

High-speed cryptography,
part 3:

more cryptosystems

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Cryptographers

Working systems

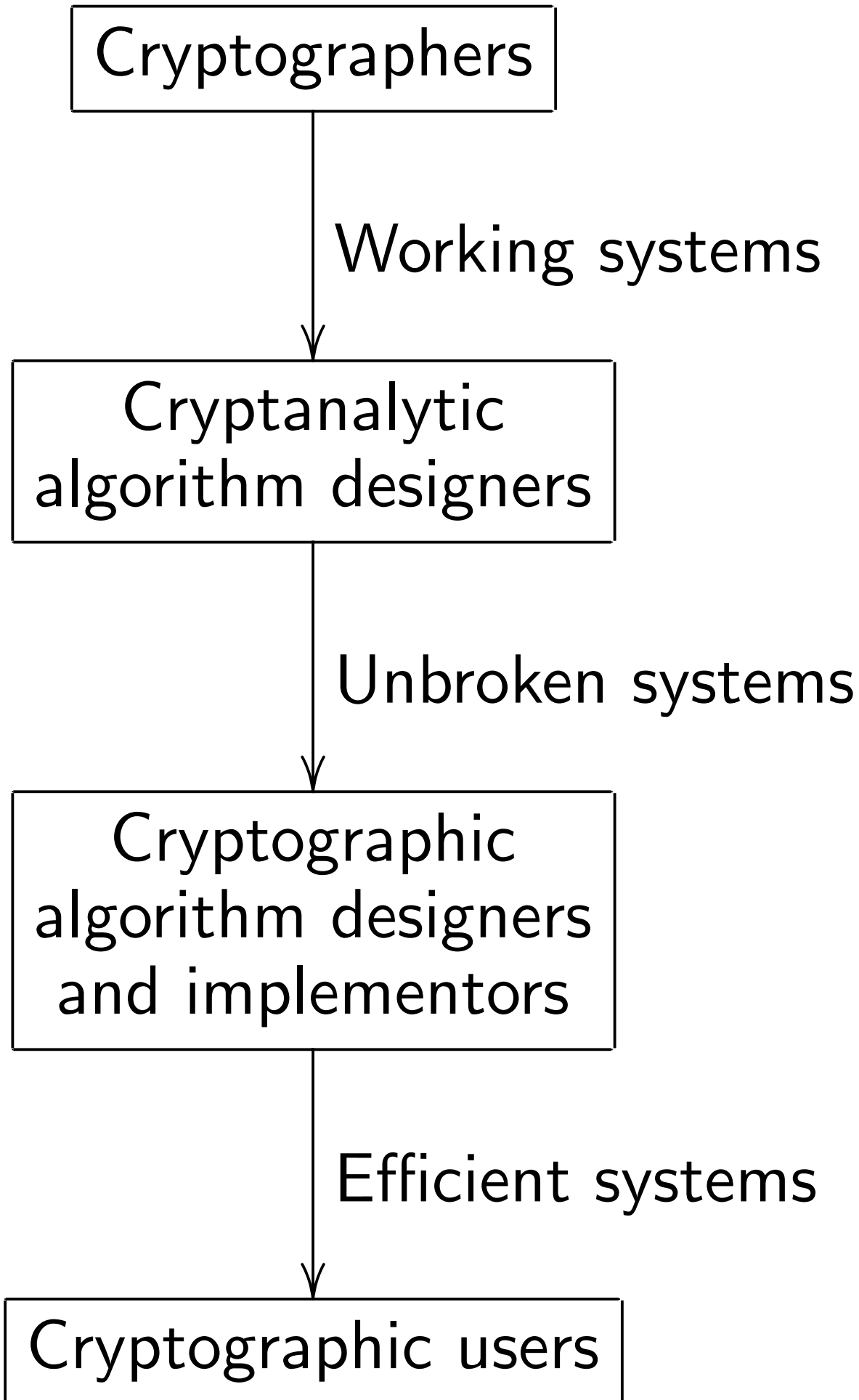
Cryptanalytic
algorithm designers

Unbroken systems

Cryptographic
algorithm designers
and implementors

Efficient systems

Cryptographic users



1. Working systems

Fundamental question for cryptographers:

How can we encrypt, decrypt, sign, verify, etc.?

Many answers:

DES, Triple DES, FEAL-4, AES, RSA, McEliece encryption, Merkle hash-tree signatures, Merkle–Hellman knapsack encryption, Buchmann–Williams class-group encryption, ECDSA, HFE^{v-}, NTRU, et al.

2. Unbroken systems

Fundamental question for *pre-quantum* cryptanalysts:

What can an attacker do using $<2^b$ operations on a *classical* computer?

Fundamental question for *post-quantum* cryptanalysts:

What can an attacker do using $<2^b$ operations on a *quantum* computer?

