

An Introduction to the Asymmetrical Cryptosystems

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<u>AGENDA</u>

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Discrete Logarithm Problem
- 3. RSA Cryptosystem
- 4. Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems
- 5. Lattice Cryptosystems
- 6. Comparisons of Asymmetrical Cryptosystems



Part 1: Introduction

- Definitions
- Cryptosystems, Asymmetrix
- Public Key Cryptosystems
- One way functions
- Trapdoor functions





CRYPTOLOGY

<u>In Greek</u> kruptos = hidden,

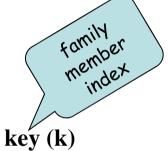
kruptein = to hide graphein = to write

- CRYPTOGRAPHY encryption, decryption
 - · CRYPTANALYSIS



A CRYPTOGRAPHIC SYSTEM

is a family \mathcal{T} of transformations on Plaintext and Ciphertext.

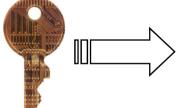


encryption

$$E(P) = C$$

decryption

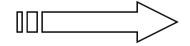
$$D(C) = P$$



$$E_k(P) = C$$

$$D_k(C) = P$$

Now;
$$E_k = D_k$$



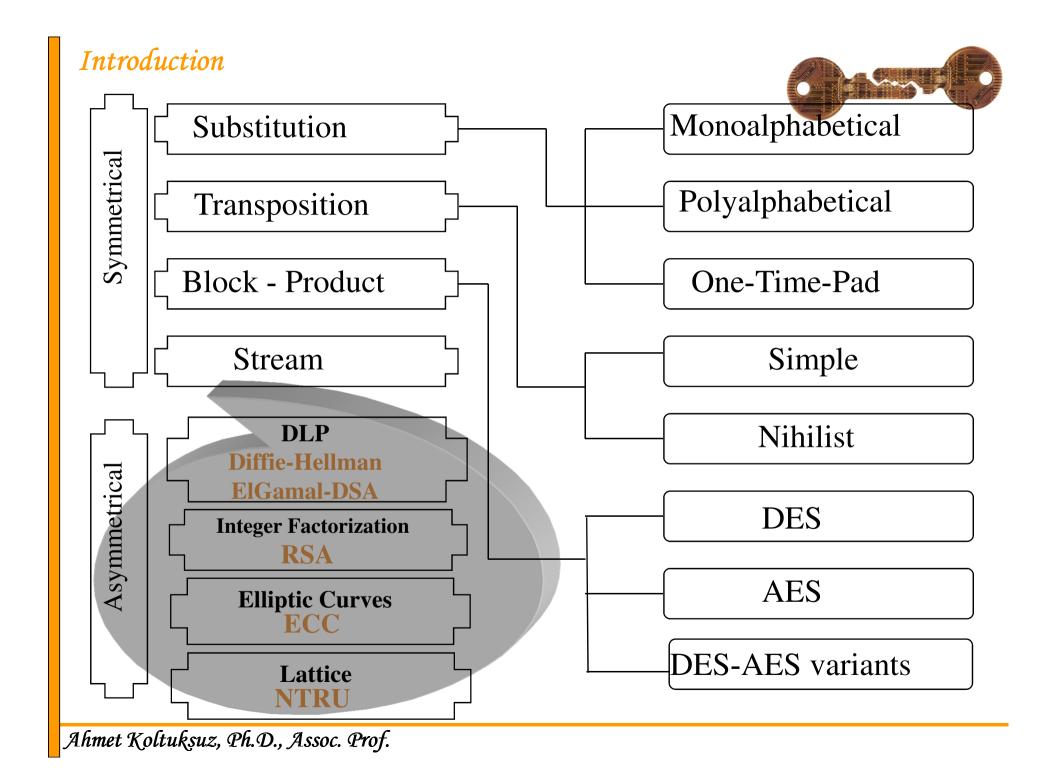
Symmetrical

$$E_k \neq D_k$$

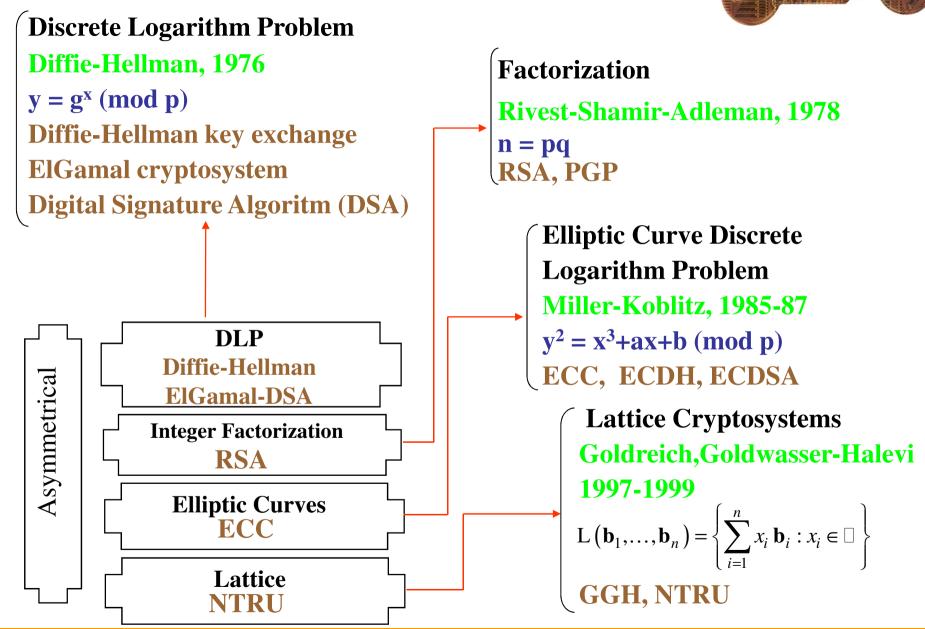


Asymmetrical

"Public Key Cryptosystems"







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Public Key Cryptography

- The idea: Differentiate between a (public) encryption key and a (secret) decryption key.
- Main Property: It should not be possible to retrieve the decryption key from the public key.

