

Wireless communication Security

無線通訊安全

Lecture II-3

May 14, 2009

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Outline

Part II:

(d) 橢圓曲線密碼技術

- 基本代數概念
- 橢圓曲線簡介
- 基本橢圓曲線密碼協定
- 橢圓曲線之其他性質與應用

(e) 無線感測網路安全

- 無線感測網路簡介
- 無線感測網路的安全議題
 - Key distribution/management
 - Secure routing

(f) 相關論文討論

Review of Lecture 2

- Galois Fields $GF(p^n)$
- More algebraic structures
 - Field extension, Algebraic number fields, Algebraic closure
- Elliptic curve
 - We usually need to specify that (why?)
 - The characteristic is not 2 or 3, and
 - $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$
 - Point at infinity O (or ∞)
 - If the characteristic of K is 2, then the elliptic curves have different forms.
 - What are j -invariant, n -torsion point, Weil pairing, and supersingular curves etc?

Torsion points

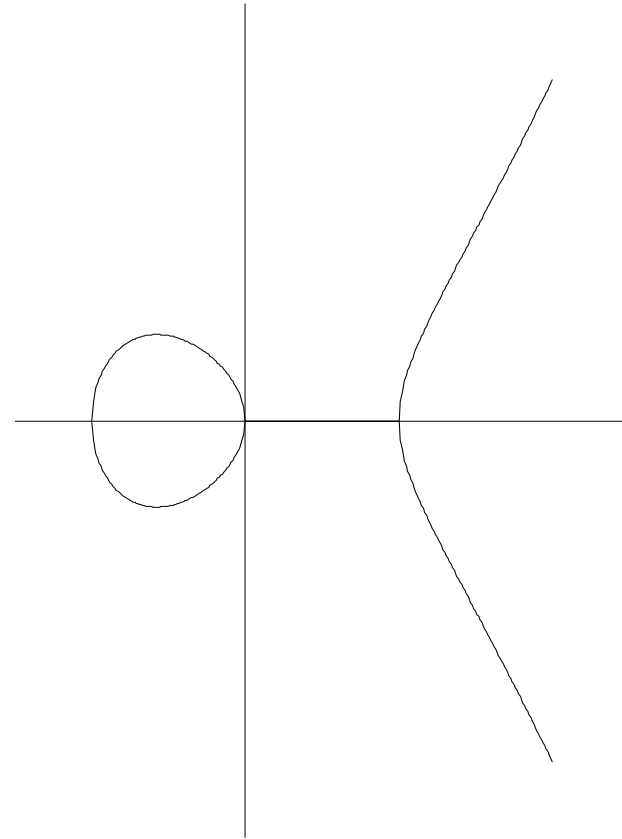
Supersingular curves

- An elliptic curve in characteristic p is called **supersingular** if $E[p] = \{O\}$.
- In other words, there are no points of order p , even with coordinates in an algebraically closed field.
- An **attractive feature** of supersingular curves is that computations involving an integer times a point can sometimes be done faster than might be expected. ■

Examples of Elliptic Curves

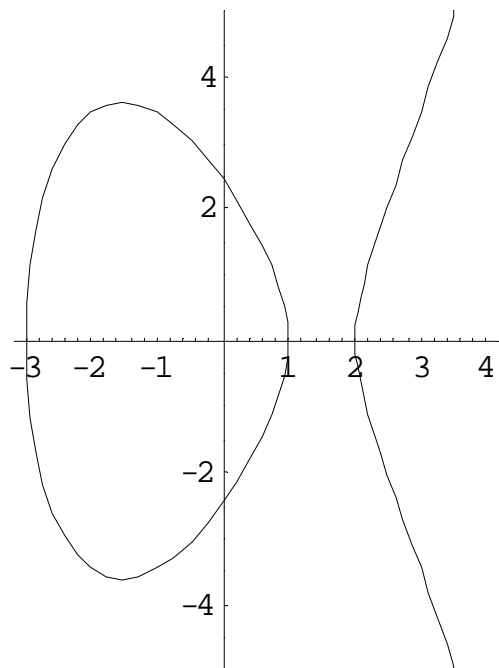
- Over the reals, the solutions form a curve with one or two components
- Example:

$$y^2 = x^3 - x$$

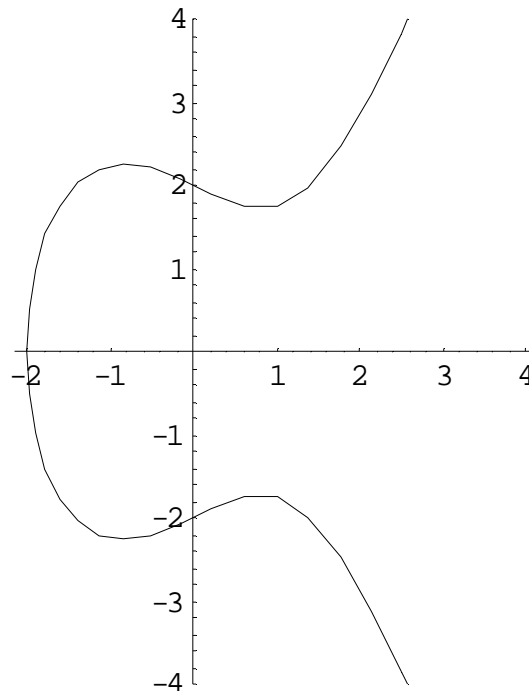


Examples of Elliptic Curves

- $y^2 = x^3 - 7x + 6$



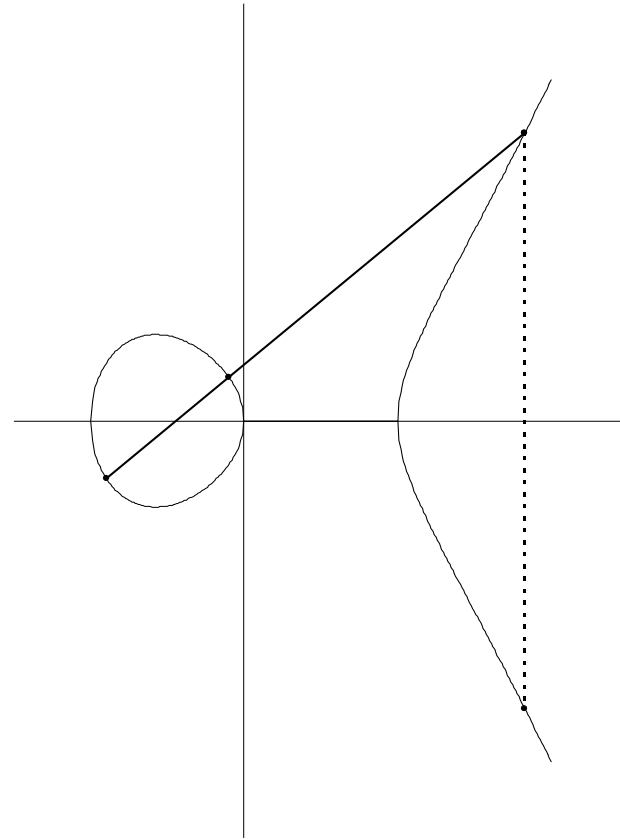
- $y^2 = x^3 - 2x + 4$



The graph of a non-singular curve has *two* components if its discriminant is positive, and *one* component if it is negative.

Elliptic Curve Arithmetic

- A group law may be defined where the sum of two points is the reflection across the x -axis of the third point on the same line
- **“Chords and tangents”**



