

# Public Key Cryptography

Unit II

# Number Theory

# Introduction

- Number Theory is branch of mathematics devoted to the study of the properties of natural numbers and the integers.
  - Sometimes called “higher arithmetic,” it is among the oldest and most natural of mathematical pursuits.
- Mathematical interaction and number types are studied in number theory.
  - Types of numbers: odds, evens, primes, squares, integers
- Formal Mathematical proofs are used to describe or prove relationships among number types.

# Introduction..

- Euclid was a number theorist who studied prime numbers.
  - He answered the question that “how many prime numbers are there?”
  - He proves that there are infinite prime numbers and used formal mathematics to prove it.
    - He used proof by contradiction for this purpose where he first assumed that there are finite prime numbers and then proved it wrong.
- Number theory is all about asking questions about numbers.

# Introduction...

Number theory has its roots in the study of the properties of the natural numbers

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

and various “extensions” thereof, beginning with the integers

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

and rationals.

$$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0 \right\}$$

This leads directly to distinct properties...

- Divisibility
- Congruences
- Cryptography
- Elliptic curve cryptography

# Divisibility

- Euclidean algorithm and greatest common divisors.
- Primes and the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra
- Results and conjectures concerning primes:
  - Euclid's theorem
  - The Riemann zeta function;
  - Arithmetic progressions

# Congruences

- Modular (clock) arithmetic:  $a^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and its generalizations.
- Chinese remainder theorem
- A first view of primality testing and factorization.
- Groups, rings and fields (especially finite abelian groups and finite fields).
- Primitive roots modulo a prime
- Quadratic reciprocity

# Cryptography

- Simple cryptosystems and symmetric ciphers
- Public key cryptography
  - Answer the question “How can two parties communicate securely over an insecure channel without first privately exchanging some kind of ‘key’ to each others’ messages?” They need a trapdoor function  $f$  that can be used to encode information easily but hard to invert without knowing “extra information”.
- Diffie-Hellman key exchange
- RSA cryptosystem



# Elliptic Curve Cryptography

- The security of using elliptic curves for cryptography rests on the difficulty of solving an analogue of the discrete log problem.
- We can also use the group law on an elliptic curve to factor large numbers (Lenstra's algorithm).
- A deeper, more flexible sort of cryptosystem can be obtained from the “Weil pairing” on  $m$ -torsion points of an elliptic curve.

# Euclidean Algorithm for GCD

- Used to determine GCD of two positive integers

# Modular Arithmetic

# Introduction

- Modulo operations
  - $7 \bmod 4 = 3$
  - $-11 \bmod 7 = 3$
- Negative Modulus can be calculated using the formula
  - $-x \bmod y = y - (x \bmod y)$ 
    - if  $|x| \bmod y \neq 0$ , it works
    - if  $|x| \bmod y = 0$ , it fails

# Congruent modulo

- Two integers  $a$  and  $b$  are said to be congruent Modulo  $n$  if
  - $(a \bmod n) = (b \bmod n)$
  - This is written as,  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  or  $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$
  - E.g.  $73 \equiv 4 \pmod{23}$  means ...  $73 \bmod 23 = 4 \bmod 23$
- Properties of congruence
  - $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  if  $n \mid (a - b)$
  - $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  implies  $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$
  - if  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ 
    - then,  $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$

# Modular Arithmetic properties

- $(a + b) \bmod n = [(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)] \bmod n$
- $(a - b) \bmod n = [(a \bmod n) - (b \bmod n)] \bmod n$
- $(a \times b) \bmod n = [(a \bmod n) \times (b \bmod n)] \bmod n$ 
  - E.g. let  $a = 11, b = 15, n = 8$ 
$$\therefore (a \times b) \bmod n = (11 \times 15) \bmod n$$
$$165 \bmod 8 = 5$$
  - $[(a \bmod n) \times (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = [(11 \bmod 8) \times (15 \bmod 8)] \bmod 8$ 
$$= (3 \times 7) \bmod 8$$
$$= 21 \bmod 8$$
$$= 5$$

