Mechanizing Elliptic Curve Associativity Why a Formalized Mathematics Challenge is Useful for Verification of Crypto ARM Machine Code

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Talk Plan

1 Introduction

- 2 Elliptic Curve Cryptography
- 3 Challenge Problem
- Polynomial Normalization

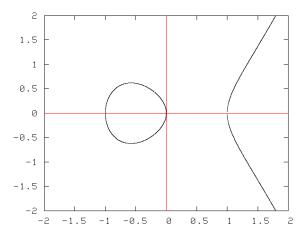


• An elliptic curve over the reals is the set of points (x,y) satisfying an equation of the form

$$E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \; .$$

- There is also a 'point at infinity' considered to lie on the elliptic curve, called O.
- It's possible to 'add' two points on an elliptic curve to get a third point on the curve.

The Elliptic Curve $y^2 = x^3 - x$



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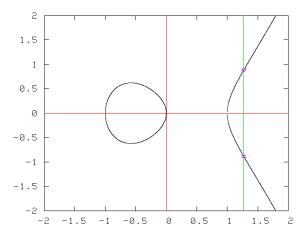
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Challenge Problem

Polynomial Normalizati

Summary

Elliptic Curve Arithmetic: Negation



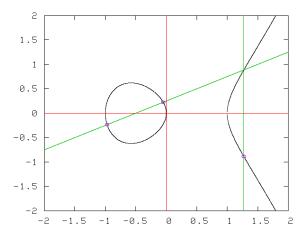
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Challenge Problem

Polynomial Normalization

Summary

The Elliptic Curve $y^2 = x^3 - x$: Addition



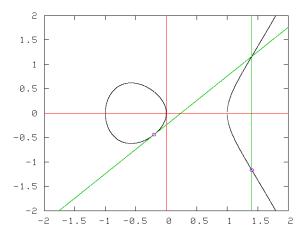
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Challenge Problem

Polynomial Normalization

Summary

The Elliptic Curve $y^2 = x^3 - x$: Doubling



The Elliptic Curve Group

Theorem

Elliptic curve addition forms a group, i.e.,

$$0 \mathcal{O} + \mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}$$

$$P + P = \mathcal{O}$$

$$(P+Q) + R = P + (Q+R)$$

plus the closure conditions $P, Q \in E \implies \mathcal{O}, -P, P + Q \in E$.

Cryptography Based on Groups

- The Discrete Logarithm Problem over a group *G* tests the difficulty of inverting the power operation:
 - Given $x, y \in G$, find a k such that $x^k = y$.
- Cryptographic operations can be built using this primitive.
 - Elgamal encryption
 - Digital Signature Algorithm
- The level of security depends entirely on the group G.
 - The group of addition modulo *n* is easily broken.
 - A 'black-box group' requires $\sqrt{|G|}$ group operations to break.
- Standard public key cryptography uses the group of multiplication modulo a large prime.

- First proposed in 1985 by Koblitz and Miller.
- Part of the 2005 NSA Suite B set of cryptographic algorithms.
- Certicom the most prominent vendor, but there are many implementations.
- Advantages over standard public key cryptography:
 - Known theoretical attacks much less effective,
 - so requires much shorter keys for the same security,
 - leading to reduced bandwidth and greater efficiency.
- However, there are also disadvantages:
 - Patent uncertainty surrounding many implementation techniques.
 - The algorithms are more complex, so it's harder to implement them correctly.

 Introduction
 Elliptic Curve Cryptography
 Challenge Problem
 Polynomial Normalization
 Summary

 Elliptic Curve Cryptography:
 More Secure?

• This table shows equal security key sizes:

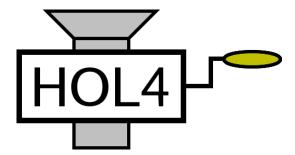
standard	elliptic curve	
1024 bits		
4096 bits	313 bits	

• But... there has been less theoretical effort made to attack elliptic curve cryptosystems.

- **Motivation:** How to ensure that low level cryptographic software is both correct and secure?
 - Critical application, so need to go beyond bug finding to assurance of correctness.
- **Project goal:** Create formally verified ARM implementations of elliptic curve cryptographic algorithms.
 - Joint project between Cambridge University and the University of Utah, managed by Mike Gordon.



