

On the Security of Public Key Protocols

by

D. Dolev

A. C. Yao

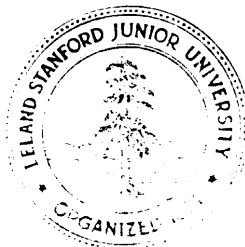
research sponsored in part by

National Science Foundation
and

Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency

Department of Computer Science

Stanford University
Stanford, CA 94305



On the Security of Public Key Protocols*

D. Dolev and A. C. **Yao**
Computer Science Department
Stanford University
Stanford, California 94305

Abstract

Recently, the use of public key encryption to provide secure network communication has received considerable attention. Such public key systems are usually effective against passive eavesdroppers, who merely tap the lines and try to decipher the message. It has been pointed out, however, that an improperly designed protocol could be vulnerable to an active saboteur, one who may impersonate another user or alter the message being transmitted. In this paper we formulate several models in which the security of protocols can be discussed precisely. Algorithms and characterizations that can be used to determine protocol security in these models will be given.

* This research was supported in part by ARPA under grant MDA-903-80-C-102 and by National Science Foundation under grant MCS-77-05313-A01.

1. Introduction.

The use of public key encryption (Diffie and Hellman [1], Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman [11]) to provide secure network communication has received considerable attention (Diffie and Hellman [2], Merkle [7], Needham and Schroeder [8], Popek and Kline [10]). Such public key systems are usually very effective against a "passive" eavesdropper, namely, one who merely taps the communication line and tries to decipher the intercepted message. However, as pointed out in Needham and Schroeder [8], an improperly designed protocol could be vulnerable to an "active" saboteur, one who may impersonate another user and may alter or replay the message. As a protocol might be compromised in a complex way, informal arguments that assert the security for a protocol are prone to errors. It is thus desirable to have a formal model, in which the security issues can be discussed in a precise manner. The models we introduce later will enable us to study the security problem for families of protocols, with very few assumptions on the behavior of the saboteur.

We briefly recall the essence of public key encryption (see [1][11] for more information). In a public key system, every user X has an encryption *function* E_x and a *decryption function* D_x , both are mappings from $\{0,1\}^*$ into $\{0,1\}^*$. There is a public directory containing all the (X, E_x) pairs, while the decryption function D_x is known only to user X . The main requirements on E_x, D_x are

- (1) $E_x D_x = D_x E_x = 1$, and
- (2) Knowing $E_x(M)$ does not reveal anything about the value M .

Thus, every one can send X a message $E_x(M)$, X will be able to decode it by forming $D_x(E_x(M)) = M$, but nobody other than X will be able to find M even if $E_x(M)$ is available to them.

We will be interested mainly in protocols for transmitting a secret plaintext M between two users. To give an idea of the way a saboteur may break the system, we consider a few examples. A message sent between parties in the network consists of three fields: the sender's name, the receiver's name, and the text. The text is the encrypted part of the message. We will write a message in the format:

(sender's name, text, receiver's name).

Example 1.1. Consider the following protocol for sending a plaintext M between A and B :

- step a: A sends B the message $(A, E_x(M), B)$;
step b: B answers A with the message $(B, E_A(M), A)$.

This protocol is easy to break by a saboteur Z in the following way:

- (1) Z intercepts the message sent from A to B in step a.
- (2) Z sends to B the message $(Z, E_B(M), B)$.
- (3) B answers Z according to the protocol (step b) by $(B, E_Z(M), Z)$.
- (4) Z decodes $E_Z(M)$ to find the plaintext M .

One way to overcome the weakness in the above protocol is to encode the name of the sender together with the plaintext in the encrypted text. Consider the following variation of a protocol suggested in Needham and Schroeder [8].

Example 1.2. Consider the following protocol:

- step a: A sends B the message $(A, E_B(MA), B)$;
step b: B answers A by sending $(B, E_A(MB), A)$.

We will prove later in this paper that this protocol is secure against arbitrary behavior of the saboteur.

What will happen if one tries to improve the above protocol by adding another layer of encryption?

Example 1.3. Consider the following protocol,

step a: A sends B the message $(A, E_B(E_B(M)A), 11)$.

step b: B answers by sending $(B, E_A(E_A(M)B), A)$.

Surprisingly, this protocol is breakable in the following way:

- (1) Z takes the message sent back from B to A in step b, i.e., $(B, E_A(E_A(M)B), A)$.

Denote $E_A(M)B$ by \tilde{M} , then Z can extract $E_A(\tilde{M})$ from the above message.

- (2) Z initiates a conversation with A , sending

$$(Z, E_A(E_A(\tilde{M})Z), A),$$

according to the protocol (step a).

- (3) A , as a receiver, answers Z by

$$(A, \& (\& (@ A), Z).$$

- (4) Z decodes \tilde{M} from the last message he received in step (3). As $\tilde{M} = E_A(M)B$, Z now possesses $E_A(M)$.

- (5) Z establishes a new connection and sends to A the message

$$(Z, E_A(E_A(\tilde{M})Z), A).$$

- (6) Now A should answer by $(A, E_Z(E_A(M)A), Z)$.

- (7) At this step Z is able to find the plaintext M .

The precise mathematical models will be defined in the ensuing sections. Below we list the basic assumptions on the system that we wish to model.

- (1) A perfect public key system:

- (a) The one-way functions used are unbreakable;
- (b) The public directory is secure, and cannot be tampered with;
- (c) Everyone has access to all E_X ;
- (d) Only X knows D .

- (2) Two-party protocol: Only the two users who wish to communicate are involved in the transmission process; the assistance of a third party in decryption or encryption is not needed.

- (3) Uniform protocol: The same format is used by every pair of users that wish to communicate. In the three examples given previously, the users' names A, B are symbolic parameters and can be any two names.

- (4) Behavior of the saboteur: We will focus attention on saboteurs who are "active" eavesdroppers. That means, someone who first taps the communication line to obtain messages, and then tries everything he can in order to discover the plaintext. More precisely, we will assume the following about a saboteur:

- (a) He can obtain any message passing through the network;
- (b) He is a legitimate user of the network, and thus in particular can initiate a conversation with any other user;
- (c) He will have the opportunity to be a receiver to any user A . (More generally, we allow the possibility that any user B may become a receiver to any other user A .)

We give a summary of the results obtained in this paper. Two models will be developed.

- (1) The cascade protocols: These are protocols in which the users can apply the public key encryption-decryption operations to form messages; several layers of such operators may be applied, however. A simple example of cascade protocol is given in Example 1.1.
- (2) The name-stamp protocols: These are protocols in which the users are allowed to append, delete, and check names encrypted together with the plaintext. A name-stamp protocol can also contain layers of encryptions (as in Examples 1.2 and 1.3).

In Section 2 we prove that a cascade protocol is secure if and only if both the following conditions are satisfied:

- (1) The messages transmitted between X and Y always contain some layers of encryption functions E_X or E_Y .
- (2) In generating a reply message, each participant A ($A = X, Y$) never applies D_A without also applying E_A .

This gives a simple characterization of security, and also an efficient algorithm for deciding whether a given cascade protocol is secure.

In Section 3 we give a polynomial-time algorithm for deciding if a given name-stamp protocol is secure.

In Section 4 we consider the question whether a saboteur can break the protocol without waiting for others to initiate a conversation. This corresponds to the use of items (a) and (b) only in the previous discussion of the behavior of the saboteur. We give extensions of the results in Sections 2 and 3 to this case.

To end this introduction, we remark that there are other types of sabotage activities that may defeat the purpose of a public-key protocol (or any protocol). We refer the readers to Needham and Schroeder [8] for further discussions. The problem of sabotage in network communications also arises in other context (see Dolev [3], Pease, et.al. [9]).

2. Cascade Protocols.

In this section we consider a simple class of protocols, in which the only operations the users employ to generate messages are the encryption-decryption operators. Our goal is to analyze the security of such protocols against saboteurs. To achieve that we have to develop a formal model. We have to specify:

- (1) the syntax of the protocol, i.e., what operations the users apply at each step to generate a message;
- (2) the inference rules that the traitor can use to discover the plaintext.

2.1. Notations.

Let Σ be a finite set of distinct symbols. We use Σ^* to denote the set of all finite sequences composed of the symbols in Σ ; the set Σ^* also contains the empty string λ . We define $\Sigma^+ = \Sigma^* - \{\lambda\}$, i.e., the set of all non-empty words over Σ . The concatenation of the words α and β is denoted by $\alpha\beta$. Let $\gamma = \alpha\beta$ be a word, then α is called a prefix of γ , and β is a suffix of γ .

