

Elliptic curve cryptography

Outline

■ Elliptic curves.

- Over the reals.

- Elliptic curve addition.

- Geometric and algebraic.

- Over finite fields, $\text{GF}(p)$.

Elliptic curves

- We have seen some problems, DLP, CDHP, DDHP which are considered hard.
- Some of these problems are over Abelian fields or groups.
- We have looked at fields $GF(p)$ where the elements of the field are simply integers, and the operations are modular.
- But these are not the only domains we can use.
- Miller and Koblitz, independently, suggested the use of elliptic curves for constructing public-key cryptosystems.

- We can take an Elliptic curve over a field, $\text{GF}(p)$, or $\text{GF}(p^m)$.
 - We are effectively restricting solutions to an equation to elements of a particular field.
- The problems like DLP are not necessarily hard in those fields, so we need to be a little careful.

Relative key sizes: For similar security

Symmetric (key size)	ECC-based (group order)	RSA/DSA (modulus size)
56	112	512
80	160	1024
112	224	2048
128	256	3072
192	384	7680
256	512	15360

- We will see later why this is the case.

Elliptic curves over the reals

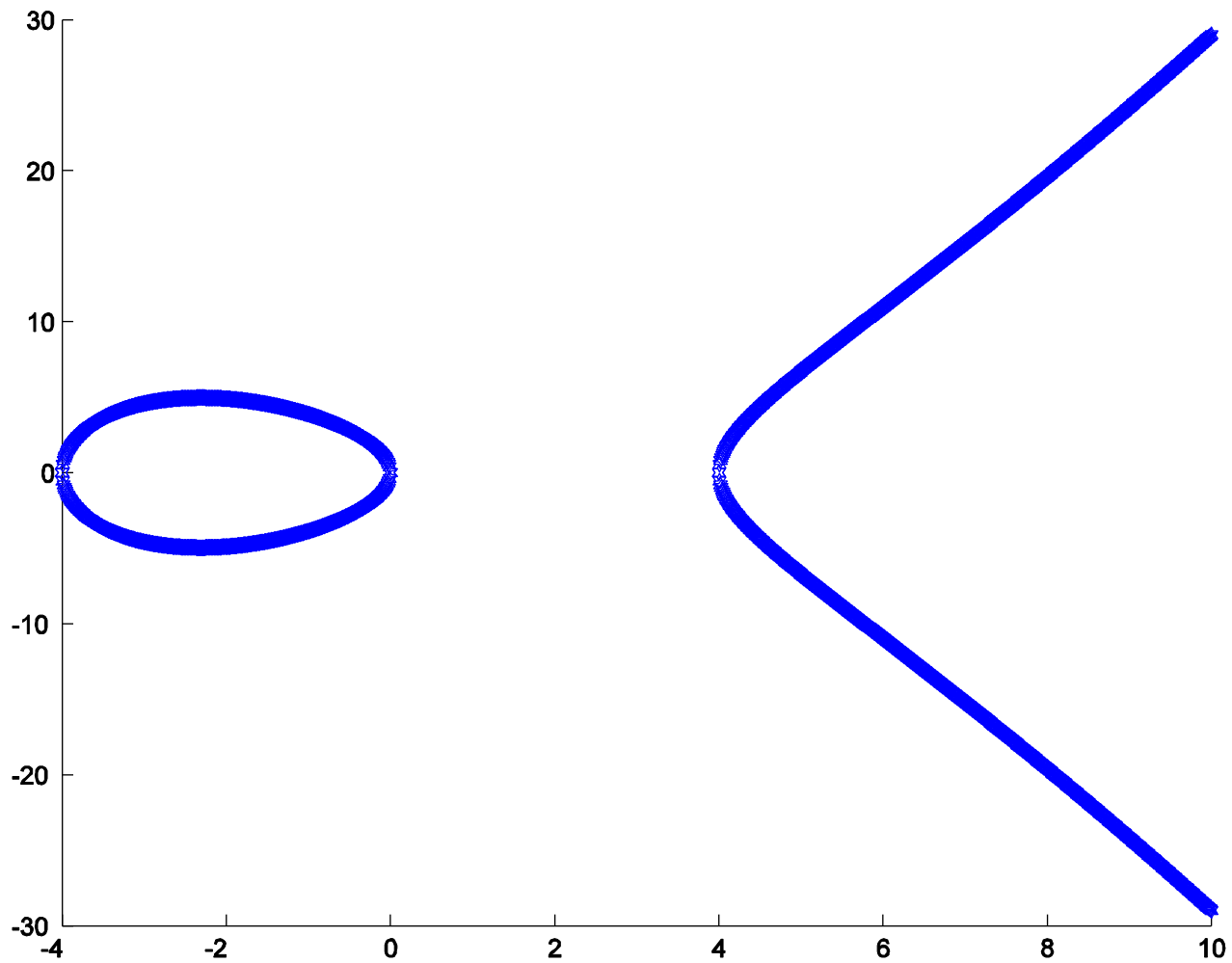
- Constant $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ (reals) satisfying the discriminant $\Delta = -4a^3 - 27b^2 \neq 0$.
- A *non-singular elliptic curve* is the set E of solutions $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ to the equation

