

# Introduction to Elliptic Curve Cryptography

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# What is an Elliptic Curve

## Characteristic of a Field

When a field  $\mathbb{K}$  is finite, it is always of the form  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{F}_q$  where  $q = p^m$ . The integer  $p$  is called the characteristic of the field, denoted  $\text{char}(\mathbb{K})$ . When  $\text{char}(\mathbb{K}) = 2, 3$  the field is said to be of *small characteristic*. Otherwise it is said to be of *large characteristic*. (this includes infinite fields)

In the sequel we only consider fields of large characteristic.

## Weierstraß Equation

Let  $\mathbb{K}$  a field of large characteristic and  $a, b \in \mathbb{K}$  such that  $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$ .

The elliptic curve  $\mathcal{E}$  of parameters  $a$  and  $b$  defined over  $\mathbb{K}$  is  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{O}$  where :

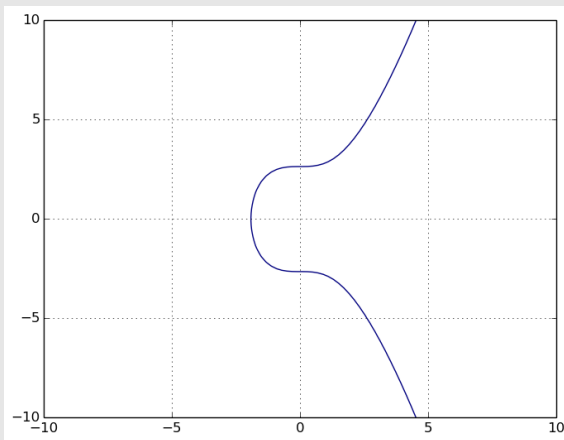
- $\mathcal{S}$  is the set of points  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{K}^2$  verifying

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

- $\mathcal{O}$  is a special point called 'point at infinity'. (may be viewed as the point  $(0, \infty)$ )

## An Elliptic Curve over $\mathbb{R}$

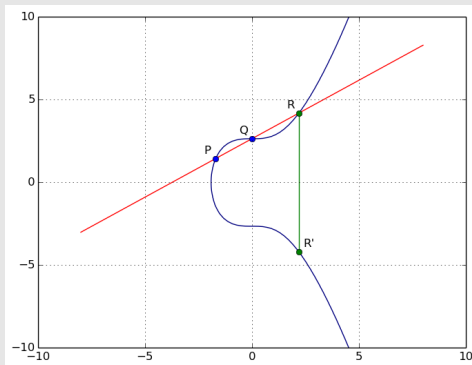
Defined over the real numbers ( $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ ), an elliptic curve may look like this:



Notice the symmetry with respect to the X axis.

## The Addition Law

Given two points  $P$  and  $Q$ , the straight line passing between these two points always crosses the curve on a third point  $R$ :

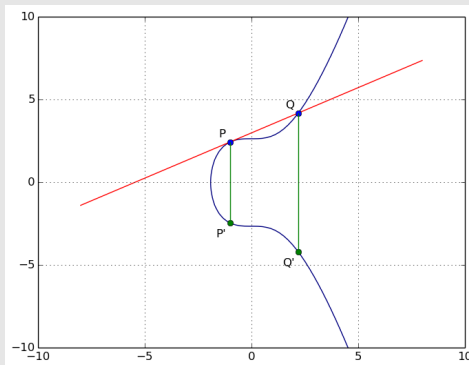


$$P + Q = R'$$

The sum of  $P$  and  $Q$  is defined as  $R'$  the symmetric point of  $R$  with respect to the X axis.

