

Fast, uniform scalar multiplication for
genus 2 Jacobians with fast Kummers
and
 μ Kummer: efficient hyperelliptic signatures
and key exchange on microcontrollers

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Genus 2 cryptography

Genus 2 is an alternative to elliptic curves (genus 1) as a source of groups for DLP-based cryptosystems.

So far: best DLP algorithm is Pollard ρ

\implies same DLP hardness per bit as elliptic curves

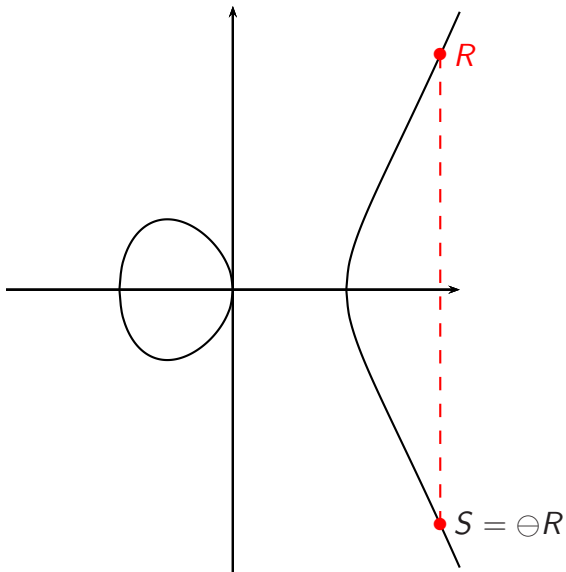
\implies same size keys (optimally small).

Why bother?

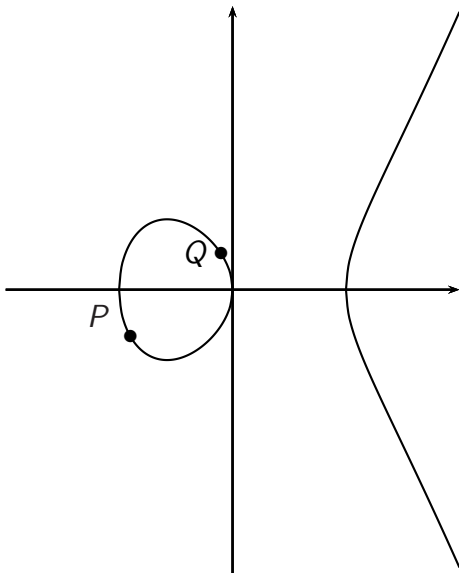
Sometimes genus 2 can offer better performance.

Plus, it's much more fun.

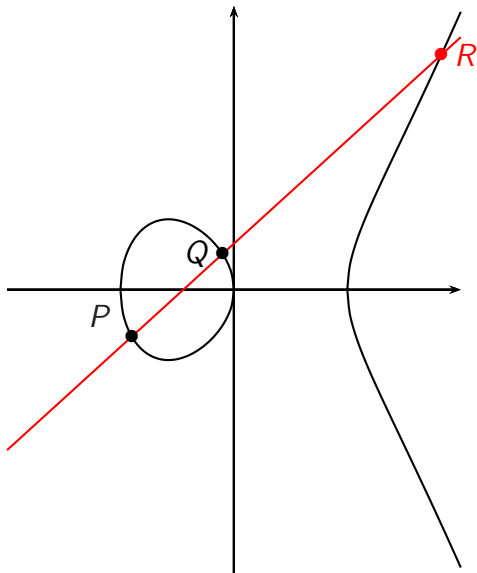
Elliptic curve negation: $\ominus R = S$



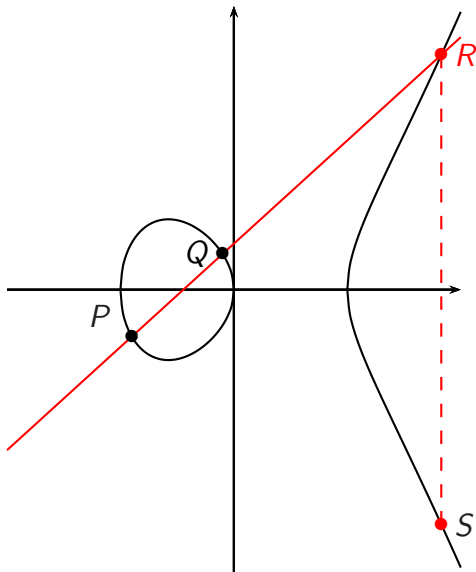
Elliptic curve addition: $P \oplus Q = ?$



