

Elliptic Curve Cryptography

D. Stebila

School of Mathematical Sciences, QUT

Thursday, August 30, 2012

Outline

- 1. Cryptography
- 2. Elliptic curves
- 3. Elliptic curves in practice
- 4. Elliptic curves in theory
- 5. Elliptic curves at QUT

Cryptography

Cryptography

Cryptography aims to provide **confidentiality** and **integrity** of communications.



Cryptography

Cryptography aims to provide **confidentiality** and **integrity** of communications.



- ► Symmetric key cryptography: Alice and Bob share a secret key k that Eve does not know. (Fast!)
- ▶ **Public key cryptography:** Alice and Bob have each other's public keys pk_A and pk_B but no shared secrets. (Slow!)

Alice generates a pair of related keys:

- ▶ pk_A: her **public key**, which she gives to anyone who wants to communicate with her
- sk_A : her **private key**, which she keeps secret

It should be hard for an attacker to compute sk_A only given pk_A .

Alice generates a pair of related keys:

- ▶ pk_A: her public key, which she gives to anyone who wants to communicate with her
- sk_A : her **private key**, which she keeps secret

It should be hard for an attacker to compute sk_A only given pk_A .

Once Alice and Bob get each other's public keys, they can do:

▶ public key encryption: Alice encrypts a message m under Bob's public key pk_B to obtain a ciphertext c; only someone who knows sk_B can decrypt c and recover the message m

Alice generates a pair of related keys:

- ▶ pk_A: her public key, which she gives to anyone who wants to communicate with her
- sk_A : her **private key**, which she keeps secret

It should be hard for an attacker to compute sk_A only given pk_A .

Once Alice and Bob get each other's public keys, they can do:

- ▶ public key encryption: Alice encrypts a message m under Bob's public key pk_B to obtain a ciphertext c; only someone who knows sk_B can decrypt c and recover the message m
- ► digital signatures: Alice constructs a signature σ for a message m using sk_A; anyone with pk_A can verify whether (m, σ) came from someone who knows sk_A or not

Alice generates a pair of related keys:

- ▶ pk_A: her public key, which she gives to anyone who wants to communicate with her
- sk_A : her **private key**, which she keeps secret

It should be hard for an attacker to compute sk_A only given pk_A .

Once Alice and Bob get each other's public keys, they can do:

- ▶ public key encryption: Alice encrypts a message m under Bob's public key pk_B to obtain a ciphertext c; only someone who knows sk_B can decrypt c and recover the message m
- ► digital signatures: Alice constructs a signature σ for a message m using sk_A; anyone with pk_A can verify whether (m, σ) came from someone who knows sk_A or not
- key agreement: Alice and Bob compute a shared key k that they can use with symmetric encryption

Cryptography on the web

Suppose Alice wants to securely send her credit card number to bob.com.

- 1. Alice obtains a true copy of the public key pk_B for bob.com.
- 2. Alice and Bob run a key agreement protocol to get a shared secret k.
- 3. Alice and Bob use k with a symmetric cipher to encrypt their communication.

Cryptography on the web

Suppose Alice wants to securely send her credit card number to bob.com.

- 1. Alice obtains a true copy of the public key pk_B for bob.com.
- 2. Alice and Bob run a key agreement protocol to get a shared secret k.
- 3. Alice and Bob use k with a symmetric cipher to encrypt their communication.

The protocol that implements this is the Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) protocol, also known as the Transport Layer Security (TLS) protocol, which is the "s" in "https".

Modular arithmetic

$a \mod n$

- Let n be a positive integer and a be a non-negative integer.
- $a \mod n$ is the remainder when a is divided by n.
- Example: 12 mod 5 = 2

Modular arithmetic

$a \mod n$

- Let n be a positive integer and a be a non-negative integer.
- $a \mod n$ is the remainder when a is divided by n.
- Example: 12 mod 5 = 2

primitive root mod n

- Let g and n be positive integers.
- ▶ g is a primitive root mod n if $g^{n-1} \mod n = 1$ but $g^i \mod n \neq 1$ for any $1 \le i < n-1$.

► Example:
$$\frac{g \mid g^2 \mid g^3 \mid g^4 \mid g^5 \mid g^6 \mod 7}{2 \mid 4 \mid 8 = 1 \mid 2 \mid 4 \mid 1}$$
$$3 \mid 9 = 2 \mid 6 \mid 18 = 4 \mid 12 = 5 \mid 15 = 1$$

Goal: Alice and Bob know each other's public keys and want to establish a shared secret key.

