

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

First published public-key algorithm

- Practical method for public exchange of a secret key
- Used in a number of commercial products

Idea:

- Enables two users to securely exchange a secret or symmetric key for subsequent encryption (Ex. AES)
- Value of the secret key depends on the participants (and their private and public key information)
- Security relies on:
  - Exponentiation in a finite (Galois) field (modulo a prime or a polynomial) is easy
  - Computing discrete logarithms (similar to prime factoring) is hard

## Diffie-Hellman Setup

All users agree on global parameters:

- A large prime integer:  $q$
- A primitive root of  $q$ :  $a$

Suppose users A and B wish to exchange a secret key

- User A: selects a random integer  $X_A < q$ 
  - Computes  $Y_A = a^{X_A} \bmod q$
- User B: selects a random integer  $X_B < q$ 
  - Computes  $Y_B = a^{X_B} \bmod q$

Each side keeps  $X$  as a private key and  $Y$  as the public key

$K_{AB}$  is the exchanged secret key for users A and B:

- $K_{AB} = Y_B^{X_A} \bmod q$  (**User A calculation**)
  - $= (a^{X_B} \bmod q)^{X_A} \bmod q$
  - $= (a^{X_B})^{X_A} \bmod q$
  - $= a^{X_B X_A} \bmod q$
  - $= (a^{X_A})^{X_B} \bmod q$
  - $= (a^{X_A} \bmod q)^{X_B} \bmod q$
  - $= Y_A^{X_B} \bmod q$  (**User B calculation**)

A and B subsequently use  $K_{AB}$  for symmetric encryption

Attackers knows  $q$ ,  $a$ ,  $Y_A$ ,  $Y_B$ ; They need to know  $X_A$  or  $X_B$

- $X_A = \text{dlog}_{a,q} Y_A$ ,  $X_B = \text{dlog}_{a,q} Y_B$ ,
- This is hard for large numbers

## Diffie-Hellman Example

Problem: Alice and Bob want to exchange secret keys

- Agree on prime  $q = 353$ ,  $a = 3$
- Select random private keys:
  - Alice chooses  $X_A = 97$
  - Bob chooses  $X_B = 233$
- Compute respective public keys:
  - $Y_A = 3^{97} \bmod 353 = 40$  (Alice)
  - $Y_B = 3^{233} \bmod 353 = 248$  (Bob)
- Compute shared session key as:
  - $K_{AB} = Y_B^{X_A} \bmod 353 = 248^{97} \bmod 353 = 160$  (Alice)
  - $K_{AB} = Y_A^{X_B} \bmod 353 = 40^{233} \bmod 353 = 160$  (Bob)

# Man-in-the-Middle Attack

Key exchange protocols:

- Public keys could be between two users A and B
- Could be between a group of users
- Both are vulnerable to a Man-in-the-middle attack

