



# Divisors, Bilinear Pairings and Pairing Enabled Cryptographic Applications

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## Coverage

- Pairings in an abstract level of description
- Cryptanalysis and cryptographic applications of pairings
- Divisors: building blocks of pairings
- Pairings: we will construct them and prove important properties (e.g., bilinearity)
- Efficient computation of pairings (Miller's algorithm)

## Pairings in an abstract level of description

Let  $\mathbb{F}_q$  be a finite field, for ease of description, we confine to the case  $\text{Char}(\mathbb{F}_q) > 3$

Let  $E : y^2 - (x^3 + Ax + B) = 0$  be an elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{F}_q$

$$E(\mathbb{F}_q) = \{ (X, Y) \mid X, Y \in \mathbb{F}_q \text{ solved from } E \} \cup \{\mathcal{O}\}$$

here  $\mathcal{O}$  is “the point at infinity”; these points form an additive group with  $\mathcal{O}$  being the group identity

Let  $n$  be a prime satisfying

$$n \nmid \#E(\mathbb{F}_q)$$

$$n \nmid q - 1$$

$n$  and  $q$  co-prime

Then for some integer  $k$ ,  $E(\mathbb{F}_{q^k})$  (note the field extension) contains  $n^2$  points of order  $n$  if and only if  $n \mid q^k - 1$

Let  $E[n]$  denote the set of these  $n^2$  order- $n$  points:

$$\forall P \in E[n] : nP = \mathcal{O}$$

# Bilinear and Non-degenerate Pairings

The Weil (pronounce vay) pairing:

$$e_n : E[n] \times E[n] \mapsto \mu_n$$

where  $\mu_n$  is the (multiplicative) group of  $n$ -th roots of unity in  $\mathbb{F}_{q^k}$ , i.e.,  $\forall a \in \mu_n: a^n = 1$  (i.e., points on the unit circle)

Clearly,  $\mu_n$  with  $n$  elements is the unique subgroup of  $\mathbb{F}_{q^k}$  (since  $\mathbb{F}_{q^k}$  is cyclic); however  $E[n]$  has  $n^2$  points; therefore the mapping is many-to-one

## Important Properties

For  $P, Q, R \in E[n]$

$$e_n(P, P) = 1 \quad \text{identity}$$

However, it's easy to make a “distortion” modification to obtain  $\hat{e}_n(\cdot, \cdot)$  such that  $\hat{e}_n(P, P) \neq 1$

$$\begin{aligned} e_n(P + Q, R) &= e_n(P, R)e_n(Q, R) \\ e_n(R, P + Q) &= e_n(R, P)e_n(R, Q) \end{aligned} \quad \text{bilinearity}$$

$$e_n(P, Q) \neq 1 \text{ for some } P, Q \in E[n] \quad \text{non-degeneracy}$$

## A Cryptanalysis Application (Menezes-Okamoto-Vanstone 1993)

For  $E$  being a supersingular curve, the necessary field extension can be a small one:  $k \leq 6$ , and it's easily to make  $k = 2$ , i.e.,  $\mu \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{q^2}$

Let  $P, aP$  be a discrete logarithm problem on this curve group, which was believed to be a problem of cost  $O(\sqrt{q})$

Let  $Q \in E[n]$  such that  $e_n(P, Q) \neq 1$  (non-degeneracy)

Then (by bilinearity)

$$e_n(P, Q), \quad e_n(aP, Q) = e_n(P, Q)^a$$

is a discrete logarithm problem in  $\mathbb{F}_{q^2}$ , it has a subexponential solver with cost  $\text{sub\_exp}(2|q|)$  ( $\ll \sqrt{q} = \exp(|q|/2)$ )

This is the “MOV Attack”; it suggests not to use supersingular curves for cryptographic applications

but from year 2000 on ...

## From Year 2000 On ...

Sakai, Ohgishi and Kasahara (2000) pioneered “non-interactive key-sharing: user  $X$  has a public key  $P_X$  and a private key  $S_X = \ell P_X$ , then Alice and Bob share an exclusive secret key even they have never talked to each other:

$$\begin{aligned} K_{AB} &= \hat{e}_n(S_A, P_B) = \hat{e}_n(\ell P_A, P_B) = \hat{e}_n(P_A, P_B)^\ell \\ &= \hat{e}_n(P_A, \ell P_B) = \hat{e}_n(P_A, S_B) = K_{BA} \end{aligned}$$

Independently, Joux (2000) pioneered “tripartite Diffie-Hellman key agreement”: user  $X$  broadcasts  $P_X$ , then

$$\hat{e}_n(P_B, P_C)^a = \hat{e}_n(P_A, P_C)^b = \hat{e}_n(P_A, P_B)^c = \hat{e}_n(P, P)^{abc} = K_{ABC}$$

Boneh and Franklin (2001): an identity-based cryptosystem (public key  $P_X$  can be an identity or anything with a distribution pleasant to human, in contrast, a conventional public key is at least pseudo-random)

... ..

