

# Discrete logarithm problem (DLP) & ECDSA

Many slides are from Rong-Jaye Chen@NCTU

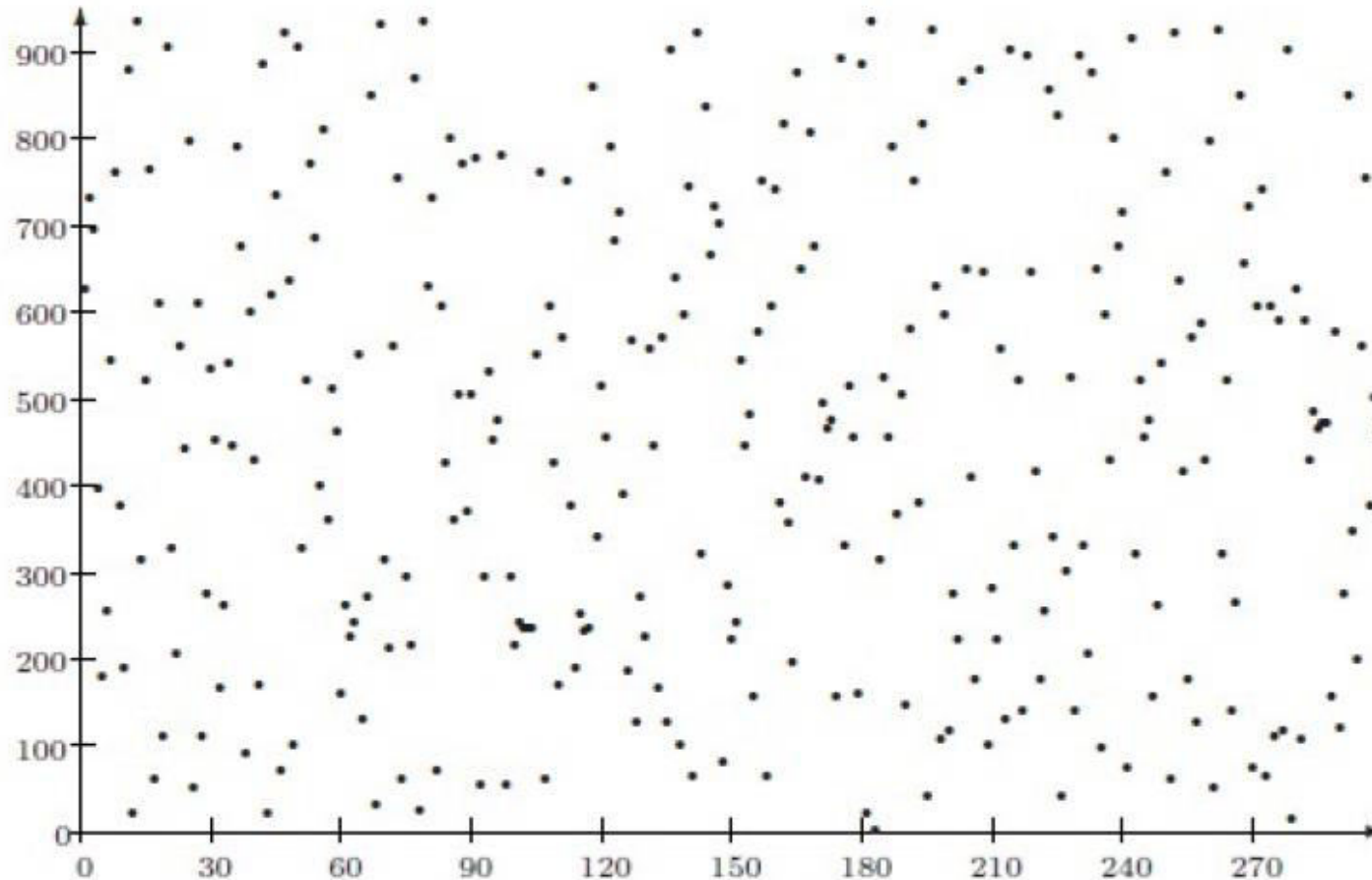
# Discrete Logarithm

- Fix a prime  $p$ . Let  $a, b$  be nonzero integers (mod  $p$ )
- The problem of finding  $x$  such that  $a^x \equiv b \pmod{p}$  is called the discrete logarithm problem (DLP)
- We denote  $x=L_a(b)$ , and call it the discrete log of  $b$  w.r.t.  $a$  (mod  $p$ )
- Ex:  $p=11, a=2, b=9$ , then  $x=L_2(9)=6$

In some references,  $x=\text{Log}_a(b)$

# Discrete logarithm: plotting

A graph of  $f(x) = 627^x \bmod 941$  for  $x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$



Source: Kaafarani@Oxford Univ.

