# The Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange 

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Algorithms and Complexity
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## Contents

(1) Classical Cryptography
(2) Public Key Cryptography
(3) Public Key Distribution Cryptosystem

(4) One-way Authentication

## Contents

## (1) Classical Cryptography

## (2) Public Key Cryptography

## (3) Public Key Distribution Cryptosystem

## 4 One-way Authentication

A cryptographic system is a single parameter family $\left\{S_{K}\right\}_{K \in\{K\}}$ of invertible transformations

$$
S_{K}:\{P\} \rightarrow\{C\}
$$

for a space $\{P\}$ of plaintext messages to a space $\{C\}$ of ciphertext messages. The parameter $K$ is called the key and is selected from a finite set $\{K\}$ called the keyspace.

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For example, let us encode the english alphabet $\{A, B, \ldots, Z\}$ to the alphabet $\Sigma=\{1,2, \ldots, 26\}$. The Caeser cipher with $\{P\}=\{C\}=\Sigma^{*}$ and $\{K\}=\Sigma$ uses the invertible transformations
$S_{K}\left(a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{n}\right)=\left(a_{1}+K \quad \bmod 26\right)\left(a_{2}+K \bmod 26\right) \ldots\left(a_{n}+K \bmod 26\right)$.

Similarly, the One-Time-Pad with $\{P\}=\{C\}=\{K\}=\Sigma^{*}$ uses keys as long as the plaintext:
$S_{K}\left(a_{1} a_{2} \ldots a_{n}\right)=\left(a_{1}+k_{1} \bmod 26\right)\left(a_{2}+k_{2} \bmod 26\right) \ldots\left(a_{n}+k_{n} \bmod 26\right)$,
where $K=k_{1} k_{2} \ldots k_{n}$.

Classifying the threats:

- Ciphertext-only attack: totally insecure systems
- Known plaintext attack: not secure in case of later public disclosure
- Chosen plaintext attack: allows to opponents to plant messages


## Private Key Exchange

A basic problem in conventional cryptography is to ensure a secure communication via a private channel


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Due to physical constraints, this is infeasible when developing large, secure, telecommunication systems.

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- immediate, fast communication
- communication of unknown parties
- $n$ different users who wish to communicate privately from others


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A public key cryptosystem is a pair of families $\left\{E_{K}\right\}_{K \in\{K\}},\left\{D_{K}\right\}_{K \in\{K\}}$ of algorithms representing invertible transformations:

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& E_{K}:\{M\} \rightarrow\{M\} \\
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- for almost every $K \in\{K\}$, each easily computed algorithm equivalent to $D_{K}$ is computationally infeasible to derive from $E_{K}$,
- for every $K \in\{K\}$ it is feasible to compute inverse pairs $E_{K}$ and $D_{K}$ from $K$.

Each user generates a pair of inverse transformations, $E$ and $D$. The enciphering algorithm $E$ can de made public, while the deciphering transformation $D$ must be kept secret.

## A naive example

Let the message to be enciphered be a binary $n$-vector $\mathbf{m}$, and $E$ be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix, i.e., $\mathbf{c}=E \mathbf{m}$. Then $D=E^{-1}$ and $\mathbf{m}=D \mathbf{c}$.

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- Em and Dc are easy to compute (about $n^{2}$ operations)
- Calculating $D$ from $E$ (matrix inversion) is a harder problem (but not hard enough! $\rightarrow n^{3}$ operations)
- It is simpler to obtain a pair of inverse matrices than it is to invert a given matrix


## Example: RSA

Let $K=(p, q)$, where $p, q$ are prime numbers (secret), $N=p q$ (public) and $\{M\}=\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}$.
Then

$$
E_{K}: \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}, m \mapsto m^{e} \quad \bmod N
$$

where $e<N$ and

$$
D_{K}: \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}, c \mapsto c^{d} \quad \bmod N
$$

for some $d$ such that $e d=1 \bmod \phi(N)$.

## Example: RSA

- $E_{K}$ is the inverse of $D_{K}$ :

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D_{K}\left(E_{K}(m)\right)=E_{K}(m)^{d} \bmod N=\left(m^{e}\right)^{d} \bmod N=m^{e d} \bmod N=m
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- $E_{K}(m)$ and $D_{K}(c)$ are easy to compute
- Calculating $D_{K}$ from $E_{K}$ (given $e$, find $d$ ) is an NP problem
- It is feasible to find $e, d$ such that $e d=1 \bmod \phi(p q)$
" $E_{K}(m)$ and $D_{K}(c)$ are easy to compute":
Modular Exponentiation $a^{m} \bmod n$ can be done in $O(\log k)$, where $k$ is the exponent's length in binary.
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Modular Exponentiation $a^{m} \bmod n$ can be done in $O(\log k)$, where $k$ is the exponent's length in binary.
Require: $a, n, b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k-1}$ such that $m=\left(b_{k-1} \ldots b_{1} b_{0}\right)_{2}$
1: $x:=a$
2: $y:=1$
3: for $i=0, \ldots k-1$ do
4: if $b_{i}=1$ then
5: $\quad y:=y \cdot x \bmod n$
6: $\quad x:=x^{2} \bmod n$
7: end if
8: end for
9: return $y$


