# Subexponential Performance from Generic Group Algorithms

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April 3, 2008

# A familiar example

#### **Binary exponentiation**

Given  $\alpha \in G$  and  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $Exp(\alpha, k)$  computes  $\alpha^k$ :

- If k = 0 return  $1_G$ .
- **2** If k < 0 return  $Exp(\alpha^{-1}, -k)$ .
- **③** Set  $\beta$  ← *Exp*( $\alpha$ ,  $\lfloor k/2 \rfloor$ ).
- If *k* is even return  $\beta\beta$ , otherwise return  $\beta\beta\alpha$ .

## **Generic groups**

## Computational model for finite groups

- Black-box group operation, inverse, and identity.
- Elements uniquely identified by (opaque) bit strings.
- Uniformly distributed random group elements available.
- Complexity measured by group operations.

# Discrete logarithms in a generic group

## Easy problem

Given  $\alpha \in G$  and  $1 \leq k \leq N = |\alpha|$ , compute

$$\beta = \alpha^k.$$

Uses  $O(\log N)$  group operations, outputs  $\beta \in \langle \alpha \rangle$ .

### Hard problem

Given  $\beta \in \langle \alpha \rangle$ , compute the least k > 0 such that  $\alpha^k = \beta$ ,

$$k = \log_{\alpha} \beta.$$

Requires  $\Omega(\sqrt{P})$  group operations (Shoup 1997).

# **DL-based cryptography**

## Cryptographic requirements

*P* should be at least  $2^{160}$ , preferably  $2^{200}$  or more. Ideally, N = P or N = cP for some small cofactor *c*.

#### **Pohlig-Hellman attack**

Suppose  $|\alpha| = N = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots 997 > 2^{1000}$ . Let  $m = N/\ell$ . To compute  $k = \log_{\alpha} \beta$ , modulo  $\ell$ , note that

$$\beta^m = (\alpha^k)^m = (\alpha^m)^k.$$

Therefore  $k \equiv \log_{\alpha^m} \beta^m \mod \ell$ .

# **Hyperelliptic curves**

## **Quick primer**

- Projective curve C given by y<sup>2</sup> = f(x) over F<sub>p</sub> (odd char.).
  deg f(x) = 2g + 1, where g is the genus of C.
- The case g = 1 is an elliptic curve:  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ .
- The Jacobian J(C) is a finite abelian group.
- An element of *J*(*C*) corresponds to *g* points on *C*.
  For *g* = 1, we have *J*(*C*) ≅ *C*.
- $\#J(C) \sim p^g$ , specifically  $|\#J(C) p^g| = O(p^{g-1/2})$ .

# Hyperelliptic curve cryptography

### **Advantages**

- As fast or faster than elliptic curves.
- Small key size, and even smaller field size.
- Well suited to embedded applications: mobile phones, PDAs, stored value cards, secure ID, remote keys, ....

### Implementation issues

- Security (and performance) dictate g = 2 or 3.
- Field size should be a power of 2, or prime.  $p = 2^{89} - 1$  and  $p = 2^{61} - 1$  work nicely.
- Group order #J(C) should be prime or near-prime.

## The problem

## How do we compute #J(C)?

For binary fields, use *p*-adic methods, e.g. Kedlaya's algorithm. For prime fields, **no good solution is known**.

- A polynomial-time algorithm exists, but is infeasible in practice (Pila 1990).
- Best results in genus 2 take one week to compute  $\#J(C) \approx 2^{164}$  (Gaudry and Schost 2004).
- In genus 3, best is  $\#J(C) \approx 2^{150}$  (Harvey 2007).
- Both existing methods limited by (effectively) exponential space requirements. Difficult to scale.

## How do we compute |G| for abelian G?

## The group exponent $\lambda(G)$

 $\lambda(G)$  is the least common multiple of  $|\alpha|$  over  $\alpha \in G$ . A prime *p* divides |G| if and only if *p* divides  $\lambda(G)$ .

## Computing the structure of G

Decompose *G* as a product of cyclic groups:

- Compute  $|\alpha|$  for random  $\alpha \in G$  to obtain  $\lambda(G)$ .
- 2 Using  $\lambda(G)$  to compute in *p*-Sylow subgroups  $H_p$ , compute a basis for each  $H_p$  via discrete logarithms.

Given bounds on |G|, the expected complexity is dominated by the time to compute the first  $|\alpha|$  (PhD thesis, 2007).

# How do we compute $|\alpha|$ ?

Generic method 1: Shanks' baby-step giant-step

Pick *B*, compute  $\beta = \alpha^{-B}$ , and then

$$\alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^3, \dots, \alpha^B; \qquad \beta, \beta^2, \beta^3, \dots, \beta^B.$$

Provided  $|\alpha| <= B^2$ , then some  $\alpha^j = \beta^k$  and  $\alpha^{j+kB} = \mathbf{1}_G$ .

 $O(\sqrt{N})$  group operations\* (slow!).

#### Generic method 2: Pollard's p-1 method

Let *M* be the product of all maximal prime powers q < B. If  $\alpha^M = 1_G$ , then we can compute  $|\alpha|$  in O(B) time.

O(N) group operations in the worst case (slower!).

## Smooth and semismooth probabilities

## Method 2 is fast if $|\alpha|$ is "*B*-smooth"

Suppose  $|\alpha|$  is a random integer in [1, *N*] and let  $B = N^{1/u}$ . With probability  $\rho(u) = u^{-u+o(1)}$ , compute  $|\alpha|$  in time O(B).

