EIP1962 algorithms and protocols

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This document is a part of a series of specification documents for EIP 1962 and describes an implementation of arithmetic and guarantees it's consistency.

1 Finite Field Algorithms.

Main challenge for consistent arithmetic is no guarantee for primarity of modulus p. For that reason there is a check (described in ABI document) that p > 3, $p = 1 \mod 2$ that ensures that at least Montgomery form is consistent as it requires gcd(p,R) = 1 where $R = 2^{64n}$ in this implementation (Montgomery form operates on n limbs of 64 bits). Another document in a series will describe gas metering that takes numbers of 64 bit words in representation of various big integer parameters as input. This does not mean that any 3rd party implementation can not use smaller limbs (e.g. 32 bits), but it still would have to follow the gas metering spec for 64 bit words.

There are few edge cases and conventions that are decisions of the spec writers, those are described in a sections 5 and 6.

Referenced implementation performs all field arithmetic in Montgomery representation with 64 bit limbs for efficiency reasons and under assumption that miners would run a modern x64 hardware.

We also apply a convention that exponentiation is performed using left-to-right "square-and-multiply" algorithm (we do not unroll it here as it's well known and available in various sources, e.g. Handbook of Applied Cryptography).

Some algorithms described in this spec use static single assignment (SSA) form to help implementers.

return r

Montgomery Inverse

```
Input: a, p, n, where p is odd, p > a > 0, and n is the number of bits in p.
   Montgomery constant R = 2^m, m >= n. Element \bar{a} = aR (Montgomery
   form of a). First phase bound = 2m. Division by two is Euclidean division
   (bit shift)
Output: "Not relatively prime" if gcd(a, p) \neq 1 or a^{-1}2^m \mod p
   (Montgomery form of a^{-1})
   First phase
   u \leftarrow p, v \leftarrow \bar{a}, r \leftarrow 0, s \leftarrow 1
   k \leftarrow 0
   found \leftarrow false
   for i = 0; i < bound; i + + do
     if v == 0 then
         found \leftarrow true
         break
      end if
      if u \mod 2 \equiv 0 then
     \begin{array}{c} u \leftarrow \frac{u}{2}, s \leftarrow 2s \\ \textbf{else if } v \mod 2 \equiv 0 \textbf{ then} \end{array}
         v \leftarrow \frac{v}{2}, r \leftarrow 2r
      else if u > v then
         u \leftarrow \tfrac{u-v}{2}, r \leftarrow r+s, s \leftarrow 2s
         v \leftarrow \frac{v-u}{2}, s \leftarrow r+s, r \leftarrow 2r
      end if
      k \leftarrow k + 1
   end for
  if found \equiv false then
     return "Not relatively prime"
  end if
  if r \geq p then
     r \leftarrow r - p
   end if
   Second phase
  if not(n \le k \le n + m) then
      return "Not relatively prime"
   end if
  if n \le k \le m then
     r \leftarrow MontgomeryMul(r, R^2)
      k \leftarrow k + m
   end if
   t \leftarrow 2^{2m-k}
   r \leftarrow MontgomeryMul(r, t)
   r \leftarrow MontgomeryMul(r, R^2)
```

2

This algorithm takes O(log p) = O(n) steps.

Note: there is a variant of Montgomery inversion algorithm based on extended Euclidean algorithm. However, this algorithm doesn't terminate if p is not prime, although there is a deterministic estimate for number of cycles for prime p.

Reference implementation deals with extensions of degree 2 and 3 only, generated by polynomials of the form $X^k - a$, where $a \in \mathbb{F}_q$ and k is 2 (3 respectively) and a $a \in \mathbb{F}_q$ in a quadratic (cubic) non-residue in \mathbb{F}_q .

We sometimes require extensions of degree 6 and 12: these extensions are generated by composition of extension 2 and 3. "Final" steps in extension towers have fixed structure like $w^2 - v = 0$, where u is a non-residue to construct previous extension using polynomial $v^3 - u = 0$. Such constructions are most common and widely used in popular and efficient curves.