Goal: identify systems that are *not* breakable in $<2^b$ operations.

Examples of RSA cryptanalysis:

Schroeppel's "linear sieve",
mentioned in 1978 RSA paper,
factors pq into p, q using
 $(2 + o(1))(\lg pq)^{1/2}(\lg \lg pq)^{1/2}$
simple operations (conjecturally).

To push this beyond 2^b ,
must choose pq to have at least
 $(0.5 + o(1))b^2 / \lg b$ bits.

Note 1: $\lg = \log_2$.

Note 2: $o(1)$ says *nothing*
about, e.g., $b = 128$.

Today: focus on asymptotics.

1993 Buhler–Lenstra–Pomerance,
generalizing 1988 Pollard
“number-field sieve”,
factors pq into p, q using
 $(3.79 \dots + o(1))(\lg pq)^{1/3}(\lg \lg pq)^{2/3}$
simple operations (conjecturally).

To push this beyond 2^b ,
must choose pq to have at least
 $(0.015 \dots + o(1))b^3 / (\lg b)^2$ bits.

Subsequent improvements:

3.73 . . . ; details of $o(1)$.

But can reasonably conjecture
that $2^{(\lg pq)^{1/3+o(1)}}$ is optimal
—for classical computers.

Cryptographic systems surviving
pre-quantum cryptanalysis:

Triple DES (for $b \leq 112$),

AES-256 (for $b \leq 256$),

RSA with $b^{3+o(1)}$ -bit modulus,

McEliece with code length

$b^{1+o(1)}$, Merkle signatures

with “strong” $b^{1+o(1)}$ -bit hash,

BW with “strong” $b^{2+o(1)}$ -

bit discriminant, ECDSA with

“strong” $b^{1+o(1)}$ -bit curve,

HFE^{v-} with $b^{1+o(1)}$ polynomials,

NTRU with $b^{1+o(1)}$ bits, et al.

Typical algorithmic tools for

pre-quantum cryptanalysts:

NFS, ρ , ISD, LLL, F4, XL, et al.

Post-quantum cryptanalysts

have all the same tools

plus quantum algorithms.

Spectacular example:

1994 Shor factors pq into p, q

using $(\lg pq)^{2+o(1)}$

simple quantum operations.

To push this beyond 2^b ,

must choose pq to have at least

$2^{(0.5+o(1))b}$ bits. Yikes.

Cryptographic systems surviving
post-quantum cryptanalysis:

AES-256 (for $b \leq 128$),

McEliece code-based encryption
with code length $b^{1+o(1)}$,

Merkle hash-based signatures
with “strong” $b^{1+o(1)}$ -bit hash,

HFE^v- MQ signatures with
 $b^{1+o(1)}$ polynomials,

NTRU lattice-based encryption
with $b^{1+o(1)}$ bits,

et al.

3. Efficient systems

Fundamental question for designers and implementors of cryptographic algorithms: Exactly how efficient are the unbroken cryptosystems?

Many goals: minimize encryption time, size, decryption time, etc.

Pre-quantum example:

RSA encrypts and verifies in $b^{3+o(1)}$ simple operations.

Signature occupies $b^{3+o(1)}$ bits.

ECC (with strong curve/ \mathbf{F}_q ,
reasonable padding, etc.):

ECDL costs $2^{(1/2+o(1)) \lg q}$
by Pollard's rho method.

Conjecture: this is the
optimal attack against ECC.

Can take $\lg q \in (2 + o(1))b$.

Encryption: Fast scalar mult
costs $(\lg q)^{2+o(1)} = b^{2+o(1)}$.

Summary: ECC costs $b^{2+o(1)}$.

Asymptotically faster than RSA.

Bonus: also $b^{2+o(1)}$ *decryption*.

Efficiency is important:
users have cost constraints.

Cryptographers, cryptanalysts,
implementors, etc. tend to
focus on RSA and ECC,
citing these cost constraints.

But Shor breaks RSA and ECC!

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We think that
the most efficient unbroken
post-quantum systems will be
hash-based signatures,
code-based encryption,
lattice-based encryption,
multivariate-quadratic sigs.

1978 McEliece system (with length- n classical Goppa codes, reasonable padding, etc.):

Conjecture: Fastest attacks cost $2^{(\beta+o(1))n/\lg n}$.

Quantum attacks: smaller β .

Can take $n \in (1/\beta + o(1))b \lg b$.

Encryption: Matrix mult costs $n^{2+o(1)} = b^{2+o(1)}$.

Summary: McEliece costs $b^{2+o(1)}$.

Hmmm: is this *faster* than ECC?

Need more detailed analysis.

ECC encryption:

$\Theta(\lg q)$ operations in \mathbf{F}_q .

Each operation in \mathbf{F}_q costs

$\Theta(\lg q \lg \lg q \lg \lg \lg q)$.