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

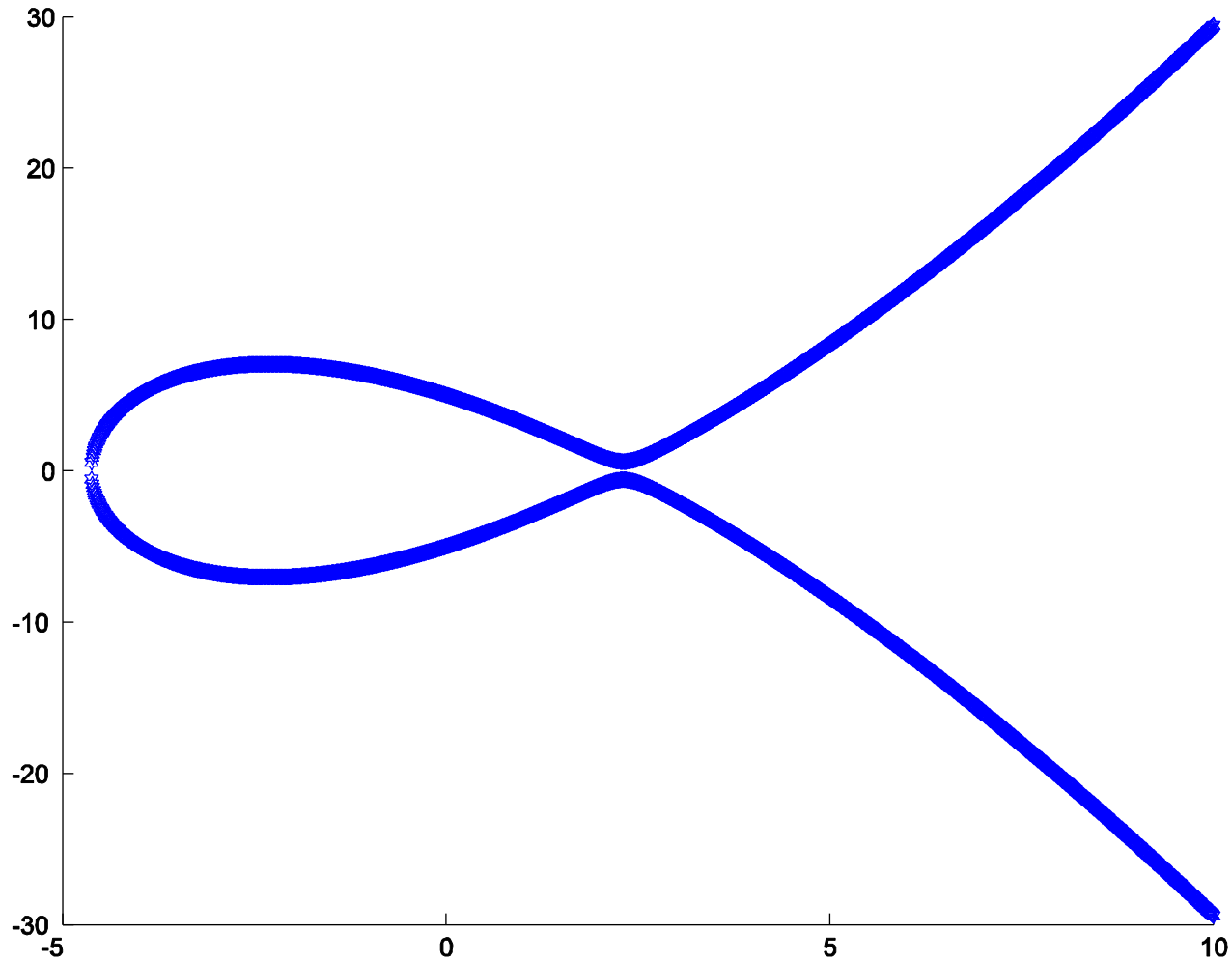
along with a point O , referred to as the *point at infinity*.

