# Computing Bilinear Pairings on Elliptic Curves with Automorphisms* 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we present a novel method for constructing a super-optimal pairing with great efficiency, which we call the omega pairing. The computation of the omega pairing requires the simple final exponentiation and short loop length in Miller's algorithm which leads to a significant improvement over the previously known techniques on certain pairing-friendly curves. Experimental results show that the omega pairing is about $22 \%$ faster and $19 \%$ faster than the super-optimal pairing proposed by Scott at security level of AES 80 bits on certain pairingfriendly curves in affine coordinate systems and projective coordinate systems, respectively.


[^0]Keywords: Elliptic curves, Automorphism, Pairing based cryptography, Weil pairing

## 1 Introduction

Bilinear pairings play an important role in cryptographic protocols [22]. This leads to the development of efficient pairing computations since the implementation of pairing based cryptosystems involves pairing evaluation. In practice, many methods have been designed for optimizing Miller's algorithm [20]. Some extensive surveys of pairing computations can be found in $[1,9]$. Recently, many results focus on shortening the loop length in Miller's algorithm, e.g., DuursmaLee methods [8], the eta pairing [3], the ate pairing and its variants [14, 19, 30], as well as the R-ate pairing [17]. In [31], it is proved that all pairings are in a group from an abstract point of view which provides a new explanation for the R-ate pairing. Vercauteren gives an efficient method to construct the optimal Ate pairing [29]. Hess presents an integral framework that covers all known fast pairing functions [13].

Computing the classical Tate and Weil pairings requires $\log _{2} r$ Miller iteration loops where $r$ is the order of the points. If the number of the Miller iteration loops is less than $\log _{2} r / \varphi(k)$ where $k$ is the embedding degree of elliptic curves, the corresponding pairing is called super-optimal [29]. Motivated by GLV methods [11], Scott indeed constructs a super-optimal pairing on pairing-friendly curves with embedding degree $k=2$ [24], which is the fastest pairing at security level of AES 80 bits till now. Using pairing-friendly curves with embedding degree $k=2$ has competitive advantages, which is described clearly in [25]. Moreover, pairing compression techniques can be applied efficiently to reduce the bandwidth in this case [10]. Therefore, the focus of our presentation is primarily on pairing computations over pairing-friendly curves with embedding degree $k=2$.

In this paper, we present a novel variant of the Weil pairing on ordinary elliptic curves with nontrivial automorphisms, which we call the omega pairing. The computation of the omega pairing requires the simple final exponentiation and short loop length in Miller's algorithm which leads to a significant improvement over the previous techniques. This new pairing is super-optimal and more efficient than the previously known pairings on certain pairing-friendly curves. Experimental results show that the omega pairing is about $22 \%$ faster and $19 \%$
faster than the super-optimal pairing proposed by Scott in affine coordinate systems and projective coordinate systems, respectively.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the basic pairings and a family of ordinary elliptic curves with nontrivial automorphisms. In Section 3, we propose the omega pairing whose structure is similar to that of the Weil pairing. Section 4 compares the new pairing with the previous fastest pairing at security level of AES 80 bits on certain pairing-friendly curves and presents the experimental results.

## 2 Preliminaries

In this section, we briefly recall the definitions of the Tate and Weil pairings. Then we introduce a family of elliptic curves with nontrivial automorphisms.

### 2.1 Tate Pairing

Let $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ be a finite field with $q=p^{m}$ elements where $p$ is a prime, and $E$ an elliptic curve defined over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$. Consider a large prime $r$ such that $r \mid \# E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$, where $\# E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$ denotes the order of $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$. Assume that $r^{2}$ does not divide $q^{k}-1$ and $k$ is greater than 1 , where $k$ is the embedding degree. We denote by $E[r]$ the $r$-torsion group of $E$.

