# Efficiently computing a pairing: Tricks old and new. 

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## Implementing Pairing-Based Cryptography

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- The typical structure of a pairing implementation is a Miller loop, followed by a final exponentiation. These can each in turn be subdivided into smaller steps.
- For example the final exponentiation can be divided into an "easy" part and a "hard" part.
- In this talk we will focus attention on the Miller loop, and assume either the Tate or Ate pairing.


## The Miller Loop

## Algorithm 1: Miller loop

Input: $Q \in \mathbb{G}_{2}, P \in \mathbb{G}_{1}$, curve parameter $u$
Output: $f \in \mathbb{F}_{p^{k}}$
$1 f \leftarrow 1$
${ }_{2} T \leftarrow Q$
3 for $i \leftarrow\left\lfloor\log _{2}(u)\right\rfloor-1$ to 0 do
$4 \quad f \leftarrow f^{2} . I_{T, T}(P), T \leftarrow 2 T$
$5 \quad$ if $u_{i}=1$ then
$6 \quad f \leftarrow f . I_{T, Q}(P), T \leftarrow T+Q$
7 return $f$

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- The line functions are often sparse elements $\in \mathbb{F}_{p^{k}}$
- Important to observe that $u$ is a fixed system parameter, and not a variable.
- As described we are assuming denominator elimination (DE) applies, Barreto et al. [2002],


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- However for the Ate pairing, rather counter-intuitively, the parameter $u$ actually decreases with increased security.
- For example for the BLS12-381 $u=d 201000000010000$, for the BLS48-581 curve $u=140000381$.
- So the Miller loop gets shorter, and in most cases of interest loops less than about 64 times.


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- It also arises when the group order for the Tate pairing is required to be a composite.
- (I had rather hoped that David Freeman had saved us from that. Then along came the isogenists...)


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- In the case of the Tate pairing, $u$ is the group order, so the final value of $T$ will be the point at infinity.
- So we get a "free" check that $Q$ is of the correct order!
- Less obviously the free group order check on $Q$ also applies to the Ate pairing. See S. "A note on group membership tests for $\mathbb{G}_{1}, \mathbb{G}_{2}$ and $\mathbb{G}_{T}$ on BLS pairing-friendly curves".


## Let's split the Miller loop in two

Algorithm 2: Calculate and store line functions
Input: $Q \in \mathbb{G}_{2}, P \in \mathbb{G}_{1}$, curve parameter $u$
Output: An array $g$ of $\left\lfloor\log _{2}(u)\right\rfloor$ line functions $\in \mathbb{F}_{p^{k}}$
$1 T \leftarrow Q$
2 for $i \leftarrow\left\lfloor\log _{2}(u)\right\rfloor-1$ to 0 do
${ }^{3} \quad g[i] \leftarrow I_{T, T}(P), T \leftarrow 2 T$
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g[i] \leftarrow g[i] \cdot I_{T, Q}(P), T \leftarrow T+Q
$$

6 return $g$
Algorithm 3: Intrinsic Miller loop
Input: An array $g$ of $\left\lfloor\log _{2}(u)\right\rfloor$ line functions $\in \mathbb{F}_{p^{k}}$
Output: $f \in \mathbb{F}_{p^{k}}$
$1 f \leftarrow 1$
2 for $i \leftarrow\left\lfloor\log _{2}(u)\right\rfloor-1$ to 0 do
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f \leftarrow f^{2} . g[i]
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4 return $f$

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- So algorithm 2 will be executed for each of the pairings in a multi-pairing. Since they all share the same $u$ these executions all take place in "lock-step".
- Algorithm 3 is only run once, independent of the number of pairings. Which also applies to the final exponentiation.


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- Looked at in this way, it can be seen that the cost of the Miller loop cannot be reduced below the requirement of algorithm 3 .
- Algorithm 2 on the other hand is rich in optimization possibilities....


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- For example if it were a constant, its multiples can be precomputed and stored in affine coordinates
- And using affine coordinates results in increased sparsity of the line functions.
- So algorithm 2 can be carefully tuned to the particular context of each individual pairing in a multi-pairing.


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- But whereas the application to the multiplication of $Q$ by $u$ is standard, the impact on the line functions is not entirely obvious.
- The first implementation was I believe by myself, as mentioned in the pre-print S. [2005] "Scaling security in pairing-based protocols"


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- We can exploit the fact that negation of elliptic curve points cost nothing. Similarly inversion of line functions cost little, as inversion can be replaced by conjugation (DE).
- Hence a windowing strategy based on a NAF (Non-Adjacent Form) is appropriate. Since $u$ is a public parameter constant-time considerations are not an issue, hence a sliding-windows algorithm can be used.


