Some remarks on how to hash faster onto elliptic curves

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Abstract. This article proposes four optimizations of indifferentiable hashing onto (prime order subgroups of) ordinary elliptic curves over finite fields \mathbb{F}_q . One of them is dedicated to elliptic curves E provided that $q \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. The second deals with $q \equiv 2, 4 \pmod{7}$ and an elliptic curve E_7 of j-invariant -3^35^3 . The corresponding section plays a rather theoretical role, because (the quadratic twist of) E_7 is not used in real-world cryptography. The other two optimizations take place for the subgroups \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 of some pairing-friendly curves. The performance gain comes from the smaller number of required exponentiations in \mathbb{F}_q for hashing to $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$, $E_7(\mathbb{F}_q)$, and \mathbb{G}_2 as well as from the absence of necessity to hash directly onto \mathbb{G}_1 . In particular, the new results affect the pairing-friendly curve BLS12-381 (the most popular in practice at the moment) and a few ones from the international draft NIST SP 800-186. Among other things, a taxonomy of state-of-the-art hash functions to elliptic curves will be presented.

Key words: clearing cofactor, Icart-like encodings, indifferentiable hashing to elliptic curves, Klein quartic, optimal ate pairings.

1 How to hash onto pairing-friendly curves

There is a lot of articles (including recent ones) on how to hash into or onto elliptic curves over finite fields. So, with the reader's permission, a detailed introduction is not provided in order to avoid repetition. Good surveys are represented in [1, Section 8], [2]. It is worth emphasizing that throughout this text we will mean hashing indifferentiable from a random oracle (in the sense of [3, Section 2.2]).

Let E_1 be an ordinary pairing-friendly elliptic curve of embedding degree k > 1 over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q . Besides, let E_2 be a twist of E_1 of degree $d := \# \operatorname{Aut}(E_1)$ over the field \mathbb{F}_{q^e} , where $e := k/d \in \mathbb{N}$. As is customary, for a common prime divisor r of the orders $N_1 := \# E_1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ and $N_2 := \# E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e})$ denote by $\mathbb{G}_1 \subset E_1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ and $\mathbb{G}_2 \hookrightarrow E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e})$ the eigenspaces of the Frobenius endomorphism on $E_1[r] \subset E_1(\mathbb{F}_{q^k})$, associated with the eigenvalues 1, q, respectively. Note that the condition $e \in \mathbb{N}$ is not automatically met, i.e., this is our assumption. It is claimed (e.g., in [1, Theorem 3.3.5]) that for any prime divisor $r \mid N_1$ there is always a unique nontrivial \mathbb{F}_{q^e} -twist E_2 (of degree d) such that $r \mid N_2$. By abuse of notation, we will identify the order r subgroup $\mathbb{G}_2 \subset E_1(\mathbb{F}_{q^k})$ with its image under an \mathbb{F}_{q^e} -isomorphism $E_1 \to E_2$. Thus $\mathbb{G}_1 = E_1(\mathbb{F}_q)[r]$ and $\mathbb{G}_2 = E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e})[r]$. Besides, $d \in \{2,4,6\}$ and d = 2 if and only if $j(E_i) \neq 0$, 1728 (resp., d = 4 iff $j(E_i) = 1728$, and d = 6 iff $j(E_i) = 0$).

This section explains how to hash onto \mathbb{G}_2 more efficiently and why we do not need to hash directly onto \mathbb{G}_1 . In the first case, we will significantly exploit the presence of clearing

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the cofactor $c_2 := N_2/r$. In the second one, on the contrary, clearing the cofactor $c_1 := N_1/r$ can be fully avoided. The fact is that *optimal ate pairings* $a: \mathbb{G}_2 \times \mathbb{G}_1 \to \mu_r \subset \mathbb{F}_{q^k}^*$ [1, Theorem 3.3.4] can be painlessly (unlike $E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e}) \times \mathbb{G}_1$) extended to $\mathbb{G}_2 \times E_1(\mathbb{F}_q)$, at least in main pairing-based protocols.

At the moment, due to [4, Table 1] the curve BLS12-381 is a de facto standard in pairing-based cryptography. More generally, the $Barreto-Lynn-Scott\ family$ with k=12 and d=6 (see, e.g., [5, Section 3.1]) possesses the parameters

$$r(z) = z^4 - z^2 + 1,$$
 $q(z) = (z - 1)^2 r(z)/3 + z.$

By definition, BLS12-381 is generated by z := -0xd20100000010000 and hence

$$\lceil \log_2(-z) \rceil = 64, \qquad \lceil \log_2(r) \rceil = 255, \qquad \lceil \log_2(q) \rceil = 381.$$

Notice that $r \ll q$ in contrast to the Barreto-Naehrig family [1, Example 4.2].

