

# Elliptic-curve cryptography

## Scalar multiplication, and timing attacks

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2MMC10 – Cryptology

## Double-and-add method

How to compute  $aP$ ?

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a = 44444 # our super secret scalar. No, not that one.
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$i = 0$ : bit is 1;  $R = 10P$ ;  $R = 10P + P = 11P$ .

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Password recovery if server compares letter by letter:

Try AAA,

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Password is CRYPTOLOGY.

1974: Exploit developed by Alan Bell for TENEX operating system.



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Compute  $aP$  given  $a$  and  $P$ .

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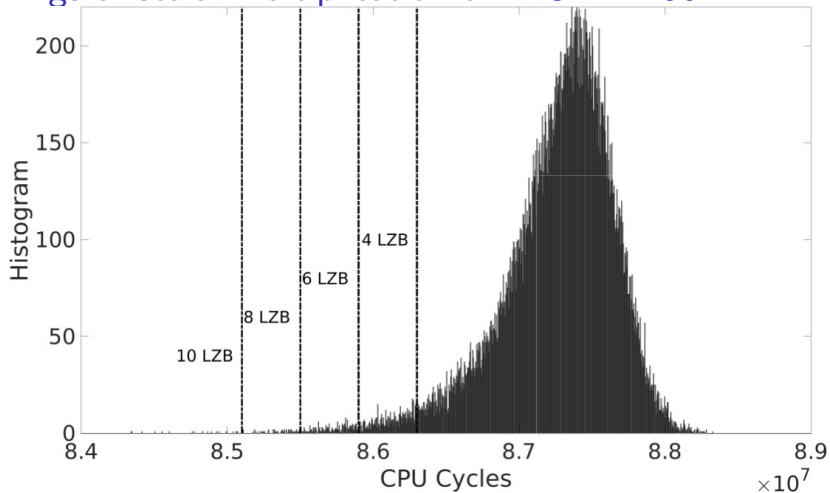
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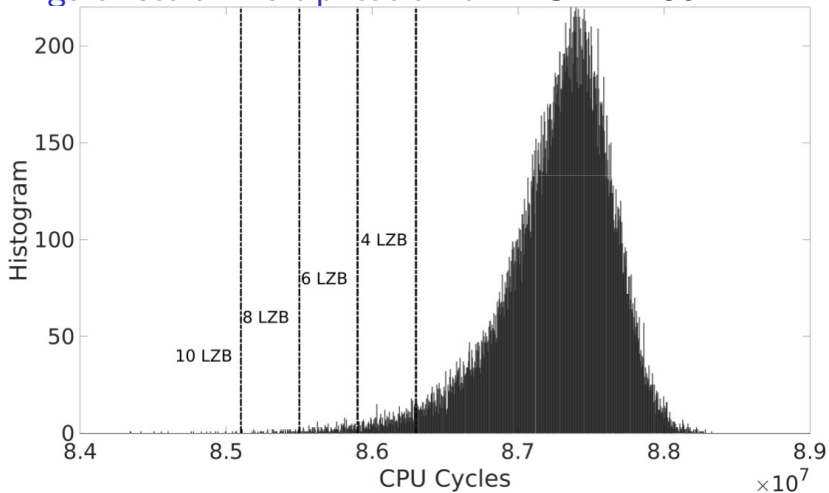
# Timings of scalar multiplication on NIST P-256



(Picture from [TPM-Fail](#))

NIST P-256 is an elliptic curve standardized by NIST.  
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Timing depends strongly on the length of the scalar, also on Hamming weight.

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Start from least-significant bit (coefficient of  $2^0$ )  
turn  $w$  bits into coefficient in  $[2^w - 1, 0]$ ,  
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E.g.  $w = 4$ , so coefficients in  $[15, 0]$ .

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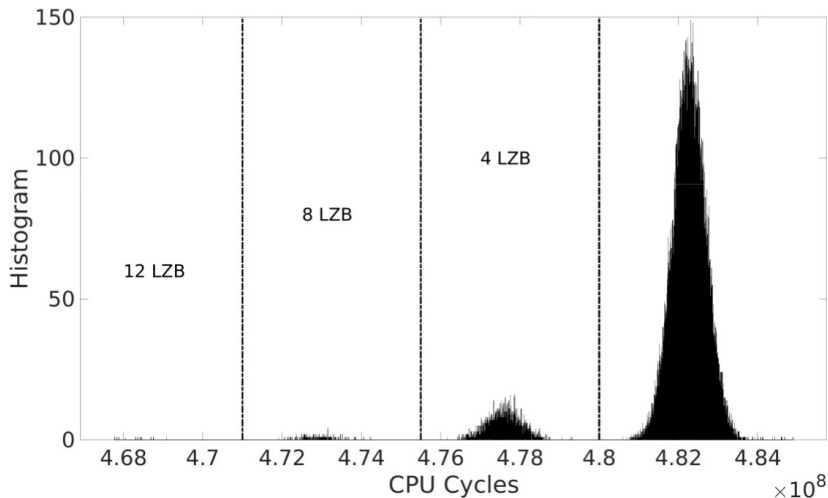
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$$14019 = \underbrace{0011}_3 \underbrace{0110}_6 \underbrace{1100}_{12} \underbrace{0011}_3$$