This is the form we are interested in.

$$y^2 = x^3 - 16x$$



$$y^2 = x^3 - 16x + 25$$

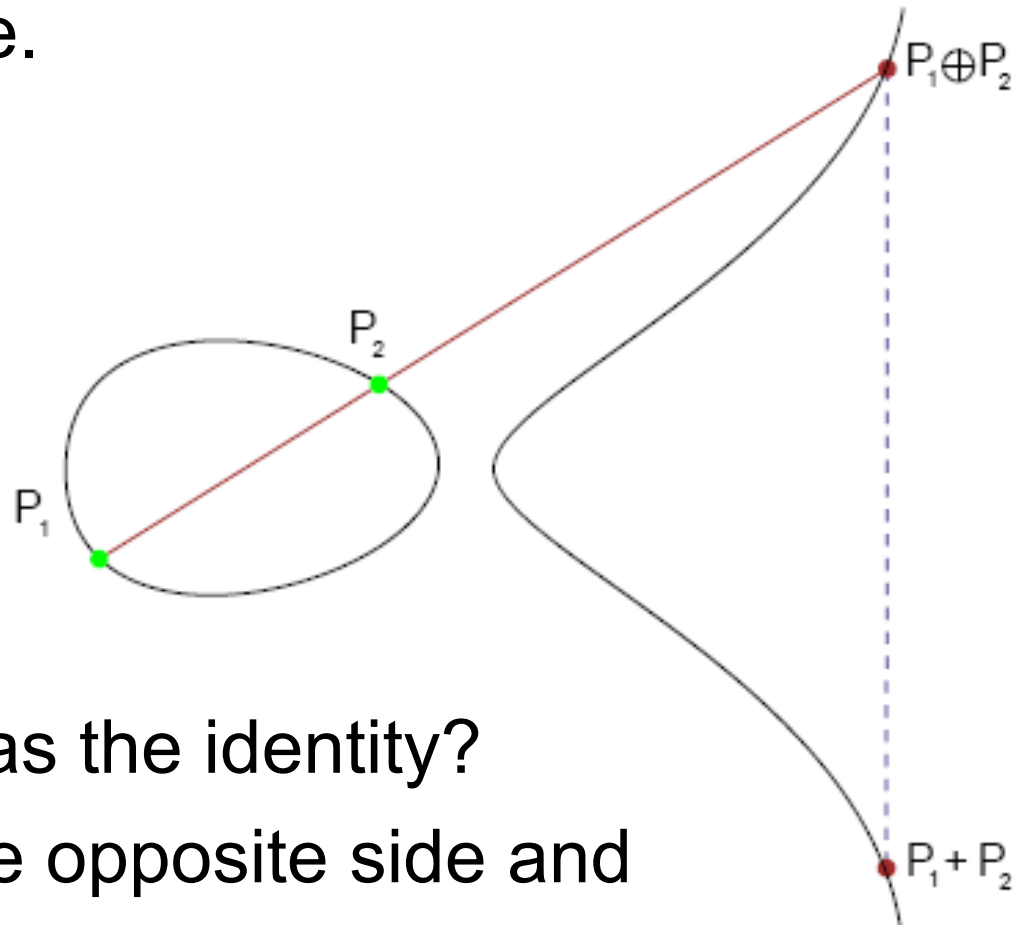


Elliptic curve “addition”

- To get to an Abelian group we need a commutative binary operation.
 - This addition can be defined geometrically, making use of intersections and mirror images.
 - The addition can, alternately, be represented algebraically.
- The point at infinity acts as the identity.

