

# Cryptographic Engineering

## Elliptic-Curve Arithmetic

---

Ruben Niederhagen  
(based on content by Peter Schwabe)

Department of Mathematics and Computer Science (IMADA)

- Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a cyclic, finite, abelian Group (written additively) and let  $P$  be a generator of  $\mathcal{G}$ .
- Alice chooses random  $a \in \{0, \dots, |\mathcal{G}| - 1\}$ , computes  $aP$ , sends to Bob.
- Bob chooses random  $b \in \{0, \dots, |\mathcal{G}| - 1\}$ , computes  $bP$ , sends to Alice.
- Alice computes joint key  $a(bP)$ .
- Bob computes joint key  $b(aP)$ .
- Discrete logarithm problem (DLP) in  $\mathcal{G}$ : given  $kP \in \mathcal{G}$  and  $P$ , find  $k$ .
- Solving the DLP breaks security of Diffie-Hellman.

## Groups with hard DLP:

- Traditional answer:  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  with large prime-order subgroup.
- Modern answer: **Elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{F}_q$  with large prime-order subgroup.**
- Sophisticated answer (not in this lecture): hyperelliptic curves of genus 2.

# Typical view on elliptic curves:

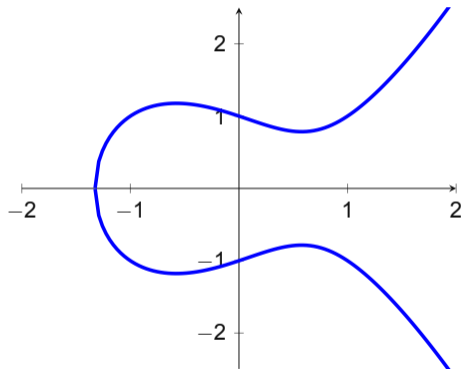
## Definition:

Let  $K$  be a field and let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6 \in K$ .  
Then the following equation defines an  
elliptic curve  $\mathcal{E}$ :

$$\mathcal{E} : y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6$$

(if the discriminant  $\Delta$  is not equal to zero).

This equation is called the Weierstrass form  
of an elliptic curve.



# Typical view on elliptic curves:

## Definition:

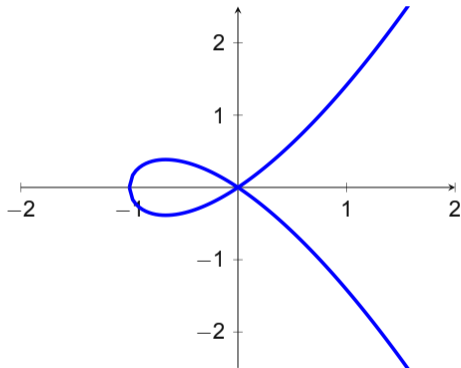
Let  $K$  be a field and let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6 \in K$ .

Then the following equation defines an elliptic curve  $\mathcal{E}$ :

$$\mathcal{E} : y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6$$

(if the **discriminant  $\Delta$  is not equal to zero**).

This equation is called the Weierstrass form of an elliptic curve.



# Typical view on elliptic curves:

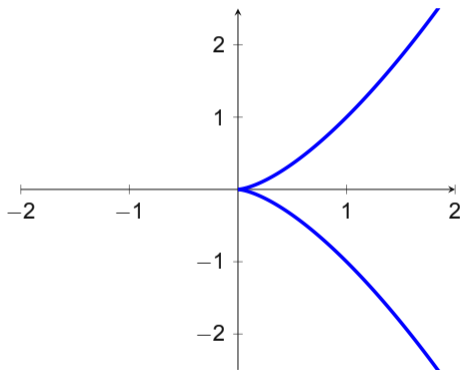
## Definition:

Let  $K$  be a field and let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6 \in K$ .  
Then the following equation defines an  
elliptic curve  $\mathcal{E}$ :

$$\mathcal{E} : y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6$$

(if the **discriminant  $\Delta$  is not equal to zero**).