These are very interesting cryptographic applications enabled by pairings, of course, using supersingular curves in order to achieve practical efficiency (recall a small field extension)

# Boneh-Franklin ID-Based Encryption

Let  $P$  be a public point

Let  $P_{\text{pub}} = sP$  be also public

The pair  $(P, P_{\text{pub}})$  is the public key of TA

Let  $A$  be Alice's ID

Let  $s_A$  be Alice's private key

Let  $H(\cdot)$  be a hash function

Encryption:

Bob picks random  $r$ , computes  $U = rP$ ,  $V = H(e(rA, P_{\text{pub}})) \text{ xor } M$   
 $(U, V)$  is the ciphertext

Decryption:

Alice computes:  $H(e(x_A, U)) \text{ xor } V$

Notice:  $e(rA, P_{\text{pub}}) = e(rA, xP) = e(A, P) = e(xA, rP) = e(xA, U)$

Therefore Decryption indeed returns  $M$

# Decisional Diffie-Hellman Problem — Gone!

Decisional Diffie-Hellman Problem

Input:  $(P, aP, bP, cP)$

Output: Yes if  $c = ab$

This is a hard problem in general groups

Not hard anymore in groups of (supersingular) elliptic curves

Let  $\hat{e}(\cdot, \cdot)$  be a pairing satisfying  $\hat{e}(X, X) \neq 1$ , then

$$\hat{e}_n(P, cP) = \hat{e}_n(P, P)^c = \hat{e}_n(P, P)^{ab} = \hat{e}_n(aP, bP)$$

if and only if  $ab = c$

Now let's investigate how these magics happen



## Divisors: Building Blocks of Pairings

In order to know the interesting properties of pairings (e.g., bilinearity) and how to compute pairings, let's study divisors

A divisor is a “formal” sum:

$$D = \sum_{P \in E} a_P [P]$$

here  $a_P$  is an integer,  $[P]$  is a “formal” symbol

Please do not be scared by the word “formal!” Think the quote  $[\cdot]$  being an artificial way to prevent  $D$  from becoming a point (so  $a[P] + b[Q]$  is a divisor while  $aP + bQ$  is a point)

## How Large is the Sum?

Divisors of our interest will always be a small sum. This is because for most  $P$  on  $E$  we will have  $a_P = 0$  even if the number of points on  $E$  can be intractably large or even infinite

## Degree of a Divisor

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

For divisors of our interest,  $\deg(D) = 0$ ; so  $a_P$  must be positive for some  $P$ 's and negative for some other  $P$ 's. In fact, we shall see (in Miller's algorithm) that even if a  $D$  has a non-zero degree, we will modify it into  $D'$  so that  $\deg(D') = 0$

A divisor  $D$  with  $\deg(D) = 0$  is called a *principal divisor*, it is related to a function

## Functions on an Elliptic Curve

Function  $f(x, y)$  on  $E(x, y)$  means all points  $(x, y)$  solved from the equation  $f = E$ , i.e.,  $(x, y)$  on  $f \cap E$

### Examples

1) For  $f : x = 0$  (the  $y$  axis), if  $B$  is a square in the field, then  $(0, \sqrt{B})$ ,  $(0, -\sqrt{B})$  and  $\mathcal{O}$  are the three points on  $f \cap E$

2)  $E : y^2 = x^3 - x$   $f : x/y$ ; We know  $(0, 0)$  is a finite point on  $E$ ; how about this point on  $f$ ? (i.e., does  $0/0$  make sense?)

Because  $f = E$  gives  $x/y = y/(x^2 - 1)$ , so at point  $(0, 0)$ ,  $x/y = 0/(0^2 - 1) = 0$  makes a perfect sense

3) Now consider  $x/y$  meeting  $E$  at  $\mathcal{O}$ . Does  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$  make any sense?

