

NEW VARIANT PUBLIC-KEY CRYPTOSYSTEMS BASED ON JORDAN'S TOTIENT FUNCTION

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Abstract: The public-key cryptography provides answers to all the problems of key managements and digital signatures. Its algorithms are based on mathematical functions rather than on substitution and permutation. The mathematical trick of this scheme is that it is relatively easy to compute exponents compared to computing discrete logarithms. The purpose of the algorithm is to enable two users to exchange a key securely that can then be used for subsequent encryption of messages. The algorithm itself is limited to the exchange of the keys.

Keywords: public-key, answers, algorithms, easy to compute, exchange of the keys.

INTRODUCTION:

The development of public-key cryptography is the greatest and perhaps the only true revolution in the entire history of cryptography. The public-key cryptography provides answers to all the problems of key managements and digital signatures. Its algorithms are based on mathematical functions rather than on substitution and permutation. More important public-key cryptography is asymmetric involving the use of two separate keys, in contrast to symmetric conventional encryption which uses only one key. The use of two keys has profound consequences in the area of confidentiality, key distribution and authentication.

We describe well known public-key cryptosystems namely Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Scheme, El Gamal, Messey - Omura Cryptosystem and Paillier Cryptosystems. Before that we define informally the primitive root of a prime number.

Definition: g is a primitive root of a prime number p if the numbers $g \bmod p, g^2 \bmod p, \dots, g^{p-1} \bmod p$ are distinct and consists of the integers from 1 through $p-1$ in some permutation.

Diffie - Heilman Key Exchange:

The first published public-key algorithm appeared in the seminar paper by Diffie and Heilman that defined public-key cryptography and is generally referred to as Diffie - Heilman Key exchange. The mathematical trick of this scheme is that it is relatively easy to compute exponents compared to computing discrete logarithms. The purpose of the algorithm is to enable two users to exchange a key securely that can then be used for subsequent encryption of messages. The algorithm itself is limited to the exchange of the keys.

The Diffie - Heilman key exchange scheme works as follows. Alice and Bob wish to agree on a common, secret key, and then can communicate only over an insecure channel. First they agree on a large prime number p and an integer g which is a primitive root of p . The prime p and a primitive root g can be publicly known. Hence, Bob and Alice can use their insecure communication channel for this agreement.

Now Alice chooses a random integer $a < p$. She computes $A = g^a \bmod p$ and sends the result A to Bob, but she keeps the exponent a secret.

Bob chooses independently integer $b < p$ randomly. He computes $B = g^b \bmod p$ and sends the result to Alice. He also keeps his exponent b secret. To obtain the common secret key, Alice computes $B^a \bmod p = g^{ab} \bmod p$ and Bob computes

$$A^b \bmod p = g^{ab} \bmod p$$

Therefore their common key is $k = g^{ab} \text{ mod } p$.

Diffie-Hellman Key exchange Scheme on other groups.

A secure and efficient Diffie - Heilman key exchange scheme can be implemented in all cyclic groups in which the Diffie - Heilman problem is difficult to solve and for which the group operations can be efficiently implemented. Here we only describe how the implementation of the Diffie - Heilman protocol in such groups works in principle.

Alice and Bob agree on a finite cyclic group G and a generator g of G . Let n be the order of G . Alice chooses randomly an integer $a \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$. She computes $A = g^a$ and sends the result A to Bob. Bob chooses randomly an integer $b \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$. He computes $B = g^b$ and sends the result B to Alice.

Alice determines $B^a = g^{ab}$ and Bob determines $A^b = g^{ab}$

The common secret key is $K = g^{ab}$

El Gamal Cryptosystem:

The El Gamal Cryptosystem was introduced by El Gamal [19] in 1985 and is based on the hardness of finding the discrete logarithm. The message space is defined by a cyclic group, for which the discrete logarithm problem is hard. Typical choices are Z_p (P is large safe prime) or Z_n (n is a RSA modulus). The algorithm for key generation, encryption and decryption is as follows.