- Let P_1 and P_2 be elements of E .
- We can calculate $P_1 + P_2$ geometrically by drawing a line through P_1 and P_2 and recording the point on interception of the curve.

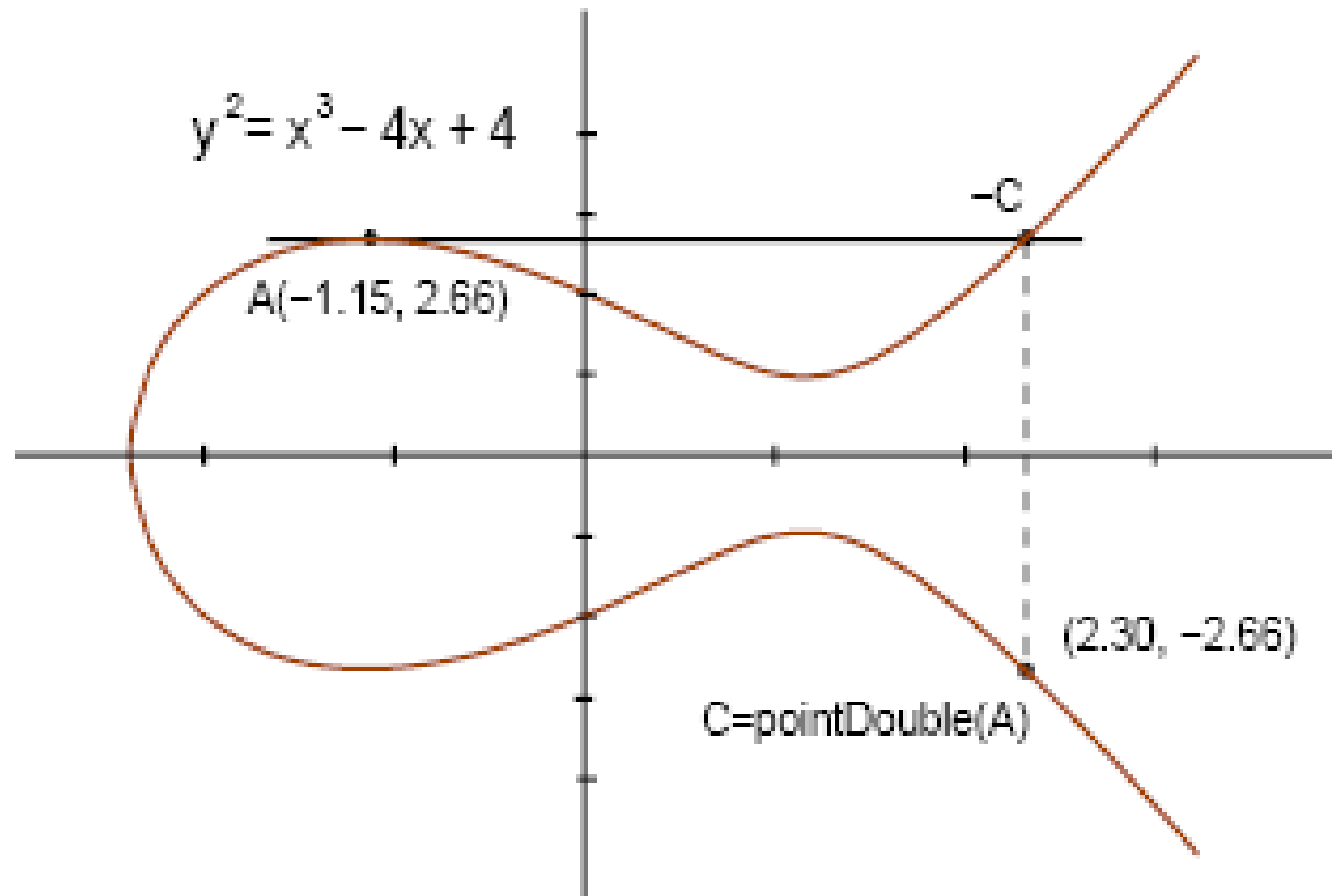
- The reflection across the x axis and onto the elliptic curve E is the solution $P_1 + P_2$.



