# Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems over Small Fields of Odd Characteristic 

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#### Abstract

In this paper it is shown how to speed up the multiplication step on elliptic curves defined over small odd characteristic finite fields. The method used is a generalization of a recent method of Müller and Solinas. Various implementation issues are discussed and described with the use of timings from an implementation of the methods.


Key words. Elliptic curves, Frobenius expansions.

## Introduction

In recent years attention has focused on the use of elliptic curves in public-key cryptography, starting with the work of Koblitz [3] and Miller [11]. This is because there is no known sub-exponential type algorithm to solve the discrete logarithm problem on an elliptic curve. The standard protocols in cryptography which make use of the discrete logarithm problem in finite fields, such as Diffie-Hellman key exchange, El Gamal and Massey-Omura, can all be made to work in the elliptic curve case.

However, elliptic curves come with some disadvantages; for example, addition on the curve is more expensive than multiplication in a finite field and determining a suitable curve to use is a rather cumbersome procedure. In this short note we propose using elliptic curves defined over small finite fields of odd characteristic. Such a proposal has been made many times before but over fields of even characteristic.

In the first section we show how one can perform a Frobenius expansion method to speed up the multiplication step over fields of odd characteristic. This procedure is almost identical to the procedure described by Müller [12] for characteristic two, which is itself based on ideas in [4] and [9]. In the second section we describe how easy it is to determine suitable curves. Finally, in the last section we discuss the advantages and disadvantages of using odd characteristic fields.

We assume that an elliptic curve is given by an equation of the form

$$
E: Y^{2}=X^{3}+a X+b
$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$, with $q=p^{r}$. To simplify our discussion we assume that $p \geq 5$. Our curve will be non-singular, so we assume that $4 a^{3}+27 b^{2} \neq 0$. In addition, due to the results in [10], we assume that the curve is not supersingular. So in particular we have that $p$ does not divide the trace of Frobenius, $t=q+1-\left|E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)\right|$. By Hasse's theorem we know that $|t| \leq 2 \sqrt{q}$, a fact which we use throughout.

The $q$ th-power Frobenius endomorphism we denote by

$$
\Phi: \begin{aligned}
E & \rightarrow E \\
(x, y) & \rightarrow\left(x^{q}, y^{q}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The map $\Phi$ satisfies the following equation:

$$
\Phi^{2}-t \Phi+q=0
$$

We are mainly interested in the group of points on $E$ over some finite extension of $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, say $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$.

## 1. Frobenius Expansions

In this section we show how to expand the multiplication by $m$ map on $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}\right)$ in terms of a polynomial in $\Phi$. This allows us to replace the usual binary method of computing the multiplication by $m$ map by a Frobenius expansion. The method is just a small generalization of the method in [12].

Lemma 1. Let $S \in \mathbb{Z}[\Phi]$. Then there exists a unique integer, $R \in\{-(q-1) / 2, \ldots,(q-$ $1) / 2\}$ and a unique element $Q \in \mathbb{Z}[\Phi]$ such that

$$
S=Q \Phi+R .
$$

Proof. Easy.

Lemma 2. Let $S \in \mathbb{Z}[\Phi]$ such that

$$
N_{\mathbb{Z}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Z}}(S) \leq(\sqrt{q}+2)^{2} / 4
$$

then we can write

$$
S=\sum_{i=0}^{3} a_{i} \Phi^{i}
$$

with $a_{i} \in\{-(q+1) / 2, \ldots,(q+1) / 2\}$, and if $(q, t) \neq(5, \pm 4)$ or $(7, \pm 5)$, then we can choose $a_{i} \in\{-(q-1) / 2, \ldots,(q-1) / 2\}$.

