

# INTRODUCTION

## Definitions, Acronyms and Abbreviations.

Addition Rule: An *addition rule* describes the addition of two elliptic curve points  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  to produce a third elliptic curve point  $P_3$ .

Basis: A representation of the elements of the finite field  $F_2^m$

Binary polynomial: A polynomial whose co-efficient are in the Field  $F_2$

Elliptic Curve: An *elliptic curve* is a set of points specified by two parameters  $a_2$  and  $a_6$ , which are the elements of Field  $F_q$ . If  $q = p$  is an odd prime,  $p > 3$ , the Weierstrass equation defined by the curve of the form  $y^2 = x^3 + a_2x + a_6$ . If  $q$  is a power of 2 (so that the field is  $F_2^m$ ), then the Weierstrass equation defined by the curve is of the form  $y^2 = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_6$

Elliptic Curve key Pair: Given particular elliptic curve parameters, an elliptic curve key pair consists of an elliptic curve private key and the corresponding elliptic curve public key.

Elliptic Curve private key: Given particular elliptic parameters, an elliptic curve private key,  $d$  is a statistically unique and unpredictable integer in the interval  $[1, n-1]$ , where  $n$  is the prime order of the base point  $P$ .

Elliptic Curve public key: Given particular elliptic curve parameters and an elliptic curve private key  $d$ , the corresponding elliptic curve public key,  $Q$ , is the elliptic curve *point*  $Q = dP$ , where  $P$  is the base point.

Elliptic Curve Point: If  $E$  is an elliptic curve defined over a field  $F_q$ , then the *elliptic curve point*  $P$  is either

- A pair of field elements  $(x_p, y_p)$  (where  $x_p, y_p$  (element of  $F_q$ )) such that the values  $x = x_p$  and  $y = y_p$  satisfy the equation defining  $E$  or
- A special point  $O$  called the *point at infinity*.

**Irreducible Polynomial:** A binary polynomial  $f(x)$  is *irreducible* if it does not factor as a product of two binary polynomials, each of degree less than the degree of  $f(x)$ .

**Non Super singular Elliptic Curve:** An elliptic curve of the form

$y^2+xy=x^3+a_2x^2+a_6$ . The attacks on curves of this form are fully exponential in time.

**Order of a curve:** The *order of an elliptic curve*  $E$  defined over the field  $F_q$  is the number of points on  $E$ , including the point at infinity. This is denoted by  $\#E(F_q)$ .

**Order of a point:** The *order of a point*  $P$  is the smallest positive integer  $n$  such that  $nP=O$ , the point at infinity.

**Polynomial basis:** A type of basis where by the elements of the field  $F_{2^m}$  are represented by polynomials.

**Private key:** In an asymmetric key system, that key of the entity's key pair which is known only by the entity.

**Public key:** In an asymmetric key system, that key of the entity's key pair which is publicly known.

**Super Singular Elliptic Curve:** An elliptic curve of the form

$y^2+y=x^3+a_4x+a_6$ . The curves of this form are easy to cryptanalyze.

**Scalar multiplication:** If  $k$  is a positive integer, then  $kP$  denotes the point by adding together  $k$  copies of the point  $P$ . The process of computing  $kP$  from  $P$  and  $k$  is called *scalar multiplication*.

**Trace function:** If  $c$  is an element of  $F_{2^m}$ , the *trace* of  $c$  is  $Tr(c)=c+c^{(2^1)}+c^{(2^2)}+\dots+c^{(2^{(m-1)})}$ . It's a mapping from  $F_{2^m}$  to  $F_2$ .

**x-coordinate:** The *x-coordinate* of an elliptic curve point,  $P = (x_p, y_p)$ , is  $x_p$

**y-coordinate:** The *y-coordinate* of an elliptic curve point,  $P = (x_p, y_p)$ , is  $y_p$

## Symbols and Notations

$a \bmod n$ : The unique remainder  $r$ ,  $0 \leq r < n-1$ , when integer  $a$  is divided by  $n$ . For e.g.,  $23 \bmod 7 = 2$ .

$E$ : an elliptic curve.

