

# Discrete-log and elliptic-curve based cryptography

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- Previous lecture: discrete-log based group
  - The multiplicative group  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$
  - ElGamal encryption: security proof
  - Diffie-Hellman key exchange
  - Schnorr signature scheme
- Elliptic-Curve Cryptography
  - Defines an alternative group, with generally shorter keys.
  - El-Gamal over ECC
- Pairing-based cryptography
  - Application to identity-based encryption.
- How to hash into elliptic-curves.
  - Icart's function

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# The multiplicative group $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$

- Let  $p$  be a prime integer.
  - The set  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is the set of integers modulo  $p$  which are invertible modulo  $p$ .
  - The set  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is a cyclic group of order  $p - 1$  for the operation of multiplication modulo  $p$ .
- Generators of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  :
  - There exists  $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  such that any  $h \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  can be uniquely written as  $h = g^x \pmod{p}$  with  $0 \leq x < p - 1$ .
  - The integer  $x$  is called the *discrete logarithm* of  $h$  to the base  $g$ , and denoted  $\log_g h$ .

# Elliptic Curves

- Defines a new group different from  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ 
  - Security based on the Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem (ECDLP)
  - Advantage: shorter keys
- Elliptic-curve equation over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ :
  - $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$  where  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$
- Group structure
  - The set of points together with  $\mathcal{O}$  can define a group structure, where  $\mathcal{O}$  is the point at infinity.

# EC: addition formula in char $\neq 2, 3$

- The group law is defined geometrically by point addition and point doubling
- Let  $P = (x_1, y_1) \neq \mathcal{O}$  and  $Q = (x_2, y_2) \neq \mathcal{O}$ . Then  $P + Q = (x_3, y_3)$  with:

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

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

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}, & \text{if } P \neq Q \\ \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}, & \text{if } P = Q \end{cases}$$

- $P = (x_1, y_1) \neq \mathcal{O} \Rightarrow -P = (x_1, -y_1)$



# Computing a multiple of a point

- **Double-and-add Algorithm:**

input  $P$  and  $d = (d_{\ell-1}, \dots, d_0)$

output  $Q = dP$

$Q \leftarrow P$

for  $i$  from  $\ell - 2$  downto  $0$  do

$Q \leftarrow 2Q$

    if  $d_i = 1$  then  $Q \leftarrow Q + P$

output  $Q$

- Complexity of computing  $Q = dP$

- $\mathcal{O}(\log d)$  operations

# Computing the group order

- Ordinary elliptic-curves
  - $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$
  - Let  $n$  be the number of points, including  $\mathcal{O}$ .
  - We must have  $n = k \cdot q$  where  $q$  is a large prime.
  - then work in subgroup of order  $q$ .
- Computing the group order  $n$ :
  - Schoof's algorithm.
  - Schoof-Elkies-Atkin algorithm.
  - or use standardized curves.

# EC El-Gamal encryption

- Key generation
  - Let  $\mathbb{G}$  be an elliptic curve subgroup of prime order  $q$  and  $G$  a generator of  $\mathbb{G}$ .
  - Let  $\alpha \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_q$ . Let  $H = \alpha G$ .
  - Public-key :  $(G, H)$ . Private-key :  $\alpha$
- Encryption of  $m$  :
  - Let  $r \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_q$
  - Output  $c = (rG, (rH)_x \oplus m)$  where  $(rH)_x$  denotes the  $x$  coordinate of  $rH$ .
- Decryption of  $c = (C_1, c_2)$ 
  - Output  $m = (\alpha C_1)_x \oplus c_2$

# Introduction to pairing-based cryptography

- Pairing-based cryptography
  - Special bilinear map between two groups to build advanced cryptographic protocols.
  - A function  $e : \mathbb{G} \times \mathbb{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_1$  where  $\mathbb{G}$  and  $\mathbb{G}_1$  are groups of prime order  $q$ .
  - $e(g^a, g^b) = e(g, g)^{ab}$  for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
  - Can be constructed from elliptic curves using the Weil or Tate pairing.
- Applications
  - Identity-Based Encryption (IBE), short signatures, broadcast encryption...

- Bilinear map :

- Let  $\mathbb{G}$  and  $\mathbb{G}_1$  be groups of order  $q$ , for a large prime  $q$ . Let  $g$  be a generator of  $\mathbb{G}$ .
- Bilinear map: function  $e$  such that

$$e : \mathbb{G} \times \mathbb{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_1$$

- Properties of bilinear map

- Bilinear:  $e(g^a, g^b) = e(g, g)^{ab}$  for all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- Non-degenerate:  $e(g, g) \neq 1$ .
- Computable: there exists an efficient algorithm to compute  $e(h_1, h_2)$  for any  $h_1, h_2 \in \mathbb{G}$ .