Proof. Write $S=a+b \Phi$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
N_{\mathbb{Z}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Z}}(S) & =a^{2}+a b t+b^{2} q \\
& =\left(a+\frac{t b}{2}\right)^{2}+\frac{1}{4}\left(4 q-t^{2}\right) b^{2} \\
& =\left(\sqrt{q} b+\frac{t a}{2 \sqrt{q}}\right)^{2}+a^{2}\left(1-\frac{t^{2}}{4 q}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now as $E$ is not supersingular and by congruence conditions we obtain that $4 q-t^{2} \geq 3$. Hence if $N_{\mathbb{Z}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Z}}(S) \leq(\sqrt{2}+2)^{2} / 4$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |b| \leq \frac{\sqrt{q}+2}{\sqrt{4 q-t^{2}}} \leq \frac{\sqrt{q}+2}{\sqrt{3}} \\
& |a| \leq \frac{q+2 \sqrt{q}}{\sqrt{4 q-t^{2}}} \leq \frac{q+2 \sqrt{q}}{\sqrt{3}}
\end{aligned}
$$

So in all cases we obtain $|b| \leq(q-1) / 2$, however, $|a| \leq(q-1) / 2+q$. Suppose $a>(q-1) / 2$, the case $a<-(q-1) / 2$ will follow in a similar manner. We then have that $|a-q| \leq(q-1) / 2$ and so we can write

$$
a+b \Phi=(a-q)+b \Phi+q=(a-q)+(b+t) \Phi-\Phi^{2}
$$

However, now we have

$$
|b+t| \leq \frac{\sqrt{q}+2}{\sqrt{3}}+2 \sqrt{q}<\frac{q-1}{2}+q .
$$

Now we assume $b+t>(q-1) / 2$, again the case $b+t<-(q-1) / 2$ will follow in a similar manner. We can then write
$a+b \Phi=(a-q)+(b+t-q) \Phi-\Phi^{2}+q \Phi=(a-q)+(b+t-q) \Phi+(t-1) \Phi^{2}-\Phi^{3}$.
Direct enumeration of all the cases for which $|t-1|>(q-1) / 2$, leads us to deduce the result stated in the lemma.

That the required Frobenius expansions exist and are not arbitrarily long follows from the following theorem.

Theorem 3. Let $S \in \mathbb{Z}[\Phi]$, then we can write

$$
S=\sum_{i=0}^{k} r_{i} \Phi^{i}
$$

where $r_{i} \in\{-(q+1) / 2, \ldots,(q+1) / 2\}$, with at most one $r_{i}$ being of absolute value $(q+1) / 2$ which can only occur when $(q, t)=(5, \pm 4)$ or $(7, \pm 5)$. In addition $k \leq$ $\left\lceil 2 \log _{q} 2 \sqrt{N_{\mathbb{Z}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Z}}(S)}\right\rceil+3$.

Proof. From Lemma 1 we can obtain an expansion of the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
S & =S_{0}=S_{1} \Phi+r_{0}=\left(S_{2} \Phi+r_{1}\right) \Phi+r_{0} \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{j} r_{i} \Phi^{i}+S_{j+1} \Phi^{j+1}
\end{aligned}
$$

with $r_{i} \in\{-(q-1) / 2, \ldots,(q-1) / 2\}$. Using the triangle inequality we see, putting $\|\cdot\|=\sqrt{N_{\mathbb{Z}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Z}}(.)}$, that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|S_{j+1}\right\| & \leq \frac{\left\|S_{j}\right\|+\left\|r_{i}\right\|}{\|\Phi\|} \leq \frac{\left\|S_{j}\right\|+(q-1) / 2}{\sqrt{q}} \\
& =\frac{\left\|S_{0}\right\|}{q^{(j+1) / 2}}+\frac{(q-1)}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{j+1} q^{-i / 2} \\
& =\frac{\left\|S_{0}\right\|}{q^{(j+1) / 2}}+\frac{(q-1)}{2}\left(\frac{1-q^{-(j+1) / 2}}{\sqrt{q}-1}\right) \\
& \leq \frac{\left\|S_{0}\right\|}{q^{(j+1) / 2}}+\frac{\sqrt{q}+1}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now if $j \geq\left\lceil 2 \log _{q} 2\left\|S_{0}\right\|\right\rceil-1$, then

$$
\frac{\left\|S_{0}\right\|}{q^{(j+1) / 2}} \leq \frac{1}{2}
$$

Hence

$$
N_{\mathbb{Z}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Z}}\left(S_{j+1}\right) \leq \frac{(\sqrt{q}+2)^{2}}{4}
$$

and so by Lemma 2 we know that $S_{j+1}$ has a Frobenius expansion, with the required properties, of length at most 4 .