Elliptic curve addition: $P \oplus Q \oplus R = 0$

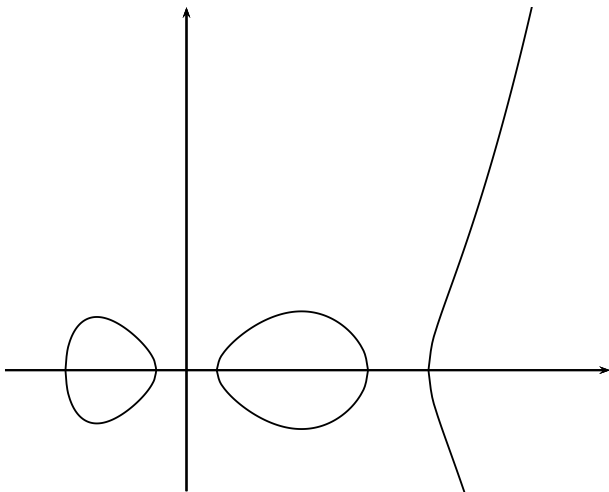


Elliptic curve addition: $P \oplus Q = \ominus R = S$



Genus 2 curves

$C : y^2 = f(x)$ with $f \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$ degree 5 or 6 and squarefree



Making groups from genus 2 curves

Jacobian: algebraic group $\mathcal{J}_C \sim \mathcal{C}^{(2)}$:

Elements are **pairs of points** on $\mathcal{C} : y^2 = f(x)$,
with all pairs $\{(x, y), (x, -y)\}$ “blown down” to 0.

Negation $\ominus : \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)\} \mapsto \{(x_1, -y_1), (x_2, -y_2)\}$

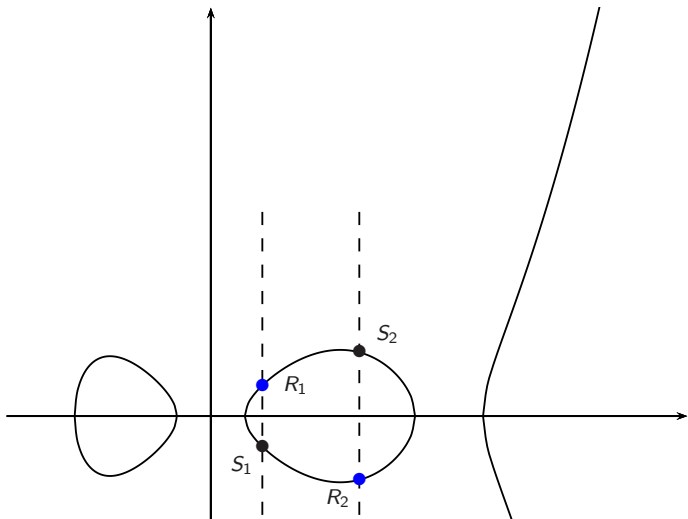
Group law on \mathcal{J}_C induced by

$$\{P_1, P_2\} \oplus \{Q_1, Q_2\} \oplus \{R_1, R_2\} = 0$$

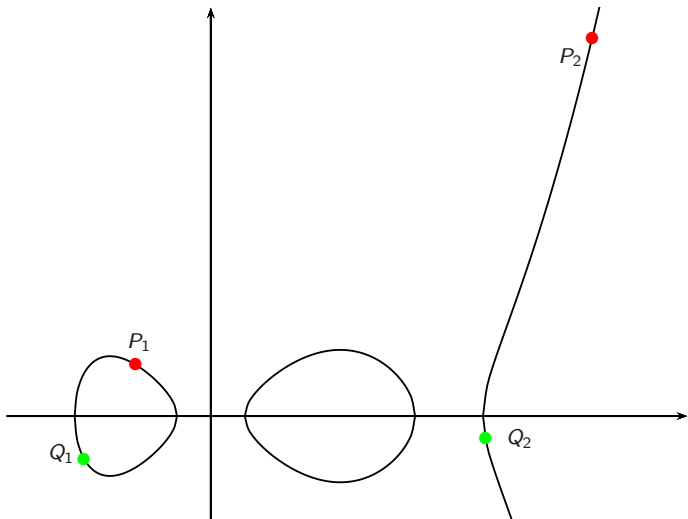
whenever $P_1, P_2, Q_1, Q_2, R_1, R_2$ are
the intersection of \mathcal{C} with some cubic $y = g(x)$.