# Discrete Logarithms

- In the Diffie-Hellman and ElGamal methods, the difficulty of solving the discrete logarithm problem yields good cryptosystems
- Given  $p, a, b$ , solve  $a^x \equiv b \pmod{p}$
- If  $\{a^x : 0 \leq x \leq p-2\} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$ ,  $a$  is called a **primitive root** mod  $p$ 
  - $a$  is aka a **generator**

# What a generator is doing

- The group of positive integers modulo prime  $p$   
 $Z_p^* \equiv \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$
- By Fermat's little theorem:  $a^{(p-1)} = 1 \pmod{p}$
- Example of  $Z_7^*$

Generators

$x$	$x^2$	$x^3$	$x^4$	$x^5$	$x^6$
1	1	1	1	1	1
2	4	1	2	4	1
<b><u>3</u></b>	<b>2</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>
4	2	1	4	2	1
<b><u>5</u></b>	<b>4</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>
6	1	6	1	6	1

For all  $p$ , the group is cyclic. A cyclic group is a group whose elements are generated by a single element (the generator)

# Discrete Logarithms

- Discrete log problem

- Given  $Z_p^* = \langle \alpha \rangle$
- $\text{Log}_\alpha(y) = x$ , if  $y = \alpha^x$ .

Set of elements which are generated by the exponentiation of  $\alpha$

- Example

- $Z_{13}^* = \langle 2 \rangle$ ;  $2^1=2, 2^2=4, 2^3=8, 2^4=3, 2^5=6, 2^6=12, 2^7=11, 2^8=9, 2^9=5, 2^{10}=10, 2^{11}=7, 2^{12}=1$
- $\text{Log}_2(5) = 9$ .

# Algorithms that solves DLP

- Some are of sub-exponential complexity

# That's why we need ECC

- Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC)
  - Similar to DLP
    - Called ECDLP
  - No efficient algorithms yet



## Bitcoin uses ECDSA

- Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm
- curve used is `secp256k1`
- set of points  $(x,y) \in \{F_p \times F_p \mid y^2 = x^3 + 7 \pmod{p}\}$
- $p = 2^{256} - 2^{32} - 2^9 - 2^8 - 2^7 - 2^6 - 2^4 - 1$
- Forms a group  $E$ ,  $|E| = q \approx p \approx 2^{256}$

	range	format	size (bits)
sk	$Z_q$	random	256
pk	$E$	$sk \cdot G$	512/257*
m	$Z_q$	H(message)	256
sig	$Z_q \times Z_q$	(r, s)	512

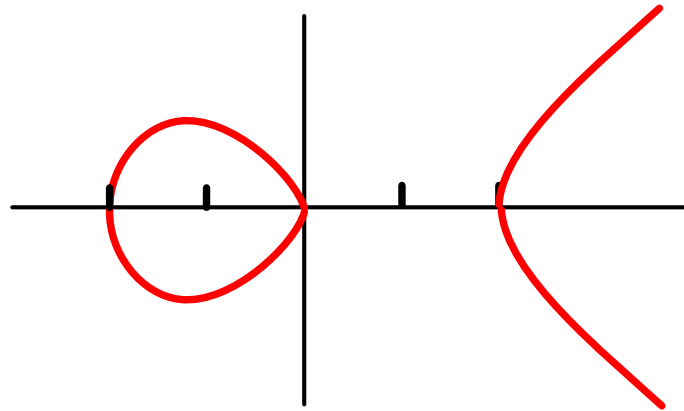
# Elliptic curves over Real ( $\mathbf{R}$ )

- Definition  $a, b \in \mathbf{R}, 4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$

Let  $E = \left\{ (x, y) \in \mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R} \mid y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \right\} \cup \{ \mathbf{O} \}$

