

Bitcoin and Cryptocurrency Technologies

Lecture 3: Cryptography Basics 2/2

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Feb 22, 2022

Public-key Cryptography Recap

- **Public-key cryptography** or **asymmetric cryptography** is a cryptographic system that uses **pairs** of keys:
 - **private keys**, which must be kept secret and only known to the owner,
 - **public keys**, which may be known to others.
- The core idea behind public-key cryptography is that anyone who knows the public key, can “lock” some information with that key in a way that only the owner of the private key can “unlock” it.
- Introduced by Ralph Merkle, Whitfield Diffie, Martin Hellman and others in 1970s.
- Arguably the only reason why it’s possible to do anything useful over the Internet.

Fields 1/2

- A **field** is a set with defined **addition**, **subtraction**, **multiplication** and **division** operations that follow the **field axioms**:

$\forall a, b, c : (a \star b) \star c = a \star (b \star c)$ - associativity for $+$ and $*$

$\forall a, b : a \star b = b \star a$ - commutativity for $+$ and $*$

$\exists e_+ = 0 : \forall a : e + a = 0 + a = a$ - additive identity

$\exists e_* = 1 : \forall a : e * a = 1 * a = a$ - multiplicative identity

$\forall a : \exists (-a) : a + (-a) = e_+ = 0$ - additive inverse

$\forall a \neq 0 : \exists (a^{-1}) : a * (a^{-1}) = e_* = 1$ - multiplicative inverse

$\forall a, b, c : a * (b + c) = (a * b) + (a * c)$ - $*$ over $+$ distributivity

- Set of **rational numbers** \mathbb{R} is a field over regular addition and multiplication.
- In cryptography, we usually consider finite fields with **prime order** over modular arithmetic operations:

$$F_n = \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$$

where n is a prime number; note that **this construction is a field iff n is prime**.

Groups 1/2

- A **group** is a set equipped with a binary operation that combines any two elements to form a third element in such a way that three conditions called **group axioms** are satisfied, namely

$\forall a, b, c : (a \star b) \star c = a \star (b \star c)$ - associativity

$\exists e : \forall a : e \star a = a$ - identity

$\forall a : \exists b : a \star b = e$ - invertibility

- A **generating set of a group** is a subset of the group set such that every element of the group can be expressed as a combination of finitely many of the subsets elements and their inverses.
- A group generated by a single element (denoted G for our purposes) is called a **cyclic group**.

Groups 2/2

- Let \mathbb{G} be any group. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{G}$. Denote the group operation by multiplication and its identity element by 1. Let

$$b^k = a$$

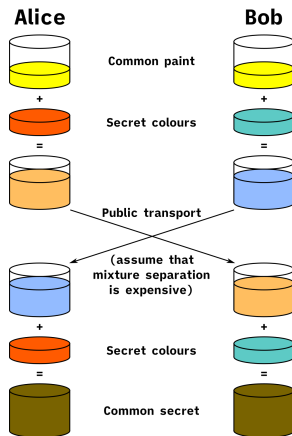
- k that satisfies the above equation is called the **discrete logarithm** of a to the base b .
- If we denote group operation by addition and its identity by 0, the notation for **discrete logarithm** becomes

$$kb = a$$

- The **discrete logarithm problem** or simply **DLOG** is **believed** to be **very hard** when defined over particular *groups*.

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Protocol 1/3

- Diffie-Hellman-Merkle key exchange algorithm can be intuitively explained with the following example:



Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Protocol 2/3

- DH protocol implementations are based on the following observation written additively

$$A = G^a$$

$$B = G^b$$

$$A^b = (G^a)^b = G^{(ab)} = G^{(ba)} = (G^b)^a = B^a$$

or multiplicatively

$$A = aG$$

$$B = bG$$

$$bA = b(aG) = (ba)G = (ab)G = a(bG) = aB$$

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Protocol 3/3

- Simplest implementation of the DH protocol (as described in the paper) uses the **multiplicative group of integers modulo p** , where p is **prime**, and g is a **primitive root modulo p** .
- Example DH with small numbers:
 - Alice and Bob agree to use numbers modulo $p = 23$ and base $g = 5$.
 - Alice chooses a secret integer $a = 4$, then sends Bob

$$A = g^a \pmod{p} = 5^4 \pmod{23} = 4$$

- Bob chooses a secret integer $b = 3$, then sends Alice

$$B = g^b \pmod{p} = 5^3 \pmod{23} = 10$$

- Alice computes

$$s = B^a \pmod{p} = 10^4 \pmod{23} = 18$$

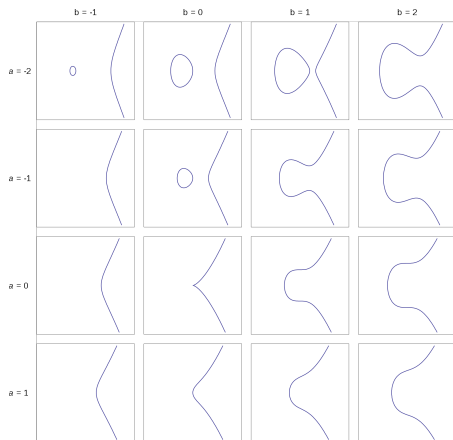
- Bob computes

$$s = A^b \pmod{p} = 4^3 \pmod{23} = 18$$

Elliptic Curves 1/3

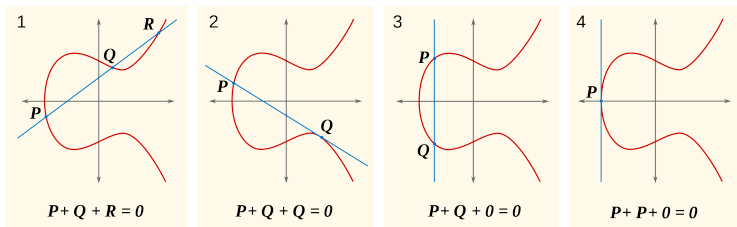
- **Elliptic curves** are algebraic structures described by equations of the form:

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



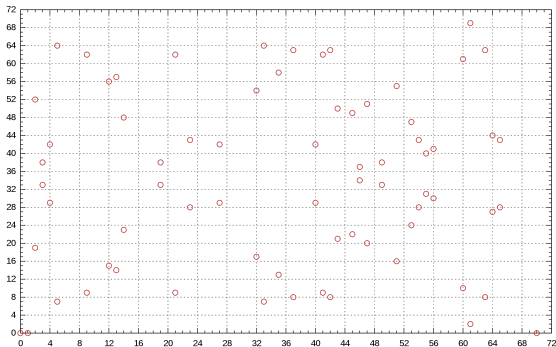
Elliptic Curves 2/3

- Elliptic curves are defined over a **field** K and describes points in $K \times K$.
- **Group law:**
 - If P and Q are two points on the curve, then we can uniquely describe a third point, $P + Q$, in the following way. First, draw the line that intersects P and Q . This will generally intersect the cubic at a third point, R . We then take $P + Q$ to be $-R$, the point opposite R .



Elliptic Curves 3/3

- Elliptic curves defined over finite fields of prime order form groups that are well suited for cryptographic purposes because of significantly **more complex group structure**, which allows for much **smaller keys**.
- An example of an elliptic curve defined over finite field ($y^2 = x^3 - x$ over F_{71}):



Cryptographic Signatures

- **Cryptographic signature scheme** is a system for verifying the authenticity of messages.
- A cryptographic signature scheme consists of the following three algorithms:
 - a key generation algorithm *Gen* that selects a private key uniformly at random from a set of possible private keys,
 - a signing algorithm *Sign* that, given a message and a private key, produces a signature,
 - a signature verification algorithm *Verify* that, given the message, public key and signature, either accepts or rejects the signature.
- Successful signature verification provides a **very strong** reason to believe that the particular message was authenticated by the owner of the corresponding private key.

ECDSA 1/2

- Alice and Bob must agree on the curve parameters ($CURVE, G, n$), where G is a base point of an elliptic curve that generates a group of the prime order n .
- Alice creates a key pair, consisting of a private key integer a , randomly selected in the interval $[1, n - 1]$ and a public key curve point $A = aG$.
- To sign a message m , Alice
 - calculates $e = HASH(m)$,
 - selects a **cryptographically secure random integer** $k \in [1, n - 1]$,
 - calculates the curve point $(x_1, y_1) = kG$,
 - calculates $r = x_1 \pmod{n}$,
 - calculates $s = k^{-1}(e + ra) \pmod{n}$.
- Signature is a pair (r, s) ; $(r, -s \pmod{n})$ is **also valid**.

- To verify the signature (r, s) , Bob
 - verifies that r and s are integers in $[1, n - 1]$, otherwise the signature is invalid,
 - calculates $e = \text{HASH}(m)$,
 - calculates $u_1 = es^{-1} \pmod{n}$ and $u_2 = rs^{-1} \pmod{n}$,
 - calculates the curve point $(x_1, y_1) = u_1G + u_2A$.
- The signature is valid if $r \equiv x_1 \pmod{n}$ and invalid otherwise:

$$\begin{aligned}u_1G + u_2A &= u_1G + u_2aG = (u_1 + u_2a)G \\&= (es^{-1} + rs^{-1}a)G = (e + ra)s^{-1}G \\&= (e + ra)(a + ra)^{-1}kG = kG \\&= r\end{aligned}$$

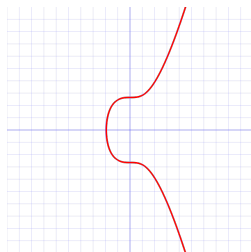
Elliptic Curve SECP256K1 1/2

- Elliptic curve used in Bitcoin for transaction signing is called **secp256k1**.
- This elliptic curve is defined over the finite field F_p where

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

and is described by the equation

$$y^2 = x^3 + 7$$



Elliptic Curve SECP256K1 2/2

- **secp256k1** curve is constructed in a special non-random way which allows for especially efficient computation.
- Unlike other (NIST) elliptic curves used in cryptography (with the notable exception of **curve25519**), **secp256k1**'s constants were selected in a predictable way, which significantly reduces the possibility of an existing *backdoor*.
- **libsecp256k1** is a highly-optimized **secp256k1** curve implementation that was extracted from the Bitcoin Core code base into a separate project:

<https://github.com/bitcoin-core/secp256k1>

- Bitcoin uses **secp256k1** for ECDSA signatures, but the upcoming **Taproot** protocol upgrade will utilize it for Schnorr signatures as well.

- **A Computational Introduction to Number Theory and Algebra** by Victor Shoup
 - <https://shoup.net/ntb/>

The End

Thank you!