



# Elliptic Curve Cryptography

# Elliptic curve Addition Algorithm

**Theorem:**

**Let  $E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$  is an elliptic curve and**

**Let  $P$  and  $Q$  be two points on  $E$**

- (a) **If  $P = o$  then  $P + Q = Q$**
- (b) **Otherwise if  $Q = o$ , then  $P + Q = P$**
- (c) **Otherwise, write  $P = (x_1, y_1)$  and  $q = (x_2, y_2)$**
- (d) **If  $x_1 = x_2$  and  $y_1 = -y_2$ , then  $P + Q = o$**
- (e)  **$P = P$ , assume  $P \neq o$  and  $Q \neq o$**
- (f) **Otherwise define  $\lambda$**

***Contd. To next slide***

# Elliptic curve Addition Algorithm

*Contd.*

$$\lambda = (y_2 - y_1) / (x_2 - x_1) \text{ if } P \neq Q$$

$$\lambda = (3x_1^2 + a) / (2y_1) \text{ if } P = Q$$

$$x_3 = \lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2$$

$$y_3 = (\lambda (x_1 - x_3) - y_1)$$

$$\text{Then } P + Q = (x_3, y_3)$$

# Elliptic curve Addition Algorithm

Proof:

Parts (a) and (b) are clear.

(d) Is the case that the line through P and Q is vertical, so  $P + Q = o$ .

For (e), if  $P \neq Q$  then  $\lambda$  is the slope of the line through P and Q and if  $P = Q$  then  $\lambda$  is the slope of the tangent line at P.

In either case, L:  $y = \lambda x + c$  with  $c = y_1 - \lambda x_1$

# Elliptic curve Addition Algorithm

Proof (contd.)

*Substituting  $L$  on  $E$*

$$(\lambda x + c)^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

$$x^3 - \lambda^2 x^2 + (a - 2\lambda c)x + (b - c^2) = 0$$

We know that this cubic equation has two roots  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . If we call the third root as  $x_3$ , then it factors as

$$x^3 - \lambda^2 x^2 + (a - 2\lambda c)x + (b - c^2) = (x - x_1)(x - x_2)(x - x_3)$$

Multiply and look at the coefficient of  $x^2$  on each side.

# Elliptic curve Addition Algorithm

Proof (contd.)

*The coefficient of  $x^2$  on the right hand side is*

$$-x_1 - x_2 - x_3$$

*Which must equal to  $-\lambda^2$ , the coefficient of  $x^2$  on the left hand side.*

*This solves  $x_3 = \lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2$  and then y-coordinate of third intersection point of L and E*

$$\begin{aligned} Y_3 &= \lambda x_3 + c = \lambda x_3 + c = \lambda x_3 + y_1 - \lambda x_1 \\ &= -(\lambda(x_1 - x_3) - y_1) \end{aligned}$$

*So the y-coordinate of  $(P + Q)$  is  $(\lambda(x_1 - x_3) - y_1)$*

**□**

# Finite Elliptic Curves

- Elliptic curve cryptography uses curves whose variables & coefficients are finite
- have two families commonly used:
  - prime curves  $E_p(a,b)$  defined over  $Z_p$ 
    - use integers modulo a prime
    - best in software
  - binary curves  $E_{2^m}(a,b)$  defined over  $GF(2^n)$ 
    - use polynomials with binary coefficients
    - best in hardware

# Elliptic Curves over Finite Fields

➤ Define Elliptic curve over  $F_p$  as

$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$  with  $a, b \in F_p$  satisfying  $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$

$E(F_p) = \{(x, y), x, y \in F_p \text{ satisfy } y^2 = x^3 + ax + b\} \cup \{0\}, p \geq 3$

*Example: Consider the elliptic curve*

$E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$  over the field  $F_{13}$



# Elliptic Curve on a finite field

- Consider  $y^2 = x^3 + 3x + 8 \pmod{13}$

$$x = 0 \Rightarrow y^2 = 8 \Rightarrow 8 \text{ is not a square mod } 13$$

$$x = 1 \Rightarrow y^2 = 12 = 1 \Rightarrow y = 1, 5 \pmod{13}$$

$$x = 1 \Rightarrow y^2 = 12 = 1 \Rightarrow y = 1, 8 \pmod{13}$$

$$5^2 = 12 \pmod{13}, 8^2 = 12 \pmod{13}$$

$$x = 2 \Rightarrow y^2 = 22 = 9 \Rightarrow y = 2, 3 \pmod{13}$$

$$x = 2 \Rightarrow y^2 = 22 = 9 \Rightarrow y = 2, 10 \pmod{13}$$

$$3^2 = 9 \pmod{13}, 10^2 = 9 \pmod{13}$$

- Then points on the elliptic curve are

$$E(\mathbb{F}_{13}) = \{0, (1,5), (1,8), (2,3), (2,10), (9,6), (9,7), (12,2), (12,11)\}$$

# Elliptic curve Addition over Finite Field

## Theorem:

*Let  $E$  be an elliptic curve over  $F_p$  and let  $P$  and  $Q$  be points on  $E(F_p)$*

- (a) The elliptic curve addition algorithm applied  $P$  and  $Q$  yields a point in  $E(F_p)$ . We denote this point by  $P + Q$
- (b) This addition law on  $E(F_p)$  satisfies all of the properties additions defined geometrically on elliptic curve i.e.  $E(F_p)$  forms a finite group.