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Public Key Cryptography

- The public key cryptography is based on the theory of computational complexity.
- The running time of the encryption and decryption algorithms is a function of a security parameter k.
- The value of k is fixed when the system is initialized.
- An algorithm runs in *polynomial time* if its running time is bounded by a quantity that is polynomially related to k.



One-way functions:

- Informally: A one-way function is a function that is easy to compute but hard to invert.
- easy means that the function is computable in probabilistic polynomial time.
- hard means that the function is easy to invert only for a negligible fraction of the inputs.



One-way functions: A formal definition

A function $f: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$ is a one-way-function if

- 1. There exist an efficient algorithm that on input x computes f(x).
- 2. For every efficient algorithm A there is a negligible function μ_A such that for sufficiently large k

 $Pr[f(z)=y: x \in R \{0,1\}^k ; f(x)=y ; A(k,y)=z] \le \mu_A(k)$



Trapdoor functions: A definition

- Informally a trapdoor function is a one-way function with the additional property that it becomes easy to invert if & when some additional information (the trapdoor) is provided.
- it is possible to construct simple (but not completely secure) cryptosystems from trapdoor functions.



Trapdoor functions: A simplified example

Step #1. Bob publishes a trapdoor function f (but keeps secret the trapdoor sk).

Step #2. Alice encrypts a message m as c = f(m)

Step #3. Bob decrypts c by computing $f^{(-1)}(c) = m$ (using sk)



Part 2: Discrete Logarithm Problem

- DLP: The Definition
- Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange (DHKE)
 Algorithm
- El Gamal Cryptosystem



Discrete Logarithm Problem-DLP:

- 1. G is a finite group, and $g \in G$
- 2. Let p be a prime,

and Z_n^* denote the multiplicative group of integers modulo

a prime (
$$Z_p^* = \{1, 2, ..., p-1\}$$
)

3. Let g be a generator of Z_p^*

Then the function $DL[g](x) = g^x \pmod{p}$ is conjectured to

be one-way. Which means:

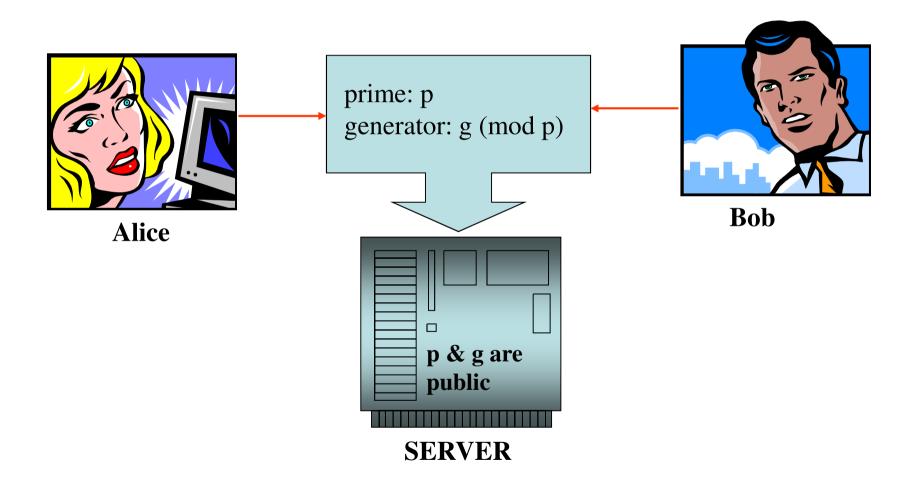
Given: $y = g^x \pmod{p}$, and g. Now; It seems computationally intractable to retrieve x



- 1. Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Algorithm
 - Primarily used for key exchange.
 - Two or more party can create their own keys independent of each other.
 - It is *not* a cryptosystem.
 - Based on DLP

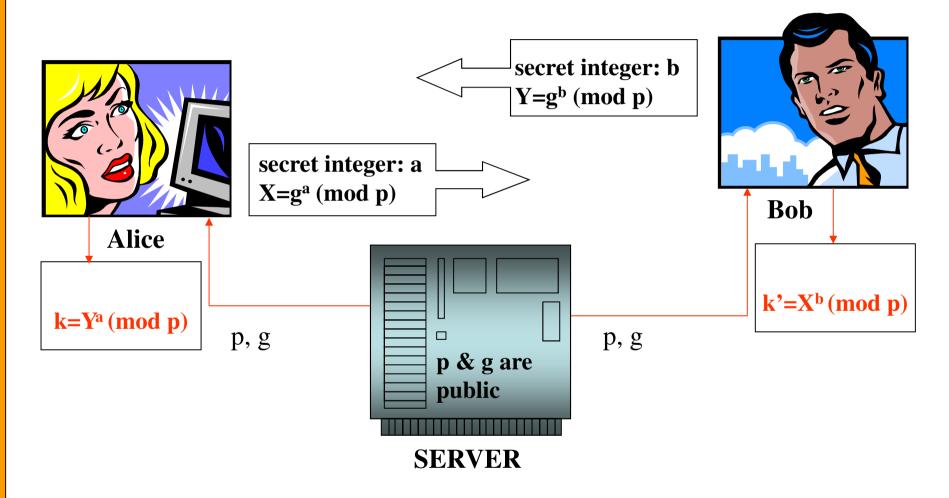


1. Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Algorithm



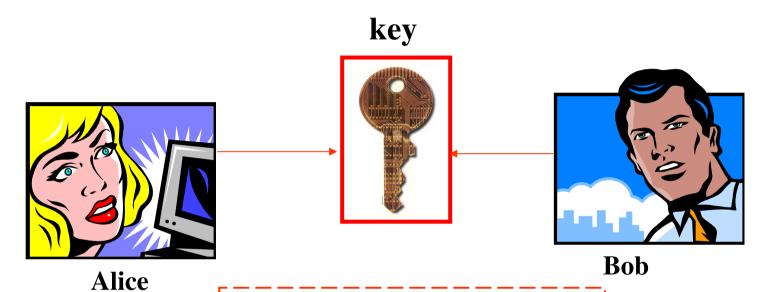


1. Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Algorithm





1. Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Algorithm



k=k' g^{ab} (mod p)

