

# Counting creatively: curves and cryptography

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## First examples

Curves are often the first (algebra-geometric) objects one studies in school:

Familiar name	Defining equation
Lines	$ax + by = c$
Quadratics	$y = ax^2 + bx + c$
Circles	$x^2 + y^2 = c$

### Question

What seems to be common amongst these examples? In other words, why might each of these fall under one class called “curves”?

# Generalities

There are two objects which could be used to define a curve:

1. A geometric set of (e.g. rational) points

$$C(\mathbb{Q}) = \{(a, b) \in \mathbb{Q}^2 : f(a, b) = 0\}.$$

2. An algebraic equation in two variables defines a curve, i.e.  $C : f(x, y) = 0$ , for some polynomial  $f(x, y)$  with coefficients in  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Algebraic geometry makes very deep connections between algebraic structure corresponding to the polynomial and the geometry of a (algebraic) set of points, far beyond curves.

## Linear curves: $\mathbb{Q}$ -points

Consider a degree 1 curve

$$L : ax + by + c = 0, \text{ with } a \neq 0 \text{ or } b \neq 0.$$

The points on the curve will depend on what values are allowed for  $x$  and  $y$ .

First consider  $L(\mathbb{Q})$ , i.e.  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Q}^2$ .

- ▶ If  $b = 0$ , then  $L(\mathbb{Q}) = \left\{ \left( -\frac{c}{a}, y \right) : y \in \mathbb{Q} \right\}$
- ▶ If  $b \neq 0$ , solve for  $y = f(x)$ , get  $L(\mathbb{Q}) = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in \mathbb{Q}\}$

## Linear curves: $\mathbb{Z}$ -points

$L : ax + by + c = 0$ , with  $a \neq 0$  or  $b \neq 0$ .

Now we restrict to  $L(\mathbb{Z})$ .

- ▶ If  $\gcd(a, b)$  divides  $c$ , the Euclidean algorithm can determine one  $(x_0, y_0) \in L(\mathbb{Z})$ , and this can generate all the other solutions.

Example:  $6x + 8y = 10$  has point  $(-1, 2)$ . The two adjacent points are  $(-5, 5)$  and  $(3, -1)$ .

- ▶ If  $\gcd(a, b)$  does not divide  $c$ , then  $L(\mathbb{Z}) = \emptyset$ .
- Example:  $6x + 8y = 15$  has no integral points.

## Quadratic curves: first form

Consider a degree 2 curve  $Q_1 : y + ax^2 + bx + c = 0$

$Q_1(\mathbb{Q})$ : as before, there are always infinitely many.

- ▶ For any fixed  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ , there is a corresponding  $y \in \mathbb{Q}$ .
- ▶ In contrast, for any fixed  $y \in \mathbb{Q}$  there may not be any corresponding  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

The discriminant  $\sqrt{b^2 - 4a(c + y)}$  gives us sufficient information.

$Q_1(\mathbb{Z})$ : not significantly different.

What if  $y$  were changed to  $ky$ ?

## Quadratic curves: general form

A general degree 2 curve is defined by

$$q(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 + dx + ey + f$$

Consider the case  $C : x^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

- ▶ No non-trivial  $\mathbb{Z}$ -points, i.e.  $C(\mathbb{Z}) = \{(\pm 1, 0), (0, \pm 1)\}$ .
- ▶ Geometry helps to see  $C(\mathbb{Q})$  is infinite.
  - ▶ Draw the line through  $(-1, 0)$  and  $(0, t)$ , i.e.  $y = t(1 + x)$
  - ▶ The other point of intersection  $(x, y)$  with  $C$  satisfies

$$1 - x^2 = t^2(1 + x)^2$$

- ▶ Get  $(x, y) = \left(\frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}, \frac{2t}{1+t^2}\right)$

## Quadratic curves: general form

For  $Q : ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 + dx + ey + f = 0$  there is a general procedure:

- ▶ Decide if some point  $(x, y) \in Q(\mathbb{Q})$  exists.
- ▶ If not,  $Q(\mathbb{Q}) = \emptyset$ .
- ▶ If  $(x_0, y_0) \in Q(\mathbb{Q})$  then  $Q(\mathbb{Q})$  is infinite, in the same way as with  $C$  above.

### Question

How does one decide if any  $(x, y) \in Q(\mathbb{Q})$  exist?