$E(F_q)$ : The set of all points on an elliptic curve  $E$  defined over  $F_q$  and including the point at infinity  $O$ .

$\#E(F_q)$ : If  $E$  is defined over  $F_q$ , then  $\#E(F_q)$  denotes the number of points on the curve (including the point at infinity  $O$ ).  $\#E(F_q)$  is called the order of the curve  $E$ .

$F_2^m$ : The finite field containing  $2^m$  elements, where ‘ $m$ ’ is a positive integer.

$F_p$ : The finite field containing ‘ $p$ ’ elements where ‘ $p$ ’ is a prime.

$F_q$ : The finite field containing  $q$  elements,  $q$  shall be an odd prime number ( $p$ ) or a power of  $2, (2^m)$ .

$\text{Tr}$ : The trace function.

## Introduction to Finite Field Theory

A finite field is a set  $\mathbf{F}$  with a multiplicative and additive operation that satisfies the following rule- associativity and commutativity for both addition and multiplication, existence of an additive identity 0 and a multiplicative identity 1, additive inverses and multiplicative inverses for everything except 0. The Field can be over set of real numbers  $\mathbf{R}$ , field of complex numbers  $\mathbf{C}$ , the field  $\mathbf{Z}/p\mathbf{Z}$  of integers modulo a prime number  $p$ . By referring to the “Order” of an element we mean the least positive integer modulo  $p$  that gives 1.

**Multiplicative generators of finite field** are those elements in  $F_q^*$ ,  $q = p^f$  which have maximum order. It is seen that the order of any  $a$ (element of)  $F_q^*$  divides  $q-1$ .

Every finite field has a generator. If  $g$  is a multiplicative generator of  $F_q$ , then  $g^j$  is also a generator if and only if  $\gcd(j, q-1)=1$ . In particular, there are  $\phi(q-1)$  different generators in the multiplicative generators of  $F_q^*$ .

As an example, let us investigate generators of  $F_{19}^*$ .

Let  $\equiv$  denote the congruence symbol.

We check if 2 is a generator in the given prime field.

$$2^1 \equiv 2 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^3 \equiv 8 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^4 \equiv 16 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^5 \equiv 13 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^6 \equiv 7 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^7 \equiv 14 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^8 \equiv 9 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^9 \equiv 18 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^{10} \equiv 17 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^{11} \equiv 15 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^{12} \equiv 11 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^{13} \equiv 3 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^{14} \equiv 6 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^{15} \equiv 12 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^{16} = -5 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^{17} = 10 \pmod{19}$$

$$2^{18} = 1 \pmod{19}$$

We see it gives the sequence

$$2, 4, 8, 16, 13, 7, 14, 9, 18, 17, 15, 11, 3, 6, 12, 5, 10, 1$$

We observe that the set contains all the elements of the prime field. It is also seen that 2 has maximum order and is hence a generator in the given prime field.

If we obtain one generator in the prime field, it is easy to find the other generators.

We observe

$$\gcd(3, 9-1) = 1$$

$$\gcd(5, 9-1) = 1$$

$$\gcd(7, 9-1) = 1$$

Hence the other generators in  $F_9^*$  are

$$2^3 \pmod{9} = 8$$

$$2^5 \pmod{9} = 5$$

$$2^7 \pmod{9} = 2$$

If we take 3 and test if it is a generator in  $F_9^*$

$$4^1 \pmod{9} = 4$$

$$4^2 \pmod{9} = 7$$

$$4^3 \pmod{9} = 1$$

$$4^4 \pmod{9} = 4$$

$$4^5 \pmod{9} = 7$$

$$4^6 \pmod{9} = 1$$

$$4^7 \pmod{9} = 4$$

$$4^8 \pmod{9} = 7$$

$$4^9 \pmod{9} = 1$$

We see that 4 has order 3.

The tests to find a generator in  $F_p$ , the IEEE P1363 standards specify the following method.  
 We find the factorization of  $p-1$   
 $p-1 = q_1 * q_2 * \dots * q_n$ , the prime factors of  $p-1$ .

