

Trace Zero Varieties for Cryptographic Applications

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What are Trace Zero Varieties?

Proposed by Gerhard Frey in 1998.

Now in *twelfth* year.

Constructive application of Weil descent.

Ideal subject to be used as an excuse to go to interesting places

- ▶ 2007: SAGA (Papeete, Tahiti, French Polynesia)
- ▶ 2009: CHiLE (Frutillar, Lakes Region, Chile)
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Outline

Curves

Trace Zero Varieties

Implementation of Trace Zero Varieties

Pairings

Supersingular Trace Zero Varieties

- Pairing on Supersingular Abelian Varieties

- A new efficient algorithm for the Tate pairing

Implementation of Supersingular Trace Zero Varieties

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- Scalar Multiplication in Supersingular TZV

Security

Conclusions and future development

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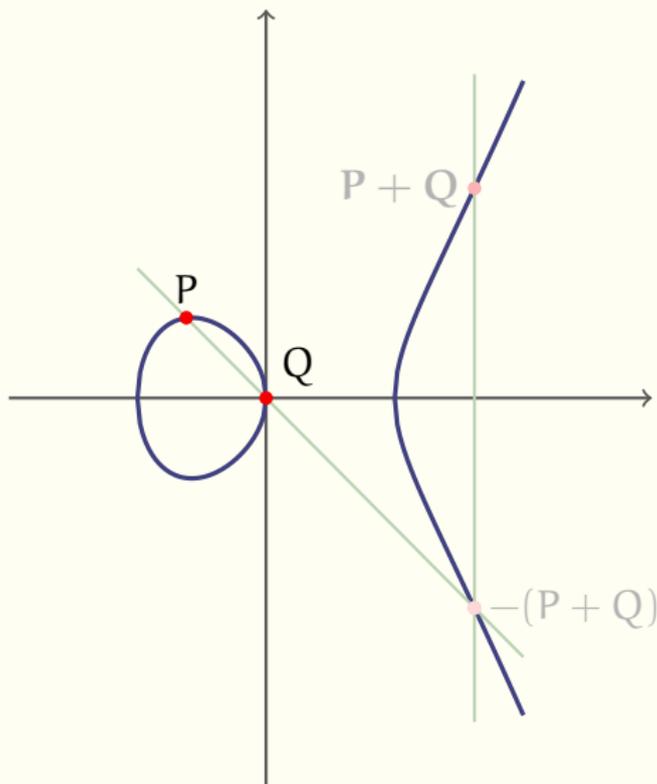
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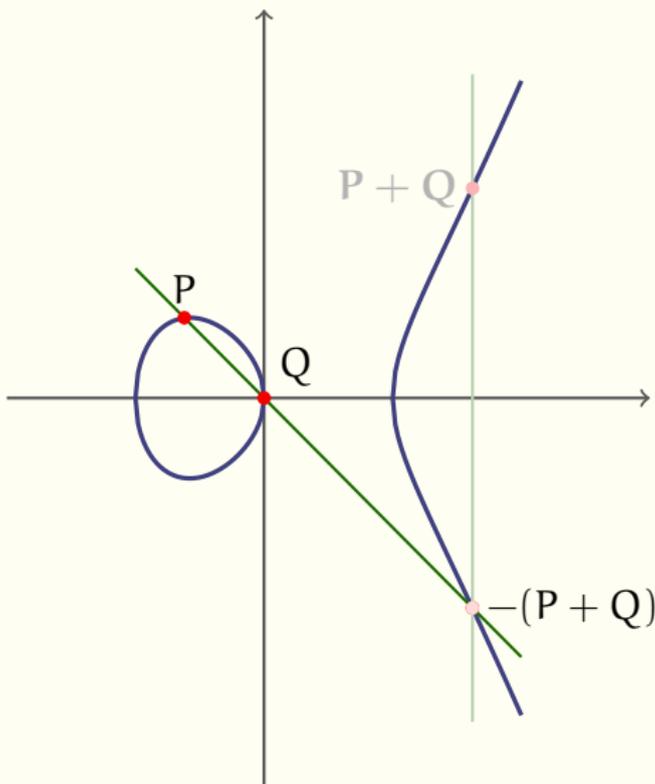
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Why?

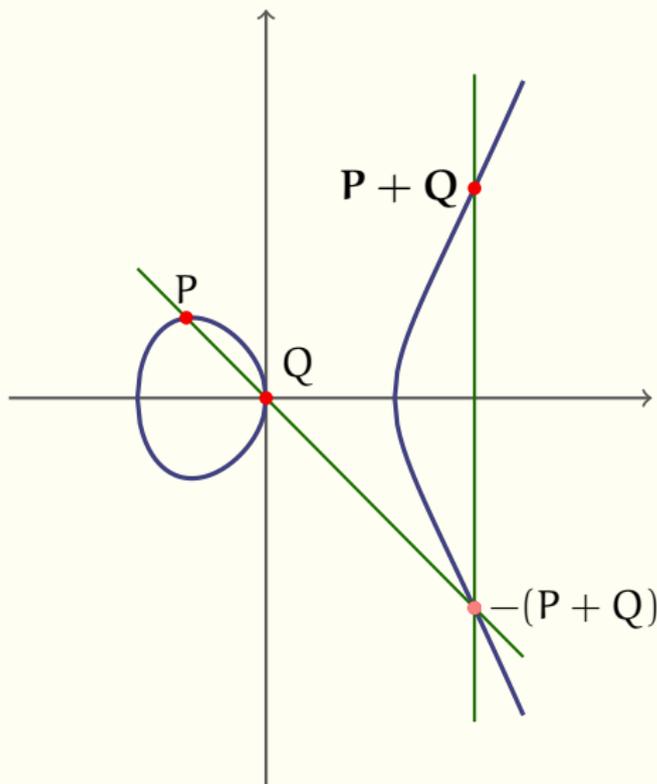
Elliptic curve group law



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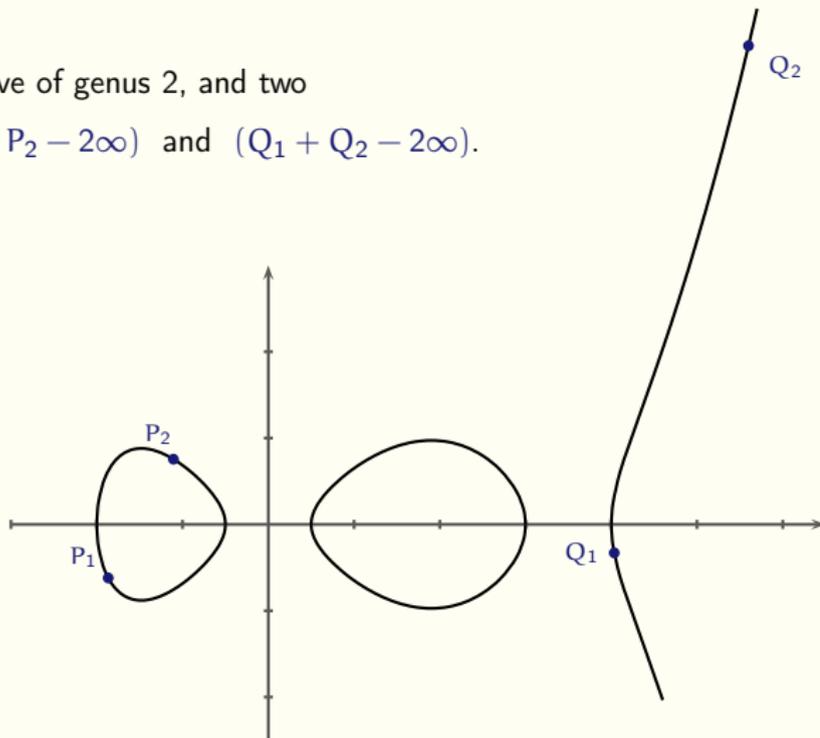


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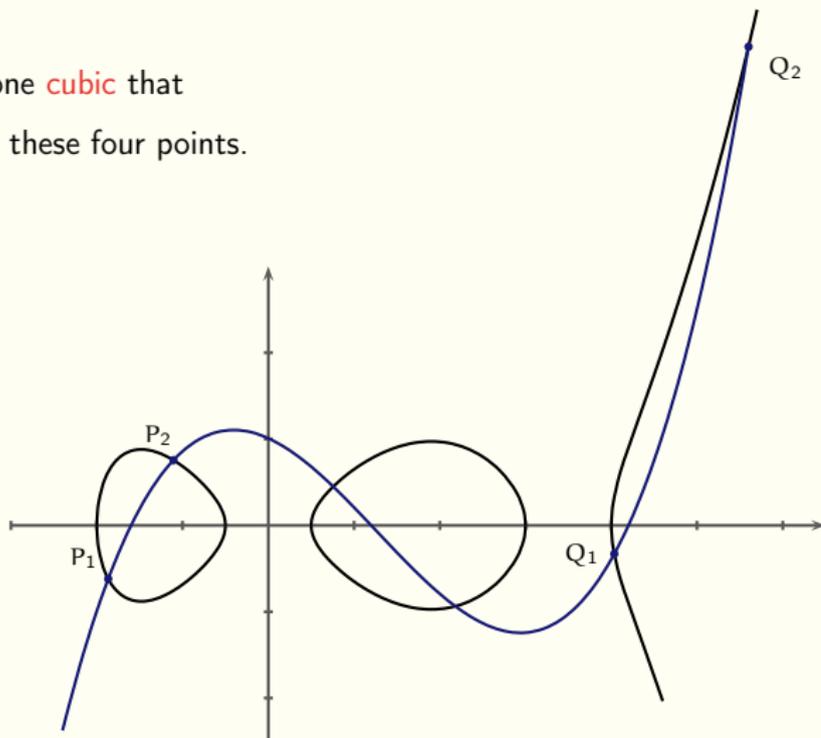
A genus two example

Consider a curve of genus 2, and two divisors $(P_1 + P_2 - 2\infty)$ and $(Q_1 + Q_2 - 2\infty)$.



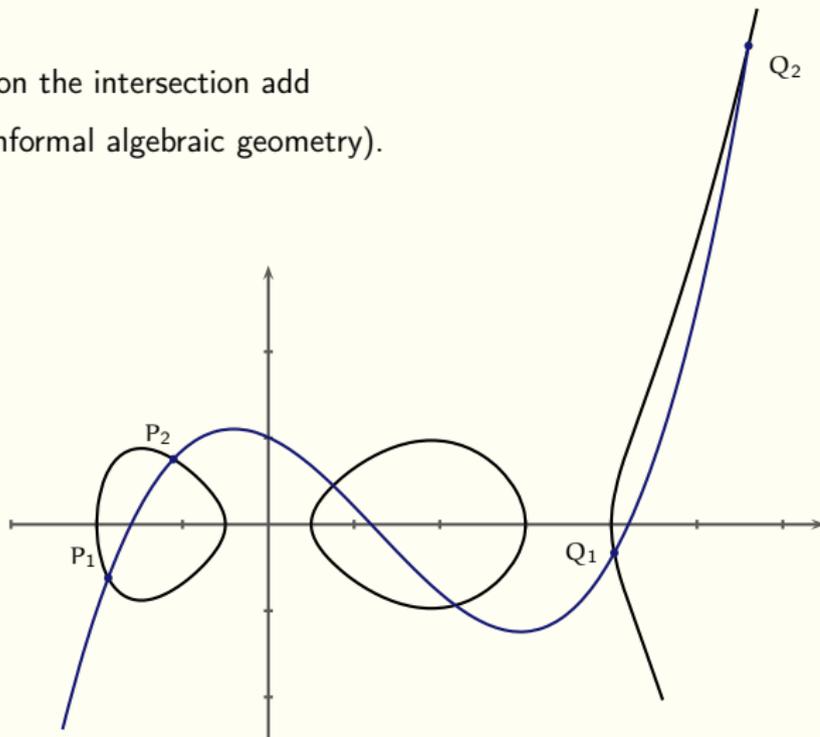
A genus two example

There is only one **cubic** that goes through these four points.