p,g,X,Y: public

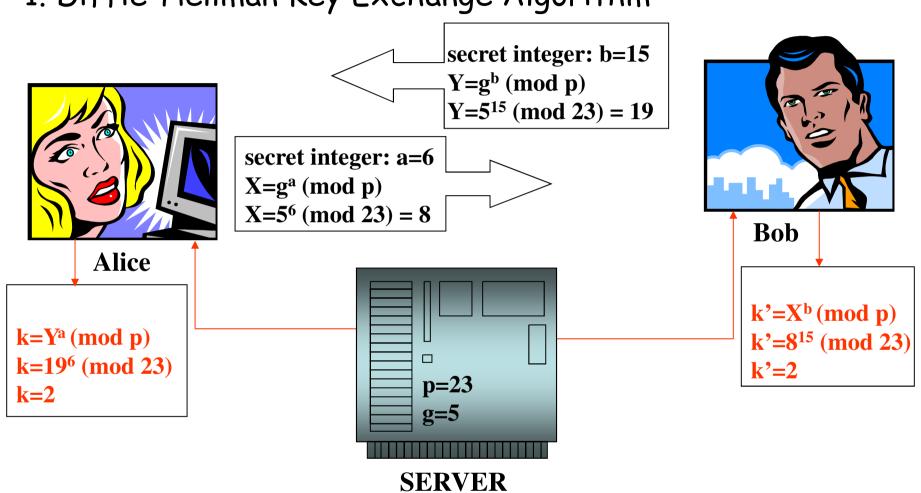
a, b: secret

k = k'; and created

independently by each party



1. Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Algorithm





2. ElGamal Cryptosystem

- Let p be a prime and $(Z_p^*, .)$
- Let generator $g \in Z_p^*$
- $K = \{ (p, g, a, \beta) : \beta = g^a (mod p) \}$
- p, g and β are the public key and a is the secret key.
- For $K = (p, g, a, \beta)$, and for a secret random number $k \in Z_{p-1}$ define

$$e_{K}(x, k) = (y_{1}, y_{2})$$

where $y_1 = g^k \pmod{p}$ and, $y_2 = x\beta^k \pmod{p}$

• For $y_1, y_2 \in Z_p^*$, define

$$d_K(y_1, y_2) = y_2(y_1^g)^{-1} \pmod{p}$$

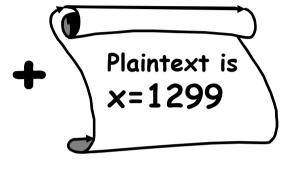


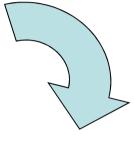
2. ElGamal Cryptosystem

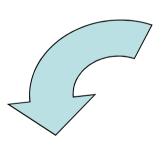
Sender chooses:

```
p=2579
g=2
a=765 and,
k=853 So,
```

 $\beta = 2^{765} \pmod{2579} = 949$







 $y_1 = 2^{853}$ (mod 2579) = 435 $y_2 = 1299 \times 949^{853}$ (mod 2579) = 2396 ciphertext: y=(435, 2396)



X = 2396 . $(435^{765})^{-1}$ (mod 2579) = 1299 which is the plaintext.

Receiver decrypts



Part 3: RSA Cryptosystem

- Rivest-Shamir-Adleman:RSA
- Formal Definition and Parameters
- The RSA protocol
- An Example for RSA Cryptosystem



RSA algorithm, one of the earliest and simplest public key cryptosystems, gets its strength from the difficulty of factoring large numbers.