Let $D_{P}$ be a degree zero divisor (see [27]) which is linearly equivalent to $(P)-(\mathcal{O})$, where $P \in E[r]$ and $\mathcal{O}$ is the point at infinity. For every integer $i$, let $f_{i, P}$ be a rational function on $E$ with divisor $\left(f_{i, P}\right)=i(P)-(i P)-(i-1)(\mathcal{O})$. In particular, $\left(f_{r, P}\right)=r D_{P}$. Assume that $\mu_{r}$ is the $r$-th roots of unity in $\mathbb{F}_{q^{k}}$. Then the reduced Tate pairing [4] is defined as follows

$$
\begin{gathered}
e: E[r] \times E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{k}}\right) \rightarrow \mu_{r}, \\
e(P, R)=f_{r, P}(R)^{\frac{q^{k}-1}{r}} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Note that $f_{r, P}(R)^{a\left(q^{k}-1\right) / r}=f_{a r, P}(R)^{\left(q^{k}-1\right) / r}$ for any integer $a$. The rational function $f_{r, P}$ can be computed in polynomial time by using Miller's algorithm [20, 21].

### 2.2 Weil Pairing

Using the same notation as before, one can make a few slight modifications and then define the Weil pairing. Let $k$ be the minimal positive integer such that
$E[r] \subset E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{k}}\right)$. According to the results in [2], if $r \nmid q-1$ and $(r, q)=1$, then $E[r] \subset E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q^{k}}\right)$ if and only if $r \mid q^{k}-1$, i.e., the embedding degree for the Weil pairing is equal to the embedding degree for the Tate pairing in this case.

Suppose that $P, Q \in E[r]$ and $P \neq Q$. Let $D_{P}$ and $D_{Q}$ be two degree zero divisors which are linearly equivalent to $(P)-(\mathcal{O})$ and $(Q)-(\mathcal{O})$, respectively. Suppose that $f_{r, P}$ and $f_{r, Q}$ are two rational functions on $E$ with $\left(f_{r, P}\right)=r D_{P}$ and $\left(f_{r, Q}\right)=r D_{Q}$. Then the Weil pairing is a map [21]

$$
\begin{array}{r}
e_{r}: E[r] \times E[r] \rightarrow \mu_{r}, \\
e_{r}(P, Q)=(-1)^{r} \frac{f_{r, P}(Q)}{f_{r, Q}(P)} .
\end{array}
$$

If the embedding degree $k$ is even, one can define the powered Weil pairing [16, 18] as

$$
\hat{e}_{r}(P, Q)=e_{r}(P, Q)^{q^{k / 2}-1}
$$

Note that the denominator elimination technique can be used when computing the powered Weil pairing.

### 2.3 A Family of Elliptic Curves with Nontrivial Automorphisms

Let $p$ be a large prime. Consider the underlying ordinary elliptic curves over $\mathbb{F}_{p}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E_{1}: y^{2}=x^{3}+B, \text { where } p \equiv 1 \bmod 3 \\
& E_{2}: y^{2}=x^{3}+A x, \text { where } p \equiv 1 \bmod 4
\end{aligned}
$$

Elliptic curves of this form have efficiently computable endomorphisms which are applied in fast point multiplication [11] and the computation of the Tate pairing [24]. In fact, these endomorphisms are also automorphisms which are used in speeding up the discrete log computation [7]. Note that some pairingfriendly curves like $E_{1}$ with low embedding degrees have been constructed in [24, 28] and thus can be applied in pairing based cryptosystems. In the following, we will focus on pairing computations on the elliptic curve like $E_{1}$. It is clear that the results can be generalized naturally to the pairing-friendly elliptic curve like $E_{2}$.

Suppose that $\beta$ is an element of order three in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$. An automorphism of $E_{1}$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi: E_{1} & \rightarrow E_{1}, \\
(x, y) & \rightarrow(\beta x, y) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since this automorphism $\phi$ is also an isogeny, its dual isogeny is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{\phi}: E_{1} & \rightarrow E_{1} \\
(x, y) & \rightarrow\left(\beta^{2} x, y\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is easily seen that $\hat{\phi} \circ \phi=[1], \phi^{2}=\hat{\phi}$ and $\# \operatorname{ker} \phi=1$ (see Silverman [27] pages 84-86). Note that $\hat{\phi}$ is also an automorphism of $E_{1}$.

