

# Introduction to Elliptic Curve Cryptography

Anupam Datta

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# Elliptic Curve Cryptography

- Public Key Cryptosystem
- Duality between Elliptic Curve Cryptography and Discrete Log Based Cryptography
  - Groups / Number Theory Basis
  - Additive group based on curves
- What is the point?
  - Less efficient attacks exist so we can use smaller keys than discrete log / RSA based cryptography

# Computing Dlog in $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$ (n-bit prime p)

Best known algorithm (GNFS):

run time  $\exp(\tilde{O}(\sqrt[3]{n}))$

<u>cipher key size</u>	<u>modulus size</u>	<u>Elliptic Curve group size</u>
80 bits	1024 bits	160 bits
128 bits	3072 bits	256 bits
256 bits (AES)	<b><u>15360</u></b> bits	512 bits

As a result: slow transition away from (mod p) to elliptic curves

# Discrete Logs

- Let  $p = 2q + 1$  where  $p, q$  are large primes
- $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is the group of integers modulo  $p$
- $|\mathbb{Z}_p| = 2q$
- $G_q = QR(\mathbb{Z}_p)$  is the quadratic residue subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_p$
- $|QR(\mathbb{Z}_p)| = q$ , subgroup of prime order
- Every element  $g \in G_q$  is a generator, pick a random one
- Pick secret  $x$ , compute  $g^x \bmod p$
- Public:  $(p, q, g, g^x)$  Secret:  $x$
  
- Discrete Log Assumption: Given **Public** it is hard to find **Secret**

# Outline

- Elliptic curves over reals
- Elliptic curves over  $Z_p$
- ECDH and ECDSA

# Elliptic Curves

- Consider the following equation:

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

- Idea: we pick  $(a, b)$  and form a group which is a set containing all of the points that satisfy the equation
- This group will be defined with a very special addition operation which introduces an additional imaginary point

# Example



# Not all curves are valid elliptic curves



- Left:  $y^2 = x^3$  has a “cusp”
- Right:  $y^2 = x^3 - 3x + 2$  has a “self intersection”
- In general we require:  $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$
- Observation: curves are symmetric about the point  $y = 0$



# Elliptic Curves as a Group

- Groups are sets defined over some operation with some structure / properties
- $G = \{(x, y): y^2 = x^3 + ax + b\}$
- Define an operation denoted by '+' such that:
  - If  $p_1, p_2 \in G$ ,  $p_1 + p_2 \in G$  (Closure)
  - $(p_1 + p_2) + p_3 = p_1 + (p_2 + p_3)$  (Associative)
  - $\exists 0$  s.t.  $\forall p$   $p + 0 = 0 + p = p$  (Identity)
  - $\forall p \exists p^{-1}$  s.t.  $p + p^{-1} = 0$  (Inverse)
- Curves will form an abelian group
  - $p_1 + p_2 = p_2 + p_1$  (Commutative)

# The Group Operation

- **Not typical point-wise addition!**
- What is this 0 element?
  - $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$  does not include  $(0, 0)$  if  $b \neq 0$
- How do we know inverses exist if we don't know what the 0 element is?
- How do we maintain closure?
  - $(x, y) + (x, y) = (2x, 2y)$  for typical pointwise addition which in general does not lie on the curve

# The Group Operation

- Let  $P, Q, R \in G$ , such that a line passes through all of them, then group operation is:

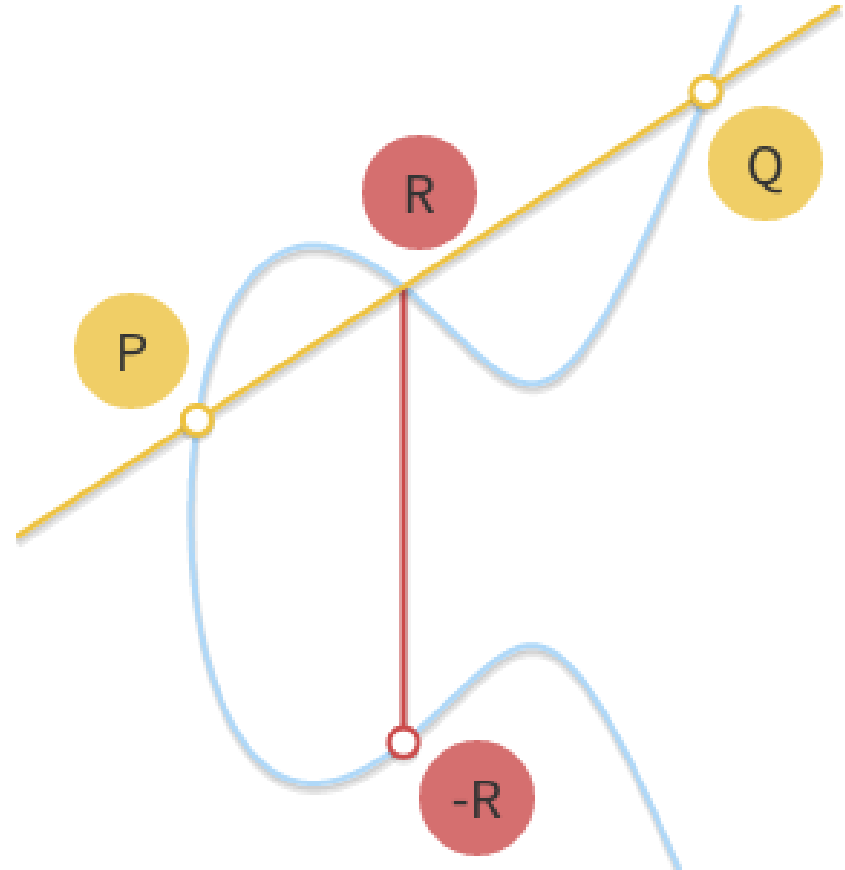
$$P + Q + R = 0$$

- This is strange, we have a relationship between points that lie along but no clear notion of traditional addition
- We can use the relationship to define a more traditional form of addition:

$$P + Q = -R$$

# The Group Operation

- $P + Q = -R$
- $R = (x_r, y_r), \quad -R = (x_r, -y_r)$
- What happens if we want to compute  $-R + R$ ?
  - What third point on the curve lies on the line defined by  $(R, -R)$ ?
- We say this is the point defined at infinity, we denote it by 0, and it is the additive identity
- $-R + R = 0$
- Adjust our definition of the group:
- $G = \{(x, y): y^2 = x^3 + ax + b\} \cup \{0\}$



# The Group Operation (Geometric)

- Given  $G = \{(x, y): y^2 = x^3 + ax + b\} \cup \{0\}$ , calculate  $P + Q$ 
  - Geometrically, figure out the third point  $R$  such that a line goes through  $P, Q, R$  and then set  $P + Q = -R$
- What could possibly go wrong?
  - $P$  or  $Q$  could be  $0$ 
    - $0$  is the identity under the group operation, so  $P + 0 = 0 + P = P$
  - $P = -Q$ 
    - This is the case of  $-R + R = 0$  which was defined by the vertical line
  - $P = Q$ 
    - Imagine tangent to  $P$ , use that to find  $R$ .  $P + P = -R$  describes the line tangent to  $P$  that intersects at  $R$
  - There is no 3<sup>rd</sup> point
    - This occurs when the line is tangent to exactly one of  $P$  or  $Q$ . Suppose the line is tangent to  $P$ , then from before we have  $P + P = -Q$  which gives us  $P + Q = -P$
    - If line is tangent to  $Q$ , then  $Q + Q = -P$  which would give us  $P + Q = -Q$

# Algebraic Solution

- Let  $P \neq Q$ , line defined by  $P, Q$  has slope

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

- Intersection with point  $R = (x_R, y_R)$ :
  - $x_R = m^2 - x_P - x_Q$
  - $y_R = y_P + m(x_R - x_P) = y_Q + m(x_R - x_Q)$
- How would we check that this is correct?
  - Check if  $(x_R, y_R) \in G$ , if it is then correct with high probability

# Multiplication

- We have defined addition, so now we can define multiplication
- $n * P = P + P + \dots + P$  ( $n - times$ )
- Inefficient for multiplying by large numbers
- Use doubling algorithm, analogue of repeated squaring algorithm for exponentiation
- Calculate 19 (6 Additions):
  - $A = 1 + 1 = 2$
  - $B = A + A = 2 + 2 = 4$
  - $C = B + B = 4 + 4 = 8$
  - $D = C + C = 16$
  - $19 = D + A + 1$

# Back to Discrete Logs

- In the discrete log setting, exponentiation was easy, but logs were hard
  - $g^x$  – Easy,  $\log_g g^x$  – Hard
- In the elliptic curve setting, multiplication is easy but division is hard
  - We still call division “logarithm” even though its really division here
- We used the asymmetry of these operations in the discrete log setting to do key exchange / encryption, can do a similar thing with elliptic curves



