A Key-Exchange Protocol Using Real Quadratic Fields

Renate Scheidler  
Department of Mathematical Sciences, University of Delaware,  
Newark, DE 19716, U.S.A.

Johannes A. Buchmann  
FB-14 Informatik, Universität des Saarlandes,  
66041 Saarbrücken, Germany

Hugh C. Williams  
Department of Computer Science, University of Manitoba,  
Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada R3T 2N2

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Abstract. In 1976 Diffie and Hellman first introduced their well-known key-exchange protocol which is based on exponentiation in the multiplicative group GF(p)* of integers relatively prime to a large prime p (see [8]). Since then, this scheme has been extended to numerous other finite groups. Recently, Buchmann and Williams [2] introduced a version of the Diffie–Hellman protocol which uses the infrastructure of a real quadratic field. Theirs is the first such system not to require an underlying group structure, but rather a structure which is “almost” like that of a group. We give here a more detailed description of this scheme as well as state the required algorithms and considerations for their implementation.

Key words. Key exchange, Discrete logarithm, Real quadratic field.

1. Introduction

The idea underlying the Diffie–Hellman key-exchange protocol [8] and all its extensions (see [17], [16], [20], [14], [1], and others) is as follows. Two communication partners Alice and Bob agree on a large finite multiplicative group G and an element $g \in G$ ($G$ and $g$ can be made public). Alice secretly selects some positive integer $a < |G|$, computes $x = g^a$, and transmits $x$ to Bob. Similarly, Bob secretly chooses a positive integer $b < |G|$ and sends $y = g^b$ to Alice. Alice computes $k = y^a = g^{ab}$ and Bob computes $k = x^b = g^{ab}$. Then $k$ can be used as the common key.

A cryptanalyst tapping the communication line knows $G$, $g$, $x$, and $y$, and attempts to find $k$. One way to achieve this is to find $a = \log_g x$ or $b = \log_g y$, i.e., to solve the discrete logarithm problem (DLP) in $G$. Hence $G$ should be chosen such that DLP in $G$ is hard.
In [2] Buchmann and Williams sketched the first Diffie–Hellman protocol which does not require a group structure. Their scheme is instead based on the infrastructure of a real quadratic field. This approach not only introduces a new cryptographic idea, but is also quite unexpected in that it extends the scheme beyond the use of multiplication in a group—a concept which seemed essential to any Diffie–Hellman-like protocol—and employs, more generally, arithmetic in a set which is not a group. The fastest-known algorithm for solving the DLP corresponding to this scheme is subexponential if we assume certain Extended Riemann Hypotheses.

Unfortunately, there is a price to pay for this new idea. The key-generation algorithm is more complicated and computationally more involved than that of the standard Diffie–Hellman protocol. Furthermore, the scheme requires more bandwidth and an additional round of communication, although in the second round, the two partners transmit at most one bit each. Thus the system, while employing an interesting mathematical concept, seems to lose some of its practicality.

In this paper we give a more detailed description of the protocol [2]. Section 2 presents the underlying mathematical concepts and how they are used in the scheme. In Sections 3 and 4 we give the required algorithms, analyse their complexity, and consider implementation issues and error bounds. Section 5 shows how the two communication partners can agree on a unique key. The overall protocol is presented in Section 6. The paper concludes with a discussion of the scheme’s security in Section 7 and some numerical examples and aspects of optimization in Section 8.

2. Real Quadratic Fields

2.1. Reduced Ideals

For a more detailed introduction to this material we refer the reader to [7] or [9] and [22]. Let \( D \) be a positive squarefree integer. \( \mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Q} + \sqrt{D} \) is the real quadratic number field generated by \( \sqrt{D} \) over the rationals \( \mathbb{Q} \). Let

\[
\sigma = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } D \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{4}, \\ 2 & \text{if } D \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \end{cases}
\]

and let \( \omega = (\sigma - 1 + \sqrt{D})/\sigma \in \mathbb{K} \). It can be shown that \( \mathcal{O} = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} \omega \) is the maximal real quadratic order in \( \mathbb{K} \), where \( \mathbb{Z} \) denotes the set of rational integers.

For any \( \alpha = x + y \sqrt{D} \in \mathbb{K} (x, y \in \mathbb{Q}) \), denote by \( \bar{\alpha} = x - y \sqrt{D} \) its algebraic conjugate. The norm of \( \alpha \) is defined as \( N(\alpha) = \alpha \bar{\alpha} = x^2 - y^2 D \).

A unit in \( \mathbb{K} \) is a divisor (in \( \mathcal{O} \)) of 1, or, equivalently, an element in \( \mathcal{O} \) of norm 1. A unique unit \( \eta > 1 \) in \( \mathbb{K} \) exists such that every unit in \( \mathbb{K} \) can be written as \( \pm \eta^n \) for some \( n \in \mathbb{Z} \). \( \eta \) is called the fundamental unit of \( \mathbb{K} \). Denote by \( R = \log \eta \) the regulator of \( \mathbb{K} \).

A subset \( \mathfrak{a} \) of \( \mathcal{O} \) is called an (integral) ideal in \( \mathcal{O} \) if both \( a + a \) and \( \mathcal{O} \cdot a \) are subsets of \( a \). It can be shown that every ideal \( a \) has a representation

\[
a = [a, b + c \omega] = a \oplus Z(b + c \omega),
\]
where \( a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, a, b > 0, c|b, \) and \( c|a. \) The integers \( c \) and \( a \) are unique and \( a \) is the least positive rational integer in \( a, \) denoted by \( L(a). \) We also have \( ac|N(b + c\omega). \)

A principal ideal \( a \) of \( \mathcal{O} \) is an ideal of the form \( a = \sigma \mathcal{O} \) where \( \sigma \in \mathcal{O}. \) We say that \( \sigma \) generates the ideal \( a \) and write \( a = (\sigma). \) Denote by \( \mathcal{P} \) the set of principal ideals in \( \mathcal{O}. \) Clearly, \( \mathcal{P} \) is a semigroup under multiplication, if we define the product of two principal ideals \( (\alpha), (\beta) \) to be \( (\alpha\beta). \)

We define a pair of ideals \( a, b \) in \( \mathcal{O} \) to be equivalent (written \( a \sim b \)) if \( \gamma \in K - \{0\} \) exists such that \( a = \gamma b, \) or, equivalently, if \( \alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{O} - \{0\} \) exist such that \( \alpha a = \beta b. \)

It is easy to see that \( \sim \) is in fact a proper equivalence relation. Furthermore, \( \mathcal{P} \) is exactly the equivalence class of the unit ideal \( \mathcal{O} = (1) \) under \( \sim. \)

If \( a \) is any ideal, then we call a number \( \mu \in a \) a minimum in \( a \) if \( \mu > 0 \) and no \( \alpha \in a - \{0\} \) exists such that \( |\alpha| < \mu \) and \( |\alpha'| < |\mu'|. \) Clearly, 1 is a minimum in \( \mathcal{O}. \)

It can be shown that the set \( \{\log \mu|\mu \text{ is a minimum in } \mathcal{O}\} \) is discrete in the real numbers \( \mathbb{R}. \) Furthermore, there is an iterative procedure which enables us to generate a sequence of minima in \( \mathcal{O} \) such that \( 1 = \mu_1 < \mu_2 < \mu_3 < \cdots \) (details of this method are given in Section 3). Then we have \( \mu_{j+1} = \eta \) for some \( \eta \in \mathbb{Z}_+, \) and in fact \( \mu_{j+ml} = \mu_j \eta^m \) for all \( j \in \mathbb{Z}_+, \) \( m \in \mathbb{Z} \) such that \( j + ml \geq 1. \) If \( D \) is chosen appropriately (see Section 7.2), then \( l \) might be as large as \( O(\sqrt{D \log \log D}). \)

An ideal \( a = [L(a), b + c\omega] \) is said to be primitive if \( c = 1. \) We define \( a \) to be reduced if \( a \) is primitive and \( L(a) \) is a minimum in \( a. \) Clearly, \( \mathcal{O} = [1, \omega] \) is reduced.

Denote by \( \mathcal{M} \) the set of all reduced principal ideals in \( \mathcal{O}. \) It can be shown that \( \mathcal{M} \) is finite and of cardinality \( l. \) If we set \( M = \{\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots, \mu_l\}, \) i.e., \( M \) consists of all the minima \( \mu \in \mathcal{O} \) such that \( 1 \leq \mu < \eta, \) then we can write \( \mathcal{M} = \{\mu_j = (\mu)|\mu_j \in M\} = \{r_1 = (1), r_2, \ldots, r_l\}. \)

#### 2.2. Distances

With each reduced ideal \( r_j = (\mu_j) \) where \( \mu_j \) is a minimum in \( \mathcal{O}, \) we can associate a distance

\[
\delta_j = \log \mu_j.
\]

Then \( \delta_j \) is a strictly monotonically increasing function, i.e., \( \delta_{j+1} > \delta_j. \) Furthermore, we can define the distance\(^1\) between a reduced ideal \( r_j \) and a real number \( x \) as

\[
\delta(r_j, x) = \delta_j - x.
\]

For each \( x \in \mathbb{R}_+, \) there is a unique \( j \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \) such that \( \delta_j \leq x < \delta_{j+1}. \) If \( r_j = (\mu_j) \) where \( \delta_j = \log \mu_j, \) then we call \( r_j \) the ideal closest to the left of \( x \) and denote it by \( r_-(x). \) Similarly, if \( r_{j+1} = (\mu_{j+1}) \) where \( \delta_{j+1} = \log \mu_{j+1}, \) then \( r_{j+1} = r_+(x) \) is the ideal closest to the right of \( x. \)

We are now ready to present the idea for our protocol.

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\(^1\) This definition differs from the one given in [2] only in its sign.
2.3. Outline of the Protocol

Our goal is to establish a protocol similar to the one developed by Diffie and Hellman [8]. However, as the underlying set we use \( \mathfrak{R} \), the set of reduced principal ideals in \( K \). The idea is as follows.