## Particular Case

The three intersection points may be a simple one ( $Q$ ) and a double one ( $P$ ):



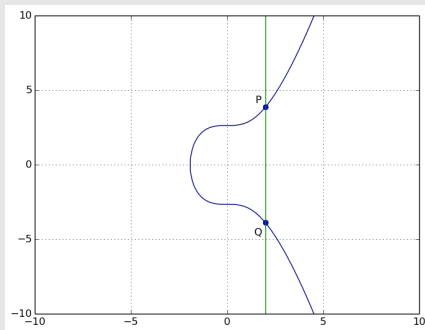
$$P + P = Q'$$

$$P + Q = P'$$

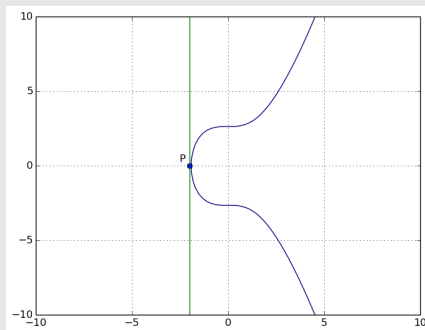
We consider the tangent point as two distinct points.

## Particular Case

If the intersection line between  $P$  and  $Q$  is vertical, the virtual third point is the point at infinity:



$$P + Q = \mathcal{O}$$



$$P + P = \mathcal{O}$$

## The Group Structure

The addition of points of  $\mathcal{E}$  gives to the elliptic curve the structure of a commutative group  $(\mathcal{E}, +)$ :

$(\mathcal{E}, +)$  is a Group

**commutativity** for all  $P, Q \in \mathcal{E}$ ,  $P + Q = Q + P$

**associativity** for all  $P, Q, R \in \mathcal{E}$ ,  $(P + Q) + R = P + (Q + R)$

**neutral element** for all  $P \in \mathcal{E}$ ,  $P + \mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O} + P = P$

**inverse** for all  $P \in \mathcal{E}$ , the symmetric of  $P$  w.r.t.  $X$  axis is its own

inverse  $-P$ :  $P + (-P) = \mathcal{O}$

Multiple of a Point  $P$

For any point  $P \in \mathcal{E}$ , the scalar multiplication by any positive integer  $k$  is defined as

$$k \cdot P = \underbrace{P + P + \dots + P}_{k \text{ times}}$$

## Addition and Doubling Formulae

### Addition Formula

Given two different points  $P = (x_P, y_P)$  and  $Q = (x_Q, y_Q)$ , with  $x_P \neq x_Q$ , the addition point  $R = (x_R, y_R) = P + Q$  is given by:

- $\lambda = \frac{y_Q - y_P}{x_Q - x_P}$
- $x_R = \lambda^2 - x_P - x_Q$
- $y_R = \lambda(x_P - x_R) - y_P$

### Doubling Formula

Given  $P = (x_P, y_P)$ , the double point  $R = (x_R, y_R) = 2.P$  is given by:

- $\lambda = \frac{3x_P^2 + a}{2y_P}$  ( $a$  is the curve equation parameter)
- $x_R = \lambda^2 - 2x_P$
- $y_R = \lambda(x_P - x_R) - y_P$



## Order of an Elliptic Curve, Order of a Point

Elliptic curves used for cryptography are always defined on a finite field  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{F}_q$  which is either:

- $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{F}_q = \mathbb{F}_p$ , with  $p$  a large prime, (large characteristic)
- or  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{F}_q = \mathbb{F}_{2^m}$ . (small, or even, characteristic)

When  $\mathbb{K}$  is a finite field, the number of points of  $\mathcal{E}$  is also finite.

### Order of an Elliptic Curve

The order of an elliptic curve  $\mathcal{E}$  is its number of points, and is denoted  $\#\mathcal{E}$ .

### Order of a Point

The order of a point  $P$  on an elliptic curve  $\mathcal{E}$ , denoted as  $\text{ord}(P)$ , is the least integer  $k > 0$  such that  $k.P = \mathcal{O}$ .

By Euler's theorem, one always have  $\text{ord}(P) \mid \#\mathcal{E}$ .

## Elliptic Curves defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$

When  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{F}_p$  all arithmetic operations in the field are defined modulo  $p$ .