Goal: Alice and Bob know each other's public keys and want to establish a shared secret key.

System parameters: *p*, a large prime number; *g*, a primitive root mod *p*.

Goal: Alice and Bob know each other's public keys and want to establish a shared secret key.

System parameters: p, a large prime number; g, a primitive root mod p.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{Alice} & \underline{Bob} \\ a \leftarrow_R \{2, \dots, p-1\} & b \leftarrow_R \{2, \dots, p-1\} \\ A \leftarrow g^a \mod p & B \leftarrow g^b \mod p \\ & & \stackrel{A}{\longrightarrow} \\ k \leftarrow B^a \mod p & k' \leftarrow A^b \mod p \end{array}$$

Goal: Alice and Bob know each other's public keys and want to establish a shared secret key.

System parameters: p, a large prime number; g, a primitive root mod p.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{Alice} & \underline{Bob} \\ a \leftarrow_R \{2, \dots, p-1\} & b \leftarrow_R \{2, \dots, p-1\} \\ A \leftarrow g^a \mod p & B \leftarrow g^b \mod p \\ & \overset{A}{\leftarrow} \\ k \leftarrow B^a \mod p & k' \leftarrow A^b \mod p \end{array}$$

If Eve does not interfere:

- Alice computes $k = B^a = (g^b)^a = g^{ba} \mod p$
- ▶ Bob computes $k' = A^b = (g^a)^b = g^{ab} = g^{ba} \mod p$

If Eve can compute the **discrete logarithm** of A to the base $g \pmod{p}$ then she can find a and compute k.

1. Is computing discrete logarithms hard?

- 1. Is computing discrete logarithms hard?
 - ► We can't just compute normal logarithms because we are working integers modulo *p*.

- 1. Is computing discrete logarithms hard?
 - ► We can't just compute normal logarithms because we are working integers modulo *p*.
 - If p is a very large prime (≥ 1024 bits) and p − 1 is divisible by a large prime (≥ 160 bits), then there is no known efficient algorithm.

- 1. Is computing discrete logarithms hard?
 - ► We can't just compute normal logarithms because we are working integers modulo *p*.
 - ▶ If p is a very large prime (≥ 1024 bits) and p-1 is divisible by a large prime (≥ 160 bits), then there is no known efficient algorithm.
 - ► Still an open problem.

- 1. Is computing discrete logarithms hard?
 - ► We can't just compute normal logarithms because we are working integers modulo *p*.
 - ▶ If p is a very large prime (≥ 1024 bits) and p-1 is divisible by a large prime (≥ 160 bits), then there is no known efficient algorithm.
 - ► Still an open problem.
 - Caveat: an efficient quantum algorithm is known, but large-scale quantum computers can't be built (yet).

- 1. Is computing discrete logarithms hard?
 - ► We can't just compute normal logarithms because we are working integers modulo *p*.
 - ▶ If p is a very large prime (≥ 1024 bits) and p-1 is divisible by a large prime (≥ 160 bits), then there is no known efficient algorithm.
 - ► Still an open problem.
 - Caveat: an efficient quantum algorithm is known, but large-scale quantum computers can't be built (yet).
- 2. Is there any other way of computing k?

- 1. Is computing discrete logarithms hard?
 - ► We can't just compute normal logarithms because we are working integers modulo *p*.
 - ▶ If p is a very large prime (≥ 1024 bits) and p-1 is divisible by a large prime (≥ 160 bits), then there is no known efficient algorithm.
 - ► Still an open problem.
 - Caveat: an efficient quantum algorithm is known, but large-scale quantum computers can't be built (yet).
- 2. Is there any other way of computing k?
 - ▶ Not that we know of. But to prove that's the case is an open problem.

Let p be a prime and p-1 be divisible by a suitably large prime. Then the **best known (classical) algorithm** for computing discrete logarithms takes

$$L_p = \exp\left(\sqrt[3]{\frac{64}{9}} (\ln p)^{1/3} (\ln \ln p)^{2/3}\right)$$

operations.