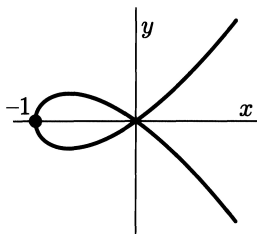


## Cubic curves: singular

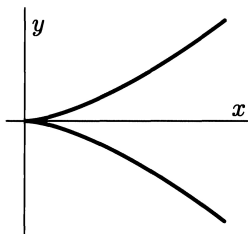
Consider  $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ , discriminant  $\Delta = 4a^3 + 27b^2$ .

Singular cases:  $\Delta = 0$ ,  $x^3 + ax + b$  has repeated roots.

$E(\mathbb{Q})$  is determined as quadratics were.



A Singular Cubic with  
Distinct Tangent Directions

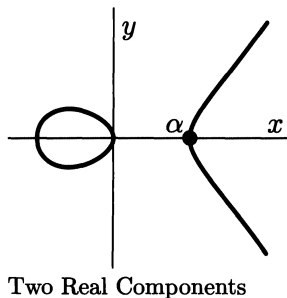
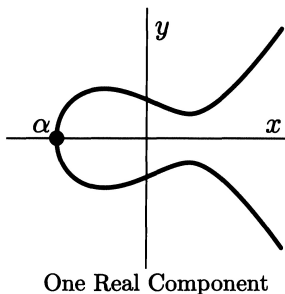


A Singular Cubic  
with A Cusp

## Cubic curves: non-singular

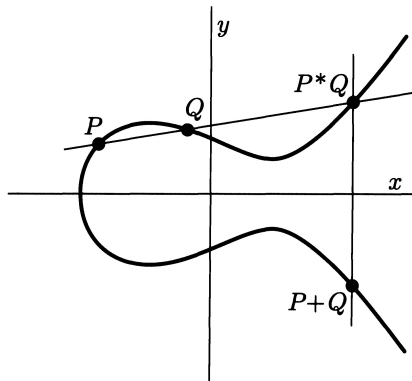
$E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ , discriminant  $\Delta = 4a^3 + 27b^2$ .

Non-singular cases:  $\Delta \neq 0$ ,  $x^3 + ax + b$  has no repeated roots.  
 $E(\mathbb{Q})$  is more interesting.



## Structure: geometrically

The set of points  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  admits a commutative addition operation



Adding Points on a Weierstrass Cubic

## Structure: algebraically

The addition operation makes  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  into an Abelian group.

Addition formula: Let  $P = (x_1, y_1)$ ,  $Q = (x_2, y_2)$ . Then

$$P + Q = (\alpha^2 - x_1 - x_2, \alpha x_3 + \beta)$$

where  $y = \alpha x + \beta$  is the line connecting  $P$  and  $Q$ .

### Theorem (Mordell 1922)

The group  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  is finitely generated. Thus,  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  decomposes

$$E(\mathbb{Q}) \cong E_{tors}(\mathbb{Q}) \times \mathbb{Z}^{r(E, \mathbb{Q})}.$$

The quantity  $r(E, \mathbb{Q})$  is known as the (algebraic) *rank* of  $E(\mathbb{Q})$ .

# Mordell's proof

The main steps:

1. Show that  $E(\mathbb{Q})/2E(\mathbb{Q})$  is finite.
  - ▶ Let  $Q_1, \dots, Q_n$  represent  $E(\mathbb{Q})/2E(\mathbb{Q})$ .
  - ▶ Every  $P := P_0 \in E(\mathbb{Q})$  is related to some  $2P_1 \in E(\mathbb{Q}), \dots$

$$P_i - Q_{i+1} = 2P_{i+1}.$$

2.  $\{R \in E(\mathbb{Q}) : \text{ht}(R) \leq c\}$  is finite for any  $c > 0$ .
  - ▶ height  $\text{ht}(P)$  measures complexity:  $\text{ht}(\frac{a}{b}) = \max(|a|, |b|)$ .
  - ▶  $\text{ht}(2P) \geq 4\text{ht}(P) -$  (some uniform constant)
  - ▶ Sequence  $P = P_0, P_1, \dots, P_n$  is decreasing in height, eventually lands in a finite set.

