



**COURSE NAME: CRYPTOGRAPHY AND NETWORK SECURITY**

**COURSE CODE: R1641051**

**COURSE INSTRUCTOR: MADHU BABU JANJANAM, ASSOC. PROF, CSE**

**UNIT: 3**

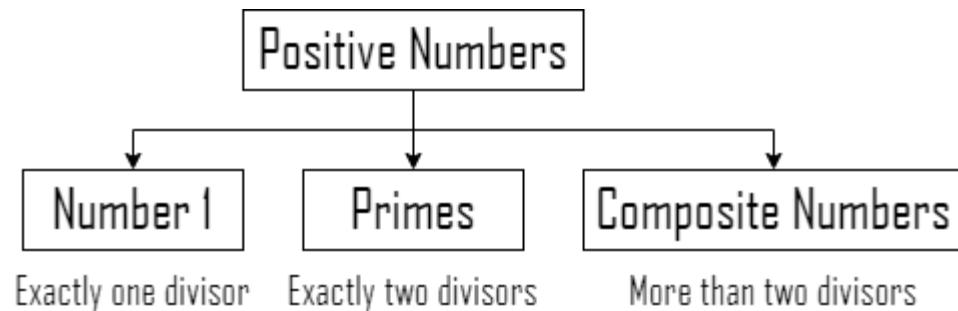
# By the end of this unit...

- Explain the mathematics behind Asymmetric Cryptography and working of Asymmetric Cryptographic algorithms.

# By the end of this session...

- Define prime numbers and explain their applications in cryptography.

# Positive Integers



- Divided into three categories
  - Number with one divisor
  - Numbers with two divisors
  - Numbers with more than two divisors
- A prime number is divisible only by 1 and itself.
- A composite number is divisible by more than two numbers.
- Two positive integers,  $a$  and  $b$ , are relatively prime, or coprime, if  $\gcd(a,b) = 1$ .
- Members in  $Z_n^*$  are coprimes with number  $n$ .
- Members in  $Z_p^*$  are coprimes with prime  $p$ .

# Euler's phi-Function

$$Z_{10}^* = \{1, 3, 7, 9\}$$

$$\phi(10) = 4$$

$$Z_7^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

$$\phi(7) = 6$$

- Euler's phi-function,  $\phi(n)$ , finds the number of integers that are both smaller than  $n$  and relatively prime to  $n$ .
- Recall set  $Z_n^*$ , which contains all the integers which are less than  $n$  and relatively prime to  $n$ .
- So,  $\phi(n)$  represents number of integers in  $Z_n^*$ .
- Also called as Euler's totient function.

# Finding the value of $\phi(n)$

1.  $\phi(1) = 0$

2.  $\phi(p) = p - 1$ , if  $p$  is a prime

3.  $\phi(m \times n) = \phi(m) \times \phi(n)$ , if  $m$  and  $n$  are relatively prime

4.  $\phi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1}$ , if  $p$  is a prime

*Ex: Find the value of  $\phi(240)$*

*Sol:*  $240 = 2^4 \times 3^1 \times 5^1$

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(240) &= \phi(2^4) \times \phi(3^1) \times \phi(5^1) = (2^4 - 2^3) \times (3^1 - 3^0) \times (5^1 - 5^0) \\ &= 8 \times 2 \times 4 = 64\end{aligned}$$

# Finding the value of $\phi(n)$ (Contd...)

*Ex: Find the value of  $\phi(49)$*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sol: } 49 &= \cancel{\phi(7) \times \phi(7)} = 36 \\ &= \phi(7^2) = 7^2 - 7^1 = 42 \end{aligned}$$

*Conditions apply:*

*The difficulty in finding  $\phi(n)$  depends on the difficulty of finding the factorization of  $n$ .*

# Fermat's Little Theorem

*Ex:* Find the result of  $6^{10} \bmod 11$ .

*Sol:*  $6^{10} \bmod 11 = 1$

*Ex:* Find the result of  $3^{12} \bmod 11$ .

*Sol:* 
$$\begin{aligned}3^{12} \bmod 11 &= (3^2 \times 3^{10}) \bmod 11 \\&= 3^2 \bmod 11 \times 3^{10} \bmod 11 \\&= 9 \bmod 11 = 9\end{aligned}$$

- Two versions

1. If  $p$  is a prime and  $a$  is an integer such that  $p$  does not divide  $a$ , then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \bmod p$
2. If  $p$  is a prime and  $a$  is an integer, then  $a^p \equiv a \bmod p$

- Applications:

1. Helpful for quickly finding a solution to some exponentiations.
2. Helpful for quickly finding multiplicative inverses if the modulus is a prime.