Example: F_p^{12} as extension 2 over F_p^6 , that is itself extension 3 over F_p^2 . This would require u to be a 6th power non-residue. Let's use F_p^2 element u to construct F_p^6 using polynomial $v^3 - u = 0$. During some operation in F_p^{12} we would need to perform multiplication of F_p^6 by non-residue that would generate F_p^{12} from F_p^6 . This is performed as the following: take an element in F_p^6 that is 3 over 2 and multiply by non-residue: $(c_0 + c_1v + c_2v^2)v$ with $v^3 - u = 0$ results in $(c_2u + c_0v + c_1v^2)$. Total extension tower would look like: $z^2 - \xi = 0$ where ξ is an element of F_p , $v^3 - u = 0$ where u is an element of u0 or u1.

In what follows we represent \mathbb{F}_{p^2} as $\mathbb{F}_p[u]/(u^2-\beta)$.

Algorithm 2

Field multiplication in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}

```
Input: a = a_0 + a_1 u, b = b_0 + b_1 u \in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}

Output: c = a \cdot b \in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}

v_0 \leftarrow a_0 b_0

v_1 \leftarrow a_1 b_1

c_0 \leftarrow v_0 + \beta v_1

c_1 \leftarrow (a_0 + a_1)(b_0 + b_1) - v_0 - v_1

return c = c_0 + c_1 u
```

Field squaring in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}

```
Input: a = a_0 + a_1 u \in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}

Output: c = a^2 \in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}

v_0 \leftarrow a_0 - a_1, v_3 \leftarrow a_0 - \beta a_1

v_2 \leftarrow a_0 a_1

v_0 \leftarrow v_0 v_3 + v_2

c_1 \leftarrow 2v_2

c_0 \leftarrow v_0 + \beta v_2

return c = c_0 + c_1 u
```

Algorithm 4

Inversion in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}

```
Input: a = a_0 + a_1 u \in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}

Output: c = a^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}

v_0 \leftarrow a_0^2, v_1 \leftarrow a_1^2

v_0 \leftarrow v_0 - \beta v_1

v_1 \leftarrow v_0^{-1}

c_0 \leftarrow a_0 v_1, c_1 \leftarrow -a_1 v_1

return c = c_0 + c_1 u
```

Now we are going to consider cubic extensions: $\mathbb{F}_{p^3} = \mathbb{F}_p[w]/(w^3 - \alpha)$.

Algorithm 5

Multiplication in the cubic extension \mathbb{F}_{p^3}

```
Input: a = (a_0 + a_1w + a_2w^2), b = (b_0 + b_1w + b_2w^2) \in \mathbb{F}_{p^3}

Output: c = a \cdot b \in \mathbb{F}_{p^3}

v_0 \leftarrow a_0b_0, v_1 \leftarrow a_1b_1, v_2 \leftarrow a_2b_2

c_0 \leftarrow ((a_1 + a_2)(b_1 + b_2) - v_1 - v_2)\alpha + v_0

c_1 \leftarrow (a_0 + a_1)(b_0 + b_1) - v_0 - v_1 - \alpha v_2

c_2 \leftarrow (a_0 + a_2)(b_0 + b_2) - v_0 - v_2 + v_1

return c = (c_0 + c_1w + c_2w^2)
```

Squaring in cubic extension \mathbb{F}_{p^3}

```
Input: a = (a_0 + a_1w + a_2w^2) \in \mathbb{F}_{p^3}

Output: c = a^2 \in \mathbb{F}_{p^3}

v_0 \leftarrow a_0^2

v_1 \leftarrow a_1^2

v_2 \leftarrow a_2^2

c_0 \leftarrow ((a_1 + a_2)^2 - v_1 - v_2)\alpha + v_0

c_1 \leftarrow (a_0 + a_1)^2 - v_0 - v_1 - \alpha v_2

c_2 \leftarrow (a_0 + a_2)^2 - v_0 - v_2 + v_1

return c = (c_0 + c_1w + c_2w^2)
```