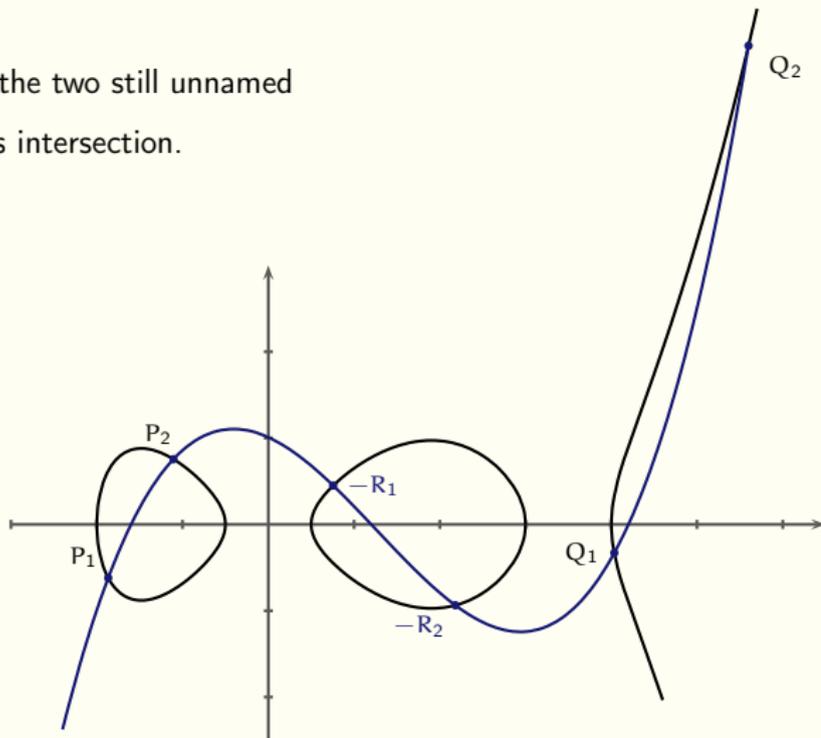
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All the points on the intersection add up to zero (informal algebraic geometry).



A genus two example

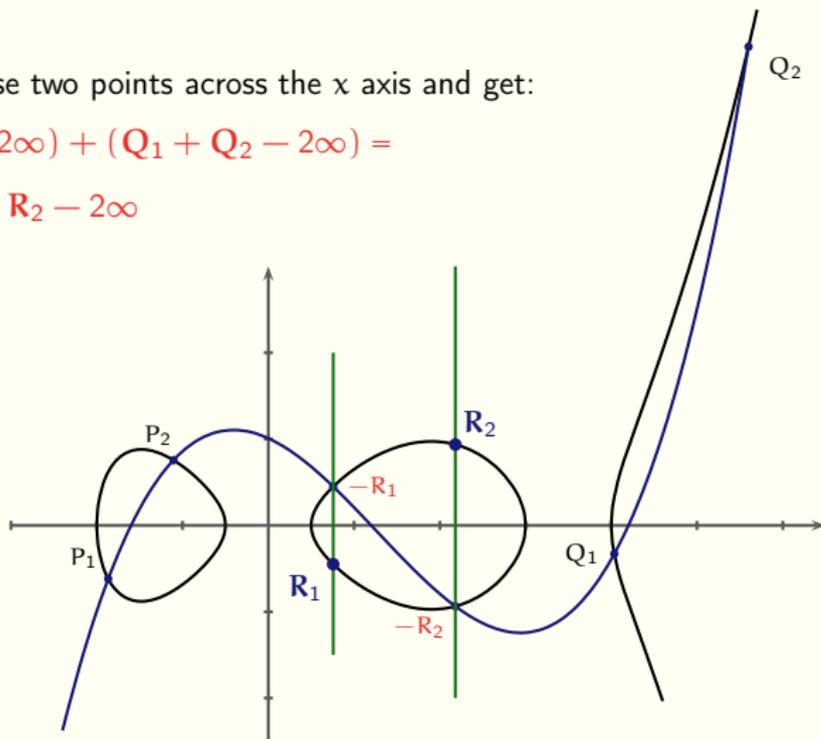
Consider then the two still unnamed point on this intersection.



A genus two example

We reflect these two points across the x axis and get:

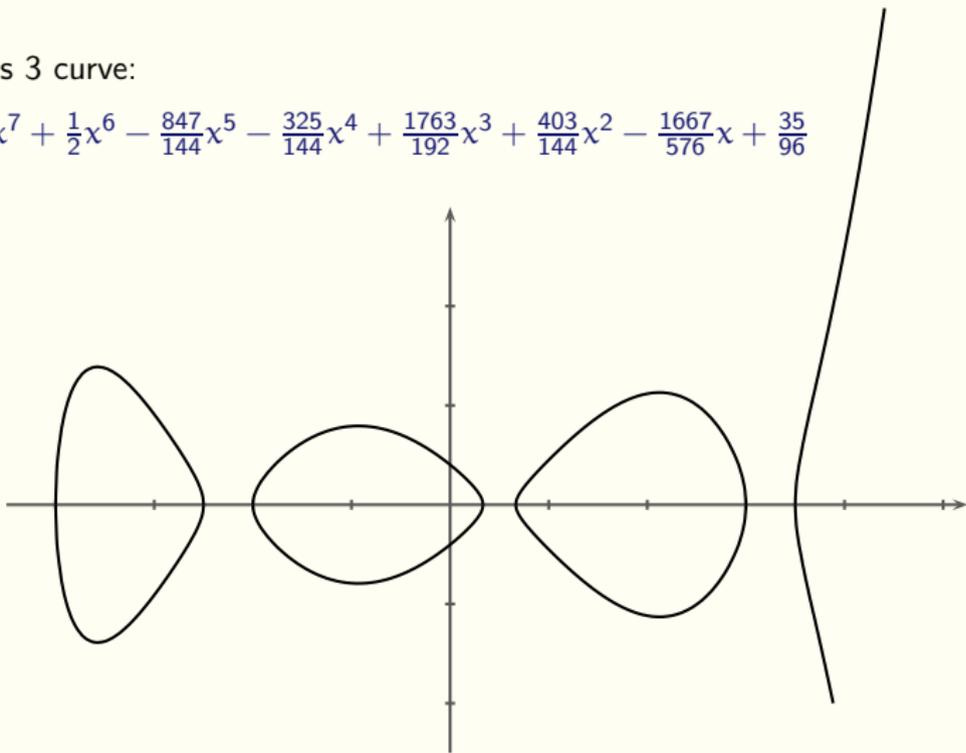
$$\begin{aligned} & (\mathbf{P}_1 + \mathbf{P}_2 - 2\infty) + (\mathbf{Q}_1 + \mathbf{Q}_2 - 2\infty) = \\ & = \mathbf{R}_1 + \mathbf{R}_2 - 2\infty \end{aligned}$$



A genus three example

A genus 3 curve:

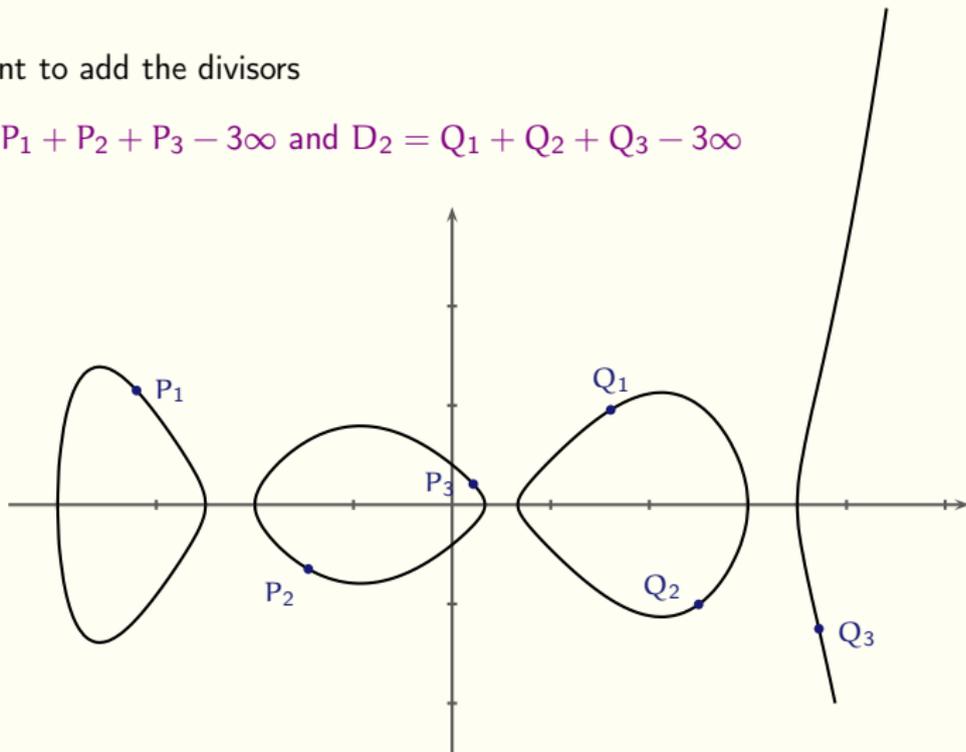
$$y^2 = x^7 + \frac{1}{2}x^6 - \frac{847}{144}x^5 - \frac{325}{144}x^4 + \frac{1763}{192}x^3 + \frac{403}{144}x^2 - \frac{1667}{576}x + \frac{35}{96}$$



A genus three example

We want to add the divisors

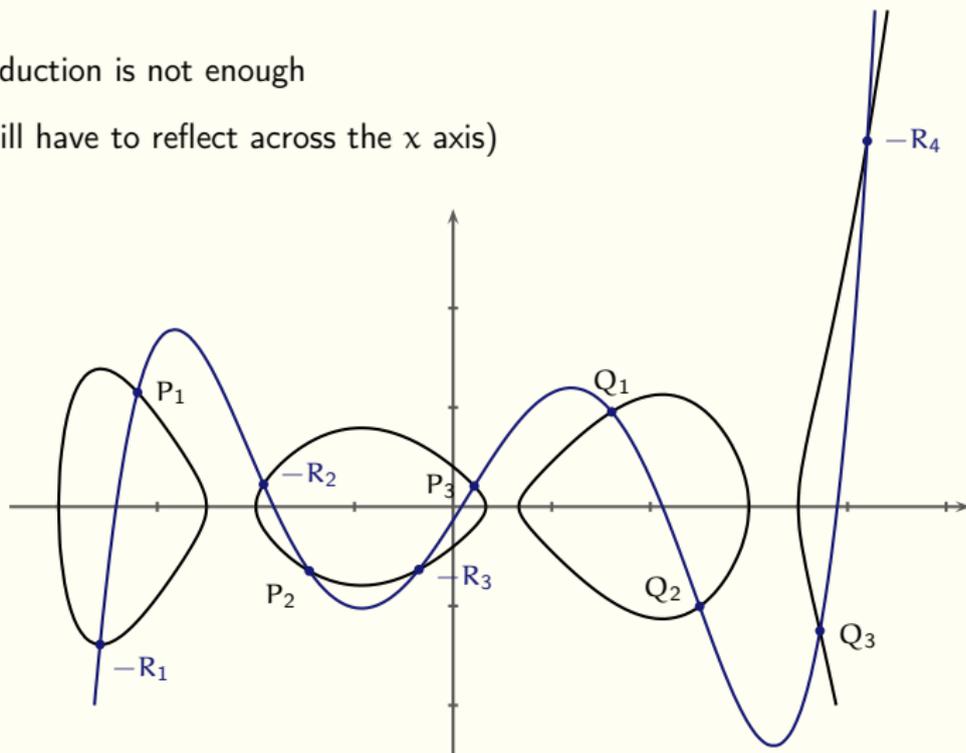
$$D_1 = P_1 + P_2 + P_3 - 3\infty \text{ and } D_2 = Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3 - 3\infty$$