We can then implement the multiplication by $m$ map on the elliptic curve using Frobenius expansions. We first consider $m$ as an element of $\mathbb{Z}[\Phi]$ and compute its Frobenius expansion,

$$
m=\sum_{i=0}^{k} r_{i} \Phi^{i}
$$

where $k \leq\left\lceil 2 \log _{q} 2 m\right\rceil+3$. We can then compute $m P$ for $P \in E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}\right)$ using Horner's method;

$$
\begin{aligned}
m P & =\sum_{i=0}^{k} r_{i} \Phi^{i}(P) \\
& =\Phi\left(\cdots \Phi\left(r_{k} \Phi(P)+r_{k-1} P\right)+\cdots+r_{1} P\right)+r_{0} P
\end{aligned}
$$

Note at each stage of the expansion we add on an element of the form $r P$ where $|r| \leq$ $(q+1) / 2$. To speed up this step we could precompute a table of such multiplications,
this would be particularly useful if we wanted to perform many multiplications of the same point.

What Frobenius expansions have allowed us to do is replace many expensive elliptic curve doublings and additions with fewer elliptic curve additions and some power evaluations in a finite field. Just as in [12] one can also derive block versions of the Frobenius expansion method.

As an example, suppose we have an elliptic curve $E$ defined over $\mathbb{F}_{23}$ with trace of Frobenius, $t=-1$. Let $P$ denote a point on $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{23^{n}}\right)$ and suppose we wish to compute $[m] P$ where $m=10^{6}$. Using the standard binary method we would compute

$$
[m] P=\left[2^{6}\right]\left(P+\left[2^{3}\right]\left(P+\left[2^{5}\right]\left(P+\left[2^{2}\right](P+[2](P+[2](P+[2] P)))\right)\right)\right)
$$

So we require 6 elliptic curve additions and 19 elliptic curve doublings. The worst case situation for a six-digit multiplier would require 19 additions and 19 doublings.

Now look at the Frobenius expansion of $[m] P$ for this curve,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& {[m] P=\Phi(\Phi(\Phi(\Phi(\Phi(\Phi(\Phi(\Phi(-\Phi(P)+[2] P))+[7] P)-[3] P)-[9] P)-[5] P)} \\
&-[4] P)-[8] P)+[6] P .
\end{aligned}
$$

Assuming we have a precomputed table of values of $[l] P$ for $l \in\{1, \ldots, 11\}$ and noting that negation on an elliptic curve takes negligible time, we see that the Frobenius expansion method requires 9 elliptic curve additions, 9 table look ups, 9 applications of the Frobenius morphism and a single multiplication by a small integer. Each action of the Frobenius morphism requires only two powering operations in the field $\mathbb{F}_{23^{n}}$. The worst-case situation of the Frobenius method for a six-digit multiplier would require 12 elliptic curve additions and applications of the Frobenius morphism.

As in the case considered by Solinas [14], we can reduce the length of the Frobenius expansion by nearly $50 \%$. To show this we need to consider a small generalization of Euclidean domains:

Definition 1. Let $\lambda$ be a positive real number, let $A$ denote a commutative ring and suppose that there exists a multiplicative function

$$
\Psi: A \backslash\{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}
$$

The ring will be called $\lambda$-Euclidean if for all $a, b \in A$, with $b \neq 0$, we can find $q, r \in A$ with

$$
a=b q+r
$$

such that either $r=0$ or $\Psi(r)<\lambda \Psi(b)$.
Such an idea is not new as one can see by looking at the survey article [6]. Suppose $A$ has field of fractions $K$, then we can extend $\Psi$ to $K \backslash\{0\}$ in the obvious way. We then have

Lemma 4. The ring $A$ will be $\lambda$-Euclidean if for all $x \in K$ we can find $a y \in A$ such that

$$
\Psi(x-y)<\lambda
$$

Proof. Let $a, b \in A$ with $b \neq 0$, then set $x=a / b \in K$. So by the condition there exists a $y \in A$ such that $\Psi(a / b-y)<\lambda$. However, as $\Psi$ is multiplicative we see that, if $a \neq b y$,

$$
\Psi(a-b y)<\lambda \Psi(b) .
$$

The result follows on setting $r=a-b y$.

The main result we use on $\lambda$-Euclidean rings is the following:
Theorem 5. Suppose $\Phi^{2}-t \Phi+q=0$, then $\mathbb{Z}[\Phi]$ is $\lambda$-Euclidean for some $\lambda$ such that $0<\lambda \leq(9+4 q) / 4$.