Then we find

$$\text{Order}_1 = g^{(p-1)/q_1}$$

$$\text{Order}_2 = g^{(p-1)/q_2}$$

$$\text{Order}_3 = g^{(p-1)/q_3}$$

$$\text{Order}_4 = g^{(p-1)/q_4}$$

$$\text{Order}_5 = g^{(p-1)/q_5}$$

.....

.....

$$\text{Order}_n = g^{(p-1)/q_n}$$

For  $(1 \leq i \leq n)$ , if any of  $\text{Order}_i = 1$ , the given element is not a generator. We test another random element of  $F_p^*$  until we find a generator.

Since there are  $\phi(p-1)$  distinct generators in  $F_p^*$  finding one won't be so hard.

## Diffie-Hellman key exchange over $F_p$

Let Alice and Bob be two legitimate parties attempting secure communication. They agree upon a publicly known generator in  $F_q^*$ .

- Alice chooses a random integer  $a$  between 0 and  $q-1$  which is her private key.
- Bob chooses a random integer  $b$  between 0 and  $q-1$  which is his private key.
- Alice computes  $A_{\text{pub}} = g^a \bmod p$  which is her public key and sends it to Bob.
- Bob computes  $B_{\text{pub}} = g^b \bmod p$  which is his public key and sends it to Alice.
- Alice computes  $A_{\text{shared}} = (B_{\text{pub}})^a = (g^b)^a \bmod p$  which is her shared secret.
- Bob computes  $B_{\text{shared}} = (A_{\text{pub}})^b = (g^a)^b \bmod p$  which is his shared secret.

We illustrate the scenario using a table.

$g$  = Preferably a generator in  $F_p^*$

$a$  = Random number generated by Alice, private key of Alice.

$b$  = Random number generated by Bob, private key of Bob.

ALICE	BOB
$g^a \bmod p$ $g^b \bmod p$ $A_{\text{shared}} = (B_{\text{pub}})^a = (g^b)^a \bmod p$	$g^a \bmod p$ $g^b \bmod p$ $B_{\text{shared}} = (A_{\text{pub}})^b = (g^a)^b \bmod p$

Discrete Log Problem: If  $G$  is a finite group,  $b$  is an element in  $G$  and  $y$  is an element in  $G$  which is the power of  $b$ , then the discrete log problem of  $y$  to the base  $b$  is any integer  $x$  such that  $b^x = y$

Diffie-Hellman Assumption: It is computationally infeasible to compute  $g^{ab}$  knowing only  $g^a$  and  $g^b$ .

### Algorithm for binary exponentiation modulo $m$ :

Let  $n_0, n_1, \dots, n_{k-1}$  denote the binary digits of  $n$ , i.e.  $n = n_0 + 2n_1 + \dots + 2^{k-1}n_{k-1}$ . ( $n_j = 0$  or  $1, 0 \leq j \leq k-1$ )

Step1 : Set  $a = 1$ .

Step2: Compute  $b_1 = b^2 \bmod m$ . If  $n_0 = 1$  ( $a < -b$ ) else  $a$  remains unchanged.

Step3: Compute  $b_2 = b_1^2 \bmod m$ . If  $n_1 = 1$  (multiply  $a$  by  $b_1 \bmod m$ ) else keep  $a$  unchanged.

Step4: Compute  $b_3 = b_2^2 \bmod m$ . If  $n_2 = 1$  (multiply  $a$  by  $b_2 \bmod m$ ) else keep  $a$  unchanged.

...

...

Step  $n$ : At the  $j^{\text{th}}$  step we have computed  $b_j = b^{(2^j)} \bmod m$ . If  $n_j = 1$  (multiply  $a$  by  $b_j \bmod m$ ), else keep  $a$  unchanged. After the  $(k-1)^{\text{st}}$  step we have the desired result  $a = b^n \bmod m$ .