Because  $f = E$  means  $\frac{x}{y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x(1 + A/x^2 + B/x^3)}}$

so  $x/y$  takes 0 when  $x = \infty$  (regardless of  $y$ ); hence, at the point of infinity  $\mathcal{O}$ , we have  $x/y = \infty/\infty = 0$

## Zeros and Poles

For  $P$  on  $F \cap E$ ,  $P$  is called a  $\begin{cases} \text{zero} & \text{if } f(P) = 0 \\ \text{pole} & \text{if } f(P) = \infty \end{cases}$

## Factorisations of Zeros and Poles

In a finite field, 0 can be factored into  $0^i \cdot g(P)$  s.t.  $i$  is a positive integer and  $g(P) \neq 0$ ,  $g(P) \neq \infty$

if  $g(P) = 0$  then increase  $i$  until  $g(P) \neq 0$ ; if  $g(P) = \infty$  then decrease  $i$  until  $g(P) \neq \infty$

Viewing  $\infty$  as “ $0^{-1}$ ”, we can analogously factor a pole into  $0^{-i} \cdot g(P)$  for  $g(P) \neq 0$ ,  $g(P) \neq \infty$

Let  $\text{ord}_P$  denote  $i$  or  $-i$  when  $f(P)$ , as a zero or pole, is factored in the above manners;  $\text{ord}_P$  shows how “strong” a zero (pole) is

### Remember

$\text{ord}_P > 0$  if  $P$  a zero

$\text{ord}_P < 0$  if  $P$  is a pole

$\text{ord}_P = 0$  if  $P$  is not a zero or pole

## Facts of Orders of Important Zeros

Zeros of linear functions are important

Let  $\ell : y = ux + v$  be a line ( $u \neq 0$ ). A zero  $P = (x_0, y_0)$  of  $\ell$  is a finite solution solved from

$$\ell \cap E : (ux + v)^2 = y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$$

i.e.,  $x_0$  is a root of

$$(ux + v)^2 - (x^3 + Ax + B) = 0$$

This 0 can be factored into

$$(x - x_0)^d \cdot g \text{ with } g(x_0) \neq 0 \text{ and } d = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } P \text{ is a tangent point} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Therefore

$$\text{ord}_P(\ell) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \ell \text{ cuts } E \text{ at } P \\ 2 & \text{if } \ell \text{ is tangent to } E \text{ at } P \end{cases}$$

(Question: how many point satisfying  $d = 3$ ?)

The same result holds for the special case  $\ell : x = c$  (a vertical line)

## Facts of Orders of Important Poles

Poles of linear functions are also important; let's first investigate  $\text{ord}_{\mathcal{O}}(x)$  and  $\text{ord}_{\mathcal{O}}(y)$

Writing  $\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^2 = \frac{x^2}{x^3 \cdot (1+\dots)}$ , we have  $x = \left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^{-2} \cdot \frac{1}{(1+\dots)}$

Recall Example (3) in Slide 9, we know  $\frac{x}{y} = 0$  at  $\mathcal{O}$ ; also notice  $\frac{1}{(1+\dots)} = 1$  at  $\mathcal{O}$ ; therefore

$$\text{ord}_{\mathcal{O}}(x) = -2$$

Now because  $y = \left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^{-1} \cdot x = \left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^{-3} \cdot \frac{1}{(1+\dots)}$ , we have

$$\text{ord}_{\mathcal{O}}(y) = -3$$

Summary Let a linear function  $\ell$  be  $ux + vy + w = 0$ , then

$$\text{ord}_{\mathcal{O}}(\ell) = \begin{cases} -3 & \text{if } v \neq 0 \\ -2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Divisor of a Function

Let  $f \neq 0$  be a function on  $E$ , the divisor of  $f$  is

$$\operatorname{div}(f) = \sum_{P \in E} \operatorname{ord}_P(f)[P]$$

Divisors of linear functions are important ones

For a linear function  $\ell : ux + vy + w = 0$  ( $u, v \neq 0$ ), we know  $\ell$  joins  $E$  at exactly three finite points  $P_1, P_2, P_3$  (two of them may coincide, i.e.,  $\ell$  is tangent to  $E$  at the point), each of these points is a single zero of  $\ell$  (the tangent point is a double zero)

In addition, we have also seen that  $\ell$  has a pole at  $\mathcal{O}$ , and since  $v \neq 0$ , the pole is a triple one; thus, we have

$$\operatorname{div}(\ell) = [P_1] + [P_2] + [P_3] - 3[\mathcal{O}]$$

## Divisor of a Function (II)

Let  $\ell'$  be a vertical line ( $v = 0$ ) cut  $E$  at  $P_3$  and  $-P_3$ ; they are single zeros (unless  $y = 0$ , a tangent case of a double zero);  $\ell'$  also has a double pole at  $\mathcal{O}$ , hence

$$\operatorname{div}(\ell') = [P_3] + [-P_3] - 2[\mathcal{O}]$$

With  $P_3 = -(P_1 + P_2)$ ,  $\operatorname{div}(\ell) - \operatorname{div}(\ell')$  becomes

$$\operatorname{div}\left(\frac{\ell}{\ell'}\right) = \operatorname{div}(\ell) - \operatorname{div}(\ell') = [P_1] + [P_2] - [P_1 + P_2] - [\mathcal{O}] \quad (1)$$

Why does the first equation of (1) hold?

