## ELLIPTIC CURVE CRYPTOGRAPHY

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## Introduction

o What are Elliptic Curves?

- Curve with standard form $y^{2}=x^{3}+a x+b \quad a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
o Characteristics of Elliptic Curve
- Forms an abelian group
- Symmetric about the $x$-axis
- Point at Infinity acting as the identity element


Examples of Elliptic Curves

## Finite Fields

o aka Galois Field
$\circ \operatorname{GF}\left(\mathrm{p}^{n}\right)=$ a set of integers $\left\{0,1,2, \ldots, \mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{n}}-1\right)$ where p is a prime, n is a positive integer

O It is denoted by $\{F,+, x\}$
where + and $x$ are the group operators


## Group, Ring, Field

## Why Elliptic Curve Cryptography?

o Shorter Key Length
o Lesser Computational Complexity
o Low Power Requirement
o More Secure

## Comparable Key Sizes for Equivalent Security

| Symmetric Encryption <br> (Key Size in bits) | RSA and Diffie-Hellman <br> (modulus size in bits) | ECC Key Size <br> in bits |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 56 | 512 | 112 |
| 80 | 1024 | 160 |
| 112 | 2048 | 224 |
| 128 | 3072 | 256 |
| 192 | 7680 | 384 |
| 256 | 15360 | 512 |

## What is Elliptic Curve Cryptography?

- Implementing Group Operations
- Main operations - point addition and point multiplication
- Adding two points that lie on an Elliptic Curve - results in a third point on the curve
- Point multiplication is repeated addition
- If $P$ is a known point on the curve (aka Base point; part of domain parameters) and it is multiplied by a scalar $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{Q}=\mathrm{kP}$ is the operation of adding $\mathrm{P}+\mathrm{P}+\mathrm{P}+\mathrm{P} \ldots+\mathrm{P}$ (k times)
- Q is the resulting public key and $k$ is the private key in the public-private key pair


## What is Elliptic Curve Cryptography?



- Adding two points on the curve
- P and Q are added to obtain P+Q which is a reflection of R along the X axis


## What is Elliptic Curve Cryptography?



- A tangent at $P$ is extended to cut the curve at a point; its reflection is $2 P$
- Adding P and 2P gives 3P
- Similarly, such operations can be performed as many times as desired to obtain $\mathrm{Q}=\mathrm{kP}$


## What is Elliptic Curve Cryptography?

o Discrete Log Problem

- The security of ECC is due the intractability or difficulty of solving the inverse operation of finding $k$ given Q and P
- This is termed as the discrete log problem
- Methods to solve include brute force and Pollard's Rho attack both of which are computationally expensive or unfeasible
- The version applicable in ECC is called the Elliptic Curve Discrete Log Problem
- Exponential running time


## ECC in Windows DRM v2.0

## A Practical Example :

Finite field chosen
$\mathrm{p}=785963102379428822376694789446897396207498568951$

Gx $=771507216262649826170648268565579889907769254176$
$G y=390157510246556628525279459266514995562533196655$
$y^{2}=x^{3}+317689081251325503476317476413827693272746955927 x+$ 790528966078787587181205720257185354321100651934

Gx and Gy constitute the agreed upon base point $(\mathrm{P})$ and the numbers in the above equation are values for the parameters a and b

## Elliptic Curve Schemes

- Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA)
o Elliptic Curve Pintsov Vanstone Signature(ECPVS)
o Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman (ECDH)


## Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA)

- Elliptic curve variant of Digital Signature Algorithm


Canadian postage stamp that uses ECDSA

## ECDSA

o Signature Generation
Once we have the domain parameters and have decided on the keys to be used, the signature is generated by the following steps.

1. A random number $k, 1 \leq k \leq n-1$ is chosen
2. $k G=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ is computed. $x_{1}$ is converted to its
corresponding integer $X_{1}{ }^{\prime}$
3. Next, $r=x_{1} \bmod n$ is computed
4. We then compute $k^{-1} \bmod q$
5. $e=\operatorname{HASH}(m)$ where $m$ is the message to be signed
6. $s=k^{-1}(e+d r) \bmod n$.

We have the signature as $(r, s)$

## ECDSA

## o Signature Verification

At the receiver's end the signature is verified as follows:

1. Verify whether $r$ and $s$ belong to the interval $[1, n-1]$ for the signature to be valid.
2. Compute $\mathrm{e}=\mathrm{HASH}(\mathrm{m})$. The hash function should be the same as the one used for signature generation.
3. Compute $w=s^{-1} \bmod n$.
4. Compute $u_{1}=e w \bmod n$ and $u_{2}=r w \bmod n$.
5. Compute $\left(\mathrm{x}_{1}, \mathrm{y}_{1}\right)=\mathrm{u}_{1} \mathrm{G}+\mathrm{u}_{2} \mathrm{Q}$.
6. The signature is valid if $r=x_{1}$ mod $n$, invalid otherwise.