Two communication partners Alice and Bob publicly agree on a real quadratic field \( K \) with large \( D \). Alice secretly chooses a positive integer \( a \) and computes a reduced ideal \( \mathfrak{a} \in \{ \mathfrak{r}_-(a), \mathfrak{r}_+(a) \} \) and an approximation \( \tilde{\delta}(a, a) \) to its distance \( \delta(a, a) \) from \( a \). She sends both the ideal and its approximate distance from \( a \) to Bob. Similarly, Bob secretly chooses \( b \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \) and determines a reduced ideal \( \mathfrak{b} \in \{ \mathfrak{r}_-(b), \mathfrak{r}_+(b) \} \) and an approximation \( \tilde{\delta}(b, b) \) of \( \delta(b, b) \). He transmits both \( b \) and \( \tilde{\delta}(b, b) \) to Alice. From \( b \), \( \tilde{\delta}(b, b) \), and \( a \), Alice computes a reduced ideal \( \mathfrak{k}_A \in \{ \mathfrak{r}_-(ab), \mathfrak{r}_+(ab) \} \). Likewise, Bob determines from \( a \), \( \tilde{\delta}(a, a) \), and \( b \) a reduced ideal \( \mathfrak{k}_B \in \{ \mathfrak{r}_-(ab), \mathfrak{r}_+(ab) \} \).

Since our distances are irrational numbers and the two communication partners might use different rational approximations in their respective computations, \( \mathfrak{k}_A \) and \( \mathfrak{k}_B \) need not be the same ideal. Furthermore, Alice and Bob do not know whether they computed the same ideal, i.e., whether \( \mathfrak{k}_A = \mathfrak{k}_B \). However, the exchange of at most two more bits of information will enable them to agree on a common key ideal \( k \).

This scheme introduces two problems:

1. Given a number \( a \), how to find an ideal \( \mathfrak{a} \in \{ \mathfrak{r}_-(a), \mathfrak{r}_+(a) \} \). More generally, given a real number \( a \), an ideal \( \mathfrak{b} \in \{ \mathfrak{r}_-(b), \mathfrak{r}_+(b) \} \), and \( \tilde{\delta}(b, b) \), how to find \( \mathfrak{k}_A \in \{ \mathfrak{r}_-(ab), \mathfrak{r}_+(ab) \} \).

2. How do the communication partners detect whether or not \( \mathfrak{k}_A = \mathfrak{k}_B \) and, in case \( \mathfrak{k}_A \neq \mathfrak{k}_B \), how do they agree on a common key ideal \( k \)?

In order to solve problem 1, we need to be able to do arithmetic in \( \mathfrak{R} \). The required algorithms are introduced in the following two sections. The ambiguity problem of the key ideal is solved in Section 5.

3. Arithmetic in \( \mathfrak{R} \)

3.1. Ideals and Continued Fractions

We introduce a basis representation for ideals which allows us to perform integer arithmetic on primitive principal ideals. Let \( a = [a, b + \omega] \) be a primitive principal ideal. If we set \( Q = a\sigma, P = b\sigma + \sigma - 1 \), then \( a \) can be written as

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathfrak{a} &= \left[ \frac{Q}{\sigma}, \frac{P+\sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] = \mathbb{Z}\frac{Q}{\sigma} \oplus \mathbb{Z}\frac{P+\sqrt{D}}{\sigma},
\end{align*}
\]

where \( P, Q \in \mathbb{Z} \), \( \sigma | Q \), and \( \sigma Q | D - P^2 \) (recall that \( \sigma = 1 \) or \( 2 \)). So every primitive ideal can be associated with a pair \((P, Q)\) of rational integer coefficients. For the unit ideal \( \mathfrak{O} \), we have \( P = \sigma - 1, Q = \sigma \).

Let

\[
\mathfrak{a} = \left[ \frac{Q}{\sigma}, \frac{P+\sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] \in \mathfrak{P}
\]
be a primitive ideal. If we set $Q_0 = Q$, $P_0 = P$, $\varphi_0 = (P_0 + \sqrt{D})/Q_0$, and expand $\varphi_0$ into a continued fraction as described in Algorithm 1(a) below, then we obtain a sequence of primitive principal ideals $a_2, a_3, \ldots$, where

$$
a_j = \left[ \frac{Q_{j-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{j-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] \quad (j \in \mathbb{Z}_+).
$$

For each $j \geq 2$, we call $a_{j+1}$ the right neighbour and $a_{j-1}$ the left neighbour of $a_j$. If $a_1 = a$ is reduced, then $a_i = r_k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$, and the sequence $(a_j)_{1 \leq j \leq i}$ will generate all the ideals in $\mathfrak{R}$. In this case we can compute reduced principal ideals by starting at any $r_i (i \geq k)$ and generating $r_{i+1}$, $r_{i+2}, \ldots$, or $r_{i-1}, r_{i-2}, \ldots, r_1$ (for the latter sequence, we require $i \geq k + 1$). In the case where $a_1$ is not reduced, this method will yield a reduced ideal after $O(\log D)$ iterations. Hence, the continued fraction algorithm allows us to step through $\mathfrak{R}$ in either direction and quickly find, for any primitive principal ideal, an equivalent reduced one. The algorithm is given in [22] and operates as follows. Let $d = \lfloor \sqrt{D} \rfloor$.

**Algorithm 1 (Continued Fraction Algorithm).**

(a) Input: Any primitive ideal

$$
a = \left[ \frac{Q}{\sigma}, \frac{P + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] \in \mathfrak{P}.
$$

Output: A sequence of primitive ideals $a_1, a_2, \ldots$ in $\mathfrak{P}$, where

$$
a_j = \left[ \frac{Q_{j-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{j-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] \quad (j \in \mathbb{Z}_+).
$$

Algorithm: Set

$$
P_0 = P, \quad Q_0 = Q,
$$

$$
a_{j-1} = \left[ \frac{P_{j-1} + \sqrt{D}}{Q_{j-1}} \right], \quad P_j = a_{j-1}Q_{j-1} - P_{j-1}, \quad Q_j = \frac{D - P_j^2}{Q_{j-1}} \quad (j = 1, 2, \ldots).
$$

Set

$$
\mathfrak{a}_j = \left[ \frac{Q_{j-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{j-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right].
$$

Then $\mathfrak{a}_{j+1} = \psi_j \mathfrak{a}_j$ where $\psi_j = (\sqrt{D} - P_j)/Q_{j-1} \ (j \in \mathbb{Z}_+)$. (b) Input: Any

$$
r_i \in \mathfrak{R}, \quad r_i = \left[ \frac{Q_{i-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{i-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] \quad (i \in \mathbb{Z}_+).
$$

Output: The sequence of ideals $r_{i-1}, r_{i-2}, \ldots, r_1 = O$, where

$$
r_j = \left[ \frac{Q_{j-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{j-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] \quad (1 \leq j \leq i).$$
Algorithm:

\[ Q_j = \frac{D - P_{j+1}^2}{Q_{j+1}}, \quad q_j = \left\lfloor \frac{P_{j+1} + d}{Q_j} \right\rfloor, \quad P_j = q_jQ_j - P_{j+1} \quad (j = i - 2, i - 1, \ldots, 1). \]

Set

\[ r_j = \left\lfloor \frac{Q_{j-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{j-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right\rfloor. \]

Then \( r_j = \varphi_j r_{j+1} \) where

\[ \varphi_j = \frac{1}{\psi_j} = \frac{P_j + \sqrt{D}}{Q_j} \quad (1 \leq j \leq i). \]

Theorem 3.1.

(a) Let 

\[ a = \left\lfloor \frac{Q}{\sigma}, \frac{P + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right\rfloor \]

be a primitive principal ideal and let \( a_1, a_2, \ldots \) be the sequence computed by Algorithm 1(a). If \( 0 < Q_0 < \sqrt{D} \), then, for all \( j \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \):

(i) \( a_j \in \mathbb{R} \); if \( k \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \) is such that \( a_1 = r_k \), then \( a_j = r_{k+j-1} \).

(ii) \( q_j \geq 1, 0 < P_j < \sqrt{D}, \sigma \leq Q_j < 2\sqrt{D} \).

(iii) \( -1 < 1/\psi_j = (P_j - \sqrt{D})/Q_j < 0 \).

(iv) \( q_j = \left\lfloor (P_{j+1} + d)/Q_j \right\rfloor \), so the expressions for \( q_j \) in Algorithms 1(a) and (b) are equivalent.

(b) Let \( r_i = \left\lfloor Q_{i-1}/\sigma, (P_{i-1} + \sqrt{D})/\sigma \right\rfloor \in \mathbb{R} \) (\( i \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \)) and let \( r_{i-1}, r_{i-2}, \ldots \) be the sequence computed by Algorithm 1(b). If \( 0 < Q_{i-2} < \sqrt{D} \), then, for all \( 1 \leq j \leq i - 1 \):

(i) \( r_j \in \mathbb{R}, \delta_j = \delta_{j+1} + \log|\varphi_j| = \delta_j + 1 - \log|\psi_j| \).

(ii) \( q_{j-1} \geq 1, 0 < P_{j-1} < \sqrt{D}, \sigma \leq Q_{j-1} < 2\sqrt{D} \).

(iii) \( -1 < \varphi_{j-1} = (P_{j-1} - \sqrt{D})/Q_{j-1} < 0 \).

Proof. For part (a) see [22]. The second part follows analogously.

The next lemma indicates how far we advance in distance in one step and in two consecutive steps of Algorithm 1(a).

Lemma 3.2. Let \( a_1 \) be as in Theorem 3.1. Then, for all \( j \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \):

(a) \( q_j < |\psi_{j+1}| < q_j + 1 \).

(b) \( \psi_{j+1} \psi_j > 2 \).

(c) \( 1 + 1/\sqrt{\Delta} < |\psi_j| < \sqrt{\Delta} \), where \( \Delta = (4/\sigma^2)D \) is the discriminant of \( K \).

By the Gauss–Kuz'min law of almost all continued fractions (see, for example, p. 92f. of [11]), a partial quotient \( q \) occurs with probability \( \log_2(1 + 1/(q + 1)^2 - 1)) \). Hence, we expect \( q_j \) to be small in most cases, for example, \( q_j = 1 \) in 41.5%, \( q_j \leq 10 \) in 87.4% of all cases.
Let $a_1$ be a primitive principal ideal and let $a_m (m \in \mathbb{Z}_+)$ be generated from $a_1$ using Algorithm 1(a). Then $a_m = \theta_m a_1$, where $\theta_1 = 1$, $\theta_m = \prod_{i=1}^{m-1} \theta_i$. It follows that, for any fixed $i \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ and $j \geq i$, we have $a_j = (\theta_j/\theta_i)a_i$. If we set $\zeta_m = 1/\theta_m$, i.e., $\zeta_1 = 1$, $\zeta_m = \prod_{i=1}^{m-1} \theta_i (m \geq 1)$, then, for $1 \leq j \leq i$, we have $a_j = (\zeta_j/\zeta_i)a_i$.

