Cryptographic software engineering, part 2

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Previous part:
• General software engineering.
• Using const-time instructions.
Software optimization

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But crypto software should be applied to all communication.

Crypto that’s too slow
⇒ fewer users
⇒ fewer cryptanalysts
⇒ less attractive for everybody.
Typical situation:

X is a cryptographic system.

You have written a (const-time) reference implementation of X.

You want (const-time) software that computes X as efficiently as possible.

You have chosen a target CPU. (Can repeat for other CPUs.)

You measure performance of the implementation. Now what?
A simplified example

Target CPU: TI LM4F120H5QR microcontroller containing one ARM Cortex-M4F core.

Reference implementation:

```c
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 1000; ++i)
        result += x[i];
    return result;
}
```
Counting cycles:

```c
static volatile unsigned int
    *const DWT_CYCCNT
    = (void *) 0xE0001004;
...

int beforesum = *DWT_CYCCNT;
int result = sum(x);
int aftersum = *DWT_CYCCNT;
UARTprintf("sum %d %d\n", result, aftersum-beforesum);
```

Output shows 8012 cycles.
Change 1000 to 500: 4012.
“Okay, 8 cycles per addition. Um, are microcontrollers really this slow at addition?”
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Try `-O1`: 8012 cycles.
Try `-O2`: 8012 cycles.
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Keep the fastest results.

Try `-Os`: 8012 cycles.
Try `-O1`: 8012 cycles.
Try `-O2`: 8012 cycles.
Try `-O3`: 8012 cycles.
Try moving the pointer:

```c
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 1000; ++i)
        result += *x++;
    return result;
}
```
Try moving the pointer:

```c
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 1000; ++i)
        result += *x++;
    return result;
}
```

8010 cycles.
Try counting down:

```c
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i;
    for (i = 1000; i > 0; --i)
        result += *x++;
    return result;
}
```
Try counting down:

```c
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i;
    for (i = 1000; i > 0; --i)
        result += *x++;
    return result;
}
```

8010 cycles.
Try using an end pointer:

```c
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int *y = x + 1000;
    while (x != y)
        result += *x++;
    return result;
}
```
Try using an end pointer:

```c
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int *y = x + 1000;
    while (x != y)
        result += *x++;
    return result;
}
```

8010 cycles.
Back to original. Try unrolling:

```c
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 1000; i += 2) {
        result += x[i];
        result += x[i + 1];
    }
    return result;
}
```
Back to original. Try unrolling:

```c
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 1000; i += 2) {
        result += x[i];
        result += x[i + 1];
    }
    return result;
}
```

5016 cycles.
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 1000; i += 5) {
        result += x[i];
        result += x[i + 1];
        result += x[i + 2];
        result += x[i + 3];
        result += x[i + 4];
    }
    return result;
}
int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 1000; i += 5) {
        result += x[i];
        result += x[i + 1];
        result += x[i + 2];
        result += x[i + 3];
        result += x[i + 4];
    }
    return result;
}

4016 cycles. “Are we done yet?”
“Why is this bad practice? Didn’t we succeed in making code twice as fast?”
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Yes, but CPU time is still nowhere near optimal, and human time was wasted.
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Good practice: Figure out lower bound for cycles spent on arithmetic etc. Understand gap between lower bound and observed time.

Manual says that Cortex-M4 “implements the ARMv7E-M architecture profile”.

Points to the “ARMv7-M Architecture Reference Manual”, which defines instructions: e.g., “ADD” for 32-bit addition.

First manual says that ADD takes just 1 cycle.
Inputs and output of ADD are “integer registers”. ARMv7-M has 16 integer registers, including special-purpose “stack pointer” and “program counter”.
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Basic load instruction: LDR. Manual says 2 cycles but adds a note about “pipelining”. Then more explanation: if next instruction is also LDR (with address not based on first LDR) then it saves 1 cycle.
$n$ consecutive LDRs
takes only $n + 1$ cycles
(“more multiple LDRs can be pipelined together”).

Can achieve this speed
in other ways (LDRD, LDM)
but nothing seems faster.

Lower bound for $n$ LDR + $n$ ADD:
$2n + 1$ cycles,
including $n$ cycles of arithmetic.

