation can be applied to \mathcal{R} to compose or reduce divisors, and thus implement the baby step and giant step operations. The algorithms are introduced in [35]. We describe them in Algorithms 2 and 3, as follows:

Algorithm 2 Composition

Input: Two divisor classes $\bar{D}_1 = [u_1, v_1]$ and $\bar{D}_2 = [u_2, v_2]$ on the curve $C : y^2 + h(x)y = f(x)$. **Output:** A semi-reduced divisor D = [U, V] such that $\bar{D} = \bar{D}_1 \oplus \bar{D}_2$. 1: $d \leftarrow \gcd(u_1, u_2, v_1 + v_2 + h) = x_1u_1 + x_2u_2 + x_3(v_1 + v_2 + h)$ 2: $U \leftarrow u_1u_2/d^2$ and $V \leftarrow (x_3(v_1v_2 + f) + x_1u_1v_2 + x_2u_2v_1)/d \pmod{U}$

Let $H(x) = \lfloor y \rfloor$ be the principal part of a root y of $y^2 + h(x)y - f(x) = 0$, i.e., if $y = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{m} y_i x^i \in \mathbb{F}_q \langle x^{-1} \rangle$, then $H(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} y_i x^i$.

Algorithm 3 Reduction

Input: A divisor class $\overline{D} = [u, v]$ the curve $C : y^2 + h(x)y = f(x)$.

Output: A reduced divisor D' = [U, V] such that $\overline{D}' = \overline{D}$.

- 1: $a \leftarrow (v + H(x))$ div u.
- 2: repeat
- 3: $V \leftarrow v au, U \leftarrow (f + hV V^2)/u.$
- 4: **until** $\deg(U) \leq g$
- 5: Make U monic and adjust V to a adapted/reduced basis if necessary.

Let [u, v] be a Mumford representation of a divisor class in \mathcal{R} . We discuss explicit formulas for divisor class addition (ideal multiplication), divisor class doubling (ideal squaring), and a baby step (ideal reduction). We present doubling formulas in detail. The formulas are presented for both the adapted and reduced bases.

While the formulas are given for the hyperelliptic curve in the most general form

$$C: y^{2} + h(x)y = f(x), \qquad (3.1)$$

where $h(x) = h_3 x^3 + h_2 x^2 + h_1 x + h_0$ and $f(x) = f_6 x^6 + f_5 x^5 + f_4 x^4 + f_3 x^3 + f_2 x^2 + f_1 x + f_0$, we make the following assumptions when counting the number of finite field operations.

• If the characteristic of the field is a prime p > 3, we can transform the general equation defining the curve to one of the form

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

that is equivalent to the original curve, where $f(x) = x^6 + f_4 x^4 + f_3 x^3 + f_2 x^2 + f_1 x + f_0$. i.e., we can assume that h(x) = 0, the leading coefficient of f(x) is 1, and the x^5 term of f(x) is 0.

• If the characteristic of the field is 2, we consider the hyperelliptic curve given by an equation of the form

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

where $f(x) = f_6 x^6 + f_2 x^2 + f_1 x + f_0$, and $h(x) = x^3 + h_1 x + h_0$. In this case, f_6 is of the form $\beta^2 + \beta$ for some $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$. We ignore the count for multiplications by f_6 or β in explicit formulas.

With the assumptions above, we write $y = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{m} y_i x^i \in \mathbb{F}_q \langle x^{-1} \rangle$, substitute it into the curve equation, determine the values y_i by comparing coefficients of powers of x, and pre-compute $H(x) = y_3 x^3 + y_2 x^2 + y_1 x + y_0$ as follows. If the finite field has odd characteristic and

$$f(x) = x^{6} + f_{4}x^{4} + f_{3}x^{3} + f_{2}x^{2} + f_{1}x + f_{0} \qquad h(x) = 0,$$

we have $y_3 = 1$, $y_2 = 0$, $y_1 = f_4/2$ and $y_0 = f_3/2$. Therefore a reduced basis [u, v]in this case has v of the form $v(x) = x^3 + v_1x + v_0$. If the finite field has an even characteristic and

$$f(x) = (\beta^2 + \beta)x^6 + f_2x^2 + f_1x + f_0, \quad h(x) = x^3 + h_1x + 1,$$

we have $y_3 = \beta'$, $y_2 = 0$, $y_1 = \beta' h_1$ and $y_0 = \beta' h_0$, where $\beta' = \beta$ or $\beta + 1$. Note that in this case $H(x) = \beta' h(x)$. In this case, a reduced basis [u, v] has v of the form $(1 + \beta')x^3 + v_1x + v_0$.

3.6.1 Baby Step and Addition Formulas

We do not present in this thesis the baby step and addition formulas, which will be available in [50]. Partial results of the current research is summarized in Table 3.11.

3.6.2 Doubling Formulas

3.6.2.1 Algorithm for Divisor Doubling

Let [u, v] be a degree 2 reduced divisor written in the Mumford representation, with both points of the divisor not equal to their opposites. To perform divisor doubling, compute the following expressions. Similar formulas for simplification of the Cantor's algorithm for genus 2 imaginary hyperelliptic curves were first suggested by R. Harley in [52] and extended by T. Lange [39] et. al. We will show that these formulas give the desired result.

$$\begin{split} \widetilde{v} &\equiv 2v - h \pmod{u} \qquad r = \operatorname{resultant}(u, \widetilde{v}) \\ inv &\equiv r(\widetilde{v})^{-1} \pmod{u} \qquad k = (f + hv - v^2)/u \\ s' &\equiv k \cdot inv \pmod{u} \qquad s = \frac{1}{r} \cdot s' \\ \widetilde{u} &= s^2 + ((2v - h)s - k)/u \quad u' = \widetilde{u} \text{ made monic} \\ \text{Adapted basis:} \qquad v' = h - su - v \pmod{u'} \\ \text{Reduced basis:} \qquad v' = H(x) + h(x) - [(H(x) + s \cdot u + v) \pmod{u'}] \end{split}$$

Let $[u, v] = [x^2 + u_1 x + u_0, x^3 + v_1 x + v_0]$ be a degree two reduced basis Mumford representation with both points of the divisor not equal to their opposites. Then Cantor's Algorithm for doubling the divisor (u, v) must result in (U_1, V_1) such that

$$U_0 = u^2$$

$$V_0 \equiv v \pmod{u}$$

$$(V_0 = v + su \text{ for some } s)$$

$$V_1 = h - V_0 + \left\lfloor \frac{V_0 + H(y)}{U_0} \right\rfloor U_0$$

$$U_1 = (f + h \cdot V_1 - V_1^2)/U_0$$

Here, s is chosen such that U_0 divides $V_0^2 - h \cdot V_0 - f$. Again, $\left\lfloor \frac{V_0 + H(x)}{U_0} \right\rfloor$ is zero since U_0 has degree 4 and $V_0 + H(y)$ has degree 3. Hence, $V_1 = h - V_0 = h - su - v$ and

$$U_{1} = \left(f + h \cdot (h - su - v) - (h - su - v)^{2}\right) / u^{2}$$

= $\left(f + hv - v^{2} - us(2v - h) - s^{2}u^{2}\right) / u^{2}$
= $\left((f + hv - v^{2})/u - (2v - h)s\right) / u - s^{2}$
= $\left(k - (2v - h)s\right) / u - s^{2}$

where the division in $k = (f+hv-v^2)/u$ is exact. To make the division of k-(2v-h)sby u exact, we choose $s \equiv k \cdot (2v-h)^{-1} \pmod{u}$, and obtain

$$k - (2v - h)s \equiv k - (2v - h) \cdot k \cdot (2v - h)^{-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{u}$$
.

Finally, we reduce $[U_1, V_1]$ into either adapted or reduced basis. U_1 is made monic to yield

$$u' = s^2 + (2vs - k)/u$$
 made monic.

For the adapted basis, $v' = V_1 \mod u'$. For the reduced basis, $v' = H(x) + h(x) - [H(x) + h(x) - V_1 \mod u'] = H(x) + h(x) - [(H(x) + su + v) \mod u']$.

3.6.2.2 General Explicit Formulas for Divisor Doubling

Instead of following the doubling formulas described in Section 3.6.2.1 with polynomial operations, we write the result of each step in terms of finite field operations, optimize manually using techniques like Karatsuba multiplication, subexpression elimination, etc., and derive the **explicit formulas** for divisor doubling in this chapter.

We only count inversions, multiplications and squarings of finite field elements, which consist of the bulk of the computation when compared with addition and subtractions. In the tables below, we denote finite field "inversion", "multiplication," and "squaring" by I, M, and S, respectively.

The resulting explicit formulas are presented in Tables 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5.

Throughout the chapter, the total number of operations in parentheses are for the case of even characteristic.

Doubling, General Case , $\deg u = 2$					
Input	Input $[u, v], u = x^2 + u_1 x + u_0, v = v_3 x^3 + v_2 x^2 + v_1 x + v_0$				
Output	put $[u', v'] = 2[u, v] := [u, v] + [u, v]$				
Step	Expression	adapted	reduced		
1	$\widetilde{\underline{v}} = \widetilde{v}_1 x + \widetilde{v}_0$	\mathbf{S}	$^{\rm S,M}$		
	$w_1 = u_1^2, t_i = 2v_i - h_i, i = 0, 1, 2, 3$	(S, M)			
Continued on next page					

Table 3.3: Explicit Formulas for Doubling Divisor Classes

Step	Expression	adapted	reduced
	$\widetilde{v}_1 = t_3(w_1 - u_0) - t_2 u_1 + t_1,$		
	$\widetilde{v}_0 = u_0 \cdot (t_3 u_1 - t_2) + t_0$		
2	$\underline{r = res(\widetilde{v}, u), \ inv = inv_1x + inv_0}$	4M	4M
	$w_2 = u_0 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1, w_3 = u_1 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1,$		
	$inv_1 = -\widetilde{v}_1, \ inv_0 = \widetilde{v}_0 - w_3,$		
	$r = \widetilde{v}_0 \cdot inv_0 + \widetilde{v}_1 \cdot w_2$		
3	$k' \equiv (f + hv - v^2)/u \pmod{u} = k'_1 x + k'_0:$	2S, 3M	S, 3M
	$k'_4 = f_6 + v_3(h_3 - v_3), \ k'_3 = f_5 - t_2v_3 + h_3v_2 - b_3v_3 + b_3v_3 + b_3v_3 - b_3v_3 + b_$	(2S, 2M)	(3M)
	$2k'_4u_1,$		
	$k_2' = f_4 - t_1 v_3 + v_2 (h_2 - v_2) + h_3 v_1 - 2k_3' u_1 - k_3' u_1 - k_3' u_1 - k_3' u_1 - k_3' u_2 - k_3' u_1 - k_3' u_2 - k_3' u_3 - k$		
	$k_4'(w_1 + 2u_0),$		
	$k_1' = f_3 - t_0 v_3 - t_1 v_2 + h_2 v_1 + h_3 v_0 - 2u_1 (k_2' + k_2') + h_2 v_1 + h_3 v_0 - 2u_1 (k_2' + k_2') + h_3 v_0$		
	$k_4'u_0) - k_3'(w_1 + 2u_0),$		
	$k'_0 = f_2 - t_0 v_2 + v_1 (h_1 - v_1) + h_2 v_0 - (k'_1 + v_2) + h_2$		
	$2k_3'u_0)u_1 - k_2'(w_1 + 2u_0) - k_4'u_0^2$		
4	$\underline{s' = s_1'x + s_0'}$	4M	4M
	$s_1' = \widetilde{v}_0 \cdot k_1' - \widetilde{v}_1 \cdot k_0', \ s_0' = w_2 \cdot k_1' + inv_0 \cdot k_0'$		
\checkmark	Set $r_2 = r^2$. Check conditions to see if \hat{w}_0 will	S	S
	be 0 in Step 5 below; if it will, see Doubling		
	Special Cases: Table 3.4 or Table 3.5.		
		(S, M)	
5	Inversion, r^{-1} , s_0 , s_1 , \widetilde{u}_2^{-1}	I, S, 6M	I, 7M
	$\widehat{w}_0 = s_1' \cdot (t_3 r + s_1') - k_4' r_2 (= r^2 \widetilde{u}_2), \widehat{w}_1 = (r \cdot \widehat{w}_0)^{-1}$	(I, 6M)	
	$\widehat{w}_2 = \widehat{w}_0 \cdot \widehat{w}_1 (= \frac{1}{r}), \ \widehat{w}_3 = r \cdot r_2 \cdot \widehat{w}_1 (= \frac{1}{\widetilde{u}_2})$		
	$s_1 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s_1', s_0 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s_0'$		
6	$u' = x^2 + u'_1 x + u'_0$	S, 4M	5M
	Continued on next page		

Table 3.3 – continued from previous page $% \left({{{\rm{Tab}}} \right)$

Step	Expression	adapted	reduced
	$u_1' = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (s_1 \cdot (-u_1 t_3 + t_2 + 2s_0) + s_0 t_3 - k_3')$	(5M)	
	$u_0' = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (s_1 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1 + s_0 \cdot (-u_1 t_3 + t_2 + s_0) - k_2')$		
7	$v' = v'_3 x^3 + v'_2 x^2 + v'_1 x + v'_0$	5M	5M
	$z_0 = u'_0 - u_0, \ z_1 = u'_1 - u_1,$		
	$\underline{w}_0 = z_0 \cdot s_0, \underline{w}_1 = z_1 \cdot s_1.$		
	Adapted: $\tilde{t}_2 = -h_2, \tilde{t}_3 = -h_3$. Reduced: $\tilde{t}_2 =$		
	$v_2 + y_2, \widetilde{t}_3 = v_3 + y_3.$		
	$t = \tilde{t}_2 - \tilde{t}_3 u_1' - \underline{w}_1.$		
	Adapted: $v'_3 = v'_2 = 0$. Reduced: $v'_3 = y_3 + h_3$,		
	$v_2' = y_2 + h_2.$		
	$v'_1 = (s_0 + s_1) \cdot (z_0 + z_1) - \underline{w}_0 - \underline{w}_1 + u'_1 \cdot t +$		
	$\widetilde{t}_3 u_0' - v_1 + h_1,$		
	$v_0' = \underline{w}_0 + u_0' \cdot t - v_0 + h_0.$		
Total		I, 6S, 26M	I, 3S, 29M
		(I, 4S, 28M)	(I, 2S, 29M)

Table 3.3 – continued from previous page $% \left({{{\rm{Tab}}} \right)$

<u>Note</u>: for adapted basis, $v_3 = v_2 = 0$.

Table 3.4 :	Divisor	Doubling	Special	Case:	Adapted	Basis
		0	1		1	

	Doubling Special Case, Adapted Basis					
Step	Expression	odd	even			
\checkmark	Set $r_2 = r^2$. Check $s_1'^2 - s_1'h_3r - f_6r_2 = 0$.	S	S, M			
5'	Inversion, r^{-1} , s_1 , s_0 , \widetilde{u}_1^{-1}	I, 5M	I, 6M			
	$\widehat{w}_0 = (2s'_0 + (u_1h_3 - h_2)r)s'_1 - h_3s'_0r - k'_3r_2,$					
Continued on next page						

Step	Expression	odd	even
	$\widehat{w}_1 = (r\widehat{w}_0)^{-1}, \ \widehat{w}_2 = \widehat{w}_0\widehat{w}_1(=\frac{1}{r}), \ \widehat{w}_3 = r_2r\widehat{w}_1(=$		
	$\left(\frac{1}{\widetilde{u}_1}\right)$		
	$s_1 = \widehat{w}_2 s_1', s_0 = \widehat{w}_2 s_0'$		
6'	$\underline{u' = x + u'_0}$	S, M	3M
	$u_0' = \widehat{w}_3(s_1\widetilde{v}_1 + s_0^2 + (u_1h_3 - h_2)s_0 - k_2'$		
7'	$\underline{v'=v_0'}$	3M	S, 4M
	$v_0' = (s_0 - u_0' s_1)(u_0'(u_1 - u_0') - u_0) + u_0'(v_1 - h_1 + u_0')(v_1 - h_1')(v_1 - h_1')(v_1 - u_0')(v_1 - h_1')(v_1 - h_1')(v_1$		
	$u_0'(h_2 - u_0'h_3)) + h_1 - v_0$		
Total		I, 5S, 20M	I, 5S, 25M

Table 3.4 – continued from previous page

Table 3.5: Divisor Doubling Special Case: Reduced Basis

Doubling Special Case, Reduced Basis					
Step	Expression	if $s'_1 = 0$	$s'_1 =$		
			$-t_3r$		
\checkmark	Set $r_2 = r^2$. Check $s_1 = 0$ or $-t_3 r$.	S	S		
5'	Inversion, r^{-1} , s_1 , s_0 , \widetilde{u}_1^{-1}	I, 4M	I, 5M		
	$\widehat{w}_0 = s_1((-u_1t_3 + t_2) \cdot r + 2s'_0) + s'_0t_3 - k'_3r$				
	$\widehat{w}_1 = (r \cdot \widehat{w}_0)^{-1}, \ \widehat{w}_2 = \widehat{w}_0 \cdot \widehat{w}_1 (= \frac{1}{r}), \ \widehat{w}_3 =$				
	$r_2 \cdot \widehat{w}_1 (= \frac{1}{\widetilde{u}_1})$				
	$s_0 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s'_0$				
6'	$\underline{u' = x + u'_0}$	2M	2M		
	$u_0' = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (s_1 \widetilde{v}_1 + s_0 \cdot (-u_1 t_3 + t_2 + s_0) - k_2')$				
7'	$\underline{v' = v_3'x^3 + v_2'x^2 + v_1'x + v_0'}$	S, 3M	S, 3M		
	Continued on next page				

Step	Expression	if $s'_1 = 0$	$s'_1 =$
			$-t_3r$
	$\widetilde{t}_i = y_i + v_i, i = 1, 2, 3$		
	$v'_3 = y_3 + h_3, v'_2 = y_2 + h_2, v'_1 = y_1 + h_1,$		
	$v_0' = u_0' \cdot (u_0' \cdot (u_0' \tilde{t}_3 - \tilde{t}_2) + \tilde{t}_1) + (u_0' \cdot (u_0' - u_1) + \tilde{t}_1) + (u_0' \cdot (u_0' - u_1) + \tilde{t}_1) + \tilde{t}_1) + \tilde{t}_1 + t$		
	$u_0) \cdot (s_1 u_0' - s_0) + h_0 - v_0$		
Total		I, 4S, 21M	I, 4S, 22M
		(I, 3S, 21M)	(I, 3S, 22M)

Table 3.5 – continued from previous page

The general explicit formulas can be used regardless of the field characteristic and the choice of basis (i.e., adapted or reduced). However, in practice, we do not follow the general formulas literally. Instead, assuming isomorphic transformations as introduced in Section 3.3, we rewrite the explicit formulas with respect to different bases and characteristics, so that they are efficient and ready to implement. The results are presented in the following sections 3.6.2.3 and 3.6.2.4.