Recall that almost all known hash functions \mathcal{H}_i : $\{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{G}_i$ are the compositions $\mathcal{H}_i = [c'_i] \circ h_i \circ \eta_i$. Here $\eta_i : \{0,1\}^* \to S_i$ are hash functions to some finite sets, $h_1 : S_1 \to E_1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ and $h_2 : S_2 \to E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e})$ are just maps traditionally called *encodings*, and finally $c'_i \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $c_i \mid c'_i$, $r \nmid c'_i$. The scalar multiplication $[c'_i]$ on the curve E_i is said to be *clearing cofactor*. Surprisingly, due to Fuentes-Castaneda et al. [6] it is more efficient to multiply points by scalars c'_i greater than c_i . The sets S_i are usually very simple, hence it is easy to combine η_i from existing hash functions $\{0,1\}^* \to \{0,1\}^\ell$ for $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$. The most complicated component of \mathcal{H}_i is no doubt h_i , because its essence is based on high-dimensional algebraic geometry.

The majority of pairing-based protocols require a hash function to at most one group \mathbb{G}_1 or \mathbb{G}_2 . Of course, any such protocol can be equivalently implemented for hashing to the other group. Without using point compression-decompression methods, elements of \mathbb{G}_1 (resp., \mathbb{G}_2) are obviously represented by $2\lceil \log_2(q) \rceil$ (resp., $2e\lceil \log_2(q) \rceil$) bits. Therefore the choice often depends on whether a hash value should be more compact than the second pairing argument or vice versa. Besides, there are rare protocols, for example the Scott identity-based key agreement [7], where both hash functions \mathcal{H}_i are necessary. Thus the more cumbersome hashing to \mathbb{G}_2 cannot be replaced by hashing to \mathbb{G}_1 in all situations.

1.1 How not to hash onto \mathbb{G}_1

As far as the author knows, (non-degenerate) optimal ate pairings $a: \mathbb{G}_2 \times \mathbb{G}_1 \to \mu_r \subset \mathbb{F}_{q^k}^*$ are only used in today's real-world cryptography. The fact is that the corresponding Miller loop has the hypothetically smallest length $\approx \log_2(r)/\varphi(k)$, where φ is Euler's totient function. However it is more practical to take the whole group $E_1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ instead of \mathbb{G}_1 . In this case, the pairing $a: \mathbb{G}_2 \times E_1(\mathbb{F}_q) \to \mu_r$ becomes degenerate, but this is not important. A similar trick is done in [8, Section 5] for the Tate pairing in the context of isogeny-based cryptography, where, on the contrary, \mathbb{G}_2 is replaced by $E_1(\mathbb{F}_{q^k})$ in our notation.

Indeed, first, the length of the Miller loop depends only on the order of \mathbb{G}_2 . Second, if for points $P \in E_1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ and $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$ we have a(Q, P) = 1, then a fortior $a(Q, c_1'P) = a(Q, P)^{c_1'} = 1$. Further, many popular protocols (such as the aggregated BLS signature [9]) work correctly whether the order of P equals r or not. It should be borne in mind that the *strong unforge-ability property* (unlike the usual *existential* one) is not satisfied anymore for this signature as

emphasized in [9, Section 5.2]. Nevertheless, in the opinion of [10, Section 7], the existential unforgeability is sufficient in practice. Finally, the complexity of computing a(Q, P) remains the same as that of computing $a(Q, c'_1 P)$, because $P, c'_1 P$ are equally defined over \mathbb{F}_q .

In [11] an encoding $h_1: \mathbb{F}_q^2 \to E_1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is constructed for elliptic curves $E_1: y^2 = x^3 + b$ (of j-invariant 0) provided that $\sqrt{b} \in \mathbb{F}_q$. There it is proved that h_1 is admissible in the sense of [3, Definition 4], which leads (in compliance with [3, Theorem 1]) to the indifferentiable hash function $h_1 \circ \eta_1$. Moreover, h_1 can be implemented in constant time of raising to some power $n_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ in the field \mathbb{F}_q (not counting a few additions and multiplications). In particular, the encoding is applicable to the curve BLS12-381 for which b = 4 and $n_1 = (q - 10)/27$.

Recall that famous (indirect) Wahby–Boneh's encoding h_{WB} [12, Section 4] (based on the simplified SWU one [3, Section 7]) is also valid for BLS12-381. It requires to extract one square root in \mathbb{F}_q , which for that curve is equivalent to raising in \mathbb{F}_q to the power $n_2 := (q-3)/4 \in \mathbb{N}$. The hash function H_2 from [12, Section 5] twice applies h_{WB} in order to act as a random oracle. By the way, the other indifferentiable hash function H_3 is even less performant than H_2 by virtue of [12, Figure 1].

To be exact, the Hamming weight $w(n_1) = 192$ and $w(n_2) = 228$. Denote by $\ell(n_i)$ the length of a shortest addition chain for n_i . In accordance with [13, Section 9.2.1] we establish the inequalities

$$382 \le \ell(n_1) \lesssim 419, \quad 385 \le \ell(n_2) \lesssim 422.$$

We cannot claim that these upper bounds are mathematically correct, because o(1) is omitted in contrast to the original inequality. However, in any case, the sought bounds are very close (probably equal) to ours.

On the other hand, following the sliding window method [13, Section 9.1.3] (with k = 5), the author explicitly derives in Magma [14] an addition chain for n_1 (resp., n_2) whose the length equals 449 (resp., 458). Curiously, a similar chain for n_2 of the same length 458, obtained by means of more advanced methods, appears in the optimized library blst [15]. Thus the encoding h_{WB} applied twice is much slower than the one h_1 applied once. Indeed, 2.458 - 449 = 467 is a significant amount of multiplications in \mathbb{F}_q that can be eliminated by giving priority to h_1 .

