

Fast Subgroup Membership Testings for \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T on Pairing-friendly Curves

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Abstract

Pairing-based cryptographic protocols are typically vulnerable to small-subgroup attacks in the absence of protective measures. To thwart them, one of feasible measures is to execute subgroup membership testings, which are generally considered expensive. Recently, Scott proposed an efficient method of subgroup membership testings for \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T on the BLS family. In this paper, we generalize this method proposed by Scott and show that the new technique is applicable to a large class of pairing-friendly curves. In addition, we also confirm that the new method leads to a significant speedup for membership testings on many popular pairing-friendly curves.

Keywords: Small-subgroup attacks, Group membership testings, Pairing-friendly curves.

1 Introduction

Ever since the identity-based encryption was proposed by Boneh and Franklin [1], pairings have found various interesting applications in the area of public key cryptography [2–4]. Given an ordinary curve E defined over a prime field \mathbb{F}_p , a pairing on E is a bilinear map of the form $e : \mathbb{G}_1 \times \mathbb{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_T$, where \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T are three cyclic subgroups with large prime order r . In the asymmetric case, the input groups \mathbb{G}_1 and \mathbb{G}_2 are distinct subgroups of $E(\mathbb{F}_{p^k})$,

while \mathbb{G}_T is a subgroup of $\mathbb{F}_{p^k}^*$. The integer k is referred to as the embedding degree of E with respect to r . The security of pairing-based protocols rely on the difficulty of solving Discrete Logarithm Problems (DLP) in the above three subgroups [5–7]. However, since the running environment of a cryptographic protocol is possibly untrustworthy, powerful attackers may force the system to offer a point with small order. It leads to potential risks of secret key exposures under small-subgroup attacks [8, 9]. Specially, we assume a pairing-based protocol is designed for using the group \mathbb{G} ($\mathbb{G} \in \{\mathbb{G}_1, \mathbb{G}_2\}$) to perform group operation, where \mathbb{G} is contained in a large group \mathcal{G} with order $h \cdot r$. If h has a non-trivial small prime factor n and P is an element with order n in the group \mathcal{G} , attacks may force the protocol to use P for the public parameter. Since solving the DLP in $\langle P \rangle$ is easy, a signer performs group operation in $\langle P \rangle$ would leak partial information of his secret key. In the worst cases, the cofactor h could provide enough small primes such that attacks can recover the full information of the secret key by using the Pohlig-Hellman algorithm [10]. It should be noted that small-subgroup attacks can be also mounted on \mathbb{G}_T [11, 12]. One of methods to minimize the chances of such attacks is to increase the size of parameters such that the cofactor h has no prime factor smaller than r [9]. If so, we call \mathbb{G} is *subgroup secure*. However, according to the construction of pairing-friendly curves, it is hard for \mathbb{G}_1 to reach subgroup secure in most cases. In order to completely eliminate the hidden dangers, clearing cofactors and subgroup membership testings are the two feasible approaches until now.

1.1 Clearing cofactors

Clearing cofactors aim to multiply input elements by the cofactor h to force it into the target subgroup. In the case of \mathbb{G}_1 , the cofactor h is small on many popular pairing-friendly curves. Thus the cofactor can be cleared at a cheap cost. Recently, fast cofactor multiplication for \mathbb{G}_1 was proposed in [13], which may further reduce the computational cost. In the case of \mathbb{G}_2 , the cofactor h is typically large. In this situation, the cofactor multiplication can be accelerated using the techniques from [14, 15]. Even though this method can defense small-subgroup attacks, it also cause another problems. As pointed in [16], implementors must determine which points to execute “clearing cofactors” on. Moreover, cofactor multiplication also changed system parameters. This would lead to additional troubles for implementors [17].

1.2 Subgroup membership testing

The negative effects of clearing cofactors can be avoided by performing subgroup membership testings. The essence of this method is to raise a candidate element to the power of r and compare the result with the identity element. Since r is a large prime, this operation is quite costly and consequently affect the performance of pairing-based cryptographic protocols. Recently, novel methods of subgroup membership testings for \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T on

the Barreto-Lynn-Scott (BLS) family were proposed by Scott [17], achieving the same effect as scalar multiplication/exponentiation by r , but more efficient. Housni *et al.* [13] showed these methods were also suitable for the Barreto-Naehrig (BN) family.

1.3 Our contributions

Motivated by the work of Scott [17], we propose more general membership testing methods. We show that the new techniques are suitable for a large class of ordinary pairing-friendly curves. To be precise, we summarize our contributions as follows.

- The previous method of the \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing [17] works under the condition that $\gcd(h_1, h_2) = 1$, where h_1 and h_2 are cofactors of \mathbb{G}_1 and \mathbb{G}_2 , respectively. In this paper, we propose a new \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing method that do not rely on the above condition. Moreover, we show that the time complexity of the proposed method would be in $O(\log r/\varphi(k))$ on many pairing-friendly curves. It is particularly interesting to see that the time complexity can be further reduced to $O(\log r/(2\varphi(k)))$ on some certain curves.
- Fast methods of \mathbb{G}_1 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings are also proposed. The time complexity of these methods would be in $O(\log r/2)$ and $O(\log r/\varphi(k))$, respectively. It should be noted that the method of the \mathbb{G}_1 membership testing is only suitable for ordinary curves with j -invariant 0 or 1728.
- Finally, we implement the proposed algorithms over different pairing-friendly curves on a 64-bit computing platform within the RELIC cryptographic library [18]. In particular, compared to the previous leading work, we obtained approximately 105.1% and 87.3% speedup for \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings on the BN-P446 curve, respectively.