- How does infinity act as the identity?
- “A vertical line” hits the opposite side and reflects back.

What about algebraically?

- Consider the P_1 is at (x_1, y_1) and that P_2 is at (x_2, y_2) .
- Then $P_1 + P_2 = P_3$ at (x_3, y_3) where
$$x_3 = s^2 - x_1 - x_2 \text{ and } y_3 = -y_1 + s(x_1 - x_3) \text{ with}$$
$$s = (y_1 - y_2)/(x_1 - x_2) \text{ being the slope.}$$
- In the case of $x_1 = x_2$ we have either
- ... $y_1 = -y_2$, so the points are inverses and we get a vertical line which intercepts the point set at infinity (i.e. at the identity...)
- Or ... we have $y_1 = y_2$, so we are “point doubling” or adding the point to itself.
 - In this case we take the tangent at the curve at the point to be the line through it (corresponding to $s = (3x_1^2 + a)/(2y_1)$).



From Chang et.al.

Elliptic curves over $\text{GF}(p)$

- The reals are an infinite field.
- In cryptography the finite fields are more frequently used.
- We can consider elliptic curves where the operations are all carried out with the elements being elements of some field, and operations being “modular”.
- E is the set of solutions (x,y) to $y^2=x^3+ax+b \pmod{p}$, where $4a^3+27b^2 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, along with the point at infinity.

$$y^2 = x^3 + x + 6 \text{ over GF}(11)$$

x	$x^3+x+6 \bmod 11$	QR?	y
0	6		
1	8		
2	5		
3	3		
4	8		
5	4		
6	8		
7	4		
8	9		
9	7		
10	4		

$$y^2 = x^3 + x + 6 \text{ over GF}(11)$$

x	$x^3 + x + 6 \bmod 11$	QR?	y
0	6	No	
1	8	No	
2	5	Yes	4,7
3	3	Yes	5,6
4	8	No	
5	4	Yes	2,9
6	8	No	
7	4	Yes	2,9
8	9	Yes	3,8
9	7	No	
10	4	yes	2,9

The set is the point at infinity and (2,4),(2,7),(3,5),(3,6) (5,2),(5,9),(7,2),(7,9), (8,3), (8,8),(10,2),(10,9).

13 elements. Since the order is prime, every element other than the point at infinity is a generator.

The elliptic curve specifies how elements are added.

Example: Given $E: y^2 = x^3 + 2x + 2 \pmod{17}$ and point $P=(5, 1)$

Goal: Compute $2P = P+P = (5, 1)+(5, 1) = (x_3, y_3)$

- **Example:** Given $E: y^2 = x^3 + 2x + 2 \pmod{17}$ and point $P = (5, 1)$
Goal: Compute $2P = P + P = (5, 1) + (5, 1) = (x_3, y_3)$

$$s = \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1} = (2 \cdot 1)^{-1}(3 \cdot 5^2 + 2) = 2^{-1} \cdot 9 \equiv 9 \cdot 9 \equiv 13 \pmod{17}$$