In the special case where $a_1 = r_1 = (1)$, i.e., $a_m = r_m$, we have $(\theta_m) = a_m = r_m = (\mu_m)$, and in fact $\mu_m = |\theta_m|$. The following lemma summarizes some properties and gives a simple recurrence relation for $\theta_j$, $\zeta_j$.

**Lemma 3.3.** For all $m \geq 1$:

(a) $\theta_{m+1} = -q_m \theta_{m+1} + \theta_m$, $\zeta_{m+1} = q_m \zeta_{m+1} + \zeta_m$.
(b) $|\theta_{m+1}| > |\theta_m| \geq 1$, $|\zeta_{m+1}| < |\zeta_m| \leq 1$.
(c) $\text{sgn}(\theta_m) = (-1)^{m-1}$, $\text{sgn}(\zeta_m) = (-1)^{m-1}$.

**Proof.** We have $\theta_{m+2} = \psi_{m+1} \psi_m \theta_m$. An easy calculation shows $\psi_{m+1} \psi_m = -q_m \psi_{m+1} + \psi_m$, whence follows the recurrence relation for $\theta_{m+2}$. Similarly, we show $\theta_{m+1} \theta_m = q_m \theta_{m+1} + \theta_m$, which yields the recurrence relation for $\zeta_{m+2}$. Now $|\theta_{m+1}| = |\psi_{m+1}||\theta_m|$ and, by Theorem 3.1(a)(i), we have $1 > 1/|\psi_m|$, hence $|\theta_{m+1}| > |\theta_m|$. We show $\text{sgn}(\theta_m) = (-1)^{m-1}$ by induction on $m$. We have $\theta'_1 = 1 > 0$, $\theta'_2 = \psi'_1 = (P_1 + \sqrt{D}/Q_0 < 0$ by Theorem 3.1, and for $m \geq 0$, using the induction hypothesis for $m + 1$ and $m$, $\theta_{m+2} = -q_m (-1)^m |\theta_{m+1}| + (1)^m = (-1)^m (q_m |\theta_{m+1}| + |\theta'_m|)$. The rest of the lemma follows from the identity $\zeta_m = 1/\theta_m$.

In order to find, for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, a reduced ideal $r_i \in \{r_-(x), r_+(x)\}$, we could use Algorithm 1(a), starting at $r_1 = (1)$, to generate a sequence of reduced ideals $r_2, r_3, \ldots$ with distances $\delta_2 = \log |\theta_2|, \delta_3 = \log |\theta_3|, \ldots$, until we obtain $r_i$ such that $\delta_i < x < \delta_{i+1}$. However, since $|\psi_i| < 2\sqrt{D}$ for $l \geq 1$ by Lemma 3.2(c), each step advances us $O(\log D)$ in distance, hence this will require exponential computation time if $x$ is polynomial in $D$. We need to move through $\mathbb{R}$ at a much more rapid pace. To achieve this, we make use of Shanks's infrastructure idea [19].

**3.2. Multiply & Reduce**

We impose an operation $\cdot$ ("Multiply & Reduce") in $\mathbb{R}$ as follows. If $r_i, r_j$ are reduced ideals with respective distances $\delta_i, \delta_j$, then $r_i \cdot r_j$ is a reduced ideal $r_{m}$ such that $\delta_{m} \approx \delta_i + \delta_j$, i.e., $m \approx i + j$. Now if we want to find a reduced ideal $r_i$ such that $\delta_i \leq x < \delta_{i+1}$, where $x$ is polynomial in $D$, we start with a reduced ideal $r_i$ with small $\delta_i = O(\log D)$. $r_i$ can be obtained using Algorithm 1(a) on $r_1 = (1)$. We then compute $r_j = r_1 \cdot r_1 \cdot \cdots \cdot r_j$, where the number of terms is $n \approx x/\delta_i$. Then $\delta_i \approx n\delta_i \approx x$, and it can be shown that a few applications of Algorithm 1, starting at $r_j$, will yield $r_i$. If we adopt a standard exponentiation technique as described, for example, on p. 442 of [12], we can compute $r_j$ using $O(\log n) = O(\log D)$ applications of $\cdot$, hence this method is much faster than the single-step method, provided the operation $\cdot$ of two ideals can be done in time $O(\log D)$ and the computation of $r_i$ from $r_j$ requires at most $O(\log D)$ iterations of Algorithm 1.
In order to define $\cdot$ formally, consider ideal multiplication as given in Section 2.1. Let $r_i, r_j \in \mathcal{R}$. If we set $c = r_ir_j$, then $c = (\gamma)$ where $\log \gamma = \delta_i + \delta_j$, hence, $c$ would give us exactly our required distance. Unfortunately, $c$ need not be reduced. However, by using the reduction technique described in [22], we can compute a fixed reduced ideal $r_m$ which we define to be $r_i \cdot r_j$ such that $\delta_m = \delta_i + \delta_j + \varepsilon$ where $|\varepsilon| = O(\log D)$, so $|\varepsilon|$ is usually very small relative to $\delta_i, \delta_j$. $r_m$ can be generated as follows. If we set $a_1 = c$ and apply the continued fraction algorithm as given in Algorithm 1(a) to the product ideal $c = a_1$, $O(\log D)$ times, then we obtain an ideal $a_k$ which is reduced, i.e., $a_k = r_m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. Since ideal multiplication requires time $O(\log D)$, $r_i \cdot r_j$ can in fact be computed in time $O(\log D)$. The algorithms for ideal multiplication and reduction are given below.

Algorithm 2 (Ideal Multiplication).

Input:

$$r_i = \left[ \frac{Q_{i-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{i-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right], \quad r_j = \left[ \frac{Q_{j-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{j-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] \in \mathcal{R} \quad (i, j \in \mathbb{Z}_+).$$

Output: $c \in \mathcal{P}$ primitive, $U \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ such that $r_i r_j = (U)c$.

Algorithm:

1. Solve $Q_{i-1}x_1 + Q_{j-1}y_1 = Y = \gcd\left( \frac{Q_{i-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{Q_{j-1}}{\sigma} \right)$ for $x_1, y_1, Y \in \mathbb{Z}$.
2. Solve $\frac{P_{i-1} + P_{j-1}}{\sigma}x_2 + Yy_2 = U = \gcd\left( \frac{P_{i-1} + P_{j-1}}{\sigma}, Y \right)$ for $x_2, y_2, U \in \mathbb{Z}$.
3. Set $Q = Q_{i-1}Q_{j-1}/\sigma U^2$.
4. Set $X \equiv y_2x_1(P_{j-1} - P_{i-1}) + x_2P_{i-1}^2 - P_{i-1}^2 \bmod \frac{Q_{j-1}}{U}$.
5. Set $P = P_{i-1} + (XQ_{i-1}/\sigma U)$ (mod $Q$). (If $U = Y$, then set $x_2 = 0, y_2 = 1$.)
6. Set $c = \left[ \frac{Q}{\sigma}, \frac{P + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right]$.

This algorithm, which is basically Shanks' modification to Gauss' composition algorithm for quadratic forms, is mentioned in [21]. The factor $U$ is extracted to ensure that the product ideal $c$ is primitive.

Theorem 3.4. If $r_i, r_j$ are such that $0 < Q_{i-1}, Q_{j-1} < 2\sqrt{D}, -1 < (P_{i-1} - \sqrt{D})/Q_{i-1}, (P_{j-1} - \sqrt{D})/Q_{j-1} < 0$, then Algorithm 2 performs $O(\log D)$ arithmetic operations on numbers requiring $O(\log D)$ bits of storage.
Proof. \( Q_{i-1}, Q_{j-1}, P_{i-1}, P_{j-1} = \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{D}) \), hence all numbers throughout the algorithm are bounded by \( \mathcal{O}(D) \). Our algorithm performs a fixed number of arithmetic operations plus two applications of the Extended Euclidean Algorithm (EEA) to solve the diophantine equations. The number of arithmetic operations performed by the EEA is logarithmic in its largest input number.

Algorithm 3 (Reduction).

Input: \( a_1 \in \mathbb{P} \) where \[ a_1 = \frac{Q}{\sigma} \frac{P + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \]

is computed by Algorithm 2.

Output:

\[ a_k = \theta_k a_1 \in \mathbb{R}, \theta_k = (-1)^{k-1} \frac{G_{k-2} - B_{k-2}\sqrt{D}}{Q} \]

such that \( B_{k-2}, G_{k-2} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \) and \( k \geq 2 \).

Algorithm:

1. Set \( Q'_0 = Q, P'_0 = P, B_{-2} = 1, B_{-1} = 0 \).
2. Repeat, starting at \( j = 1 \):
   - Compute \( q_{j-1}, Q'_j, P'_j \) as in Algorithm 1(a).
   - Set \( B_{j-1} = q_{j-1} B_{j-2} + B_{j-3} \).
   - until \( \sigma \leq Q'_j \leq d \).
3. Compute one more quadruple \( (q_{j-1}, Q'_j, P'_j, B_{j-1}) \) as in step 2.
4. Set

\[ k = j + 1, \quad a_k = \left[ \frac{Q_{k-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{k-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right], \quad \theta_k = (-1)^{k-1} \frac{G_{k-2} - B_{k-2}\sqrt{D}}{Q'_0}, \]

where \( G_{k-2} = P'_{k-1} B_{k-2} + Q'_{k-1} B_{k-3} \).

Algorithm 3 is discussed in [22]. As soon as \( Q'_j \) is obtained such that \( \sigma \leq Q'_j \leq d \), the ideal\[ a_k = \left[ \frac{Q_{k-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] \]

is reduced, so \( a_k = r_m \) for some \( m \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \). The extra iteration in step 3 of the algorithm is to ensure that the bounds \( 0 < P'_{k-1} < \sqrt{D}, 0 < Q'_{k-1} < 2\sqrt{D} \) of Theorem 3.1 are satisfied. (Note that we write \( P'_{j-1}, Q'_{j-1} \) instead of \( P_{j-1}, Q_{j-1} \) to indicate that these are the coefficients of an ideal \( \alpha \) which is not reduced for \( j < k - 1 \). This notation is not to be confused with the notation \( \alpha' \in \mathbb{K} \) which denotes the conjugate of \( \alpha \).)