Consider how the following “poem” contributes positive/negative signs to the co-efficients in the right-hand side of (1):

A zero of  $\ell$  is a zero of  $\ell/\ell'$   
a zero of  $\ell'$  is a pole of  $\ell/\ell'$   
a pole of  $\ell'$  is a zero of  $\ell/\ell'$   
a pole of  $\ell$  is a pole of  $\ell/\ell'$

A mathematician is akin to a poet, both are serious artists :-)



## Pairing Construction by Repeated Addition of Divisors

Let  $P \in E[n]$ , i.e.,  $nP = \mathcal{O}$ ; let  $P = P_1 = P_2$ , then (1) becomes

$$\operatorname{div}(f_1) = 2[P] - [2P] - [\mathcal{O}]$$

for some function  $f_1$

Keeping on adding  $P$  and applying (1), we can derive

$$\operatorname{div}(f_2) = 3[P] - [3P] - 2[\mathcal{O}]$$

$$\operatorname{div}(f_3) = 4[P] - [4P] - 3[\mathcal{O}]$$

...

$$\operatorname{div}(f_{n-1}) = n[P] - [nP] - (n-1)[\mathcal{O}]$$

Since  $nP = \mathcal{O}$ , the final equation,  $\operatorname{div}(f_{n-1})$ , becomes

$$\operatorname{div}(f_P) = n[P] - n[\mathcal{O}] \tag{2}$$

for some function  $f_P$  on  $E$  (we have renamed  $f_{n-1}$  into  $f_P$ )

What have we done?

We have used  $P \in E[n]$  to construct a function  $f_P$  satisfying (2)

## The Tate Pairing Constructed Using $f_P$

Let  $Q, S$  be any curve points, define un-named “pairing”:

$$\text{un}_n(P, Q)_S = \frac{f_P(Q + S)}{f_P(S)} \quad (3)$$

this value depends not only on  $P, Q$ , but also on random  $S$ , and so should be more precisely called *triplet* than “pairing”

However, for  $\text{un}_n(P, Q)_S$  and  $\text{un}_n(P, Q)_{S'}$  constructed using  $S \neq S'$ , applying “Weil reciprocity” it can be shown

$$\frac{\text{un}_n(P, Q)_S}{\text{un}_n(P, Q)_{S'}} = \xi^n \quad \text{for some } \xi \in \mathbb{F}_{q^k}$$

Then by Fermat’s theorem we have

$$\left( \frac{\text{un}_n(P, Q)_S}{\text{un}_n(P, Q)_{S'}} \right)^{(q^k-1)/n} = \xi^{q^k-1} = 1$$

i.e.,

$$(\text{un}_n(P, Q)_S)^{(q^k-1)/n} = (\text{un}_n(P, Q)_{S'})^{(q^k-1)/n}$$

is independent from any random points  $S, S'$ ; so define

$$t_n(P, Q) = (\text{un}_n(P, Q)_S)^{(q^k-1)/n}$$

$t_n(P, Q)$  is indeed a pairing of  $P, Q$  and is in fact the Tate pairing

## The Weil Pairing

In the case of the Weil pairing,  $P, Q \in E[n]$ ; the Weil pairing can be defined from the Tate pairing:

$$e_n(P, Q) = \frac{t_n(P, Q)}{t_n(Q, P)}$$

## The Type of these Pairings

We have seen:

$$f_P = \frac{\ell_1 \cdot \ell_2 \cdots \ell_s}{\ell'_1 \cdot \ell'_2 \cdots \ell'_t}$$

where  $\ell_i, \ell'_j$  are all linear functions of  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{F}_{q^k}$ , therefore

$$\text{un}_n(P, Q)_S, t_n(P, Q), e_n(P, Q) \in \mathbb{F}_{q^k}$$

Moreover, since  $t_n(P, Q)^n = 1$ , we further have

$$t_n(P, Q) \in \mu_n \quad e_n(P, Q) \in \mu_n$$

i.e., they are on the unit circle

Why field extension?