Why? Any 4 points in the plane determine a cubic $y = g(x)$, which must intersect $\mathcal{C} : y^2 = f(x)$ in 6 points because $g(x)^2 = f(x)$ has 6 solutions.

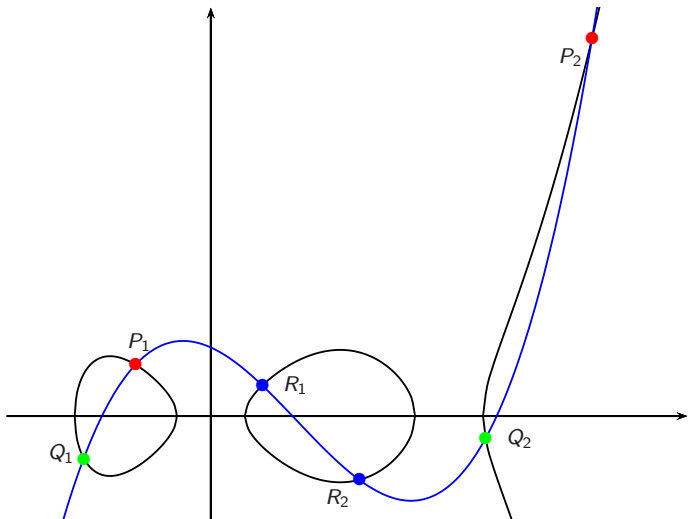
Genus 2 group law: negation $\ominus\{R_1, R_2\} = \{S_1, S_2\}$



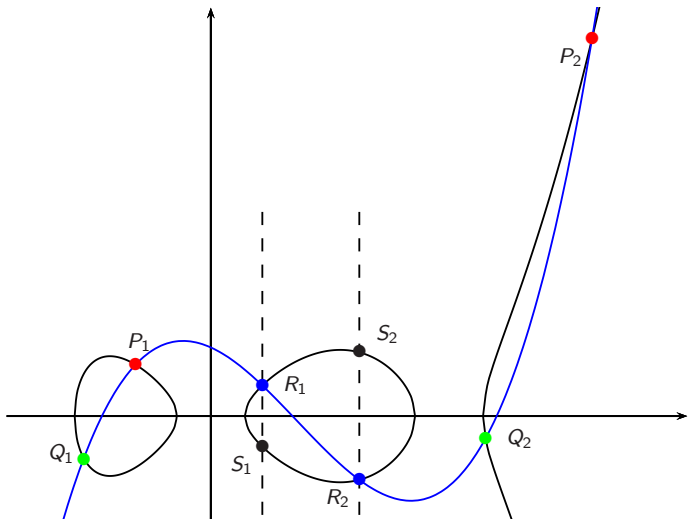
Genus 2 group law: $\{P_1, P_2\} \oplus \{Q_1, Q_2\} = ?$



Genus 2 group law: $\{P_1, P_2\} \oplus \{Q_1, Q_2\} \oplus \{R_1, R_2\} = 0$



Genus 2 group law: $\{P_1, P_2\} \oplus \{Q_1, Q_2\} = \ominus\{R_1, R_2\} = \{S_1, S_2\}$



We (still) want to implement basic cryptosystems based on Discrete Log and Diffie–Hellman problems in $\mathcal{J}_C(\mathbb{F}_p)$

Protocols like Diffie–Hellman key exchange,
Schnorr signatures, (EC)DSA signatures:

We *occasionally* need to compute $P \oplus Q$.

We *mostly* need to compute $[m]P$.

Side channel safety \implies scalar multiplication must be *uniform* and *constant-time* when the scalar m is secret.

Schnorr signatures: signing

Fixed public base point P in a $2t$ -bit group; $N = \#\langle P \rangle$.

Keys: private x , public $Q = [x]P$.