We cite useful facts from [11] for interests. Let $P \in E_{1}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ be a point of prime order $r$, where $r^{2}$ does not divide $\# E_{1}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. Then $\phi$ and $\hat{\phi}$ act restrictively on the subgroup $\langle P\rangle$ as multiplication maps $[\lambda]$ and $[\hat{\lambda}]$ respectively, i.e., $\phi(P)=\lambda P$ and $\hat{\phi}(P)=\hat{\lambda} P$, where $\lambda$ and $\hat{\lambda}$ are the two roots of the equation: $x^{2}+x+1=$ $0(\bmod r)$. Note that $\lambda P=\phi(P)$ can be computed using one multiplication in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$.

Assume that the embedding degree of $E_{1}$ is $k=2$. Let $E_{1}^{\prime}$ be the twisted elliptic curve of $E_{1}$ with the equation $E_{1}^{\prime}: y^{2}=x^{3}+B / D^{3}$, where $D$ is a quadratic non-residue in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$. Then $E_{1}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ has a subgroup $\left\langle Q^{\prime}\right\rangle$ of order $r$. Two automorphisms $\phi^{\prime}$ and $\hat{\phi}^{\prime}$ of $E_{1}^{\prime}$ can be given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi^{\prime}: E_{1}^{\prime} & \rightarrow E_{1}^{\prime}, & \hat{\phi}^{\prime}: E_{1}^{\prime} & \rightarrow E_{1}^{\prime}, \\
(x, y) & \rightarrow(\beta x, y), & (x, y) & \rightarrow\left(\beta^{2} x, y\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose that $r^{2}$ does not divide $\# E_{1}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. By using the same argument as above, $\phi^{\prime}$ and $\hat{\phi}^{\prime}$ act restrictively on the subgroup $\left\langle Q^{\prime}\right\rangle$ as multiplication maps. In practice, it can be checked that $\lambda Q^{\prime}=\hat{\phi}^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$ and $\hat{\lambda} Q^{\prime}=\phi^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$ using straightforward calculations. However, an explanation will be given in the following Lemma 2 of Section 3.

There exists an isomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi: E_{1}^{\prime} & \rightarrow E_{1} \\
(x, y) & \rightarrow\left(D x, y D^{\frac{3}{2}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

defined over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{k}}$. Write $Q=\psi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$. Then $Q$ is a point in $E_{1}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p^{k}}\right)[r]$. In practical implementations, $Q$ is specified in this way when the curve only has a quadratic twist. Since $\langle Q\rangle$ is isomorphic to $\left\langle Q^{\prime}\right\rangle$, it leads to $\lambda Q=\hat{\phi}(Q)$ provided that $\lambda Q^{\prime}=\hat{\phi}^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$ holds. This observation is instrumental in constructing the new variants of the Weil pairing.

## 3 New Variants of The Weil Pairing

In this section, we will construct the new variants of the Weil pairing. For interests, we will focus on pairing-friendly curves with the embedding degree $k=2$ which has competitive merits in the implementations. It is not difficult to see that our results can be generalized to pairing-friendly curve like $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ with even embedding degree.

Let $p$ be a prime such that $p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$, and $E_{1}$ an ordinary elliptic curve over $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ with equation: $E_{1}: y^{2}=x^{3}+B$. Consider a large prime $r$ such that $r \mid \# E_{1}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. Assume that $E_{1}$ has the embedding degree $k=2$ with respect to $r$. The quadratic twist $E_{1}^{\prime}$ is given by the equation $E_{1}^{\prime}: y^{2}=x^{3}+B / D^{3}$, where $D$ is a quadratic non-residue in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$. Suppose that $r^{2} \nmid \# E_{1}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ and $r^{2} \nmid$ $\# E_{1}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. Let $P \in E_{1}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)[r]$ and $Q^{\prime} \in E_{1}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)[r]$. An isomorphism is given by $\psi: E_{1}^{\prime} \rightarrow E_{1},(x, y) \rightarrow\left(D x, D^{\frac{3}{2}} y\right)$. Write $Q=\psi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$. Let $\beta$ be an element of order three in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$. Two automorphisms $\phi$ and $\hat{\phi}$ of $E_{1}$ are given by $\phi: E_{1} \rightarrow E_{1}$, $(x, y) \rightarrow(\beta x, y)$ and $\hat{\phi}: E_{1} \rightarrow E_{1},(x, y) \rightarrow\left(\beta^{2} x, y\right)$, respectively. Assume that $\lambda$ is a root of the equation $x^{2}+x+1=0(\bmod r)$ such that $\lambda P=\phi(P)$ and $\lambda Q=\hat{\phi}(Q)$. Let $a$ be the integer such that $a r=\lambda^{2}+\lambda+1$. Then we have the following results.