# Modular Arithmetic properties

- *if  $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$  ,  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  then,  $(x + a) \equiv (y + b) \pmod{n}$* 
  - E.g. *if  $17 \equiv 4 \pmod{13}$  ,  $42 \equiv 3 \pmod{13}$*
  - *then,  **$59 \equiv 7 \pmod{13}$  is true***
- *if  $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$  and  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  then,  $(x - a) \equiv (y - b) \pmod{n}$* 
  - *if  $42 \equiv 3 \pmod{13}$  ,  $14 \equiv 1 \pmod{13}$*
  - *then,  **$28 \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$  is true***

# Euler's Totient Function



# Introduction

- It is represented using *phi* as  $\phi(n)$  and may also be called Euler's phi function.
- Euler's totient function is defined as the no. of *+**ve* integers less than  $n$  that are coprime (having GDC 1) to  $n$ 
  - $n \geq 1$ 
    - $\phi(5) = \{1,2,3,4\}$
    - $\phi(6) = \{1,5\}$  no. of elements in these sets is totient function.
  - Two integers  $a, b$  are said to be relatively prime, mutually prime or coprime if the only if *+**ve* integer / factor that divides both of them is 1
    - Now, when  $n \rightarrow \text{prime}$   $\phi(n) = n - 1$ 
      - E.g.  $\phi(5) = 4$ ,  $\phi(23) = 23 - 1 = 22$
  - Also,  $\phi(a * b) = \phi(a) * \phi(b)$  [ $a$  &  $b$  should be coprime]
    - E.g.  $\phi(35) = \phi(7) * \phi(5) = 6 * 4 = 24$

# Totient Function Chart

$n$	$\phi(n)$	<i>nos. of coprime to <math>n</math></i>
1	1	1
2	1	1
3	2	1, 2
4	2	1, 3
5	4	1, 2, 3, 4
6	2	1, 5
7	6	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
8	4	1, 3, 5, 7
9	6	1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8
10	4	1, 3, 7, 9

# Euler's Theorem

Fermat-Euler Theorem or Euler's Totient Theorem

# Introduction

- Euler's theorem states that if  $x$  and  $n$  are coprime positive integers, then

$$x^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \bmod n$$

- where  $\phi(n) \rightarrow$  Euler's totient function

- It is a generalized version of Fermat's Theorem

- E.g. let  $x = 11, n = 10$  both are coprime

- $\therefore$  we can represent them as

$$11^{\phi(10)} \equiv 1 \bmod 10$$

$$11^4 \equiv 1 \bmod 10$$

$$14641 \equiv 1 \bmod 10$$

- Note,  $x^{\phi(n)a} \equiv 1 \bmod n$

- $11^{4*2} \equiv 1 \bmod 10$

# Numerical Example

- Solve by Euler's Theorem

- $4^{99} \bmod 35$

$$x = 4, n = 35$$

*By Euler's theorem,*

$$4^{\phi(35)} = 1 \bmod 35$$

$$4^{24} \equiv 1 \bmod 35 \dots \dots (1)$$

$$4^{99} \rightarrow 4^{24(4)} \cdot 4^3$$

$$\therefore 4^{99} \bmod 35 = 4^{24 \cdot 4 + 3} \bmod 35$$

$$= (4^{24})^4 \times 4^3 \bmod 35$$

$$= (4^{24})^4 \bmod 35 \times 4^3 \bmod 35$$

Type equation here.

$$\because (a \times b) \bmod n \equiv (a \bmod n)(b \bmod n)$$

$$= 1 \times 4^3 \bmod 35$$

$$= 64 \bmod 35 = 29$$

$$\therefore 4^{99} \bmod 35 = 29$$

# Fermat's Theorem

Fermat's Little Theorem

# Introduction

- It is special case of Euler's theorem
  - *If  $n$  is prime and ' $x$ ' is a +ve integer not divisible by  $n$  then*  
$$x^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}, \quad \phi(n) = n - 1$$
  
 *$n \rightarrow$  prime no.  
 $x$  is not divisible by  $n$*
  - *e.g.  $x = 3, n = 5$*   
$$3^{5-1} = 3^4 = 81$$
  
$$\therefore 81 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$$

# Euler's Theorem

- $x^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod n$
- $x^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod n \dots \dots \textit{Fermat's Theorem}$
- Another form of Fermat's Theorem
  - $x^n \equiv x \pmod n$