Pick  $u = \sqrt{2 \log N / \log \log N}$  to obtain  $L(1/2, 1/\sqrt{2})$ .

## Method 2+1 is fast if $|\alpha|$ is " $(B^2, B)$ -semismooth"

With probability  $\sigma(u)$ , compute  $|\alpha|$  in time O(B).  $\sigma(u) = O(\rho(u))$ , but about 100 times bigger for moderate u.

# A probabilistic paradox

#### Good news

Let  $N \approx 2^{160}$  and u = 6.4. Then  $\sigma(u) \approx 1/2640$  and  $O(B) \approx 71$  million gops. For hyperelliptic curves, this is under thirty seconds.

#### **Bad news**

Worst case: over one trillion years. Random case: over ten billion years.

## **Optimistic/pessimistic strategy**

Give up after O(B) gops and try a different *C*. Expected time to first success is less than a day.

# What good is it?

### **Apparently useless**

The only cases where we can compute #J(C) are totally unsuitable for cryptographic use.

The group order contains no large prime factors.

#### But with a slight twist...

 $\tilde{C}$  is the curve  $y^2 = \tau f(x)$ , where  $\tau$  is not square in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . # $J(\tilde{C})$  may be prime even though #J(C) is smooth.

## The zeta function of a curve

The zeta function of *C* over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is given by

$$Z(T) = \exp\left(\sum \frac{N_k}{k}T^k\right) = \frac{P(T)}{(1-T)(1-\rho T)},$$

where  $N_k$  counts points on *C* over  $\mathbb{F}_{p^k}$ . In genus 2,

$$P(T) = p^2 T^4 + pa_1 T^3 + a_2 T^2 + a_1 T + 1.$$

The polynomial P(T) has the useful property that

$$P(1) = \#J(C);$$
  $P(-1) = \#J(\tilde{C}).$ 

Using known bounds on the integers  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ , we can deduce P(T) from #J(C) using group operations in  $J(\tilde{C})$ .

# The algorithm

### Finding a cryptographically suitable Jacobian

Given *N*, select a suitable *u*, and let  $B = N^{1/u}$ . For each curve *C* in a family with  $\#J(C) \approx N$ :

- Attempt to compute  $#J(\tilde{C})$  using O(B) gops.
- When successful, determine P(T) from  $P(-1) = #J(\tilde{C})$ . Then compute #J(C) = P(1).
- Sontinue until #J(C) is prime or near-prime.

## Selecting a suitable *u*

## Computing $\sigma(u)$ .

The semismooth probability function  $G(\alpha, \beta)$  may be used to determine  $\sigma(u) = G(1/u, 2/u)$  (Bach-Peralta 1996).

N = #J(C) is more likely to have small factors than  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Let *C* be a "typical" curve of genus 2 over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ . If N = #J(C)

$$\Pr[\ell|N] = \frac{1}{\ell} + \frac{1}{\ell^2} + O\left(1/\ell^3\right)$$

for primes  $\ell \ll p$  (Achter-Holden 2003).

## Performance

## Complexity

Expected time is  $L(1/2, \sqrt{2})$  group operations. Space complexity is  $L(1/2, 1/\sqrt{2})$ , not a limiting factor.

## Parellelization

Well suited to distributed computation:

- Each attempt to compute  $#J(\tilde{C})$  is independent.
- 2 Minimal coordination required.
- Fault tolerant.

## **Examples**

**Genus 2,** 
$$p = 2^{89} - 1$$

 $y^2 = x^5 + x + 202214$ : #J(C) =

 $180 \times 2128466028980222265110760419187916380742710181533203.$ 

Group size is 178 bits, with a 171-bit prime factor.

## Genus 3, $p = 2^{61} - 1$

$$y^2 = x^7 + 3x^5 + x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 + 5x + 84538$$
: # $J(C) =$ 

 $14739408 \times 831781325652289358544190241299568732364985371373.$ 

Group size is 183 bits, with a 166-bit prime factor.

## **Trace zero varieties**

## Definition

Let  $\phi$  denote the Frobenius endomorphism on  $J(C/\mathbb{F}_{p^k})$ . The kernel of the trace endomorphism

$$1 + \phi + \phi^2 + \dots + \phi^{k-1}$$

is a subgroup  $T_k(C)$  of  $J(C/\mathbb{F}_{p^k})$ , the *trace zero variety*.

Provided k does not divide #J(C), we have

$$\#T_k(C) = \#J(C/\mathbb{F}_{p^k})/\#J(C) \approx p^{(k-1)g}$$

## **Trace zero varieties**

### Implementation

- For cryptographic use, k = 3, g = 2, and  $\#T_3(C) \approx p^4$ .
- Must be 20% larger to achieve equivalent security. This still permits much smaller *p*.
- Performance is often superior to a comparable Jacobian.

### **Results**

- The time required to find  $T_3(C)$  with security equivalent to a 200-bit Jacobian is under an hour.
- Several examples have effective security over 300 bits.
- The algorithm can readily find C for which #T<sub>3</sub>(C) and #T<sub>3</sub>(C̃) are both prime.

# The bigger picture

### Generic subexponential algorithm

Any problem reducible to computing the order of one of a family of generic abelian groups can be solved in subexponential time.

\*assuming suitably distributed group orders.

A generic approach to searching for Jacobians, to appear in Math. Comp. See http://math.mit.edu/~drew for examples and references.