Outlines of this paper. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides a brief necessary background on pairing subgroups, endomorphisms of elliptic curves and small-subgroup attacks on pairing-friendly curves. Section 3 describes efficient membership testing method of \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing. After that, membership testing methods of \mathbb{G}_1 and \mathbb{G}_T are discussed in Section 4. Two examples of applications of our methods are given in Section 5. In Section 6, we present efficiency comparisons between our methods and the previous work in the literature. The conclusion is given in Section 7.

2 Background

In this section, we first recall elementary definitions of pairing subgroups \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T . After that, we briefly introduce efficiently computable endomorphisms on ordinary elliptic curves. Finally, we discuss small-subgroup attacks on several popular pairing-friendly curves.

2.1 Pairing subgroups

Let E be an ordinary elliptic curve defined over a prime field \mathbb{F}_p and \mathcal{O}_E denote the identity point of E . Let r be a large prime with $r \parallel \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$. The embedding degree k of E with respect to r is the smallest positive integer such that $r \mid \Phi_k(p)$, where $\Phi_k(\cdot)$ is the k -th cyclotomic polynomial. When $k > 1$, the group $E[r]$ is contained in $E(\mathbb{F}_{p^k})$ [19]. The p -power Frobenius endomorphism $\pi : (x, y) \rightarrow (x^p, y^p)$ on E satisfies the characteristic equation

$$\pi^2 - t \cdot \pi + p = 0, \quad (1)$$

where the trace $t = p + 1 - \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Define $\mathbb{G}_1 = E[r] \cap \text{Ker}(\pi - [1]) = E(\mathbb{F}_p)[r]$, $\mathbb{G}_2 = E[r] \cap \text{Ker}(\pi - [p])$ and $\mathbb{G}_T \subseteq \mathbb{F}_{p^k}^*$ to be the subgroup of r -th roots of unity. Denote by d the order of the automorphism group of E . If $d \mid k$, then E admits a twist E' over \mathbb{F}_{p^e} , where $e = k/d$. Write ϕ as the twisting isomorphism from E' to E . Then $E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})[r]$ is the preimage of \mathbb{G}_2 under the map ϕ [20]. Therefore, it is convenient to represent \mathbb{G}_2 as $E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})[r]$. The definitions of \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T give rise to the following naive method of subgroup membership testings:

- (1) $P \in \mathbb{G}_1 \Leftrightarrow P \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ and $[r]P = \mathcal{O}_E$;
- (2) $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2 = E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})[r] \Leftrightarrow Q \in E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})$ and $[r]Q = \mathcal{O}_{E'}$;
- (3) $\alpha \in \mathbb{G}_T \Leftrightarrow \alpha^r = 1$.

Following Enge and Milan [21], we call E as a **curve with the lack of twists** if the \mathbb{G}_2 subgroup can be only represented $E[r] \cap \text{Ker}(\pi - [p])$. Considering $E[r] \cap \text{Ker}(\pi - [p]) = E[r] \cap \text{Ker}(\Phi_k(\pi))$ under the condition that $r \nmid \Phi_k(1)$ [22], membership testing for \mathbb{G}_2 on such type of curves can be accomplished by checking that

$$Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_{p^k}), [r]Q = \mathcal{O}_E \text{ and } \Phi_k(\pi)(Q) = \mathcal{O}_E.$$

In total, membership testing for each subgroup requires at least one scalar multiplication/exponentiation by r . Since r is a large prime, the naive method is extremely slow in practice.

2.2 Endomorphisms of ordinary elliptic curves

Consider an ordinary curve E_1 over \mathbb{F}_p with j -invariant 0. Then curve is defined by the equation $y^2 = x^3 + b$ for some $b \in \mathbb{F}_p$ and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ [23, Proposition 4.33]. Consequently, there is an endomorphism $\tau : (x, y) \rightarrow (\omega \cdot x, y)$ on E_1 , where ω is a primitive cube root of unity in \mathbb{F}_p . This endomorphism corresponds to a scalar multiplication by λ_1 (resp. λ_2) in \mathbb{G}_1 and (resp. \mathbb{G}_2), where λ_1 and λ_2 are two distinct roots of the equation $\lambda^2 + \lambda + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{r}$. Likewise, given an ordinary curve E_2 over \mathbb{F}_p with j -invariant 1728, the curve is defined by the equation $y^2 = x^3 + ax$ for some $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ and $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. There is the

endomorphism $\tau : (x, y) \rightarrow (-x, i \cdot y)$ on E_2 , where i is a primitive fourth root of unity in \mathbb{F}_p . This efficiently computable endomorphism is equivalent to a scalar multiplications by λ_1 (resp. λ_2) in \mathbb{G}_1 (resp. \mathbb{G}_2), where λ_1 and λ_2 are two distinct roots of the equation $\lambda^2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{r}$. Using the Gallant-Lambert-Vanstone (GLV) method [24], these efficiently computable endomorphisms allow fast elliptic curve scalar multiplication. Throughout the paper, we call such efficiently computable endomorphisms as GLV endomorphisms.

