

# RSA, ECC, & Pairing-based Cryptography

A basic introduction from a math perspective

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For filling the void in the cryptoclub

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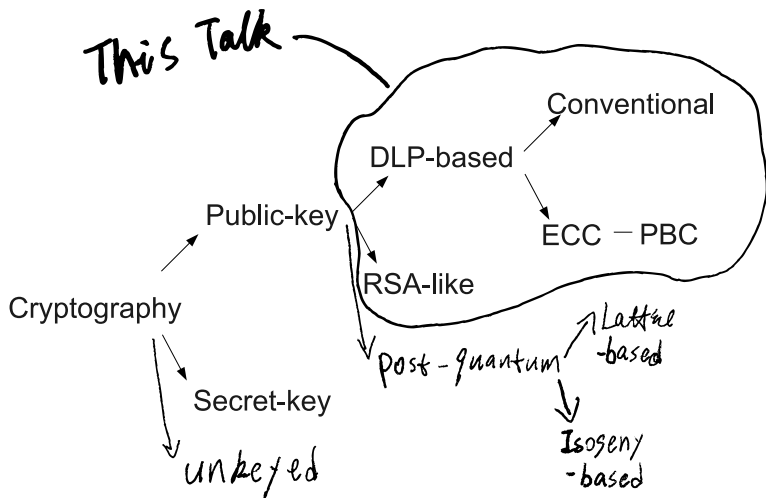
# *Chapter One: Overview of Cryptography*

# Cryptography: Overview

## What is cryptography?

*Study of mathematics techniques related to aspects of information security, e.g., how to hide information, data integrity, identification and authentication.*

# Cryptography: Overview (cont'd)



# *Chapter Two:*

## *RSA (Factoring-based Crypto)*

# Rivest-Shamir-Adleman

## Setup/KeyGen:

- Choose two large primes  $p$  and  $q$ .
- Let  $n = p \cdot q$ .
- Randomly choose  $e$  such that  $1 < e < n - 1$  and  $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$ . Here  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$  is the Euler's totient function.
- Compute  $d$  such that  $e \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ .
- The values  $p$  and  $q$  are never revealed.

RSA public key:  $(n, e)$ .

RSA private key:  $d$ .

Remark: for RSA to work, factorization of the modulus  $n$  should be hard.

# RSA Encryption (Basic Scheme)

Plaintext message:  $M \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ .

Encryption:  $C := E(M) = M^e \pmod{n}$ .

Decryption:  $M := D(C) = C^d \pmod{n}$ .

# RSA Signatures (Basic Scheme)

Message to sign:  $M \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ .

Sign: signature  $\sigma = D(M) = M^d \pmod{n}$ .

Verify: check  $M = E(\sigma) = \sigma^e \pmod{n}$ .

Remark: The scheme shown above is not secure. In practice, one should sign the hash of the message instead of the message itself.



# *Chapter Three: Elliptic Curve Crypto*

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- Hash function construction [Charles et al., 2007]
- Zero-knowledge proofs
- And so on



## A Mathematician Quote

“It is possible to write endlessly on elliptic curves. (This is not a threat.)”  
— Serge Lang

# We Follow The Wise

We are not going to talk about everything ...

Focus of this talk: ECC

Elliptic curve cryptography: use elliptic curves as an approach to public-key cryptography

# Elliptic Curve

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{F}_q, \quad q \text{ odd } 3 \nmid q$$

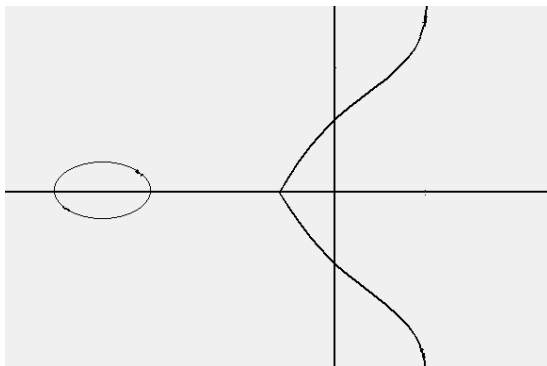


Figure: An example of elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{R}$

# Review: Group

A group is a set  $G$  together with a binary operation  $\circ$  that satisfies

- ① closure:  $a, b \in G \Rightarrow a \circ b \in G$
- ② associativity: for any  $a, b, c \in G$ , have  $(a \circ b) \circ c = a \circ (b \circ c)$
- ③ identity: there exists an identity element  $i$  such that  $a \circ i = i \circ a = a$ , for any  $a \in G$
- ④ inverse: for any element  $a \in G$ , there is an element  $b \in G$  such that  $a \circ b = b \circ a = i$ .