Total $\Theta(b^2 \lg b \lg \lg b)$.

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Total $\Theta(b^2 \lg b \lg \lg b)$.

McEliece encryption,

with 1986 Niederreiter speedup:

$\Theta(n/\lg n)$ additions in \mathbf{F}_2^n ,

each costing $\Theta(n)$.

Total $\Theta(b^2 \lg b)$.

ECC encryption:

$\Theta(\lg q)$ operations in \mathbf{F}_q .

Each operation in \mathbf{F}_q costs

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Total $\Theta(b^2 \lg b \lg \lg b)$.

McEliece encryption,

with 1986 Niederreiter speedup:

$\Theta(n/\lg n)$ additions in \mathbf{F}_2^n ,

each costing $\Theta(n)$.

Total $\Theta(b^2 \lg b)$.

McEliece is asymptotically faster.

Bonus: Even faster decryption.

Another bonus: Post-quantum.

Algorithmic advances can change the competition. Examples:

1. Speed up ECC: can reduce $\lg \lg b$ using 2007 Fürer; maybe someday eliminate $\lg \lg b$?

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1. Speed up ECC: can reduce $\lg \lg b$ using 2007 Fürer; maybe someday eliminate $\lg \lg b$?

2. Faster attacks on McEliece:
2010 Bernstein–Lange–Peters,
2011 May–Meurer–Thomae,
2012 Becker–Joux–May–Meurer.
... but still $\Theta(b^2 \lg b)$.

Algorithmic advances can change the competition. Examples:

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3. We're optimizing "subfield AG" variant of McEliece.

Conjecture: Fastest attacks cost $2^{(\alpha+o(1))n}$; encryption $\Theta(b^2)$.

Code-based encryption

Modern version of McEliece:

Receiver's public key is "random"

$t \lg n \times n$ matrix K over \mathbf{F}_2 .

Specifies linear $\mathbf{F}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbf{F}_2^{t \lg n}$.

Typically $t \lg n \approx 0.2n$;

e.g., $n = 2048$, $t = 40$.

Messages suitable for encryption:

$\{m \in \mathbf{F}_2^n : \#\{i : m_i = 1\} = t\}$.

Encryption of m is $Km \in \mathbf{F}_2^{t \lg n}$.

Use hash of m as secret AES-GCM key to encrypt more data.

Attacker, by linear algebra,
easily works backwards
from Km to some $v \in \mathbf{F}_2^n$
such that $Kv = Km$.

i.e. Attacker finds some
element $v \in m + \text{Ker}K$.

Note that $\#\text{Ker}K \geq 2^{n-t} \lg n$.

Attacker wants to decode v :
to find element of $\text{Ker}K$
at distance only t from v .

Presumably unique, revealing m .

But decoding isn't easy!

Receiver builds K with *secret*

Goppa structure for fast decoding.

Goppa codes

Fix $q \in \{8, 16, 32, \dots\}$;

$t \in \{2, 3, \dots, \lfloor (q-1)/\lg q \rfloor\}$;

$n \in \{t \lg q + 1, t \lg q + 2, \dots, q\}$.

e.g. $q = 1024, t = 50, n = 1024$.

or $q = 4096, t = 150, n = 3600$.

Receiver builds a matrix H

as the parity-check matrix

for the classical (genus-0)

irreducible length- n degree- t

binary Goppa code defined by

a monic degree- t irreducible

polynomial $g \in \mathbf{F}_q[x]$ and

distinct $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbf{F}_q$.

... which means: $H =$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \frac{1}{g(a_1)} & \dots & \frac{1}{g(a_n)} \\ a_1 & \dots & a_n \\ \frac{a_1}{g(a_1)} & \dots & \frac{a_n}{g(a_n)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{a_1^{t-1}}{g(a_1)} & \dots & \frac{a_n^{t-1}}{g(a_n)} \end{pmatrix} .$$

View each element of \mathbf{F}_q here
as a column in $\mathbf{F}_2^{\lg q}$.

Then $H : \mathbf{F}_2^n \rightarrow \mathbf{F}_2^{t \lg q}$.

More useful view: Consider the map $m \mapsto \sum_i m_i / (x - a_i)$ from \mathbf{F}_2^n to $\mathbf{F}_q[x]/g$.

H is the matrix for this map where \mathbf{F}_2^n has standard basis and $\mathbf{F}_q[x]/g$ has basis $[g/x], [g/x^2], \dots, [g/x^t]$.

One-line proof: In $\mathbf{F}_q[x]$ have

$$\frac{g - g(a_i)}{x - a_i} = \sum_{j \geq 0} a_i^j [g/x^{j+1}].$$

Receiver generates key K as row reduction of H , revealing only $\text{Ker} H$.