Let p be a prime and p-1 be divisible by a suitably large prime. Then the **best known (classical) algorithm** for computing discrete logarithms takes

$$L_p = \exp\left(\sqrt[3]{\frac{64}{9}} (\ln p)^{1/3} (\ln \ln p)^{2/3}\right)$$

operations.

p	L_p	time in years for 10^6 PCs
1024 bits	$2^{86.8}$	$2^{10.5} = 1390$
2048 bits	$2^{116.9}$	$2^{40.6} = 1.6 \times 10^{12}$
4096 bits	$2^{156.5}$	$2^{80.2} = 1.4 \times 10^{24}$

operations per year:

 10^6 PCs \times 365 days \times 24 hrs \times 60 mins \times 60 secs \times 3 \times 10⁹ ops = 2^{76.3}

Diffie-Hellman key exchange in a group

- ► A group is a set G along with an operation · which is closed, associative, has an identity element, and inverses exist. Example: Q \ {0} under multiplication.
- ► An **abelian group** is a group where the operation is commutative.
- ▶ A group has order q if there exists an element $g \in G$ such that $\{g^0, g^1, \ldots, g^{q-1}\} = G$; g is called a generator

Diffie-Hellman key exchange in a group

- ► A group is a set G along with an operation · which is closed, associative, has an identity element, and inverses exist. Example: Q \ {0} under multiplication.
- ► An **abelian group** is a group where the operation is commutative.
- ▶ A group has order q if there exists an element $g \in G$ such that $\{g^0, g^1, \ldots, g^{q-1}\} = G$; g is called a generator

System parameters: a group G with a generator g of large prime order q

Diffie-Hellman key exchange in a group

- ► A group is a set G along with an operation · which is closed, associative, has an identity element, and inverses exist. Example: Q \ {0} under multiplication.
- ► An **abelian group** is a group where the operation is commutative.
- ▶ A group has order q if there exists an element $g \in G$ such that $\{g^0, g^1, \ldots, g^{q-1}\} = G$; g is called a generator

System parameters: a group G with a generator g of large prime order q

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{Alice} & \underline{Bob} \\ a \leftarrow_R \{2, \dots, q-1\} & b \leftarrow_R \{2, \dots, q-1\} \\ A \leftarrow g^a & B \leftarrow g^b \\ & & \overset{A}{\leftarrow} \\ k \leftarrow B^a (=g^{ba}) & k' \leftarrow A^b (=g^{ab}) \end{array}$$

Elliptic curves

Elliptic curves

An **elliptic curve over** $\mathbb R$ is the set of real points satisfying an equation of the form

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

where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$.



Elliptic curve points as a group

We will construct a group consisting of the points of an elliptic curve under the operation of **point addition**.

Elliptic curve points as a group

We will construct a group consisting of the points of an elliptic curve under the operation of **point addition**. Define a "point at infinity O".

Elliptic curve points as a group

We will construct a group consisting of the points of an elliptic curve under the operation of **point addition**. Define a "point at infinity O".



From the geometric intuition, we can easily compute algebraic formulas for point addition, point doubling, and point negation.

Elliptic curve scalar-point multiplication

Having defined point addition and point doubling, we can define **scalar-point multiplication**:

$$kP = \underbrace{P + P + \dots + P}_{k}$$

Elliptic curves

Elliptic curve scalar–point multiplication

Having defined point addition and point doubling, we can define **scalar-point multiplication**:

$$kP = \underbrace{P + P + \dots + P}_{k}$$

We can compute kP more efficiently using the **double-and-add** algorithm:

$$5P = 2(2(P)) + P$$

Elliptic curves

Elliptic curve scalar-point multiplication

Having defined point addition and point doubling, we can define **scalar-point multiplication**:

$$kP = \underbrace{P + P + \dots + P}_{k}$$

We can compute kP more efficiently using the **double-and-add** algorithm:

$$5P = 2(2(P)) + P$$

Input:
$$k = (k_{\ell-1}, \dots, k_1, k_0)_2$$
, P
1. $Q \leftarrow O$
2. for *i* from $\ell - 1$ to 0 do:
2.1 $Q \leftarrow 2Q$
2.2 if $k_i = 1$ then $Q \leftarrow Q + P$
Output: $Q = kP$

Elliptic curves over prime fields

Let p be a prime. An **elliptic curve over** \mathbb{Z}_p is the set of integer points ${\rm mod}\,p$ satisfying an equation of the form

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \mod p$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0 \mod p$.