A genus three example

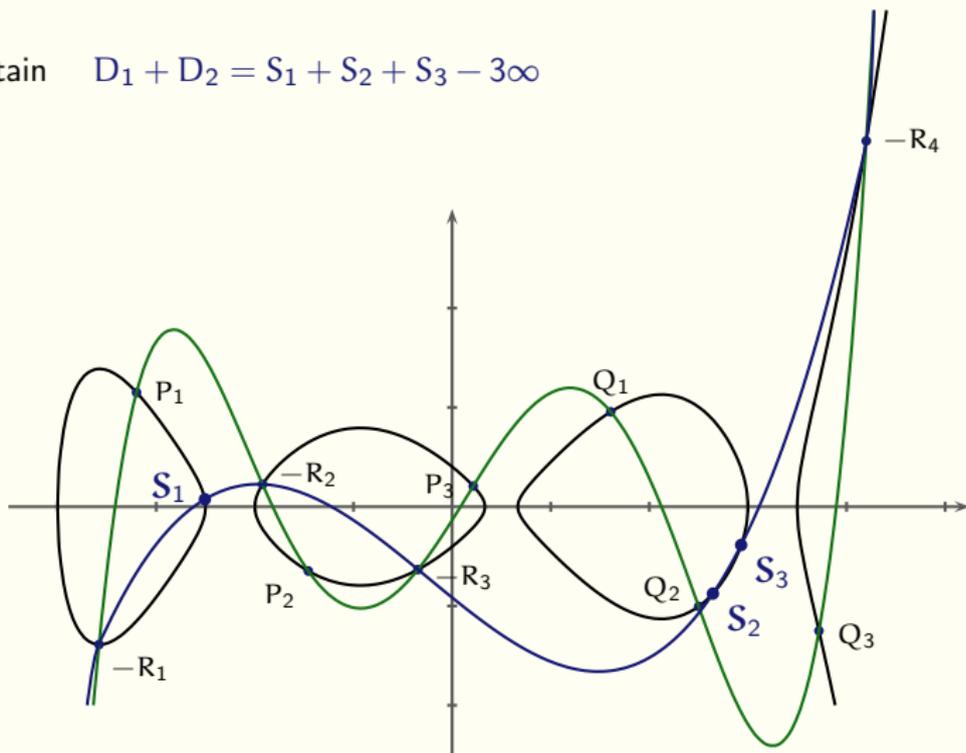
One reduction is not enough

(we still have to reflect across the x axis)



A genus three example

We obtain $D_1 + D_2 = S_1 + S_2 + S_3 - 3\infty$



Complexity, complexity...

The complexity of curve arithmetic increases with genus
– difficult to find efficient formulas!

Can we find simpler alternatives?

Maybe recycling genus one (and two) arithmetic for
higher-dimensional varieties?

It turns out to be feasible, but *field* implementation
complexity will increase.

Bonus: Some nice endomorphisms for free!
Fast endomorphisms speed up arithmetic.

Who wins?

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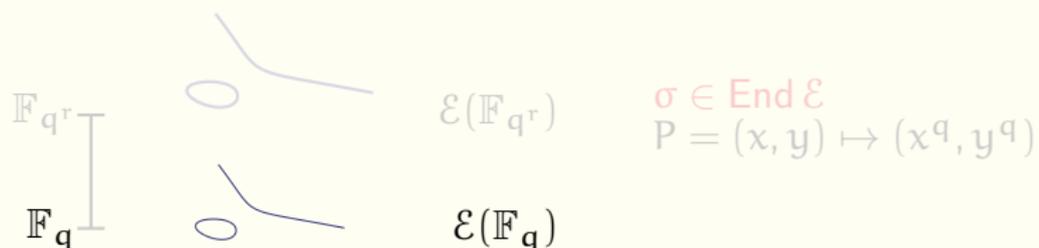
What are Trace Zero Varieties?

Start with genus g hyperelliptic curve \mathcal{C} over \mathbb{F}_q

Trace Zero (sub)Variety of \mathcal{C} over a field ext of deg r :

- ▶ Subgroup of divisor class group $\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_{q^r})$ of \mathcal{C} over \mathbb{F}_{q^r}
- ▶ Isomorphic to quotient group $\frac{\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_{q^r})}{\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_q)}$
- ▶ Hence dimension over \mathbb{F}_q is $g(r-1)$.
 $\approx q^{g(q-1)}$ group elements.
- ▶ We shall speak of the big and small divisor class group and say we work in the big group modulo the small one.

Construction (From Elliptic Curves)



$$\text{Tr} := [1] + \sigma + \cdots + \sigma^{r-1} \in \text{End } \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_{q^r})$$

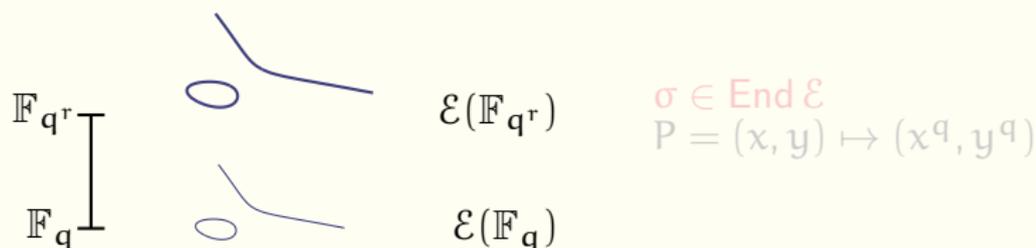
Definition: The trace-zero subgroup of $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_{q^r})$ is:

$$\mathbf{G} := \mathcal{E}_r(\mathbb{F}_q) = \text{Ker Tr} = \{P \in \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_{q^r}) : \text{Tr } P = \mathcal{O}\} \cong \frac{\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_{q^r})}{\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_q)}$$

(possibly factor out some r -torsion).

Now: “Recycle” group arithmetic from \mathcal{E} .

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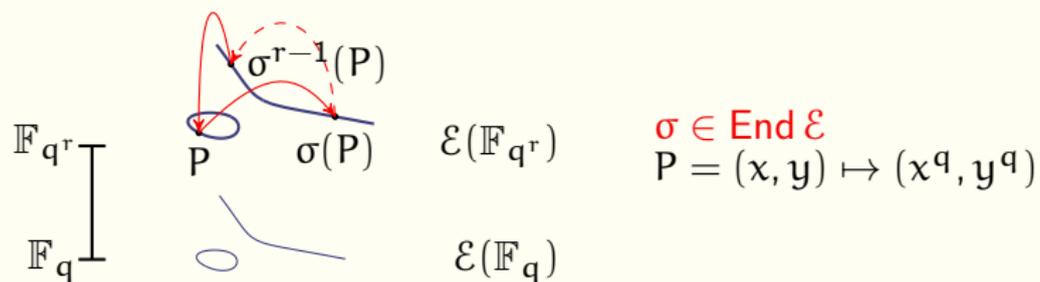
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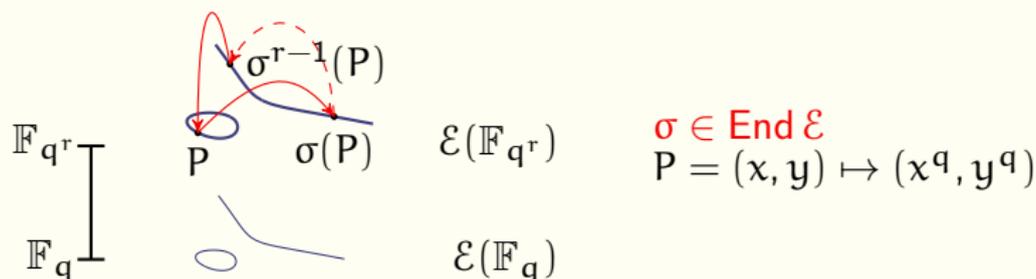
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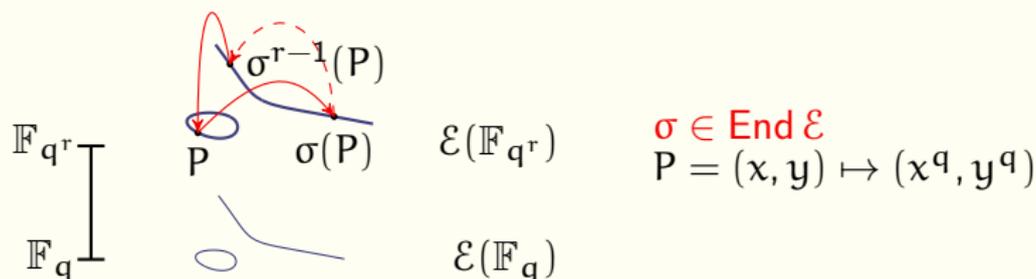
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The Frobenius

Let \mathbb{F}_{q^r} , $q = \text{prime}$, 2^d (or 3^d), $q \geq 5$ and not a square.

$\mathcal{C} : y^2 + h(x)y = f(x)$, $f, g \in \mathbb{F}_q[x]$, $\deg f = 2g+1$, $\deg h \leq g$
equation of non-singular genus g HEC.

Consider *divisor class groups* of $\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_q)$ and $\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_{q^r})$.

Frobenius automorphism of field extension, $\sigma : x \mapsto x^q$, induces endomorphism of big divisor class group, where the elements of the small divisor class group are fixed.

On elliptic curves: $(x, y) \mapsto (\sigma x, \sigma y)$.

Mumford representation: $[\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}] \mapsto [\sigma \mathbf{U}, \sigma \mathbf{V}]$ in $\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_{q^r})$.

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Frobenius and Group Order

Characteristic polynomial

$$P(T) = T^{2g} + \alpha_1 T^{2g-1} + \dots + \alpha_g T^g + \dots + \alpha_1 q^{g-1} T + q^g \in \mathbb{Z}[T] ,$$

Let τ_1, \dots, τ_{2g} be the roots. Group order over any extension field

$$|\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_{q^r})| = \prod_{i=1}^{2g} (1 - \tau_i^r) .$$

If $r = 1$, this is $P(1)$. For $r > 1$, easy to make explicit.

Point counting easier (esp. for q prime), since we have to compute characteristic polynomial for smaller q than with elliptic curves.

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Which cases

For security and practical reasons we limit ourselves to:

- ▶ $g = 1$ **with** $r = 3$, dimension 2 over \mathbb{F}_q ,
- ▶ $g = 1$ **with** $r = 5$, dimension 4 over \mathbb{F}_q ,
- ▶ $g = 2$ **with** $r = 3$, dimension 4 over \mathbb{F}_q .

We shall return later to security considerations.

