Bitcoin and Cryptocurrency Technologies Lecture 3: Cryptography Basics 2/2

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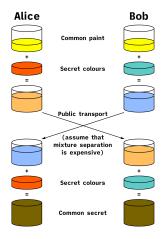
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Public-key Cryptography Recap

- Public-key cryptography or asymmetric cryptography involves cryptographic systems that use 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.

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Protocol 1/2

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



Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Protocol 2/2

DH protocol implementations are based on the following observation written additively

$$A = aG(= G + G + ... + G)$$

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

or multiplicatively

$$A = G^{a}(= G * G * ... * G)$$

$$B = G^{b}$$

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

Fields 1/2

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

$$\forall a,b,c: (a\star b)\star c = a\star (b\star c) \text{ - associativity for } + \text{ and } \star \\ \forall a,b: a\star b = b\star a \text{ - commutativity for } + \text{ and } \star \\ \exists e_+ = 0: \forall a: e+a=0+a=a \text{ - additive identity} \\ \exists e_* = 1: \forall a: e\star a = 1\star a = a \text{ - multiplicative identity} \\ \forall a: \exists (-a): a+(-a)=e_+=0 \text{ - additive inverse} \\ \forall a\neq 0: \exists (a^{-1}): a\star (a^{-1})=e_*=1 \text{ - multiplicative inverse} \\ \forall a,b,c: a\star (b+c)=(a\star b)+(a\star c)\text{ - } \star \text{ over } + \text{ distributivity} \\ \end{aligned}$$

Fields 2/2

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

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

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 (usually denoted as *G*) 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 certain groups.

Simple Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Implementation

- 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

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

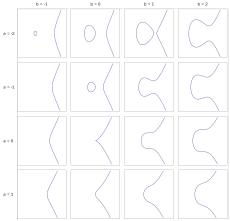
Bob computes

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

Elliptic Curves 1/3

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

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

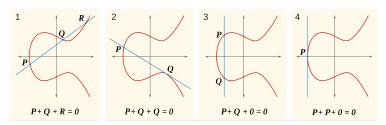


Elliptic Curves 2/3

 Elliptic curves are defined over a field K and describes points in K × K.

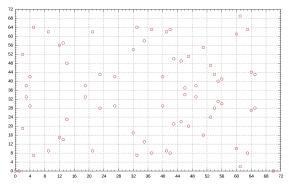
Group law:

- 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 curve 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 filed $(y^2 = x^3 x \text{ over } F_{71})$:



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.

DSA 1/2

- Alice and Bob must agree on the group parameters (GROUP, G, n), where GROUP is a group of prime order n with generator G.
- Alice creates a key pair, consisting of a private key integer a, randomly selected in the interval [1, n-1] and a public key group element 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 group element $(x_1, y_1) = kG$,
 - 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.

DSA 2/2

- 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 = HASH(m),
 - calculates $u_1 = es^{-1} \pmod{n}$ and $u_2 = rs^{-1} \pmod{n}$,
 - calculates the group element $(x_1, y_1) = u_1 G + u_2 A$.
- The signature is valid if $r \equiv x_1 \pmod{n}$ and invalid otherwise:

$$u_1G + u_2A = u_1G + u_2aG = (u_1 + u_2a)G$$

$$= (es^{-1} + rs^{-1}a)G = (e + ra)s^{-1}G$$

$$= (e + ra)(a + ra)^{-1}kG = kG$$

$$= r$$

ECDSA

- Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA) is a variant of the Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA) which uses elliptic curve cryptography.
- With ECC, the bit size of the private key believed to be needed for ECDSA is about twice the size of the security level, i.e. for 128 bits of security, the key size of 256 bits is sufficient.
- With DSA, the bit size of a key that offers comparable security is 2048 or even 3072 bits.

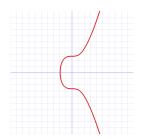
Elliptic Curve SECP256K1 1/2

- 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 traditional ECDSA signatures, as well as the Schnorr signatures, introduced as part of the Taproot upgrade, which was activated on November 14, 2021.

Useful Resources

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

The End

Thank you!