- Example:

$$E : y^2 = x^3 - 4x$$



# "Adding" two points in an elliptic curve

- Group operation +

Given  $P, Q \in E, P = (x_1, y_1), Q = (x_2, y_2)$

Compute  $R = P + Q = (x_3, y_3)$

- Addition  
( $P \neq Q$ )

$$\lambda = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$$

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

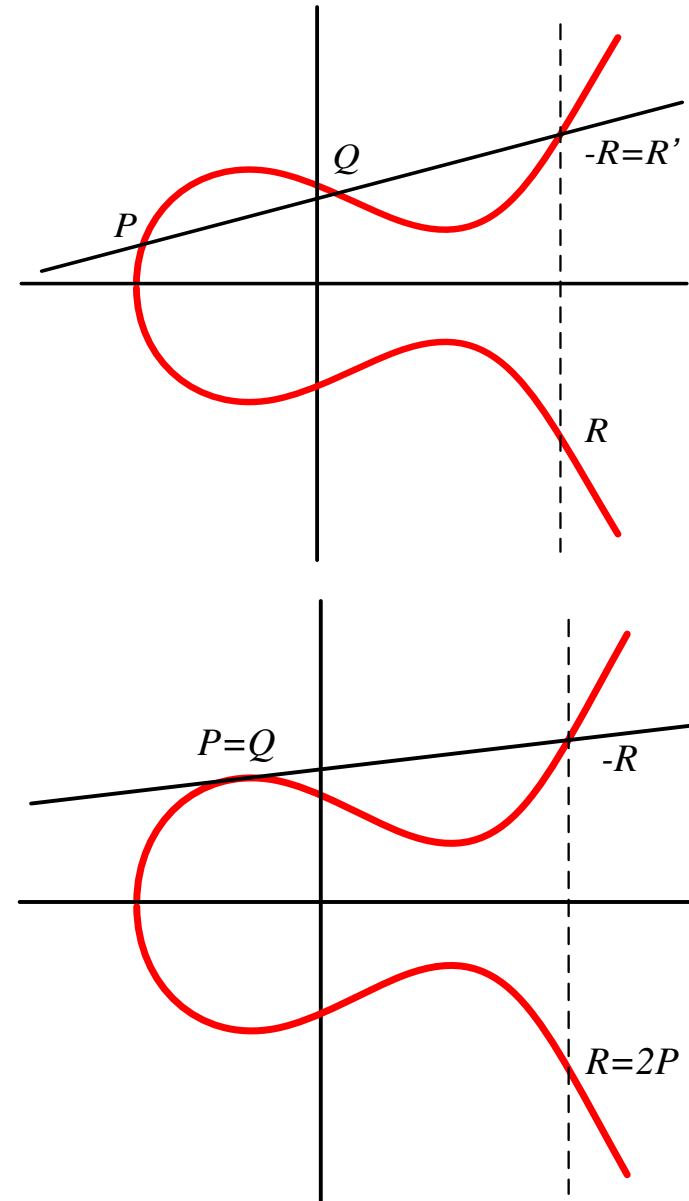
$$y_3 = (x_1 - x_3)\lambda - y_1$$

- Doubling  
( $P = Q$ )