Properties of “Addition” on E

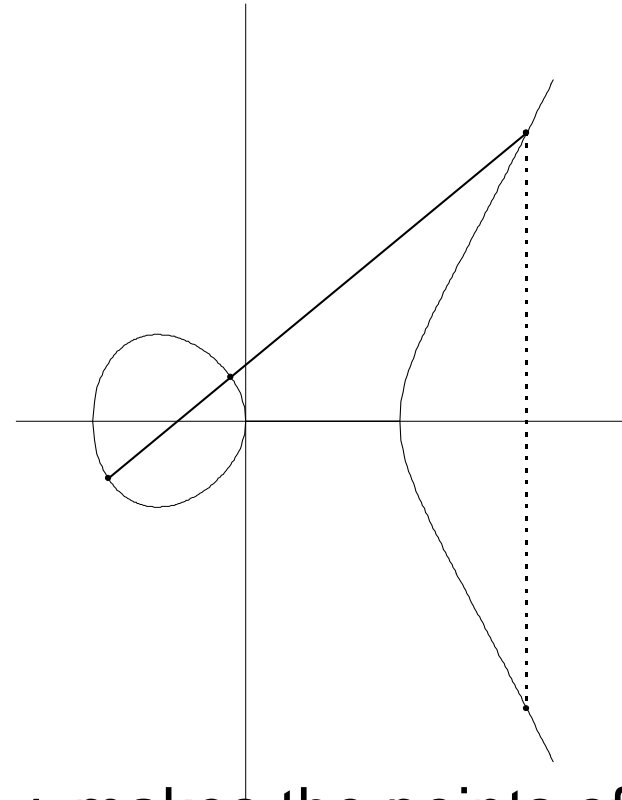
Theorem: *The addition law on E has the following properties:*

- a) $P + O = O + P = P$ for all $P \in E$.
- b) $P + (-P) = O$ for all $P \in E$.
- c) $(P + Q) + R = P + (Q + R)$ for all $P, Q, R \in E$.
- d) $P + Q = Q + P$ for all $P, Q \in E$.

All of the group properties are trivial to check except for the **associative law (c)**. The associative law can be verified by a lengthy computation using explicit formulas, or by using more advanced algebraic or analytic methods.

Group Law Axioms (recap)

- Closure
- Identity:
 $P + \mathbf{O} = \mathbf{O} + P = P$
- Inverse:
 $(x, y) + (x, -y) = \mathbf{O}$
- Associativity
- Commutativity



In other words, the addition law $+$ makes the points of E into a **abelian group**.

Addition Formulae

- Now we can show the formulas for adding points.
 - Assume $P = (x_1, y_1)$ and $Q = (x_2, y_2)$
- If the characteristic of K is > 3 than
 - $-P = (x_1, -y_1)$
 - $P + Q = (\lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2, \lambda(x_1 - x_2) - y_1)$
 - $\lambda = (y_2 - y_1)/(x_2 - x_1)$, if $P \neq Q$
 - $\lambda = (3x_1^2 + a)/2y_1$, if $P = Q$

Addition Formulae

- If the characteristic of K is 2, then

– If $j(E) \neq 0$:

- $-P = (x_1, y_1 + x_1)$

- $P+Q = (x_3, y_3)$

$$x_3 = ((y_1+y_2)/(x_1+x_2))^2 + (y_1+y_2)/(x_1+x_2) + x_1+x_2 + a, P \neq Q$$
$$= x_1^2 + b/x_1^2, P = Q$$

$$y_3 = ((y_1+y_2)/(x_1+x_2))(x_1+x_3) + x_3 + y_1, P \neq Q$$
$$= x_1^2 + (x_1 + y_1/x_1)x_3 + x_3, P = Q$$

Addition Formulae

- If the characteristic of K is 2, then

– If $j(E) = 0$:

- $-P = (x_1, y_1 + c)$

- $P+Q = (x_3, y_3)$

$$x_3 = ((y_1 + y_2)/(x_1 + x_2))^2 + x_1 + x_2, P \neq Q$$

$$= (x_1^4 + a^2)/c^2, P = Q$$

$$y_3 = ((y_1 + y_2)/(x_1 + x_2))(x_1 + x_3) + c + y_1, P \neq Q$$

$$= ((x_1^2 + a)/c)(x_1 + x_3) + c + y_1, P = Q$$

Elliptic Curves over Finite Fields

- An elliptic curve may be defined over any finite field $\mathbf{GF}(q)$ (char. of $\mathbf{GF}(q) > 3$)

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

- For $\mathbf{GF}(2^m)$, the curve has a different form:

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

where $b \neq 0$

- Addition formulae are similar to those over \mathbf{R} .
■

Example

- $E : Y^2 = X^3 - 5X + 8 \pmod{37}$

{ $O, (1,2), (1,35), (5,16), (5, 21), (6,3), (6,34), (8,6), (8,31), (9,10), (9, 27), (10,12), (10,25), (11,10), (11, 27), (12,14), (12,23), (16,18), (16,19), (17, 10), (17,27), (19,1), (19,36), (20,8), (20, 29), (21,5), (21,32), (22,1), (22,36), (26, 8), (26,29), (28,8), (28,29), (30,12), (30, 25), (31,9), (31,28), (33,1), (33,36), (34, 12), (34,25), (35,11), (35,26), (36,7), (36, 30) \}$

- Let $P_1 = (6,3)$ and $P_2 = (9,10)$. Then $P_1 + P_2 = (11,10)$.