# Implementation of bilinear map

- Weil pairing or Tate pairing over an elliptic curve.
  - Let  $p$  be a large prime with  $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ . Consider the Elliptic-Curve:

$$E/\mathbb{F}_p : y^2 = x^3 + 1$$

- The curve satisfies  $\#E(\mathbb{F}_p) = p + 1$ .
- Definition of the Weil Pairing

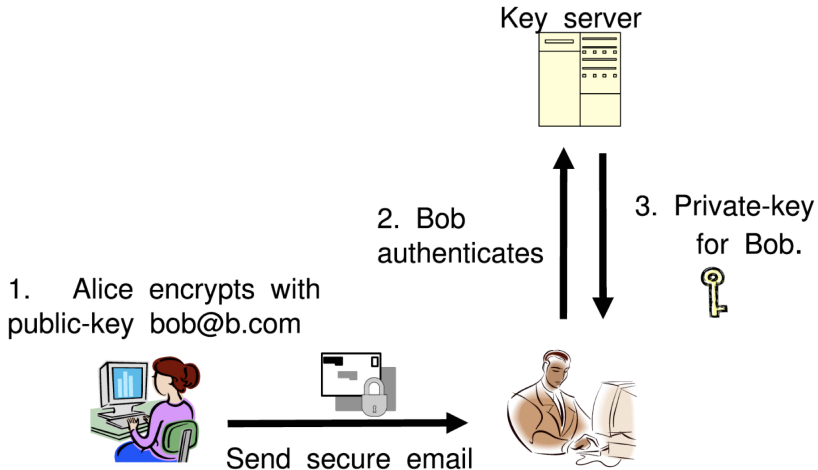
$$e(P, Q) = \frac{f_P(\mathcal{A}_Q)}{f_Q(\mathcal{A}_P)}$$

- Computing the Weil pairing
  - Using Miller's algorithm.
  - Algorithm in  $\mathcal{O}(\log p)$  arithmetic operations mod  $p \Rightarrow \mathcal{O}(\log^3 p)$  elementary operations.

# Application of the elliptic-curve pairing

- Identity-Based Encryption (IBE)
  - Concept invented in 1984 by Adi Shamir.
  - First practical realization in 2001 by Boneh and Franklin, based on bilinear pairing operation over an elliptic-curve.
- Principle:
  - IBE allows for a party to encrypt a message using the recipient's identity as the public-key.
  - The corresponding private-key is provided by a central authority.

- Alice sends an email to Bob using his identity as the





- Principle
  - Alice encrypts her email using Bob's email address `bob@b.com` as the public-key.
  - Bob receives the message. Bob contacts the key server, authenticates and obtains his private key.
  - Bob can use his private-key to decrypt the message.
  - The private-key can be used to decrypt any future message sent to Bob by Alice or any other user.
- Advantages
  - Avoids the need to distribute PK certificates.
  - Users can use their email address as their identity
- Drawback
  - The key server can decrypt any communication

# Definition of IBE

- Setup
  - Output: system public parameters  $params$ , and private master-key  $master-key$ .
- Keygen
  - Input:  $params$ ,  $master-key$  and identity  $v$ .
  - Output: private key  $d_v$  for  $v$ .
- Encrypt
  - Input: message  $m$ , identity  $v$  and  $params$ .
  - Output: ciphertext  $c$ .
- Decrypt
  - Input:  $params$ , ciphertext  $c$  and private-key  $d_v$ .
  - Output: plaintext  $m$ .

# The Boneh-Franklin IBE scheme

- We describe the basic scheme, which achieves only CPA security
  - Based on bilinear map:  $e(g^a, h^b) = e(g, h)^{ab}$
- Setup
  - Let  $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$  of prime order  $p$ . Let  $H_1 : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{G}$  a hash function.
  - Generate random  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Let  $h = g^a$ .
  - Public:  $(g, h)$ . Secret:  $a$ .
- Keygen
  - Let  $v$  be an identity. Private-key  $d_v = H_1(v)^a$

- Encryption

- Generate a random  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ .

$$C = \left( g^r, m \oplus H_2(e(H_1(v), h)^r) \right)$$

- Decryption

- To decrypt  $C = (c_1, c_2)$  using  $d_v = H(v)^a$ , compute:

$$m = H_2(e(d_v, c_1)) \oplus c_2$$

- Why decryption works

- Using the bilinearity of  $e$

$$e(H_1(v), h)^r = e(H_1(v), g^a)^r = e(H_1(v)^a, g^r) = e(d_v, c_1)$$

# Security of Boneh-Franklin

- The security of the Boneh-Franklin scheme can be proven secure
  - in the random oracle model
  - under the BDH assumption.
- BDH assumption
  - BDH problem: given  $(g, g^a, g^b, g^c)$ , output  $e(g, g)^{abc}$ .
  - BDH assumption: there is no efficient algorithm that solves the BDH problem.

