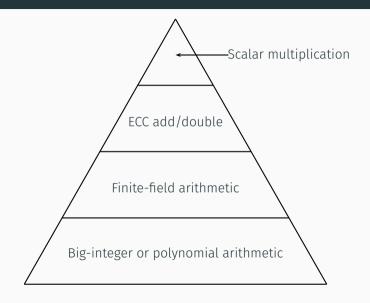
Cryptographic Engineering: ECC 3 - Scalar multiplication

Lecture 6

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The ECC pyramid



The top of the pyramid

- · Pyramid levels are not independent
- Interactions trough all levels, relevant for
 - · Correctness,
 - · Security, and
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- · Setting for this lecture (peak of the pyramid):
 - · Consider (finite, abelian) group G, written additively
 - Compute $k \cdot P$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $P \in G$
 - This is the same as x^k for x in a multiplicative group G'
 - \cdot Same algorithms for scalar multiplication and exponentiation

The ECDLP

Definition

Given two points P and Q on an elliptic curve, such that $Q \in \langle P \rangle$, find an integer k such that kP = Q.

3

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- Typical setting for cryptosystems:
 - P is a fixed system parameter,
 - k is the secret (private) key,
 - · Q is the public key.
- Key generation needs to compute Q = kP, given k and P

EC Diffie-Hellman key exchange

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- Users Alice and Bob have key pairs (k_A, Q_A) and (k_B, Q_B)
- Alice sends Q_A to Bob
- Bob sends Q_B to Alice
- Alice computes joint key as $K = k_A Q_B$
- Bob computes joint key as $K = k_B Q_A$

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$$R = rP$$

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• Verify: compute $\overline{R} = SP + H(R, M)Q_A$ and check that

$$H(\overline{R},M) \stackrel{?}{=} H(R,M)$$

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 - Schnorr signature verification needs double-scalar multiplication $k_1P_1 + k_2P_2$

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- In the following: Distinguish these cases

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- Problem: 105 has 7 bits, we need roughly 2^7 additions, *cryptographic* scalars have \approx 256 bits, we would need roughly 2^{256} additions (more expensive than solving the ECDLP!)
- · Conclusion: we need algorithms that run in polynomial time (in the size of the scalar)

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- $105 = 64 + 32 + 8 + 1 = 2^6 + 2^5 + 2^3 + 2^0$ • $105 = 1 \cdot 2^6 + 1 \cdot 2^5 + 0 \cdot 2^4 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0$ • $105 = (((((((((((((1 \cdot 2 + 1) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + 1) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + 1 \text{ (Horner's rule)}$ • $105 \cdot P = ((((((((((((P \cdot 2 + P) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + P) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + P) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + P$
- · Cost: 6 doublings, 3 additions

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\cdot 105 = (((((((((((((1.2 + 1) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + 1) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + 1) (Horner's rule)
• 105 \cdot P = (((((((((P \cdot 2 + P) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + P) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + 0) \cdot 2) + P
· Cost: 6 doublings, 3 additions
· General algorithm: "Double and add"
     R \leftarrow P
     for i \leftarrow n-2 downto 0 do
          R \leftarrow 2R
          if (k)_{2}[i] = 1 then
              R \leftarrow R + P
     return R
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- \cdot P does not need to be known in advance, no precomputation depending on P
- Handles single-scalar multiplication
- · Running time clearly depends on the scalar: insecure for secret scalars!

Double-scalar double-and-add

• Let's modify the algorithm to compute $k_1P_1 + k_2P_2$

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 - Compute k_1P_1 ($n_1 1$ doublings, $m_1 1$ additions)
 - Compute k_2P_2 (n_2-1 doublings, m_2-1 additions)
 - \cdot Add the results (1 addition)

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- We can do better (\mathcal{O} denotes the neutral element):

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R \leftarrow \mathcal{O}

for i \leftarrow \max(n_1, n_2) - 1 downto 0 do

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 $R \leftarrow R + P_1$
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• $\max(n_1, n_2)$ doublings, $m_1 + m_2$ additions

Some precomputation helps

• Whenever k_1 and k_2 have a 1 bit at the same position, we first add P_1 and then P_2 (on average for 1/4 of the bits)