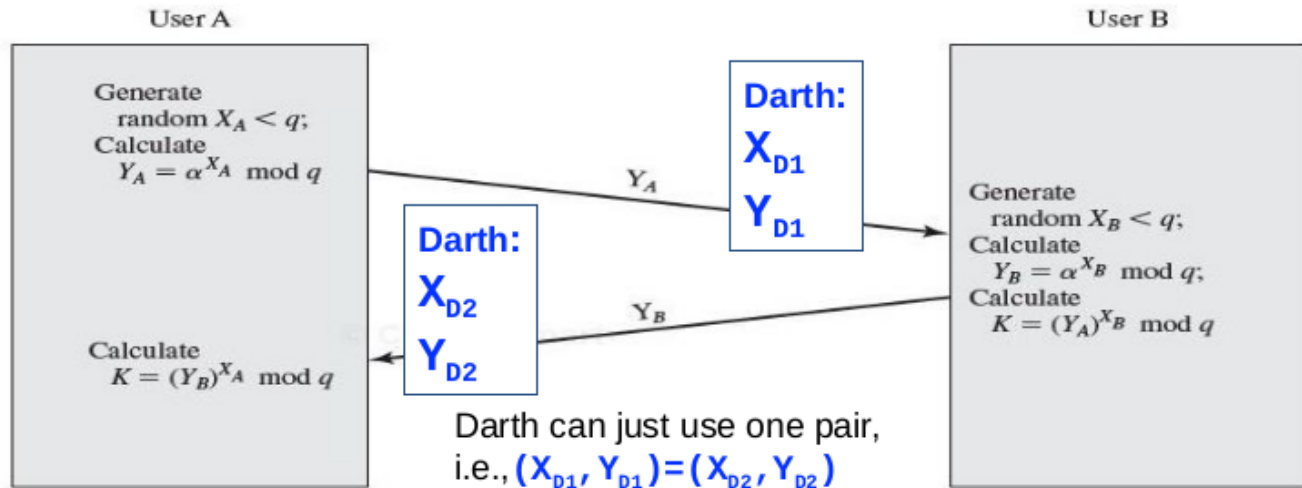


Figure 1: Diagram of a man-in-the-middle attack

$$K_{AD} = Y_{D2}^{X_A} \bmod q = Y_A^{X_{D2}} \bmod q$$

$$K_{BD} = Y_B^{X_{D1}} \bmod q = Y_{D1}^{X_B} \bmod q$$

Darth can eavesdrop or modify messages

Due to the authenticity of two parties not being established

Use public-key certificate and digital signatures to overcome this

## Ephemeral Diffie-Hellman and Perfect Forward Secrecy (PFS)

Fixed Diffie-Hellman: embeds the server's public parameter in the certificate, and the CA then signs the certificate. The certificate contains the Diffie-Hellman public-key parameters that never change. (Prone to man-in-the-middle attack)

Ephemeral Diffie-Hellman: uses temporary, public keys. Each instance or run of the protocol uses a different public key. The authenticity of the server's temporary key can be verified by checking the signature on the key. Because the public keys are temporary, a compromise of the server's long term signing key does not jeopardize the privacy of past sessions. This is known as perfect forward secrecy.

Only 44% of connects use ephemeral Diffie-Hellman

## ElGamal Cryptography

Uses concepts from Diffie-Hellman and further add security

- Does this by using finite (Galois) field
- Security depends on difficulty of computing discrete logarithms (Like Diffie-Hellman)
- Used in a number of standards
  - Digital signature standard (DSS)
  - Email standard (S/MIME)

## ElGamal Setup

All users agree on global parameters:

- A large prime integer:  $q$
- A primitive root of  $q$ :  $a$

User B wants to securely send a message to user A

User A

- Selects a random integer  $X_A < q - 1$
- Computes  $Y_A = a^{X_A} \bmod q$
- A's private key is  $X_A$ ; A's public key is  $\{q, a, Y_A\}$

## ElGamal Message Exchange

B encrypts a message to send to A computing

- Represent message  $M$  in range:  $0 \leq M \leq q - 1$ 
  - Longer messages must be sent as blocks
- Choose a random integer  $k$  with  $1 \leq k \leq q - 1$
- Compute a one-time key  $K = Y_A^k \bmod q$
- Encrypt and send  $M$  as a pair of integers  $(C_1, C_2)$  where
  - $C_1 = a^k \bmod q$ ;  $C_2 = KM \bmod q$

A then recovers message by:

- Recovering key  $K$  as  $K = C_1^{X_A} \bmod q$
- Computing  $M$  as  $M = C_2 K^{-1} \bmod q$
- Proof: ( $K$ : same as in Diffie-Hellman;  $K^{-1}$  multiplicative inverse in  $GF(q)$ )

## ElGamal Example

Use field  $GF(19)$   $q = 19$  and  $a = 10$  (a primitive root)

Alice computes her key:

- A chooses  $X_A = 5$  and computes  $Y_A = 10^5 \bmod 19 = 3$

Bob sends message  $M=17$  as  $(11, 5)$  by:

- Choosing random  $k = 6$
- Computing  $k = Y_A^k \bmod q = 3^6 \bmod 19 = 7$
- Computing  $C_1 = a^k \bmod q = 10^6 \bmod 19 = 11$
- Computing  $C_2 = KM \bmod q = 7 \cdot 17 \bmod 19 = 5$

Alice recovers original message by computing:

- Recover  $k = C_1^{X_A} \bmod q = 11^5 \bmod 19 = 7$

## ElGamal Long Message Exchange

Longer Messages must be sent as blocks, and a unique value of  $k$  should be used for each block

- Otherwise, once one plaintext block, ex  $M_1$ , is known by attackers, other can be computed

$$C_{1,1} = \alpha^k \bmod q; C_{2,1} = KM_1 \bmod q$$

$$C_{1,2} = \alpha^k \bmod q; C_{2,2} = KM_2 \bmod q$$

Then,

$$\frac{C_{2,1}}{C_{2,2}} = \frac{KM_1 \bmod q}{KM_2 \bmod q} = \frac{M_1 \bmod q}{M_2 \bmod q}$$

If  $M_1$  is known, then  $M_2$  is easily computed as

$$M_2 = (C_{2,1})^{-1} C_{2,2} M_1 \bmod q$$

Figure 2: Example of Long Message being able to be attacked

## Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC)