## An introduction to arithmetic in polynomial basis

Let  $f(x) = x^m + f_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \dots + f_2x^2 + f_1x + f_0$ , where  $f_i$  (element of)  $F_2$  for  $i=0$  to  $m-1$ ) be an irreducible polynomial of degree  $m$  over  $F_2$ , i.e.,  $f(x)$  cannot be factored into two polynomials over  $F_2$ , each of degree less than  $m$ .  $f(x)$  is called the reduction polynomial. The finite field  $F_2^m$  is comprised of all polynomials over  $F_2$  of degree less than  $m$ :

$$F_2^m = \{a_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \dots + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0, a_i(\text{element of})\{0,1\}\}.$$

The elements of  $F_2^m$ ,  $a_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \dots + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0$ , can be represented using the binary string  $(a_{m-1} \dots, a_2, a_1, a_0)$ . Thus, the elements of  $F_2^m$  can be represented by a set of binary strings of length  $m$ . The multiplicative identity element 1 is represented by the bit string (000...01), while the zero element is represented by the bit string (000...00).

Field addition in polynomial basis:

$$(a_{m-1} \dots, a_2, a_1, a_0) + (b_{m-1} \dots, b_2, b_1, b_0) = (c_{m-1} \dots, c_2, c_1, c_0), \text{ where } c_i = a_i \text{ (xor)} b_i, \text{ i.e. the field addition is performed componentwise.}$$

Field multiplication modulo an irreducible polynomial in polynomial basis:

$(a_{m-1} \dots, a_2, a_1, a_0) \cdot (b_{m-1} \dots, b_2, b_1, b_0) = (r_{m-1} \dots, r_2, r_1, r_0)$ , where the polynomial  $r_{m-1}x^{m-1} + \dots + r_2x^2 + r_1x + r_0$  is the remainder when the polynomial  $(a_{m-1} \dots, a_2, a_1, a_0) \cdot (b_{m-1} \dots, b_2, b_1, b_0)$  is divided by  $f(x)$  over  $F_2$ . This method of representing  $F_2^m$  is called the *polynomial basis representation* and  $\{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^{m-1}\}$  is called a polynomial basis of  $F_2^m$  over  $F_2$ . Let  $F_2^*{}^m$  denote the set of all non-zero elements in  $F_2^m$ . There exists at least one element  $g$  in  $F_2^m$  such that any non-zero element of  $F_2^m$  can be expressed as a power of  $g$ . Such an element  $g$  is called a generator or primitive element in  $F_2^m$ . The multiplicative inverse of  $a=g^i$  (element of)  $F_2^*{}^m$  is  $a^{-1}=g^{(2^m)-1-i}$  where  $2^m$  represents  $2^m$ .

E.g. The finite field  $F_2^4$  using a polynomial basis representation.

Take  $f(x) = x^4+x+1$  over  $F_2$ . Then the elements of  $F_2^4$  are:

(0000)

(1000)

(0100)

(1100)

(0010)

(1010)

(0110)

(1110)  
 (0001)  
 (1001)  
 (0101)  
 (1101)  
 (0011)  
 (1011)  
 (0111)  
 (1111).

As examples of field arithmetic, we have:

$$(1101) + (1001) = (0100) \text{ and } (1101).(1001) = (1111) \text{ since}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (x^3+x^2+1)(x^3+1) &= x^6+x^5+x^2+1 \\ &= (x^4+x+1)(x^2+x)+(x^3+x^2+x+1) \\ &= x^3+x^2+x+1 \text{ mod } f(x). \end{aligned}$$

I.e.  $x^3+x^2+x+1$  is the remainder when  $(x^3+x^2+1).(x^3+1)$  is divided by  $f(x)$ . The multiplicative identity is (0001).  $F_2^m$  can be generated by one element  $g = x$ . The powers of  $g$  are:

$$\begin{aligned} g^0 &= (0001) \\ g^1 &= (0010) \\ g^2 &= (0100) \\ g^3 &= (1000) \\ g^4 &= (0011) \\ g^5 &= (0110) \\ g^6 &= (1100) \\ g^7 &= (1011) \\ g^8 &= (0101) \\ g^9 &= (1010) \\ g^{10} &= (0111) \\ g^{11} &= (1110) \\ g^{12} &= (1111) \\ g^{13} &= (1101) \\ g^{14} &= (1001). \end{aligned}$$

Now let us consider Elliptic curves over  $F_2^m$ . We illustrate the working process by means of an example