# Fermat's Little Theorem (Contd...)

*Ex: Find the result of  $8^{-1} \bmod 17$ .*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sol: } 8^{-1} \bmod 17 &= 8^{17-2} \bmod 17 \\ &= 8^{15} \bmod 17 \\ &= 15 \bmod 17 \end{aligned}$$

- Application: Helpful for quickly finding multiplicative inverses if the modulus is a prime.
- If  $p$  is a prime and  $a$  is an integer such that  $p$  does not divide  $a$ , then  $a^{-1} \bmod p = a^{p-2} \bmod p$

# Euler's Theorem

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

$$a^{k \times \phi(n) + 1} \equiv a \pmod{n}$$

- Basically, this is a generalization of Fermat's Little theorem.
- Two Versions
  1. If  $a$  and  $n$  are coprimes, then  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
  2. If  $n = p \times q$ ,  $a < n$ , and  $k$  an integer, then  $a^{k \times \phi(n) + 1} \equiv a \pmod{n}$

# Generating Primes

$$M_2 = 2^2 - 1 = 3$$

$$M_3 = 2^3 - 1 = 7$$

$$M_5 = 2^5 - 1 = 31$$

$$M_7 = 2^7 - 1 = 127$$

$$M_{11} = 2^{11} - 1 = 2047$$

- Mersenne Primes: Mersenne defined a formula, called Mersenne numbers.

$$M_p = 2^p - 1$$

- Failed at  $M_{11} = 2047 = 23 \times 89$

# Generating Primes (Contd...)

$$F_1 = 2^{2(1)} - 1 = 3$$

$$F_2 = 17$$

$$F_3 = 257$$

$$F_4 = 65537$$

$$F_5 = 4294967297$$

- Fermat Primes: Fermat found a formula to generate primes as

$$F_n = 2^{2n} - 1$$

- Tested upto  $F_4$ , but failed at  $F_5$ , where  
 $F_5 = 4294967297 = 641 \times 6700417$

# By the end of this session...

- Discuss some primality test algorithms and their efficiencies.

# Primality Testing

- Asymmetric Cryptography needs large primes.
- Generating primes have failed to produce large primes.
- Choose a large random number and test it to be sure that it is a prime.
- Algorithms that deal with primality testing can be divided into two categories:
  - Deterministic algorithms
  - Probabilistic algorithms
- Deterministic algorithms always gives the correct answer, but less efficient.
- Probabilistic algorithms gives an answer that is correct most of the time, but not all of the time.

# Deterministic algorithms - Divisibility Algorithm

- Most elementary deterministic test for primality.
- Choose a number  $n$ , divide with all numbers smaller than  $\sqrt{n}$ , if any of these numbers divide  $n$ , then  $n$  is not a prime number.
- Algorithm can be improved by testing only odd numbers.
- If  $n_b$  is the number of bits in  $n$ , the complexity for this algorithm is  $O(2^{n_b})$ .
- Algorithm seem very inefficient for large integers.

# Deterministic algorithms - AKS Algorithm

- Proposed by Agrawal, Kayal and Saxena in the year 2002.
- The algorithm uses the fact that

$$(x - a)^p \equiv (x^p - a) \text{ mod } p$$

- The algorithm reduced the complexity to  $O\left((\log_2^{n_b})^{12}\right)$ .

# Probabilistic Algorithms - Fermat Test

*Ex: Prove number 561 is a prime*

$$Sol: 2^{561-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{561}$$

$$2^{560} \pmod{561} = 1$$

*So, 561 is a prime number according to Fermat test*

*but, 561 is a not prime number, because  $561 = 33 \times 17$*

- Uses the fact in Fermat little theorem
- If  $n$  is a prime, then
$$a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$
- If  $n$  does not satisfies the condition then it is a composite number.
- Some composite numbers may pass the Fermat test.

# Probabilistic Algorithms – Miller – Rabin Test

*Ex: Is 53 prime?*

Step – 1:  $52 = 2^k \cdot m$

$$52 = 2^1 \cdot 26$$

$$\textcircled{52 = 2^2 \cdot 13} \quad k = 2, m = 13$$

~~$$52 = 2^3 \cdot 6.5$$~~

Step – 2:  $a = 2, 1 < a < n - 1$

Step – 3:  $b_0 = 2^{13} \bmod 53 = 30 \bmod 53$

Step – 4:  $b_1 = 30^2 \bmod 53 = 52 \bmod 53$   
 $-1 \bmod 53$

*So, 53 is probably prime.*

- Specifies whether  $n$  is a prime or composite based on Square roots of 1. i.e., +1 or -1.
- Steps:
  1. Find  $n - 1 = 2^k \cdot m$
  2. Choose a such that  $1 < a < n - 1$
  3. Compute  $b_0 = a^m \bmod n$
  4. Continue step 3 as  $a = b_i$ , and  $m = 2$  until  $b_i = +1 \text{ or } -1$ . If the result is -1 then the number is probably prime, or it is a composite number.

# Ex: Is 4033 a prime?

$$Step - 1: 4032 = 2^k \cdot m$$

$$4032 = 2^1 \cdot 2016$$

$$4032 = 2^2 \cdot 1008$$

$$4032 = 2^3 \cdot 504$$

$$4032 = 2^4 \cdot 252$$

$$4032 = 2^5 \cdot 126$$

$$4032 = 2^6 \cdot 63 \quad k = 6, m = 63$$

~~$$4032 = 2^7 \cdot 31.5$$~~

$$Step - 2: a = 2, 1 < a < n - 1$$

$$Step - 3: b_0 = 2^{63} \bmod 4033 = 3521 \bmod 4033$$

$$Step - 4: b_1 = 3521^2 \bmod 4033 = 4032 \bmod 4033 \\ -1 \bmod 4033$$

*So, 4033 is probably prime.*

*but, 4033 is not a prime, because  $37 \times 109$ .*

*Exercise: Take  $a = 3$  and check whether 4033 is prime or not?*

# By the end of this session...

- Explain various factorization methods.
- Explain the Chinese Remainder Theorem with examples.