The main arithmetic operation in the RSA cryptosystem is modular exponentiation,



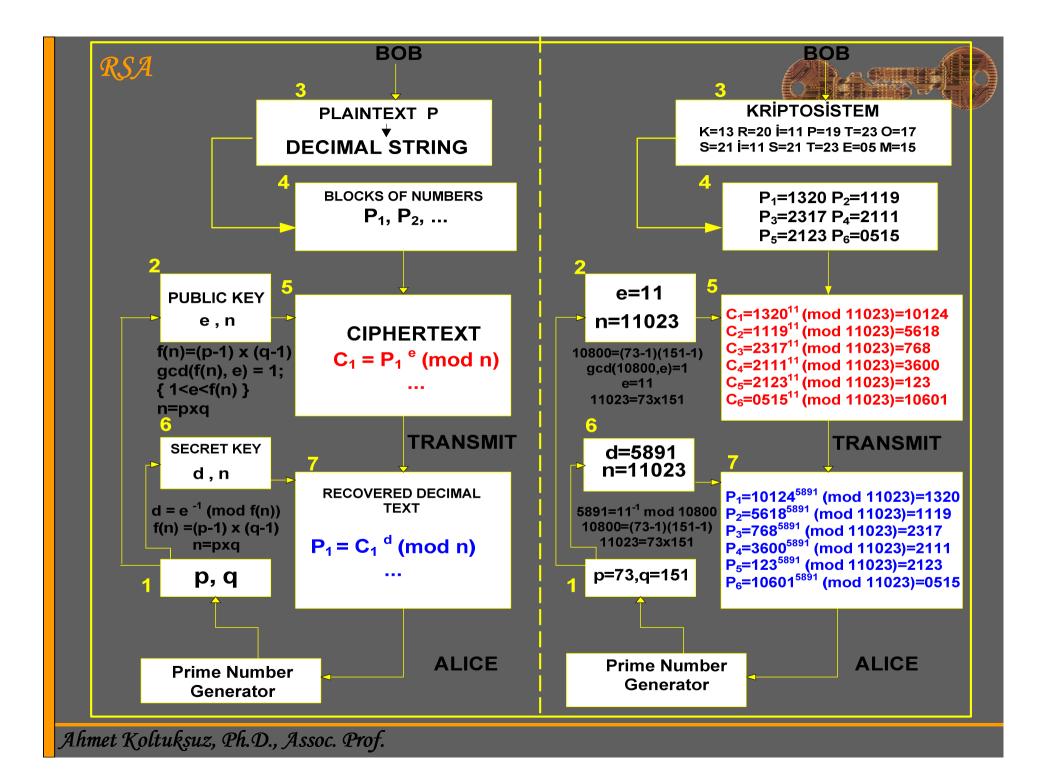


RSA Domain Parameters

<u>Parameters</u>	<u>Definition</u>
select p & q	p & q are both prime
$n = p \times q$	n is modulus
$\Phi(n) = (p-1) \times (q-1)$	Euler totient function
$gcd(\Phi(n), e) = 1; \{ 1 < e < \Phi(n) \}$	Find an integer e
$d \equiv e^{-1} \mod (\Phi(n))$	calculate d
k _p = {e, n }	Public key
$k_s = \{ d \}$	Secret key
e . d \equiv 1 (mod (Φ (n))	holds true

RSA Protocol

Encryption	<u>Decryption</u>
Plaintext: M < n	Ciphertext: C
Ciphertext: C = Me (mod n)	Plaintext: M=Cd (mod n)



Part 4: Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems

- Diophantine equations
- Weierstrass equation & sample elliptic curves
- Chord & tangent rule, point operations
- DLP-ECDLP
- ECC domain parameters & a protocol
- An example for the elliptic curve cryptosystem
- Elliptic Curve Diffie-Helmann (ECDH) Key Exchange
- Menezes-Qu-Vanstone (MQV) Key Exchange



Diophantine equations:

let a,b,c be integers where a, b \neq 0 and, let d=gcd(a,b) then the equation

has an integer solution x, y iff c is a multiple of d, in which case there are infinitely many solutions. The solution pairs are:

$$x = x_0 + \frac{bn}{d}, y = y_0 - \frac{an}{d}, (n \in \mathbb{Z})$$



Diophantine equations:

Examples:

Pythagora's famous theorem $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$

Fermat's 4^{th} degree equation $x^4 + y^4 = z^4$

 3^{rd} degree (Elliptic curve) equations $y^2 = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$



Weierstrass equation:

An elliptic curve E over a field K is defined by a Weierstrass equation

$$E : y^2 + a_1 x y + a_3 y = x^3 + a_2 x^2 + a_4 x + a_6$$

where $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_6 \in K$ and $\Delta \neq 0$,

where Δ is the discriminant of E and is defined as

$$\Delta = -d_2^2 d_8 - 8d_4^3 - 27d_6^2 + 9d_2 d_4 d_6$$

where

$$d_{2}=a_{1}^{2}+4a_{2}$$

$$d_{4}=2a_{4}+a_{1}a_{3}$$

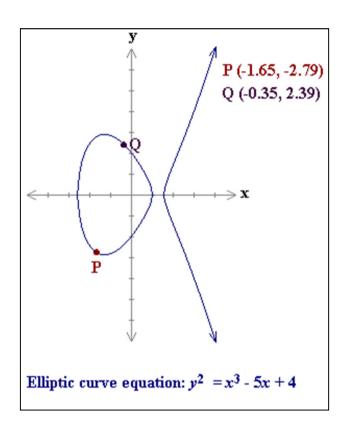
$$d_{6}=a_{3}^{2}+4a_{6}$$

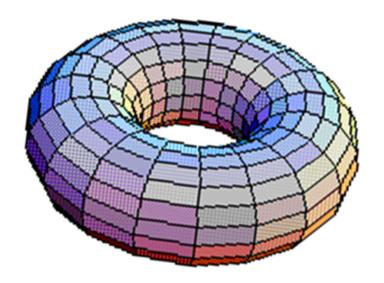
$$d_{8}=a_{1}^{2}a_{6}+4a_{2}a_{6}-a_{1}a_{3}a_{4}+a_{2}a_{3}^{2}-a_{4}^{2}$$

 $c_4=d_2^2-24d_4$ and $J(E)=c_4^3/\Delta$, since $\Delta \neq 0$, the elliptic curve E is non-singular



Example Elliptic Curves:







Suppose given E: $y^2 = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$ and we try to find (x,y) to solve the equation.

Now, the solutions would be in

- rational numbers,
- integers numbers and,
- · in a modula p where p is a prime

Example:

- let E : $y^2 = x^3 + 17$
- for this elliptic curve the solutions would be: (-2,3), (-1,4) and (2,5).
- · And, other than "trial-and-error" we could apply:

```
draw a tangent over P = (-2,3):

let slope = 1; then y - 3 = x + 2.

place the y = x + 5 in E to get y^2 = x^3 + 17 and, (x + 5)^2 = x^3 + 17

respectively, 0 = x^3 - x^2 - 10x - 8 = (x + 2)(x^2 - 3x - 4) and

roots are x = -1 and x = 4 for (x^2 - 3x - 4)

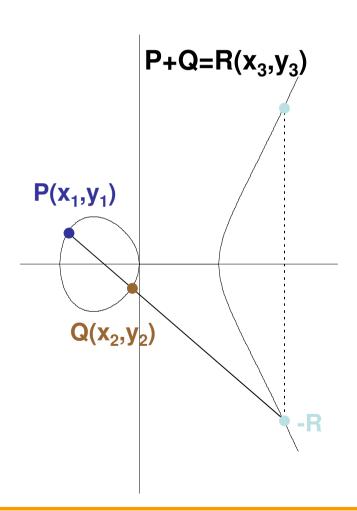
insert the values of x in y = x + 5 to get new y values
```

So new solution pairs would be: (-1,4) and (4,9).