To sign a message m with the key pair (Q, x) :

Algorithm 1 Schnorr signature signing operation

- 1: **function** SIGN($m \in \{0, 1\}^*$, $x \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$)
 - 2: $r \leftarrow \text{random}(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})$
 - 3: $R \leftarrow [r]P$ ▷ mult. public point by secret scalar
 - 4: $e \leftarrow H(m||R)$ ▷ H : hash function, t bit output
 - 5: $s \leftarrow r - ex \pmod{N}$ ▷ (so $[s]P \oplus [e]Q = R$)
 - 6: **return** $(s, e) \in (\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}) \times [0..2^t]$ ▷ $3t$ bits of storage
 - 7: **end function**
-

\implies signatures at the 128-bit security level:

Elliptic and genus 2 Schnorr require 384 bits, RSA requires 3072.

Schnorr signatures: verification

To verify a claimed signature (m, e) on a message m against a public key Q ,

Algorithm 2 Schnorr signature verification

- 1: **function** VERIFY($(s, e), m, Q$)
 - 2: $R' \leftarrow [s]P \oplus [e]Q$ ▷ mult. public points, scalars
 - 3: $e' \leftarrow H(m || R')$
 - 4: **return** $e' = e$
 - 5: **end function**
-

DLP hardness + hash preimage hardness
gives t bits of authenticity, integrity, and non-repudiability.

...So you want to instantiate a DLP/DHP-based protocol

Smallest key size for a given security level:
use an *elliptic curve* or a *genus 2 Jacobian*.

For signatures and encryption:

Elliptic: Edwards curves (eg. Ed25519), NIST curves, etc.

Genus 2: Jacobian surfaces.

Scalar mult: *Uniform* genus 2 is **much slower** than elliptic curves.

For Diffie–Hellman:

Elliptic: x -lines of Montgomery curves (eg. Curve25519)

Genus 2: Kummer surfaces (Jacobians modulo ± 1).

Scalar mult: *Uniform* genus 2 can be **faster** than elliptic curves.

E.g.: Bos–Costello–Hisil–Lauter (2013+14),

Bernstein–Chuengsatiansup–Lange–Schwabe (Asiacrypt 2014)

Why is uniform genus 2 tricky?

Elements $\{P_1, P_2\}$: separate, *incompatible* representations for cases where one or both of the P_i are at infinity.

Group law $\{P_1, P_2\} \oplus \{Q_1, Q_2\} = \{S_1, S_2\}$:

branch-tacular, separate special cases for P_i, Q_i at infinity, for $P_i = P_j$, for $P_i = Q_j$, for $\{P_1, P_2\} = \{Q_1, Q_2\}, \dots$

These special cases are never implemented in “record-breaking” genus 2 implementations, but they’re easy to attack in practice.

For elliptic curves, we can always sweep the special cases under a convenient line to get a uniform group law, but in genus 2 this is much harder; *protection kills performance*.

Why is Diffie–Hellman different?

Now you know why genus 2 Jacobians are painful candidates for cryptographic groups in practice.

So why is genus 2 fast and safe for Diffie–Hellman?

Because DH *doesn't need a group law*,
just scalar multiplication;

so we can “drop signs” and work modulo \ominus .

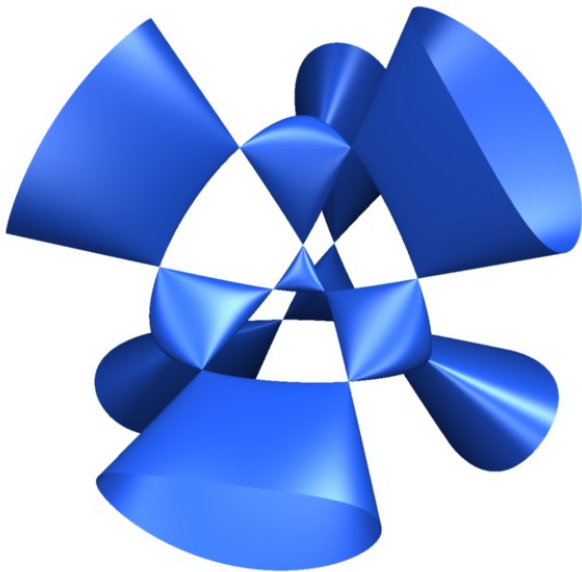
Alice computes $(a, \pm P) \mapsto \pm[a]P$; Bob $(b, \pm[a]P) \mapsto \pm[ab]P \dots$

Elliptic curves: work on x -line $\mathbb{P}^1 = \mathcal{E}/\langle \pm 1 \rangle$

Eg. Curve25519 (Bernstein 2006).

Genus 2: work on the **Kummer surface** $\mathcal{K}_c := \mathcal{J}_c/\langle \pm 1 \rangle$.