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- Whenever k_1 and k_2 have a 1 bit at the same position, we first add P_1 and then P_2 (on average for 1/4 of the bits)
- Let's just precompute $T = P_1 + P_2$
- Modified algorithm (special case of Strauss' algorithm):

```
R \leftarrow \mathcal{O}
for i \leftarrow \max(n_1, n_2) - 1 downto 0 do
    R \leftarrow 2R
    if (k_1)_2[i] = 1 AND (k_2)_2[i] = 1 then
         R \leftarrow R + T
    else if (k_1)_2[i] = 1 then
         R \leftarrow R + P_1
    else if (k_2)_2[i] = 1 then
         R \leftarrow R + P_2
return R
```

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- Modified scalar-multiplication algorithm:

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• Eliminated all doublings in fixed-basepoint scalar multiplication!

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Still not constant time, more later...

Let's rewrite that a bit ...

- We have a table $T = (\mathcal{O}, P)$
- Notation $T[0] = \mathcal{O}$, T[1] = P
- Scalar multiplication is

$$R \leftarrow P$$

for $i \leftarrow n - 2$ downto 0 **do**
 $R \leftarrow 2R$
 $R \leftarrow R + T[(k)_2[i]]$

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for $i \leftarrow n-2$ downto 0 **do**
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- Disadvantage: 3 is just not nice (needs triplings)
- · How about some nice numbers, like 4, 8, 16?

Fixed-window scalar multiplication

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- This is the same as chopping the binary scalar into "windows" of fixed length w
- Compute scalar multiplication as

$$R \leftarrow T[(k)_{2^w}[m-1]]$$

for $i \leftarrow m-2$ downto 0 do
for $j \leftarrow 1$ to w do
 $R \leftarrow 2R$
 $R \leftarrow R + T[(k)_{2^w}[i]]$

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- · Larger w: More precomputation
- · Smaller w: More additions inside the loop
- For \approx 256-bit scalars choose w = 4 or w = 5

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 - Is addition running in constant time? Also for O?
 - We can make that work, but how easy and efficient it is depends on the curve shape (remember tricky cases for fast addition on Weierstrass curves)
 - · Remember that table lookups are generally not constant time!

Making it constant time

```
/* Sets r to the neutral element on the elliptic curve */
extern ec point setneutral(ec point *r):
/* Adds p and q and stores the result in r */
extern ec point add(ec point *r, const ec point *p, const ec point *q);
/* Doubles p and stores the result in r */
extern ec point double(ec point *r. const ec point *p):
/* For point P contains pre-computed multiples P, 2*P, 3*P.....255*P */
extern ec point precomputed[255]:
ec scalarmult P(unsigned char scalar[32])
  int i.j:
  ec point r:
  ec setneutral(&r):
  for(i=31:i>=0:i--)
    for(j=0:j<8:j++)
      ec point double(&r.&r):
    if(scalar[i] != 0)
      ec_point add(&r.&r.precomputed[scalar[i]-1]):
```

Making it constant time

```
/* Sets r to the neutral element on the elliptic curve */
extern ec point setneutral(ec point *r);
/* Adds p and g and stores the result in r */
extern ec point add(ec point *r. const ec point *p. const ec point *g):
/* Doubles p and stores the result in r */
extern ec_point_double(ec_point *r, const ec_point *p);
/* For point P contains pre-computed multiples 0, P, 2*P, 3*P,...,255*P */
extern ec point precomputed[256]:
ec scalarmult P(unsigned char scalar[32])
  int i,j;
  ec_point r;
  ec setneutral(&r):
  for(i=31:i>=0:i--)
    for(i=0:i<8:i++)
      ec_point_double(&r,&r);
    ec point add(&r.&r.precomputed[scalar[i]]):
```

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  ec point r.t:
  ec setneutral(&r):
  for(i=31:i>=0:i--)
    for(i=0:i<8:i++)
      ec point double(&r.&r):
    ec_point_lookup(&t,precomputed,scalar[i]);
    ec point add(&r.&r.&t):
```

ec_point_lookup

