# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

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## **Preliminaries**



- Whitfield Diffie and Martin Hellman, <u>New directions</u> in cryptography, IEEE Transactions of Information Theory, 22(6), pp. 644-654, Nov. 1976
- Cryptosystem for key establishment
- One-way function
  - $-\ f(x)$  : discrete exponentiation is computationally "easy"
  - f<sup>-1</sup>(x): discrete logarithm it is computationally "difficult"

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#### **Preliminaries**



- Mathematical foundation
  - Abstract algebra: groups, sub-groups, finite groups and cyclic groups
- We operate in the *multiplicative group*  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  with addition and multiplication modulo p, with p prime
  - $-\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is the set of integers i belonging to [0, ..., p-1], s.t. gcd(i, p) = 1
  - $Ex. Z_{11}^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$

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#### Facts on modular arithmetic



- Multiplication is commutative
  - $-(a \times b) \equiv (b \times a) \mod n$
- · Exponentiation is commutative
  - $-(a^x)^y \equiv (a^y)^x \mod n$
- Power of power is commutative
  - $-(a^b)^c \equiv a^{bc} \equiv a^{cb} \equiv (a^c)^b \mod n$

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#### Facts on modular arithmetic



- Parameters
  - Let p be prime and g ∈  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  be a *primitive element* (or *generator*), i.e., for each y = 1, 2, ..., p − 1, there is x s.t. y =  $\equiv$  g<sup>x</sup> mod p
- Discrete Exponentiation
  - Given  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , compute  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  s.t.  $\mathbf{y}$  =  $\mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{x}}$  mod  $\mathbf{p}$
- Discrete Logarithm Problem (DLP)
  - Given  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , determine  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  s.t.  $y = g^x \mod p$ 
    - Notation x = log<sub>g</sub> y mod p

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# Properties of discrete log



- $log_g(\beta \gamma) \equiv (log_g \beta + log_g \gamma) \mod p$
- $log_g(\beta)^s \equiv s (log_g\beta) \mod p$

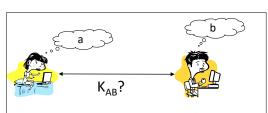
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#### The Diffie-Hellman Protocol





**SETUP** 

- Let p be a large prime (600 digits, 2000 bits)
- Let 1< g < p a generator
- Let p and g be publicly known
- THE DIFFIE-HELLMAN KEY EXCHANGE (DHKE)
  - Alice chooses a random secret number a (private key)
  - Bob chooses a random secret number b (public key)
  - M1: Alice → Bob: A,  $Y_A \equiv g^a \mod p$  (public key)
  - M2: Bob → Alice: B,  $Y_B \equiv g^b \mod p$  (public key)
  - Alice computes  $K_{AB} \equiv (Y_B)^a \equiv g^{ab} \mod p$
  - Bob computes  $K_{AB} \equiv (Y_A)^b \equiv g^{ab} \mod p$

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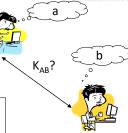
#### DHKE with small numbers



Let p = 11, g = 7

Alice chooses a = 3 and computes  $Y_{A} \equiv g^{a} \equiv 7^{3} \equiv 343 \equiv 2 \text{ mod } 11$ 

Bob chooses b = 6 and computes  $Y_B \equiv g^b \equiv 7^6 \equiv 117649 \equiv 4 \mod 11$ 



 $A \rightarrow B: 2$ 

B →A: 4

Alice receives 4 and computes  $K_{AB}$  =  $(Y_{B})^{a} \equiv 4^{3} \equiv 9 \ mod \ 11$ 

Bob receives 2 and computes  $K_{AB}$  =  $(Y_A)^b \equiv 2^6 \equiv 9 \text{ mod } 11$ 

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# **DHKE** computational aspects