Lattice-based encryption

1998 Hoffstein–Pipher–Silverman
NTRU (textbook version,
without required padding):

Receiver's public key is “random”
 $h \in ((\mathbf{Z}/q)[x]/(x^p - 1))^*$.

Ciphertext: $m + rh$ given
 $m, r \in (\mathbf{Z}/q)[x]/(x^p - 1)$;
all coefficients in $\{-1, 0, 1\}$;
 $\#\{i : r_i = -1\} = \#\{i : r_i = 1\} = t$.

p : prime; e.g., $p = 613$.

q : power of 2 around $8p$,

with order $\geq (p - 1)/2$ in $(\mathbf{Z}/p)^*$.

t : roughly $0.1p$.

Receiver built $h = 3g/(1 + 3f)$
where $f, g \in (\mathbf{Z}/q)[x]/(x^p - 1)$,
all coeffs in $\{-1, 0, 1\}$,

$$\#\{i : f_i = -1\} = \#\{i : f_i = 1\} = t,$$

$$\#\{i : g_i = -1\} \approx \#\{i : g_i = 1\} \approx \frac{p}{3},$$

both $1 + 3f$ and g invertible.

Given ciphertext $c = m + rh$,

receiver computes

$$(1 + 3f)c = (1 + 3f)m + 3rg$$

in $(\mathbf{Z}/q)[x]/(x^p - 1)$,

lifts to $\mathbf{Z}[x]/(x^p - 1)$ with

coeffs in $\{-q/2, \dots, q/2 - 1\}$,

reduces modulo 3

to obtain m .

Basic attack tool:

Lift pairs (u, uh) to \mathbf{Z}^{2p}

to obtain a lattice.

Attacking key h :

$(1 + 3f, 3g)$ is a short vector
in this lattice.

Attacking ciphertext c :

$(0, c)$ is close to
lattice vector (r, rh) .

Standard lattice algorithms

(SVP, CVP) cost $2^{\Theta(p)}$.

Nothing subexponential known,
even post-quantum.

Take $p \in \Theta(b)$ for security 2^b
against all known attacks.

$\Theta(b \lg b)$ bits in key.

Time $b(\lg b)^{2+o(1)}$

to multiply in

$(\mathbf{Z}/q)[x]/(x^p - 1)$.

Time $b(\lg b)^{2+o(1)}$

for encryption, decryption.

Excellent overall performance.

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Excellent overall performance.

The McEliece cryptosystem

inspires more confidence

but has much larger keys.

Something completely different

1985 H. Lange–Ruppert:

$A(\bar{k})$ has a complete system
of addition laws, degree $\leq (3, 3)$.

Symmetry \Rightarrow degree $\leq (2, 2)$.

“The proof is nonconstructive. . . .

To determine explicitly a
complete system of addition laws
requires tedious computations
already in the easiest case
of an elliptic curve
in Weierstrass normal form.”

