



# Elliptic Curve Cryptography, Part 2

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ECC domain parameters

Scalar multiplication

Projective coordinates

Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems

Conclusions

## ECC domain parameters

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# The order of the elliptic-curve group

- ▶ To have  $n$  bits of security for DL it would be sufficient that:
  - (1)  $q = \text{ord}(G) \geq 2^{2n}$  and  $q$  prime
  - (2)  $\mathcal{E}$  is chosen so that it *avoids some properties*
- ▶ Due to Lagrange:  $\text{ord}(G) \mid \#\mathcal{E}$
- ▶ So we need  $\mathcal{E}$  with an order that is divisible by a prime  $\geq 2^{2n}$
- ▶ What can we expect for  $\#\mathcal{E}$ ?
  - for roughly half of the values  $x \in \mathbb{F}_p$ , the expression  $x^3 + ax + b$  is a square (mathematical term: *quadratic residue*)
  - if so and if  $y$  is a solution, so is  $-y$
  - so  $\#\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_p) \approx \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 \cdot p + 1 = p + 1$

## Theorem of Hasse (Helmut Hasse, 1922)

For an elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{F}_p$ :  $\#\mathcal{E} = p + 1 + t$  with  $-2\sqrt{p} \leq t \leq 2\sqrt{p}$

# ECC domain parameters

- ▶ We want  $\mathcal{E}$  with  $\#\mathcal{E} = hq$  with  $q$  a large prime and  $h \leq 10$  or so
- ▶ Technique: repeat until a suitable curve is found:
  - take parameters  $p, a, b$  that would give a *good* curve
  - compute  $\#\mathcal{E}$  with Schoof's algorithm (see Wikipedia)
- ▶ To assure backdoor absence, choice of  $p, a, b$  should be *explainable*
- ▶ Curves are proposed by experts and standardization bodies

## ECC domain parameters

- ▶ The prime  $p$  (in general, a prime power  $p^n$  including  $p = 2$ )
- ▶ The curve parameters  $a$  and  $b$  (may have a different shape)
- ▶ The generator  $G$
- ▶ The order  $q$  of the generator
- ▶ The co-factor:  $h = \#\mathcal{E}/q$

## Standard elliptic curves [for info only]

- ▶ 2000: First ECC domain parameters by company Certicom
- ▶ 2004: NIST standardized these and added some more
  - range of target security strength matching key lengths of AES
  - $p$  are *Pseudo-Mersenne* primes for efficient modular reduction
    - ▶  $p_{256} = 2^{256} - 2^{224} + 2^{192} + 2^{96} - 1$
    - ▶  $p_{384} = 2^{384} - 2^{128} - 2^{96} + 2^{32} - 1$
    - ▶  $p_{521} = 2^{521} - 1$  (an actual Mersenne prime!)
  - all have cofactor  $h = 1$ , gives certain advantages
  - all have  $a = -3$ , allowing optimizations
  - innuendo of NSA backdoor, up to now without proof
- look it up:** <https://csrc.nist.gov/publications/detail/sp/800-186/draft>
- ▶ 2005: German *Brainpool* consortium proposed alternative curves
- ▶ 2010: China publishes its own curves
- ▶ 2011: la France présente sa propre courbe: *die Französische Kurve*
- ▶ etc.

Efficient curves based on new insights and advanced math, best known:

- ▶ 2005: [Curve25519](#) by Dan Bernstein, 126-bit security
- ▶ 2015: [Curve448-Goldilocks](#) by Mike Hamburg, 224-bit security
- ▶ 2015: [FourQ](#) by Craig Costello/Patrick Longa, 123-bit security

Their introduction was followed by a fierce battle for adoption

- ▶ Technical merit plays a role for adoption but other aspects too
- ▶ Lobbying in standardization groups and development community
  - ISO, NIST, BSI, ...
  - Internet standard governing TLS 1.3, SSH, ...: CFRG
  - OpenSSL, OpenVPN, ...
  - Signal, WhatsApp, ...