Trouble Ahead

Let \mathcal{C} be a HEC of genus g over \mathbb{F}_q and \mathcal{H} be a HEC of genus g over $\mathbb{F}_{q'}$, with $q' \approx q^{r-1}$.

Then $|\text{Cl}(\mathcal{H}/\mathbb{F}_{q'})| \approx q^{(r-1)g}$, and $\left| \frac{\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_{q^r})}{\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_q)} \right| \approx q^{(r-1)g}$.

Hence $\text{Cl}(\mathcal{H}/\mathbb{F}_{q'})$ has \approx as many points as $\frac{\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_{q^r})}{\text{Cl}(\mathcal{C}/\mathbb{F}_q)}$.

Suppose both orders are cryptographically good (almost primes).

We can compute on both using the same group laws but the field in the second case will be larger.



Lower performance? How can we save the day?

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Lower performance? How can we save the day?

Frobenius and Scalar Multiplication

Simple scalar multiplication

- ▶ Compute $[m]P$ m integer, P point
- ▶ Double-and-add algorithms log m doublings
- ▶ Windowing, multiple bases, give incremental improvements.

Use Frobenius endomorphism σ to speed up scalar multiplication

- ▶ $\sigma(P) = [s]P$ s depends on the curve
- ▶ For $r = 3$ write $[m]P = [m_0 + m_1s]P$ $m_0, m_1 \approx \sqrt{m}$
- ▶ Compute $[m_0]P + [m_1]\sigma(P)$ concurrently almost half dbls
- ▶ For $r = 5$ split scalar in four parts $\approx \sqrt[4]{m}$
- ▶ Can this be done? Yes – more details follow.

Frobenius and Scalar Multiplication

Simple scalar multiplication

- ▶ Compute $[m]P$ m integer, P point
- ▶ Double-and-add algorithms log m doublings
- ▶ Windowing, multiple bases, give incremental improvements.

Use Frobenius endomorphism σ to speed up scalar multiplication

- ▶ $\sigma(P) = [s]P$ s depends on the curve
- ▶ For $r = 3$ write $[m]P = [m_0 + m_1s]P$ $m_0, m_1 \approx \sqrt{m}$
- ▶ Compute $[m_0]P + [m_1]\sigma(P)$ **concurrently** almost half dbls
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Outline

Curves

Trace Zero Varieties

Implementation of Trace Zero Varieties

Pairings

Supersingular Trace Zero Varieties

Pairing on Supersingular Abelian Varieties

A new efficient algorithm for the Tate pairing

Implementation of Supersingular Trace Zero Varieties

Pairings

Scalar Multiplication in Supersingular TZV

Security

Conclusions and future development

Scalar Multiplication

Expand to base of “ σ ”?

Use subgroup G_0 of “large” prime order (small index) ℓ of G .

$\sigma G_0 = G_0 \Rightarrow$ exists integer s s.t. $sg = \sigma g$ for all $g \in G_0$.

Why don't we write $m = \sum m_i s^i$ and compute mg as $\sum m_i \sigma^i(g)$?

We can give s explicitly:

▶ for $g = 1, r = 3$: $s = \frac{q-1}{1-a_1} \bmod \ell$

▶ for $g = 1, r = 5$: $s = \frac{q^2 - q - a_1^2 q + a_1 q + 1}{q - 2a_1 q + a_1^3 - a_1^2 + a_1 - 1} \bmod \ell$

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Problem: size of s usually around ℓ .

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Scalar multiplication: Scalar Splitting

Theorem. For the three cases which we consider, there exists an efficient technique for expressing a scalar m in the form

$$m \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{r-2} m_i s^i \pmod{\ell} \quad \text{where } m_i = O(q^g). \text{ We have:}$$

- ▶ If $g = 1, r = 3$, then $|m_i| < 4q$ for $q \geq 79$.
- ▶ *Similar bounds for other two cases.*

Then compute mg as $\sum_{i=0}^{r-2} m_i \sigma^i(g)$ (which is $= \sum_{i=0}^{r-2} m_i s^i g$)

Use multi-exponentiation techniques, windowing, interleaving.

As many additions as in double-and-add for original m , but only

about $\frac{1}{r-1}$ as many doublings.

Sketch of Proof for $g = 1$ and $r = 3$

Using $P(s) \equiv 0 \pmod{\ell}$ we obtain

$$m \equiv n_0 + \frac{m - n_0}{q} (-a_1 s - s^2) \pmod{\ell} \quad \text{with} \quad |n_0| < \frac{q}{2} .$$

Expand again: i.e. write $n_1 \equiv -a_1 \frac{m - n_0}{q} \pmod{\ell}$ with $|n_1| < q/2$, then

$$\begin{aligned} m &\equiv n_0 + \frac{m - n_0}{q} (-a_1 s - s^2) \\ &\equiv n_0 + n_1 s + \frac{-a_1 \frac{m - n_0}{q} - n_1}{q} (-a_1 s^2 - s^3) - \frac{m - n_0}{q} s^2 \pmod{\ell} . \end{aligned}$$

Use $s^2 + s + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{\ell}$ to replace s^2 and s^3 . We obtain m_0, m_1 s.t.

$$m \equiv m_0 + m_1 s \pmod{\ell} .$$

Easy to prove that $|m_0|$ and $|m_1| < 4q$ for all $q > 73$. □

(It does really cost just a few tens of multiplications mod q .)

Scalar multiplication: Random Multi-Scalars

Theorem. Let g be a generator of G_0 . Then the B^{r-1} elements

$$m_0 g + m_1 \sigma g + \cdots + m_{r-2} \sigma^{r-2}(g)$$

are pairwise distinct for $0 \leq m_i < B$, where:

1. for $g = 1$, $r = 3$, $B := \min \left\{ \frac{\ell}{q - \alpha_1}, \frac{q-1}{\gcd(q-1, \alpha_1-1)} \right\} = O(q)$;
2. for $g = 1$, $r = 5$, $B :=$ a more complicated expression $= O(q)$;
3. for $g = 2$, $r = 3$, $B :=$ something even worse $= O(q^2)$.

Then pick the m_i at random, use multi-exponentiation.



Problem: B can be *much* smaller than q .

Scalar splitting preferred method in even characteristic.

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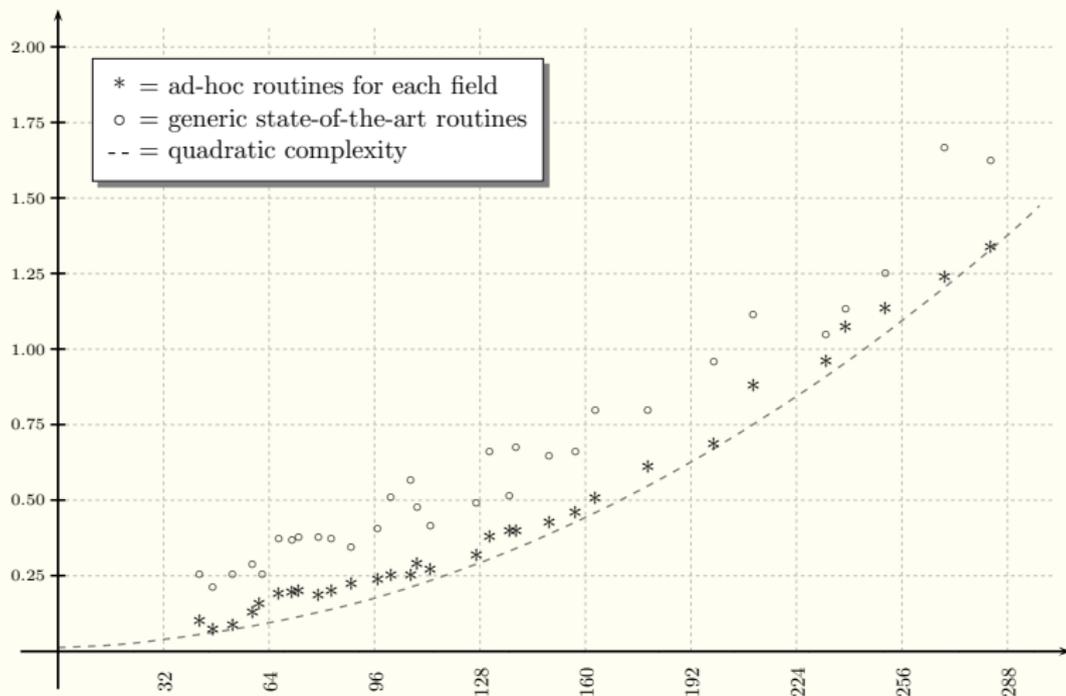
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Implementation of Finite Fields

Arithmetic in \mathbb{F}_q

- ▶ For $q = 2^d$:
 - ▶ Efficient new implementation for 32 and 64 bit machines.
 - ▶ 32 bit version (A. & Thériault) presented at WAIFI 2007.
 - ▶ Includes also square roots, new algorithms for trace and half-trace computations, and new families of polynomials for very fast square root computation (A. SAC 2007).
- ▶ For $q = p$ prime:
 - ▶ New version of MONGO with x86-64 support.
 - ▶ 32 and 64 bit code.
 - ▶ All fundamental operations hand optimised in assembler.
- ▶ $q = 3^d$ is work in progress.

For instance: performance of binary fields on 32-bit cpu



Approach of \mathbb{F}_{2^d} library

- ▶ Library written in C.
- ▶ For GF(2) arithmetic only logic and shift operations.
- ▶ Purpose: make fairer comparisons for more complex objects, not pure performance. Yet also performance is there.
- ▶ Portable. Hence, no vector extensions – the results would be similar, only with bigger granularity.
- ▶ Provide as many fields as possible (15 fields hand optimised).
- ▶ `wc -l *.c *.h` outputs: *47,843 lines of code*.
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Multiplications, and Multiplications in \mathbb{F}_{2^d}

- ▶ Optimal routines for each operand size.
- ▶ Multiplication - Lopez-Dahab's comb method.
- ▶ For extensions of \mathbb{F}_{2^d} : As degrees increase, we find more products of many elements time a (locally) fixed element.
- ▶ Separate precomputation from shift-and-xor loop in Lopez-Dahab, reuse them for several multiplications. Call this *serial multiplications*.
 - ▶ 2 muls cost \approx 1.50–1.90 single muls (1.75 avg.)
 - ▶ 3 muls cost \approx 2.05–2.50 single muls (2.35 avg.)
 - ▶ 4 muls cost \approx 2.55–3.25 single muls (3.00 avg.)
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Example: $\mathbb{F}_{2^{83}}$ on 64-bit cpu

```

void bf_mul_83( limb_t * r , const limb_t * a , const limb_t * b )
{
    int    i, idx;
    limb_t tab[16][2];
    limb_t r2, r1, r0;

    /* Compute the entries for the table tab[16][2] */
    for (i = 0; i < 16; i++) tab[i] = i * a;          /* view i as a polynomial over GF(2) */

    /* Do the actual multiplication */
    idx = b[0] >> 60;  [r0,r1] = tab[idx][0,1]; r2 = 0; r3 = 0;

    for (i = 56; i >= 20; i -= 4) {
        [r1,r0] <<= 4;                                /* shift left by 4 bits */
        idx = (b[0] >> i) & 0xf;  [r0,r1] ^= tab[idx][0,1];    /* accumulate */
    }

    for (      ; i >= 0; i -= 4) {
        [r2,r1,r0] <<= 4;                             /* shift left by 4 bits */
        idx = (b[0] >> i) & 0xf;  [r0,r1] ^= tab[idx][0,1];    /* accumulate */
        idx = (b[1] >> i) & 0xf;  [r1,r2] ^= tab[idx][0,1];    /* accumulate */
    }

    bf_mod_83(r2,r1,r0);                               /* reduce */

    r[1] = r1; r[0] = r0;                             /* write back */
}

```

And MONGO ?