The author provides in [16] a general reference implementation of h_1 in Sage. The corresponding Rust implementation and benchmarks for BLS12-381 are given in [17] by Zhang. He used the famous library arkworks as a base. The new encoding is actually more efficient than the universal Shallue-van de Woestijne (SW) encoding [18]. Unfortunately, there is currently no possibility to make a low-level comparison with h_{WB} , because the latter is not yet implemented in arkworks.

1.2 How to hash onto \mathbb{G}_2

To the author's knowledge, optimal ate pairings do not have a natural extension to $E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e}) \times \mathbb{G}_1$. Conversely, (non-degenerate) twisted optimal ate pairings [1, Theorem 3.3.8] of the form $\mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \to \mu_r$ are readily extended to $\mathbb{G}_1 \times E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e})$. But for them the Miller loop is of a larger length than for (usual) optimal ate pairings. It is widely recognized that a pairing is a more laborious operation than an elliptic curve scalar multiplication. Therefore reducing the Miller loop seems a better solution than avoiding the multiplication by c'_2 .

For the sake of convenience, introduce so-called *tensor multiplication* of any two maps $h: S \to G$, $g: T \to G$ from sets S, T to the same group (G, +):

$$h \otimes g \colon S \times T \to G$$
 $(s,t) \mapsto h(s) + g(t)$

We know (e.g., from [1, Theorem 2.11]) that $E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e}) \simeq \mathbb{Z}/(mr) \times \mathbb{Z}/\ell$, where $\ell \mid m$ and $m\ell = c_2$. Pick any independent points $P_0, P_1 \in E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e})$ of orders m and ℓ , respectively. The independency means that $P_1 \in E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e}) \setminus \langle P_0 \rangle$ if $\ell > 1$, and $P_1 = (0:1:0)$ if $\ell = 1$. Consider the set $V := [0, m) \times [0, \ell)$ and the maps

$$g: V \to E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e})$$
 $(v_0, v_1) \mapsto v_0 P_0 + v_1 P_1,$
 $F: \mathbb{F}_{q^e} \times V \to \mathbb{G}_2$ $F:= [c'_2] \circ (h_2 \otimes g).$

For the next theorem we need the notions of (B-) well-distributed encoding [19, Definitions 5] and $(\epsilon-)$ regular map [19, Definition 3] (with respect to the uniform distribution on its domain).

Theorem 1. Assume that $h_2: \mathbb{F}_{q^e} \to E_2(\mathbb{F}_{q^e})$ is a B-well-distributed encoding (for $B \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$). Then the map F is ϵ -regular, where $\epsilon := B\sqrt{r/q^e}$. As a result, ϵ is negligible whenever e > 1. This is an immediate consequence of [19, Corollary 1] and [3, Lemma 13].

Note that F is a samplable map (in the sense of [3, Definition 4]) if, as is often the case, h_2 enjoys a large image, that is $\#\text{Im}(h_2) = \Theta(q^e)$. Indeed, this property follows from [3, Lemma 13] and [19, Algorithm 1]. Eventually, we establish a series of corollaries.

Corollary 1. The map F is admissible.

Corollary 2. If a hash function $\eta: \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{F}_{q^e}$ is indifferentiable from a random oracle, then the hash function $[c'_2] \circ h_2 \circ \eta: \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{G}_2$ (denoted by H_4 in [12, Section 5]) is so.

Proof. Take another random oracle $\theta \colon \{0,1\}^* \to V$. Therefore the functions $(\eta,\theta)(s) := (\eta(s),\theta(s))$ and hence $F \circ (\eta,\theta) \colon \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{G}_2$ also act as a random oracle (the second fact is [3, Theorem 1]). Finally, obviously, $H_4 = F \circ (\eta,\theta)$.

For the BLS12-381 curve $E_2: y^2 = x^3 + 4(1+i)$ (where $i := \sqrt{-1} \notin \mathbb{F}_q$) in the role of h_2 the article [12, Section 5] proposes Wahby–Boneh's encoding. However that article does not notice the indifferentiability of H_4 . By the way, the other (indifferentiable) hash functions H_5 , H_6 are even slower than H_4 by virtue of [12, Figure 1].

2 Batching two "relatively prime" encodings

Hash functions to classical (i.e., non-pairing-friendly) elliptic curves have become more and more in demand. Indeed, according to [20, Table I] they are actively used in many *PAKE (Password Authenticated Key Exchange) protocols*. Incidentally, several years ago CFRG (Crypto Forum Research Group) conducted the PAKE selection process [21] in which the protocols CPace [22] and OPAQUE [23] won. Besides, such hash functions are necessary for some *blind signatures* (e.g., from [24, Section 3.3]), which serve as a basis of modern electronic voting systems. It is also worth mentioning that hashing to elliptic curves is applied in *OPRFs (Oblivious Pseudorandom Functions)* [25], among others, in the 2HashDH scheme [26, Section 3.1], [27, Section 3].