## Line functions

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- For use in a double-and-add left-to-right context we will consider this identity in two particular cases

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\begin{gathered}
f_{m+m}=f_{m}^{2} \cdot I_{m Q, m Q} \\
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- Observe that the "squaring" step is more expensive than the "multiply" step.
- Which is bad news, as windowing (which reduces the number of multiplies) works best when squaring is cheaper.


## Working out the details

- Consider the case where two set bits of $u$ are being processed... Instead of calculating

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\begin{align*}
f_{2 m} & =f_{m}^{2} \cdot l_{m Q, m Q} \\
f_{2 m+1} & =f_{2 m} \cdot l_{2 m Q, Q} \\
f_{4 m+2} & =f_{2 m+1}{ }^{2} \cdot l_{2 m Q+Q, 2 m Q+Q}  \tag{1}\\
f_{4 m+3} & =f_{4 m+2} \cdot l_{4 m Q+2 Q, Q}
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- which will require the precomputation of $3 Q$ and $f_{3}$


## Getting ready for a NAF

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- Extending the idea, a sliding window of size $w$ bits will require the precomputation of a table $E$ of size $M$, containing the precomputed points $Q, 3 Q, . .(2 M-1) Q$ and a table $F$ containing $f_{1}, f_{3}, . . f_{2 M-1}$, where $F_{0}=f_{1}=1$.


## Precomputation

- The line function table is precomputed as

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- To facilitate the sliding window, assume a function naf_window, which given $s=3 u \oplus u$ (the bit-by-bit exclusive or) and a pointer $i$ to the current bit position scans bits from left-to-right returning the tuple $\{n, b, z\}$ where $n$ is the odd signed window value, $b$ is the number of bits processed and $z$ is the number of subsequent zero bits.


## Windowed Miller Loop

## Algorithm 4: Windowed Miller Loop for Tate pairing

```
Input: \(P \in \mathbb{G}_{1}, Q \in \mathbb{G}_{2}\), curve parameter \(u\)
Output: \(f \in \mathbb{F}_{p^{k}}\)
\(f \leftarrow 1\)
\(T \leftarrow P\)
\(s \leftarrow 3 u \oplus u\)
\(i \leftarrow\left\lfloor\log _{2}(u)\right\rfloor\)
while \(i>0\) do
    \(n, b, z \leftarrow\) naf_window \((s, i)\)
    for \(j \leftarrow 0\) to \(b\) do
        \(f \leftarrow f^{2} . I_{T, T}, T \leftarrow 2 T\)
    if \(n>0\) then
            \(f \leftarrow f . I_{T, E[n / 2]} \cdot F[n / 2], T \leftarrow T+E[n / 2]\)
    if \(n<0\) then
        \(f \leftarrow f . I_{T,-E[-n / 2]} \cdot \overline{F[-n / 2]}, T \leftarrow T-E[-n / 2]\)
    for \(j \leftarrow 0\) to \(z\) do
        \(f \leftarrow f^{2} . I_{T, T}, T \leftarrow 2 T\)
    \(i \leftarrow i-b-z\)
return \(f\)
```


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- The accumulated outputs from a multi-pairing could finally be fed into something like our algorithm 3, where the loop length would be shortened to the number of windows required for a particular $u$.
- We omit the details


## Bottom line

- For a Tate pairing over a 1024-bit supersingular curve with embedding degree $k=2$, where the group order is a 1022-bit RSA public key, we find that the optimal window size is between 5 and 6 . The performance improvement from using a window of size 5 is approximately $8 \%$.


## Bottom line

- For a Tate pairing over a 1024-bit supersingular curve with embedding degree $k=2$, where the group order is a 1022-bit RSA public key, we find that the optimal window size is between 5 and 6 . The performance improvement from using a window of size 5 is approximately $8 \%$.
- For the Tate pairing on a 160 -bit MNT $k=6$ curve we find that the the optimal window size is 3 . The performance improvement to be expected is about $3 \%$. For the Ate pairing over the same curve again the optimal window size is 3 , but improvement is a nearly negligible $1 \%$. Clearly the larger the exponent, the greater the gains to be expected from windowing.


## Any Questions?

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- Thank you for your attention.