3.6.2.3 Doubling Formulas in Adapted Basis

Let $[u, v] = [x^2 + u_1 x + u_0, v_1 x + v_0]$ be a degree two divisor in adapted basis with both points of the divisor not equal to their opposites.

We assume the isomorphic transformations in Section 3.3 apply so that the hyperelliptic curve is given in the short Weierstraß form, and count the number of operations accordingly. The resulting explicit formulas are presented in Tables 3.6, 3.7 and 3.8. In Table 3.6, "Odd" and "Even" refer to the parity of the characteristic of K.

Table 3.6: Explicit Formulas for Doubling Divisor Classes

in Adapted Basis

	Doubling, Adapted Basis , $\deg u = 2$				
Input	$[u, v], u = x^2 + u_1 x + u_0, v = v_1 x + v_0$				
Output	[u', v'] = 2[u, v] := [u, v] + [u, v]				
Step	Expression	# of Opera-			
		tions			
1	$\underline{\widetilde{v}} = \widetilde{v}_1 x + \widetilde{v}_0, \ w_1 = u_1^2.$	S			
	Odd: $\tilde{v}_1 = 2v_1, \tilde{v}_0 = u_0 + 2v_0$. Even: $\tilde{v}_1 = w_1 + u_0 + h_1, \tilde{v}_0 =$	(S, M)			
	$u_0 \cdot u_1 + h_0.$				
2	$\underline{r = res(\widetilde{v}, u), \ inv = inv_1x + inv_0}$	$4\mathrm{M}$			
	$w_2 = u_0 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1, w_3 = u_1 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1$				
	$inv_1 = -\widetilde{v}_1, \ inv_0 = \widetilde{v}_0 - w_3$				
	$r = \widetilde{v}_0 \cdot inv_0 + \widetilde{v}_1 \cdot w_2$				
3	$k' \equiv (f + hv - v^2)/u \pmod{u} = k'_1 x + k'_0:$	2S, 3M			
	Odd: $k'_3 = -2u_1, k'_2 = f_4 + 3w_1 - 2u_0, k'_1 = f_3 + 2(w_1 + u_0 - u_0)$	(2S, 2M)			
	$k_2') \cdot u_1,$				
	$k_0' = f_2 - v_1^2 - k_1' \cdot u_1 - (k_2' - 4u_0) \cdot (w_1 + 2u_0) - 9u_0^2.$				
	Even: $k'_2 = v_1 + w_1, k'_1 = v_0, k'_0 = f_2 + v_1 \cdot (v_1 + h_1 + w_1) + v_0 \cdot$				
	$u_1 + w_1^2 + u_0^2$				
4	$\underline{s' = s_1'x + s_0'}$	4M			
	$s_1' = \widetilde{v}_0 \cdot k_1' - \widetilde{v}_1 \cdot k_0', \ s_0' = inv_0 \cdot k_0' + w_2 \cdot k_1'$				
\checkmark	Set $r_2 = r^2$.	S			
	Odd: if $s'_1 = \pm r$, see Table 3.7.	(S, M)			
	Even: if $s'_1 \cdot (s'_1 + r) + r_1 = 0$, see Table 3.8				
5	Inversion, r^{-1} , s_0 , s_1 , \widetilde{u}_2^{-1}	I, S, 6M			
	Continued on next page				

Step	Expression	#	of	Opera-
		tio	ns	
	Odd: $\widehat{w}_0 = s_1'^2 - r_2$. Even: $\widehat{w}_0 = s_1' \cdot (s_1' + r) + f_6 r_2$.			(I, 6M)
	$\widehat{w}_1 = (r \cdot \widehat{w}_0)^{-1},$			
	$\widehat{w}_2 = \widehat{w}_0 \cdot \widehat{w}_1(=\frac{1}{r}), \ \widehat{w}_3 = r \cdot r_2 \cdot \widehat{w}_1(=\frac{1}{\widetilde{u}_2}),$			
	$s_1 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s'_1, s_0 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s'_0.$			
6	$\underline{u' = x^2 + u_1'x + u_0'}$			S, 4M
	Odd: $u'_1 = 2\widehat{w}_3 \cdot (u_1 + s_1 \cdot s_0), u'_0 = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (-k'_2 + s_1 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1 + s_0^2).$			(5M)
	Even: $u'_1 = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (s_1 \cdot u_1 + s_0), u'_0 = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (k'_2 + s_1 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1 + s_0 \cdot (s_0 + u_1)).$			
7	$\underline{v' = v_1'x + v_0'}$			5M
	$z_0 = u'_0 - u_0, \ z_1 = u'_1 - u_1,$			
	$\underline{w}_0 = z_0 \cdot s_0, \underline{w}_1 = z_1 \cdot s_1.$			
	Odd: $v'_1 = (z_0 + z_1) \cdot (s_0 + s_1) - \underline{w}_0 - \underline{w}_1 - u'_1 \cdot \underline{w}_1 - v_1, v'_0 =$			
	$\underline{w}_0 - u'_0 \cdot \underline{w}_1 - v_0.$			
	Even: $v'_1 = (z_0 + z_1) \cdot (s_0 + s_1) + \underline{w}_0 + \underline{w}_1 + u'_1 \cdot (u'_1 + \underline{w}_1) + h_1 + v_1 + u'_0$,			
	$v'_0 = \underline{w}_0 + u'_0 \cdot (u'_1 + \underline{w}_1) + h_0 + v_0.$			
Total			Ι	,6S,26M
			(I, 4)	S, 28M)

Table 3.6 – continued from previous page

Table 3.7: Divisor Doubling Special Case: Adapted Ba-

sis, Odd Characteristic

Doubling Special Case, Adapted Basis, Odd Characteristic			
Step	Expression	# of Operations	
\checkmark	$r_2 = r^2$. Check $s'_1 = \pm r$.	S	
Continued on next page			

Step	Expression	#	of	Opera-
		tio	ns	
5'	$\underline{s = s_1 x + s_0}$			I, 5M
	$s_1 = \pm 1, \widehat{w}_0 = 2(r \cdot u_1 + s'_0 s_1), \widehat{w}_1 = (r \cdot \widehat{w}_0)^{-1}, \widehat{w}_2 = \widehat{w}_0 \cdot \widehat{w}_1 (= \frac{1}{r}),$			
	$\widehat{w}_3 = r_2 \cdot \widehat{w}_1 (= \widetilde{u}_1^{-1}), s_0 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s'_0$			
6'	$\underline{u' = x + u'_0}$			S, M
	$u_0' = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (2v_1s_1 + s_0^2 - k_2')$			
7'	$\underline{v'=v_0'}$			3M
	$v_0' = (s_0 - u_0's_1) \cdot (u_0' \cdot (u_1 - u_0') - u_0) + u_0' \cdot v_1 - v_0$			
Total			I,	5S, 20M

Table 3.7 – continued from previous page

Table 3.8: Divisor Doubling Special Case: Adapted Ba-sis, Even Characteristic

Doubling Special Case, Adapted Basis, Even Characteristic				
Step	Expression	# of Operations		
\checkmark	$r_2 = r^2$. Check $s'_1 \cdot (s'_1 + r) + r_2 = 0$.	S, M		
5'	$\underline{s = s_1 x + s_0}$	I, 6M		
	$\widehat{w}_0 = u_1 \cdot s'_1 + s'_0, \ \widehat{w}_1 = (r \cdot \widehat{w}_0)^{-1}, \ \widehat{w}_2 = \widehat{w}_0 \cdot \widehat{w}_1 (= \frac{1}{r}),$			
	$\widehat{w}_3 = r_2 \cdot \widehat{w}_1 (= \widetilde{u}_1^{-1}), \ s_1 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s_1', \ s_0 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s_0'$			
6'	$\underline{u' = x + u'_0}$	3M		
	$u_0' = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (\widetilde{v}_1 \cdot s_1 + (s_0 + u_1) \cdot s_0 + k_2')$			
7'	$\underline{v'=v_0'}$	S, 4M		
	$w = u_0^{\prime 2}, v_0^{\prime} = (s_0 + u_0^{\prime} \cdot s_1) \cdot (u_0^{\prime} \cdot u_1 + w + u_0) + u_0^{\prime} \cdot (v_1 + h_1 + v_0) + u_0^{\prime} \cdot (v_1 + v_0) + u_0^{\prime} \cdot (v_1 + v_0) + u_0^{\prime} \cdot (v_0 + v_0) +$			
	$w) + h_0 + v_0$			
Continued on next page				

Step	Expression	# of Opera-
		tions
Total		I, 5S, 25M

Table 3.8 – continued from previous page

3.6.2.4 Doubling Formulas in Reduced Basis

Let $[u, v] = [x^2 + u_1x + u_0, v_3x^3 + v_2x^2 + v_1x + v_0]$ be a degree two divisor in reduced basis with both points of the divisor not equal to their opposites.

Again, we assume the isomorphic transformations in Section 3.3 apply so that the hyperelliptic curve is given in the short Weierstraß form, and count the number of operations accordingly. The resulting explicit formulas are presented in Tables 3.9 and 3.10.

Table 3.9: Explicit Formulas for Doubling Divisor Classesin Reduced Basis

Doubling, Reduced Basis , $\deg u = 2$				
Input	$[u, v], u = x^{2} + u_{1}x + u_{0}, v = v_{3}x^{3} + v_{2}x^{2} + v_{1}x + v_{0}$			
Output	[u', v'] = 2[u, v] := [u, v] + [u, v]			
Step	Expression	# of	Opera-	
		tions		
1	$\underbrace{\widetilde{v} = \widetilde{v}_1 x + \widetilde{v}_0}_{\widetilde{v}_1} w_1 = u_1^2.$		S, M	
	Odd: $\tilde{v}_1 = 2(w_1 - u_0 + v_1), \tilde{v}_0 = 2(u_0 \cdot u_1 + v_0).$			
	Even: $\tilde{v}_1 = w_1 + u_0 + h_1, \tilde{v}_0 = u_0 \cdot u_1 + h_0.$			
2	$r = res(\widetilde{v}, u), \ inv = inv_1x + inv_0$		4M	
	$w_2 = u_0 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1, w_3 = u_1 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1,$			
Continued on next page				

Step	Expression		of	Opera-		
		tio	ıs			
	$inv_1 = -\widetilde{v}_1, \ inv_0 = \widetilde{v}_0 - w_3,$					
	$r = \widetilde{v}_0 \cdot inv_0 + \widetilde{v}_1 \cdot w_2.$					
3	$k' \equiv (f + hv - v^2)/u \pmod{u} = k'_1 x + k'_0$:			S,3M		
	Odd: $k'_2 = f_4 - 2v_1, k'_1 = f_3 - 2v_0 - 2u_1 \cdot k'_2, k'_0 = f_2 - v_1^2 - k'_1 \cdot$			(3M)		
	$u_1 - k_2' \cdot (w_1 + 2u_0).$					
	Even: $k'_2 = h_1 v_3 + v_1, k'_1 = h_0 v_3 + v_0, k'_0 = v_1 \cdot (v_1 + h_1) + f_2 + f_2$					
	$k_1' \cdot u_1 + k_2' \cdot w_1.$					
4	$\underline{s' = s_1'x + s_0'}$			4M		
	$s'_1 = \widetilde{v}_0 \cdot k'_1 - \widetilde{v}_1 \cdot k'_0, \ s'_0 = w_2 \cdot k'_1 + inv_0 \cdot k'_0.$					
\checkmark	If $s'_1 = 0$ or $s'_1 = -t_3 r$, see Table 3.10: Doubling Special Case.					
5	Inversion, r^{-1} , s_0 , s_1 , \widetilde{u}_2^{-1}	I,S,7M				
	$r_2 = r^2.$					
	Odd: $\widehat{w}_0 = s'_1 \cdot (2r + s'_1)$. Even: $\widehat{w}_0 = s'_1 \cdot (r + s'_1)$.					
	$\widehat{w}_1 = (r \cdot \widehat{w}_0)^{-1}$					
	$\widehat{w}_2 = \widehat{w}_0 \cdot \widehat{w}_1 (= \frac{1}{r}), \ \widehat{w}_3 = r \cdot r_2 \cdot \widehat{w}_1 (= \frac{1}{\widetilde{u}_2}),$					
	$s_1 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s_1', s_0 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s_0'.$					
6	$\underline{u' = x^2 + u_1'x + u_0'}$			5M		
	Odd: $u'_1 = 2\widehat{w}_3 \cdot (s_1 \cdot (-u_1 + s_0) + s_0), u'_0 = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (s_1 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1 + s_0 \cdot (-u_1 + s_0) + s_0)$					
	$(-2u_1 + s_0) - k_2').$					
	Even: $u_1' = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (s_1 \cdot u_1 + s_0), u_0' = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (s_1 \cdot \widetilde{v}_1 + s_0 \cdot (u_1 + s_0) + k_2').$					
7	$v' = v'_3 x^3 + v'_2 x^2 + v'_1 x + v'_0$			$5\mathrm{M}$		
	$z_0 = u'_0 - u_0, \ z_1 = u'_1 - u_1,$					
	$\underline{w}_0 = z_0 \cdot s_0, \underline{w}_1 = z_1 \cdot s_1.$					
	Odd: $t = 2u'_1 + \underline{w}_1, v'_3 = 1, v'_2 = 0, v'_1 = (z_0 + z_1) \cdot (s_0 + s_1) - $					
	$\underline{w}_0 - \underline{w}_1 - u'_1 \cdot t + 2u'_0 - v_1, v'_0 = \underline{w}_0 - u'_0 \cdot t - v_0.$					
	Continued on next page					

Table 3.9 – continued from previous page $% \left({{{\rm{Tab}}} \right)$

Step	Expression	# of Opera-
		tions
	Even: $t = u'_1 + \underline{w}_1, v'_3 = y_3 + h_3, v'_2 = y_2 + h_2, v'_1 = (z_0 + z_1)$.	
	$(s_0+s_1)+\underline{w}_0+\underline{w}_1+u'_1\cdot t+u'_0+v_1+h_1, v'_0=\underline{w}_0+u'_0\cdot t+v_0+h_0.$	
Total		I,3S,29M
		(I, 2S, 29M)

Table 3.9 – continued from previous page

Table 3.10: Divisor Doubling Special Case: Reduced Ba-

sis

Doubling Special Case, Reduced Basis						
Step	Expression	if $s'_1 = 0$	$s'_1 =$			
			$-t_3r$			
5'	Inversion, r^{-1} , s_1 , s_0 , \widetilde{u}_1^{-1}	I, S, 4M	I,S,5M			
	$t_3 = 2v_3 - h_3, t_2 = 2v_2 - h_2$					
	$s_1 = 0 \text{ or } -t_3 r, \ \hat{w}_0 = s_1((-u_1 t_3 + t_2) \cdot r + 2s'_0) +$					
	$s_0't_3 - k_3'r$					
	$\hat{w}_1 = (r \cdot \hat{w}_0)^{-1}, \hat{w}_2 = \hat{w}_0 \cdot \hat{w}_1 (= \frac{1}{r}), \hat{w}_3 = r^2 \cdot \hat{w}_1 (=$					
	$\left(\frac{1}{\widetilde{u}_1}\right)$					
	$s_0 = \widehat{w}_2 \cdot s'_0$					
6'	$\underline{u' = x + u'_0}$	2M	2M			
	$u_0' = \widehat{w}_3 \cdot (s_1 \widetilde{v}_1 + s_0 \cdot (-u_1 t_3 + s_0) - k_2').$					
7'	$v' = v'_3 x^3 + v'_2 x^2 + v'_1 x + v'_0$	S, 3M	S, 3M			
	$\widetilde{t}_i = y_i + v_i, i = 1, 2, 3$					
	$v'_3 = y_3 + h_3, v'_2 = 0, v'_1 = y_1 + h_1,$					
	Continued on next page					

Step	Expression	if $s'_1 = 0$	$s'_1 =$
			$-t_3r$
	$v_0' = u_0' \cdot (u_0'^2 \tilde{t}_3 + \tilde{t}_1) + (u_0' \cdot (u_0 - u_1) + u_0) \cdot (s_1 u_0' - u_0' + u_0) \cdot (s_1 u_0' - u_0' + u_0') \cdot (s_1 u_0' - u_0' + u_0') \cdot (s_1 u_0' - u_0' - u_0') \cdot (s_1 u_0' - u_0' - u_0') \cdot (s_1 u_0' - u_0') \cdot (s_1 u_0' - u_0') \cdot $		
	$s_0) + h_0 - v_0$		
Total		I,4S,21M	I,4S,22M
		(I,3S,21M)	(I, 3S, 22M)

Table 3.10 – continued from previous page

<u>Note</u>: In Step 5', let $\hat{w}_0 = t_3 s'_0$ if we are in the case $s'_1 = 0$, and let $\hat{w}_0 = t_3^2 u_1 \cdot r - t_3 s'_0$ if we are in the case $s'_1 = -t_3 r$.