This is how we know that the verification works the way we want it to:

We have, $s=k^{-1}(e+d r)$ mod $n$ which we can rearrange to obtain, $k=s^{-1}(e+d r)$ which is

$$
\mathrm{s}^{-1} \mathrm{e}+\mathrm{s}^{-1} \mathrm{rd}
$$

This is nothing but we $+w r d=\left(u_{1}+u_{2} d\right)(\bmod n)$
We have $\mathrm{u}_{1} \mathrm{G}+\mathrm{u}_{2} \mathrm{Q}=\left(\mathrm{u}_{1}+\mathrm{u}_{2} \mathrm{~d}\right) \mathrm{G}=\mathrm{kG}$ which translates to $\mathrm{v}=\mathrm{r}$.

## Elliptic Curve Pintsov Vanstone Signature (ECPVS)

o Signature scheme using Elliptic Curves
o More efficient than RSA as overhead is extremely low

## ECPVS

- Signature Generation

The plaintext message is split into two parts: part C representing the data elements requiring confidentiality and part V representing the data elements presented in plaintext. Both the parts are signed. The signature is generated as follows:

1. A random number $k, 1 \leq k \leq n-1$ is chosen.
2. Calculate the point $R$ on the curve $(R=k G)$.
3. Use point $R$ and a symmetric encryption algorithm to get $e=T_{R}(C)$.
4. Calculate a variable $d$ such that $d=\operatorname{HASH}\left(e\left\|I_{A}\right\| V\right)$
where $I_{A}$ is the identity of the mailer terminal.
5. Now calculate the other part of the signature $s$ as follows: $s=a d+k$ (mod n).

The signature pair ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{e}$ ) is transmitted together with the portion V of the plaintext.

## ECPVS

- Signature Verification

1. Retrieve $Q_{A}$ ( $Q_{A}$ is mailer A's public key)
2. Calculate the variable $\mathrm{d}=\operatorname{HASH}\left(e\left\|I_{\mathrm{A}}\right\| V\right)$ using the same HASH algorithm as the one used for generating the signature.
3. Compute $U=s G-d Q_{A}$.
4. Recover $\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{u}}{ }^{-1}(\mathrm{e})$.
5. Run a redundancy test on C . If the test fails, discard the message. Else, the plaintext is recovered.
We have, $\mathrm{s}=\mathrm{ad}+\mathrm{k}$. Multiply by base point G to obtain $\mathrm{sG}=$ adG $+k G$ which is $d Q_{A}+R$
Therefore, $\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{sG}-\mathrm{dQ}_{\mathrm{A}}$ which is U . Comparing the decrypted versions, $m$ and $m$ ' obtained using $U$ and $R$, we ascertain the validity of the signature

## Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman (ECDH)

o Elliptic curve variant of the key exchange Diffie-Hellman protocol.

- Decide on domain parameters and come up with a Public/Private key pair
o To obtain the private key, the attacker needs to solve the discrete log problem


## ECDH

- How the key exchange takes place:

1. Alice and Bob publicly agree on an elliptic curve E over a large finite field $F$ and a point $P$ on that curve.
2. Alice and Bob each privately choose large random integers, denoted a and b
3. Using elliptic curve point-addition, Alice computes aP on E and sends it to Bob. Bob computes bP on E and sends it to Alice.
4. Both Alice and Bob can now compute the point abP Alice by multiplying the received value of bP by her secret number a and Bob vice-versa.
5. Alice and Bob agree that the $x$ coordinate of this point will be their shared secret value.

## Pros and Cons

o Pros

- Shorter Key Length
- Same level of security as RSA achieved at a much shorter key length
- Better Security
- Secure because of the ECDLP
- Higher security per key-bit than RSA
- Higher Performance
- Shorter key-length ensures lesser power requirement suitable in wireless sensor applications and low power devices
- More computation per bit but overall lesser computational expense or complexity due to lesser number of key bits


## Pros and Cons

o Cons

- Relatively newer field
- Idea prevails that all the aspects of the topic may not have been explored yet - possibly unknown vulnerabilities
- Doesn't have widespread usage
- Not perfect
- Attacks still exist that can solve ECC (112 bit key length has been publicly broken)
- Well known attacks are the Pollard's Rho attack (complexity O( $\sqrt{ } n)$ ), Pohlig's attack, Baby Step,Giant Step etc