# Factorization

$$n = p_1^{e_1} \times p_2^{e_2} \times \cdots \times p_k^{e_k}$$

$$20 = 2^2 \times 5^1$$

$$100 = 2^2 \times 5^2$$

$$GCD(a, b): a = p_1^{x_1} \times p_2^{x_2} \times \cdots \times p_k^{x_k}$$

$$b = p_1^{y_1} \times p_2^{y_2} \times \cdots \times p_k^{y_k}$$

$$GCD(a, b) = p_1^{\min(x_1, y_1)} \times p_2^{\min(x_2, y_2)} \times \cdots \times p_k^{\min(x_k, y_k)}$$

$$LCM(a, b) = p_1^{\max(x_1, y_1)} \times p_2^{\max(x_2, y_2)} \times \cdots \times p_k^{\max(x_k, y_k)}$$

$$a \times b = GCD(a, b) \times LCM(a, b)$$

- Plays an important role in security of several public key cryptographic algorithms such as RSA.
- Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic: Any positive greater than one can be written uniquely in the prime factorization form.
- Immediate applications of Factorization
  - GCD
  - LCM

# Factorization Methods – Trial Division Method

- Simplest and least efficient algorithm.
- Try dividing all positive integers starting from 2 to  $\sqrt{n}$ .
- Normally efficient if  $n < 2^{10}$ , but inefficient and infeasible for factoring large integers.
- The complexity is exponential.

# Factorization Methods – Fermat Method

```
Fermat_Factorization(n)
{
    x =  $\sqrt{n}$ 
    while(x < n)
    {
        w =  $x^2 - n$ 
        if (w is perfect square) { y =  $\sqrt{w}$ , a=x+y, b=x-y, return a and b}
        x = x+1
    }
}
```

- Divides a number into two positive integers  $a$  and  $b$  (not necessarily a prime), so that  $n = a \times b$

- The Fermat method is based on the fact that

$$n = x^2 - y^2$$

Where

$$a = (x + y) \text{ and } b = (x - y)$$

- The complexity is subexponential

# Chinese Remainder Theorem

$$x = a_1 \text{ mod } m_1$$

$$x = a_2 \text{ mod } m_2$$

...

$$x = a_k \text{ mod } m_k$$

- Is meant for solving set of congruent equations with one variable but different moduli.
- The set of equations have a unique solution if the moduli are relatively prime.  
i.e.,  $\text{GCD}(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k) = 1$

# Chinese Remainder Theorem - Working

$$x = 2 \text{ mod } 3$$

$$x = 3 \text{ mod } 5$$

$$x = 2 \text{ mod } 7$$

$$M = 3 \times 5 \times 7 = 105$$

$$M_1 = \frac{105}{3} = 35, M_2 = \frac{105}{5} = 21, M_3 = \frac{105}{7} = 15$$

The inverses are  $M_1^{-1} = 2, M_2^{-1} = 1, M_3^{-1} = 1$

$$x = (2 \times 35 \times 2 + 3 \times 21 \times 1 + 2 \times 15 \times 1) \text{ mod } 105$$

$$23 \text{ mod } 105$$

$$23 \equiv 2 \text{ mod } 3, 23 \equiv 3 \text{ mod } 5, 23 \equiv 2 \text{ mod } 7$$

1. Find  $M = m_1 \times m_2 \times \dots \times m_k$
2. Find  $M_1 = M/m_1, M_2 = M/m_2, \dots, M_k = M/m_k$ .
3. Find Multiplicative inverse of  $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_k$  using moduli ( $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k$ ) as  $M_1^{-1}, M_2^{-1}, \dots, M_k^{-1}$ .
4. Solution

$$x = (a_1 \times M_1 \times M_1^{-1} + a_2 \times M_2 \times M_2^{-1} + \dots + a_k \times M_k \times M_k^{-1}) \text{ mod } M$$

# Exercise: Solve the following set of congruent equations

$$x = 3 \bmod 7$$

$$x = 3 \bmod 13$$

$$x = 0 \bmod 12$$

$$M = 7 \times 13 \times 12 = 1092$$

$$M_1 = \frac{1092}{7} = 156, M_2 = \frac{1092}{13} = 84, M_3 = \frac{1092}{12} = 91$$

The inverses are  $M_1^{-1} = 4, M_2^{-1} = 11, M_3^{-1} = 7$

$$x = (3 \times 156 \times 4 + 3 \times 84 \times 11 + 0 \times 91 \times 7) \bmod 1092$$

$$276 \bmod 1092$$

$$276 \equiv 3 \bmod 7, 276 \equiv 3 \bmod 13, 276 \equiv 0 \bmod 12$$

# By the end of this session...

- Explain the concept of Quadratic congruence

# Quadratic Congruence

$$x^2 \equiv a \pmod{n}$$

- Solving the equation of type  
 $a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0 \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$
- Asymmetric Cryptographic algorithms are more dependent on equations  
 $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{n}$   
Where  $a_2 = 1$ ,  $a_1 = 0$  and  $a_0 = 0$ .
- Such equations are called Quadratic congruence.