The basic properties of the public-key operators are $E_X D_X = D_X E_X = 1$, the identity function. As a result, any string of operators of the form $\sigma E_X D_X \sigma'$ will be equivalent to a σ' , in the sense that $(\sigma E_X D_X \sigma')P = (\sigma')P$ for all $P \in \{0,1\}^*$. We will say that $\sigma E_X D_X \sigma'$ (or $\sigma D_X E_X \sigma'$) can be reduced to $\sigma \sigma'$. For any string γ of operators, let $\gamma|_X$ denote the complete reduced string obtained from γ by deleting all $E_X D_X$ and $D_X E_X$ pairs iteratively, until no further reduction is possible. Derive by $\bar{\gamma}$ the string obtained from γ by complete reduction with respect to all users X in the system, $\bar{\gamma}$ is the reduced *form* of γ . Notice that $\gamma|_X$ and $\bar{\gamma}$ are all unique.

For convenience we sometimes write D_X as E_X^c , the *complement* of E_X . Similarly E_X is also written as D_X^c . Let $\gamma = a_1 \dots a_n$, be a word of n symbols, each of which is an E or a D , define

$$\gamma^c = a_n^c \cdot a_{n-1}^c \cdot \dots \cdot a_1^c.$$

The word γ^c is called the complement of γ , and it satisfies $\gamma\gamma^c = \gamma^c\gamma = 1$, when γ and γ^c are considered as operators.

For any string γ , let $\ell(\gamma)$ be the set of symbols in γ .

2.2. The Model.

Definition 2.1. A *two-party cascade protocol* T is specified by a series of finite strings

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\alpha}_i &\in \{z_1, z_2, z_3\}^* & 1 \leq i \leq t, \\ \tilde{\beta}_i &\in \{z_1, z_2, z_4\}^* & 1 \leq i \leq t', \end{aligned}$$

where $t' = t$ or $t - 1$. For each pair of distinct user X and Y , let $\alpha_i(X, Y)$, $\beta_i(X, Y)$ denote the strings $\tilde{\alpha}_i, \tilde{\beta}_i$ with the symbols z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4 respectively replaced by E_X, E_Y, D_X, D_Y .

Clearly, $\alpha_i(X, Y) \in \{E_X, E_Y, D_X\}^*$ and $\beta_i(X, Y) \in \{E_X, E_Y, D_Y\}^*$. When user X wants to transmit a secret plaintext M to user Y , they exchange message according to T in the following way:

- X sends Y the message $\alpha_1(X, Y)M$;
- Y applies $\beta_1(X, Y)$ to the received message and sends it to X ;
- X applies $\alpha_2(X, Y)$ to the received message and sends it to Y ;
- Y applies $\beta_2(X, Y)$ to the received message and sends it to X ;

Note that the protocol is uniform in that $\alpha_i(A, B)$ and $\beta_i(A, B)$, for any users A, B , can be obtained from $\alpha_i(X, Y), \beta_i(X, Y)$ by substituting X by A and Y by B .

For convenience, we assume that $\tilde{\alpha}_i$ and $\tilde{\beta}_i$ are such that $\alpha_i(X, Y), \beta_i(X, Y)$ are in reduced form.

Definition 2.2. Let T be a two-party cascade protocol specified by $\{\tilde{\alpha}_i, \tilde{\beta}_j \mid 1 \leq i \leq t, 1 \leq j \leq t'\}$, and let X, Y be two distinct users. Define

$$\begin{aligned} N_1(X, Y) &= \alpha_1(X, Y), \\ N_{2j}(X, Y) &= \beta_j(X, Y) N_{2j-1}(X, Y), \quad 1 \leq j \leq t', \\ N_{2i+1}(X, Y) &= \alpha_i(X, Y) N_{2i}(X, Y), \quad 1 \leq i \leq t-1. \end{aligned}$$

When X wishes to send a plaintext A to Y , the message exchanged are then $N_i(X, Y)M$, where $i = 1, 2, \dots, t + t'$.

Example. Consider the protocol T given by $\{\tilde{\alpha}_1 = z_2 z_3, \tilde{\beta}_1 = z_1 z_4 z_1 z_4\}$. One has $\alpha_1(X, Y) = E_Y D_X$ and $\beta_1(X, Y) = E_X D_Y E_X E_X D_Y$. For a plaintext M , the messages transmitted are $N_1(X, Y)M = E_Y D_X M$ and $N_2(X, Y)M = E_X D_Y E_X M$.

So far we have discussed the syntax of the cascade protocol. We will now define the notion of security for a cascade protocol, i.e., when will a saboteur be able to deduce the plaintext M being transmitted between two users. Let us first give a formal definition. Let X, Y, Z denote distinct user names.

Definition 2.3. Let T be a two-party cascade protocol specified by $\{\tilde{\alpha}_i, \tilde{\beta}_j\}$. Define

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma_1(Z) &= \{E, D_Z\}, \\ \Sigma_2 &= \{\alpha_i(A, B) \mid \text{for all } A \neq B \text{ and } i \geq 2\}, \\ \Sigma_3 &= \{\beta_i(A, B) \mid \text{for all } A \neq B \text{ and } i \geq 1\}. \end{aligned}$$

We will say that T is *insecure* if there exists some $\gamma \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$ such that

$$\overline{\gamma N_i(X, Y)} = \lambda$$

for some $N_i(X, Y)$; T is secure otherwise.

Remark. It is clear that the above definition of security for T is independent of the choice of X, Y, Z .

We now give the motivation behind the definition. Suppose X is trying to send a plaintext M to Y (using protocol T). The actual messages transmitted between them are then $N_i(X, Y)M$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots$), and may fall into the hands of the saboteur Z . Taking any $N_i(X, Y)M$, the saboteur Z has the chance to transform it by repeatedly applying any of the following three types of operators:

- (a) Any $\sigma \in \Sigma_1(Z)$;
- (b) Any $\sigma \in \Sigma_3$: Z can initiate a plaintext transmission with a user B , claiming himself to be A , and send any string P to B in the $(2i-1)$ -st message; Z then gets back $\beta_i(A, B)P$, effectively putting the operator $\beta_i(A, B)$ on any chosen P ;
- (c) Any $\sigma \in \Sigma_2$: let $\sigma = \alpha_i(A, B)$; there is a chance that A may wish to transmit a plaintext to B some time in the future; Z may intercept the $(i-1)$ st reply from B to A , prevent it from reaching A , and replace it with any chosen string P and receive from A the string $\alpha_i(A, B)P$.

As a result, Z has the opportunity to obtain the string $\overline{\gamma N_i(X, Y)M}$ for any $\gamma \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$. This means Z may deduce M , if $\overline{\gamma N_i(X, Y)} = \lambda$ for some $\gamma \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$.

We wish to point out that, in order to obtain $\alpha_i(A, B)P$ from P , Z has to wait for A to initiate a conversation with B . It may or may not happen. Thus, our definition of security is a conservative one, in the sense that we are concerned with the worst case possibility.

2.3. A Characterization of Secure Protocols.

Definition 2.4. Let $\pi \in \{E, D\}^*$ be a string and A be a user name. We say that π has the balancing *property with respect to* A if

$$D_A \in \ell t(\pi) \text{ implies } E_A \in \ell t(\pi).$$

As will be seen, the balancing property is inherent in secure cascade protocols.

Definition 2.5. Let X, Y be two distinct user names. A two-party cascade protocol $T = \{\tilde{\alpha}_i, \tilde{\beta}_j\}$ is a *balanced cascade protocol* if

- (i) for every $i \geq 2$, $\alpha_i(X, Y)$ has the balancing property w.r.t. X , and
- (ii) for every $j \geq 1$, $\beta_j(X, Y)$ has the balancing property w.r.t. Y .

Remark. We emphasize that $\alpha_i(X, Y), \beta_j(X, Y)$ are in reduced form for $i, j \geq 1$.

The following result is proved in Appendix A.

Lemma 2.1. *Let Z be a user name and T be a balanced cascade protocol. Then for every string η in $(\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$, $\bar{\eta}$ has the balancing property w.r.t. every $A \neq Z$.*

Proof. See Appendix A. ■

We are ready now to state and prove the main result of this section. Let X, Y be two distinct user names.

