An Algebraic Point of View on the Generation of Pairing-Friendly Curves

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23 November 2023

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Introduction

Notation

Let \mathbb{F}_q be a finite field of characteristic p > 2.

Let $A, B \in \mathbb{F}_q$ such that $4A^3 + 27B^2 \neq 0$. We define an elliptic curve E with:

$$E: y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$$

We ask $\#E(\mathbb{F}_q) = rh$ with $r \neq p$ prime and h small.

The trace of E is $t = #E(\mathbb{F}_q) - (q+1)$.

<u>Theorem</u>: Hasse-Weil bound With the previous notation, $|t| \leq 2\sqrt{q}$.

Let $\mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T$ be groups of exponent r. We call pairing an application

$$e: \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$$

which is:

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which is:

▶ non-degenerate: $\forall P \in \mathbb{G}_1, \exists Q \in \mathbb{G}_2, e(P, Q) \neq 1$ and $\forall Q \in \mathbb{G}_2, \exists P \in \mathbb{G}_1, e(P, Q) \neq 1$. Let $\mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2, \mathbb{G}_T$ be groups of exponent r. We call pairing an application

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- ▶ bilinear: $\forall P_1, P_2 \in \mathbb{G}_1, \forall Q_1, Q_2 \in \mathbb{G}_2, e(P_1 + P_2, Q_1) = e(P_1, Q_1)e(P_2, Q_1)$ and $e(P_1, Q_1 + Q_2) = e(P_1, Q_1)e(P_1, Q_2).$

We denote the *r*-torsion of E by E[r].

Let μ_r be the set of *r*-th roots of unity in $\overline{\mathbb{F}_q}$. Then $\mathbb{F}_q(\mu_r)$ has cardinal q^k .

We call k the embedding degree of E.

Examples

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Let μ_r be the set of *r*-th roots of unity in $\overline{\mathbb{F}_q}$. Then $\mathbb{F}_q(\mu_r)$ has cardinal q^k . We call *k* the embedding degree of *E*.

Example:

$$e_{Weil}: E[r] \times E[r] \longrightarrow \mu_r$$

Example:

$$e_{\mathit{Tate}}: E(\mathbb{F}_q)[r] \times E(\mathbb{F}_{q^k}) / r E(\mathbb{F}_{q^k}) \longrightarrow \mathbb{F}_{q^k}^{\times} / (\mathbb{F}_{q^k}^{\times})^r$$

Pairings have some interesting cryptographic applications:

- ▶ Identity-based encryption (Boneh–Franklin, 2003)
- ▶ Short signatures (Boneh–Lynn–Shacham, 2004)
- ► Flexible key-exchange protocols (Joux, 2004)

If a pairing can be computed quickly,

DLP in
$$E[r](\mathbb{F}_q) \longrightarrow \text{DLP}$$
 in $\mathbb{F}_{q^k}^{\times}$

To use pairings, we need $\mathbb{F}_{q^k}^{\times}$ to be large enough, which means k is large enough.

Definition

Let End(E) be the endomorphism ring of the curve E. Then either:

- End(E) is isomorphic to a maximal order in a quaternion algebra. We say that E is supersingular.
- End(E) is isomorphic to an order in an imaginary quadratic field. We say that E is ordinary.

Proposition

If *E* is supersingular, then $k \leq 6$.

If *E* is an ordinary curve, usually $k \approx r$.

We want curves with small enough k: pairing-friendly curves.

Pairing-friendly curves are rare, so we need to find ad hoc constructions.

Previous Work

We define the D discriminant of E as the squarefree part of the discriminant of End(E). General strategy to generate PF curves of a given security level n:

- Fix k and D.
- Find q and E/\mathbb{F}_q with a subgroup of size $r \approx 2^{2n}$, embedding degree k, and discriminant D.
- Compute the ρ -value: $\rho = \log(q) / \log(r)$.

Goal: getting $\rho \approx 1$.

Describing PF curves with integers

Proposition

Fix k and D. Let q, r and t be integers satisfying:

- ▶ q is a prime (power).
- \blacktriangleright r is a prime.
- t is coprime to q.
- ▶ rh = q + 1 t for some integer h.
- r divides $\Phi_k(q)$ where Φ_k is the k-th cyclotomic polynomial.
- $Dy^2 = 4q t^2$ for some integer y (CM equation).