# Quadratic Congruence Modulo a Prime

Eg:  $x^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{11}$

Has two solutions

$x = 5 \pmod{11}$  and  $x = -5 \pmod{11}$

$5^2 \pmod{11} = 3$  and  $(-5)^2 \pmod{11}$

Eg:  $x^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{11}$

Has no Solution

- Finding the solution for an equation of form  
 $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$

Where p is a prime, a is an integer.

- This type of equation has either no solution or exactly two solutions.

# Quadratic Residues and Nonresidues

Eg:  $Z_{11}^* = \{1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10\}$

$$1^2 \text{ mod } 11 = 1$$

$$6^2 \text{ mod } 11 = 3$$

$$2^2 \text{ mod } 11 = 4$$

$$7^2 \text{ mod } 11 = 5$$

$$3^2 \text{ mod } 11 = 9$$

$$8^2 \text{ mod } 11 = 9$$

$$4^2 \text{ mod } 11 = 5$$

$$9^2 \text{ mod } 11 = 4$$

$$5^2 \text{ mod } 11 = 3$$

$$10^2 \text{ mod } 11 = 1$$

$$QR_{11} = \{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\}$$

$$QNR_{11} = \{2, 6, 7, 8, 10\}$$

- In the equation  $x^2 \equiv a \text{ mod } p$ , a is called quadratic residue (QR), if the equation has two solutions.
- 'a' is said to be quadratic nonresidue (QNR), if the equation has no solutions.
- In  $Z_p^*$  with  $p-1$  elements, exactly  $(p - 1)/2$  elements are quadratic residues.

[Back...](#)

# Exponentiation and Logarithm

*Exponentiation:*  $y = a^x$

*Logarithm:*  $x = \log_a y$

*Exponentiation:*  $y = a^x \bmod p$

*Logarithm:*  $x = \log_{a,p} y$

- Most of the Asymmetric Cryptographic algorithms are based on two operations
  - Exponentiation
  - Logarithm
- These two operations are inverses of each other.

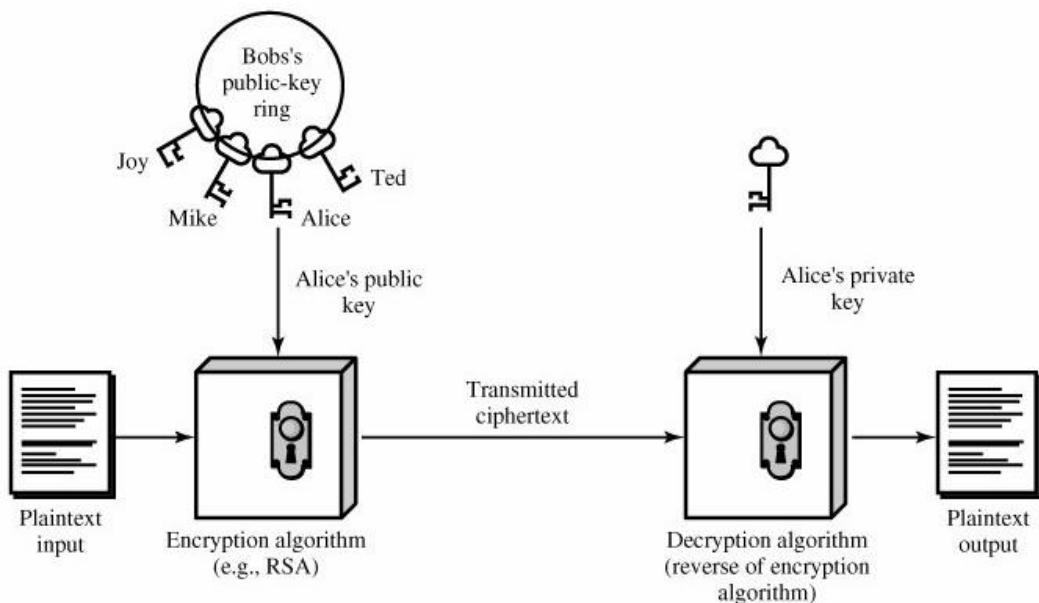
# Discrete Logarithm

- Finite multiplicative group:  $G = \langle Z_n^*, x \rangle$
- Order of the group: Number of elements in  $Z_n^*$
- Order of an Element: Number of elements in cyclic subgroup generated by the element.
- Primitive Roots: Meant for multiplicative group, where the order of the group is equal to order of the element, then that element is a primitive root of the group