Lemma 3.5. Let \( c, B_i (-2 \leq i \leq k - 2), G_{k-2}, \theta_k, \) and \( a_k \) be as in Algorithm 3. Then \( 0 \leq B_i < B_{i+1} < Q'_0/\sqrt{D} \) (\(-2 \leq i \leq k - 4\)), \( B_{k-2} < (q_{k-2} + 1)(Q'_0/\sqrt{D}), \) and \( G_{k-2} < 3\sqrt{DB_{k-2}} \).
Proof. \(0 < B_i < B_{i+1}\) is clear from the recursion since all \(q_i \geq 1\) for \(i \geq 1\) by Theorem 3.1. From Theorem 4.2 in [21], we get \(B_{k-3} < Q'_0 / \sqrt{D}\). The bound for \(B_{k-2}\) follows from the recursion. The inequality for \(G_{k-2}\) can be obtained using the bounds on \(P'_k, Q'_k\) in Theorem 3.1 (it is at this point that we need the extra iteration in step 3 of Algorithm 3).

Theorem 3.6. If \(e = (1/U)r_ir_j\), where the coefficients of \(r_i\) and \(r_j\) satisfy the bounds of Theorem 3.4, then Algorithm 3 performs \(O(\log D)\) arithmetic operations on numbers of \(O(\log D)\) bits.

Proof. From Algorithm 2, we have \(Q'_0 = O(D), P'_0 = O(D)\) where

\[
eq \begin{bmatrix} Q'_0 & P'_0 + \sqrt{D} \\ \sigma & \sigma \end{bmatrix}
\]

then it follows from Theorem 4.1 and Corollary 4.1.1 in [21] that \(|P'_i| < \sqrt{D} + Q'_0, \quad |Q'_i| \leq Q'_0\) for \(0 \leq i \leq k - 2\). Theorem 3.1 yields \(P'_{k-1}, Q'_{k-1} = O(\sqrt{D})\). From Lemma 3.5, we obtain \(B_i = O(\sqrt{D})(-2 \leq i \leq k - 3)\) and \(B_{k-2} < (q_{k-2} + 1)B_{k-3} = O(D^{3/2})\), since \(q_{k-2} \leq (P_{k-2} + \sqrt{D})/Q_{k-2} = O(D)\), and \(G = O(D^2)\). (Indeed, by the Gauss-Kuz'min law, \(q_{k-2}\) will be small most of the time, so generally we have \(|P'_{k-2}| = O(\sqrt{D}), B_{k-2} = O(\sqrt{D}), G_{k-2} = O(D))\). Hence all numbers in the algorithm are bounded by a fixed power of \(D\). By Corollary 4.2.1 of [22] the maximum number of iterations is \(O(\log|Q'_0|/\sqrt{D}) = O(\log D)\) \(\square\)

Theorem 3.7. Let \(e = (1/U)r_ir_j\), where \(r_i, r_j\) are as in Theorem 3.4, and let \(a_k\) be the reduced ideal computed from \(e = a_1\) using Algorithm 3. If \(a_k = r_m\), then \(\delta_m = \delta_i + \delta_j + e\) where \(|e| = \log D + O(1)\).

Proof. We have, from Algorithm 2, \(Q'_0 = Q_{i-1}Q_{j-1}/\sigma U^2\), so

\[
|\theta_k| = \frac{G_{k-2} + B_{k-2} \sqrt{D}}{Q_{i-1}Q_{j-1}} \sigma U.
\]

Since step 3 of Algorithm 3 ensures that \(k \geq 2\), we have \(B_{k-2} \geq 1\), so

\[
|\theta_k| < \frac{G_{k-2} + B_{k-2} \sqrt{D}}{4D} \leq \frac{1}{4\sqrt{D}}
\]

and, from Lemma 3.5,

\[
|\theta_k| < \frac{3B_{k-2} \sqrt{D} + B_{k-2} \sqrt{D}}{Q'_0} = \frac{4B_{k-2} \sqrt{D}}{Q'_0} < 4(q_{k-2} + 1) = O(D).
\]

Set \(e = \log(|\theta_k|/U)\), then \(|e| = \log D + O(1)\). If \(r_i = (\mu_i), r_j = (\mu_j)\), and if \(a_k = r_m = (\mu_m)\), then \(r_i = \theta_k e = (\theta_k e) r_i r_j\), so \(\mu_m = (|\theta_k|/U) \mu_i \mu_j\), hence \(\delta_m = \log \mu_m = \log(|\theta_k|/\mu_i \mu_j/U) = e + \delta_i + \delta_j\). \(\square\)
Let \( x, y \in \mathbb{R} \). Our next goal is to compute efficiently from ideals \( r_j \in \{ r_-(x), r_+(x) \} \) and \( r_j \in \{ r_-(y), r_+(y) \} \) an ideal \( r_n \in \{ r_-(x+y), r_+(x+y) \} \). To achieve this, we first compute \( e = (1/U)r_tr_j \) and a reduced ideal \( r_m \) such that \( \delta_m = \delta_i + \delta_j + \varepsilon, |e| = \log D + O(1) \) in time \( O(\log D) \), using Algorithms 2 and 3. Then \( \delta(r_m, x+y) = \delta_m - x - y = \delta(r_i, x) + \delta(r_j, y) + \varepsilon \), and \( r_m \) need not yet be our correct ideal \( r_n \). However, \( r_n \) can be computed from \( r_m \) using Algorithm 1. It remains to be shown that this requires \( O(\log D) \) iterations of Algorithm 1. We prove this result and discuss the details of the algorithm in the next section.

4. Computing Closest Ideals

4.1. Preliminaries for the Implementation

Since we wish to avoid evaluating logarithms in our implementation, we use exponential distances. If \( r_j = (\mu_j) \) is any reduced ideal with distance \( \delta_j \), then define its exponential distance as simply \( e^{\delta_j} = \mu_j \). Similarly, if \( x \in \mathbb{R}_+ \), we define

\[
\lambda(r_j, x) = e^{\lambda(r_j, x)} = \mu_j e^{-x}.
\]

Since distances are generally irrational numbers, we need to use rational approximations in our algorithms. More specifically, we approximate a distance \( \lambda(r, x) \in \mathbb{R} \) by \( \lambda(r, x) \in \mathbb{Q} \) with a fixed precision of \( p \) bits, i.e., we write

\[
\lambda(r, x) \approx \frac{M(r, x)}{2^p}, \quad \text{where} \quad M(r, x) \in \mathbb{Z}_+.
\]

We define the relative error:

\[
\rho(r, x) = \frac{\lambda(r, x)}{\lambda(r, x)}.
\]

We denote by \( \hat{r}(x) \) the ideal actually computed by our algorithm, so we always have \( \hat{r}(x) \in \{ r_-(x), r_+(x) \} \). Let \( \hat{\lambda}(x) = \hat{\lambda}(\hat{r}(x), x) \), \( \hat{\lambda}(x) = \hat{\lambda}(\hat{r}(x), x) = M(x)/2^p \), and \( \rho(x) = \hat{\lambda}(x)/\lambda(x) \).

The following lemma is an immediate consequence of Lemma 3.2(a) and (c).

Lemma 4.1. Let \( x \in \mathbb{R} \) and let \( j \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \) be such that \( r_-(x) = r_j, r_+(x) = r_{j+1} \).

(a) \( 1/(q_{j-1} + 1) < \lambda(r_-(x), x) \leq 1 < \lambda(r_+(x), x) < q_{j-1} + 1 \).

(b) \( \lambda(r_-(x), x) > 1/\sqrt{\Delta}, \lambda(r_+(x), x) < \sqrt{\Delta} \).

For our implementation details, we need to define a number of constants together with their properties. Let \( B \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2} \) be an upper bound on the secretly chosen "exponents" \( a, b \) such that \( B \) is polynomial bounded in \( D \). Set

\[
d^* = [2^\sqrt{\log D}], \quad \chi = 1 + \frac{1}{2^p-1}, \quad g = 1 + \frac{1}{47d},
\]

\[
y = [g^{-1}2^p], \quad K = \left( \frac{\chi^2}{1 - \gamma} \right)^2, \quad A = g^{15/2}.
\]
Also recall that \( d = |D| \) and \( \Delta = (4/\sigma^2)D \) is the discriminant of \( K \). Four our computation, we require

\[
2^n \geq 3072dB^2,
\]
i.e., our precision is polynomial in \( D \). For example, if \( a, b \) are bounded by \( d = \lfloor \sqrt{D} \rfloor \), we must carry \( O(D^{3/2}) \) bits of precision; a bound of \( \lfloor \sqrt{D} \rfloor \) on \( a \) and \( b \) requires a precision of \( O(D) \) bits, etc. Furthermore, \( \gamma \) will be a lower bound for all our approximate distances \( M(a, x) \) throughout our protocol. The following inequalities hold.

**Lemma 4.2.**

(a) \( \gamma > 1 \).

(b) \( K > 1 \).

(c) \( \chi^2(1 + g/2^p) < \sqrt{K} < A^3 \).

(d) \( g^2 < 1 + 1/\sqrt{\Delta} \).

(e) \( x^2 < 1 + 1/2^{p-2} < A < g \).

(f) \( (1 + 2^{-p})g^2/(1 - g^22^{-p}) < 1 + 1/\sqrt{\Delta} \).

**Proof.** We only prove the inequality \( 1 + 1/2^{p-2} < A \) as it explains our lower bound for \( p \). We have

\[
\left( 1 + \frac{1}{2^{p-2}} \right)^{16B^2} = \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2^{p-2}} \right)^{2p^{-2}(16B^2(2^{p-2}))} < \exp\left( \frac{16B^2}{2p-2} \right).
\]

Since \( \log(1 + 1/x) > 1/(1 + x) \) for \( x > 1 \);

\[
\log(g) \geq \frac{1}{47d + 1} \geq \frac{1}{48d} \geq \frac{16B^2}{2^{p-2}}.
\]

So

\[
A^{16B^2} = g \geq \exp\left( \frac{16B^2}{2^{p-2}} \right) > \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2^{p-2}} \right)^{16B^2}.
\]

\[
\square
\]

4.2. The Algorithms

Our first algorithm in this section takes two input ideals \( \mathfrak{f}(x) \in \{ r_-(x), r_+(x) \} \) and \( \mathfrak{f}(y) \in \{ r_-(y), r_+(y) \} \) \((x, y \in \mathbb{R})\) and computes \( \mathfrak{f}(x + y) \in \{ r_-(x + y), r_+(x + y) \} \). The second algorithm computes, from a positive integer \( m \) and \( \mathfrak{f}(x) \in \{ r_-(x), r_+(x) \} \), an ideal \( \mathfrak{f}(mx) \in \{ r_-(mx), r_+(mx) \} \).