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## The Diffie-Hellman Protocol

$A$ and $B$ wish to exchange a private key via a public, insecure channel, in order to use a symmetric cryptosystem. Let $q$ be a prime number and $a \in\{2, \ldots, q-1\} . q$ and $a$ are agreed upon by $A$ and $B$, and they can be made public.

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- User $B$ also picks $X^{\prime} \in\{1,2, \ldots, q-1\}$ (secret) and publicizes $Y^{\prime}=a^{X^{\prime}} \bmod q$.


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- A computes $K=\left(Y^{\prime}\right)^{X} \bmod q=a^{X^{\prime} X} \bmod q$
- B computes $Y^{X^{\prime}} \bmod q=a^{X X^{\prime}} \bmod q=K$

Both $A$ and $B$ have the same key $K$.

## The Diffie-Hellman Protocol

Since any other user does not possess neither $X$ nor $X^{\prime}$, they should be able to compute either $\log _{a} Y \bmod q=X$ or $\log _{a} Y^{\prime} \bmod q=X^{\prime}$, which is computationally infeasible:

The Discrete Logarithm Problem is in NP.

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The Discrete Logarithm Problem is in NP.
Proof.
$q$ is a prime and $a$ is a primitive root $\bmod q$

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{q}(a)=q-1
$$

We can verify these conditions in non-deterministic polynomial time:

- guess all prime factors $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}$ of $q-1$,
- use primality test for all of them,
- compute $(q-1) / p_{i}$ and verify that $a^{(q-1) / p_{i}} \not \equiv 1 \bmod q$ for all $p_{i}$.

So, given $q, a, n, m$ we can verify whether $q$ is a prime and a a primitive root and if $a^{m} \equiv n \bmod q$. This means that DLP is in NP.
On the other hand, if $a^{m} \not \equiv n \bmod q$, then

- there are $i, j$ with $0<i, j<q$ such that $a^{i} \equiv a^{j} \bmod q$ or
- there is an $\ell \leq m$ such that $a^{\ell} \equiv n \bmod q$ or
- $n \geq q$

All of the above can be checked in polynomial time, so DLP is in coNP. We have that DLP is in NP $\cap$ coNP.

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## Conventional Cryptography

- Written signature $\rightarrow$ digital signature


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- easy to recognize the signature as authentic
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Digital signature must be recognizable without being known

## The "login" problem

- User enters password PW
- Computer computes and stores a function $f(P W)$
- Each time a login with $X$ is attempted, computer calculates $f(X)$ and compares with stored value $f(P W)$
Computation time of $f$ must be small, computation of $f^{-1}$ must be practically infeasible.


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f \rightarrow \text { one-way function }
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Still not entirely secure

## Public Key Cryptography

- A wants to send a message $M$ to $B$
- A deciphers the message $D_{K}(M)$ using his (secret) algorithm $D_{K}$ and sends it to $B$, along with $M$.
- B enciphers the message $E_{K}\left(D_{K}(M)\right)$ using A's (public) algorithm $E_{K}$.
- Obviously, B obtains $M$ and can therefore be assured of the authenticity of its sender.


## Example: RSA digital signature

Let $E(x)=x^{e} \bmod N$ be A's public encryption algorithm, and $D(y)=y^{d} \bmod N$ their secret decryption algorithm.

- A sends $\left(m, m^{\prime}\right)$ to $B$, where $m^{\prime}=m^{d} \bmod N$.
- B computes $E\left(m^{\prime}\right)=\left(m^{\prime}\right)^{e} \bmod N=\left(m^{d}\right)^{e} \bmod N=m$, and therefore recognizes the authenticity of the sender.
Conversely, suppose that a third user $C$ claims to be $A$. Since $C$ has no knowledge of $d$, he sends to user $\mathrm{B}\left(m, m^{\prime}\right)$, where $m^{\prime}=m^{d^{\prime}} \bmod N$ for some $d^{\prime} \neq d$. B computes $E\left(m^{\prime}\right)=\left(m^{\prime}\right)^{e} \bmod N=\left(m^{d^{\prime}}\right)^{e} \bmod N \neq m$ and sees through C's forgery.


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## Thank You!