Another well known efficiently computable endomorphism is $\psi = \phi^{-1} \circ \pi \circ \phi$ on E' [25], which satisfies the characteristic equation

$$\psi^2 - t \cdot \psi + p = 0. \quad (2)$$

It is clear that $\psi^i = \phi^{-1} \circ \pi^i \circ \phi$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. This means that the order of ψ is precisely k restricted in $E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^k})$. Note that

$$\pi \circ \phi(Q) = [p]\phi(Q) \quad (3)$$

for all $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2 = E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})[r]$. Acting the map ϕ^{-1} on both sides of Eq.(3), it yields that

$$\psi(Q) = \phi^{-1} \circ \pi \circ \phi(Q) = \phi^{-1} \circ [p]\phi(Q) = [p]Q = [t - 1]Q. \quad (4)$$

Galbraith and Scott [25] observed that this endomorphism was exploited to speed up scalar multiplication in \mathbb{G}_2 . Furthermore, it also leads to a high dimensional GLV method on a large class of elliptic curves [26]. Fast implementation of this method on ordinary curves with j -invariant 0 was studied in [27].

2.3 Small-subgroup attacks on pairing-friendly curves

The pairing subgroups \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T are typically contained in larger groups \mathcal{G}_1 , \mathcal{G}_2 and \mathcal{G}_T , respectively. Following Barreto *et al.* [9], the groups \mathcal{G}_1 , \mathcal{G}_2 and \mathcal{G}_T are defined as follows:

$$\mathbb{G}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{G}_1 = E(\mathbb{F}_p), \quad \mathbb{G}_2 \subseteq \mathcal{G}_2 = E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e}), \quad \mathbb{G}_T \subseteq \mathcal{G}_T = \mathbb{G}_{\Phi_k(p)},$$

where $\mathbb{G}_{\Phi_k(p)}$ is the cyclotomic subgroups in $\mathbb{F}_{p^k}^*$. If E is a curve with the lack of twists, we define \mathcal{G}_2 as

$$\mathbb{G}_2 \subseteq \mathcal{G}_2 = \text{Ker}(\Phi_k(\pi)).$$

Explicit formula for computing $\#\text{Ker}(\Phi_k(\pi))$ is given in [22, Proposition 2]. On this basis, the associated cofactors h_1 , h_2 and h_T are defined as follows:

$$h_1 = \#\mathcal{G}_1/r, \quad h_2 = \#\mathcal{G}_2/r, \quad h_T = \#\mathcal{G}_T/r.$$

Table 1 Subgroup security of pairing-friendly curves at the 128-bit security level. The symbol c_m denotes a composite number of size m bits. The BW family is derived from Construction 6.6 in [31].

k	family	$\log p$	$\log r$	seed z	h_1	h_2	h_T
12	BN	446	446	$2^{110} + 2^{36} + 1$ [32]	1	$13c_{610}$	c_{1336}
12	BLS	461	308	$-2^{77} + 2^{50} + 2^{33}$ [32]	c_{153}	$c_{25} \cdot c_{442}$	$c_{39} \cdot c_{1495}$
16	KSS	330	257	$-2^{34} + 2^{27} - 2^{33} + 2^{20} - 2^{11} + 1$ [32]	c_{75}	$c_{93} \cdot c_{1052}$	$34 \cdot c_{2379}$
18	KSS	348	256	$2^{44} + 2^{22} - 2^9 + 2$ [32]	c_{93}	$c_{78} \cdot c_{710}$	$c_{131} \cdot c_{1595}$
13	BW	310	267	-2224 [33]	c_{43}	$c_{83} \cdot c_{3368}$	$c_{126} \cdot c_{3368}$
19	BW	286	259	-145 [33]	c_{28}	$c_{50} \cdot c_{4861}$	$c_{41} \cdot c_{5101}$

Note that group membership testings for \mathcal{G}_i are easy, where $i \in \{1, 2, T\}$. Thus, according to the principle of small-subgroup attacks, a curve E could be subgroup secure if the relevant cofactors h_1 , h_2 and h_T contain no prime factors smaller than r . In Table I, we list several popular pairing-friendly curves at the 128-bit security level under the attacks of Number Field Sieve and its variants [28, 29]. These curves can be parameterized by polynomials $p(z)$, $r(z)$ and $t(z)$ given a seed z . The small factors of h_2 and h_T can be obtained using the ECM function in Magma [30]. It can be seen from Table 1 that small-subgroup attacks can be easily mounted on cryptographic protocols constructed on these curves. Note that we are unable to obtain a small factor of the cofactor h_T (c_{1336}) of BN-P446. But it is not recommended for skipping the \mathbb{G}_T membership testing on the curve as the cofactor is composite.

3 \mathbb{G}_2 Membership Testing

For efficiency, most of pairing-based protocols are instantiated with pairing-friendly curves admitting a twist. Recently, a few curves with the lack of twists also find their own applications on the cryptographic protocols that the implementation efficiency of one party mainly relies on fast computation in \mathbb{G}_1 . For example, Clarisse *et al.* [34] found that the BW13-P310 and BW19-P286 curves are suitable for several cryptographic schemes, such as Enhanced Privacy ID [35] and Direct Anonymous Attestation [36]. In this section, we investigate the problem of \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing on both types of curves.

3.1 Pairing-friendly curves admitting a twist

For a curve E admitting a twist E' over \mathbb{F}_{p^e} , Scott [17] proved that

$$Q \in \mathbb{G}_2 = E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})[r] \Leftrightarrow Q \in E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e}) \text{ and } \psi(Q) = [t-1]Q$$

under the condition that $\gcd(h_1, h_2) = 1$. The computational cost is of approximately one scalar multiplication by $t-1$. Apparently, this method is more efficient than the naive one. When we check a candidate element of \mathbb{G}_2 using the above technique, it should be careful to select the formulas of elliptic curves

multiplications. For example, the technique of fast elliptic curves multiplication proposed in [25] can not be applied as it only works for elements in \mathbb{G}_2 .