$$x_3 = s^2 - x_1 - x_2 = 13^2 - 5 - 5 = 159 \equiv 6 \pmod{17}$$

$$y_3 = s(x_1 - x_3) - y_1 = 13(5 - 6) - 1 = -14 \equiv 3 \pmod{17}$$

Finally $2P = (5, 1) + (5, 1) = (6, 3)$

■ 椭圆曲线上的点构加上无穷远点成一个循环子群

$$2P = (5, 1) + (5, 1) = (6, 3)$$

$$3P = 2P + P = (10, 6)$$

$$4P = (3, 1)$$

$$5P = (9, 16)$$

$$6P = (16, 13)$$

$$7P = (0, 6)$$

$$8P = (13, 7)$$

$$9P = (7, 6)$$

$$10P = (7, 11)$$

$$11P = (13, 10)$$

$$12P = (0, 11)$$

$$13P = (16, 4)$$

$$14P = (9, 1)$$

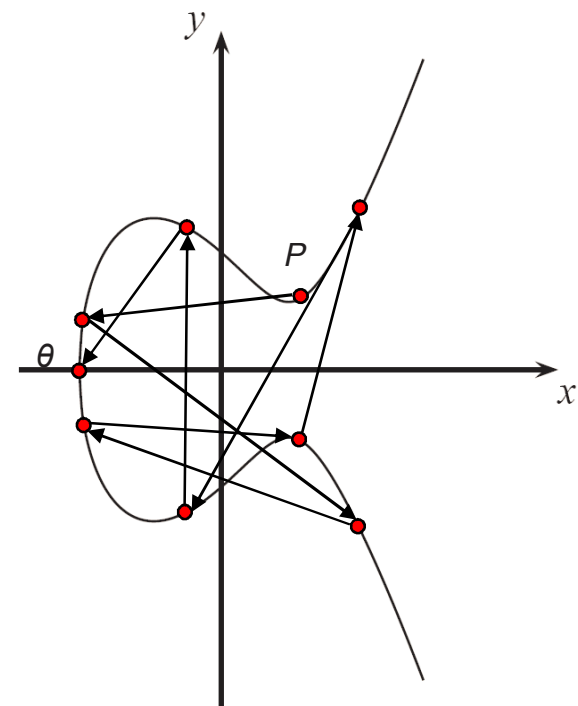
$$15P = (3, 16)$$

$$16P = (10, 11)$$

$$17P = (6, 14)$$

$$18P = (5, 16)$$

$$19P = \theta$$



这个椭圆曲线的位数为19，因为其包含19个点

ECC based crypto version

Outline

- The ECDLP Problem:
 - Getting a group.
 - Order.
- Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange.
- Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange
- Elliptic Curve El-Gamal.

The ECDLP Problem

- The most common hard problem that underlies the use of public key elliptic curve cryptosystems is the **Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem**.
- Let E be the set of points of our elliptic curve defined over the field $GF(p)$.
 - The collection of points and the operation of addition, as defined earlier, form a group which we could denote $E(GF(p))$.
 - In this group the common operation is “scalar multiplication”.

- Notice that we have a group not a field.
- Scalar multiplication is not an additional binary operation, rather is an extension of the addition rule.
- We write scalar multiplication, of a point P , by an integer k as kP , and define it as $P+P+\dots+P$ with k copies of P in the sum.
- We can now define the **Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem**:
 - Given two points in E , P_1 and P_2 , find k : $P_1=kP_2$.

Order ... group and element ...

- We denote by $\#E$ the number of points on the curve, that is, the number of elements in our group $E(\text{GF}(p))$.
 - $\#E(\text{GF}(p^m)) = p^m + 1 - t$
 t is called the trace of Frobenius at p^m and satisfies (Hasse's theorem):
$$-2\sqrt{p^m} \leq t \leq 2\sqrt{p^m}$$
- Each element (point) P also has an order, the smallest element x : $xP = O$ (the identity or point at infinity).
- If the group order is prime, the group is cyclic, all elements, except the point at infinity, are generators and all have an order equal to the group order.
 - We want such an Abelian group.
 - We don't always get one directly!

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- The first public key system.
- Security is based on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithm.
 - Actually security it is based on the computational Diffie-Hellman problem.
- System Setup
 - A finite field Z_p , where p is prime.
 - A primitive element $g \in Z_p$.
 - p and g are public.

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

■ The Protocol

- Alice selects a secret X_A , for $X_A \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, and computes her public key $Y_A = g^{X_A} \bmod p$.
- Bob selects a secret X_B , for $X_B \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, and computes his public key $Y_B = g^{X_B} \bmod p$.
- Alice sends Y_A to Bob.
- Bob sends Y_B to Alice.
- Alice computes the shared secret key $K = Y_B^{X_A} \bmod p$.
- Bob computes the shared secret key $K = Y_A^{X_B} \bmod p$.

EC Diffie-Hellman key exchange

- We can carry out a similar exchange using an Abelian group over an Elliptic curve.
- The two users agree upon a curve over a field, $E(\text{GF}(q))$, of known order n , and on a generator P , a base point.
- Each user selects a secret key $k_{si} < n$, and calculates their public key $K_{pi} = k_{si}P$.

