

Quantum Computing and Post Quantum Cryptography

Quantum Computers can break RSA and ECC using Shor's algorithm, which efficiently solves factoring and discrete logarithm problems. To replace them post-quantum algorithm like lattice-based, hash-based and code-based cryptography are proposed. They resist quantum attacks because they rely on problems like learning with Errors (LWE) which remain hard even for quantum computers.

Q2

2. PRNG Code in python IT24620

import time, os

def prng(mod = 1000):

seed = int(time.time() * 1000)

+ os.getpid()

return (seed * 1103515245 + 12345) % mod

print(prng())

(Q3)

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Traditional vs Modern Symmetric cipher

Ans: Traditional cipher (Caesar, Vigenere)
use simple substitution and are easily broken by frequency analysis.

Modern cipher like AES {and} DES use complex, large key sizes and resist modern crypto analysis. AES is highly secure, while DES is weak today due to its short 56-bit key.

(Q-9)

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Actions on S_4 on 2-element subset

Ans: $\delta(\{a, b\}) = \{\delta(a), \delta(b)\}$

This is well defined because permutation map elements uniquely.

orbit of $\{1, 2\}$: all 2-subset \rightarrow size.

$$\binom{4}{2} = 6$$

Stabilizer: permutation fixing the set $\{1, 2\}$

\rightarrow size 4

$$|\text{orbit}| \cdot |\text{Stabilizer}| = 6 \cdot 4 = 24$$

Exercise (p-0)

$$\{(a)\}, \{(b)\} = \{(a, b)\}$$

2.

(0-5) (2-0)

IT-24820

Field $\text{GF}(2^2)$ using x^2+x+1

i) Multiplicative Group

$\text{GF}(2^2)$ has elements:

$$\{0, 1, \alpha, \alpha+1\}$$

The nonzero element from a group under multiplication because they have inverses.

ii) Cyclic Nature

The nonzero set has 3 elements:

$$\{1, \alpha, \alpha+1\}$$

A group of order 3 is always cyclic,

so $\text{GF}(2^2)$ is cyclic.

(Q-6)

(Z-6) IR-24620

Scalar matrices Normal subgroup in
 $GL(2, \mathbb{R})$

Ans: Scalar Matrices are of the
form

$$\lambda I, \lambda \neq 0$$

They form a subgroup since:

$$\text{closed: } (\lambda I)(\mu I) = (\lambda \mu)I$$

$$\text{Inverse: } (\lambda I)^{-1} = \lambda^{-1} I$$

Normality: for an $A \in GL(2, \mathbb{R})$

$$A(\lambda I)A^{-1} = \lambda (AA^{-1}) = \lambda I$$

with λ equals to A to prove A

Scalar matrices from a normal

subgroup.

factor group: $\text{GL}(2, \mathbb{F}) / \{\lambda I\}$

This is called projective linear group - $\text{PGL}(2, \mathbb{F})$.

$$(Q. 7) \quad \text{equation to} \quad \text{IT - 24620}$$

Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Ans: Public: prime p , generator g

Alice picks secret a , sends $g^a \pmod p$

Bob picks secret b , sends $g^b \pmod p$

Shared Key: $k = g^{ab} \pmod p$

Security relies on the Discrete Logarithmic problem.

Man-in-the-middle attack: Attacker intercepts and replaces keys
solved using authentication.

(Q-8) IT - 24620

Intersection of subgroups

Let $H_1, H_2 \leq G$

Then $H_1 \cap H_2$ is nonempty.

If $a, b \in H_1 \cap H_2$ then

$ab^{-1} \in H_1$ and $ab^{-1} \in H_2$

$ab^{-1} \in H_1 \cap H_2$

Thus intersection is, a subgroup

(a)

IT-20620

Ring \mathbb{Z}_n commutes commutative and
zero divisors.

Addition and multiplication mod n are
commutative:

$$a+b = b+a$$

$$ab = ba$$

\mathbb{Z}_n is commutative

zero divisors exists if n is composite.

Example in \mathbb{Z}_{12} : $2 \cdot 3 = 0 \pmod{6}$

\mathbb{Z}_n is a field if n is prime,

(Q10)

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DES and AES

Ans: DES is Insecure because:

- Key size only 56 bits.
- Vulnerable to brute force search.