1985 Lange–Ruppert:
Explicit complete system
of 3 addition laws
for short Weierstrass curves.

Reduce formulas to 53 monomials
by introducing extra variables

$$x_i y_j + x_j y_i, x_i y_j - x_j y_i.$$

1987 Lange–Ruppert:
Explicit complete system
of 3 addition laws
for long Weierstrass curves.

$$\begin{aligned}
Y_3^{(2)} = & Y_1^2 Y_2^2 + a_1 X_2 Y_1^2 Y_2 + (a_1 a_2 - 3a_3) X_1 X_2^2 Y_1 \\
& + a_3 Y_1^2 Y_2 Z_2 - (a_2^2 - 3a_4) X_1^2 X_2^2 \\
& + (a_1 a_4 - a_2 a_3)(2X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) X_2 Y_1 \\
& + (a_1^2 a_4 - 2a_1 a_2 a_3 + 3a_3^2) X_1^2 X_2 Z_2 \\
& - (a_2 a_4 - 9a_6) X_1 X_2 (X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) \\
& + (3a_1 a_6 - a_3 a_4)(X_1 Z_2 + 2X_2 Z_1) Y_1 Z_2 \\
& + (3a_1^2 a_6 - 2a_1 a_3 a_4 + a_2 a_3^2 + 3a_2 a_6 - a_4^2) X_1 Z_2 (X_1 Z_2 + 2X_2 Z_1) \\
& - (3a_2 a_6 - a_4^2)(X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1)(X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1) \\
& + (a_1^3 a_6 - a_1^2 a_3 a_4 + a_1 a_2 a_3^2 - a_1 a_4^2 + 4a_1 a_2 a_6 - a_3^3 - 3a_3 a_6) Y_1 Z_1 Z_2^2 \\
& + (a_1^4 a_6 - a_1^3 a_3 a_4 + 5a_1^2 a_2 a_6 + a_1^2 a_2 a_3^2 - a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 - a_1 a_3^3 - 3a_1 a_3 a_6 \\
& - a_1^2 a_4^2 + a_2^2 a_3^2 - a_2 a_4^2 + 4a_2^2 a_6 - a_3^2 a_4 - 3a_4 a_6) X_1 Z_1 Z_2^2 \\
& + (a_1^2 a_2 a_6 - a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 + 3a_1 a_3 a_6 + a_2^2 a_3^2 - a_2 a_4^2 \\
& + 4a_2^2 a_6 - 2a_3^2 a_4 - 3a_4 a_6) X_2 Z_1^2 Z_2 \\
& + (a_1^3 a_3 a_6 - a_1^2 a_3^2 a_4 + a_1^2 a_4 a_6 + a_1 a_2 a_3^3 \\
& + 4a_1 a_2 a_3 a_6 - 2a_1 a_3 a_4^2 + a_2 a_3^2 a_4 \\
& + 4a_2 a_4 a_6 - a_3^4 - 6a_3^2 a_6 - a_4^3 - 9a_6^2) Z_1^2 Z_2^2, \\
Z_3^{(2)} = & 3X_1 X_2 (X_1 Y_2 + X_2 Y_1) + Y_1 Y_2 (Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) + 3a_1 X_1^2 X_2^2 \\
& + a_1 (2X_1 Y_2 + Y_1 X_2) Y_1 Z_2 + a_1^2 X_1 Z_2 (2X_2 Y_1 + X_1 Y_2) \\
& + a_2 X_1 X_2 (Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) \\
& + a_2 (X_1 Y_2 + X_2 Y_1) (X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) \\
& + a_1^3 X_1^2 X_2 Z_2 + a_1 a_2 X_1 X_2 (2X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) \\
& + 3a_3 X_1 X_2^2 Z_1 + a_3 Y_1 Z_2 (Y_1 Z_2 + 2Y_2 Z_1) \\
& + 2a_1 a_3 X_1 Z_2 (Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) \\
& + 2a_1 a_3 X_2 Y_1 Z_1 Z_2 + a_4 (X_1 Y_2 + X_2 Y_1) Z_1 Z_2 \\
& + a_4 (X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) (Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) \\
& + (a_1^2 a_3 + a_1 a_4) X_1 Z_2 (X_1 Z_2 + 2X_2 Z_1) + a_2 a_3 X_2 Z_1 (2X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) \\
& + a_3^2 Y_1 Z_1 Z_2^2 + (a_3^2 + 3a_6) (Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) Z_1 Z_2 \\
& + a_1 a_3^2 (2X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) Z_1 Z_2 + 3a_1 a_6 X_1 Z_1 Z_2^2 \\
& + a_3 a_4 (X_1 Z_2 + 2X_2 Z_1) Z_1 Z_2 + (a_3^3 + 3a_3 a_6) Z_1^2 Z_2^2.
\end{aligned}$$

1995 Bosma–Lenstra:
Explicit complete system
of 2 addition laws
for long Weierstrass curves:

$$X_3, Y_3, Z_3, X'_3, Y'_3, Z'_3$$

$$\in \mathbf{Z}[a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6,$$

$$X_1, Y_1, Z_1, X_2, Y_2, Z_2].$$

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My previous slide in this talk:

Bosma–Lenstra Y'_3, Z'_3 .

1995 Bosma–Lenstra:

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$$X_3, Y_3, Z_3, X'_3, Y'_3, Z'_3$$

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$$X_1, Y_1, Z_1, X_2, Y_2, Z_2].$$

My previous slide in this talk:

Bosma–Lenstra Y'_3, Z'_3 .

Actually, slide shows

Publish(Y'_3), Publish(Z'_3),

where Publish introduces typos.

What this means:

For all fields k ,

all \mathbf{P}^2 Weierstrass curves

$$E/k : Y^2 Z + a_1 X Y Z + a_3 Y Z^2 = X^3 + a_2 X^2 Z + a_4 X Z^2 + a_6 Z^3,$$

all $P_1 = (X_1 : Y_1 : Z_1) \in E(k)$,

all $P_2 = (X_2 : Y_2 : Z_2) \in E(k)$:

$(X_3 : Y_3 : Z_3)$

is $P_1 + P_2$ or $(0 : 0 : 0)$;

$(X'_3 : Y'_3 : Z'_3)$

is $P_1 + P_2$ or $(0 : 0 : 0)$;

at most one of these is $(0 : 0 : 0)$.