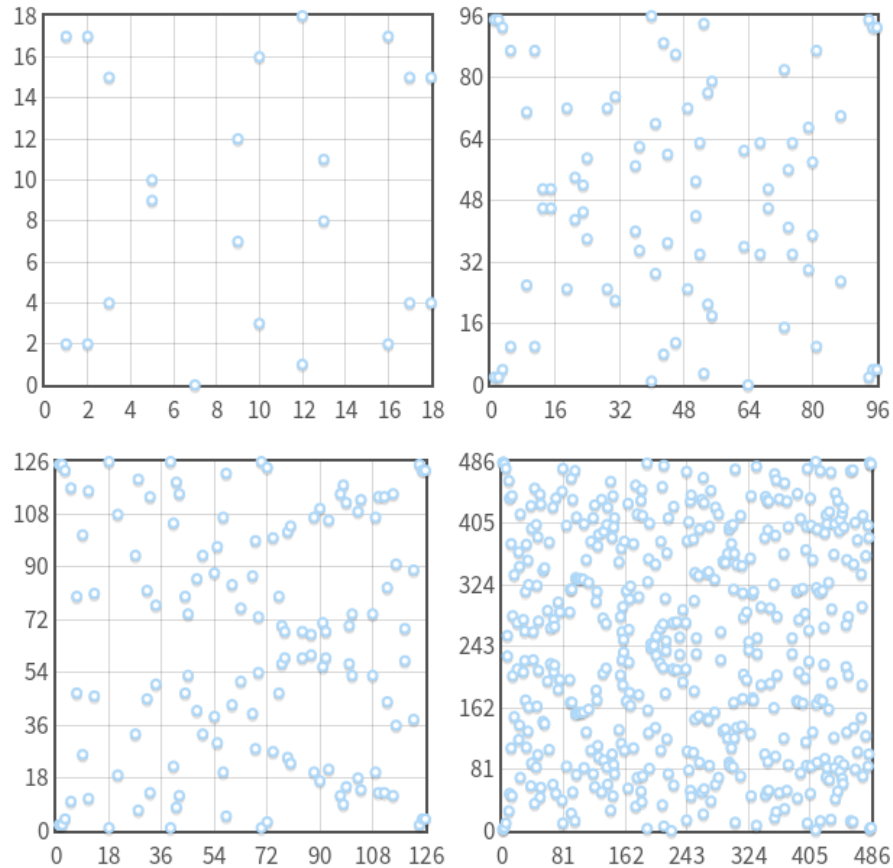
# Fields

- A field is a set  $\mathbb{F}$  with two operations  $(+, \times)$  that has the following properties:
  - $\mathbb{F}$  is an abelian group under  $+$
  - The non-zero elements of  $\mathbb{F}$  are an abelian group under  $\times$
  - $a(b + c) = ab + ac \quad \forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{F}$  (Distributive)

# Elliptic Curves Over a Field

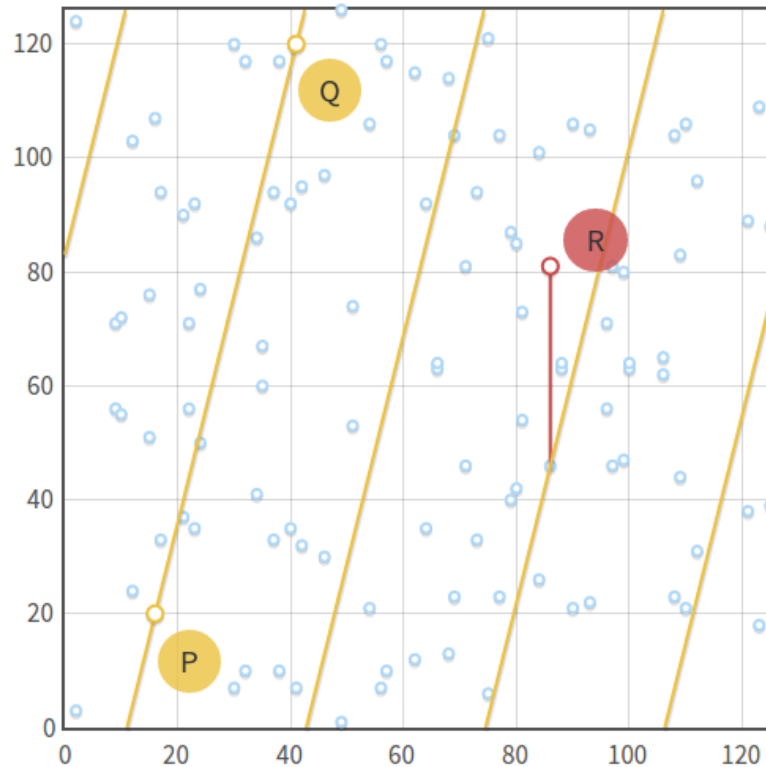
- Note:  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*(+, \times)$  is a field when  $n$  is prime
- Refine the definition of the curve group again:
- $$G = \left\{ (x, y) \in (\mathbb{F}_p)^2: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p} \right\} \cup \{0\}$$
$$\wedge 4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0 \pmod{p}$$
- Curves are now defined only at discrete points and not over the smooth lines that we had before