What a Kummer surface looks like



Moving from \mathcal{J}_C to the Kummer \mathcal{K}_C

Quotient map $\mathbf{x} : \mathcal{J}_C \longrightarrow \mathcal{K}_C$ (ie $\mathbf{x}(P) = \pm P$)

No group law on \mathcal{K}_C : $\mathbf{x}(P)$ and $\mathbf{x}(Q)$ determines $\mathbf{x}(P \oplus Q)$ and $\mathbf{x}(P \ominus Q)$, but we can't tell which is which.

Still, $\ominus[m](P) = [m](\ominus P)$ for any $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $P \in \mathcal{J}_C$,
so we do have a “scalar multiplication” on \mathcal{K}_C :

$$[m] : \mathbf{x}(P) \longmapsto \mathbf{x}([m]P) .$$

Problem: How do we compute $[m]$ efficiently, *without* \oplus ?

Any 3 of $\mathbf{x}(P)$, $\mathbf{x}(Q)$, $\mathbf{x}(P \ominus Q)$, and $\mathbf{x}(P \oplus Q)$
determines the 4th, so we can define

pseudo-addition

$$\mathbf{xADD} : (\mathbf{x}(P), \mathbf{x}(Q), \mathbf{x}(P \ominus Q)) \mapsto \mathbf{x}(P \oplus Q)$$

pseudo-doubling

$$\mathbf{xDBL} : \mathbf{x}(P) \mapsto \mathbf{x}([2]P)$$

Bonus: easier to hide/avoid special cases in \mathbf{xADD} than \oplus .

Kummer surface arithmetic

Let 0_K be the image of $0_{\mathcal{J}_C}$ in \mathcal{K}_C , and define

$$\mathcal{M} : ((x_1 : y_1 : z_1 : t_1), (x_2 : y_2 : z_2 : t_2)) \mapsto (x_1 x_2 : y_1 y_2 : z_1 z_2 : t_1 t_2)$$

$$\mathcal{S} : (x : y : z : t) \mapsto (x^2 : y^2 : z^2 : t^2)$$

$$\mathcal{I} : (x : y : z : t) \mapsto (1/x : 1/y : 1/z : 1/t)$$

$$\mathcal{H} : (x : y : z : t) \mapsto (x' : y' : z' : t') \text{ where } \begin{cases} x' = x + y + z + t, \\ y' = x + y - z - t, \\ z' = x - y + z - t, \\ t' = x - y - z + t. \end{cases}$$

- $\mathbf{xDBL}(\mathbf{x}(P)) = \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{HM}(\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{HS}(\mathbf{x}(P)))), \mathcal{IH}(0_K)), \mathcal{I}(0_K))$
- $\mathbf{xADD}(\mathbf{x}(P), \mathbf{x}(Q), \mathbf{x}(P \ominus Q))$
 $= \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{HM}(\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{HS}(\mathbf{x}(P))), \mathcal{HS}(\mathbf{x}(Q))), \mathcal{IH}(0_K)), \mathcal{I}(\mathbf{x}(P \ominus Q)))$

The *green things* here are constants, or constants in practice.

Evaluate $[m]$ by combining **xADDs** and **xDBLs**
 using **differential** addition chains
 (ie. every \oplus has summands with known difference).
 Classic example: the Montgomery ladder.

Algorithm 3 The Montgomery ladder in a group

```

1: function LADDER( $m = \sum_{i=0}^{\beta-1} m_i 2^i, P$ )
2:    $(R_0, R_1) \leftarrow (0, P)$ 
3:   for  $i := \beta - 1$  down to 0 do
4:      $(R_{m_i}, R_{-m_i}) \leftarrow ([2]R_{m_i}, R_{m_i} \oplus R_{-m_i})$ 
5:   end for           ▷ invariant:  $(R_0, R_1) = ([\lfloor m/2^i \rfloor]P, [\lfloor m/2^i \rfloor + 1]P)$ 
6:   return  $R_0$            ▷  $R_0 = [m]P, R_1 = [m]P \oplus P$ 
7: end function

```

For each group operation $R_0 \oplus R_1$, **the difference $R_0 \ominus R_1$ is fixed**
 \implies trivial adaptation from \mathcal{J}_c to \mathcal{K}_c