Elliptic Curve Arithmetic:

- There is a rule, called the "chord-and-tangent" rule, for adding two points on an elliptic curve $E(F_p)$ to give a third elliptic curve point.
- With this addition operation, the set of points $E(F_p)$ forms a group with O serving as its identity.



"chord-and-tangent" rule:



- Let $P(x_1,y_1)$, $Q(x_2,y_2)$ and P, $Q \in E(F_p)$ where $P \neq \pm Q$ then
- 1. $P+Q=R(x_3,y_3)$
- 2. point doubling $2P=R(x_3,y_3)$
- respectively;

let λ is the slope of the line:

- 1. if $x_1=x_2$ (point doubling) then $\lambda = (3x_1^2+a)/2y_1$, for prime fields the elliptic equation becomes $y^2 = x^3 + ax^2 + bx$ hence where the a is coming from.
- 2. otherwise $\lambda = (y_2-y_1)/(x_2-x_1)$ thus the related coordinates are

$$x_3 = \lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2$$

 $y_3 = \lambda(x_1 - x_3) - y_1$

Example "chord-and-tangent" rule:

- Let p=23, where p is a prime
- E: $y^2 = x^3 + x + 4$ defined over F_{23}
- Let P(7,3) and Q(8,8) then $P+Q=R(x_3,y_3)$ is computed as:

$$\lambda = (y_2-y_1)/(x_2-x_1) = (8-3)/(8-7) = 5$$

$$x_3 = \lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2 = (5)^2 - 8 - 7 = 25 - 15 = 10 = 10 \pmod{23}$$

$$y_3 = \lambda(x_1 - x_3) - y_1 = 5.(7-10) - 3 = -18 = 5 \pmod{23}$$

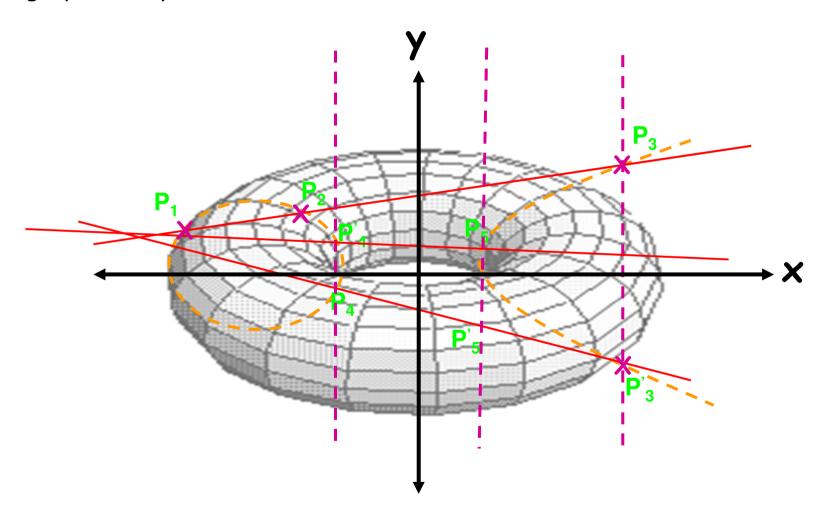
Hence
$$P + Q = R(10,5)$$
.

control: $10^3+10+4 \equiv 2 \pmod{23}$ and $5^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{23}$

Elliptic Curves

Example "chord-and-tangent" rule:

A graphical representation



Elliptic Curves

Point operations:

- Let p=23, where p is a prime
- E: $y^2 = x^3 + x + 4$ defined over F_{23}
- let a=1 and b=4 then the discriminant is
- $\Delta E = 4a^3 + 27b^2 = 4(1)^3 + 27(4)^2 = 22 \pmod{23}$, thus
- · E is indeed an elliptic curve.
- So the valid points on $E(F_{23})$:

(0,1)	(0,21)	(1,11)	(1,12)	(4,7)	(4,16)	(7,3)	(7, 20)	(8,8)	(8,15)
(9,11)	(9,12)	(10,5)	(10,18)	(11,9)	(11,14)	(13,11)	(13,12)	(14,15)	(14,18)
(15,16)	(15,17)	(17,9)	(17,14)	(18,9)	(18,14)	(22,5)	(22,19)		

Elliptic Curves



Point operations:

- In order to find new points on E drawing a line from the known points is the essential approach.
 Thus one can find infinite number of points.
- let p is a prime
- let E: $y^2 = x^3 + x \pmod{p}$ defined over F_p
- the number of points for different p primes are:

p	points on E :y²=x³+x (mod p)	N _D
2	(0,0), (1,0)	2
3	(0,0), (2,1), (2,2)	3
5	(0,0), (2,0), (3,0)	3
7	(0,0), (1,3), (1,4), (3,3), (3,4), (5,2), (5,5)	7
13	(0,0), (2,6), (2,7), (3,2), (3,11), (4,4), (4,9), (5,0), (6,1), (6,12),(7,5),(7,8),(8,0), (9,6), (9,7), (10,3), (10,10), (11,4), (11,9)	19
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DLP-ECDLP



Let
$$F_p^* = \{1,2,...,p-1\}$$
 denote the multiplicative group of integers modulo a prime.