In this subsection, we propose a more general method with time complexity $O(\log r/\varphi(k))$ on many pairing-friendly curves. Moreover, the new method do not rely on the condition that $\gcd(h_1, h_2) = 1$ and thus has a wide applicability.

Theorem 1 *Let E be an ordinary elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_p , t the trace of the Frobenius endomorphism π , and r a large prime with $r \parallel \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Let $\phi : E' \rightarrow E$ be the twisting isomorphism, where E' is defined over \mathbb{F}_{p^e} . Define $\psi = \phi^{-1} \circ \pi \circ \phi$ with $\psi^2 - t \cdot \psi + p = 0$. Let $\eta = \sum_{i=0}^s c_i \cdot p^i$ be a multiple of r and $f(\psi) = \sum_{i=0}^s c_i \psi^i$. Let $b_0 + b_1 \psi$ be the remainder of $f(\psi)$ on division by $\psi^2 - t\psi + p$, i.e.,*

$$b_0 + b_1 \psi = f(\psi) \bmod (\psi^2 - t \cdot \psi + p). \quad (5)$$

Assume

$$\gcd(b_0^2 + b_0 \cdot b_1 \cdot t + b_1^2 \cdot p, \#E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})) = r. \quad (6)$$

Given a non-identity point $Q \in E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})$, then $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2 = E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})[r]$ if and only if $f(\psi)(Q) = \mathcal{O}_{E'}$.

Proof If $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$, then $\psi(Q) = [p]Q$ (see Eq. (4)) and thus we conclude that

$$f(\psi)(Q) = \sum_{i=0}^s [c_i] \psi^i(Q) = \sum_{i=0}^s [c_i \cdot p^i] Q = [\eta] Q = \mathcal{O}_{E'}.$$

Conversely, it follows from Eq. (2) that

$$\psi^2(Q) - [t]\psi(Q) + [p]Q = \mathcal{O}_{E'}. \quad (7)$$

If $f(\psi)(Q) = \mathcal{O}_{E'}$, Eqs. (5) and (7) imply that

$$[b_1]\psi(Q) = -[b_0]Q. \quad (8)$$

Together with Eqs. (7) and (8), it yields that

$$\begin{aligned} & [b_0^2 + b_0 \cdot b_1 \cdot t + b_1^2 \cdot p] Q \\ &= [b_1^2] \psi^2(Q) - [b_1^2 \cdot t] \psi(Q) + [b_1^2 \cdot p] Q \\ &= \mathcal{O}_{E'}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\gcd(b_0^2 + b_0 \cdot b_1 \cdot t + b_1^2 \cdot p, \#E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})) = r$, we conclude that $Q \in E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})[r]$, which completes the proof. \square

We use C to denote the vector $[c_0, c_1 \cdots, c_s]$, where c_i is given in Theorem 1. One may naturally ask whether there is a such vector C meeting the constraint (6). In fact, we can always select C as $[r, 0, \cdots, 0]$, which implies that $b_0 = r$ and $b_1 = 0$. Since \mathbb{G}_2 is the unique subgroup of $E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})$ of order r [20, Section 5], we clearly have $\gcd(b_0^2 + b_0 \cdot b_1 \cdot t + b_1^2 \cdot p, \#E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})) = r$. We observe that this vector corresponds to the schoolbook method, which is inefficient in practical applications.

In order to reduce the computational cost of \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing, we expect that the size of $n = \max\{|c_0|, \dots, |c_s|\}$ in bits is as small as possible. By the definition of the embedding degree k , we know that $r \mid \Phi_k(p)$. It is natural to take $\eta = \Phi_k(p)$, which means that $n = 1$ in many cases. Therefore, given a candidate element Q which is claimed to be a member of \mathbb{G}_2 , the verifier only needs to check that $\Phi_k(\psi)(Q) = \mathcal{O}_{E'}$. Unfortunately, we verified this equality actually holds for all points in $E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e})$ on most of popular pairing-friendly curves, such as the BN, BLS and KSS families. Hence, the verifier can not distinguish between valid elements and invalid ones. Fuentes *et al.* [37, Section 6.5] pointed out that MNT [38] and Freeman [39] curves do not satisfy the above equality in general. However, it seems still infeasible in this situation. Indeed, our experimental results show that the values $\gcd(b_0^2 + b_0 \cdot b_1 \cdot t + b_1^2 \cdot p, \#E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^e}))$ are not equal to r on these two families of curves if we take $\eta = \Phi_k(p)$.

In practice, we fortunately find that the vector C can be selected as the same as the Miller iteration parameters of optimal pairings [40] on many popular pairing-friendly curves, which indicates that the bit length of n is about $\log r / \varphi(k)$.

3.2 Pairing-friendly curves with the lack of twists

Let E be an ordinary curve with the lack of twists. Recall from Section 2.1 that

$$Q \in \mathbb{G}_2 = E[r] \cap \text{Ker}(\pi - [p]) \Leftrightarrow Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_{p^k}), Q \in E[r] \text{ and } Q \in \mathcal{G}_2,$$

where $\mathcal{G}_2 = \text{Ker}(\Phi_k(\pi))$. Since checking $Q \in \mathcal{G}_2$ only requires a few point additions and applications of the endomorphism π , the computational cost of the testing is actually dominated by checking $Q \in E[r]$. It is interesting to observe that Theorem 1 can be generalized to accomplish this checking by substituting the endomorphism ψ by π . We summarize the observation in the following corollary.