# Review: Group (cont'd)

## Abelian Group

A group  $G$  is called **abelian** if  $a \circ b = b \circ a$ , for any  $a, b \in G$ .

## Examples of abelian groups

- $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$
- $(\mathbb{F}_p^\times, \cdot)$
- $(E(\mathbb{F}_q), +)$ : elliptic curve over finite field

Finite abelian groups are convenient for cryptography, because the group law behaves well!

No need to worry about things like  $a + b \neq b + a$

# Discrete Logarithm Problem

## Discrete logarithm problem (DLP)

$G = \langle \alpha \rangle$ : finite cyclic group of order  $N$  with generator  $\alpha$ ; written multiplicatively.  $\beta = \alpha^n$  for some  $n \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N - 1\}$ .

DLP: given  $\alpha, \beta$ , find  $n$ .

# Discrete Logarithm Problem (cont'd)

## Example

$G = (\mathbb{Z}/(1152921504606847363))^{\times} = \langle \alpha \rangle, \alpha = \overline{12345678}$ .

Given  $n = 64051194700380044$ , it is easy to compute

$\beta = \alpha^n = \overline{24306907499566794}$ :  $O(\log N)$ .

If only  $\alpha = \overline{12345678}$  and  $\beta = \overline{24306907499566794}$  are given, how to recover  $n$ ?

## Discrete Logarithm Problem (cont'd)

Bad news: this is in general a hard problem.

Best generic methods take time  $O(\sqrt{N})$  – Shank's BSGS, Pollard's  $\rho$  and  $\lambda$  methods.



# Discrete Logarithm Problem (cont'd)

Good news: we can use it to do cryptography!

# Discrete Logarithm Based Cryptography

## Example: Diffie-Hellman(-Merkle) key exchange protocol

Enables two parties to share a common secret (e.g. an symmetric encryption key) over an insecure communications channel.

How it works:

- 1 Alice and Bob agree on a finite cyclic group  $G$  and a generator  $\alpha$ .
- 2 Alice chooses a secret integer  $m$ , computes  $\beta = \alpha^m$ , and sends  $\beta$  to Bob.
- 3 Bob chooses a secret integer  $n$ , computes  $\gamma = \alpha^n$ , and sends  $\gamma$  to Alice.
- 4 Alice computes  $\gamma^m = \alpha^{nm}$ ; Bob computes  $\beta^n = \alpha^{mn}$ ; this information is used as their shared secret.

# Groups Suitable for DLP Based Cryptography

## Requirements

- Intractability of DLP:
  - group order is desired to be “almost prime”: to resist the Pohlig-Hellman attack.
  - No “easy” transformation into another group where DLP can be solvable in less time: to resist attacks like MOV, GHS, ...
- Compact representation of group elements.
- Efficient group operations.

# Group Suitable for DLP Based Cryptography (cont'd)

Candidates:

- Multiplicative groups of finite fields  $\mathbb{F}_q^\times$ .
- Class groups of orders in number fields.
- Abelian varieties over finite fields, e.g., Jacobians of algebraic curves,  
**ELLIPTIC CURVES.**
- Others.

# Elliptic Curve Group

Elliptic curve  $E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_q$ ,  $q$  odd,  $3 \nmid q$

$\mathbb{F}_q$ -rational points of  $E$ ,

$$E(\mathbb{F}_q) := \{(x, y) \in (\mathbb{F}_q)^2 : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b\} \cup \{\infty\}$$

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Important fact about  $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$

$E(\mathbb{F}_q)$  is a finite abelian group

**NON-TRIVIAL! Do Not Try This at Home!**

Group operation in  $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$  is often written as addition (+)

Scalar multiplication:  $[m]P := \underbrace{P + P + \dots + P}_{m \text{ times}}$

# Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman(-Merkle) key exchange

Rewrite Diffie-Hellman key exchange in language of elliptic curves.