The correctness of the explicit doubling formulas were checked with the computer algebra system MAGMA [53]. We generated test cases, and compared the result of divisor doubling using the explicit formulas and that using MAGMA's built-in generic divisor addition algorithm. We checked that the output divisors were the same with respect to the same input divisors. Note that the divisor representation [u, v] we use in our explicit formulas corresponds to MAGMA's divisor representation [u, -v]. This difference was considered in the test.

3.6.3 Summary of Results

The best known results for the imaginary case are found in [34]. Compared to the imaginary case, the addition/doubling formulas for the real case require more multiplications/squarings than the imaginary case. The baby step operation is the cheapest among all operations, and there is no analogue for this operation in the imaginary case. Table 3.11 summarizes the comparison .

	Imaginary		Real	
	odd	even	odd	even
Baby Step	none	none	I, 2S, 4M	I, S, 5M 3
Addition	I, 2S, 22M [34]	I, 2S, 22M [34]	I, 2S, 26M	I, S, 27M
Doubling	I, 5S, 22M [34]	I, 5S, 22M $[34]$	I, 3S, 29M	I, 2S, 29M

Table 3.11: Comparison of Operation Counts for Explicit Formulas (Reduced Basis in Real Case)

Key exchange protocols using imaginary and real genus 2 curves have been implemented over large prime fields with explicit formulas. The numerical results can be found in [35]. From the results shown in Table 6 of [35], we conclude that although a bit slower, the operation (field inversion, multiplication and doubling) counts of the divisor addition and doubling formulas for real genus 2 curves are comparable to that of the imaginary genus 2 curves. In certain scenarios of real hyperelliptic curve cryptography, such as the case of "fixed distance" as described in Section 3 of [49], some giant step operations (additions) can be replaced by computationally cheaper baby step operations, under reasonable heuristics that predict the value change of the distance functions involved in the baby step and the giant step (see Section 3 of [49]). With such potential efficiency introduced by the baby step operation, which is unique for the real case, being considered, the use of real genus 2 hyperelliptic curves in cryptography is promising.

 $^{^{3}}$ This result came from Professor Jacobson, in a private communication.

3.7 Future Work

I mention some future directions of this research as follows:

- Derivation of explicit formulas for real genus 2 hyperelliptic curves in projective and mixed coordinates, with which finite field element inversions can be avoided. Explicit formulas using these coordinates may further reduce computational load by trading more expensive field inversions with cheaper field multiplications and squarings.
- Implementation and standardization of cryptographic protocols using real genus 2 hyperelliptic curves. More suitable for small processor architectures, genus 2 curves have their advantage to attract commercial interests. For adoption of cryptosystems using (imaginary or real) genus 2 curves, security, performance, and implementation cost are all among industrial concerns. There are problems like the bandwidth consumption (point compression techniques), generation of suitable curve parameters, compatibility with other cryptographic components (eg., cryptographic hash algorithms), and so on. Like the case of elliptic curves, industrial and governmental acceptance of genus 2 curve based cryptosystems will require a lot of effort. More careful and exhaustive research is needed to justify their usefulness and adoptability.

4. GENERATING SUITABLE PARAMETERS FOR DISCRETE-LOG BASED CRYPTOGRAPHY WITH POLYNOMIAL PARAMETERIZATION

In this chapter, we propose an improved method that uses polynomial parameterization to find suitable parameters for generating cryptographically strong genus 2 curves via the complex multiplication (CM) method. The proposed method is more efficient than the existing method in that it replaces the need for integer factorization with factorization of polynomials with small integral coefficients, which can be done as precomputation, and evaluation of polynomials. We also analyze the probability of success of the proposed method, based on the Bateman-Horn philosophy.

4.1 Introduction

In order to use the Jacobian variety of a curve over a finite field for discrete logarithm based cryptography, suitable parameters must be chosen. One such parameter is the underlying finite field \mathbb{F}_q over which the curve is defined. Another important parameter is the cardinality N of the \mathbb{F}_q -rational Jacobian of the curve. For many implementations of discrete logarithm based cryptographic protocols, \mathbb{F}_q is a prime field, i.e., q is a prime number, and N is prime or "close to" a prime number, to resist the Pohlig-Hellman attack [4] to the discrete logarithm problem.

The genus 2 "points counting" methods choose a random curve equation over a finite field and compute the number of points on the Jacobian of the curve until one that is good for cryptography is found. Examples of such methods are [54–56].

An alternative to point counting is to use the genus 2 Complex Multiplication (CM) algorithm to construct curves with a given number of points on its Jacobian.

Like the case of elliptic curve CM method, the genus 2 CM method is very efficient provided that the class polynomials of the complex multiplication field are computed, and that the finite field order q and the order of the Jacobian of the curve N are suitably selected. The genus 2 CM method is a useful alternative, when the genus 2 point counting methods are still slow; and it is especially important for generating pairing-friendly curves as we will see in Chapter 5. For a history of the genus 2 CM method, the reader can refer to [57]. In brief, the algorithm works as follows: Let Kbe a primitive quartic CM field (explained in 4.2).

- 1. Find a prime p such that $\exists \omega \in K$ with $\omega \bar{\omega} = p$, and an integer N depending on p and \mathcal{O}_K which will be the group order of the Jacobian of the genus 2 curve having CM by \mathcal{O}_K . Such p and N can be identified by using a method in [58].
- 2. Compute the Igusa class polynomials $H_i(x)$, i = 1, 2, 3 of K. This step can be done using the methods described in [57–59] or [60].
- 3. Construct a curve C from the a set of roots of $H_i(x)$ over \mathbb{F}_p via the Mestre-Cardona-Quer Algorithm [61,62], and check if the Jacobian of the curve has the desired order until a suitable curve is found.

The algorithms described in the following section take as input a given primitive quartic CM field K, and output good cryptographic parameters p and N for a curve C so that C has CM by K and that $\#Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C) = N$.

4.2 Algorithms

Let $K := \mathbb{Q}(\eta)$, where

$$\eta = \begin{cases} i\sqrt{a+b\sqrt{d}} & \text{if } d \equiv 2,3 \pmod{4} \\ i\sqrt{a+b\frac{-1+\sqrt{d}}{2}} & \text{if } d \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \end{cases},$$

be a fixed primitive quartic CM field, where d > 0 is squarefree and $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ has class number 1. The condition that K is primitive is equivalent to $\Delta > 0$ is not a square,
where $\Delta = a^2 - b^2 d$, if $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$, and $\Delta = a^2 - a \cdot b - b^2 \left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right)$, if $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. We want to construct a genus 2 hyperelliptic curve C over a finite field \mathbb{F}_p^1 of prime order such that $End(Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C)) \otimes \mathbb{Q} = K$, and $N := \#Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C)$ is "almost prime", meaning that N is a product of a large prime number and a small cofactor.

If such a curve C is found, then there exists a element, called the Frobenius element, $\pi \in End(Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C))$ that satisfies the condition $|\pi| = \sqrt{q}$, where $|\pi|$ is the usual absolute value of the complex number π .

Assume for simplicity that the Frobenius element π is in an order

$$\mathcal{O} := \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} + \sqrt{d}\mathbb{Z} + \eta\mathbb{Z} + \eta\sqrt{d}\mathbb{Z} & \text{if } d \equiv 2,3 \pmod{4} \\ \mathbb{Z} + \frac{-1 + \sqrt{d}}{2}\mathbb{Z} + \eta\mathbb{Z} + \eta\frac{-1 + \sqrt{d}}{2}\mathbb{Z} & \text{if } d \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \end{cases}$$

We first look at the case $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$ and write $\pi = c_1 + c_2\sqrt{d} + \eta(c_3 + c_4\sqrt{d}), c_i \in \mathbb{Z}.$

The relationship $\pi \bar{\pi} = p$ gives us

$$(c_1^2 + c_2^2d + c_3^2a + c_4^2ad + 2c_3c_4bd) + (2c_1c_2 + 2c_3c_4a + c_3^2b + c_4^2bd)\sqrt{d} = p.$$

Since 1 and \sqrt{d} are linearly independent over \mathbb{Q} we must have

$$c_1^2 + c_2^2 d + c_3^2 a + c_4^2 a d + 2c_3 c_4 b d = p (4.1)$$

$$2c_1c_2 + 2c_3c_4a + c_3^2b + c_4^2bd = 0 (4.2)$$

Let $\bar{\alpha}$ and α^{σ} denote the imaginary and real embeddings of K into \overline{K} . The characteristic polynomial of π is

$$h(x) = (x - \pi)(x - \bar{\pi})(x - \pi^{\sigma})(x - \bar{\pi}^{\sigma})$$

= $x^4 - 4c_1x^3 + (2p + 4(c_1^2 - c_2^2d))x^2 - 4c_1px + p^2$

The fact that $\#Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C) = h(1)$ gives the condition

$$N = (p+1)^2 - 4(p+1)c_1 + 4(c_1^2 - c_2^2 d).$$
(4.3)

¹In general, the Mestre's algorithm generates a real model of the genus 2 curve: $y^2 = f(x)$, deg(f) = 6. This real model can be transformed to an isomorphic imaginary model if and only if f(x) has a zero in \mathbb{F}_p [58].

We want N to be almost prime, i.e., $N = c \cdot r$ with r prime and c small (say, c < 2000).

We have $p \sim N^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Based on the discussions above, A. Weng (see [58]) gives a probabilistic method of searching for parameters, which produces prime p and almost prime N. In this method, factorization of big integers is used repeatedly in every step of the search², which makes the algorithm slow.

We give a more efficient algorithm which generates parameters for genus 2 cryptography. The idea is to parameterize the coefficients c_i 's as polynomials $c_i(x)$, then generate "families of parameters" by factorizing quartic polynomials with small integral coefficients.

To this end, we try to find polynomials $c_1(x), c_2(x), c_3(x), c_4(x) \in \mathbb{Q}[x]$ satisfying $-2c_1(x)c_2(x) = 2c_3(x)c_4(x)a + c_3^2(x)b + c_4^2(x)bd$. Then we write $p(x) = c_1^2(x) + c_2^2(x)d + c_3^2(x)a + c_4^2(x)ad + 2c_3(x)c_4(x)bd$ and let x range through integer values of certain sizes until the value p(x) is a prime number. Now we can use Equation (4.3) to compute the cardinality of the Jacobian and check if it is almost prime.

The following lemma helps us avoid some bad choices of $c_i(x)$.

Lemma 12 Let $c_1(x), c_2(x), c_3(x), c_4(x)$ be linear polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that

$$2c_1(x)c_2(x) + 2c_3(x)c_4(x)a + c_3^2(x)b + c_4^2(x)bd = 0.$$

Then

$$p(x) = c_1^2(x) + c_2^2(x)d + c_3^2(x)a + c_4^2(x)ad + 2c_3(x)c_4(x)bd$$

is reducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Proof Let $c_1(x), c_2(x), c_3(x), c_4(x)$ be linear polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ such that $2c_1(x)c_2(x) + 2c_3(x)c_4(x)a + c_3^2(x)b + c_4^2(x)bd = 0$. Then we have

$$-2c_1(x)c_2(x) = 2c_3(x)c_4(x)a + c_3^2(x)b + c_4^2(x)bd.$$
(4.4)

Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$ be a root of $c_1(x)$. Clearly,

$$0 = -2c_1(\alpha)c_2(\alpha) = bc_3^2(\alpha) + 2ac_3(\alpha)c_4(\alpha) + bdc_4^2(\alpha) = 0.$$
(4.5)

²This method chooses random c_3 and c_4 in Equation (4.2), and factors $2c_3c_4a + c_3^2b + c_4bd$ to obtain possible choices of c_1 and c_2 .

Now we look at the quadratic equations

$$bX^2 + 2aX + bd = 0 (4.6)$$

$$bdX^2 + 2aX + b = 0. (4.7)$$

Both equations (4.6) and (4.7) have discriminant $\Delta = (2a)^2 - 4b(bd) = 4(a^2 - b^2d) > 0$, which is not a square in \mathbb{Q} by the assumption on a, b and d, namely, that K is primitive. Therefore Equation (4.5) holds if and only if $c_3(\alpha) = c_4(\alpha) = 0$. Hence $c_3(\alpha) = c_4(\alpha) = 0$. By Equation (4.5) we conclude that α is a zero of $-2c_1(x)c_2(x)$ with multiplicity 2. Since $c_1(x)$ and $c_2(x)$ are linear, we must have $c_2(\alpha) = 0$.

Therefore, the polynomial

$$p(x) = c_1^2(x) + c_2^2(x)d + c_3^2(x)a + c_4^2(x)ad + 2c_3(x)c_4(x)bd$$

has α as a zero of multiplicity 2. So $(x-\alpha)^2 | p(x)$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Obviously, p(x) is reducible.

Since we want p(x) to be prime for some values $x \in \mathbb{Z}$, we expect p(x) to be irreducible and have no fixed prime divisors. Here we say that a prime number \mathfrak{p} is a *fixed prime divisor* of a polynomial f(x) with rational coefficients if \mathfrak{p} divides every integer-valued f(n) for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. We also define the greatest fixed divisor GFD(f) to be the largest positive integer d such that d divides all integral values of f(n) for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. We say that a polynomial f(x) with **integral coefficients** has the Bunyakovsky's property if f(x) has no fixed prime divisors. We need to check that the irreducible p(x) has no fixed prime divisors, i.e., it satisfies Bunyakovsky's property. This can be easily checked by using Newton's interpolation formula (see, e.g., [63], Section 2.2) to write p(x) in terms of polynomials basis $\{x(x-1)(x-2)...(x-k+1)/k!\}_{k\in\mathbb{Z}^+}$, then verifying that the coefficients are relatively prime [64].

Lemma 12 implies that we cannot choose linear polynomials $c_3(x)$ and $c_4(x)$ to obtain such p(x). Therefore, we choose $c_3(x)$ and $c_4(x)$ to be quadratic polynomials in the following algorithm³.

³Alternatively, we can choose one of $c_3(x)$ and $c_4(x)$ to be a quadratic polynomial and the other is a linear polynomial or a constant. According to the discussion in Section 4.3, the performance of the proposed algorithms will not be affected much with such alternatives.

Algorithm 4 Parameter generator polynomials for $K = \mathbb{Q}(\eta), d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$

Input: Integers a, b, d with d > 0 squarefree, $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$, $a^2 - b^2 d > 0$ not a square.

Output: Four quadratic polynomials $c_1(x)$, $c_2(x)$, $c_3(x)$, $c_4(x)$ and a quartic polynomial p(x) are generated such that they satisfy the equations (4.1) and (4.2). Polynomials $N_1(x)$ and $N_2(x)$ of degree 8 are generated as possible group orders.