If you have seen the output of `mpfq` or some of the innards of `Miracl`, you get the idea. But code original.

For intel compatible CPUs there are hand crafted asm sections, but some generic code is also provided.

For $(n + \frac{1}{2})$ -limbs moduli, some time and memory accesses are saved by taking this into account (also the `REDC` is defined in a non-standard way).

Important feature: delayed reduction. Also in Montgomery representation you can add *unreduced* products to each other. If there is an overflow into a third register, we can still subtract the modulus and the final result will be correct (see A. CHES 2004).

Arithmetic in Extension Fields I

Example: $r = 3$ ($r = 5$ is just a bit different), binary field.

$\mathbb{F}_{q^3} = \mathbb{F}_q[\alpha]$, where α is a root of $X^3 + X + 1$ irreducible, $q = 2^d$.
(For $r = 5$ use $X^5 + X^2 + 1$ or $X^5 + X^3 + 1$.)

Elements of \mathbb{F}_{q^3} represented by polynomials.

Multiplication/Squaring Karatsuba-like

$$\begin{aligned} (a_0 + a_1\alpha + a_2\alpha^2)(b_0 + b_1\alpha + b_2\alpha^2) &= \\ &= a_0b_0 + ((a_0 + a_1)(b_0 + b_1) - a_0b_0 - a_1b_1)\alpha \\ &\quad + ((a_0 + a_2)(b_0 + b_2) - a_0b_0 - a_2b_2 + a_1b_1)\alpha^2 \\ &\quad + ((a_1 + a_2)(b_1 + b_2) - a_1b_1 - a_2b_2)\alpha^3 + (a_2b_2)\alpha^4 . \end{aligned}$$

Now observe

$$\alpha^3 = \alpha + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha^4 = \alpha^2 + \alpha .$$

6 Mults in \mathbb{F}_q and a few adds (5-mult Toom-Cook seemed not faster for our field sizes at first. Giving now a second try with Bodrato.)

Arithmetic in Extension Fields II

Multiplication of elements of \mathbb{F}_{p^r} split into multiplication of the corresponding polynomials in X and then reduction modulo $X^r - c$ with root α and c small integer (2, 3 or 5).

Multiplication in degree $r = 3$ extensions as before

$$\begin{aligned} (a_0 + a_1\alpha + a_2\alpha^2)(b_0 + b_1\alpha + b_2\alpha^2) &= \\ &= a_0b_0 + ((a_0 + a_1)(b_0 + b_1) - a_0b_0 - a_1b_1)\alpha \\ &\quad + ((a_0 + a_2)(b_0 + b_2) - a_0b_0 - a_2b_2 + a_1b_1)\alpha^2 \\ &\quad + ((a_1 + a_2)(b_1 + b_2) - a_1b_1 - a_2b_2) \underbrace{\alpha^3}_c + (a_2b_2) \underbrace{\alpha^4}_{c\alpha}. \end{aligned}$$

By delaying all modular reductions and using incomplete reduction (A. and Mihailescu SAC 2003) we need just 3 modular reductions.

Toom-Cook with just 5 \mathbb{F}_p -mults not more efficient (because of the small divisions involved and the increased number of mod reds).

Arithmetic in Extension Fields III

To compute the inverse of $a \in \mathbb{F}_{q^3}$ we use linear algebra.

Let $b = b_0 + b_1\alpha + b_2\alpha^2$ ($b_0, b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{F}_q$) = a^{-1} with $a = a_0 + a_1\alpha + a_2\alpha^2 \in \mathbb{F}_{q^3}$.

Now $ab = 1$, w.r.t. basis $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2\}$ can be written as:

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_0 & a_2 & a_1 \\ a_1 & a_0 + a_2 & a_1 + a_2 \\ a_2 & a_1 & a_0 + a_2 \end{bmatrix}}_A \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & a_2 & a_1 \\ a_1 & a_0 + a_2 & a_1 + a_2 \\ a_2 & a_1 & a_0 + a_2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = (\det A)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} a_0^2 + a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_1a_2 \\ a_2^2 + a_0a_1 \\ a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_0a_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\det A = (a_0(a_0^2 + a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_1a_2) + a_1^3 + a_2(a_1a_2 + a_2^2))$

We need only one inversion (that of $\det A$).

Inversion in \mathbb{F}_{q^3} is fast. In fact, affine coordinates are the fastest over binary fields.

The case $r = 5$ uses Itoh-Tsuji inversion. Very fast.

Choice of Coordinate Systems

More Details

Choice of coordinate systems:

- ▶ For curves over prime fields:
 - ▶ Mixed coordinates for EC (order prime, no Edwards, but performance very close), and HEC in genus 2 (Lange's collection of formulas).
 - ▶ Affine, Projective, Jacobian (+ modified) and compressed Jacobian (+ modified) for TZV.
- ▶ For curves over binary fields:
 - ▶ In \mathbb{F}_{2^d} inversion costs $\approx 5-7$ multiplications, hence we are using affine coordinates for EC, HEC.
For genus 2 HEC use Lange-Stevens wicked doubling.
 - ▶ In $\mathbb{F}_{2^{\text{rd}}}$ inversion costs ≈ 3 multiplications.
Affine is thus a no brainer for TZV.

Compressed Jacobian Coordinates

The equation of $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_{p^r})$ in Compressed Jacobian Coordinates is

$$Y^2 = X^3 + a_4Xz^4 + a_6z^6 .$$

$[X : Y : z] \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r} \times \mathbb{F}_{p^r} \times \mathbb{F}_p$ corresponds to affine point $(X/z^2, Y/z^3)$.

Due to Hoshino, Kobayashi and Aoki (Vietcrypt 2006).

We use it for TZV over prime fields.

Many multiplications in explicit formulae for Jacobian coordinates become multiplications in \mathbb{F}_p or multiplications of elements of \mathbb{F}_{p^r} by elements of \mathbb{F}_p .

We need *pseudo-inversion*, essentially almost-inverse by another name.

We compute the inverse in \mathbb{F}_{p^r} up to a constant in \mathbb{F}_p – essentially saving the inversion in \mathbb{F}_p .

We also “compress” Cohen’s modified Jacobian coordinates (keep a_4z^4).

Open question: “compressed” Edwards?

Performance Results, Part I

Performance Results: Scalar Multiplication

Timings (μsec) of ordinary binary curves and TZV at 160 bit level, 32 bit code

$d(\times r) =$		EC 163	TZV g1 83×3	TZV g1 41×5	HEC g2 83	TZV g2 41×3
operation	2	3.757	3.652	3.483	1.660	2.329
	+	3.825	3.652	3.483	3.513	6.664
	σ	–	0.029	0.032	–	0.036
full scalar	bin	1130.5	961.2	872.5	640.4	960.2
	NAF	1029.3	869.1	784.5	545.3	779.2
	w-NAF	933.1	788.8	709.2	466.6	639.7
split scalar	bin	–	569.2	427.4	–	601.7
	NAF	–	517.2	349.0	–	523.3
	JSF	–	505.4	–	–	496.2
	w-NAF	–	467.6	278.5	–	445.5

2 Ghz Quad Core Xeon running 32-bit code

Performance Results: Scalar Multiplication

Timings (μsec) of ordinary binary curves and TZV at 192 bit level, 32 bit code

$d(\times r) =$		EC 191	TZV g1 97×3	TZV g1 47×5	HEC g2 97	TZV g2 47×3
operation	2	4.781	4.401	3.921	2.010	2.519
	+	4.817	4.446	3.913	4.132	7.188
	σ	–	0.033	0.036	–	0.036
full scalar	bin	1694.2	1487.0	1119.2	968.9	1182.3
	NAF	1530.2	1354.8	1020.4	820.1	959.6
	w-NAF	1380.1	1209.6	913.1	689.6	786.1
split scalar	bin	–	880.6	582.7	–	777.0
	NAF	–	787.0	439.7	–	646.8
	JSF	–	767.7	–	–	609.7
	w-NAF	–	712.9	347.1	–	538.5

2 Ghz Quad Core Xeon running 32-bit code

Performance Results: Scalar Multiplication

Timings (μsec) of ordinary binary curves and TZV at 160 bit level, 64 bit code

$d(\times r) =$		EC 163	TZV g1 83×3	TZV g1 41×5	HEC g2 83	TZV g2 41×3
operation	2	2.267	2.732	2.327	1.227	1.729
	+	2.316	2.742	2.351	2.577	4.485
	σ	–	0.019	0.019	–	0.020
full scalar	bin	704.4	734.5	603.5	467.4	680.1
	NAF	618.4	649.5	534.7	402.8	560.8
	w-NAF	562.7	588.0	481.9	340.6	461.6
split scalar	bin	–	425.1	312.2	–	431.7
	NAF	–	387.3	230.5	–	375.2
	JSF	–	373.1	–	–	356.7
	w-NAF	–	349.5	188.9	–	318.1

2 Ghz Quad Core Xeon running 64-bit code

Performance Results: Scalar Multiplication

Timings (μsec) of ordinary binary curves and TZV at 192 bit level, 64 bit code

$d(\times r) =$		EC 191	TZV g1 97×3	TZV g1 47×5	HEC g2 97	TZV g2 47×3
operation	2	2.714	3.149	2.686	1.415	1.955
	+	2.714	3.160	2.713	2.927	5.125
	σ	–	0.019	0.021	–	0.020
full scalar	bin	975.6	987.1	795.2	632.6	868.7
	NAF	868.6	888.1	706.9	531.5	714.9
	w-NAF	783.8	800.0	637.4	450.5	590.7
split scalar	bin	–	583.8	401.8	–	553.6
	NAF	–	522.5	319.7	–	480.1
	JSF	–	496.7	–	–	455.9
	w-NAF	–	467.7	252.4	–	403.6

2 Ghz Quad Core Xeon running 64-bit code

Performance Results: Scalar Multiplication

Timings (μsec) of curves and TZV over prime fields and TZV at 160 bit level, 32 bit code

$\log_2 p(\times r) =$		EC 160	HEC g_2 80	HEC g_3 54	TZV 80×3	TZV 40×5	TZV g_2 40×3
affine coordinates	bin	1106.7	913.8	1203.8	660.3	644.8	1586.0
	NAF	974.6	809.1	1035.4	616.4	617.8	1473.6
	JSF	–	–	–	563.4	–	1274.8
	w -NAF	893.3	733.6	930.8	539.0	481.3	1223.1
other coordinates	bin	529.2	833.7	–	568.8	668.3	–
	NAF	442.0	739.5	–	529.5	637.8	–
	JSF	–	–	–	479.8	–	–
	w -NAF	400.1	672.9	–	467.6	491.6	–

scalar always split for TZV

2 Ghz Quad Core Xeon running 32-bit code

Performance Results: Scalar Multiplication

Timings (μsec) of curves and TZV over prime fields and TZV at 192 bit level, 32 bit code

$\log_2 p(\times r) =$		EC 192	HEC g_2 96	HEC g_3 64	TZV 96×3	TZV 48×5	TZV g_2 48×3
affine coordinates	bin	1949.2	1163.3	1524.6	924.2	807.0	1926.5
	NAF	1740.9	1043.4	1370.9	850.5	768.3	1763.1
	JSF	–	–	–	788.0	–	1559.2
	w -NAF	1569.8	944.2	1238.9	750.8	586.9	1531.8
other coordinates	bin	870.4	1065.6	–	824.5	810.0	–
	NAF	742.5	948.1	–	754.7	769.5	–
	JSF	–	–	–	692.3	–	–
	w -NAF	655.3	849.5	–	660.8	584.2	–