Proof. Let $\Psi$ denote the standard norm function on $\mathbb{Z}[\Phi]$ and set $D=t^{2}-4 q<0$. We have two cases to consider:

Case $1: t \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$. In this case a basis of $\mathbb{Z}[\Phi]$ is given by $1, \sqrt{d}$, where $4 d=D$. If $x=r+s \sqrt{d} \in \mathbb{Q}[\Phi]$, then we set $y=m+n \sqrt{d}$ with $m$ being the nearest integer to $r$ and $n$ being the nearest integer to $s$, with some fixed convention for numbers of the form $(2 i+1) / 2$. Then, as $-d=q-t^{2} / 4 \leq q$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Psi(x-y) & =N_{\mathbb{Q}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Q}}(x-y)=(r-m)^{2}-d(s-n)^{2} \\
& \leq \frac{1-d}{4} \leq \frac{4+q}{4} \\
& \leq \frac{9+4 q}{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

Case 2: $t \equiv 1(\bmod 2)$. In this case a basis of $\mathbb{Z}[\Phi]$ is given by $1,(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2$. Let $x=r+s(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2 \in \mathbb{Q}[\Phi]$. As before we set $m$ to be the nearest integer to $r, n$ to be the nearest integer to $s$, and let $y=m+n(1+\sqrt{D}) / 2$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Psi(x-y) & =N_{\mathbb{Q}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Q}}\left(x-y=\left((r-m)+\frac{n-s}{2}\right)^{2}+\frac{(n-s)^{2} D}{4}\right. \\
& \leq\left(1+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}-\frac{D}{4}=\frac{1}{4}(9-D) \\
& \leq \frac{9+4 q}{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

We can now apply this result to reduce the length of our Frobenius expansion. Consider the integer, $m$, we wish to multiply $P$ by as being an element of $\mathbb{Z}[\Phi]$. As $m \approx q^{n}$, the norm of $m$ will be equal to $m^{2} \approx q^{2 n}$. However, we note that if we are considering points $P \in E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}\right)$, then we have the identity

$$
\Phi^{n} P=P
$$

So we can "divide" $m$ by $\Phi^{n}-1$ to obtain a remainder $r$ with

$$
N_{\mathbb{Q}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Q}}(r)<\lambda N_{\mathbb{Q}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Q}}\left(\Phi^{n}-1\right) \leq \frac{9+4 q}{4} N_{\mathbb{Q}[\Phi] / \mathbb{Q}}\left(\Phi^{n}-1\right) \approx q^{n+1}
$$

Hence we can replace multiplication by $m$ by multiplication by $r$. As $r$ has norm roughly $q^{n+1}$, its Frobenius expansion will be nearly half the length of the Frobenius expansion of $m$. This should provide a $50 \%$ improvement in the performance of our algorithm.

For completeness we give the formulae to compute $r$ from $m, t, n$ and $q$; first define $a_{1}, a_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}$ by

$$
a_{1}+a_{2} \Phi=\Phi^{n}-1\left(\bmod \Phi^{2}-t \Phi+q\right) .
$$

Let $\Delta=a_{1}^{2}+t a_{1} a_{2}+q a_{2}^{2}$ and define $x_{1}, x_{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$ by

$$
x_{1}=\frac{m\left(a_{1}+t a_{2}\right)}{\Delta}, \quad x_{2}=\frac{-a_{2} m}{\Delta} .
$$

We can then let $r=r_{1}+r_{2} \Phi$ with $r_{1}, r_{2} \in \mathbb{Z}$ given by the following formulae:
Case 1: $t \equiv 0(\bmod 2)$. Let $h=\left[x_{1}+x_{2} t / 2\right]$, where $[\cdot]$ denotes the function which returns the nearest integer, then

$$
r_{1}=h-\left[x_{2}\right] t, \quad r_{2}=2\left[x_{2}\right] .
$$

Case 2: $t \equiv 1(\bmod 2) . \quad$ Now let $t=2 v+1$ and set $h=\left[x_{1}+x_{2} v\right]$, then

$$
r_{1}=h-\left[x_{2}\right] v, \quad r_{2}=\left[x_{2}\right] .
$$

We end this section with some timings we have obtained. The Frobenius expansion method was implemented in software using two methods: The first used the LiDIA [8] C++ library. To represent the finite fields we used the standard LiDIA data type gf_base. In particular this meant that we did not use a normal basis presentation, instead we used the more standard polynomial representation. The LiDIA library does not use special code for characteristics which fit into a single word, so some efficiency was lost in this implementation. The elliptic curve routines were implemented using an affine representation, so more divisions were carried out than would be strictly necessary.