```
static void ec_point_lookup(ec_point *t, const ec_point *table, int pos)
{
  int i,j;
  unsigned char b;
  *t = table[0];
  for(i=0;i<256;i++)
  {
      b = (i == pos); // Not constant time!
      ec_point_cmov(t, Stable[i], b); // Copy table[i] to t if b is 1
  }
}</pre>
```

ec_point_lookup

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static void ec_point_lookup(ec_point *t, const ec_point *table, int pos)
{
  int i,j;
  unsigned char b;
  *t = table[0];
  for(i=0;i<256;i++)
  {
      b = int_eq(i, pos); // set b=1 if i==pos, else set b=0
      ec_point_cmov(t, &table[i], b); // Copy table[i] to t if b is 1
  }
}</pre>
```

int_eq and ec_point_cmov

```
unsigned char int eq(int a, int b)
  unsigned long long t = a ^ b;
  t = (-t) >> 63:
  return 1-t:
void ec_point_cmov(ec_point *r, const ec_point *t, unsigned char b)
  unsigned char *u = (unsigned char *)r:
  unsigned char *v = (unsigned char *)t;
  int i;
  b = -b:
  for(i=0:i<sizeof(ec point):i++)</pre>
    u[i] = (b \& v[i]) ^ (~b \& u[i]);
```

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    u[i] = (b \& v[i]) ^ (~b \& u[i]);
```

- Recent compilers may re-introduce a branch in ec_point_cmov
- One solution: move ec_point_cmov to separate file, compile without -flto

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for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $\lceil n/w \rceil - 1$ **do**

$$R \leftarrow R + T_{iw}[(k)_{2^w}[i]]$$

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- No doublings, only $\lceil n/w \rceil 1$ additions
- · Can use huge w, but:
 - · at some point the precomputed tables don't fit into cache anymore.
 - constant-time loads get slow for large w

- Consider the scalar $22 = (10110)_2$ and window size 2
 - Initialize R with P
 - · Double, double, add P
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- · Idea: "slide" the window over the scalar

- · Choose window size w
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- Precompute $P, 3P, 5P, \ldots, (2^w 1)P$
- Perform scalar multiplication

```
R \leftarrow \mathcal{O}
for i \leftarrow m to 0 do
R \leftarrow 2R
if k_i \neq 0 then
R \leftarrow R + k_i P
```

Analysis of sliding window

- We still do n-1 doublings for an n-bit scalar
- Precomputation needs $2^{w-1} 1$ additions
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- For the same w fewer additions in the main loop
- But: It's not running in constant time!
- · Still nice (in double-scalar version) for signature verification

- Consider elliptic curves of the form $By^2 = x^3 + Ax^2 + x$.
- Montgomery in 1987 showed how to perform x-coordinate-based arithmetic:
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- Less efficient differential-addition formulas for other curve shapes
- Can be used for efficient computation of the x-coordinate of kP given only the x-coordinate of P
- For this, let's use projective representation (X:Z) with x=(X/Z)

One Montgomery "ladder step"

```
const a24 = (A + 2)/4 (A from the curve equation)
function LADDERSTEP(X_{O-P}, X_P, Z_P, X_O, Z_O)
      t_1 \leftarrow X_P + Z_P
      t_6 \leftarrow t_1^2
      t_2 \leftarrow X_P - Z_P
      t_7 \leftarrow t_2^2
      t_5 \leftarrow t_6 - t_7
      t_3 \leftarrow X_0 + Z_0
      t_4 \leftarrow X_0 - Z_0
      t_8 \leftarrow t_4 \cdot t_1
      t_0 \leftarrow t_3 \cdot t_2
      X_{P+Q} \leftarrow (t_8 + t_9)^2
      Z_{P+O} \leftarrow X_{O-P} \cdot (t_8 - t_9)^2
      X_{2P} \leftarrow t_6 \cdot t_7
      Z_{2P} \leftarrow t_5 \cdot (t_7 + a_{24} \cdot t_5)
      return (X_{2P}, Z_{2P}, X_{P+O}, Z_{P+O})
```

The Montgomery ladder

```
Require: A scalar 0 \le k \in \mathbb{Z} and the x-coordinate x_P of some point P Ensure: (X_{kP}, Z_{kP}) fulfilling x_{kP} = X_{kP}/Z_{kP}
x_1 = x_P; X_2 = 1; Z_2 = 0; X_3 = x_P; Z_3 = 1
for i \leftarrow n - 1 downto 0 do
if bit i of k is 1 then
(X_3, Z_3, X_2, Z_2) \leftarrow \text{LADDERSTEP}(x_1, X_3, Z_3, X_2, Z_2)
else
(X_2, Z_2, X_3, Z_3) \leftarrow \text{LADDERSTEP}(x_1, X_2, Z_2, X_3, Z_3)
return X_2/Z_2
```

The Montgomery ladder (ctd.)