Let
$$g \in F_p^*$$

Then the DLP is:

Given
$$y \in F_p^*$$

Find the integer a such that $y=g^a$ while y and g are known!

A very hard problem!!!

- Let P is a point on E having an order of n and let Q is another point on E.
- Now, Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem-ECDLP is to find an integer k such that Q = kP where 0<k<n-1

And it is a problem since there is no known method of finding it like index calculus for DLP, ECDLP is infinitely more complicated than DLP in finite fields.



1. Domain parameters

- · let GF be a finite Galois field.
- let E(x) be an elliptic curve defined over GF, and P is a point defined on E.
- GF, E(x), P and Z_p public!

2. Key generation

- generate a random number k where $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$
- · calculate Q = k.P

Now;

point Q is the public key. k is the secret key.



Encryption

- receiver's public key: Q
- message m gets broken into (m_1, m_2) pairs such that $m_1 \in GF$, $m_2 \in GF$
- select a random integer a such that $a \in Z_{p-1}$
- calculate point $(x_1,y_1) = \alpha P$
- calculate point $(x_2, y_2) = aQ$
- $(m_1 \text{ and } m_2)$ and $(x_2 \text{ and } y_2)$ field elements are combined into $(c_1 \text{ and } c_2)$ field elements
- Send data $m_e = (x_1, y_1, c_1, c_2)$ to receiver



Decryption

· Receive the message from the sender:

$$m_e = (x1, y1, c1, c2)$$

- calculate the (x2, y2)=k(x1, y1) by using k of which known only by the receiver
- · decrypt m₁ and m₂ by m_e

Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems: An Example

	DOMAIN PARAMETERS				
Steps	Parameter	Definition			
1	F ₁₁	q=11 and is a prime number which defines the finite Galois field (GF)			
2	E: y ² =x ³ +x+6 and # <i>E</i> (<i>F</i> ₁₁) = n = 13	a=1, b=6 and the order of the elliptic curve is 13 over F ₁₁ .			
3	Determine r = 13	r is a prime divisor of $\#E(Fq)$, r should be the largest prime factor.			
4	Determine k = 1	k is a cofactor			
5	$G \in \mathcal{E}(Fq)$ of order n , $G=(2,7)$	Determine the base point G on E			
	$P=(2,7)$, $2P=(5,2)$, $3P=(8,3)$, $4P=(10,2)$, $5P=(3,6)$, $6P=(7,9)$, $7P=(7,2)$, $8P=(3,5)$, $9P=(10,9)$, $10P=(8,8)$, $11P=(5,9)$, $12P=(2,4)$ The selected base point is $(2,7)$ and the other points on the curve are generated from this base until point at infinity $(x,0)$ is reached through point addition and doubling operations. This operation defines the order of points on the curve and define a new field over F_{11} .				
	Announce the domain parameters : D(q, E, G, n,a,b)=(11, y²=x³+x+6, (2,7), 13, 1, 6)				
6	<i>W</i> ∈ <i>E</i> (<i>Fq</i>)	Public key			
7	$s \in [1, 12]$ and $s = 7$	Secret key			
8	W=sG, W=7.(2,7)=(7,2)	Should be on the curve and different from point at infinity			

Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems: An Example



	PROTOCOL					
Steps	Encryption	Decryption				
1	The plaintext message m_p is identified with a point on the curve, such as m_p =(10,9).	Receive the message from the sender: $me = (x_1, y_1, c_1, c_2) = ((8,3), (10,2))$				
2	select a random integer α , such that 1< α <13, α =3	calculate $(x_2, y_2) = s(x_1, y_1) = 7.(8,3)$ s is the receiver's secret key and is known only by the receiver.				
3	Calculate point (x1,y1) = 3.(2,7)=(8,3) calculate point (x2, y2)= 3.(7,2) =(3,5)	$ (m1,m2) = (c_1,c_2) - (x_2, y_2) \ (mod \ n) $ $ (m1,m2) = (10,2) - 7.(8,3) \ (mod \ 13) $ $ (m1,m2) = (10,2) + 6.(8,3) \ (mod \ 13) $ $ (m1,m2) = (10,2) + (3,6) = (10,9) $ $ decrypt \ m1 \ and \ m2 \ by \ me $				
4	(c1, c2) = (m1, m2) + (x2,y2) (c1, c2) = (10,9) + (3,5) = (10,2)					
5	Send below data to receiver me = (x1, y1, c1, c2)=((8,3), (10,2))					

ECDH



Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman (ECDH) Key Exchange Algorithm

- Alice and Bob agrees upon to use a randomly chosen point P on curve E as a key plus on a methodology to convert that point to an integer.
- Now, E is an elliptic curve over Fq and P is a starting point on E.



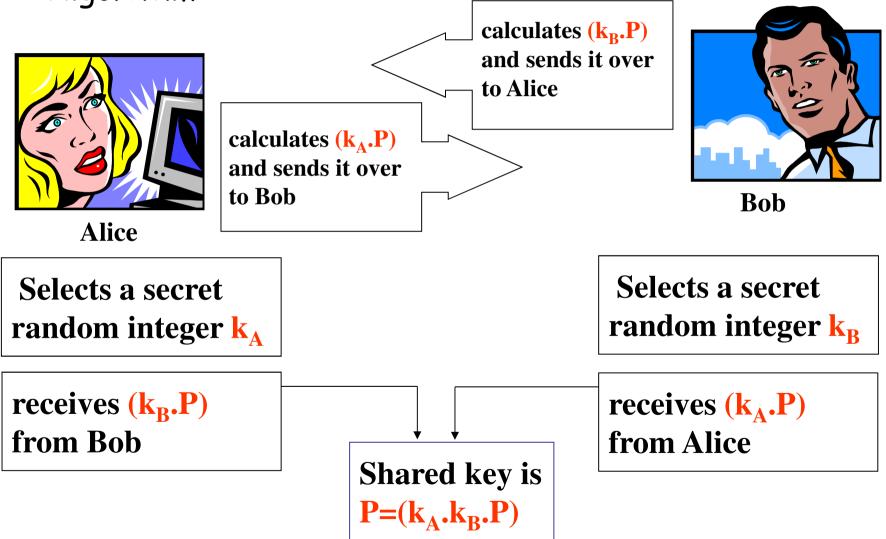
Alice



Bob

ECDH





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ECDH



Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman (ECDH) Key Exchange Algorithm



let p is a prime, p=13 let E: $y^2=x^3+x \pmod{p}$ Let P=(2,7)



