

# Public Key Cryptography

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# Outline

- 1 Introduction to Public Key Cryptography
- 2 Requirements to Design a PKC
- 3 Origin of PKC
  - Diffie Hellman Key Exchange Protocol
  - Non-secret Encryption
- 4 PKC
  - RSA
  - ElGamal
  - Elliptic Curve
- 5 Digital Signature
  - Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)



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# Definition

## PKC

A public key cryptosystem is a pair of families  $\{E_k : k \in \mathcal{K}\}$  and  $\{D_k : k \in \mathcal{K}\}$  of algorithms representing invertible transformations,

$$E_k : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{C} \text{ \& } D_k : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$$

on a finite message space  $\mathcal{M}$  and ciphertext space  $\mathcal{C}$ , such that

- (i) for every  $k \in \mathcal{K}$ ,  $D_k$  is the inverse of  $E_k$  and vice versa,
- (ii) for every  $k \in \mathcal{K}$ ,  $M \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $C \in \mathcal{C}$ , the algorithms  $E_k$  and  $D_k$  are easy to compute.
- (iii) for almost every  $k \in \mathcal{K}$ , each easily computed algorithm equivalent to  $D_k$  is computationally infeasible to derive from  $E_k$ ,
- (iv) for every  $k \in \mathcal{K}$ , it is feasible to compute inverse pairs  $E_k$  and  $D_k$  from  $k$ .



# Definition

## Computationally Infeasible

A task is **computationally infeasible** if either the **time taken or the memory required** for carrying out the task is finite but impossibly large.



# Definition

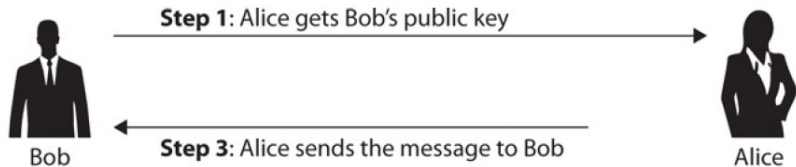
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Any computational task which takes  $\geq 2^{112}$  bit operations, we say, it is **computationally infeasible in present day scenario**.



## PKC



**Step 4:** Bob decrypts the message with his private key



**Step 2:** Alice encrypts the message with Bob's public key



Even if Eve intercepts the message, she does not have Bob's private key and cannot decrypt the message



Eve



# Advantages of PKC

## Advantages over symmetric-key

- 1 Better key distribution and management
  - No danger that public key compromised
  - Convert authenticated channel to secure channel in interactive setting
- 2 New protocols
  - Digital Signature
- 3 Long-term encryption

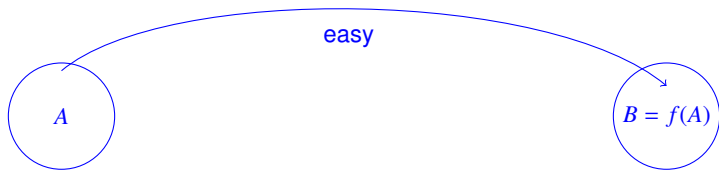


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# One-way Function



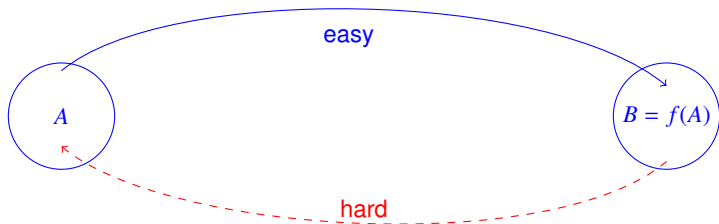
## Definition

**Easy:**  $\exists$  a polynomial-time algorithm that, on input  $m \in A$  outputs  $c = f(m)$ .

## Definition

**Hard:** Every probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm trying, on input  $c (= f(m))$  to find an inverse of  $c \in B$  under  $f$ , may succeed only with negligible probability.

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# Examples of One-way Function

- Cryptographic hash functions, viz., **RIPEMD-160**, **SHA-2 family** and **SHA-3 (Keccak)**.
- The function

$$f : \mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p,$$

$$x \mapsto x^{2^{24}+17} + a_1 \cdot x^{2^{24}+3} + a_2 \cdot x^3 + a_3 \cdot x^2 + a_4 \cdot x + a_5,$$

where  $p = 2^{64} - 59$  and each  $a_i (\in \mathbb{Z}_p)$  is 19-digit number for  $1 \leq i \leq 5$ .



# Trapdoor One-way Function

## Definition

A *trapdoor one-way function* is a one-way function  $f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ , satisfying the additional property that  $\exists$  some additional information or *trapdoor* that makes it easy for a given  $c \in f(\mathcal{M})$  to find out  $m \in \mathcal{M} : f(m) = c$ , but *without the trapdoor* this task becomes hard.



# Examples Trapdoor One-way Function

- **Integer Factorization:** Given  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , find  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \dots p_k^{e_k}$  where the  $p_i$  are pairwise distinct primes and each  $e_i \geq 0$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . → **hard problem.**



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$$IFP \stackrel{def}{=} \begin{cases} \text{Input} & : n > 1 \\ \text{Output} & : p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \dots p_k^{e_k} \end{cases}$$

- **Discrete Logarithm Problem:** Given an abelian group  $(G, \cdot)$  and  $g \in G$  of order  $n$ . Given  $h \in G$  such that  $h = g^x$  find  $x$  ( $DLP(g, h) \rightarrow x$ ). → **hard problem.**





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The **DLP** over the multiplicative group  $\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{a : 1 \leq a \leq n, \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$ .  
DLP may be defined as follows:

$$DLP \stackrel{def}{=} \begin{cases} \text{Input} & : x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_n^* \ \& \ n \\ \text{Output} & : k \text{ s/t } y \equiv x^k \pmod n \end{cases}$$



# Example Trapdoor One-way Function

- **Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem:** Given  $a = g^x$  and  $b = g^y$  find  $c = g^{xy}$ . ( $CDH(g, a, b) \rightarrow c$ ). → **hard problem.**



# Example Trapdoor One-way Function

- Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem:** Given  $a = g^x$  and  $b = g^y$  find  $c = g^{xy}$ . ( $CDH(g, a, b) \rightarrow c$ ).  $\rightarrow$  **hard problem.**
- Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem (ECDLP):**  $\mathbb{E}$  denotes the collections of points on a elliptic curve and  $P \in \mathbb{E}$ . Let  $\mathcal{S}$  be the cyclic subgroup of  $\mathbb{E}$  generated by  $P$ . Given  $Q \in \mathcal{S}$ , find an integer  $x$  such that  $Q = x.P$ .  $\rightarrow$  **hard problem.**



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# DH Key Exchange



Alice

1. Alice generates  $a$
2. Alice's public value is  $g^a \bmod p$
3. Alice computes  $g^{ab} = (g^b)^a \bmod p$

Both parties know  $p$  and  $g$



Bob

1. Bob generates  $b$
2. Bob's public value is  $g^b \bmod p$
3. Bob computes  $g^{ba} = (g^a)^b \bmod p$



Since  $g^{ab} = g^{ba}$  they now have a shared secret key usually called  $k$  ( $K = g^{ab} = g^{ba}$ )



# DH Key Exchange

- $k$  is the shared secret key.
- Knowing  $g$ ,  $g^a$  &  $g^b$ , it is hard to find  $g^{ab}$ .
- **Idea of this protocol:** The enciphering key can be made public since it is computationally infeasible to obtain the deciphering key from enciphering key.
- This protocol was (**supposed to be**) the door-opener to PKC.