(see next slide for more details)

Example

Let $\lambda = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$ if $P_1 \neq P_2$ and $\lambda = \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}$ if $P_1 = P_2$.

Then $P_1 + P_2 = (\lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2, -\lambda^3 + 2\lambda x_1 + \lambda x_2 - y_1)$.

- $P_1 = (6, 3), P_2 = (9, 10)$
- $\lambda = (10-3)/(9-6) = 7/3 = 7 \times 25 = 27 \bmod 37$
- $(27^2 - 6 - 9, -27^3 + 324 + 243 - 3) =$
 $(714, -19119) =$
 $(11, 10) \bmod 37$

Elliptic Curves over Finite Fields

- Let $\#E(F_q)$ denote the number of points on an elliptic curve $E(F_q)$, including \mathcal{O}
- Hasse bound: $\#E(F_q) = q+1-t$, where
$$|t| \leq 2\sqrt{q}$$
- The group of points is either cyclic or a product of two cyclic groups ■

Example

- $y^2 = x^3 + 1 / \text{GF}(5)$

| | | | | | |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|
| z | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| z^2 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 1 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---------|---|---------|---|---|
| x | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| y | ± 1 | ? | ± 2 | ? | 0 |

$E(\mathbf{F}_5) = \{\infty, (0, \pm 1), (2, \pm 2), (4, 0)\}$. Hence $\#E(\mathbf{F}_5) = 6$.

Is $E(\mathbf{F}_5)$ cyclic?

Anomalous curves

- An elliptic curve is called **anomalous** if $\#E[\mathbf{F}_q] = q$.
- The discrete log problem for the group $E(\mathbf{F}_q)$ can be solved quickly.
- An **attractive feature** of anomalous curves is that they permit a speed-up in certain calculation in $E(\overline{\mathbf{F}}_q)$. ■

Scalar Multiplication

- *Scalar multiplication* is repeated group addition:

$$cP = P + \dots + P \quad (c \text{ times})$$

where c is an integer

- For all $P \in E(F_q)$,

$$nP = \mathbf{O}$$

where $n = \#E(F_q)$

Analogy with Multiplicative Groups

| Elliptic Curve Group | Multiplicative Group |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| point addition | multiplication |
| scalar multiplication | exponentiation |
| elliptic curve discrete logarithm | discrete logarithm |

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Elliptic Curve Cryptography

- ECDLP (EC discrete logarithm problem)
- Related issues
 - Restrictions, Domain Parameters, Selecting curves
- Elliptic Curve Cryptographic Schemes
 - ECDH
 - ECMQV
 - ECIES
 - ECDSA
- ECC Advantages and Disadvantages
- Standardization Efforts

EC Discrete Logarithm Problem

- **Problem:** Given two points W, G , find s such that $W = sG$
 - first suggested by Miller 1985, Koblitz 1987
- With appropriate cryptographic restrictions, this is believed to take *exponential time*
 - $O(\sqrt{r})$ time, where r is the order of W
- There is a way to reduce the log problem over elliptic curve to the log problem over F_{q^k}
 - The reduction only works for some special curves that are called **supersingular**
 - **Why do you care about this?**

EC Discrete Logarithm Problem

- By comparison, factoring and ordinary discrete logarithms can be solved in *subexponential* time
- ECC thus offers much shorter key sizes than other public-key cryptosystems

Elliptic Curve Cryptography

- ECDLP (EC discrete logarithm problem)
- **Related issues**
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Typical Cryptographic Restrictions

- $\#E(F_q) = kr$ for large prime r
 - k is *cofactor*
- $\text{GCD}(k, r) = 1$
- “**Anomalous**” condition: $r \neq q$
- **MOV** condition: r does not divide $q^i - 1$ for small i