**Algorithm 4.**

**Input:** \( \mathfrak{f}(x), \mathfrak{f}(y) \in \mathfrak{R}, M(x), M(y) \ (x, y \in \mathbb{R}) \) such that:

(i) \( M(x), M(y) \geq \gamma \).

(ii) \( \mathfrak{f}(x) \in \{ r_-(x), r_+(x) \}, \mathfrak{f}(y) \in \{ r_-(y), r_+(y) \} \).

(iii) \( g^{-1} \leq p(x)p(y) \leq g \).

**Output:** \( \mathfrak{f}(x + y) \in \mathfrak{R} \) such that \( \mathfrak{f}(x + y) \in \{ r_-(x + y), r_+(x + y) \}, M(x + y) \geq \gamma \).
A Key-Exchange Protocol Using Real Quadratic Fields

Algorithm: First use Algorithm 2 to compute $U \in \mathbb{Z}_+$,

$$c = \left\lceil \frac{Q_0}{\sigma}, \frac{P_0 + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right\rceil \in \mathbb{P}$$

such that $c = (1/U)\hat{f}(x)\hat{f}(y) = a_1$. Then compute

$$a_k = \left\lceil \frac{Q_{k-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{k-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right\rceil \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \theta_k = (-1)^{k-1} \frac{G_{k-2} - B_{k-2}\sqrt{D}}{Q_0}$$

such that $a_k = \theta_k c$ and $G_{k-2}, B_{k-2} \geq 0$, using Algorithm 3. Then $a_k = (\theta_k/U)\hat{f}(x)\hat{f}(y)$ and

$$a_k = r_m = \left\lceil \frac{Q_{m-1}}{\sigma}, \frac{P_{m-1} + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right\rceil \text{ for some } m \in \mathbb{Z}_+.$$ 

Set

$$T = \left\lceil 2^{2^p} \frac{G_{k-2} - B_{k-2}d^*}{Q} \right\rceil, \quad \hat{\theta} = \frac{T}{2^{3^p}}, \quad L = g^{\frac{\hat{\theta}}{U}}$$

Case 1: $1 \leq L \leq g^3$. Then set

$$\hat{f}(x + y) = r_m, \quad M(x + y) = \left\lceil \frac{\hat{\theta}}{U} 2^{2p} \hat{\lambda}(x)\hat{\lambda}(y) \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{L2^p}{g} \right\rceil.$$

Case 2: $L < 1$. Compute $q_{m-1}, P_m, Q_m$ using Algorithm 1(a). Set

$$T_m = 2^p, \quad T_{m+1} = \left\lceil \frac{P_m 2^p + d^*}{Q_{m-1}} \right\rceil.$$

From $q_{m-1}, P_m, Q_m, T_m, T_{m+1}$, compute $q_{j-2}, P_{j-1}Q_{j-1}$, using Algorithm 1(a) and $T_j$ ($j \geq m + 2$) where

$$T_j = q_{j-2}T_{j-1} + T_{j-2}$$

until $j = n$ such that $T_n \geq 2^p/L > T_{n-1}$. Set

$$\hat{f}(x + y) = r_n, \quad M(x + y) = \left\lceil \frac{T_n\hat{\theta}}{U} \hat{\lambda}(x)\hat{\lambda}(y) \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{T_nL}{g} \right\rceil.$$

Case 3: $L > g^3$. Set

$$T_m = 2^p - 1, \quad T_{m-1} = \left\lceil \frac{(P_{m-1} 2^p + d^*)2^{p-1}}{Q_{m-2}(2^{2^p-1} + 1)} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{P_{m-1} 2^p + d^*}{gQ_{m-2}} \right\rceil.$$

From $Q_{m-1}P_{m-1}, T_m, T_{m-1}$, compute $Q_j, q_j, P_j$, using Algorithm 1(b) and $T_j$ ($j \leq m - 2$) where

$$T_j = q_jT_{j+1} + T_{j+2}$$

until $j = n$ such that $T_{n-1} > L2^p \geq T_n$. Set

$$\hat{f}(x + y) = r_n, \quad M(x + y) = \left\lceil \frac{\hat{\theta} 2^p}{UT_n} \hat{\lambda}(x)\hat{\lambda}(y) \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{L2^p}{gT_n} \right\rceil.$$
Proof of correctness of Algorithm 4. As mentioned before, we need to step through \( R \) in the appropriate direction, starting at \( r_m \), to obtain \( r_e \in \{r_{-}(x+y), r_{+}(x+y)\} \).

To see that \( r_e \) is indeed the correct ideal, it suffices to show that \( \lambda(r_{e-1}, x+y) \leq 1 < \lambda(r_{e+1}, x+y) \).

Since \( \lambda(a_k, x+y) = (|\theta|/U) \hat{\lambda}(x) \hat{\lambda}(y) \), we see that \( \hat{\theta} \) and \( L \) are approximations for \( |\theta| \) and \( \lambda(a_k, x+y) \), respectively. For simplicity, let \( \theta = |\theta|, G = G_{k-2}, B = B_{k-2}, \) and \( Q = Q_0 \). Then

\[
\theta \leq \hat{\theta} < \chi \theta.
\]

Proof.

\[
2^{2p} \theta = \frac{2^{3p} G + 2^{2p} B \sqrt{D}}{Q} \leq 2^{2p} \frac{G^{2p} + B d^*}{Q} \leq T < 2^{2p} \frac{G^{2p} + B d^*}{Q} + 1
\]

\[
< 2^{2p} \frac{G^{2p} + B (2^{p} \sqrt{D} + 1)}{Q} + 1 = 2^{3p} \theta + 2^{2p} B + 1.
\]

Now \( 2^{3p} \theta = 2^{3p} + 2^{2p+1} \) and \( 2^{2p} \geq 3072 \) \( d^2 \) \( B^4 \geq (3072/2) (2d)^2 \geq (3072/2) D \), since \( D = (\sqrt{D})^2 < (d+1)^2 \leq (2d)^2 \). Furthermore, step 3 of Algorithm 3 guarantees that \( k \geq 2 \), so \( B \geq B_0 \geq 1 \) and \( G \geq G_{k-1} \geq 1 \). Therefore

\[
2^{2p+1} B \frac{G \sqrt{D}}{Q} \geq \frac{2^{2p+1}}{4D} \geq \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{3072}{2} \right)^2 > 1
\]

and trivially

\[
2^{2p+1} \frac{B \sqrt{D}}{Q} > 2^{2p} \frac{B}{Q}.
\]

It follows that

\[
T < 2^{3p} \theta + 2^{2p} B \frac{G \sqrt{D}}{Q} + 1 < 2^{3p} \theta + 2^{2p+1} \frac{B \sqrt{D}}{Q} + 2^{2p+1} \frac{G}{Q} = 2^{3p} \theta + 2^{2p+1} \theta = 3^{p} \chi \theta.
\]

We also have

\[
L \frac{g^3}{g^3} < \lambda(a_k, x+y) \leq L.
\]

Proof.

\[
\lambda(a_k, x+y) = \frac{\theta L}{U} \hat{\lambda}(x) \hat{\lambda}(y) = \frac{\theta L}{U \rho(x) \rho(y)} = \frac{\theta L}{\rho \rho(x) \rho(y)},
\]

so, since \( \chi < g \), by Lemma 4.2(e),

\[
L \frac{g^3}{g^3} < \frac{L}{g^3} < g^3 \chi < \frac{L}{g \rho(x) \rho(y)} < \lambda(a_k, x+y) \leq \frac{L}{g \rho(x) \rho(y)} \leq L.
\]

The bounds on \( \lambda(a_k, x+y) \) show that our three cases, \( 1 \leq L \leq g^3 \), \( L < 1 \), \( L > g^3 \), correspond to \( \lambda(r_m, x+y) \approx 1 \), \( \lambda(r_m, x+y) < 1 \), and \( \lambda(r_m, x+y) > 1 \), respectively. For each case we need to show \( M(r_m, x+y) \geq \gamma \) and \( \lambda(r_{m-1}, x+y) < 1 < \lambda(r_{m+1}, x+y) \).
Case 1. In this case we have $1/g^3 < \lambda(r_m, x + y) \leq g^3$, so, by Lemmas 3.2(c) and 4.2(d),
\[
\lambda(r_{m-1}, x + y) = \frac{\lambda(r_m, x + y)}{|\psi_{m-1}|} < \frac{g^3}{1 + 1/\sqrt{\Delta}} < \frac{1}{g^4} < 1
\]
and
\[
\lambda(r_{m+1}, x + y) = |\psi_m| \lambda(r_m, x + y) > \frac{1 + 1/\sqrt{\Delta}}{g^3} > g^4 > 1.
\]
Furthermore, $M(x + y) \geq \lceil 2^p/g \rceil = \gamma$.

Case 2. Here $\lambda(r_m, x + y) < 1$, so we need to compute right neighbours of $r_m$ in order to increase the distance and move closer to $x + y$. Note that if $r_j = (\theta_j/\theta_m)^m$, then $T_j/2^p$ is an approximation for $|\theta_j/\theta_m| = \prod_{i=m}^{j-1} |\psi_i| (j \geq m)$ and this expression increases as $j$ increases. Hence, if $T_j < 2^p/L$, then
\[
1 \approx \frac{T_j}{2^p} L \approx \left| \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_m} \right| \lambda(r_m, x + y) = \lambda(r_j, x + y).
\]
We have
\[
\left| \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_m} \right| \leq \frac{T_j}{2^p} < \left| \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_m} \right| (j \geq m).
\]
Proof by induction on $j$. The case $j = m$ is $2^p = T_m < \chi 2^p$. For $j = m + 1$, we have
\[
2^p \left| \frac{\theta_{m+1}}{\theta_m} \right| \leq 2^p |\psi_m| < \frac{P_m 2^p + d^*}{Q_{m-1}} \leq T_{m+1} < \frac{P_m 2^p + d^*}{Q_{m-1}} + 1
\]
\[
< \frac{P_m 2^p + \sqrt{D} 2^p + 1}{Q_{m-1}} + 1 = 2^p |\psi_m| + 1 < 2^p |\psi_m| + 2
\]
\[
= \chi 2^p |\psi_m| = \chi 2^p \left| \frac{\theta_{m+1}}{\theta_m} \right|.
\]
From Lemma 3.3(a) and (c), it follows that
\[
\left| \frac{\theta_{j+2}}{\theta_m} \right| = q_j \left| \frac{\theta_{j+1}}{\theta_m} \right| + \left| \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_m} \right|,
\]
hence, since all $q_j \geq 1$ for $j \geq m$, the rest follows trivially from the linear recursion for $T_j$.