This equation is called the Weierstrass form  
of an elliptic curve.



## Definition:

Let  $K$  be a field and let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6 \in K$ .  
Then the following equation defines an  
elliptic curve  $\mathcal{E}$ :

$$\mathcal{E} : y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6$$

(if the discriminant  $\Delta$  is not equal to zero).

This equation is called the Weierstrass form  
of an elliptic curve.

## Characteristic $\neq 2, 3$ :

If  $\text{char}(K) \neq 2, 3$  (e.g.,  $K = \mathbb{F}_p, p > 3$ )  
we can use a simplified equation:

$$\mathcal{E} : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

## Characteristic 2:

If  $\text{char}(K) = 2$  (e.g.,  $K = \mathbb{F}_{2^n}$ ) we can  
(usually) use a simplified equation:

$$\mathcal{E} : y^2 + xy = x^3 + ax^2 + b$$

## Setup for cryptography:

- Choose  $K = \mathbb{F}_q$ .
- Consider the set of  $\mathbb{F}_q$ -rational points:

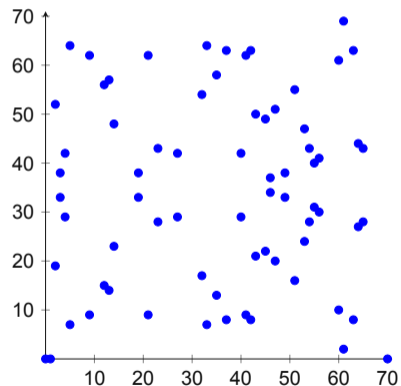
$$E(\mathbb{F}_q) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{F}_q \times \mathbb{F}_q : y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6\} \cup \{\mathcal{O}\}$$

- The element  $\mathcal{O}$  is the “point at infinity”.
- This set forms a group (together with addition law).
- Order of this group:  $|E(\mathbb{F}_q)| \approx |\mathbb{F}_q|$

# Group Law

Example curve:  $y^2 = x^3 - x$  over  $\mathbb{F}_{71}$

Graph of  $E$  over  $\mathbb{F}_{71}$ :

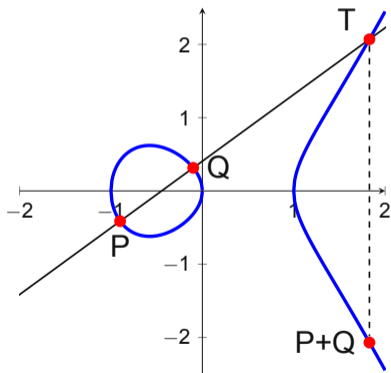




# Group Law

Example curve:  $y^2 = x^3 - x$  over  $\mathbb{R}$

Graph of  $E$  over  $\mathcal{R}$ :



**Addition of Points:**

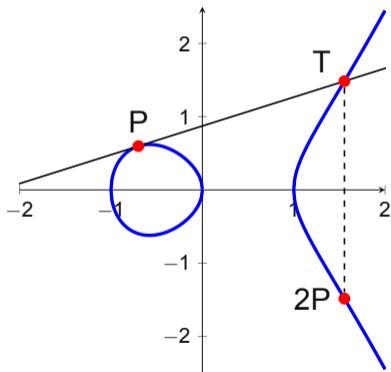
Add points  $P$  and  $Q$ :

- Compute line through the two points.
- Determine third intersection  $T = (x_T, y_T)$  with the elliptic curve.
- Result of the addition:  
 $P + Q = (x_T, -y_T)$ .