2009 Bernstein–T. Lange:

For all fields k with $2 \neq 0$,

all $\mathbf{P}^1 \times \mathbf{P}^1$ Edwards curves E/k :

$$X^2T^2 + Y^2Z^2 = Z^2T^2 + dX^2Y^2,$$

all $P_1, P_2 \in E(k)$,

$$P_1 = ((X_1 : Z_1), (Y_1 : T_1)),$$

$$P_2 = ((X_2 : Z_2), (Y_2 : T_2)):$$

$(X_3 : Z_3)$ is $x(P_1 + P_2)$ or $(0 : 0)$;

$(X'_3 : Z'_3)$ is $x(P_1 + P_2)$ or $(0 : 0)$;

$(Y_3 : T_3)$ is $y(P_1 + P_2)$ or $(0 : 0)$;

$(Y'_3 : T'_3)$ is $y(P_1 + P_2)$ or $(0 : 0)$;

at most one of these is $(0 : 0)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
X_3 &= X_1 Y_2 Z_2 T_1 + X_2 Y_1 Z_1 T_2, \\
Z_3 &= Z_1 Z_2 T_1 T_2 + d X_1 X_2 Y_1 Y_2, \\
Y_3 &= Y_1 Y_2 Z_1 Z_2 - X_1 X_2 T_1 T_2, \\
T_3 &= Z_1 Z_2 T_1 T_2 - d X_1 X_2 Y_1 Y_2, \\
X'_3 &= X_1 Y_1 Z_2 T_2 + X_2 Y_2 Z_1 T_1, \\
Z'_3 &= X_1 X_2 T_1 T_2 + Y_1 Y_2 Z_1 Z_2, \\
Y'_3 &= X_1 Y_1 Z_2 T_2 - X_2 Y_2 Z_1 T_1, \\
T'_3 &= X_1 Y_2 Z_2 T_1 - X_2 Y_1 Z_1 T_2.
\end{aligned}$$

Much, much, much simpler than
Lange–Ruppert, Bosma–Lenstra.
Also much easier to prove.

5. EXPLICIT FORMULAE

From [5, Chapter III, 2.3] it follows that $f = m^*(X/Z)$ and $g = m^*(Y/Z)$ are given by

$$f = \lambda^2 + a_1 \lambda - \frac{X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1}{Z_1 Z_2} - a_2, \quad g = -(\lambda + a_1)f - v - a_3,$$

where

$$\lambda = \frac{Y_1 Z_2 - Y_2 Z_1}{X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1} \quad \text{and} \quad v = -\frac{Y_1 X_2 - Y_2 X_1}{X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1}.$$

Applying the automorphism of $E \times E$ mapping (P_1, P_2) to $(P_1, -P_2)$ we find that

$$s^*(X/Z) = \kappa^2 + a_1 \kappa - \frac{X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1}{Z_1 Z_2} - a_2$$

and

$$s^*(Y/Z) = -(\kappa + a_1)s^*(X/Z) - \mu - a_3,$$

where

$$\kappa = \frac{Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1 + a_1 X_2 Z_1 + a_3 Z_1 Z_2}{X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1}$$

and

$$\mu = -\frac{Y_1 X_2 + Y_2 X_1 + a_1 X_1 X_2 + a_3 X_1 Z_2}{X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1}.$$

The bijection of Theorem 2 maps $(0:0:1)$ to the addition law given by $X_3^{(1)} = fZ_0$, $Y_3^{(1)} = gZ_0$, $Z_3^{(1)} = Z_0$, which in explicit terms is found to be given by

$$\begin{aligned} X_3^{(1)} = & (X_1 Y_2 - X_2 Y_1)(Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) + (X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1) Y_1 Y_2 \\ & + a_1 X_1 X_2 (Y_1 Z_2 - Y_2 Z_1) + a_1 (X_1 Y_2 - X_2 Y_1)(X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) \\ & - a_2 X_1 X_2 (X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1) + a_3 (X_1 Y_2 - X_2 Y_1) Z_1 Z_2 \\ & + a_3 (X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1)(Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) \\ & - a_4 (X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1)(X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1) \\ & - 3a_6 (X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1) Z_1 Z_2, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y_3^{(1)} = & -3X_1X_2(X_1Y_2 - X_2Y_1) \\
 & - Y_1Y_2(Y_1Z_2 - Y_2Z_1) - 2a_1(X_1Z_2 - X_2Z_1)Y_1Y_2 \\
 & + (a_1^2 + 3a_2)X_1X_2(Y_1Z_2 - Y_2Z_1) \\
 & - (a_1^2 + a_2)(X_1Y_2 + X_2Y_1)(X_1Z_2 - X_2Z_1) \\
 & + (a_1a_2 - 3a_3)X_1X_2(X_1Z_2 - X_2Z_1) \\
 & - (2a_1a_3 + a_4)(X_1Y_2 - X_2Y_1)Z_1Z_2 \\
 & + a_4(X_1Z_2 + X_2Z_1)(Y_1Z_2 - Y_2Z_1) \\
 & + (a_1a_4 - a_2a_3)(X_1Z_2 + X_2Z_1)(X_1Z_2 - X_2Z_1) \\
 & + (a_3^2 + 3a_6)(Y_1Z_2 - Y_2Z_1)Z_1Z_2 \\
 & + (3a_1a_6 - a_3a_4)(X_1Z_2 - X_2Z_1)Z_1Z_2,
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z_3^{(1)} = & 3X_1X_2(X_1Z_2 - X_2Z_1) - (Y_1Z_2 + Y_2Z_1)(Y_1Z_2 - Y_2Z_1) \\
 & + a_1(X_1Y_2 - X_2Y_1)Z_1Z_2 - a_1(X_1Z_2 - X_2Z_1)(Y_1Z_2 + Y_2Z_1) \\
 & + a_2(X_1Z_2 + X_2Z_1)(X_1Z_2 - X_2Z_1) - a_3(Y_1Z_2 - Y_2Z_1)Z_1Z_2 \\
 & + a_4(X_1Z_2 - X_2Z_1)Z_1Z_2.
 \end{aligned}$$