Algorithm 7

Inversion in cubic extension \mathbb{F}_{p^3}

```
Input: a = (a_0 + a_1w + a_2w^2) \in \mathbb{F}_{p^3}

Output: c = a^{-1} \in \mathbb{F}_{p^3}

v_0 \leftarrow a_0^2

v_1 \leftarrow a_1^2

v_2 \leftarrow a_2^2

v_3 \leftarrow a_0a_1

v_4 \leftarrow a_0a_2

v_5 \leftarrow a_1a_2

A \leftarrow v_0 - \alpha v_5

B \leftarrow \alpha v_2 - v_3

C \leftarrow v_1 - v_4

v_6 \leftarrow a_0A + \alpha a_2B + \alpha a_1C

F \leftarrow 1/v_6

c_0 \leftarrow AF

c_1 \leftarrow BF

c_2 \leftarrow CF

return c = (c_0 + c_1w + c_2w^2)
```

2 Elliptic Curve Algorithms.

In what follows we assume that our curve $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ is given in short Weierstrass form: $Y^2 = X^3 + aX + b$. All input and output points provided by the interface are represented in affine coordinates. However, internally reference implementation operate on points given in Jacobian coordinates. For point of infinity in affine coordinates refer to section 5. Point of infinity in Jacobian coordinates has z = 0.

This specification only supports curves with $b \neq 0$ to avoid point (0,0)being on a curve.

We also apply a convention that point multiplication is performed using left-to-right "double-and-add" algorithm (we do not unroll it here as it's well known and available in various sources, e.g. Handbook of Applied Cryptography).

Algorithm 8

Point addition in Jacobian coordinates

```
Input: two points F = (X_1, Y_1, Z_1) and G = (X_2, Y_2, Z_2) \in E(\mathbb{F}_q) repre-
   sented in Jacobian coordinates.
Output: H = F + G \in E(\mathbb{F}_q) in Jacobian coordinates.
   U_1 \leftarrow X_1 \cdot Z_2^2
  U_2 \leftarrow X_2 \cdot Z_1^2
S_1 \leftarrow Y_1 \cdot Z_2^3
   S_2 \leftarrow Y_2 \cdot Z_1^{\tilde{3}}
   if U_1 == U_2 then
      if S_1 \neq S_2 then
          return POINT_AT_INFINITY
          return POINT_DOUBLE(X_1, Y_1, Z_1)
      end if
   end if
   H \leftarrow U_2 - U_1
   \begin{split} R \leftarrow S_2 - S_1 \\ X_3 \leftarrow R^2 - H^3 - 2 \cdot U_1 \cdot H^2 \end{split}
   Y_3 \leftarrow R * (U_1 * H^2 - X_3) - S_1 * H^3
   Z_3 \leftarrow H * Z_1 * Z_2
   return (X_3, Y_3, Z_3)
```

Point doubling in Jacobian coordinates

```
Input: point P = (X, Y, Z) \in E(\mathbb{F}_q) given in Jacobian coordinates.

Output: Q = 2P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q) represented in Jacobian coordinates.

if Y == 0 then

return POINT_AT_INFINITY

end if
S \leftarrow 4 \cdot X \cdot Y^2
M \leftarrow 3 \cdot X^2 + a \cdot Z^4
X' \leftarrow M^2 - 2 \cdot S
Y' \leftarrow M \cdot (S - X') - 8 \cdot Y^4
Z' \leftarrow 2 \cdot Y \cdot Z
return (X', Y', Z')
```

Algorithm 10

Conversion to Jacobain coordinates

Input: point P = (X, Y) given in affine coordinates.