# Hashing into elliptic-curves

- Hashing into Elliptic Curves
  - Boneh-Franklin IBE:  $Q_{id} = H_1(id)$  on the curve.
  - Password based authentication protocols (SPEKE, PAK).
- Boneh-Franklin: super-singular curve
  - Special curve with special operation: pairing.
  - Hashing is easy.
  - But larger parameters are required.
- How to hash into ordinary curves ?

- Simple Password Exponential Key Exchange (Jablon, 1996)
  - Let  $pw$  be a password shared by Alice and Bob
  - Let  $E$  be the subgroup of an elliptic curve of order  $q$ .
- Protocol
  - Alice sends  $A = a.H(pw)$  to Bob, where  $a \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$
  - Bob sends  $B = b.H(pw)$  to Alice, where  $b \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$
  - Alice computes  $K = a.B = ab.H(pw)$
  - Bob computes  $K = b.A = ab.H(pw)$

# Try and Increment

- Elliptic curve:

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$$

- Try and Increment:

Input:  $u$  an integer. We can take  $u = H(m)$ .

Output:  $Q$ , a point of  $E_{a,b}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ .

- 1 For  $i = 0$  to  $k - 1$ 
    - 1 Set  $x = u + i$
    - 2 If  $x^3 + ax + b$  is a quadratic residue in  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , then return  $Q = (x, (x^3 + ax + b)^{1/2})$
  - 2 end For
  - 3 Return  $\perp$
- Timing attack
    - The number of trials varies with the input, timing side-channel leaks information about the input



# Supersingular Elliptic Curve

- Supersingular curve:

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + 1 \pmod{p}$$

- with  $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$
- It has  $p + 1$  points.
- Hashing into  $E$ :
  - Let  $y = H(m)$
  - Let  $x = (y^2 - 1)^{1/3}$
  - Return  $P = (x, y)$
- $p$  must be large because of MOV attack (at least 512 bits)

# Hashing into Ordinary Curves

- Elliptic curve:

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$$

- Icart's function

- Published by Thomas Icart at CRYPTO 2009
- Deterministic function into  $E$
- Requires  $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$
- Essentially one exponentiation in  $\mathbb{F}_p$

- Shallue-Woestijne-Ulas algorithm

- Deterministic algorithm into  $E$  (but requires a test)
- Does not require  $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$
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# Icart's Function

- Elliptic curve with  $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ :

$$E_{a,b} : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$$

- Icart's function: (we can have  $u = H(m)$ )

$$\begin{aligned} f_{a,b} : \mathbb{F}_p &\mapsto E_{a,b} \\ u &\mapsto (x, y) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \left( v^2 - b - \frac{u^6}{27} \right)^{(2p-1)/3} + \frac{u^2}{3} \\ y &= ux + v \end{aligned}$$

$$v = \frac{3a - u^4}{6u}.$$

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# Why it Works

- $E_{a,b} : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$
- Let  $y = ux + v$  with  $u, v$  two parameters
- $u^2x^2 + 2uvx + v^2 = x^3 + ax + b$
- $x^3 - u^2x^2 + (a - 2uv)x + b - v^2 = 0$
- $(x - u^2/3)^3 + x(a - 2uv - u^4/3) = v^2 - b - u^6/27$
- We want:  $a - 2uv - u^4/3 = 0$ 
  - We take  $v = (3a - u^4)/(6u)$
- We get:  $(x - u^2/3)^3 = v^2 - b - u^6/27$

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- Discrete-logarithm based cryptography
  - Foundation of many classical protocols (ElGamal, Diffie-Hellman, Schnorr).
- Elliptic-curve cryptography
  - Provides similar security with much shorter keys, based on the ECDLP assumption.
- Pairing-based cryptography
  - Enables new applications such as Identity-Based Encryption (IBE).
- Hashing into elliptic curves