

Introduction to mathematical cryptography

Lecture notes for the Preliminary Arizona Winter School 2025

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Abstract

These lecture notes accompany the biweekly lectures given at the Preliminary Arizona Winter School in 2025. The field of mathematical cryptography is vast, and the focus of this course is on the *discrete logarithm problem* (DLP) which will appear in different forms throughout the lectures.

After a general introduction to cryptography, Section 2 presents the Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol in its original form which is based on the DLP in finite fields. In Section 3, we proceed to study elliptic curves. Here, the *elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem* ECDLP will be discussed in detail. Finally, the last section will provide some insight into isogeny-based cryptography. This is a very recent research topic, and curiously the security of isogeny-based protocols also relies on a DLP-type assumption.

This course will assume only a first undergraduate course in abstract algebra as a prerequisite. Prior knowledge of cryptography or elliptic curves is not required.

There exist many excellent textbooks and lecture notes on the topic. The main source for these notes is [16]. For Section 1, we also rely on [18], and Sections 2 and 3 draw inspiration from [40] and [44]. Furthermore, we often refer to [38] or [13] for more advanced topics that are not covered in this course.

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1 A brief introduction to cryptography

Cryptography is a century old discipline that has evolved from being an art only used by few people, to a scientific subject of active research which we use in our everyday lives.

The goal of cryptography is to keep communication private. In this course, there will usually be two parties, Alice and Bob, who want to exchange secret information over a public channel. In order to avoid that an eavesdropper (Eve) can read the secret information, they encrypt the messages that they send to each other. A typical encryption scheme is sketched in Figure 1.

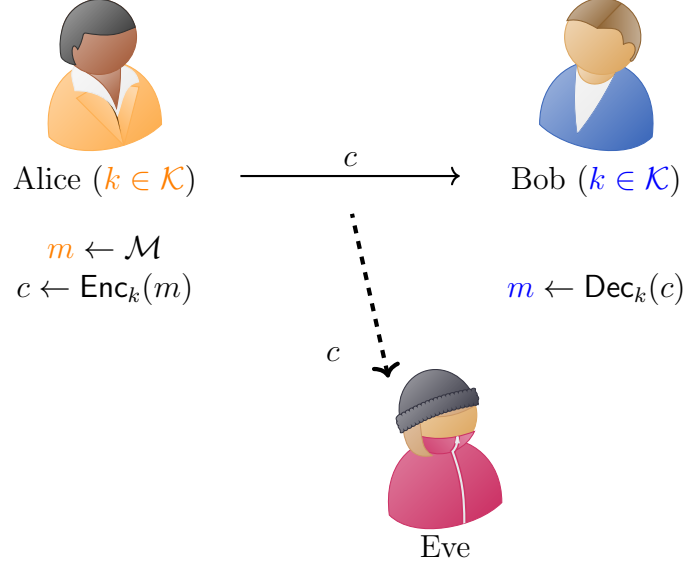


Figure 1: Encryption scheme with a shared private key k

In this encryption scheme, there are three predefined spaces, the *key space* \mathcal{K} , the *message space* \mathcal{M} and the *cipher text space* \mathcal{C} (often $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C}$). Both Alice and Bob share the same private key $k \in \mathcal{K}$ which has to be chosen in advance. Furthermore, the scheme consists of (publicly known) encryption and decryption functions

$$\text{Enc} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}, \quad \text{Dec} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}.$$

We often denote $\text{Enc}_k(m) = \text{Enc}(k, m)$ and $\text{Dec}_k(m) = \text{Dec}(k, m)$. In Figure 1, Alice wants to transmit a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$. To do so she computes the cipher text $c = \text{Enc}_k(m)$, and sends the latter to Bob. Upon receiving this message, Bob computes $m = \text{Dec}_k(c)$. For this to work, it is required that

$$\text{Dec}_k(\text{Enc}_k(m)) = m \quad \text{for all } m \in \mathcal{M}, k \in \mathcal{K}.$$

Note that Eve can read the cipher text c . Intuitively, the scheme is secure if Eve cannot learn anything about the plain text m from intercepting the cipher text c .

How can one construct secure encryption and decryption algorithms? An early example of an encryption scheme is the so-called *Caesar cipher*, named after Julius Caesar who used this method for secret communication. This encryption method is far from being secure by today's standards, but it serves us as a first example.

Example 1.1. *Caesar's cipher.* According to historic sources Julius Caesar used to encrypt his messages by shifting every letter in a word by 3 positions. In other words, he used the following translation table.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	A	B	C

For instance PAWS becomes SDZV, using this encryption method. In order to use the formalism introduced in Figure 1, we identify the alphabet with integers modulo 26, i.e. $\mathcal{A} = \{A, \dots, Z\} = \{0, \dots, 25\}$. Then the message and cipher text spaces are given by

$$\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{A}^* = \{a_1 \dots a_n \mid a_i \in \mathcal{A}, n \in \mathbb{N}\},$$

and the encryption function can be described as

$$\text{Enc}(m_1 \dots m_n) = (c_1 \dots c_n), \quad \text{with } c_i = m_i + 3 \pmod{26}.$$

Similarly, decryption is given by

$$\text{Dec}(c_1 \dots c_n) = (m_1 \dots m_n) \quad \text{where } m_i = c_i - 3 \pmod{26}.$$

Note that this method does not depend on a key k . Hence the security of the scheme only relied on the assumption that it is unknown to an enemy. This assumption is in conflict with *Kerckhoff's principle* which states that the security of an encryption scheme should never depend on the secrecy of the scheme, but only on the secrecy of the key [19]:

Il faut qu'il n'exige pas le secret, et qu'il [le système] puisse sans inconvénient tomber entre les mains de l'ennemi. (Kerckhoff 1883)

In the words of Claude Shannon [35]:

The enemy knows the system. (Shannon 1949)

While the principle is relatively old, it is still important for modern cryptography.

The next two exercises discuss generalizations of Caesar's cipher. In these generalizations, the security is based on the knowledge of the secret key. However, they will turn out to be insecure as well by today's standards.

Exercise 1.2. Instead of using, a shift of exactly 3 letters as in Caesar's cipher, one could also use a secret shift depending on a key $k \in \{0, \dots, 25\}$.

(a) Describe \mathcal{M} , \mathcal{C} , \mathcal{K} , Dec and Enc for this new encryption method.

(b) To increase the number of keys, one may also choose a key of the form $k = (a, b)$ with $a \in (\mathbb{Z}/26\mathbb{Z})^*$, $b \in \mathbb{Z}/26\mathbb{Z}$, and

$$\text{Enc}_k(m_1 \dots m_n) = (c_1 \dots c_n) \quad \text{with } c_i = am_i + b.$$

The resulting scheme is known as affine cipher.

- (i) Describe the corresponding decryption function Dec_k . Why is it necessary that a is a unit in $(\mathbb{Z}/26\mathbb{Z})^*$?
- (ii) You (Eve) read a cipher text starting with BMVVK, and you think it means HELLO. Is it possible that Alice and Bob used an affine cipher in their communication? Can you recover their secret key?
- (iii) [SOPHE](#) Alice and Bob noticed that you found their secret, and chose a new private key. This time you intercept the cipher text

IFELTKHURFENHAFEEFSFUTSVGEDNULTKFBF

Can you find the plain text message?

The ciphers from Example 1.1 and Exercise 1.2 fall into the larger category of *substitution ciphers*, where each letter in the alphabet is replaced by another letter. Note that as opposed to the ciphers from Exercise 1.2, the key space for general substitution ciphers is much larger. Using the standard Latin alphabet with 26 letters, there are $26! \cong 2^{88}$ different keys. While it would be infeasible (for most computers) to test all of these different keys, there are faster methods to break this encryption scheme. The main idea is to use the fact that the plain text message should make sense in some language (in our examples: the English language). The classical way to attack such a cipher is by performing a *frequency analysis*. One checks which letter appears the most, and how this compares to standard texts in English.¹ Furthermore it makes sense to also check for frequent letter pairs or repeats. The most frequent letters in the English alphabet are

E (13.1%), T (10.5%), A (8.1%), O (8.0%), N (7.1%),

¹The first description of frequency analysis to break cryptographic ciphers appeared in the 9th century for the Arabic language in a *manuscript on deciphering cryptographic messages* by Al-Kindi.

the most common bigrams in decreasing order are

$$TH, HE, AN, RE, ER.$$

For more details, we refer to [16, Tables 1.3, 1.6].

Exercise 1.3. [SOLVE](#) You intercepted the cipher text

JIVQOJIV LEALAVQO KGOONDTV QOAE LONE OAINYNGJ SOBVQODB CLAVQOKG
OONDTJIV QOJIVLEA EIBHTBLO YBLEQPIG AA

from a conversation between Alice and Bob. You know that they used a substitution cipher. Can you recover the plain text m ? Note that the spacing is only used for readability and does not coincide with the spacing of the original text.

The historical ciphers that we have seen so far, all belong to the field of *symmetric cryptography*: Both parties Alice and Bob possess the same secret key k which is used for encryption *and* decryption. A modern method in this category is the *Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)*. This cipher was selected as a new standard for encryption by the United States National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) in the year 2000, and it is widely used today. To learn more about AES and related modern ciphers, we refer to [18, Chapter 6].

Note that in order to use a symmetric encryption scheme, Alice and Bob need to first exchange the secret key k with each other. In most scenarios, it is not possible that they can meet in person and establish this key without any eavesdroppers present. This problem can be solved by using *public key cryptography*, also known as asymmetric cryptography. In public key cryptography, each party possesses their own secret key (sk) and a corresponding public key (pk). A typical key exchange protocol is sketched in Figure 2. In such a protocol, the secret keys of Alice and Bob, sk_A and sk_B remain private, they only exchange the

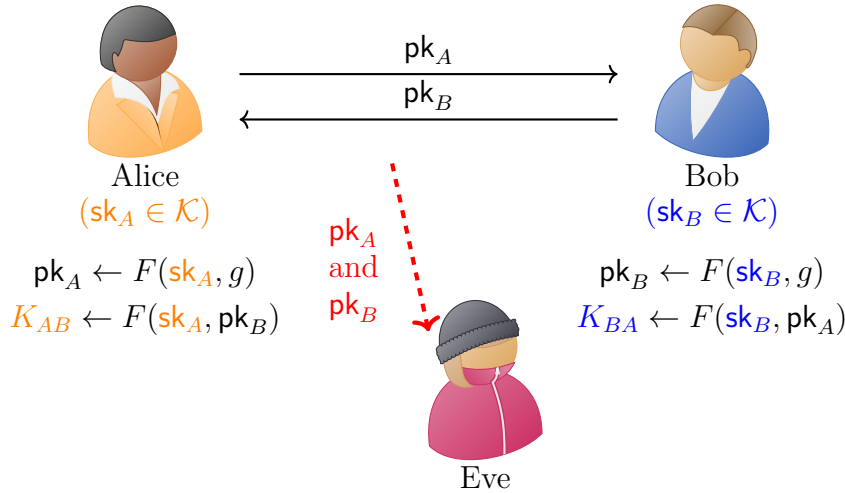


Figure 2: Key exchange protocol

public keys pk_A and pk_B with each other. The shared session key K_{AB} is derived by applying a function F with the property

$$F(sk_A, pk_B) = F(sk_B, pk_A) \quad \text{for all pairs } (sk_A, pk_A), (sk_B, pk_B).$$

Intuitively, the following properties must hold in order to get a secure scheme.

- (a) Given a public key pk_A , it is hard to find the corresponding secret key sk_A .
- (b) Given two public keys pk_A and pk_B , it is hard to compute the corresponding shared key K_{AB} .

In particular, we ask that F is a cryptographic one-way function.

Definition 1.4: Cryptographic one-way function

A function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a *cryptographic one-way function* if the following conditions hold.

- (1) **Easy to compute:** There is a polynomial-time algorithm that on input $x \in X$ computes $y = f(x)$.
- (2) **Hard to invert:** Given $y \in Y$ it should be computationally infeasible to find $x \in X$ with $f(x) = y$.

Cryptographic one-way functions typically stem from number theory. A one-way function that plays an important role in modern cryptography is simply given by multiplication.

Example 1.5. Let \mathcal{P} be the set of primes. Then the function

$$F : \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad (p, q) \mapsto p \cdot q$$

is a (conjectured) cryptographic one-way function. The multiplication of two (large) prime numbers (or more generally integers) can be performed efficiently. More precisely, it is polynomial in the input length of the binary representation of p and q . On the other hand, given an integer $N = pq$, it is hard to compute the factorization. For instance a trivial approach using trial division runs in time $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{N})$. This is exponential in the length of the binary representation of N . The best known algorithms to solve factoring run in subexponential time, but no polynomial time method is known to solve the problem.

Having a cryptographic one-way function, it is still not straight forward, how one would construct a key exchange protocol from it. In particular, no direct construction of a key exchange protocol from integer multiplication is known (Example 1.5). In the example below, we provide an unsuccessful idea for using multiplication in a key exchange protocol.

Example 1.6. Consider the following setup for the public key exchange scheme in Figure 2. Let $\mathcal{K} = \mathcal{P}$ be the set of primes, $p \in \mathcal{P}$ a public parameter, and let

$$F : \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \\ (a, b) \mapsto a \cdot b$$

With this function, the key exchange protocol from Figure 2 works correctly. We have $\text{pk}_A = \text{sk}_A \cdot p$, $\text{pk}_B = \text{sk}_B \cdot p$, and

$$F(\text{sk}_A, \text{pk}_B) = \text{sk}_A \cdot (\text{sk}_B \cdot p) = \text{sk}_B \cdot (\text{sk}_A \cdot p) = F(\text{sk}_B, \text{pk}_A)$$

for all choices of secret keys $\text{sk}_A, \text{sk}_B \in \mathcal{P}$.

However, the scheme is not secure at all. For instance, given a public key pk_A , one can easily compute the corresponding secret key sk_A as $\text{sk}_A = \text{pk}_A / p$. Note that the hardness of the scheme is not based on the factorization problem which is assumed to be computationally hard.

The description of cryptographic one-way functions lies at the heart of this course. We will encounter the following conjectured one-way functions:

- Modular exponentiation (Section 2)
- Elliptic curve multiplication (Section 3)
- Isogenies (Section 4)

For all of these, we will construct a public key exchange protocol as in Figure 2, and analyze the security of the protocol. The conjectured one-way function relying on the hardness of factorization from Example 1.5 will not be studied explicitly in the following sections. However, we would like to highlight that it builds the basis of the RSA cryptosystem which was developed by Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Leonard Adleman in 1977 [30], and is another important pillar of modern public key cryptography. It will appear on the problem sets accompanying these lectures notes.

2 The discrete logarithm problem and Diffie-Hellman key exchange

In this section, we study the first cryptographic one-way function of the course in detail: *Modular exponentiation*

$$\exp_g : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p^*, \quad a \mapsto g^a,$$

for some prime field \mathbb{F}_p , and a base element $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$. Recall that modular exponentiation can be evaluated in polynomial time in the input using square and multiply techniques,² hence the first property from Definition 1.4 is satisfied. In order to be a cryptographic one-way function, we also require that the inversion of \exp_g is hard. The inversion consists in computing the *discrete logarithm*:

Definition 2.1: Discrete Logarithm Problem (DLP)

Let g be a primitive root for \mathbb{F}_p , and let $A \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$. The *Discrete Logarithm Problem* (DLP) is the problem of finding an exponent a such that $\exp_g(a) = A$.
The number a is called the *discrete logarithm* of A to the base g , we denote $a = \text{dlog}_g(A)$.

Recall that \mathbb{F}_p^* is cyclic of order $p - 1$. A *primitive root* of \mathbb{F}_p is an element $g \in \mathbb{F}_p$ so that $\mathbb{F}_p^* = \langle g \rangle$. Choosing a primitive root g as the base, there exists a solution to the DLP for any $A \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$. Further note that $\exp_g(a) = \exp_g(a + k \cdot (p - 1))$ for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. One may show that $\text{dlog}_g : \mathbb{F}_p^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/(p - 1)\mathbb{Z}$ is a well-defined function.

2.1 Diffie-Hellman key exchange

If the discrete logarithm problem (Definition 2.1) is hard in \mathbb{F}_p , then modular exponentiation in \mathbb{F}_p is a cryptographic one-way function. Plugging this one-way function into the general framework from Figure 2, we obtain the famous *Diffie-Hellman key exchange* protocol. This protocol was proposed in 1976 by Whitfield Diffie and Martin Hellman in their ground-breaking article “New directions in cryptography” [9] which represents the start of public key cryptography. The Diffie-Hellman key exchange is sketched in Figure 3.

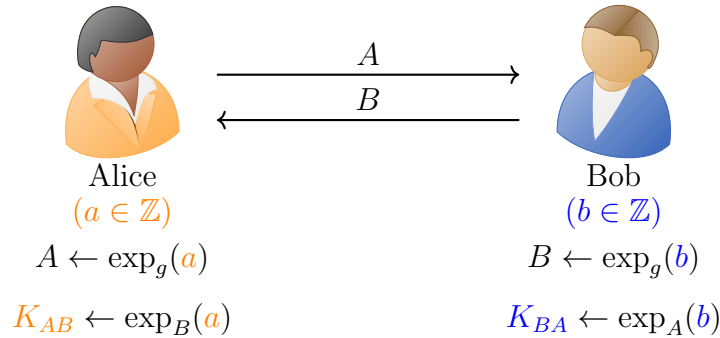


Figure 3: Diffie-Hellman key exchange for some public parameter $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$

Here the secret keys are integers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, and the public keys are $A = \exp_g(a)$ and $B = \exp_g(b)$, respectively. Note that we omit including Eve in the sketches from now on. But one should have in mind that the public keys A, B are sent over a public channel and can be intercepted by an eavesdropper.

The correctness of the scheme follows from commutativity, more precisely

$$K_{AB} = B^a = (g^b)^a = g^{ba} = g^{ab} = (g^a)^b = A^b = K_{BA}$$

for all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Remark 2.2. If the public element $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ is a primitive root, then its order is $p - 1$. For security reasons, it is better to choose an element with (large) prime order (see Exercise 2.6). For instance, one

²See Exercise 7, on Problem Set 0.

may choose to work with a prime of the form $p = 2q + 1$ where q is prime as well. Then, g is replaced by $h = g^2 \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$, and we have $\text{ord}(h) = q$.

Further note that in this setting, $h^a = h^{a+n \cdot q}$ for all integers n . Therefore, it makes sense to choose secret keys in the range $\{0, \dots, q - 1\}$.

Example 2.3. In order to establish a shared key, Alice and Bob use the following public parameters

- $q = 113$ and $p = 2q + 1 = 227$,
- $g = 4 \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$.

Alice chooses $a = 73$ as her secret key and sends the public key $A = \exp_g(a) = 102$ to Bob.

Bob chooses $b = 89$ as his secret key and sends the public key $B = \exp_g(b) = 19$ to Alice.

Now Alice computes $K_{AB} = \exp_B(a) = 19^{73} = 113$. Similarly Bob computes $K_{BA} = \exp_A(b) = 102^{89} = 113$.

After this key exchange, Alice and Bob can now use a symmetric crypto system with their shared key $K_{AB} = K_{BA} = 113$.

In order to understand the security of the scheme, it is essential to study the hardness of the DLP. If the DLP is easy to solve, then an eavesdropper, can compute the shared session key established by Alice and Bob. The following exercise should give an idea on the effect of changing the size of the primes in the setup on the hardness of computing discrete logarithms. In Subsections 2.3 and 2.4, we will discuss algorithms to solve the DLP in more detail. For now, the reader may simply use the functions integrated in SageMath to solve the exercises.

Exercise 2.4. [Solve](#) Alice and Bob want to create a shared key. They use setups with varying security levels. In all of these, the public parameters are a prime $p = 2q + 1$, and the element $g = 4 \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ with order q . You observe the following conversations. Can you find the shared keys?

- $q = 4294967681 \approx 2^{32}$,
 $A = 5104411285$, $B = 7620748646$
- $q = 18446744073709552109 \approx 2^{64}$,
 $A = 17485644247020728566$, $B = 17485644247020728566$
- $q = 340282366920938463463374607431768219863 \approx 2^{128}$,
 $A = 15855669586157245378211095347605706305$, $B = 643791185530305885858740134964520672205$

In SageMath, you can use the `log` function to compute discrete logarithms, e.g. `a = A.log(g)` (provided that g, A are defined as elements in \mathbb{F}_p). Further, you can use `%time` to time your results. How does the runtime evolve for increasing values of q ?

Let us now turn to the question, why we prefer to work in a large prime order subgroup of \mathbb{F}_p^* (Remark 2.2). Essentially, the reason is that the DLP in \mathbb{F}_p^* can be reduced to the DLP in its prime order subgroups. We illustrate this idea in Example 2.5. The generalization of these ideas to a general algorithm (the *Pohlig-Hellman algorithm*) is left as an exercise to the reader (Exercise 2.6).

Example 2.5. Let $p = 443$ and $g = 2 \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ be the setup for a Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol. Assume that we have intercepted Alice's public key $A = 74$, and we want to compute her secret key $a = \text{dlog}_2(A)$.

We note that $g = 2$ is a primitive root of \mathbb{F}_p^* , i.e. $\text{ord}(g) = 442 = 2 \cdot 13 \cdot 17$. Our goal is to decompose the computation of $\text{dlog}_2(74)$ into computations in the prime order subgroups of \mathbb{F}_p^* . To do so, we will repeatedly use the fact that

$$g^a = A \iff g^{ak} = A^k \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (1)$$

- The unique subgroup of order 2 in \mathbb{F}_p^* is given by $G_2 = \langle g^{13 \cdot 17} \rangle = \{1, 442\}$. It follows from Equation 1 that

$$442^a = g^{a \cdot 13 \cdot 17} = A^{13 \cdot 17} = 442,$$

hence $a \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$.

- The unique subgroup of order 13 in \mathbb{F}_p^* is given by $G_{13} = \langle g^{2 \cdot 17} = 35 \rangle$, explicitly:

$$G_{13} = \{1, 35, 35^2 = 339, 35^3 = 347, 35^4 = 184, 35^5 = 238, 35^6 = 356, 35^7 = 56, \\ 35^8 = 188, 35^9 = 378, 35^{10} = 383, 35^{11} = 115, 35^{12} = 38\}.$$

Now $A^{2 \cdot 17} = 356$, and it follows from Equation 1 that $a \equiv 6 \pmod{13}$.

- In a similar way, we find that $a \equiv 4 \pmod{17}$.

Now, one applies the explicit Chinese remainder theorem to find a solution for $a \pmod{2 \cdot 13 \cdot 17}$.

$$\begin{cases} a \equiv 1 & \pmod{2} \\ a \equiv 6 & \pmod{13} \\ a \equiv 4 & \pmod{17} \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow a \equiv 123 \pmod{442}.$$

Exercise 2.6. (difficult) Let p be a prime and $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ a primitive element. We denote $p-1 = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_n^{e_n}$ for the prime factorization of $p-1$. The goal of this exercise is to show that solving the DLP in \mathbb{F}_p^* is essentially as hard as solving the DLP in a subgroup $G \subset \mathbb{F}_p^*$ of prime order $\#G = \max\{p_i \mid i \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$. To make this more formal, let's say that the DLP in a subgroup $G_i \subset \mathbb{F}_p^*$ of order p_i can be solved in time $O(S_i)$.