$$14019P = 16(16(16(3P) + 6P) + 12P) + 3P.$$

Same number of doublings, 3 additions.

# Timings of scalar multiplication on NIST P-256



Larger windows reduce the variability through branching but accentuate the length.

(Picture from [TPM-Fail](#))

## Double-and-always-add

```
a = 44444 # our super secret scalar. No, not that one.
l = max # some maximum bit length, matching order(P)
A = a.digits(2, padto = l) # fill with 0 to length l
R = 0 # so initial doublings don't matter, 0=0P
for i in range(l-1, -1, -1): # fixed-length loop
    R = 2R
    Q = R + P
    R = (1 - A[i]) * R + A[i] * Q # selection by arithmetic
print(R)
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This costs 1 addition per bit, so as slow as worst case,  
but leads to uniform trace – if the other operations are uniform.

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- Formulas for addition on Weierstrass curves have exceptions for adding  $\infty$ , so initialization at  $\infty$  does not work.
- Edwards curves have a complete addition law, **easy** to double or add the neutral element  $(0, 1)$ .

## Montgomery ladder

```
def cswap(bit, R, S): # constant time conditional swap
    dummy = bit * (R - S) # 0 or R - S
    R = R - dummy # R or R - (R - S) = S
    S = S + dummy # S or S + (R - S) = R
    return (R, S)

a = 44444 # our super secret scalar. No, not that one.
l = max # some maximum bit length, matching order(P)
A = a.digits(2, padto = l) # fill with 0 to length l
P0 = 0 # so initial doublings don't matter, 0=0P
P1 = P # difference P1 - P0 = P
for i in range(l-1, -1, -1): # fixed-length loop
    (P0, P1) = cswap(A[i], P0, P1) # see above
    P1 = P0 + P1 # addition with fixed difference
    P0 = 2P0 # double point for which bit is set
    (P0, P1) = cswap(A[i], P0, P1) # swap back, can merge
print(P0)
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This uses one doubling and one addition per bit. No dummy additions.



## Loop in Montgomery ladder

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if  $A[i]=0$ :  
cswap( $A[i]$ ,  $P0$ ,  $P1$ ) leaves fixed,  
so the new values are  
 $P0 = 2P0$ ,  $P1 = P0 + P1$   
(no effect of swapping back).

if  $A[i]=1$ :  
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Either way,  $P1 - P0 = P$  after each step.

Addition is of points with known difference called [differential addition](#).

This uses one doubling and one differential addition per bit.

## Montgomery differential addition

Let  $nP = (U_n : V_n : Z_n)$ ,  $mP = (U_m : V_m : Z_m)$  with known difference  $(m - n)P = (U_{m-n} : V_{m-n} : Z_{m-n})$  on

$$M_{A,B} : Bv^2 = u^3 + Au^2 + u.$$

We will only use  $U$  and  $Z$ ; cheaper by skipping  $V$ .

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**Addition:**  $n \neq m$

$$U_{m+n} = Z_{m-n}((U_m - Z_m)(U_n + Z_n) + (U_m + Z_m)(U_n - Z_n))^2,$$

$$Z_{m+n} = U_{m-n}((U_m - Z_m)(U_n + Z_n) - (U_m + Z_m)(U_n - Z_n))^2$$

**Doubling:**  $n = m$

$$4U_nZ_n = (U_n + Z_n)^2 - (U_n - Z_n)^2,$$

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Differential addition takes 4M and 2S. Doubling takes 3M and 2S.

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In ladder,  $m - n = 1$ , choose  $Z_{m-n} = 1$  and  $(A + 2)/4$  small.

Then cost per bit: 5M and 4S. Also like  $U_{m-n}$  small.

## Example: Curve25519 (Bernstein 2006)

Let  $p = 2^{255} - 19$ ,  $A = 486662$ ,  $B = 1$ .

$$v^2 = u^3 + 486662u^2 + u$$

Is standardized for DH computations for the Internet in [RFC 7748](#)

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