

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

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Preliminaries



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- Whitfield Diffie and Martin Hellman, [New directions 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”
 - $f^{-1}(x)$: discrete logarithm it is computationally “difficult”

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Preliminaries



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- 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 $[0, \dots, p-1]$, s.t. $\gcd(i, p) = 1$
 - Ex. $\mathbb{Z}_{11}^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$

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Facts on modular arithmetic



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

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Facts on modular arithmetic



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- Parameters
 - Let p be prime and $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ be a *primitive element* (or *generator*), i.e., for each $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ there is $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ s.t. $y \equiv g^x \pmod{p}$
- Discrete Exponentiation
 - Given $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, compute $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ s.t. $y = g^x \pmod{p}$
- Discrete Logarithm Problem (DLP)
 - Given $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, determine $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ s.t. $y = g^x \pmod{p}$
 - Notation $x = \log_g y \pmod{p}$

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Properties of discrete log



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- $\log_g(\beta\gamma) \equiv (\log_g\beta + \log_g\gamma) \pmod{p}$
- $\log_g(\beta)^s \equiv s(\log_g\beta) \pmod{p}$

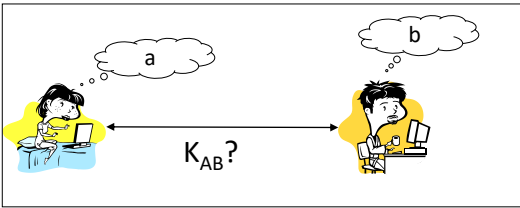
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The Diffie-Hellman Protocol





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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 \rightarrow Bob: $A, Y_A \equiv g^a \bmod p$ (public key)
 - M2: Bob \rightarrow Alice: $B, Y_B \equiv g^b \bmod p$ (public key)
 - Alice computes $K_{AB} \equiv (Y_B)^a \equiv g^{ab} \bmod p$
 - Bob computes $K_{AB} \equiv (Y_A)^b \equiv g^{ab} \bmod p$

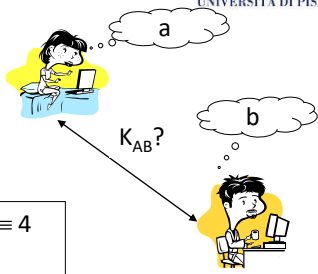
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DHKE with small numbers





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Let $p = 11, g = 7$

Alice chooses $a = 3$ and computes $Y_A \equiv g^a \equiv 7^3 \equiv 343 \equiv 2 \bmod 11$

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

A \rightarrow B: 2
B \rightarrow A: 4

Alice receives 4 and computes $K_{AB} = (Y_B)^a \equiv 4^3 \equiv 9 \bmod 11$
Bob receives 2 and computes $K_{AB} = (Y_A)^b \equiv 2^6 \equiv 9 \bmod 11$

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Foundations of Cybersecurity

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DHKE computational aspects

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


– $2^1 \equiv 2 \bmod 11$	$2^5 \equiv 10 \bmod 11$	$2^9 \equiv 6 \bmod 11$
– $2^2 \equiv 4 \bmod 11$	$2^6 \equiv 9 \bmod 11$	$2^{10} \equiv 1 \bmod 11$
– $2^3 \equiv 8 \bmod 11$	$2^7 \equiv 7 \bmod 11$	<i>repeat cyclically</i>
– $2^4 \equiv 5 \bmod 11$	$2^8 \equiv 3 \bmod 11$	

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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 $p, g, Y_A \equiv g^a \bmod p$ and $Y_B \equiv g^b \bmod p$, compute $K_{AB} = g^{ab} \bmod p$
- How hard is this problem?