Let $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ be a primitive element and $A \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ the challenge for which we want to solve the DLP, i.e. we want to find $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $g^a = A$.

- Use the Chinese remainder theorem to translate the problem into solving n smaller instances of the DLP in subgroups of order $p_i^{e_i}$ with $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, respectively.
- Fix $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and say you want to solve one of the small DLP instances on input $A_i, g_i \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$, where $\text{ord}(g_i) = p_i^{e_i}$, i.e. you want to find $a_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ with

$$g_i^{a_i} = A_i \pmod{p_i^{e_i}}.$$

Show that this can be done in time $O(e_i S_i)$.

hint: Use a p_i -ary representation $a_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 p_i + \cdots + \alpha_{e_i-1} p_i^{e_i-1}$

- Combine the results of (a) and (b) to show that the DLP can be solved in time

$$O(\text{polylog}(p) \max\{S_i\}).$$

So far, we only discussed the hardness of the DLP. We tried to attack the key exchange protocol by finding the secret key. Are there any other strategies for an eavesdropper to compute the shared session key instead of solving the DLP? To formalize this question, we first define a problem which mimics the information that the potential eavesdropper can use to compute the shared session key.

Definition 2.7: Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem (CDH)

Let $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$, and let $A = g^a$, $B = g^b$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. The *Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem* (CDH) is the problem of computing $C = g^{ab}$.

Until today, the best known methods to solve CDH rely on solving DLP. We will discuss these methods in Subsections 2.3 and 2.4. However, we would like to point out that it is an open problem, whether the two problems CDH and DLP are equivalent, or if the CDH problem is easier than DLP. Here are some pointers to interesting results in this directions:

- *Maurer reduction* [23]: In this reduction, it is shown that solving the DLP can be reduced to solving CDH in a different auxiliary group, more precisely in a particular elliptic curve group (see Section 3 for a definition of these groups). However the construction of the specific auxiliary group is in general not efficient (see [24] for some recent progress in this direction).
- *Algebraic group model* [12]: Roughly explained, in the algebraic group model, an adversary can only work with elements of \mathbb{F}_p^* that are obtained through group operations from the public parameters and public keys. For instance, in order to solve a DLP instance (g, A) , the adversary can only work with elements of the form g^x and A^x for some $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ (or combinations of these). In this model, it is shown that CDH and DLP are indeed equivalent.

2.2 ElGamal encryption

Modular exponentiation cannot only be used to construct a public key exchange protocol. In addition, one can directly construct a *public key encryption scheme*. Such a scheme was first suggested by Taher Elgamal in 1985 [10].

In contrast to a *symmetric* key encryption scheme as sketched in Figure 1, Alice and Bob do not need to share a key in advance. A public key is used for encryption, while decryption requires knowledge of the corresponding secret key.

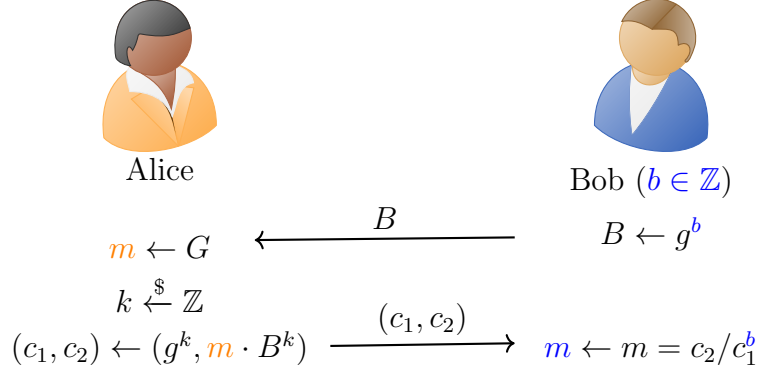


Figure 4: The ElGamal encryption scheme in a finite field \mathbb{F}_p with public parameter $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ and $G = \langle g \rangle \subset \mathbb{F}_p^*$.

The ElGamal encryption scheme is sketched in Figure 4. As in the Diffie-Hellman key exchange scheme, the public parameter is a (prime order) element $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$. We denote $G = \langle g \rangle \subset \mathbb{F}_p^*$. The key pairs (sk, pk) are of the same form as in the Diffie-Hellman key exchange:

$$(\text{sk}, \text{pk}) = (a, A = \text{exp}_g(a)) \quad \text{for some } a \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

A difference is that here only one party (the receiver of the message) needs to create such a key pair. In Figure 4, Bob is the receiver and generates the key pair $(b, B = g^b)$. While Alice is the sender, she chooses a message $m \in G$ which she wants to transmit to Bob. The encryption function is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Enc} : G \times G &\rightarrow G^2 \\ (\text{pk}, m) &\mapsto (c_1, c_2) = (g^k, m \cdot B^k) \quad \text{for some random } k \in \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that the encryption function is *not deterministic*. The outputted cipher text not only depends on the message m and the public key pk , but it also depends on an integer k which is chosen at random during encryption.

On the other hand, the decryption function is *deterministic*, it is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Dec} : \mathbb{Z} \times G^2 &\rightarrow G \\ (\text{sk}, (c_1, c_2)) &\mapsto c_2 / c_1^{\text{sk}}. \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 2.8: ElGamal encryption (correctness)

The ElGamal encryption scheme as sketched above is correct, i.e. $\text{Dec}_{\text{sk}}(\text{Enc}_{\text{pk}}(m)) = m$ for all messages $m \in G$, and key pairs (sk, pk) .

Proof. Let $\text{sk} \in \mathbb{Z}$ be a secret key, $\text{pk} = \text{exp}_g(\text{sk})$ and $m \in G$. Then

$$\text{Dec}_{\text{sk}}(\text{Enc}_{\text{pk}}(m)) = \text{Dec}_{\text{sk}}(g^k, m \cdot \text{pk}^k) = \frac{m \cdot \text{pk}^k}{(g^k)^{\text{sk}}} = m.$$

In the last equality, we used that $(g^k)^{\text{sk}} = (g^{\text{sk}})^k = \text{pk}^k$ for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. □

Note that the scheme is insecure if DLP or CDH are easy to solve (try this as an exercise). On the other hand, showing that the encryption scheme is secure would require some more advanced cryptographic definitions. The important key words here are *chosen cipher text* and *chosen plain text* attacks. This is not in the scope of this course, and we refer to [18, Section 11.4.1] for more details.

However to better understand certain properties of the protocol, we include two exercises below that illustrate the following:

- It is important that the integer $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ is chosen at random for each encryption (in some sense, it can be viewed as Alice's secret key, but it should never be reused).
- The message has to be in $G \subset \mathbb{F}_p^*$ and cannot be an arbitrary element in \mathbb{F}_p^* .

Exercise 2.9. Consider the following setup:

$$p = 8589935363, \quad g = 4 \in \mathbb{F}_p^*,$$

and assume that Bob's public key is

$$B = 1865230978.$$

(For readability, we chose a small prime for which the dlog can still be computed efficiently. For the sake of this exercise, assume however that you cannot compute $b = \text{dlog}_g(B)$.)

Bob is asking some yes/no questions to Alice. Alice encrypts her answers ($Y = 25 \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ for yes and $N = 14 \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ for no) using Bob's public key and the ElGamal encryption scheme.

1. Eve intercepts Alice's answers:

Answer 1: (2456530342, 8487632028),

Answer 2: (2456530342, 1660697205),

Answer 3: (2456530342, 1660697205),

and immediately sees that Alice is reusing the random integer $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

- (a) Without doing any computations: What are the possible answers that Alice could have sent?
 - (b) With some (computationally easy) computation: What are Alice's answers to Questions 1,2,3?
2. Alice notices her mistake and uses different random exponents for the next answers. However, she decides that it is easier to encode $Y = 1 \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ and $N = -1 \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$. Now Eve intercepts the following messages:

Answer 4: (6324669601, 8569725934),

Answer 5: (5864877653, 1038689194),

Answer 6: (1841857395, 573429127),

Can you recover Alice's answers to Questions 4,5,6 as well?

While the specific scenarios in this exercise might look a bit artificial, such mistakes can lead to serious security leaks in real-world applications.

2.3 Exponential attacks on DLP

Let $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ be an element of order q , and $A \in \langle g \rangle$. The "easiest" way to solve the corresponding DLP instance, i.e. find an integer $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $A = g^a$, is a *linear search*. One simply computes $g_i = g^i$ for all integers $0 \leq i \leq q - 1$ until a match $A = g_i$ is found. The linear search algorithm has running time $O(q)$.³

Here, we discuss two different algorithms that both have running time $O(\sqrt{q})$, but different memory requirements. Assuming that g generates a large subgroup of \mathbb{F}_p^* , in particular $q \approx p$, the running times are exponential in the length of the input.

³We use the *big O notation* to describe the running time of algorithms. We write $f(n) = O(h(n))$ ($f(n)$ is big O of $h(n)$) if there exist a constant $c > 0$ and an integer $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ so that $|f(n)| \leq c|h(n)|$ for all $n > n_0$.

2.3.1 Baby-step giant-step algorithm

In 1971, David Shanks proposed the so-called *baby-step giant-step algorithm* to compute discrete logarithms [34]. The main underlying idea is to decompose the solution $a = \text{dlog}_g(A)$ as

$$a = jm + i, \quad \text{with } m = \lfloor \sqrt{q} \rfloor + 1 \text{ and } i, j \in \{0, \dots, m-1\}.$$

In order to find these integers i, j , one creates two different lists of size m : the *baby-steps*

$$g_0 = 1, g_1 = g, \dots, g_{m-1} = g^{m-1}$$

and the *giant-steps*

$$A_0 = A, A_1 = g^{-m} \cdot A, \dots, A_{m-1} = (g^{-m})^{m-1} \cdot A.$$

Then one searches a matching element in both lists, i.e. a match $g_i = g^i = (g^{-m})^j \cdot A = A_j$. In this case

$$g^{jm+i} = A$$

which provides us with the solution $\text{dlog}_g(A) = jm + i$.

Algorithm 1 Shank's baby-step giant-step algorithm

Input: $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ with $\text{ord}(g) = q$ and $A \in \langle g \rangle$

Output: $a = \text{dlog}_g(A)$

```

1:  $m \leftarrow \lfloor \sqrt{q} \rfloor + 1$ 
2:  $g_0 \leftarrow 1$ 
   /*baby steps*/
3: for  $i = 1, \dots, m-1$  do
4:    $g_i \leftarrow g \cdot g_{i-1}$   $\triangleright g_i = g^i$ 
5: end for
6:  $\tilde{A} \leftarrow A$ 
   /*giant steps*/
7: for  $j = 0, \dots, m-1$  do
8:   if  $\tilde{A} = g_i$  for some  $i$  then
9:     return  $jm + i \pmod{q}$ 
10:  else
11:     $\tilde{A} \leftarrow \tilde{A} \cdot g^{-m}$   $\triangleright \tilde{A} = A \cdot g^{m(j+1)}$ 
12:  end if
13: end for
```

The procedure is sketched in Algorithm 1. Note that in this version, only the first list (g_0, \dots, g_{m-1}) is stored. Whereas for the second list (A_0, \dots, A_{m-1}) , one immediately checks after the computation of an element A_j whether there is a match with one of the g_i 's. In particular, there is no need to store the elements of the second list.

Proposition 2.10

On input $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ with $\text{ord}(g) = q$ and $A \in \langle g \rangle$, Algorithm 1 finds $a = \text{dlog}_g(A)$. The number of \mathbb{F}_p^* multiplications is $O(\sqrt{q})$, and the required memory is $O(\sqrt{q})$ as well.

Proof. Let us first look at the running time. Creating the first list (Lines 2 to 5) takes $m-1 \approx \sqrt{q}$ multiplications. Each step in the second for-loop (Lines 7 to 13) requires one multiplication by g^{-m} , hence the number of multiplications from this part are at most $m-1 \approx \sqrt{q}$ as well. Note that the check in Line 8 can be done efficiently assuming that the values for (g_i, i) are stored in a look-up table. The required memory storage is determined by the number of elements in the first list: $m \approx \sqrt{q}$.

It remains to show that the algorithm outputs the correct solution. To see this, note that for any element $a \in \{0, \dots, q-1\}$, there exist $i^*, j^* \in \{0, \dots, m-1\}$ so that

$$a = j^* \cdot m + i^*.$$

This solution leads to a collision of the two lists, and in particular the condition $\tilde{A} = g_{i^*}$ (Line 8) will be satisfied in iteration $j = j^*$. \square

Example 2.11. Let $g = 4 \in \mathbb{F}_{83}$. This generates a subgroup of order 41. We are given the challenge $A = 68$. Here, we illustrate the computation of $a = \text{dlog}_g(A)$ using the baby-step giant step algorithm (Algorithm 1). A sketch is provided in Figure 5.

First, we set

$$m = \lfloor \sqrt{41} \rfloor + 1 = 7.$$

Then the *baby steps* are computed:

$$g_0 = 1, g_1 = 4, g_2 = 16, g_3 = 64, g_4 = 7, g_5 = 28, g_6 = 29.$$

Now, we compute the *giant steps* until a collision is found

$$A_0 = 68, A_1 = 75, A_2 = 40, A_3 = 49, A_4 = 4.$$

The collision is given by $g_1 = A_4$ which allows us to deduce $\text{dlog}_g(A)$:

$$g^1 = A \cdot g^{-4m} \Leftrightarrow A = g^{4m+1} = g^{29} \Leftrightarrow \text{dlog}(A) = 29.$$

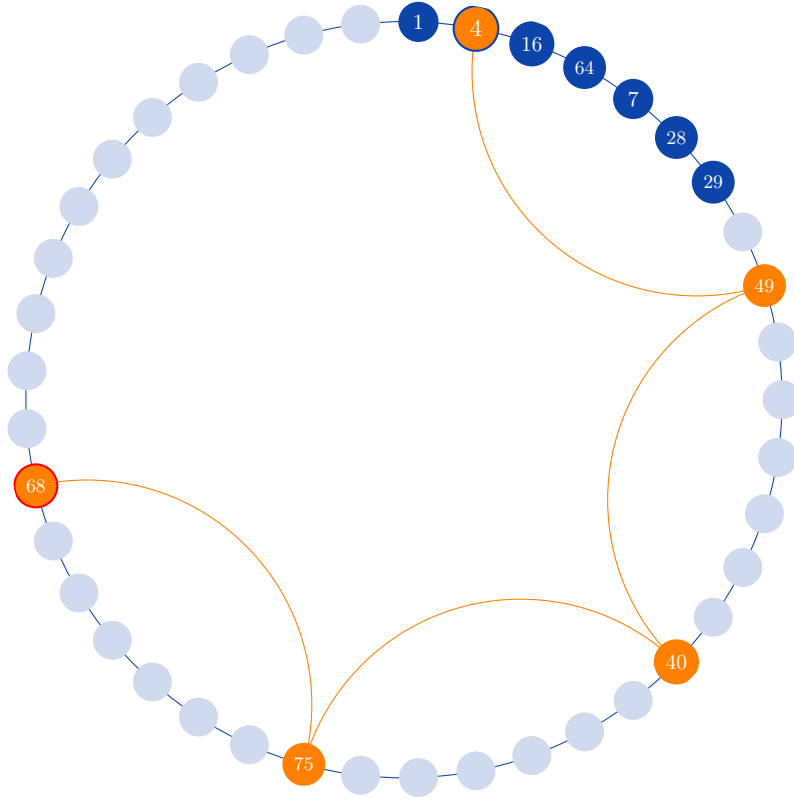


Figure 5: Illustration of the baby-step giant-step algorithm, Example 2.11

Remark 2.12. As stated in Proposition 2.10 the memory complexity of the baby-step giant-step algorithm is $O(\sqrt{q})$. For a large order q , and in particular for cryptographic applications, this is unrealistic. In order to obtain a version of the baby-step giant-step algorithm with smaller memory requirements, one may choose a smaller value of $m \ll \sqrt{q}$, and find a representation of the form

$$a = jm + i, \quad \text{with } i \in \{0, \dots, m-1\} \text{ and } j \in \{0, \dots, \lfloor q/m \rfloor\}.$$

However, note that this increases the running time of the algorithm. The number of \mathbb{F}_p -multiplications is now given by $O(q/m)$. Such time-memory trade-offs are often considered in cryptanalysis.

Exercise 2.13. We have seen in Remark 2.12 that one may reduce the size of the required memory at the cost of increasing the overall runtime of the algorithm. In this exercise, the goal is to achieve the opposite: decreasing the runtime at the cost of increasing the required memory.

- (a) We have shown that Algorithm 1 requires $O(\sqrt{q})$ multiplications. More concretely, show that the average runtime is given by $T = 3/2\sqrt{q}$ (if the exponent a is chosen uniformly at random).

Now consider a variant of Algorithm 1, where the baby steps and giant steps are computed in parallel, and all values g_i, A_i for $0 \leq i \leq n \leq m$ are stored until a match is found for some n .⁴

- (b) What is the average runtime of this variant of Algorithm 1? What is the required memory?
Hint: You can use (or prove if you are familiar with probability theory) that for two integers i, j uniformly chosen at random from $\{0, \dots, m\}$, the expected value of $\max(i, j)$ is $\approx 2/3m$

Exercise 2.14. [Sage](#) Implement the babystep-giantstep algorithm and use it solve the DLP instances from Exercise 2.4. How does the running time compare to the `log` function in SageMath? Which algorithm is used in SageMath to solve the DLP?

2.3.2 Pollard's rho algorithm

In 1978, John Pollard suggested the now called *Pollard's rho algorithm* to compute discrete logarithms [27]. This algorithm has the same asymptotic running time as the babystep-giantstep algorithm, its major advantage is that it only requires a constant amount of memory.

Pollard's rho algorithm is a *randomized* algorithm, and based on finding a collision. In some sense, the baby-step giant-step algorithm can also be viewed as a collision-finding algorithm. It is based on finding a collision between the baby-steps and the giant-steps. However, note that this is a *deterministic* approach: the definition of the baby steps and giant steps guarantees a specific collision. In contrast, Pollard's rho algorithm is a *Las Vegas algorithm*: It always produces a correct output, but the running time depends on the input.

Say we want to solve the DLP instance (g, A) with $g, A \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$. Then Pollard's algorithm uses a function $f : \mathbb{F}_p^* \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p^*$ which sends elements of the form $g^k A^\ell$ to $g^{k'} A^{\ell'}$, always keeping track of the exponents. More explicitly, in the original paper [27], Pollard suggests to use

$$f : x = g^k A^\ell \mapsto x' = \begin{cases} g^k A^{\ell+1} & \text{if } 0 < x < p/3, \\ g^{2k} A^{2\ell} & \text{if } p/3 < x < 2p/3, \\ g^{k+1} A^\ell & \text{if } 2p/3 < x < p. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Using this function, one creates a sequence

$$x_0 = g^0 A^0, x_1 = f(x_0) = g^{k_1} A^{\ell_1}, x_2 = f(x_1) = g^{k_2} A^{\ell_2}, \dots$$

Given that \mathbb{F}_p^* is finite, this sequence is necessarily periodic. More precisely, it will enter into a loop. This is sketched in Figure 6, and explains the name of the algorithm. As in the sketch, we refer to *the tail length* T of a sequence, and the *loop length* L .

A collision in the sequence $(x_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$, can (almost certainly) be used to solve the DLP instance. To see this, assume $x_i = x_j$ for some $i \neq j$. Then

$$g^{k_i} A^{\ell_i} = g^{k_j} A^{\ell_j} \Leftrightarrow g^{k_i - k_j} = A^{k_j - \ell_i}.$$

Now if $\ell_j - \ell_i$ is prime to the order of g , then

$$\text{dlog}_g(A) = a \quad \text{with } a \equiv (k_i - k_j) \cdot (\ell_j - \ell_i)^{-1} \pmod{\text{ord}(g)}.$$

As we discussed earlier, typically $\text{ord}(g) = q$ is a prime, in which case $(\ell_j - \ell_i)$ is almost certainly invertible.

Example 2.15. We go back to Example 2.11. Recall that we are given a DLP challenge with $g = 4 \in \mathbb{F}_{83}$ and $A = 68$. Let's compute the sequence x_0, x_1, \dots obtained with the function f in Equation 2. Note that more formally, this function should be viewed as a function with domain and codomain $\mathbb{F}_p^* \times \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$, as we want to keep track of the exponents k and ℓ as well. In particular, we denote $x_{i+1}, k_{i+1}, \ell_{i+1} = f(x_i, k_i, \ell_i)$.

⁴This algorithm is proposed in [28]. Apart from the analysis of different variants of algorithms to solve the DLP, this article also explains how some of the results can be used to improve your *monopoly* skills.

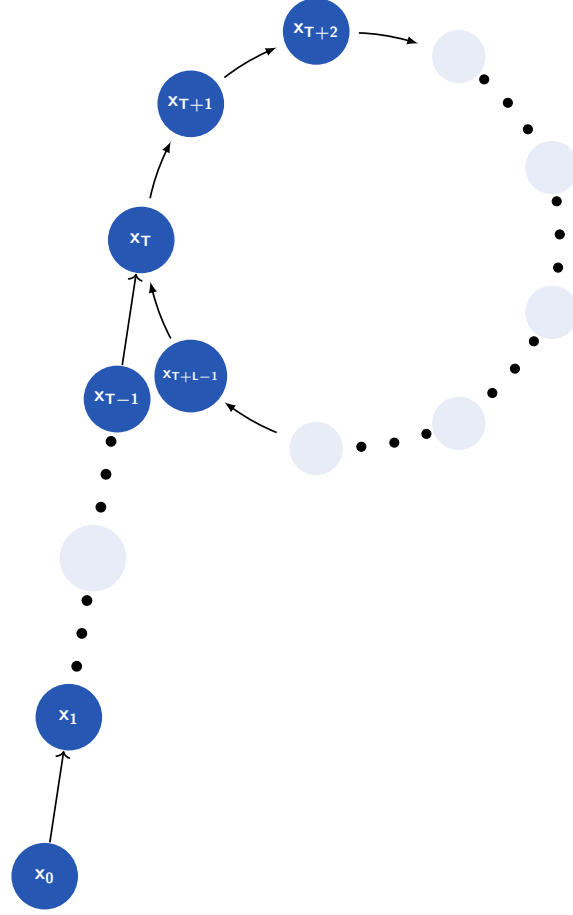


Figure 6: A typical Pollard's rho with tail length T and loop length L .

Starting with $(x_0, k_0, \ell_0) = (1, 0, 0)$, we obtain the following sequence

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \text{tail of length } T = 4 & \begin{cases} (x_0, k_0, \ell_0) = (1, 0, 0) \\ (x_1, k_1, \ell_1) = (68, 0, 1) \\ (x_2, k_2, \ell_2) = (23, 1, 1) \\ (x_3, k_3, \ell_3) = (70, 1, 2) \end{cases} \\
 \text{loop of length } L = 9 & \begin{cases} (x_4, k_4, \ell_4) = (31, 2, 2) \\ (x_5, k_5, \ell_5) = (48, 4, 4) \\ (x_6, k_6, \ell_6) = (63, 8, 8) \\ (x_7, k_7, \ell_7) = (3, 9, 8) \\ (x_8, k_8, \ell_8) = (38, 9, 9) \\ (x_9, k_9, \ell_9) = (33, 18, 18) \\ (x_{10}, k_{10}, \ell_{10}) = (10, 36, 36) \\ (x_{11}, k_{11}, \ell_{11}) = (16, 36, 37) \\ (x_{12}, k_{12}, \ell_{12}) = (9, 36, 38) \\ (x_{13}, k_{13}, \ell_{13}) = (31, 36, 39) \\ (x_{14}, k_{14}, \ell_{14}) = (48, 31, 37) \\ \dots \end{cases}
 \end{array}$$

The first collision occurs at $x_{13} = x_4$. This collision provides us with the identity

$$g^2 A^2 = 31 = g^{36} A^{39} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad g^7 = g^{2-36} = A^{39-2} = A^{37}.$$

Note that 37 is invertible modulo $q = 41$ with multiplicative inverse $37^{-1} \equiv 10 \pmod{q}$, hence we find $\text{dlog}_g(A) = 7 \cdot 10 \equiv 29 \pmod{q}$.