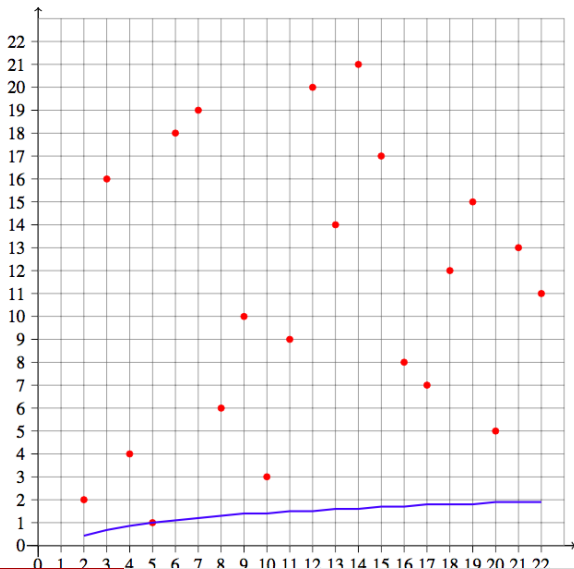


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- **PKCS #3 (Version 1.4):** Diffie-Hellman Key-Agreement Standard, An RSA Laboratories Technical Note – Revised November 1, 1993.



# Discrete Logarithm mod 23 to The Base 5





- Clifford Cocks, Malcolm Williamson & James Ellis developed **Non-secret Encryption** between 1969 and 1974.



Clifford Cocks, Malcolm Williamson, and James Ellis.

- All were at GCHQ, so this stayed secret until 1997.



# Chinese Remainder Theorem

## Theorem

Suppose  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  :  $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$  for  $i \neq j$ .

Then  $x \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$  has ! solution  $\pmod{M (= \prod_{i=1}^r m_i)}$ , which is given by

$$x \equiv \sum_{i=1}^r a_i \cdot M_i \cdot y_i \pmod{M},$$

where  $M_i = \frac{M}{m_i}$  &  $y_i = M_i^{-1} \pmod{m_i}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq r$ .



# Chinese Remainder Theorem

## Problem

Find  $x$  s/t

$$x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}, x \equiv 3 \pmod{11}, x \equiv 10 \pmod{13}$$



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## Solution

- 1 First we calculate  $M = 7 \times 11 \times 13 = 1001$

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Find  $x$  s/t

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## Solution

- 1 First we calculate  $M = 7 \times 11 \times 13 = 1001$
- 2 After that we compute  $M_1, M_2, M_3$

$$M_1 = \frac{M}{7} = 11 \times 13 = 143$$

$$M_2 = \frac{M}{11} = 7 \times 13 = 91$$

$$M_3 = \frac{M}{13} = 7 \times 11 = 77$$

# Chinese Remainder Theorem

## Problem

Find  $x$  s/t

$$x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}, x \equiv 3 \pmod{11}, x \equiv 10 \pmod{13}$$

## Solution

① First we calculate  $M = 7 \times 11 \times 13 = 1001$

② After that we compute  $M_1, M_2, M_3$

$$M_1 = \frac{M}{7} = 11 \times 13 = 143$$

$$M_2 = \frac{M}{11} = 7 \times 13 = 91$$

$$M_3 = \frac{M}{13} = 7 \times 11 = 77$$

③ Now we have to compute

$$(143)^{-1} \pmod{7} \equiv 3^{-1} \pmod{7} \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

$$(91)^{-1} \pmod{11} \equiv 3^{-1} \pmod{11} \equiv 4 \pmod{11}$$

$$77^{-1} \pmod{13} \equiv (12)^{-1} \pmod{13} \equiv 12 \pmod{13}$$

# Chinese Remainder Theorem

## Solution

4. So, the solution for  $x$  is given below:

$$\begin{aligned}x &\equiv [(5 \times 143 \times 5) + (3 \times 91 \times 4) + (10 \times 77 \times 12)] \div 1001 \\ &\equiv [3575 + 1092 + 9240] \pmod{1001} \\ &\equiv 13907 \pmod{1001}\end{aligned}$$



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# Modular Arithmetic

Euclidean algorithm for computing the  $gcd(a, b)$

**Input:** 2 non-negative integers  $a$  &  $b$ , with  $a \geq b$ .

**Output:**  $gcd(a, b)$

- 1 While ( $b \neq 0$ ) do
  - 1.1 Set  $r \leftarrow a \bmod b$ ,  
 $a \leftarrow b, b \leftarrow r$ .
- 2 Return( $a$ )



# Modular Arithmetic

Euclidean algorithm for computing the  $gcd(a, b)$

$gcd(4864, 3458)$

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$gcd(4864, 3458)$

$$4864 = 1 \cdot 3458 + 1406$$

$$3458 = 2 \cdot 1406 + 646$$

$$1406 = 2 \cdot 646 + 114$$

$$646 = 5 \cdot 114 + 76$$

$$114 = 1 \cdot 76 + 38$$

$$76 = 2 \cdot 38 + 0.$$



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$gcd(4864, 3458)$

$$4864 = 1.3458 + 1406$$

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$$646 = 5.114 + 76$$

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$$76 = 2.38 + 0.$$

Bezout's Lemma

$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  s/t  $gcd(a, b) = s.a + t.b$

# Modular Arithmetic

## Extended Euclidean algorithm

**Input:** 2 non-negative integers  $a$  &  $b$ , with  $a \geq b$ .

**Output:**  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  &  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  s/t  $ax + by = d$ .