# Elliptic Curves Over a Field



$$y^2 = x^3 - 7x + 10 \pmod{p} \text{ where } p = 19, 97, 127, 487$$

# Operation for Curves Over a Field



Curve  $y^2 = x^3 - x + 3 \pmod{127}$ ,  $P = (16, 20)$ ,  $Q = (41, 120)$

# Operation for Curves Over a Field

- The addition operation that we defined before works exactly the same on curves defined over a field
- All of the special cases are handled exactly the same as before
- Intersection with point  $R = (x_R, y_R)$  still computed as:
  - $x_R = m^2 - x_P - x_Q \text{ mod } p$
  - $y_R = y_P + m(x_R - x_P) \text{ mod } p = y_Q + m(x_R - x_Q) \text{ mod } p$

# Order of Elliptic Curve Group

- # of unique points in the group
  - Could simply try and count them, but there are too many for this to be possible
- Efficient algorithms for computing this exist

# Subgroups of Elliptic Curve Groups

- In the discrete log setting, we selected a generator  $g$  and computed  $\{g^0, g^1, \dots\} \bmod p$
- This group generated by the generator had an order that divided the order of the parent group by Lagrange's Theorem
- In Elliptic Curves we can select a point  $P$  which is like a generator and compute  $\{0P, P, 2P, 3P, \dots\} \bmod p$ , we call this a **Base Point**
- This operation will also generate a cyclic subgroup of the Elliptic curve group whose order divides the order of the parent group

# Subgroups of Elliptic Curve Groups

- Suppose we pick a point,  $P$ , how can we find the order of the subgroup generated by  $P$ ?
- Let  $N$  be the order of the parent group
- Let  $N = p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \dots$  be the prime factorization of  $N$
- Let  $n$  be the order of the subgroup
- Idea: take all divisors of  $N$ , given by the prime factorization, and sort them smallest to largest, call them  $n$ . The order of the subgroup is the smallest  $n$  such that  $nP = 0$ .



# Finding Base Point With High Order

- We will want to find a base point that generates a subgroup with prime order that is as high as possible
- Let  $h = \frac{N}{n}$  we will call  $h$  the **cofactor** of the subgroup
- Let  $n$  be the largest prime factor in the prime factorization of  $N$
- $NP = 0$  because  $N$  is an integer multiple of any point  $P$
- $n(hP) = 0$  by re-writing  $N = nh$
- This tells us that the point  $hP = G$  has order  $n$  unless  $G = 0$
- $G$  is a generator of a cyclic subgroup of prime order  $n$

# ECDH – Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman

- Regular Diffie-Hellman:
  - Alice has secret  $a$  and computes  $g^a$
  - Bob has secret  $b$  and computes  $g^b$
  - They exchange and compute  $g^{ab}$
  - Key insight: it is hard for an adversary to compute  $g^{ab}$  from  $g^a, g^b$
- ECDH Setting, Public Parameters:  $(p, a, b, G, n, h)$ 
  - $p$  = large prime
  - $(a, b)$  = coefficients in  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$
  - $G$  = base point that generates subgroup of large prime order
  - $n$  = order of the subgroup
  - $h$  = cofactor of the subgroup

# ECDH – Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman

- Alice:  $d_A \leftarrow_R \mathbb{Z}_n$ ,  $H_A = d_A G$
- Bob:  $d_B \leftarrow_R \mathbb{Z}_n$ ,  $H_B = d_B G$
  
- Alice  $\rightarrow$  Bob:  $H_A$
- Bob  $\rightarrow$  Alice:  $H_B$
  
- Alice:  $d_A H_B = d_A d_B G$
- Bob:  $d_B H_A = d_B d_A G$
  
- Say  $S = d_A d_B G$  is the shared secret, can use it to derive a symmetric key