Theorem 1. For the points $P$ and $Q$ in $E_{1}[r]$ given in the above, the function $\omega(P, Q)=\left(\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}\right)^{p-1}$ defines a bilinear pairing.

We will show that $\omega(P, Q)$ equals a fixed power of the Weil pairing. This new pairing is named as the omega pairing. The non-degeneracy of $\omega(P, Q)$ holds if $\hat{e}_{r}(P, Q)$ is non-degenerate and $r$ does not divide $a$. The proof of Theorem 1 is based on the following useful lemmas.

Lemma 1. There does not exist an integer $m$ such that $\phi(S)=m S$ for all $S \in E_{1}[r]$.

Proof. It is known that $E_{1}[r] \cong \mathbb{Z}_{r} \times \mathbb{Z}_{r}$ can be viewed as a two-dimensional vector space. We remark that $\phi: E_{1}[r] \rightarrow E_{1}[r]$ is a linear map, whose characteristic polynomial is $g(x)=x^{2}+x+1$ [23]. It suffices to show that the characteristic polynomial $g(x)$ has no multiple roots. If not, assume that $m$ is an integer such that $\phi(S)=m S$ for every point $S \in E_{1}[r]$, then $m$ is a multiple root of $x^{2}+x+1=0(\bmod r)$. It follows from $\phi(P) \neq P$ that $m \neq 1$. Note that the
derivative of the characteristic polynomial $g(x)$ is $2 x+1$. So $m$ must satisfy the following equation

$$
\left\{\begin{aligned}
& x^{2}+x+1=0 \quad(\bmod r) \\
& 2 x+1=0 \quad(\bmod r)
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

It is obvious that there does not exist such an integer $m$ satisfying the above equation if $r=2$. Thus we may assume that $r \neq 2$. Then we conclude that only $r=3$ and $m=1$ satisfy the conditions. However, $m$ can not be equal to 1 . So we can not find an integer $m$ such that $\phi(S)=m S$ for all $S \in E_{1}[r]$. This completes the proof of Lemma 1.

Lemma 2. Using the notation defined as above, we have $\lambda Q=\hat{\phi}(Q)$.
Proof. The isomorphism

$$
\begin{aligned}
\psi: E_{1}^{\prime} & \rightarrow E_{1} \\
(x, y) & \rightarrow\left(D x, D^{\frac{3}{2}} y\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

maps $Q^{\prime} \in E_{1}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)[r]$ into $E_{1}\left(F_{p^{k}}\right)[r]$. It follows that $\langle Q\rangle$ is isomorphic to $\left\langle Q^{\prime}\right\rangle$. Then we see that

$$
\lambda Q=\lambda\left(\psi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)\right)=\psi\left(\lambda Q^{\prime}\right) .
$$

Note that $\lambda Q^{\prime}$ must equal $\hat{\phi}^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$ or $\phi^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$, where $\hat{\phi}^{\prime}$ and $\phi^{\prime}$ are denoted in the previous Section 2.3. In the following, we will show that $\lambda Q^{\prime}=\hat{\phi}^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$ which leads to $\lambda Q=\hat{\phi}(Q)$.