- 1 If  $b = 0$  then set  $d \leftarrow a$ ,  $x \leftarrow 1$ ,  $y \leftarrow 0$ , and *return*( $d, x, y$ ).
- 2 Set  $x_2 \leftarrow 1$ ,  $x_1 \leftarrow 0$ ,  $y_2 \leftarrow 0$ ,  $y_1 \leftarrow 1$ .
- 3 While ( $b > 0$ ) do
  - 3.1  $q \leftarrow \lfloor a/b \rfloor$ ,  $r \leftarrow a - qb$ ,  
 $x \leftarrow x_2 - qx_1$ ,  $y \leftarrow y_2 - qy_1$ .
  - 3.2  $a \leftarrow b$ ,  $b \leftarrow r$ ,  $x_2 \leftarrow x_1$ ,  
 $x_1 \leftarrow x$ ,  $y_2 \leftarrow y_1$ , and  $y_1 \leftarrow y$ .
- 4 Set  $d \leftarrow a$ ,  $x \leftarrow x_2$ ,  $y \leftarrow y_2$ , and *return*( $d, x, y$ ).



# Modular Arithmetic

## Extended Euclidean algorithm

$$a = 4864, b = 3458$$

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$$a = 4864, b = 3458$$

$q$	$r$	$x$	$y$	$a$	$b$	$x_2$	$x_1$	$y_2$	$y_1$
-	-	-	-	4864	3458	1	0	0	-
1	1406	1	-1	3458	1406	0	1	1	-
2	646	-2	3	1406	646	1	-2	-1	-
2	114	5	-7	646	114	-2	5	3	-
5	76	-27	38	114	76	5	-27	-7	3
1	38	32	-45	76	38	-27	32	38	-4
2	0	-91	128	38	0	32	-91	-45	12

$$38 = 32 \cdot 4864 - 45 \cdot 3458$$



# Modular Arithmetic

## Problem

Find  $7^{-1} \pmod{26}$





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$$26 = 3 \times 7 + 5$$

$$7 = 1 \times 5 + 2$$

$$5 = 2 \times 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 1 \times 2 + 0$$

2. Now, we compute the inverse of 7 mod 26

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 5 - 2 \cdot 2 \\ &= 5 - 2(7 - 5) \\ &= 3 \cdot 5 - 2 \cdot 7 \\ &= 3(26 - 3 \cdot 7) - 2 \cdot 7 \\ &= 3 \cdot 26 - 11 \cdot 7 \end{aligned}$$

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$$1 \equiv (3 \cdot 26 + 15 \cdot 7) \pmod{26}$$

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$$= 3 \cdot 5 - 2 \cdot 7$$

$$= 3(26 - 3 \cdot 7) - 2 \cdot 7$$

$$= 3 \cdot 26 - 11 \cdot 7$$

$$1 \equiv (3 \cdot 26 + 15 \cdot 7) \pmod{26}$$

$$1 \equiv 15 \cdot 7 \pmod{26}$$

$$15 \equiv 7^{-1} \pmod{26}$$

# Non-secret Encryption

## Key Generation

- 1 Select 2 large distinct primes  $p$  &  $q$  such that  $p \nmid q - 1$  and  $q \nmid p - 1$ .

Public key:  $n = pq$ .

- 2 Find numbers  $r$  &  $s$ , s/t  $p.r \equiv 1 \pmod{q-1}$  and  $q.s \equiv 1 \pmod{p-1}$ .

- 3 Find  $u$  &  $v$ , s/t  $u.p \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$  and  $v.q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

Private key:  $(p, q, r, s, u, v)$ .



# Non-secret Encryption

## Encryption

$$C \equiv M^n \pmod{n} \quad \text{for } 0 \leq M < n.$$

## Decryption

- 1  $a \equiv C^s \pmod{p}$  and  $b \equiv C^r \pmod{q}$ .
- 2  $M \equiv a.q.v + b.p.u \pmod{n}$ .



# Modular Exponentiation by The Repeated Squaring I

## Compute $b^n \pmod m$

- 1 Use  $a$  to denote the partial product.
- 2 We'll have  $a \equiv b^n \pmod m$ .
- 3 We start out with  $a = 1$ .
- 4 Let  $n_0, n_1, \dots, n_{k-1}$  denote the binary digits of  $n$ , i.e.,

$$n = n_0 + 2n_1 + 4n_2 + \dots + 2^{k-1}n_{k-1}.$$

- 5 If  $n_0 = 1$ , change  $a$  to  $b$  (otherwise keep  $a = 1$ ).  
Then set  $b_1 = b^2 \pmod m$
- 6 If  $n_1 = 1$ , multiply  $a$  by  $b_1$  (and reduce  $\pmod m$ ); otherwise keep  $a$  unchanged.
- 7 Next square  $b_1$ , and set  $b_2 = b_1^2 \pmod m$



# Modular Exponentiation by The Repeated Squaring II

- 8 If  $n_2 = 1$ , multiply  $a$  by  $b_2$  (and reduce  $\pmod{m}$ ); otherwise keep  $a$  unchanged.
- 9 Continue in this way. You see that in the  $j$ -th step you have computed  $b_j \equiv b^{2^j} \pmod{m}$ .
- 10 If  $n_j = 1$ , i.e., if  $2^j$  occurs in the binary expansion of  $n$ , then you include  $b_j$  in the product for  $a$  (if  $2^j$  is absent from  $n$ , then you do not).
- 11 It is easy to see that after the  $(k - 1)$ -st step you'll have the desired

$$a \equiv b^n \pmod{m}.$$

$$\text{Time}(b^n \pmod{m}) = O((\log n)(\log^2 m)).$$





# Modular Exponentiation by The Repeated Squaring

## Example

Let us compute  $5^{100} \bmod 33$ .

# Modular Exponentiation by The Repeated Squaring

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Let us compute  $5^{100} \pmod{33}$ .

$$5^1 = 5$$

$$5^2 = 25$$

$$5^4 = 25 \times 25 \equiv 31 \pmod{33}$$

$$5^8 \equiv 31 \times 31 \equiv 4 \pmod{33}$$

$$5^{16} \equiv 4 \times 4 \equiv 16 \pmod{33}$$

$$5^{32} \equiv 16 \times 16 \equiv 25 \pmod{33}$$

$$5^{64} \equiv 25 \times 25 \equiv 31 \pmod{33}$$

$$5^{96} \equiv 31 \times 25 \equiv 16 \pmod{33}$$

$$5^{100} \equiv 16 \times 31 \equiv 1 \pmod{33}$$

# Outline

- 1 Introduction to Public Key Cryptography
- 2 Requirements to Design a PKC
- 3 Origin of PKC
  - Diffie Hellman Key Exchange Protocol
  - Non-secret Encryption
- 4 PKC
  - RSA
  - ElGamal
  - Elliptic Curve
- 5 Digital Signature
  - Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)



# RSA Key Generation

- Generate two large distinct random primes  $p$  &  $q$ .
- Compute  $n = pq$  and  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ .
- Select a random integer  $e$ ,  $1 < e < \phi(n)$  s/t  $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$ .
- Compute the unique integer  $d$ ,  $1 < d < \phi(n)$  s/t

$$ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}.$$

Public key is  $(n, e)$ ; Private key is  $(p, q, d)$ .