- Large prime p can be computed as for RSA
- Exponentiation can be computed by square-andmultiply
  - The trick of using small exponents is non applicable here
- $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is cyclic
  - g is a generator, gi mod p defines a permutation
    - p = 11, g = 2

```
-2^{1} \equiv 2 \mod 11 2^{5} \equiv 10 \mod 11 2^{9} \equiv 6 \mod 11 2^{10} \equiv 1 \mod 11
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 $-2^4 \equiv 5 \mod 11$   $2^8 \equiv 3 \mod 11$ 

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# Security of DHKE



- Intuition
  - Eavesdropper sees p, g,  $Y_A$  and  $Y_B$  and wants to compute  $K_{AB}$
- Diffie-Hellman Problem (DHP)
  - Given p, g,  $Y_A \equiv g^a \mod p$  and  $Y_B \equiv g^b \mod p$ , compute  $K_{\Delta B} = g^{ab} \mod p$
- How hard is this problem?

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# Security of DHKE



- DHP  $\leq_p$  DLP
  - If DLP can be easily solved, then DHP can be easily solved
  - There is no proof of the converse, i.e., if DLP is difficult then DHP is difficult
  - At the moment, we don't see any way to compute  $K_{AB}$  from  $Y_A$  and  $Y_B$  without first obtaining either a or b

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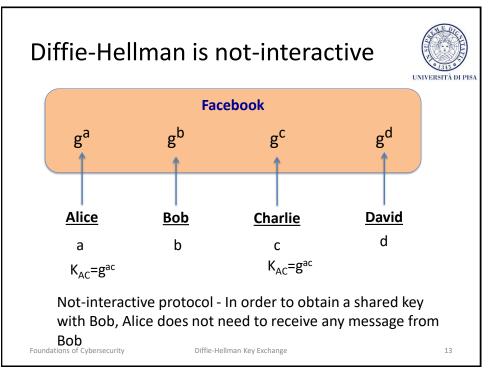
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#### **NOT-INTERACTIVITY**

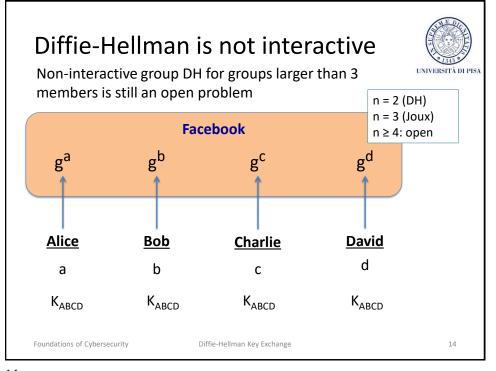
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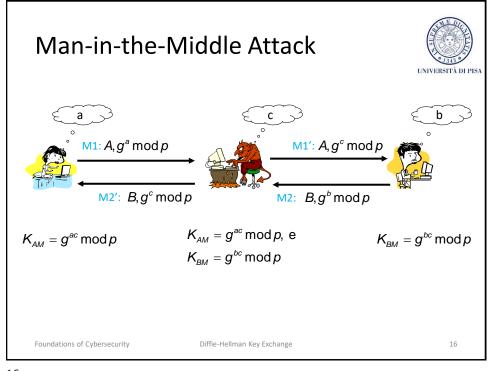
#### THE MAN-IN-THE-MIDDLE ATTACK

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# 

- Beliefs
  - Alice believes to communicate with Bob by means of  $K_{AM}$
  - Bob believes to communicate with Alice by means of  $K_{BM}$
- The adversary can
  - read messages between Alice and Bob
  - impersonate Alice or Bob
- DHKE is insecure against MIM (active) attack

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# THE GENERALIZED DLP AND ATTACKS AGAINST DLP

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#### The Generalized DLP



- · DLP can be defined on any cyclic group
- GDLP (def)
  - − Given a finite cyclic group G with group operation and cardinality n, i.e., |G| = n. We consider a primitive element  $\alpha \in G$  and another element  $\beta \in G$ . The discrete logarithm problem is finding the integer x, where  $1 \le x \le n$ , such that

$$\beta = \underbrace{\alpha \bullet \alpha \bullet \alpha \bullet \dots \bullet \alpha}_{\text{x times}} = \alpha^{x}$$

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# DLP for cryptography



- Multiplicative prime group  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ 
  - DHKE, ElGamal encryption, Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
- Cyclic group formed by Elliptic curves
- Galois field GF(2<sup>m</sup>)
  - Equivalent to  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$
  - Attacks against GF(2<sup>m</sup>) are more powerful than DLP in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  so we need "higher" bit lengths than  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$
- Hyperelliptic curves or algebraic varieties

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# Algorithms for DLP



- · Generic Algorithms work in any cyclic group:
  - Brute-force Search
  - Shank's Baby-Step Giant-Step Method
  - Pollard's Rho Method
  - Pohlig-Hellman Algorithm
- Nongeneric algorithms exploit inherent structure of certain groups
- FACT Difficulty of DLP is independent of the generator

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# Algorithms for DLP



- · Generic algorithms
- Brute-force Search
  - Running time: O(|G|) multiplications
  - Shank's Baby-Step Giant-Step Method
    - Running time:  $O\left(\sqrt{|G|}\right)$  multiplications
    - Storage:  $O\left(\sqrt{|G|}\right)$

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# Algorithms for DLP



- · Generic Algorithms
  - Pollard's Rho Method
    - · Based on the Birthday Paradox
    - Running time:  $O\left(\sqrt{|G|}\right)$  multiplications
    - · Storage: negligible

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# Algorithms for DLP



- Generic Algorithms
  - Pohlig-Hellman Algorithm