1: repeat

2: repeat

- 3: Choose quadratic polynomials $c_3(x)$ and $c_4(x)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ with small coefficients and $gcd(c_3(x), c_4(x)) = 1$.
- 4: Set $n(x) = 2c_3(x)c_4(x)a + c_3^2(x)b + c_4^2(x)bd$.
- 5: **until** deg n(x) = 4 and $n(x) = \tilde{c_1}(x) \cdot \tilde{c_2}(x)$, deg $\tilde{c_1}(x) = 2 = \text{deg } \tilde{c_2}(x)$, gcd $(\tilde{c_1}(x), \tilde{c_2}(x)) = 1$, n(x) and $\tilde{c_1}(x)$ have the same content.
- 6: Set $c_1(x) = -\frac{1}{2}\widetilde{c}_1(x), c_2(x) = \widetilde{c}_2(x).$

7: Set
$$p(x) = c_1^2(x) + c_2^2(x)d + c_3^2(x)a + c_4^2(x)ad + 2c_3(x)c_4(x)bd$$
.

8: **until** p(x) is irreducible and has no fixed prime divisor.

9: Set
$$N_1(x) = (p(x) + 1)^2 - 4(p(x) + 1)c_1(x) + 4(c_1^2(x) - c_2^2(x)d),$$

 $N_2(x) = (p(x) + 1)^2 + 4(p(x) + 1)c_1(x) + 4(c_1^2(x) - c_2^2(x)d).$

We have a similar result for the case $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

In this case, we write

$$\pi = c_1 + c_2 \frac{-1 + \sqrt{d}}{2} + \eta \left(c_3 + c_4 \frac{-1 + \sqrt{d}}{2} \right), c_i \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Again, $\pi \bar{\pi} = p$ gives

$$\left(c_1^2 + \left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right)c_2^2 + ac_3^2 + 2b\left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right)c_3c_4 + (a-b)\left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right)c_4^2\right) + \left(2c_1c_2 - c_2^2 + bc_3^2 + 2(a-b)c_3c_4 + \left(b\left(\frac{d+3}{4}\right) - a\right)c_4^2\right)\frac{-1+\sqrt{d}}{2} = p.$$

The linear independence of 1 and $\frac{-1+\sqrt{d}}{2}$ over \mathbb{Q} implies the following two equations

$$c_1^2 + \left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right)c_2^2 + ac_3^2 + 2b\left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right)c_3c_4 + (a-b)\left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right)c_4^2 = p \quad (4.8)$$

$$2c_1c_2 - c_2^2 + bc_3^2 + 2(a-b)c_3c_4 + \left(b\left(\frac{d+3}{4}\right) - a\right)c_4^2 = 0 \quad (4.9)$$

The corresponding cardinality of the Jacobian

$$N = (p+1)^2 - (4c_1 - 2c_2)(p+1) + 4\left(c_1^2 - c_1c_2 - \left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right)c_2^2\right).$$
(4.10)

The algorithm is given as follows.

Algorithm 5 Parameter generator polynomials for $K = \mathbb{Q}(\eta), d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ Input: Integers a, b, d with d > 0 squarefree, $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, a^2 - ab - b^2 \left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right) > 0$ not a square.

- **Output:** Four quadratic polynomials $c_1(x)$, $c_2(x)$, $c_3(x)$, $c_4(x)$ and a quartic polynomial p(x) are generated such that they satisfy the equations (4.8) and (4.9). Polynomials $N_1(x)$ and $N_2(x)$ of degree 8 are generated as possible group orders.
 - 1: repeat

2: repeat

3: Choose quadratic polynomials $c_3(x)$ and $c_4(x)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$ with small coefficients and $gcd(c_3(x), c_4(x)) = 1$.

4: Set
$$n(x) = 2c_3(x)c_4(x)a - c_4^2(x)a + c_3^2(x)b - 2c_3(x)c_4(x)b + c_4^2(x)b(\frac{d+3}{4}).$$

5: **until** deg n(x) = 4 and $n(x) = \tilde{c_1}(x) \cdot \tilde{c_2}(x)$, deg $\tilde{c_1}(x) = 2 = \text{deg } \tilde{c_2}(x)$, gcd $(\tilde{c_1}(x), \tilde{c_2}(x)) = 1$, n(x) and $\tilde{c_1}(x)$ have the same content.

6: Set
$$c_2(x) = \tilde{c}_2(x), c_1(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left(-\tilde{c}_1(x) + c_2(x) \right)$$

- 7: Set $p(x) = c_1^2(x) + c_2^2(x) \left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right) + c_3^2(x)a + c_4^2(x)a \left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right) + 2c_3(x)c_4(x)b \left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right) bc_4^2(x) \left(\frac{d-1}{4}\right).$
- 8: **until** p(x) is irreducible and has no fixed prime divisor.

9: Set
$$N_1(x) = (p(x) + 1)^2 - (p(x) + 1)(4c_1(x) - 2c_2(x)) + 4(c_1^2(x) - c_1(x)c_2(x) - c_2^2(x)(\frac{d-1}{4})),$$

 $N_2(x) = (p(x) + 1)^2 + (p(x) + 1)(4c_1(x) - 2c_2(x)) + 4(c_1^2(x) - c_1(x)c_2(x) - c_2^2(x)(\frac{d-1}{4})).$

The polynomials returned from Algorithms 4 and Algorithm 5 are candidates of parameter generator polynomials. We then insert integer values of a suitable size into them until p(x) is prime and $N_1(x)$ or $N_2(x)$ is almost prime. This process is written formally in Algorithm 6 as follows.

Algorithm 6 Algorithm for generating parameters for HEC cryptography

- **Input:** Polynomials $c_1(x), p(x), N_1(x)$ and $N_2(x)$ generated by Algorithm 4 or Algorithm 5; bit length, μ , of the desired size of the prime field over which the curve is defined; maximum number of trials, M.
- **Output:** Triples (p, N_1, N_2) for constructing hyperelliptic curves over \mathbb{F}_p with CM by $K = \mathbb{Q}(\eta)$ whose Jacobians have almost prime group orders N_1 or $N_2 \sim 2^{2\mu}$; or "Not found".
- 1: number_of_trial = 0.
- 2: repeat
- 3: Choose an integer $x_0 \sim 2^{\frac{\mu}{4}}$.
- 4: **if** $c_1(x_0)$ is an integer **then**

5:
$$p \leftarrow p(x_0)$$
.

- 6: **if** p is prime and $2^{\mu-1} , and either <math>N_1 \leftarrow N_1(x_0)$ or $N_2 \leftarrow N_2(x_0)$ is almost prime **then**
- 7: Return (p, N_1, N_2) .
- 8: end if
- 9: end if
- 10: $number_of_trial \leftarrow number_of_trial + 1$.
- 11: **until** number_of_trial = M.
- 12: Return "Not found".

In Step 6 of Algorithm 6, to test if $N_i(i = 1, 2)$ is almost prime, we can find the maximum factor h_{max} of N_i below a specified upper bound (i.e., 10,000), and perform a primality test for N_i/h_{max} . In this way, factorization for large integers can be avoided in our method. We implemented Algorithms 4, 5 and 6 as well as the Weng's method for generating (prime, group order) pairs (p, N) with respect to randomly chosen quartic CM fields, specified by small parameters a, b, d, randomly chosen so that $0 < d \leq 50$ is squarefree, $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{d})$ has class number one, $0 < |a|, |b| \leq 50$, and $\Delta > 0$ is not a square. Trial factorization of integers up to a fixed bound (10,000) is used for the old method.

- 1. **128-bit** *p*: In the case $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$, our method generates parameter pairs (p, N) at an average rate of 2.1402 seconds per pair, while Weng's algorithm generates pairs at 7.7538 seconds per pair. In the case $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, our method generates parameter pairs at an average rate of 3.6423 seconds per pair, and Weng's method at 11.4407 seconds per pair.
- 2. 256-bit p: In the case $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$, our method generates parameter pairs at an average rate of 21.7344 seconds per pair, while Weng's algorithm generates pairs at 97.9592 seconds per pair. In the case $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, our method generates parameter pairs at an average rate of 41.0917 seconds per pair, and Weng's method at 108.5106 seconds per pair.

However, we notice that there are rare cases in which the algorithm fails to find suitable parameters. We expect our method to perform much better on average as the size of the prime p increases, if complete factorization of integers is used for Weng's method.

The implementation is performed in PARI/GP [65]. We include in Appendix A some parameters found by the above algorithms.

4.3 Probability That p(x) is Prime and $N_i(x)$ is Almost Prime

Although in practice we allow polynomials with rational coefficients, for simplicity of the analysis of Algorithms 6 above, we choose $c_i(x)$ to be polynomials with integral coefficients. We set N(x) to be one of $N_1(x)$ and $N_2(x)$. We also require that N(x)be irreducible over \mathbb{Q} . Experiment shows that if p(x) is irreducible then N(x) is also irreducible with very high probability. We do not intend to provide an exhaustive analysis in this thesis. Rather, we give some intuition about how often it happens that p(m) is prime and N(m) is almost prime simultaneously for an integer m. Our argument is related to the Bateman-Horn Conjecture [66,67] and its generalized version for the case of a single polynomial [64].

The Bateman-Horn Conjecture is a quantitative form of Hypothesis H of A. Schinzel [68, 69]. It approximates the density of the positive integers at which a given set of polynomials have simultaneous integer values. It is stated as follows.

Conjecture 1 (Bateman-Horn, [66]) Suppose f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_k are polynomials in one variable with all coefficients integral and leading coefficients positive, their degree being h_1, h_2, \ldots, h_k respectively. Suppose each f_i is irreducible over \mathbb{Q} and no two of them differ by a constant factor (i.e., they are not associated). Let $Q(f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_k; M)$ denote the number of positive integers n between 1 and M inclusive such that $f_1(n)$, $f_2(n), \ldots, f_k(n)$ are all primes (ignoring the finitely many values of n for which some $f_i(n)$ is negative). Then we have

$$Q(f_1, f_2, \dots, f_k; M) \sim h^{-1} C \int_2^M (\log u)^{-k} du,$$

where

$$C = \prod_{\mathfrak{p} \text{ prime}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\mathfrak{p}} \right)^{-k} \left(1 - \frac{W(\mathfrak{p})}{\mathfrak{p}} \right), \quad h = h_1^{-1} h_2^{-1} \dots h_k^{-1},$$

and $W(\mathfrak{p})$ is the number of solutions of the congruence

$$f_1(x)f_2(x)\dots f_k(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}.$$

For the case of one polynomial f, the Bateman-Horn Conjecture is generalized by M. Adleman and A. Odlyzko to deal with the situation $GFD(f) \neq 1$. We summarize it as follows.

Conjecture 2 (Adleman-Odlyzko, [64]) Suppose $f(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ is irreducible with greatest fixed divisor d = GFD(f) and has a positive leading coefficient. For a prime \mathfrak{p} , let $r = r_{\mathfrak{p}}$ be the least nonnegative integer such that the values of $f(m)d^{-1}$, when

reduced modulo \mathfrak{p} , are periodic in m with period \mathfrak{p}^{r+1} . (It can be shown that $r \leq \frac{\deg(f)}{\mathfrak{p}-1}$.) Let

$$W(\mathfrak{p}^{r+1}) = \# \left\{ m : 0 \le m < \mathfrak{p}^{r+1}, f(m) \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}} \right\}.$$

Let $Q(f; M) = \# \{m : 1 \le m \le M, f(m)d^{-1} \text{ is a prime} \}$. Then

$$Q(f;M) \sim \frac{M}{h\log(M)}C,$$

where $h = \deg(f)$ and

$$C = \prod_{\mathfrak{p prime}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\mathfrak{p}} \right)^{-1} \left(1 - \frac{W(\mathfrak{p}^{r+1})}{\mathfrak{p}^{r+1}} \right)$$

Based on the above two conjectures, we conjecture, for analysis of our algorithm, as follows.

Conjecture 3 Let $p(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be irreducible with no fixed prime divisor and a positive leading coefficient. Let $N(x) \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ be irreducible with greatest fixed divisor d = GFD(N) and a positive leading coefficient. Let $f(x) = p(x) \cdot d^{-1}N(x)$ and let $r = r_{\mathfrak{p}}$ be the least nonnegative integer such that the values of f(m), when reduced modulo a prime \mathfrak{p} , are periodic in m with period \mathfrak{p}^{r+1} . We have the fact that $r \leq \frac{\deg(f)}{\mathfrak{p}-1}$ [64]. Let

$$W(\mathfrak{p}^{r+1}) = \# \left\{ m : 0 \le m < \mathfrak{p}^{r+1}, f(m) \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}} \right\}.$$

Let $Q(p, N; M) = \# \{m : 1 \le m \le M, p(m) \text{ and } d^{-1}N(m) \text{ are both prime} \}$. Then

$$Q(p, N; M) \sim h^{-1} C \int_{2}^{M} (\log u)^{-2} du,$$
 (4.11)

where $h = \deg(p) \deg(N)$ and

$$C = \prod_{\mathfrak{p} \text{ prime}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\mathfrak{p}} \right)^{-2} \left(1 - \frac{W(\mathfrak{p}^{r+1})}{\mathfrak{p}^{r+1}} \right).$$

Example 1. Let $p(x) = x^2 + 1$ and $N(x) = x^2 + x + 2$ with d = GFD(N) = 2. We consider the number of prime pairs $(p(m), d^{-1}N(m))$ for $2^{22} \le m \le 2^{23}$. We have h = 4, $C \approx 2.6741$ and $\int_{2^{22}}^{2^{23}} \log(u)^{-2} du \approx 17165$. Thus the estimated value of $Q_1 := Q(p, N; 2^{23}) - Q(p, N; 2^{22})$ is approximated 11475. On the other hand, an explicit counting shows that $Q_1 = 11844$.

Conjecture 3 suggests a lower bound for the number of pairs (p(m), N(m)) with p(m) prime and N(m) almost prime. And it must be noted that this lower bound does not work well for the case of polynomials p(x) and N(x) obtained in Algorithm 4 and 5, because N(m) is always divisible by 4 when p(m) is odd, in particular, prime, and this will lead to C = 0. But N(m) is odd when p(m) is even. However, in this situation, it seems natural to consider pairs of primes of the form $(p(m), d^{-1}N(x)/4)$. We claim that an estimate in the form of (4.11) still holds, but the computation of the constant C needs to be modified accordingly, by considering the case $\mathfrak{p} = 2$ separately. We will show a way to do this in the following example.

Example 2. Let $p(x) = x^2 + 1$ and $N(x) = (p(x)+1)^2 + 4(p(x)+1) + 8 = x^4 + 8x^2 + 20$. Then neither p(x) nor N(x) have a fixed prime divisor and N(m) has 4 as a divisor if p(m) is odd. Let $f(x) = p(x) \cdot N(x)$ and $W(\mathfrak{p})$ be the number of solutions for the equation $f(m) \equiv 0 \pmod{\mathfrak{p}}$. If we let Q(M) be the number of prime pairs (p(m), N(m)/4) for $1 \le m \le M$, then we claim that Q(M) can be estimated as

$$Q(M) \sim h^{-1}C \int_{2}^{M} (\log u)^{-2} du,$$
 (4.12)

where $h = 2 \cdot 4 = 8$ and

$$C = C_2 \cdot \prod_{\mathfrak{p} \ge 3 \text{ prime}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\mathfrak{p}} \right)^{-2} \left(1 - \frac{W(\mathfrak{p})}{\mathfrak{p}} \right) \approx C_2 \cdot 2.3775,$$

where C_2 is computed, based on the philosophy of Bateman-Horn, as

$$C_{2} = \frac{\operatorname{Prob} \{N(m)/4 \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and both } p(m) \text{ and } N(m)/4 \text{ are not divisible by } 2\}}{\operatorname{Prob} \{\text{two random numbers are not divisible by } 2\}} \\ = \frac{\operatorname{Prob} \{p(m) \text{ is odd}\} \cdot \operatorname{Prob} \{N(m)/4 \text{ is odd} \mid p(m) \text{ is odd}\}}{(1 - 1/2)^{2}} \\ = 4 \cdot \operatorname{Prob} \{m \text{ is even}\} \operatorname{Prob} \{N(m)/4 \text{ is odd} \mid m \text{ is even}\} \\ = 4 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 = 2.$$

Therefore, we have $Q := Q(2^{23}) - Q(2^{22}) \approx 10202$ by (4.12). A direct counting gives Q = 10483, close to the estimate.

We want to keep the degrees of p(x) and N(x) as small as possible so that the probability of obtaining suitable parameters of a fixed size is as high as possible, as indicated by the above heuristic. Our algorithms produce p(x) of degree 4 and $N_i(x)$ of degree 8.