- Elliptic curve ElGamal encryption
- Key size = 320 bits



• Verified ARM machine code

Verification Guarantee

The verified ARM code should be correct and secure.

- In Functional correctness:
 - Encryption followed by decryption is the identity.
- A security guarantee:
 - The code correctly implements elliptic curve Elgamal.
- Note: Functional correctness relies on the elliptic curve group.

Negation of Elliptic Curve Points (1)

Blake, Seroussi and Smart define negation of elliptic curve points using affine coordinates:

"Let E denote an elliptic curve given by

$$E: Y^2 + a_1 XY + a_3 Y = X^3 + a_2 X^2 + a_4 X + a_6$$

and let $P_1 = (x_1, y_1)$ and $P_2 = (x_2, y_2)$ denote points on the curve. Then

$$-P_1 = (x_1, -y_1 - a_1x_1 - a_3) ."$$

Negation of Elliptic Curve Points (2)

Negation is formalized by cases on the input point, which smoothly handles the special case of \mathcal{O} :

Constant Definition

```
curve_neg e =
let f = e.field in
...
let a3 = e.a3 in
curve_case e (curve_zero e)
(\lambda x1 y1.
let x = x1 in
let y = ~y1 - a1 * x1 - a3 in
affine f [x; y])
```

And now Blake, Seroussi and Smart's definition of point addition:

 $\lambda = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}, \quad \mu = \frac{y_1 x_2 - y_2 x_1}{x_2 - x_1}$

when $x_1 \neq x_2$, and set

"Set

$$\lambda = \frac{3x_1^2 + 2a_2x_1 + a_4 - a_1y_1}{2y_1 + a_1x_1 + a_3},$$
$$\mu = \frac{-x_1^3 + a_4x_1 + 2a_6 - a_3y_1}{2y_1 + a_1x_1 + a_3}$$

when $x_1 = x_2$ and $P_2 \neq -P_1$."

Introduction Elliptic Curve Cryptography Challenge Problem Polynomial Normalization Summary

Elliptic Curve Addition (2)

"If

$$P_3 = (x_3, y_3) = P_1 + P_2 \neq \mathcal{O}$$

then x_3 and y_3 are given by the formulae

$$\begin{aligned} x_3 &= \lambda^2 + a_1 \lambda - a_2 - x_1 - x_2 , \\ y_3 &= -(\lambda + a_1) x_3 - \mu - a_3 ." \end{aligned}$$

Elliptic Curve Addition (3)

Constant Definition

```
curve_double e =
let f = e.field in
...
let a6 = e.a6 in
curve_case e (curve_zero e)
(\lambda x1 y1.
    let d = & 2 * y1 + a1 * x1 + a3 in
    if d = field_zero f then curve_zero e
    else
    let 1 = (& 3 * x1 ** 2 + & 2 * a2 * x1 + a4 - a1 * y1) / d in
    let m = (~(x1 ** 3) + a4 * x1 + & 2 * a6 - a3 * y1) / d in
    let x = 1 ** 2 + a1 * 1 - a2 - & 2 * x1 in
    let y = ~(1 + a1) * x - m - a3 in
    affine e.field [x; y])
```

The special case of $P_1 = -P_1$ is handled by the test for d = 0.

Elliptic Curve Addition (4)

Constant Definition

```
curve_add e p1 p2 =
if p1 = p2 then curve_double e p1
else
  let f = e field in
  . . .
  let a6 = e.a6 in
  curve_case e p2
    (\lambda x1 y1.
       curve_case e p1
         (\lambda x2 y2.
             if x1 = x2 then curve zero e
             else
               let d = x^2 - x^1 in
               let l = (y2 - y1) / d in
               let m = (y1 * x2 - y2 * x1) / d in
               let x = 1 ** 2 + a1 * 1 - a2 - x1 - x2 in
               let y = (1 + a1) * x - m - a3 in
               affine e.field [x; y]) p2) p1
```

Associativity Challenge Problem

Goal (Associativity of Point Addition)

```
\forall e \ \in \ \texttt{Curve.} \ \forall p \ q \ r \ \in \ \texttt{curve\_points} \ e.
```

```
curve_add e p (curve_add e q r)
```

```
curve_add e (curve_add e p q) r
```

=

Challenge 1: General Fields

- Elliptic curve addition is a group for *any* underlying field.
 - Can't simply specialize to the real or complex numbers, because cryptography application uses finite fields.
 - Can't simply assume the field elements form an entire type, because that makes it difficult to reason about subfields (the original Galois connection).
- So all the field operations must be partial functions.
- The assisting tool must be able to handle partial functions.

