# Elliptic Curve Cryptography in Bitcoin

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**Group Theory Recap** 

# Groups

#### Definition

A set G with a binary operation  $\star$  defined on it is called a group if

- the operation \* is associative,
- there exists an identity element  $e \in G$  such that for any  $a \in G$

$$a \star e = e \star a = a$$
,

• for every  $a \in G$ , there exists an element  $b \in G$  such that

$$a \star b = b \star a = e$$
.

### Example

• Modulo n addition on  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ 

# Cyclic Groups

#### Definition

A finite group is a group with a finite number of elements. The order of a finite group *G* is its cardinality.

#### Definition

A cyclic group is a finite group G such that each element in G appears in the sequence

$$\{g, g \star g, g \star g \star g, \ldots\}$$

for some particular element  $g \in G$ , which is called a generator of G.

### Examples

- For an integer  $n \ge 1$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, ..., n-1\}$ 
  - Operation is addition modulo n
  - Z<sub>n</sub> is cyclic with generator 1
- For an integer  $n \ge 2$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{i \in \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{0\} \mid \gcd(i, n) = 1\}$ 
  - Operation is multiplication modulo n
  - $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$  is cyclic if n is a prime

## Subgroups

- Definition: If G is a group, a nonempty subset H ⊆ G is a subgroup of G if H itself forms a group under the same operation associated with G.
- Example: Consider the subgroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}.$
- **Lagrange's Theorem:** If *H* is a subgroup of a finite group *G*, then |*H*| divides |*G*|.
- Example: Check the cardinalities of the subgroups of Z<sub>6</sub>.
- **Corollary:** If a group has prime order, then every non-identity element is a generator.

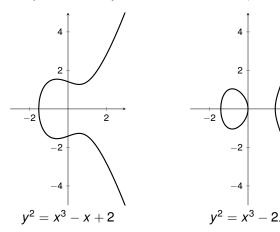
# Elliptic Curves Over Real Numbers

# Elliptic Curves over Reals

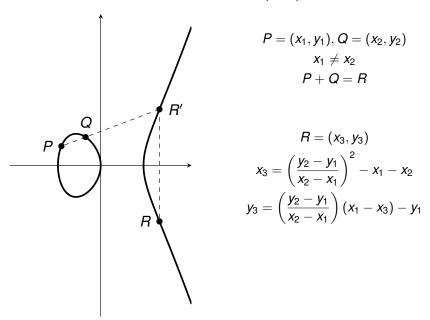
The set E of real solutions (x, y) of

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

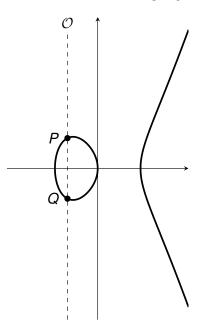
along with a "point of infinity"  $\mathcal{O}$ . Here  $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$ .



# Point Addition (1/3)

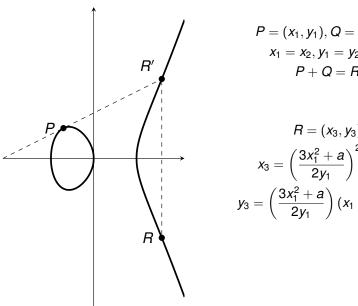


# Point Addition (2/3)



$$P = (x_1, y_1), Q = (x_2, y_2)$$
  
 $x_1 = x_2, y_1 = -y_2$   
 $P + Q = \mathcal{O}$ 

# Point Addition (3/3)



$$P = (x_1, y_1), Q = (x_2, y_2)$$
  
 $x_1 = x_2, y_1 = y_2 \neq 0$   
 $P + Q = R$ 

$$R = (x_3, y_3)$$

$$x_3 = \left(\frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}\right)^2 - 2x_1$$

$$y_3 = \left(\frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}\right)(x_1 - x_3) - y_1$$

# Elliptic Curves Over Finite Fields

#### **Fields**

#### Definition

A set F together with two binary operations + and \* is a field if

- F is an abelian group under + whose identity is called 0
- $F^* = F \setminus \{0\}$  is an abelian group under \* whose identity is called 1
- For any  $a, b, c \in F$

$$a*(b+c)=a*b+a*c$$

#### Definition

A finite field is a field with a finite cardinality.

#### Prime Fields

- $\mathbb{F}_p = \{0, 1, 2, ..., p-1\}$  where p is prime
- + and \* defined on  $\mathbb{F}_p$  as

$$x + y = x + y \mod p$$
,  
 $x * y = xy \mod p$ .