Write $Q^{\prime}=\left(x_{Q^{\prime}}, y_{Q^{\prime}}\right)$. Then $Q=\psi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)=\left(D x_{Q^{\prime}}, D^{\frac{3}{2}} y_{Q^{\prime}}\right)$. If $\lambda Q^{\prime}=\phi^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$, we deduce

$$
\lambda Q=\lambda\left(\psi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)\right)=\psi\left(\lambda Q^{\prime}\right)=\psi\left(\phi^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left(\beta D x_{Q^{\prime}}, D^{\frac{3}{2}} y_{Q^{\prime}}\right)=\phi(Q)
$$

Note that $E_{1}[r]=\left\{P \in E_{1}\left(\overline{\mathbb{F}_{p}}\right) \mid r P=\mathcal{O}\right\}$ can be viewed as a two-dimensional vector space. It is not hard to see that $\{P, Q\}$ is a basis for $E_{1}[r]$. According to $\phi(P)=\lambda P$ and $\phi(Q)=\lambda Q$, it is immediate that $\phi(S)=\lambda S$ for every point $S \in E_{1}[r]$, a contradiction to Lemma 1. Therefore, we have $\lambda Q^{\prime}=\hat{\phi}^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$. It follows that

$$
\lambda Q=\lambda\left(\psi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)\right)=\psi\left(\lambda Q^{\prime}\right)=\psi\left(\hat{\phi}^{\prime}\left(Q^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left(\beta^{2} D x_{Q^{\prime}}, D^{\frac{3}{2}} y_{Q^{\prime}}\right)=\hat{\phi}(Q)
$$

This completes the proof of Lemma 2.

Lemma 3. For $i \in \mathbb{Z}$, the function $F(P, Q)=\frac{f_{i, P}(i Q)}{f_{i, Q}(i P)}$ satisfies

$$
\left(\frac{f_{i, P}(i Q)}{f_{i, Q}(i P)}\right)^{p-1}=\left(\frac{f_{i, P}(Q)}{f_{i, Q}(P)}\right)^{i(p-1)}
$$

Proof. To prove the assertion, it suffices to show that

$$
\left(f_{i, P}(i Q) f_{i, P}(Q)^{-i}\right)^{p-1}=\left(f_{i, Q}(i P) f_{i, Q}(P)^{-i}\right)^{p-1}
$$

Let $t$ be a $\mathbb{F}_{p}$-rational local parameter for $\mathcal{O}$. Assume that $(t) \cap P=\varnothing$. Thus the
 Since $f_{i, P}$ is a $\mathbb{F}_{p}$-rational function, it follows that $f_{i, P}\left((i-1)(\mathcal{O})+\left(\frac{1}{t^{i-1}}\right)\right)^{p-1}=1$ by Fermat's Little Theorem (or Lemma 1 in [8]). Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(f_{i, P}(i Q) f_{i, P}(Q)^{-i}\right)^{p-1} & =\left(f_{i, P}(i Q) f_{i, P}(Q)^{-i} f_{i, P}\left((i-1)(\mathcal{O})+\left(\frac{1}{t^{i-1}}\right)\right)\right)^{p-1} \\
& =f_{i, P}\left(-(i(Q)-(i Q)-(i-1)(\mathcal{O}))+\left(\frac{1}{t^{i-1}}\right)\right)^{p-1} \\
& =f_{i, P}\left(\left(\frac{1}{f_{i, Q} t^{i-1}}\right)\right)^{p-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\left(f_{i, P}\right) \cap\left(\frac{1}{f_{i, Q} t^{i-1}}\right)=\varnothing$. Thanks to Weil reciprocity [9, 21], we have $f_{i, P}\left(\left(\frac{1}{f_{i, Q} t^{i-1}}\right)\right)=f_{i, Q} t^{i-1}\left(\left(f_{i, P}\right)\right)^{-1}$ and thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(f_{i, P}(i Q) f_{i, P}(Q)^{-i}\right)^{p-1} & =\left(f_{i, Q} t^{i-1}\left(\left(f_{i, P}\right)\right)^{-1}\right)^{p-1} \\
& =\left(f_{i, Q} t^{i-1}(i(P)-(i P)-(i-1)(\mathcal{O}))^{-1}\right)^{p-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

By Theorem 1 in [4] and Theorem 2 in [8], we can discard the evaluation of the rational function at the infinity point. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(f_{i, P}(i Q) f_{i, P}(Q)^{-i}\right)^{p-1} & =\left(f_{i, Q} t^{i-1}\left(\left(f_{i, P}\right)\right)^{-1}\right)^{p-1} \\
& =\left(f_{i, Q} t^{i-1}(i(P)-(i P))^{-1}\right)^{p-1} \\
& =\left(f_{i, Q} t^{i-1}(i P) f_{i, Q} t^{i-1}(P)^{-i}\right)^{p-1} \\
& =\left(f_{i, Q}(i P) f_{i, Q}(P)^{-i}\right)^{p-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The last identity holds since $t^{i-1}(i P)^{p-1}=1$ and $t^{i-1}(P)^{p-1}=1$ using Fermat's Little Theorem. This completes the proof of Lemma 3.

