Course: Modern Cryptography

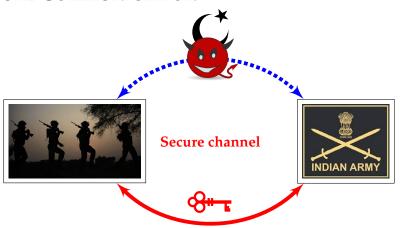
Prerequisite: Public-Key Revolution

Shashank Singh

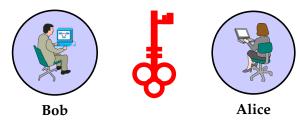
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SECURE COMMUNICATION



PRIVATE KEY CRYPTOGRAPHY



- ► A secret key is needed, which is shared in advance between the communicating parties, using some secured channel.
- ► The two parties later leverage this key to communicate securely over a public channel, using Private Key Encryption schemes.
- ► How does the two parties establish the secret key *k*?

1. Point-to-point Key Distribution



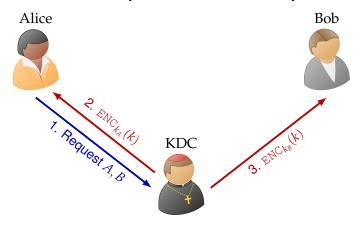
- Using a trusted courier.
- Meeting in person.
- A SIM card that contains an authentication key¹.

None of the above methods are practical for large scale application.

https://cryptography101.ca/crypto101-building-blocks/

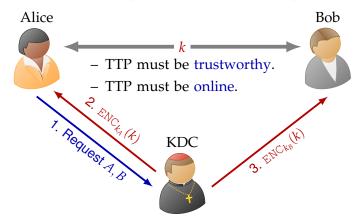
2. Using a Trusted Third Party (TTP)

A trusted third party T serve as a Key Distribution Center (KDC) and each user, say Alice, shares a secret key k_A with T.



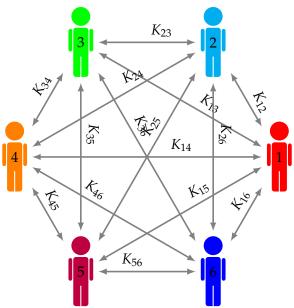
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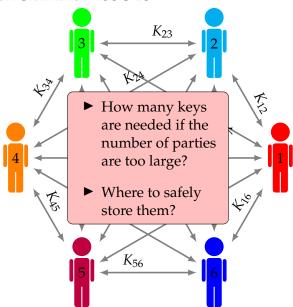


The TTP is a critical reliablity point and hence it is an attractive target.

KEY MANAGEMENT ISSUES



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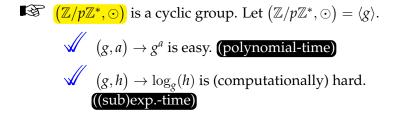


Non-repudiation is not Guaranteed

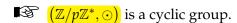
- The non-repudiation is an importation security notion.
- Non-repudiation is the property of agreeing to adhere to an obligation. It is the inability to refute previous actions or commitments.
- In case of secret key encryption schemes, it the property of sender inability to deny being the source of a message.
- o Clearly, it is not guaranteed in the secret key cryptography.

- ► We will soon see how a simple mathematical tool helps us solve this problem.
- ► At this point, please take a pause and consider if it is possible to share a secret key using a channel that is completely insecure.

FINITE CYCLIC GROUPS AND DLP



A FINITE CYCLIC GROUP: A TOY EXAMPLE



 $\begin{array}{c} p =& 12462036678171878406583504460810659043482037465167\\ 88057548187888832896668011882108550360395702725087\\ 47509864768438458621054865537970253930571891217684\\ 31828636284694840530161441643046806687569941524699\\ 3185704183030512549594371372159029285303 \end{(795-bits)}\\ g =& 5 \end{array}$

EXPONENTIATION IN A FINITE CYCLIC GROUP

h = 774356626343973985966622216 006087686926705588649958206 166317147722421706101723470351970238538755049093424997





It took Emmanuel Thomé at INRIA, France and his colleagues about 3100 CPU-years to compute $\log_g(h)$.