Corollary 1 Let E be an elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_p with the lack of twists, and other notations as in Theorem 1. Assume that $b_0, b_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ with

$$\gcd(b_0^2 + b_0 \cdot b_1 \cdot t + b_1^2 \cdot p, \#\mathbb{G}_2) = r. \quad (9)$$

Given a non-identity point Q of $E(\mathbb{F}_{p^k})$, then $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$ if and only if $f(\pi)(Q) = \mathcal{O}_E$ and $Q \in \mathcal{G}_2$.

Proof The necessity is obvious and we now prove the sufficiency. Similar to the proof in Theorem 1, the condition $f(\pi)(Q) = \mathcal{O}_E$ and Eq. (9) indicate that $Q \in E[r]$. Furthermore, since $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$ and $E[r] \cap \mathcal{G}_2 = \mathbb{G}_2$, we conclude that $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$, which completes the proof. \square

Corollary 1 induces an efficient method of \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing on pairing-friendly curves with the lack of twists. Likewise, the complexity of

the method is about $O(\log r/\varphi(k))$. In the following, we further optimize the \mathbb{G}_2 testing efficiency on the class of curves with j -invariant 0 or 1728. The new method works under a mild condition. Our general understanding of the construction of this method comes mostly from the following theorem.

Theorem 2 *Let E be an ordinary elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_p with the lack of twists, and j -invariant 0 or 1728. Let r be a large prime with $r \parallel \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$, t the trace of the Frobenius π on E , and k the embedding degree with respect to r . Let τ be a GLV endomorphism on E with order d , and act as multiplication by an integer λ in \mathbb{G}_2 . Assume $i, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying the following conditions:*

$$\begin{cases} d \cdot i \cdot m - n \cdot k = 1, \\ \gcd(b^{2d \cdot m} - t \cdot b^{d \cdot m} + p, \#G_2) = r, \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

where $b = (t-1)^i \cdot \lambda^{-1} \bmod r$. Given a non-identity point $Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_{p^k})$, then $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$ if and only if $\pi^i(Q) = [b]\tau(Q)$ and $Q \in \mathcal{G}_2$.

Proof If $Q \in \mathbb{G}_2$, it is obvious that $Q \in \mathcal{G}_2$ as $\mathbb{G}_2 \subset \mathcal{G}_2$. Furthermore, since $\tau(Q) = [\lambda]Q$ and $\pi(Q) = [t-1]Q$ we have

$$\pi^i(Q) = [(t-1)^i \bmod r]Q = [b \cdot \lambda]Q = [b]\tau(Q).$$

Conversely, if $\pi^i(Q) = [b]\tau(Q)$ we get

$$\pi^{d \cdot i}(Q) = [b^d]\tau^d(Q) = [b^d]Q,$$

which implies that

$$\pi(Q) = \pi^{1+n \cdot k}(Q) = \pi^{d \cdot m \cdot i}(Q) = [b^{d \cdot m}]Q. \quad (11)$$

Furthermore, it follows from Eq. (1) that

$$\pi^2(Q) - [t]\pi(Q) + [p]Q = \mathcal{O}_E. \quad (12)$$

Putting Eqs. (11) and (12) together, it yields that

$$[b^{2d \cdot m} - t \cdot b^{d \cdot m} + p]Q = \mathcal{O}_E. \quad (13)$$

On the other hand, since $Q \in \mathcal{G}_2$, Eq. (13) indicates that the order of Q divides $\gcd(b^{2d \cdot m} - t \cdot b^{d \cdot m} + p, \#G_2) = r$. Thus, we conclude that $Q \in E[r] \cap \mathcal{G}_2 = \mathbb{G}_2$, which completes the proof. \square

In Theorem 2, the values m and n can be calculated by the extended Euclidean algorithm once the value i is fixed. To minimize computational cost, we expect that the bit length of b is as small as possible. Since $t-1$ is a primitive k -th root of unity modulo r , the optimal parameter b can be obtained by exhausting $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k-1\}$ subjected to the constraint (10). We fortunately find that Theorem 2 induces a fast \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing method on the BW13-P310 and BW19-P286 curves. It is interesting to observe that the time complexity is further reduced to $O(\log r/(2\varphi(k)))$. We will give the details in Section 5.

4 \mathbb{G}_1 and \mathbb{G}_T Membership Testings

In this section, we investigate the problems of membership testings for \mathbb{G}_1 and \mathbb{G}_T .

4.1 The \mathbb{G}_1 case

If E is a curve in the BN or BLS family, it is confirmed that [13, 17]

$$P \in \mathbb{G}_1 = E(\mathbb{F}_p)[r] \Leftrightarrow P \in E(\mathbb{F}_p) \text{ and } \tau(P) = [\lambda]P,$$

where λ is one of the roots of the equation $x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{r}$. The new technique significantly reduce the computational cost compared to the naive one. In this subsection, we generalize this method to all ordinary curves with j -invariant 0 or 1728.

Theorem 3 *Let E be an ordinary elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_p with j -invariant 0 or 1728, and r a large prime with $r \parallel \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Let τ be a GLV endomorphism on E , and act as multiplication by an integer λ in \mathbb{G}_1 . Let $a_0, a_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a_0 + a_1\lambda \equiv 0 \pmod{r}$. Assume*

$$\begin{cases} \gcd(a_0^2 - a_0 \cdot a_1 + a_1^2, \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)) = r, \text{ if } j(E) = 0, \\ \gcd(a_0^2 + a_1^2, \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)) = r, \text{ if } j(E) = 1728. \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

Given a non-identity point P of $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$, then $P \in \mathbb{G}_1$ if and only if $[a_0]P + [a_1]\tau(P) = \mathcal{O}_E$.