Note that $c_3(x)$ and $c_4(x)$ can also be chosen in such a way that one is a linear polynomial and the other is a quadratic polynomial. In this case, the resulting p(x)and $N_i(x)$ are still of degree 4 and 8, respectively. Therefore the probability of getting suitable pairs (p(m), N(m)) should not differ significantly.

4.4 Conclusion and Further Discussion

We present in this chapter a method of generating cryptographically strong parameters for constructing genus 2 hyperelliptic curves. The method shows an improvement over the existing method by using polynomial parameterization. It efficiently generates parameters p and N approximately of a certain size by choosing a suitable sized x_0 in Algorithm 6. However, if an *exact* size (of p or N) is specified by the practical requirement, the value of x_0 should be chosen more carefully.

Future research directions include improvement of the algorithms so that they can effectively output parameters of exact lengths, and more efficient implementation. Although it seems hard to prove the conjectures like Bateman-Horn, generalizing Conjecture 3 so that it works for multiple polynomials that do not have the Bunyakovsky's property is another topic of research.

Generating pairing-friendly parameters is another direction of research. We shall discuss this extension in the chapter that immediately follows.

5. GENERATING PARAMETERS FOR PAIRING-FRIENDLY GENUS 2 CURVES OVER PRIME FIELDS

We present two contributions in this chapter.

First, we give a quantitative analysis of the scarcity of pairing-friendly genus 2 curves, assuming the Riemann Hypothesis. This result shows an improvement relative to prior work [70], which does a heuristic estimation of the density of pairing-friendly genus 2 curves.

Second, we present a method for generating pairing-friendly parameters for which $\rho \approx 8^1$ This method applies the idea of [71] to a setting given in terms of coefficients of the Frobenius element. It is easy to understand and implement.

5.1 Introduction

For a (multiplicatively written) cyclic group G of order q, with a generator $g \in G$, the *Decision Diffie-Hellman Problem* is the following problem: Given g^a and g^b for randomly-chosen $a, b \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}$, and $h \in G$, determine if $c = g^{ab}$; and the *Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem* is the following problem: Given g^a and g^b for randomly-chosen $a, b \in \{0, \ldots, q-1\}$, compute g^{ab} .

Many cryptographic algorithms and protocols make use of "bilinear maps", with which there are groups in which the *Decision Diffie-Hellman Problem* is easy and the *Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem* is hard [72]. Such maps have application in identity-based encryption [73], aggregate signatures [72], short signatures [74], tripartite key agreement protocols [75], non-interactive key distribution protocols [76], and

¹The definition of ρ can be found in Section 5.4.

so on. Pairings for elliptic curves and Jacobian varieties of hyperelliptic curves provide efficient implementation of such bilinear maps, which are suitable for cryptography.

In addition to the requirements that must be satisfied for discrete-log based cryptography, pairing-based cryptography poses further restrictions on the curves — for many applications, a low "embedding degree" is desired. The low density of pairing-friendly curves among cryptographically strong ones makes it extremely hard to find suitable curves for pairing-based crypto via point counting. This indicates that the CM method is probably the only suitable method for finding pairing-friendly genus 2 curves nowadays. For the pairing-friendly setting, a bound on the desired embedding degree is an additional input to the CM algorithm.

5.2 Weil and Tate-Lichtenbaum Pairings

For an abelian variety \mathcal{A} over a finite field F and an integer r coprime to the characteristic of F, a Weil pairing is a nondegenerate, skew-symmetric bilinear map

$$e_r^W : \mathcal{A}(\bar{F})[r] \times \mathcal{A}(\bar{F})[r] \to \mu_r(\bar{F}),$$

where \overline{F} is an algebraic closure of F and $\mu_r(\overline{F})$ is the group of r^{th} roots of unity in \overline{F} ; a Tate-Lichtenbaum pairing is a nondegenerate bilinear map

$$e_r^{TL}: \mathcal{A}(F)[r] \times \mathcal{A}(F)/r\mathcal{A}(F) \to F^*/(F^*)^r.$$

 $F^*/(F^*)^r$ is isomorphic to $\mu_r(\bar{F})$ if and only if $\mu_r(\bar{F}) \subseteq F$. In many pairing-based cryptographic applications, we want the target group of a pairing map to have an element of order r, so we need to work over a field containing the r^{th} roots of unity.

Definition 13 (Embedding degree) Let \mathcal{A} be an abelian variety over a finite field $F = \mathbb{F}_q$. Let r be an integer coprime to q which divides $\#\mathcal{A}(F)$. The field $F(\mu_r(\bar{F}))$ is a finite extension \mathbb{F}_{q^k} of F. The number k is called the **embedding degree of** \mathcal{A} with respect to r, and it is the smallest integer such that $r|q^k - 1$.

We also call the embedding degree of the Jacobian of a nonsingular projective curve C the "embedding degree of the curve C."

In many settings relevant to pairing-based cryptography, we need an abelian variety \mathcal{A} with $\#\mathcal{A}$ almost prime, i.e., $\#\mathcal{A} = h \cdot r$, where h is a small positive integer and r is a prime number; and the embedding degree k of \mathcal{A} with respect to r is not too large.

Definition 14 (Pairing-friendly abelian variety) Let H and K be positive integers. Let \mathcal{A} be an abelian variety over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q . We say \mathcal{A} is **pairing-friendly** with respect to parameters H and K if $\#\mathcal{A} = h \cdot r$ for some positive integer $h \leq H$ and a prime number r, and the embedding degree k of \mathcal{A} with respect to r is no larger than K.

By convention, we call an abelian variety "pairing-friendly" if H and K are "small". We also say a nonsingular projective curve C is "pairing-friendly" if C has a pairing-friendly Jacobian.

5.3 Pairing-friendly Genus 2 Curves Are Rare

In this section, we shall show (assuming the Riemann Hypothesis) that there are very few pairing-friendly genus 2 hyperelliptic curves among all genus 2 hyperelliptic curves over prime fields whose Jacobians have almost prime orders. A similar result for elliptic curves is proved in [77].

Let p be an odd prime number, and let $\log(\cdot)$ denote the natural logarithm.

The main result of this section is Theorem 18. Before proving it, we first introduce several lemmas.

Lemma 15 Let M and c be positive constants with c < 4. For a fixed positive integer a, let $S_{a,c,M}$ denote the set of pairs of primes (x, y) such that $\frac{M}{2} \le x \le M$ and

 $|x^2 - a \cdot y| \leq c \cdot x^{3/2}$. If the Riemann Hypothesis (R.H.) holds, then for large enough M, we have

$$|\mathcal{S}_{a,c,M}| \ge \frac{1}{15} \cdot \frac{c}{a} \cdot \frac{M^{5/2}}{(\log M)^2}.$$

Proof Let $\pi(x)$ be number of primes in the interval [1, x]. Let $N = \pi(M) - \pi(\frac{M}{2})$ be the number of primes in (M/2, M]. The Prime Number Theorem (P.N.T.) implies $N > \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{M}{\log M}$ for M large enough.

Now let p be a prime number in (M/2, M]. We look at the number of primes y such that $|p^2 - a \cdot y| \leq c \cdot p^{3/2}$, i.e., $\frac{1}{a} (p^2 - c \cdot p^{3/2}) \leq y \leq \frac{1}{a} (p^2 + c \cdot p^{3/2})$. Denote this number by N_p . By a theorem of von Koch (see [78], Theorem 8.3.3), if the R.H. is true,

$$\pi(x) = \operatorname{li}(x) + O(\sqrt{x}\log x),$$

where $\operatorname{li}(x) = \int_2^x \mathrm{d}t/\log t$. Moreover, by a result of L. Schoenfeld (see [79], Corollary 1), if R.H. is true, there exists an effectively computable positive constant c_1 such that $|\pi(x) - \operatorname{li}(x)| < c_1 \cdot \sqrt{x} \log x$, when $x \ge 2657$. According to this result, when p is large, we have

$$\begin{split} N_p &\geq \pi \left(\frac{1}{a} \left(p^2 + c \cdot p^{3/2} \right) \right) - \pi \left(\frac{1}{a} \left(p^2 - c \cdot p^{3/2} \right) \right) \\ &> \operatorname{li} \left(\frac{1}{a} \left(p^2 + c \cdot p^{3/2} \right) \right) - \operatorname{li} \left(\frac{1}{a} \left(p^2 - c \cdot p^{3/2} \right) \right) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{a} \cdot c_1 (p^2 + c \cdot p^{3/2})^{1/2} \log \left(p^2 + c \cdot p^{3/2} \right) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{a} \cdot c_1 \left(p^2 - c \cdot p^{3/2} \right)^{1/2} \log \left(p^2 - c \cdot p^{3/2} \right) \\ &> \int_{\frac{1}{a} \left(p^2 - c \cdot p^{3/2} \right)}^{\frac{1}{12} \log t} \frac{dt}{\log t} - \frac{1}{a} \cdot 2c_1 \left(p^2 + c \cdot p^{3/2} \right)^{1/2} \log \left(p^2 + c \cdot p^{3/2} \right) \\ &> \frac{1}{\log \left(\frac{1}{a} \cdot \left(M^2 + c \cdot M^{3/2} \right) \right)} \cdot \frac{1}{a} \left(2c \left(\frac{M}{2} \right)^{3/2} \right) - \frac{1}{a} \cdot 2c_1 \left(2M^2 \right)^{1/2} \log \left(2M^2 \right) \\ &> \frac{1}{\log \left(2M^2 \right) - \log a} \cdot \frac{c}{a\sqrt{2}} M^{3/2} - \frac{1}{a} \cdot 8c_1 M \log M \\ &> \frac{1}{a} \left(\frac{cM^{3/2}}{4 \log M} - 8c_1 (M \log M) \right) \\ &> \frac{1}{5} \cdot \frac{c}{a} \cdot \frac{M^{3/2}}{\log M}. \end{split}$$

Note that the inequality above is independent of the value p. Summing over all suitable primes p, we obtain

$$|\mathcal{S}_{a,c,M}| = \sum_{\substack{\frac{M}{2} \le p \le M\\p \text{ prime}}} N_p \ge \frac{1}{5} \cdot \frac{c}{a} \cdot \frac{M^{3/2}}{\log M} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{M}{\log M} = \frac{1}{15} \cdot \frac{c}{a} \cdot \frac{M^{\frac{5}{2}}}{(\log M)^2}$$

for large enough M.

Lemma 16 Let M and K be positive constants. For a fixed positive integer a, let $\mathcal{T}_{a,M,K}$ denote the set of pairs of primes (x, y) such that $\frac{M}{2} \leq x \leq M$, $|x^2 - a \cdot y| \leq 5x^{3/2}$ and $y|x^k - 1$ for some $k \leq K$. Then $|\mathcal{T}_{a,M,K}| < \frac{45}{8}M^{3/2}(K+1)^2\log(5^{3/2}M)$.

Proof For every nonzero integer h with $|h| \leq 5M^{3/2}$, let $\mathcal{B}_h^{(e)}$ be the set of primes y such that $y|h^{k/2} - 1$ for some even integer k with $0 < k \leq K$. Since $h^{k/2} - 1$ has fewer than $\log(|h|^{k/2})$ distinct prime divisors, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathcal{B}_{h}^{(e)}| &< \sum_{\substack{k=2\\k \text{ even}}}^{K} \frac{k}{2} \log |h| \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{K}{2}\right) \left(\frac{K}{2} + 1\right) \log |h| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{K}{2}\right) \left(\frac{K}{2} + 1\right) (3/2) \log(5^{3/2}M) \\ &\leq \frac{3}{16} K(K+2) \log(5^{3/2}M). \end{aligned}$$

Now for the same h, let $\mathcal{B}_{h}^{(o)}$ denote the set of primes y such that $y|h^{k}-1$ for some odd integer k with $0 < k \leq K$. Since $h^{k} - 1$ has fewer than $\log(|h|^{k})$ distinct prime divisors,

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathcal{B}_{h}^{(o)}| &< \sum_{\substack{k=1\\k \text{ odd}}}^{K} k \log |h| \leq \frac{\left\lceil \frac{K}{2} \right\rceil (K+1)}{2} \log |h| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{4} (K+1)^{2} (3/2) \log \left(5^{3/2} M\right) \\ &= \frac{3}{8} (K+1)^{2} \log \left(5^{3/2} M\right). \end{aligned}$$

Let \mathcal{B}_h be the set of pairs of primes (x, y) such that $x^2 - a \cdot y = h$. When k is even, we have

$$h^{k/2} = \left(x^2 - a \cdot y\right)^{k/2} = x^k + y \cdot (\text{polynomial in } x \text{ and } y);$$

thus $y|h^{k/2} - 1$ is equivalent to $y|x^k - 1$. Similarly, when k is odd, $y|x^k - 1$ implies $y|x^{2k} - 1$, which again implies $y|h^k - 1$. Therefore, we must have

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathcal{B}_{h}| &\leq |\mathcal{B}_{h}^{(e)}| + |\mathcal{B}_{h}^{(o)}| \\ &\leq \frac{3}{16}K(K+2)\log\left(5^{3/2}M\right) + \frac{3}{8}(K+1)^{2}\log\left(5^{3/2}M\right) \\ &< \frac{9}{16}(K+1)^{2}\log(5^{3/2}M). \end{aligned}$$

Summing over all such integer h and note that $\frac{M}{2} \le x \le M$, we have

$$|\mathcal{T}_{a,M,K}| \le \sum_{0 < |h| \le 5M^{3/2}} |\mathcal{B}_h| < \frac{45}{8} M^{3/2} (K+1)^2 \log(5^{3/2} M).$$

Lemma 17 Let $\widetilde{S}_{H,c,M}$ denote the set of pairs of primes (x, y) such that $\frac{M}{2} \leq x \leq M$ and $|x^2 - a \cdot y| \leq c \cdot x^{3/2}$ for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $1 \leq a \leq H$. Let $\widetilde{T}_{H,M,K}$ denote the set of pairs of primes (x, y) such that $\frac{M}{2} \leq x \leq M$, $|x^2 - a \cdot y| \leq 5x^{3/2}$ for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $1 \leq a \leq H$, and $y|x^k - 1$ for some $k \leq K$. If the R.H. holds, then for large M,

$$\frac{\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}_{H,M,K}}{\widetilde{\mathcal{S}}_{H,c,M}} < c' \frac{H \cdot (K+1)^2 (\log M)^3}{c \cdot M}$$

for an effectively computable positive constant c'. A possible choice of such a constant is c' = 90.

Proof Let *a* be an integer such that $1 \le a \le H$. By Lemma 15 and Lemma 16, we have

$$\frac{\mathcal{T}_{a,M,K}}{\mathcal{S}_{a,c,M}} < \frac{\frac{45}{8}M^{3/2}(K+1)^2\log(5^{3/2}M)}{\frac{1}{15} \cdot \frac{c}{a} \cdot \frac{M^{\frac{5}{2}}}{(\log M)^2}} < 90 \cdot \frac{a \cdot (K+1)^2(\log M)^3}{c \cdot M} < 90 \cdot \frac{H \cdot (K+1)^2(\log M)^3}{c \cdot M}$$

for M large enough. Note that $\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}_{H,M,K} = \sum_{1 \le a \le H} \mathcal{T}_{a,M,K}$ and $\widetilde{\mathcal{S}}_{H,c,M} = \sum_{1 \le a \le H} \mathcal{S}_{a,c,M}$. Hence we have $\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}_{H,M,K} = H \cdot (K+1)^2 (\log M)^3$

$$\frac{\mathcal{T}_{H,M,K}}{\widetilde{\mathcal{S}}_{H,c,M}} < 90 \cdot \frac{H \cdot (K+1)^2 (\log M)^3}{c \cdot M}$$

for large M.

According to a result of D. Jao et al. [80], the discrete logarithm problem has the same difficulty for all elliptic curves over a given finite field with the same order. With this, it is reasonable to conjecture that the same result holds for genus 2 curves, i.e., the discrete logarithm problem has the same difficulty for all genus 2 hyperelliptic curves C over given a finite field $\mathbb{F}_{\mathbb{H}}$ such that $\#Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C)$ is the same. From this cryptographic point of view, in the following theorem, we treat all genus 2 curves Cover a given prime field \mathbb{F}_p as the same curve, if all $Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C)$ have the same cardinality.

Theorem 18 Assume the Riemann Hypothesis. Let H and K be positive constants. Let (p, C) be a randomly (w.r.t. uniform distribution) chosen pair in which p is a prime in the interval $[\frac{M}{2}, M]$ and C is a genus 2 hyperelliptic curve defined over \mathbb{F}_p such that $\#Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C) = h \cdot r$ with $1 \leq h \leq H$ and r prime. For M large enough, the probability that C is pairing-friendly with respect to parameters H and K is less than

$$c''\frac{H\cdot(K+1)^2(\log M)^3}{M}$$

for an effectively computable positive constant c''.