Domain Parameters

- **Common values** shared by a group of users from which key pairs may be generated
- User or trusted party may *generate* domain parameters
- Anyone may *validate* domain parameters

EC Domain Parameters

- Finite field F_q
- Elliptic curve $E(F_q)$ with cryptographic restrictions
- Prime divisor r of $\#E(F_q)$
- Cofactor k (usually 1,2, or 4)
- Base point $G \in E(F_q)$ of order r

Generating EC Domain Parameters

1. Select a prime power q
2. Select an elliptic curve E over F_q with cryptographic restrictions
 - order $\#E(F_q) = kr$
3. Generate a point G of order r
4. Output $F_q, E(F_q), r, k, G$

Selecting an Elliptic Curve

- **Random method**
- Complex multiplication method
- Subfield method

- Methods provide tradeoff between speed, “structure” in curves
 - less structure = more conservative in assumptions about security

Random Method

1. Generate a random curve
 2. Count the number of points $\#E(F_q)$
 3. If restrictions not met, goto 1
- No structure, but step 2 may be slow
 - (Schoof 1985, etc.)

Generating a Point of Order r

1. Generate a point $H \in E(F_q)$
2. Compute $G = kH$
3. If $G = \mathbf{O}$, goto 1
4. Output G

Validating EC Domain Parameters

1. Check that q is a prime power
2. Check that E is an elliptic curve over F_q with cryptographic restrictions
 - order $\#E(F_q) = kr$, where r is prime
3. Check that G is a point on $E(F_q)$ of order r
4. Output *valid* if all checks pass, *invalid* otherwise

Key Pairs

- Pairs of public, private values with which users may perform cryptographic operations
- User or trusted third party may *generate* key pair
- Anyone may *validate* public key

EC Key Pairs

- Public key $W \in E(F_q)$
- Private key $s \in [1, r-1]$
 - where $W = sG$

Generating an EC Key Pair

1. Randomly generate $s \in [1, n-1]$
2. Compute $W = sG$
3. Output (W, s)

Validating an EC Public Key

- Assume valid domain parameters
 1. Check that W is a point on $E(F_q)$ of order r
 2. Output *valid* if so, *invalid* otherwise

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Cryptographic Schemes

- Following general model from IEEE P1363, a *scheme* is a set of related operations providing the building blocks for a *protocol*
 - Examples:
 - Key agreement
 - Signature with appendix
 - Encryption
- A (cryptographic) scheme consists of an unambiguous specification of a set of transformations that are capable of providing a (cryptographic) service when properly implemented and maintained. (NIST)
 - **A scheme is a higher level construct than a primitive and a lower level construct than a protocol.**

Scheme Operations

- Depending on the scheme, related operations may include:
 - domain parameter generation, validation
 - key pair generation, public-key validation
 - one or more scheme-specific operations

Key Agreement Scheme

- *Key agreement operation* derives a shared secret key from a private key, another's public key, and key derivation parameters
- Multiple secret keys can be obtained by varying parameters

Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman

- Key agreement scheme based on Diffie-Hellman protocol
- Underlying function:
 - KDF: key derivation function ■