# RSA Encryption/Decryption

## Encryption:

$$c \equiv m^e \pmod{n},$$

Plaintext  $m$  and ciphertext  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

## Decryption:

$$m' \equiv c^d \pmod{n}.$$



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PKCS #1 v2.2: RSA Cryptography Standard, RSA Laboratories —  
October 27, 2012.



# Strong Prime Number

## Definition

A prime  $p$  is called a strong prime if

- (i)  $p - 1$  has a large prime factor, say  $r$ ,
- (ii)  $p + 1$  has a large prime factor, and
- (iii)  $r - 1$  has a large prime factor.



## Definition

For  $n \geq 1$ , let  $\phi(n)$  denote the number of integers in the interval  $[1, n]$  which are relatively prime to  $n$ . The function  $\phi$  is called the **Euler phi function**.





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## Properties of Euler phi function

- i. If  $p$  is a prime, then  $\phi(p) = p - 1$ .
- ii. The Euler phi function is **multiplicative**. That is, if  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ , then

$$\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n).$$

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$$\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n).$$

- iii. If  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$ , is the prime factorization of  $n$ , then

$$\phi(n) = n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right).$$

# Modular Arithmetic

- The multiplicative group of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is

$$\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \gcd(a, n) = 1\}.$$



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- **Euler's theorem:** If  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , then

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}.$$



# Pseudoprime

## Definition

If  $n$  is an *odd composite* number and  $b$  is an integer s/t  $\gcd(n, b) = 1$  and

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then  $n$  is called a *pseudoprime* to the base  $b$ .



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## Example

- ① The number  $n = 91$  is a pseudoprime to the base  $b = 3$ ,

$$\therefore 3^{90} \equiv 1 \pmod{91}.$$

- ② However, 91 is not a pseudoprime to the base 2,

$$\therefore 2^{90} \equiv 64 \pmod{91}.$$



# Carmichael Number

## Definition

A *Carmichael number* is a composite integer  $n$  s/t

$$b^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n},$$

for every  $b \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ .

## Example

- 1  $n = 561 = 3 \times 11 \times 17$  is a Carmichael number. This is the smallest Carmichael number.

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- 1  $n = 561 = 3 \times 11 \times 17$  is a Carmichael number. This is the smallest Carmichael number.
- 2 The following are Carmichael numbers:
  - 1  $1105 = 5 \times 13 \times 17$
  - 2  $1729 = 7 \times 13 \times 19$
  - 3  $2465 = 5 \times 17 \times 29$

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We have to prove  $c^d \equiv m \pmod{n}$

First we see the  $\gcd(m, n) = 1, p, q$ , or  $n$

- **Case-1:** If  $\gcd(m, n) = n$ ,  $m = 0$ .

$$c^d \equiv m^{ed} \equiv 0^{ed} \equiv 0 \equiv m \pmod{n}.$$



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- **Case-1:** If  $\gcd(m, n) = n, m = 0$ .

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- **Case-2:** If  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$





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- **Case-2:** If  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$

$$c^d \equiv m^{ed} \equiv m.(m^{\phi(n)})^k \equiv m \pmod n$$



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First we see the  $\gcd(m, n) = 1, p, q,$  or  $n$

- **Case-1:** If  $\gcd(m, n) = n, m = 0$ .

$$c^d \equiv m^{ed} \equiv 0^{ed} \equiv 0 \equiv m \pmod n.$$

- **Case-2:** If  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$

$$c^d \equiv m^{ed} \equiv m \cdot (m^{\phi(n)})^k \equiv m \pmod n$$

by using Euler's theorem  $m^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod n$ .



# RSA Validation

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# RSA Validation

We have to prove  $c^d \equiv m \pmod n$

- **Case-3:** If  $\gcd(m, n) \neq 1$  and  $\gcd(m, n) \neq n$ 
  - $p \mid m$  &  $q \nmid m$ .

$$\because p \mid m, \therefore m \equiv 0 \pmod p \Rightarrow m^{ed} \equiv 0 \equiv m \pmod p \Rightarrow p \mid (m^{ed} - m).$$

$$\because q \nmid m \Rightarrow \gcd(m, q) = 1 \Rightarrow m^{q-1} \equiv 1 \pmod q.$$

$$\therefore m^{1+k \cdot (p-1)(q-1)} \equiv m \pmod q \Rightarrow q \mid (m^{ed} - m).$$

$$\because \gcd(p, q) = 1 \Rightarrow pq \mid (m^{ed} - m) \Rightarrow c^d \equiv m \pmod n.$$



# RSA Validation

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$$\therefore m^{1+k \cdot (p-1)(q-1)} \equiv m \pmod q \Rightarrow q \mid (m^{ed} - m).$$

$$\because \gcd(p, q) = 1 \Rightarrow pq \mid (m^{ed} - m) \Rightarrow c^d \equiv m \pmod n.$$

- $p \nmid m$  &  $q \mid m$ . The proof for this case is same as the above by interchanging the role of  $p$  &  $q$ .



# Primality Testing – Probabilistic Algorithm

## Pseudo-prime Test

**Input:**  $n$

**Output:** YES if  $n$  is composite, NO otherwise.

Choose a random  $b$ ,  $0 < b < n$

**if**  $\gcd(b, n) > 1$  **then**

  | **return** YES

**end**

**else**

;

**if**  $b^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod n$  **then**

  | **return** YES

**end**

**else ;**

**return** NO

# Primality Testing – Probabilistic Algorithm

## Miller-Rabin Test

**Input:** an odd integer  $n \geq 3$  and security parameter  $t \geq 1$ .

**Output:** an answer “prime” or “composite” to the question: “Is  $n$  prime?”

Write  $n - 1 = 2^s \cdot r$  s/t  $r$  is odd.

**for**  $i = 1$  **to**  $t$  **do**

    Choose a random integer  $a$  s/t  $2 \leq a \leq n - 2$ .

    Compute  $y \equiv a^r \pmod n$

**if**  $y \neq 1$  &  $y \neq n - 1$  **then**

$j \leftarrow 1$ .

**while**  $j \leq s - 1$  &  $y \neq n - 1$  **do**

            Compute  $y \leftarrow y^2 \pmod n$ .

**If**  $y = 1$  **then** **return**(“composite”).

$j \leftarrow j + 1$ .

**end**

**If**  $y \neq n - 1$  **then** **return** (“composite”).

**end**

**end**

**Return**(“prime”).

# Deterministic Polynomial Time Algorithm

## The AKS Algorithm

**Input:** a positive integer  $n > 1$

**Output:**  $n$  is **Prime** or **Composite** in deterministic polynomial-time

If  $n = a^b$  with  $a \in \mathbb{N}$  &  $b > 1$ , then output **COMPOSITE**.