Output: representation (X', Y', Z') of P in Jacobian coordinates.

$$X' \leftarrow X$$

 $Y' \leftarrow Y$
 $Z' \leftarrow 1$
return (X', Y', Z')

Algorithm 11

Conversion from Jacobian coordinates

Input: point P = (X, Y, Z) given in Jacobian coordinates. **Output:** representation (X', Y') of P in affine coordinates. $X' \leftarrow X/Z^2$

 $Y' \leftarrow Y/Z^3$ return (X', Y')

Remark. In the last algorithm we need to invert element Z in field \mathbb{F}_q . As parameters of this field are supplied by user it is possible for Z to have no inverse. We treat this case separately and simply return a point at infinity (see section 5).

3 Point Multiexponentiation

Given a vector of points $(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n) \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ and a vector of corresponding degrees $(p_1, p_2, ..., p_n)$ the multiexponentiation task is to compute

the product $X_1^{p_1}X_2^{p_2}\dots X_n^{p_n}$. Reference implementation accomplish this task with the divide-and-conquer style Pippenger algorithm.

Algorithm 12

Pippenger algorithm

```
Input: vector of Points \mathbb{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \in E(\mathbb{F}_q) and vector of powers
  \mathbb{P} = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n) \in \mathbb{Z}, n - the upper bound of all elements of \mathbb{P}, c - bit-
  length of one chunk. For simplicity we assume that n is divisible by c (if
   this is not the case, we may slightly enlarge n to satisfy this condition).
Output: multiexponentiation: X_1^{p_1} \dots X_n^{p_n}
   sum \leftarrow \text{POINT\_AT\_INFINITY}
  for i n/c - 1 to 0 do
     make 2^c - 1 buckets and initialize them with POINT_AT_INFINITY
     (that's equivalent of zero). We call the constructed set of buckets \mathbb{B}
     and index them from 1 to 2^c - 1 - there is no bucket for "zero".
     for X, p in ZIP(X, P) do
       idx \leftarrow (p >> 2^i c)\% 2^c
        if idx \neq 0 then
          \mathbb{B}[idx] + = X
        end if
     end for
     temp \leftarrow \text{POINT\_AT\_INFINITY}
     for j in 2^c - 1 to 1 do
        temp \leftarrow temp + \mathbb{B}[j]
     end for
     sum = 2^c * sum + temp
  end for
  return sum
```

4 Pairing of elliptic curves

4.1 Overview

We describe Ate's pairing for a generic curve in short Weierstrass form.

Remark In preceding algorithm we assumed that embedding degree k is even. This is done for simplification of algorithm (odd k will require additional computations in Miller loop.) The reference implementation deals only with even embedding degree curves.

Tate's pairing

```
Input: r \in \mathbb{N} - odd prime, \mathbb{G}_1 - subgroup of order r in E(\mathbb{F}_q). k > 1 -
   is even embedding degree of E(\mathbb{F}_q) corresponding to r, \mathbb{G}_2 - subgroup of
  order r in E[r] \cap Ker(\pi_q - qId)(\mathbb{G}_2 \subset E(\mathbb{F}_{q^k}, n - number of points in
   E(\mathbb{F}_q), T=q-n, Point P \in \mathbb{G}_1 and point Q \in \mathbb{G}_2.
Output: reduced Ate pairing of Q and P \in \mathbb{F}_r^*
   Miller loop
  compute binary decomposition of T: T = \sum_{i=0}^I b_i 2^i
   T \leftarrow Q
   f \leftarrow 1
   for i in I-1 to 0 do
      \alpha \leftarrow (3x_T^2 + a)/(2yT)x_{2T} \leftarrow \alpha^2 - 2X_T
      y_{2T} \leftarrow -y_T - \alpha(x_{2T} - x_T) compute line function
      f \leftarrow f^2(y_P - y_T - \alpha(X_P - X_T))
      T \leftarrow 2T
      if b_i = 1 then
         \alpha \leftarrow \frac{y_T - y_Q}{x_T - x_Q}
x_{T+Q} \leftarrow \alpha^2 - X_T - X_Q
         y_{T+Q} = -y_T - \alpha(x_{T+Q} - x_T) compute line function
         f \leftarrow f(y_P - y_T - \alpha(x_P - x_T))
         T \leftarrow T + Q
      end if
   end for
   f = f(x_P - x_T)
   Final exponentiation
  return f^{\frac{q^k-1}{r}}
```