• F<sub>5</sub>

+	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4	0
2	2	3	4	0	1
3	3	4	0	1	2
4	4	0	1	2	3

*	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4
2	0	2	4	1	3
3	0	3	1	4	2
4	0	4	3	2	1

In fields, division is multiplication by multiplicative inverse

$$\frac{x}{y} = x * y^{-1}$$

#### Characteristic of a Field

#### Definition

Let F be a field with multiplicative identity 1. The characteristic of F is the smallest integer p such that

$$\underbrace{1+1+\cdots+1+1}_{p \text{ times}}=0$$

#### Examples

- $\mathbb{F}_2$  has characteristic 2
- F<sub>5</sub> has characteristic 5
- R has characteristic 0

#### **Theorem**

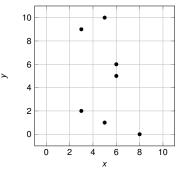
The characteristic of a finite field is prime

# Elliptic Curves over Finite Fields

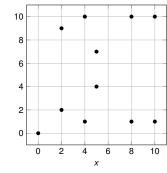
For char(F)  $\neq$  2, 3, the set E of solutions (x, y) in F<sup>2</sup> of

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

along with a "point of infinity"  $\mathcal{O}$ . Here  $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$ .



$$y^2 = x^3 + 10x + 2$$
 over  $\mathbb{F}_{11}$ 



$$y^2 = x^3 + 9x \text{ over } \mathbb{F}_{11}$$

#### Point Addition for Finite Field Curves

- Point addition formulas derived for reals are used
- Example:  $y^2 = x^3 + 10x + 2$  over  $\mathbb{F}_{11}$

+	0	(3,2)	(3,9)	(5,1)	(5, 10)	(6,5)	(6,6)	(8,0)
0	0	(3,2)	(3,9)	(5, 1)	(5, 10)	(6,5)	(6,6)	(8,0)
(3, 2)	(3, 2)	(6, 6)	$\mathcal{O}$	(6,5)	(8,0)	(3, 9)	(5, 10)	(5,1)
(3,9)	(3,9)	0	(6, 5)	(8,0)	(6,6)	(5,1)	(3, 2)	(5, 10)
(5, 1)	(5, 1)	(6,5)	(8,0)	(6,6)	0	(5, 10)	(3,9)	(3, 2)
(5, 10)	(5, 10)	(8,0)	(6,6)	O	(6,5)	(3,2)	(5,1)	(3, 9)
(6,5)	(6,5)	(3,9)	(5,1)	(5, 10)	(3, 2)	(8,0)	0	(6,6)
(6,6)	(6, 6)	(5, 10)	(3, 2)	(3,9)	(5,1)	0	(8,0)	(6,5)
(8,0)	(8,0)	(5,1)	(5, 10)	(3, 2)	(3,9)	(6,6)	(6,5)	O

- The set  $E \cup \mathcal{O}$  is closed under addition
- · In fact, its a group

# Bitcoin's Elliptic Curve: secp256k1

•  $y^2 = x^3 + 7$  over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  where

$$p = \underbrace{\text{FFFFFFF}}_{\text{48 hexadecimal digits}} \text{FFFFFFE}_{\text{FFFFFFE}} \text{FFFFFC2F}$$

$$= 2^{256} - 2^{32} - 2^9 - 2^8 - 2^7 - 2^6 - 2^4 - 1$$

- $E \cup \mathcal{O}$  has cardinality n where
  - n = FFFFFFFF FFFFFFFF FFFFFFFF FFFFFFFF BAAEDCE6 AF48A03B BFD25E8C D0364141
- Private key is  $k \in \{1, 2, ..., n-1\}$
- Public key is kP where P = (x, y)
  - x = 79BE667E F9DCBBAC 55A06295 CE870B07
     029BFCDB 2DCE28D9 59F2815B 16F81798,
    y = 483ADA77 26A3C465 5DA4FBFC 0E1108A8
     FD17B448 A6855419 9C47D08F FB10D4B8.

# Point Multiplication using Double-and-Add

- Point multiplication: kP calculation from k and P
- Let  $k = k_0 + 2k_1 + 2^2k_2 + \cdots + 2^mk_m$  where  $k_i \in \{0, 1\}$
- Double-and-Add algorithm
  - Set N = P and  $Q = \mathcal{O}$
  - for i = 0, 1, ..., m
    - if  $k_i = 1$ , set  $Q \leftarrow Q + N$
    - Set N ← 2N
  - Return Q

# Why ECC?

 For elliptic curves E(F<sub>q</sub>), best DL algorithms are exponential in n = ⌈log<sub>2</sub> q⌉

$$C_{EC}(n)=2^{n/2}$$

- In  $\mathbb{F}_p^*$ , best DL algorithms are sub-exponential in  $N = \lceil \log_2 p \rceil$ 
  - $L_p(v,c) = \exp\left(c(\log p)^v(\log\log p)^{(1-v)}\right)$  with 0 < v < 1
- Using GNFS method, DLs can be found in  $L_p(1/3, c_0)$  in  $\mathbb{F}_p^*$

$$C_{CONV}(N) = \exp\left(c_0 N^{1/3} \left(\log\left(N\log 2\right)\right)^{2/3}\right)$$