Elliptic curve Diffie–Hellman key exchange

System parameters: a prime p, an elliptic curve $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$, and a point P which is a generator of group of prime order q

Elliptic curve Diffie–Hellman key exchange

System parameters: a prime p, an elliptic curve $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$, and a point P which is a generator of group of prime order q



Security of ECDH key exchange

If Eve can compute **elliptic curve discrete logarithms**, then she can find a and compute k.

The best known (classical) algorithm for computing elliptic curve discrete logarithms takes about \sqrt{q} operations.

Security of ECDH key exchange

If Eve can compute **elliptic curve discrete logarithms**, then she can find a and compute k.

The best known (classical) algorithm for computing elliptic curve discrete logarithms takes about \sqrt{q} operations.

$DH \mod p$		ECDH		
p	L_p	q	\sqrt{q}	time in years for $10^6 \ {\rm PCs}$
1024 bits	$2^{86.8}$	174 bits	2^{87}	$2^{10.5} = 1390$
$2048 \ {\rm bits}$	$2^{116.9}$	235 bits	2^{117}	$2^{40.6} = 1.6 \times 10^{12}$
4096 bits	$2^{156.5}$	321 bits	2^{157}	$2^{80.2} = 1.4 \times 10^{24}$

Security of ECDH key exchange

If Eve can compute **elliptic curve discrete logarithms**, then she can find a and compute k.

The best known (classical) algorithm for computing elliptic curve discrete logarithms takes about \sqrt{q} operations.

$DH \mod p$		ECDH		
p	L_p	q	\sqrt{q}	time in years for $10^6 \ {\rm PCs}$
1024 bits	$2^{86.8}$	174 bits	2^{87}	$2^{10.5} = 1390$
$2048 \; {\rm bits}$	$2^{116.9}$	235 bits	2^{117}	$2^{40.6} = 1.6 \times 10^{12}$
$4096 \; {\rm bits}$	$2^{156.5}$	321 bits	2^{157}	$2^{80.2} = 1.4 \times 10^{24}$

ECDH can achieve the same level of security with much smaller values. Smaller values \implies faster computation.

Elliptic curves in practice

Most modern major web browsers and web servers support ECC:

- ► Microsoft Internet Explorer and Internet Information Server
- ► Mozilla Firefox**
- ► Google Chrome*
- ► Apache**

Most modern major web browsers and web servers support ECC:

- ► Microsoft Internet Explorer and Internet Information Server
- ► Mozilla Firefox**
- ► Google Chrome*
- ► Apache**

Use of ECC is not too widespread, yet. But in November 2011, **Google** changed their configuration so that all their web servers would use **ECDH** as their default ciphersuite.

► Faster computation.

Most modern major web browsers and web servers support ECC:

- ► Microsoft Internet Explorer and Internet Information Server
- ► Mozilla Firefox**
- ► Google Chrome*
- ► Apache**

Use of ECC is not too widespread, yet. But in November 2011, **Google** changed their configuration so that all their web servers would use **ECDH** as their default ciphersuite.

- ► Faster computation.
- ► Better security compared to existing RSA ciphersuites.

Most modern major web browsers and web servers support ECC:

- ► Microsoft Internet Explorer and Internet Information Server
- ► Mozilla Firefox**
- ► Google Chrome*
- ► Apache**

Use of ECC is not too widespread, yet. But in November 2011, **Google** changed their configuration so that all their web servers would use **ECDH** as their default ciphersuite.

- ► Faster computation.
- ► Better security compared to existing RSA ciphersuites.
- Forward security: If Google's long term public key gets compromised later, your current encryptions can't be broken.

000	Google ×		±
$\textbf{\leftarrow} \ \Rightarrow \ \textbf{C}$	Attps://www.google.com.au		<u>ک</u>
+You Se	www.google.com.au The identity of this website has been verified by Google Internet Authority. Certificate Information	Documents Calendar More -	Sign in
	Your connection to www.google.com.au is encrypted with 128-bit encryption. The connection uses TLS 1.0. The connection is encrypted using RC4_128, with SHA1 for message authentication and ECDHE_RSA as the key exchange mechanism. The connection is not compressed.	ogle	
	Site information You first visited this site on Aug 7, 2012.	Australia	
	Google Se	arch I'm Feeling Lucky	



- ► The basic **double-and-add** point multiplication algorithm does an extra operation whenever the key bit is 1.
- If an adversary can see when your computer does that extra operation, she can recover your key.