Theorem 2.1. *A two-party cascade protocol $T = \{\tilde{\alpha}_i, \tilde{\beta}_j\}$ is secure if and only if*

- (i) $\ell t(\alpha_1(X, Y)) \cap \{E_x, E_y\} \neq \phi$, and
- (ii) T is balanced.

Proof. Let Z be a user name distinct from X and Y .

(A). **Necessity.** Assume that either property (i) or (ii) is not true. We will show that T is insecure, i.e., there exists $\gamma \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$ such that $\overline{\gamma N_i(X, Y)} = \lambda$ for some i .

If (i) is not true, then $\overline{\gamma N_1(X, Y)} = \lambda$ where $\gamma = \alpha_1^c \in \Sigma_1(Z)^*$, and we are done. We can thus assume that (ii) is false, i.e., T is not balanced. By definition, either some $\beta_k(X, Y)$ contains D_Y but not E_Y or some $\alpha_i(X, Y)$ ($i \geq 2$) contains D_X but not E_X . We first restrict ourselves to the former case (β_k contains D_Y but not E_Y); the latter case will be treated later. We will establish under this restriction the following stronger result: For any $\delta \in \{E, E_Y, D\}^*$, there exists $\gamma \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \{\beta_k(Z, X), \beta_k(Z, Y)\})^*$ such that $\overline{\gamma \delta} = \lambda$. The proof will be carried out by induction on r , the number of E_X and E_Y in the string δ .

If $r=0$ then $\gamma = \delta^c \in (C, (Z))^*$ satisfies the requirement. Now let $r > 0$ and assume that the result has been established for all smaller values of r . Let δ be a string containing exactly r E_X 's and E_Y 's. Without loss of generality, we can assume that the leftmost E is an E_Y . Write $\delta = \sigma_1 E_Y \sigma_2$, where $\ell t(\sigma_1) \cap \{E_X, E_Y\} = \phi$; clearly $\sigma_1^c \in (\Sigma_1(Z))^*$. By assumption, $\beta_k(Z, Y)$ contains D_Y but not E_Y ; hence we can write $\beta_k(Z, Y) = \tau_1 D_Y \tau_2$, where $\tau_1 \in \{E, D_Y\}^*$ and $\tau_2 \in \{E_X\}^*$. Clearly, $\tau_i^c \in (\Sigma_1(Z))^*$ for $i = 1, 2$. Now σ_2 contains $r-1$ E 's, and by the inductive hypothesis, there exists $\gamma' \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \{\beta_k(Z, X), \beta_k(Z, Y)\})^*$ such that $\overline{\gamma' \sigma_2} = \lambda$. Define $\gamma = \gamma' \tau_1^c \beta_k(Z, Y) \tau_2^c \sigma_1^c$. Then $\gamma \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \{\beta_k(Z, X), \beta_k(Z, Y)\})^*$ from the above discussions. Furthermore

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\gamma \delta} &= \overline{\gamma' \tau_1^c \beta_k(Z, Y) \tau_2^c \sigma_1^c \sigma_1 E_Y \sigma_2} \\ &= \overline{\gamma' \sigma_2} \\ &= \lambda. \end{aligned}$$

This completes the inductive step.

It remains to show that T is insecure when some $\alpha_i(X, Y)$ ($i \geq 2$) contains D_x but not E_x . One can prove the following stronger result: For any $\delta \in \{E, E_Y, D\}^*$, there exists $\gamma \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \{\alpha_i(X, Z), \alpha_i(Y, Z)\})^*$ satisfying $\overline{\gamma\delta} = \lambda$. The proof is almost identical to the previous proof, and will not be repeated.

(B). **Sufficiency.** Assume that both properties (i) and (ii) are satisfied, we will prove that T is secure.

Suppose to the contrary, there exists a $\gamma \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$ such that $\overline{\gamma N_i(X, Y)} = \lambda$ for some i . We will derive a contradiction. Write $\gamma N_i(X, Y) = P \alpha_1(X, Y)$ such that $P \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$. By definition of γ , we have

$$\overline{P \alpha_1(X, Y)} = \lambda. \quad (2.1)$$

By the definition of a protocol, $\ell t(\alpha_1(X, Y)) \subseteq \{E_x, D_x, E_y\}$. We distinguish two cases.

Case B.1. $E_y \in \ell t(\alpha_1(X, Y))$.

As the string α_1 does not contain D_y , the only possibility for (2.1) to hold is that \overline{P} contains some D_y but no E_y . But this means that P does not have the balancing property w.r.t. Y . As $Y \neq Z$, this is a contradiction to Lemma 2.1.

Case B.2. $E_y \notin \ell t(\alpha_1(X, Y))$.

In this case $D_x \notin \ell t(\alpha_1(X, Y))$, because $\alpha_1(X, Y)$ is in reduced form and the protocol satisfies property (i) in the lemma. This implies that $\alpha_1(X, Y) = E_x^+$. Similarly to Case B.1, the only possibility for (2.1) to hold is that \overline{P} contains D_x and does not contain E_x , which again contradicts Lemma 2.1. ■

A cascade protocol T is called *doubly-verified* if for some i , $\ell t(\overline{N_i(X, Y)}) \subseteq \{E_y, D_y, D_x\}$ and for some $j \geq 2$, $\ell t(\overline{N_j(X, Y)}) \subseteq \{E_x, D_x, D_y\}$.

Theorem 2.2. *Every doubly-verified protocol is insecure.*

Proof. Let T be a doubly-verified protocol, such that,

$$\ell t(\overline{N_k}) \subseteq \{E_y, D_x, D_y\}, \quad (2.2)$$

and

$$\ell t(\overline{N_\ell}) \subseteq \{E_x, D_x, D_y\}. \quad (2.3)$$

(We have used the abbreviations $\overline{N_i}$ for $\overline{N_i(X, Y)}$.) Write $\overline{N_1} = \alpha_1(X, Y)$, $\overline{N_k} = \overline{\gamma_k \alpha_1(X, Y)}$ and $\overline{N_\ell} = \overline{\gamma_\ell \alpha_1(X, Y)}$, where $\gamma_j \in (\Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$. Suppose T is secure. We will derive a contradiction.

By Theorem 2.1, T has to be balanced.

Case 1. $E_y \in \ell t(\alpha_1(X, Y))$.

Clearly (2.3) demands that $\overline{\gamma_\ell}$ should contain D_y but no E_y . This contradicts Lemma 2.1.

Case 2. $E_x \in \ell t(\alpha_1(X, Y))$ and $E_y \notin \ell t(\alpha_1(X, Y))$.

In this case, (2.2) requires that $\overline{\gamma_k}$ contains D_x but no E_x , contradicting Lemma 2.1. 4

Theorem 2.2 implies that in a secure cascade protocol T , if the receiver Y is able to decode the encrypted message M , then the sender X cannot obtain M by simply decrypting some of the messages sent back to X . That means, X should not be able to reconstruct M if X has thrown away M after the first transmission. This theorem implies that the protocol in Example 1.1 is not secure (a fact we already demonstrated before). It also implies that the protocol suggested in Diffie and Hellman [2] (the message exchanges being $E_b(D, (M))$, $E_a(D_a(M))$) for obtaining public key authentication is not secure.

We wish to emphasize that our security concept is based on the assumption that the plaintext M is arbitrary. If the structure of M is known and a consistency check can be made, then the protocol is no longer considered to be a cascade protocol. In the next section, we consider a case in which the internal structure of the message can be used to achieve security.

3. Name-Stamp Protocols.

In Section 1 we discussed several protocols that append names to the message before the encryption. We will now introduce a model that includes such protocols.

3.1. Informal Description.

Assume that the names of all users are of the same length, say, m bits. For any string $\gamma \in \{0,1\}^*$, we will write $\gamma = \text{head}(\gamma)\text{tail}(\gamma)$, where $\text{tail}(\gamma)$ is a suffix of m bits. A user Y can apply any of the following operations to a string γ :

- (a) encryption E_X ;
- (b) decryption D_X ;
- (c) appending i_X ; with $i_X\gamma = \gamma X$;
- (d) name-matching d_X ; with $d_X\gamma = \text{head}(\gamma)$ if $\text{tail}(\gamma) = X$ and undefined otherwise;
- (e) deletion d , with $d\gamma = \text{head}(\gamma)$.