Proof We only give the proof for the case $j(E) = 0$ as the other case is analogous. If $P \in \mathbb{G}_1$, then the order of P is r and $\tau(P) = [\lambda]P$. Since $a_0 + a_1 \cdot \lambda \equiv 0 \pmod{r}$ we have

$$[a_0]P + [a_1]\tau(P) = [a_0 + a_1 \cdot \lambda]P = \mathcal{O}_E.$$

Conversely, since $\tau^2 + \tau + 1 = 0$ we get

$$[a_1^2]\tau^2(P) + [a_1^2]\tau(P) + [a_1^2]P = \mathcal{O}_E. \quad (15)$$

If $[a_0]P + [a_1]\tau(P) = \mathcal{O}_E$, we obtain from Eq. (15) that

$$[a_0^2 - a_0 \cdot a_1 + a_1^2]P = \mathcal{O}_E.$$

Since $\gcd(a_0^2 - a_0 \cdot a_1 + a_1^2, \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)) = r$, we conclude that $P \in \mathbb{G}_1$, which completes the proof. \square

Analogous to \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing, there always exist a_0 and a_1 satisfying the constraint (14). Generally, the bit length of $\max\{|a_0|, |a_1|\}$ is of about $\log r/2$. Based on the analysis above, our method may be a better choice than the method of clearing cofactor even in efficiency if the ratio between $\log h_1$ and $\log r$ is no less than 0.5. For example, on curves with embedding degrees 6 and 8 constructed by Guillevic *et al.* [41], the cofactors h_1 are even larger than r . In this situation our method is clearly a winner.

4.2 The \mathbb{G}_T case

Scott [17] proposed an efficient \mathbb{G}_T membership testing method under the condition that $\gcd(h_1, h_T) = r$, which is tailored to the BN and BLS families. In particular, let α be a candidate element which is claimed to be a member of \mathbb{G}_T . The verifier requires to check whether $\alpha \in \mathbb{G}_{\Phi_k(p)}$ and $\alpha^{p+1} = \alpha^t$. Since Frobenius map can be computed efficiently, the computational cost is dominated by one exponentiation by t . Inspired by the technique of \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing on pairing-friendly curves admitting a twist, we propose an efficient method for \mathbb{G}_T membership testing.

Proposition 4 *Let η be a multiple of r and write η in the basis of p as $\eta = \sum_{i=0}^s c_i \cdot p^i$. Assume $\alpha \neq 1$ be an element of $\mathbb{F}_{p^k}^*$ and $\gcd(\eta, \Phi_k(p)) = r$. Then $\alpha \in \mathbb{G}_T$ if and only if*

$$\alpha^{\Phi_k(p)} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha^\eta = 1.$$

Proof Since $r \mid \Phi_k(p)$ and $r \mid \eta$, the necessity is straightforward. Conversely, if $\alpha^{\Phi_k(p)} = 1$ and $\alpha^\eta = 1$ then the order of α divides $\gcd(\eta, \Phi_k(p))$. Since $\gcd(\eta, \Phi_k(p)) = r$ and $\alpha \neq 1$, it is clear that the order of α is precisely r and thus $\alpha \in \mathbb{G}_T$, which completes the proof. \square

As stated in Section III, there always exists a vector $C = [c_0, c_1, \dots, c_s]$ such that $\gcd(\eta, \Phi_k(p)) = r$. Therefore, the overhead of the testing mainly requires an exponentiation by $n = \max\{c_0, c_1, \dots, c_s\}$. Moreover, once the candidate element α is proved to be a member of $\mathbb{G}_{\Phi_k(p)}$, the fixed exponentiation by n can be further optimized by techniques of fast cyclotomic squaring [42, 43] in the case that the embedding degree k is divided by 6.

5 Applications

Sections 3 and 4 present efficient methods of \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings. In this section, we investigate how to apply these techniques to different pairing-friendly curves in detail. To this aim, we first provide the Magma code to search target coefficient vectors that ensure the associated computational costs are as small as possible. The code is available in <https://github.com/eccdaiy39/smt-magma/tree/main/vector>. The related datas are collected in Table 2. On this basis, we take the BN-P446, KSS16-P330 and BW13-P310 curves as examples to further illustrate the main mechanics of the proposed techniques.

Table 2 Parameters of the membership testings on a list of pairing-friendly curves at the 128-bit security level. For the BW13-P310 and BW19-P286 curves, the vectors C in the column of \mathbb{G}_2 are denoted by $[i, m, b]$, where the parameters i , m and b are defined in Theorem 2. For the KSS16-P330 curve, the vectors C for \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings are presented in Section 5.2.

Curve	$[a_0, a_1]$	$C(\mathbb{G}_2)$	$C(\mathbb{G}_T)$
BN-P446	—	$[z + 1, z, z, -2z]$	$[z + 1, z, z, -2z]$
BLS12-P461	$[z^2, 1]$	$[z, -1, 0, 0]$	$[z, -1, 0, 0]$
KSS16-P330	$[(31z^4 + 625)/8750, -(17z^4 + 625)/8750]$	—	—
KSS18-P348	$[(z/7)^3, -18a_0 - 1]$	$[2z/7, 1, 0, z/7, 0, 0]$	$[2z/7, 1, 0, z/7, 0, 0]$
BW13-P310	$[-(z^7 + z)(z^4 + z^3 - z - 1), a_0 \cdot z - 1]$	$[1, 9, -z]$	$[z^2, -z, 1, 0, \dots, 0]$
BW19-P286	$[(z - z^{10})(z^6 - z^3 + 1)(z + 1), a_0 \cdot z - 1]$	$[1, 13, -z]$	$[z^2, -z, 1, 0, \dots, 0]$