ECDH Key Agreement

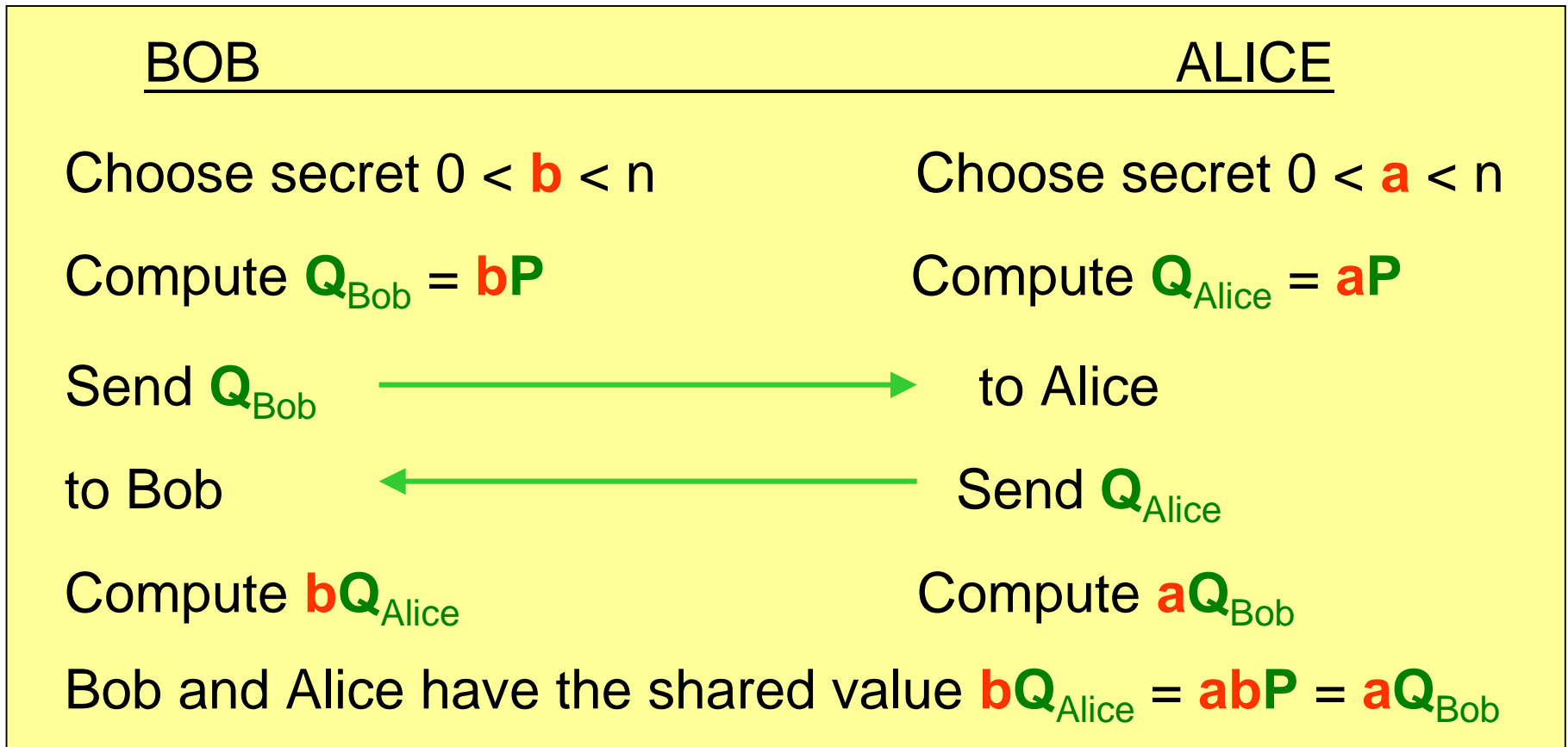
- *Input*: private key s , other's public key W^* , key derivation parameters P
- *Output*: shared secret key K
 1. Compute $Z = sW^*$
 2. Compute $K = \mathbf{KDF}(Z, P)$
 3. Output K ■

Key Agreement Modes

- Each key pair may be ephemeral, authenticated, or a combination, depending on security goals
- Examples of protocol modes:
 - anonymous
 - static-static
 - signed ephemeral-ephemeral
 - ephemeral-static ■

Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

Public Knowledge: A group $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ and a point P of order n .



Presumably(?) recovering abP from aP and bP requires solving the elliptic curve discrete logarithm problem.

ECMQV

- MQV is short for Menezes-Qu-Vanstone, the names of the authors of this protocol.
- MQV offers attributes—such as key-compromise impersonation resilience and unknown key-share resilience—that are not found with DH.
 - This allows protocols that use MQV for key agreement to offer stronger authentication and ensure malicious entities cannot masquerade as a third party to the entity whose key was compromised.
- MQV also has many desirable performance attributes, including
 - the dominant computational steps are not intensive
 - has low communication overhead,
 - is role-symmetric, non-interactive and
 - does not use encryption or time-stamping.