In Example 2.15, we followed a trivial approach to find the first collision which occurs for $x_T = x_{L+T}$. We just stored all computed values x_i until the collision is found. However, this approach requires a large amount of memory which we want to avoid. A smarter strategy is needed to detect collisions. A second open question concerns the length of the tail and the loop which determine the runtime of the algorithm. These questions will be answered in the following theorem.

Theorem 2.16: Abstract version of Pollard's ρ method as in [16, Theorem 4.47]

Let S be a finite set of cardinality N , and let $f : S \rightarrow S$ be a map. Consider the sequence

$$x_0, x_1 = f(x_0), x_2 = f(x_1), \dots$$

for some initial value $x_0 \in S$.

(a) Suppose that the sequence $(x_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ has a tail of length T and a loop of length L . Then

$$x_{2i} = x_i \quad \text{for some } 1 \leq i \leq T + L.$$

(b) If the map f is sufficiently random, then the expected value of $T + L$ is

$$E(T + L) \approx 1.2533 \cdot \sqrt{N}$$

Proof. We will prove the first part, but only sketch the proof of the second part.

(a) To see this, it is easiest to look at Figure 6. We have that $x_{2i} = x_i$ for some i if and only if

$$i \geq T \quad \text{and} \quad i \equiv 2i \pmod{L}.$$

Note that the second condition is equivalent to $i \equiv 0 \pmod{L}$. There is precisely one value $T \leq i \leq T + L - 1$ satisfying these properties.

(b) Since the function f is assumed to be random, one may view the elements x_0, x_1, \dots as random elements chosen from S . We want to estimate the number of elements that have to be chosen until a collision occurs. Note that this is related to the *birthday paradox*. And roughly, it tells us that it is enough to choose around \sqrt{N} elements to obtain a collision with some positive probability.

The details of the proof for this part involve techniques from probability theory that are not a prerequisite for this course. The reader is kindly referred to [16, Theorem 4.47].

□

Using the results from Theorem 2.16, we can now formulate a version of Pollard's rho algorithm that has running time $O(\sqrt{N})$ and only requires a constant amount of memory. This is made explicit in Algorithm 2. A subtlety is the definition of a *sufficiently random* function f . Here, we use the function from Eq. 2 which was suggested by Pollard. But we note that follow-up works by Teske suggest the use of different functions with better mixing properties [41],[42]. To ease notation, we view f as a function $f : \mathbb{F}_p^* \times \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p^* \times \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$, with $f(x, k, \ell) = (x', k', \ell')$ as defined in Equation 2.

Algorithm 2 Pollard's rho algorithm

Input: $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ with $\text{ord}(g) = q$ and $A \in \langle g \rangle$

Output: $\text{dlog}_g(A)$

```
1:  $(x, k, \ell) = (1, 0, 0)$  ▷ initial value  $x_0$ 
2:  $(x', k', \ell') = (x, k, \ell)$ 
3: while True do
4:    $(x, k, \ell) \leftarrow f(x, k, \ell)$  ▷ sequence element  $x = x_i$ 
5:    $(x', k', \ell') \leftarrow f(x', k', \ell')$ 
6:    $(x', k', \ell') \leftarrow f(x', k', \ell')$  ▷ sequence element  $x' = x_{2i}$ 
7:   if  $x' = x$  then
8:     if  $\gcd(\ell' - \ell, q) = 1$  then
9:       return  $\text{dlog}_g(A) = (k - k')(\ell' - \ell)^{-1} \pmod{q}$ 
10:    else
11:      go back to Line 1 and start with a different initial value.
12:    end if
13:  end if
14: end while
```

Example 2.17. We go back to Example 2.15, where we computed the structure of Pollard's rho for the DLP challenge with $g = 4 \in \mathbb{F}_{83}^*$ and $A = 68$. Applying Pollard's rho algorithm (Algorithm 2), we find a collision after the 9th step, more precisely

$$(x_9, k_9, \ell_9) = (33, 18, 18), \quad (x_{18}, k_{18}, \ell_{18}) = (33, 3, 27).$$

This provides us with the solution

$$\text{dlog}_g(A) \equiv (18 - 3) \cdot (27 - 9)^{-1} \equiv 29 \pmod{q}.$$

Note that as claimed in the proof of Theorem 2.16, the first collision occurs for the minimal value i with $i > T = 4$ and $i \equiv 0 \pmod{L = 9}$.

2.4 Index-calculus

The algorithms discussed in Subsection 2.3 all have exponential running time. Another method, *index calculus*, for computing discrete logarithms in finite fields was already mentioned in 1922 in a book about number theory by Maurice Kraitchik [21]. Here, the word *index* is just another word for *discrete logarithms*.

In contrast to the previously discussed methods, the index calculus algorithm has subexponential running time. Subexponential means that for any base $b > 1$, the running time $T(x)$ for an instance of size x is bounded by $T(x) < b^x$ for all sufficiently large values of x . More precisely, the running time of the index calculus algorithm to compute discrete logarithms in the finite field \mathbb{F}_p is given by $O(2^{c\sqrt{\log p \log \log p}})$ for some constant c .

One of the main ingredients for index calculus is the possibility to lift elements from the finite field \mathbb{F}_p to the integers \mathbb{Z} . In particular, one may lift an element $x \in \mathbb{F}_p$ to \mathbb{Z} , perform some operations in \mathbb{Z} and reduce modulo p to obtain an element in \mathbb{F}_p again. This procedure is compatible with finite field operations, in the sense that performing the same operations in \mathbb{F}_p yields the same result.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} x \in \mathbb{F}_p & \xrightarrow{\text{lift}} & \hat{x} \in \mathbb{Z} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow f \\ y \in \mathbb{F}_p & \xleftarrow{\text{reduce}} & \hat{y} \in \mathbb{Z} \end{array}$$

A priori, computations in \mathbb{Z} are more expensive than in \mathbb{F}_p . The advantage of the idea is that one may exploit properties of the integers that are not present in finite fields. In the case of index calculus, one uses the fact that \mathbb{Z} is a unique factorization domain.

Algorithm 3 provides a brief description of the method (following [40, Algorithm 10.1]). As in the previous section, we want to solve a DLP instance with $g, A \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$.⁵

Algorithm 3 Index calculus algorithm

Input: $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$ and $A \in \langle g \rangle$
Output: $\text{dlog}_g(A)$

- 1: Choose a smoothness bound B and let $\mathcal{P}_B = \{p_1, \dots, p_b\}$ be the set of primes less than or equal to B .
- 2: $\mathcal{R} \leftarrow \{\}$
- 3: **while** $\#\mathcal{R} < b + 1$ **do**
- 4: $e \xleftarrow{\$} \{1, \dots, p - 1\}$
- 5: **if** $g^e/A = \prod_{i=1}^b p_i^{e_i}$ **then**
- 6: $\mathcal{R} \leftarrow \mathcal{R} \cup \{e = \sum_{i=1}^b e_i x_i + x_{b+1}\}$
- 7: **end if**
- 8: **end while**
- 9: */*Phase 2: Linear algebra*/*
- 9: Solve the linear system \mathcal{R} for $x_{b+1} \in \mathbb{Z}/(p-1)\mathbb{Z}$.
- 10: **if** Solution for x_{b+1} in Line 9 is unique **then**
- 11: **return** x_{b+1}
- 12: **else**
- 13: Go back to Line 2
- 14: **end if**

In the setup for the algorithm, a factor bases \mathcal{P}_B containing all primes less than or equal to B is chosen. The first phase consists of finding linear relations between $\text{dlog}_g(A)$ and $\text{dlog}_g(p_i)$ with $p_i \in \mathcal{P}_B$. To this end, one selects an integer $e \in \{1, \dots, p - 1\}$ at random and checks whether the lift of g^e/A to \mathbb{Z} is B -smooth, i.e. whether the factorization is of the form

$$\widehat{g^e/A} = \prod_{i=1}^b p_i^{e_i} \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad \text{for some exponents } e_i \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Taking logarithms, this provides us with the linear relation

$$e - \text{dlog}_g(A) = \sum_{i=1}^b e_i \text{dlog}_g(p_i).$$

Note that we do not know $\text{dlog}_g(p_i)$ either. However, after finding enough linear relations of this form, we obtain an overdetermined system which can then be solved using linear algebra methods. This is the second phase of the algorithm.

Remark 2.18. *The above discussion explains that the index calculus method described in Algorithm 3 works correctly. However, several details are missing in order to analyze the runtime. An important question concerns the choice of the smoothness bound B . On the one hand, choosing B large makes it more likely that g^e/A is B -smooth for some random integer e . On the other hand, checking that an integer is B -smooth will be more costly. The running time of the entire algorithm will crucially depend on this choice. More precisely, the running time depends on the following values:*

- *The number of required linear relations. This number is $b + 1$ which is roughly $b \approx B/\log B$.*
- *The (expected) number of iterations that are needed in the **while** loop to find $b + 1$ relations: This number can be estimated using the Dickman-de Bruijn function which describes the asymptotic proportion of smooth numbers.*
- *The time to check if a number is B -smooth (Line 5): Using trial division, one would need to perform b divisions.*

⁵In contrast to the algorithms from Subsection 2.3, here the order of q is not important for the running time of the algorithm.

- The cost to solve the linear system (Line 9)

One can show that in this setting, a choice of

$$B \approx e^{1/2\sqrt{\log p \log \log p}}$$

leads to a running time in

$$O\left(e^{2\sqrt{\log p \log \log p}}\right).$$

As claimed in the beginning of the subsection, this running time is subexponential. Note that the square root in the exponent is crucial here; without it, the expression would be exponential.

For a detailed discussion, and further improvements, we refer to [40, §10.3]

Example 2.19. Let's look at our running example from the previous section (Examples 2.11, 2.17), where we want to compute $a = \text{dlog}_g(A)$ with $g = 4, A = 68 \in \mathbb{F}_{83}^*$. As a factor base, we choose $\mathcal{P}_B = \{2, 3, 5\}$.

To simulate the first phase of the algorithm, we choose random exponents $e \in \{1, \dots, 82\}$ (using the SageMath function `ZZ.random(1,82)`), and check whether g^e/A is 5-smooth until we have four different linear relations. The results are summarized in the following table. The first column contains the random exponent e , and the second column contains the factorization of g^e/A if it is B -smooth.

exponent e	g^e/A		exponent e	g^e/A
15	5^2		31	2^4
59	×		33	×
60	3^2		17	×
7	×		(72)	(2^4)
40	×		43	$2 \cdot 5$

Note that the relation $g^{72}/A = 2^4$ does not provide any new information, since $\text{ord}(g) = 41$ and so $g^{72} = g^{31}$. The latter exponent was already in the list.

Slightly deviating from the notation in Algorithm 3, we denote

$$x_2 = \text{dlog}_4(2), \quad x_3 = \text{dlog}_4(3), \quad x_5 = \text{dlog}_4(5), \quad \text{and} \quad x_A = \text{dlog}_4(68).$$

Then the results from the table induce the following system of equations over $\mathbb{Z}/82\mathbb{Z}$

$$\begin{cases} 15 = & 2x_5 + x_A \\ 60 = & 2x_3 & + x_A \\ 31 = 4x_2 & & + x_A \\ 43 = x_2 & + & x_5 + x_A \end{cases}$$

Solving for x_A , we find the solution $x_A = 29 \equiv 70 \pmod{41}$.

Note that the system of equations in the example is very sparse which makes it easier to solve by hand. Indeed, this is typically the case for large parameter sets as well. In particular, one may exploit the sparseness of the set of equations to implement the linear algebra step in Algorithm 3 more efficiently.

Exercise 2.20. Using the system of equations from Example 2.19, can you also solve for x_2, x_3 and x_5 ? Explain your observations.

2.5 Diffie-Hellman for generic groups

Many of the algorithms and cryptographic constructions that we have seen are not specific to working in a finite field, but one could formulate them for any group. In this section, let \mathbb{G} be a group equipped with the group operation \circ . The definition of the DLP (Definition 2.1) generalizes to the group setting as follows:

Definition 2.21: Group Discrete Logarithm Problem (Group-DLP)

Let $g \in \mathbb{G}$ and $A \in \langle g \rangle$. The *Group Discrete Logarithm Problem* (Group-DLP) is the problem of finding an integer a such that

$$A = \underbrace{g \circ \cdots \circ g}_{a \text{ times}}.$$

The number a is called the *discrete logarithm* of A to the base g , we denote $a = \text{dlog}_g(A)$.

In analogy with the finite field setting, we use the notation

$$\exp_g(a) = \underbrace{g \circ \cdots \circ g}_{a \text{ times}}.$$

Furthermore, if the context is clear, we simply write DLP instead of Group-DLP.

One can define the Diffie-Hellman protocol for any general group \mathbb{G} . With the notation that we just introduced, one obtains precisely the same description as in the finite field setting (see Figure 3).

For cryptographic applications, we require that \exp_g is a cryptographic one-way function (Definition 1.4). This brings us to the question how hard it is to solve DLP in a general group \mathbb{G} . Algorithms that can be used for any group \mathbb{G} are called *generic*. Both, the baby-step giant-step algorithm and Pollard's rho algorithm from Subsection 2.3, are generic. They do not use any properties specific to finite fields. In contrast to that, the index-calculus approach uses specific properties of finite fields and the integers, and cannot be applied to a generic group.

Moreover, we note that in an idealized model known as the *generic group model*, one can even show that Pollard's rho algorithm is optimal for generic groups [37]. Given that the index-calculus approach solves the DLP much faster in finite fields, this motivates the study of alternative groups in cryptography which may be closer to being *generic*. A widely used alternative are *elliptic curve groups* which will be studied in Section 3.

3 Elliptic curves and cryptography

Elliptic curves are objects coming from algebraic geometry. They play a central role in Wiles' proof of Fermat's last theorem, but also find applications in computational number theory, for instance in factoring and for primality testing. In 1985, it was first suggested by Neil Koblitz [20] and Victor S. Miller [26] to use elliptic curves as a replacement for finite fields in public key cryptography. Today, these ideas are commonly used in modern cryptographic protocols.

The first part of this section provides a brief introduction to the rich theory of elliptic curves. The focus is on elliptic curves defined over finite fields, since these are the objects used in cryptography. In the second part, we discuss cryptographic applications.

3.1 Introduction to elliptic curves

There are different equivalent ways to define an elliptic curve. In algebraic geometry it is usually defined as a *smooth projective curve of genus one with a specified base point*. We will work with the following more concrete definition.

Definition 3.1: Elliptic Curve

Let K be a field of characteristic $p \neq 2, 3$. Then an *elliptic curve* E defined over K consists of a point at infinity and points (x, y) in the plane satisfying an equation of the form

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \quad \text{with } a, b \in K \text{ and } 4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0.$$

An equation of the form $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ as in Definition 3.1 is called (*short*) *Weierstrass equation*. If one wants to work over a field K with $\text{char}(K) \in \{2, 3\}$, then it is necessary to work with different types

of equations, see for example [38, Appendix A]. However, such curves will not appear in these lecture notes.

The condition $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$ ensures that the corresponding elliptic curve is smooth. Associated to this, one defines the element $\Delta = -16(4a^3 + 27b^2)$ called the *discriminant of E* . Here the factor -16 is necessary in order to be compatible with the definitions over finite fields of small characteristic.

Two sketches of elliptic curves defined over the real numbers \mathbb{R} are provided in Figure 7.

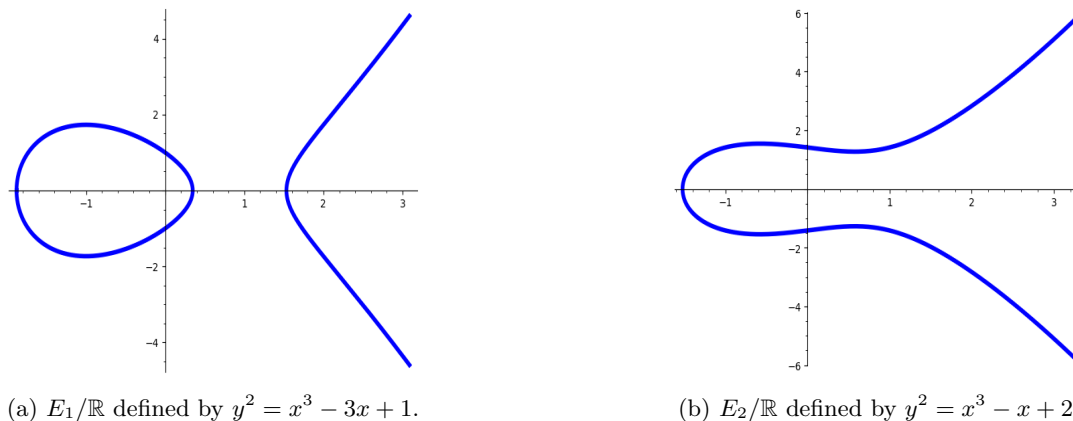


Figure 7: Two typical sketches of elliptic curves

Example 3.2. Consider the curve $C : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 2$. Here, $4a^3 + 27b^2 = 0$, hence the equation does not define an elliptic curve. One can verify that the curve has a singularity at $P = (1, 0)$. Broadly speaking, here this means that there are two different tangent directions in the same point. This is illustrated in Figure 8.

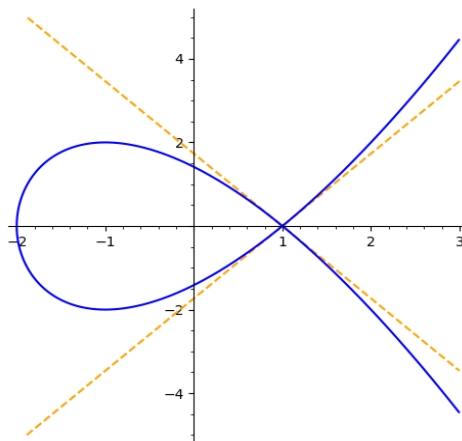


Figure 8: The curve $C : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 2$ (solid blue) and the tangent lines at the singular point $P = (1, 0)$ (dashed orange)

Exercise 3.3. Let $a, b \in K$ and consider the (affine plane)⁶ curve C defined by $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$.

- (a) Show that $4a^3 + 27b^2 = 0$ if and only if the polynomial $f = x^3 + ax + b$ has a repeated root.
- (b) A point $P = (x_0, y_0)$ on an affine plane curve is a singularity if and only if both partial derivatives $\partial f / \partial x$ and $\partial f / \partial y$ vanish at P ; otherwise P is called a smooth point
Use this definition and part (a) to show that all points P on C are smooth if and only if $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$.

⁶We do not use the word *elliptic* curve here, since it is not required that $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$ in this exercise.

3.1.1 Points on elliptic curves

Let E be an elliptic curve defined over K . Depending on the applications, we consider only the points with coordinates in the base field K , or points with coordinates in the algebraic closure \bar{K} , or points living in some intermediate field $K \subset L \subset \bar{K}$.

Notation 3.4: Points on elliptic curves

Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ with $a, b \in K$ be an elliptic curve. For any field extension L/K , the set

$$E(L) = \{\infty\} \cup \underbrace{\{(u, v) \in L^2 \mid v^2 = u^3 + au + b\}}_{\text{affine points}}$$

is called the set of L -rational points of E . We denote by $\#E(L)$ the number of L -rational points of E , and we say that $\#E(K)$ is the order of E .

The structure of the points of an elliptic curve very much depends on the underlying base field.

Example 3.5. (a) First consider the curve $E_1 : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 1$ from Figure 7a. Over \mathbb{R} , there are infinitely many points. For example:

$$\infty, P_1 = (0, 1), P_2 = (-1, \sqrt{3}), P_3 = (2, \sqrt{3}), P_4 = (3, \sqrt{19}), \dots$$

Indeed, we may just evaluate the right hand side, $f(x) = x^3 - 3x + 1$, at an arbitrary value x_0 , and as long as $f(x_0)$ is positive, there is a solution $y_0^2 = f(x_0)$ in \mathbb{R} .

Note that we typically sketch elliptic curves over \mathbb{R} , even if we are more interested in different base fields for number theoretic or cryptographic applications.

(b) Now consider the same equation defined over the rationals, i.e. $E_1 : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 1$ over \mathbb{Q} . The first two points of the above list are also defined over \mathbb{Q} , and we can easily find a third one: $(0, -1) \in E(\mathbb{Q})$.

Are there more \mathbb{Q} -rational points? The answer is yes, there are even infinitely many \mathbb{Q} -rational points. Here are some more examples (that become increasingly more difficult to find by simple guessing):

$$\left(\frac{9}{4}, \frac{19}{8}\right), \left(\frac{-152}{81}, \frac{107}{729}\right), \left(\frac{12033}{5776}, \frac{-854783}{438976}\right), \dots$$

Not any elliptic curve has infinitely many \mathbb{Q} -rational points. For instance consider $E_2 : y^2 = x^3 - x + 2$ from Figure 7b. Over \mathbb{R} there are still infinitely many points, but there is only one \mathbb{Q} -rational point: $E_2(\mathbb{Q}) = \{\infty\}$.

In this course, we cannot prove the statements made in this part of the example. The reader interested in learning more about elliptic curves over \mathbb{Q} is referred to [38, Chapter VIII]

(c) Let us now turn to finite fields. We consider the elliptic curve $E_1 : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 1$ defined over the finite field \mathbb{F}_{13} . In this case, there are certainly only finitely many points in $E_1(\mathbb{F}_{13})$. By trying all possible x -coordinates and solving for y , one can check that there are exactly 19 different points, i.e. $\#E_1(\mathbb{F}_{13}) = 19$.

$$E_1(\mathbb{F}_{13}) = \{\infty, (0, 1), (0, -1), (1, 5), (1, -5), (2, 4), \dots\}$$

A plot of these points is provided in Figure 9.

Remark 3.6. Where is the point at infinity coming from and why do we need it? Roughly speaking, this is a way to “compactify” the elliptic curve. In order to answer this question more rigorously, some algebraic geometry is required. An elliptic curve is a planar, projective curve, i.e. it is defined by a homogeneous polynomial F in the projective plane \mathbb{P}^2 .

- The set of points of the projective plane, $\mathbb{P}^2(K)$, consists of all non-zero elements $(X, Y, Z) \in K^3 \setminus \{(0, 0, 0)\}$ modulo the equivalence relation $(X, Y, Z) \sim (\lambda X, \lambda Y, \lambda Z)$ for any $\lambda \in K$. The equivalence class of (X, Y, Z) , i.e. a point of $\mathbb{P}^2(K)$, is denoted by $(X : Y : Z)$.
- A plane projective curve C is defined by a homogeneous polynomial $F \in K[X, Y, Z]$. Homogeneous means that all monomials have the same degree. Points with coordinates $(x : y : 1) \in C(K)$ are called affine points, and points with coordinates $(x : y : 0) \in C(K)$ are called points at infinity.