AES solved with

- Larger keys: 128 / 192 / 256 bits
- Stronger structure against cryptanalysis.

So,

AES is modern secure replacement.

Differential Cryptanalysis

Resistance

i) DES Feistel Structure: DES

Feistel rounds provide diffusion but limited. S-box size makes it vulnerable.

ii) AES Resistance: AES uses:

→ Sub Bytes

→ ShiftRows + Mixcolumns

→ AddRoundKey.

Ques 72

(Q-12)

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Modular Inverse via Extended Euclidean
Algorithm

Algo:

Ans: If $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ then

$$ax + ny = 1$$

So, $a^{-1} \equiv x \pmod{n}$

RSA uses this to compute private key!

$$d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$$

Efficiency is crucial since RSA uses very large primes.

Ques - II

(Q-13)

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Block cipher Modes:

i) ECB Insecurity: ECB encrypts blocks independently $c_i = E_K(p_i)$

So identical plaintext block \rightarrow identical cipher-text blocks.

ii) CBC Recurrence Relation

Encryption: $c_i = E_K(p_i \oplus c_{i-1})$

Decryption: $p_i = D_K(c_i \oplus c_{i-1})$

(Q-14)

IT-24 L20

LFSR vulnerability

Ans: LFSR are linear.

$$S + K \xrightarrow{\text{exists}} +1$$

Known plaintext allows solving linear equations \rightarrow key recovery.

Mitigation \Rightarrow use non-linear combining functions or filter generators.

(Q-15)

One Time Pad:

i) Shannon perfect secrecy

$$P(M = m | C = c) = P(M = m)$$

Ciphertext gives no information.

ii) OTP proof:

$$\text{OTP encryption} \quad C \leftarrow M \oplus K$$

With uniform & randomly - Key :

$$P(c = c_i / M = m) = \frac{1}{2^k}$$

iii) Impractically:

- OTP requires:
 - extremely random
 - longest key & zerothess
- Key as long as message.
- Key must be truly random.
- Key cannot be reused.

$$(c = c_i)q = (c_i \neq c_j \text{ for } i \neq j)q$$

wp - 7 (S-16) IT - 29620

LCR First 5 numbers (seed $x_0 = 7$)

Ans: LCR: $x_{n+1} = (ax_n + c) \bmod m$

Example values: $a=5, c=3, m=16$

~~problem number 2 (78)~~

$$x_0 = 7$$

$$x_1 = (5 \cdot 7 + 3) \bmod 16 = 6$$

$$x_2 = (5 \cdot 6 + 3) \bmod 16 = 1$$

$$x_3 = (5 \cdot 1 + 3) \bmod 16 = 8$$

$$x_4 = (5 \cdot 8 + 3) \bmod 16 = 11$$

$$x_5 = (5 \cdot 11 + 3) \bmod 16 = 10$$

Five outputs are: 6, 1, 8, 11, 10

(Q 17)

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Ring definition:

A ring is a set R with two operations \circ and $*$ such that:

- (R, \circ) is an abelian group.
- Multiplication is associative.
- Distributive laws hold.

Example: \mathbb{Z}_m

Rings build finite field using:

$$GF(p^n) = \mathbb{Z}_p[x]/f(x)$$

RSA uses ring arithmetic \mathbb{Z}_n

~~(S=18)~~ IT-29628

RSA encrypt / decrypt ($P=5$, $q=11$)

Ans: $n = pq = 55$

$$\phi(n) = 4 \cdot 10 = 40$$

$$e = 3$$

$$\cancel{3d} \equiv 1 \pmod{40}$$

$$\text{Is there } b(m)d = 27$$

$$M = 2$$

Encryption: $c = M^e \pmod{n}$

$$= 2^3 \pmod{55}$$

$$= 8 \pmod{55}$$

Decryption: $M = c^d \pmod{n}$

$$= 8^{27} \pmod{55}$$

$$= 2$$

RSA signature ($p=7$, $q=3$)

$$n = 21 \quad \varphi(n) = 12$$

$$e = 5, \quad 25 \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$$

$$d = 5 \quad d \leq 5$$

$$\text{Hash } H(m) = 3$$

$$\text{Signature: } s = H(m)^d \pmod{n}$$

$$\equiv 3^5 \pmod{21}$$

$$= 12$$

$$\text{verify: } s^e \pmod{n}$$

$$\equiv 12^5 \pmod{21}$$

$$= 3$$

Euler (9-19) IT-2016-201
 Elliptic curve over $p = 23$
 $\text{curve} = y^2 = x^3 + x + 1$

i) $P(3, 10)$

$$\text{L.H.S} = 10 \stackrel{?}{=} 100 \pmod{23} = 8$$

$$\text{R.H.S} = 3^3 + 3 + 1 = 27 + 4 \pmod{23} = 8$$

So, P lies on curve.