# Scalar multiplication

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# Efficient scalar multiplication

- Scalar multiplication is the ECC counterpart of exponentiation
- Computing  $[a]G$  in naive way takes  $a - 1$  point additions
- Infeasible if  $a$  and the coordinates of  $G$  are hundreds of bits long
- ECC counterpart of square-and-multiply is **double-and-add**
- Example:  $[43]G$  with  $G = (5, 1) \in \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_{23}) : y^2 = x^3 - x - 4$

10	$[2]G$	$=$	$G + G$	$[2]G =$	$(2, 18)$	$=$	$(5, 1) + (5, 1)$
100	$[4]G$	$=$	$[2]G + [2]G$	$[4]G =$	$(14, 9)$	$=$	$(2, 18) + (2, 18)$
1000	$[8]G$	$=$	$[4]G + [4]G$	$[8]G =$	$(21, 17)$	$=$	$(14, 9) + (14, 9)$
10000	$[16]G$	$=$	$[8]G + [8]G$	$[16]G =$	$(5, 22)$	$=$	$(21, 17) + (21, 17)$
100000	$[32]G$	$=$	$[16]G + [16]G$	$[32]G =$	$(2, 5)$	$=$	$(5, 22) + (5, 22)$

working it out:

11	$[3]G$	$=$	$[2]G + G$	$[3]G =$	$(20, 15)$	$=$	$(5, 1) + (2, 18)$
1011	$[11]G$	$=$	$[8]G + [3]G$	$[11]G =$	$(9, 7)$	$=$	$(21, 17) + (20, 15)$
101011	$[43]G$	$=$	$[32]G + [11]G$	$[43]G =$	$(21, 6)$	$=$	$(2, 5) + (9, 7)$

- Only 5 doublings and 3 additions instead of 42
- Side note: this example can be done in 3 doubling and 1 addition (find out why!)

## Pseudocode for double-and-add, left-to-right variant

**Input:** point  $G \in \mathcal{E}$ , scalar  $a \in \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$

**Output:**  $A \in \mathcal{E}$  with  $A = [a]G$

Let  $a = a_0 + 2a_1 + 2^2a_2 + 2^3a_3 + \dots + 2^{n-1}a_{n-1}$  and  $\forall i : a_i \in \mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z}$

$T \leftarrow G$

**for**  $i \leftarrow n - 2$  **down to**  $0$  **do**

$T \leftarrow [2]T$

**if**  $a_i = 1$  **then**  $T \leftarrow T + G$

**end for**

**return**  $A \leftarrow T$

- ▶ there are many other algorithms for scalar multiplication
- ▶ for better efficiency, protection against side channel or fault injection attacks, ...
- ▶ these are out of scope of this course

# Projective coordinates

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# Projective space

- ▶ Remarkable:  $\mathcal{O} \in \mathcal{E}$  but **no** solution of the Weierstrass equation
- ▶ ... that defines a subset of the affine plane:  $\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{F}_p \times \mathbb{F}_p\}$

More *natural*: picture the elliptic curve in the *projective plane*

## The projective plane $\mathbb{P}^2$ over a field $K$

Set of equiv. classes of triplets  $(X, Y, Z)$  (all in  $K$ ) excluding  $(0, 0, 0)$

The equivalence relation is defined as

$$(X_1, Y_1, Z_1) \sim (X_2, Y_2, Z_2) \Leftrightarrow \exists \lambda \in K \setminus \{0\} : (X_1, Y_1, Z_1) = (\lambda X_2, \lambda Y_2, \lambda Z_2)$$

- ▶ We write  $(X : Y : Z)$  for the equivalence class containing  $(X, Y, Z)$
- ▶ Each class  $(X : Y : Z)$  corresponds to a point
- ▶ If  $Z \neq 0$  this is affine point  $(x, y) = (X \times Z^{-1}, Y \times Z^{-1})$
- ▶ Classes  $(X : Y : 0)$  are “points at infinity”