The name X can be any user's name, but the only decryption Y can apply is D_X . The following equations are clearly true: For any name X ,

$$E_X D_X = D_X E_X = 1,$$

and

$$d_X i_X = d i_X = 1. \tag{3.1}$$

We remark that $i_X d_X \neq 1$.

Under a name-stamp protocol, any text transmitted by a user is obtained by applying a sequence of operations (a)-(e) to the most recently received text. In particular, when a d_X is applied to a string γ , the transmission will not proceed unless $\text{tail}(\gamma) = X$. To insure the completion of the communication, we will require that any text transmitted between two normal users X, Y will be of a form

$$\gamma \in \{E_X, D_X, i_X, d_X, d \mid \text{all users } A\}^* M$$

-such that no d_X remains after (3.1) is repeatedly applied.

As before, a saboteur is allowed to intercept all the texts between X and Y , modify them with operations (a)-(e), and use them freely in any conversation, initiated either by him or by others. In this fashion he can obtain numerous strings $\gamma \in \{E_X, D_X, i_X, d_X, d \mid \text{all } A\}^* M$. If any of the obtained γ can be reduced to M by the repeated use of (3.1), then the saboteur will have succeeded in the quest for M .

3.2. Some Notations.

Consider the following set of rules:

$$\begin{aligned} E_X D_X &\rightarrow \lambda, & D_X E_X &\rightarrow \lambda, \\ d_X i_X &\rightarrow \lambda, & d i_X &\rightarrow \lambda. \end{aligned} \tag{3.2}$$

For any string $\gamma \in \{E_X, D_X, d_X, i_X, d \mid \text{all user } A\}^*$, let $\bar{\gamma}$ denote a string obtained when the rules in (3.2) have been used to reduce γ until no further replacement can be made. It is clear that $\bar{\gamma}$ is unique, independent of the order of the reduction. Call $\bar{\gamma}$ the reduced form of γ . A string γ is *irreducible* if $\bar{\gamma} = \gamma$.

3.3. Formal Model.

Definition 3.1. A two-party name-stamp protocol T is specified by a set of strings

$$\tilde{\alpha}_i \in (F - \{z_2\})^*, \beta_j \in (F - \{z_1\})^*$$

where $F = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_9\}$, $1 \leq i \leq t$, and $1 \leq j \leq t'$ ($t' = t$ or $t - 1$). Let $\alpha_i(X, Y)$ and $\beta_j(X, Y)$ denote the strings $\tilde{\alpha}_i$ and $\tilde{\beta}_j$ when z_1, z_2, \dots, z_9 are each replaced by $D_x, D_y, E_x, E_y, i_x, i_y, d_x, d_y, d$. Let $N_1(X, Y) = \alpha_1(X, Y)$, $N_2(X, Y) = \beta_1(X, Y)N_1(X, Y)$, $N_3(X, Y) = \alpha_2(X, Y)N_2(X, Y), \dots, N_{2i}(X, Y) = \beta_i(X, Y)N_{2i-1}(X, Y)$, $N_{2i+1}(X, Y) = \alpha_{i+1}(X, Y)N_{2i}(X, Y), \dots$. We require that $\overline{N_i(X, Y)}$ do not contain any d_A .

Remark. $\{N_i(X, Y)M\}$ is the sequence of texts transmitted between X and Y, when X wishes to send plaintext M to Y. That $\overline{N_i(X, Y)}$ contains no d_A means the i -th transmission is well defined.

Definition 3.2. Let X, Y, Z be three given distinct users. A two-party name-stamp protocol T is *insecure* if there exists a string $\gamma \in V_{z,T}^* \{\overline{N_i(X, Y)}\}$ such that $\bar{\gamma} = \lambda$; the set $V_{z,T}$ is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} V_{z,T} = & \{\alpha_j(A, B) \mid \text{all } A \neq B \text{ all } j \geq 2\} \cup \\ & \{\beta_j(A, B) \mid \text{all } A \neq B, \text{ all } j\} \cup \\ & \{E_A, i_A, d_A, d \mid \text{all } A\} \cup \{D_z\}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.3)$$

Otherwise T is *secure*.

Remarks. The security of T in the above definition is clearly independent of the choice of X, Y, Z. The motivation for the definition is similar to the cascade case (see Section 2.2), and will not be elaborated.

3.4. Examples.

- (1) Consider the protocol given in Example 1.2. In the present notation, $\alpha_1(X, Y) = E_y i_x, \beta_1(X, Y) = E_x i_y d_x D_y$. We also have $\overline{N_1(X, Y)} = E_y i_x$ and $\overline{N_2(X, Y)} = E_x i_y$.
- (2) The protocol in Example 1.3 corresponds to the case $\alpha_1(X, Y) = E_y i_x E_y, \beta_1(X, Y) = E_x i_y E_x D_y d_x D_y$. We then have $\overline{N_1(X, Y)} = E_y i_x E_y$ and $\overline{N_2(X, Y)} = E_x i_y E_x$. This protocol is insecure, as the string

$$\gamma = D_z d D_z \beta_1(Z, X) E_x i_z d D_z d D_z \beta_1(Z, X) E_x i_z \overline{N_2(X, Y)} \in V_{z,T}^* \{\overline{N_i(X, Y)}\}$$

satisfies $\bar{\gamma} = \lambda$. (This particular γ actually corresponds to the sequence of operations used by the saboteur in Example 1.3.)

3.5. A Secure Protocol.

We now prove that the protocol in Example 1.2 is secure in our model. Suppose to the contrary, there exists a $\gamma \in V_{z,T}^* \{\overline{N_i(X, Y)}\}$ with $\bar{\gamma} = \lambda$. We will derive a contradiction.

Take such a $\gamma = v_1 v_2 \dots v_\ell \overline{N_i(X, Y)}$ with a minimum number of $v_k \in V_{z,T}^*$. Assume $i = 1$ (the other case $i = 2$ can be treated similarly). From the previous subsection, we have $\overline{N_1(X, Y)} = E_y i_x$ and $\overline{N_2(X, Y)} = E_x i_y$. since $\bar{\gamma} = \lambda$, there must be a D_y in γ that cancels the E_y in $\overline{N_1(X, Y)}$. Let v_j be the word that contains this D_y , then $v_j = \beta_1(W, Y) = E_w i_y d_w D_y$ for some W (as D_y occurs only in β_1). This implies $j = \ell$, otherwise $\gamma' = v_1 v_2 \dots v_j \overline{N_1(X, Y)}$ would be an instance shorter than γ . There are now two cases:

- (1) If $W \neq X$, then $\overline{v_\ell \overline{N_1(X, Y)}} = E_w i_y d_w i_x$, and $\bar{\gamma} = \overline{v_1 v_2 \dots v_{\ell-1} E_w i_y d_w i_x} \neq \lambda$;
- (2) If $W = X$, then $v_\ell \overline{N_1(X, Y)} = E_x i_y = \overline{N_2(X, Y)}$, and hence the string $\gamma' = v_1 v_2 \dots v_{\ell-1} \overline{N_2(X, Y)}$ satisfies $\bar{\gamma}' = \bar{\gamma} = \lambda$, contradicting the minimality of γ .

This completes the proof.

3.6. An Algorithm for Checking Protocol Security.

We will give an algorithm that can decide if a given name-stamp protocol is secure. In particular, one can run this algorithm to give an alternative proof of security for the protocol (1) in the subsection 3.4.

Given a two-party name-stamp protocol T , specified by $\{\alpha_i, \beta_j\}$, we will use n to denote the input length $\sum_i |\alpha_i| + \sum_j |\beta_j|$. The rest of this subsection is devoted to a proof of the following theorem.

Theorem 3.1. *There is an algorithm that can decide in time $O(n^8)$ whether a given two-party name-stamp protocol T is secure.*

We will prove as an intermediate step Theorem 3.2, which is of interest by itself.