Corollary 1. If $i=\lambda$ with $\lambda$ defined as above, we have

$$
\left(\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(\lambda Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(\lambda P)}\right)^{p-1}=\left(\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}\right)^{\lambda(p-1)} .
$$

Note that Corollary 1 is instrumental in the construction of the omega pairing. In light of the above discussion, one arrives then at the following proof of Theorem 1.

Proof (of Theorem 1). According to the results in [29], we have

$$
f_{a r, P}(Q)=f_{\lambda, P}(Q)^{\lambda+1} \cdot f_{\lambda, P}(\hat{\phi}(Q)) \cdot l_{\phi(P), \hat{\phi}(P)}(Q)
$$

By using the same argument for $f_{a r, Q}(P)$, we obtain

$$
f_{a r, Q}(P)=f_{\lambda, Q}(P)^{\lambda+1} \cdot f_{\lambda, Q}(\phi(P)) \cdot l_{\phi(Q), \hat{\phi}(Q)}(P)
$$

It is not hard to see that $l_{\phi(Q), \hat{\phi}(Q)}(P)=-\left(l_{\phi(P), \hat{\phi}(P)}(Q)\right)$. Altogether,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{e_{r}}(P, Q)^{a} & =\left(\frac{f_{a r, P}(Q)}{f_{a r, Q}(P)}\right)^{d}-1 \\
& =\left(\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(Q)^{\lambda+1} \cdot f_{\lambda, P}(\hat{\phi}(Q)) \cdot l_{\phi(P), \hat{\phi}(P)}(Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)^{\lambda+1} \cdot f_{\lambda, Q}(\phi(P)) \cdot l_{\phi(Q), \hat{\phi}(Q)}(P)}\right)^{p-1} \\
& =\left(\left(\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}\right)^{\lambda+1} \cdot \frac{f_{\lambda, P}(\hat{\phi}(Q))}{f_{\lambda, Q}(\phi(P))}\right)^{p-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\hat{\phi}(Q)=\lambda Q$ and $\phi(P)=\lambda P$, we obtain

$$
\hat{e_{r}}(P, Q)^{a}=\left(\left(\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}\right)^{\lambda+1} \cdot \frac{f_{\lambda, P}(\hat{\phi}(Q))}{f_{\lambda, Q}(\phi(P))}\right)^{p-1}=\left(\left(\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}\right)^{\lambda+1} \cdot \frac{f_{\lambda, P}(\lambda Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(\lambda P)}\right)^{p-1} .
$$

By Corollary 1, we have

$$
\hat{e_{r}}(P, Q)^{a}=\left(\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}\right)^{(2 \lambda+1)(p-1)}
$$

Let $M \equiv(2 \lambda+1)^{-1}(\bmod r)$. Since a fixed power of the pairing keeps bilinearity [31], it follows that

$$
\omega(P, Q)=\hat{e_{r}}(P, Q)^{a M}=\left(\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}\right)^{p-1}
$$