### Definition

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_p$  such that  $4a^3 + 27b^2 \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

The elliptic curve  $\mathcal{E}$  of parameters  $a$  and  $b$  defined over  $\mathbb{F}_p$  is  $\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{O}$  where:

- $\mathcal{S}$  is the set of points  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{F}_p^2$  verifying

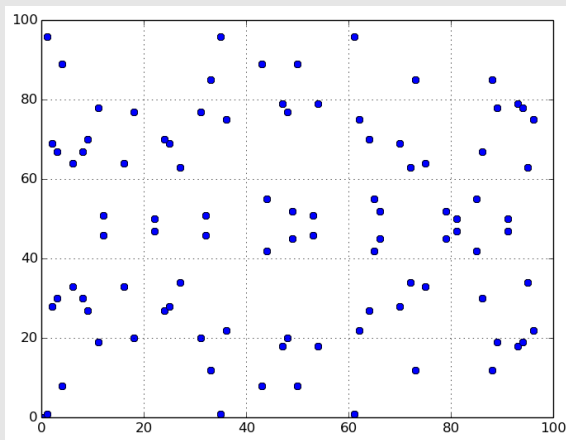
$$y^2 \equiv x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$$

- $\mathcal{O}$  is a special point called 'point at infinity'. (may be viewed as the point  $(0, \infty)$ )

Another consequence is that the set of points is discrete. Visual aspect of the curve is totally different than with  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ .

## A Toy Example: $\mathcal{E}$ defined over $\mathbb{F}_{97}$

When  $p = 97$  the elliptic curve may look like this:



The symmetry with respect to the X axis still holds.

## Affine Coordinates

The natural 2-coordinates system is called **affine coordinates**.

Beside its simplicity, its main drawback is the quite time-consuming modular inversion required both for addition and for doubling.

### Cost of Addition

Input:  $P = (x_P, y_P)$ ,  $Q = (x_Q, y_Q)$

Output:  $R = (x_R, y_R) = P + Q$

- $\lambda = \frac{y_Q - y_P}{x_Q - x_P}$
- $x_R = \lambda^2 - x_P - x_Q$
- $y_R = \lambda(x_P - x_R) - y_P$

Cost:  $I + 2M + S + 6A$

### Cost of Doubling

Input:  $P = (x_P, y_P)$

Output:  $R = (x_R, y_R) = 2.P$

- $\lambda = \frac{3x_P^2 + a}{2y_P}$
- $x_R = \lambda^2 - 2x_P$
- $y_R = \lambda(x_P - x_R) - y_P$

Cost:  $I + 2M + 2S + 8A$

Typical ratios are:  $I/M \approx 100$   $S/M = 0.8$  to  $1$   $A/M = 0.1$  to  $0.3$

# Homogeneous Projective Coordinates

Denoting  $x = X/Z$  and  $y = Y/Z$ ,  $Z \neq 0$ , we obtain **homogeneous projective** Weierstraß equation of  $\mathcal{E}$ :

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

- Each affine point  $(x, y)$  is represented by homogeneous projective coordinates  $(\lambda x : \lambda y : \lambda)$  with  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$ .
- Conversely, every point represented by  $(X : Y : Z)$ ,  $Z \neq 0$ , has affine coordinates  $(x, y) = (X/Z, Y/Z)$ .
- The opposite of a point  $(X : Y : Z)$  is  $(X : -Y : Z)$ .
- The point at infinity  $\mathcal{O}$  is  $(0 : \lambda : 0)$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$ .

## Addition in Homogeneous Projective Coordinates

The sum of  $P = (X_P : Y_P : Z_P)$  and  $Q = (X_Q : Y_Q : Z_Q)$ , with  $Z_P, Z_Q \neq 0$  and  $P \neq \pm Q$ , is the point  $R = (X_R : Y_R : Z_R)$  such that:

### Addition Formula (Homogeneous Projective Coordinates)

- $X_R = BC$
- $Y_R = A(B^2 X_P Z_Q - C) - B^3 Y_P Z_Q$
- $Z_R = B^3 Z_P Z_Q$

with  $A = Y_Q Z_P - Y_P Z_Q$     $B = X_Q Z_P - X_P Z_Q$   
 $C = A^2 Z_P Z_Q - B^3 - 2B^2 X_P Z_Q$

Cost:  $12M + 2S + 7A$

### Mixed Affine-Projective Addition

Three multiplications are saved if  $P$  is given in affine coordinates (i.e.  $Z = 1$ ).