Proof The Riemann Hypothesis for abelian varieties over finite fields, proved by A. Weil in [42], implies the Hasse-Weil bound for genus 2 curves, i.e.,

$$#Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C) \in \left[(\sqrt{p} - 1)^4, (\sqrt{p} + 1)^4 \right]$$

For *p* large enough, we have $\#Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C) \in [p^2 - 5p^{3/2}, p^2 + 5p^{3/2}].$

Let $c = \frac{1}{9}$. By Proposition 2.4 of [81], almost all integers $z \in \left[p^2 - cp^{3/2}, p^2 + cp^{3/2}\right]$ can be assumed as the cardinality of the Jacobian of a genus 2 hyperelliptic curve (given by a quintic or sextic polynomial) over \mathbb{F}_p .

The conclusion then follows from Lemma 17. Note that we can choose c'' = 10c', where c' is the constant from Lemma 17.

Theorem 18 says there are very few pairing-friendly genus 2 hyperelliptic curves with respect to parameters H and K much smaller than p.

5.4 Algorithms for Generating Pairing-friendly Genus 2 Curves over Prime Fields

Let k be a desired embedding degree. Let C be a genus 2 hyperelliptic curve defined over a finite field \mathbb{F}_p whose Jacobian over \mathbb{F}_p has a subgroup of order r such that $Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C)$ has embedding degree k with respect to r. The ratio of the bit length of $\#Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C)$ to the bit length of r is a good measure of efficiency in pairing-based cryptography. If we define

$$\rho = 2\log(p)/\log(r),$$

then this value is a good approximation of the above ratio. In many cryptographic applications, we prefer this value to be close to 1.

In [71], a method to generate genus 2 curves with ordinary Jacobians over prime fields with low embedding degrees is proposed. An important part of this method is a parameterization of the CM field. The method generates curves with value $\rho \approx 8$. We propose another way of generating good parameters, without parameterizing the CM field, which gives a similar ρ value.

We continue to use the same notation and assumptions as in Chapter 4. Again we let $K := \mathbb{Q}(\eta)$ be the fixed quartic CM field and want to construct a genus 2 hyperelliptic curve C over a prime field \mathbb{F}_p such that $Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C)$ has CM by K, and such that $Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C)$ has a subgroup of prime order r and $Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C)$ has a prescribed embedding degree k with respect to r. For cryptographic applications, we also need p and r to be large. We will present the algorithm for the case $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$ in this thesis. The case $d \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ can be treated similarly.

In the case $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$, such a curve can be constructed if we can find a simultaneous integral solution $(c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, p, r)$, in which p and r are large prime numbers, to the following system of equations:

$$c_1^2 + c_2^2 d + c_3^2 a + c_4^2 a d + 2c_3 c_4 b d = p (5.1)$$

$$2c_1c_2 + 2c_3c_4a + c_3^2b + c_4^2bd = 0 (5.2)$$

$$(p+1)^2 - 4c_1(p+1) + 4(c_1^2 - dc_2^2) \equiv 0 \pmod{r}$$
(5.3)

$$\Phi_k(p) \equiv 0 \pmod{r}. \tag{5.4}$$

Here a, b, d and k are fixed, and $\Phi_k(x)$ is the k^{th} cyclotomic polynomial. Equations (5.1) and (5.2) mean that the prime p corresponds to a good Weil number, as in Chapter 4. Equation (5.3) makes sure that the Jacobian has a subgroup of prime order r. Equation (5.4) guarantees that the Jacobian of the curve has an embedding degree with respect to r at most k.

Algorithm 7 Generating pairing parameters for $K = \mathbb{Q}(\eta), d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$

- **Input:** Integers a, b, d with d > 0 squarefree, $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$, $a^2 b^2 d > 0$ not a square; a prescribed embedding degree k; a bit size n of the desired subgroup order; maximum numbers of trials, M_1 and M_2 .
- **Output:** Integers c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4 , prime numbers p and r, where r has n bits, satisfying Equations (5.1), (5.2), (5.3), (5.4); or "Not found."
- 1: Let $c_1 = \pm 1$.
- 2: repeat
- 3: Choose a prime number r of n bits such that $r \equiv 1 \pmod{k}$.
- 4: With c_1 fixed as above, try to solve the system of equations given by (5.1), (5.2), (5.3), (5.4) over the finite field \mathbb{F}_r for a simultaneous solution $(\bar{c}_2, \bar{c}_3, \bar{c}_4, \bar{p})$.
- 5: if Such a solution exists then

6: repeat

- 7: Choose lifts c_3 and c_4 of \bar{c}_3 and \bar{c}_4 to \mathbb{Z} such that $f := bc_3^2 + 2ac_3c_4 + bdc_4^2$ is even. Set $c_2 = -c_1f/2$.
- 8: Let $p = ac_3^2 + 2bdc_3c_4 + 2adc_4^2 + 1 + dc_2^2$.
- 9: **if** p is prime **then**
- 10: Return $(c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, p, r)$.
- 11: **end if**
- 12: **until** Lines 7 through 11 have been tried M_2 times.
- 13: end if

14: **until** M_1 primes r have been tried.

15: Return "Not found."

Theorem 19 If $(c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, p, r)$ is returned by Algorithm 7, then it provides a solution to the system of equations (5.1), (5.2), (5.3), (5.4).

Proof It is clear that if $(c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, p, r)$ is returned, then Equations (5.3) and (5.4) are automatically satisfied. Equations (5.1) and (5.2) are satisfied by the constructions in Step 7 and 8. Step 9 ensures that p is prime.

Depending on p and \mathcal{O}_K , there are 2 or 4 possibilities for the group order $\#Jac_{\mathbb{F}_q}(C)$ [57,58]. However, we are only interested in the curve C whose Jacobian has an exact group order given by

$$N = (p+1)^2 - 4c_1(p+1) + 4(c_1^2 - dc_2^2).$$

Algorithm 7 is difficult to analyze because we do not know how likely a solution is found in Step 4. However, experimental result shows that the algorithm returns valid parameters with high probability.

Example 3. In the case of a = 2, b = -1, d = 2, some suitable pairing parameters are found as in Appendix B.1, where r are 160, 256, 512 and 1024 bits, respectively. The computations were performed by the computer algebra system MAGMA [53]. Note that this is the case that $K = \mathbb{Q}[i\sqrt{2-\sqrt{2}}] \neq \mathbb{Q}(\xi_5)$ is Galois, so there are only two possibilities for the group order $\#Jac_{\mathbb{F}_p}(C)$ [58], namely,

$$N_1 = (p+1)^2 - 4c_1(p+1) + 4(c_1^2 - dc_2^2),$$

which corresponds to the curve we need, or

$$N_2 = 2(p+1)^2 + 8(c_1^2 - c_2^2 d) - N_1,$$

which corresponds to a quadratic twist of the desired curve.

5.5 Generating Pairing Parameters with Polynomial Parameterization

The parameter c_1 produced by Algorithm 7 is always ± 1 and the size of c_2 dominates that of c_1, c_3 and c_4 . In fact, this is not necessary. We can modify the search method with the idea of polynomial parameterization and produce pairing parameters with c_1, c_2, c_3 and c_4 are roughly of the same size. The algorithm is given as follows. **Algorithm 8** Generating pairing parameters for $K = \mathbb{Q}(\eta), d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$ with polynomial parameterization

- **Input:** Integers a, b, d with d > 0 squarefree, $d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}$, $a^2 b^2 d > 0$ not a square; a prescribed embedding degree k; a bit size n of the desired subgroup order; maximum numbers of trials, M_1 and M_2 .
- **Output:** Integers c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4 , prime numbers p and r, where r has n bits, satisfying Equations (5.1), (5.2), (5.3), (5.4); or "Not found."
- 1: Choose degree 2 bivariate polynomials $C_3(x, y)$ and $C_4(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ such that there is a factorization in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$

$$bC_3^2 + 2aC_3C_4 + bdC_4^2 = U \cdot V,$$

where U and V are bivariate polynomials of degree 2. Let $C_1(x, y) = U(x, y)$ and $C_2(x, y) = -\frac{1}{2}V(x, y)$.

- 2: repeat
- 3: Choose a prime number r of n bits such that $r \equiv 1 \pmod{k}$.
- 4: Try to solve the system of equations given by (5.2), (5.3), (5.4), with c_i replaced by $C_i(x, y), i = 1, 2, 3, 4$, over the finite field \mathbb{F}_r for a simultaneous solution $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{p}).$
- 5: if Such a solution exists then
- 6: repeat
- 7: Choose lifts x and y of \bar{x} and \bar{y} to \mathbb{Z} such that $c_i := C_i(x, y), i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ are all integers. Let $p = ac_3^2 + 2bdc_3c_4 + 2adc_4^2 + c_1^2 + dc_2^2$.
- 8: **if** p is prime **then**
- 9: Return $(c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, p, r)$.
- 10: end if
- 11: **until** Lines 7 through 10 have been tried M_2 times.
- 12: **end if**
- 13: **until** M_1 primes r have been tried.
- 14: Return "Not found."

Similarly, we have

Theorem 20 If $(c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, p, r)$ is returned by Algorithm 8, then it provides a solution to the system of equations (5.1), (5.2), (5.3), (5.4).

In Algorithm 8, it is clear that we need $gcd(C_1, C_2, C_3, C_4) = 1 \in \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$ so that a prime p can be found.

Example 3. Let $C_3(x,y) = C_4(x,y) = xy$, $C_1(x,y) = x^2$ and $C_2(x,y) = -(a + b(1+d)/2)y^2$. Then they satisfy $bC_3^2 + 2aC_3C_4 + bdC_4^2 + 2C_1C_2 = 0$. Using these polynomials in the above algorithm, we have found for $K = \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{2-\sqrt{2}})$ (i.e., a = 2, b = -1, d = 2) parameters in which r are 160, 256, 512 and 1024 bits, respectively. These parameters are presented in Appendix B.2.

Since x and y are roughly of the size of r, the value of p obtained by this method is $\approx r^4$. It is thus a natural thought that if we parameterize the polynomials $C_i(x, y)$ with degree 1 polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$, then the size of p may be reduced to $\approx r^2$. The following proposition shows that such parameterizations will not succeed.

Proposition 21 Let a, b, d be integers such that d is squarefree and $a^2 - b^2 d > 0$ is not a square. Let $f(X, Y) = bX^2 + 2aXY + bdY^2$ be a bivariate polynomial in $\mathbb{Q}[X, Y]$. Let F, G be polynomials of total degree 1 in $\mathbb{Q}[X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n]$ such that F and G are not associated with one another. Then f(F, G) is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n]$.

Proof First we note that $b \neq 0$, as indicated by the condition that $a^2 - b^2 d > 0$ is not a square. Let $D = a^2 - b^2 d$. Let $\alpha = -a/b + \sqrt{D}/b$ and $\beta = -a/b - \sqrt{D}/b$. Then f(X, Y) can be factored over $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ as

$$f(X,Y) = bX^2 + 2aXY + bdY^2 = b(X - \alpha Y)(X - \beta Y),$$

where $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ is an algebraic closure of \mathbb{Q} .

Let F and G be polynomials of total degree 1 in $\mathbb{Q}[X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n]$. Write

$$F(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i X_i + f_0,$$

$$G(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n g_i X_i + g_0,$$

where $f_i, g_i \in \mathbb{Q}$. Suppose f(F, G) is reducible in $\mathbb{Q}[X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n]$. Then we can write

$$f(F,G) = bH_1 \cdot H_2$$

where $H_j = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i^{(j)} X_i + h_0^{(j)} \in \mathbb{Q}[X_1, X_2, ..., X_n], \ j = 1, 2$, both of total degree 1. Now we have

$$b(F - \alpha G)(F - \beta G) = f(F, G) = bH_1 \cdot H_2$$

Note that $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})[X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n]$ is a uniform factorization domain. Because $F - \alpha G$, $F - \beta G$, H_1 and H_2 are of degree 1, they are irreducible. without of loss of generality, we may assume

$$F - \alpha G = \gamma H_1, \tag{5.5}$$

for some $\gamma \in \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})^{\times}$. We can write $\gamma = s + t\sqrt{D}$ with $s, t \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $t \neq 0$. Here we require $t \neq 0$ as the polynomial on the left hand side of Equation (5.5) is in $\mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})[X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n] \setminus \mathbb{Q}[X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n].$

Equation (5.5) gives

$$F - (-a/b + \sqrt{D/b})G = (s + t\sqrt{D})H_1.$$
(5.6)

Equating the coefficients of X_i and the constant terms on both sides of the above equation, we obtain

$$f_i + (a/b)g_i + (g_i/b)\sqrt{D} = s \cdot h_i^{(1)} + t \cdot h_i^{(1)}\sqrt{D}, \quad 0 \le i \le n.$$
(5.7)

This in turn gives

$$f_i + (a/b)g_i = s \cdot h_i^{(1)}, \tag{5.8}$$

$$g_i/b = t \cdot h_i^{(1)}.$$
 (5.9)

If $g_i = 0$ for some *i*, we must have $h_i^{(1)} = 0$ by (5.9), which again implies $f_i = 0$ by (5.8). Otherwise, if $g_i \neq 0$, we can divide both sides of (5.8) and (5.9) to obtain

$$b(f_i/g_i) = s/t,$$

thus

$$f_i/g_i = s/(b \cdot t). \tag{5.10}$$

Therefore, for all $0 \le i \le n$, we have $f_i = c \cdot g_i$, where the constant $c = s/(b \cdot t) \in \mathbb{Q}$. Hence $F = c \cdot G$, i.e., F and G are associated.

An alternative way of polynomial parameterization in Step 1 of Algorithm 8 is to use degree 1 and degree 2 polynomials for $C_3(x, y)$ and $C_4(x, y)$. This will produce different kinds of c_i 's, but the resulting ρ value is still approximately 8 in general. The on-going research is aiming at reducing further the value of ρ . Our next goal is to find an efficient algorithm that produces a ρ value close to 4 for the CM method. Our ultimate goal is to find an efficient method that gives genus 2 curves over large prime fields with $\rho \approx 1$.

5.6 Updates on Related Research and Future Work

In 2002, K. Rubin and A. Silverberg [82] showed that supersingular Jacobians of genus 2 hyperelliptic curves have small embedding degrees (≤ 12). In 2007, L. Hitt [83] presented, for characteristic 2, the existence of families of genus 2 curves with small embedding degree and small ρ value (< 2). D. Freeman [71] gave a method in 2007 for constructing genus 2 curves with ordinary Jacobians over prime fields, with $\rho \approx 8$. Freeman's method uses parameterization of the CM fields to obtain conditions that lead to the result. We describe in this chapter a new method for generating pairing-friendly parameters, without parameterizing the CM fields. The method is easy to understand and easy to implement.

After the research described in this chapter was done, other methods [84,85] for finding pairing-friendly parameters were proposed, and they produce parameters with smaller ρ values ($\approx 4 \text{ or } \leq 4$).

The next step of our research is to allow non-integral values for the coefficients of the Frobenius element, and try to find further relations between the parameters. Based on this, we want to find better solutions to a system of equations as described in this chapter, which provide smaller ρ values.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

The thesis contributes to both applied and theoretical cryptography. We summarize the contributions as follows.

In Chapter 2, a time-bound hierarchical key management scheme for access control is proposed. Deployment of elliptic curve cryptography makes the scheme resistant against attacks that break prior proposals of such schemes. The scheme is designed for broadcasting of encrypted data, and is useful in real-world applications like electronic newspaper subscription and Pay TV.

In Chapter 3, explicit doubling formulas are presented for genus 2 hyperelliptic curves in the real model. The most general case and special cases of divisor doubling are handled by these formulas. They are useful for efficient implementation of cryptographic protocols using genus 2 real hyperelliptic curve. Equivalent transformations for obtaining short equations of genus 2 real hyperelliptic curves are also investigated and presented. This extends the existing work on equivalent transformations for imaginary hyperelliptic curves.

Chapter 4 shows a method which generates suitable parameters for the complex multiplication construction of genus 2 curves that can be used in cryptography. The proposed method uses polynomial parameterization to improve the efficiency over earlier published literature, by avoiding factorization of large integers. Analysis of the method is presented based on the Bateman-Horn heuristics. We also give a new conjecture that extends the existing work. The new conjecture deals with the case of two polynomials and the "almost prime" condition. Examples are given to provide numerical evidence of our conjecture.

In Chapter 5, following a quantitative analysis of the scarcity of pairing-friendly genus 2 curves, a method of finding parameters for generating such curves via the genus 2 complex multiplication construction is presented. The method finds parameters that give $\rho \approx 8$. The analysis about the scarcity of pairing-friendly genus 2 curve improves a prior heuristic result. And our algorithm for finding parameters is easy to understand and to implement.

We describe some of the directions for further research as follows.

The work in Chapter 2 can be extended to achieve a complete security proof. It is also desirable to construct an efficient time-bound hierarchical key management scheme that does not use a tamper-resistant device. Implementation and performance evaluation of the scheme are also to be done in future research.