A TOY EXAMPLE..

- The value of logarithm, they got is the following.
- $\ell = 926031359281441953630949553317328555029610991914376116$ 167294204758987445623653667881005480990720934875482587 528029233264473672441500961216292648092075981950622133 668898591866811269289825060051277283214267512441114123 71767375547225045851716



How much time does it take to compute g^{ℓ} in $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$?

– about O(795) multiplications modulo p.

MODULAR EXPONENTIATION

SQUARE AND MULTIPLY METHOD

$$a^{170} \pmod{p} = a^{0b10101010} \pmod{p}$$

MODULAR EXPONENTIATION

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$$a^{170} \pmod{p} = a^{0b10101010} \pmod{p}$$

$$a^{170} = (a^{85})^2 = (a^{0b1010101})^2 \mod p$$

$$a^{85} = (a^{42})^2 \cdot a = (a^{0b101010})^2 \cdot a \mod p$$

$$a^{42} = (a^{21})^2 = (a^{0b10101})^2 \mod p$$

$$a^{21} = (a^{10})^2 \cdot a = (a^{0b1010})^2 \cdot a \mod p$$

$$a^{10} = (a^5)^2 = (a^{0b101})^2 \mod p$$

$$a^5 = (a^2)^2 \cdot a = (a^{0b101})^2 \cdot a \mod p$$

$$a^2 = (a)^2 = (a^{0b10})^2 \cdot a \mod p$$

$$a^1 = 1 \cdot a = 1 \cdot a \mod p$$

Complexity?

MODULAR EXPONENTIATION..

```
Algorithm 1: Square-and-Multiply(a, n, p)
       Input: a, n, p
                         // a = a \pmod{p}; n = n \pmod{(p-1)}
       Output: a^n \pmod{p}
       res \leftarrow 1
       n = (n_t \dots n_1 n_0)_2
       for i = t to 0 do
           res \leftarrow res^2 \pmod{p}
                                                                 // Square
           if n_i = 1 then
             |\operatorname{res} \leftarrow \operatorname{res} \cdot a \pmod{p}
                                                              // Multiply
       return res
```

DLP

- ▶ There are cyclic groups (other than $(\mathbb{Z}_p^*,)$), such as the group of elliptic curves over the finite fields where the time complexity of solving DLP is exponetial time.
- ► Hence we can assume there exists finite cyclic groups where solving DLP is infeasible.

Discrete Logarithm (Inverse of Exponentiation)

Let $E(\mathbb{F}_p) = \langle P \rangle$, where p is a prime, be a group of points of a elliptic curve over the finite field \mathbb{F}_p . Given $Q \in E(\mathbb{F}_p)$, it is very difficult to compute $\log_P(Q)$. For an elliptic curve group of order q, the best known algorithm to compute the value of e, requires $\mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{q}\right)$ group operations.

$$\mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{q}\right) \approx \left(2^{128}\right)$$
 (1)

DIFFIE HELLMAN PROBLEM

Diffie Hellman Problem

Given a Cryptographic group G, with a generator g and group order g,

- ▶ it is hard to compute g^{ab} , given g^a and g^b .
 - ▶ One way to do is to solve DLP first.
 - ► It is believed to be as hard as the DLP.

RSA PROBLEM AND FACTORISATION PROBLEM

Let

$$n = p \times q$$
 and $p \neq q$

where *p* and *q* are odd primes roughly equal to \sqrt{n} .

Factorisation Problem

Given n, it is computationally hard to find p or q.

RSA Problem (RSAP)

Given the group of units modulo n i.e., $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$ and a positive integer e such that $\gcd(e,(p-1)(q-1))=1$, and a random element $c \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$, find an integer m such that $m^e \equiv c \pmod{n}$.

Note that

$$|(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*| = \phi(n) = (p-1) \cdot (q-1) \tag{2}$$

The RSA problem, the problem of factoring n and the problem of computing Euler's Totient $\phi(n)$ are computationally equivalent.

The state-of-the-art algorithm for factoring n is the Number Field Sieve (NFS) algorithm.