    - Based on CRT, exploits factorization of  $|\mathsf{G}| = \prod_{i=1}^r (p_i)^{e_i}$ 
      - Reduces DLP to DLP in (smaller) groups of order  $p_i^{\,e_i}$
      - In the EC, computing |G| is not easy
    - Running time:  $\mathcal{O}\!\left(\sum_{i=1}^r e_i \cdot \left(lg|G| + \sqrt{p_i}\right)\right)$  multiplications
      - Efficient if each p<sub>i</sub> is «small»
      - To prevent the attack the  $\mathit{smallest\ factor}$  of  $|\,\mathsf{G}\,|$  must be in the range  $2^{160}$

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# Algorithms for DLP



- · Nongeneric algorithms
  - Exploit inherent structure of certain groups
  - The Index-Calculus Method
    - Very efficient algorithm to compute DLP in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  and GF(2<sup>m</sup>)
    - · Sub-exponential running time
      - In  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , in order to achieve 80-bit security, the prime p must be at list 1024 bit long
      - It is even more efficient in GF(2<sup>m</sup>) → For this reason, DLP in GF(2<sup>m</sup>) are not used in practice

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## DLP - rule of thumb



- Let p be a prime on k bits (p < 2<sup>k</sup>)
- Exponentiation takes at most 2·log<sub>2</sub> p < 2k long integer multiplications (mod p)
  - Linear in the exponent size (k)
- Discrete logs require  $p^{\frac{1}{2}} = 2^{k/2}$  multiplication
- Example n = 512
  - Exponentiation: #multiplications  $\leq$  1024
  - Discrete log: #multiplications ≈  $2^{256}$  =  $10^{77}$ 
    - 10<sup>17</sup> seconds since Big Bang

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#### **DLP IN SUBGROUPS**

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# Cyclic groups



- Theorem 8.2.2. For every prime p,  $(\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \times)$  is an abelian finite cyclic group
  - Finite: contains a finite number of elements
  - Group: closed, associative, identity element, inverse, commutative
  - **Cyclic**: contain an element  $\alpha$  with maximum order ord( $\alpha$ ) =  $|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = p-1$ , where order of  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , ord(a) = k, is the smallest positive integer k such that  $a^k \equiv 1 \mod p$ 
    - $\alpha$  is called *generator* or *primitive element*
- The notion of finite cyclic group is generalizable to (G, ●)

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## Cyclic groups - order



- Example: consider  $\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*$  and a = 3
  - $a^1 = 3$
  - $-a^2 = a \cdot a = 3 \cdot 3 = 9$
  - $-a^3 = a^2 \cdot a = 9 \cdot 3 = 27 \equiv 5 \mod 11$
  - $-a^4 = a^3 \cdot a = 5 \cdot 3 = 15 \equiv 4 \mod 11$
  - $-a^5 = a^4 \cdot a = 4 \cdot 3 = 12 \equiv 1 \mod 11 \leftarrow \text{ ord}(3) = 5$
  - $a^6 = a^5 \cdot a \equiv 1 \cdot a \equiv 3 \mod 11$
  - $a^7 = a^5 \cdot a^2 \equiv 1 \cdot a^2 \equiv 9 \mod 11$
  - $a^8 = a^5 \cdot a^3 \equiv 1 \cdot a^3 \equiv 5 \mod 11$
  - $a^9 = a^5 \cdot a^4 \equiv 1 \cdot a^4 \equiv 4 \mod 11$
  - $a^{10} = a^5 \cdot a^5 \equiv 1 \cdot 1 \equiv 1 \mod 11$  ← periodic
  - $a^{11} = a^{10} \cdot a \equiv 1 \cdot a \equiv 3 \mod 11$
  - 3<sup>i</sup> generates the periodic sequence {3, 9, 5, 4, 1}

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# Cyclic groups – primitive element



- Example: consider  $\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*$  and a = 2
  - -a = 2

 $a^6 \equiv 9 \mod 11$ 

 $-a^2 = 4$ 

 $a^7 \equiv 7 \mod 11$ 

 $-a^3 = 8$ 

- $a^8 \equiv 3 \mod 11$
- $-a^4 \equiv 5 \mod 11$   $a^9 \equiv 6 \mod 11$
- $-a^5 \equiv 10 \mod 11$   $a^{10} \equiv 1 \mod 11$   $\mod 12$
- ord(2) = 10 =  $|\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*|$  → 2 is a primitive element

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# Cyclic groups – permutation



Powers of a primitive element define a permutation of the elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^\ast$ 

i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2 <sup>i</sup>	2	4	8	5	10	9	7	3	6	1

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# Cyclic groups – order and generators