# Group Law

Example curve:  $y^2 = x^3 - x$  over  $\mathbb{R}$

Graph of  $E$  over  $\mathcal{R}$ :



**Doubling of Points:**

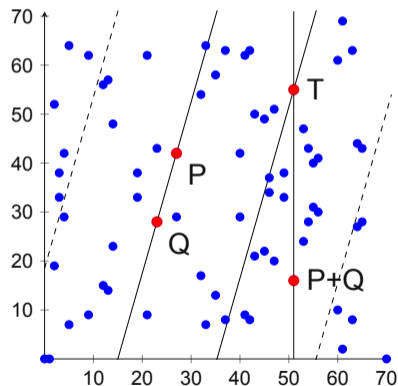
Double the point  $P$ :

- Compute the tangent on  $P$ .
- Determine second intersection  $T = (x_T, y_T)$  with the elliptic curve.
- Result of the doubling:  
 $2P = (x_T, -y_T)$ .

# Group Law

Example curve:  $y^2 = x^3 - x$  over  $\mathbb{F}_{71}$

Graph of  $E$  over  $\mathbb{F}_{71}$ :



## Addition of Points:

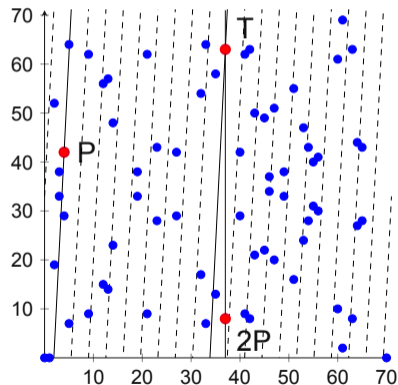
Add points  $P$  and  $Q$ :

- Compute line through the two points.
- Determine third intersection  $T = (x_T, y_T)$  with the elliptic curve.
- Result of the addition:  
 $P + Q = (x_T, -y_T)$ .

# Group Law

Example curve:  $y^2 = x^3 - x$  over  $\mathbb{F}_{71}$

Graph of  $E$  over  $\mathbb{F}_{71}$ :



## Doubling of Points:

Double the point  $P$ :

- Compute the tangent on  $P$ .
- Determine second intersection  $T = (x_T, y_T)$  with the elliptic curve.
- Result of the doubling:  
 $2P = (x_T, -y_T)$ .

## Group law in formulas:

Curve equation:  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$

### Point addition:

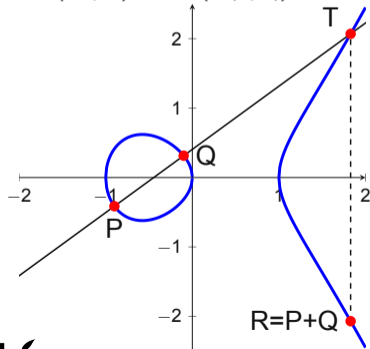
$$P = (x_P, y_P), Q = (x_Q, y_Q)$$

# Group law in formulas:

Curve equation:  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$

## Point addition:

$P = (x_P, y_P), Q = (x_Q, y_Q)$



$$y = \lambda x + b$$

$$\lambda = \frac{y_Q - y_P}{x_Q - x_P}$$

$$y_P = \lambda x_P + b$$

$$b = y_P - \lambda x_P$$

$$y = \lambda x + y_P - \lambda x_P$$

$$y = \lambda(x - x_P) + y_P$$

$$(\lambda(x - x_P) + y_P)^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

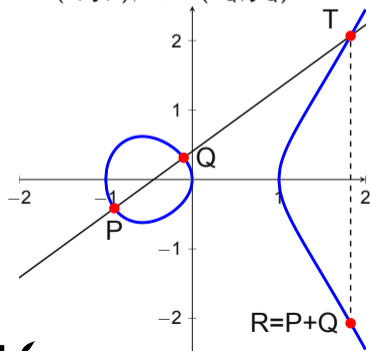
$$x^3 - \lambda^2 x^2 + (a + 2\lambda^2 x_P - 2\lambda y_P)x + b - (\lambda x_P - y_P)^2 = 0$$