2.1 How to hash onto $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ if $q \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$

Consider an elliptic curve $E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ defined over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q . Under the condition $q \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ (resp., $j(E) \neq 0,1728$), Icart's encoding h_I [28] (resp., the simplified SWU one h_{sSWU}) is available. In accordance with [28, Lemma 4], [3, Lemma 6] for any $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ we have $\#h_I^{-1}(P) \leq 4$ and $\#h_{sSWU}^{-1}(P) \leq 8$. In fact, if an implementation of h_{sSWU} takes into account the sign of the y-coordinate, then $\#h_{sSWU}^{-1}(P) \leq 4$. At the same time, by virtue of [29, Section 5] the encoding h_I (resp., h_{sSWU}) is B-well-distributed with B = 13 (resp., B = 53) at least for q of a cryptographic size. Applying [19, Corollary 1], we thus get the next statement.

Lemma 1. Suppose that $q \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ and $j(E) \neq 0, 1728$. Then the map $F := h_I \otimes h_{sSWU}$: $\mathbb{F}_q^2 \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is ϵ -regular for the negligible value $\epsilon := 26\sqrt{N}/q$, where $N := \#E(\mathbb{F}_q)$.

From now on we assume in addition that $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Obviously,

$$q \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, \ q \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \Leftrightarrow q \equiv 11 \pmod{12}.$$

For the sake of compactness, we put e := (q+1)/4 and k := (q+1)/12. Given Z = n/d such that $n, d \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$, we obtain:

$$z := Z^k = n^k \cdot d^{q-1-k} = n^k \cdot d^{(11q-13)/12} = nd^9 \cdot (nd^{11})^{(q-11)/12}, \qquad z^6 = Z^{(q+1)/2} = \left(\frac{Z}{q}\right)Z,$$

where $\left(\frac{Z}{q}\right)$ is the Legendre symbol. In particular, $z = \sqrt[6]{Z}$ whenever Z is a quadratic residue in \mathbb{F}_q .

Given $(t,s) \in \mathbb{F}_q^2$, we need to evaluate $h_I(t)$ and $h_{sSWU}(s)$. As is known, separately each of these points can be computed in constant time of one exponentiation in \mathbb{F}_q (see the case of h_{sSWU} in [12, Section 4.2]). Let's show that this is also possible simultaneously for the two points (and hence for F(t,s)). The only cumbersome part of h_I (resp., h_{sSWU}) consists in the exponentiation $\sqrt[3]{f} = f^{(2q-1)/3}$ (resp., $\pm g^e$ such that $(g^e)^2 = \left(\frac{g}{q}\right)g$), where

$$f := \left(\frac{3a - t^4}{6t}\right)^2 - b - \frac{t^6}{27}, \qquad g := -\frac{b}{a}\left(1 + \frac{1}{s^4 - s^2}\right).$$

Evidently, $\sqrt[3]{f}$ is the unique cubic root of f in \mathbb{F}_q and for our purpose it is sufficient to find g^e up to a sign. For the sake of simplicity, we exclude from consideration the zeros and poles of the functions f, g. As usual, they can be processed individually.

It is suggested to act in a similar way as in [30, Section 3], that is for $Z := f^2g^3$ to compute $z = Z^k$ (almost $\sqrt[6]{Z}$) instead of computing separately $\sqrt[3]{f}$ and $\pm g^e$ (almost \sqrt{g}). Note that

$$z = f^{(q+1)/6} \cdot g^e = \left(\frac{f}{g}\right) \sqrt[3]{f} \cdot g^e, \qquad z^2 = \sqrt[3]{f^2} \cdot \left(\frac{g}{g}\right) g.$$

Introducing the auxiliary notation $\theta := fg/z^2$, we get the equalities

$$\sqrt[3]{f} = \frac{\left(\frac{g}{q}\right)fg}{z^2} = \left(\frac{g}{q}\right)\theta, \qquad g^e = \frac{z}{\left(\frac{f}{q}\right)\sqrt[3]{f}} = \frac{z}{\left(\frac{fg}{q}\right)\theta}.$$

We see that $\theta^3 = (\frac{g}{q})f$ and $z^6 = (\frac{g}{q})Z$. Therefore the symbol $(\frac{g}{q})$ can be determined for free. More formally,

$$\left(\sqrt[3]{f}, \pm g^e\right) = \begin{cases} \left(\theta, \ z/\theta\right) & \text{if } \theta^3 = f, \text{ i.e., } z^6 = Z, \\ \left(-\theta, \ z/\theta\right) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Bearing in mind the formula above for $(n/d)^k$ without the inversion operation, we completely justify the next remark.

Remark 1. The map F (in contrast to $h_I^{\otimes 2}$ and $h_{sSWU}^{\otimes 2}$) can be computed in constant time of one exponentiation in \mathbb{F}_q .

Of course, by analogy with [14], given q, it is not difficult to derive explicit short addition chains for raising to the power k. Besides, F is a samplable map due to [19, Algorithm 1], which eventually leads to the following result.

Corollary 3. The map $F: \mathbb{F}_q^2 \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is admissible.