Our second implementation used a normal basis representation of the field. This made the implementation of the Frobenius map rather simple as it then becomes a cyclic shift of the coefficients of the representation of the field elements. This field arithmetic was implemented in a way which allowed us to make use of the fact that the characteristic fitted into a single word. Again arithmetic on the curve was implemented in affine representation.

For comparison we also implemented the standard binary method of multiplication. As the binary method does not make use of exponentiation by $q$ in the finite field we only implemented this using the polynomial representation of the field elements.

The timings in Table 1 illustrate the speed up one achieves by using Frobenius expansions. All times are in hundreths of a second and are averages taken over a number of multiplications by random numbers of size the order of $q^{n}$. For larger base fields the time to perform the initial precomputation step will start to dominate the time to perform a multiplication, hence the average timings for the Frobenius expansion method do not include the time for the precomputation step, which is why we list this time separately.

Table 1. Comparison of the Binary and Frobenius methods.

| $p$ | $n$ | $\log _{2}\left\|E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p^{n}}\right)\right\|$ | Binary | Normal basis |  | Polynomial basis |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Frobenius expansion | Table creation | Frobenius expansion | Table creation |
| 5 | 32 | 74 | 447 | 63 | 2 | 186 | 5 |
| 5 | 53 | 123 | 1040 | 433 | 10 | 398 | 6 |
| 5 | 75 | 174 | 2567 | 1649 | 28 | 975 | 11 |
| 11 | 22 | 76 | 249 | 18 | 3 | 92 | 10 |
| 11 | 36 | 124 | 799 | 113 | 13 | 278 | 18 |
| 11 | 51 | 176 | 1542 | 401 | 37 | 497 | 25 |
| 23 | 17 | 76 | 178 | 8 | 5 | 59 | 19 |
| 23 | 28 | 126 | 625 | 46 | 18 | 214 | 36 |
| 23 | 39 | 176 | 1216 | 156 | 43 | 372 | 50 |
| 41 | 14 | 75 | 121 | 6 | 6 | 35 | 24 |
| 41 | 23 | 123 | 456 | 23 | 20 | 129 | 53 |
| 41 | 33 | 177 | 1232 | 86 | 52 | 354 | 96 |
| 127 | 11 | 76 | 87 | 2 | 13 | 26 | 53 |
| 127 | 18 | 125 | 338 | 11 | 37 | 97 | 121 |
| 127 | 25 | 175 | 750 | 32 | 80 | 227 | 196 |

## 2. Finding Suitable Curves

There are three standard techniques that one uses to determine elliptic curves which are suitable for use in cryptography. The problem is that we need to determine nonsupersingular curves which have a large cyclic subgroup. In particular this cyclic subgroup should have order larger than $10^{40}$.

If we choose a field of definition of the elliptic curve of order around $10^{40}$, then we encounter two problems. Firstly we cannot use a Frobenius expansion method to perform multiplications and secondly determining the group order of a given curve is in general complicated as we need to apply Schoof's algorithm, see [13], [2] and [7]. We can choose curves at random, compute their orders and then factor their orders to see if we can find one with a large prime factor but this is a lot of work, especially if we wish to produce suitable elliptic curves "on line". For example, Lercier [7] gives a time of 86 seconds to compute the order of a group of points on an elliptic curve defined over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{155}}$. Whilst his program takes 235 minutes to determine five suitable curves for cryptographic purposes over $\mathbb{F}_{2^{155}}$.

Another way of proceeding is to decide on a prime base field of large order and then using the theory of curves with complex multiplication to produce curves with a cyclic subgroup of large prime order [5]. Again this is possible but it involves extracting roots of large degree polynomials over large finite fields so this may be far too slow for the generation of suitable curves.