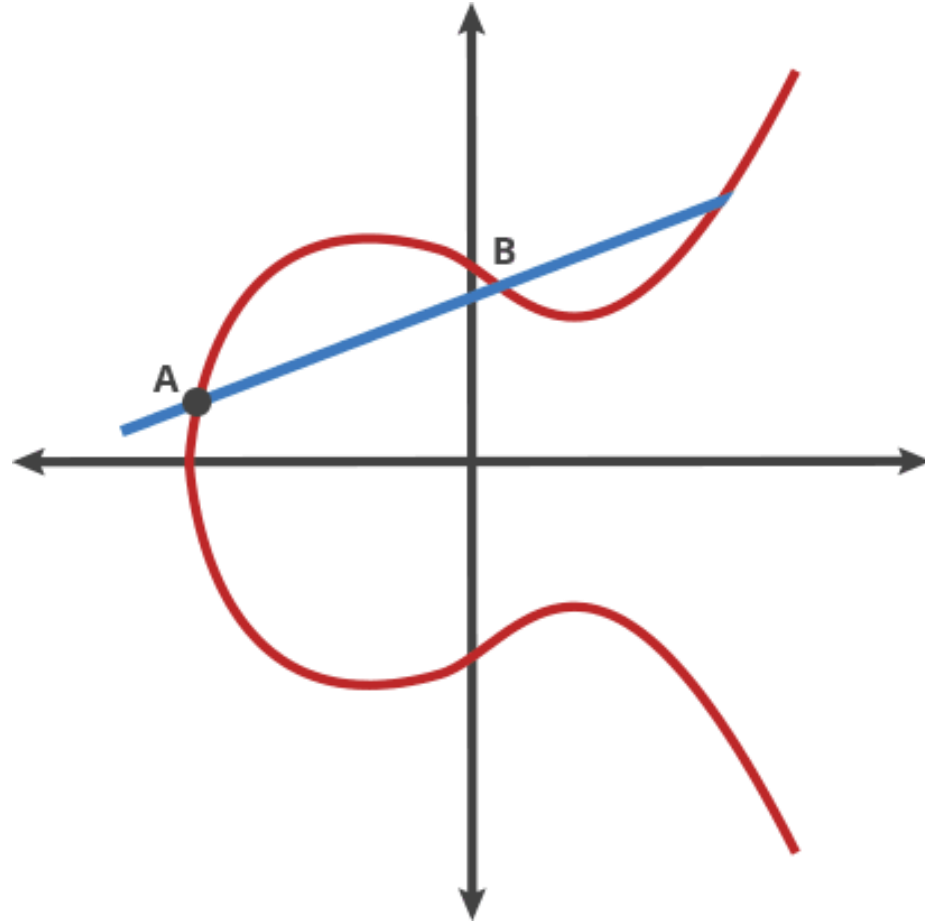
$$\lambda = \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}$$

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

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



# Illustration of Addition in an elliptic curve



# Elliptic Curves over GF(p)

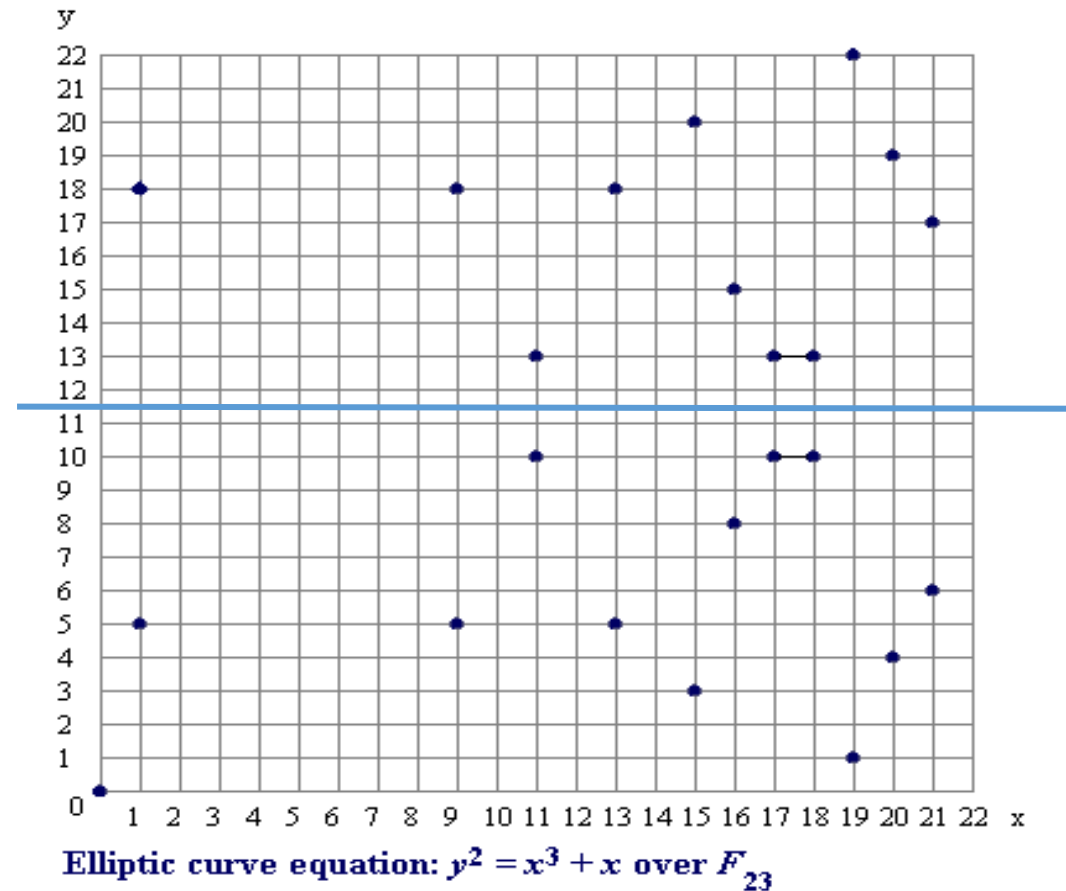
- **Definition**  $p > 3, a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p, 4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0 \pmod{p}$

