

## EIGamal Cryptosystem and variants

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## Structure of $Z_p^*$

For a prime  $p$ ,  $Z_p^*$  is all non-zero elements of  $Z_p$ .

Fermat's (Little) Theorem: For all  $x \in Z_p^*$ , we have

$$x^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Let  $\langle g \rangle$  denote the numbers generated by powers of  $g$  in  $Z_p^*$ ;  $\langle g \rangle = \{g, g^2, \dots, g^{p-1}\}$ .

E.g. for  $Z_5^*$ :

$$\langle 1 \rangle = \{1\} \quad \langle 2 \rangle = \{2, 4, 3, 1\}$$

$$\langle 3 \rangle = \{3, 4, 2, 1\} \quad \langle 4 \rangle = \{4, 1\}$$

- “order” of 1 is one; of 4 is two; of 2 & 3 is four.
- 2 & 3 are “generators” of  $Z_5^*$  (they have order  $p-1$ ).
- Fact: For every prime  $p$ ,  $Z_p^*$  has a generator.

## EIGamal – Encryption

Parameters:

- $p$ , a large prime
- $g$ , a generator of  $Z_p^*$
- $\alpha \in Z_{p-1}$ ,  $\beta = g^\alpha \pmod{p}$
- $p, g, \beta$  public;  $\alpha$  private

Encryption:

- generate random, secret  $k \in Z_{p-1}$ .
- $E(x, k) = (r, s)$ , where
  - $r = g^k \pmod{p}$
  - $s = x\beta^k \pmod{p}$
- $D(r, s) = s(r^\alpha)^{-1} \pmod{p} = xg^{\alpha k}g^{-\alpha k} \pmod{p} = x$ .

## EIGamal – Encryption

- Plaintext  $x$  is masked by a random factor,  $g^{\alpha k} \pmod{p}$ .
- DH problem: Given  $g^\alpha, g^k \pmod{p}$ , what is  $g^{\alpha k} \pmod{p}$ ?
- $p, g$  can be common. Then  $g^k \pmod{p}$  can be computed in advance.
- Same  $k$  should not be used repeatedly.
- Performance:
  - encryption: two exponentiations
  - decryption: one exponentiation, one inversion
- Size: Ciphertext twice as large as plaintext.

## EIGamal – Signature

Parameters: The same as encryption.

Signature:

- generate random, secret  $k \in Z_{p-1}^*$ .
- $S(m, k) = (r, s)$ , where
  - $r = g^k \bmod p$
  - $s = (m - \alpha)k^{-1} \bmod (p - 1)$
  - (i.e.,  $m = \alpha + sk$ )

Verification:

- Is  $\beta r^s \equiv g^m \pmod{p}$  ?
- $\beta r^s = g^{\alpha r} g^{k(m - \alpha)k^{-1}} = g^{\alpha r + (m - \alpha)} = g^m \bmod p$ .

## EIGamal – Signature

Security:

- Only one who knows  $\alpha$  can sign; can be verified by  $\beta$ .
- Solving  $\alpha$  from  $\beta$ , or  $s$  from  $r, m, \beta$ , is discrete log.
- Other ways of forgery? Unknown.
- Same  $k$  should not be used repeatedly.

Variations:

- Many variants, by changing the “signing equation”,  
 $m = \alpha + sk$ .
- E.g., the DSA way:  
 $m = -\alpha + sk$   
with verification:  $\beta r^s \equiv g^m \pmod{p}$ ? ( $\equiv g^{m + \alpha}$ )

## Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- US government standard, designed by NSA.
- Based on EIGamal & Schnorr:
  - patent-free (EIGamal)
  - can't be used for encryption
- Objections:
  - EIGamal was not analyzed as much as RSA
  - slower verification
  - industry had already invested in RSA
  - closed-door design

## DSA (cont'd)

- Let  $q \mid (p-1)$  be prime, and  $g \in Z_p^*$  be of order  $q$ .
- Schnorr group: The subgroup in  $Z_p^*$  generated by  $g$ , of prime order  $q$ .  
 $\langle g \rangle = \{1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{q-1}\}$
- **Fact:**  $q$  can be much shorter than  $p$  (e.g. 160 vs. 1024 bits), and the hardness of DLP in  $\langle g \rangle$  remains the same.

## DSA (cont'd)

**Parameters:** prime  $p$ , prime  $q \mid (p-1)$ , and  $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  of order  $q$ . Hash fnc.  $H: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ .

**Keys:**  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  is private;  $\beta = (g^\alpha \bmod p)$  is public.

**Signature:**  $(r,s)$  where

- $v = g^k \bmod p$
- $r = v \bmod q$
- $s = (H(M) + r \alpha) k^{-1} \bmod q$

**Verification:**

- $v' = g^{H(M) s^{q-1}} \beta^{r s^{q-1}} \bmod p$
- $r = v' \bmod q$  ?

**Advantage:** Reduced size ( $r, s$  are 160-bit)

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## Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems

**Generalized Discrete Log Problem:**

- For any group  $(G, \cdot)$ , for  $x \in G$ , define  $x^n = x \cdot x \cdot \dots \cdot x$  ( $n$  times)
- DLP: For  $y = x^n$ , given  $x, y$ , what is  $n$ ?

**Elliptic curves over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ :**

- Set of points  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p$  that satisfy  $y^2 \equiv x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$  and an additional point of infinity,  $0$ .
- Group operation:  $P \cdot Q$  is the inverse of where the line thru  $P$  &  $Q$  intersects the curve. (inverse of  $P = (x, y)$  is defined as  $P^{-1} = (x, -y)$ .)
- Well-defined, provided that  $4a^3 \neq -27b^2 \pmod{p}$ .

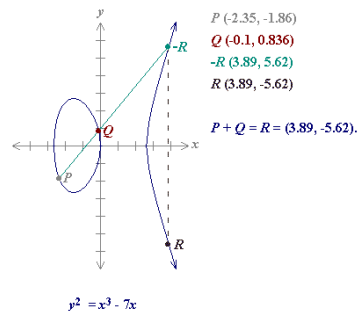
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## Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems (cont'd)

EC example over  $\mathbb{R}^2$ :



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## Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems (cont'd)

- Facts for an EC over a finite field:
  - Exponentiation is efficient.
  - DLP is hard. In fact, harder than in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ . (no sub-exponential algorithm is known)
- Hence, DH, ElGamal, etc. can be used with smaller key sizes over ECs. (160-bit EC  $\sim$  1024-bit RSA)
- Popular for constrained devices (e.g., smart cards)
- Advantages over RSA:
  - smaller key size
  - compact in hardware
  - faster (for private key operations)
- Licensed by NSA.

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## ECC vs. RSA

NIST guidelines for key sizes (bits) with eqv. security levels:

[http://csrc.nist.gov/publications/nistpubs/800-57/sp800-57\\_part1\\_rev3\\_general.pdf](http://csrc.nist.gov/publications/nistpubs/800-57/sp800-57_part1_rev3_general.pdf)

Symmetric Key	RSA/DH/EIGamal	ECC
80	1024	160
112	2048	224
128	3072	256
192	7680	384
256	15360	512

(according to our current knowledge of algorithms for factorization, DLP, and EC DLP)