In principle, the saboteur Z may start a conversation with any user in the network. The next lemma shows that we can assume that Z only speaks to X and Y . This reduction is very useful for constructing an algorithm. Let us define

$$\begin{aligned} S = & \{\alpha_i(A, B) \mid A, B \in \{X, Y, Z\}, A \neq B, i \geq 2\} \cup \\ & \{\beta_i(A, B) \mid A, B \in \{X, Y, Z\}, A \neq B\} \cup \\ & \{E_A, i_A, d_A, d \mid A = X, Y, Z\} \cup \{D_Z\}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.4)$$

Lemma 3.1. *The protocol T is insecure if and only if there exists a string $\gamma \in S^* \overline{N_i(X, Y)}$ such that $\bar{\gamma} = \lambda$.*

Proof. It suffices to show that, if T is insecure, then there exists such a γ . In this situation, let $\gamma' \in V_{z,T}^* \overline{N_i(X, Y)}$ be a string such that $\bar{\gamma}' = \lambda$. Replace in γ' all the E_A, i_A, d_A when $A \notin \{X, Y, Z\}$ by E_Z, i_Z, d_Z , and let γ denote the resulting string. Clearly, $\bar{\gamma} = \lambda$. Observe also that $\gamma \in S^* \overline{N_i(X, Y)}$, as $\alpha_i(A, B)$ and $\beta_i(A, B)$ become $\alpha_i(Z, Z)$ and $\beta_i(Z, Z) \in S$ if $A, B \notin \{X, Y, Z\}$, and $\alpha_i(A', B')$ and $\beta_i(A', B')$ with $A', B' \in \{X, Y, Z\}, A' \neq B'$, otherwise. ■

Definition 3.3. Let $\eta \in \{E_A, D_A, i_A, d \mid A = X, Y\}^*$ be an irreducible string. Denote by $C(\eta)$ the set of all irreducible strings $\delta \in \{E, D_A, i_A, d, d \mid \text{all } A\}^*$ satisfying $\delta \eta = \lambda$.

Lemma 3.2. *If η contains any d , then $C(\eta) = \phi$. Otherwise, let $\eta = b_1 b_2 \dots b_t$, then $C(\eta)$ consists of all the strings $b_i^c b_{i-1}^c \dots b_1^c$, where $(E,)^c = D_A, (D_A)^c = E_A, (i_A)^c = d_A$ or d .*

Proof. It follows from the fact that d has no left inverse, and the fact that b_i^c are the only irreducible strings satisfying $b_i^c b_i = \lambda$. ■

Write $\rho_k = \overline{N_k(X, Y)}$ and let $\rho_{i_1}, \rho_{i_2}, \dots, \rho_{i_s}$ be those ρ_k that do not contain d .

Lemma 3.3. *The protocol T is insecure if and only if there exists a string $\gamma \in S^*$ such that $\bar{\gamma} \in C(\rho_{i_j})$ for some $1 \leq j \leq s$.*

Proof.

Sufficiency. If $\gamma \in S^*$ and $\bar{\gamma} \in C(\rho_{i_j})$, then $\gamma' = \gamma \rho_{i_j} \in S^* \overline{N_i(X, Y)}$ and $\bar{\gamma}' = \lambda$. Thus T is insecure by Lemma 3.1.

Necessity. If T is insecure, then by Lemma 3.1 there exists a string $\gamma' = \overline{\gamma' N_k(X, Y)}$ with $\gamma' \in S^*$ and $\bar{\gamma}' = \lambda$. This implies $\bar{\gamma}' \rho_k = \lambda$, and thus by Lemma 3.2 $\bar{\gamma}' \in C(\rho_{i_j})$ for some j . ■

We will show the following:

Proposition 3.1. Given a set of strings $S = \{h_1, h_2, \dots, h_p\}$ and a string ρ , where

$$h_i \in \{E_A, D_A, i_A, d, d \mid A = X, Y, Z\}^* \text{ and } \rho \in \{E_A, D_A, i_A \mid A = X, Y\}^*,$$

one can decide in time $O(q^7)$ if there exists a string $\gamma \in S^*$ such that $\bar{\gamma} \in C(\rho)$. (q is defined to be $\sum_{i=1}^p |h_i| + |\rho|$.)

Proposition 3.1 implies Theorem 3.1 by the following argument. Given a protocol T specified by $\{\tilde{\alpha}_i, \tilde{\beta}_i\}$, we first compute $N_i(X, Y)$ and then $\rho_i = \overline{N_i(X, Y)}$ for all i in time $O(n^2)$. (Observe that each $N_i(X, Y)$ is of length at most $O(n)$.) Consider those ρ_i that contain no d . For each such ρ_i , use Proposition 3.1 to decide if there exists a $\gamma \in S^*$ such that $\bar{\gamma} \in C(\rho_i)$, where S is given by (3.3). By Lemma 3.3, the protocol is then insecure if and only if there exists such a γ for some ρ_i . The total time is

$$O\left(\sum_i \left(\sum_j |\alpha_j| + \sum_j |\beta_j| + |\rho_i|\right)^7\right) = O\left(\sum_i n^7\right) = O(n^8).$$

It remains to prove Proposition 3.1. We will consider a more general setting.

3.7. The Extended Word Problem.

Let $\Sigma = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ be an alphabet, i.e., a set of distinct symbols. We call $u \rightarrow v$ a transformation rule, where $u \in \Sigma^+$ and $v \in \Sigma^*$. Let $\Gamma = \{u_1 \rightarrow v_1, u_2 \rightarrow v_2, \dots, u_q \rightarrow v_q\}$ be a set of transformation rules. For two strings $\gamma, \delta \in \Sigma^*$, we will write $\gamma \mapsto_{\Gamma} \delta$ if γ can be transformed into δ by repeatedly using rules in Γ , i.e., replacing substrings u_i by v_i . For a string of subsets G_i of Σ , $\eta = G_1 G_2 \dots G_q$, let $L(\eta) = \{\gamma \mid \gamma = g_1 g_2 \dots g_q, \text{ where } g_i \in G_i\}$. We will use the notation $\gamma \mapsto_{\Gamma} L(\eta)$ if $\gamma \mapsto_{\Gamma} \rho$ for some $\rho \in L(\eta)$. The extended word problem for (Σ, Γ) can be stated as follows:

Given a set of input strings $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_p$ ($\delta_i \in \Sigma^*$) and a string of subsets $\eta = G_1 G_2 \dots G_q$ ($G_i \subseteq \Sigma$; $G_i \neq \phi$), determine if there exists a concatenation $A = \delta_{i_1} \delta_{i_2} \dots \delta_{i_p}$ such that $A \mapsto_{\Gamma} L(\eta)$.

Remark. The input length n is defined to be $\sum_i |\delta_i| + \sum_j |G_j|$.

In general, the extended word problem is known to be undecidable, because it includes as a special case the membership problem for a type-0 language, well known to be undecidable (see e.g. Hopcroft and Ullman [5]). However, we will show that the problem is solvable in polynomial time for a special class of the inputs.

Definition 3.4. A transformation rule of the form $a_i a_j \rightarrow \lambda$ is called a cancellation rule.

Theorem 3.2. Let Σ be an alphabet and Γ a set of cancellation rules. Then the extended word problem for (Σ, Γ) can be solved in time $O(n^7)$, where n is the input length.

Theorem 3.2 implies Proposition 3.1 by the following argument. Let

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma &= \{D_A, E_A, i_A, d_A, d \mid A = X, Y, Z\}, \\ \Gamma &= \{D_A E_A \rightarrow \lambda, E_A D_A \leftarrow \lambda, d_A i_A \rightarrow \lambda, d i_A \rightarrow \lambda \mid A = X, Y, Z\}. \end{aligned}$$

The problem stated in Proposition 3.1 with inputs $h_1, h_2, \dots, h_p, \rho$ can be solved as an extended word problem for (Σ, Γ) . The inputs are $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_p$ and a subset string $\eta = G_1 G_2 \dots G_q$, where $\delta_i = h_i$ and η is such that $L(\eta) = C(\rho)$. The input lengths are linearly related. Thus, proving Theorem 3.2 will complete the proof of Theorem 3.1.

To prepare for the proof of Theorem 3.2, we define a few terms. Let $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_p$ be the input words in Σ^* , and let $\eta = G_1 G_2 \dots G_q$ be the input sequence of subsets ($G_i \subseteq \Sigma$). Without loss of generality, we

can assume that $\delta_i \neq \lambda$ for all i . Denote by I, I' the set of all proper prefixes and suffixes of $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_n$ (including λ , but not δ_i). Let J be the set of all substrings of η , and J_ℓ the set of all substrings of η of length ℓ . For each $w \in J$, let

$$R_w = \{ (g, b) \mid g \in I', b \in I, \text{ there exists } e \in \{\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_n\}^* \text{ such that } geb \vdash_{\Gamma} L(w) \}.$$

We emphasize that each $w \in J$ is of the form $G_i G_{i+1} \dots G_j$, where $G_k \subseteq \Sigma$:

Lemma 3.4. R_λ can be computed in time $O(n^7)$.