# Deterministic Polynomial Time Algorithm

## The AKS Algorithm

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If  $n = a^b$  with  $a \in \mathbb{N}$  &  $b > 1$ , then output **COMPOSITE**.

Find the smallest  $r$  such that  $ord_r(n) > 4(\log n)^2$ .

If  $1 < \gcd(a, n) < n$  for some  $a \leq r$ , then output **COMPOSITE**.

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If  $1 < \text{gcd}(a, n) < n$  for some  $a \leq r$ , then output **COMPOSITE**.

If  $n \leq r$ , then output **PRIME**.

**for**  $a = 1$  to  $\lfloor 2\sqrt{\phi(r)} \log n \rfloor$  **do**

    if  $(x - a)^n \not\equiv (x^n - a) \pmod{(x^r - 1, n)}$ ,

    then output **COMPOSITE**.

**end**

**Return**("PRIME").



# RSA Example

**RSA Demonstration**

RSA using the private and public key -- or using only the public key

Choose two prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$ . The composite number  $N = pq$  is the public RSA modulus, and  $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$  is the Euler totient. The public key  $e$  is freely chosen but must be coprime to the totient. The private key  $d$  is then calculated such that  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(N)}$ .

For data encryption or certificate verification, you will only need the public RSA parameters: the modulus  $N$  and the public key  $e$ .

---

Prime number entry

Prime number  $p$

Prime number  $q$

---

RSA parameters

RSA modulus  $N$   (public)

$\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$   (secret)

Public key  $e$

Private key  $d$

---

RSA encryption using  $e$  / decryption using  $d$  [alphabet size: 256]

Input as:  text  numbers

Input text

The Input text will be separated into segments of Size 1 (the symbol '#' is used as separator).

Numbers input in base 10 format.

Encryption into ciphertext  $c = m^e \pmod{N}$



# RSA Example

```
GP/PARI CALCULATOR Version 2.6.1 (alpha)
i686 running mingw (ix86/GMP-5.0.1 kernel) 32-bit version
compiled: Sep 20 2013, gcc version 4.6.3 (GCC)
(readline v6.2 enabled, extended help enabled)
```

```
Copyright (C) 2000-2013 The PARI Group
```

```
PARI/GP is free software, covered by the GNU General Public License, and comes
WITHOUT ANY WARRANTY WHATSOEVER.
```

```
Type ? for help, \q to quit.
```

```
Type ?12 for how to get moral (and possibly technical) support.
```

```
parisize = 4000000, primelimit = 500000
```

```
? N=323
```

```
%1 = 323
```

```
? e = 2^16+1
```

```
%2 = 65537
```

```
? 73^e%N
```

```
%3 = 158
```

```
? 71^e%N
```

```
%4 = 224
```

```
? 78^e%N
```

```
%5 = 10
```

```
? 79^e%N
```

```
%6 = 317
```

```
? 85^e%N
```

```
%7 = 17
```

```
? =
```



# RSA Example

- Suppose  $A$  wants to send the following message to  $B$   
**RSAISTHEKEYTOPUBLICKEYCRYPTOGRAPHY**
- $B$  chooses his  $n = 737 = 11 \times 67$ . Then  $\phi(n) = 660$ . Suppose he picks  $e = 7$ ,  $\Rightarrow d = 283$ .
- $\because 26^2 < n < 26^3 \quad \therefore$  the block size of the plaintext = 2.

$$m_1 = 'RS' = 17 \times 26 + 18 = 460$$

$$c_1 = 460^7 \equiv 697 \pmod{737} = 1.26^2 + 0.26 + 21 = BAV$$



# RSA Example

	RS	AI	ST	HE	KE	YT	OP	UB
$m_b$	460	8	487	186	264	643	379	521
$c_b$	697	387	229	340	165	223	586	5

LI	CK	EY	CR	YP	TO	GR	AP	HY
294	62	128	69	639	508	173	15	206
189	600	325	262	100	689	354	665	673



# RSA Example

- Suppose  $A$  wants to send the following message to  $B$

**power**

- $B$  chooses his  $n = 1943 = 29 \times 67$ . Then  $\phi(n) = 1848$ . Suppose he picks  $e = 701$ ,  $\Rightarrow d = 29$ .
- $\because 26^2 < n < 26^3 \therefore$  the block size of the plaintext = 2.
- $m_1 = 'po' = 15 \times 26 + 14 = 404$ ,  $m_2 = 'we' = 22 \times 26 + 4 = 576$ ,  $m_3 = 'ra' = 17 \times 26 + 0 = 442$ .
- $c_1 = 404^{701} \equiv 1419 \pmod{1943} = 2 \cdot 26^2 + 2 \cdot 26 + 15 = cc_p$ .
- $\parallel y$ ,  $c_2 = 344 = 13 \cdot 26 + 6 = ang$  &  $c_3 = 210 = 8 \cdot 26 + 2 = aic$ .
- The cipher text is

**ccpangaic**





# Security of RSA

## Security

If we know  $n$  and  $\phi(n)$ , we can find  $p$  &  $q$ .

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If we know  $n$  and  $\phi(n)$ , we can find  $p$  &  $q$ .

We have

$$\phi(n) = pq - p - q + 1 = n - (p + q) + 1.$$

Since we know  $n$ , we can find  $p + q$  from the above equation.

Since we know  $pq = n$  and  $p + q$ , we can find  $p$  &  $q$  by factoring the quadratic equation

$$x^2 - (p + q)x + pq = 0.$$

# Security of RSA

- Security of RSA relies on difficulty of finding  $d$  given  $n$  &  $e$ .
- Breaking RSA is no harder than Factoring.
- It is not secure against chosen ciphertext attacks(CCA).
- RSA is secure against chosen plaintext attack (CPA).



# IND-CCA

## Security notion for encryption.

- From a ciphertext  $c$ , an attacker should not be able to derive any information from the corresponding plaintext  $m$ .
- Even if the attacker can obtain the decryption of any ciphertext,  $c$  excepted.
- This is called **indistinguishability against a chosen ciphertext attack (IND-CCA)**.



# Choice of Encryption Key $e$

- The encryption exponent  $e$  should not be too small.