# By the end of this session...

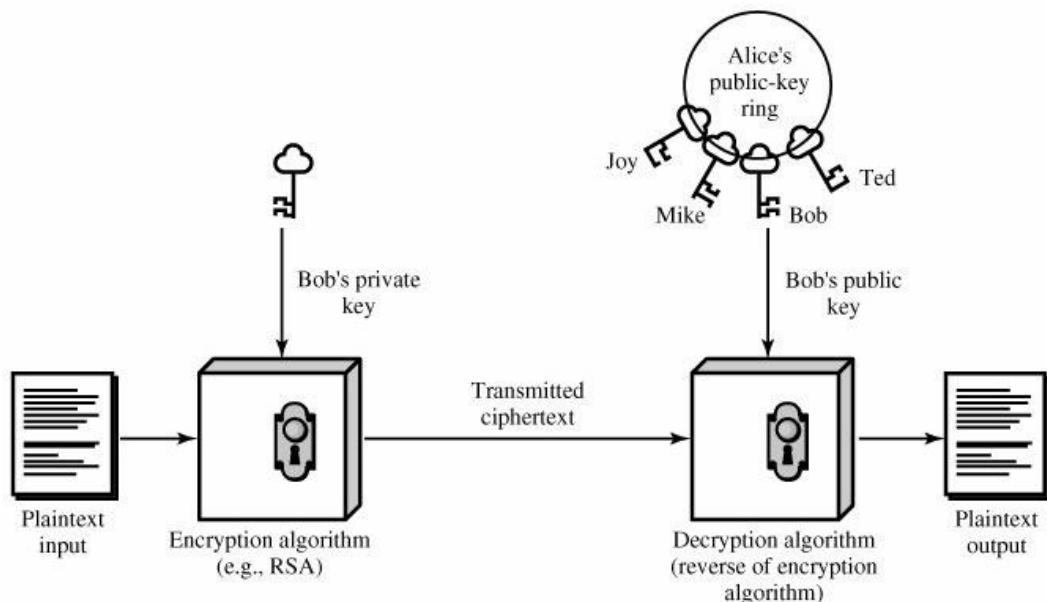
- Describe the concept of asymmetric key cryptosystems
- Discuss the concept of RSA cryptosystem.

# Asymmetric Cryptography



- Every user generates two keys to participate in Asymmetric Cryptography.
  - Public Key ( $PU_K$ )
  - Private Key ( $PR_K$ )
- Users share their public key with all the participants in the network, but, keeps private key secret with them.

# Asymmetric Cryptography (Contd...)



- Two usecases
  - Confidentiality (Encipherment)
  - Authentication (Signature)
- Encryption is done with the public key of the receiver and decryption is done with the private key of the receiver.
- Signature is done with sender's private key and verified through sender's public key at receiver's side

# RSA Cryptosystem

$$C = M^e \bmod n$$

$$M = C^d \bmod n = (M^{ed}) \bmod n$$

- Named after inventors Rivest, Shamir, Adleman (RSA).
- First published in 1978.
- Is a block cipher in which plaintext and cipher text are integers between 0 and n-1.
- Typical size of n is 1024 bits, i.e., 309 decimal digits.

# RSA Key Generation

1.  $P = 5$  and  $q = 11$

2.  $n = 5 \times 11 = 55$

3.  $\phi(n) = 4 \times 10 = 40$

4.  $e = 7$  as  $\gcd(40, 7) = 1$

5.  $d = 43$  as  $43 = 7^{-1} \bmod 40$

6. Public key (7,55),  
Private key (43,40)

- I. Both sender and receiver generates their pair of keys (Public, Private).
  - i. Selects two large primes p and q.
  - ii. Computes  $n = p \times q$
  - iii. Calculates  $\phi(n) = (p - 1) \times (q - 1)$
  - iv. Selects integer e, such that  $\gcd(\phi(n), e) = 1$
  - v. Calculate d, such that  $d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$
  - vi. Public key (e, n) and Private key (d,  $\phi(n)$ )
2. Users share their public keys

# RSA Encryption & Decryption

$$\begin{aligned} C &= 3^7 \bmod 55 \\ &= 42 \bmod 55 \end{aligned}$$

Sender

$$\begin{aligned} M &= 42^{43} \bmod 55 \\ &= 3 \bmod 55 \end{aligned}$$

Receiver

- Compute

$$C = M^e \bmod n$$

Where e is the public key of the receiver.