$\mathbb{P}^2$  is the affine plane extended with the (line of) points at infinity

# The elliptic curve equation in homogeneous coordinates

Substitution of  $x$  by  $X/Z$  and  $y$  by  $Y/Z$  in the Weierstrass equation  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$  and multiplication by  $Z^3$  yields

$$Y^2Z = X^3 + aXZ^2 + bZ^3$$

In this equation all terms have the same degree (3)  $\Rightarrow$  *homogeneous*

Therefore these  $(X : Y : Z)$  are called *homogeneous coordinates*

Intersection of curve with line at infinity  $Z = 0$  is  $(0 : 1 : 0)$

- ▶ Neutral element:  $\mathcal{O} = (0 : 1 : 0)$  satisfies the homogeneous equation!
- ▶ Inverse:  $-(X : Y : Z) = (X : -Y : Z)$

Computing with these, we can avoid multiplicative inverses! Intuition:

$$(X/R : 0 : Z) = (X : 0 : Z \times R)$$

Note: there are other types of projective coordinates

There is a wide variety of representations, **make sure to check**  
<https://hyperelliptic.org/EFD/>

- ▶ Hardness of ECDLP is independent of the representation
- ▶ Affine is most compact and hence used in communication
- ▶ Projective avoids inversions and hence used in computation
- ▶ Converting projective to affine requires inverting  $Z$
- ▶ Best choice of type of projective coordinates depends on
  - protocol: key agreement, signature, encryption, ...
  - platform: CPU instruction set, co-processor presence, ASIC, ...
  - domain parameters: pseudo-Mersenne or not, value of  $a$ , ...
  - need for protection against side channel attacks, ...
  - this is a subject of cryptographic engineering

# Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems

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## Key pair generation in ECC

$$a \xleftarrow{s} \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$$

$$A \leftarrow [a]G$$

ECC variants of classical discrete log schemes:

- ▶ ECDH: shared secret is x-coordinate of point on curve
- ▶ EC ElGamal encryption: plaintext and ciphertext are points on curve
- ▶ EC Schnorr authentication
- ▶ EC signature variants:
  - ECDSA (of DSA)
  - EdDSA (Schnorr signature)

All we said about classical discrete-log schemes applies to EC variants too

But there are some specifics . . .



# Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman (ECDH) key exchange

	Alice		Bob
have in advance:	$\mathcal{E}, G, (q)$		$\mathcal{E}, G, (q)$
	$a \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$		$b \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$
	$A \leftarrow [a]G$		$B \leftarrow [b]G$
		$\xrightarrow{\text{Alice}, A}$	
		$\xleftarrow{\text{Bob}, B}$	
	$P \leftarrow [a]B$		$P \leftarrow [b]A$

Alice and Bob arrive at the same shared secret point  $P$

$$P = [a]B = [a][b]G = [ab]G = [b][a]G = [b]A$$

- ▶ As shared secret one takes the  $x$ -coordinate of the shared point  $P$
- ▶ Does this reduce the security?
  - given  $P \in \mathcal{E}$ ,  $x_p$  almost fully determines  $P$
  - $y_p$  has 2 possible values, so carries one more bit of information
- ▶ Alice and Bob derive key(s) from secret:  $K \leftarrow h(\text{"KDF"}; x_p)$

# EC ElGamal encryption

Alice	Bob
$\mathcal{E}, G, (q), B$	$\mathcal{E}, G, (q), b, B(= [b]G)$
$a \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$	
$A \leftarrow [a]G$	
$C \leftarrow M + [a]B$	$M \leftarrow C - [b]A$

- ▶ Cryptogram consists of two points on the curve: 4 affine coordinates
- ▶ Reduce data overhead by using *compressed representation*:
  - $x$ -coordinate and parity of  $y$ :  $y \bmod 2$
  - requires reconstruction of  $y$ -coordinate by receiver
- ▶ Reconstruction: compute  $x^3 + ax + b$  and take its square root
- ▶ Square root is non-trivial but feasible: [for info only]
  - if  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ ,  $\sqrt{x} = \pm x^{(p+1)/4}$
  - for  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  it is more complicated