Key Generation: Choose a group G of order p (e.g. Z_p), with p a safe prime and a generator g for this group.

Choose a random x from Z_p and compute $h = g^x \text{ mod } p$.

Public – Key PK = (G, g, p, h)
Private Key SK = x

Encryption: Convert M into element of G , M_G chooses an r random from Z_p as the blinding factor and compute the cipher text pair.

$$C_1 = g^r \text{ mod } p \text{ and } C_2 = M_G \cdot h^r \text{ mod } p$$

Decryption: Compute $C_2 (C_1^x)^{-1} \text{ mod } p$

$$\begin{aligned} &= M_G h^r g^{-xr} \text{ mod } p \\ &= M_G g^{xr} g^{-xr} \text{ mod } p \\ &= M_G \text{ mod } p \\ &= M_G \end{aligned}$$

Using the extended Euclidean algorithm to find the multiplicative inverse and convert back to the original message M .

Messey-Omura Cryptosystem:

This cryptosystem is also based on the difficulty of finding discrete logarithms. All the users have agreed upon a public prime p . Now each user A chooses two positives integers e_A and d_A such that $e_A d_A \text{ mod } p = 1$

In contrast with RSA cryptosystem, in this system the users keep both the numbers secret, publishing neither of them. Now consider the situation in which the user A sends the message m to the user B . We assume that a number represents the message, which is less than p .

The algorithms work as follows.

- The user A computes $m^{e_A} \bmod p$ and sends to the user B.
- The user B computes the e_B^{th} power of the number he has received and return the result $m^{e_A e_B} \bmod p$ to the user A.
- Now the user A applies his number d_A to what he received and gets $m^{e_A e_B d_A} \bmod p$. This number turns out to be $m^{e_B} \bmod p$. The user A sends this result to the user B.
- The user B applies d_B to the received number and obtains the message m .

Paillier Cryptosystem:

The Paillier cryptosystem was introduced by Paillier [20] in 1999, based on the n th Residuosity class problem. The algorithm for key generation, encryption and decryption is as follows.

Define the function $L(x) = (x-1) / N$

Key Generation: Select two large primes p and q and compute $N = pq$ and $\lambda = \text{lcm}(p-1, q-1)$.

Select a base $g \in \mathbb{Z}_{N^2}^*$ and check

$\text{Gcd}(L(g^\lambda \bmod N^2), N) = 1$ in order to make sure that N divides the order of g .

Public-Key $PK = (g, N)$

Private Key $SK = \lambda$

Encryption: Select a random $r \in \mathbb{Z}_N$

$$C = g^m r^N \bmod N^2$$

Decryption:

$$m = \frac{L(C^\lambda \bmod N^2)}{L(g^\lambda \bmod N^2)} \bmod N$$

In this paper we present our new variants of Diffie-Hellman key exchange scheme, El Gamal cryptosystem, Messey-Omura cryptosystem and Paillier Schemes based on Jordan Totient function and explained these algorithms with simple examples. We analyze the significance and complexity of the above schemes.

Variant of Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Scheme based on $J_k(N)$.

This scheme is described as follows.

Alice and Bob wish to agree on a common secret key. They can communicate only over an insecure channel.

First, they agree on two positive integers N and K such that $1 \leq K \leq N$ and

Compute $J_K(N) = N^K \prod_{P|N} (1 - 1/P^K)$

Consider $(\mathbb{Z}_{J_K(N)}, +_{J_K(N)}, \times_{J_K(N)})$ a

commutative ring with unity as a message space.

