

COURSE NAME: CRYPTOGRAPHY AND NETWORK SECURITY

COURSE CODE: R1641051

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

UNIT: 3

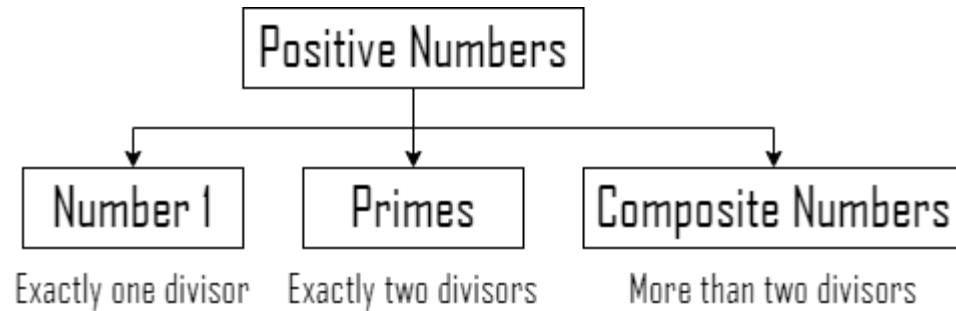
By the end of this unit...

- 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 $\phi(49)$

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

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: $3^{12} \bmod 11 = (3^2 \times 3^{10}) \bmod 11$
 $= 3^2 \bmod 11 \times 3^{10} \bmod 11$
 $= 9 \bmod 11 = 9$*

- 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

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

- 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
$$(x - a)^p \equiv (x^p - a) \pmod{p}$$
- 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: $52 = 2^k \cdot m$

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

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

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

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 $a = b_0$, and $m = 2$ until $b_i = +1$ or -1 . If the result is -1 then the number is probably prime, or it is a composite number.

Ex: Is 4033 a prime?

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$\cancel{4032 = 2^7 \cdot 31.5}$$

$$\text{Step - 2: } a = 2, 1 < a < n - 1$$

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

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

So, 4033 is probably prime.

but, 4033 is not a prime, because 37×109 .

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- 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

$$x = a_1 \bmod m_1$$

$$x = a_2 \bmod m_2$$

...

$$x = a_k \bmod m_k$$

- 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

$$x = 2 \bmod 3$$

$$x = 3 \bmod 5$$

$$x = 2 \bmod 7$$

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

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

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

$$x = (2 \times 35 \times 2 + 3 \times 21 \times 1 + 2 \times 15 \times 1) \bmod 105$$

$$23 \bmod 105$$

$$23 \equiv 2 \bmod 3, 23 \equiv 3 \bmod 5, 23 \equiv 2 \bmod 7$$

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

Exercise: Solve the following set of congruent equations

$$x = 3 \bmod 7$$

$$x = 3 \bmod 13$$

$$x = 0 \bmod 12$$

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

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

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

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

$$276 \bmod 1092$$

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

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

$1^2 \bmod 11 = 1$	$6^2 \bmod 11 = 3$
$2^2 \bmod 11 = 4$	$7^2 \bmod 11 = 5$
$3^2 \bmod 11 = 9$	$8^2 \bmod 11 = 9$
$4^2 \bmod 11 = 5$	$9^2 \bmod 11 = 4$
$5^2 \bmod 11 = 3$	$10^2 \bmod 11 = 1$

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

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

- In the equation $x^2 \equiv a \bmod p$, 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.