Although Schoof's algorithm and root extraction in finite fields both run in polynomial time they are non-trivial algorithms which require careful coding. It is not surprising that

Table 2. Curves over even characteristic fields with a large prime divisor in the group order over an extension field.

| $r$ | $n$ | $t$ | $\log _{10} l$ | $r$ | $n$ | $t$ | $\log _{10} l$ | $r$ | $n$ | $t$ | $\log _{10} l$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 163 | 1 | 49 | 1 | 181 | 1 | 44 |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 79 | 1 | 47 | 2 | 97 | 1 | 53 |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | 47 | -1 | 41 | 3 | 59 | -1 | 52 | 3 | 47 | 3 | 41 |
| 3 | 59 | 3 | 52 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | 37 | -5 | 43 | 4 | 37 | -3 | 43 | 4 | 37 | -1 | 43 |
| 4 | 41 | -1 | 44 | 4 | 47 | -1 | 49 | 4 | 37 | 3 | 43 |
| 4 | 47 | 3 | 45 | 4 | 47 | 7 | 55 |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 31 | -9 | 40 | 5 | 37 | -5 | 49 | 5 | 31 | -3 | 45 |
| 5 | 29 | 9 | 40 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

although they are asymptotically efficient they are not particularly quicker at finding suitable curves than more naive methods.

One way around these problems, which has often been proposed, is to use elliptic curves defined over very small finite fields of characteristic two [9], [12], [14]. The reason is that it is easy to compute the number of points over a small field, $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, and computing the number of points over extension fields is then simple due to the following result.

Theorem 6. Let $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ denote any finite field and let $E$ denote an elliptic curve defined over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. Write $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)=q+1-c_{1}$ and $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}\right)=q^{n}+1-c_{n}$, then

$$
c_{n}=c_{1} c_{n-1}-q c_{n-2},
$$

where $c_{0}=2$.

The trouble with restricting attention to characteristic two is that there are not many curves defined over small finite fields with the required subgroup of large prime order, unless one uses a very large extension field. Table 2 demonstrates this by listing those values of $t, q$ and $n$ with $q=2^{r} \leq 32$ and $q^{n} \leq 2^{200}$ which give rise to curves defined over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ with group orders over $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$ divisible by a prime, $l$, with more than 40 decimal digits in it.

However, if we allow finite fields of characteristic larger than three, then we can find many more suitable curves. Table 3 lists the curves we found over prime fields, $\mathbb{F}_{q}$, of order less than 24 . We looked at extensions, $\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}$, of these prime fields with $q^{n} \leq 2^{200}$. We tried to find curves with a prime, $l$, dividing the group order of at least 40 decimal digits. To reduce the number of curves with a "smooth" group order we restricted our attention to prime values of $n$. In addition, for very large group orders we did not try to produce a complete factorization so we may have missed some suitable curves. The whole computation took only 7 minutes or around 5 seconds per suitable curve found.

One could extend this table further. We found 11 examples of suitable curves defined

Table 3. Curves over odd prime fields with a large prime divisor in the group order over an extension field.