The corresponding exceptional divisor is $3 \cdot \Delta$, so a pair of points P_1, P_2 on E is exceptional for this addition law if and only if $P_1 = P_2$.

Multiplying the addition law just given by $s^*(Y/Z)$ we obtain the addition law corresponding to $(0:1:0)$. It reads as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 X_3^{(2)} = & Y_1Y_2(X_1Y_2 + X_2Y_1) + a_1(2X_1Y_2 + X_2Y_1)X_2Y_1 + a_1^2X_1X_2^2Y_1 \\
 & - a_2X_1X_2(X_1Y_2 + X_2Y_1) - a_1a_2X_1^2X_2^2 + a_3X_2Y_1(Y_1Z_2 + 2Y_2Z_1) \\
 & + a_1a_3X_1X_2(Y_1Z_2 - Y_2Z_1) - a_1a_3(X_1Y_2 + X_2Y_1)(X_1Z_2 - X_2Z_1) \\
 & - a_4X_1X_2(Y_1Z_2 + Y_2Z_1) - a_4(X_1Y_2 + X_2Y_1)(X_1Z_2 + X_2Z_1) \\
 & - a_1^2a_3X_1^2X_2Z_2 - a_1a_4X_1X_2(2X_1Z_2 + X_2Z_1) \\
 & - a_2a_3X_1X_2^2Z_1 - a_3^2X_1Z_2(2Y_2Z_1 + Y_1Z_2) \\
 & - 3a_6(X_1Y_2 + X_2Y_1)Z_1Z_2 \\
 & - 3a_6(X_1Z_2 + X_2Z_1)(Y_1Z_2 + Y_2Z_1) - a_1a_3^2X_1Z_2(X_1Z_2 + 2X_2Z_1) \\
 & - 3a_1a_6X_1Z_2(X_1Z_2 + 2X_2Z_1) + a_3a_4(X_1Z_2 - 2X_2Z_1)X_2Z_1 \\
 & - (a_1^2a_6 - a_1a_3a_4 + a_2a_3^2 + 4a_2a_6 - a_4^2)(Y_1Z_2 + Y_2Z_1)Z_1Z_2 \\
 & - (a_1^3a_6 - a_1^2a_3a_4 + a_1a_2a_3^2 + 4a_1a_2a_6 - a_1a_4^2)X_1Z_1Z_2^2 \\
 & - a_3^3(X_1Z_2 + X_2Z_1)Z_1Z_2 - 3a_3a_6(X_1Z_2 + 2X_2Z_1)Z_1Z_2 \\
 & - (a_1^2a_3a_6 - a_1a_3^2a_4 + a_2a_3^3 + 4a_2a_3a_6 - a_3a_4^2)Z_1^2Z_2^2,
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
Y_3^{(2)} = & Y_1^2 Y_2^2 + a_1 X_2 Y_1^2 Y_2 + (a_1 a_2 - 3a_3) X_1 X_2^2 Y_1 \\
& + a_3 Y_1^2 Y_2 Z_2 - (a_2^2 - 3a_4) X_1^2 X_2^2 \\
& + (a_1 a_4 - a_2 a_3)(2X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) X_2 Y_1 \\
& + (a_1^2 a_4 - 2a_1 a_2 a_3 + 3a_3^2) X_1^2 X_2 Z_2 \\
& - (a_2 a_4 - 9a_6) X_1 X_2 (X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) \\
& + (3a_1 a_6 - a_3 a_4)(X_1 Z_2 + 2X_2 Z_1) Y_1 Z_2 \\
& + (3a_1^2 a_6 - 2a_1 a_3 a_4 + a_2 a_3^2 + 3a_2 a_6 - a_4^2) X_1 Z_2 (X_1 Z_2 + 2X_2 Z_1) \\
& - (3a_2 a_6 - a_4^2)(X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1)(X_1 Z_2 - X_2 Z_1) \\
& + (a_1^3 a_6 - a_1^2 a_3 a_4 + a_1 a_2 a_3^2 - a_1 a_4^2 + 4a_1 a_2 a_6 - a_3^3 - 3a_3 a_6) Y_1 Z_1 Z_2^2 \\
& + (a_1^4 a_6 - a_1^3 a_3 a_4 + 5a_1^2 a_2 a_6 + a_1^2 a_2 a_3^2 - a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 - a_1 a_3^3 - 3a_1 a_3 a_6 \\
& - a_1^2 a_4^2 + a_2^2 a_3^2 - a_2 a_4^2 + 4a_2^2 a_6 - a_3^2 a_4 - 3a_4 a_6) X_1 Z_1 Z_2^2 \\
& + (a_1^2 a_2 a_6 - a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 + 3a_1 a_3 a_6 + a_2^2 a_3^2 - a_2 a_4^2 \\
& + 4a_2^2 a_6 - 2a_3^2 a_4 - 3a_4 a_6) X_2 Z_1^2 Z_2 \\
& + (a_1^3 a_3 a_6 - a_1^2 a_3^2 a_4 + a_1^2 a_4 a_6 + a_1 a_2 a_3^3 \\
& + 4a_1 a_2 a_3 a_6 - 2a_1 a_3 a_4^2 + a_2 a_3^2 a_4 \\
& + 4a_2 a_4 a_6 - a_3^4 - 6a_3^2 a_6 - a_4^3 - 9a_6^2) Z_1^2 Z_2^2,
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
Z_3^{(2)} = & 3X_1 X_2 (X_1 Y_2 + X_2 Y_1) + Y_1 Y_2 (Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) + 3a_1 X_1^2 X_2^2 \\
& + a_1 (2X_1 Y_2 + Y_1 X_2) Y_1 Z_2 + a_1^2 X_1 Z_2 (2X_2 Y_1 + X_1 Y_2) \\
& + a_2 X_1 X_2 (Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) \\
& + a_2 (X_1 Y_2 + X_2 Y_1) (X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) \\
& + a_1^3 X_1^2 X_2 Z_2 + a_1 a_2 X_1 X_2 (2X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) \\
& + 3a_3 X_1 X_2^2 Z_1 + a_3 Y_1 Z_2 (Y_1 Z_2 + 2Y_2 Z_1) \\
& + 2a_1 a_3 X_1 Z_2 (Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) \\
& + 2a_1 a_3 X_2 Y_1 Z_1 Z_2 + a_4 (X_1 Y_2 + X_2 Y_1) Z_1 Z_2 \\
& + a_4 (X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) (Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) \\
& + (a_1^2 a_3 + a_1 a_4) X_1 Z_2 (X_1 Z_2 + 2X_2 Z_1) + a_2 a_3 X_2 Z_1 (2X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) \\
& + a_3^2 Y_1 Z_1 Z_2^2 + (a_3^2 + 3a_6) (Y_1 Z_2 + Y_2 Z_1) Z_1 Z_2 \\
& + a_1 a_3^2 (2X_1 Z_2 + X_2 Z_1) Z_1 Z_2 + 3a_1 a_6 X_1 Z_1 Z_2^2 \\
& + a_3 a_4 (X_1 Z_2 + 2X_2 Z_1) Z_1 Z_2 + (a_3^3 + 3a_3 a_6) Z_1^2 Z_2^2.
\end{aligned}$$