Let

$$E = \left\{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p \mid y^2 \equiv x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p} \right\} \cup \{O\}$$

- **Example:**

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + x \text{ over } \mathbb{Z}_{23}$$



# An illustration of an ECDLP

- Example  $E: y^2 = x^3 + x + 6$  over  $Z_{11}$

Find all  $(x, y)$  and  $O$ :

- Fix  $x$  and determine  $y$
- $O$  is an artificial point

12  $(x, y)$  pairs plus  $O$ ,  
and have  $\#E=13$

Cardinality,  $q$  in ECDSA table

$x$	$x^3 + x + 6$	quad res?	$y$
0	6	<i>no</i>	
1	8	<i>no</i>	
2	5	<i>yes</i>	4,7
3	3	<i>yes</i>	5,6
4	8	<i>no</i>	
5	4	<i>yes</i>	2,9
6	8	<i>no</i>	
7	4	<i>yes</i>	2,9
8	9	<i>yes</i>	3,8
9	7	<i>no</i>	
10	4	<i>yes</i>	2,9

Integer  $y$  is called a quadratic residue modulo  $n$  if there exists  $x$  s.t.  $x^2 = y \pmod n$

- Example (continue):

There are 13 points on the group  $E(\mathbb{Z}_{11})$  and so any non-identity point (i.e. not the point at infinity, noted as  $O$ ) is a generator of  $E(\mathbb{Z}_{11})$ .

Choose generator  $\alpha = (2, 7)$

Compute  $2\alpha = (x_2, y_2)$

$$\lambda = \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1} = \frac{3(2)^2 + 1}{2 \times 7} = \frac{13}{14} = 2 \times 3^{-1} = 2 \times 4 = 8 \pmod{11}$$

$$x_2 = \lambda^2 - 2x_1 = (8)^2 - 2 \times (2) = 5 \pmod{11}$$

$$y_2 = (x_1 - x_2)\lambda - y_1 = (2 - 5) \times 8 - 7 = 2 \pmod{11}$$

- Example (continue):

Compute  $3\alpha = (x_3, y_3)$

$$\lambda = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{2 - 7}{5 - 2} = 2 \pmod{11}$$

$$x_3 = \lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2 = 2^2 - 2 - 5 = 8 \pmod{11}$$

$$y_3 = (x_1 - x_3)\lambda - y_1 = (2 - 8) \times 2 - 7 = 3 \pmod{11}$$

along this line, we can compute

$\alpha = (2,7)$	$2\alpha = (5,2)$	$3\alpha = (8,3)$
$4\alpha = (10,2)$	$5\alpha = (3,6)$	$6\alpha = (7,9)$
$7\alpha = (7,2)$	$8\alpha = (3,5)$	$9\alpha = (10,9)$
$10\alpha = (8,8)$	$11\alpha = (5,9)$	$12\alpha = (2,4)$



We will first see ElGamal DLP  
Then ECC version of ElGamal, which is ECDLP

# Setting up ElGamal

- Let  $p$  be a large prime
  - By “large” we mean here a prime of thousands bits
- Select a special number  $g$ 
  - The number  $g$  must be a **primitive element** modulo  $p$ .
- Choose a private key  $x$ 
  - This can be any number bigger than 1 and smaller than  $p-1$
- Compute public key  $y$  (from  $x$ ,  $p$  and  $g$ )
  - The public key  $y$  is  $g$  raised to the power of the private key  $x$  modulo  $p$ .  
In other words:

$$y = g^x \text{ mod } p$$

- Publicize  $p$ ,  $g$ ,  $y$

# ElGamal encryption

The first job is to represent the plaintext  $M$  as a series of numbers modulo  $p$ . Then:

1. Generate a random number  $k$  (ephemeral key)
  - Only sender knows  $k$
2. Compute two values  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , where
$$\mathbf{C_1 = g^k \bmod p} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{C_2 = My^k \bmod p}$$
3. Send the ciphertext  $C$ , which consists of the two separate values  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ .

# ElGamal decryption

$$C_1 = g^k \text{ mod } p \quad C_2 = My^k \text{ mod } p$$

1 - The receiver begins by using their private key  $x$  to transform  $C_1$  into something more useful:

$$C_1^x = (g^k)^x \text{ mod } p$$

NOTE:  $C_1^x = (g^k)^x = (g^x)^k = (y)^k = y^k \text{ mod } p$

2 - This is a very useful quantity because if you divide  $C_2$  by it, you get  $M$ . In other words:

$$C_2 / C_1^x = C_2 / y^k = (My^k) / y^k = M \text{ mod } p$$

# Come back to ECDLP

- Example (continue): x is the message  $(x_1, x_2)$  and k is the ephemeral key

Let's modify ElGamal encryption by using the elliptic curve  $E(\mathbb{Z}_{11})$ . Suppose that generator  $\alpha = (2, 7)$  and Bob's private key is 7, so

$$\beta = 7\alpha = (7, 2)$$

Thus the encryption operation is

$$e_K(x, k) = (k(2, 7), x + k(7, 2)),$$

where  $x \in E$  and  $0 \leq k \leq 12$ , and the decryption operation is

$$\begin{aligned} d_K(y_1, y_2) &= y_2 - 7y_1 = x + k(7, 2) - 7k(2, 7) \\ &= x + k(7, 2) - k(7, 2) \end{aligned}$$

- Example (continue):

Suppose that Alice wishes to encrypt the plaintext  $x = (10,9)$  ( $x \in E$ ). If she chooses the random value  $k = 3$ , then

$$y_1 = 3(2,7) = (8,3) \text{ and}$$

$$y_2 = (10,9) + 3(7,2) = (10,9) + (3,5) = (10,2)$$

- Hence  $y = ((8,3), (10,2))$

- Now, if Bob receives the ciphertext  $y$ , he decrypts it as follows:

$$x = (10,2) - 7(8,3) = (10,2) - (3,5)$$

$$= (10,2) + (3,6) = (10,9)$$

# Calculate public key from private key: elliptic curve cryptography (ECC)

- Example:

Compute  $3895P$

$$3895P = \underbrace{P + P + \dots + P}_{3894 \text{ additions needed}}$$

$$= (111100110111)_2 P$$

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

→ 11 doublings and 8 additions needed

$$= (1000(-1)0100(-1)00(-1))_2 P$$

$$= 2(2(2(2(2(2(2(2(2(2P))) - P)) + P))) - P))) - P$$

→ 12 doublings and 4 (additions or subtractions) needed

# Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem (ECDLP)

- Basic computation of ECC

- $Q = kP = \underbrace{P + P + \dots + P}_{k \text{ times}}$

where  $P$  is a curve point,  $k$  is an integer

- Strength of ECC

- Given curve, the point  $P$ , and  $kP$

It is hard to recover  $k$

- Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem (ECDLP)



# Security of ECC versus RSA/ElGamal

- Elliptic curve cryptosystems give the most security per bit of any known public-key scheme
- The ECDLP problem appears to be much more difficult than the integer factorization problem and the discrete logarithm problem of  $Z_p$  (no index calculus algo!)
- The strength of elliptic curve cryptosystems grows much faster with the key size increases than does the strength of RSA

# Security level of Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC)

<b>Symmetric Key Size (bits)</b>	<b>RSA and Diffie-Hellman Key Size (bits)</b>	<b>Elliptic Curve Key Size (bits)</b>
<b>80</b>	<b>1024</b>	<b>160</b>
<b>112</b>	<b>2048</b>	<b>224</b>
<b>128</b>	<b>3072</b>	<b>256</b>
<b>192</b>	<b>7680</b>	<b>384</b>
<b>256</b>	<b>15360</b>	<b>521</b>