Encryption Scheme

- *Encryption operation* computes a ciphertext from a message with a public key
- *Decryption operation* recovers a message from a ciphertext with a private key
- *Augmented* encryption scheme also binds *control information* to message

Elliptic Curve Integrated Encryption Scheme (ECIES) - Encryption

- **Input:** Public key (static) W in E , message M .
- **Output:** Ciphertext (R,S,A) .
- **Actions:**
 1. Set $R = rG$ for random r in $[1,n-1]$.
 2. Set $(u,a) = \text{KDF}(x(rW))$.
 3. Set $S = \text{Encrypt}(u,M)$ and $A = \text{MAC}(a,S)$.
- **Note:** (R,r) **ephemeral** public-private key pair. ■

ECIES - Decryption

- **Input:** Private key s , ciphertext (R,S,A) .
- **Output:** Invalid; or valid and message M .
- **Actions:**
 1. Set $(u,a) = \text{KDF}(x(sR))$.
 2. Valid if $A = \text{MAC}(a,S)$ else invalid.
 3. If valid, set $M = \text{Decrypt}(u,S)$. ■

Signature Scheme

- *Signature generation operation* computes a signature on a message with a private key
- *Signature verification operation* verifies a signature with a public key ■

Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm

- Signature scheme based on NIST FIPS 186-1 DSA
- Underlying function
 - Hash: collision-resistant hash function ■

ECDSA Signature Generation

- *Input*: private key s , message M
 - *Output*: signature (c,d)
1. Compute $f = \text{Hash}(M)$
 2. Generate a one-time key pair (u, V)
 3. Compute $c = \text{int}(x_V) \bmod r$
 4. Compute $d = u^{-1}(f + sc) \bmod r$
 5. If $c = 0$ or $d = 0$, goto 2
 6. Output (c,d) ■

ECDSA Signature Verification

- *Input*: signer's public key W , message M , signature (c,d)
 - *Output*: *valid* or *invalid*
1. Compute $f = \text{Hash}(M)$
 2. Check that $1 \leq c, d \leq r-1$
 3. Compute $h = d^{-1} \bmod r$
 4. Compute $P = fhG + chW$
 5. Check that $P \neq \mathbf{O}$
 6. Check that $c = \text{int}(x_P) \bmod r$
 7. If all checks pass, output *valid*, otherwise output *invalid* ■

Some Observations

- In these schemes, only one or two steps are EC operations, some are modular arithmetic, the rest are Hash, KDF, Encrypt, MAC
 - the additional operations help provide provable security
- Schemes are readily adapted to multiplicative groups ■

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Key Size Comparison

- Today, three families of public-key techniques are prominent
- Following P1363, named according to the hard problem:
 - DL: (ordinary) discrete logarithms
 - EC: elliptic curve discrete logarithms
 - IF: integer factorization
- Each has its own advantages ■

Key Size Comparison

- Key size is length in bits of:
 - DL: field order q
 - also consider group order r
 - EC: group order r
 - IF: modulus n
- Key sizes can be compared based on running time for solving hard problem with current methods
 - other factors to consider ■

Comparable Key Sizes (Based on Running Time)

| EC | DL, IF | Symmetric |
|-----------|---------------|------------------|
| 112 | 512 | 56 |
| 160 | 1024 | 80 |
| 224 | 2048 | 112 |

Advantages

- Alternative hard problem
- Speed
- Data size
- New types of schemes
- Many options ■

Alternative Hard Problem

- EC Discrete Logarithm Problem is very different than DL, IF hard problems
 - does not appear feasible to apply DL, IF approaches to solve it
- Thus, it is an effective alternative against advances in methods for other problems

Speed

- EC operations are generally faster than DL, IF counterparts at comparable key sizes
 - $GF(2^m)$ arithmetic affords further speedups
- Key pair generation is much faster than for IF ■

Data Size

- EC data are shorter than DL, IF counterparts
- Intermediate values are shorter
- Keys are shorter
 - benefit depends on certificate content
- Signatures with appendix are same size as for DL, shorter than IF ■

New Types of Schemes

- EC family, like DL, has great flexibility due to the availability of common domain parameters
- Multiple schemes can be combined efficiently, e.g.:
 - signature + encryption
 - signature / key agreement + certification

Many Options

- EC family affords many choices:
 - field type, size, representation
 - curve formula
 - group order
 - base point
 - cryptographic scheme
- Appropriate choices can meet varying security and implementation objectives ■