- Compute

$$M = C^d \bmod n$$

Where d is the private key of the receiver

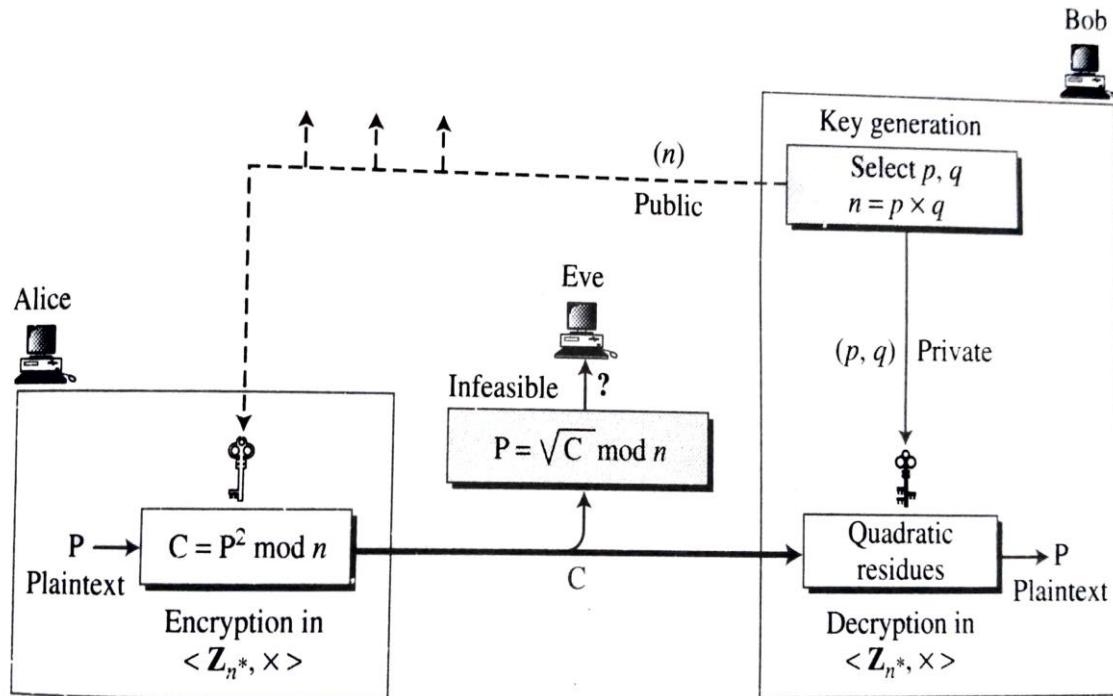
# Attacks on RSA

- Factorization
- Chosen-Ciphertext
- Plaintext

# By the end of this session...

- Explain Rabin cryptosystem and describe the procedure of key generation, encryption and decryption.

# Rabin Cryptosystem



- Devised by M. Rabin
- Is a variation of the RSA cryptosystem, where RSA is based on exponentiation congruence and Rabin is based on quadratic congruence.
- Encryption:  $C = M^2 \text{ mod } n$
- Decryption:  $M = C^{1/2} \text{ mod } n$

# Rabin Key Generation

## Key Generation

1. Users selects two large primes p and q, prime must be in the form  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$
2. Calculates  $n = p \times q$
3. Public key = n and private key (p,q)

## Example

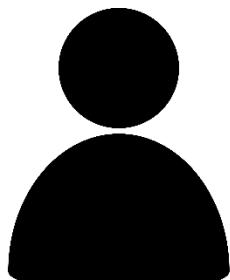
1.  $p = 23$  and  $q = 7$
2. Calculates  $n = 23 \times 7 = 161$
3. Public key = 161 and private key (23,7)

# Encryption

$$C = M^2 \bmod n$$

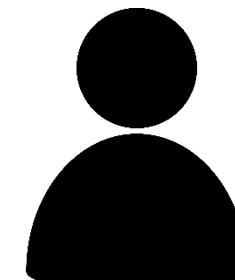
$$93 = 24^2 \bmod 161$$

- Bob
1.  $p = 23$  and  $q = 7$
  2. Calculates  $n = 23 \times 7 = 161$
  3. Public key = 161 and private key (23,7)