Proof. See Appendix B. ■

Proof of Theorem 3.2.

We compute R_w for $w \in J_\ell$ inductively on ℓ by “dynamic programming”. Initially we compute R_λ . Now let $\ell > 0$ and suppose R_w have been computed for all $w \in J_0 \cup J_1 \cup \dots \cup J_{\ell-1}$. For each $w \in J_\ell$, we will compute R_w . Let $w = G_j u$. For each $g \in I', b \in I$, let us decide if $(g, b) \in R_w$. Suppose $g \delta_{i_1} \delta_{i_2} \dots \delta_{i_s} b \vdash_{\Gamma} L(G_j u)$. Since cancellation rules do not create new symbols, $g \delta_{i_1} \delta_{i_2} \dots \delta_{i_s} b$ must be of the form $\rho a_k \rho'$ for some $a_k \in G$, with $\rho \vdash_{\Gamma} \lambda$ and $\rho' \vdash_{\Gamma} L(u)$. To cover all the possible breaking points for ρ and ρ' , we employ the following procedure:

- (i) If $g = a_k g_1$ with $a_k \in G$, determine if $(g_1, b) \in R_u$.
- (ii) For each δ_j and each occurrence of a symbol $a_k \in G_j$ in δ_j , write $g = s a_k s'$. Determine if both $(g, s) \in R_\lambda$ and $(s', b) \in R_u$.
- (iii) If $b = b_1 b_2$ with $b_2 \in L(w)$, determine if $(g, b_1) \in R_\lambda$.

Set $(g, b) \in R_w$ if any of the above tests yields a “yes” answer; otherwise $(g, b) \notin R_w$.

It is easy to check that the above procedure correctly determines if $(g, b) \in R_w$. To find the running time, note that each triplet (w, g, b) takes time at most

$$O(|R_u| + n(|R_\lambda| + |R_u|) + |R_\lambda| + |R_w| + n) = O(n|I| \cdot |I'|) = O(n^3).$$

Thus the time needed to compute R_w for all $w \in J_\ell$ is

$$O(|J_\ell| \cdot |I| \cdot |I'|) \cdot n^3 = O(n^6).$$

The total computing time for $\ell = 1, 2, \dots, |\eta|$ is thus $O(n^7)$. This completes the proof of Theorem 3.2. ■

4. The Impatient Saboteur.

To break a protocol that is insecure as defined in the previous sections, a saboteur may need to be the receiver of a conversation. In this section, we are interested in the characterizations (or decision procedures) for protocols that can be compromised by an impatient saboteur, i.e., one who only initiates conversations (and does not rely on being spoken to).

For the name-stamp protocols, this corresponds to a modification of the definition of security (Definition 3.2). That is, one should omit the term $\{\alpha_j(A, B)\}$ from the definition of $V_{z, T}$ (see (3.3)).

Theorem 4.1. *There is an algorithm that can decide in time $O(n^8)$ whether a given two-party name-stamp protocol T is secure against an impatient saboteur.*

Proof. The proof is identical to the proof of Theorem 3.1, except that the $\{\alpha_i(A, B)\}$ term should be omitted from eq. (3.4). ■

For the cascade protocols, the definition of security (Definition 2.3) should be modified as follows: T is insecure (against an impatient saboteur) if there exists some $\gamma \in (C, (Z) \cup \Sigma_3)^*$ such that $\overline{\gamma N_i(X, Y)} = \lambda$ for some $N_i(X, Y)$; T is secure otherwise. We can obtain a characterization similar to that in Theorem 2.1.

Theorem 4.2. *Let X, Y be distinct user names. A two-party cascade protocol $T = \{\tilde{\alpha}_i, \tilde{\beta}_j\}$ is secure against an impatient saboteur if and only if, for every $k \geq 1$,*

- (i) $\ell t(\overline{N_k(X, Y)}) \cap \{E_X, E_Y\} \neq \phi$,
- (ii) $\beta_k(X, Y)$ has the balancing property w.r.t. Y .

Although the statement of this result is simple, the proof is quite involved. The rest of this section is devoted to a proof of Theorem 4.2.

In the following, a string always refers to a string of E 's and D 's. Let A be any user name.

Definition 4.1. Let η be a string. A substring π of η is called an A -substring if one of the following is true for some $X, Y \neq A$:

- (i) $\eta = \eta_1 D_X \pi D_Y \eta_2$;
- (ii) $\eta = \eta_1 D_X \pi$;
- (iii) $\eta = \pi D_Y \eta_2$.

Definition 4.2. A string η is strongly A -balanced if every A -substring π has the balancing property w.r.t. A .

Lemma 4.1. Let η be a strongly A -balanced string.

- (i) If $\eta = \eta_1 D_B \eta_2$ with $B \neq A$, then η_1 and η_2 are both strongly A -balanced.
- (ii) If $\eta = \eta_1 \eta_2$ and $E_A \notin \ell t(\eta_2)$, then η_1 is strongly A -balanced.

Proof. It is easy to see that η is strongly A -balanced iff every A -substring, that does not contain any D , for $B \neq A$, has the balancing property w.r.t. A . This implies (i).

The balancing property w.r.t. A is concerned with the appearance of E_A in case that D_A appears. Therefore, by removing a suffix or prefix which does not contain E , we cannot change the balancing property or the strongly balanced property. This proves (ii). ■

The key idea in the proof of Theorem 4.2 is the property presented in the following lemma.

Lemma 4.2. *Let γ, δ be any strongly A -balanced strings given in a reduced form. If*

$$(\ell t(\gamma) \cup \ell t(\delta)) \cap \{E_A, D_A\} \neq \phi$$

then $\gamma\delta \neq \lambda$.

Proof. We prove the lemma by induction on n , the number of D_A 's in the word $\gamma\delta$.

The lemma is trivially true for $n = 0$. Assume now that one D_A appears in $\gamma\delta$. We will assume that it is in γ and that δ contains no D_A . (The case that D_A is in δ can be similarly treated.) By assumption the strings γ, δ are in reduced form. Therefore, $\gamma\delta = \lambda$ implies that γ does not contain any E_A , which contradicts the balancing property of γ . The lemma is thus true for $n = 1$.

For the inductive step, let $n > 1$. Assume that the lemma holds for every γ', δ' such that $\gamma'\delta'$ contains at most $n - 1$ D_A 's. Let γ, δ be such that $\gamma\delta$ contains n D_A 's, and that γ, δ satisfy the induction hypothesis. We wish to prove $\gamma\delta \neq \lambda$.

We prove by contradiction. Suppose $\gamma\delta = \lambda$. By assumption γ and δ are in reduced form; thus $\delta = \gamma^c$. It follows that γ and δ contain the same number of operators from the set $\{E_A, D_A\}$. Let us assume that $\gamma = \gamma_2 D_A^+ \gamma_1$ where $\text{lt}(\gamma_1) \cap \{E_A, D_A\} = \emptyset$. (The case $\gamma = \gamma_2 E_A^+ \gamma_1$ is similar.) In this case $\delta = \delta_1 E_A^+ \delta_2$ where $\delta_1 = \gamma_1^c$ and $\delta_2 = \gamma_2^c$.

The string γ is strongly A-balanced. Therefore γ_2 should be of the form $\gamma_3 E_X$ for some $X \neq A$. (Otherwise $\gamma = \gamma_3 D_X D_A^+ \gamma_1$ for $X \neq A$ and where $E_A \notin \text{lt}(\gamma_1)$, which contradicts the fact that $D_A^+ \gamma_1$ has the balancing property w.r.t. A.) This implies that $\delta_2 = D_X \delta_3$ and $\delta_3 = \gamma_3^c$.

By Lemma 4.1 and the fact that $\text{lt}(\gamma_1) \cap \{E_A, D_A\} = \emptyset$, we conclude that γ_3 and δ_3 are strongly A-balanced. Moreover, the fact that $\gamma = \gamma_3 E_X D_A^+ \gamma_1$ and $E_A \notin \text{lt}(\gamma_1)$ implies that $E_A \in \text{lt}(\gamma_3)$, which implies that $D_A \in \text{lt}(\delta_3)$.