## Doubling in Homogeneous Projective Coordinates

The double of  $P = (X_P : Y_P : Z_P)$ , with  $Z_P \neq 0$ , is the point  $R = (X_R : Y_R : Z_R)$  such that:

### Doubling Formula (Homogeneous Projective Coordinates)

- $X_R = EB$
- $Y_R = A(D - E) - 2C^2$
- $Z_R = B^3$

with  $A = 3X_P^2 + aZ_P^2$     $B = 2Y_PZ_P$     $C = BY_P$   
 $D = 2CX_P$     $E = A^2 - 2D$

Cost:  $7M + 5S + 10A$

### Fast Doubling Trick ( $a = -3$ )

When the curve parameter  $a$  is equal to  $-3$ ,  $A$  can be computed as  $A = 3(X_P + Z_P)(X_P - Z_P)$  which saves two squarings. (with one more addition)

## Jacobian Projective Coordinates

Denoting  $x = X/Z^2$  and  $y = Y/Z^3$ ,  $Z \neq 0$ , we obtain the **Jacobian projective** Weierstraß equation of  $\mathcal{E}$ :

$$Y^2 = X^3 + aXZ^4 + bZ^6$$

- Each affine point  $(x, y)$  is represented by homogeneous projective coordinates  $(\lambda^2 x : \lambda^3 y : \lambda)$  with  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$ .
- Conversely, every point represented by  $(X : Y : Z)$ ,  $Z \neq 0$ , has affine coordinates  $(x, y) = (X/Z^2, Y/Z^3)$ .
- The opposite of a point  $(X : Y : Z)$  is  $(X : -Y : Z)$ .
- The point at infinity  $\mathcal{O}$  is  $(\lambda^2 : \lambda^3 : 0)$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}_q^*$ .



## Addition in Jacobian Projective Coordinates

The sum of  $P = (X_P : Y_P : Z_P)$  and  $Q = (X_Q : Y_Q : Z_Q)$ , with  $Z_P, Z_Q \neq 0$  and  $P \neq \pm Q$ , is the point  $R = (X_R : Y_R : Z_R)$  such that:

### Addition Formula (Jacobian Projective Coordinates)

- $X_R = F^2 - E^3 - 2AE^2$
- $Y_R = F(AE^2 - X_R) - CE^3$
- $Z_R = Z_P Z_Q E$

with  $A = X_P Z_Q^2$      $B = X_Q Z_P^2$      $C = Y_P Z_Q^3$      $D = Y_Q Z_P^3$   
 $E = B - A$      $F = D - C$

Cost:  $12M + 4S + 7A$

### Mixed Affine-Projective Addition

One squaring and four multiplications are saved if  $P$  is given in affine coordinates (i.e.  $Z = 1$ ).

## Doubling in Jacobian Projective Coordinates

The double of  $P = (X_P : Y_P : Z_P)$ , with  $Z_P \neq 0$ , is the point  $R = (X_R : Y_R : Z_R)$  such that:

### Doubling Formula (Jacobian Projective Coordinates)

- $X_R = C^2 - 2B$
- $Y_R = C(B - X_R) - 2A^2$
- $Z_R = 2Y_P Z_P$

with  $A = 2Y_P^2$   $B = 2AX_P$   $C = 3X_P^2 + aZ_P^4$

Cost:  $4M + 6S + 11A$

### Fast Doubling Trick ( $a = -3$ )

When the curve parameter  $a$  is equal to  $-3$ ,  $C$  can be computed as  $C = 3(X_P + Z_P^2)(X_P - Z_P^2)$  which saves two squarings. (with one more addition)