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Security of DHKE



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- $\text{DHP} \leq_p \text{DLP}$
 - 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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NOT-INTERACTIVITY

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Diffie-Hellman is not-interactive

Facebook

g^a g^b g^c g^d

Alice Bob Charlie David

a b c d

$K_{AC} = g^{ac}$ $K_{AC} = g^{ac}$

Not-interactive protocol: in order to obtain a shared key with Bob, Alice does not need to receive any message from Bob

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Diffie-Hellman is not interactive

Non-interactive group DH for groups larger than 3 members is still an open problem

Facebook

g^a g^b g^c g^d

Alice Bob Charlie David

a b c d

K_{ABCD} K_{ABCD} K_{ABCD} K_{ABCD}

$n = 2$ (DH)
 $n = 3$ (Joux)
 $n \geq 4$: open

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THE MAN-IN-THE-MIDDLE ATTACK


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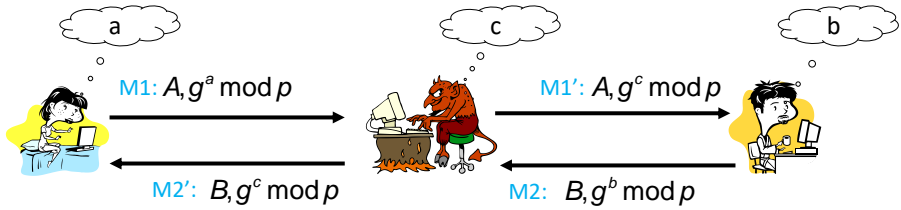
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Man-in-the-Middle Attack


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$K_{AM} = g^{ac} \bmod p$ $K_{AM} = g^{ac} \bmod p, e$ $K_{BM} = g^{bc} \bmod p$
 $K_{BM} = g^{bc} \bmod p$

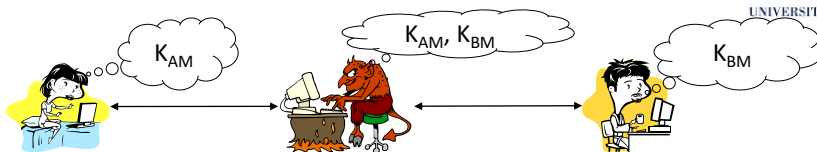
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Man-in-the-Middle Attack



- 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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Man-in-the-Middle Attack

- The attack is possible because
 - Y_A and Y_B are not authenticated
 - A and Y_A , as well as B and Y_B , are not indissolubly linked
 - A : Alice's identifier
 - B : Bob's identifier
 - Two sides of the same coin

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THE GENERALIZED DLP AND
ATTACKS AGAINST DLP

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The Generalized DLP


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- DLP can be defined on any cyclic group
- GDLP (def)
 - Given a finite cyclic group G with group operation \bullet 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 $1 \leq x \leq n$, such that
$$\beta = \underbrace{\alpha \bullet \alpha \bullet \alpha \bullet \dots \bullet \alpha}_{x \text{ times}} = \alpha^x$$

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DLP for cryptography



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- Multiplicative prime group \mathbb{Z}_p^*
 - DHKE, ElGamal encryption, Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
- Cyclic group formed by Elliptic curves
- Galois field $\text{GF}(2^m)$
 - Equivalent to \mathbb{Z}_p^*
 - Attacks against DLP in $\text{GF}(2^m)$ 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



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- 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: $O(|G|)$
- Shank's Baby-Step Giant-Step Method
 - Running time: $O(\sqrt{|G|})$
 - Storage: $O(\sqrt{|G|})$

%

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Algorithms for DLP

- **GENERIC ALGORITHMS**
- Pollard's Rho Method
 - Based on the Birthday Paradox
 - Running time: $O(\sqrt{|G|})$
 - Storage: negligible

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Algorithms for DLP



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

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Algorithms for DLP



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- **NONGENERIC ALGORITHMS**
 - Exploit inherent structure of certain groups
- **The Index-Calculus Method**
 - Very efficient algorithm to compute DLP in \mathbb{Z}_p^* and $\text{GF}(2^m)$
 - 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 $\text{GF}(2^m)$ → For this reason, DLP in $\text{GF}(2^m)$ are not used in practice

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DLP – rule of thumb



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- Let p be a prime on k bits ($p < 2^k$)
- Exponentiation takes at most $2 \cdot \log_2 p < 2k$ long integer multiplications (mod p)
 - Linear in the exponent size (k)
- Discrete logs require $p^{1/2} = 2^{k/2}$ multiplication
- Example $n = 512$
 - Exponentiation: #multiplications ≤ 1024
 - Discrete log: #multiplications $\approx 2^{256} = 10^{77}$
 - 10^{17} seconds since Big Bang