NIST Recommended Key Sizes

Before going into DSA & ECDSA,  
we need to know digital signature & (sub)group

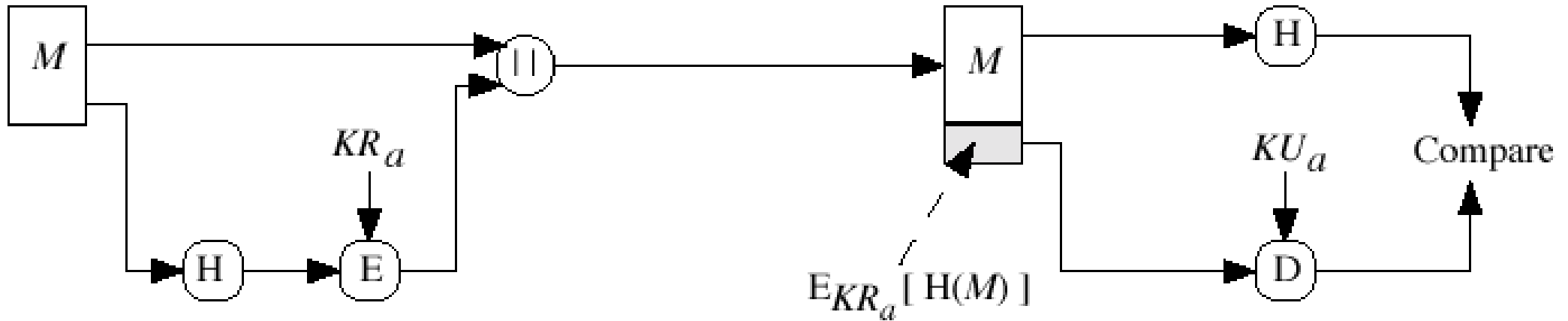
# Digital Signatures

- data integrity, non-repudiation, authentication
- Basic idea
  - use private key on the message to generate a piece of information that can be generated only by yourself
    - because you are the only person who knows your private key
  - public key can be used to verify the signature
    - so everybody can verify
- Generally signatures are created and verified over the hash of the message
  - Not over the original message. Why?

# Digital Signature

Sender Alice

Receiver



M: message to be signed

E: RSA Private Key Operation

D: RSA Public Key Operation

$E_{KR_a}[H(M)]$

Signature of sender Alice over hash of M

H: Hash function

$KR_a$ : Sender's Private Key

$KU_a$ : Sender's Public Key

# Background for finite cyclic groups

- Order
  - order of a set  $S$ :  $|S|$ , # of elements in  $S$
  - Order of an element  $x$ :  $\text{ord}(x)$ , the least  $n \geq 1$  s.t.  $x^n \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
- Cyclic group  $G$ 
  - A group that can be generated by exponentiating a generator  $g$ 
    - $G = \langle g \rangle$
  - Group order  $|G| = Z_p^* = n$ , s.t.  $g^n \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
- Subgroup ( $\neq$  subset) of a cyclic group  $G$ 
  - Every subgroup of  $G$  is cyclic, and satisfies all the properties of group
  - if order of  $G$  is  $|G|$ , each subgroup  $S$  has the form  $\langle g^d \rangle$ , where  $d$  is a positive divisor of  $|G|$ 
    - each subgroup has size dividing the size of the group
    - $|S| \cdot k = |G|$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$

# A cyclic group (from modular exponentiation)

- mod 7 case,  $Z_7^* = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$

$1^1 \equiv 1$	$1^2 \equiv 1$	$1^3 \equiv 1$	$1^4 \equiv 1$	$1^5 \equiv 1$	$1^6 \equiv 1$
$2^1 \equiv 2$	$2^2 \equiv 4$	$2^3 \equiv 1$	$2^4 \equiv 2$	$2^5 \equiv 4$	$2^6 \equiv 1$
$3^1 \equiv 3$	$3^2 \equiv 2$	$3^3 \equiv 6$	$3^4 \equiv 4$	$3^5 \equiv 5$	$3^6 \equiv 1$
$4^1 \equiv 4$	$4^2 \equiv 2$	$4^3 \equiv 1$	$4^4 \equiv 4$	$4^5 \equiv 2$	$4^6 \equiv 1$
$5^1 \equiv 5$	$5^2 \equiv 4$	$5^3 \equiv 6$	$5^4 \equiv 2$	$5^5 \equiv 3$	$5^6 \equiv 1$
$6^1 \equiv 6$	$6^2 \equiv 1$	$6^3 \equiv 6$	$6^4 \equiv 1$	$6^5 \equiv 6$	$6^6 \equiv 1$

Look at rows  
this time!