## Complex Structure

One can also consider  $E(\mathbb{C})$ . The key facts:

- ▶ For  $L = \mathbb{Z}\omega_1 + \mathbb{Z}\omega_2$  a complex lattice,  $\mathbb{C}/L$  is a torus.
- ▶ Doubly-periodic  $\wp(z + \omega) = \wp(z)$  for any  $\omega \in L$

$$\wp(z) := \frac{1}{z^2} + \sum_{0 \neq \omega \in L} \left( \frac{1}{(z - \omega)^2} - \frac{1}{\omega^2} \right)$$

- ▶ The  $\wp$ -function satisfies the differential equation

$$\wp'^2 = 4\wp^3 - g_2\wp - g_3$$

- ▶  $\wp$  defines an analytic isomorphism

$$F : \mathbb{C}/L \rightarrow E(\mathbb{C}) : z \mapsto (\wp(z), \wp'(z))$$

# Endomorphisms

(Algebra-Geometric) From the addition law, there are functions  $[n] : E(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow E(\mathbb{C})$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$[n] : E \rightarrow E : P \mapsto n \cdot P$$

(Complex) Since  $L = \mathbb{Z}\omega_1 + \mathbb{Z}\omega_2$ , multiplication by  $n$  maps  $L$  to  $L$  and hence preserves  $\mathbb{C}/L$ .

These *endomorphisms* are usually the only maps on  $E$ , not always.

## Example: Complex multiplication

Take  $E(\mathbb{C})$  corresponding to  $L = \mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}i$ . Multiplication by  $i$  also sends  $L$  to  $L$ .

# Communicating Securely: RSA

## Question

How does one communicate securely without prior interaction?

- ▶ Bob fixes private information: two (large) primes  $p$  and  $q$ , then forms  $N = pq$ , and positive integers  $e, d$  such that  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\Phi(N)}$
- ▶ Bob posts  $e$  publicly, to communicate message  $m$  securely with Bob, transmit  $m^e$
- ▶ Security relies on the difficulty in factoring a large integer, e.g.  $N$ .
- ▶ Broken by quantum computers using Shor's algorithm.



# Communicating Securely: Abstract Requirements

## Question

What is the necessary structure for this encryption system?

1. Closure under multiplication: to ensure  $m^e$  is still meaningful
2. Cyclic structure: to *efficiently* remove the exponent  $e$
3. Solve a linear equation (congruence really): to know *how* to remove the exponent  $e$
4. Difficult problem: complexity of factoring and hence of undoing exponentiation

# Curves with structure

## Question

How does one emulate RSA encryption with points on  $E$ ?

1. Closure under addition/multiplication by  $n$  on rational points.
2. Cyclic structure (yet to be seen)
3. Essentially the same linear equation to decrypt
4. Difficult problem: undoing addition on points of  $E$  is intractable

# Torsion

From Mordell's Theorem, one piece of  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  is the set of torsion points

$$E_{tors}(\mathbb{Q}) = \{P \in E(\mathbb{Q}) : nP = \mathcal{O} \text{ for some } n > 0\}.$$

## Theorem (Mazur 1977)

$E_{tors}(\mathbb{Q})$  must be (isomorphic to) one of the following:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z} & 1 \leq N \leq 10 \text{ or } N = 12 \\ \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/(2N)\mathbb{Z} & 1 \leq N \leq 4 \end{array}$$

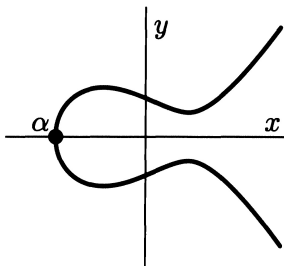
Moreover, all of these possibilities do occur.

## $E(\mathbb{Q})[2]$ : 2-torsion

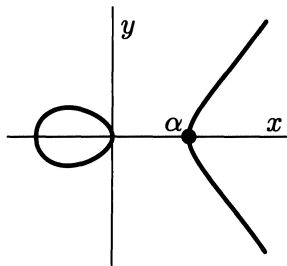
Detecting points  $P \in E(\mathbb{Q})$  such that  $2P = \mathcal{O}$  is easy.

- ▶ If  $2P = \mathcal{O}$ , the tangent line at  $P$  has third intersection at  $\mathcal{O}$ .
- ▶ Such tangent lines are vertical.
- ▶ From the graph, these occur at points on the  $x$ -axis.

Hence,  $E(\mathbb{Q})[2] = \{P \in E(\mathbb{Q}) : y(P) = 0\}$ .



One Real Component



Two Real Components

## $E(\mathbb{Q})[3]$ : 3-torsion

Detecting points  $P \in E(\mathbb{Q})$  such that  $3P = \mathcal{O}$  requires use of addition formulas.