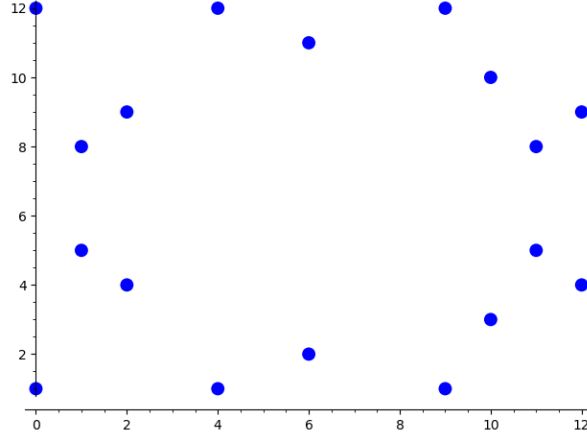


Figure 9: Elliptic curve $E_1 : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 1$ over \mathbb{F}_{13} from Example 3.5

In our setting ($\text{char}(K) \neq 2, 3$), an elliptic curve is then defined by the equation

$$E : Y^2Z = X^3 + aXZ^2 + bZ^3 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{P}^2.$$

The affine points $(x : y : 1)$ just correspond to the points satisfying the (affine) equation $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ as in Definition 3.1. Further, one can check that there is exactly one point of the form $(x : y : 0)$; the point at infinity:

$$\infty = (0 : 1 : 0).$$

For more details, we refer to [44, Section 2.3] which provides a very accessible explanation of this topic.

3.1.2 The group law

The points on an elliptic curve form a group. This is something very special, and indeed elliptic curves are the only algebraic curves that enjoy this property. The idea behind the group law is natural from an algebraic geometry point of view. It follows from the theory of *divisors* which will not be discussed in this course. Instead, we work with a more explicit description of the group law.

Theorem 3.7: Group law for elliptic curves

Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ be an elliptic curve defined over K with $\text{char}(K) \neq 2, 3$.

For $P_1 = (x_1, y_1), P_2 = (x_2, y_2) \in E(\bar{K})$, define $P_1 + P_2 = P_3 = (x_3, y_3)$ as follows.

- (a) If $x_1 \neq x_2$, then $(x_3, y_3) = (m^2 - x_1 - x_2, m(x_1 - x_3) - y_1)$ with $m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$.
- (b) If $x_1 = x_2$ and $y_1 = y_2 \neq 0$, then $(x_3, y_3) = (m^2 - 2x_1, m(x_1 - x_3) - y_1)$ with $m = \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}$.
- (c) If $x_1 = x_2$ and $y_1 \neq y_2$ or $y_1 = y_2 = 0$, then $P_1 + P_2 = \infty$.

Moreover, we define $P + \infty = P$ for any point $P \in E(\bar{K})$. Then $(E(\bar{K}), +)$ is an abelian group with identity element ∞ .

Proof. First note that swapping the points $P_1 = (x_1, y_1)$ and $P_2 = (x_2, y_2)$ in the definition of “+” above does not change the formulas, hence the law is commutative. To see that it is indeed a group law, we need to show the existence of a neutral element, inverses and associativity.

- *neutral element:* By definition, we have that $P + \infty = P$ for any element $P \in E(\bar{K})$, hence the point at infinity is the neutral element.
- *existence of inverses:* Let $P_1 = (x_1, y_1) \in E(\bar{K})$, then its inverse is given by $-P_1 = (x_1, -y_1)$. To see this, first note that $(x_1, -y_1)$ is a point on E as well. To compute $(x_1, y_1) + (x_1, -y_1)$, one then applies the law in (c) which yields ∞ .
- *associativity:* Showing that the group law is associative can be done in a rather tedious computation involving several case distinctions. One may use a computer algebra system to verify the associativity symbolically. Explicitly, this strategy is implemented and explained in a SageMath

worksheet in [40, Lecture 2]. The proof becomes much more elegant if one were to use the theory of divisors. However this is out of the scope for this course, and we refer to [38, Section III.3.4] for a proof using these techniques. \square

We defined the group law for points in the algebraic closure \bar{K} . Note that adding two K -rational points $P_1, P_2 \in E(K)$, we have $P_1 + P_2 \in E(K)$ as well. This means that $E(K)$ is a subgroup of $E(\bar{K})$, and in particular a group itself. Similarly, for any field extension L/K , the L -rational points $E(L)$ form a group.

Example 3.8. Consider the curve $E_1 : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 1$ over \mathbb{Q} from Example 3.5 (b). We have seen that

$$P_1 = (0, 1), \quad P_2 = \left(\frac{9}{4}, \frac{19}{8}\right)$$

are points in $E(\mathbb{Q})$. To compute $P_1 + P_2$, we apply the law from Theorem 3.7. Here, the first rule applies since $x_1 = 0 \neq 9/4 = x_2$. And we find

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \frac{\frac{19}{8} - 1}{\frac{9}{4} - 0} = \frac{11}{18} \\ x_3 &= \left(\frac{11}{18}\right)^2 - 0 - \frac{9}{4} = \frac{-152}{81} \\ y_3 &= \frac{11}{18} \left(0 - \frac{-152}{18}\right) - 1 = \frac{107}{729}, \end{aligned}$$

hence

$$P_1 + P_2 = \left(\frac{-152}{81}, \frac{107}{729}\right).$$

Note that this is one of the other points from the example. Moreover, you can check that in this example $P_1 + P_1 = P_2$ applying the second rule of the law in Theorem 3.7. And indeed, the way we found the different points in Example 3.5(b), was by repeatedly adding (or subtracting) the point P_1 to the known points. That is to say all the points in the example are multiples of P_1 .

Remark 3.9. The group law has a nice geometric interpretation. To add two points $P \neq Q$ on an elliptic curve $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$, one proceeds as follows:

1. Draw a line L through $P = (x_1, y_1)$ and $Q = (x_2, y_2)$.
2. The line L intersects the elliptic curve E in a third point, R .
3. Then $P + Q = -R$.

We discuss the different steps in detail for the generic case and show how it relates to the formulas from Theorem 3.7. For the remaining special cases, we provide a brief description as well.

In the first step, since $P \neq Q$, there is a unique line through the two points. This line is defined by the equation

$$L : x(y_2 - y_1) + y(x_1 - x_2) = x_1y_2 - x_2y_1.$$

Generic case: $x_1 \neq x_2$ (case a). In this case, we can write the equation for L as

$$L_{(a)} : y = m \cdot x + c, \quad \text{with } m = \frac{y_1 - y_2}{x_1 - x_2}, \quad c = \frac{x_1y_2 - x_2y_1}{x_1 - x_2}.$$

In particular, the slope m coincides with the value for m in the theorem. In the second step, we compute the intersection $E \cap L$. For the generic case (a), we find

$$\begin{aligned} R &= (x_3, y_3) \in E \cap L_{(a)} \\ \Leftrightarrow y_3^2 &= x_3^3 + ax_3 + b \text{ and } y_3 = mx_3 + c \\ \Leftrightarrow (mx_3 + c)^2 &= x_3^3 + ax_3 + b \text{ and } y_3 = mx_3 + c. \end{aligned}$$

It remains to solve the equation $(mx + c)^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ for x . Here, we can use that we already know two solutions: x_1, x_2 , hence

$$x^3 - m^2x^2 + (a - 2mc)x + (b - c^2) = (x - x_1)(x - x_2)(x - x_3).$$

Comparing coefficients (here the coefficient of x^2), we find $x_3 = m^2 - x_1 - x_2$. And substituting this into the equation defining $L_{(a)}$, we obtain

$$y_3 = mx_3 + c = mx_3 + (y_1 - mx_1) = m(x_3 - x_1) + y_1.$$

The last step then outputs $P + Q = (x_3, -y_3)$ which coincides with the statement in the theorem.

Case (c) If $x_1 = x_2$ (case c), then the equation for the line L simplifies to

$$L_{(c)} : x = \frac{x_1y_2 - x_2y_1}{y_2 - y_1}.$$

Recall that we assumed $P \neq Q$, hence $y_2 \neq y_1$ here. One can now check that the only two affine intersection points are given by P_1 and P_2 . However there is a third intersection point at infinity. To see this, one needs to work with the equations in projective space as in Remark 3.6. This explains that in this case $P_1 + P_2 = \infty$.

Case (b) It remains to cover the case where $P = Q = (x_1, y_1)$. In this case the first step (drawing a line through P and Q) has to be understood as drawing the tangent to E at P . The slope of this tangent line is given by $m = \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}$. Now the remaining steps can be performed in a similar way as in the generic case, and one obtains the formulas from Theorem 3.7.

An illustration of the geometric interpretation of the group law by means of Example 3.8 is provided in Figure 10.

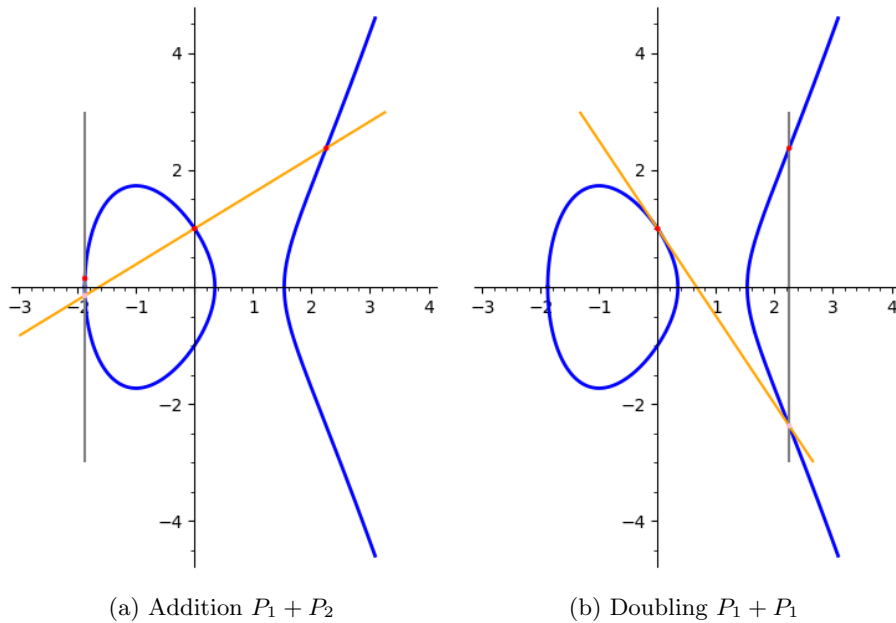


Figure 10: Geometric interpretation of the group law as in Remark 3.9 for the elliptic curve $E_1 : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 1$ with $P_1 = (0, 1)$, $P_2 = (9/4, 19/8)$ from Example 3.8

3.1.3 Scalar multiplication and torsion

Given that we can add points on an elliptic curve, we can also multiply them by a scalar $N \in \mathbb{Z}$. Implicitly, this property was already used in Example 3.8.

Notation 3.10

Let E be an elliptic curve over K , and $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ an integer. We denote

$$[N] : E(K) \rightarrow E(K), \quad P \mapsto \underbrace{P + \cdots + P}_{N \text{ times}},$$

for the scalar multiplication by N .

Exercise 3.11. Consider the elliptic curve $E : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 1$ defined over \mathbb{F}_{13} from Example 3.5(c), and let

$$P_1 = (0, 1) \in E(\mathbb{F}_{13}).$$

(a) Compute $[2] \cdot P_1$. Is there any relation to the point P_2 from Example 3.8?

(b) Compute $[12] \cdot P_1$. Try to use as few elliptic curve additions as possible.

Exercise 3.12. Given an elliptic curve E over K , a point $P \in E(K)$ and an integer N . Show that Algorithm 4 computes $[N] \cdot P$ using at most $2 \cdot \log_2(N)$ elliptic curve additions (a doubling $[2]P$ is counted as one addition $P + P$).

Algorithm 4 Double-and-add algorithm

Input: $P \in E(K), N \in \mathbb{N}$,

Output: $[N]P$

```

1:  $(e_0 e_1 \dots e_n)_2 \leftarrow N$ , ▷  $N = e_0 + e_1 \cdot 2 + \cdots + e_n \cdot 2^n, e_n = 1$ 
2:  $Q \leftarrow P$ 
3:  $R \leftarrow \infty$ 
4: for  $i = 0$  to  $n - 1$  do
5:   if  $e_i = 1$  then
6:      $R \leftarrow R + Q$ 
7:   end if
8:    $Q \leftarrow [2]Q$ 
9: end for
10:  $R \leftarrow R + Q$ 
11: return  $R$ 
```

Points on an elliptic curve can have finite order. More precisely, when multiplying a non-zero element $P \in E$ with an integer N , it can happen that $[N]P = \infty$.

Definition 3.13

Let E be an elliptic curve over K , $N \geq 1$ and integer. The group of points of order N is denoted by

$$E[N] = \{P \in E(\bar{K}) \mid [N]P = \infty\}.$$

We say that $E[N]$ is the N -torsion group of E .

First, note that $E[N]$ is indeed a group. This follows from the commutativity of the group law on E . Second, we want to point out that the notation $E[N]$ refers to the torsion points over the algebraic closure of the base field. If one wants to only consider the K -rational N -torsion points, the notation $E(K)[N] \subset E[N]$ is used.

Proposition 3.14

Let E be an elliptic curve over K and $N \geq 1$ an integer.

1. If $\text{char}(K) = 0$ or $\text{char}(K) = p$ with $p \nmid N$. Then

$$E[N] \cong \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}.$$

2. If $\text{char}(K) = p > 0$, then one of the following is true:

- (i) $E[p^k] \cong \{\infty\}$ for all $k \geq 1$.
- (ii) $E[p^k] \cong \mathbb{Z}/p^k\mathbb{Z}$ for all $k \geq 1$.

Proof. We refer to [38, Corollary III.6.4] for a proof of this proposition. \square

Example 3.15. Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ be an elliptic curve defined over K , and denote

$$x^3 + ax + b = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)(x - \alpha_3)$$

with $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3 \in \bar{K}$. Note that the α_i are pairwise distinct as per Exercise 3.3. The points

$$P_i = (\alpha_i, 0) \in E(\bar{K}) \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, 3,$$

are 2-torsion points (Case (c) of the addition law from Theorem 3.7). It follows from Proposition 3.14 that

$$E[2] = \{\infty, P_1, P_2, P_3\} = \langle P_1, P_2 \rangle.$$

Note that you can also verify explicitly that $P_1 + P_2 = P_3$ using the group law.

3.1.4 Elliptic curves over finite fields

In cryptography, we work with elliptic curves defined over a finite field. In this context, p will always denote a prime number and \mathbb{F}_p is a prime field, whereas q denotes a prime power, i.e. $q = p^k$ for some positive integer k , and \mathbb{F}_q is the finite field with q elements.⁷

An elliptic curve defined over a finite field, only has a finite number of points. Even the (affine) plane over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q only has q^2 points, and the affine points on an elliptic curve are a subset of these. This provides us with some *very* rough bounds on the number of points on an elliptic curve E/\mathbb{F}_q

$$1 \leq \#E(\mathbb{F}_q) \leq 1 + q^2.$$

We can make this more precise by noting that for a given x -coordinate $x_0 \in \mathbb{F}_q$, the equation $y^2 = x_0^3 + ax_0 + b$ can have at most two solutions y_0 and $-y_0$ in \mathbb{F}_q^* , hence

$$1 \leq \#E(\mathbb{F}_q) \leq 1 + 2q.$$

This is made much more precise in a theorem by Helmut Hasse from 1936 [15].

Theorem 3.16: Hasse's theorem

Let E be an elliptic curve over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q . Then

$$q + 1 - 2\sqrt{q} \leq \#E(\mathbb{F}_q) \leq q + 1 + 2\sqrt{q}.$$

The proof of Hasse's theorems requires some more advanced knowledge about elliptic curves, and we will not discuss it here.

For some elliptic curves, it is even possible to provide an explicit formula for the number of points depending on the prime p . An example for such a formula is provided in Lemma 3.17. We note that there are no such formulas for arbitrary elliptic curves, but there exists an efficient algorithm, the Schoof–Elkies–Atkin (SEA) point counting algorithm, which can be used to count the number of points of an elliptic curve over a finite fields.

⁷We highlight this here, because this is completely unrelated to the notation $p = 2q + 1$ that was used in Section 2.

Lemma 3.17

Let $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ be a prime, and consider the elliptic curve $E : y^2 = x^3 + 1$. Then

$$\#E(\mathbb{F}_p) = p + 1.$$

Proof. In order to find all points on an elliptic curve, our strategy was to try different x -coordinates $x_0 \in \mathbb{F}_p$ and then check whether $x_0^3 + ax_0 + b$ is a square, which then yields a point $(x_0, y_0) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ (Example 3.5(c)). In this proof, we will instead consider different y -coordinates y_0 , and check whether $x_0^3 = y_0^2 - 1$ has a solution, i.e. we check whether $y_0^2 - 1$ is a cube.

Which elements in \mathbb{F}_p are cubes? Since, $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, all elements are cubes! To see this, first note that, $0 = 0^3$ is a cube. Now let $g \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$, then

$$h = g^{(2p-1)/3} \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$$

is a cube root of g . This is well-defined: $2p - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, hence we can divide by 3. And one can check that

$$h^3 = \left(g^{(2p-1)/3}\right)^3 = g^{2p-1} = g^{2(p-1)+1} = g.$$

Further note that every element in \mathbb{F}_p has a *unique* cube root, since the map $x \mapsto x^3$ is a homomorphism with domain and codomain \mathbb{F}_p^* , and we have just shown that it is surjective.

In conclusion, for each $y_0 \in \mathbb{F}_p$, there exists a unique $x_0 \in \mathbb{F}_p$ so that $(x_0, y_0) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$. This means that E has p affine points. Adding the point at infinity, we find

$$\#E(\mathbb{F}_p) = p + 1.$$

□

Since elliptic curves over finite fields are finite groups, all points are torsion points (Definition 3.13). We can use Proposition 3.14 to analyze possible group structures.

Proposition 3.18

Let E be an elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_q . Then

$$E(\mathbb{F}_q) \cong \mathbb{Z}/N_1\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/N_2\mathbb{Z}$$

for some integers $N_1, N_2 \geq 1$ and $N_2 \mid N_1$.

Proof. The group $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is finite. Let $N = \#E(\mathbb{F}_q)$. Then it holds that $[N] \cdot P = \infty$ for every element $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$, in particular

$$E(\mathbb{F}_q) \subset E[N].$$

Recall from Proposition 3.14 that $E[N]$ is of rank at most 2. More precisely, if $\gcd(N, q) = 1$, then $E[N] \cong \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$. Any subgroup of the latter is of the form $\mathbb{Z}/N_1\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/N_2\mathbb{Z}$ with $N_1, N_2 \mid N$, and $N_2 \mid N_1$.

Now if $\gcd(N, q) = p^k$ for some $k \geq 1$, write $N_0 = N/p^k$. Then

$$E[N] \cong \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z}/N_0\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/N_0\mathbb{Z}, \\ \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/N_0\mathbb{Z}. \end{cases}$$

In both cases, any subgroups are of the form $\mathbb{Z}/N_1\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/N_2\mathbb{Z}$ for some $N_1, N_2 \mid N$, and $N_2 \mid N_1$. □

Example 3.19. Consider E/\mathbb{F}_5 defined by $y^2 = x^3 - x$. In the following, we prove that

$$E(\mathbb{F}_5) = \langle (3, 2), (1, 0) \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}/4\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$$

Let us first show that $\text{ord}((3, 2)) = 4$. To do this, we compute $[i] \cdot (3, 2)$ for $[i] \in \mathbb{N}$ until we obtain ∞ . First $[1] \cdot (3, 2) = (3, 2) \neq \infty$. Then we compute $[2] \cdot (3, 2)$ as $(3, 2) + (3, 2)$ (this is the second case in Theorem 3.7). We find

$$m = \frac{3 \cdot 3^2 - 1}{2 \cdot 2} = -1, \quad x_3 = (-1)^2 - 2 \cdot 3 = 0, \quad y_3 = -1(3 - 0) - 2 = 0,$$

i.e. $[2] \cdot (3, 2) = (0, 0)$. Next $[3] \cdot (3, 2)$ is computed as $(0, 0) + (3, 2)$. This is the generic case, and we find

$$m = \frac{2 - 0}{3 - 0} = \frac{2}{3}, \quad x_3 = 4^2 - 0 - 3 = 3, \quad y_3 = 4(0 - 3) - 0 = -12,$$

i.e. $[3] \cdot (3, 2) = (3, 3)$. Finally, we compute $[4] \cdot (3, 2)$ as $(3, 3) + (3, 2)$. This is the third case in Theorem 3.7, hence $(3, 3) + (3, 2) = \infty$, and we have shown that $\text{ord}((3, 2)) = 4$.

It immediately follows from the discussion in Example 3.15 that $\text{ord}((1, 0)) = 2$ (alternatively, apply the group law). Moreover $(1, 0) \notin \langle (3, 2) \rangle = \{(3, 2), (0, 0), (3, 3), \infty\}$. It follows that

$$G = \langle (3, 2), (1, 0) \rangle \subset E(\mathbb{F}_5)$$

is a subgroup of order 8. On the other hand, Hasse's theorem (Theorem 3.16) implies that $2 \leq \#E(\mathbb{F}_5) \leq 10$, hence $G = E(\mathbb{F}_5)$.

Remark 3.20. Determining the group structure for elliptic curves over \mathbb{Q} is more complicated, and we will not answer this question in this course. For completeness, we want to mention that for the curves in Example 3.5 (part b), it holds that

$$E_1(\mathbb{Q}) \cong \mathbb{Z}, \quad E_2(\mathbb{Q}) \cong \{0\}.$$

In general, one can show that $E(\mathbb{Q})$ is finitely generated (Mordell-Weil Theorem), and there exist precise statements about possible group structures (Mazur's theorem), see [38, Chapter VIII].

Exercise 3.21. Let $p > 3$ be a prime, and consider the two elliptic curves

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b, \quad \tilde{E} : y^2 = x^3 + ax - b$$

defined over \mathbb{F}_p .

(a) Assume that $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Show that $\#E(\mathbb{F}_p) = \#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$.

(b) Assume that $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Show that

$$\#E(\mathbb{F}_p) + \#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p) = 2p + 2.$$

Here are some hints/questions that will help find the solution:

- Is -1 a square in \mathbb{F}_p ?
- Let $P = (x_0, y_0) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Is there a point $\tilde{P} = (x_0, \star) \in \tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$? What about $\tilde{P} = (-x_0, \star)$?

3.2 Elliptic curve cryptography

Elliptic curve cryptography started with the idea to work in an elliptic curve group $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ instead of the multiplicative group of a finite field \mathbb{F}_p^* , the hope being that scalar multiplication on elliptic curves is a better one-way function than modular exponentiation. We will see that:

- On the one hand, this is not true. There are elliptic curves (of large prime order) for which scalar multiplication is easy to invert.
- On the other hand, this is very true. In the sense that for well-chosen elliptic curves, the best-known methods to invert scalar multiplications are not better than generic methods that work in any group. In particular, there are no known subexponential algorithms (such as index calculus, Subsection 2.4) that work on any elliptic curve.