Example: An elliptic curve over  $F_2^4$ . Consider the field  $F_2^4$  generated by the root  $g = x$  of the irreducible polynomial:

$$f(x) = x^4 + x + 1.$$

The powers of  $g$  are:

$$g^0 = (0001)$$

$$g^1 = (0010)$$

$$g^2 = (0100)$$

$$g^3 = (1000)$$

$$g^4 = (0011)$$

$$g^5 = (0110)$$

$$g^6 = (1100)$$

$$g^7 = (1011)$$

$$g^8 = (0101)$$

$$g^9 = (1010)$$

$$g^{10} = (0111)$$

$$g^{11} = (1110)$$

$$g^{12} = (1111)$$

$$g^{13} = (1101)$$

$$g^{14} = (1001)$$

$$g^{15} = g^0 = (0001).$$

Consider the non super-singular elliptic curve over  $F_2^4$  with the defining equation:

$$y^2 + xy = x^3 + g^4 x^2 + 1.$$

Here,  $a = g^4$  and  $b = 1$ . The notation for this equation can be expressed as follows, since the multiplicative identity is  $(0001)$ :

$$(0001) y^2 + (0001)xy = (0001)x^3 + (0011)x^2 + (0001).$$

Then the solution over  $F_2^4$  to the equation of the elliptic curve are:

$$(0,1)$$

$$(1,g^6)$$

$$(1,g^{13})$$

$$(g^3,g^8)$$

$$(g^3,g^{13})$$

$$(g^5,g^3)$$

$$(g^5,g^{11})$$

$(g^6, g^8)$   
 $(g^6, g^{14})$   
 $(g^9, g^{10})$   
 $(g^9, g^{13})$   
 $(g^{10}, g^1)$   
 $(g^{10}, g^8)$   
 $(g^{12}, 0)$   
 $(g^{12}, g^{12})$ .

The group  $E(F_2^4)$  has 16 points (including the point at infinity O). The following are the examples of the group operation.

1. Let  $P_1 = (x_1, y_1) = (g^6, g^8)$ ,  $P_2 = (x_2, y_2) = (g^3, g^{13})$ ,  $P_1 + P_2 = (x_3, y_3)$ . where:

$$m = (y_1 + y_2)/(x_1 + x_2) = (g^8, g^{13})/(g^6, g^3) = g$$

$$x_3 = m^2 + m + x_1 + x_2 + a = g^2 + g + g^6 + g^3 + g^4 = 1,$$

$$y_3 = m(x_1 + x_3) + x_3 + y_1 = g(g^6 + 1) + 1 + g^8 = g^{13}.$$

2. If  $2P_1 = (x_3, y_3)$ , then:

$$m = x_1 + (y_1/x_1) = g^6 + (g^8/g^6) = g^3,$$

$$x_3 = m^2 + m + a = g^6 + g^3 + g^4 = g^{10},$$

$$y_3 = x_1^2 + (m+1)x_3 = g^{12} + (g^3+1)g^{10} = g^8.$$

We can find

$mP = P + P + \dots + P$  using the equation above.

(m times)

An element P of any group is said to have order m if

$$mP = P + P + \dots + P = O$$

(m times)

but  $m'P \neq O$  for all integers  $1 \leq m' < m$ . If such an 'm' exists, P has finite order.

## Elliptic curves over $F_p^f$

We are especially interested in non-super singular elliptic curves

$E(F_2^m)$  defined by parameters  $a_2, a_6 \in F_2^m$ ,  $a_6 \neq 0$ , is the set of solutions  $(x, y)$ ,  $x \in F_2^m$ ,  $y \in F_2^m$ , to the equation  $y^2 + xy = x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_6$  of characteristic 2 with the point at infinity O. Let  $q = p^f$ , Hasse theorem tells us

$q + 1 - 2\sqrt{q} \leq \#E(F_q) \leq q + 1 + 2\sqrt{q}$ , which ensures that the number of points on E is close to the field size, for a large field.