Then there exists a curve E over \mathbb{F}_{q^k} with discriminant D, trace t and a subgroup of order r with embedding degree k.

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- t is coprime to q.
- ▶ rh = q + 1 t for some integer h.
- r divides $\Phi_k(t-1)$ where Φ_k is the k-th cyclotomic polynomial.
- $Dy^2 = 4q t^2 = -(t-2)^2 \mod r$ for some integer y (CM equation).

Then there exists a curve E over \mathbb{F}_{q^k} with discriminant D, trace t and a subgroup of order r with embedding degree k.

Two reasons to consider families of curves:

- smaller ρ -values.
- Adaptation to the security level.

Goal: Find polynomials Q, R, T in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ and take $q = Q(x_0)$, $r = R(x_0)$, $t = T(x_0)$ for some integer x_0 .

Prime values of polynomials

Conjecture: Buniakowski–Schinzel

Let $P \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$. P takes an infinite number of prime values if and only if:

- ► *P* is irreducible.
- ▶ *P* has a positive leading coefficient.
- ▶ P is non-constant.
- ► *P* takes integer values.
- ▶ $gcd({P(x) | x, P(x) \in \mathbb{Z}}) = 1.$

 ${\it P}$ represents primes if ${\it P}$ satisfies the 5 conditions of the conjecture.

Complete families of curves

Fix k and D. Let Q, R, T, Y and H be polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$. The polynomials form a potential (complete) family of curves if:

- \triangleright R is irreducible, non-constant, has positive leading coefficient.
- $\blacktriangleright RH = Q + 1 T.$
- ► *R* divides $\Phi_k(T-1)$.
- ► $DY^2 = 4Q T^2$.

They form a (complete) family if they additionally satisfy:

- \blacktriangleright Q represents primes.
- \blacktriangleright Q, R, T, Y, H all take an integer value at a common integer.

The ρ -value of a family: deg $Q/ \deg R$.

Let C_k be the field extension containing the k-th roots of unity.

Algorithm 2.1: Brezing–Weng method **Input:** k > 0 and D > 0 squarefree.

Output: A potential family of elliptic curves.

1 Let $R \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ be an irreducible polynomial with positive leading coefficient such that $K = \mathbb{Q}[X]/\langle R \rangle$ contains $\sqrt{-D}$ and C_k . Fix a primitive k-th root of unity $\zeta_k \in K$.

Let C_k be the field extension containing the *k*-th roots of unity.

Algorithm 2.2: Brezing–Weng method **Input:** k > 0 and D > 0 squarefree.

Output: A potential family of elliptic curves.

 Let R ∈ Q[X] be an irreducible polynomial with positive leading coefficient such that K = Q[X]/⟨R⟩ contains √-D and C_k. Fix a primitive k-th root of unity ζ_k ∈ K.
 Let T ∈ Q[X] be a polynomial mapping to ζ_k + 1 in K.
 Let Y ∈ Q[X] be a polynomial mapping to T-2/√-D in K.
 Q = (T² + DY²)/4 ∈ Q[X]; H = (Q + 1 - T)/R ∈ Q[X]
 Return Q,R,T,Y,H

Example:

The Barreto–Lynn–Scott family for k = 24, D = 3, and $\rho = 5/4$:

- $R = \Phi_{24}(X)$,

-
$$T = X + 1$$
,

-
$$Q = \frac{1}{3}(X-1)^2(X^8 + X^4 + 1) + X$$

The problem in the Brezing-Weng method is to find R. The first candidate polynomials were the cyclotomic ones, but it is a bit restrictive.

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Kachisa–Shaefer–Scott suggested to take R as the minimal polynomial of an element θ in a suitable number field, and were successful in finding new families.

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Kachisa–Shaefer–Scott suggested to take R as the minimal polynomial of an element θ in a suitable number field, and were successful in finding new families.

One of its interests is that it is easy to enumerate potential families through the enumeration of the elements of the number field.

Algorithm 2.3: KSS algorithm

Input: k > 0 and D > 0 squarefree.

Output: A potential family of elliptic curves.

- 1 Fix K a number field containing $\sqrt{-D}$ and a primitive k-th root of unity ζ_k .
- 2 Pick $\theta \in K$ such that $\mathbb{Q}(\theta) = K$.