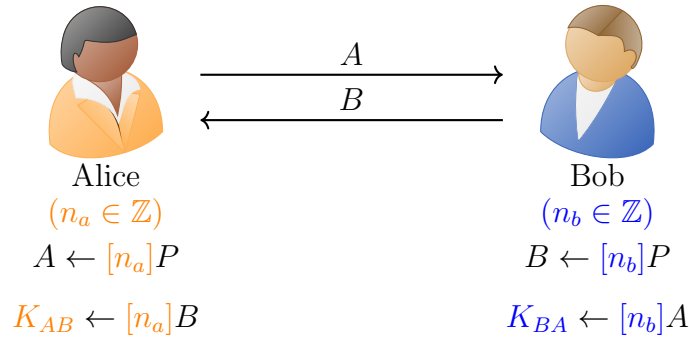


Figure 11: Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman key exchange for some public parameter $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$

Concretely, to obtain a key exchange protocol on elliptic curves, we may simply replace all exponentiations in the Diffie-Hellman protocol (Figure 3) by elliptic curve scalar multiplications. We call the resulting protocol the *Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman key exchange* (ECDH). This is sketched in Figure 11.

Example 3.22. *Alice and Bob want to create a shared session key using ECDH. As a setup they use the curve $E : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 1$ over \mathbb{F}_{13} (see Example 3.5(c)) and the point $P = (0, 1) \in E(\mathbb{F}_{13})$. Recall that $E(\mathbb{F}_{13}) = 19$.*

Alice chooses $n_a = 5$ as her secret key and sends the public key $A = [5]P = (1, 8)$ to Bob.

Bob chooses $n_b = 12$ as his secret key and sends the public key $B = [12]P = (4, 1)$ to Alice.

Now Alice computes $K_{AB} = [n_a]B = [5](4, 1) = (10, 3)$. Similarly Bob computes $K_{BA} = [n_b]A = [12](1, 8) = (10, 3)$.

After this key exchange, Alice and Bob can now use a symmetric crypto system with their shared key $K_{AB} = K_{BA} = (10, 3)$.

In real-world applications, it is required to work with elliptic curves over large fields, and in particular, it is required that they contain a large prime order subgroup. To give an idea of the size of parameters, we provide an example below.

Example 3.23. *The elliptic curve **Secp256k1** is currently used in Bitcoin.⁸ It is defined by an equation of the form*

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + 7, \quad \text{over } \mathbb{F}_p,$$

where p is a prime of bit size 256, and one can check that the order of $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ is prime. The explicit parameters are provided below.

```
sage: p = 0xfffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffefffffc2f
sage: Fp = GF(p)
sage: a = Fp(0)
sage: b = Fp(7)
sage: E = EllipticCurve(Fp, (a, b))
sage: P = E(0x79be667ef9dcbbac55a06295ce870b07029bfcdb2dce28d959f2815b16f81798, 0
x483ada7726a3c4655da4fbfc0e1108a8fd17b448a68554199c47d08ffb10d4b8)
sage: E.set_order(0xfffffffffffffffffffffffffffffffebaaedce6af48a03bbfd25e8cd0364141 * 0x1)
```

The elliptic curve Diffie-Hellman protocol serves as our main motivation in this lecture to study (the conjectured) cryptographic one-way function given by scalar multiplication on elliptic curves. But we remark that the field of Elliptic Curve Cryptography offers further interesting protocols. For example, the ElGamal encryption scheme (Figure 4) may be instantiated with elliptic curves as well. Moreover, there exists an important signature scheme known as ECDSA. And last but not least, there is *pairing-based cryptography* which provides us with further important cryptographic constructions such as tripartite Diffie-Hellman key exchange, ID-based cryptography, and signatures, see for example [16, 5.10].

⁸Bitcoin does not rely on the elliptic curve Diffie-Hellman protocol, but on ECDSA, the Elliptic curve digital signature algorithm.

3.2.1 The elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem (ECDLP)

For our cryptographic applications, we want to use scalar multiplication on elliptic curves as a one-way function, replacing the modular exponentiation from the previous section. We have already seen that scalar multiplication can be evaluated efficiently (Exercise 3.12) using a double and add strategy. For this to be a cryptographic one-way function, we further require that the inversion of scalar multiplication is hard. This is formalized below.

Definition 3.24: Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem (ECDLP)

Let $P \in E(K)$ be a point on an elliptic curve E , and let $Q \in \langle P \rangle$. The *Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem* (ECDLP) is the problem of finding an integer $n_a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $[n_a]P = Q$. The number n_a is called the *discrete logarithm* of Q to the base P , we denote $n_a = \text{dlog}_P(Q)$.

The expression *discrete logarithm* is used in analogy to the definitions of DLP and Group-DLP, even though the group operation on elliptic curves is usually denoted additively.

The important question to study now is the hardness of the ECDLP for different choices of elliptic curves E and points $P \in E$.

Generic methods to solve ECDLP

Clearly, the hardness of the ECDLP depends on the order $N = \text{ord}(P)$. Moreover, the Pohlig-Hellman algorithm (Exercise 2.6) may be applied to this setting as well. Therefore, we prefer to work with a point P of prime order.

As we already mentioned in Subsection 2.5, the baby-step giant-step algorithm and Pollard's rho algorithm are generic algorithms and can be used to solve the Group-DLP in any group \mathbb{G} . In particular, they can be used to solve the ECDLP in time $O(\sqrt{N})$, where $N = \text{ord}(P)$.

Let's sketch the adaption of Pollard's rho algorithm (Algorithm 2) to the setting of elliptic curves. The main ingredient is a map

$$f : \langle P \rangle \times \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \langle P \rangle \times \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$$

which satisfies the properties of Theorem 2.16. To do this, one may choose a splitting $X_1 \cup X_2 \cup X_3 = \langle P \rangle \subset E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ into sets of approximately equal size. For instance, one can achieve this by imposing conditions on the x -coordinate of a point. Then the function f is defined as

$$f : R = [k]P + [\ell]Q \rightarrow R' = \begin{cases} [k]P + [\ell + 1]A & \text{if } R \in X_1, \\ [2k]P + [2\ell]A & \text{if } R \in X_2, \\ [k + 1]P + [\ell]A & \text{if } R \in X_3. \end{cases}$$

To apply Theorem 2.16, and show that the resulting algorithm solves ECDLP in time $O(\sqrt{N})$ (using only a constant amount of memory), we need to rely on the heuristic assumption that f behaves like a random function.

On the other hand, the index calculus method (Subsection 2.4) is specific to solving the DLP in finite fields, and does not apply to the ECDLP.

3.2.2 Pairings of elliptic curves

An important tool in elliptic curve cryptography are *pairings*. In full generality, a pairing e takes as input a pair of points from two groups G_1, G_2 and outputs an element in a third group H :

$$e : G_1 \times G_2 \rightarrow H, \quad (g_1, g_2) \mapsto h = e(g_1, g_2).$$

The map e is required to be bilinear and non-degenerate. In this subsection, we discuss pairings where $G_1 = G_2 = E[N]$ for some elliptic curve E and integer N , and H is the group of N -th roots of unity, μ_N contained in some finite field.

Pairings are a tool that can be used to translate computational problems from the groups G_1, G_2 to problems in the group H . Specifically, in our setting, it allows us to translate the ECDLP to DLP in a

finite field. Depending on the parameters, this can lead to significantly better algorithms to solve ECDLP than the generic ones. We will discuss this in Subsection 3.2.3.

The main purpose of this subsection is to introduce the *Weil pairing*, and discuss important properties. We essentially follow the notation from [38], and refer to the latter for proofs and more details.

Determinant pairing

As a warm-up, let us first consider a different kind of pairing, the *determinant pairing*.

Definition 3.25

Let E over \mathbb{F}_q be an elliptic curve and $N \in \mathbb{N}$ a positive integer which is not divisible by $p = \text{char}(\mathbb{F}_q)$. We write

$$E[N] = \langle T_1, T_2 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z},$$

and define

$$\det : E[N] \times E[N] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}, \quad (aT_1 + bT_2, cT_1 + dT_2) \mapsto ad - bc.$$

We say that \det is the *determinant pairing associated to the basis (T_1, T_2)* .

While it is quite simple, the determinant pairing already has many of the properties that we need for our applications.

Lemma 3.26

The determinant pairing from Definition 3.25 is

(a) bilinear:

$$\begin{aligned} \det(P_1 + P_2, Q) &= \det(P_1, Q) + \det(P_2, Q), \\ \det(P, Q_1 + Q_2) &= \det(P, Q_1) + \det(P, Q_2), \end{aligned}$$

for all $P_1, P_2, Q_1, Q_2 \in E[N]$

(b) alternating:

$$\det(P, P) = 0 \quad \text{for all } P \in E[N].$$

(c) nondegenerate:

$$\text{If } \det(P, Q) = 0 \text{ for all } P \in E[N], \text{ then } Q = 0.$$

Proof. The properties of the determinant pairing follow from the properties of the determinant (here of 2×2 matrices). We make this explicit for the first property (linearity in the first component).

Let P_1, P_2, Q be arbitrary points in $E[N]$. We denote

$$P_1 = \alpha_1 T_1 + \beta_1 T_2, \quad P_2 = \alpha_2 T_1 + \beta_2 T_2, \quad Q = \gamma T_1 + \delta T_2.$$

Then

$$\det(P_1 + P_2, Q) = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)\delta - (\beta_1 + \beta_2)\gamma = (\alpha_1\delta - \beta_1\gamma) + (\alpha_2\delta - \beta_2\gamma) = \det(P_1, Q) + \det(P_2, Q)$$

The proofs of the remaining properties are left as an exercise to the reader. □

An important consequence of Lemma 3.26 is the following:

Corollary 3.27

Let \det be the determinant pairing on $E[N]$ with respect to some basis (T_1, T_2) . Further, let $P \in E[N]$ and $Q \in \langle P \rangle$. Then

$$\det(Q, T) = \text{dlog}_P(Q) \cdot \det(P, T) \quad (\text{in } \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})$$

for all points $T \in E[N]$.

This corollary allows us to reduce the ECDLP to a Group-DLP in the (additive!) group $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$, provided that we have an efficient way of evaluating \det . It would suffice to compute $\det(Q, T)$ and $\det(P, T)$ for some point T with $\det(P, T) \in (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$ (convince yourself that such a T exists, and that this allows you to efficiently compute $\text{dlog}_P(Q)$).

Unfortunately (or fortunately for elliptic curve cryptography), we do not know how to evaluate the determinant pairing efficiently on arbitrary input. The naive strategy would be to apply the definition. However this requires finding a representation in terms of the basis elements for an arbitrary point P , i.e. a representation $P = aT_1 + bT_2$. If we knew how to find such representations efficiently, then we could also solve the ECDLP. So we have not gained anything so far.

Weil pairing

We now turn our attention to the Weil pairing. This pairing was introduced by André Weil in 1940 [45] for the more general setting of Jacobians of algebraic curves - elliptic curves are a special case. It shares similar properties with the determinant pairing, but it is more intrinsic (there is no need to fix a basis). Most importantly, for cryptography, there exists an algorithm to compute it efficiently.

Notation 3.28: Weil pairing

Let E over \mathbb{F}_q be an elliptic curve, and $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ a positive integer coprime to $\text{char}(K) = p$. Further let $\mu_N \subset \bar{\mathbb{F}}_q$ be the group of N -th roots of unity. We denote by

$$e_N : E[N] \times E[N] \rightarrow \mu_N$$

the *Weil pairing*.

The formal definition of the Weil pairing already requires a good amount of algebraic geometry. We will not provide this definition here, instead, we first describe some properties of the pairing, and then provide an Algorithm to compute it (Algorithm 6), which could be used as a definition of the pairing. Formal definitions can for instance be found in [16, Section 5.8] or [38, Section III.8].

Proposition 3.29: [38, Proposition III.8.1]

The Weil pairing

$$e_N : E[N] \times E[N] \rightarrow \mu_N$$

satisfies the following properties

(a) bilinear:

$$\begin{aligned} e_N(P_1 + P_2, Q) &= e_N(P_1, Q)e_N(P_2, Q), \\ e_N(P, Q_1 + Q_2) &= e_N(P, Q_1)e_N(P, Q_2). \end{aligned}$$

(b) alternating:

$$e_N(P, P) = 1.$$

(c) nondegenerate:

$$\text{If } e_N(P, Q) = 1 \text{ for all } P \in E[N], \text{ then } Q = 0.$$

We note that [38, Proposition III.8.1] describes more properties of the Weil pairing which are not needed for our applications.

Exercise 3.30. Let $e_N : E[N] \times E[N] \rightarrow \mu_N$ be a pairing satisfying the properties from Proposition 3.29. Show that

$$e_N(P, Q) = e_N(Q, P)^{-1},$$

for all $P, Q \in E[N]$.

Recall that the determinant pairing takes values in the additive group $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ whereas the Weil pairing takes values in the multiplicative group μ_N . The relation between the two pairings can be made very explicit:

Exercise 3.31. Let $e_N : E[N] \times E[N] \rightarrow \mu_N$ be the Weil pairing, and $\det : E[N] \times E[N] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ be the determinant pairing with respect to some basis (T_1, T_2) . Further denote

$$\mu = e_N(T_1, T_2) \in \mu_N.$$

Show that

$$e_N(P, Q) = \mu^{\det(P, Q)} \quad \text{for all } P, Q \in E[N].$$

Hint: Use the properties of the Weil pairing from Proposition 3.29.

For small N , we can write down the Weil pairing directly. Below, we describe the case $N = 2$.

Example 3.32. Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ be an elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_q , and denote

$$x^3 + ax + b = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)(x - \alpha_3) \quad \text{over } \overline{\mathbb{F}}_q.$$

Recall from Example 3.15 that the 2-torsion is given by

$$E[2] = \langle (\alpha_1, 0), (\alpha_2, 0) \rangle.$$

We denote

$$P_0 = \infty, \quad P_1 = (\alpha_1, 0), \quad P_2 = (\alpha_2, 0), \quad P_3 = (\alpha_3, 0).$$

Then the pairing

$$e_2 : E[2] \times E[2] \rightarrow \{\pm 1\},$$

$$(P_i, P_j) \mapsto \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \text{ or } 0 \in \{i, j\} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

satisfies the properties from Proposition 3.29, i.e. it is bilinear, alternating and nondegenerate.

Evaluating the Weil pairing

This part is dedicated to the description of an algorithm to compute the Weil pairing. For completeness, we will sometimes mention divisors in this part of the lecture notes. This is meant as additional information for students who have some familiarity with algebraic geometry, and should help to provide some intuition for the definition of the algorithm. But we recall that this is not a prerequisite, and one may simply ignore these additional comments. Furthermore, if one is willing to accept that there is a way to efficiently evaluate the Weil pairing, one may also skip this rather technical part of the lecture notes, and continue reading with the part *Embedding degree*.

The main ingredient of the evaluation algorithm is Miller's algorithm (Algorithm 5). Before stating this algorithm, we introduce the following notation.

Notation 3.33

Let $P = (x_P, y_P)$, $Q = (x_Q, y_Q)$ be affine points on some elliptic curve E , and let m be the slope of the line connecting P, Q , i.e. $m = \frac{y_Q - y_P}{x_Q - x_P}$ if $x_P \neq x_Q$; $m = \frac{3x_P^2 + a}{2y_P}$ if $P = Q$ with $y_P \neq 0$; and $m = \infty$ otherwise.

We set

$$h_{P,Q} = \begin{cases} \frac{y - y_P - m(x - x_P)}{x + x_P + x_Q - m^2} & \text{if } m \neq \infty, \\ x - x_P & \text{if } m = \infty. \end{cases}$$

Note that $h_{P,Q}$ is a function in two variables x, y , and formally, it should be viewed as an element in the function field of the elliptic curve E (see for example [38, §I.1]). In particular, we are only interested in evaluations of the function $h_{P,Q}$ in points on the elliptic curve. Remark 3.34 provides some observations about the evaluation of $h_{P,Q}$ at P, Q and $P + Q$ that motivate its definition. A more precise characterization (using some terminology from algebraic geometry) is then provided in Remark 3.35.

Remark 3.34. *Let P, Q be affine points on some elliptic curve E . In this remark, we want to explain the following two properties of $h_{P,Q}$ in an elementary way (i.e. without using tools from algebraic geometry).*

$$\begin{aligned} (i) \quad & h_{P,Q}(P) = h_{P,Q}(Q) = 0 \\ (ii) \quad & h_{P,Q}(P + Q) = \infty. \end{aligned}$$

In other words, $h_{P,Q}$ vanishes at P and Q and has a pole at $P + Q$. We show this under the simplifying assumption: $P + Q \notin \{-P, -Q, -P - Q\}$.

First assume that $m \neq \infty$, and denote $P + Q = (x_{P+Q}, y_{P+Q})$. Note that $x_{P+Q} = m^2 - x_P - x_Q$ as per Theorem 3.7. Using this information, we find

$$h_{P,Q}(P) = \frac{0}{x_P - x_{P+Q}} = 0, \quad h_{P,Q}(Q) = \frac{y_Q - y_P - m(x_Q - x_P)}{x_Q - x_{P+Q}} = \frac{0}{x_Q - x_{P+Q}} = 0.$$

Here, we used that $x_P \neq x_{P+Q}$ and $x_Q \neq x_{P+Q}$ since $P + Q \notin \{-P, -Q\}$ by assumption, and $P + Q \notin \{P, Q\}$ since P and Q are affine points.

Furthermore,

$$h_{P,Q}(P + Q) = \frac{y_{P+Q} - y_P - m(x_{P+Q} - x_P)}{0}$$

We need to check that the numerator does not vanish. For this, we again use that $x_P \neq x_{P+Q}$ and write the numerator as

$$\left(\frac{y_{P+Q} - y_P}{x_{P+Q} - x_P} - m \right) (x_{P+Q} - x_P).$$

Note that $m' = \frac{y_{P+Q} - y_P}{x_{P+Q} - x_P}$ is the slope of the line through P and $P + Q$. The two slopes m and m' are equal if and only if P, Q and $P + Q$ lie on the same line. However, we know that P, Q and $-(P + Q)$ lie on the same line (cf. Remark 3.9), hence the only possibility is that $P + Q = -(P + Q)$ which is excluded by the assumptions.

Now assume $m = \infty$. Then $x_P = x_Q$, and it follows that

$$h_{P,Q}(P) = x_P - x_P = 0, \quad h_{P,Q}(Q) = x_Q - x_P = 0.$$

Moreover, $P + Q = \infty$ (case (c) in Theorem 3.7). Intuitively, it seems clear that in this case $x_{P+Q} = \infty$ and $h_{P,Q}(P + Q) = \infty - x_P = \infty$. To make this rigorous, it is necessary to use more formal arguments as in Remark 3.35.

Remark 3.35. *The statements from Remark 3.34 can be made more precise by saying that $h_{P,Q}$ vanishes to order one at P and Q (if $P = Q$, the order of vanishing is two), it has poles of order one at $P + Q$ and ∞ (again if $P + Q = \infty$, this pole has order two), and these are the only zeros and poles of the function.*

Formally, one denotes

$$\operatorname{div}(h_{P,Q}) = (P) + (Q) - (P + Q) - (\infty).$$

This is a formal sum of points on the elliptic curve. It is called the divisor associated to $h_{P,Q}$, where the zeros of the function appear with a positive sign, $+$, and the poles with a negative sign, $-$.

We refer to [38, Theorem XI.8.1(a)] for a proof of this statement, and to [38, Section II.3] for the definition of divisors.

We are now ready to describe Miller's algorithm.

Algorithm 5 Miller's algorithm (optionally evaluation at a point)

Input: $P \in E(K)[N]$, (optional: $R \in E(K)$)

Output: $f_P, (f_P(R))$

```

1:  $(e_0 e_1 \dots e_n)_2 \leftarrow N$ , ▷  $N = e_0 + e_1 \cdot 2 + \dots + e_n \cdot 2^n, e_n = 1$ 
2:  $T \leftarrow P$ 
3:  $f \leftarrow 1$ 
4: for  $i = n - 1$  down to 0 do
5:    $f \leftarrow f^2 \cdot h_{T,T}, (f^2 \cdot h_{T,T}(R))$ 
6:    $T \leftarrow [2]T$ 
7:   if  $e_i = 1$  then
8:      $f \leftarrow f \cdot h_{T,P}, (f \cdot h_{T,P}(R))$ 
9:      $T \leftarrow T + P$ 
10:  end if
11: end for
12: return  $f$ 

```

For the first look at Algorithm 5, we ignore the optional parameter $R \in E(K)$ (i.e. ignore the orange text in parentheses everywhere). Then the output of Miller's algorithm is a function f_P with divisor

$$\text{div}(f_P) = N \cdot (P) - N \cdot (\infty).$$

This means f_P vanishes to order N at P , and has a pole of order N at infinity. Again, it is best to show this using the theory of divisors. The key ingredient is the description of $h_{P,Q}$ from Remark 3.35. A proof can be found in [38, Theorem XI.8.1(b)].

We note that the outline of the algorithm is similar to the double-and-add algorithm for efficient scalar multiplication on elliptic curves (see Exercise 3.12). In particular, the function f_P is computed in $n \approx \log_2(N)$ steps.

In applications, we usually don't require to know the function f_P explicitly, instead, we are only interested in the evaluation of the function at some specific points. It is faster to perform this evaluation at each step of Miller's algorithm, instead of computing the function, and evaluating it in the end. This variant of the algorithm requires modifications in Lines 5 and 8. The modifications are provided in the text in orange in Algorithm 5.

Finally, we can describe an algorithm to compute the Weil pairing which requires four calls to Miller's algorithm (it can be implemented more efficiently in practice).

Algorithm 6 Computing the Weil pairing with Miller's algorithm

Input: $P, Q \in E(K)[N]$

Output: $e_N(P, Q) \in \mu_N$

```

1:  $S \xleftarrow{\$} E(K) \setminus E[N]$  ▷ If there is no such point, it is required to extend the base field.
2:  $a \leftarrow f_P(Q + S)$  ▷ Miller's algorithm
3:  $b \leftarrow f_P(S)$  ▷ Miller's algorithm
4:  $c \leftarrow f_Q(P - S)$  ▷ Miller's algorithm
5:  $d \leftarrow f_Q(-S)$  ▷ Miller's algorithm
6: return  $\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{d}{c}$ 

```

As mentioned before, it is beyond the scope of this course, to show that Algorithm 6 really computes a pairing. It is not even easy to see that given two N -torsion points P, Q , the output is an N -th root of unity. A proof is given in [38, Section XI.8; Exercise 3.16]. Finally, we remark that the formula underlying Algorithm 6 can be used to provide a hands-on definition for the Weil pairing. This idea is followed in [16, Section 5.8.3].

Embedding degree

So far, we have established that there is a pairing $E[N] \times E[N] \rightarrow \mu_N$ that can be computed *efficiently*, more precisely in $O(\log_2(N))$ steps. An important question that we have not discussed so far concerns the embedding of the N -th roots of unity into \mathbb{F}_q . *What is the smallest field \mathbb{F}_{q^d} containing μ_N ?*

Recall that $\mathbb{F}_{q^d}^*$ is a cyclic group of order $q^d - 1$, hence it contains an element of order N if and only if $N \mid q^d - 1$.