- 1 Alice and Bob agree on an elliptic curve  $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$  and a point  $P \in E(\mathbb{F}_q)$  as base point.
- 2 Alice chooses a secret integer  $m$ , computes  $Q = [m]P$ , and sends  $Q$  to Bob.
- 3 Bob chooses a secret integer  $n$ , computes  $R = [n]P$ , and sends  $R$  to Alice.
- 4 Alice computes  $[m]R = [nm]P$ ; Bob computes  $[n]Q = [mn]P$ ; this information is used as their shared secret.

## Group Operation in $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{F}_q, \quad q \text{ odd}, \quad 3 \nmid q$$

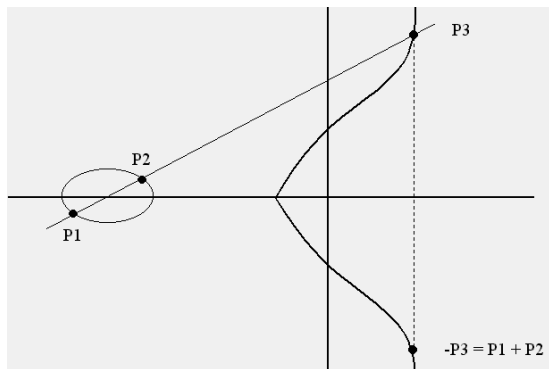


Figure: Illustration of points addition (courtesy of garykessler.net)



## Group Law for $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$

Input:  $P_1(x_1, y_1), P_2(x_2, y_2)$

Output  $Q(x, y) = P_1 + P_2$

Case  $P_1 \neq P_2$ : 1, 3M/S

$$\lambda = (y_2 - y_1)/(x_2 - x_1)$$

$$x = \lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2$$

$$y = (x_1 - x)\lambda - x - y_1$$

Case  $P_1 = P_2$ : 1, 4M/S

$$\lambda = (3x_1^2 + a)/(2y_1)$$

$$x = \lambda^2 - 2x_1$$

$$y = (x_1 - x)\lambda - x - y_1$$

# Elliptic curve $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ vs. $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$

Reason to replace “conventional” choice of the multiplicative group  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ ?

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# EFFICIENCY

At same level of security, crypto schemes implemented with elliptic curves run faster than their  $\mathbb{F}_q^\times$  counterparts, with much shorter key lengths.

# Elliptic curve $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ vs. $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ (cont'd)

$n$ : bit length of  $q$

$N$ : bit length of  $p$

## Complexity of best known attacks to DLP

- Elliptic curve  $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ :

$$C_{\text{ec}} = 2^{n/2}$$

- Multiplicative group  $\mathbb{F}_q^\times$ :

$$C_{\text{conv}} = \exp(1.92N^{1/3}(\log(N \log 2))^{2/3})$$

# Elliptic curve $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ vs. $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ (cont'd)

## Crude Estimate

$$C_{ec} = C_{conv} \implies n = 4.91 N^{1/3} (\log(N \log 2))^{2/3}$$

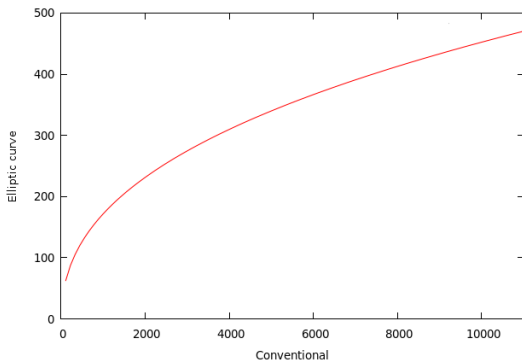


Figure: Elliptic curve vs.  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$  key sizes (in bits) for similar security level

# Elliptic Curve $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ vs. $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ (cont'd)

Estimate above tells us

bit-strength	size $q$ (bits)	size $p$ (bits)
87	173	1024
117	233	2048
157	313	4096
209	417	8192

The estimate is at best crude, but it at least gives us some ideas about the low-costness of ECC over conventional public-key cryptosystems.

# Elliptic Curve vs. RSA

Similar arguments apply to cryptosystems based on RSA.

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Similar arguments apply to cryptosystems based on RSA.

In practice, the performance comparison relies on implementation.

## Commercial Time

In the commercial cryptographic literature,  
1024-bit RSA  $\approx$  160-bit ECC [Lenstra and Verheul, 2001].