# ECDSA – Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm

- Public Information:  $(p, a, b, G, n, h)$
- Alice's Private Key:  $d_A$
- Alice's Public Key:  $H_A = d_A G$
  
- Alice signs a message  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  by performing the following:
  - $k \leftarrow_R \mathbb{Z}_n$
  - $P = kG = (x_P, y_P)$
  - $r = x_P \bmod n$ , if  $r = 0$  start over
  - $s = k^{-1}(m + rd_A) \bmod n$ , if  $s = 0$  start over
  - Output signature  $(s, r)$

# ECDSA – Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm

- Bob can verify a message signed by performing the following:
  - Bob gets  $(m, s, r, H_A)$
  - Calculate  $u_1 = s^{-1}m \bmod n$ ,  $u_2 = s^{-1}r \bmod n$
  - Calculate  $P = u_1G + u_2H_A$
  - Valid if and only if  $r = x_P \bmod n$

# ECDSA – Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm

- Check that the algorithm is correct:
  - $P = u_1G + u_2H_A = u_1G + u_2d_A G = (u_1 + u_2d_A)G$
  - $P = (s^{-1}m + s^{-1}rd_A)G = s^{-1}(m + rd_A)G$
  - $s = k^{-1}(m + rd_A) \rightarrow k = s^{-1}(m + rd_A)$
  - $P = s^{-1}(m + rd_A)G = kG$  – Thus the signature will verify correctly

# Acknowledgments

- Many slides created by Kyle Soska (TA for 18733 in Spring 2016)

# Pairing Based Cryptography

- Computational Diffie-Hellman
  - Given  $g, g^a, g^b$  compute  $g^{ab}$
- Decisional Diffie-Hellman
  - Given  $g, g^a, g^b$ , cant tell  $g^{ab}$  apart from random element  $g^c$  for random  $c$
- Let  $G_1, G_2, G_T$  be groups of prime order  $q$ , then a bilinear pairing denoted  $e$  is an operation that maps from  $G_1 \times G_2 \rightarrow G_T$  such that
- $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{F}_q, \forall P \in G_1, \forall Q \in G_2 \quad e(aP, bQ) = e(P, Q)^{ab} \neq 1$
- Idea: We can use pairing based cryptography to create a situation where Computational Diffie-Hellman is hard, but Decisional Diffie-Hellman is easy



# Pairing Based Cryptography

- Computational Diffie-Hellman
  - Given  $g, g^a, g^b$  compute  $g^{ab}$
- Decisional Diffie-Hellman
  - Given  $g, g^a, g^b$ , cant tell  $g^{ab}$  apart from random element  $g^c$  for random  $c$
- Suppose an adversary has  $g^a, g^b, g^z$ , where  $g^z$  is randomly either  $g^{ab}$  or  $g^c$  for  $c$  random. How can he check which one he has?
  - $e(g^a, g^b) = e(g, g)^{ab} = e(g, g^{ab})$
  - Adversary computes  $e(g, g^z) \stackrel{?}{=} e(g^a, g^b)$

# Pairing Based Signatures (Boneh et al.)

- $x \leftarrow_R \mathbb{Z}_q$
- Private Key:  $x$ , Public Key:  $g^x$
- Sign message  $m$  by hashing it yielding  $h = H(m)$  and signing the hash as  $\sigma = h^x$
- Verify  $(\sigma, m)$  as  $e(\sigma, g) \stackrel{?}{=} e(H(m), g^x)$ 
  - $e(\sigma, g) = e(h^x, g) = e(H(m)^x, g) = e(H(m), g)^x = e(H(m), g^x)$

# Twists Of Elliptic Curves

- Suppose you have an elliptic curve  $E[p]$  over some field  $\mathbb{F}$
- A twist of  $E[p]$  another elliptic curve over a field extension of  $\mathbb{F}$
- A twist of  $E[p]$  will be isomorphic to  $E[p]$ , namely it will have the same order, and there is a 1-1 onto mapping between them

# Other Notes

- Weil Pairing is a well studied pairing where the groups  $G$  are elliptic curves
- There are many standardized elliptic curve groups
  - $y^2 + xy = x^3 + ax^2 + 1$  over  $\mathbb{F}_{2^m}$ ,  $m = \text{prime}$  and  $a = 0$  or  $1$ 
    - Koblitz Curves, very fast addition and multiplication
  - $x^2 + y^2 = 1 + dx^2y^2$  where  $d = 0$  or  $1$ 
    - Edwards Curves, point addition is the same in all cases, and reasonably fast