The inductive assumption implies that $\overline{\gamma_3 \delta_3} \neq \lambda$, which is a contradiction to our assumption that $\overline{\gamma\delta} = \lambda$. ■

Lemma 4.3. Let $\Sigma_Y = \{\beta_i(X, Y) \mid \text{for all } i \text{ and all users } X\}$. If every member-of Σ_Y has the balancing property w.r.t. Y , then for every string

$$\eta \in (\Sigma_Y \cup \{E\} \cup \{D_X \mid X \neq Y\})^*,$$

η is strongly Y -balanced.

Proof. The proof is very similar to the proof of Lemma 2.1 given in Appendix A. The property of being strongly-balanced is a special case of having the linkage-property (Appendix A). The proof can be carried along the same line, with attention paid to only one party Y in the present case. ■

We are now ready to prove Theorem 4.2.

Proof of Theorem 4.2. The necessity part is exactly as that of Theorem 2.1.

Sufficiency. Assume to the contrary that there exists $P \in (\Sigma_1(Z) \cup \Sigma_3)^*$ such that for some k

$$\overline{PN_k} = \lambda.$$

(We will use the abbreviation N_k for $N_k(X, Y)$.)

Case A. If $E_Y \notin \text{lt}(\overline{N_k})$.

Property (ii) and Lemma 4.3 imply that the string $\overline{N_k}$ is strongly Y -balanced. Therefore, $\overline{N_k}$ cannot contain any D_Y . We thus have $\overline{N_k} = E_X^+$, otherwise (i) would not hold. This means $\overline{P} = D_X^+$. Now, condition (ii) states that $\beta_j(A, X)$ have the balancing property w.r.t. X , for every A . Therefore, by Lemma 4.3, \overline{P} is strongly X -balanced, which contradicts the fact that $\overline{P} = D_X^+$.

Case B. $E_Y \in \text{lt}(\overline{N_k})$.

In this case, by Lemma 4.3, \bar{N}_k and \bar{P} are strongly Y-balanced. But Lemma 4.2 implies that

$$\overline{\bar{P} \bar{N}_k} \neq \lambda$$

which provides the desired contradiction. ■

Appendix A. Proof of Lemma 2.1.

Let Z be a distinguished user name. We will explore the structure of strings in $(\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$, from which we will derive Lemma 2.1. (We use Σ_1 for $\Sigma_1(Z)$ throughout this appendix.)

Definition. Let π be a string and A be a user name. We say that π is A -balanced if the following condition holds: $\pi = D_X \delta D_Y$ where $X, Y \neq A$ and $\text{lt}(\delta|_A) \cap \{D\} \subseteq \{D_A\}$ implies that $\delta|_A$ has the balancing property w.r.t. A .

A string η is said to have the linkage property, if every substring π of $D_Z \eta D_Z$ is A -balanced for all $A \neq Z$.

Lemma A.1. Let T be a balanced cascade protocol. Let μ be any string having the linkage property. For every string η from either Σ_1^+ or Σ_2 or Σ_3 , $\mu\eta$ and $\eta\mu$ satisfy the linkage property.

Proof. It suffices to prove that $\mu\eta$ has the linkage property; the other case follows by symmetry.

Let $A \neq Z$ be any user of the network. We have to show that every substring of $D_Z \mu\eta D_Z$ is A -balanced.

Consider first the case that η does not contain D . In this case the number of D_A 's in $(\mu\eta)|_A$ can not increase and, therefore, every substring of $D_Z \mu\eta D_Z$ is A -balanced since every substring of $D_Z \mu D_Z$ is A -balanced.

Next, assume η contains D . In this case η should be some $\alpha_k(A, B)$ or $\beta_k(A, B)$ for some users A and B . Thus, η has the balancing property w.r.t. A . Moreover, η does not contain any D_u with $u \neq A$. Let $\pi = D_X \delta D_Y$, where $X, Y \neq A$, be a substring of $D_Z \mu\eta D_Z$. If $D_Y \in \text{lt}(\mu)$ then π is A -balanced because μ satisfies the linkage property. Otherwise, D_Y should be the rightmost D_Z , η cannot contain D_Y (as, $Y \neq A$).

In this case $\pi = D_X \delta' \eta D_Z$, where $\delta = \delta' \eta$, because D_X also cannot be in η . We have to prove that if $\delta|_A$ contains D_A then it must contain E_A . Assume to the contrary that $\delta|_A$ contains D_A but no E_A . It is easy to see that either η or $\delta'|_A$ should contain D_A with no E_A , because at most one block of D_A^+ or E_A^+ can be cancelled in $\delta|_A$. This leads to a contradiction of either the assumption that η has the balancing property or the assumption that μ has the linkage property. ■

Lemma A.2. Let T be a balanced cascade protocol. Then every string $\eta \in (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$ has the linkage property.

Proof. For each $\eta \in (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$, write $\eta = w_1 \dots w_n$, where each w_i is either in Σ_1^+ or Σ_2 or Σ_3 . One can finish the proof by a simple induction on n , the number of words in η , using Lemma A.1. ■

Lemma A.3. For any string η and any Z , if η has the linkage property, then $\bar{\eta}$ also has the same property.

Proof. It suffices to prove that, if a string has the property, then so does the new string obtained by a reduction of any pair $D_X E_X$ or $E_X D_X$, for any X . Let η be any string which has the linkage property. Assume

$$\eta = \eta_1 E_X D_X \eta_2 .$$

Let A be any user other than Z . We have to show that every substring of $D_Z \eta_1 \eta_2 D_Z$ is A -balanced.

If $A = X$, then every substring of $D_Z \eta_1 \eta_2 D_Z$ is A -balanced, because the corresponding substring of $D_Z \eta D_Z$ is A -balanced. In the following, we assume $A \neq X$.

Let D_Y be the first D_V from the right of $D_Z \eta_1$ other than D_A , and let D_W be the first such D_V ($V \neq A$) from the left of $\eta_2 D_Z$. Then we can write

$$D_Z \eta D_Z = \eta'_1 D_Y \delta_1 E_X D_X \delta_2 D_W \eta''_2 .$$

The fact that η has the linkage property implies that $D_Y \delta_1 E_X D_X$ and $D_X \delta_2 D_W$ are A-balanced. It is then easy to see that $D_Y \delta_1 \delta_2 D_W$ is also A-balanced. This completes the proof. ■

Note that the lemma does not hold in the reverse direction, that is, if $\bar{\eta}$ has the linkage property, it does not imply that η has it.

Example. Let $\eta = E_W D_X E_Y E_Y D_W D_Y E_W$, then $\bar{\eta}$ has the linkage property but η does not have it.

Proof of Lemma 2.1. We have to prove that for every string $\eta \in (\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3)^*$, the reduced string $\bar{\eta}$ has the balancing property w.r.t. every $A \neq Z$.

Assume to the contrary that, for some A , $\bar{\eta}$ does not have the balancing property w.r.t. A . It follows that $\bar{\eta}$ contains a D_A but does not contain any E_A . But this implies that $\bar{\eta}$ does not have the linkage property, However, $\bar{\eta}$ must have the linkage property by Lemmas A.2 and A.3. This leads to a contradiction. ■

Appendix B. Proof of Lemma 3.4.

The purpose of this appendix is to show that R_λ can be computed in $O(n^7)$ time. (See Section 3 for notations.)

For $\ell = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, let

$$Q_\ell \{ (g, b) \mid g \in I', b \in I, \exists i_1, i_2, \dots, i_j \text{ with } 0 \leq j \leq \ell \text{ such that } g \delta_{i_1} \delta_{i_2} \dots \delta_{i_j} b \models_{\Gamma} \lambda \}.$$

Clearly,

$$R_\lambda = \bigcup_{\ell=0}^{\infty} Q_\ell. \quad (B-1)$$

Define $V_0 = Q_0$. We will give a procedure K which generates a set $V_\ell \subseteq I' \times I$ once $V_{\ell-1}$ is given. Consider the sequence V_0, V_1, V_2, \dots generated by this procedure iteratively. We will show that the sequence $\{V_\ell\}$ satisfies the following properties:

P1. For all $\ell \geq 0$, $V_\ell \subseteq V_{\ell+1}$ and $V_\ell \subseteq R_\lambda$.

P2. For all $\ell \geq 0$, $Q_\ell \subseteq V_\ell$.