1987 Lenstra: Use Lange–Ruppert complete system of addition laws to computationally define group $E(R)$ for more general rings R —rings with trivial class group.

Define $\mathbf{P}^2(R) = \{(X : Y : Z) : X, Y, Z \in R; XR + YR + ZR = R\}$ where $(X : Y : Z)$ is the module $\{(\lambda X, \lambda Y, \lambda Z) : \lambda \in R\}$.

Define $E(R) = \{(X : Y : Z) \in \mathbf{P}^2(R) : Y^2Z = X^3 + a_4XZ^2 + a_6Z^3\}$.

To define (and compute) sum
 $(X_1 : Y_1 : Z_1) + (X_2 : Y_2 : Z_2)$:

Consider (and compute)

Lange–Ruppert $(X_3 : Y_3 : Z_3)$,
 $(X'_3 : Y'_3 : Z'_3)$, $(X''_3 : Y''_3 : Z''_3)$.

Add these R -modules:

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} &(\lambda X_3, \lambda Y_3, \lambda Z_3) \\ &+ (\lambda' X'_3, \lambda' Y'_3, \lambda' Z'_3) \\ &+ (\lambda'' X''_3, \lambda'' Y''_3, \lambda'' Z''_3) : \\ &\quad \lambda, \lambda', \lambda'' \in R \end{aligned} \right\}.$$

Express as $(X : Y : Z)$,

using trivial class group of R .