Why observed time is higher:
non-consecutive LDRs;
costs of manipulating $i$.  

int sum(int *x)
{
    int result = 0;
    int *y = x + 1000;
    int x0,x1,x2,x3,x4,
          x5,x6,x7,x8,x9;

    while (x != y) {
        x0 = 0[(volatile int *)x];
        x1 = 1[(volatile int *)x];
        x2 = 2[(volatile int *)x];
        x3 = 3[(volatile int *)x];
        x4 = 4[(volatile int *)x];
        x5 = 5[(volatile int *)x];
        x6 = 6[(volatile int *)x];
    }
x7 = 7[(volatile int *)x];
x8 = 8[(volatile int *)x];
x9 = 9[(volatile int *)x];
result += x0;
result += x1;
result += x2;
result += x3;
result += x4;
result += x5;
result += x6;
result += x7;
result += x8;
result += x9;
x0 = 10[(volatile int *)x];
x1 = 11[(volatile int *)x];
x2 = 12[(volatile int *)x];
x3 = 13[(volatile int *)x];
x4 = 14[(volatile int *)x];
x5 = 15[(volatile int *)x];
x6 = 16[(volatile int *)x];
x7 = 17[(volatile int *)x];
x8 = 18[(volatile int *)x];
x9 = 19[(volatile int *)x];
x += 20;
result += x0;
result += x1;
result += x2;
result += x3;
result += x4;
result += x5;
result += x6;
result += x7;
result += x8;
result += x9;
}

return result;
}
result += x6;
result += x7;
result += x8;
result += x9;
}

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2526 cycles. Even better in asm.
result += x6;
result += x7;
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result += x9;
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Wikipedia: “By the late 1990s for even performance sensitive code, optimizing compilers exceeded the performance of human experts.”
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return result;
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A real example

Salsa20 reference software: 30.25 cycles/byte on this CPU.

Lower bound for arithmetic: 64 bytes require
21 \cdot 16 \text{ 1-cycle ADDs,}
20 \cdot 16 \text{ 1-cycle XORs,}
so at least 10.25 cycles/byte.

Also many rotations, but ARMv7-M instruction set includes free rotation as part of XOR instruction. (Compiler knows this.)
Detailed benchmarks show several cycles/byte spent on load_littleendian and store_littleendian.

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Gap is mostly loads, stores. Minimize load/store cost by choosing “spills” carefully.
Which of the 16 Salsa20 words should be in registers?
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Spill to FPU instead of stack?
Don’t trust compiler to optimize instruction selection.
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Spill to FPU instead of stack? Don’t trust compiler to optimize instruction selection.

On bigger CPUs, selecting vector instructions is critical for performance.
https://bench.cr.yp.to includes 2392 implementations of 614 cryptographic primitives. >20 implementations of Salsa20.

Haswell: Reasonably simple ref implementation compiled with gcc -O3 -fomit-frame-pointer is 6.15× slower than fastest Salsa20 implementation.
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Fast random permutations

Goal: Put list \((x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) into a random order.
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One textbook strategy:
Sort \((Mr_1 + x_1, \ldots, Mr_n + x_n)\) for random \((r_1, \ldots, r_n)\), suitable \(M\).
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McEliece encryption example:
Randomly order 6960 bits \((1, \ldots, 1, 0, \ldots, 0)\), weight 119.
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McElieece encryption example:
Randomly order 6960 bits 
\((1, \ldots, 1, 0, \ldots, 0)\), weight 119.

NTRU encryption example:
Randomly order 761 trits 
\((\pm 1, \ldots, \pm 1, 0, \ldots, 0)\), wt 286.
Simulate uniform random $r_i$ using RNG: e.g., stream cipher.
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Uniform distribution; some cost.
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Uniform distribution; some cost.

Example: $n = 6960$ bits; weight 119; 31-bit $r_i$; no restart.
Any output is produced in $\leq 119!(n − 119)!\left(\frac{2^{31} + n − 1}{n}\right)$ ways; i.e., $< 1.02 \cdot 2^{31n}/\binom{n}{119}$ ways.
Factor $<1.02$ increase in attacker’s chance of winning.
Which sorting algorithm?

Reference bubblesort code does $n(n - 1)/2$ minmax operations.
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Many standard algorithms use fewer operations: mergesort, quicksort, heapsort, radixsort, etc.

But these algorithms rely on secret branches and secret indices.
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But these algorithms rely on secret branches and secret indices.

