Understanding Asymmetric Encryption Algorithms

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***Abstract*—This paper contains information on how various cryptology algorithms work including RSA public key encryption, ElGamal asymmetric cryptology and Elliptic Curve public key encryption.**

I. Introduction

A. Types of Encryption

1) Asymmetric Encryption: Asymmetric encryption is also known as public key cryptography. These public key systems work by having a public key and a private key. The duty of the public key is to encrypt a message. The encrypted message is only able to be decrypted by an appropriate private key. One major down side of public key systems is that creating the key tends to be computationally expensive.

2) Symmetric Encryption: Symmetric encryption uses a single key for encryption and decryption. The keys on both sides are not always identical but both can encrypt and decrypt a message. Typically a symmetric encryption uses one of two methods stream ciphers or block ciphers. Stream ciphers encrypt data as it comes typically a few bytes at a time. For block ciphers a number of bits is taken at a time and is encrypted. If the data is too small to fit into a block it is padded so that it can fit into a block. Some common algorithms that use symmetric encryption are AES and blowfish.

3) Hybrid Cryptosystems: Hybrid cryptosystems use both asymmetric and symmetric encryption schemes. A hybrid system works by encrypting the message with a symmetric encryption key. This key is then encrypted using an asymmetric encryption technique. The symmetric key is then appended to the message. The benefit of using two encryption methods is that less time is needed for encrypting and decrypting the message due to using a symmetric technique plus since the symmetric key is encrypted using an asymmetric method we can still get the security of a public private key pair. A new symmetric key is generated each time to improve security further.

B. Dependent Algorithms

1) AKS Primality Test: The AKS primality test is a deterministic algorithm for determining if a number is prime. This is the fastest way to deterministically determine if a number is prime because it runs in polynomial time. The speed of this algorithm is O($ln^{6+E}p$) or can be sped up even more to O($ln^{4+E}p$). This extra speed up will incur the problem of an infinitesimally small chance for the result to be ambiguous.

2) Rabin-Miller Primality Test: The Miller-Rabin primality test provides a probabilistic efficient algorithm for determining if a number is prime. The algorithm takes in a random odd number and determines if the number is prime by testing to see if the inputted number has any factors. This algorithm is very quick and runs in no more time than (1 + o(1)) lg(n) where lg is logarithm base 2. This method is probabilistic so it can't be guaranteed that the number is prime but more likely than not it is prime.

3) DiffieHellmanMerkle key exchange: something here would be good

4) Padding Schemes: something about padding schemes would be good too

5) Euler's Totient Function: The $\phi(n)$ value counts the number of positive numbers relatively prime to n. For example $\phi(7)$ would be 6 because 1,2,3,4,5,6 are all relatively prime to 7. Prime numbers have a special property where the phi value of a prime number will always be the value of the prime number minus one.

6) Extended Euclidean Algorithm: This algorithm is an extension to the Euclidean Algorithm. The Extended Euclidean Algorithm is used typically for finding the coefficients of Bezouts identity. This algorithm can be adapted to find multiplicative modular inverses in a much faster way than the brute force method.

II. RSA Asymmetric Cryptography

The RSA asymmetric cryptography algorithm is named after its creators Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Leonard Adleman and was first thought of in 1973. At the time it was highly classified and was not declassified until 1997. The idea behind this algorithm is to use large prime numbers to create a public key and a private key. Security for this algorithm rises from the difficulty of factoring large integers.

A. Private and Public Key Generation

The key generation process is a five step process.

1) Creating Large Prime Numbers: First two large prime numbers are calculated using a prime number testing algorithm such as AKS. These will be denoted p and q. We want both of these values to be relatively the same length digit wise but it can differ a bit.

2) Compute n: Computing n is just the product of p and q. The value of n will be used as the modulus for our keys and it's length is known as the key length.

$$n = p * q$$

3) Compute Euler's Totient Function: Now we must use Euler's totient function to give us a max value for our public key e. Luckily we are able to use algebra to make computing this value much easier.

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

4) Create Public Key: Now we need to create a value for e which will be our public key exponent for encrypting a message. For this value we want to use a reasonably small value without it being too small.

$$1 < e < \phi(n)$$

5) Create Private Key: Lastly since we have generated a value for e we will create d which will be used for decryption. To generate d we compute the modular multiplicative inverse of e (modulo $\phi(n)$). This value is commonly computed using the Extended Euclidean Algorithm. This is represented by the equation below.

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

B. Encrypting and Decrypting a Message

With the values of e and d determined the next step is to use this key pair to encrypt and decrypt a cipher text. To start a message we need to convert it's text into a number. This is done by the use of ASCII values and by using an agreed upon padding scheme. To compute a ciphertext c and restore it to a readable message we use the following equations respectively.

$$c \equiv m^e\,(mod\,(n)) \text{ and } m \equiv c^d\,(mod\,(n))$$

C. Example of Usage

1) Creating Large Prime Numbers: To start with an example we will need to prime numbers for p and q. This example will be a simple one so smaller prime numbers are used. Let p = 991 and q = 821.