- ▶  $3P = \mathcal{O}$  iff  $2P = -P$  iff  $x(2P) = x(-P) = x(P)$ .
- ▶ From our addition formula  $x(2P)$  can be determined explicitly.
- ▶ Some algebra yields  $x(2P) = x(P)$  iff  $x(P)$  satisfies a polynomial  $\psi_3(x)$  of degree 4.

Hence,  $E(\mathbb{Q})[3]$

- ▶ Consists of  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Q}^2$  where  $\psi_3(x) = 0$ .
- ▶ Has at most 9 points

# Complex torsion

If we consider  $E(\mathbb{C})$  then the connection with  $\mathbb{C}/L$ , with  $L = \mathbb{Z}\omega_1 + \mathbb{Z}\omega_2$ , is very useful.

For  $\tilde{z} \in \mathbb{C}/L$ :

- ▶  $n\tilde{z} = \tilde{0}$  iff  $nz \in L$
- ▶  $nz \in L$  iff  $z = \frac{k_1}{n}\omega_1 + \frac{k_2}{n}\omega_2$

Hence,  $E(\mathbb{C})[n] \cong (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^2$ .

# Integer points

Unfortunately,  $E(\mathbb{Z})$  is not as well-structured as  $E(\mathbb{Q})$ .

## Theorem (Siegel 1928)

The set  $E(\mathbb{Z})$  is finite.

## Theorem (Nagell 1935, Lutz 1937)

Recall  $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . If  $P \in E(\mathbb{Q})_{tors}$  then

1.  $P \in E(\mathbb{Z})$
2.  $y(P) = 0$  and  $P \in E(\mathbb{Q})[2]$  or  $y(P) \mid \Delta$ .

## Finite fields

For a prime number  $p$ , let  $\mathbb{F}_p$  denote  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  (a finite field).

Defining the curve  $E$  by a polynomial works just as well in this setting. The set  $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  is defined in the same way, and still admits an addition law.

- ▶ The geometric definition of addition is no longer meaningful.
- ▶ The algebraic formulas for addition still hold.
- ▶  $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  is automatically finite.

### Question

How many points can  $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  have?



# Hasse bound

There are  $p$  choices for  $x(P)$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ :

- ▶  $x(P) = 0$  yields  $(0, 0) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$
- ▶  $x(P) \neq 0$  and not a square in  $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  yields no points.
- ▶  $x(P) \neq 0$  and a square in  $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  yields two points.

One expects half of the values in  $\mathbb{F}_p$  to be squares, hence  $p + 1$  points in  $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ .

**Theorem (Hasse 1933)**

$$|\#E(\mathbb{F}_p) - (p + 1)| < 2\sqrt{p}.$$

## Reduction (mod $p$ )

If  $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$  has  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  then one can reduce the equation (mod  $p$ ), and define a new curve  $\tilde{E}$ .

- ▶ If  $P \in E(\mathbb{Q})_{tors}$  the Nagell-Lutz says  $P \in E(\mathbb{Z})$ .
- ▶ If  $P = (x, y)$  then  $\tilde{P} = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in \tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ .
- ▶ If  $P \neq \mathcal{O}$  then  $\tilde{P} \neq \tilde{\mathcal{O}}$ .

Hence  $\pi : E(\mathbb{Q})_{tors} \hookrightarrow \tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$  is well-defined, one-to-one.

### Reduction Lemma

For almost all  $p$ ,  $E(\mathbb{Q})_{tors}$  is a subgroup of  $\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ .

## Example: $E(\mathbb{Q})$ is finite

Consider  $E : y^2 = x^3 + x$ . One can determine  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  completely.

- ▶ For  $p \geq 3$ , the Reduction Lemma applies.
- ▶  $\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_3) = \{ \tilde{\mathcal{O}}, (0, 0), (2, 1), (2, 2) \}$
- ▶  $\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_5) = \{ \tilde{\mathcal{O}}, (0, 0), (2, 0), (3, 0) \}$
- ▶ For this curve, Sage (e.g.) can verify that  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  is finite.

From this data,  $E(\mathbb{Q}) = E(\mathbb{Q})_{tors} = \{ \mathcal{O}, (0, 0) \}$ .

## Example: $E(\mathbb{Q})$ is infinite

Consider  $E : y^2 = x^3 + 3$ . We can prove  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  is infinite.