Remark 1 is still valid when h_{sSWU} is replaced by any encoding implementable with the cost of extracting one square root in \mathbb{F}_q . We chose h_{sSWU} , because it is the most universal among such encodings known in the literature. In particular, this encoding is relevant even if N is a prime (that is the cofactor equals 1), which is the case for many classical elliptic curves. Note that for $q \equiv 11 \pmod{12}$ curves of j-invariants 0, 1728 are supersingular in compliance with [13, Section 24.2.1.c]. Since such curves pose special challenges for security by virtue of [1, Remark 2.22], the map h_{sSWU} does not have restrictions in the current context.

There is a lot of standardized elliptic curves over fields \mathbb{F}_q such that $q \equiv 11 \pmod{12}$. It is readily checked that this condition is fulfilled, e.g., for the (unique) French curve FRP256v1 [31], for the curves P-192, P-384, and Curve448-Goldilocks from NIST SP 800-186 [32, Section 4.2.1] as well as for all Russian curves [33, Appendix B] except for id-GostR3410-2001-CryptoPro-B-ParamSet. Remark 1 remains true in the case $q \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, $q \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$ when a square root is still expressed via one exponentiation (see, e.g., [2, Appendix I.2]). However the author did not find standardized curves over such fields, hence he decided to stop in order not to complicate the text.

2.2 Generalization of Icart's encoding

The given section answers the following curious question.

Question 1. Do we know an example of a superelliptic \mathbb{F}_q -curve $C: y^m = f(x)$ and an \mathbb{F}_q -cover $\chi: C \to E$ (of small degree) onto some ordinary elliptic \mathbb{F}_q -curve E provided that $m \in \mathbb{N}$ is relatively prime with 3(q-1)?

The case m=2 is obviously impossible for odd q we deal with in this article. In turn, the case m=3 is deliberately excluded, because it is treated by Icart to the full extent. If the question has a positive answer, then we have yet another encoding $h_{\chi} := \chi \circ pr_x^{-1} \colon \mathbb{F}_q \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$, where pr_x is the projection from C to the x-coordinate. Indeed, since GCD(m, q-1) = 1, for every $x \in \mathbb{F}_q$ there is a unique \mathbb{F}_q -root $y = \sqrt[m]{f(x)} = f(x)^{m^{-1} \pmod{q-1}}$. Of course, from

the practical point of view, h_{χ} is only useful if Icart's encoding is not applicable, that is $q \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. However in this section the latter condition is unnecessary.

By analogy with Section 2.1, we also possess the map $F_{\chi} := h_{\chi} \otimes h_{sSWU} \colon \mathbb{F}_q^2 \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$. Note that $\#h_{\chi}^{-1}(P) \leqslant \deg(\chi)$ for each point $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$. This property is sufficient for F_{χ} to be regular (and hence admissible), because h_{sSWU} is already well-distributed. Moreover, since m is odd, we can extract the roots $\sqrt[m]{f}$ and \sqrt{g} at the cost of extracting the root $z := \sqrt[2m]{Z}$, where $Z := f^2 g^m$. Indeed, $z = \sqrt[m]{f} \sqrt{g}$, hence $\sqrt[m]{f} = f g^{(m-1)/2} / z^{m-1}$ and $\sqrt{g} = z / \sqrt[m]{f}$. Furthermore, z is expressed via one exponentiation in \mathbb{F}_q whenever this is true for \sqrt{g} , e.g., in the case $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, because $z = \sqrt{\sqrt[m]{Z}}$. As well as for m = 3, the reasoning is readily extended, taking into account the sign $\left(\frac{z}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{g}{q}\right)$ in the equality $z^{2m} = \left(\frac{g}{q}\right)Z$.

Denote by $\overline{C} \subset \mathbb{P}^2$ and $\overline{pr_x} \colon \overline{C} \to \mathbb{P}^1$ the projective closure of C and pr_x , respectively. It is quite evident that $\overline{pr_x}$ (resp., \overline{C}) fits the definition of an exceptional cover (resp., median value curve) in the sense of [34] no matter $m \geqslant \deg(f)$ or not. By definition, $\overline{pr_x} \colon \overline{C}(\mathbb{F}_q) \to \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is a bijection and $\#\overline{C}(\mathbb{F}_q) = q+1$. As a result, h_χ is an Icart-like encoding in the terminology of [35]. So h_χ is not "almost surjective", that is $\#h_\chi(\mathbb{F}_q) \neq q + o(q)$. Therefore this encoding itself cannot be admissible. Nevertheless, it is not required due to the availability of F_χ . Incidentally, another type of Icart-like encodings is studied in [36] for elliptic curves of j-invariants 0, 1728 whose Frobenius trace has a small divisor.