- Best algorithms for factorization have same asymptotic complexity
- For similar security levels

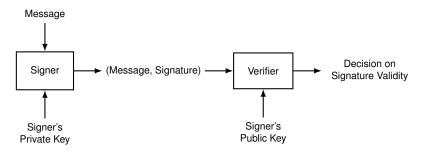
$$n = \beta N^{1/3} (\log (N \log 2))^{2/3}$$

- Key size in ECC grows slightly faster than cube root of conventional key size
  - 173 bits instead of 1024 bits, 373 bits instead of 4096 bits

# Digital Signatures

# Digital Signatures

- Digital signatures prove that the signer knows private key
- Interactive protocols are not feasible in practice



# Schnorr Signature Algorithm

- Based on the Schnorr identification scheme
- Let G be a cyclic group of order q with generator g
- Let  $H: \{0,1\}^* \mapsto \mathbb{Z}_q$  be a cryptographic hash function
- Signer knows  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  such that public key  $h = g^x$

#### Signer:

- 1. On input  $m \in \{0,1\}^*$ , chooses  $k \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$
- 2. Sets  $I := g^k$
- 3. Computes r := H(I, m)
- 4. Computes  $s = rx + k \mod q$
- 5. Outputs (r, s) as signature for m

#### Verifier

- 1. On input m and (r, s)
- 2. Compute  $I := g^s \cdot h^{-r}$
- 3. Signature valid if  $H(I, m) \stackrel{?}{=} r$
- Example of Fiat-Shamir transform
- Patented by Claus Schnorr in 1988

# Digital Signature Algorithm

- Part of the Digital Signature Standard issued by NIST in 1994
- Based on the following identification protocol
  - 1. Suppose prover knows  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  such that public key  $h = g^x$
  - 2. Prover chooses  $k \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and sends  $I := g^k$
  - 3. Verifier chooses uniform  $\alpha, r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  and sends them
  - 4. Prover sends  $s := [k^{-1} \cdot (\alpha + xr) \mod q]$  as response
  - 5. Verifier accepts if  $s \neq 0$  and

$$g^{\alpha s^{-1}} \cdot h^{rs^{-1}} \stackrel{?}{=} I$$

- Digital Signature Algorithm
  - 1. Let  $H: \{0,1\}^* \mapsto \mathbb{Z}_q$  be a cryptographic hash function
  - 2. Let  $F: G \mapsto \mathbb{Z}_q$  be a function, not necessarily CHF
  - 3. Signer:
    - 3.1 On input  $m \in \{0,1\}^*$ , chooses  $k \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and sets  $r := F(g^k)$
    - 3.2 Computes  $s := [k^{-1} \cdot (H(m) + xr)] \mod q$
    - 3.3 If r = 0 or s = 0, choose k again
    - 3.4 Outputs (r, s) as signature for m
  - 4. Verifier
    - 4.1 On input m and (r, s) with  $r \neq 0, s \neq 0$  checks

$$F\left(g^{H(m)s^{-1}}h^{rs^{-1}}\right)\stackrel{?}{=}r$$

#### **ECDSA** in Bitcoin

- Signer: Has private key k and message m
  - 1. Compute e = SHA-256(SHA-256(m))
  - 2. Choose a random integer j from  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$
  - 3. Compute jP = (x, y)
  - 4. Calculate  $r = x \mod n$ . If r = 0, go to step 2.
  - 5. Calculate  $s = j^{-1}(e + kr) \mod n$ . If s = 0, go to step 2.
  - 6. Output (r, s) as signature for m
- **Verifier:** Has public key kP, message m, and signature (r, s)
  - 1. Calculate e = SHA-256(SHA-256(m))
  - 2. Calculate  $j_1 = es^{-1} \mod n$  and  $j_2 = rs^{-1} \mod n$
  - 3. Calculate the point  $Q = j_1 P + j_2(kP)$
  - 4. If  $Q = \mathcal{O}$ , then the signature is invalid.
  - 5. If  $Q \neq \mathcal{O}$ , then let  $Q = (x, y) \in \mathbb{F}_p^2$ . Calculate  $t = x \mod n$ . If t = r, the signature is valid.
- As n is a 256-bit integer, signatures are 512 bits long
- As *j* is randomly chosen, ECDSA output is random for same *m*

#### References

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   D. Boneh, V. Shoup, www.cryptobook.us
- Chapter 2 of *An Introduction to Bitcoin*, S. Vijayakumaran, www.ee.iitb.ac.in/~sarva/bitcoin.html