Bob

Alice

$$k_A=2$$

 $(k_B.P)=7(2,7)$ =(6,1)

$$k_B=7$$

Shared key is

$$P=(k_A.k_B.P)$$

$$P=(14(2,7))=(10,10)$$



Elliptic Curve Menezes-Qu-Vanstone (ECMQV) Key Exchange Algorithm

- MQV (Menezes-Qu-Vanstone) is an authenticated protocol for key agreement based on the Diffie-Hellman scheme.
- The protocol can be modified to work in an arbitrary finite group, and, in particular, elliptic curve groups, where it is known as elliptic curve MQV (ECMQV).
- MQV was initially proposed by Menezes, Qu and Vanstone in 1995. It was modified by Law and Solinas in 1998.
- There are one-, two- and three-pass variants.



Elliptic Curve Menezes-Qu-Vanstone (ECMQV) Key Exchange Algorithm

- MQV is incorporated in the public-key standard IEEE P1363.
- MQV has some (alleged) weaknesses that were (allegedly) fixed by HMQV in 2005.
- ECMQV is also specified by the National Security

 Agency as part of the "Suite B" set of cryptographic

 standards for securing US Federal government

 communications up to the TOP SECRET classification.

ECMQV

Elliptic Curve Menezes-Qu-Vanstone (ECMQV) Key Exchange Algorithm. ANSI X9-42

Steps are as follows:

- 1. (p, q, g): a set of domain parameters.
- 2. y_V : V's static public key, an element in GF(p).
- 3. x_U : U's static private key, an integer.
- 4. t_v : V's ephemeral public key, an element in GF(p).
- 5. r_U : U's ephemeral private key, an integer.
- 6. t_U : U's ephemeral public key, an element in GF(p).
- 7. w: an integer, w = ||q||/2.
- Input: $(p, q, g), x_U, y_V, r_U, t_U, t_V, w$.
- Output: Z.

ECMQV



Elliptic Curve Menezes-Qu-Vanstone (ECMQV) Key Exchange Algorithm: ANSI X9-42

ACTIONS

$$t_U = t_U \pmod{2^w} + 2^w$$

$$S_U = (r_U + t_U x_U) \bmod q$$

$$t_V = t_V \pmod{2^w} + 2^w$$

$$Z = t_V (y_V \wedge \overline{t_V}) \wedge S_U \bmod p$$

Output:

Z



Part 5: Lattice Cryptosystems

- Lattice Theory
- Hard Problems
- NTRU Lattice
- Quotient Polynomial Ring
- The NTRU Cryptosystem
- An Example

Lattice Theory



L
$$(\mathbf{b}_{1}, ..., \mathbf{b}_{n}) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \mathbf{b}_{i} : x_{i} \in \mathbf{Z} \right\}$$

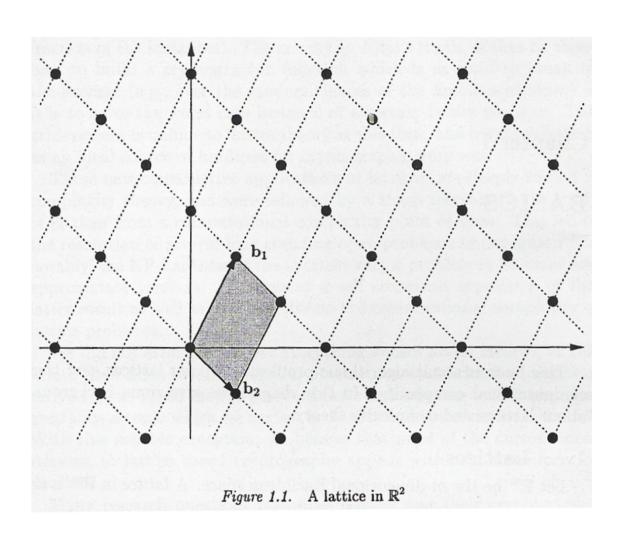
 $B = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n\}$ is the *lattice basis* in \mathbb{R}^m .

m: dimension of the lattice

n: rank of the lattice

Lattice Theory





Lattice Hard Problems



 The Shortest Vector Problem (SVP)
 Finding the lattice vector which has the smallest norm / length.

• The Closest Vector Problem (CVP)
Finding the lattice vector which has
the smallest distance to a given
target vector.

Lattice Hard Problems



 CVP and SVP also have approximate forms.

· These problems are NP-Complete.