Let  $P(x_1, y_1)$  and  $Q(x_2, y_2)$  be two points on E. Then  $R(x_3, y_3) = P(x_1, y_1) + Q(x_2, y_2)$ , where  
 $x_3 = m^2 + m + x_1 + x_2 + a_2; m = (y_1 + y_2)/(x_1 + x_2)$   
 $y_3 = m(x_1 + x_3) + x_3 + y_1; m = (y_1 + y_2)/(x_1 + x_2)$

For double point,  $2P$

$$2*(x_1, y_1) = (x_3, y_3)$$

$$x_3 = m^2 + m + a_2; m = x_1 + (y_1/x_1)$$

$$y_3 = x_1^2 + (m+1)*x_3; m = x_1 + (y_1/x_1)$$

## Analog of Diffie-Hellman key exchange over Elliptic Curve

Let E be the elliptic curve over  $F_q$ ,  $q = 2^n$  being large. A reasonably secure implementation should have  $n > 250$  bits. Let Alice and Bob be two legitimate parties attempting secure communication. They choose a point  $B$  (element of) E to serve as the base point. For maximum security, the order of the base point should be near the field size. ‘B’ is a fixed publicly known point on E whose order is very large (either ‘n’ or a large prime divisor of ‘n’).

Lets ‘A’ represent Alice and ‘B’ represent Bob. They choose their private key to be a random bit pattern of the size of ‘q’. Let ‘a’ be Alice’s private key and ‘b’ be Bob’s private key. Alice computes

$$A_{\text{pub}} = aB \text{ (element of) } F_q$$

Bob computes his public key as

$$B_{\text{pub}} = bB \text{ (element of) } F_q$$

Alice takes  $B_{\text{pub}}$  and computes  $A_{\text{shared}} = a * B_{\text{pub}} = a(bB) \text{ (element of) } F_q$

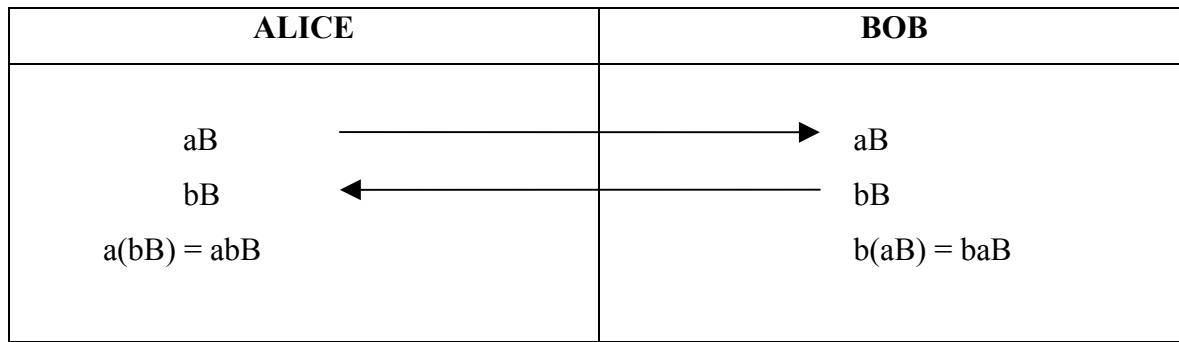
The arithmetic’s is done modulo a prime polynomial. Similarly, Bob takes  $A_{\text{pub}}$  and computes  $B_{\text{shared}} = b * A_{\text{pub}} = b(aB) \text{ (element of) } F_q$

We illustrate the scenario using a table.

B = Base Point

a= Random number generated by Alice, private key of Alice.

b= Random number generated by Bob, private key of Bob.



Implementing cryptosystems over elliptic curves has the advantage that it provides greater strength against cryptanalysis when compared to conventional public key cryptosystems of the same key size. Because of **Joux** and **R. Lercier** and their contribution in Improvements to the general Number Field Sieve for discrete logarithms in prime fields, finding discrete logarithms over  $F_p$ ,  $p$  a 110-digit prime has been shown possible in the year 2001 taking three weeks on an unique 525MHz quadri-processors Digital Alpha Server 8400 computer. In the year 2002, it was shown that calculating discrete logarithms over  $F(2^{607})$  was feasible, using **Coppersmith's** index calculation method. However, till date there are no sub-exponential algorithms to solve the Elliptic Curve Discrete Log problem (ECDLP). One of the best attacks till date against the ECDLP is Teske's method and the algorithm is fully exponential in time.

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