

Elliptic curve cryptography

The idea of Diffie–Hellman (used, for instance, in DH key exchange, ElGamal or DSA) can be carried over to algebraic structures different from multiplication modulo p .

Recall that the key idea is, starting from individual secrets x, y , to share g^x, g^y modulo p in order to arrive at the joint secret $g^{xy} \pmod{p}$. That's using multiplication modulo p .

One important example of other such algebraic structures, for which the analog of the discrete logarithm problem is believed to be difficult, are elliptic curves.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elliptic_curve_cryptography

Comment. The main reason (apart from, say, diversification) is that this leads to a significant saving in key size and speed. Whereas, in practice, about 2048bit primes are needed for Diffie–Hellman, comparable security using elliptic curves is believed to only require about 256bits.

For a beautiful introduction by Dan Boneh, check out the presentation:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4M8_0o71piA

Points on elliptic curves

An **elliptic curve** is a (nice) cubic curve that can (typically) be written in the form

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

A point (x, y) is on the elliptic curve if it satisfies this equation. Each elliptic curve also contains the special point O (“the point at ∞ ”). [O will act as the neutral element when “adding points”]

Advanced comment. Sometimes it is useful (or necessary) to consider elliptic curves defined by more general cubic equations such as $y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6$ (however, in most cases, a linear change of variables can transform this equation into the simpler form $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ mentioned above).

Example 216. Determine some points (x, y) on the elliptic curve E , described by

$$y^2 = x^3 - x + 9.$$

Solution. We can try some small values for x (say, $x = 0, x = 1, x = 2, \dots$) and see what y needs to be in order to get a point on the elliptic curve. For instance, for $x = 1$, we get $x^3 - x + 9 = 9$ which implies that $(1, \pm 3)$ are points on the elliptic curve.

Doing so, we find the integral points $(0, \pm 3), (\pm 1, \pm 3)$.

On the other hand, for $x = 2$, we get $x^3 - x + 9 = 15$ which implies that $(2, \pm\sqrt{15})$ are points on the elliptic curve. However, for cryptographic purposes, we are usually not interested in such irrational points.

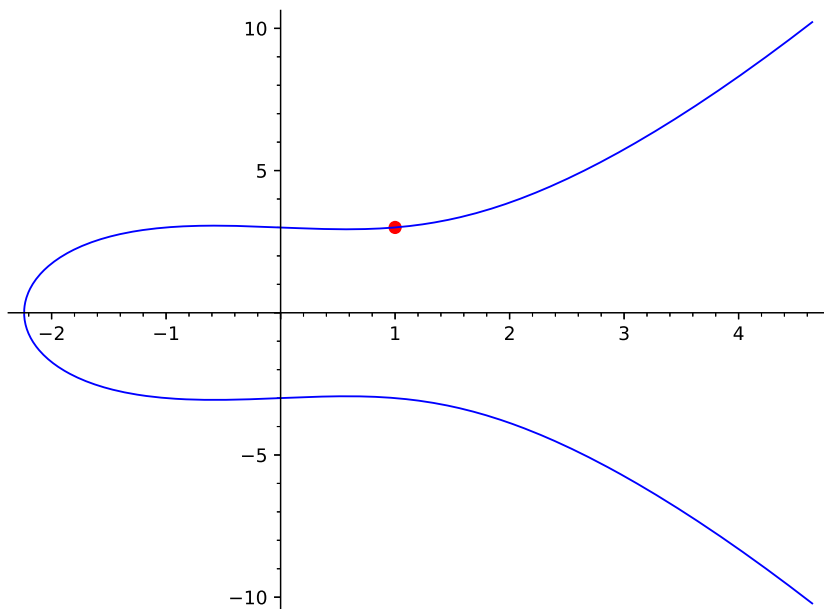
Much less obvious rational points include $(35, 207)$ or $(\frac{1}{36}, \frac{647}{216})$ (see Example 218).

Comment. In general, it is a very difficult problem to determine all rational points on an elliptic curve, and lots of challenges remain open in that arena.

Example 217. Plot the elliptic curve E , described by $y^2 = x^3 - x + 9$ and mark the point $(1, 3)$.

Solution. We let Sage do the work for us:

```
>>> E = EllipticCurve([-1,9])
>>> E.plot() + E(1,3).plot(pointsize=50, rgbcolor=(1,0,0))
```



Adding points on elliptic curves

Note. Simply adding the coordinates of two points P and Q on an elliptic curve will (almost always) not result in a third point on the elliptic curve. However, we will define a more fancy “addition” of points, which we will denote $P \boxplus Q$, such that the $P \boxplus Q$ is on the elliptic curve as well.

Given a point $P = (x, y)$ on E , we define $-P = (x, -y)$ which is another point on E .

Let us introduce an operation \boxplus in the following geometric fashion: given two points P, Q , the line through these two points intersects the curve in a third point R .

We then define $P \boxplus Q = -R$.

We remark that $P \boxplus (-P)$ is the point O “at ∞ ”. That’s the neutral (zero) element for \boxplus .

How does one define $P \boxplus P$? (Tangent line!)

Remarkably, the “addition” $P \boxplus Q$ is associative. (This is not obvious from the definition.)

Using \boxplus , we can construct new points: for instance, $(0, 3) \boxplus (1, -3) = (35, 207)$ as we will verify in the next example using Sage.

Easier to verify (but not producing anything new) is $(0, 3) \boxplus (1, 3) = (-1, -3)$.