Alice

93



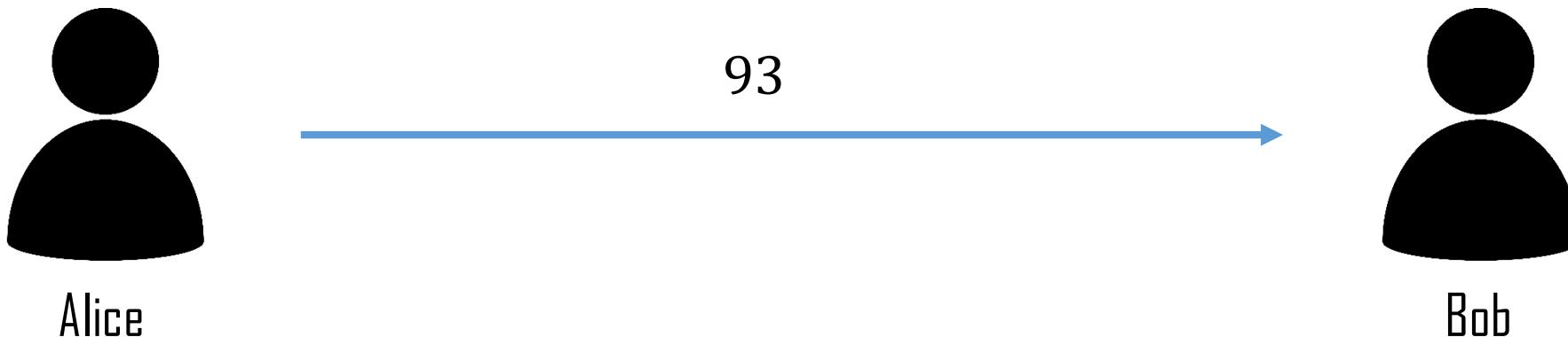
Bob

# Decryption

$$a_{1,2} = \pm(C^{(p+1)/4}) \bmod p$$

$$b_{1,2} = \pm(C^{(q+1)/4}) \bmod q$$

$(a_1, b_1), (a_1, b_2), (a_2, b_1), (a_2, b_2)$



# Decryption

$$a_{1,2} = \pm(C^{(p+1)/4}) \text{ mod } p$$

$$b_{1,2} = \pm(C^{(q+1)/4}) \text{ mod } q$$

$(a_1, b_1), (a_1, b_2), (a_2, b_1), (a_2, b_2)$

*Use Chinese Remainder Theorem  
to solve these congruences*

$$a_1 = (93^{(23+1)/4}) \text{ mod } 23 = 1 \text{ mod } 23$$

$$a_2 = -(93^{(23+1)/4}) \text{ mod } 23 = 22 \text{ mod } 23$$

$$b_1 = (93^{(7+1)/4}) \text{ mod } 7 = 4 \text{ mod } 7$$

$$b_2 = -(93^{(7+1)/4}) \text{ mod } 7 = 3 \text{ mod } 7$$

$$x1 = (1 \text{ mod } 23, 4 \text{ mod } 7)$$

$$x2 = (1 \text{ mod } 23, 3 \text{ mod } 7)$$

$$x3 = (22 \text{ mod } 23, 4 \text{ mod } 7)$$

$$x4 = (22 \text{ mod } 23, 3 \text{ mod } 7)$$

# Decryption

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{23}$$

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$$

$$x = 116$$

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{23}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

$$x = 24$$

$$x \equiv 22 \pmod{23}$$

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$$

$$x = 137$$

$$x \equiv 22 \pmod{23}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

$$x = 45$$

# By the end of this session...

- Describe the working of Elgamal cryptosystem

# Elgamal Cryptosystem

- Elgamal cryptosystem is based on discrete logarithm problem
- If  $p$  is a very large prime,  $e_1$  is a primitive root in the group  $G = \langle Z_p^*, \times \rangle$  and  $r$  is an integer, then

$$e_2 = e_1^r \bmod p$$

is easy to compute. But given  $e_2, e_1, p$ , it is infeasible to calculate

$$r = \log_{e_1, e_2} \bmod p$$

# Key Generation

Key Generation	Example
1. Select a prime p,	1. $p = 11$
2. Select $e_1$ , primitive root of p.	2. $e_1 = 2$
3. Select d, as a random integer, such that $1 \leq d \leq p - 2$	3. $d = 3$
4. Compute $e_2 = e_1^d \text{ mod } p$	4. $e_2 = 2^3 \text{ mod } 11 = 8 \text{ mod } 11$
5. Public key = $(e_1, e_2, p)$ , Private key = d	5. Public key = $(2, 8, 11)$ and Private key = 3

# Derivation of Encryption and Decryption process

Sender

1. Selects a random integer  $r$  in  $G = \langle Z_p^*, \times \rangle$
2. Computes  $C_1 = e_1^r \text{ mod } p$
3. Computes  $C_2 = e_2^r \times M \text{ mod } p$

Receiver

1.  $C_1$  and  $C_2$
2.  $M = [C_2 \times (C_1^d)^{-1}] \text{ mod } p$

$$[C_2 \times (C_1^d)^{-1}] \text{ mod } p = [(e_2^r \times M) \times (e_1^{rd})^{-1}] \text{ mod } p = (e_1^{dr}) \times M \times (e_1^{rd})^{-1} \text{ mod } p = M \text{ mod } p$$

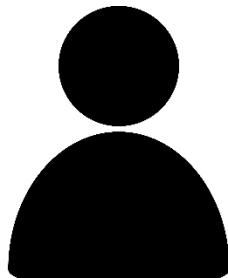
# Encryption

## Encryption

1. Selects a random integer  $r$  in  $G = \langle Z_p^*, \times \rangle$ ,  $r = 4$
2. Computes  $C_1 = e_1^r \text{ mod } p = 2^4 \text{ mod } 11 = 5 \text{ mod } 11$
3. Computes  $C_2 = e_2^r \times M \text{ mod } p = 8^4 \times 7 \text{ mod } 11 = 6 \text{ mod } 11$

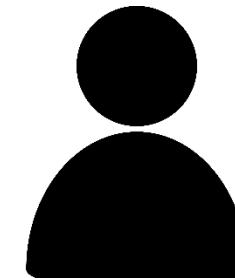
## Bob

1.  $p = 11$
2.  $e_1 = 2$
3.  $d = 3$
4.  $e_2 = 2^3 \text{ mod } 11 = 8 \text{ mod } 11$
5. Public key =  $(2, 8, 11)$  and Private key = 3