Interestingly, the author found only one desired example (with m = 7) in the existing literature on elliptic curves. Consider the *Klein quartic* $K := X^3Y + Y^3Z + Z^3X$ on the projective plane $\mathbb{P}^2_{(X:Y:Z)}$. It is clearly a non-singular curve of genus 3. The detailed information about the Klein quartic is represented in the book [37] and especially in its chapter "The Klein quartic in number theory". In particular, there is a birational isomorphism between K and $C_7: y^7 = x^2(x+1)$ of the form

$$\tau: K \dashrightarrow C_7 \qquad (X:Y:Z) \mapsto \left(\frac{Y^3}{Z^2X}, -\frac{Y}{Z}\right),$$

$$\tau^{-1}: C_7 \dashrightarrow K \qquad (x,y) \mapsto \left(-\frac{y^3}{x}: -y:1\right).$$

Furthermore, we have a cover

$$\chi \colon C_7 \to E_7 \qquad (x,y) \mapsto \left(\frac{\text{num}_x}{\text{den}}, \frac{\text{num}_y}{\text{den}}\right)$$

onto the elliptic curve E_7 : $y^2 = x^3 + (21/4)x^2 + 7x$, where

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{num}_x := 2y \big(x^2 (-y^7 - y^5 - y^2 + y + 1) + x (-y^2 + y + 1) y^7 + (y^5 + y^2 - y - 1) y^7 \big), \\ & \text{num}_y := x^2 (3y^8 + 2y^7 + 3y^6 + 2y^5 + 2y^4 - y^3 - 3y^2 - 3y - 2) + x (2y^4 - y^3 - 3y^2 - 3y - 2) y^7 \\ & + (-3y^6 - 2y^5 - 2y^4 + y^3 + 3y^2 + 3y + 2) y^7, \qquad \text{den} := 2y^3 (x^2 + xy^7 - y^7). \end{aligned}$$

The correctness of these formulas is checked in Magma [14]. Similar formulas (with respect to another model of E_7) are given in [38]. The cover χ is nothing but the composition of τ^{-1} and the canonical map $K \to K/\phi \simeq E_7$, where ϕ is the cyclic shift $(X:Y:Z) \mapsto (Y:Z:X)$ on K. Inter alia, $\deg(\chi) = 3$. Finally, it does not seem that χ can be easily modified to cover over \mathbb{F}_q the quadratic twist of E_7/\mathbb{F}_q .

Put ζ to be a fixed primitive 7-th root of unity and $\alpha := (-1 + \sqrt{-7})/2 = \zeta^4 + \zeta^2 + \zeta$. It is known that $j(E_7) = -3375 = -3^35^3$ and the natural lift E_7/\mathbb{Q} has complex multiplication by $\mathbb{Z}[\alpha]$ in the sense of [13, Section 18.1.1]. Therefore the curve E_7/\mathbb{F}_q is ordinary if and only if $\left(\frac{-7}{p}\right) = 1$ (see, e.g., [1, Section 4.3]), where p > 7 denotes the characteristic of the field \mathbb{F}_q . According to the quadratic reciprocity law [13, Section 2.3.4.a] this is equivalent to the condition $\left(\frac{p}{7}\right) = 1$, that is $p \equiv 1, 2, 4 \pmod{7}$. We need to exclude the case $p \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ with regard to Question 1. In other words, $\sqrt{-7} \in \mathbb{F}_p$, while $\zeta \notin \mathbb{F}_p$. More precisely, $\mathbb{F}_p(\zeta) = \mathbb{F}_{p^3}$, because the extension degree $[\mathbb{Q}(\zeta):\mathbb{Q}] = \varphi(7) = 6$. Thus we are interested in prime powers $q \equiv 2, 4 \pmod{7}$.

For $\ell := 7^{-1} \pmod{q-1}$ and Z = n/d such that $n, d \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$ we obtain:

The case $q \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$:

$$\ell = \frac{6q - 5}{7} \in \mathbb{N}, \qquad \sqrt[7]{Z} = Z^{\ell} = n^{\ell} \cdot d^{q - 1 - \ell} = n^{\ell} \cdot d^{(q - 2)/7} = n \cdot (n^6 d)^{(q - 2)/7};$$

The case $q \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$:

$$\ell = \frac{2q-1}{7} \in \mathbb{N}, \qquad \sqrt[7]{Z} = Z^{\ell} = n^{\ell} \cdot d^{q-1-\ell} = n^{\ell} \cdot d^{(5q-6)/7} = nd^2 \cdot (n^2 d^5)^{(q-4)/7}.$$

Besides, for $e := (q+1)/4 \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k := \ell e \pmod{q-1}$, and $L := \left(\frac{Z}{q}\right)$ we have:

The case $q \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$, $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ or, equivalently, $q \equiv 23 \pmod{28}$:

$$k = \frac{5q - 3}{28} \in \mathbb{N}, \qquad \sqrt[14]{LZ} = Z^k = n^k \cdot d^{q - 1 - k} = n^k \cdot d^{(23q - 25)/28} = n^4 d^{18} \cdot (n^5 d^{23})^{(q - 23)/28};$$

The case $q \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$, $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ or, equivalently, $q \equiv 11 \pmod{28}$:

$$k = \frac{11q - 9}{28} \in \mathbb{N}, \qquad \sqrt[14]{LZ} = Z^k = n^k \cdot d^{q - 1 - k} = n^k \cdot d^{(17q - 19)/28} = n^4 d^6 \cdot (n^{11} d^{17})^{(q - 11)/28}.$$

3 Taxonomy of hash functions to elliptic curves

This section aims to systematize known results on hashing to elliptic \mathbb{F}_q -curves E. Table 1 contains state-of-the-art admissible encodings of the form $\mathbb{F}_q^2 \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$. For the sake of completeness, Table 2 exhibiting encodings $\mathbb{F}_q \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is also included. The latter are not regular, because their full images are only proportions of the whole group $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$. Nevertheless, in a series of situations they are more efficient than the former. The point is that some protocols remain secure whether a used hash function $\{0,1\}^* \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ acts as a random oracle or not. In the literature there is a lot of other encodings to elliptic curves. The tables demonstrate only those, which arose earlier and which are at the same time the best at least for certain E and \mathbb{F}_q .