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2 Ghz Quad Core Xeon running 32-bit code

Performance Results: Scalar Multiplication

Timings (μsec) of curves and TZV over prime fields and TZV at 256 bit level, 32 bit code

$\log_2 p(\times r) =$		EC 256	HEC g_2 128	HEC g_3 84	TZV 128×3	TZV 64×5	TZV g_2 64×3
affine coordinates	bin	4365.3	2453.8	3210.9	1920.6	1166.1	2726.3
	NAF	3892.8	2199.5	2850.2	1779.8	1097.4	2516.5
	JSF	–	–	–	1638.1	–	2572.6
	w -NAF	3486.6	1974.3	2561.1	1541.0	831.2	2192.5
other coordinates	bin	1977.4	2151.6	–	1738.4	1175.0	–
	NAF	1674.2	1910.6	–	1638.9	1102.7	–
	JSF	–	–	–	1500.9	–	–
	w -NAF	1452.7	1712.6	–	1397.6	826.1	–

scalar always split for TZV

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Performance Results: Scalar Multiplication

Timings (μsec) of curves and TZV over prime fields and TZV at 160 bit level, 64 bit code

$\log_2 p(\times r) =$		EC 160	HEC g2 80	HEC g3 54	TZV 80×3	TZV 40×5	TZV g2 40×3
affine coordinates	bin	631.6	501.2	446.1	360.7	280.7	660.9
	NAF	567.3	428.7	399.2	338.9	269.9	617.1
	JSF	–	–	–	310.2	–	565.8
	w-NAF	514.8	387.2	366.9	300.6	215.0	505.8
other coordinates	bin	197.2	422.8	–	303.8	246.5	–
	NAF	167.6	377.9	–	286.6	238.1	–
	JSF	–	–	–	259.3	–	–
	w-NAF	155.8	343.8	–	258.5	191.0	–

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Timings (μsec) of curves and TZV over prime fields and TZV at 192 bit level, 64 bit code

$\log_2 p(\times r) =$		EC 192	HEC g_2 96	HEC g_3 64	TZV 96×3	TZV 48×5	TZV g_2 48×3
affine coordinates	bin	920.4	628.0	619.0	462.2	347.4	832.3
	NAF	804.4	547.1	556.3	434.7	334.4	766.1
	JSF	–	–	–	397.9	–	723.1
	w -NAF	729.8	495.8	505.4	385.9	258.8	641.0
other coordinates	bin	295.5	502.2	–	365.2	312.1	–
	NAF	251.4	446.4	–	342.4	288.7	–
	JSF	–	–	–	311.3	–	–
	w -NAF	232.0	403.5	–	301.6	224.1	–

scalar always split for TZV

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Timings (μsec) of curves and TZV over prime fields and TZV at 256 bit level, 64 bit code

$\log_2 p(\times r) =$		EC 256	HEC g_2 128	HEC g_3 84	TZV 128×3	TZV 64×5	TZV g_2 64×3
affine coordinates	bin	1891.4	1043.4	2098.7	812.4	628.9	1401.6
	NAF	1700.9	901.2	1775.6	757.7	586.0	1307.9
	JSF	–	–	–	696.0	–	1182.1
	w -NAF	1523.2	773.8	1537.3	654.9	431.7	1015.0
other coordinates	bin	565.5	756.0	–	600.7	543.1	–
	NAF	486.6	640.9	–	560.6	508.2	–
	JSF	–	–	–	511.9	–	–
	w -NAF	435.8	568.9	–	491.2	401.8	–

scalar always split for TZV

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Pairing in cryptography

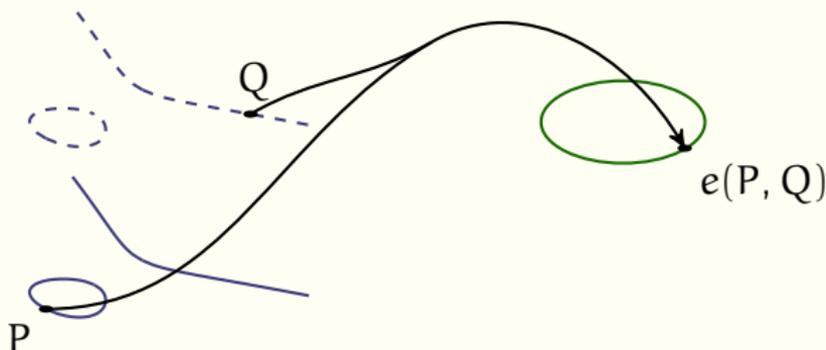
A (no longer so) new tool for cryptographers:

- ▶ $e: \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$
- ▶ Bilinear: $e(aP, bQ) = e(P, Q)^{ab}$
- ▶ Non degenerate: there exists $P, Q: e(P, Q) \neq 1$
- ▶ Efficiently computable

Pairing in cryptography

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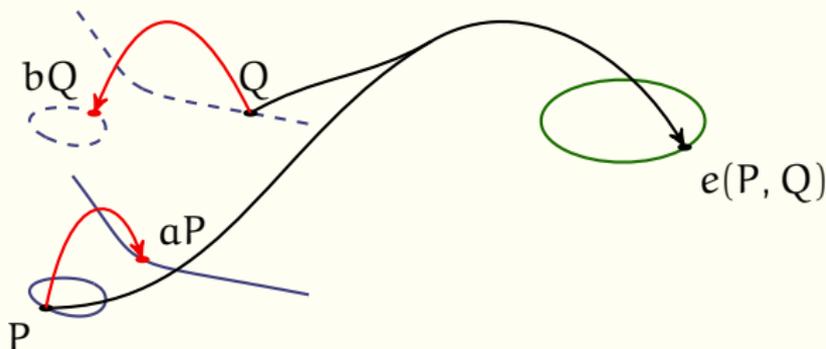
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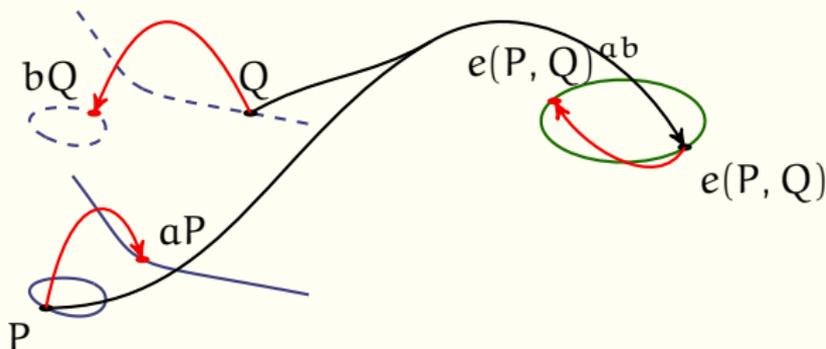
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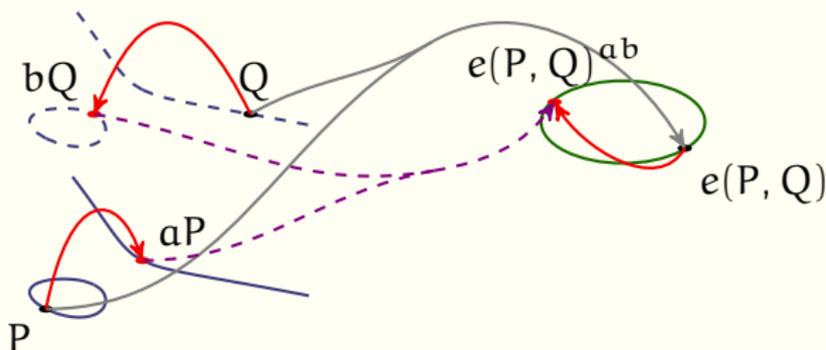
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Why Pairing on Trace Zero Varieties?

Main observation from Karl Rubin and Alice Silverberg, 2002:

- ▶ Allow to obtain higher **MOV security** per bit than EC
- ▶ Boost the security parameter by a factor $r/\phi(r)$
- ▶ Application to pairing-based cryptography...

Supersingular EC over \mathbb{F}_q , $q = 2^d$

$$\mathcal{E}: y^2 + y = x^3 + x + b, \quad b \in \mathbb{F}_2$$

- ▶ $\#\mathcal{E} = 2^d \pm 2^{(d+1)/2} + 1$
- ▶ embedding degree $k = 4$
- ▶ 1200-bit security: take $d \approx 1200/k \approx 307$

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Supersingular TZV over \mathbb{F}_q , $q = 2^d$

$$\mathcal{E}: y^2 + y = x^3 + x + b, \quad b \in \mathbb{F}_2$$

- ▶ $\#\mathcal{E}_3 = 2^{2d} \mp 2^{(3d+1)/2} + 2^d \mp 2^{(d+1)/2} + 1$
- ▶ embedding degree $k = 3 \cdot 4 = 12$
- ▶ 1200-bit security: take $d \approx 1200/12 \approx 103$

How to compute a pairing?

Compute $f_P(Q)$:

- ▶ Recall $f_P \in \mathbb{F}_q(\mathcal{E})$, with divisor $\ell(P) - \ell(O)$
- ▶ Rational function of degree $\approx \ell$
- ▶ Storing coefficients, evaluate it: unfeasible!

Miller function

Idea: combine simple functions with **small support** to “build” f_P .

Miller function: is a function $f_{n,P} \in \mathbb{F}_q(\mathcal{E})$ with divisor:

$$(f_{n,P}) = n(P) - ([n]P) - (n-1)O$$

Properties:

$$\begin{cases} 1. f_{\lambda+\mu,P} = f_{\lambda,P} \cdot f_{\mu,P} \cdot \frac{l_{[\lambda]P,[\mu]P}}{v_{[\lambda+\mu]P}} \\ 2. f_{\lambda\mu,P} = f_{\lambda,P}^\mu \cdot f_{\mu,[\lambda]P} \end{cases} \quad \begin{cases} f_{n+1,P} = f_{n,P} \cdot f_{1,P} \cdot \frac{l_{[n]P,P}}{v_{[n+1]P}} \\ f_{2n,P} = f_{n,P}^2 \cdot \frac{l_{[n]P,[n]P}}{v_{[2n]P}} \end{cases}$$

where $l_{P,P'}$ is the line through P and P'

$v_{[\lambda+\mu]P}$ is the vertical line through $[\lambda+\mu]P$

Further: *directly compute evaluation at Q .*

Note that $v_{[\lambda+\mu]P}(Q) = x(Q) - x([\lambda+\mu]P)$.

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Miller's algorithm (elliptic curves)

Input: $P, Q \in \mathcal{E}[\ell]$, $\mathbb{N} \ni \mathbf{n} = \sum_{i=0}^L n_i 2^i$,
with $n_j = 0, 1$.

Output: $f_{\mathbf{n},P}(Q)$

```
1  $T \leftarrow P$  ,  $f \leftarrow 1$ 
2 for  $j = L - 1$  downto 0 do
3    $f \leftarrow f^2 \cdot l_{T,T}(Q) / v_{[2]T}(Q)$ 
4    $T \leftarrow [2]T$ 
5   if  $n_j = 1$  then
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```

denominator
elimination

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6      $f \leftarrow f \cdot l_{T, P}(Q)$ 
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8   endif
9 endfor
10 return  $f^{\text{some power}}$ 
```

denominator
elimination

Many Improvements...