Alice

5, 6



Bob

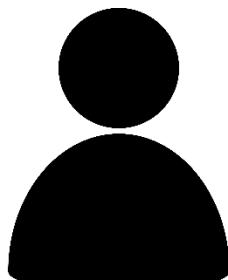
# Decryption

## Decryption

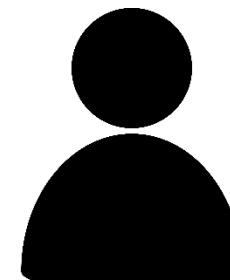
$$1. \quad C_1 = 5 \text{ and } C_2 = 6$$

$$2. \quad M = [C_2 \times (C_1^d)^{-1}] \bmod p$$

$$M = [6 \times (5^3)^{-1}] \bmod 11 = 7 \bmod 11$$



Alice



Bob

# Security of Elgamal

- Low Modulus attack
- Known plaintext attack

# By the end of this session...

- Explain the concept of Elliptic curve cryptosystems

# Elliptic Curve Cryptography

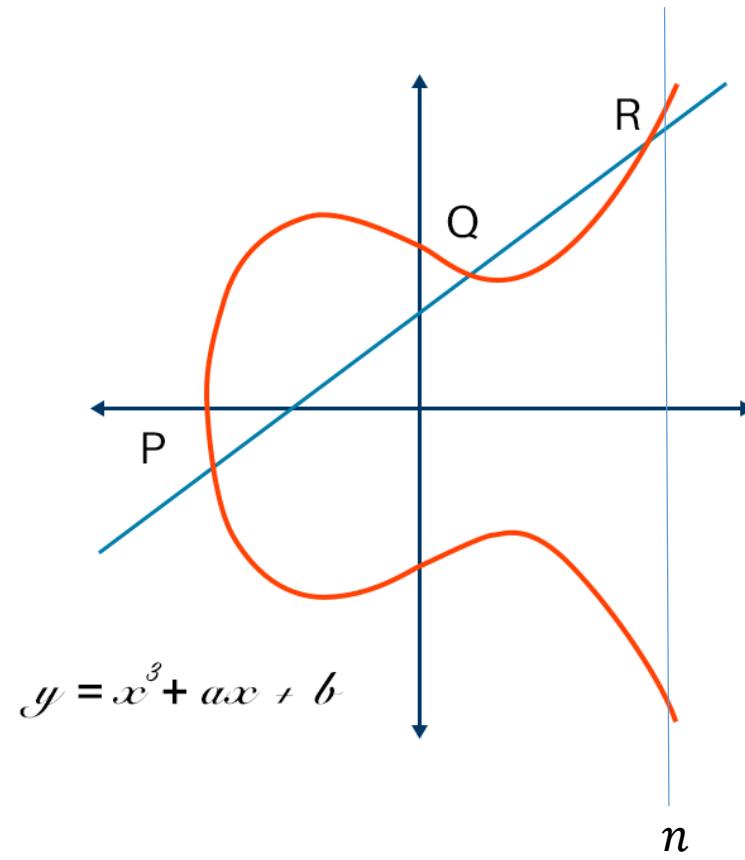
- Provides equal security with smaller key size

RSA	ECC
3072	256
7680	384

- Reduced the processing overhead
- Trapdoor function

$$\begin{array}{l} A \rightarrow B \\ B \not\rightarrow A \end{array}$$

# Elliptic curve cryptography



- Elliptic curves defined by the cubical functions of form

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

are used for Elliptic curve cryptography.

- Symmetric to the x-axis
- Draw a line on the curve, touches maximum of 3 points.
- Curve goes infinite over x and y axis but we are limiting it with the value of n.
- Points on the curve are called Affine Points
- Trapdoor function:  $Q = kP$ , but with the knowledge of  $P, Q$  we can't find the value of k.

# Elliptic Curve Cryptography

## Global Public Elements

1.  $E_q(a, b)$ : Elliptic curve with parameters a,b and q (Prime no. or an integer of form  $2^m$ )
2. G: Generator point on the curve whose order equal to the order of the group  $G = \langle \{ \text{Points on curve} \}, + \rangle$

## User A key generation

1. Select a private key  $n_a, n_a < n$
2. Calculate public key  $p_a$   
$$p_a = n_a \times G$$

## User B key generation

1. Select a private key  $n_b, n_b < n$
2. Calculate public key  $p_b$   
$$p_b = n_b \times G$$

## Calculation of Secret Key

1. User A:  $K = n_a \times p_b$
2. User B:  $K = n_b \times p_a$

# Encryption & Decryption

## Encryption

1. Let the message be  $M$ .
2. Convert the message  $M$  into a point on the elliptic curve and let it be  $p_m$
3. The Cipher point will be

$$C_m = \{kG, p_m + kp_b\}$$

## Decryption

1. Multiply 1<sup>st</sup> coordinate in the received point with private key of receiver  
 $kG \times n_b$
2. Then Subtract it from 2<sup>nd</sup> coordinate  
 $p_m + kp_b - (kG \times n_b)$

## Justification

1.  $p_m + kp_b - (kG \times n_b)$ , we know  $p_b = G \times n_b$
2.  $p_m + kp_b - kp_b = p_m$

# Exercises

1. Find all QRs and QNRs in  $Z_{13}^*, Z_{17}^*, Z_{23}^*$ .
2. Solve the following congruence:
  - i.  $x^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$
  - ii.  $x^2 \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$
3. For the group  $G = \langle Z_{11}^*, \times \rangle$ :
  - i. Find the order of the group
  - ii. Find the order of each element in the group
  - iii. Find the primitive roots in the group
4. In RSA:
  - i. Given  $p=19$ ,  $q=23$ , and  $e=3$  find  $d$ .
  - ii. Given  $n=221$  and  $e=5$ , find  $d$ .

Thank you!