The key length of RSA has increased over the years

- A heavier processing load, especially on small devices

ECC offers same security as RSA with a smaller key size

ECC is newer, but not as well analyzed

Can provide key exchange, encryption, digital signature

Involves the use of an elliptic curve equation defined over a finite field (variables and coefficients are finite)

## Comparable Key Size in terms of Computation Effort for Cryptanalysis

Symmetric key algorithms	Diffie-Hellman, Digital Signature Algorithm	RSA (size of $n$ in bits)	ECC (modulus size in bits)
80	$L = 1024$ $N = 160$	1024	160–223
112	$L = 2048$ $N = 224$	2048	224–255
128	$L = 3072$ $N = 256$	3072	256–383
192	$L = 7680$ $N = 384$	7680	384–511
256	$L = 15,360$ $N = 512$	15,360	512+

Figure 3: Diagram of Algorithm strength

# PRNG Algorithms Based on Asymmetric Ciphers

Asymmetric Encryption Algorithms produce apparently random output.

- Hence can be used to build a pseudorandom number generator (PRNG)
- Much slower than symmetric algorithms
- Hence only used to generate a short pseudorandom bit sequence

## PRNG Based on RSA

Micali-Schnorr PRNG using RSA:

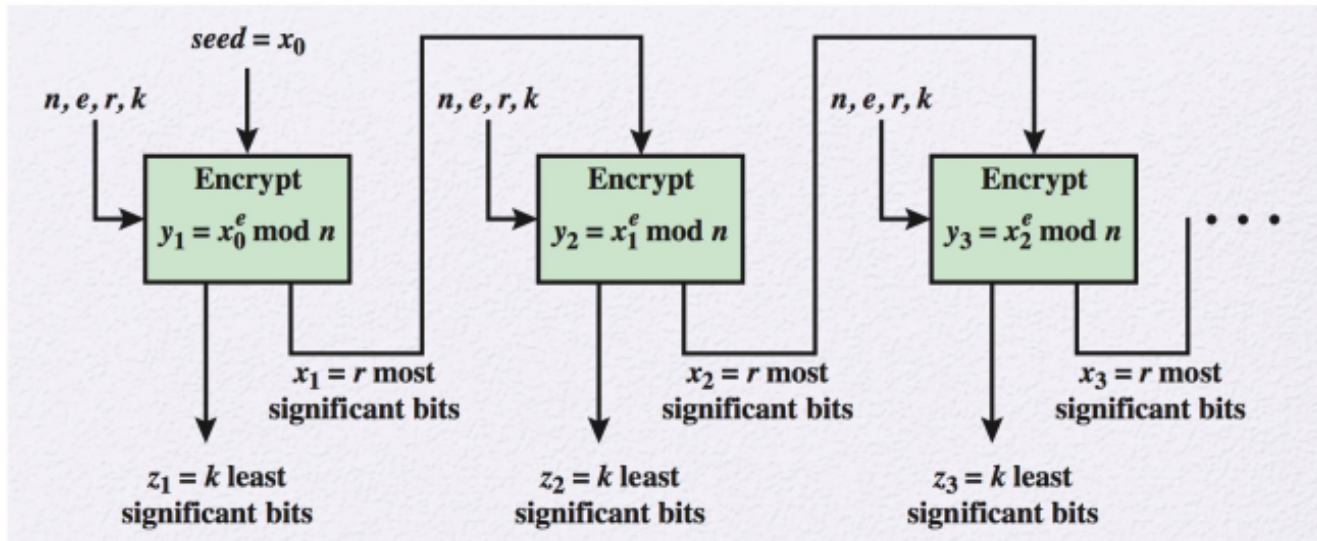


Figure 4: Diagram of RSA with PRNG

Similar to OFB mode used as PRNG

A portion of output is used as feedback, ensuring unpredictability

### Six Requirements in Micali-Schnorr PRNG

1.  $n = pq$  (This is from RSA)
2.  $1 < e < \phi(n)$ ,  $\text{GCD}(e, \phi(n)) = 1$  (This is from RSA)
3.  $re \geq 2 \cdot N$ ,  $N = \text{floor}(\log_2 n) + 1$ 
  - Ensures exponentiation requires a full modular reduction
4.  $r \geq 2 \cdot \text{strength}$ 
  - Strength is a value in  $\{112, 128, 192, 256\}$
  - $2^{\text{strength}}$  is the amount of work to break the security
5.  $k, r$  are multiple of 8 (Ease of implementation)
6.  $k \geq 8$ ;  $r + k = N$  (All bits are used)
  - $r$  should be large to meet the requirements of 3 and 4
  - $k$  should be large to get more bits in each encryption