Definition 3.36

Let N be a positive integer, and \mathbb{F}_q a finite field. The smallest value d with $N \mid q^d - 1$ is called the *embedding degree* of N in \mathbb{F}_q .

If $\gcd(N, q - 1) = 1$, then one can even show that all N -torsion points are defined over \mathbb{F}_{q^d} , where d is the embedding degree of N . In other words, in this case we have $E[N] \subset E(\mathbb{F}_{q^d})$ (see [38, Lemma XI.6.2]).

When evaluating the Weil pairing, we need to compute over \mathbb{F}_{q^d} . It is necessary to take this into account when talking about the efficiency of the evaluation of the Weil pairing.

Example 3.37. We look at the embedding degrees of the two examples from the beginning of the subsection.

- (a) Example 3.22: Here $E(\mathbb{F}_{13}) = 19$, and the smallest integer d with $19 \mid 13^d - 1$ is $d = 18$.
- (b) Example 3.23: Here $E(\mathbb{F}_p) = N$ is a prime of size $N \approx 2^{256}$. And one can check⁹ that for the explicit parameters the embedding degree is $d = 19298681539552699237261830834781317975472927379845817397100860523586360249056$, in particular $d \approx 2^{253}$.

Exercise 3.38. Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + 1$ over \mathbb{F}_p for some $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. Consider some point $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ of order $\text{ord}(P) = N$. Determine the embedding degree of N in \mathbb{F}_p .

Hint: Use Lemma 3.17.

3.2.3 The MOV Attack

In 1991, Alfred Menezes, Scott Vanstone and Tatsuaki Okamoto showed that the Weil pairing can be used to translate the ECDLP on E to a DLP problem in \mathbb{F}_{q^d} , where d is the embedding degree of N in \mathbb{F}_q . This attack on the ECDLP is known as the *MOV attack* (Algorithm 7).

Algorithm 7 The Menezes-Okamoto-Vanstone (MOV) algorithm

Input: $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ with $\text{ord}(P) = N$, $Q \in \langle P \rangle$, and $\gcd(q - 1, N) = 1$.

Output: $g, A \in \mathbb{F}_{q^d}^*$ with $\text{dlog}_g(A) = \text{dlog}_P(Q)$ and $\text{ord}(g) = N$.

- 1: $d \leftarrow$ embedding degree of N in \mathbb{F}_q
 - 2: Determine the group structure $E(\mathbb{F}_{q^d}) \cong \mathbb{Z}/N_1\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/N_2\mathbb{Z}$ ▷ Proposition 3.18
 - 3: **while** True **do**
 - 4: $T \xleftarrow{\$} E(\mathbb{F}_{q^d})$
 - 5: $T \leftarrow [N_1/N] \cdot T$
 - 6: $g \leftarrow e_N(P, T) \in \mu_N \subset \mathbb{F}_{q^d}^*$ ▷ Algorithm 6
 - 7: **if** $\text{ord}(g) = N$ **then**
 - 8: **break**
 - 9: **end if**
 - 10: **end while**
 - 11: $A \leftarrow e_N(Q, T) \in \mu_N \subset \mathbb{F}_{q^d}^*$ ▷ Algorithm 6
 - 12: **return** (g, A)
-

⁹See for example <https://neuromancer.sk/std/secg/secp256k1>

In the following, we prove correctness of the algorithm. The concrete running time depends on the embedding degree d (see Remark 3.41).

Theorem 3.39

Let E/\mathbb{F}_q be an elliptic curve, N with $\gcd(q-1, N) = 1$, $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)[N]$ and $Q \in \langle P \rangle$, and let d be the embedding degree of N in \mathbb{F}_q . Then Algorithm 7 reduces the ECDLP for P and Q to a DLP in $\mathbb{F}_{q^d}^*$.

Proof. We first make an observation similar to Corollary 3.27: For any $T \in E[N]$ it holds that

$$e_N(Q, T) = e_N(P, T)^{\text{dlog}_P(Q)}.$$

This follows from the bilinearity of the Weil pairing. Setting $g = e_N(P, T)$ and $A = e_N(Q, T)$, this shows that

$$\text{dlog}_P(Q) = \text{dlog}_g(A) \pmod{\text{ord}(g)} \quad (3)$$

However note that this could be an empty statement, if for instance $g = e_N(P, T) = 1$. Therefore we require that T is a point for which $e_N(P, T)$ is a primitive N -th root of unity in order to obtain a unique solution modulo N .

The *while-loop* (Lines 3 to 10) ensures that we choose a point $T \in E[N]$ so that $e_N(P, T)$ is a primitive N -th root of unity. First a random point $T \in E(\mathbb{F}_{q^d})$ is chosen which is then multiplied by $[N_1/N]$ so that the resulting point is an N -torsion point. The probability that $g = e_N(P, T)$ is a primitive N -th root for a random point $T \in E[N]$ is quite high (especially if N is prime), see Exercise 3.40. So we will find a valid point T after a few iterations.

The correctness of the output now follows from Equation 3. □

In the following exercise, we analyze the “failure probability” in the while-loop of Algorithm 7. Essentially, it follows from the results of the exercise that with high probability only one iteration is required if N is prime.

Exercise 3.40. Let $P \in E[N]$ a point of order N on an elliptic curve over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q , where $q = p^k$ and $p \nmid N$.

(a) First assume that N is prime. Show that

$$\#\{T \in E[N] \mid \text{ord}(g) = N \text{ where } g = e_N(P, T)\} = N(N-1),$$

and conclude that the probability that $e_N(P, T)$ is a primitive root of unity for a point $T \in E[N]$ chosen uniformly at random is $(N-1)/N$.

(b) Now let $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ be an arbitrary positive integer. Compute the proportion of points $T \in E[N]$ so that $e_N(P, T)$ is a primitive N -th root of unity.

Remark 3.41. The efficiency of the MOV attack crucially depends on the embedding degree of N in \mathbb{F}_q . On the bright side (for elliptic curve cryptography), for a randomly chosen elliptic curve, the embedding degree is so high that it is harder to solve DLP in \mathbb{F}_{q^d} than to directly solve the original ECDLP (the distribution of embedding degrees has been analyzed by Ramachandran Balasubramanian and Neal Koblitz [2]).

However, there exist classes of elliptic curves that have a very low embedding degree. In particular so-called supersingular elliptic curves which always have embedding degree $d = 2$ (for any $N \mid \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$). In this case, the MOV algorithm reduces the ECDLP on E/\mathbb{F}_p to a DLP in \mathbb{F}_{p^2} . The latter problem can be solved in subexponential time using index calculus (Subsection 2.4). Therefore such curves need to be avoided in the elliptic curve Diffie-Hellman protocol. Curiously, they play an important role in other cryptographic constructions, such as pairing-based cryptography and isogeny-based cryptography (Section 4).

For a secure implementation one chooses elliptic curves with high embedding degree (see for instance the curve **Secp256k1** in Example 3.37). To illustrate the MOV attack, we choose an example below, where the embedding degree is small.

Example 3.42. Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + x$ over \mathbb{F}_{67} . One can check that $E(\mathbb{F}_p) = 68 = 4 \cdot 17$ (this is sketched in Figure 12). Let $P = (64, 29)$, this is a point of order 17. Say we are given the ECDLP challenge $Q = (6, 50)$, i.e. we want to determine $n_a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $[n_a]P = Q$.

To apply the MOV attack, we first observe that the embedding degree is $d = 2$, since $67^2 - 1 = 4488 \equiv 0 \pmod{17}$. So we need to consider E defined over $\mathbb{F}_{67^2} = \mathbb{F}_{67}(i)$ with $i^2 = -1$.

We compute $n = E(\mathbb{F}_{67^2}) = 2^4 17^2$, and it turns out that the group structure is given by $E(\mathbb{F}_{67^2}) \cong \mathbb{Z}/(4 \cdot 17)\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/(4 \cdot 17)\mathbb{Z}$. In order to sample a random point of order 17, we first sample a random point:

- $T \leftarrow (6i + 9, 26i + 24) \in E(\mathbb{F}_{67^2})$,

and then multiply it by the cofactor $N_1/N = 4$:

- $T \leftarrow 4 \cdot T = (11i + 37, 22i + 42)$.

Now, we compute the Weil pairing $g = e_{17}(P, T) = 39i + 50 \in \mathbb{F}_{67^2}$, which is a primitive 17th root of unity.

Finally, we compute $A = e_{17}(Q, T) = 46i + 30$, and solve the DLP instance in \mathbb{F}_{67^2} :

$$n_a = \text{dlog}_g(A) = \text{dlog}_{39i+50}(46i + 30) = 14.$$

And one can check that indeed $Q = [14]P$.

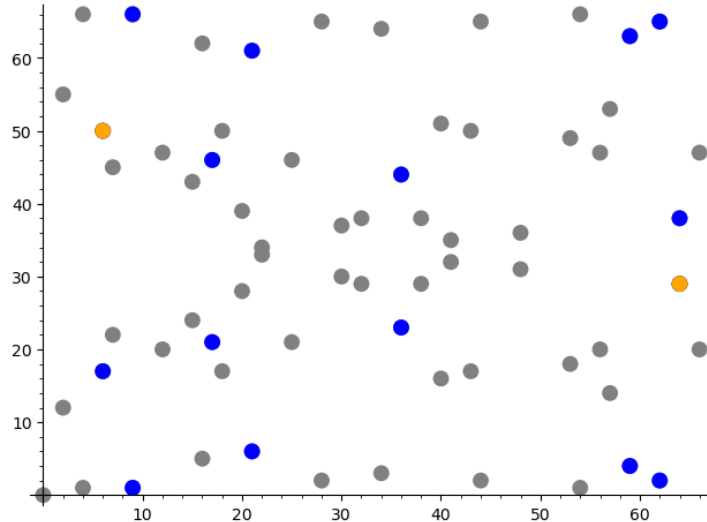


Figure 12: The points in $E(\mathbb{F}_{67})$ from Example 3.42. The points in the subgroup $\langle P \rangle$ are sketched in blue, and the challenge points P, Q are sketched in orange.

3.2.4 Weak parameters for the ECDLP

Generic attacks, like Pollard's rho method are asymptotically the best known attacks to solve the ECDLP on an arbitrary elliptic curve. However, several better algorithms are known that only apply to specific parameters. An important example is the MOV attack that we described in Subsection 3.2.3. Here, we provide a non-exhaustive list of choices that should be *avoided* (or at least require a larger group order), and provide a reference to the known attacks that apply in these cases. For this purpose, denote $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ for some elliptic curve E , some prime power $q = p^k$, and $\text{ord}(P) = N$.

1. N is smooth: In this case, the Pohlig-Hellman algorithm can be applied. The difficulty of solving ECDLP only depends on the largest prime factor of N (see Subsection 3.2.1).
2. $q^d \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ for some small d : The minimal integer d with $N \mid q^d - 1$ is called the embedding degree of N . The ECDLP for E/\mathbb{F}_q can be reduced to the DLP in $\mathbb{F}_{q^d}^*$. Recall that the latter can be solved in subexponential time in the size of the field \mathbb{F}_{q^d} (Subsection 2.4). If d is small, then this provides us with a subexponential algorithm to solve ECDLP (see Subsection 3.2.3).

3. $N = p$: An elliptic curve with $E(\mathbb{F}_p) = p$ is called anomalous. In this case, the ECDLP can be reduced to computing the Group-DLP in the additive (!) group $(\mathbb{F}_p, +)$ which can be solved in polynomial time. This attack was presented in concurrent articles by Takakazu Satoh and Kiyomichi Araki [32], Igor Semaev [33] and Nigel Smart [39].

Interestingly, the attack relies on some abstract concepts in the theory of elliptic curves: One needs to consider a lift of the elliptic curve to the p -adics \mathbb{Q}_p , and perform computations in the formal group. The mathematical prerequisites for understanding this attack can be found in [38, Chapter VII].

4. $q = p^k$ for $k > 2$: There are several attack strategies to solve the ECDLP faster than with a generic algorithm when the finite field \mathbb{F}_q is not a prime field. The first one, was introduced by Gerhard Frey [11] who had the idea to use *Weil descent* in order to translate the discrete logarithm problem for E over \mathbb{F}_q to a Group-DLP on a higher dimensional *abelian variety* over \mathbb{F}_q .

In a similar gist, Pierrick Gaudry developed a variant of the index-calculus attack with factor base the set of points $\{P = (x_i, y_i) \mid x_i \in \mathbb{F}_p\}$, [14]. For fixed k , the complexity of the resulting algorithm is $\tilde{O}(p^{2-2/k})$ which is better than Pollard's rho approach when $k > 2$. There are many interesting follow-up works of these two papers.

We would like to highlight that the mathematics underlying the attacks of the ECDLP problem are significantly more advanced than the mathematical prerequisites necessary to construct the elliptic-curve Diffie-Hellman scheme. It is fascinating that some fairly abstract concepts from algebraic geometry find such concrete and practical applications in the analysis of modern cryptographic protocols.

3.2.5 Invalid curve attack

The *invalid curve attack* is a type of attack on the elliptic-curve Diffie-Hellman protocol that cannot be avoided by a good choice of parameters. Instead, it requires either a (small) change in the protocol, or a more clever implementation. This type of attack was first proposed by Ingrid Biehl, Bernd Meyer and Volker Müller in the year 2000 [5].

Assume that

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \quad \text{over } \mathbb{F}_q$$

and $P \in \mathbb{F}_q$ with $\text{ord}(P) = N$ are well chosen parameters for an ECDH key exchange. Further let

$$E' : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b' \quad \text{over } \mathbb{F}_q$$

be another elliptic curve which has a point $P' = (x', y')$ of order m with $1 < m \ll N$. Consider the scenario sketched in Figure 13.

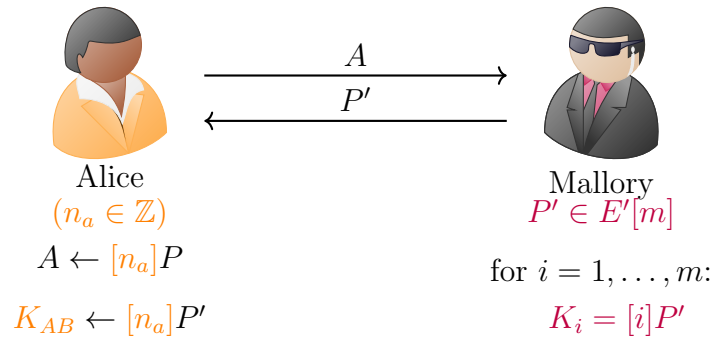


Figure 13: Invalid curve attack with public parameters $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$

Alice thinks she is communicating with Bob, and performs all computations as usual. On the other side, there is a malicious member (Mallory) who instead of sending an honestly generated public key, sends the point P' to Alice. Alice does not notice that $P' \notin E(\mathbb{F}_q)$. Note that the addition and doubling formulas are the same on the curves E and E' . They only depend on the coefficient a , and not on the constant term b (cf. Theorem 3.7). This means that Alice computes the value

$$K_{AB} = [n_a]P' \in \langle P' \rangle \subset E'[m].$$

Since the order $\text{ord}(P') = m$ is small by assumption, Mallory can compute all possible shared keys $K_1 = [1]P', \dots, K_m = [m]P'$ and simply test which one is correct (for example when Alice uses the key to encrypt a message). This reveals Alice's secret key modulo m . Repeating the attack modulo enough small values m_i , Mallory can recover the entire secret key $n_a \pmod{N}$.

Exercise 3.43. [SAGE](#) In this exercise, you are Mallory and your goal is to recover Alice's key using the invalid curve attack.¹⁰ You are using the elliptic curve

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + x + 25, \quad \text{over } \mathbb{F}_p$$

with parameters $p = 18446744073709551629$ and $P = (100, 6701093164194334038) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ with prime order $\text{ord}(P) = 18446744070571455341$.

Alice's public key is $A = (10301126922579099648, 17157096027455143833)$

- You (Mallory) send the point $P_1 = (18165116349323561130, 6150811377566577555)$. Check that $P_1 \notin E(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Find the (unique) parameter b_1 so that P_1 is on the curve $E_1 : y^2 = x^3 + x + b_1$. What is the order of P_1 ? Compute all possible values for $[a]P_1$ (without computing the secret key a).
- By checking all possible values for $[a]P_1$, you find that Alice computed the "shared" session key $K_{AB1} = (18446744073709551626, 5458368549901343073)$. What can you conclude about the value of a ?
- You continue sending more maliciously generated public keys. The points P_i sent by you and the value of Alice's corresponding session keys $K_{AB,i}$ are collected in the table below. What is Alice's secret key?

Point P_i	shared key $K_{AB,i}$
(18165116349323561130, 6150811377566577555)	(18446744073709551626, 5458368549901343073)
(16395352116619970353, 6034018393034262788)	(16718172481871216672, 1183835131033830123)
(12524092530016578390, 5123067425181934705)	(14160835454605074121, 3060569204740460707)
(4516937973540258973, 7005509288484349242)	(8040943336447228867, 13169014645599232942)
(15975665384073761733, 11032318707512935771)	(13311443695356568982, 15843145926225201761)
(7142461303424024564, 6616795770963544980)	(15087812134455913873, 4833814421951071352)
(15087812134455913873, 4833814421951071352)	(5030474179534288684, 4948558071821812509)
(9450845281388796607, 5731912410853213485)	(7134676168471120217, 6089059990139022202)
(5131031356309480317, 13835549974890579026)	(13275501062262900275, 10650377260320625285)

Clearly, for a secure key exchange, it is necessary to thwart such an attack. We describe two potential counter measures:

- Public key validation:** An easy way to avoid these kind of attacks is to check if the public key is a valid point on the curve. Explicitly, in the scenario in Figure 13, upon receiving the point $P' = (x', y')$ from Mallory, Alice would check whether P' is on the curve E or not. In the sketched scenario, she would find that

$$y'^2 = x'^3 + ax' + b' \neq x'^3 + ax' + b,$$

since $b \neq b'$, and abort the key exchange. At the expense of a few additional computations, this completely prevents the invalid curve attack.

- x -only arithmetic** Another solution is that Alice and Bob represent their public key point $B = (x_B, y_B)$ and $A = (x_A, y_A)$ only by their x -coordinates, x_A and x_B respectively. Note that the x -coordinates defines the elliptic curve point up to a sign. This means that using only the x -coordinate, Alice and Bob can compute $K_{AB} = K_{BA} = (x_{AB}, y_{AB})$ up to a sign, in other words, they would use the x -coordinate x_{AB} as the shared key. *How can they perform these computations?*

- Say Alice receives Bob's public key x_B . She can then compute the possible y -coordinates by solving $\pm y_B = \sqrt{x_B^3 + ax_B + b}$. She has no way of knowing which of y_B and $-y_B$ is

¹⁰The parameters chosen in the example are still smaller than for real-world applications (cf. Example 3.23), but sage will already struggle to compute the discrete logarithm from scratch.

the correct solution, but she may just proceed with any of the two solutions to compute $K'_{AB} = (x_{AB}, y'_{AB})$ with the usual formulas. The resulting x_{AB} does not depend on the choice of $\pm y_B$.

Note that taking square-roots is a relatively expensive computations, and for an efficient implementation, it is not a good idea to use this approach.

- The x -coordinate x_{AB} can be computed more efficiently. Phrased more abstractly, we just saw that scalar multiplication is well-defined on the level of x -coordinates. One can show that there exist explicit formulas that given the x -coordinate $x(P)$ of a point P and an integer m , output the x -coordinate $x([m]P)$ (see also Example 3.44 and Exercise 3.46). This concept is known under the name *x -only arithmetic*. Indeed, it turns out that in practice using x -only arithmetic is often faster than using the “normal” addition formulas. Note that the latter is independent of the invalid curve attack and thwarting this attack is just an additional benefit of using x -only arithmetic.

Even though this attack was already discovered in the year 2000, there were still some more recent implementations that did not use any of the above mentioned countermeasures which led to serious security vulnerabilities in real-world applications, see for example [17].

Remark 3.44. Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ be an elliptic curve over some field K , and let $P \in E(K) \setminus E[2]$. Then

$$x([2]P) = \frac{(3x(P)^2 + a)^2}{4(x(P)^3 + ax(P) + b)} - 2x(P).$$

As before, $x(P)$ denotes the x -coordinate of P , and $x([2]P)$ is the x -coordinate of the point $[2]P$. Similarly, we also denote $y(P)$ for the y -coordinate.

The formula is deduced from Theorem 3.7 (case (b)). Note that we replaced $y(P)^2$ in the denominator of m^2 by $x(P)^3 + ax(P) + b$.

Remark 3.45. While scalar multiplication is well-defined on the level of x -coordinates, this is not true for point addition. For instance assume you are given $x_P = x(P)$, $x_Q = x(Q)$ for some points $P, Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_q) \setminus E[2]$ with $P \neq Q$. There are two possible points with each given x -coordinate. Denote

$$P^+ = (x_P, +y_P), \quad P^- = (x_P, -y_P), \quad Q^+ = (x_Q, +y_Q), \quad Q^- = (x_Q, -y_Q).$$

Using the formulas from Theorem 3.7, we observe that

$$x(P^+ + Q^+) = x(P^- + Q^-) \neq x(P^+ + Q^-) = x(P^- + Q^+).$$

There is no way of knowing which of the results is correct.

Exercise 3.46. Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ be an elliptic curve. Find a formula that computes $x([3]P)$ from $x(P)$ and the curve constants a, b .

4 Isogeny-based cryptography

Isogeny-based cryptography is a relatively new and very active research topic in modern cryptography. It belongs to the research area of *post-quantum cryptography* which aims to develop cryptographic primitives that are secure against attacks from quantum computers. While today’s quantum computers are not powerful enough, it is known that they can perform certain types of computations significantly faster than traditional computers. In 1997 Peter Shor published an article solving prime factorization and discrete logarithm in quantum polynomial time [36]. This means that once a powerful enough computer is built,¹¹ the public key cryptosystems that are used today become insecure.

In the search of new *post-quantum cryptographic one-way functions*, several ideas are being studied at the moment. The main areas are: lattice-based cryptography, code-based cryptography, multivariate cryptography, hash-based cryptography, isogeny-based cryptography.

In the following, we will discuss the last candidate *isogeny-based cryptography*. We start by first studying a more abstract framework so-called *cryptographic group actions*. This allows us to phrase a generalization

¹¹It should be noted that there is no consensus in the scientific community about a prediction, when this would happen.

of the Diffie-Hellman protocol to group actions. Then, we introduce the concept of isogenies between elliptic curves. And finally, we see an example of an isogeny-based cryptographic key exchange scheme which is based on a commutative group action: *Commutative Supersingular Isogeny Diffie-Hellman (CSIDH)*.

4.1 Cryptographic group actions

There exists different terminology in the literature concerning the description of group actions in cryptography. We will mostly follow the framework of *cryptographic group actions* proposed by Navid Alamati, Luca De Feo, Hart Montgomery and Sikhar Patranabis in [1]. An earlier work by Jean-Marc Couveignes uses the notion of *hard homogeneous spaces* instead [8]. Interestingly, this paper was already written in 1997 (before the “invention” of post-quantum cryptography), and already contains many of the ideas that we will present in this section. Nevertheless, the potential of these ideas had not been realized at that time, and it was not accepted for publication at one of the main cryptography conferences in that year.