Future work in Chapter 3 includes optimization of current formulas, derivation of more efficient explicit addition, doubling, and baby step formulas for genus 2 real hyperelliptic curve using coordinates other than affine coordinates. Efficient implementation and application oriented performance evaluation is another direction of further research.

Research work in Chapters 4 and 5 can be regarded as being in the same framework as finding cryptographically strong parameters in the construction of genus 2 curves. Further research needs to improve the current methods, and/or discover new methods so that parameters can be produced more efficiently, and that pairing-friendly parameters are generated with smaller ρ value. Again, implementation is part of the future work. LIST OF REFERENCES

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APPENDICES

A. Parameters for Discrete Log Based Cryptography

In the following, we present some parameters found by our method. The primes $p(x_0)$, corresponding to value x_0 , are of 128 bits and the group orders $N_1(x_0)$ or $N_2(x_0)$ are almost prime (in this case, a product of a positive integer < 2000 and a prime number).

$$\begin{split} \underline{a = 20, b = 1, d = 19.} \\ c_1(x) &= -(5/2)x^2 - 24x - 39/2, \\ c_2(x) &= 12x^2 + 42x + 5, \\ c_3(x) &= x^2 + 2x + 4, \\ c_4(x) &= x^2 + 9x + 1, \\ p(x) &= (12721/4)x^4 + 26610x^3 + (138247/2)x^2 + 17520x + 6829/4, \\ N_1(x) &= (161823841/16)x^8 + 169252905x^7 + (4591135697/4)x^6 + 3790760034x^5 \\ &+ (45798567295/8)x^4 + 2521811013x^3 + (2200243933/4)x^2 + 61359456x + 48815721/16, \\ N_2(x) &= (161823841/16)x^8 + 169252905x^7 + (4590881277/4)x^6 + 3789617226x^5 \\ &+ (45742665623/8)x^4 + 2504037741x^3 + (2143518849/4)x^2 + 58298352x + 44551929/16. \\ x_0 &= 548050991, \\ p(x_0) &= 286909637977764067855221276777587727961, \\ N_2(x_0) &= 82317140364531637515130621054159952023115110860990352140958946602968889685624 \\ &= 2^3 \cdot 103 \cdot 998994421899655795086536663278640194455280471613960584234938672366127 \end{split}$$

30201.

 $x_0 = 507822535,$

 $p(x_0) = 211499402528761325611378043169347082601,$

$$\begin{split} N_1(x_0) &= 44731997270023012615201443067044482876392989995456465952479290805233356211416 \\ &= 2^3 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 6212777398614307307666867092645067066165693054924509160066568167393521 \\ &\quad 69603. \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \underline{a} &= 49, b = 2, d = 43. \\ \hline c_1(x) &= -19x^2 - 81x - 57, \\ c_2(x) &= 25x^2 + 77x + 37, \\ c_3(x) &= 3x^2 + 9x + 7, \\ c_4(x) &= 2x^2 + 8x + 4, \\ p(x) &= 37137x^4 + 245922x^3 + 534667x^2 + 411094x + 103045, \\ N_1(x) &= 1379156769x^8 + 18265610628x^7 + 100192309254x^6 + 293537074164x^5 \\ &+ 495845231429x^4 + 490539243800x^3 + 279450495148x^2 + 84849357864x + 10641750132, \\ N_2(x) &= 1379156769x^8 + 18265610628x^7 + 100186664430x^6 + 293475629244x^5 \\ &+ 495587670117x^4 + 490018152864x^3 + 278924635092x^2 + 84595125192x + 10594761156. \\ x_0 &= 269037344, \\ p(x_0) &= 194561585104011195498898535676821242693, \\ N_1(x_0) &= 378542103981853911199097346032135418109388519198214748958636145964698444609 \end{split}$$

$$16$$

$$= 2^{2} \cdot 7 \cdot 17 \cdot 7952565209702813260485238362019651640953540319290225818458742562283$$

5807691

 $x_0 = 272775528,$

 $p(x_0) = 205602527203239038572121987052863495221,$

 $N_1(x_0) = 42272399192358648873426271719066469393935346629841579846207943767125190226868$ = 2² · 3 · 101 · 348782171554114264632229964678766249124879097605953629094124948573 64018339.
$$\begin{split} c_1(x) &= -7x^2 - 43x - 15, \\ c_2(x) &= 7x^2 + 36x + 23, \\ c_3(x) &= x^2 + 8x + 7, \\ c_4(x) &= 2x^2 + 9x + 3, \\ p(x) &= 798x^4 + 8316x^3 + 26156x^2 + 22938x + 6281, \\ N_1(x) &= 636804x^8 + 13272336x^7 + 110934348x^6 + 472179624x^5 + 1078878880x^4 \\ &\quad + 1312636376x^3 + 863392212x^2 + 292135424x + 40121116, \\ N_2(x) &= 636804x^8 + 13272336x^7 + 110867316x^6 + 471091656x^5 + 1072454392x^4 \\ &\quad + 1296182464x^3 + 846125708x^2 + 284206952x + 38789332 \end{split}$$

 $x_0 = 690918783,$

 $p(x_0) = 181848990878426194442759846747024276669,$

 $N_1(x_0) = 33069055483501933273197540182643492422771446574415202943269985210245986359$ 248

 $= 2^4 \cdot 20668159677188708295748462614152182764232154109009501839543740756403741$ 47453.

 $x_0 = 788336903,$

 $p(x_0) = 308212554264460561682107015586616490669,$

 $N_2(x_0) = 94994978606223046358527917755472879305246966478154462196668039263663901851$ 088

 $= 2^4 \cdot 5937186162888940397407994859717054956577935404884653887291752453978993$ 865693.

$$\begin{split} c_1(x) &= -(1/2)x^2 + 24x + 23/2, \\ c_2(x) &= 14x^2 + 96x + 30, \\ c_3(x) &= 3x^2 + 8x + 3, \\ c_4(x) &= x^2 + 8x + 1, \\ p(x) &= (10045/4)x^4 + 31896x^3 + (228005/2)x^2 + 60120x + 35917/4, \\ N_1(x) &= (100902025/16)x^8 + 160197660x^7 + (6360030839/4)x^6 + 7575598140x^5 \\ &+ (135066868587/8)x^4 + 14293625076x^3 + (22676894823/4)x^2 + 1081276596x \\ &+ 1291797801/16, \\ N_2(x) &= (100902025/16)x^8 + 160197660x^7 + (6359428139/4)x^6 + 7573202220x^5 \\ &+ (134962592611/8)x^4 + 14267236308x^3 + (22615799123/4)x^2 + 1077869028x \\ &+ 1287774649/16 \\ x_0 &= 558110127, \\ p(x_0) &= 243651770406870114098910643106437464421, \\ N_1(x_0) &= 59366185222402147088423186429975169231560942759037695692632492437442791846 \end{split}$$

 $=2^{6} \cdot 3^{3} \cdot 3435543126296420549098564029512451923122739742999866648879195164203$ 8652689

 $x_0 = 556747959,$

 $p(x_0) = 241281761119813502902407304706517574357,$

 $N_2(x_0) = 58216888249078746955854475856559517495479835454491180632120016819914968258$ 608

 $=2^4 \cdot 36385555155674216847409047410349698434674897159056987895075010512446855$ 16163.

B. Pairing-friendly Genus 2 Curves: Numerical Data

B.1 Parameters produced by Algorithm 7

Here are some parameters found by Algorithm 7 for the CM field $K = \mathbb{Q}\left(i\sqrt{2-\sqrt{2}}\right)$ and embedding degree k = 5. Corresponding to this CM field there is a genus 2 curve defined over the rationals [59].

$$C: y^2 = -x^5 + 3x^4 + 2x^3 - 6x^2 - 3x + 1.$$

The curves over prime fields corresponding to these parameters are either C reduced modulo p, or its quadratic twist C'.

On average, a MAGMA script found one set of parameters with r = 160, 256, 512and 1024 bits in 0.0918, 0.3486, 2.9938, and 46.5615 seconds, respectively. The computations were performed on an AMD Quad-Core Opteron(TM) 2.4GHz computer running Linux kernel release 2.6.9-34.0.1.ELsmp; only one processor was used for computation.

<u>r: 160 bits. k = 5.</u>

p = 252823257935282285362732638695054084330470208363294037922085422639242974021428617016685256858478396063171049776321146642543762678397966294736679271737114219377482492730434694368080216503567747137

r = 1461501637330902918203684832716283019655932544881

$$\begin{split} N &= 6391959975301027707437193758351165424031845639679966666440138384615623\\ 1104135942006766949461178052253303126123108270449109818252877992852236693\\ 9854055782191379965677314562703378699008278543675026648680068400692359055\\ 6954728131135395897277972576354640367835735384699586219721088378014250469\\ 0516520543753456431447895666619342429338048350855555475511765095933553626\\ 5110336972288875552378947584 \end{split}$$

 $c_1 = 1$

 $c_2 = 11243292621276079848206331730630023731174251699959569954973786$ 210137165821520551831056883188430192

 $c_3 = -64248144848395594424557829122788871673183688623832$

 $c_4 = -109802017909327381229794505154259988889529711346380$

 $\rho \approx 8.072$

The equation of the curve over \mathbb{F}_p is $y^2 = -x^5 + 3x^4 + 2x^3 - 6x^2 - 3x + 1$.

<u>r: 256 bits. k = 5</u>.

p = 7048810714809071620782966701028690743897584563168786209760452544994877530570186125117122017350141805247723779624730169393101671127446215490847 0128180097731192247524353202667866344441677798408664226182036087805320910 7260269920646366156330351242218700528276622717003991911130319025660067745 840160149952389932917329

r = 115792089237316195423570985008687907853269984665640564039457584007913 129642241

$$\begin{split} N &= 496857324932071752145912383893889169489835622033784989598880614229969\\ 9600573805281453411826215444363606741797229694154849558866843478727700264\\ 1105324414001856604997470007681554137437103159261172089255501470358581691\\ 0913734818476522890003367060634939104658599174570132609823174216276573137\\ 8669572028319853268929729746434758497120580756345226145068054586116990212\\ 0443929992312351457834418288528071757692892289663780177801079095634553929\\ 6480701514721219823943376856364544844490404257431312550838391605233331165\\ 2091324748046447124154493757683497657698145122503447211715505414438313883\\ 50786300229054528190120614531020814267875552 \end{split}$$

 $c_1 = 1$

 $c_{2} = -5936670242993572074752240216934048675593535867493623642911929101631$ 1737731409117467973049416437737755512483626195984512654911475975189673396 5375133869149502 $c_3 = -3548809313566683873624287099133190257445712680595264225876058829990$

 $c_4 = -5936979480813871848895779658124341164096655715011808647348987318596$

 $\rho \approx 8.093$

The equation of the curve over \mathbb{F}_p is $y^2 = 3(-x^5 + 3x^4 + 2x^3 - 6x^2 - 3x + 1).$

r: 512 bits. k = 5.

p = 335008079246530563726120681491057120190326476848023623418849270705403

r = 13407807929942597099574024998205846127479365820592393377723561443721

$$\begin{split} N &= 11223041316044970219812686210809865338358600148378566732477018902868 \\ 5912987024069365912804169295175953132440473697878809332547443118956511048 \\ 9242158278622800616441049995563290068412636643886181267534617699906471680 \\ 1356840851597729984858864409121981674885233373536205919494825317906165114 \\ 8863550561816504672841593088819917679757264093993063292019292441659811890 \\ 9644299155846155145481933364003109894928933468509697157723993097373099424 \\ 7310617074050249835332596597617054353048947640627844593265846616744048203 \\ 5899908082811005474300101537695729743203995579239020981567065529890804328 \\ 5865472748289633014781054417871877062095215800661352832471093397550996581 \end{split}$$

 $c_1 = 1$

 $c_{2} = -409272573749164484449600432894012850529545698940416902410733686700$

 $c_3 = 4071832224705716002619557835718952464698817177619249950112440225311$

 $c_4 = 202312944109255719410832990595883665860453403468322976506716160344204$

 $\rho \approx 8.0651$

The equation of the curve over \mathbb{F}_p is $y^2 = 11(-x^5 + 3x^4 + 2x^3 - 6x^2 - 3x + 1)$.

r: 1024 bits. k = 5.

p = 104943131781796780351315553703114714164750614732347362357070555738689

r = 179769313486231590772930519078902473361797697894230657273430081157732

$$\begin{split} N &= 110130609081715654827788741168901425346848959713454373250473995973061\\ 6759350987673635370386661323144384147441478939900055680762860287128384105\\ 4902665836927719237593406042804513684315739066059397771282895303010787292\\ 2179757197582159028597547853246866745923598008900586551168111551022146642\\ 7797892056997175653567482674277676776365175778879398392915988749773939288\\ 6435705233055514759060289001789676697626524970048461677042565997116692632\\ 1574514938662017298145090019935086860014508760684579132668330742154526790\\ 6729756575365103858396417152258336224360945964101533318634906150998015840\\ 2926739626469233845687108138465424889309069890167784506422380877885738677\\ 8486497648498874904198469516015126562709058573529499230570720716609495114 \end{split}$$

 $c_1 = 1$

 $c_{2} = 724372596740782223909406054653818076964153956231753653007456714190398$

$$\begin{split} c_3 &= -165351051667168444715785481069322973156717038193134515677640165475\\ 6356287031722889250259390454834982137350158483356777003123281295331023971\\ 1393360455936205111439243887010818642160393233292858255502407201894108071\\ 9149943387259685239578041196541694819919059869390598882816649918129689175\\ 47027543464862829090783742 \end{split}$$

 $c_{4} = -207335869157521775738895119259620293971923286445368600757752050786$ 1398853142551817062560786443520326893830924572045474412814928410396990573 6933573731383048372745200257985204644144837697573959688350508891779753127 3479259087733008907698262801412853472379355142666972763160082464948044116 7446683063036638423281152

 $\rho \approx 8.045$

The equation of the curve over \mathbb{F}_p is $y^2 = 5(-x^5 + 3x^4 + 2x^3 - 6x^2 - 3x + 1).$

B.2 Parameters produced by Algorithm 8

Below are some examples of the parameters found by Algorithm 8 for $K = \mathbb{Q}(i\sqrt{2-\sqrt{2}})$ and embedding degree k = 3. Here, we choose $C_3(x,y) = C_4(x,y) = xy$, $C_1(x,y) = x^2$ and $C_2(x,y) = -(a+b(1+d)/2)y^2$ in Step 1 of Algorithm 8.

On average, our MAGMA implementation found one set of parameters with r = 160, 256, 512 and 1024 bits in 0.1092, 0.4468, 4.1718, and 50.0140 seconds, respectively. The computations were performed on an AMD Quad-Core Opteron(TM) 2.4GHz computer running Linux kernel release 2.6.9-34.0.1.ELsmp; only one processor was used for computation.

<u>r: 160 bits. k = 3.</u>

p = 2760322067827918576043085019199885911367408859313438987402563848662416467553702979623124723634053832810065253894017495098779682257468497626596 054621968600128109029276968729859800558964868162387810481

r = 1461501637330902918203684832716283019655932543447

$$\begin{split} N &= 761937791813779631994733941106633708154739036303135746201414612683681\\ 3740229511268625176061099440881442259428060861564412453929893287845956340\\ 3416154738013818777886228088337842186582031203981403522971082031628644450\\ 8345243160595796537771020027471372909123195630278485253513049270650615256\\ 4351364423861208959016750122994621253699118662098804381727358336213778156\\ 291342604171682918546278978314937568 \end{split}$$

 $c_1 = 853413751674246325960655910542033278192644078137851807206531855460335$ 897482560901762777003565546321

 $c_2 = -467312771754171603865894820458465529298297100229438686497717835334$ 951148694691783854304471959958498

 $c_3 = c_4 = -89309702244271126870314830090645570026648145619900427099516737$ 4051672546438742749426798352836518846

 $\rho \approx 8.2401$

The equation of the curve over \mathbb{F}_p is $y^2 = 3(-x^5 + 3x^4 + 2x^3 - 6x^2 - 3x + 1)$.

<u>r: 256 bits. k = 3</u>.

p = 822920761971611209794051125149779261868007917105814333422807428702492483230083267137722107007539895222282160142127021544643255654790661296929370353893229675700191477216018550151093614656582383928029105989773078845819669931262786638243789783462295242237448794562285423898483720827257224421582887155754347373346337

r = 115792089237316195423570985008687907853269984665640564039457584007913 129640743

$$\begin{split} N &= 677198580483937194263730753359784807376570572162519246889869342280825\\ 3032215444487859365278749079347589549730845666733117453777198238279219494\\ 5280678988988024443378725219717152986643553771096267443036427016707389095\\ 7249248397038280644492111218229707870352901997265602267012008190367799204\\ 2490892895555013596712575651692176016210908268738361775620639618631060792\\ 5033229572686474111206272193416927126310352656009315433216497023049930883\\ 5373318602217711383763542668793170469526104112283163915538814071400367342\\ 3775883028281057290061738442630720051414075948315034087299281022702814170\\ 14852155526683323382176465726972979082574048\end{split}$$

 $c_1 = 899567387391479217381476947274351584712780874649839002409060884043691$

 $c_{2} = -379916236281151103764633380973143102421074912906860994641809351833$

 $c_{3} = c_{4} = 8267529934618186873729771614246762778267959823408343148411442228$

 $\rho = 8.0950$

The equation of the curve over \mathbb{F}_p is $y^2 = -x^5 + 3x^4 + 2x^3 - 6x^2 - 3x + 1$.