```
Require: A scalar 0 \le k \in \mathbb{Z} and the x-coordinate x_P of some point P
Ensure: (X_{hP}, Z_{hP}) fulfilling X_{hP} = X_{hP}/Z_{hP}
   X_1 = X_P; X_2 = 1; Z_2 = 0; X_3 = X_P; Z_3 = 1; D = 0
   for i \leftarrow n - 1 downto 0 do
        b \leftarrow \text{hit } i \text{ of } s
        c \leftarrow b \oplus p
        p \leftarrow b
        (X_2, X_3) \leftarrow \mathsf{CSWAP}(X_2, X_3, C)
        (Z_2, Z_3) \leftarrow \text{CSWAP}(Z_2, Z_3, c)
        (X_2, Z_2, X_3, Z_3) \leftarrow \text{LADDERSTEP}(X_1, X_2, Z_2, X_3, Z_3)
   (X_2, X_3) \leftarrow \text{CSWAP}(X_2, X_3, p)
   (Z_2, Z_3) \leftarrow \text{CSWAP}(Z_2, Z_3, p)
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- Very regular structure, easy to protect against timing attacks
 - · Replace the if statement by conditional swap
 - · Be careful with constant-time swaps
- Very fast (at least if we don't compare to curves with efficient endomorphisms)
- · Point compression/decompression is free
- Easy to implement
- · No ugly special cases (see Bernstein's "Curve25519" paper)

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- Can be very fast (but not constant-time)
- · Requires fast access to the two largest scalars: put scalars into a heap
- · Crucial for good performance: fast heap implementation

A fast heap

- · Heap is a binary tree, each parent node is larger than the two child nodes
- Data structure is stored as a simple array, positions in the array determine positions in the tree
- Root is at position 0, left child node at position 1, right child node at position 2 etc.
- For node at position i, child nodes are at position $2 \cdot i + 1$ and $2 \cdot i + 2$, parent node is at position $\lfloor (i-1)/2 \rfloor$

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- Typical heap root replacement (pop operation): start at the root, swap down for a variable amount of times
- Floyd's heap: swap down to the bottom, swap up for a variable amount of times, advantages:
 - Each swap-down step needs only one comparison (instead of two)
 - Swap-down loop is more friendly to branch predictors

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- Some applications:
 - · Inversion in finite fields (cmp. multiprecision lecture)
 - Elliptic-curve factorization method (not in this lecture)

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- $\cdot s_m = k$
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- For fixed scalar we can spend a lot of time to find a good addition chain at compile time
- This is what was used for inversion in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{255}-19}$
- · Computing good addition chains? See https://github.com/mmcloughlin/addchain

Quiz: Scalar Multiplication



https://pingo.coactum.de/994716

Q1: ECDH

In ECDH key exchange, Alice computes the shared key as $K = k_A \cdot Q_B$. What type of scalar multiplication is this?

- · A) Fixed-basepoint scalar multiplication with secret scalar
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Q2: Schnorr Signature

Schnorr signature verification computes $\overline{R} = SP + H(R, M)Q_A$, which requires two scalar multiplications. What is the nature of the two scalars S and H(R, M)?

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Q3: Double-and-add

What is the problem with the basic double-and-add algorithm when used with secret scalars?

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Q5: Fixed-basepoint precomputation

In fixed-basepoint scalar multiplication with precomputed table $P, 2P, 4P, 8P, \dots, 2^{n-1}P$, what is the cost of computing kP for an n-bit scalar k?

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Q6: Fixed-window table size

For X25519 with 256-bit scalars and 32-byte points, if we use fixed-window scalar multiplication with window size w=8, how large is the precomputed table?

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Q7: Montgomery ladder

What is the key advantage of the Montgomery ladder for scalar multiplication?

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- \cdot B) It has a very regular structure that is easy to make constant-time
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Q8: Addition chains

Which of the following is a valid addition chain for 7?

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