Recall  $n \nmid q - 1$  (Slide 2); there is no order- $n$  elements in  $\mathbb{F}_q$ , so  $P$  or  $Q$  must have coordinates in the extended field

## Bilinearity — Case 1

Applying (3):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{un}_n(P, Q_1)_S \cdot \text{un}_n(P, Q_2)_{Q_1+S} \\ &= \frac{f_P(Q_1 + S)}{f_P(S)} \cdot \frac{f_P(Q_2 + (Q_1 + S))}{f_P(Q_1 + S)} \\ &= \frac{f_P((Q_1 + Q_2) + S)}{f_P(S)} \\ &= \text{un}_n(P, Q_1 + Q_2)_S \end{aligned}$$

But the Tate and Weil pairings are independent from  $S$ ,  $S + Q_1$ , therefore

$$t_n(P, Q_1) \cdot t_n(P, Q_2) = t_n(P, Q_1 + Q_2)$$

$$e_n(P, Q_1) \cdot e_n(P, Q_2) = e_n(P, Q_1 + Q_2)$$

## Bilinearity — Case 2

Let  $P_1, P_2, P_3 \in E[n]$  with  $P_1 + P_2 = P_3$ . Let  $g$  be a function satisfying (1), i.e.,

$$[P_3] - [\mathcal{O}] = ([P_1] - [\mathcal{O}]) + ([P_2] - [\mathcal{O}]) + \text{div}(g) \quad (4)$$

Let further  $f_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, 3$ ) be functions constructed in (2), i.e.,

$$\text{div}(f_i) = n[P_i] - n[\mathcal{O}]$$

Multiplying  $n$  to both sides of (4) and recall the “poem” in Slide 14, we derive

$$\text{div}(f_3) = \text{div}(f_1 f_2 g^n)$$

So for some constant  $c$ , we have  $f_3(X) = c f_1(X) f_2(X) g^n(X)$

Applying (3), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{un}_n(P_1 + P_2, Q)_S &= \text{un}_n(P_3, Q)_S = \frac{f_3(Q + S)}{f_3(S)} \\ &= \frac{c}{c} \cdot \frac{f_1(Q + S)}{f_1(S)} \cdot \frac{f_2(Q + S)}{f_2(S)} \cdot g^n(X) \\ &= \text{un}_n(P_1, Q)_S \cdot \text{un}_n(P_2, Q)_S \cdot g^n(X) \end{aligned}$$

By disregarding the difference in  $n$ -th power, we have

$$t_n(P_1 + P_2, Q) = t_n(P_1, Q) \cdot t_n(P_2, Q)$$

Analogous for the Weil pairing

## Pairing Computation

Now we know: to compute a pairing  $e_n(P, Q)$  we need to find  $f_P$  satisfying

$$\operatorname{div}(f_P) = n[P] - n[\mathcal{O}]$$

or more generally, satisfying

$$\operatorname{div}(f_P) = n[P + R] - n[R]$$

( $R = \mathcal{O}$  is a special case)

The constructive method we've just built ("keep adding") costs  $O(n)$ , infeasible for large  $n$  (large enough for cryptographic applications)

We have done a mathematician's construction of bilinear pairings (and proof of bilinearity); the cost is  $O(n)$ , too high, only suitable for people having an ivory-tower level of luxury!

We are not only mathematicians, but also computer scientists, we work for a computer company!

## Miller's Magic (for People outside of the Ivory Tower!)

The following “Miller divisor”  $D_k$  has degree 0 for any integer  $k$

$$MD_k = k[P + R] - k[R] - [kP] + [O]$$

So there exists  $f_k$  satisfying (for any  $k$ )

$$\operatorname{div}(f_k) = k[P + R] - k[R] - [kP] + [O]$$

When  $k = n$ ,  $\operatorname{div}(f_n) = MD_n = n[P + R] - n[R]$ , so  $f_n = f_P$  is what we want

Write

$$n = b_i 2^i + b_{i-1} 2^{i-1} + \dots + b_0 \quad \text{with } b_j \in \{0, 1\}$$

Construct  $f_{2^j}$  for all  $b_j \neq 0$  via “point doubling”, then construct  $f_n$  using these  $f_{2^j}$  via “point adding”, and we are done!

A “point doubling” algorithm will do the job quickly

## Point Doubling

Given  $P$ , let  $\ell$  be the tangent line through  $P$ ; then the tangent form of (1) is

$$\operatorname{div}(f_2) = 2[P] - [2P] - [\mathcal{O}]$$

Repeating the doubling,  $f_{2^j}$  can be constructed in  $j$  steps

Finally, since  $n = \sum b_i 2^i$ , the time for constructing  $f_n = f_P$  using the “doubling-and-adding” algorithm is

$$O(\log n \cdot (\log q)^2)$$

where  $(\log q)^2$  is the cost for point doubling or addition

By choosing the prime  $n$  with low Hamming weight, this cost is comparable to that of RSA using small public exponent  $e$

Cool!



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