We clearly have $M(x + y) \geq \lceil 2^p/g \rceil = \gamma$. Now,
\[
\lambda(r_j, x + y) = \left| \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_m} \right| \lambda(r_m, x + y) = \left| \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_m} \right| 2^p \frac{T_j}{\theta_m} \frac{1}{g \rho(x) \rho(y)} \quad \text{for all } j \geq m,
\]
so
\[
\lambda(r_{n-1}, x + y) = \left| \frac{\theta_{n-1}}{\theta_m} \right| \frac{2^p}{g \rho(x) \rho(y)} \frac{T_{n-1}}{\theta_m} \frac{1}{L 2^p} \frac{g \rho(x) \rho(y)}{g \rho(x) \rho(y)} < 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 \cdot g = 1
\]
and, as in Case 1,
\[ \lambda(r_{n+1} + x + y) > \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\Delta}} \right) |\theta^*| 2^p \theta T_n L \frac{1}{g^p(x) \rho(y)} > g^5 \frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{1}{g^3} > g^3 > 1, \]

hence \( f(x + y) \in \{ r_-(x + y), r_+(x + y) \} \).

Case 3. In this final case \( \lambda(r_m, x + y) > 1 \), so we need to compute left neighbours of \( r_m \) in order to decrease the distance and move closer to \( x + y \). Here, if \( r_j = (c'_m / c_m) r_m \), then \( T_j / 2^p \) is an approximation for
\[ \frac{c'_j}{c_j} = \left| \frac{\theta_j}{\theta_j'} \right| = \prod_{l=j}^{m-1} |\psi| \quad (j \leq m), \]

and this expression increases as \( j \) decreases. Hence, if \( T_n \approx L 2^p \), then
\[ 1 \approx \frac{2^p L}{T_n} \approx \frac{c'_m}{c_m} \quad \lambda(r_m, x + y) = \lambda(r_n, x + y). \]

We show, by induction on \( j \),
\[ \frac{1}{\lambda} \left| \frac{c'_j}{c_m} \right| < \frac{T_j}{2^p} < \left| \frac{c'_j}{c_m} \right| \quad (j \leq m). \]

Proof. \( \chi(2^p - 1) = (1 + 1/2^{p-1})(2^p - 1) = 2^p + 1 - 1/2^{p-1} > 2^p \), so \( 2^p/\chi < 2^p - 1 = T_m < 2^p \).

\[ \frac{2^p}{\chi} \left| \frac{c'_m}{c_m} \right| \leq \frac{2^p}{\chi} |\psi_{m-1}| \leq \frac{d^* - P_{m-1} 2^p}{\chi Q_{m-2}} \leq \frac{P_{m-1} 2^p + d^*}{\chi Q_{m-2}} + 1 \]
\[ < \frac{P_{m-1} 2^p + \sqrt{D} 2^p + 1}{\chi Q_{m-2}} + 1 = \frac{2^p}{\chi} |\psi_{m-1}| + \frac{1}{\chi Q_{m-2}} + 1. \]

Now \( \chi 2^p = 2^p + 2 \), so \( 2^p/\chi = 2^p - 2/\chi \) and
\[ \frac{2^p}{\chi} |\psi_{m-1}| + \frac{1}{\chi Q_{m-2}} + 1 < 2^p |\psi_{m-1}| + 1 - \frac{1}{\chi} \left( 2 |\psi_{m-1}| - \frac{1}{Q_{m-2}} \right) \]
\[ = 2^p |\psi_{m-1}| + 1 - \frac{1}{\chi} \left( 2P_{m-1} + 2 \sqrt{D} - 1 \right) \frac{Q_{m-2}}{Q_{m-2}} \]
\[ < 2^p |\psi_{m-1}| + 1 - \frac{1}{\chi} \left( 2 + \frac{Q_{m-2} - 1}{Q_{m-2}} \right) \]
\[ = 2^p |\psi_{m-1}| + 1 - \frac{1}{\chi} \left( 1 + \frac{Q_{m-2}}{Q_{m-2}} \right) \]
\[ < 2^p |\psi_{m-1}| + 1 - \frac{1}{\chi} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2^{p-1}} \right) \]
\[ < 2^p |\psi_{m-1}| + 1 - \frac{1}{\chi} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2^{p-1}} \right) = 2^p |\psi_{m-1}| \]
\[ = 2^p \left| \frac{c'_m}{c_m} \right|. \]
using $\sqrt{D} < 2^{p-2}$. Now from Lemma 3.3(a) and (c), we obtain $|\zeta_{j+2}| = -q_j |\zeta_{j+1}| + |\zeta_j|$, hence

$$\left| \frac{\zeta_j}{\zeta_m} \right| = q_j \left| \frac{\zeta_{j+1}}{\zeta_m} \right| + \left| \frac{\zeta_{j+2}}{\zeta_m} \right| \quad (j \leq m-2),$$

so $T_j$ and $|\zeta_j/\zeta_m|$ satisfy the same recursion. Hence the above inequalities follow since all $q_j \geq 1$ for $j \leq m-2$ by Theorem 3.1.

Now, as in Case 1, we have $M(x + y) \geq \lceil 2^p/g \rceil = \gamma$ and

$$\lambda(r_j, x + y) = \frac{\zeta_m}{\zeta_j} \lambda(r_m, x + y) = \frac{|\zeta_m| T_j \theta L 2^p}{|\zeta_j| 2^p \theta_T} \frac{1}{T_j \rho(x) \rho(y)} \quad \text{for all } j \leq m,$$

so

$$\lambda(r_{m-1}, x + y) = \frac{|\zeta_m| T_{m-1} \theta L 2^p}{|\zeta_{m-1}| 2^p \theta_T} \frac{1}{T_{m-1} \rho(x) \rho(y)} < 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{g} \cdot g = 1$$

and

$$\lambda(r_{n+1}, x + y) > \left( 1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\Delta}} \right) \frac{|\zeta_m| T_n \theta L 2^p}{|\zeta_n| 2^p \theta_T} \frac{1}{T_n \rho(x) \rho(y)} > g^7 \frac{1}{\lambda(x) \lambda(y)} \frac{1}{g^2} \frac{g^3}{g^3} > g^3 > 1,$$

hence $f(x + y) \in \{r_-(x + y), r_+(x + y)\}$. □

**Theorem 4.3.** If $f(x), f(y) \in \mathbb{R}$ are such that the bounds of Theorem 3.4 and the conditions of Algorithm 4 hold, then Algorithm 4 performs $O(\log D)$ arithmetic operations on inputs requiring $p + \frac{1}{2} \log D + o(1)$ bits of storage in almost all cases. In particular, $M(x + y) = O(2^p)$ almost always.

**Proof.** By Theorem 3.4, computing $c$ takes $O(\log D)$ arithmetic operations on numbers bounded by $O(D)$. By Theorem 3.6, the same is true for the computation of $r_m$. By Theorem 3.1, in obtaining $f(x + y)$ from $r_m$, all coefficients computed by the neighbouring algorithm are bounded by $O(\sqrt{D})$. So we only need to prove that $r_n = f(x + y)$ can be obtained from $r_m$ in $O(\log D)$ iterations (i.e., $|n - m| = O(\log D)$) and that the maximum value of $T_j$ is bounded by $O(2^p \sqrt{D})$ in almost all cases. From the proof of Theorem 3.7, we have $1/4 \sqrt{D} < \theta/\Upsilon < 4(q + 1)$ where $q$ is as in Theorem 3.7. By Lemma 4.1(a), $\lambda(x) < q' + 1$, $\lambda(y) < q'' + 1$ for some partial quotients $q', q''$ generated by the continued fraction algorithm. Therefore

$$L < g x \frac{\theta}{\Upsilon} \rho(x) \rho(y) \lambda(x) \lambda(y) < 4g^2 (q + 1)(q'' + 1)(q' + 1)$$

and

$$L \geq g \frac{\theta^2}{\Upsilon 2^p} > g \frac{1}{4 \sqrt{D}} \frac{1}{g^2} = \frac{1}{4g \sqrt{D}}.$$

Distinguish between the same three cases as in Algorithm 4.
Case 1. \( M(x + y) = \lfloor L2^p/g \rfloor \leq \lfloor 2^p g^2 \rfloor \). There is nothing else to prove.

Case 2. From Lemma 3.2(b), 
\[
4\sqrt{D} > 1/L > T_{n-1}/2^p \geq \left| \frac{\theta_n}{\theta_m} \right| = \prod_{i=m}^{n-1} |\psi_i| > 2^{(m-n-1)/2} \text{ or } 2^{m-n} < 32g^2 D,
\]
so \( n - m = O(\log D) \). Now \( T_{n-1} < 2^p/L < 2^{p+2}g\sqrt{D} \)
\( T_n < (q_{n-2} + 1)T_{n-1} < (q_{n-2} + 1)g2^{p+2}\sqrt{D} \), and \( q_{n-2} \) is almost always small by the Gauss–Kuz'min law. Finally,
\[
M(x + y) \leq \left\lfloor \frac{q_{n-2} + 1}{g} \frac{T_{n-1} L}{g} \right\rfloor \leq \left\lfloor \frac{q_{n-2} + 1}{g} \frac{2^p}{g} \right\rfloor.
\]

Case 3. Here
\[
4x^2(q + 1)(q' + 1)(q'' + 1) \geq L \geq \frac{T_n}{2^p} = \left| \frac{\theta_m}{\theta_n} \right| = \prod_{i=m}^{n-1} |\psi_i| > 2^{(m-n)/2},
\]
so \( 2^{m-n} < (4x^2(q + 1)(q' + 1)(q'' + 1))^2 = O(1) \) in almost all cases and \( O(D^4) \) in the worst case. Hence \( m - n = O(\log D) \) and \( m - n = O(1) \) almost always. Now \( T_{n-1} < (q_{n+1} + 1)T_n \leq (q_{n+1} + 1)2^p \leq 4x^2(q + 1)(q' + 1)(q'' + 1)(q_{n+1} + 1)2^p \), so again \( T_{n-1} = O(2^p) \) in most cases, and \( T_n \) is the largest value computed in the recursion. Finally,
\[
\frac{1}{T_n} < \frac{q_{n+1} + 1}{T_{n-1}} \leq \frac{q_{n+1} + 1}{L2^p},
\]
so \( M(x + y) \leq \left\lfloor \frac{(q_{n+1} + 1)(2^p/g)}{g} \right\rfloor. \)

**Algorithm 5.**

**Input:** \( \psi(x) \in \mathbb{R} \) for \( x \in \mathbb{R} \), \( M(x) \), \( m \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \).