Group actions

Group actions appear naturally in different mathematical disciplines. For example in linear algebra, one studies the action of the general linear group $\text{GL}(n, K)$ or of the orthogonal group $\text{O}(n, K)$ on the vector space K^n . In geometry, one studies the action of the symmetric group of a polyhedron on its vertices, edges and faces. And also in this lecture, we have already encountered some group actions (without explicitly mentioning it). Before we make this precise, we recall the formal definition.

Definition 4.1: Group action

Let (\mathbb{G}, \circ) be a group with neutral element id , and let \mathcal{X} be a set. A map

$$\star : \mathbb{G} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$$

is called **group action** if the following two properties are satisfied

- Identity: $id \star x = x$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$.
- Compatibility: $(g_1 \circ g_2) \star x = g_1 \star (g_2 \star x)$ for all $g_1, g_2 \in \mathbb{G}$ and $x \in \mathcal{X}$.

Furthermore, a group action is called **regular**, if for all $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$, there exists precisely one $g \in \mathbb{G}$ so that $y = g \star x$. We say that the group action is **commutative** if the group \mathbb{G} is commutative.

Example 4.2. Given a cyclic group with N elements, then there is a natural action of $(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$ on this group. We provide two explicit examples.

(a) Let \mathbb{F}_p be a finite field. Exponentiation in the multiplicative group \mathbb{F}_p^* defines a group action:

$$\star : (\mathbb{Z}/(p-1)\mathbb{Z})^* \times \mathbb{F}_p^* \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p^*, \quad (n, x) \mapsto x^n.$$

To verify this, note that

$$1 \star x = x^1 = x \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{F}_p^*,$$

and

$$(n_1 \cdot n_2) \star x = x^{(n_1 \cdot n_2)} = (x^{n_2})^{n_1} = n_1 \star (n_2 \star x)$$

for all $n_1, n_2 \in (\mathbb{Z}/(p-1)\mathbb{Z})^*$ and $x \in \mathbb{F}_p^*$.

(b) Let E be an elliptic curve over some finite field \mathbb{F}_q (or any other field), $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ a point of order N , and denote $G = \langle P \rangle \subset E(\mathbb{F}_q)$. Then

$$\star : (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^* \times G \rightarrow G, \quad (n, Q) \mapsto [n] \cdot Q$$

is a group action. Here, we check that

$$1 \star Q = [1]Q = Q \quad \text{for all } Q \in G,$$

and

$$(n_1 \cdot n_2) \star Q = [n_1 \cdot n_2]Q = [n_1]([n_2]Q) = n_1 \star (n_2 \star Q)$$

for all $n_1, n_2 \in (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$ and $Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$.

Note that in both of the above examples the group action is not regular. For example, in case (a) note that when $g \neq 1$, then $g^n \neq 1$ for all $n \in (\mathbb{Z}/(p-1)\mathbb{Z})^*$.

Recall that in the cryptographic constructions that we have seen in Sections 2 and 3, we usually worked in a prime order group $G \subset \mathbb{F}_p^*$ and $G \subset E(\mathbb{F}_q)^*$, respectively. In this setting, one can define a regular group action, as is shown in the following exercise.

Exercise 4.3. Let (G, \circ) be a cyclic group with neutral element id , and assume that $\#G = N$ is prime. Show that

$$(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^* \times G \setminus \{id\} \rightarrow G \setminus \{id\}, \quad (n, x) \mapsto \exp_x(n) = \underbrace{x \circ \cdots \circ x}_{n \text{ times}}$$

is a regular group action.

Group action Diffie-Hellman key exchange

The Diffie-Hellman protocol can be phrased abstractly in the language of group actions. This is sketched in Figure 14.

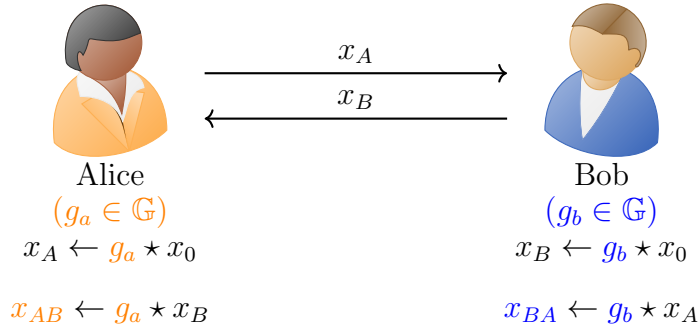


Figure 14: Group action Diffie-Hellman key exchange for some commutative group action $\star : \mathbb{G} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ and public parameter $x_0 \in \mathcal{X}$

The setup consists of a commutative group action $\star : \mathbb{G} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$, and fixes some public parameter $x_0 \in \mathcal{X}$. As a secret key, Alice chooses some group element $g_a \in \mathbb{G}$, and similarly Bob chooses $g_b \in \mathbb{G}$. Their public keys are then the set elements $x_A = g_a \star x_0 \in \mathcal{X}$ and $x_B = g_b \star x_0 \in \mathcal{X}$. Finally, when Alice receives Bob's public key, she can compute the shared session key as $x_{AB} = g_a \star x_B$, and similarly Bob computes $x_{BA} = g_b \star x_A$. Note that $x_{AB} = x_{BA}$ since \mathbb{G} is commutative by assumption.

Group actions as cryptographic one-way functions

For the group action Diffie Hellman key exchange protocol to be secure, we require that application of the group action has to be a cryptographic one-way function.¹²

On the one hand, it is required that applying the group action is efficient. We say that the group actions has to be *effective*.¹³ On the other hand, it is required that the group action is hard to invert which motivates the definition of GA-DLP:

Definition 4.4: Group action discrete Logarithm Problem (GA-DLP)

Let $\star : \mathbb{G} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ be a regular group action, and consider elements $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$. The *Group Action Discrete Logarithm Problem* (GA-DLP) is the problem of finding a group element $g \in \mathbb{G}$ such that $g \star x = y$.

By slight abuse of notation, we say that g is the *discrete logarithm* of y to the base x , and denote $g = \text{dlog}_x(y)$.

We say that $\star : \mathbb{G} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ is a *cryptographic group action* if GA-DLP is hard.

¹²Similarly as in Section 2, this condition is necessary, but not sufficient.

¹³In the literature, usually some further properties are required for a group actions to be effective, such as being able to compute efficiently in the group \mathbb{G} , see for example [1].

Remark 4.5. One can also define the GA-DLP for group actions that are not regular. In this case we need to take into account that there might not exist an element $g \in \mathbb{G}$ so that $y = g \star x$ for two arbitrary elements $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ (i.e. the group action need not be transitive). In this setting, one can say that the Group Action Discrete Logarithm Problem is the problem of finding a group element $g \in \mathbb{G}$ such that $g \star x = y$ if such an element $g \in \mathbb{G}$ exists.

Example 4.6. Let N be a large prime. Similarly as in Example 4.2 consider the following group actions:

(a) Let p be a prime so that $N \mid p - 1$, and let $G \subset \mathbb{F}_p^*$ be a subgroup of order N . Consider the group action

$$\star : (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^* \times G \setminus \{1\} \rightarrow G \setminus \{1\}, \quad (n, x) \mapsto x^n.$$

(b) Let p be a prime, E an elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_p that contains a subgroup $G \subset E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ of order N . Consider the group action

$$\star : (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^* \times G \setminus \{\infty\} \rightarrow G \setminus \{\infty\}, \quad (n, Q) \mapsto [n] \cdot Q.$$

It follows from our discussions in Section 2 that (a) is a conjectured classic cryptographic group action. And similarly, it follows from our discussions in Section 3 that (b) is a conjectured classic cryptographic one-way function - if the elliptic curve E is not weak (see Subsection 3.2.4). However, note that they are not quantum cryptographic group actions, as there exists an efficient quantum algorithm to solve the GA-DLP for both of these instances.

Exercise 4.7. In this exercise we consider a group action based on matrix multiplication. Let \mathbb{F}_p be a finite field (for some large prime p). Consider

$$\mathbb{G} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} c_1 & c_2 \\ c_2 & c_1 \end{pmatrix} \mid c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{F}_p \right\}, \quad \mathcal{X} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \mid x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{F}_p \right\} = \mathbb{F}_p^2,$$

and the group action

$$\star : \mathbb{G} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}, \quad (A, x) \mapsto A \cdot x.$$

1. Show that \star defines a commutative group action. Is the group action regular?
2. Sketch a Diffie-Hellman protocol based on this group action and convince yourself that it works correctly.
3. Show that \star is not a cryptographic group action. Find a polynomial-time algorithm to solve GA-DLP for this group action.

Hardness of GA-DLP

From the examples that we have seen so far, it is not at all apparent why the GA-DLP would be harder to solve than the Group-DLP. The reason is that in all our examples, the elements of the set \mathcal{X} are group elements as well. This provides \mathcal{X} with some additional structure. As a result, the same attacks that can be used to solve a GA-DLP can also be applied in this setting.

Let us first look at the classical setting (i.e. without quantum computers). Here, it is indeed possible to translate some of the generic attacks to the group action setting. An example is given by the *baby-step giant-step algorithm* (Algorithm 1). This algorithm can be adapted to the commutative group action setting, showing that GA-DLP can be solved in time $O(\sqrt{\#\mathbb{G}})$ on a classical computer. The adaption of the algorithm is outlined in the following exercise.

Exercise 4.8. Let $\star : \mathbb{G} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ be a group action, and assume that the group action is effective. In particular, you may assume that the following operations can be performed efficiently.

- Evaluating the group action: Given $g \in \mathbb{G}$, $x \in \mathcal{X}$, compute $g \star x$.
- Group operation: Given $g_1, g_2 \in \mathbb{G}$, compute $g_1 \circ g_2$.
- Equivalence checking: Given $x, x' \in \mathcal{X}$ decide if $x = x'$.

In the following, you are supposed to find analogues of the baby-step giant-step algorithm (Algorithm 1).

- (a) First consider a cyclic group, i.e. assume that $\mathbb{G} \cong \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ for some N . Find an algorithm to solve GA-DLP in time $O(\sqrt{N})$ in this setting.
- (b) Now assume that \mathbb{G} is an arbitrary abelian group, i.e. $\mathbb{G} \cong \mathbb{Z}/N_1\mathbb{Z} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}/N_r\mathbb{Z}$ for some integers N_1, \dots, N_r with $N_{i+1} \mid N_i$ for all $i = 1, \dots, r-1$. Adapt the algorithm from Part (a) to solve the GA-DLP in this setting.
- Hint: It makes sense to first consider the case $r = 2$. Is there a difference between the cases $N_1 = N_2$ and $N_2 \ll N_1$?*

We note that this is not true for all classical algorithms. For instance the Pohlig-Hellman algorithm which shows that Group-DLP becomes easier for groups with composite order does not translate to the group action setting. As a consequence, it is in general not required to work with a prime order group \mathbb{G} in the group action setting.

Looking at quantum algorithms, the situation is completely different. There is a polynomial-time algorithm to solve Group-DLP, while the best known algorithm to solve GA-DLP has subexponential running time. It is not in the scope of this lecture to describe how quantum algorithms or quantum computers work. We merely state the best known results from the literature.

1. The best known quantum algorithm to solve Group-DLP is Shor's algorithm and it solves Group-DLP in polynomial time, [36].
2. The best known quantum algorithm to solve GA-DLP is Kuperberg's algorithm and it solves GA-DLP in subexponential time, [22].

Finding an example of a group action which is suitable for cryptography, but where the set \mathcal{X} does not have too much additional structure is not straightforward. In Subsection 4.3, we will see an instantiation based on isogenies. There are several other suggestions in the literature. For instance based on *code equivalence*, *lattice isomorphisms* or *tensors*. The exercise below, provides an example. We note that in this example, the group action is not *commutative*, hence it cannot be used for a Diffie-Hellman key exchange as in Figure 14. But it finds application in other cryptographic constructions.

Exercise 4.9. Let \mathbb{F}_q be a finite field, $k < n$ integers, and let $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{F}_q^{k \times n}$ be the set of $k \times n$ matrices over \mathbb{F}_q . Furthermore, we defined $\mathbb{G} = GL_k(\mathbb{F}_q) \rtimes \mathcal{P}_n$, where $GL_k(\mathbb{F}_q)$ are the invertible $k \times k$ matrices over \mathbb{F}_q , and \mathcal{P}_n is the group of $n \times n$ permutation matrices.

We consider the group action

$$\star : \mathbb{G} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}, \quad ((S, P), A) \mapsto S \cdot A \cdot P.$$

In a slightly more general form, this group action is used as a one-way function in the signature scheme LESS [4]. We note that this is not a commutative group action.

- (a) Let $q = 3$, $k = 2$, $n = 4$, and consider the following matrices

$$A_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix},$$

Find $g = (S, P) \in \mathbb{G}$ so that $g \star A_1 = SA_1P = A_2$. Is the solution unique?

- (b) In the setting of (a), consider

$$A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Is there an element $g \in \mathbb{G}$ so that $g \star A_1 = A_3$?

Remark: It is assumed to be hard to solve this problem in general (for large parameters).

- (c) Is the group action \star free, transitive or regular?

4.2 Isogenies of elliptic curves

Informally, isogenies are certain structure-preserving maps between elliptic curves. On the one hand, elliptic curves are algebraic curves and therefore have some *geometric structure*, and on the other hand, they also come equipped with a *group structure*.

In this subsection, we define isogenies, and discuss several examples that will help us to formulate a cryptographic protocol in Subsection 4.3. For more details, we refer to [38, Section III.4], [40, Lecture 5].

Definition 4.10: Isogeny

Let E, E' be two elliptic curves over a field k . An **isogeny** is a non-zero rational map $\phi : E \rightarrow E'$ that induces a group homomorphism $E(\bar{k}) \rightarrow E'(\bar{k})$. The elliptic curves E and E' are then said to be **isogenous**.

Remark 4.11. Some comments are in order about the conditions appearing in Definition 4.10.

1. ϕ is a rational map: We have not seen the definition of rational maps in this lecture. In the setting of the definition (i.e. a rational map between elliptic curves), this means that there exist some rational functions $\phi_x(x, y), \phi_y(x, y)$ so that

$$\phi : (x, y) \mapsto (\phi_x(x, y), \phi_y(x, y))$$

holds for all but finitely many points $(x, y) \in E(\bar{k})$.

2. ϕ is non-zero: We exclude the map $\phi : E \rightarrow E', \phi : P \mapsto \infty$.
3. ϕ induces a group homomorphism: This means that $\phi(P + Q) = \phi(P) + \phi(Q)$ for all $P, Q \in E(\bar{k})$. Note that this also implies

$$\phi(\infty_E) = \infty_{E'}. \quad (4)$$

Here, for clarity, we denote ∞_E for the neutral element of E , and similarly $\infty_{E'}$ for the neutral element of E' .

In the literature, there exist different equivalent definitions for the term isogeny. In particular, we remark that it is enough to require that ϕ is a nonzero rational map and the property from Eq. 4 holds.

We have already seen examples of isogenies in Section 3, namely scalar multiplication. More precisely, let E be an elliptic curve, and $N \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then the map

$$[N] : E \rightarrow E, \quad P \mapsto [N]P$$

is an isogeny. One can construct the rational map directly from the explicit description of the group law in Theorem 3.7. We make this explicit for the case $N = 2$ below.

Example 4.12. Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ be an elliptic curve, $P = (x_1, y_1) \in E(\bar{k})$, and assume that $y_1 \neq 0$. Writing out the expressions from Theorem 3.7, case (b) explicitly, we get $[2]P = (x_3, y_3)$, where

$$\begin{aligned} x_3 = \phi_x(x_1, y_1) &= \left(\frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1} \right)^2 - 2x_1 \\ &= \frac{9x_1^4 + 6ax_1^2 + a^2 - 8x_1y_1^2}{4y_1^2} \\ &= \frac{x_1^4 - 2ax_1^2 - 8bx_1 - a^2}{4(x_1^3 + ax_1 + b)}, \end{aligned}$$

where we replaced y_1^2 with $x_1^3 + ax_1 + b$ in the last step. And similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} y_3 = \phi_y(x_1, y_1) &= \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}(x_1 - x_3) - y_1 \\ &= \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1} \left(x_1 - \frac{x_1^4 - 2ax_1^2 - 8bx_1 - a^2}{4(x_1^3 + ax_1 + b)} \right) - y_1 \\ &= \frac{x_1^6 + 5ax_1^4 + 20bx_1^3 - 5a^2x_1^2 - 4abx_1 - a^3 - 8b^2}{8(x_1^3 + ax_1 + b)^2} \cdot y_1. \end{aligned}$$

Note that the expression for x_3 was already used in the x -only arithmetic formula for multiplication by 2, see Remark 3.44.

Note that the denominators of the formulas for ϕ_x and ϕ_y vanish at the points (x_1, y_1) with $x_1^3 + ax_1 + b = y_1^2 = 0$. These are precisely the (non-trivial) 2-torsion points of E which get mapped to ∞ under multiplication by $[2]$.

In order to describe a more interesting isogeny, we now state a result proven by Jacques Vélú in 1971. This allows us to compute arbitrary *separable* isogenies with a prescribed kernel.¹⁴

Theorem 4.13: Vélú's formulas [43]

Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ over \mathbb{F}_q be an elliptic curve, and $G \subset E(\overline{\mathbb{F}}_q)$ a finite subgroup of odd order. We set $E' : y^2 = x^3 + a'x + b'$ with

$$a' = a - 5 \sum_{Q \in G \setminus \{\infty\}} (3x(Q)^2 + a), \quad b' = b - 7 \sum_{Q \in G \setminus \{\infty\}} (5x(Q)^3 + 3ax(Q) + 2b).$$

Then the map $\phi : E \rightarrow E'$ given by

$$\phi(P) = \left(x(P) + \sum_{Q \in G \setminus \{\infty\}} (x(P+Q) - x(Q)), \quad y(P) + \sum_{Q \in G \setminus \{\infty\}} (y(P+Q) - y(Q)) \right)$$

is a separable isogeny with kernel $\ker(\phi) = G$.

We remark that the formula for the isogeny evaluation in the above theorem can be explicitly stated as a rational map. We refer to [44, Section 12.3]; and for a formulation closer to our setting [40, Lecture 6]. Furthermore, we note that when $G \subset E(\mathbb{F}_q)$, i.e. the elements in the kernel of the isogeny ϕ are all \mathbb{F}_q -rational, then the isogeny is defined over \mathbb{F}_q as well. In particular $a', b' \in \mathbb{F}_q$. However, this is not a necessary condition.

Example 4.14. Let $E : y^2 = x^3 - x$ be an elliptic curve defined over \mathbb{F}_{11} . One can check that $E(\mathbb{F}_{11}) = 12$. We consider two different isogenies.

- (a) Let $P = (1, 0) \in E[2]$. The codomain of the isogeny ϕ_1 with kernel $G_1 = \langle P \rangle$ is $E_1 : y^2 = x^3 + 8$, and it is explicitly given by

$$\phi_1 : (x, y) \mapsto \left(\frac{x^2 - x + 2}{x - 1}, \frac{x^2 - 2x - 1}{x^2 - 2x + 1} \cdot y \right).$$

We sketched the map in Figure 15a. The points in the domain are sketched in blue, the codomain points are sketched in orange. Note that there are always two points on the domain that get mapped to the same point on the codomain. This follows from the fact that the kernel has cardinality two.

- (b) Let $Q = (4, 4) \in E[3]$. The codomain of the isogeny ϕ_2 with kernel $G_2 = \langle Q \rangle$ is $E_2 : y^2 = x^3 + 2x$, and the isogeny is explicitly given by

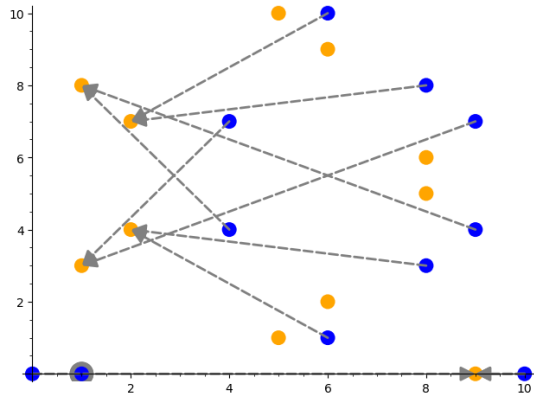
$$\phi_2 : (x, y) \mapsto \left(\frac{x^3 + 3x^2 - 4}{x^2 + 3x + 5}, \frac{x^3 - x^2 - 2x - 3}{x^3 - x^2 + 4x + 2} \cdot y \right).$$

We sketched the map in Figure 15b. The points in the domain are sketched in blue, the codomain points are sketched in purple. Note that there are always three points on the domain that get mapped to the same point on the codomain. This follows from the fact that the kernel has cardinality three (it is not clearly visible in the sketch since, some arrows lie on the x -axis).

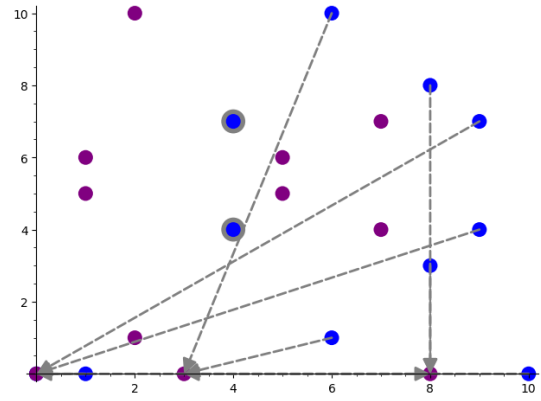
In both sketches, there are some points on the codomain that do not seem to have a preimage under the given isogeny. However, this only means that there is no preimage in $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$. Over the algebraic closure, every point has a preimage (or to be precise multiple preimages depending on the size of the kernel). In particular isogenies are surjective maps.

Sage Further note that in SageMath, you can easily work with isogenies. For example the code below allows you to define the isogeny from Part (a).

¹⁴We have not defined what it means to be a *separable* isogeny. It means that the induced extension of function fields is separable (see for Example [38, Section II.2]).



(a) The 2-isogeny with kernel $\langle(1, 0)\rangle$ and codomain $E_1 : y^2 = x^3 + 8$.



(b) The 3-isogeny with kernel $\langle(4, 4)\rangle$ and codomain $E_2 : y^2 = x^3 + 2x$.

Figure 15: Sketch of the isogenies from Example 4.14. The domain is the elliptic curve $E : y^2 = x^3 - x$. The \mathbb{F}_{11} -rational points are sketched in blue.

```
sage: Fp = GF(11)
sage: E = EllipticCurve(Fp, (-1, 0))
sage: P = E([1,0])
sage: phi1 = E.isogeny(P)
```

Once the isogeny is created, you can for instance ask for the codomain `phi1.codomain()`, for the representation as a rational map `phi1.rational_maps()` or evaluate it at points `phi1(E([6,1]))`.

In the next subsection, our focus will be on isogenies with cyclic kernels. Therefore, we introduce the following notation.

Definition 4.15: ℓ -isogeny

Let $\phi : E \rightarrow E'$ be a separable isogeny with kernel G and $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ a positive integer. We say that ϕ is an **ℓ -isogeny** if G is a cyclic group of order ℓ , i.e. $G \cong \mathbb{Z}/\ell\mathbb{Z}$. Furthermore, we say that two elliptic curves E, E' are **ℓ -isogenous** if there exists an ℓ -isogeny $\phi : E \rightarrow E'$.