The only exception is *Skałba's encoding* [39]. Indeed, in contrast to Shallue–van de Woestijne's encoding, it does not cover curves of *j*-invariant 0, not to mention that Skałba's formulas are quite awkward. So it is widely recognized that the former is worse than the latter.

Year	Authors	References	Complexity	Conditions
2005	Skałba	[39]		$a \neq 0$
2006	Shallue, van de Woestijne (modification)	[18]	$\sqrt{\cdot}$ and two $\left(\frac{\cdot}{a}\right)$	
2022	Chávez-Saab, Rodriguez- Henriquez, Tibouchi (SwiftEC)	[40]	(q)	[40, Theorem 3]
2009- 2010	Icart (combination with the simplified SWU map)	[3, Section 7], [28], Section 2.1	% .	$q \equiv 2 \pmod{3},$ $ab \neq 0$
2022	K.	[11]	₃ √.	$a=0, \sqrt{b} \in \mathbb{F}_q$
		[41]	4√.	b = 0
2023	K. (combination with the simplified SWU map)	[3, Section 7], Section 2.2	14/.	$q \equiv 2, 4 \pmod{7},$ j -invariant $-3^3 5^3$

Table 1: Taxonomy of admissible encodings $\mathbb{F}_q^2 \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ to elliptic \mathbb{F}_q -curves $E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$

Year	Authors	Reference	Complexity	Conditions
2009	Icart	[28]	₃ √.	$q \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$
2010	Brier et al. (the simplified SWU map)	[3, Section 7]		$ab \neq 0$
2019	Wahby, Boneh	[12]	$\sqrt{\cdot}$	$ab = 0$, E has a vertical \mathbb{F}_q -isogeny of small degree
2022	K.	[36]		ab = 0, the trace of E has a small divisor
2023	IX.	Section 2.2	₹.	$q \equiv 2, 4 \pmod{7},$ j-invariant $-3^3 5^3$

Table 2: Taxonomy of (non-admissible) encodings $\mathbb{F}_q \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ to elliptic \mathbb{F}_q -curves $E \colon y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$

Nonetheless, seminal Skałba's work merits to be cited, because it is historically the first in this research area. Further, both encodings need to determine the values of two Legendre symbols. However we have to bear in mind the recent breakthrhough [42, 43] in fast constant-time implementations of the Legendre symbol. In other words, the computational complexity of the encodings is close to that of one square root extraction.

It is necessary to explain why Skałba's encoding is considered to be admissible and what is meant by modification of the SW one, which appears to be equally admissible. The original encodings (of the form $\mathbb{F}_q \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$) are of course not so, because they are far from surjective. First of all, recall that the threefold

$$T: y^2 = f(x_1)f(x_2)f(x_3) \subset \mathbb{A}^4_{(x_1,x_2,x_3,y)}$$

where $E: y^2 = f(x) := x^3 + ax + b$, is at the core of the encodings under discussion. To be precise, we have the auxiliary map

$$h' \colon T(\mathbb{F}_q) \to E(\mathbb{F}_q) \qquad h'(x_1, x_2, x_3, y) := \begin{cases} \left(x_1, \sqrt{f(x_1)}\right) & \text{if } \left(\frac{f(x_1)}{q}\right) \in \{0, 1\}, \\ \left(x_2, \sqrt{f(x_2)}\right) & \text{if } \left(\frac{f(x_2)}{q}\right) \in \{0, 1\}, \\ \left(x_3, \sqrt{f(x_3)}\right) & \text{otherwise, i.e., } \left(\frac{f(x_3)}{q}\right) \in \{0, 1\}. \end{cases}$$

Skałba's encoding is based on \mathbb{F}_q -unirationality of the Châtelet surface (see, e.g., [44, Sections 1-2]). More concretely, one deals with the surface

$$S: y_1^2 + 12ay_2^2 = f(x) \subset \mathbb{A}^3_{(x,y_1,y_2)}.$$
 [39, Equation (3)]

By definition, there is a dominant \mathbb{F}_q -map $\psi \colon \mathbb{A}^2_{(t_1,t_2)} \dashrightarrow S$ in the sense of [13, Definition 4.43]. Such a map is given in [39, Lemma 3] and yet another rational \mathbb{F}_q -map $\varphi \colon S \dashrightarrow T$ is from [39, Lemma 2]. Besides, introduce the following notation:

$$\varphi \circ \psi = (X_1, X_2, X_3, Y) \colon \mathbb{A}^2_{(t_1, t_2)} \dashrightarrow T$$

with irreducible fractions

$$X_i = \frac{\operatorname{num}_i}{\operatorname{den}_i}, \quad \operatorname{num}_i, \operatorname{den}_i \in \mathbb{F}_q[t_1, t_2], \quad \operatorname{and} \quad Y \in \mathbb{F}_q(t_1, t_2).$$