- Order of elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*$ 
  - ord(1) = 1
- ord(6) = 10
- ord(2) = 10
- ord(7) = 10
- ord(3) = 5
- ord(8) = 10
- ord(4) = 5
- ord(9) = 5
- ord(5) = 5
- ord(10) = 2
- Any order is a divisor of  $|Z_{11}^*| = 10$
- #(primitive elements) is  $\Phi(10) = \Phi(|\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*|) = 4$
- Set of primitive elements = {2, 6, 7, 8}

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## Cyclic groups



- Theorem 8.2.3
  - Let *G* be a finite group. Then for every a ∈ G it holds that:
  - $-1.a^{|G|} = 1$  (Generalization of Fermat's Little Theorem)
  - $-2. \operatorname{ord}(a) \operatorname{divides} |G|$
- Theorem 8.2.4
  - Let G be a finite cyclic group. Then it holds that
    - 1. The number of primitive elements of G is  $\Phi(|G|)$ .
    - 2. If |G| is prime, then all elements  $a \neq 1 \in G$  are primitive.

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# Subgroups



- Theorem 8.2.5 Cyclic Subgroup Theorem
  - Let G be a cyclic group. Then every element a ∈ G with ord(a) = s is the primitive element of a cyclic subgroup with s elements.
  - Example:  $\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*$ , a = 3, s = ord(3) = 5, H = {1,3,4,5,9}
    - H is a finite, cyclic subgroup of order 5

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## Subgroups



- Theorem 8.2.6 (Lagrange's theorem)
  - Let H be a subgroup of G. Then |H| divides |G|.
- Example:  $\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*$ 
  - $| \mathbb{Z}_{11}^* | = 10$  whose divisors are 1, 2, 5
  - Subgroup elements primitive element -  $H_1$  {1}  $\alpha$  = 1 -  $H_2$  {1, 10}  $\alpha$  = 10
  - $-H_5$  {1, 3, 4, 5, 9}  $\alpha$ = 3, 4, 5, 9

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# Subgroups



- Theorem 8.2.7
  - Let G be a finite cyclic group of order n and let  $\alpha$  be a generator of G. Then for every integer k that divides n there exists exactly one cyclic subgroup H of G of order k. This subgroup is generated by  $\alpha^{n/k}$ . H consists exactly of the elements  $\alpha \in G$  which satisfy the condition  $\alpha^k = 1$ . There are no other subgroups.
- Example.
  - Given  $\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*$  and the  $\alpha$  = 8 generator, the  $\beta$  =  $8^{10/2}$  = 10 mod 11 that is a generator for H of order k = 2

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# Relevance of subgroups to DLP



- ON SOLVING DLP
- · Pohlig-Hellman Algorithm
  - Exploit factorization of  $|G| = p_1^{e1} \cdot p_2^{e2} \cdot ... \cdot p_{\ell}^{e\ell}$
  - Run time depends on the size of prime factors
    - The smallest prime factor must be in the range 2<sup>160</sup>
- $|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = p-1$  is even  $\rightarrow$  2 (small) is one of the divisors!
- · It is advisable to work in a prime subgroup H
  - If |H| is prime,  $\forall$ a∈H, a is a generator (Theorem 8.2.4)

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# Safe primes



- Definition: given a prime p = 2·q+1, where q is a prime then p is a safe prime and q is a Sophie Germain prime
- It follows that  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  has a subgroup  $H_q$  of (large) prime order q

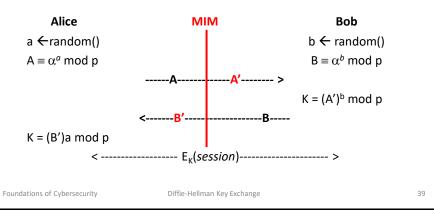
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# Relevance of subgroups to DLP



- SMALL SUBGROUP CONFINEMENT ATTACK
  - Consider prime p,  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , and generator  $\alpha$



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## Relevance of subgroups to DLP



- SMALL SUBGROUP CONFINEMENT ATTACK
- Given THEOREM 8.2.7
  - Consider k that divides  $|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = p-1$  then
  - $-A' \equiv A^{n/k} \equiv (\alpha^a)^{n/k} \equiv (\alpha^{n/k})^a \mod p$
  - $-B' \equiv B^{n/k} \equiv (\alpha^b)^{n/k} \equiv (\alpha^{n/k})^b \mod p$
  - Session key K =  $\beta^{ab}$  mod p, with  $\beta = \alpha^{n/k}$
  - $-\beta = \alpha^{n/k}$  is a generator of subgroup H of order k  $\rightarrow$
  - DHKE gets confined in H<sub>k</sub> and brute force becomes easier

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