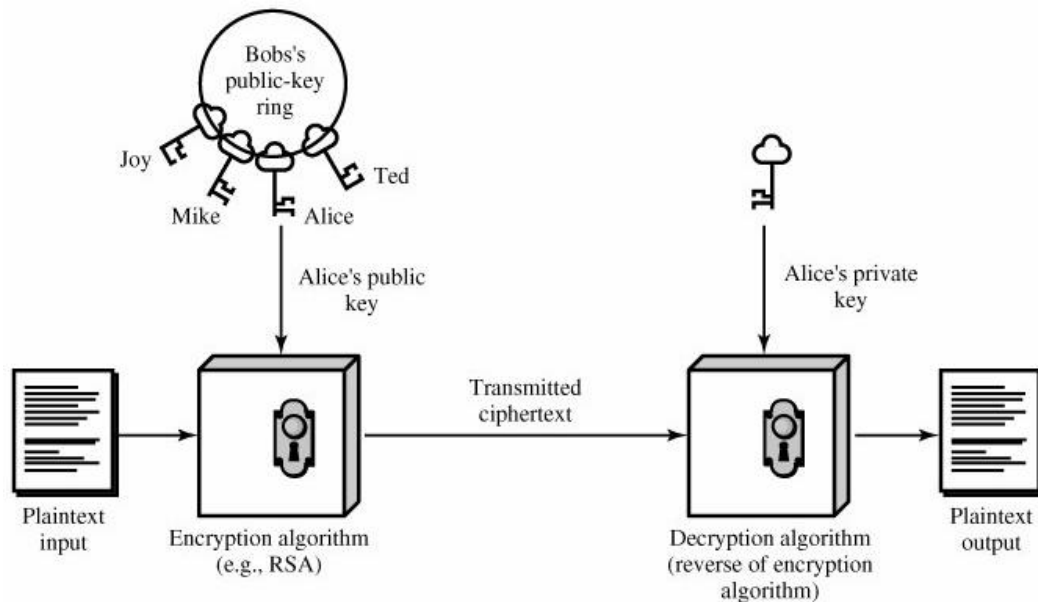
Discrete Logarithm

- 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...

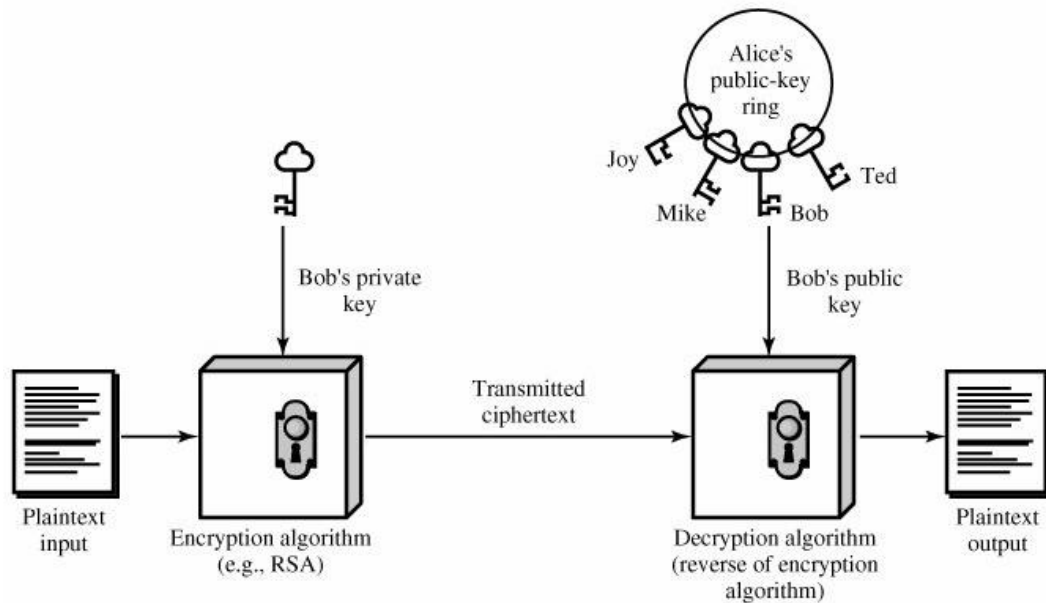
- Describe the concept of asymmetric key cryptosystems
- Discuss the concept of RSA cryptosystem.

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)