- So, with Alice and Bob, we have temporary pairs (k_{sA}, K_{pA}) and (k_{sB}, K_{pB}) .
- Alice gets the public key of Bob and calculates $K = k_{sA} K_{pB}$.
- Bob gets the public key of Alice and calculates $K = k_{sB} K_{pA}$.
- Both have the secret key K .

EC El-Gamal

- The parameters are, as in Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange over an Elliptic Curve, $E(\text{GF}(p))$, $\text{GF}(p)$, P and n .
- Alice wants to encrypt a message for Bob.
- Alice knows the public component of Bob's key pair (k_{sB}, K_{pB}) .
- Alice chooses a random $r < n$, and determines $U=rP$.
- She also calculates $(x_q, y_q)=Q=rK_{pB}$.

- Finally Alice calculates $c = M \text{ XOR } x_q$.
- The encrypted message is $\langle U, c \rangle$.
- To decrypt, Bob calculates

$$(x_q, y_q) = Q = k_{sB} U$$

then

$$M = c \text{ XOR } x_q.$$

- This works since $Q = rK_{pB} = rk_{sB}P = k_{sB}(rP) = k_{sB}U$.

Bilinear Pairing

Outline

- Motivating the use of bilinear pairings.
- Bilinear pairing
- Security problems

Motivating the use of bilinear pairings

- Specifically, consider that we have two cyclic groups G_1 and G_2 .
- Furthermore assume that there exists an isomorphism $\varphi : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$, and that this isomorphism can be carried out efficiently.
- Then, the difficulty of a problem, say the discrete log problem, in G_1 , cannot be significantly greater than the difficulty of the problem in G_2 .

For example...

- Consider that in G_1 we have the DLP:
Given P_1 and Q_1 determine k where $P_1 = kQ_1$.
- We can calculate $P_2 = \varphi(P_1)$.
- Now it follows from the definition of an isomorphism that $P_2 = \varphi(kQ_1) = k\varphi(Q_1)$.
- Thus we have the DLP in G_2 :
Given P_2 and Q_2 determine k where $P_2 = kQ_2$.

Bilinear pairings

- Let G_1, G_2 be additive groups of prime order p
- Let G_3 be multiplicative group of prime order p
- There is a mapping (the bilinear pairing)

$$e: G_1 \times G_2 \rightarrow G_3.$$

- The mapping is required to have several properties:
 - Bilinearity:
 - $e(P+Q, R) = e(P, R) \cdot e(Q, R)$
 - $e(P, R+S) = e(P, R) \cdot e(P, S)$
 - This implies $e(aP, bR) = e(P, R)^{ab} = e(bP, aR) = e(R, P)^{ab}$.
 - Non-degeneracy: $\exists (P, R) \in G_1 \times G_2 : e(P, R) \neq 1$
 - Efficiency: $e(P, R)$ can be efficiently calculated.

Bilinear pairings

- Weil Pairing
- Tate Pairing

Security for pairing over EC

- Security depends on the hardness of one of a number of computational or decisional problems.
 - We have already seen the Elliptic Curve Discrete Log Problem (ECDLP).
 - We will now briefly look at the Bilinear Diffie-Hellman problem (BDHP).

BDHP

■ The Bilinear Diffie-Hellman Problem:

For P a generator, given the collection $\langle P, aP, bP, cP \rangle$, for $a, b, c \in_R \mathbb{Z}_r$, compute $e(P, P)^{abc}$.

- And, in the standard relationship manner, the corresponding BDH assumption is that there is no efficient algorithm to solve the BDHP with non-negligible probability.

CDH and DDH

- There are also the CDH and DDH problems.
 - For elliptic curves these are expressed for additive groups.
- Computational Diffie-Hellman problem
 - Given P in G , xP , and yP , compute xyP
- Decisional Diffie-Hellman problem
 - Given P in G , xP , yP , and $Q = zP$, decide whether $z = xy$.

DDH in pairing

- DDH problem in pairing is easy

Given P in G , xP , yP , and $Q = zP$, decide whether $z = xy$

$$e(xP, yP) = e(P, P)^{xy}$$

$$e(P, zP) = e(P, P)^z$$