does define a new pairing. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.
Using the similar analysis, the omega pairing can be generalized on the elliptic curve like $E_{2}$. Let $p$ be a prime such that $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, and $E_{2}$ an ordinary elliptic curve over $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ with equation: $E_{2}: y^{2}=x^{3}+A x$. Consider a large prime $r$ such that $r \mid \# E_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. Assume that $E_{2}$ has the the embedding degree $k=2$
with respect to $r$. The quadratic twist $E_{2}^{\prime}$ is given by the equation $E_{2}^{\prime}: y^{2}=$ $x^{3}+A / D^{2} x$, where $D$ is a quadratic non-residue in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$. Suppose that $r^{2} \nmid \# E_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ and $r^{2} \nmid \# E_{2}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. Let $P \in E_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)[r]$ and $Q^{\prime} \in E_{2}^{\prime}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)[r]$. An isomorphism is given by $\psi: E_{2}^{\prime} \rightarrow E_{2},(x, y) \rightarrow\left(D x, D^{\frac{3}{2}} y\right)$. Write $Q=\psi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)$. Assume that $\alpha$ be an element of order four in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$. Two automorphisms $\phi$ and $\hat{\phi}$ of $E_{2}$ are given by $\phi: E_{2} \rightarrow E_{2},(x, y) \rightarrow(-x, \alpha y)$ and $\hat{\phi}: E_{2} \rightarrow E_{2},(x, y) \rightarrow(-x,-\alpha y)$ respectively. Let $\lambda$ be the root of the equation $x^{2}+1=0(\bmod r)$ such that $\lambda P=\phi(P)$ and $\lambda Q=\hat{\phi}(Q)$. Then we have the following results.

Theorem 2. For the points $P$ and $Q$ in $E_{2}[r]$ in the above, the function $\omega(P, Q)=$ $\left(\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}\right)^{p-1}$ defines a bilinear pairing.

Proof. This follows immediately from the proof of Theorem 1.
The number of the Miller iteration loops for computing the omega pairing is determined by the bit length of $\lambda$, which is possibly half that of $r$. Note that computing the omega pairing requires the simple final exponentiation. These lead to a significant improvement over the previous techniques. By Theorem 1 and 2, we establish a modified Miller's algorithm for computing the omega pairing in Algorithm 1.

We give some useful remarks which have been discussed in [12,25] in the implementations. Write $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}=\mathbb{F}_{p}(i)$ with $i \in \mathbb{F}_{p^{2}} \backslash \mathbb{F}_{p}$ and $i^{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{p}$. Let $\nu=a+b i$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{p}$. Then the conjugate of $\nu$ can be given by $\bar{\nu}=\overline{a+b i}=a-b i$. Note that $\frac{1}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}$ can be replaced by its conjugate $\overline{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}$ according to the observations in [26]. A second useful remark is that one can share the same Miller variable $f$ when computing $\frac{f_{\lambda, P}(Q)}{f_{\lambda, Q}(P)}$. Finally, we can employ Montgomery's trick to compute scalar multiplications of $P$ and $Q^{\prime}$ in affine coordinate systems.

## 4 Efficiency Comparison

Now the performance of the proposed algorithm is considered in this section. We neglect the cost of field additions and subtractions, as well as the cost of multiplication by small constants. The computation cost of one multiplication and one inverse in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ can be denoted as $M$ and $I$, respectively. We also count one square as one multiplication in $\mathbb{F}_{p}$. If $i^{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{p}$ is very small, one square and one multiplication in $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$ is equal to $2 M$ and $3 M$ respectively. We will implement pairing computations on the pairing-friendly curve with embedding degree $k=2$

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Algorithm 1 Computation of \(\omega(P, Q)\)
Input: \(\lambda=\sum_{i=0}^{n} l_{i} 2^{i}\), where \(l_{i} \in\{0,1\} . P \in E_{1}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)[r]\) and \(Q^{\prime} \in E_{1}^{\prime}\left(F_{p}\right)[r] . Q=\)
    \(\psi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)\).
    Output: \(\omega(P, Q)\)
    1. \(T \leftarrow P, T^{\prime} \leftarrow Q^{\prime}, f \leftarrow 1\),
    2. for \(i=n-1, n-2, \cdots, 1,0\) do
        \(2.1 f \leftarrow f^{2} \cdot l_{T, T}(Q) \cdot \overline{l_{\psi\left(T^{\prime}\right), \psi\left(T^{\prime}\right)}(P)}, T \leftarrow 2 T, T^{\prime} \leftarrow 2 T^{\prime}\)
        2.2 if \(l_{i}=1\) then
        \(2.3 f \leftarrow f \cdot l_{T, P}(Q) \cdot \overline{l_{\psi\left(T^{\prime}\right), \psi\left(Q^{\prime}\right)}(P)}, T \leftarrow T+P, T^{\prime} \leftarrow T^{\prime}+Q^{\prime}\)
    3. return \(f^{p-1}\)
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given by Scott in [24]. Note that we can choose the suitable $\lambda$ which has low Hamming weight on this family of pairing-friendly curves [24, 28].