Algorithm 4 The Montgomery ladder on the Kummer

```
1: function LADDER( $m = \sum_{i=0}^{\beta-1} m_i 2^i$ ,  $\mathbf{x}(P)$ )
2:    $(x_0, x_1) \leftarrow (\mathbf{x}(0), \mathbf{x}(P))$ 
3:   for  $i := \beta - 1$  down to 0 do
4:      $(x_{m_i}, x_{-m_i}) \leftarrow (\mathbf{xDBL}(x_{m_i}), \mathbf{xADD}(x_0, x_1, \mathbf{x}(P)))$ 
5:   end for    $\triangleright$  invariant:  $x_0 = \mathbf{x}(\lfloor m/2^i \rfloor P)$ ,  $x_1 = \mathbf{x}(\lfloor m/2^i \rfloor + 1)P$ 
6:   return  $x_0$  ( $= \mathbf{x}(\lfloor m \rfloor P)$ )
7: end function
```

High symmetry of \mathcal{K}_c

\implies fast, vectorizable \mathbf{xADD} and \mathbf{xDBL} (Gaudry)

\implies very fast Kummer-based Diffie–Hellman implementations

Eg. Bos–Costello–Hisil–Lauter (2013/14),

Bernstein–Chuengsatiansup–Lange–Schwabe (Asiacrypt 2014).

Pulling a y -rabbit out of an x -hat

Kummer multiplication computes $\mathbf{x}([m]P)$ from $\mathbf{x}(P)$
—but we need $[m]P$ for signatures...

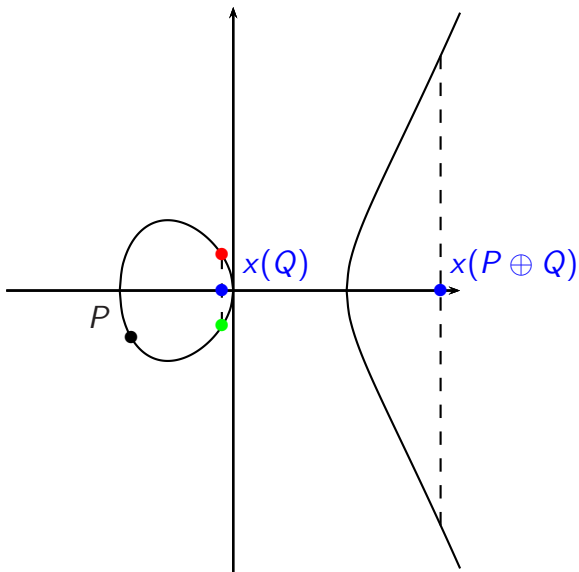
Mathematically, we threw away the sign:
you can't deduce $[m]P$ from P and $\mathbf{x}([m]P)$.

But there's a trick: if you computed $\mathbf{x}([m]P)$
using the Montgomery ladder, then you can!

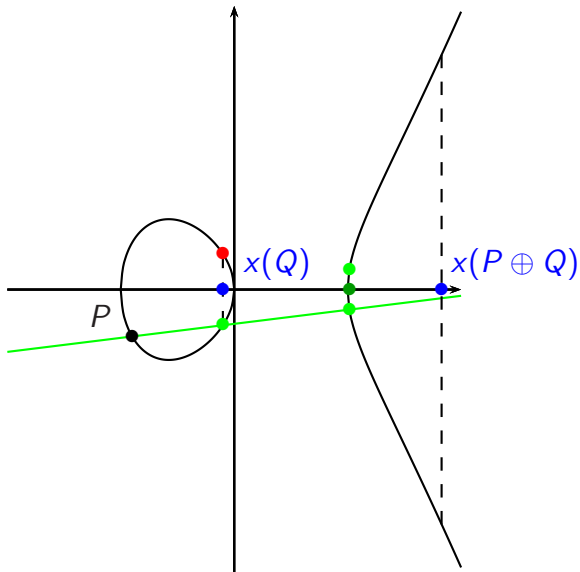
At the end of the loop, $x_0 = \mathbf{x}([m]P)$ and $x_1 = \mathbf{x}([m]P \oplus P)$;
and P , $\mathbf{x}(Q)$, and $\mathbf{x}(Q \oplus P)$ uniquely determines Q (for any Q).

This is an old trick for elliptic curves: cf. López–Dahab (CHES 99),
Okeya–Sakurai (CHES 01), Brier–Joye (PKC 02).