1. 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

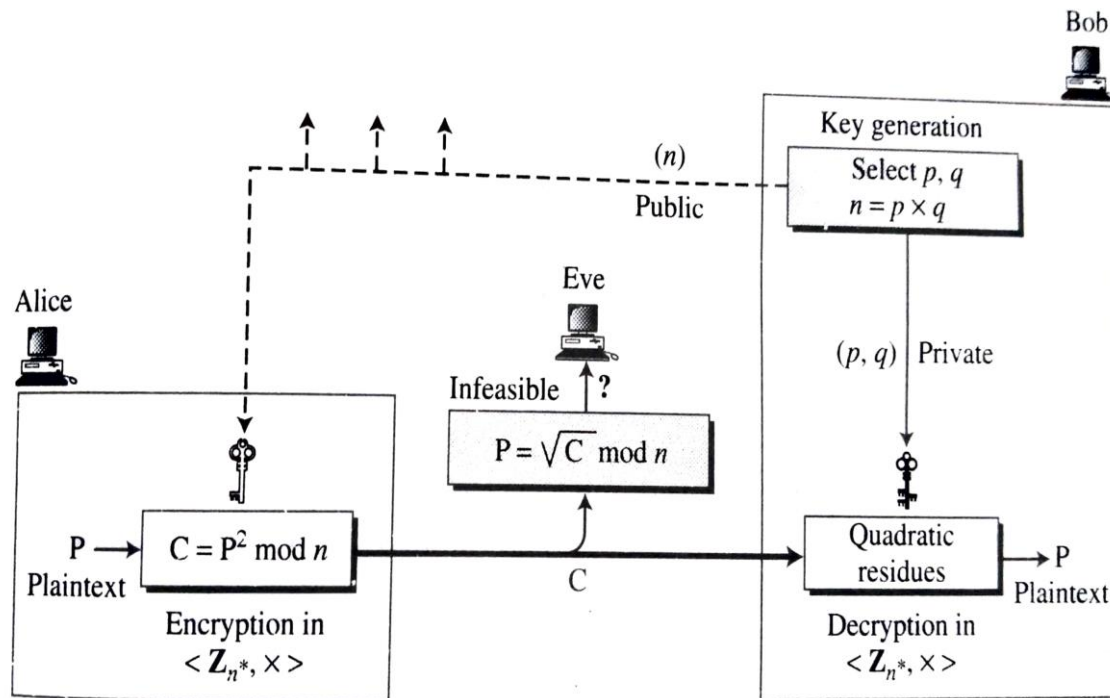
Attacks on RSA

- 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: $C = M^2 \bmod n$
- Decryption: $M = C^{1/2} \bmod n$

Rabin Key Generation

Key Generation

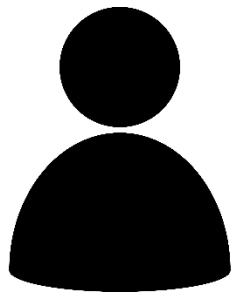
1. Users selects two large primes p and q , prime must be in the form $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$
2. Calculates $n = p \times q$
3. Public key = n and private key (p,q)

Example

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

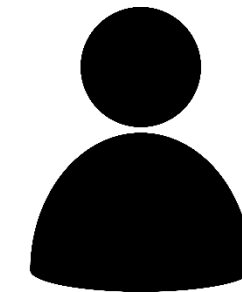
Encryption

$$C = M^2 \bmod n$$
$$93 = 24^2 \bmod 161$$



Alice

93



Bob

Bob

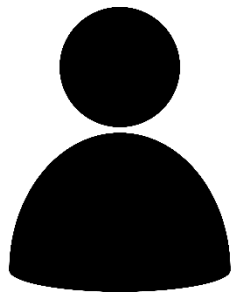
1. $p = 23$ and $q = 7$
2. Calculates $n = 23 \times 7 = 161$
3. Public key = 161 and private key (23,7)

Decryption

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

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

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



Alice

93



Bob

Decryption

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

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

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

*Use Chinese Remainder Theorem
to solve these congruences*

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

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

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

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

$$x1 = (1 \bmod 23, 4 \bmod 7)$$

$$x2 = (1 \bmod 23, 3 \bmod 7)$$

$$x3 = (22 \bmod 23, 4 \bmod 7)$$

$$x4 = (22 \bmod 23, 3 \bmod 7)$$

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

1. Select a prime p ,
2. Select e_1 , primitive root of p .
3. Select d , as a random integer, such that $1 \leq d \leq p - 2$
4. Compute $e_2 = e_1^d \bmod p$
5. Public key = (e_1, e_2, p) , Private key = d

Example

1. $p = 11$
2. $e_1 = 2$
3. $d = 3$
4. $e_2 = 2^3 \bmod 11 = 8 \bmod 11$
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 $C_1 = e_1^r \bmod p$
3. Computes $C_2 = e_2^r \times M \bmod p$