P3. For all $\ell \geq |I| \cdot |I'|$, $V_{\ell+1} = V_\ell$:

It follows from (R-1) and P1–P3 that

$$R_\lambda = V_\ell \text{ with } \ell = |I| \cdot |I'|. \quad (B-2)$$

Thus, if we first compute $V_0 = Q_0$, followed by $|I| \cdot |I'|$ applications of procedure K , we will have obtained the desired R_λ . The time needed to compute V_0 is easily seen to be $O(n|I| \cdot |I'|)$. Let $\text{cost}(K)$ denote the maximum running time of procedure K , then the total time to compute R_λ is $O((n + \text{cost}(K))|I| \cdot |I'|) = O(n^3 + n^2 \text{cost}(K))$. We will show that $\text{cost}(K) = O(n^5)$, thus giving a $O(n^7)$ total running time.

We now give a description of procedure K . Assume that $V_{\ell-1}$ is given, we will describe how V_ℓ is generated.

Procedure K :

We process the pairs (g, b) in $I' \times I$ one at a time in the increasing order of the length $s = |g| + |b|$. For each (g, b) , we include (g, b) in V_ℓ if it is in $V_{\ell-1}$, and otherwise we execute the following steps according to the cases:

Case 1. $|g| = 0, |b| = 0$:

step a. For each $1 \leq k, j \leq p$, test if both $(a_i a_r \rightarrow \lambda) \in \Gamma$ and $(\delta'_k, \delta'_j) \in V_{\ell-1}$ where $\delta_k = a_i \delta'_k, \delta_j = \delta'_j a_i$; let $(g, b) \in V_\ell$ if the answer is “yes”.

step b. For each $1 \leq j \leq p$ and every partition $\delta_j = st$ (s, t may be X), test if both $(g, s) \in V_{\ell-1}$ and $(t, b) \in V_{\ell-1}$; let $(g, b) \in V_\ell$ if the answer is “yes”.

Case 2. $|g| = 0, b = b_1 a_j$:

step a. For each $1 \leq k \leq p$, test if both $(a_i a_j \rightarrow \lambda) \in \Gamma$ and $(\delta'_k, b_1) \in V_{\ell-1}$, where $\delta_k = a_i \delta'_k$; let $(g, b) \in V_\ell$ if the answer is “yes”.

step b. For each $1 \leq k \leq p$ and every partition $\delta_k = st$ (s, t may be λ), test if both $(g, s) \in V_{\ell-1}$ and $(t, b) \in V_{\ell-1}$; let $(g, b) \in V_\ell$ if the answer is “yes”.

Case 3. $g = a_k g_1, |b| = 0$:

step a. For each $1 \leq j \leq p$, test if both $(a_k a_i \rightarrow \lambda) \in \Gamma$ and $(g_1, \delta'_j) \in V_{\ell-1}$, where $\delta_j = \delta'_j a_i$; let $(g, b) \in V_\ell$ if the answer is “yes”.

step b. For each $1 \leq k \leq p$ and every partition $\delta_k = st$, test if both $(g, s) \in V_{\ell-1}$ and $(t, b) \in V_{\ell-1}$; let $(g, b) \in V_\ell$ if the answer is “yes”.

Case 4. $g = a_k g_1, b = b_1 a_j$:

step a. Test if both $(a_k a_j \rightarrow \lambda) \in \Gamma$ and $(g_1, b_1) \in V_\ell$; let $(g, b) \in V_\ell$ if the answer is “yes”.

step b. For each $1 \leq k \leq p$ and every partition $\delta_k = st$, test if both $(g, s) \in V_{\ell-1}$ and $(t, b) \in V_{\ell-1}$; let $(g, b) \in V_\ell$ if the answer is ‘yes’.

[comment. If (g, b) is not included in V_ℓ after these steps, then $(g, b) \notin V_\ell$.]

End Procedure K.

It is easy to check that, for each pair (g, b) , the needed time in its processing is at most $O(n|I|.|I'|) = O(n^3)$. Thus, $\text{cost}(K) = O(n^3|I|.|I'|) = O(n^5)$.

We can now complete the proof of the lemma, by showing that the sequence $\{V_\ell\}$ satisfies P1-P3.

We observe that, whenever a (g, b) is added to V_ℓ in procedure K, the conditions give a ‘natural’ construction of a string $\gamma \in \mathcal{G}\{\delta_o\}^* b$ that can be reduced to λ . We omit a straightforward proof. This establishes P 1.

To prove P3, observe that the construction of V_ℓ from $V_{\ell-1}$ does not explicitly depend on ℓ . Thus, once we find $V_\ell = V_{\ell-1}$, then $V_\ell = V_{\ell+1} = V_{\ell+2} = \dots$. But this condition must be reached for some $\ell \leq |I|.|I'|$, as there are at most $|I|.|I'|$ elements in any V_i . This proves P3.

We prove P2 by induction on ℓ . The case $\ell = 0$ is trivial, as $V_0 = Q_0$. Now assume that we have proved P2 for all values less than ℓ , and we will prove P2 for ℓ ($\ell > 0$).

We need to show that, for any $(g, b) \in Q_\ell$, one must have $(g, b) \in V_\ell$. We prove this by induction on the value $s = |g| + |b|$. For any $s \geq 0$, let us assume that the statement is true for all (g, b) with $|g| + |b| < s$; we will prove the statement when $|g| + |b| = s$. There are four cases to be considered, depending on whether $|g| = 0$ and whether $|b| = 0$. We will consider the case $|g| > 0$ and $|b| > 0$, and leave the other three cases as an exercise.

If $(g, b) \in Q_{\ell-1}$, then by induction hypothesis, $(g, b) \in V_{\ell-1} \subseteq V_\ell$. We can thus assume that $(g, b) \in Q_\ell - Q_{\ell-1}$. Write $g = a_k g_1, b = b_1 a_j$, and suppose

$$a_k g_1 \delta_{i_1} \delta_{i_2} \dots \delta_{i_\ell} b_1 a_j \mapsto_\Gamma \lambda.$$

In the above reduction process to λ , either the last step is $a_k a_j \rightarrow \lambda$ or the cancellation of the leftmost a_k is with a symbol a , in some δ_{i_u} . In the former case $(g_1, b_1) \in Q_\ell$ and, since $|g_1| + |b_1| < s$, we have $(g_1, b_1) \in V_\ell$ by induction hypothesis; this means (g, b) will be included in V_ℓ during the execution of procedure K (Case 4, step a). In the latter case there is a partition $\delta_{i_u} = st$ such that $(g, s) \in Q_{\ell-1}$ and $(t, b) \in Q_{\ell-1}$; this means (g, b) is added to V_ℓ in the process (Case 4, step b). This completes the induction.

We have proved P2, and hence Lemma 3.4. ■

References

- [1] W. Diffie and M. Hellman, "New direction in cryptography," *IEEE Trans. on Inform. IT-22*, 6 (1976), 644-654.
- [2] W. Diffie and M. Hellman, "Multiuser cryptographic techniques," *Proc. AFIPS 1976 NCC*, AFIPS Press, Montvale, N.J., 109-112.
- [3] D. Dolev, "Byzantine Generals strike again," *Journal of Algorithms*, to appear.
- [4] M. A. Harrison, W. L. Ruzzo, and J. D. Ullman, "Protection in operating systems," *Comm. ACM* 19 (1976), 461-471.
- [5] J. E. Hopcroft and J. D. Ullman, *Formal Languages and Their Relation to Automata*, Addison-Wesley, Reading, Mass., 1969.
- [6] R. Lipton and L. Snyder, "A linear time algorithm for deciding subject security," *Journal ACM* 24 (1977), 455-464.
- [7] R. C. Merkle, "Protocols for public key cryptography," BNR technical report, Palo Alto, CA, 1980.
- [8] R. M. Needham and M. D. Schroeder, "Using encryption for authentication in large networks of computers," *Comm. ACM* 2 (1978), 993-999.
- [9] M. Pease, R. Shostak, and L. Lamport, "Reaching agreement in the presence of faults," *Journal ACM* 27 (1980), 228-234.
- [10] G. J. Popek and C. S. Kline, "Encryption protocols, public key algorithms, and digital signatures in computer networks," in *Foundations of Secure Computation*, edited by R. A. Demillo et. al., Academic Press, 1978.
- [11] R. L. Rivest, A. Shamir, and L. Adleman, "A method for obtaining digital signatures and public-key cryptosystems," *Comm. ACM* 21 (1978), 120-126.