- ▶ For  $p \geq 5$ , the Reduction Lemma applies.
- ▶  $\#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_5) = 6$  and  $\#\tilde{E}(\mathbb{F}_7) = 13$ .
- ▶  $\#E(\mathbb{Q})_{tors}$  must divide 6 and 13, so  $\#E(\mathbb{Q})_{tors} = 1$ .
- ▶ By inspection,  $(1, 2) \in E(\mathbb{Q})$

From this data,  $(1, 2)$  is a point of infinite order, so  $E(\mathbb{Q})$  is infinite.

# Cryptographic requirements

Recall the requirements for cryptography:

1. Closure under addition/multiplication by  $n$  on rational points.
2. Cyclic structure (yet to be seen)
3. Essentially the same linear equation to decrypt
4. Difficult problem: undoing addition on points of  $E$  is intractable

Conditions (2) and (4) imply that only  $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  has a chance of being useful.

# Sufficient Conditions

Recall:  $|\#E(\mathbb{F}_p) - (p + 1)| < 2\sqrt{p}$  (Hasse bound)

Plan of attack:

For (4), we ensure that  $\#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  is large

For (2), we ensure that  $\#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  is a prime (ensures cyclic)

Two approaches:

1. Pick a random curve  $E$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , count the points, decide if it is good.
2. Construct a curve  $E$  with a prescribed number of points.

## Frobenius $\Phi_p$

Fix a prime  $p$ .

Over any finite field  $\mathbb{F}_q$ ,  $q = p^n$ , there is a Frobenius map

$$\Phi_p : E \rightarrow E : (x, y) \mapsto (x^p, y^p).$$

Two Facts:

- ▶ (Fermat's Little Theorem)  $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_p$  implies  $\alpha^p = \alpha$ .
- ▶  $E(\mathbb{F}_p) = \{(x, y) : x^p = x, y^p = y\} = \ker(1 - \Phi_p)$ .

**Theorem: Characteristic polynomial of Frobenius**

$\Phi_p$  satisfies  $\varphi^2 - a\varphi + p = 0$  where  $a = p + 1 - \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ .

# Schoof's Algorithm

Frobenius  $\Phi_p: \Phi_p^2 - a\Phi_p + p = 0$

Main idea to obtain  $a$ :

- ▶ Determine enough small primes  $\ell_i$  such that  $\prod_i \ell_i > 4\sqrt{p}$ .
- ▶ Use the Chinese Remainder Theorem to find unique  $a \pmod{\prod_i \ell_i}$  in the appropriate range.

Technicalities:

- ▶ Compute  $R_i = \Phi_p(P_i)$  for  $P \in E[\ell_i]$
- ▶ Compute  $Q_i = \Phi_p^2(R_i) + [p]R_i \in E[\ell]$
- ▶ Determine some  $a_i \pmod{\ell_i}$  such that  $Q_i = [a_i]R_i$ .



## Generating a curve: CM

### Facts:

- ▶ If  $\tau \in \mathbb{C}$  is quadratic, with  $\text{disc}(\tau) = -D$  then the elliptic curve  $E$  corresponding  $\mathbb{C}/(\mathbb{Z} + \mathbb{Z}\tau)$  has complex multiplication by  $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-D}]$ .
- ▶ There is a complex function  $j$  such that the minimal polynomial  $H_D(x)$  of  $j(\tau)$  has integer coefficients.
- ▶ The reduction of  $H_D(x)$  has a root  $j_0 \in \mathbb{F}_p$  which corresponds to an elliptic curve  $E$

## Generating a curve: Algorithm

Procedure:

- ▶ Choose an  $N$  which you want to be  $\#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  for some  $p$ .
- ▶ Create a list of primes  $\ell_i$  such that  $N$  is a square (mod  $\ell_i$ ), create  $D = \prod_i \ell_i$ .
- ▶ Find solutions  $x$  and  $y$  to  $x^2 - Dy^2 = 4N$ .
- ▶ Test whether  $p = N + 1 \pm x$  is prime. If so, compute  $H_D(x)$  and a root  $j_0$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ .

Thank you for your attention.

Good resources:

- ▶ Silverman J., Tate J. *Rational Points on Elliptic Curves*. Springer, 1992.
- ▶ Silverman J. *Arithmetic of Elliptic Curves*. 2nd ed. Springer, 2009.
- ▶ Washington, L. *Elliptic Curves: Number Theory and Cryptography*. Chapman and Hall, 2003.