**Output:** \( \psi(mx) \), \( M(mx) \).

**Algorithm:**
1. Obtain the binary decomposition \( m = \sum_{i=0}^{r} b_i 2^{r-i} \) of \( m \), \( b_i \in \{0, 1\} \), \( b_0 = 1 \).
2. Set \( \psi(z_0) = \psi(x) \).
3. For \( i = 1 \) to \( r \) do
   a. Compute \( \psi(2z_{i-1}) \), \( M(2z_{i-1}) \) using Algorithm 4.
      Set \( \psi(z_i) = \psi(2z_{i-1}) \), \( M(z_i) = M(2z_{i-1}) \).
   b. If \( b_i = 1 \), then compute \( \psi(z_i + x) \), \( M(z_i + x) \) using Algorithm 4.
      Set \( \psi(z_i) = \psi(z_i + x) \), \( M(z_i) = M(z_i + x) \).
4. Set \( \psi(mx) = \psi(z_r) \), \( M(mx) = M(z_r) \).

This algorithm uses a standard exponentiation technique (see, e.g., [12]). From Algorithm 4, it is clear that if \( g^{-1} \leq \rho(z_{i-1}) \leq g \) after step 3(a) and \( g^{-1} \leq \rho(2z_{i-1}) \rho(x) \leq g \) after step 3(b) in each iteration of the algorithm, we have \( M(z_i) \geq \gamma \) and \( \psi(z_i) \in \{ r_+(z_i), r_-(z_i) \} \) (1 \( \leq i \leq r \)).

**Theorem 4.4.** Let \( m \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \), \( x \in \mathbb{R} \), and let \( \psi(x) \) satisfy the bounds of Theorem 3.4. Furthermore, assume that conditions (i)–(iii) of Algorithm 4 are satisfied for each application of Algorithm 4 in step 3 of Algorithm 5. If \( m \) is polynomially bounded in \( D \), then Algorithm 5 performs \( O((\log D)^2) \) arithmetic operations on inputs of \( O(\log D) \) bits.
Proof. By Theorem 4.3, since \( p = O(\log D) \), all numbers have input size \( O(\log D) \). Step 1 of Algorithm 5 takes \( O(r) = O(\log m) \) operations and this is \( O(\log D) \) if \( m \) is polynomially bounded in \( D \). Steps 2 and 4 take \( O(1) \) operations. For each iteration, steps 3a and 3b each perform \( O(\log D) \) operations. So the number of operations needed for step 3 is \( O(r \log D) = O((\log D)^2) \).

Now that all the required algorithms for our protocol are known, there remain two more problems to be solved:

1. Both communication partners need to start with an initial ideal such that conditions (i)–(iii) of Algorithm 4 are satisfied throughout the protocol, i.e., for each iteration of Algorithm 4.
2. Algorithm 5 computes one of two possible ideals. The two partners need not obtain the same ideal from Algorithm 5 and must be able to agree on a common unique key.

These two problems are solved in Sections 4.3 and 5, respectively.

4.3. Error Analysis

Theorem 4.5. Let \( x, y, \tau(x), \tau(y), M(x), \) and \( M(y) \) be as in Algorithm 4. Then
\[
\rho(x)\rho(y) \leq \rho(x + y) < \sqrt{K(x)\rho(y)}.
\]

Proof. Assume \( M(x), M(y) \geq y, \tau(x) \in \{r_-(x), r_+(x)\}, \tau(y) \in \{r_-(y), r_+(y)\}, \) and \( g^{-1} \leq \rho(x)\rho(y) \leq g \). We only prove the result for Case 3; the reasoning for Cases 1 and 2 is analogous.

\[
\rho(x + y) = \frac{\lambda(r_n, x + y)}{\lambda(r_n, x + y)} \geq \frac{(2^p/T_n)(\theta(U)\lambda(x)\lambda(y))}{|\zeta_x/\zeta_m|(|\theta(U)\lambda(x)\lambda(y))}
\]

\[
= \frac{\theta}{T_n} \frac{2^p}{\zeta_x/\zeta_m} \rho(x)\rho(y) > \rho(x)\rho(y),
\]

\[
\rho(x + y) < \frac{(2^p/T_n)(\theta(U)\lambda(x)\lambda(y) + 2^{-p})}{|\zeta_x/\zeta_m|(|\theta(U)\lambda(x)\lambda(y))}
\]

\[
= \rho(x)\rho(y) \left( \frac{2^p}{T_n} \frac{\zeta_x}{|\zeta_m|} \frac{\theta}{\theta} + \frac{1}{2^p|\zeta_x/\zeta_m|(|\theta(U)\lambda(x)\lambda(y))} \right)
\]

\[
< \rho(x)\rho(y) \frac{\theta}{\theta} \left( x + \frac{g}{L2^p} \frac{\zeta_x}{|\zeta_m|} \right) < \rho(x)\rho(y) \left( x + \frac{g\theta}{L2^p} \right)
\]

\[
\leq \rho(x)\rho(y) \left( 1 + \frac{g}{2p} \right)
\]

\[
< \sqrt{K(x)\rho(y)}
\]

by Lemma 4.2(c).
Theorem 4.6. Let \( m \in \mathbb{Z}, 1 \leq m \leq B, x \in \mathbb{R}, f(x) \in \{r_-(x), r_+(x)\}, M(x) \geq \gamma \) and let

\[
f(x) = \left[ \frac{Q}{\sigma} + \frac{P + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right]
\]

be such that \( 0 < Q < 2\sqrt{D}, -1 < (P + \sqrt{D})/Q < 0 \). If

\[
g^{-1/(2B-1)} \leq \rho(x) \leq \left(\frac{g}{K^{B-1}}\right)^{(2B-1)}
\]

then \( M(mx) \geq \gamma, f(mx) \in \{r_-(mx), r_+(mx)\}, \) and

\[
\min\{1, \rho(x)^{2m-1}\} \leq \rho(mx) \leq \max\{1, \rho(x)^{2m-1}\} K^{m-1}.
\]

Proof. Let \( U_0 = \max\{1, \rho(x)\} \geq 1, L_0 = \min\{1, \rho(x)\} \leq 1, \) and \( 2^r \leq m \leq 2^{r+1}. \)

Define

\[
U_{i+1} = KU_iL_i^2, \quad L_{i+1} = L_iU_i^2 \quad (0 \leq i \leq r - 1).
\]

Then \( U_{i+1} \geq U_i \geq 1 \) since \( K > 1 \), and \( L_{i+1} \leq L_i \leq 1 \). By induction on \( i \) it is easy to prove

\[
U_i = U_0^{2^{i+1}-1} K^{2^{i+1}-1}, \quad L_i = L_0^{2^{i+1}-1} \quad (0 \leq i \leq r).
\]

Then \( U_r = U_0^{2^r-1} K^{2^r-1} \leq U_0^{2m-1} K^{m-1} \leq U_0^{2B-1} K^{B-1} \), \( L_r = L_0^{2^r-1} \geq L_0^{2m-1} \geq L_0^{2B-1} \). If \( U_0 = 1, \) then \( U_r \leq K^{B-1} < A^{(B-1)/2B} = g^{(B-1)/2B} < g \) by Lemma 4.2(c). If \( U_0 = \rho(x), \) then \( U_r \leq \rho(x)^{2B-1} K^{B-1} \leq (g/K^{B-1}) K^{B-1} = g \). So in either case \( U_i \leq g \) for \( 0 \leq i \leq r \). Similarly, if \( L_0 = 1, \) then \( L_r \geq 1 > g^{-1} \), and if \( L_0 = \rho(x), \) then \( L_r \geq \rho(x)^{2B-1} \geq g^{-1} \), so in either case \( L_i \geq g^{-1} \) for \( 0 \leq i \leq r \).

We show \( L_i \leq \rho(z_i) \leq U_i \) for \( 0 \leq i \leq r \). Prove this by induction on \( i: L_0 \leq \rho(x) \leq U_0 \) and \( \rho(z_0) = \rho(x) \). Using Theorem 4.5, we obtain the following.

Case \( b_1 = 0 \).

\[
\rho(z_{i+1}) = \rho(2z_i) \geq \rho(z_i)^2 \geq L_i^2 \geq L_{i+1} \quad \text{since} \quad L_0 \leq 1.
\]

\[
\rho(z_{i+1}) < \sqrt{K\rho(z_i)^2} \leq \sqrt{K}U_i^2 \leq U_{i+1} \quad \text{since} \quad K \geq 1, \quad U_0 \geq 1.
\]

Case \( b_1 = 1 \).

\[
\rho(z_{i+1}) = \rho(2z_i + x) \geq \rho(z_i)^2 \rho(x) \geq L_i^2 L_0 = L_{i+1}.
\]

\[
\rho(z_{i+1}) < \sqrt{K\rho(z_i)^2} \rho(x) < K\rho(z_i)^2 \rho(x) \leq KU_i^2 U_0 = U_{i+1}.
\]

It follows that \( L_0^{2m-1} \leq L_i \leq \rho(z_i) = \rho(mx) \leq U_i \leq U_0^{2m-1} K^{m-1} \).