# DSA vs. ECDSA

$q$ : order of prime field  $\mathbb{F}_q$

$r$ : order of subgroup of  $\mathbb{F}_r^\times$

$n$ : order of subgroup of  $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$

$h$ : cofactor such that  $|E(\mathbb{F}_p)| = n \cdot h$

The Digital Signature Standard (FIPS PUB 186-3) recommends

## DSA

size $q$	1024	2048	2048	3072
size $r$	160	224	256	256

## ECDSA

size $n$	161-223	224-255	256-383	384-511	$\geq 512$
max $h$	$2^{10}$	$2^{14}$	$2^{16}$	$2^{24}$	$2^{32}$

# In Real World

## Elliptic curve cryptography

- Elliptic curve based public-key cryptography is part of NSA Suite B.
- ECC has been written into various industrial standards eg. Digital Signature Standard (FIPS PUB 186-3).
- ECC has been integrated in many software and hardware (eg. latest version of OpenSSL, NSS v3.8, Firefox).
- A number of companies dedicated to ECC (eg. Certicom)
- Numerous white papers, presentations and publications (of course)

# *Chapter Four:*

## *Pairing-Based Crypto*

# Beyond Efficiency: Bilinear Maps

Many useful cryptographic protocols and applications, eg. IBE, short signatures, aggregate signatures, require use of a bilinear map

$$e : G_1 \times G_2 \rightarrow G_T$$

## Bilinearity

For all  $P_1 \in G_1$ ,  $P_2 \in G_2$ ,  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $e([m]P_1, [n]P_2) = e(P_1, P_2)^{mn}$

## Non-degeneracy

For  $\mathcal{O} \neq P_1 \in G_1$ , there exists  $P_2 \in G_2$  such that  $e(P_1, P_2) \neq 1$

## Beyond Efficiency: Bilinear Maps (cont'd)

For certain kinds of elliptic curves, there exist efficient implementation of bilinear maps – the elliptic curve pairings (eg. Weil pairings, Tate pairings, Ate pairings, ...)

$$e : G_1 \times G_2 \rightarrow G_T$$

$G_1$  and  $G_2$  are subgroups of  $E(\mathbb{F}_q)$ ,  $G_T$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{F}_{q^k}^\times$  for some small integer  $k$ .  $|G_1| = |G_2| = |G_T| = r$ .

Elliptic curve pairings are so far the only known efficient implementation of bilinear maps suitable for cryptography.

# Miller's algorithm for Tate pairings

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## Algorithm 1 Basic Miller's algorithm

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**Input:**  $P \in G_1 \subseteq E(\mathbb{F}_{q^k})$ ,  $Q \in G_2 \subseteq E(\mathbb{F}_{q^k})$ , where  $r$  is the order of  $P$

**Output:**  $e(P, Q)$

```
1:  $T \leftarrow P, f \leftarrow 1$ 
2: for  $i = \lfloor \lg(r) \rfloor - 1$  to 0 do
3:    $f = f^2 \cdot l_{T,T}(Q) / v_{2T}(Q)$ 
4:    $T = 2T$ 
5:   if the  $i$ -th bit (from right) of  $r$  is 1 then
6:      $f = f \cdot l_{T,P}(Q) / v_{T+P}(Q)$ 
7:      $T = T + P$ 
8:   end if
9: end for
10:  $f \leftarrow f^{(p^k-1)/r}$ 
11: return  $f$ 
```

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Here  $l_{A,B}(Q)$  and  $v_{A+B}(Q)$  are the “line” and “vertical” functions, resp.

# Elliptic Curves Suitable for PBC

## “Pairing-friendly curves”

- Present additional mathematical structures.
- Provide additional crypto hardness assumptions.
- Must satisfy all requirements for (regular) ECC.
- Have low density in all elliptic curves suitable for ECC

# Applications of PBC

You cannot do (or do better) the following things without PBC.

- Tripartite key exchange [Joux, 2000]
- Identity-based encryption (IBE) [Boneh and Franklin, 2003], attributed-based encryption (ABE)
- Short signature scheme [Boneh et al., 2001]
- Aggregate signature scheme with different signing keys [Boneh et al., 2003]
- Efficient non-interactive zero-knowledge proofs [Groth and Sahai, 2008]
- Broadcast encryption scheme [Boneh and Waters, 2006]



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