| $q$ | $n$ | $t$ | $\log _{10} l$ | $q$ | $n$ | $t$ | $\log _{10} l$ | $q$ | $n$ | $t$ | $\log _{10} l$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 5 | 61 | -4 | 41 | 5 | 83 | -2 | 45 | 5 | 79 | -1 | 50 |
| 5 | 83 | -1 | 52 | 5 | 71 | 1 | 44 | 5 | 73 | 1 | 50 |
| 5 | 79 | 1 | 54 | 5 | 73 | 4 | 45 |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | 53 | -4 | 43 | 7 | 59 | -4 | 49 | 7 | 61 | -2 | 46 |
| 7 | 53 | -1 | 43 | 7 | 59 | -1 | 41 | 7 | 59 | 2 | 49 |
| 7 | 67 | 3 | 52 | 7 | 47 | 4 | 39 | 7 | 61 | 5 | 51 |
| 7 | 67 | 5 | 51 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 | 53 | -5 | 54 | 11 | 47 | -3 | 42 | 11 | 41 | -2 | 41 |
| 11 | 47 | -2 | 44 | 11 | 53 | -2 | 54 | 11 | 53 | -1 | 50 |
| 11 | 47 | 2 | 43 | 11 | 53 | 4 | 50 | 11 | 53 | 6 | 50 |
| 13 | 47 | -6 | 47 | 13 | 53 | -6 | 51 | 13 | 37 | -5 | 40 |
| 13 | 47 | -5 | 51 | 13 | 47 | -4 | 47 | 13 | 47 | -3 | 48 |
| 13 | 53 | 1 | 54 | 13 | 41 | 2 | 40 | 13 | 47 | 4 | 45 |
| 13 | 43 | 5 | 46 | 13 | 41 | 6 | 40 |  |  |  |  |
| 17 | 43 | -8 | 51 | 17 | 37 | -7 | 44 | 17 | 41 | -7 | 46 |
| 17 | 43 | -6 | 51 | 17 | 47 | -6 | 54 | 17 | 37 | -4 | 44 |
| 17 | 43 | -3 | 51 | 17 | 43 | -2 | 48 | 17 | 47 | -1 | 53 |
| 17 | 41 | 2 | 41 | 17 | 37 | 3 | 41 | 17 | 47 | 4 | 52 |
| 17 | 47 | 5 | 51 | 17 | 43 | 6 | 42 | 17 | 47 | 7 | 56 |
| 19 | 37 | -8 | 46 | 19 | 37 | -7 | 43 | 19 | 41 | -7 | 44 |
| 19 | 41 | -5 | 42 | 19 | 37 | -4 | 46 | 19 | 37 | -3 | 42 |
| 19 | 43 | -1 | 49 | 19 | 37 | 2 | 42 | 19 | 41 | 2 | 49 |
| 19 | 37 | 4 | 41 | 19 | 37 | 5 | 43 | 19 | 41 | 7 | 40 |
| 19 | 37 | 8 | 46 | 19 | 41 | 8 | 51 |  |  |  |  |
| 23 | 37 | -7 | 45 | 23 | 41 | -7 | 51 | 23 | 37 | -6 | 45 |
| 23 | 43 | -5 | 49 | 23 | 31 | -4 | 40 | 23 | 37 | -4 | 42 |
| 23 | 41 | -4 | 51 | 23 | 31 | -3 | 40 | 23 | 43 | -3 | 57 |
| 23 | 41 | -1 | 50 | 23 | 43 | 1 | 57 | 23 | 37 | 3 | 49 |
| 23 | 43 | 3 | 52 | 23 | 37 | 5 | 46 | 23 | 31 | 8 | 41 |
| 23 | 41 | 8 | 48 | 23 | 43 | 8 | 57 |  |  |  |  |

over $\mathbb{F}_{41}$ with groups of points defined over $\mathbb{F}_{41^{n}}$ with $n \leq 37$, and 8 examples of suitable curves defined over $\mathbb{F}_{127}$ with groups of points defined over $\mathbb{F}_{127^{n}}$ with $n \leq 23$.

## 3. Advantages and Disadvantages

Using elliptic curves defined over small finite fields but with the group of points defined over a prime extension allows us to compute the order of the group of points easily. This in turn allows us to determine suitable elliptic curves for cryptographic purposes in a fast and efficient manner. In addition, for such curves we can replace the standard binary multiplication method with a Frobenius expansion method. If we are computing a multiple of a fixed point, then the use of look-up tables will greatly speed up the multiplication step in such a system.

If the base field has characteristic two, then we can use efficient algorithms for the field arithmetic which are more suitable for a practical system. Our very rough timings seem to indicate, compared with [12], that using fields of odd characteristic is between ten and one hundred times slower than using even characteristic base fields of the same order. On the other hand with small fields of odd characteristic we have far more suitable elliptic curves at our disposal.

So why do some practical systems make use of elliptic curves defined over $\mathbb{F}_{p}$, where $p$ is a large prime, or $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$ ? This is because it is not beyond the realms of possibility that the extra structure obtained in having the curve defined over a small finite field will render the system less secure. After all, the group $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{n}}\right)$ contains a subgroup $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$ which is stable under the action of the Frobenius morphism. However, nobody has yet used such a structure to show that the proposed curves are any weaker than general curves over $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ or $\mathbb{F}_{2^{n}}$.

Our timings of the multiplication routines show that some research still needs to be done as to what size the base field should be. A larger value for the base field implies that the degree of the field extension needed can be smaller. This in turn means that arithmetic will be much faster. A large value for the size of the base field also means that the length of the Frobenius expansion will be short. However, the larger the base field then the greater the size of the look up table required to perform the multiplication step.

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