They select a generator $g \in Z_{J_k(N)}$ and their

$$\text{Public-Key PK} = (Z_{J_k(N)}, J_k(N), g)$$

Alice	Bob
Alice choose an integer x randomly and keep it secret. Encryption : $C_A = g^x \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= xg \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ Sends Sends C_A to Bob Message Verification : $m_A = C_B^x \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= x C_B \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= x yg \text{ mod } J_k(N)$	Bob choose an integer y randomly and keep it secret. Encryption : $C_B = g^y \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= yg \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ Sends C_B to Alice Message Verification : $m_B = C_A^y \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= y C_A \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= y x g \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= x y g \text{ mod } J_k(N)$
$\therefore \therefore m_A = m_B$	

$$\therefore \text{The common secret Key } S_k = g^{xy} \text{ mod } J_k(N)$$

$$= xyg \text{ mod } J_k(N)$$

Example: Let $N=7, K=2$:

$$J_k(N) = J_2(7) = 7^2 - 1 = 49 - 1 = 48$$

$\therefore (Z_{48}, +_{48}, \times_{48})$ is a commutative ring with unity of order 48 is a message space.

Consider $g = 5 \in Z_{48}$

$$\text{Public - Key PK} = (Z_{48}, 48, 5)$$

Alice	Bob
Secret Key $x = 50$ Encryption : $C_A = g^x \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= xg \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= 50 \times 5 \text{ mod } 48$ $= 250 \text{ mod } 48$ $= 10$ Sends $C_A = 10$ to Bob Message Verification : $m_A = C_B^x \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= x C_B \text{ mod } J_k(N)$	Secret Key $y = 60$ Encryption : $C_B = g^y \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= yg \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= 60 \times 5 \text{ mod } 48$ $= 300 \text{ mod } 48$ $= 12$ Sends $C_B = 12$ to Alice Message Verification : $m_B = C_A^y \text{ mod } J_k(N)$ $= y C_A \text{ mod } J_k(N)$

$= 50 \times 12 \pmod{48}$ $= 600 \pmod{48}$ $= 24$	$= 60 \times 10 \pmod{48}$ $= 600 \pmod{48}$ $= 24$
\therefore Their common secret key is 24	

Variants of El Gamal Cryptosystem based on $J_k(N)$:

Choose two positive integers N and K such that $1 \leq K \leq N$ and

Compute $J_k(N) = N^k \prod_{p|N} (1 - 1/p^k)$

Consider $(Z_{J_k(N)}, +, \cdot)$ a Commutative ring with unity as a message space. Choose a generator $g \in Z_{J_k(N)}$ and compute

$h = g^x \pmod{J_k(N)} = xg \pmod{J_k(N)}$

Public – Key PK = $(Z_{J_k(N)}, J_k(N), g, h)$
Private Key SK = x

Encryption:

Choose a random r from $Z_{J_k(N)}$ as the blinding factor.

Cipher text pair $C_1 = g^r \pmod{J_k(N)} = rg \pmod{J_k(N)}$

$C_2 = (M+h^r) \pmod{J_k(N)} = (M+rh) \pmod{J_k(N)}$

Decryption:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{Compute } \left\{ C_2 + (C_1^x)^{-1} \right\} \pmod{J_k(N)} \\
 &= \left\{ (M + h^r) + g^{-xr} \right\} \pmod{J_k(N)} \\
 &= \left\{ (M + g^{xr}) + g^{-xr} \right\} \pmod{J_k(N)} \\
 &= \left\{ M + (xr)g + (-xr)g \right\} \pmod{J_k(N)} \\
 &= \left\{ M + (xr)g + (-xr)g \right\} \pmod{J_k(N)} \\
 &= M \pmod{J_k(N)} \\
 &= M
 \end{aligned}$$

Example

Choose $N=7, K = 2$

$J_k(N) = J_k(7) = 7^2 - 1 = 49 - 1 = 48$

Consider $(\mathbb{Z}_{48}, +_{48}, \mathbb{X}_{48})$ a commutative ring with unit of order 48 as a message space

Choose a generator $g = 5$

Select a secret key $x = 11$

Find $h = g \text{ mod } J_k(N)$

$$= xg \text{ mod } J_k(N)$$

$$= 11 \times 5 \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= 55 \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= 7$$

Public – Key PK = $(\mathbb{Z}_{48}, 48, 5, 7)$

Encryption:

Choose $M = 10 \in \mathbb{Z}_{48}$

Choose a random r from \mathbb{Z}_{48} let it be 40

i.e. $r = 40$

Cipher text pair $C_1 = g^r \text{ mod } J_k(N)$

$$= rg \text{ mod } J_k(N)$$

$$= 40 \times 5 \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= 200 \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= 8$$

$$C_1 = \{ M+h^r \} \text{ mod } J_k(N)$$

$$= \{ 10 + rh \} \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= \{ 10 + 40 \times 7 \} \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= 290 \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= 2$$

Decryption:

$$\text{Compute } \left\{ C_2 + (C_1^x)^{-1} \right\} \text{ mod } J_k(N)$$

$$= \left\{ 2 + (8^{11})^{-1} \right\} \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= \left\{ 2 + 8^{-11} \right\} \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= \left\{ 2 + (-11)8 \right\} \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= -86 \text{ mod } 48$$

$$= 10$$

$$= M$$

Variant of Messey-Omura Cryptosystem Cryptosystem based on $J_k(N)$:

In this cryptosystem all the users have agreed upon a public-prime p computers $J_k(p) = (p^k - 1)$ and consider $(\mathbb{Z}_{J_k(p)}, +, \cdot)$ a commutative ring with unity as a message space. Convert the message into the elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{J_k(p)}$.

Now each user choose two positive integers e and d such that $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{J_k(p)}$

In contrast with RSA cryptosystem, in the system the user keeps both the numbers secret, publishing neither of them.

Consider the situation in which the user Alice sends the message m belongs to $\mathbb{Z}_{J_k(p)}$ to the user Bob. The algorithm works as follows.

- The user Alice computes $W = m^{e_A} \pmod{J_k(p)}$
 $= e_A m \pmod{J_k(p)}$

And sends to the user Bob.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{The use Bob computers } X &= W^{e_B} \pmod{J_k(p)} \\ &= e_B W \pmod{J_k(p)} \\ &= e_B e_A m \pmod{J_k(p)} \text{ and} \end{aligned}$$

Returns to the user Alice.

Now the user Alice applies his number d_A to that he received and gets.

$$\begin{aligned} Y &= X^{d_A} \pmod{J_k(p)} \\ &= d_A m \pmod{J_k(p)} \\ &= d_A e_B e_A m \pmod{J_k(p)} \\ &= (e_A d_A) e_B m \pmod{J_k(p)} \\ &= e_B m \pmod{J_k(p)}. \text{ Now Alice sends this result to the user Bob.} \end{aligned}$$

- The user Bob applies d_B to the recovered number Y and computes $Y = y^{d_B} \pmod{J_k(p)}$
 $= d_B y \pmod{J_k(p)}$
 $= e_B d_B m \pmod{J_k(p)}$
 $= m \pmod{J_k(p)} = m.$

Example :

Let $P=7, k=2$

$$J_k(p) = J_2(7) = 7^2 - 1 = 49 - 1 = 48$$

Consider $(\mathbb{Z}_{48}, +, \cdot)$ a commutative ring with unity as a message space. Let $m = 10 \in \mathbb{Z}_{48}$

Alice	Bob
Selects e_A, d_A such that	Selects e_B, d_B such that

$e_A d_A \equiv 1 \pmod{48}$ Suppose Alice selects $e_A = 5, d_A = 29$ Computes $W = m^{e_A} \pmod{48}$ $= e_A m \pmod{48}$ $= 5 \cdot 10 \pmod{48}$ $= 2$ Alice sends W to Bob Computes $Y = X^{d_A} \pmod{48}$ $= d_A x \pmod{48}$ $= 29 \times 14 \pmod{48}$ $= 406 \pmod{48}$ $= 22$ Alice sends y to Bob	$e_B d_B \equiv 1 \pmod{48}$ Suppose Alice selects $E_B = 7, d_B = 7$ Computes $X = w^{e_B} \pmod{48}$ $= e_B w \pmod{48}$ $= 7 \cdot 2 \pmod{48}$ $= 14$ Bob sends X to Alice Computes $Z = Y^{d_B} \pmod{48}$ $= d_B y \pmod{48}$ $= 7 \times 22 \pmod{48}$ $= 154 \pmod{48}$ $= 10$
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Variant of Paillier Cryptosystem based on $J_k(N)$

Choose two positive integers N and K, where $1 \leq K \leq N$ Compute $J_k(N)$

Consider $(Z_{J_k(N)}, +, \cdot, ^x)$ a

Commutative ring with unity as a message space.