Challenge 2: Case Splitting

- A naive approach expands all the cases in the associativity goal (doubling vs. adding distinct points, etc.).
- This generates about 100 subgoals, each with a slightly different logical context.
- The assisting tool must be able to keep track of all the assumptions in each case.

Challenge 3: Polynomial Normalization

- After splitting into cases the naive approach expands all the polynomials and tries to show them equal.
- The intermediate expressions can become large (millions of symbols).
 - An instance of proof state space explosion?
- The assisting tool must be able to handle large terms.

Computer Algebra Techniques in Theorem Proving

- Use a computer algebra system as an oracle.
 - Needs careful handling to avoid unsoundness.
- Use the computer algebra system to compute a witness for the problem, and then verify it in the theorem prover.
 - Sound, but not all problems fit into the model.
- Implement computer algebra techniques as derived rules.
 - Sound, covers all problems, but might be inefficient.
- Implement computer algebra algorithms and data structures as object logic functions, prove them correct and execute them in the theorem prover.
 - Sound and efficient (same complexity), but can be difficult.

- Proving that doubling a point on an elliptic curve results in another point on the curve can be solved naively by multiplying out.
- The normalized polynomials reach 300,000 symbols before cancelling out, which is too big for the HOL theorem prover.
- However, this isn't a big problem for a computer algebra system.
- Would like a simple polynomial normalization algorithm.
 - Today will be used as an ML oracle.
 - One day could be formalized in HOL and proved correct.

Simple Polynomial Normalization

• Consider the following data structure for polynomials:



• Example: $(2x + 3)^6$ is represented as

 $\mathsf{Prod} \ \{\mathsf{Sum} \ \{\mathsf{Var} \ x \mapsto 2, \ \mathsf{Prod} \ \{\} \mapsto 3\} \mapsto 6\}$

• Note that numbers don't need a special constructor.

 Introduction
 Elliptic Curve Cryptography
 Challenge Problem
 Polynomial Normalization
 Summary

 Simple Polynomial Normalization
 Summary
 Summary
 Summary
 Summary

Simple normalization rules:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathsf{Sum} & (\{p \mapsto 0\} \cup M) & \longrightarrow & \mathsf{Sum} \ M \\ & \mathsf{Prod} & (\{p \mapsto 0\} \cup M) & \longrightarrow & \mathsf{Prod} \ M \\ & \mathsf{Sum} & (\{\mathsf{Sum} \ M' \mapsto n\} \cup M) & \longrightarrow & \mathsf{Sum} & ((n * M') \cup M) \\ & \mathsf{Prod} & (\{\mathsf{Prod} \ M' \mapsto n\} \cup M) & \longrightarrow & \mathsf{Prod} & ((n * M') \cup M) \end{array}$$

• One complicated normalization rule:

$$\mathsf{Prod}\left(\{\mathsf{Sum}\ S\mapsto n\}\cup P\right) \longrightarrow \mathsf{Sum}\left(S^n*P\right)$$

where S^n is the multinomial

$$(x_1+\cdots+x_m)^n = \sum_{k_1,\ldots,k_m} \binom{n}{k_1,\ldots,k_m} x_1^{k_1}\cdots x_m^{k_m}$$

- These rules are sufficient to normalize polynomials.
- Though simple, they are efficient enough to prove the closure of point doubling in just a few seconds.
- Notice that the bulk of the work is being done by the data structure, not the algorithm.

Show me your flowcharts and conceal your tables, and I shall continue to be mystified. Show me your tables, and I won't usually need your flowcharts; they'll be obvious. [Brooks, 1975]

Introduction	Elliptic Curve Cryptography	Challenge Problem	Polynomial Normalization	Summary
Summary	/			

- This talk has proposed the elliptic curve associativity law as a challenge problem for automated reasoning.
- It is a rare instance of a deep mathematical theorem that is needed for a practical low-level verification.
- One way to meet the challenge avoiding case splitting and large expressions would be to mechanize all the abstract algebra used in a mathematical proof.
 - This would be just as impressive!