Exercise: convert mergesort into constant-time mergesort using \(\Theta(n^2)\) operations.
Converting bubblesort into constant-time bubblesort loses only a constant factor: cost of constant-time minmax.
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Sorting network on next slide: Batcher’s merge-exchange sort. \( \Theta(n(\log n)^2) \) minmax operations; \((1/4)(e^2 - e + 4)n - 1\) for \( n = 2^e \).
void sort(int32 *x, long long n)
{
    long long t, p, q, i;
    t = 1; if (n < 2) return;
    while (t < n-t) t += t;
    for (p = t; p > 0; p >>= 1) {
        for (i = 0; i < n-p; ++i)
            if (!(i & p))
                minmax(x+i, x+i+p);
        for (q = t; q > p; q >>= 1)
            for (i = 0; i < n-q; ++i)
                if (!(i & p))
                    minmax(x+i+p, x+i+q);
    }
}
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This is fastest available sorting software. Much faster than, e.g., Intel’s “Integrated Performance Primitives” software library.
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People optimize algorithms for a naive model of CPUs:
• Branches are fast.
• Random access is fast.
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People optimize algorithms for a naive model of CPUs:
• Branches are fast.
• Random access is fast.

CPUs are evolving farther and farther away from this naive model. Fundamental hardware costs of constant-time arithmetic are much lower than random access.
Modular arithmetic

Basic ECC operations: add, sub, mul of, e.g., integers mod $2^{255} - 19$.

(Basic NTRU operations: add, sub, mul of, e.g., polynomials mod $x^{761} - x - 1$.)
Modular arithmetic

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(Basic NTRU operations: add, sub, mul of, e.g., polynomials mod $x^{761} - x - 1$.)

Typical “big-integer library”: a variable-length uint32 string $(f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_{\ell-1})$ represents the nonnegative integer $f_0 + 2^{32}f_1 + \cdots + 2^{32(\ell-1)}f_{\ell-1}$. Uniqueness: $\ell = 0$ or $f_{\ell-1} \neq 0$. 
Library provides functions acting on this representation: (1) \( f, g \mapsto fg \); (2) \( f, g \mapsto f \mod g \); etc.
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But these functions take variable time to ensure uniqueness!

Need a different representation for constant-time arithmetic. Can also gain speed this way.
Constant-time bigint library: a constant-length `uint32` string
\((f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_{\ell-1})\) represents
the nonnegative integer
\(f_0 + 2^{32} f_1 + \cdots + 2^{32}(\ell-1) f_{\ell-1}\).

Adding two \(\ell\)-limb integers:
always allocate \(\ell + 1\) limbs.
Don’t remove top zero limb.
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Adding two \(\ell\)-limb integers: always allocate \(\ell + 1\) limbs. Don’t remove top zero limb.

Can also track bounds more refined than \(2^0, 2^{32}, 2^{64}, 2^{96}, \ldots\); but no limbs \(\mapsto\) bounds data flow.
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Can also track bounds more refined than \(2^0, 2^{32}, 2^{64}, 2^{96}, \ldots\); but no limbs→bounds data flow.

\(f \mod p\) is as short as \(p\).
Usually faster representation:

uint32 string \((f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_9)\)

represents \(f_0 + 2^{26} f_1 + 2^{51} f_2 + 2^{77} f_3 + 2^{102} f_4 + 2^{128} f_5 + 2^{153} f_6 + 2^{179} f_7 + 2^{204} f_8 + 2^{230} f_9.\)

Constant bound on each \(f_i.\)

More limbs than before,
but save time by avoiding overflows and delaying carries.

After multiplication,
replace \(2^{255}\) with 19.
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\[ \text{uint32 string } (f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_9) \]

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Constant bound on each \( f_i \).

More limbs than before, but save time by avoiding overflows and delaying carries.

After multiplication, replace \( 2^{255} \) with 19.

Slightly faster on some CPUs:

\[ \text{int32 string } (f_0, f_1, \ldots, f_9). \]
int32 f7_2 = 2 * f7;
int32 g7_19 = 19 * g7;
...
int64 f0g4 = f0 * (int64) g4;
int64 f7g7_38 =
    f7_2 * (int64) g7_19;
...
int64 h4 = f0g4 + f1g3_2
    + f2g2 + f3g1_2
    + f4g0 + f5g9_38
    + f6g8_19 + f7g7_38
    + f8g6_19 + f9g5_38;
...
c4 = (h4 + (int64)(1<<25)) >> 26;
h5 += c4; h4 -= c4 << 26;
Initial computation of \( h_0, \ldots, h_9 \) is polynomial multiplication modulo \( x^{10} - 19 \).

Exercise: Which polynomials are being multiplied?
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Reduction modulo $x^{10} - 19$ and carries such as $h_4 \rightarrow h_5$ squeeze the product into limited-size representation suitable for next multiplication.
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Reduction modulo $x^{10} - 19$ and carries such as $h_4 \rightarrow h_5$ squeeze the product into limited-size representation suitable for next multiplication.