## Cost Comparison

Representation	Addition	Mixte Add.	Doubling	Fast Doub.
Affine	$1 + 2M + S + 6A$		$1 + 2M + 2S + 8A$	$1 + 2M + 2S + 8A$
Hom. Proj.	$12M + 2S + 7A$	$9M + 2S + 7A$	$7M + 5S + 10A$	$7M + 3S + 11A$
Jac. Proj.	$12M + 4S + 7A$	$8M + 3S + 7A$	$4M + 6S + 11A$	$4M + 4S + 12A$

- When computing a scalar multiplication  $k.P$  one uses methods like *double-and-add* which are equivalent to exponentiation methods in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .
- With projective coordinates, a unique modular inversion ( $1/Z$ ) is still required at the end of the scalar multiplication to convert back to affine coordinates.
- Jacobian projective representation has faster doubling but slower addition than the homogeneous projective one  $\rightarrow$  interesting as *double-and-add* uses more doublings than additions.
- Whatever the representation, signed digit scalar multiplication methods are interesting as  $-P$  can be computed for free.

## Curve Parameters and Key Generation

An elliptic curve is characterized by the following parameters:

- $p$ , the prime number which defines the field  $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{F}_p$
- $a, b$ , the two integer coefficients which define the curve
- a *base point*  $G$  on the curve ; all point computations will be done in the subgroup  $\langle G \rangle$  generated by  $G$  (the multiples of  $G$ ),
- $n = \text{ord}(G)$  which is the cardinal of  $\langle G \rangle$

### Key Generation

Computing a key pair is quite easy:

- 1 pick a random integer  $d$  between 1 and  $n - 1$  → this is the private key
- 2 compute  $Q = d.G$  → this is the public key

## Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman (ECDH)

Alice and Bob want to agree on some common secret value (e.g. for using as an AES key):

### ECDH Protocol

- 1 They first agree on some domain and curve parameters  $(p, a, b, G, n)$
- 2 They compute their own private/public key pairs  $(d, Q)$  and exchange their public keys  $Q_A$  and  $Q_B$
- 3 Alice computes  $S = d_A \cdot Q_B$  and Bob computes  $S = d_B \cdot Q_A$

Note that  $S$  is actually an elliptic curve point. The AES secret key can be taken e.g. as the least significant bits of  $x_S$ .

## Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA)

Alice want to sign a message  $m$  with her private key  $d_A$ .

Everyone should be able to check the signature thanks to Alice's public key  $Q_A$ .

### ECDSA Signature Generation

- ① compute  $z = H(m)$  the hash of the message (truncated to the size of  $n$ )
- ② take  $k$  at random between 1 and  $n - 1$
- ③ compute  $P = k.G$
- ④ compute  $r = x_P \bmod n$  (if  $r = 0$  then choose another  $k$  and try again)
- ⑤ compute  $s = k^{-1}(z + rd_A) \bmod n$  (if  $s = 0$  then choose another  $k$  and try again)

The pair  $(r, s)$  is the signature of  $m$ .

Note that  $k^{-1} \bmod n$  can be computed only if  $n$  is prime ( $k$  is arbitrary).

⇒ ECDSA works only on curves with a subgroup  $\langle G \rangle$  of prime order.

## Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA)

### ECDSA Signature Generation

- 1 compute  $z = H(m)$  the hash of the message (truncated to the size of  $n$ )
- 2 take  $k$  at random between 1 and  $n - 1$
- 3 compute  $P = k.G$
- 4 compute  $r = x_P \bmod n$  (if  $r = 0$  then choose another  $k$  and try again)
- 5 compute  $s = k^{-1}(z + rd_A) \bmod n$  (if  $s = 0$  then choose another  $k$  and try again)

The pair  $(r, s)$  is the signature of  $m$ .

### ECDSA Signature Verification

Input: the truncated hash  $z$ , the signature  $(r, s)$ , and the public key  $Q_A$

- 1 compute  $u_1 = s^{-1}z \bmod n$
- 2 compute  $u_2 = s^{-1}r \bmod n$
- 3 compute  $P = u_1.G + u_2.Q_A$

The signature is valid only if  $r = x_P \bmod n$ .