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DLP IN SUBGROUPS


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Cyclic groups




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- 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 α with *maximum order* $\text{ord}(\alpha) = |\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = p - 1$, where *order* of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, $\text{ord}(a) = k$, is the smallest positive integer k such that $a^k \equiv 1 \pmod p$
 - α is called *generator* or *primitive element*
 - The notion of finite cyclic group is generalizable to (G, \bullet)

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Cyclic groups – order



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

Length of the sequence = 5

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Cyclic groups – primitive element



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

$a^6 \equiv 9 \pmod{11}$
 - $a^2 = 4$

$a^7 \equiv 7 \pmod{11}$
 - $a^3 = 8$

$a^8 \equiv 3 \pmod{11}$
 - $a^4 \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$

$a^9 \equiv 6 \pmod{11}$
 - $a^5 \equiv 10 \pmod{11}$

$a^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11} \leftarrow \text{ord}(2) = 10$
 - $\text{ord}(2) = 10 = |\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*| \rightarrow 2$ is a primitive element
 - The sequence contains all elements of \mathbb{Z}_{11}^*


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Cyclic groups – permutation



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

i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2^i	2	4	8	5	10	9	7	3	6	1

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Cyclic groups – order and generators



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

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Cyclic groups



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- Theorem 8.2.3
 - Let G be a finite group. Then for every $a \in G$ it holds that:
 - 1. $a^{|G|} = 1$ (Generalization of Fermat's Little Theorem)
 - 2. $\text{ord}(a)$ 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



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


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Subgroups



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- 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



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- Theorem 8.2.7
 - Let G be a finite cyclic group of order n and let α 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 $a \in G$ which satisfy the condition $a^k = 1$. There are no other subgroups.
- Example.
 - Given \mathbb{Z}_{11}^* , generator $\alpha = 8$ and $k = 12$, then $\beta = 8^{10/2} = 10 \bmod 11$ is a generator for H of order $k = 2$

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Relevance of subgroups to DLP



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- Pohlig-Hellman Algorithm
 - Exploit factorization of $|G| = p_1^{e_1} \cdot p_2^{e_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_\ell^{e_\ell}$
 - Run time depends on the size of prime factors
 - The smallest prime factor must be in the range 2^{160}
 - Then $|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = p - 1$ is even $\rightarrow 2$ (small) is one of the divisors! \rightarrow It is advisable to work in a large prime subgroup H
 - If $|H|$ is prime, $\forall a \in H$, a is a generator (Theorem 8.2.4)

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Safe primes



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- Definition: given a prime $p = 2 \cdot q + 1$, 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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Small Subgroup Confinement Attack



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- A (small) subgroup confinement attack on a cryptographic method that operates in a large finite group is where an attacker attempts to compromise the method by forcing a key to be confined to an unexpectedly small subgroup of the desired group.
- Let's see a small subgroup confinement attack against DHKE


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Small Subgroup Confinement Attack



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- Consider prime p , \mathbb{Z}_p^* , and generator α

Alice

$a \leftarrow \text{random}()$

$A \equiv \alpha^a \text{ mod } p$

$K = (B')^a \text{ mod } p$

MIM

A

B'

$E_k(\text{session})$

A'

B

Bob

$b \leftarrow \text{random}()$

$B \equiv \alpha^b \text{ mod } p$

$K = (A')^b \text{ mod } p$

Diagram illustrating the Small Subgroup Confinement Attack. A vertical red line separates Alice and Bob. Alice sends A, Bob sends B. An attacker (MIM) intercepts and replaces them with A' and B'. Alice computes K = (B')^a mod p, and Bob computes K = (A')^b mod p. The session key is E_k(session).


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Small Subgroup Confinement Attack



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- Given THEOREM 8.2.7
 - Consider k that divides $|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = p - 1$ then
 - $A' \equiv A^{n/k} \equiv (\alpha^a)^{n/k} \equiv (\alpha^{n/k})^a \text{ mod } p$
 - $B' \equiv B^{n/k} \equiv (\alpha^b)^{n/k} \equiv (\alpha^{n/k})^b \text{ mod } p$
 - Session key $K = \beta^{ab} \text{ mod } p$, with $\beta = \alpha^{n/k}$
 - $\beta = \alpha^{n/k}$ is a generator of subgroup H of order $k \rightarrow$
 - DHKE gets confined in H_k and brute force becomes easier
 - It is advisable to work in a large prime subgroup H

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