2) Compute N: We then use p and q to determine our value for n. Since $n = p * q$ this makes the value of n = 813611.

3) Compute Euler's Totient: Compute the Euler's totient value next.

4) Create Public Key: With these values created a public and private key can be created. Let e = 7423 which was arbitrarily chosen and now d is computed.

$$\phi(813611) = \phi(991)\,\phi(821) = (990)(820) = 813611 - (1811) = 811800$$

5) Create Private Key: Using the extended Euclidean algorithm to compute the modular multiplicative inverse we get d = 788287. The values of d and e are our private and public keys respectively and can now be used for message encryption/decryption.

Let our plain text message m = "Hi". First we use an ASCII table to determine the value of m as a large integer. A simple way to do this is to concatenate each ASCII value together to form the integer. So m = 72105. Now that we have all the values we need we can encrypt and decrypt a message

$$c \equiv 72105^{7423} mod(813611)$$
$$c = 707473$$
$$m \equiv 707473^{788287} mod(813611)$$
$$m = 72105$$

The ASCII values for our message 'Hi' were 72 and 105 so that means it was successfully decrypted.

D. Discussion

The RSA method only works because of the presumed difficulty of factoring large numbers. When quantum computers begin to become legitimate Shor's algorithm will be able to factor large numbers in polynomial time. This advancement will break the RSA method of cryptology.

Ignoring the realm of quantum computers several attempts have been made to break RSA. A specialized machine for finding prime factorization of large numbers was designed and able to break a RSA key. With enough hardware simpler keys can be cracked but to combat this larger RSA keys can be used.

Another potential issue is that the random number generator may not always be 100 percent random. If someone was able to guess the correct seed then the work for prime factorization would be much easier.

III. ElGamal Asymmetric Cryptography

ElGamal public key cryptography is an alternative to RSA. This encryption algorithm was first described by Taher Elgmal in 1985. The ElGamal algorithm is dependent on the difficulty of computing discrete logs in a large prime modulus.

A. Private and Public Key Generation

The first step is to create a large prime number p. This p will be the exclusive max in our cyclic group. After p is generated an arbitrary number g that is between 1 and p - 1 is created. The variable g is the generator for our cyclic group. Then one last number x is selected where x is between 1 and p - 1, x will be used as the private key. We now compute a y value which will be the last part of our public key which is (p,g,y). To compute y see the next figure.

$$y = g^x \mathrm{mod} p$$

B. Encrypting and Decrypting a Message

When using ElGamal for encryption the cipher text will be twice the length of the plain text message. To encrypt first a random value k is chosen where k is between 1 and q - 1. Each time a message is sent the value of k should be changed. The message is then broken up into chunks and a padding scheme is followed so that the string is less than our value of p. Now for each chunk of the message m to be encrypted we create an ordered pair (a,b) by using the following equations.

$$a = g^k mod\,(p)$$
$$b = y^k\,(m)\,mod\,(p)$$

A series of these order pairs are sent then to the receiver who can then decrypt them and assemble the message. To decrypt each ordered pair we can use the following equations.

$$s = a^x * b mod\,(p)$$
$$m = b * s^{-1} mod\,(p)$$

C. Example of Usage

For this example we are going to have p = 17. Our generator g = 6. Using these values we can then finish our public key and private key. For this example our private key x = 5. This value was chosen at random. With these values we can compute the last portion of our public key which comes out to y = 7. Our message will be simple this time with m = 13. First before the message can be encrypted by a public sender the sender must create a random k value. In this example k = 10. Now we can encrypt the message by using the following equation.

$$a = 15 = 6^{10} mod\,(17)$$
$$b = 8 = 7^{10}\,(13)\,mod\,(17)$$

Now we can decrypt a and b using the private key x.

$$s = 16 = \left(15^5 * 8\right) mod\,(17)$$
$$m = 13 = \left(8 * 16^{-1}\right) mod\,(17)$$

The original message was 13 and after encrypting and decrypting 13 has been returned.

D. Discussion

One big concern with ElGamal is that a message m is going to be twice the size when encrypted. It is also slower than a symmetric algorithm for the same level of encryption so these features of algorithms makes ElGamal perfect for hybrid systems.

One advantage that ElGamal has is that it works with any cyclic group such that the computational Diffie-Hellman assumption holds for the group. This assumption makes it so the encrypting function is one way. If the decisional Diffie-Hellman assumption the ElGamal will achieve semantic security. If these assumptions hold then that cyclic group can be used with ElGamal encryption. So in the future if the discrete logarithm problem is made trivial a new cyclic group could be developed.

IV. Elliptic Curve Asymmetric Cryptography

A. Private and Public Key Generation

B. Encrypting and Decrypting a Message

C. Example of Usage

D. Discussion

V. References

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