- ▶ Barreto et. al. [02–07]: η and η_T with supersingular (H)EC
- ▶ Rubin & Silverberg [02–08]: supersingular AV (notably TZV)
- ▶ Scott [05]: An EC endowed with an efficient endomorphism
- ▶ Hess et. al. [06]: Ate and twisted–Ate with ordinary (H)EC
- ▶ Vercauteren [08]: Optimal pairings
- ▶ Hess [08]: Pairing lattices
- ▶ ... and many more ...

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Recall:

Tate pairing

$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^k-1}{\ell}}$$

- ▶ $f_P(Q) = f_{\ell, P}(Q)$
- ▶ Miller's algorithm to compute $f_{n, P}(Q)$

Remark: $t(P, Q) = f_{\ell, P}(Q)^{\frac{q^k-1}{\ell}} = f_{N, P}(Q)^{\frac{q^k-1}{N}}$

- ▶ with $\ell \mid N \mid q^k - 1$
- ▶ $N = \#\mathcal{E}_T = O(q^2)$, lower Hamming weight than ℓ in char 2,3
- ▶ η_T pairing (Barreto et. al.) $N = O(q^{3/2})$
- ▶ Promise: $N = q$

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Recall:

Tate pairing

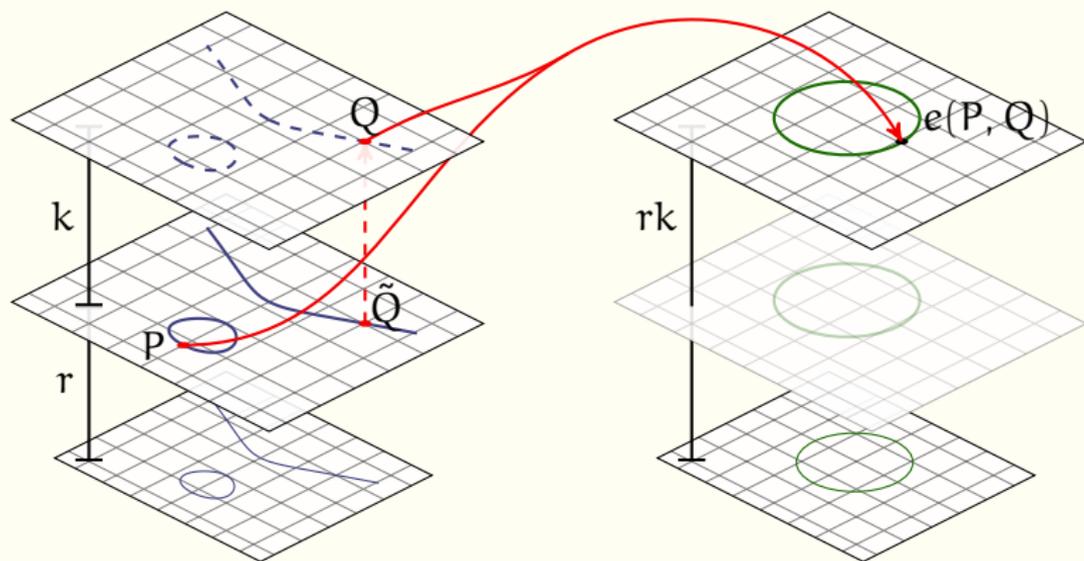
$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^k-1}{\ell}}$$

- ▶ $f_P(Q) = f_{\ell, P}(Q)$
- ▶ Miller's algorithm to compute $f_{n, P}(Q)$

Remark: $t(P, Q) = f_{\ell, P}(Q)^{\frac{q^k-1}{\ell}} = f_{N, P}(Q)^{\frac{q^k-1}{N}}$

- ▶ with $\ell \mid N \mid q^k - 1$
- ▶ $N = \#\mathcal{E}_r = O(q^2)$, lower Hamming weight than ℓ in char 2,3
- ▶ η_T pairing (Barreto et. al.) $N = O(q^{3/2})$
- ▶ Promise: $N = q$

One figure says it all!



The main result

Theorem (Theorem 2)

Let \mathcal{E}_r be a supersingular TZV. Suppose k is even and the distortion map allows for denominator elimination.

Then the Tate pairing can be computed as:

$$t(P, Q) = \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{\alpha}{r} q^{\alpha-1}},$$

where $\sigma_i = \sigma^{ij}$, $\alpha = k/2$ and $M = q^{k/2} - 1$.

The new algorithm

Formula for $t(P, Q)$:

$$\left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{a}{r} q^{a-1}}$$

Parallelization:

- ▶ r processors
- ▶ loop on q

Serial version:

- ▶ Save intermediate T 's
- ▶ Store $O(\log q)$ points or interleave

Input: $P \in \mathbb{G}_1$, $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$

Output: $t_{TZV}(P, Q)$

```

1  $f \leftarrow 1$ 
2 for  $i = 0$  to  $r - 1$  do
3    $f \leftarrow f \cdot (f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i}))^{q^{i(r+1)}}$ 
4 endfor
5  $f \leftarrow (f \frac{a}{r})^{q^{a-1}}$ 
6 return  $f^{M+1}/f$ 

```

Without line 5: still bilinear

The new algorithm

Formula for $t(P, Q)$:

$$\left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{a}{r} q^{a-1}}$$

Parallelization:

- ▶ r processors
- ▶ loop on q

Serial version:

- ▶ Save intermediate T 's
- ▶ Store $O(\log q)$ points or interleave

Input: $P \in \mathbb{G}_1$, $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$

Output: $t_{TZV}(P, Q)$

- 1 $f \leftarrow 1$
- 2 **for** $i = 0$ **to** $r - 1$ **do**
- 3 $f \leftarrow f \cdot (f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i}))^{q^{i(r+1)}}$
- 4 **endfor**
- 5 $f \leftarrow (f \frac{a}{r})^{q^{a-1}}$
- 6 **return** f^{M+1}/f

Without line 5: still bilinear

The main result (proof)

Tate pairing

$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^k - 1}{\ell}} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i}) q^{i(r+1)} \right) M^{\frac{a}{r}} q^{a-1}$$

1. Arithmetic of the Miller function
2. Use of the q^r -Frobenius π
3. Use of the q -Frobenius σ

Endomorphisms and Miller's function

If $\phi \in \text{End } E$ is purely inseparable of degree T ,

$$f_{n, \phi(P)} \circ \phi = f_{n, P}^T$$

Dual of q^r -Frobenius π

Let $\hat{\pi}$ be the dual of the q^r -Frobenius π

- ▶ purely inseparable of degree q^r (supersingular curves)
- ▶ $P \in \text{Ker}(\pi - [1]) \quad \hat{\pi}(P) = [q^r]P$
- ▶ $Q \in \text{Ker}(\pi - [q^r]) \quad \hat{\pi}(Q) = Q$

$$f_{n, [q^r]P}(Q) = f_{n, \hat{\pi}P}(\hat{\pi}Q) = f_{n, \hat{\pi}P} \circ \hat{\pi}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q)^{q^r}$$

Endomorphisms and Miller's function

If $\phi \in \text{End } E$ is purely inseparable of degree T ,

$$f_{n, \phi(P)} \circ \phi = f_{n, P}^T$$

Dual of q -Frobenius σ

Let $\hat{\sigma}$ be the dual of the q -Frobenius σ .

- ▶ purely inseparable of degree q (supersingular curves)
- ▶ $P \in \text{Ker}(\pi - [1]) \quad \hat{\sigma}(P) = [q/s]P$
- ▶ $Q \in \text{Ker}(\pi - [q^r]) \quad \hat{\sigma}(Q) = [q^{1-\Sigma}]Q \quad (\Sigma = \frac{r^2+1}{2})$

$$\begin{aligned} f_{n, [q]P}(Q) &= f_{n, \hat{\sigma}^{r+2}(P)} \left((\hat{\sigma}^{r+2} \circ \sigma^j)(Q) \right) = \\ &= f_{n, \hat{\sigma}^{r+2}(P)} \circ \hat{\sigma}^{r+2} \left(Q^{\sigma^j} \right) = f_{n, P} \left(Q^{\sigma^j} \right)^{q^{r+2}} \end{aligned}$$

The main result (proof)

Tate pairing

$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^k - 1}{\ell}} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q^i, P}(Q^{\sigma^i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{q}{r} q^{a-1}}$$

1. Arithmetic of the Miller's function

2. Use of the q^r -Frobenius π

$$f_{n, [q^r]P}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q)^{q^r}$$

3. Use of the q -Frobenius σ

$$f_{n, [q]P}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q^{\sigma^j})^{q^{r+2}}$$

The main result (proof)

Tate pairing

$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^k-1}{\ell}} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{\alpha}{r} q^{\alpha-1}}$$

1. Arithmetic of the Miller's function

2. Use of the q^r -Frobenius π $f_{n,[q^r]P}(Q) = f_{n,P}(Q)^{q^r}$

3. Use of the q -Frobenius σ
 $f_{n,[q]P}(Q) = f_{n,P}(Q^{\sigma})^{q}$

$$t(P, Q) = f_{\ell,P}(Q)^{(q^k-1)/\ell} = f_{q^{k/2+1},P}(Q)^{q^{k/2-1}} = f_{q^{k/2},P}(Q)^{q^{k/2-1}} = f_{q^\alpha,P}(Q)^M$$

The main result (proof)

Tate pairing

$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^k - 1}{\ell}} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q, P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{\alpha}{r} q^{\alpha-1}}$$

1. Arithmetic of the Miller's function

2. Use of the q^r -Frobenius π $f_{n, [q^r]P}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q)^{q^r}$

3. Use of the q -Frobenius σ
 $f_{n, [q]P}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q^{\sigma})^{q}$

$$t(P, Q) = f_{\ell, P}(Q)^{(q^k - 1)/\ell} = f_{q^{k/2+1}, P}(Q)^{q^{k/2-1}} = f_{q^{k/2}, P}(Q)^{q^{k/2-1}} = f_{q^\alpha, P}(Q)^M$$

k even: $q^k - 1 = (q^{k/2} - 1)(q^{k/2} + 1)$; k minimal

The main result (proof)

Tate pairing

$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^k - 1}{\ell}} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q^i, P}(Q^{\sigma^i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{q}{r} q^{a-1}}$$

1. Arithmetic of the Miller's function

2. Use of the q^r -Frobenius π $f_{n, [q^r]P}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q)^{q^r}$

3. Use of the q -Frobenius σ
 $f_{n, [q]P}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q^{\sigma^j})^{q^{r+2}}$

$$t(P, Q) = f_{\ell, P}(Q)^{(q^k - 1)/\ell} = f_{q^{k/2+1}, P}(Q)^{q^{k/2-1}} = f_{q^{k/2}, P}(Q)^{q^{k/2-1}} = f_{q^a, P}(Q)^M$$

$$f_{N, P}(Q) = f_{N-1, P}(Q) \cdot f_{1, P}(Q) \cdot l_{[N-1]P, P}(Q) / v_{[N]P}(Q)$$

► $l_{[N-1]P, P}$ is the vertical line through P (denom. elimination)

The main result (proof)

Tate pairing

$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^k-1}{\ell}} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q^i, P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{q}{r} q^{a-1}}$$

1. Arithmetic of the Miller's function

2. Use of the q^r -Frobenius π $f_{n, [q^r]P}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q)^{q^r}$

3. Use of the q -Frobenius σ
 $f_{n, [q]P}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q^{\sigma})^{q}$

$$t(P, Q) = f_{\ell, P}(Q)^{(q^k-1)/\ell} = f_{q^{k/2+1}, P}(Q)^{q^{k/2-1}} = f_{q^{k/2}, P}(Q)^{q^{k/2-1}} = f_{q^a, P}(Q)^M$$