Group  $Z_7^*$  or  $G$  has two generators:  $G = \langle 3 \rangle = \langle 5 \rangle$

$|G| = 6$ , its unique divisors are  $\{1,2,3,6\}$ ,

for each unique divisor  $d$ ,  $\langle g^d \rangle$  generates a subgroup

$$\langle 3^1 \rangle = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\} = G$$

$$\langle 3^2 \rangle = \langle 2 \rangle = \{1,2,4\}$$

$$\langle 3^3 \rangle = \langle 6 \rangle = \{1,6\}$$

$$\langle 3^6 \rangle = \langle 1 \rangle = \{1\}$$

# Zoom in to a subgroup

- ~~$\langle 3 \rangle$~~  =  $\langle 2 \rangle = \{1, 2, 4\} = S$
- 2 is the generator  $g$  of a subgroup  $S$ ;  $S$  is cyclic
- the order of  $g$  is the size of the subgroup  $\langle g \rangle = S$ 
  - $2^{|S|} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
- $|S| = 3 = q$
- For  $\forall x \in S, x^q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ 
  - Then  $x$  is the  $q$ -th root of 1 (mod  $p$ )
  - How many roots for  $x^q = 1 \pmod{p}$  ?
    - $q$
  - $S$  consists of the  $q$ -th roots of 1 (mod  $p$ )



# Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

$$L=0 \pmod{64}, 512 \leq L \leq 1024$$

- Let  $p$  be a  $L$ -bit prime such that the DLP in  $Z_p^*$  is intractable
- Let  $q$  be a 160-bit prime that divides  $p-1$ .
- Let  $\alpha$  be a  $q_{\text{th}}$  root of 1 modulo  $p$

$$\begin{aligned} p &= qr + 1 \\ h^r &= \alpha \end{aligned}$$

Define  $K = \{ (p, q, \alpha, a, \beta) : \beta = \alpha^a \pmod{p} \}$

$p, q, \alpha, \beta$  are the public key,  $a$  is private key

x is the message to be signed

- For a (secret) random number  $k$ , define  $\text{sig}_k(x,k)=(\gamma,\delta)$ , where  
 $\gamma=(\alpha^k \bmod p) \bmod q$  and  
 $\delta=(H(x)+a\gamma)k^{-1} \bmod q$

- For a message  $(x,(\gamma,\delta))$ , verification is done by performing the following computations:

$$e_1=H(x)*\delta^{-1} \bmod q$$
$$e_2=\gamma*\delta^{-1} \bmod q$$

$$\text{verify}(x,(\gamma,\delta))=\text{true} \quad \text{iff} \quad (\alpha^{e_1}\beta^{e_2} \bmod p) \bmod q=\gamma$$

# Elliptic Curve DSA (ECDSA)

- Let  $p$  be a prime, and let  $E$  be an elliptic curve defined over  $F_p$ .
- Let  $A$  be a point on  $E$  having prime order  $q$ , such that DL problem in  $\langle A \rangle$  is infeasible.

Define  $K = \{ (p, q, E, A, m, B) : B = mA \}$

$p, q, E, A, B$  are the public key,  $m$  is private

- For a (secret) random number  $k$ , define  $\text{sig}_k(x,k)=(r,s)$ , where  $kA=(u,v)$ ,  $r=u \bmod q$  and  $s=k^{-1}(H(x)+mr) \bmod q$
- For a message  $\{x,(r,s)\}$ , verification is done by performing the following computations:

$$i=H(x)*s^{-1} \bmod q$$

$$j=r*s^{-1} \bmod q$$

$$(u,v)=iA+jB$$

$$\text{verify}(x,(r,s))=\text{true} \text{ iff } u \bmod q=r$$