3 Let $R \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ be the minimal polynomial of θ over \mathbb{Q} .

4 Let
$$T \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$$
 such that $T(\theta) = \zeta_k + 1$.

- 5 Let $Y \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$ such that $Y(\theta) = \frac{\zeta k^{-1}}{\sqrt{-D}}$.
- 6 $Q = (T^2 + DY^2)/4 \in \mathbb{Q}[X]; H = (Q + 1 T)/R \in \mathbb{Q}[X]$
- 7 Return Q, R, T, Y, H

Example

Let k = 11 and D = 1. Set $K = C_{11}(\sqrt{-1})$. Let ζ_{11} be a 11-th root of unity in K. Let $\theta = \zeta_{11}/\sqrt{-1}$. We have:

•
$$\theta^{11} = 1/\sqrt{-1}^{11} = -1/\sqrt{-1} = \sqrt{-1}$$

• $-\theta^2 = \zeta_{11}^2$

Let $T = -X^2 + 1$ and $Y = -(-X^2 - 1)X^{11}$.

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• $-\theta^2 = \zeta_{11}^2$

Let $T = -X^2 + 1$ and $Y = -(-X^2 - 1)X^{11}$. Let R be the minimal polynomial of θ , and $Q = (T^2 + DY^2)/4$. We obtain a family with ρ -value $\frac{13}{10}$ first discovered by Brezing and Weng.

Example: The KSS16 family, k = 16, D = 1 and $\rho = 5/4$:

$$\begin{split} R &= X^8 + 48x^4 + 625, \\ T &= \frac{1}{35}(2X^5 + 41X + 35), \\ Y &= \frac{1}{35}(X^5 - 5X^4 + 38X - 120), \\ Q &= \frac{1}{980}(X^{10} + 2X^9 + 5X^8 + 48X^6 + 152X^5 + 240X^4 + 625X^2 + 2398X + 3125). \end{split}$$

Example: The KSS18 family, k = 18, D = 3 and $\rho = 4/3$:

$$\begin{split} R &= X^{6} + 37X^{3} + 343, \\ T &= \frac{1}{7}(X^{4} + 16X + 7), \\ Y &= \frac{1}{21}\left(-5X^{4} - 14X^{3} - 94X - 259\right), \\ Q &= \frac{1}{21}(X^{8} + 5X^{7} + 7X^{6} + 37X^{5} + 188X^{4} + 259X^{3} + 343X^{2} + 1763X + 2401). \end{split}$$

Subfield method

For their enumeration, KSS restricted themselves to $K = C_{\ell}$ where $\ell = \text{lcm}(k, 4)$ or $\ell = \text{lcm}(k, 6)$.

They noticed that for most θ in K, the potential families have a ρ -value around 2.

They restricted themselves to algebraic integers with sparse coefficients in the base of powers of ζ_{ℓ} .

In this subset of K, they managed to find some elements generating interesting potential families.

Goal: Describe the elements generating interesting families.

Our field extension pattern

Let $k \ge 7$ and D > 0 squarefree.



Figure 1: Our setting

K is an extension of $C_k(\sqrt{-D})$, F is a subfield of K containing $\sqrt{-D}$ such that $K = FC_k$.

First observations

The generator change $\theta_2 = \theta_1 - \lambda$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{Q}$, yields the polynomial substitution $X \mapsto X + \lambda$:

 $Q_2(X) = Q_1(X + \lambda), \ \dots$

The ρ -value is not affected.

The generator change $\theta_2 = N\theta_1$, $N \in \mathbb{Q}$, yields the polynomial substitution $X \mapsto X/N$:

 $Q_2(X) = Q_1(X/N), ...$

The ρ -value is not affected.

Therefore, affine rational transformations on θ does not affect the ρ -value of the generated potential family.

Fix ζ_k a primitive k-th root of unity.

Consider the \mathbb{Q} -vector space $F\zeta_k = \{\alpha\zeta_k ; \alpha \in F\}$. Take $\theta = \alpha\zeta_k$ for some $\alpha \in F$, such that $\mathbb{Q}(\theta) = K$.

Define e an integer such that $\mathbb{Q}(\theta^e) = F$. Let P_1 , P_2 , P_3 in $\mathbb{Q}[X]$ such that:

-
$$P_1(\theta^e) = 1/\alpha$$
.