NTRU Lattice



$$L_{CML} = rowspan \begin{bmatrix} b\mathbf{I} & \mathbf{H} \\ \mathbf{0} & q\mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} h_0 & h_1 & \dots & h_{n-1} \\ h_{n-1} & h_0 & \dots & h_{n-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h_1 & h_2 & \dots & h_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Quotient Polynomial Ring



$$R = Z \left[x \right] / \left(x^n - 1 \right)$$

$$f = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f_i x^i = [f_0, f_1, ..., f_{n-1}]$$

Quotient Polynomial Ring



- Addition
 - Traditional polynomial addition. (add up the coefficients)
- Multiplication
 - Star Multiplication (Convolution Product)

$$h = f * g$$

$$h_k = \sum_{i=0}^k f_i g_{k-i} + \sum_{i=k-1}^{n-1} f_i g_{n+k-i} = \sum_{i+j \equiv k \pmod{n}} f_i g_j$$

Quotient Polynomial Ring



· Example

$$N = 3$$
, $\alpha = 2 - x + 3x^2$, $b = 1 + 2x - x^2$

$$a + b = 3 + x + 2x^{2}$$

$$a * b = 2 + 3x - x^{2} + 7x^{3} - 3x^{4}$$

$$= 2 + 3x - x^{2} + 7 - 3x$$

$$= 9 - x^{2}$$



Domain Parameters

- n max degree; n is prime
- p small modulus
- q large modulus with gcd(p,q) = 1
- L_f class of polynomial f; f⁻¹ exists
- L_g class of polynomial g
- L_m class of polynomial m
- L_r class of polynomial r



Key Generation

Choose an f such that

$$\left| f_p^{-1} * f \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \right| \quad \text{an}$$

and
$$f_q^{-1} * f \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$$

Public Key

$$h \equiv p f_q^{-1} * g \pmod{q}$$

Private Key

f



Encryption

Choose a random polynomial rCalculate the polynomial m representing plaintext
Encrypt the message m using public key h

$$c \equiv r * h + m \qquad (m \circ d q)$$



Decryption

Calculate the polynomial a by

$$a \equiv f * c \pmod{q}$$

Calculate the plaintext polynomial *m* (representing plaintext) by

$$m \equiv f_p^{-1} * a \pmod{p}$$

An example



$$N = 11$$
 $q = 32$ $p = 3$

$$\mathbf{f} = -1 + X + X^2 - X^4 + X^6 + X^9 - X^{10}$$

$$q = -1 + X^2 + X^3 + X^5 - X^8 - X^{10}$$

$$f_p = 1 + 2X + 2X^3 + 2X^4 + X^5 + 2X^7 + X^8 + 2X^9$$

$$\mathbf{f_q} = 5 + 9X + 6X^2 + 16X^3 + 4X^4 + 15X^5 + 16X^6 + 22X^7 + 20X^8 + 18X^9 + 30X^{10}$$

$$h = pf_q^*g = 8 + 25X + 22X^2 + 20X^3 + 12X^4 + 24X^5 + 15X^6 + 19X^7 + 12X^8 + 19X^9 + 16X^{10}$$
 (mod 32).

An example



$$N = 11$$
 $q = 32$ $p = 3$

$$h = 8 + 25X + 22X^2 + 20X^3 + 12X^4 + 24X^5 + 15X^6 + 19X^7 + 12X^8 + 19X^9 + 16X^{10}$$
 (mod 32)

$$\mathbf{m} = -1 + X^3 - X^4 - X^8 + X^9 + X^{10}$$

$$r = -1 + X^2 + X^3 + X^4 - X^5 - X^7$$

$$e = r^*h + m = 14 + 11X + 26X^2 + 24X^3 + 14X^4 + 16X^5 + 30X^6 + 7X^7 + 25X^8 + 6X^9 + 19X^{10} \pmod{32}$$

An example



$$N = 11 \quad q = 32 \quad p = 3$$

$$\mathbf{f} = -1 + X + X^2 - X^4 + X^6 + X^9 - X^{10}$$

e =
$$14 + 11X + 26X^2 + 24X^3 + 14X^4 + 16X^5 + 30X^6 + 7X^7 + 25X^8 + 6X^9 + 19X^{10}$$
 (mod 32)

a = f*e =
$$3 - 7X - 10X^2 - 11X^3 + 10X^4 + 7X^5 + 6X^6 + 7X^7 + 5X^8 - 3X^9 - 7X^{10}$$
 (mod 32).

b =
$$a = -X - X^2 + X^3 + X^4 + X^5 + X^7 - X^8 - X^{10} \pmod{3}$$

$$\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{f_p*b} = -1 + X^3 - X^4 - X^8 + X^9 + X^{10} \pmod{3}.$$



Part 6: Comparisons

- ECC vs. RSA
- Lattice vs. ECC

ECC vs. RSA



	BANI	KEY LENGTH		
	Signature length for 2000 bits long messages (bit)	Length of the 100 bits message after encryption (bit)		secret key (bit)
RSA	1024	1024	1088	2048
DLP- DSA	320	2048	1024	160
ECC	320	321	161	160

Lattice vs. ECC



Table 2. Public Key Sizes (in bits).

Security Level (bits)	NTRU	ECC	RSA
80	2008	160	1024
112	3033	224	2048
128	3501	256	3072
160	4383	320	4096
192	5193	384	7680
256	7690	521	15360

Lattice vs. ECC



Table 3. Key Generation, Encryption and Decryption Times.

Crytosystem	Security Level	Key Generation*	Encryption*	Decryption*
	(bits)	(msec)	(msec)	(msec)
NTRU-251	80	75.65	1.68	8.22
ECC-192	between $80,112$	57.87 - 152.73	37.81 - 116.39	19.15 - 57.68
NTRU-347	112	144.16	3.11	15.70
ECC-224	112	234.11 - 367.98	52.52 - 164.50	26.35 - 81.52
NTRU-397	128	188.92	3.97	20.26
ECC-256	128	478.22 - 656.63	68.72 - 223.29	35.00 - 111.16
NTRU-491	160	288.31	5.97	30.96
NTRU-587	192	412.10	8.42	44.42
ECC-384	192	947.43 - 1429.11	182.35 - 586.20	90.61 - 290.94
NTRU-787	256	738.75	14.49	79.48
ECC-521	256	2055.04 - 3175.87	423.25 - 1257.56	211.38 - 626.33

^{*}ECC timings are given as minimum - maximum of the values observed over all coordinate systems.