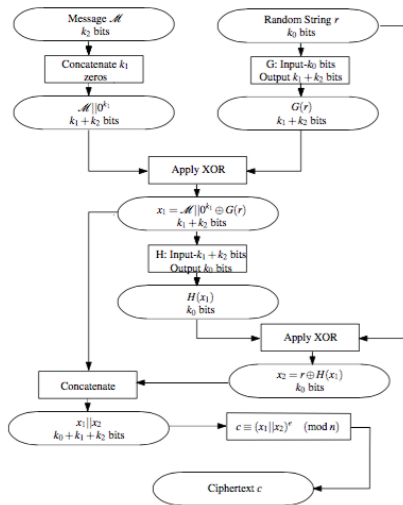


# Choice of Encryption Key $e$

- The encryption exponent  $e$  should not be too small.
- Suppose  $e = 3$  and there are 3 recipients having the same encryption exponent 3, but with different modulus  $n_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, 3$ .
- Then, ciphertexts  $y_i \equiv M^3 \pmod{n_i}$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3$  and send them to the recipients.
- Suppose two of them, say  $n_1$  &  $n_2$ , are not coprime. Then,  $\gcd(n_1, n_2)$  is a non-trivial factor of  $n_1$  &  $n_2$  and any adversary can factorise both of them.
- So, we can always assume that  $n_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3$  are pairwise coprime.
- If adversary gets hold of the messages  $y_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq 3$ , she can compute  $M^3 \pmod{n_1 n_2 n_3}$  using Chinese remainder theorem since  $\gcd(n_i, n_j) = 1$  for  $i \neq j$ .
- Since  $m < n_i$ ,  $m^3 < n_1 n_2 n_3$ . So,  $M^3 \pmod{n_1 n_2 n_3} = M^3$  and the adversary can find  $M$  by taking the cube root of  $M^3 \pmod{n_1 n_2 n_3}$ .



# RSA in Practice – Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding (OAEP)



# Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding (OAEP) I

- To encrypt a message  $M$  of  $k_2$ -bit, first concatenates the message with  $0^{k_1}$ .
- Expands the message to  $M||0^{k_1}$ .
- After that, select a random string  $r$  of length  $k_0$  bits.
- Use it as the random seed for  $G(r)$  and computes

$$x_1 = M||0^{k_1} \oplus G(r), \quad x_2 = r \oplus H(x_1)$$

- If  $x_1||x_2$  is a binary number bigger than  $n$ , Alice chooses another random string  $r$  and computes the new values of  $x_1$  &  $x_2$ .
- If  $G(r)$  produces fairly random outputs,  $x_1||x_2$  will be less than  $n$  in binary with a probability greater than  $\frac{1}{2}$ .





# Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding (OAEP) II

- After getting a string  $r$  with  $x_1 || x_2 < n$ , Alice then encrypts  $x_1 || x_2$  to get the ciphertext

$$E(M) = (x_1 || x_2)^e \equiv c \pmod{n}$$



# ElGamal PKC in $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$

## Key Generation:

- $\langle \alpha \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ ,  $\mathcal{P} = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  &  $\mathcal{C} = \mathbb{Z}_p^* \times \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ .
- $\beta \equiv \alpha^a \pmod{p}$ .
- **Public** :  $p, \alpha, \beta$  and **Private** :  $a$ .

## Encryption:

- Select a random  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$ .
- $Enc_k(x) = (y_1, y_2)$

$$y_1 \equiv \alpha^k \pmod{p}, \quad y_2 \equiv x \cdot \beta^k \pmod{p}.$$

## Decryption:

$$Dec_k(y_1, y_2) = y_2 \cdot (y_1^a)^{-1}.$$



# ElGamal PKC in $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$

## Example

- Let  $p = 29$  and  $\alpha = 2$ ,  $\alpha$  is a primitive element  $\pmod{29}$ .
- Let  $a = 5$ ,  $\therefore \beta \equiv 2^5 \pmod{29} \equiv 3 \pmod{29}$ .



# ElGamal PKC in $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$

## Example

- Let  $p = 29$  and  $\alpha = 2$ ,  $\alpha$  is a primitive element mod 29.
- Let  $a = 5$ ,  $\therefore \beta \equiv 2^5 \pmod{29} \equiv 3 \pmod{29}$ .
- **Public Key:**  $(29, 2, 3)$  and **Private Key:** 5
- **Plaintext:**  $x = 6$  & random number  $k = 14 \in \mathbb{Z}_{28}$



# ElGamal PKC in $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$

## Example

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- Let  $a = 5$ ,  $\therefore \beta \equiv 2^5 \pmod{29} \equiv 3 \pmod{29}$ .
- **Public Key:**  $(29, 2, 3)$  and **Private Key:** 5
- **Plaintext:**  $x = 6$  & random number  $k = 14 \in \mathbb{Z}_{28}$

$$y_1 \equiv 2^{14} \equiv 28 \pmod{29} \text{ \& } y_2 \equiv 6 \cdot 3^{14} \equiv 23 \pmod{29}$$

- **Ciphertext:**  $(28, 23)$ .



# Elliptic Curves

- Elliptic curve  $E$  over field  $\mathbb{K}$  is defined by

$$y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6, \quad a_i \in \mathbb{K}$$

- The set of  $\mathbb{K}$ -rational points  $E(\mathbb{K})$  is defined as

$$E(\mathbb{K}) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{K} \times \mathbb{K} : y^2 + a_1xy + a_3y = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_4x + a_6\} \cup \{O\}$$

## Theorem

*There exists an addition law on  $E$  and the set  $E(K)$  with that addition forms a group.*



# Elliptic Curves I

- ① Let  $\mathbb{K}$  be a field of characteristic  $\neq 2, 3$ , and let  $x^3 + ax + b$  be a cubic polynomial with no multiple roots ( $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$ ). An elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{K}$  is the set of points  $(x, y)$  with  $x, y \in K$  which satisfy the equation

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

together with a single element denoted  $O$  and called the *point at infinity*.

- ② If  $\text{char } K = 2$ , then an elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{K}$  is the set of points satisfying an equation of type either

$$y^2 + cy = x^3 + ax + b$$

or

$$y^2 + xy = x^3 + ax + b$$

together with the *point at infinity*  $O$ .



# Elliptic Curves II

- ③ If  $\text{char } K = 3$ , then an elliptic curve over  $\mathbb{K}$  is the set of points satisfying the equation

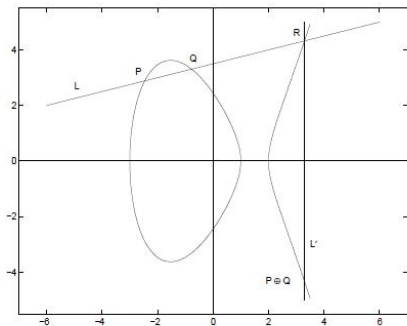
$$y^2 = x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c$$

together with the *point at infinity*  $O$ .