The isogenies from Example 4.14 are a 2-isogeny (ϕ_1) and a 3-isogeny (ϕ_2). In contrast to this, the isogeny from Example 4.12 (scalar multiplication) is not an ℓ -isogeny. Its kernel is a rank-two group.

Exercise 4.16. (Frobenius endomorphism) Let $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ be an elliptic curve defined over \mathbb{F}_q . Show that the map

$$\pi : E \rightarrow E, \quad (x, y) \mapsto (x^q, y^q)$$

defines an isogeny.

This essentially requires showing two properties:

- (i) π is well defined, i.e. if $P = (x, y) \in E$, then $\pi(P) = (x^q, y^q) \in E$ as well.
- (ii) π is a group homomorphism.

Note that this is an example of an isogeny which is not separable.

Finally, we note that being ℓ -isogenous is an equivalence relation. If there exists an ℓ -isogeny $\phi : E \rightarrow E'$, then there also exists an ℓ -isogeny $\hat{\phi} : E' \rightarrow E$. More precisely:

Proposition 4.17

Let $\phi : E \rightarrow E'$ be an ℓ -isogeny. Then there exists a **dual isogeny** $\hat{\phi} : E' \rightarrow E$ which is also an ℓ -isogeny and such that $\hat{\phi} \circ \phi = [\ell]$ is multiplication by ℓ on E .

Proof. (sketch) The idea in the case of a separable isogeny is as follows: We have that $G = \ker(\phi) \subset E[\ell]$. Moreover by Proposition 3.14, we can write $E[\ell] = G \times G'$, where $G' \cong \mathbb{Z}/\ell\mathbb{Z}$ is another cyclic group of order ℓ . Now we take $\hat{\phi}$ to be the isogeny with kernel $\ker(\hat{\phi}) = \phi(G') \cong \mathbb{Z}/\ell\mathbb{Z}$. Then $\ker(\hat{\phi} \circ \phi) = E[\ell]$, hence $\hat{\phi} \circ \phi$ is equal to the multiplication by ℓ map (up to isomorphism).

For a complete and formal proof, we refer to [38, Section III.6]. \square

4.3 Commutative Supersingular Isogeny Diffie-Hellman (CSIDH)

The goal of this part is to sketch the *Commutative Supersingular Isogeny Diffie-Hellman (CSIDH)* protocol. This protocol was suggested as a post-quantum replacement for the Diffie-Hellman protocol by Wouter Castryck, Tanja Lange, Chloe Martindale, Lorenz Panny and Joost Renes in 2018 [6], and relies on ideas by Jean-Marc Couveignes [8], and Alexander Rostovtsev and Anton Stolbunov [31].

It is an instantiation of a cryptographic group action $\star : \mathbb{G} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$, where (very informally) the set \mathcal{X} is given by a set of elliptic curves; the group is $\mathbb{G} = \mathbb{Z}^n$ (or a quotient of it) for some n ; and the group action is described by computing isogenies.

Elliptic curves in Montgomery form

According to Definition 3.1 an elliptic curve is defined by a short Weierstrass equation $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$. However, sometimes it is preferable to work with a different types of equations. One can think about it as choosing a different coordinate system. For cryptography, the so-called Montgomery form is often used.

Definition 4.18: Montgomery form

We say that an elliptic curve over k is in **Montgomery form** if it is defined by an equation of the form

$$E : By^2 = x^3 + Ax^2 + x, \quad A, B \in k \text{ with } B \neq 0, A^2 \neq 4.$$

We say that A, B are the **Montgomery coefficients** of E .

We say that E is in **simplified Montgomery form** if $B = 1$. In this case we denote $E_A : y^2 = x^3 + Ax^2 + x$, and say that A is the **Montgomery coefficient** of E .

Note that in CSIDH, we only work with elliptic curves in simplified Montgomery form, and for brevity we usually just say *Montgomery form*.

What's the relation to a model in Weierstrass form? One can check that given an elliptic curve in Montgomery form defined over some field k , then there always exists a coordinate transformation to a model in short Weierstrass form defined over the same field k .

Lemma 4.19

Let $E : By^2 = x^3 + Ax^2 + x$ be an elliptic curve in Montgomery form. Define coordinates x', y' as

$$y' = y/B, \quad x' = (x + A/3)/B.$$

Then

$$y'^2 = x'^3 + ax' + b, \quad \text{with } a = \frac{3B - A^2B}{3B^3}, \quad b = \frac{2A^3 - 9A}{27B^3}.$$

Proof. This can be verified by substituting $y = By'$ and $x = Bx' - A/3$ in the equation in Montgomery

form, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}
By^2 &= x^3 + Ax^2 + x \\
\Leftrightarrow B(By')^2 &= (Bx' - A/3)^3 + A(Bx' - A/3)^2 + (Bx' - A/3) \\
\Leftrightarrow y'^2 &= x'^3 + \frac{3B - A^2B}{3B^3}x' + \frac{2A^3 - 9A}{27B^3}.
\end{aligned}$$

Note that we divided both sides by B^3 in the last line which is allowed since $B \neq 0$. Further note that

$$4a^3 + 27b^2 = \frac{A^2 - 4}{B^6}.$$

This explains the condition on A, B in Definition 4.18. \square

On the other hand, it is not always possible to go from a short Weierstrass equation to a model in Montgomery form. One way to see this is to note that the point $P = (0, 0)$ is a 2-torsion point on any elliptic curve in Montgomery form. However not every elliptic curve has a 2-torsion point over the base field. Having a rational 2-torsion point is a necessary (but not sufficient) condition for a Montgomery model to exist. More details on elliptic curves in Montgomery form can be found in [13, Section 9.12.1]. In particular, note that the formulas for the addition law (Theorem 3.7) need to be adapted when working with elliptic curves in a different form.

Exercise 4.20. Consider the following elliptic curves in short Weierstrass form defined over \mathbb{F}_5 .

$$E_1 : y^2 = x^3 + x + 1, \quad E_2 : y^2 = x^3 + 3x + 1, \quad E_3 : y^2 = x^3 + 1.$$

Which of the elliptic curves can be written in Montgomery form over \mathbb{F}_5 ? Find a coordinate transformation if it exists.

Supersingular elliptic curves

Later, we will be interested in a particular class of elliptic curves, so-called *supersingular* elliptic curves. Again, it is a term with many different equivalent definitions. We will work with the following one (specific to curves over prime fields).

Definition 4.21

Let E be an elliptic curve defined over \mathbb{F}_p . We say that E is **supersingular** if $\#E(\mathbb{F}_p) = p + 1$.

The term *supersingular* refers to the fact that it is a “special” property (in particular it does not mean that the curve is singular). Elliptic curves that are not supersingular are called *ordinary*. We have already seen some supersingular elliptic curves in the previous lectures:

Example 4.22. The elliptic curve $E : y^2 = x^3 + x$ over \mathbb{F}_{67} from Example 3.42. We have seen that $\#E(\mathbb{F}_{67}) = 68$, hence it is a supersingular curve.

More generally, one can show that $E : y^2 = x^3 + x$ over \mathbb{F}_p is supersingular if and only if $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ (see for Example [44, Proposition 4.37]).

Example 4.23. The elliptic curve $E : y^2 = x^3 + 1$ over \mathbb{F}_p is supersingular if $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. This follows from Lemma 3.17, where we proved that $\#E(\mathbb{F}_p) = p + 1$.

Isogeny graphs

Here, we consider graphs in a graph theoretic sense. They consist of vertices and edges connecting the vertices. In an *isogeny graph*, the vertices are (isomorphism classes of) elliptic curves and the edges are isogenies. Usually, the edge set is restricted to a special type of isogenies such as ℓ -isogenies for a particular ℓ .

For our application, we focus on a very specific setting, and we call the corresponding isogeny graph the CSIDH graph.

Definition 4.24: CSIDH graph

Let ℓ_1, \dots, ℓ_n be pairwise different odd primes so that $p = 4 \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$ a prime as well. Consider the graph with the following sets of vertices and edges.

- **vertices:** Supersingular curves in Montgomery form $E_A : y^2 = x^3 + Ax^2 + x$ over \mathbb{F}_p . We use the Montgomery coefficient A as a label for a vertex.
- **edges:** ℓ_i -isogenies for $i = 1, \dots, n$ defined over \mathbb{F}_p . More precisely, two vertices A, A' are connected if and only if there exists an ℓ_i -isogeny $\phi : E_A \rightarrow E_{A'}$.

We say that this graph is the **CSIDH graph** over \mathbb{F}_p .

Remark 4.25. Before we consider the first examples, some remarks are in order.

- The vertex with label $A = 0$ is always in the CSIDH graph. This follows from Example 4.22. Moreover, one can show that asymptotically, the number of vertices is in $O(\sqrt{p})$.
- For any ℓ_i with $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, there is precisely one cyclic subgroup $G_i \subset E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ of order ℓ_i . This follows from the fact that $\#E(\mathbb{F}_p) = p + 1 = 4 \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n$.
- For any ℓ_i with $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$, there is another cyclic subgroup \bar{G}_i which is \mathbb{F}_p -rational (in the sense that it is stable under the action of the absolute Galois group), but the elements in \bar{G}_i are not \mathbb{F}_p -rational. More precisely, one can show that the x -coordinates of the points in \bar{G}_i are in \mathbb{F}_p while the y -coordinates are in $\mathbb{F}_{p^2} \setminus \mathbb{F}_p$. We refer to the CSIDH paper [6, Section 4].
- At any vertex in the graph, there are precisely two outgoing ℓ_i -isogenies for each ℓ_i (remarks (ii) and (iii) above). When plotting the graph, we will use different colors for the edges corresponding to isogenies of different degrees. The graph is then 2-regular in every color.
- On the one hand, the graph can be viewed as an undirected graph. If there is an isogeny $E_A \rightarrow E_{A'}$, then there also exists an isogeny in the other direction $E_{A'} \rightarrow E_A$, the dual isogeny (Proposition 4.17). Nevertheless, we define a direction on the edges, where an arrow $E_A \rightarrow E_{A'}$ means that the kernel of the corresponding isogeny is in $E_A(\mathbb{F}_p)$.

Example 4.26. Let us look at some tiny examples of CSIDH graphs. We use SageMath to do the necessary computations. For this purpose, we note that an elliptic curve in Montgomery form can be defined by the command `E = EllipticCurve([0,A,0,1,0])`, where A is the Montgomery coefficient. Moreover, when we compute an isogeny with domain a Montgomery curve, we can ask SageMath to compute an isogeny so that the codomain is again in Montgomery form (if this is possible)

```
sage: Fp = GF(11)
sage: E = EllipticCurve(Fp, [0,5,0,1,0])
sage: P = E([3,3])
sage: phi = E.isogeny(P, model="montgomery"); phi
Isogeny of degree 3 from Elliptic Curve defined by y^2 = x^3 + 5*x^2 + x over Finite Field of size 11 to
Elliptic Curve defined by y^2 = x^3 + x over Finite Field of size 11
```

The smallest example would be $p = 3$. There are only three possible values for $A \in \mathbb{F}_p$, and only $A = 0$ satisfies the condition $A^2 - 4 \neq 0$. Therefore the CSIDH graph consists of only one vertex and no edges.

- The next smallest example is $p = 4 \cdot 3 - 1 = 11$. There are 9 different values for A which define an elliptic curve E_A in Montgomery form: $A = 0, 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10$. By computing the number of points of each elliptic curve, we can check that only 3 of these values define a supersingular elliptic curve: $A = 0, 5, 6$.

As described in Remark 4.25. We have two edges incident to a vertex in the graph. For example at E_0 , there is a 3-isogeny $E_0 \rightarrow E_6$ with kernel $G = \langle (5, 3) \rangle = \{(5, 3), (5, 8), \infty\} \subset E_0(\mathbb{F}_p)$. And another 3-isogeny $E_0 \rightarrow E_5$ with kernel $\hat{G} = \langle (6, 3i) \rangle = \{(6, 3i), (6, 8i), \infty\} \subset E(\mathbb{F}_{p^2})$. The full graph is sketched in Figure 16(a).

- Now we consider an example with two different primes $\ell_1 = 3$ and $\ell_2 = 5$, i.e. $p = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 - 1 = 59$. There are 57 different elliptic curves in Montgomery form over \mathbb{F}_p , and out of these, 9 are supersingular. The supersingular Montgomery coefficients are

$$A = 0, 6, 11, 28, 29, 30, 31, 48, 53$$

The graph is sketched in Figure 16(b). The edges corresponding to 3-isogenies are colored in red, and the edges corresponding to 5-isogenies are colored in blue.

(c) In Figure 16(c), we sketched the CSIDH graph for $p = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 - 1 = 419$. Here, we find that 27 out of the 417 elliptic curves in Montgomery form over \mathbb{F}_p are supersingular.

(d) For cryptographic applications, the authors in [6] suggest a prime of bitsize 512. It is given by

$$p = 4 \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_{74} - 1,$$

where ℓ_1, \dots, ℓ_{73} are the smallest off primes, and ℓ_{74} is the smallest prime distinct from the other ℓ_i which renders p prime.

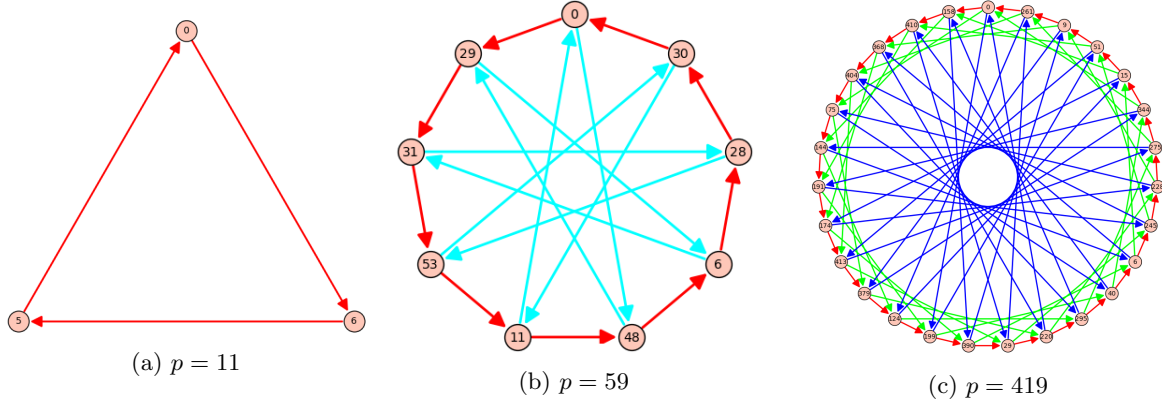


Figure 16: CSIDH graphs for different primes p

Description of the CSIDH protocol

We now describe a Diffie-Hellman type key exchange protocol based on walks in the CSIDH isogeny graph. The protocol is sketched in Figure 17. One of the main insights for the definition of the protocol is the fact that there is a commutative group action $\mathbb{Z}^n \times V \rightarrow V$, where V is the vertex set of the CSIDH isogeny graph.

Proposition 4.27

Consider the CSIDH isogeny graph as in Definition 4.24, and let V be its vertex set. Then there is a commutative group action

$$\star : \mathbb{Z}^n \times V \rightarrow V,$$

defined as follows: Let $c = (c_1, \dots, c_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and E_A be a supersingular elliptic curve in Montgomery form over \mathbb{F}_p (i.e. $E_A \in V$). Then compute a walk in the isogeny graph starting at E_A . For each i , the integer c_i indicates the number of ℓ_i -isogenies that need to be computed. Here a positive number corresponds to going into the positive direction (i.e. choosing a kernel in $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$), while a negative number corresponds to going into the opposite direction. Let E' denote the final vertex of the walk. Then we set

$$(c_1, \dots, c_n) \star E_A := E'.$$

Proof. (Idea) It is a priori not clear why the action defined in the proposition would be a group action. This is implied by looking at the action from a higher level perspective. We mention the main key words here, but note that this requires more advanced knowledge in number theory.

Formally, one can show the elliptic curves in the CSIDH graph are precisely those elliptic curves over \mathbb{F}_p with endomorphism ring $\mathbb{Z}[\pi]$, where π is the Frobenius endomorphism. Therefore, there is a natural action of the class group $cl(\mathbb{Z}[\pi])$ on this set of elliptic curves. An element of the class group acts on an elliptic curve through the application of an isogeny. Moreover, the class group is commutative, hence one obtains a commutative group action.

Evidently, $\mathbb{Z}^n \not\subset cl(\mathbb{Z}[\pi])$. The latter is a finite group. There exists a relation lattice Λ so that $\mathbb{Z}^n/\Lambda \subset cl(\mathbb{Z}[\pi])$. By extending the action to \mathbb{Z}^n , one loses some of the nice properties from the original class group action, but at the same time it allows us to work with it in practice.

We refer to [6] for more details on the CSIDH class group action. And we note that the protocol proposed by Couveignes [8] is based on a class group action as well, where a different endomorphism ring (i.e. a different set of elliptic curves) is chosen in the setup. \square

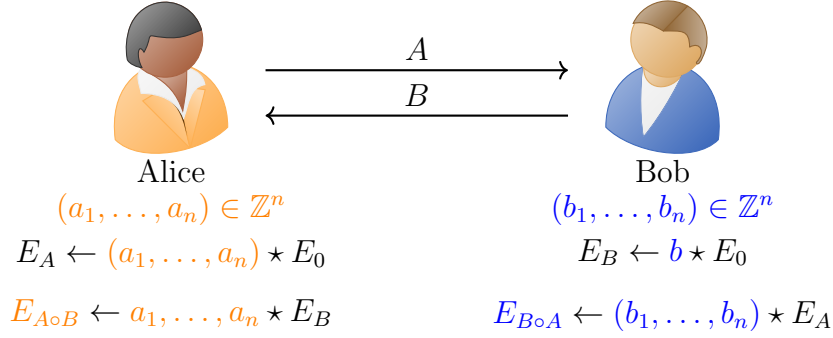


Figure 17: CSIDH key exchange for some CSIDH isogeny graph with prime $p = 4 \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$

- **Key generation** As a secret key, Alice chooses an n -tuple of integers $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$. Typically, the integers are chosen from some predefined range $\{-m, \dots, m\} \subset \mathbb{Z}$. To obtain the public key, Alice starts at the elliptic curve E_0 and performs the walk in the graph defined by her secret key. The public key is then the final vertex of the walk in the graph: $E_A : y^2 = x^3 + Ax^2 + x$ for some A , i.e. she computes $E_A = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \star E_0$. In a completely analogous way, Bob chooses a secret key $(b_1, \dots, b_n) \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, and computes $E_B = (b_1, \dots, b_n) \star E_0$.
- **Shared session key** Upon receiving the public key E_B from Bob, Alice computes $E_{A \circ B} = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \star E_B$.¹⁵ Similarly, Bob computes $E_{B \circ A} = (b_1, \dots, b_n) \star E_A$. Since the group action is commutative, $E_{A \circ B} = E_{B \circ A}$.

Example 4.28. Alice and Bob want to create a shared session key using the CSIDH protocol with $p = 59$ (see Example 4.26(b)). They choose secret keys in the range $\{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2\}^2$.

- Alice chooses the secret key $a = (2, -1)$. To obtain the public key $E_A = a \star E_0$, she computes two consecutive 3-isogenies (red arrows in the positive direction), and one 5-isogeny (blue arrow in the negative direction). Her public key is the $A = 6$ representing the elliptic curve $E_A : y^2 = x^3 + 6x^2 + x$.
- Bob chooses the secret key $b = (-1, -2)$, and computes $E_B = b \star E_0$. He finds $B = 28$.
- Now Alice computes $E_{A \circ B} = a \star E_B$ which results in $E_{A \circ B} = 11$. Similarly, Bob finds $E_{B \circ A} = b \star E_A$.

The goal of the next exercise is to get a better understanding of the key space for secret keys in the CSIDH protocol.

Exercise 4.29. In this exercise, we analyze the setting for $p = 59$ in more detail. Assume that the secret key space is $\{-2, -1, 0, -1, -2\}^2$ as in Example 4.28.

- Say Alice's public key is $A = 28$. What was her secret key? In other words what is $\text{dlog}_{E_0}(E_{28})$? Is the answer unique?
- Say Bob's public key is $B = 11$. What is the shared session key? Is the answer unique?
- Is the group action $\star : \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2\} \times V \rightarrow V$ transitive? Is it free?
- Now consider the smaller secret key space $\{-1, 0, -1\}^2$. Is the group action $\star : \{-1, 0, 1\} \times V \rightarrow V$ transitive? Is it free?

¹⁵We use the notation $A \circ B$ to highlight that this is not the elliptic curve with Montgomery coefficient $A \times B$

- (e) Describe the relations between possible secret keys in \mathbb{Z}^2 , and represent the equivalence classes of secret keys as \mathbb{Z}^2/Λ , where Λ is a lattice $\Lambda \subset \mathbb{Z}^2$.
Is the group action $\star : \mathbb{Z}^2/\Lambda \times V \rightarrow V$ transitive? Is it free?

The CSIDH graph has many more interesting properties that we have not discussed. One of these properties is a symmetry that you can observe in the examples in Figure 16. This is the subject of the next exercise.

Exercise 4.30. (difficult) We consider a CSIDH graph for some prime $p = 4 \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$.

- (a) Let A be the label of a vertex in the CSIDH graph. Show that there exists a vertex with label $-A$ as well.
Hint: This means showing that $E_A(\mathbb{F}_p) = E_{-A}(\mathbb{F}_p)$.
- (b) Consider $E_0 : y^2 = x^3 + x$. Let $P_1 = (x_1, y_1) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ and denote $\text{ord}(P) = N$ for some $N \mid (p+1)$. Show that $P'_1 = (x_1, iy_1) \in E(\mathbb{F}_{p^2})$, and moreover $\text{ord}(P'_1) = N$ as well.
Hint: One way to show this is by using the explicit group law (Theorem 3.7). It is instructive to first consider $N = 2, 3$ and then conclude for general N .
- (c) Now consider the isogeny $\phi : E_0 \rightarrow E$ with kernel $\langle P_1 \rangle$. Using Vélu's formulas (Theorem 4.13), one finds that $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ for some a, b . Further consider the isogeny $\phi' : E \rightarrow E'$ with kernel $\langle P'_1 \rangle$. Show that $E' : y^2 = x^3 + ax - b$ when using the same formulas.¹⁶

In the CSIDH setting, we work with elliptic curves in Montgomery form. For the next part of the exercise, you may either use the previous result and convert the equation for E and E' to Montgomery form (tedious). Or you can use isogeny formulas from the literature which directly work with curves in Montgomery form ([29, Proposition 1]).

- (d) With $P_1, P'_1 \in E_0[N]$ as before, now consider the isogeny $\psi : E_0 \rightarrow E_A$ where $\ker(\psi) = \langle P_1 \rangle$, but the codomain is in Montgomery form. Show that there exists an isogeny $\psi' : E_0 \rightarrow E_{-A}$ with kernel $\ker(\psi') = \langle P'_1 \rangle$.

We note that the elliptic curve E_{-A} is the quadratic twist of the curve E_A . The two curves are isomorphic over \mathbb{F}_{p^2} , but not over \mathbb{F}_p (unless $A = 0$).

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¹⁶This is the quadratic twist of E (see also Exercise 3.21).

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