# Group law in formulas:

Curve equation:  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$

## Point addition:

$P = (x_P, y_P), Q = (x_Q, y_Q)$



Vieta's formula:

$$P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

For roots  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n$  we have:

$$r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n = -\frac{a_{n-1}}{a_n}$$

$$x_P + x_Q + x_T = \lambda^2$$

$$x_T = x_R = \lambda^2 - x_P - x_Q$$

Line equation:

$$y_T = \lambda(x_T - x_P) + y_P$$

$$y_R = -y_T = \lambda(x_P - x_R) - y_P$$

Curve equation:  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$

## Point addition:

$$P = (x_P, y_P), Q = (x_Q, y_Q)$$

$\rightarrow P + Q = R = (x_R, y_R)$  with

$$x_R = \left( \frac{y_Q - y_P}{x_Q - x_P} \right)^2 - x_P - x_Q$$

$$y_R = \left( \frac{y_Q - y_P}{x_Q - x_P} \right) (x_P - x_R) - y_P$$



Curve equation:  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$

## Point addition:

$$P = (x_P, y_P), Q = (x_Q, y_Q)$$

$\rightarrow P + Q = R = (x_R, y_R)$  with

$$x_R = \left( \frac{y_Q - y_P}{x_Q - x_P} \right)^2 - x_P - x_Q$$

$$y_R = \left( \frac{y_Q - y_P}{x_Q - x_P} \right) (x_P - x_R) - y_P$$

## Point doubling:

$$P = (x_P, y_P)$$

$\rightarrow 2P = (x_R, y_R)$  with

$$x_R = \left( \frac{3x_P^2 + a}{2y_P} \right)^2 - 2x_P$$

$$y_R = \left( \frac{3x_P^2 + a}{2y_P} \right) (x_P - x_R) - y_P$$

- Neutral element is  $\mathcal{O}$ .
- Inverse of a point  $(x, y)$  is  $(x, -y)$ .
- Note: Formulas don't work for  $P + (-P)$  and also don't work for  $\mathcal{O}$ .
- Need to distinguish these cases!
- “Uniform” addition law in Hışıl's Ph.D. thesis<sup>1</sup>, Section 5.5.2:
  - Move special cases to other points.
  - Not safe to use on arbitrary input points!
- Formulas for curves over  $\mathbb{F}_{2^k}$  look slightly different, but same special cases.

---

<sup>1</sup><http://eprints.qut.edu.au/33233/>

## Security requirements for ECC:

- $\ell = |E(\mathbb{F}_q)|$  must have large prime-order subgroup.
- For  $n$  bits of security we need  $2n$ -bit prime-order subgroup.
- It must be impossible to transfer DLP to less secure groups:
  - $\ell$  must not be equal to  $q$ .
  - We need  $\ell \mid q^k - 1$  for *large*  $k$ .

## Finding a curve:

- Fix finite field  $\mathbb{F}_q$  of suitable size.
- Fix curve parameter  $a$  (quite common:  $a = -3$ ).
- Pick curve parameter  $b$  until  $E$  fulfills desired properties.
- This requires efficient “point counting”.
- This requires efficient factorization or primality proving.

*“The nice thing about standards is that you have so many to choose from.”*

*– Andrew S. Tanenbaum*

- Various standardized curves, most well-known: NIST curves:
  - Big-prime field curves with 192, 224, 256, 384, and 521 bits.
  - Binary curves with 163, 233, 283, 409, and 571 bits.
  - Binary Koblitz curves with 163, 233, 283, 409, and 571 bits.
- SECG curves (Certicom), prime-field and binary curves.
- Brainpool curves (BSI), only prime-field curves.
- FRP256v1 (ANSSI), one prime-field curve (256 bits).
- Curve25519 (Bernstein; RFC 7748, FIPS 186-5 draft 2019), prime-field curve.