Receiver

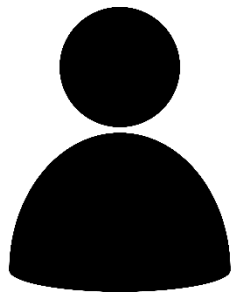
1. C_1 and C_2
2. $M = [C_2 \times (C_1^d)^{-1}] \bmod p$

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

Encryption

Encryption

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



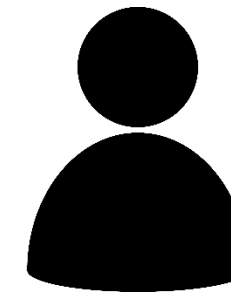
Alice

5, 6



Bob

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

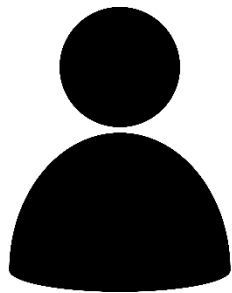


Bob

Decryption

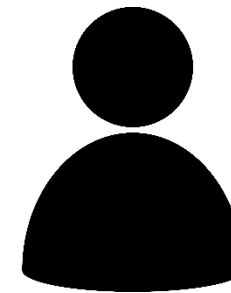
Decryption

1. $C_1 = 5$ and $C_2 = 6$
2. $M = [C_2 \times (C_1^d)^{-1}] \bmod p$
 $M = [6 \times (5^3)^{-1}] \bmod 11 = 7 \bmod 11$



Alice

5, 6



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

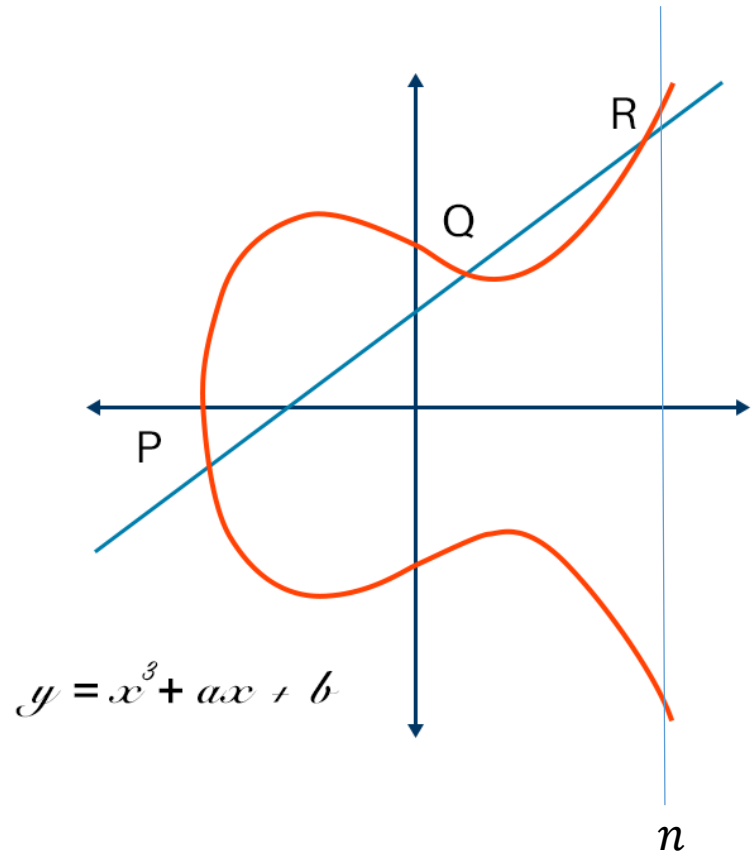
- Provides equal security with smaller key size

RSA	ECC
3072	256
7680	384

- Reduced the processing overhead
- Trapdoor function

$$\begin{aligned} A &\rightarrow B \\ B &\nrightarrow A \end{aligned}$$

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 it be p_m
3. The Cipher point will be
$$C_m = \{kG, p_m + kp_b\}$$

Decryption

1. Multiply 1st coordinate in the received point with private key of receiver
$$kG \times n_b$$
2. Then Subtract it from 2nd 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!