4.2 Final exponentiation

. Usually we have: $log_2(r) \approx log_2(p)$, so that power of final exponentiation is $(k-1)log_2(p)$ -bits long. This means that final exponentiation is time exhaustive operation, so different methods are used to reduce its' computational cost. The main observation is that computing Frobenius morphism (p-th power in \mathbb{F}_{p^k}) is a rather cheap operation, so the trick is to find a suitable p-adic representation of exponent. Another useful fact is that p^k-1 is divisible by $\Phi_k(p)$ and $\Phi_k(p)$ is divisible by r where $\Phi_k(x)$ - is k-th cyclotomic polynomial. Hence:

$$\frac{p^k - 1}{r} = \frac{p^k - 1}{\Phi_k(p)} \cdot \frac{\Phi_k(p)}{r}.$$

The first multiplier is called the easy part and the second multiplier is called the hard part of the final exponentiation.

MNT-4 curves Easy part: $\frac{p^4-1}{\Phi_k(p)} = \frac{p^4-1}{p^2+1} = p^2 - 1$ Hard part: $\frac{p^2+1}{r} = w_1p + w_0$, where w_0 is chosen so that $|w_o| < p/2$.

MNT-6 curves Easy part: $\frac{p^6-1}{p^2-p+1} = (p^3-1)(p+1)$ Hard part: $\frac{p^2-p+1}{r} = w_1p + w_0$, where w_0 is chosen so that $w_0 < p/2$.

BN-curves Easy part: $\frac{p^1 - 1}{p^4 - p^2 + 1} = (p^6 - 1)(p^2 + 1)$

Algorithm 14

Final exponentiation for BN-curves

Input: $f \in \mathbb{F}_{p^12}, x \in \mathbb{Z}$ - parameter used to generate BN-curve Output: $z = f^{\frac{\Phi_12(p)}{r}}$

1:	$a = f^x$	15:	$t_1 = f^4$
2:	$b = a^2$	16:	$a = a \cdot t_1$
3:	$a = b \cdot f^2$	17:	$t_0 = t_0^2$
4:	$a = a^2$	18:	$b = b \cdot t_0$
5:	$a = a \cdot b$	19:	$t_0 = b^x$
6:	$a = a \cdot f$	20:	$t_1 = t_0^2$
7:	$a = a^{-1}$	21:	$t_0 = t_1^2$
8:	$b = a^p$	22:	$t_0 = t_0 \cdot t_1$
9:	$b = a \cdot b$	23:	$t_0 = t_0^x$
10:	$a = a \cdot b$	24:	$t_0 = t_0 \cdot b$
11:	$t_0 = f^p$		$a = t_0 \cdot a$
12:	$t_1 = t_0 \cdot f$	26:	$t_0 = f^{p^3}$
13:	$t_1 = t_1^9$	27:	$z = t_0 \cdot a$
14:	$a = t_1 \cdot a$	28:	return z

BLS curves Easy part: $\frac{p^1 - 1}{p^4 - p^2 + 1} = (p^6 - 1)(p^2 + 1)$

Algorithm 15

Final exponentiation for BLS-curves

Input: $f \in \mathbb{F}_{p^1 2}, x \in \mathbb{Z}$ - parameter used to generate BLS-curve