5.1 BN-P446

The BN family is parameterized by

$$\begin{cases} r(z) = 36z^4 + 36z^3 + 18z^2 + 6z + 1, \\ t(z) = 6z^2 + 1, \\ p(z) = 36z^4 + 36z^3 + 24z^2 + 6z + 1. \end{cases}$$

The seed z is recommended as $z = 2^{110} + 2^{36} + 1$ [33] to achieve the 128-bit security level. Let $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ and $E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^2})$ define the BN curve and its sextic twist, respectively. Note that the \mathbb{G}_1 membership testing is not necessary as $h_1 = 1$ on the curve. For both \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings the coefficient vectors are taken as $[z + 1, z, z, -2z]$. Let Q be a point that purports to be an element of \mathbb{G}_2 . By Theorem 1, the point Q is valid if and only if

$$\begin{cases} Q \in E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^2}), \\ [z + 1]Q + \psi([z]Q) + \psi^2([z]Q) = \psi^3([2z]Q). \end{cases}$$

In total, it approximately requires one scalar multiplication by z , three point additions, one point doubling and three applications of the endomorphism ψ .

Likewise, by Proposition 1, a candidate element $\alpha \in \mathbb{G}_T$ if and only if

$$\begin{cases} a \cdot \alpha^{p^4} = \alpha^{p^2}, \\ \alpha^{z+1} \cdot (\alpha^z)^p \cdot (\alpha^z)^{p^2} = (\alpha^{2z})^{p^3}. \end{cases}$$

Thus, this membership testing requires one exponentiation by z , four field multiplications, one field squaring and five applications of the endomorphism π .

Remark 1 The previous leading works of \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings on the BN family were proposed in [11, 13]. To be precise, both of the two computational costs are of approximately one multiplication/exponentiation by $6z^2$. Clearly, our method is more efficient as compared to the previous one. See Section 6 for details.

Remark 2 We fortunately find that the vector $C = [z + 1, z, z, -2z]$ is suitable for both \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings on other curves in the family, such as BN-254, BN-256 and BN-381. But it does not mean that the short vector is independent of the seed z . Indeed, for such a vector the associated parameters b_0 and b_1 are given as

$$\begin{aligned} b_0 &= -216z^7 - 216z^6 - 144z^5 - 36z^4 - 6z^3 + 2z, \\ b_1 &= -36z^4 - 18z^3 - 6z^2 + 1. \end{aligned}$$

Let h_2 and h'_2 denote $\#E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^2})/r$ and $(b_0^2 + b_0 \cdot b_1 \cdot t + b_1^2 \cdot p)/r$, respectively. Then we obtain that

$$\begin{aligned} h_2 &= 36z^4 + 30z^3 + 30z^2 + 6z + 1, \\ h'_2 &= 1296z^{10} + 2592z^9 + 3024z^8 + 2160z^7 + 1044z^6 \\ &\quad + 252z^5 - 60z^4 - 66z^3 - 14z^2 + 2z + 1. \end{aligned}$$

As shown in Theorem 1, the short vector is desired for \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing if and only $\gcd(h_2, h'_2) = 1$. However, the condition does not always hold. For example, taking $z = 564$ we find that $\gcd(h_2, h'_2) = 3061$.

5.2 KSS16-P330

The KSS16 family is parameterized by

$$\begin{cases} r(z) = \frac{z^8 + 48z^4 + 625}{61250}, \\ t(z) = \frac{2z^5 + 41z + 35}{35}, \\ p(z) = \frac{z^{10} + 2z^9 + 5z^8 + 48z^6 + 152z^5 + 240z^4 + 625z^2 + 2398z + 3125}{980}. \end{cases}$$

Following the recommendation in [32] at the 128 bit security level, we take $z = -2^{34} + 2^{27} - 2^{23} + 2^{20} - 2^{11} + 1$. In the following, we use $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ and $E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^4})$ to denote the KSS16 curve and its quartic twist, respectively.

5.2.1 the \mathbb{G}_1 case

For the \mathbb{G}_1 membership testing, the parameters a_0 and a_1 are given as

$$\begin{cases} a_0 = (31z^4 + 625)/8750, \\ a_1 = -(17z^4 + 625)/8750. \end{cases}$$

Let $a'_0 = 17a_0$ and $a'_1 = 17a_1$. Since $-17a_0 - 31a_1 = 1$ and $\gcd(a_0'^2 + a_1'^2, \#E(\mathbb{F}_p)) = r$, we substitute the values a_0 and a_1 by a'_0 and a'_1 , respectively. As a consequence, given a point Q that is claimed to be a member of \mathbb{G}_1 , the associated membership testing can be accomplished by checking that

$$\begin{cases} Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_p), \\ \tau([17a_1]Q) - [31a_1]Q = Q. \end{cases}$$

Given the point $R = [a_1]Q$, we then obtain $[17]R$ and $[31]R$ by performing the following calculations:

$$R \rightarrow [2]R \rightarrow [4]R \rightarrow [8]R \rightarrow [16]R \rightarrow [17]R \rightarrow [32]R \rightarrow [31]R.$$

In conclusion, the \mathbb{G}_1 membership testing approximately requires one scalar multiplication by a_1 , five point doublings, three point additions and one application of the endomorphism τ .