-
$$P_2(\theta^e) = 1/(\alpha \sqrt{-D}).$$

-
$$P_3(\theta^e) = 1/\sqrt{-D}$$
.

Then $T(X) = P_1(X^e)X + 1$ as

$$P_1(\theta^e)\theta + 1 = 1/\alpha(\alpha\zeta_k) + 1 = \zeta_k + 1.$$

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Similarly,
$$Y(X) = P_2(X^e)X - P_3(X^e)$$
.
Then $\rho = \frac{2e([F:\mathbb{Q}]-1)+2}{[K:\mathbb{Q}]} = \frac{2e}{[K:F]} \left(1 - \frac{1}{[F:\mathbb{Q}]}\right) + \frac{2}{[K:\mathbb{Q}]}$.



Figure 2: General setting for Case 1.



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The ρ -value is optimal if $F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$.



Figure 2: Optimized setting for Case 1.



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$$ho = rac{k+1}{arphi(k)} ext{ if } \sqrt{-D}
otin \mathcal{C}_k ext{ and }
ho = rac{2(k+1)}{arphi(k)} ext{ if } \sqrt{-D} \in \mathcal{C}_k$$



Figure 3: General setting for Case 2.



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The ρ -value is optimal if $F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$.



Figure 3: Optimized setting for Case 2.



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$$ho = rac{k/2+1}{arphi(k)}$$
 if $\sqrt{-D} \notin \mathcal{C}_k$ and $ho = rac{2(k/2+1)}{arphi(k)}$ if $\sqrt{-D} \in \mathcal{C}_k$

Third case: e = k/d

Let d be a divisor of k, $d \ge 3$, and let e = k/d.



Figure 4: General setting for Case 3.

The ρ -value is optimal if $F = C_d(\sqrt{-D})$.

Third case: e = k/d

Let d be a divisor of k, $d \ge 3$, and let e = k/d.



Figure 4: General setting for Case 3.

$$ho = rac{2(arphi(d)-1)}{d}rac{k}{arphi(k)} + rac{2}{arphi(k)} ext{ if } \sqrt{-D} \in \mathcal{C}_d$$

k	$d, d \mid k$	2(arphi(d)-1)/d	upper bound	
مطط	3	2/3	Casa 1, 1	
oaa	15	14/15	Case 1: 1	
even	4	1/2		
	6	1/3	$C_{222} \rightarrow 1/2$	
	12	1/2	Case 2: 1/2	
	30	7/15		

 Table 1: Choices for d between 3 and 50 and corresponding coefficients.

The optimal case is when F is an imaginary quadratic field, $F = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$. The discriminant you can choose depends on k:

Let k = 18, D = 3. Let $K = C_{18}$ and $\theta = (1 + 3\zeta_{18}^3)\zeta_{18}$. We obtain:

$$T = (3X^{4} + 176X + 221)/221,$$

$$Y = (5X^{4} - 26X^{3} + 146X - 1157)/663,$$

$$R = (X^{6} + 89X^{3} + 2197)/(13^{3} \cdot 17^{2}),$$

$$Q = \frac{1}{11271} (X^{8} - 5X^{7} + 13X^{6} + 89X^{5} - 292X^{4} + 1157X^{3} + 2197X^{2} - 2009X + 28561)$$

The family has the same $\rho\text{-value}$ as KSS18: $\rho=4/3.$

Results

- ▶ We found a Q-vector space of good generators. We are able to generate many families at any embedding degree k, for almost any discriminant.
- ▶ Our method generalizes most previous works (not BN curves).
- Our families have ρ -values at least equal to previous best families. We improved the ρ -value for k = 22.
- ▶ The new families have larger denominators.

Our new curve GG22 for k = 22 and D = 7, from $\alpha = (1 + \sqrt{7})/2$:

$$T = (X^{12} + 45X + 46)/46$$

$$Y = (X^{12} - 4X^{11} - 47X - 134)/322$$

$$R = (X^{20} - X^{19} - X^{18} + 3X^{17} - X^{16} - 5X^{15} + 7X^{14} + 3X^{13} - 17X^{12} + 11X^{11} + 23X^{10} + 22X^9 - 68X^8 + 24X^7 + 112X^6 - 160X^5 - 64X^4 + 384X^3 - 256X^2 - 512X + 1024)/23$$

$$Q = (X^{24} - X^{23} + 2X^{22} + 67X^{13} + 94X^{12} + 134X^{11} + 2048X^2 + 5197X + 4096)/7406$$

Its ρ -value: $\rho = 1.2$ (previous was 1.3).