Consider function $L(x) = \frac{x \pmod{J_k(N)}}{r}$

Where r is random belongs to $Z_{J_k(N)}$

Select a generator $g \in Z_{J_k(N)}$ such that $\gcd(g, J_k(N)) = 1$

Select d such that $gd \equiv 1 \pmod{J_k(N)}$

Public -Key PK = $(Z_{J_k(N)}, J_k(N), g, r)$
Private Key SK = $(Z_{J_k(N)}, J_k(N), g, d)$

Encryption:

$C = g^m r \pmod{J_k(N)}$, where m is the message belongs to $Z_{J_k(N)}$

Decryption:

$$L(dc) = \frac{dc \pmod{J_k(N)}}{r} = \frac{dg^m r \pmod{J_k(N)}}{r}$$

$$= d m g \pmod{J_k(N)}$$

$$= d g m \pmod{J_k(N)}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= g d m \pmod{J_k(N)} \\
 &= 1 m \pmod{J_k(N)} \\
 &= m
 \end{aligned}$$

Example :

Let $P=7, k=2$

$$J_k(p)=J_2(7) = 7^2-1 = 49-1=48$$

Consider $(Z_{48}, +_{48}, X_{48})$ a commutative ring with unity as a message space.

$$L(x) = \frac{x \pmod{J_k(N)}}{r}$$

Where r is a random belongs to Z_{48}

Let $r = 4$

Select $g \in Z_{48}$ such that $(g, J_k(N)) = (g, 48) = 1$

$$\therefore (5, 48) = 1 \quad \therefore \text{take } g = 5$$

Select d such that $gd \equiv 1 \pmod{J_k(N)}$

$$5d \equiv 1 \pmod{48}$$

$$5 \times 29 \equiv 1 \pmod{48}$$

$$\therefore \text{Take } d = 29$$

Public Key $PK = (Z_{48}, 48, 5, 4)$

Private Key $SK = (Z_{48}, 48, 29)$

Take a message $m = 3 \in Z_{48}$

Encryption:

$$\begin{aligned}
 C &= g^m r \pmod{J_k(N)} \\
 &= m g r \pmod{J_k(N)} \\
 &= (3 \times 5 \times 4) \pmod{48} \\
 &= 60 \pmod{48} \\
 &= 12
 \end{aligned}$$

Decryption:

$$\begin{aligned}
 L(dc) &= \frac{dc \pmod{J_k(N)}}{r} \\
 &= \frac{29 \times 12 \pmod{48}}{4} = \frac{12}{4} = 3 = m
 \end{aligned}$$

Remarks: This cryptosystem works when N is a product of two primes. In this case we can easily calculate e and d such that $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{J_k(N)}$.

SIGNIFICANCE AND COMPLEXITY OF OUR DEVELOPED SCHEMES:

Our Developed Schemes have the following significance features.

- 1) All our schemes provide strong security but are also practicable.
- 2) The encryption algorithms of T.El Gamal Scheme and Paillier Schemes are one way functions unless, some trap door function is given, we cannot decrypt the plaintext from the ciphertext. So the schemes are very much secure and intractable.
- 3) Since we have taken $(Z_{J_K(N)}, +_{J_K(N)}, \times_{J_K(N)})$ a commutative ring with unity as a message space we can use both the operations $+_{J_K(N)}$ and $\times_{J_K(N)}$ in these cryptosystems.
- 4) Since k is a positive integer such that $1 \leq k \leq N$, therefore k is our choice. By choosing appropriate k we can make the message space as large as possible. If we assign numerical equivalents to the alphabets randomly from this message space, certainly it is very difficult to recover the plaintext from the cipher text. So all the above systems are very much secure and complex.

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