5.2.2 the \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T cases

We check that $\gcd(h_1, h_2) = \gcd(h_1, h_T) = 4$. Thus the Scott method for \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings is not suitable for the curve. Let $u = (-z-25)/70$. For both \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings, the coefficient vectors are taken as $[c_0, c_1, \dots, c_7]$, where

$$\begin{aligned} c_6 &= u, c_2 = c_3 = 3c_6 + 1, c_1 = -3c_2, c_5 = 2c_2 + c_6 + 1, \\ c_4 &= -2c_5 + c_6 + 1, c_0 = c_7 = 2c_6 - c_1 + 1. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

Let Q be a point which is claimed to be a member of \mathbb{G}_2 on the curve. By Theorem 1, the point Q is valid if and only if

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Q \in E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^4}), \\ \sum_{i=0}^6 \psi^i([c_i]Q) = -\psi([c_7]Q), \end{array} \right. \quad (17)$$

which approximately requires 1 scalar multiplication by u , 3 point doublings, 14 point additions and 7 applications of the endomorphism ψ . Here we omit the details of the \mathbb{G}_T membership testing as it is similar.

5.3 BW13-P310

The methods of the membership testing for \mathbb{G}_1 and \mathbb{G}_T have no difference between pairing-friendly curves admitting a twist and with the lack of twists. For brevity, we only discuss the membership testing for \mathbb{G}_2 on the BW13-P310 curve. From Construction 6.6 in [31], a family of curves with $k = 13$ and j -invariant 0 can be parameterized by:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} r(z) = \Phi_{78}(z), \\ t(z) = -z^{14} + z + 1, \\ p(z) = \frac{1}{3}(z+1)^2(z^{26} - z^{13} + 1) - z^{27}. \end{array} \right.$$

In order to reach the 128-bit security level, the seed z is recommended as $z = -2224$ [33]. The curve is defined by the equation $y^2 = x^3 - 17$. By the

form of the polynomial $r(z)$, we can see that

$$z^{26} - z^{13} + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{r}.$$

Thus, there exists a GLV endomorphisms τ with eigenvalue $\lambda = z^{13} - 1$ restricted in \mathbb{G}_2 . Let notations i , m and b be defined as in Theorem 2. Taking $i = 1$, we have $b = -z$, $m = 9$ and $\gcd(b^{6 \cdot m} - t \cdot b^{3 \cdot m} + p, \#\mathcal{G}_2) = r$, where $\#\mathcal{G}_2 = \#E(\mathbb{F}_{p^{13}})/\#E(\mathbb{F}_p)$. By Theorem 2, the \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing requires to check that

$$\begin{cases} Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_{p^{13}}), \\ \pi(Q) = [-z]\tau(Q), \\ \sum_{i=1}^{12} \pi^i(Q) = -Q. \end{cases}$$

The point $\sum_{i=1}^{12} \pi^i(Q)$ can be calculated by using the following formulas:

$$\begin{aligned} R_1 &= \pi(Q) + \pi^2(Q), R_2 = \pi^2(R_1), R_3 = R_1 + R_2, \\ R_4 &= \pi^4(R_3), R_5 = \pi^4(R_4), \sum_{i=1}^{12} \pi^i(Q) = R_3 + R_4 + R_5. \end{aligned}$$

Neglecting the cost of checking $Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_{p^{13}})$, it totally costs 1 scalar multiplication by z , 4 point additions, 5 applications of the endomorphism π and 1 application of the endomorphism τ .

Remark 3 For the \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing on BW13-P310, the computational cost largely comes from one scalar multiplication by the seed z . It is interesting to see that $\log|z| \approx \log r / (2\varphi(k))$.

6 Implementation Results

Magma implementation for subgroup membership testings on pairing-friendly curves listed in Table 2 was provided in <https://github.com/eccdaiy39/smt-magma/tree/main/test>. It can be seen as a reference even though performs poorly. In order to accurately evaluate the performance of the new subgroup membership testings, we also implemented the proposed techniques on the BN-P446 and BW13-P310 curves within the RELIC cryptographic library. The code is available at <https://github.com/eccdaiy39/smt>. We notice that the previous leading works [11, 13] of the \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings on the BN-P446 curve was implemented in the RELIC. In Table 3, we summarize the results of benchmarks on a 64-bit Intel Core i7-8550U@1.8GHz processor running Ubuntu 18.04.1 LTS with TurboBoost and hyper-threading features disabled. Timing results are obtained averaged over 10,000 executions. As shown in Table 3, on the BN-P446 curve the new algorithm for the \mathbb{G}_2 membership testing is about 105.1% times faster than that from [13], while

Table 3 Comparison of subgroup membership testing implementations on the BN-P446 and BW13-P310 curves. Timings results are given in clock cycles ($\times 10^3$).

Curve	Method	\mathbb{G}_1	\mathbb{G}_2	\mathbb{G}_T
BN-P446	Previous work [11, 13]	–	722	882
BN-P446	This work	–	352	471
BW13-P310	This work	293	1220	225

the \mathbb{G}_T membership testing is about 87.3% times faster than that from [11]. Applying the new techniques, we also find that subgroup membership testings on the BW13-P310 curve are efficient. As far as we know, this problem has not yet considered in the literature.

7 Conclusion

The threat of small-subgroup attacks are non-negligible in pairing-based protocols. Subgroup membership testing is a useful measure to defense such attacks. In this paper, we revisited this problem and described efficient methods of \mathbb{G}_1 , \mathbb{G}_2 and \mathbb{G}_T membership testings, which were suitable for a large class of ordinary pairing-friendly curves. Fast software implementation of subgroup membership testings was presented to further confirm the performance of the proposed algorithms. On the BN-P446 curve, our timing results are significantly faster than the previous leading work.

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