The main result (proof)

Tate pairing

$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^{k-1}}{\ell}} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q, P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{q}{r} q^{a-1}}$$

1. Arithmetic of the Miller's function

2. Use of the q^r -Frobenius π $f_{n, [q^r]P}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q)^{q^r}$

3. Use of the q -Frobenius σ
 $f_{n, [q]P}(Q) = f_{n, P}(Q^{\sigma})^{q}$

$$\begin{aligned} f_{q^a, P}(Q)^M &= \left(f_{q, P}(Q)^{q^{a-1}} \cdot f_{q, [q]P}(Q)^{q^{a-2}} \cdots f_{q, [q^{a-1}]P}(Q) \right)^M = \\ &= \left(f_{q, P}(Q)^{\frac{q}{r} q^{(a-1)}} \cdot f_{q, [q]P}(Q)^{\frac{q}{r} q^{(a-2)}} \cdots f_{q, [q^{r-1}]P}(Q)^{\frac{q}{r} q^{(a-r)}} \right)^M = \\ &= \left(f_{q, P}(Q) \cdot f_{q, [q]P}(Q)^{q^{-1}} \cdots f_{q, [q^{r-1}]P}(Q)^{q^{-(r-1)}} \right)^{M \frac{q}{r} q^{a-1}} \end{aligned}$$

The main result (proof)

Tate pairing

$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^{k-1}}{\ell}} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{a}{r} q^{a-1}}$$

1. Arithmetic of the Miller's function

2. Use of the q^r -Frobenius π

$$f_{n, [q^r]P}(Q) = f_{n,P}(Q)^{q^r}$$

3. Use of the q -Frobenius σ

$$f_{n, [q]P}(Q) = f_{n,P}(Q^{\sigma})^{q}$$

$$t(P, Q) = \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q, [q^i]P}(Q)^{q^{-i}} \right)^{M \frac{a}{r} q^{a-1}} = \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{a}{r} q^{a-1}}$$

The main result (proof)

Tate pairing

$$t(P, Q) = f_P(Q)^{\frac{q^{k-1}}{\ell}} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{a}{r} q^{a-1}}$$

1. Arithmetic of the Miller's function

2. Use of the q^r -Frobenius π

$$f_{n,[q^r]P}(Q) = f_{n,P}(Q)^{q^r}$$

3. Use of the q -Frobenius σ

$$f_{n,[q]P}(Q) = f_{n,P}(Q^{\sigma_j})^{q^{r+2}}$$

$$t(P, Q) = \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q,[q^i]P}(Q)^{q^{-i}} \right)^{M \frac{a}{r} q^{a-1}} = \left(\prod_{i=0}^{r-1} f_{q,P}(Q^{\sigma_i})^{q^{i(r+1)}} \right)^{M \frac{a}{r} q^{a-1}}$$

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Performance Results, Part II

Table: Pairings on (μsec) EC and TZV ($r = 3$) over \mathbb{F}_{2^d} (32 bit)

Pairing	Loop Length	EC	TZV	EC	TZV	EC	TZV
		$d = 239$	$d = 79$	$d = 307$	$d = 103$	$d = 457$	$d = 157$
t_N	$N = O(q^2)$	1280.8	840.5	2231.7	1524.1	9006.5	3914.8
η	q^3	1226.9	1168.1	2141.9	2123.1	8589.1	5610.5
η_T	$2^{(3d+1)/2} - 1$	667.7	633.3	1163.0	1139.7	4692.5	2960.4
α_{opt}	$2^{(3d-1)/2}$	685.2	625.4	1185.5	1138.5	4889.9	2886.9
η (HLV)	q^3	1197.8	1239.2	2376.9	2359.6	8159.3	5757.0
η_T (HLV)	$2^{(3d+1)/2} - 1$	656.1	609.0	1120.2	1097.8	4403.5	2864.4
t_{TZV}	$3 \times q$	–	1062.6	–	1967.1	–	5086.4
t_σ	$2 \times s$	–	1336.8	–	2421.4	–	6028.8
t_{TZV} (Par)	$3 \times q$	–	435.0	–	807.2	–	1959.1
$t_{\mathcal{E}_3}$ (Par)	$2 \times O(q)$	–	501.0	–	867.5	–	2154.6

2 Ghz Quad Core Xeon running 32-bit code

Table: Pairings (μsec) on EC and TZV ($r = 3$) over \mathbb{F}_{2^d} (64 bit)

Pairing	Loop Length	EC	TZV	EC	TZV	EC	TZV
		$d = 239$	$d = 79$	$d = 307$	$d = 103$	$d = 457$	$d = 157$
t_N	$N = O(q^2)$	617.9	699.1	1058.6	1111.4	3587.8	2816.9
η	q^3	580.0	949.1	1001.3	1527.4	3455.2	4028.2
η_T	$2^{(3d+1)/2} - 1$	326.2	526.8	563.6	861.5	1849.6	2157.4
α_{opt}	$2^{(3d-1)/2}$	333.9	512.9	573.6	817.4	1875.7	2104.4
η (HLV)	q^3	634.9	1022.3	1056.0	1615.8	3737.1	4066.3
η_T (HLV)	$2^{(3d+1)/2} - 1$	309.6	495.0	521.2	788.9	1771.1	2058.8
t_{TZV}	$3 \times q$	–	860.8	–	1392.1	–	3710.9
t_σ	$2 \times s$	–	1114.4	–	1702.9	–	4374.2
t_{TZV} (Par)	$3 \times q$	–	343.5	–	547.8	–	1424.9
$t_{\mathcal{E}_3}$ (Par)	$2 \times O(q)$	–	415.7	–	638.0	–	1565.8

2 Ghz Quad Core Xeon running 64-bit code

Table: Scalar multiplication (μsec) on SS EC and TZV ($r = 3$) over \mathbb{F}_{2^d} (32 bit)

		EC d = 239	TZV d = 79	EC d = 307	TZV d = 103	EC d = 457	TZV d = 157
operation	2	0.193	0.228	0.309	0.286	1.140	0.555
	+	8.013	3.341	12.515	4.709	27.510	8.254
	σ	–	0.029	–	0.033	–	0.039
full scalar	bin	913.0	320.5	1720.4	509.1	6865.5	924.3
	NAF	673.9	235.0	1218.6	363.6	4884.6	588.2
	w-NAF	391.3	149.5	716.8	218.1	2871.9	420.1
split scalar	bin	–	277.8	–	363.6	–	756.3
	NAF	–	213.7	–	290.9	–	672.2
	JSF	–	213.7	–	254.5	–	504.2
	w-NAF	–	170.9	–	218.1	–	420.1

2 Ghz Quad Core Xeon running 32-bit code

Table: Scalar multiplication (μsec) on SS EC and TZV ($r = 3$) over \mathbb{F}_{2^d} (64 bit)

		EC d = 239	TZV d = 79	EC d = 307	TZV d = 103	EC d = 457	TZV d = 157
operation	2	0.167	0.236	0.259	0.280	0.341	0.421
	+	4.143	2.619	6.258	3.273	14.590	5.832
	σ	–	0.019	–	0.019	–	0.029
full scalar	bin	522.1	226.8	1062.8	396.5	3747.0	734.7
	NAF	369.8	164.7	725.3	280.1	2442.3	532.0
	w-NAF	232.8	117.6	445.2	185.5	1408.1	346.2
split scalar	bin	–	164.7	–	283.7	–	532.0
	NAF	–	128.3	–	225.5	–	422.2
	JSF	–	119.8	–	203.7	–	388.5
	w-NAF	–	102.7	–	170.9	–	312.5

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Security of Trace Zero Varieties

We now turn our attention to the security of TZV.

The case $g = 1, r = 3$ is simple: Dimension of TZV is 2. An attacker could hope for it to be contained in the Jacobian of a curve of genus at least 2.

This means that the best known attack has complexity not worse than $O(q)$ and this meets the square-root bound.

The Fourth Dimension

Let us consider now the cases $g = 1, r = 5$ and $g = 2, r = 3$, i.e. 4-dimensional TZVs.

By the arguments by Lange; A. & Lange; Diem & Scholten; and under the (pessimistic) assumption that these results can also be adapted to fields of characteristic 2, we cannot exclude that G is contained in the Jacobian of a hyperelliptic curve of genus 6.

In this case attacks have complexity $\tilde{O}(q^{5/3})$, which means that security is reduced by at most one sixth of the bit length (using double LP IC).

The Fourth Dimension

Let us consider now the cases $g = 1, r = 5$ and $g = 2, r = 3$, i.e. 4-dimensional TZVs.

Even worse, the group G may be also contained in the Jacobian of a non-hyperelliptic curve (via Smith's attack), the worst case being a $C_{3,5}$ curve. In this case one may want to apply Diem's attack on planar curves, that has a complexity $\tilde{O}(q^{4/3})$ (with probability $O(1/q^2)$ of actually finding a planar model).

Hence, for the DLP in the TZV the security is in fact reduced, but for pairing applications we are using larger groups anyway.

The Fourth Dimension

Let us consider now the cases $g = 1, r = 5$ and $g = 2, r = 3$, i.e. 4-dimensional TZVs.

Assume the $\tilde{O}(q^{4/3})$ attacks is feasible.

Let us consider a (SS) TZV $\mathcal{E}_5(\mathbb{F}_{2^{89}})$. Pairing lands in a 1780-bit field, offers about 160 bit EC security (broken in $O(2^{80})$ steps remember Coppersmith's attack has complexity $L_q[\frac{1}{3}, 1.4]$).

The order of $\mathcal{E}_5(\mathbb{F}_{2^{89}})$ has 356 bits (can use a small subgroup). The attack has complexity $\tilde{O}((2^{89})^{4/3}) \approx \tilde{O}(2^{118})$.

The complexity of attack is still more than complexity of attacking the system in the finite field in which the pairing takes its values.

Other cases similar.

The Fourth Dimension

Let us consider now the cases $g = 1, r = 5$ and $g = 2, r = 3$, i.e. 4-dimensional TZVs.

Pairing on $\mathcal{E}_5(\mathbb{F}_{343})$ lands in a 2044.6-bit field ($\mathbb{F}_{3^{1290}}$). Field not binary, hence we have 233 bit EC security (broken in $O(2^{116.6})$ steps - attack has complexity $L_q[\frac{1}{3}, 1.92]$).

The group is a 272 bit group. There is no 2-torsion (hence no Ben Smith). The best attack we can hope to mount is Diem's attack with complexity $\tilde{O}(q^{8/5})$, hence $\tilde{O}(2^{109})$. Note that there is a $\log q$ in the \tilde{O} so we in fact have at least $O(2^{114})$.

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Conclusions

Trace Zero Varieties offer good performance:

- ▶ Scalar multiplication, ordinary curves
 - ▶ Binary TZV from EC 2 to 4 times faster than comparable EC.
 - ▶ Binary TZV from HEC smaller gain over HEC ($g = 2$).
 - ▶ Varieties over prime fields: performance in same ballpark as corresponding curves, often faster.
- ▶ Pairing on (binary) supersingular curves:
 - ▶ Serial versions, comparable performance to curves.
 - ▶ New algorithm up to 30% faster in 32-bit code.
 - ▶ **But** in these cases scalar multiplication *much* faster than on the curves (up to 7 times faster).

On the algorithm for the Tate pairing with supersingular TZV:

- ▶ Easy parallelization with r processors, Miller loop on q

Thank you for your attention! Any questions?