# EC Schnorr authentication protocol

Alice		Bob
$\mathcal{E}, G, q, A, a$		$\mathcal{E}, G, q$ (Alice: $A$ )
$v \xleftarrow{s} \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$		
$V \leftarrow [v]G$	$\xrightarrow{\text{Alice}, V}$	$c \xleftarrow{s} \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$
	$\xleftarrow{c}$	
$r \leftarrow v - ca$	$\xrightarrow{r}$	$V \stackrel{?}{=} [r]G + [c]A$

- ▶ Just a different cyclic group
- ▶ Commitment  $V$  is now much shorter
- ▶ ...and can be shortened more with compressed point representation

# EC Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA)

- ▶ NIST standard FIPS 186 defined DSA
  - This standard is updated regularly
  - FIPS 186-2 (2000) refers to ECDSA in an ANSI standard
  - FIPS 186-3 (2009) specifies ECDSA
  - Currently: draft FIPS 186-5 under revision
- ▶ ECDSA is probably the most implemented DL signature algorithm

This thing looks like this [for information only]:

Alice	Bob
$\mathcal{E}, G, q, A, a$	$\mathcal{E}, G, q$ (Alice: $A$ )
$v \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}, V \leftarrow [v]G$	
$c \leftarrow x_v \bmod q$	
$r \leftarrow v^{-1}(h(m) + ca)$	$\xrightarrow{m, (r, c)} w \leftarrow r^{-1}$
	$P \leftarrow [h(m)w]G + [cw]A$
	$c \stackrel{?}{=} x_P \bmod q$

# EdDSA: the return of Schnorr!

Dan Bernstein proposes EdDSA as ECDSA alternative in 2007

- ▶ Ed stands for Edwards curve but maybe also *deterministic*
- ▶ It derives ephemeral key  $v$  from message
  - for this the private key is extended with a secret  $k$
  - this avoids weaknesses due to bad randomness
  - ... but introduces other potential vulnerabilities
- ▶ Ed25519: EdDSA using SHA-512 and Curve25519
- ▶ Ed448: EdDSA using SHAKE256 and Curve448 (much nicer!)

Specifications are a messy affair, but in our formalism it looks like this:

Alice	Bob
$\mathcal{E}, G, q, A, a, k$	$\mathcal{E}, G, q$ (Alice: $A$ )
$v \leftarrow h(k; m), V \leftarrow [v]G$	
$c \leftarrow h(\mathcal{E}; G; A; V; m)$	
$r \leftarrow v + ca$	$\xrightarrow{m, (r, V)} c \leftarrow h(\mathcal{E}; G; A; V; m)$
	$[r]G \stackrel{?}{=} V + [c]A$

ECC is probably the most widespread public-key crypto, e.g.,

- ▶ Handshake in TLS 1.3 (HTTPS)
- ▶ Secure Shell (SSH)
- ▶ Key agreement in Signal, Whatsapp
- ▶ Software update signatures (Sony, ...)
- ▶ Signatures in Bitcoin and other cryptocurrencies

For more examples, see

[In search of CurveSwap: Measuring elliptic curve implementations in the wild](#), L. Valenta et al.

<https://eprint.iacr.org/2018/298.pdf>.

# Conclusions

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- ▶ ECC is probably the most widespread public key crypto
- ▶ Elliptic curves provide great groups for discrete log based crypto
  - key exchange, encryption, authentication and signatures
  - short public keys, signatures and shared secrets
  - there is a wide variety of curves and representations
- ▶ ECC is efficient
  - projective coordinates for efficient point addition and doubling
  - double-and-add for efficient scalar multiplication
  - point compression for very short public keys and signatures
- ▶ Elliptic curves support *pairings* that allow exotic functionality (out of scope of this introductory course)