# Numerical solved by Fermat's Theorem

- $2^{16} \bmod 17$

*By Fermat's Theorem*

$$x^{n-1} \equiv 1 \bmod n$$

$$2^{17-1} \equiv 1 \bmod 17$$

$$2^{16} \equiv 1 \bmod 17$$

$$\therefore 2^{16} \bmod 17 = 1$$

# RSA Algorithm

# Introduction

- Rivest-Shamir-Adleman developed in 1978
- It is an asymmetric cryptographic algorithm (2 keys) i.e. public and private key concepts is used here.
- The acronym RSA is made from the initial letters of the surnames of Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir & Leonard Adleman.
- Public key: known to all users in network
- Private Key: Kept secret, not sharable to all

# Introduction...

- If public key of user A is used for encryption, we have to use the private key of same user for decryption.
- RSA scheme is a block cipher in which the plaintext and ciphertext are integers between 0 and  $n - 1$  for some value  $n$ .

# Key Generation

- Select 2 large prime numbers ' $p$ ' and ' $q$ '
- Calculate  $n = p * q$
- Calculate  $\phi(n) = (p - 1) * (q - 1) \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots$  *Euler's Totient  $F^n$*
- Choose value of  $e$   
 $1 < e < \phi(n)$  and  $\gcd(\phi(n), e) = 1$
- Calculate  
$$d \equiv e^{-1} \text{ mod } \phi(n)$$
$$\text{i.e. } ed \equiv 1 \text{ mod } \phi(n)$$
- Public key :  $\{e, n\}$
- Private Key:  $\{d, n\}$

# Encryption & Decryption

- Plaintext =  $M < n$ ,  $C = \text{Ciphertext}$

- Encryption

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

- Decryption

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

- Note

- $(e, n)$  is public key used in encryption
- $(d, n)$  is private key used for decryption

# Chinese Remainder Theorem

# Introduction

- Chinese remainder theorem states that there always exists an “x” that satisfies the given congruence.

$$x \equiv rem[0](mod\ num[0])$$

$$x \equiv rem[1](mod\ num[1])$$

... ..

*and (num[0], num[1], ... .., num[m  
– 1]) all must be coprime to one another*



# Examples

- *e.g 1:  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}, x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$ ;*
  - *here 5 and 7 are coprime we have to find this  $x = 31$*
- *e.g.  $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}, x \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$* 
  - $\gcd(3, 4) = \gcd(4, 5) = \gcd(3, 5) = 1$   
*hence they coprime and then only  $x$  exists  
here,  $x = 11$*

# Question

- If we have  $N$  books and if we divide it in 5 students remainder=3 and if we divide it in 4 students books left = 2, so find the no. of books?

- As per Chinese remainder theorem

if,

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

$$x \equiv a_3 \pmod{m_3}$$

(i)  $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = \gcd(m_2, m_3) = \gcd(m_3, m_1) = 1$  i.e all are coprime

$$(ii) x = (M_1 X_1 a_1 + M_2 X_2 a_2 + M_3 X_3 a_3 + \cdots + M_n X_n a_n) \pmod{M}$$

$$M = m_1 * m_2 * m_3 \dots \dots m_n$$

$$M_i = \frac{M}{m_i}$$

$$\therefore M_1 = m_2 m_3; \quad M_2 = m_1 m_3; \quad M_3 = m_1 m_2$$

# Continued...

- To calculate  $X_i$

$$M_i X_i \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i}$$

$$e.g. M_1 X_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1}$$

# Diffie-Hellman Key exchange Algorithm

# Introduction

- It is not an encryption algorithm
- It is used to exchange the secret keys between 2 users
- We will use asymmetric encryption to exchange the secret key b/w users
- Why to use algorithm
  - Because when we are sending a key to receiver, it can be attacked in between

# Algorithm

- Consider a prime number ' $q$ '
- Select ' $\alpha$ ' such that it must be the primitive root of ' $q$ ' and  $\alpha < q$   
*' $a$ ' is a primitive root of  $q$  if*  
 $a \bmod q$   
 $a^2 \bmod q$   
 $a^3 \bmod q \dots \dots \dots a^{q-1} \bmod q$   
*gives results  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, q-1\}$*   
*i.e values should not be repeated &*  
*we should have all values in the set from 1 to  $q-1$*