Finally, for $\alpha \in \mathbb{F}_q$ let's define the curves

$$C_{i,\alpha} := \alpha \cdot \operatorname{den}_i - \operatorname{num}_i, \qquad C_{i,\infty} := \operatorname{den}_i \qquad \subset \qquad \mathbb{A}^2_{(t_1,t_2)}.$$

A "right" version of Skałba's encoding is given as follows:

$$h \colon \mathbb{F}_q^2 \to E(\mathbb{F}_q) \qquad h(t_1, t_2) := \begin{cases} (0:1:0) & \text{if} \quad \exists i \colon (t_1, t_2) \in C_{i,\infty}, \\ \left(h' \circ \varphi \circ \psi\right)(t_1, t_2) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In order to shorten a bit his formulas Skałba restricts h to the line $t_1 = t_2$, because he does not worry about the regularity property. Using the intuition confirmed by [11, Theorem 3], [41, Theorem 1], the author suggests that the curves $C_{i,\alpha}$ are probably absolutely irreducible

except for few α . He does not possess sufficient computer resources to prove this statement, since Skalba's formulas are fairly cumbersome. If the assumption is true, then, by analogy with [11, Corollary 2], [41, Corollary 2], it follows that the encoding h is regular. As usual, h is also efficiently computable and samplable in a clear way, which implies its admissibility.

The SW encoding is obtained in almost the same way. The difference consists in the surface

$$S = y^2 + (3x^2 + 4a)t^2 + f(x) \subset \mathbb{A}^3_{(x,y,t)}$$
 [18, Equation (15)]

or, equivalently,

$$S: -y^2 = x^3 + 3t^2x^2 + ax + 4at^2 + b \subset \mathbb{A}^3_{(x,y,t)}$$

Note that the projection $\pi: S \to \mathbb{A}^1_x$ is a *conic bundle* [45, Definition 6]. The original SW encoding just picks a non-degenerate \mathbb{F}_q -fiber $\pi^{-1}(\beta) \subset \mathbb{A}^2_{(y,t)}$ (for some $\beta \in \mathbb{F}_q$) whose an \mathbb{F}_q -parametrization $\mathbb{A}^1 \dashrightarrow \pi^{-1}(\beta)$ is taken in the role of ψ .

According to the quite constructive result [45, Theorem 1] the surface S is also \mathbb{F}_q -unirational, almought in general it is not \mathbb{F}_q -rational as stressed in [18, Section 5]. As before, it is proposed to chose a dominant \mathbb{F}_q -map $\psi \colon \mathbb{A}^2 \dashrightarrow S$ of degree as little as possible. Once again, if the resulting curves $C_{i,\alpha}$ (with respect to the new functions X_i) are absolutely irreducible, then the modified SW encoding h is admissible. Unfortunately, explicit formulas of ψ heavily depend on the specified a, b, q, hence we are not able to write out them generally.

Recently, Chávez-Saab, Rodriguez-Henriquez, and Tibouchi [40] completely studied the case when S is an $\mathbb{F}_q(x)$ -rational conic, that is it has an $\mathbb{F}_q(x)$ -point. And thereby they constructed the birational \mathbb{F}_q -map ψ (of degree one). Be careful that \mathbb{F}_q -rationality of the surface S does not imply $\mathbb{F}_q(x)$ -rationality of S as a conic. The corresponding encoding S was called S wift S is relevant for many elliptic curves arising in practice. Inter alia, all ordinary curves of S-invariant 0 are covered.

Nevertheless, the applicability conditions of SwiftEC are too restrictive for a series of interesting curves among which those of j-invariant 1728. That is why the work [41] does not lose significance. Moreover, the encoding h_1 from Section 1.1 is still much faster than SwiftEC over highly 2-adic fields, i.e., $2^v \mid q-1$ for a non-small $v \in \mathbb{N}$. Lots of modern curves [46] are defined over such fields. The point is that h_1 extracts a cubic root in \mathbb{F}_q rather than a square one, not to mention two Legendre symbols. Undoubtedly, $\sqrt{\cdot}$ can be found through the Tonelli–Shanks algorithm (see, e.g., [1, Section 5.1.7]). However it is significantly slower than the exponentiation operation in \mathbb{F}_q .

In conclusion, the last four rows of Table 1 encourage to formulate a very beautiful and practically useful conjecture. Among others, it is related to Question 1.

Conjecture 1. For any elliptic \mathbb{F}_q -curve E there is an admissible encoding $\mathbb{F}_q^2 \to E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ at the cost of one radical $\sqrt[n]{}$ in \mathbb{F}_q for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (in particular, without computing additional power residue symbols $\left(\frac{\gamma}{q}\right)_m := \gamma^{(q-1)/m}$, where $\gamma \in \mathbb{F}_q$ and $m \mid q-1$).

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