Disadvantages

- Alternative hard problem
- Curve generation
- Many options ■

Alternative Hard Problem

- ECDLP has not been studied as long as DL, IF hard problems, and even a modest improvement in methods could have great impact
- However, the focus on this area has grown considerably over the past few years, with increased confidence ■

Curve Generation

- EC curve generation is complex, not readily implemented
- However, implementers can rely on third parties for curves, which can be validated
 - e.g., NIST curves ■

Many Options

- ECC affords many options, so interoperability is challenging:
 - no conversion between $\text{GF}(2^m)$, $\text{GF}(p)$
 - hardware optimizations may be specific to one set of domain parameters
- However, much of this will be settled by standards and industry practice ■

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Standardization Efforts

- Elliptic curves are parts of standards being developed by several groups:
 - ANSI X9F1
 - IEEE P1363
 - ISO JTC1 SC27
 - SECG
 - U.S. NIST ■

U.S. NIST

- Information processing for U.S. government
- FIPS 186 (Digital Signature Standard) to add support for ANSI X9.62
- Eventual ANSI X9.63 support likely
- Reference elliptic curves published
- csrc.nist.gov/fips

NSA Suite B Cryptography

- Required cryptographic algorithms for all US non-classified and classified (SECRET and TOP-SECRET) needs
 - Except a small area of special-security needs (e.g. nuclear security) – guided by Suite A (definition is classified)
- **Encryption: AES**
 - FIPS 197 (with keys sizes of 128 and 256 bits)
- **Digital Signature: Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm**
 - FIPS 186-2 (using the curves with 256 and 384-bit prime moduli)
- **Key Exchange: Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman or ECMQV**
 - Draft NIST Special Publication 800-56 (using the curves with 256 and 384-bit prime moduli)
- **Hashing: Secure Hash Algorithm**
 - FIPS 180-2 (using SHA-256 and SHA-384)

NIST standards

- NIST has proposed a specific set of elliptic curves for cryptography purposes (**DRAFT FIPS PUB 186-3**)
- Elliptic curves are defined for prime fields $GF(p)$ and binary

| Bit Length of n | Prime Field | Binary Field |
|-------------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| 161 – 223 | $\text{len}(p) = 192$ | $m = 163$ |
| 224 – 255 | $\text{len}(p) = 224$ | $m = 233$ |
| 256 – 383 | $\text{len}(p) = 256$ | $m = 283$ |
| 384 – 511 | $\text{len}(p) = 384$ | $m = 409$ |
| ≥ 512 | $\text{len}(p) = 521$ | $m = 571$ |

Curve P-192 ($a = -3$)

$p = 6277101735386680763835789423207666416083908700390324961279$

$n = 6277101735386680763835789423176059013767194773182842284081$

$b = 64210519 \text{ e}59\text{c}80\text{e}7 \text{ 0fa}7\text{e}9\text{ab} \text{ 722}43049 \text{ feb}8\text{deec} \text{ c146b}9\text{b1}$

$G_x = 188\text{da}80\text{e} \text{ b03090f6} \text{ 7cbf}20\text{eb} \text{ 43a}18800 \text{ f4ff0afd} \text{ 82ff}1012$

$G_y = 07192\text{b}95 \text{ ffc}8\text{da}78 \text{ 631011ed} \text{ 6b24cdd5} \text{ 73f}977\text{a1} \text{ 1e794811}$

ECC recap

- ECC offers an attractive alternative to other public-key cryptosystems
 - new hard problem
 - smaller key size
- Many standards are emerging
- Number theory continues to be useful

Elliptic Curve Research Areas

- EC over finite fields has been an increasing focus of research
 1. Efficient elliptic curve arithmetic, scalar multiplication
 - including finite field arithmetic
 2. Efficient curve generation
 3. Cryptographic properties

Some Interesting Applications

- Factoring (Lenstra 1985)
 - running time of Elliptic Curve Method (ECM) depends on size of prime factors of a number, ideal for “smooth” numbers
- Primality proving (Goldwasser-Kilian 1986)
 - under number-theory assumptions, method for *proving* primality in random polynomial time
- **Fermat’s Last Theorem**