<u>r: 512 bits. k = 3</u>.

p = 626094627977785411761504336964367530509161001161397733772648139606108

r = 134078079299425970995740249982058461274793658205923933777235614437217

N = 39199448318264151528178525307479058638395060577363482831228191455392403306458837694070875888613683067832500678159871922358465144965396262292410105964928972428689260615132021701481808474635277813843355927973435247029

 $c_{1} = 174026622103036049001443203672787317165709960825483879547761528701105$ $c_{2} = -414898830634725511579876261796925209423483197180808499033365137192$ 7558171176108301510977080798335020411125167778584725421392063859461695138 4087271477429444214749212952259453844250997349939835035354149654600838848 4697319851167904916270475649949946784682228312403248649006236852585156268 41625371289867006618563072

 $c_{3} = c_{4} = -12016941541828430890387541295049543238634890141937497877421825$ 3608511313770187340039750897734731896175653227833547978740517617931580691 9494419145235744346056001344596541225696787382859793476317869029518461205 0052095264627090978218925706008532351098389876395449170546152881538676448 6819410816179248899825935663584

 $\rho = 8.0816$

The equation of the curve over \mathbb{F}_p is $y^2 = 11(-x^5 + 3x^4 + 2x^3 - 6x^2 - 3x + 1).$

r: 1024 bits. k = 3.

p = 717748645781505731120599269684910693590944029612987068440967012314130 6637827393231944795966268238394707373418250637693458042904697055796191300 6988518257403915714005639997828602961606379818049724696348918738839210978 4884097588161710751447842237401094267825596641326555653496480397321236084 3359687016377451991881531057275736765140557796850130723269247861970378423 4747661610312631323994375446803092065579965869275407690364653384443149636 1358359960327719785761624131833934060542855381519429968298504355243330594 8128051188598482445090960279949827080200814185109371664267078220279517108 4593441499198308986503899040312785820990605173937322268693944141897213905 0350040373032830045642801185170518236713373491710503302901558703113134368 3241826353657585244175657105742633183737223279548444715679485406276250355 120113791587420806599882257339707524865937728176553896669846719444038688 2544976363374550235175548720819849709645412976171386385886955140368425643 5595018639856563961113295199752946528182355932639678152695494113031640748 6915218894642959537179051946992663567484366871922820680694703814552225520

r = 179769313486231590772930519078902473361797697894230657273430081157732

 $c_{1} = 241046809911331744829734214849495338288383033422516562343952911153215$

 $c_{2} = -381790331864082701677964116490390471323211246420800974547315434670$

 $c_3 = c_4 = 4290206091805516194493363207649719423301112671503877845589183063$ 9458650143462822106634617937244089757608691079278986899772953479194078187 2237336835363728067907805981340329142519259486742039801072153487833600205 7878075549325526390089803421276206571588408476626851426511497427228425974 5771996026235812265475888681834988691541451183610643465792889944147364509 2650017464186109565807982995082482570257409381080420765708156039949566712 3124251369150129370628038300054703313801314218156317327585593578706812567 6815147103415272424675034157667902311183100298814367256007564896238960083 760308633592317742627253038661001979530245160

 $\rho = 8.0444$

The equation of the curve over \mathbb{F}_p is $y^2 = -x^5 + 3x^4 + 2x^3 - 6x^2 - 3x + 1$.

C. Some Source Code

C.1 PARI/GP scripts for finding parameters for cryptographically-strong genus 2 curves

```
Code for case d \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}.
\setminus Timing for generating suitable pairs (p, N) for genus 2
\\ cryptography.
\setminus 
\ Script outputs results for generating $count (p, N) in
\ $time seconds. It returns either when $count_max pairs
\ are generated or when time_max has been reached.
\backslash 
\ d = 2, 3 \pmod{4}
\\-----
allocatemem(40*10^6);
default(debugmem,0);
default(timer,0);
prmbitsize = 400;
MAX_COFACTOR = 2000;
\ \ D = 0 \mod 4 -----
\ Set count_max and time_max
count_max = 500;
time_max = 600;
outfile = "search_result_D0.txt";
{
\\ Generate good a, b, d for CM field K = Q(i*sqrt(a + b*sqrt(d)))
Good_abd = 0;
while (!Good_abd,
d = random(20) + 1;
if (Mod(d, 4) != 1 && issquarefree(d) && qfbclassno(4*d) == 1,
 a = (random(20) + ceil(sqrt(d)))*(-1)^random(2);
 b = random(ceil(sqrt(a^2/d))); \ \ b = sarces a^2 - b^2*d >= 0.
  if ( !issquare(a^2 - b^2*d) && issquarefree(a^2 - b^2*d) && 1+d+a+a*d+2*b*d >
 0, Good_abd = 1);
```

```
); \setminus end if
); \\ end while
}
\\-----Polynomial to be factors -----
ſ
f(x, y) = 2*x*y*a + x^2*b + y^2*b*d;
}
\\----- p(x) -----
ſ
p(x1, x2, x3, x4) = x1<sup>2</sup> + x2<sup>2</sup>*d + x3<sup>2</sup>*a + x4<sup>2</sup>*a*d + 2*x3*x4*b*d;
}
\\----- Possible group orders -----
ſ
N1(x, x1, x2) = (x + 1)^2 - 4*(x + 1)*x1 + 4*(x1^2 - x2^2*d);
}
{
N2(x, x1, x2) = (x + 1)^2 + 4*(x + 1)*x1 + 4*(x1^2 - x2^2*d);
}
\\----- Old Method -----
\\ Takes on input [count_max, time_max].
\\ Function returns if either count reaches count_max or time reaches time_max.
\ Returns [count, time] - count primes found in time seconds.
\backslash \backslash
Timing_D0_old(count_max, time_max) =
{
local(OK, count, prm, c1, c2, c3, c4, time_start, time_end, fact, factN, factsiz
e, myN);
local(idx);
OK = 1;
prm = 4; \setminus isprime(p) == 0
count = 0;
time_start = gettime();
time_end = 0;
while ( OK,
   c3 = random(2*2^(prmbitsize/4)) - 2^(prmbitsize/4);
   c4 = random(2*2^(prmbitsize/4)) - 2^(prmbitsize/4);
   while (gcd(c3, c4) != 1, c4 = random(2*2^(prmbitsize/4)) - 2^(prmbitsize/4));
```

```
if (Mod(c3^2*b - c4^2*b*d, 2) == 0,
     n = (1/2)*(-2*c3*c4*a-c3^2*b-c4^2*b*d);
     fact = factorint(n);
     c1 = prod(row = 1, matsize(fact)[1], fact[row, 1]^random(fact[row, 2]+1))*(
-1)^random(2);
     c2 = n/c1;
     prm = c1^2+c2^2*d+c3^2*a+c4^2*d*a+2*c3*c4*b*d;
     if ( isprime(prm),
\\ && prm >= 2^(prmbitsize-1) && prm < 2^prmbitsize,</pre>
       myN = [(prm+1)<sup>2</sup>-4*(prm+1)*c1+4*(c1<sup>2</sup>-c2<sup>2</sup>*d), (prm+1)<sup>2</sup>+4*(prm+1)*c1+4*(
c1^2-c2^2*d)];
       for (idx = 1, 2,
        for (cofactor=1, MAX_COFACTOR,
         if (myN[idx] % cofactor == 0, max_cofactor_test = cofactor);
        ); \\ end for cofactor
        if (isprime(myN[idx]/max_cofactor_test),
           write(outfile, "[p, N] = [", prm, ", ", myN[idx], "]");
          count++;
          time_end += gettime();
         ); \\ end if isprime
       ); \setminus end for idx
     );\\ end if
   ); \setminus end if
 OK = OK && count < count_max && time_end/1000 < time_max;
); \setminus end while
return ([count, floor(time_end/1000)]);
}
\\----- New Method -----
\\ Takes on input [count_max, time_max].
\ Function returns if either count reaches count_max or time reaches time_max.
\\ Returns [count, time] - count primes found in time seconds.
\backslash \backslash
Timing_D0_new(count_max, time_max) =
{
local(OK, count, upper, a2, a1, a0, b2, b1, b0, myf, myc1, myc2, \backslash
prm, c1, c2,c3, c4, ppoly, fact, factN, factsize, idx, i, j);
```

```
local(time_start, time_end);
OK = 1;
polyfound = 0;
count = 0;
upper = 10;
for (a2 = 1, upper,
 for (a1 = 1, upper,
   for ( a0 = 1, upper,
      for (b2 = 1, upper,
        for (b1 = 1, upper,
          for ( b0 = 1, upper,
            if (!polyfound && gcd(a2*x^2 + a1*x + a0, b2*x^2 + b1*x + b0) == 1,
              myf = f(a2*x^2 + a1*x + a0, b2*x^2 + b1*x + b0);
              fact = factor(myf);
              if (OK && poldegree(myf) == 4 && matsize(fact)[1] == 2,
                c3 = a2*x^2 + a1*x + a0;
                c4 = b2*x^2 + b1*x + b0;
                c1 = -1/2*polcoeff(myf,4)/(polcoeff(fact[1,1]^fact[1,2],2) \
*polcoeff(fact[2,1]^fact[2,2], 2))*fact[1,1]^fact[1,2];
                c2 = fact[2,1]^fact[2,2];
                ppoly = p(c1, c2, c3, c4);
                 if (OK && polisirreducible(ppoly) && numerator(gcd(ppoly)) == 1,
                    for (j = 1, 100000,
\\print("j = ", j);
                     value = random(2^(prmbitsize/4) - 2^(prmbitsize/4-1));
                     myc1 = subst(c1, x, value);
                     if (myc1 == round(myc1),
                       prm = subst(ppoly, x, value);
                       if (isprime(prm), polyfound = 1; break(7);)
                     );
                    ); \setminus end for j
                ); \\ end if OK
                ); \setminus end if OK
            ); \setminus end if polyfound
        ); \setminus end for b0
       ); \setminus end for b1
      ); \setminus end for b2
     ); \setminus end for a0
   ); \setminus end for a1
   ); \setminus end for a2
```

```
\ \ Now polynomials are found
print("Poly found!");
 gettime();
 time_end = 0;
 while(1,
  value = random(2^(prmbitsize/4) - 2^(prmbitsize/4 - 1));
  myc1 = subst(c1, x, value);
  if (myc1 == round(myc1),
  myc2 = subst(c2, x, value);
   prm = subst(ppoly, x, value);
   if (isprime(prm),
    myN = [N1(prm, myc1, myc2), N2(prm, myc1, myc2)];
    for (idx = 1, 2,
     for (cofactor=1, MAX_COFACTOR,
      if (myN[idx] % cofactor == 0, max_cofactor_test = cofactor);
      ); \\ end for cofactor
     if (isprime(myN[idx]/max_cofactor_test),
        write(outfile, "[c1, c2, c3, c4] = [", c1, ", ", c2, ", ", c3, ", ", c4,
  \langle \rangle
 "]");
      write(outfile, "[value, p, N] = [", value, ", ", prm, ", ", myN[idx], "]")
;
      count++;
     ); \\ end if isprime
    ); \setminus end for idx
   ); \\ end if isprime
    time_end += gettime();
    OK = OK && (count < count_max) && (time_end/1000 < time_max);</pre>
    if (!OK, return ([count, floor(time_end/1000)]));
  ); \setminus end if myc1
 ); \setminus end while 1
}
\\----- Benchmarking -----
{
```

```
print("[a, b, d] = [", a, ", ", b, ", ", d, "]");
write(outfile, "[a, b, d] = [", a, ", ", b, ", ", d, "]");
print("Searching for suitable parameters...");
write(outfile, "NEW METHOD");
Time_new = Timing_D0_new(count_max, time_max);
print("New method finds ", Time_new[1], " suitable pair(s) (p, N) in ", Time_new
[2], " seconds");
write(outfile, "OLD METHOD");
Time_old = Timing_D0_old(count_max, time_max);
print("Old method finds ", Time_old[1], " suitable pair(s) (p, N) in ", Time_old
[2], " seconds");
}
```

\\----- EOF -----

C.2 MAGMA scripts for finding parameters for pairing-friendly genus 2 curves

```
''PFfinder1.txt''
// Magma script finding parameters of PF genus 2 curves
// rho =~ 8
// Set c1 = +/-1
// Embedding degree k = 5
// Start of timing
tstart := Cputime();
para_count := 0;
bitsize := 160; // Bit size of r
\ensuremath{{//}} For Windows users, the following line may not work.
// Change to outfile := "file_name_you_prefer" should do.
outfile := "result." * IntegerToString(bitsize) * "bit." * \
Pipe("tr -d \"\n\"", Pipe("date \"+%Y.%m.%d.%H.%M.%S.txt\"",""));
a := 2;
b := −1;
d := 2;
```

```
//a := 24;
//b := 7;
//d := 21;
c1 := 1;
k := 5;
fprintf outfile, "bitsize = (0, [a, b, d, k] = [(0, (0, (0, (0)))^n), bitsize, a, b, d, k;
twiceC2 := function(x3, x4)
    return -(b*x3<sup>2</sup> + 2*a*x3*x4 + b*d*x4<sup>2</sup>)*c1;
end function;
NeededPrime := function(x2, x3, x4)
    return (a*x3<sup>2</sup> + 2*b*d*x3*x4 + a*d*x4<sup>2</sup> + 1 + x2<sup>2</sup>*d);
end function;
r:= NextPrime(2^bitsize: Proof := false);
while r mod k ne 1 do
        r := NextPrime(r + 1: Proof := false);
end while;
solution_found := false;
while not solution_found do
P<c2,c3,c4,p> := PolynomialRing(GF(r),4);
D1 := a^2 - b^2 d;
D2 := -d*(a^2 - b^2*d);
dr := Sqrt(GF(r)!4);
I := ideal<P | \
b*c3^2 + 2*a*c3*c4 + b*d*c4^2 + 2*c1*c2,\
c1^2 + d*c2^2 + a*c3^2 + 2*b*d*c3*c4 +a*d*c4^2 - p,\
(p+1)<sup>2</sup> - 4*(p+1)*c1 + 4*(c1<sup>2</sup>-c2<sup>2</sup>*d),
p<sup>4</sup> + p<sup>3</sup> + p<sup>2</sup> + p + 1>;
Solution_over_GFr := Variety(I);
if not IsEmpty(Solution_over_GFr) then
        para := Solution_over_GFr[1];
        solution_found := true;
else
solution_found := false;
r := NextPrime(r+1: Proof := false);
```

end if;

```
end while;
CC2 := Integers()!para[1];
CC3 := Integers()!para[2];
CC4 := Integers()!para[3];
PP := Integers()!para[4];
  for i:= -100 to 100 do
    cc3 := CC3 + i*r;
   for j := -100 to 100 do
      cc4 := CC4 + j*r;
      cc2 := twiceC2(cc3, cc4);
      cc1 := c1;
      if IsEven(cc2) then
        cc2 := (cc2 div 2);
        pp := NeededPrime(cc2, cc3, cc4);
        if IsPrime(pp: Proof := false) then
                N := (pp+1)<sup>2</sup> - 4*(pp+1)*cc1 + 4*(c1<sup>2</sup>-cc2<sup>2</sup>*d);
                fprintf outfile, "p = %o\n", pp;
                fprintf outfile, "r = %o\n", r;
                fprintf outfile, "N = %o\n", N;
                fprintf outfile, "c1 = %o\n c2 = %o\n c3 = %o\n c4 = %o\n\n",
cc1, cc2, cc3, cc4;
                fprintf outfile, "rho = %o\n", 2*Log(pp)/Log(r);
                para_count := para_count+1;
        end if;
      end if;
    end for;
  end for;
//CC2;
// Cputime
tspent := Cputime(tstart);
fprintf outfile, "\nCputime: %o, pairs found: %o\n", tspent, para_count;
```

VITA

VITA

Ning Shang was born in Anyang, Henan, China. He pursued his undergraduate studies at Wuhan University, China. He earned his Bachelor of Science degree in mathematics in June 2002.

Ning Shang started his graduate studies at Purdue University, USA, in August 2002. He received a Master of Science degree in electrical and computer engineering in December 2007. He earned the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in mathematics in May 2009.