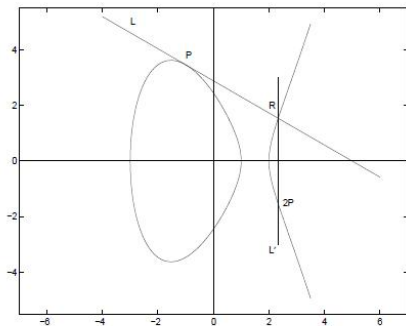


## Addition Law on Elliptic Curves



Adding two points

$$y^2 = x^3 - 7x + 6$$



Doubling a point

## Addition Law on Elliptic Curves

- Suppose  $E$  is a non-singular elliptic curve.
- The point at infinity  $O$ , will be the identity element, so  $P + O = O + P = P \forall P \in E$ .
- Suppose  $P, Q \in E$ , where  $P = (x_1, y_1)$  &  $Q = (x_2, y_2)$ 
  - $x_1 \neq x_2$ 
    - $L$  is the line through  $P$  and  $Q$ .
    - $L$  intersects  $E$  in the two points  $P$  and  $Q$
    - $L$  will intersect  $E$  in one further point  $R'$ .
    - If we reflect  $R'$  in the  $x$ -axis, then we get a point  $R$ .

$$P + Q = R.$$



$$(ii) \quad x_1 = x_2 \text{ \& } y_1 = -y_2$$

$$(x, y) + (x, -y) = O$$

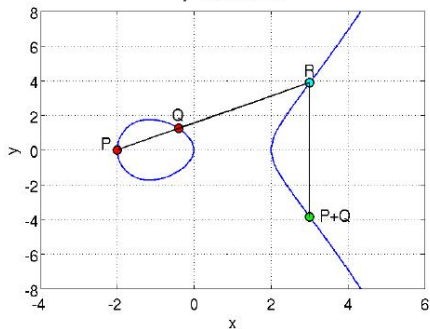
$$(iii) \quad x_1 = x_2 \text{ \& } y_1 = y_2$$

- Draw a tangent line  $L$  through  $P$
- Follow step (i)

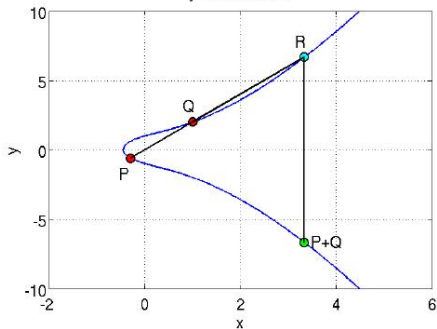


## Addition Law on Elliptic Curves

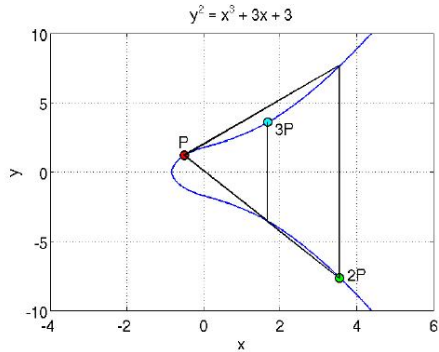
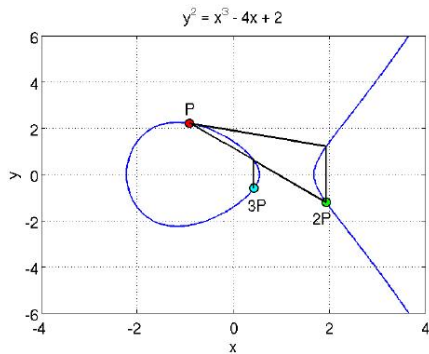
$$y^2 = x^3 - 4x + 0$$



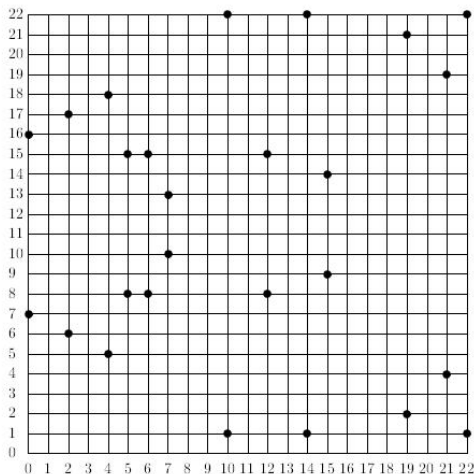
$$y^2 = x^3 + 2x + 1$$



## Addition Law on Elliptic Curves



## Elliptic Curves over Finite Fields



The elliptic curve  $y^2 = x^3 + x + 3 \pmod{23}$



# NIST's Primes for ECC

$$p_{192} = 2^{192} - 2^{64} - 1$$

$$p_{224} = 2^{224} - 2^{96} + 1$$

$$p_{256} = 2^{256} - 2^{224} + 2^{192} + 2^{96} - 1$$

$$p_{384} = 2^{384} - 2^{128} - 2^{96} + 2^{32} - 1$$

$$p_{521} = 2^{521} - 1$$



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$$p_{384} = 2^{384} - 2^{128} - 2^{96} + 2^{32} - 1$$

$$p_{521} = 2^{521} - 1$$

Recommendations for Discrete Logarithm-Based Cryptography:  
Elliptic Curve Domain Parameters





# ElGamal Cryptosystems on Elliptic Curves

- First choose two public elliptic curve points  $P$  and  $Q$  s/t

$$Q = sP,$$

where  $s$  is the private key.

- To encrypt choose a random  $k$
- $Enc_k(m) = (y_1, y_2)$

$$y_1 = kP, \quad y_2 = m + kQ.$$

- **Decryption:**

$$Dec_k(y_1, y_2) = y_2 - s.y_1$$



# ElGamal Cryptosystems on Elliptic Curves

- The plaintext space in general may not consist of the points on the curve  $E$ , because there is no convenient method known of deterministically generating points on  $E$ .
- So, we convert the plaintext as an arbitrary element in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .
- For that, we can apply a suitable hash function  $h : E \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$  to  $kQ$
- Add the result *modulo*  $p$  to  $x$  in order to encrypt it.
- To decrypt, the private key  $s$  will allow  $kQ$  to be computed from  $kP$ .
- Then the result is hashed and *modulo*  $p$  from the ciphertext.



# ElGamal Cryptosystems on Elliptic Curves

## Key Generation

- Let  $E$  be an elliptic curve defined over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  (where  $p > 3$  is prime) s/t  $E$  contains a cyclic subgroup  $H = \langle P \rangle$  of prime order  $n$  in which the **Discrete Logarithm Problem** is infeasible.
- Let  $h : E \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$  be a secure hash function.
- Let  $\mathcal{P} = \mathbb{Z}_p$  and  $\mathcal{C} = (\mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_2) \times \mathbb{Z}_p$ . Define

$$\mathcal{K} = \{(E, P, s, Q, n, h) : Q = sP\},$$

where  $P$  and  $Q$  are points on  $E$  and  $s \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ . The values  $E, P, Q, n$  and  $h$  are the public key and  $s$  is the private key.



# ElGamal Cryptosystems on Elliptic Curves

## Encryption

- To encrypt a message  $x$  sender selects a random number  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$  and compute the ciphertext

$$y = e_K(x, k) = (y_1, y_2) = (\text{POINT-COMPRESS}(kP), x + h(kQ) \bmod p),$$

where  $y_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_2$  and  $y_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ .



# ElGamal Cryptosystems on Elliptic Curves

## Encryption

- To encrypt a message  $x$  sender selects a random number  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$  and compute the ciphertext

$$y = e_K(x, k) = (y_1, y_2) = (\text{POINT} - \text{COMPRESS}(kP), x + h(kQ) \bmod p),$$

where  $y_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_2$  and  $y_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ .

## Decryption

$$d_K(y) = y_2 - h(R) \bmod p,$$

where  $R = s\text{POINT} - \text{DECOMPRESS}(y_1)$ .



# Outline

- 1 Introduction to Public Key Cryptography
- 2 Requirements to Design a PKC
- 3 Origin of PKC
  - Diffie Hellman Key Exchange Protocol
  - Non-secret Encryption
- 4 PKC
  - RSA
  - ElGamal
  - Elliptic Curve
- 5 Digital Signature
  - Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)



# Signature Scheme

## Definition

A **signature scheme** is a five-tuple  $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{V})$ , where the following conditions are satisfied:

- (i)  $\mathcal{P}$  is a finite set of possible **messages**
- (ii)  $\mathcal{A}$  is a finite set of possible **signatures**
- (iii)  $\mathcal{K}$ , the **keyspace**, is a finite set of possible keys
- (iv) For each  $K \in \mathcal{K}$ , there is a signing algorithm  $sig_K \in \mathcal{S}$  and a corresponding verification algorithm  $ver_K \in \mathcal{V}$ . Each  $sig_K : \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  and  $ver_K : \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \{true, false\}$  are functions s/t the following equation is satisfied for every message  $x \in \mathcal{P}$  and for every signature  $y \in \mathcal{A}$

$$ver_K = \begin{cases} true & \text{if } y = sig_K(x) \\ false & \text{if } y \neq sig_K(x) \end{cases}$$

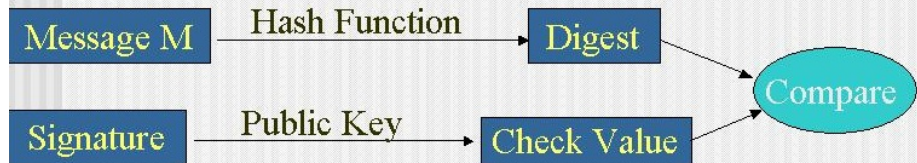
A pair  $(x, y)$  with  $x \in \mathcal{P}$  and  $y \in \mathcal{A}$  is called a **signed message**.

# Digital Signature

## Signing a Message M



## Verifying a Signature





# RSA Signature Scheme

## Signature Generation

$A$  signs a message  $m$ . Any entity  $B$  can verify  $A$ 's signature and recover the message  $m$  from the signature.

- Compute  $\tilde{m} = R(m)$ , where  $R : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$ .
- Compute  $s \equiv \tilde{m}^d \pmod{n}$ .
- $A$ 's signature for  $m$  is  $s$ .



# RSA Signature Scheme

## Signature Generation

$A$  signs a message  $m$ . Any entity  $B$  can verify  $A$ 's signature and recover the message  $m$  from the signature.

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- Compute  $s \equiv \tilde{m}^d \pmod{n}$ .
- $A$ 's signature for  $m$  is  $s$ .

## Signature Verification

To verify  $A$ 's signature  $s$  and recover the message  $m$ ,  $B$  should:

- Obtain  $A$ 's authentic public key  $(n, e)$ .
- Compute  $\tilde{m} \equiv s^e \pmod{n}$ .
- Verify that  $\tilde{m} \in \text{range of } \mathcal{M}$ ; if not, reject the signature.
- Recover  $m = R^{-1}(\tilde{m})$ .



# DSA

## Key Generation

- 1 Choose a hash function  $h$ .
- 2 Decide a key length  $L$ .
- 3 Choose prime  $q$  with with same number of bits as output of  $h$ .
- 4 Choose  $\alpha$ -bit prime  $p$  such that  $q|(p - 1)$ .
- 5 Choose  $g$  such that  $g^q \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

Choose  $x$  :  $0 < x < q$ .

Calculate :  $y \equiv g^x \pmod{p}$ .

$(p, q, g, y)$  → Public Key

$x$  → Private Key



# DSA

## Signature Generation

- 1 Generate random  $k$  such that  $0 < k < q$ .
- 2 Calculate  $r \equiv g^k \pmod{p} \pmod{q}$ .
- 3 Calculate  $s \equiv (k^{-1}(h(m) + xr)) \pmod{q}$ .
- 4 Signature is  $(r, s)$ .



# DSA

## Signature Generation

- 1 Generate random  $k$  such that  $0 < k < q$ .
- 2 Calculate  $r \equiv g^k \pmod p \pmod q$ .
- 3 Calculate  $s \equiv (k^{-1}(h(m) + xr)) \pmod q$ .
- 4 Signature is  $(r, s)$ .

## Signature Verification

- 1  $w \equiv s^{-1} \pmod q$ .
- 2  $u_1 \equiv (h(m).w) \pmod q$ .
- 3  $u_2 \equiv rw \pmod q$ .
- 4  $v \equiv (g^{u_1}.y^{u_2} \pmod p) \pmod q$ .
- 5 Verify  $v = r$ .



# Schnorr Signature Scheme

## Key Generation

- Let  $p$  be a prime s/t the DLP in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is intractable, and let  $q$  be a prime and  $q \mid (p-1)$ . Let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  be a  $q^{\text{th}}$  root of unity modulo  $p$ . Let  $\mathcal{P} = \{0, 1\}^*$ ,  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{Z}_q \times \mathbb{Z}_q$ , and define

$$\mathcal{K} = \{(p, q, \alpha, a, \beta) : \beta \equiv \alpha^a \pmod{p}\},$$

where  $0 \leq a \leq q-1$ .

The values  $p, q, \alpha$ , and  $\beta$  are the **public key**, and  $a$  is the **private key**.

Finally, let  $h : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$  be a secure hash function.



# Schnorr Signature Scheme

## Signature Generation

- Signer first selects a (secret) random number  $k$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq q - 1$ , define

$$sig_K(x, k) = (\gamma, \delta),$$

where

$$\gamma = h(x || \alpha^k \text{ mod } p) \text{ \& } \delta = k + a\gamma \text{ mod } q.$$

## Verification

- For  $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$  and  $\gamma, \delta \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ , verification is done by performing the following computations:

$$ver_K(x, (\gamma, \delta)) = true \leftrightarrow h(x || \alpha^\delta \beta^{-\gamma} \text{ mod } p) = \gamma.$$





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The End

**Thanks a lot for your attention  
and  
QUESTIONS Please!**