Our new GG20a curve for k = 20 and D = 1, from $\alpha = 1 - 2\zeta_4$:

$$T = (2X^{6} + 117X + 205)/205$$

$$Y = (X^{6} - 5X^{5} - 44X - 190)/205$$

$$R = (X^{8} + 4X^{7} + 11X^{6} + 24X^{5} + 41X^{4} + 120X^{3} + 275X^{2} + 500X + 625)/25625$$

$$Q = (X^{12} - 2X^{11} + 5X^{10} + 76X^{7} + 176X^{6} + 380X^{5} + 3125X^{2} + 12938X$$

$$+ 15625)/33620$$

Its ρ -value: $\rho = 1.5$.

Our new GG20b curve for k = 20 and D = 1, from $\alpha = 1 + 2\zeta_4$:

$$T = (-2X^{6} + 117X + 205)/205$$

$$Y = (X^{6} - 5X^{5} + 44X + 190)/205$$

$$R = (X^{8} - 4X^{7} + 11X^{6} - 24X^{5} + 41X^{4} - 120X^{3} + 275X^{2} - 500X + 625)/25625$$

$$Q = (X^{12} - 2X^{11} + 5X^{10} - 76X^{7} - 176X^{6} - 380X^{5} + 3125X^{2} + 12938X$$

$$+ 15625)/33620$$

Its ρ -value: $\rho = 1.5$.

Seeds for new curves

Some new curves for the 192-bit security level:

curve	seed	log q	log r	ρ	$\log q^k$	sec. \mathbb{F}_{q^k}
GG20a	$-(2^{49}+2^{46}+2^{41}+2^{18}+2^3+2^2+1)$	576	379	1.52	11520	196
GG20a	$2^{49} + 2^{46} + 2^{44} + 2^{40} + 2^{34} + 2^{27} + 2^{14} + 1$	576	380	1.52	11500	196
GG20b	$-2^{49} - 2^{45} - 2^{42} - 2^{36} + 2^{11} + 1$	575	379	1.52	11500	196
GG20b	$-2^{49} + 2^{46} - 2^{41} + 2^{35} + 2^{30} - 1$	575	379	1.52	11500	196
GG20b	$-2^{49} - 2^{47} + 2^{45} - 2^{27} - 2^{22} - 2^{18} - 1$	576	380	1.52	11520	196
GG22D7	$-2^{20} + 2^{18} + 2^{13} - 2^{10} - 2^8 - 2^2 + 1$	457	383	1.19	10054	220

Table 2: Parameters of our new curves at the 192-bit security level.

 Table 3: Optimal ate pairing and final exponentiation cost estimates in terms of finite field multiplications.

curve	р	r	Miller loop	final exp		
	bits	bits	optimal ate	easy	hard	total
GG20b	575	379	17554 m	507 m	41997 m	42504 m
GG22D7	457	383	45780 m	1500 m	79740 m	81240 m

The bitsize of p has a scale color w.r.t. its 64-bit machine word size: $512 < 9w \le 576$, $448 < 8w \le 512$.
 Table 4: Optimal ate pairing and final exponentiation cost estimates in terms of finite field multiplications.

0.1157.00	р	r	pairing
curve	bits	bits	total
GG20b	575	379	60058 m
GG22D7	457	383	127020 m

The bitsize of p has a scale color w.r.t. its 64-bit machine word size: $512 < 9w \le 576$, $448 < 8w \le 512$.

Conclusion

- We generalizes the KSS technique to generate complete families of pairing-friendly curves.
- For k = 16, k = 18, we obtain alternative choices of comparable performances as the well-known KSS curves.
- For k = 20, we improve on the previous FST 6.4 curves with parameters that are not vulnerable to a STNFS attack.
- ▶ For k = 22, we improve on the previously best ρ -values.

Links:

► Sagemath code for generating families and optimal ate pairing implementation.

► <u>HAL</u>

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