## Curves over big-prime fields:

- Many fields of a given size  
⇒ many curves.
- Efficient in software (can use hardware multipliers).
- Less efficient in hardware.

## Curves over binary fields:

- Important for security:  
Exponent  $k$  of  $\mathbb{F}_{p^k}$  has to be prime.
- Not many fields  
(not that many curves).
- More efficient in hardware.
- Efficient in software only on some microarchitectures.
- Hard to implement securely in software on some other microarchitectures.

## Putting it all together:

- Choose security level (e.g., 128 bits).
- Decide whether you want binary or big-prime field arithmetic; let's say big prime.
- Pick corresponding standard curve, e.g., NIST-P256.
- Implement field arithmetic.
- Implement ECC addition and doubling.
- Implement scalar multiplication (“double and add” – next lecture).
- You're done with **BAD (!)** ECDH software.

- Adding  $P = (x_P, y_P)$  and  $Q = (x_Q, y_Q)$  needs an inversion in  $\mathbb{F}_q$ .
- Inversions are expensive.
- Constant-time inversions are even more expensive.

### Solution — projective coordinates:

- Store fractions of elements of  $\mathbb{F}_q$ , invert only once at the end.
- Represent points in projective coordinates:  
 $P = (X_P : Y_P : Z_P)$  with  $x_P = X_P/Z_P$  and  $y_P = Y_P/Z_P$ .
- The point  $(1 : 1 : 0)$  is the point at infinity.
- Also possible — weighted projective coordinates:
  - Jacobian coordinates:  $P = (X_P : Y_P : Z_P)$  with  $x_P = X_P/Z_P^2$  and  $y_P = Y_P/Z_P^3$ .
  - López-Dahab coordinates:  $P = (X_P : Y_P : Z_P)$  with  $x_P = X_P/Z_P$  and  $y_P = Y_P/Z_P^2$ .  
(for binary curves)
- **Important:** *Never send projective representation, always convert to affine!*

### Addition of $P + Q$ :

- If  $P = \mathcal{O}$  return  $Q$ .
  - Else if  $Q = \mathcal{O}$  return  $P$ .
  - Else if  $P = Q$  call doubling routine.
  - Else if  $P = -Q$  return  $\mathcal{O}$ .
  - Else use addition formulas.
- 
- Constant-time implementations of this are hard.
  - Good news: Can avoid the checks when computing  $k \cdot P$  and  $k < |E(\mathbb{F}_q)|$ .
  - Bad news: Side-channel countermeasures use  $k > |E(\mathbb{F}_q)|$ .
  - More bad news: Doesn't work for multi-scalar multiplication (next lecture).
  - **Baseline:** *Simple implementations are likely to be wrong or insecure!*

### Doubling $P$ :

- If  $P = \mathcal{O}$  return  $P$ .
- Else if  $y_P = 0$  return  $\mathcal{O}$ .
- Else use doubling formulas.



- Use Montgomery curve:  $E_M : By^2 = x^3 + Ax^2 + x$ .
- Use x-coordinate-only differential addition chain (“Montgomery ladder”, next lecture).
- Advantages:
  - Works on all inputs, no special cases.
  - Very regular structure, easy to protect against timing attacks.
  - Point compression/decompression for free.
  - Easy to implement, harder to screw up in hard-to-detect ways.
  - Simple implementations are likely to be correct and secure.
- Disadvantages:
  - Not all curves can be converted to Montgomery shape.
  - Always have a cofactor of at least 4.
  - Ladders on general Weierstrass curves are much less efficient.
  - We only get the x coordinate of the result, tricky for signatures.
  - Can reconstruct y, but that involves some additional cost.