ii) Doubling 2P

$$\text{slope: } \lambda = \frac{3x^2 + a}{2y} = \frac{3(9) + 1}{20} = \frac{28}{20} \pmod{23}$$

$$x_3 = \lambda^2 - 2x = 36 - 6 = 30 \pmod{23} \\ = 7$$

$$y_3 = \lambda(x - x_3) = 7 = 6(3 - 7) = -10 \\ = 12$$

$$\text{iii) } p+q \equiv 7-10 \pmod{23}$$

$$\lambda \equiv \frac{7-10}{9-3} \equiv \frac{-3}{6} \pmod{23}$$

$$1 + x + x^2 = 1 + \frac{1}{x} = \frac{x+1}{x} = 11$$

$$x_3 = 11^{\checkmark} - 3 - 9 = 109 \bmod 23$$

17

$$T_3 = 21(3 - 17) \equiv -10 \equiv -16 \pmod{3}$$

$$P+Q = (17, 20)$$

Estimated effect = 2 : 39012

(c) $g(20)$ IT-2016

RSA example ($\text{mod } 27, n = 19$)

Note private key $d = 9$

public key : $g = 2 G_2 = 9 \pmod{19}$

$$\text{order } 19 \quad (L-9) \quad = (8, 12)$$

hash : $H(m) = 8, k = 3$

$$r = (k G_2) \pmod{n} \quad (i)$$

$$k G_2 = 3 G_2 = (3, 9)$$

$$r = 3 \pmod{9} = 5$$

$$s = k^{-1} (H + dr) \pmod{n} \quad (ii)$$

$$= 3^{-1} \pmod{19} = 13$$

$$s = 13 (8 + 9 \cdot 5) = 13 \cdot (53) = 689 \pmod{19}$$

$$= 5$$

Signature: $T_1(r, s) = (5, 5)$

Verification uses $w = s^{-1}r, u_1, u_2$

$$l = b \text{ pop starting} = rw$$

(21) $l = 00110100110011001100110011001100$

(21) $=$

5(21) IT-29620

SHA hash properties:

- i) Secure hash characteristics.
 - Preimage resistance
 - Second preimage resistance
 - Collision resistance

- ii) Output length effect

SHA-256 gives:

→ Collision security $= 2^{128}$

→ Preimage security $= 2^{256}$

iii) Applications:

- Digital signature
- Blockchain integrity
- Password hashing

(Q-28) Date : 24/6/20

Galois Field in Cryptography

GF(p): integers mod prime p

GF(2^n): Polynomials mod irreducible polynomial

Used in elliptic curve arithmetic

→ ECC uses GF(2^8) in Mix columns.

→ AES

Field arithmetic ensures secure
algebra opened..

(Q-23)

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i) SVP: It finds shortest
non-zero lattice vector \rightarrow NP-hard
security basis for lattice schemes

ii) RSA / ECC

RSA / ECC broken by short
lattice problems remain hard
for quantum computers.

iii) Quantum vs lattice crypto

Quantum crypto uses physics
(QKD)

Lattice uses math hardness
assumptions.

(S-24) IT-24620

LFSR maximum period; If characteristic polynomial is primitive,
LFSR generates all non zero states.

Number of non zero states; $2^m - 1$

Thus maximum period; $T = 2^m - 1$

After so many steps of evolution.

(Q-25)

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i) LWE - Based signature

Process

1. Key Generation: choose secret vector s

2. Public key: noisy equation
 $As + c$

3. Sign: Sample short vector v
+ hash

4. Verify: Check lattice relation
holds.

ii) Signing steps

1. Hash message $H(M)$
2. Compute signature :
 $Z = s \cdot H(M) + \text{noise}$
3. verify : $A_2 = Pk \cdot H(M)$