If affine coordinates are employed, one point doubling requires $1 I+4 M$ and one point addition requires $1 I+3 M$ in $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ respectively [15]. We first consider the cost of Line 2.1 in Algorithm 2. Computing directly $2 T$ and $2 T^{\prime}$ requires $2 I+$ $8 M$. However, due to Montgomery's trick, computing the two point doublings reduces to $1 I+11 M$. Two line evaluations require $2 M$. The remainder of Line 2.1 requires $1 S_{2}+2 M_{2}=2 M+6 M=8 M$ for computing one square and two multiplications in $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$. Thus Line 2.1 in one iteration loop needs $21 M+1 I$. Since $\lambda=2^{80}+2^{16}$ in [24], the total contribution from Line 2.1 is $(21 M+1 I) \cdot 80=$ $1680 M+80 I$. It is not difficult to show that the total contribution from Line 2.3 is $1 I+17 M$. By now, we cost $(1680 M+17 M)+81 I=1697 M+81 I$. The exponentiation $(p-1)$ requires $5 M+1 I$ since the Frobenius map can be used here. Thus the total cost for Algorithm 2 in affine coordinate systems is $1702 M+82 I$.

If Jacobian projective coordinates are employed, one point doubling requires $8 M$ and one point addition requires $11 M$ in $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ respectively [15]. Computing $l_{T, T}(Q)$ requires $4 M$ provided that the operation $T \leftarrow 2 T$ has been computed [6]. We can see that the cost of computing $2 T^{\prime}$ and $\left.\overline{l_{\psi\left(T^{\prime}\right), \psi\left(T^{\prime}\right)}(P)}\right)$ is 12 M in a similar way. Also, computing $f^{2} \cdot l_{T, T}(Q) \cdot \overline{l_{\psi\left(T^{\prime}\right), \psi\left(T^{\prime}\right)}(P)}$ requires $8 M$. Thus the cost of Line 2.1 is $24 M+8 M=32 M$. In the whole iteration, we need $80 \cdot 32 M=$ $2560 M$ for the part of point doubling and line evaluation. the total cost of point addition and line evaluation requires $34 M$. Thus the total cost for Algorithm 2 in projective coordinate systems is $2560 M+34 M+5 M+1 I=2599 M+1 I$.

Using the similar analysis, the cost for Algorithm 4 in [24] can be also given in different coordinate systems. The cost of computing the omega pairing and the proposed pairing in [24] is summarized in Table 1. We implement the computation of the omega pairing and the previous fastest pairing using Magma online demo [5]. Experimental results indicate that the omega pairing is about $22 \%$ faster and $19 \%$ faster than the previous fastest pairing in affine coordinate systems and projective coordinate systems, respectively.

Table 1. Efficiency Comparison of the Computations of the Different Pairings

|  | Pairings | Operation | $\mathbf{1 I}=\mathbf{3 0 M} 1 I=10 M$ | Time |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Affine | Proposed pairing in $[24]$ | $2162 M+82 I$ | $4622 M$ | $2982 M$ | 7.2 ms |
|  | $\omega(P, Q)$ | $1702 M+82 I$ | $4162 M$ | $2522 M$ | 5.9 ms |
| Projective Proposed pairing in $[24]$ | $2817 M+1 I$ | $2847 M$ | $2827 M$ | 7.9 ms |  |
|  | $\omega(P, Q)$ | $2599 M+1 I$ | $2629 M$ | $2609 M$ | 6.6 ms |

## Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the referee for his helpful suggestions. We also thank Steven Galbraith, Mike Scott, and Chaoping Xing for their comments on an early draft of this manuscript.

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[^0]:    * This work was supported by Guangdong provincial Starting Foundation for Doctors of China(Grant No. 9451009101003191), the National Natural Science Foundation of Guangdong Province of China (Grant No. 8151007101000021), the National Natural Science Foundation of China under Grants No. 10926153 and No. 60773202, and the National Grand Fundamental Research 973 Program of China under Grant No. 2006CB303104.