# Algorithm continued...

Note:  $X \rightarrow$  private key of user;  $Y \rightarrow$  public key of user

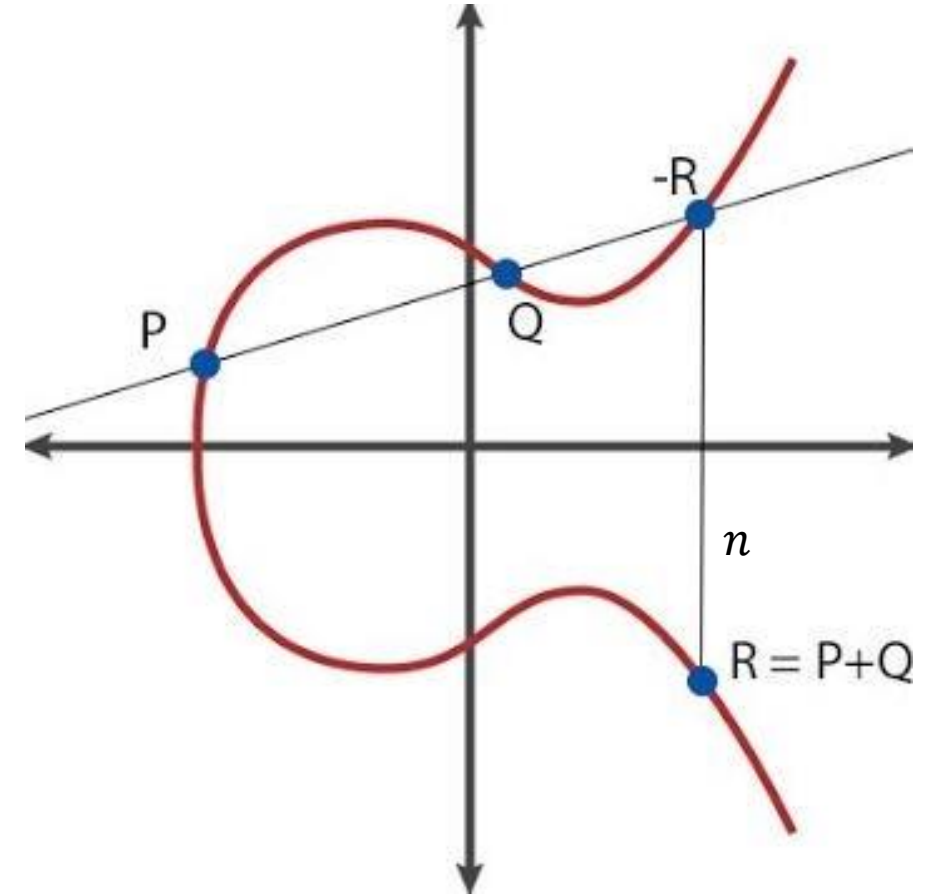
- Assume  $X_A$  (private key) and  $X_A < q$  of A  
Calculate  $Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \bmod q \rightarrow$  public key of A
- Assume  $X_B$  (private key of B) and  $X_B < q$   
Calculate  $Y_B = \alpha^{X_B} \bmod q \rightarrow$  public key of B
- Now to calculate the secret key both the sender & receiver will use public keys
$$K_1 = (Y_B)^{X_A} \bmod q \quad K_2 = (Y_A)^{X_B} \bmod q$$
- $K_1 = K_2$ ; then we say exchange is successful.