# Diffie-Hellman (DH) Key Exchange

**User A**

Generate  
random  $X_A < q$ ;  
Calculate  
 $Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \text{ mod } q$

Calculate  
 $K = (Y_B)^{X_A} \text{ mod } q$

**User B**

Generate  
random  $X_B < q$ ;  
Calculate  
 $Y_B = \alpha^{X_B} \text{ mod } q$ ;  
Calculate  
 $K = (Y_A)^{X_B} \text{ mod } q$

$Y_A$

$Y_B$

# Elliptic Curve Cryptography

- ECC addition is analog of modulo multiply
- ECC repeated addition is analog of modulo exponentiation
- need “hard” problem equiv to discrete log
  - $Q=kP$ , where  $Q,P$  belong to a prime curve
  - is “easy” to compute  $Q$  given  $k,P$
  - but “hard” to find  $k$  given  $Q,P$
  - known as the elliptic curve logarithm problem
- Certicom example:  $E_{23}(9,17)$

# Elliptic Curve on a finite field

Example:

Consider the group  $E_{23}(9, 17)$ ,  $E: y^2 = x^3 + 9x + 17 \pmod{23}$

- What is discrete logarithm  $k$  of  $Q = (4, 5)$  to the base  $P = (16, 5)$  ?
- Brute Force :  $P = (16, 5)$ ;  $2P = (20, 20)$ ;  $3P = (14, 14)$ ;  
 $4P = (19, 20)$ ;  $5P = (13, 10)$ ;  $6P = (7, 3)$ ;  $7P = (8, 7)$ ;  
 $8P = (12, 17)$ ;  $9P = (4, 5)$ ;
- $k = 9$  , the discrete logarithm of  $Q(4, 5)$  to the base  $P(16, 5)$

# ECC Diffie-Hellman

- can do key exchange analogous to D-H
- users select a suitable curve  $E_q(a,b)$
- select base point  $G=(x_1,y_1)$ 
  - with large order  $n$  s.t.  $nG=O$
- A & B select private keys  $n_A < n$ ,  $n_B < n$
- compute public keys:  $P_A = n_A G$ ,  $P_B = n_B G$
- compute shared key:  $K = n_A P_B$ ,  $K = n_B P_A$ 
  - same since  $K = n_A n_B G$
- attacker would need to find  $k$ , hard

# ECC Encryption/Decryption

- several alternatives, will consider simplest
- must first encode any message  $M$  as a point on the elliptic curve  $P_m$
- select suitable curve & point  $G$  as in D-H
- each user chooses private key  $n_A < n$
- and computes public key  $P_A = n_A G$
- to encrypt  $P_m$  :  $C_m = \{kG, P_m + kP_b\}$ ,  $k$  random
- decrypt  $C_m$  compute:  
$$P_m + kP_b - n_B(kG) = P_m + k(n_B G) - n_B(kG) = P_m$$

# ECC Security

- relies on elliptic curve logarithm problem
- fastest method is “Pollard rho method”
- compared to factoring, can use much smaller key sizes than with RSA, etc.
- for equivalent key lengths computations are roughly equivalent
- hence for similar security ECC offers significant computational advantages



# Applications of ECC

- Many devices are small and have limited storage and computational power
- Where can we apply ECC?
  - **Wireless communication devices**
  - Smart cards
  - Web servers that need to handle many encryption sessions
  - **Any application where security is needed but lacks the power, storage and computational power that is necessary for our current cryptosystems**

# Advantages of ECC

- Shorter key lengths
  - Encryption, Decryption and Signature Verification speed up
  - Storage and bandwidth savings

# Advantage of ECC

- “**Hard problem**” analogous to discrete log
  - $Q=kP$ , where  $Q,P$  belong to a prime curve
    - given  $k,P \rightarrow$  “easy” to compute  $Q$
    - given  $Q,P \rightarrow$  “hard” to find  $k$
  - known as **the elliptic curve logarithm problem**
    - $k$  must be large enough
- ECC security relies on elliptic curve logarithm problem
  - compared to factoring, can use much smaller key sizes than with RSA etc
  - **for similar security ECC offers significant computational advantages**

# Key Sizes for Equivalent Security

Symmetric scheme (key size in bits)	ECC-based scheme (size of $n$ in bits)	RSA/DSA (modulus size in bits)
56	112	512
80	160	1024
112	224	2048
128	256	3072
192	384	7680
256	512	15360