Output: $z = f^{\frac{\Phi_1 2(p)}{r}}$

1: $t_0 = f^2$ 13: $e = t_0 \cdot a$ 2: $t_0 = t_0^{-1}$ 14: $e = e^{p^2}$ 3: $a = f^x$ 15: $d = d \cdot e$ 4: $b = a^2$ 16: $t_0 = t_0^x$ 5: $c = a \cdot t_0$ 17: $t_0 = t_0 \cdot b$ 6: $d = c^{-1}$ 18: $e = f^{-1}$ 7: $d = d \cdot f$ 19: $e = e \cdot t_0$ 8: $t_0 = c^x$ 20: $e = e^p$ 9: $e = t_0 \cdot f$ 21: $d = d \cdot e$ 10: $e = e^{p^3}$ 22: $e = t_0^x$ 11: $d = d \cdot e$ 23: $z = d \cdot e$ 12: $t_0 = t_0^x$ 24: return z

Remark: The output of the easy part of final exponentiation will always be *unitary*, i.e. of the form $u^n + a_{n-1}u^{n-1} + a_{n-2}u^{n-2} + \cdots + a_0$. This also provides additional speedup for finite field arithmetic.

4.3 Twists

Another sort of optimizations comes from the use of twisted curves. \mathbb{G}_2 group is isomorphic to particular subgroup of points on the curve $E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^{\frac{k}{d}}})$, where d is the degree of twist. Let $\phi: E'(\mathbb{F}_{p^{\frac{k}{d}}}) \mapsto E(\mathbb{F}_{p^k})$ be this isomorphism. The addition law on E' remains the same, but the number of \mathbb{F}_p elements required to represent x and y coordinates is smaller. In "twisted" version of Ate pairing all double-and-add steps of Miller loop are carried over the point $\phi^{-1}(T)$ on the twisted curve and we return back to E (via ϕ) only for line function computations.

Here are the formulas for twisted curves and morphisms ϕ for all families of curves used in reference implementation.

MNT-4 and MNT-6 curves: Here we have quadratic twist (d = 2): If $E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ then $E': y^2 = x^3 + a\nu^2x + b\nu^3$, where $\nu \in \mathbb{F}_{p^{\frac{k}{d}}}$ such that $\sqrt{\nu} \notin \mathbb{F}_{p^{\frac{k}{d}}}$ and $\sqrt{\nu} \in \mathbb{F}_{p^k}$

$$\phi: E' \mapsto E \quad (x,y) \to (\frac{x}{\nu}, \frac{y}{\nu\sqrt{\nu}})$$

BN-curves and BLS-curves: Here we have setic twist (d = 6). Possible twists are classified in two types, which are called D-type and M-type respectively. Let $E: y^2 = x^3 + b$ (a is always zero for BN and BLS curves), and let $s \in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$ be such that $X^6 - s$ is irreducible over $\mathbb{F}_{p^2}[X]$ and let $z \in \mathbb{F}_{p^{12}}$ be its' root (so that $z^6 = s$)

D-type twist:
$$E': y^2 = x^3 + b/s$$
 and $\phi: (x, y) \to (x \cdot z^2, y \cdot z^3)$
M-type twist: $E': y^2 = x^3 + bs$ and $\phi: (x, y) \to (xs^{-1}z^4, ys^{-1}z^3)$

5 Conventions

The only convention applied in this specification is that "point at infinity" is encoded in affine coordinates as x = 0, y = 0. This is legitimate due to the fact that only elliptic curves in a Weierstrass form with $b \neq 0$ are supported. Such encoding is applied when both parsing the input and encoding the output of any operation.

6 Error propagation

This section describes edge cases. There are only two of them.

6.1 No inverse element in F_p or its' extensions everywhere but when performing Jacobian into affine coordinates conversion

This can happen in Miller loop evaluation in pairings. In this case absence of inversion is propagated to the level of API call and API call MUST return error.

6.2 No inverse element in F_p or extensions when performing Jacobian into affine coordinates conversion

In this case "point of infinity" is returned following section 5.