At end of computation: freeze representation into unique representation suitable for network transmission.
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Progress in deploying proven
fast software: see, e.g., 2015
Bernstein–Schwabe “gfverif”;
2017 HACL* X25519 in Firefox.
gfverif has verified ref10 implementation of X25519, plus occasional annotations, against the following specification:

\[ p = 2^{255} - 19 \]
\[ A = 486662 \]
\[ x_2, z_2, x_3, z_3 = 1, 0, x_1, 1 \]

for i in reversed(range(255)):
    ni = bit(n, i)
    \[ x_2, x_3 = \text{cswap}(x_2, x_3, ni) \]
    \[ z_2, z_3 = \text{cswap}(z_2, z_3, ni) \]
    \[ x_3, z_3 = (4*(x_2*x_3-z_2*z_3)^2, 4*x_1*(x_2*z_3-z_2*x_3)^2) \]
    \[ x_2, z_2 = ((x_2**2-z_2**2)^2, 4*x_2*z_2*(x_2**2+A*x_2*z_2+z_2**2)) \]
\[ x_3, z_3 = (x_3 \mod p, z_3 \mod p) \]
\[ x_2, z_2 = (x_2 \mod p, z_2 \mod p) \]
\[ \text{cut}(x_2) \]
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\[ \text{cut}(z_2) \]
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\[ x_2, x_3 = \text{cswap}(x_2, x_3, ni) \]
\[ z_2, z_3 = \text{cswap}(z_2, z_3, ni) \]
\[ \text{cut}(x_2) \]
\[ \text{cut}(z_2) \]
\[ \text{return } x_2 \cdot \text{pow}(z_2, p-2, p) \]

What’s verified: output of ref10 is the same as spec mod \( p \), and is between 0 and \( p-1 \).
NIST P-256 prime $p$ is

$2^{256} - 2^{224} + 2^{192} + 2^{96} - 1$.

ECDSA standard specifies reduction procedure given an integer “A less than $p^2$”:

Write $A$ as

$(A_{15}, A_{14}, A_{13}, A_{12}, A_{11}, A_{10}, A_9, A_8, A_7, A_6, A_5, A_4, A_3, A_2, A_1, A_0)$,

meaning $\sum_i A_i 2^{32i}$.

Define

$T; S_1; S_2; S_3; S_4; D_1; D_2; D_3; D_4$ as
\((A_7, A_6, A_5, A_4, A_3, A_2, A_1, A_0); \\
(A_{15}, A_{14}, A_{13}, A_{12}, A_{11}, 0, 0, 0); \\
(0, A_{15}, A_{14}, A_{13}, A_{12}, 0, 0, 0); \\
(A_{15}, A_{14}, 0, 0, 0, A_{10}, A_9, A_8); \\
(A_8, A_{13}, A_{15}, A_{14}, A_{13}, A_{11}, A_{10}, A_9); \\
(A_{10}, A_8, 0, 0, 0, A_{13}, A_{12}, A_{11}); \\
(A_{11}, A_9, 0, 0, A_{15}, A_{14}, A_{13}, A_{12}); \\
(A_{12}, 0, A_{10}, A_9, A_8, A_{15}, A_{14}, A_{13}); \\
(A_{13}, 0, A_{11}, A_{10}, A_9, 0, A_{15}, A_{14}).

Compute \(T + 2S_1 + 2S_2 + S_3 + S_4 - D_1 - D_2 - D_3 - D_4\).

Reduce modulo \(p\) “by adding or subtracting a few copies” of \(p\).
What is “a few copies”?  
Variable-time loop is unsafe.
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Correct but quite slow:
conditionally add $4p$,
conditionally add $2p$,
conditionally add $p$,
conditionally sub $4p$,
conditionally sub $2p$,
conditionally sub $p$. 
What is “a few copies”? Variable-time loop is unsafe.

Correct but quite slow:
conditionally add $4p$,
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Delay until end of computation? Trouble: “A less than $p^2$”.
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Even worse: what about platforms where $2^{32}$ isn’t best radix?
There are many more ways that cryptographic design choices affect difficulty of building fast correct constant-time software.

e.g. ECDSA needs divisions of scalars. EdDSA doesn’t.

e.g. ECDSA splits elliptic-curve additions into several cases. EdDSA uses complete formulas.
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What’s better use of time: implementing ECDSA, or upgrading protocol to EdDSA?