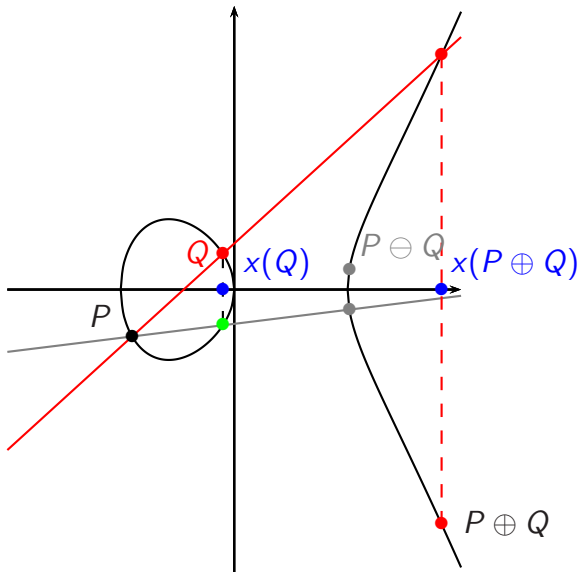
Given P , $x(Q)$, and $x(P \oplus Q)$. Is $Q = \bullet$ or \bullet ?



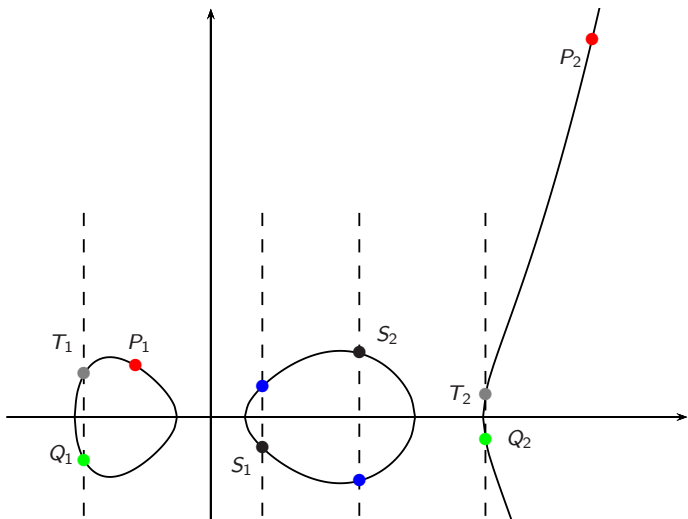
Line through P and \bullet : "sum" incompatible with $\mathbf{x}(P \oplus Q)$.



Line through P and \bullet : "sum" fits with $x(P \oplus Q)$, so $Q = \bullet$

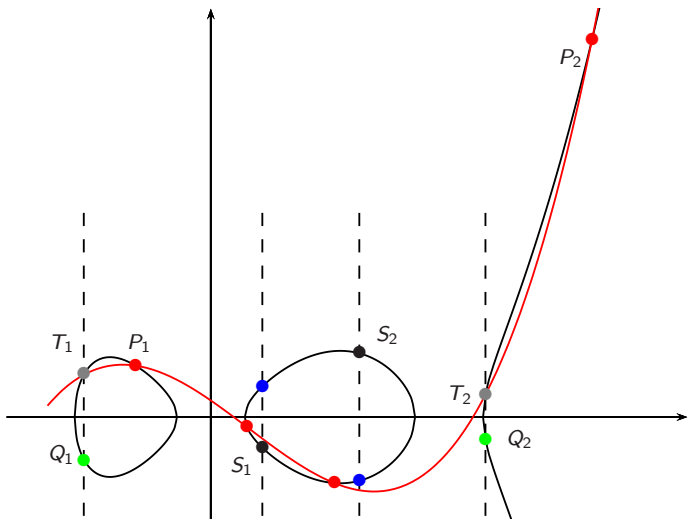


Genus 2 group law: $\{P_1, P_2\} \oplus \{Q_1, Q_2\} = \{S_1, S_2\}$



We know $\{P_1, P_2\}, \mathbf{x}(\{Q_1, Q_2\}) = \mathbf{x}(\{T_1, T_2\})$, and $\mathbf{x}(\{S_1, S_2\}) = \mathbf{x}(\{R_1, R_2\})$.
 How can we find $\{Q_1, Q_2\}$ (and not $\{T_1, T_2\}$)?