# Elliptic Curve Cryptography



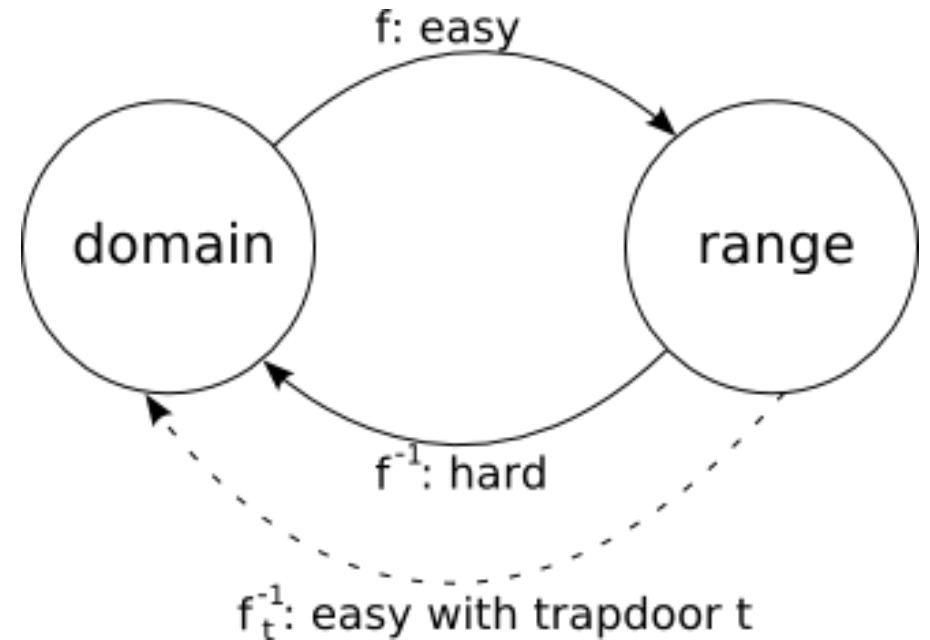
# Introduction

- It is asymmetric public key cryptosystem.
- It provides equal security with smaller key size (as compared to RSA) as compared to non ECC algos. i.e. small key size and high security
- It makes us of Elliptic curves.
- Elliptic curves are defined by some mathematical functions cubic form  
e.g.  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$  →  
*equation of degree 3*



# Trapdoor Function

- It is a function that is easy to compute in one direction, yet difficult to compute in the opposite direction (finding its inverse) without special information, called the trapdoor.



# Algorithm

- Let  $E_p(a, b)$  be the elliptic curve

Consider the equation,

$$Q = KP; \text{ where } Q, P \text{ are points on curve \& } K < n$$

- If  $K$  and  $P \rightarrow \text{given}$ , it should be easy to find  $Q$  but if we know  $Q$  and  $P$ , it should be extremely difficult to find  $K$ .

This is called the discrete logarithm problem for elliptic curves. And it is a one way function i.e. trapdoor function.

# ECC - Algorithm

## ECC – Key Exchange

- Global Public Elements
  - $E_q(a, b)$  : elliptic curve with parameters  $a, b$  and  $q$  (prime no. or an integer of the form  $2^m$ )
  - $G$  : Point on the elliptic curve whose order is large value of  $n$
- User  $A$  key generation
  - Select private key  $n_A, n_A < n$
  - calculate public key  $P_A, P_A = n_A \times G$
- User  $B$  key generation
  - Select private key  $n_B, n_B < n$
  - calculate public key  $P_B, P_B = n_B \times G$

# ECC – Algorithm continues...

- Calculation of secret key by user  $A$ 
  - $K = n_A \times P_B$
- Calculation of secret key by user  $B$ 
  - $K = n_B \times P_A$

# ECC Encryption

- Let the message be  $M$
- First encode this message  $M$  into a point on elliptic curve.
- Let this point be  $P_m \rightarrow$  *This point is encrypted*  
for encryption chose a random positive integer  $k$
- The Cipher point will be  
 $C_m = \{kG, P_m + kP_B\}$  , for encryption public key of  $B$  is used  
this point will be sent to the receiver

# ECC - Decryption

- For decryption, multiply 1<sup>st</sup> point in the pair with receiver's secret key i.e.  $kG \times n_B$ , for decryption private key of  $B$  used
- Then subtract it from 2<sup>nd</sup> point in the pair i.e.  
$$P_m + kP_B - (KG * n_B)$$

*but we know  $P_B = n_B \times G$*

$$\text{So, } = P_m + kP_B - kP_B = P_m \text{ (original point)}$$
- So, Receiver gets the same point.