- ► The basic **double-and-add** point multiplication algorithm does an extra operation whenever the key bit is 1.
- If an adversary can see when your computer does that extra operation, she can recover your key.
- ► How? Side-channels such as electricity usage, radiation, or timing.

- ► The basic **double-and-add** point multiplication algorithm does an extra operation whenever the key bit is 1.
- If an adversary can see when your computer does that extra operation, she can recover your key.
- ► How? Side-channels such as electricity usage, radiation, or timing.



Figure : Point doubling and point addition



Figure : Point multiplication



Figure : Point multiplication with additions and doublings identified

Elliptic curves in theory

Elliptic curve pairings

A bilinear pairing is a function e that given g^a and g^b can compute

$$e(g^a, g^b) = e(g, g)^{ab}$$

Elliptic curve pairings

A bilinear pairing is a function e that given g^a and g^b can compute

$$e(g^a, g^b) = e(g, g)^{ab}$$

Pairings can be used to construct many cryptographic protocols:

► 3-party Diffie-Hellman key exchange: Alice $A = g^a$, Bob $B = g^b$, Charlie $C = g^c$ $k = e(g, g)^{abc} = e(B, C)^a = e(A, C)^b = e(A, B)^c$

Elliptic curve pairings

A **bilinear pairing** is a function e that given g^a and g^b can compute

$$e(g^a, g^b) = e(g, g)^{ab}$$

Pairings can be used to construct many cryptographic protocols:

- ► 3-party Diffie-Hellman key exchange: Alice $A = g^a$, Bob $B = g^b$, Charlie $C = g^c$ $k = e(g, g)^{abc} = e(B, C)^a = e(A, C)^b = e(A, B)^c$
- identity-based encryption:

Instead of having to get Bob's public key, Alice can encrypt a message based on Bob's identity, such as bob@gmail.com.

► Theorem (Fermat, 1647). There exist no positive integers *a*, *b*, *c* that satisfy the equation

$$a^n + b^n = c^n$$

for any integer n > 2.

► Theorem (Fermat, 1647). There exist no positive integers *a*, *b*, *c* that satisfy the equation

$$a^n + b^n = c^n$$

for any integer n > 2.

► Proof. (1637–1994) "I have discovered a truly marvellous proof of this, which this margin is too narrow to contain."

► Theorem (Fermat, 1647). There exist no positive integers *a*, *b*, *c* that satisfy the equation

$$a^n + b^n = c^n$$

for any integer n > 2.

- ► Proof. (1637–1994) "I have discovered a truly marvellous proof of this, which this margin is too narrow to contain."
- ► Frey (1984). If Fermat's equation had a solution (a, b, c) for p > 2, then the elliptic curve

$$y^2 = x(x - a^p)(x - b^p)$$

would have unusual properties (violate the modularity theorem).

► **Theorem (Fermat, 1647).** There exist no positive integers *a*, *b*, *c* that satisfy the equation

$$a^n + b^n = c^n$$

for any integer n > 2.

- ► *Proof.* (1637–1994) "I have discovered a truly marvellous proof of this, which this margin is too narrow to contain."
- ► Frey (1984). If Fermat's equation had a solution (a, b, c) for p > 2, then the elliptic curve

$$y^2 = x(x - a^p)(x - b^p)$$

would have unusual properties (violate the modularity theorem).

► Wiles (1995). Proof of modularity theorem and Fermat's Last Theorem. 100+ pages.

Elliptic curve cryptography at QUT

Elliptic curve cryptography at QUT Research:

- early implementations of ECC
- ► fast algorithms for ECC and pairings
- ► side-channel-resistant algorithms for ECC
- ► use of ECC and pairings in designing new cryptographic schemes

Elliptic curve cryptography at QUT Research:

- early implementations of ECC
- ► fast algorithms for ECC and pairings
- ► side-channel-resistant algorithms for ECC
- ► use of ECC and pairings in designing new cryptographic schemes

Teaching:

MAB461 Discrete Mathematics:

modular arithmetic, number theory, RSA public key cryptography

- MAN778 Applications of Discrete Mathematics: advanced number theory, group theory, Diffie–Hellman, introduction to elliptic curves, provable security
- INN355 Cryptology and Protocols: symmetric and public key cryptography
- ► INN652 Advanced Cryptology: elliptic curve cryptography