Genus 2 group law: $\{P_1, P_2\} \oplus \{Q_1, Q_2\} = \{S_1, S_2\}$



Choosing $\{T_1, T_2\}$ as (the wrong) preimage of $\mathbf{x}(\{Q_1, Q_2\})$ yields a cubic **incompatible** with $\mathbf{x}(\{S_1, S_2\})$.

Chung–Costello–S. (SAC 2016):

Recover algorithm implementing this trick for genus 2.

Input: P in $\mathcal{J}_C(\mathbb{F}_q)$, $\mathbf{x}(Q)$ and $\mathbf{x}(P \oplus Q)$ in $\mathcal{K}_C(\mathbb{F}_q)$
(for some unknown Q in $\mathcal{J}_C(\mathbb{F}_q)$).

Output: Q in $\mathcal{J}_C(\mathbb{F}_q)$.

Application: put

$(P, \mathbf{x}(Q), \mathbf{x}(P \oplus Q)) = (P, \mathbf{x}([m]P), \mathbf{x}([m+1]P))$
(ie, P with output of \mathbf{x} -Montgomery ladder); then

$$\text{Recover}(P, \mathbf{x}([m]P), \mathbf{x}([m+1]P)) = [m]P .$$

\implies 1D (Montgomery) and 2D (Bernstein) SM.

Chung–Costello–S. (SAC 2016):

Algorithm 5 Montgomery/Kummer-based multiplication on the Jacobian

```
1: function SCALARMULTIPLY( $m = \sum_{i=0}^{\beta-1} m_i 2^i$ ,  $P$ )
2:    $(x_0, x_1) \leftarrow (\mathbf{x}(0), \mathbf{x}(P))$ 
3:   for  $i := \beta - 1$  down to 0 do ▷ Montgomery ladder
4:      $(x_{m_i}, x_{-m_i}) \leftarrow (\mathbf{xDBL}(x_{m_i}), \mathbf{xADD}(x_0, x_1, \mathbf{x}(P)))$ 
5:   end for ▷ invariant:  $x_0 = \mathbf{x}(\lfloor m/2^i \rfloor P)$ ,  $x_1 = \mathbf{x}(\lfloor m/2^i \rfloor + 1)P$ 
6:    $Q \leftarrow \text{Recover}(P, x_0, x_1)$  ▷  $Q = [m]P$ 
7:   return  $Q$ 
8: end function
```

Now: your fast Kummer implementations can be easily bootstrapped to full Jacobian group implementations; fast Diffie–Hellman code now yields efficient signatures.

μ Kummer

Kummer crypto for microcontrollers *Renes–Schwabe–S.–Batina, CHES 2016*

A fiendishly simple plan:

1. Build efficient Diffie–Hellman software for small devices, based on Kummer arithmetic; **Done**
2. Bootstrap it to a full Schnorr signature scheme, using the previous trick; **Done**
3. Take over the world. (**In progress**)

μ Kummer software

Free, public domain C/assembly implementation of Diffie–Hellman key exchange and Schnorr signatures targeting the 128-bit security level on

AVR ATMega (8-bit architecture)

ARM Cortex M0 (32-bit architecture)

Download it: <http://www.cs.ru.nl/~jrenes>

Comparison for 8-bit architecture (AVR ATmega):

Protocol	Object	kCycles	Stack bytes
Diffie–Hellman	Curve25519	13900	494
	μ Kummer	9513 (68%)	99 (20%)
Schnorr signing	Ed25519	19048	1473
	μ Kummer	10404 (55%)	926 (63%)
Schnorr verifying	Ed25519	30777	1226
	μ Kummer	16241 (53%)	992 (75%)

Comparison for 32-bit architecture (ARM Cortex M0):

Multiplication for	Object	kCycles	Stack bytes
Diffie–Hellman	Curve25519	3590	548
	μ Kummer	2634 (73%)	248 (45%)
Schnorr	NIST-P256	10730	540
	μ Kummer	2709 (25%)	968 (179%)

Curve25519 = Düll-Haase-Hinterwälder-Hutter-Paar-Sánchez-Schwabe '15

Ed25519 = Nascimento-López-Dahab '15

NIST-P256 = Wenger-Unterluggauer-Werner '13

Recovery:

<http://eprint.iacr.org/2016/777>

μ Kummer:

<http://eprint.iacr.org/2016/366>

Download the software:

<http://www.cs.ru.nl/~jrenes>