- Edwards, 2007: New form for elliptic curves (“Edwards curves”).
- Bernstein, Lange, 2007: Very fast addition and doubling on these curves.
- Bernstein, Birkner, Joye, Lange, Peters, 2008:  
Generalize the idea to “twisted Edwards curves”.
- Core advantage of (twisted) Edwards curves — complete group law:
  - No need to handle special cases.
  - No “point at infinity” to work with.
- Can speed up doubling, but addition formulas work for  $P + P$ .
- Efficient transformation from Weierstrass to (twisted) Edwards only for some curves.
- Always efficient: Transformation between Montgomery and twisted Edwards curves.
- Again: Simple implementations are likely to be correct and secure.
- Disadvantage: Always have a cofactor of at least 4.

# So, what's the deal with the cofactor?



The screenshot shows the Monero website header with the logo and navigation links: 'Community Crowdfunding' and 'Vulnerability Ri'. Below the header is a navigation bar with 'Get Started -', 'Downloads', 'Blog', and 'Comm'. The main content area features a blog post titled 'Disclosure of a Major Bug in CryptoNote Based Currencies' by Luigi1111 and Riccardo 'fluffypony' Spagni, dated May 17, 2017. The post includes an 'Overview' section that begins with the text: 'In Monero we've discovered and patched a critical bug that affects all CryptoNote-based cryptocurrencies, and allows for the creation of an unlimited number of coins in a way that is undetectable to an observer unless they know about the fatal flaw and can search for it.'

- Protocols need to be careful to avoid subgroup attacks.
- Monero screwed this up, which allowed double-spending.
- Elegant solution: “Ristretto” encoding based on Hamburg’s “Decaf”, see:  
<https://ristretto.group/>.

- Bosma, Lenstra, 1995: Complete group law for Weierstrass curves.
- Problem: Extremely inefficient.
- Renes, Costello, Batina, 2016: Fast complete group law for Weierstrass curves.
- Less efficient than (twisted) Edwards.
- Covers all curves.

Reminder:  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$  and  $b$  does not appear in addition formulae.

### **ECDH attack scenario:**

- Alice sends point on different (insecure) curve with small subgroup.
- Bob computes “shared key” in that small subgroup.
- Alice learns “shared key” through brute force.
- Alice learns Bob’s secret scalar modulo the order of the small subgroup.

### **Countermeasures:**

- Check that input point is on the curve (functional tests will miss this!).
- Send compressed points  $(x, \text{parity}(y))$ .  
Decompression returns  $(x, y)$  on the curve or fails.
- Send only  $x$  (Montgomery ladder); but:  $x$  could still be on the “twist” of  $E$ .  
Make sure that the twist is also secure (“twist security”).

## Problem IV: Backdoors in standards?

*“I no longer trust the [NIST Elliptic Curves] constants. I believe the NSA has manipulated them through their relationships with industry. ”*

— *Bruce Schneier, 2013.*

- There are concerns that NSA might have put a backdoor in Dual\_EC\_DRBG.
- More details at <https://projectbullrun.org/dual-ec/>.
- More details in a later lecture.

*"I no longer trust the [NIST Elliptic Curves] constants. I believe the NSA has manipulated them through their relationships with industry. "*

*— Bruce Schneier, 2013.*

- Constants of NIST curves (and other standards) have been obtained by hashing random values.
- No-backdoor claim: We know the preimages.
- Possible attack if you know a class of vulnerable curves: Generate random seeds until you have found a vulnerable (and seemingly secure) curve.
- Fact: There are no known insecurities of NIST curves.
- Fact: There is no proof that there are no intentional vulnerabilities in NIST curves.
- For more details, see BADA55 elliptic curves: <http://bada55.cr.jp.to/>.

### **Choosing a safe curve:**

Overview of various elliptic curves and thorough security analysis by Bernstein and Lange:

<https://safecurves.cr.yp.to/>

(Doesn't list cofactor-1 curves, so best to combine with Ristretto.)

### **Point representation and arithmetic:**

Collection of elliptic-curve shapes, point representations and group-operation formulas by Bernstein and Lange:

<https://www.hyperelliptic.org/EFD/>