Next we prove that \( L_i \leq \rho(z_{i-1})^2 \leq U_i \) and (in case \( b_1 = 1 \)) \( L_i \leq \rho(2z_{i-1}) \rho(x) \leq U_i \) \((1 \leq i \leq r)\). Then it follows that \( g^{-1} \leq \rho(z_{i-1})^2 \leq g \) after step 3(a) and \( g^{-1} \leq \rho(2z_{i-1}) \rho(x) \leq g \) after step 3(b) in each iteration of Algorithm 5, hence \( M(z_i) \geq \gamma \) and \( f(z_i) \in \{r_+(z_i), r_-(z_i)\} \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq r \), and from the \( r \)-th iteration \( f(mx) \in \{r_-(mx), r_+(mx)\} \) and \( M(mx) \geq \gamma \). Again, we prove our claim by induction on \( i \). For simplicity, we let \( \rho(z_{-1}) = \rho(2z_{-1}) = 1 \).

The case \( i = 0 \) is \( L_0 \leq 1 \leq U_0 \) and \( L_0 \leq \rho(x) \leq U_0 \). Now assume that our claim holds for \( i \) and prove it for \( i + 1 \). From our previous result \( L_i \leq \rho(z_i) \leq U_i \).
Let a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, 1 \leq a, b \leq B, c \in \mathbb{R}, and let

\[ f(c) = \left[ \frac{Q}{\sigma}, \frac{P + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] \]

be such that f(c) \in \{r_-(c), r_+(c)\}, M(c) \geq \gamma, A^{-1} \leq \rho(c) \leq A, and 0 < Q < 2\sqrt{D}, -1 < (P - \sqrt{D})/Q < 0. Then M(abc) \geq \gamma, f(abc) \in \{r_-(abc), r_+(abc)\}, and g^{-1} \leq \rho(abc) \leq g where f(abc) is obtained by applying Algorithm 5 to f(c) and b to compute f(bc), then applying Algorithm 5 to f(bc) and a.

Proof. We want to apply Theorem 4.6 first to f(c) and b and then to f(bc) and a. Hence we first need to show that \( g^{-1/(2B - 1)} \leq \rho(c) \leq (g/(KB^{-1}))^{1/(2B - 1)} \). To prove these inequalities, observe that, by Lemma 4.2(c), \( A^{2B - 1}\cdot KB^{-1} < A^{2B - 1}\cdot A^{6(B - 1)} = A^{8B - 1} = g^{(2B - 1)/16B^2} < g \), so \( A^{2B - 1} < g/KB^{-1} < g \) and hence \( g^{-1/(2B - 1)} < A^{-1} \leq \rho(c) \leq A < (g/(KB^{-1}))^{1/(2B - 1)} \). By Theorem 4.6, we have M(bc) \( \geq \gamma, f(bc) \in \{r_-(bc), r_+(bc)\} \), and \( \min\{1, \rho(2c)^{2B - 1}\} \leq \rho(bc) \leq \max\{1, \rho(2c)^{2B - 1}\} KB^{-1} \). From Theorem 3.1, we know that f(bc) satisfies \( 0 < Q < 2\sqrt{D}, -1 < (P - \sqrt{D})/Q < 0 \), so only \( g^{-1/(2B - 1)} \leq \rho(bc) \leq (g/(KB^{-1}))^{1/(2B - 1)} \) remains to be proven.

Assume first that \( \rho(c) \geq 1 \), then from our above result \( \rho(bc) \geq 1 > g^{-1/(2B - 1)} \). Using Lemma 4.2(c) again, we see that \( g = A^{16B^2} > A^{4B^2} \cdot KB^{-1} > A^{(2B - 1)}^{16B^2} \cdot K^{1/2B - 1} \), so \( \rho(bc) \leq \rho(c)^{2B - 1} KB^{-1} \leq \rho(c)^{2B - 1} KB^{-1} \leq A^{2B - 1} KB^{-1} < (g/(KB^{-1}))^{1/(2B - 1)} \). Now consider the case \( \rho(c) < 1 \). Then \( \rho(bc) \geq \rho(c)^{2B - 1} \geq \rho(c)^{2B - 1} \geq A^{-(2B - 1)} = g^{-(2B - 1)/16B^2} > g^{-(2B - 1)/(4B^2 - 2)} > g^{1/(2B - 1)} \) and from \( A^{12B^2} > K^{2B} > K^{2B(1-1/2B - 1)} KB^{-1} \), we obtain \( \rho(bc) \leq K^{-1} \leq KB^{-1} < (g/(KB^{-1}))^{1/(2B - 1)} \). If follows from Theorem 4.6 that M(abc) \( \geq \gamma, f(abc) \in \{r_-(abc), r_+(abc)\} \), and \( \min\{1, \rho(bc)^{2B - 1}\} \leq \rho(abc) \leq \max\{1, \rho(bc)^{2B - 1}\} K^{-1} \).

We finally need to show that \( g^{-1} \leq \rho(abc) \leq g \). If \( \rho(bc) \geq 1 \), we have \( \rho(abc) \geq 1 > g^{-1} \) and \( \rho(abc) \leq \rho(bc)^{2B - 1} KB^{-1} < (g/(KB^{-1}))^{2B - 1} KB^{-1} = g \). In the case where \( \rho(bc) < 1 \), it follows that \( \rho(abc) \geq \rho(bc)^{2B - 1} \geq \rho(bc)^{2B - 1} \geq g^{-1} \) and \( \rho(abc) \leq \rho(bc)^{2B - 1} \leq K^{-1} \leq KB^{-1} < A^{6(B - 1)} = g^{3(B - 1)/8B^2} < g \).

Lemma 4.8. Let

\[ r = (\mu) = \left[ \frac{Q}{\sigma}, \frac{P + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right] \in \mathfrak{N}, \]

where \( r \) is obtained from \( \mathfrak{O} \) by applying Algorithm 1(a) to \( \mathfrak{O} \) a few times (at least once). Set \( c = \log|\mu|, f(c) = r, M(c) = 2^p \). Then \( f(c) \) and \( M(c) \) satisfy the conditions of Theorem 4.7.

Proof. By Theorem 3.1, \( 0 < Q < 2\sqrt{D}, -1 < (P - \sqrt{D})/Q < 0 \). Since \( \lambda(r, c) = |\mu|e^{\pi r} = 1 \), we have \( r \in \{r_-(c), r_+(c)\} \). Furthermore, \( M(c) = 2^p \geq \gamma \), so \( \rho(c) = 1 \).
Now if both communication partners start on an initial ideal \( f(c) \) generated as described in Lemma 4.8, they can obtain their respective key ideals \( f(abc) \) such that \( M(abc) > \gamma, f(abc) \in \{ r_-, abc, r_+, abc \} \), and \( g^{-1} \leq \rho(abc) \leq g \), and the conditions of Algorithms 4 and 5 as well as those for Theorem 4.3–4.7 are satisfied throughout their entire computation. Given the above bounds on the relative error \( \rho(abc) \), we show that the partners are able to agree on a common unique key.

5. Solving the Ambiguity Problem

Before resolving the ambiguity in the ideal computed in the protocol, we need a method for computing from \( f(abc) \) not only its neighbouring ideals as done in Algorithm 1, but also their approximate distances.

Algorithm 6 (Neighbouring).

**Input:** \( r_j \in \mathfrak{R}, M(r_j, x) (x \in \mathbb{R}, j \geq 2) \).

**Output:** \( r_{j+1}, r_{j-1} \in \mathfrak{R}, M(r_{j+1}, x), M(r_{j-1}, x) \).

**Algorithm:** Compute \( r_{j+1}, r_{j-1} \) using Algorithm 1. Compute rational approximations \( \psi_j, \phi_{j-1} \) for \( |\psi_j| \) and \( |\phi_{j-1}| \), respectively, as follows. Define \( s \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0} \) by

\[
s = \begin{cases} 
0 & \text{if } P_{j-1} < d, \\
\lceil \log_2(2d + 1) \rceil & \text{if } P_{j-1} = d.
\end{cases}
\]

Let \( t = s + p \) and \( \tilde{d} = \lceil 2\sqrt{D} \rceil \). Set

\[
\psi_j = \frac{2^p P_j + d^*}{2^p Q_{j-1}}, \quad \phi_{j-1} = \frac{\tilde{d} - 2^p P_{j-1}}{2^p Q_{j-1}},
\]

\[
M(r_{j+1}, x) = \lceil \psi_j M(r_j, x) \rceil, \quad M(r_{j-1}, x) = \lceil \phi_{j-1} M(r_j, x) \rceil.
\]

**Lemma 5.1.** Let \( r_j, r_{j-1} \in \mathfrak{R}, x \in \mathbb{R} \). Then

\[
\rho(r_j, x) \leq \rho(r_{j-1}, x) \leq \frac{1 + 2^{-p}}{1 - M(r_{j-1}, x)^{-1}} \rho(r_j, x).
\]

Furthermore, if \( t \) is as in Algorithm 6, then \( t \leq 2(p - \log_2 B) - 9 \).

**Proof.**

\[
\frac{\phi_{j-1}}{|\phi_{j-1}|} = \frac{2^{-t} \tilde{d} - P_{j-1}}{\sqrt{D} - P_{j-1}} \geq 1.
\]

Similarly, \( \psi_j / |\psi_j| \geq 1 \).

\[
\frac{\phi_{j-1}}{|\phi_{j-1}|} < \frac{(2^{-t} + \sqrt{D}) - P_{j-1}}{\sqrt{D} - P_{j-1}} < 1 + \frac{1}{2^t(\sqrt{D} - P_{j-1})}.
\]

If \( P_{j-1} < d \), then \( \sqrt{D} - P_{j-1} > 1 \), so \( \phi_{j-1} / |\phi_{j-1}| < 1 + 2^{-t} = 1 + 2^{-p} \). If \( P_{j-1} = d \),
then \( 2d + 1 \leq 2^s \), so

\[
\sqrt{D - P_{j-1}} = \frac{D - P_{j-1}^2}{\sqrt{D + d}} \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{D + d}} > \frac{1}{2d + 1} \geq 2^{-s}
\]

and

\[
\hat{\psi}_{j-1} / |\hat{\psi}_{j-1}| \leq 1 + \frac{1}{2^{s-2}} = 1 + 2^{-p}.
\]

Analogously, we prove \( \hat{\psi}_j / |\hat{\psi}_j| < 1 + 2^{-p} \).

\[
\rho(r_{j+1}, x) = \frac{\hat{\lambda}(r_{j+1}, x)}{\lambda(r_{j+1}, x)} \geq \frac{\hat{\psi}_j \hat{\lambda}(r_j, x)}{|\hat{\psi}_j| \hat{\lambda}(r_j, x)} \geq \rho(r_j, x)
\]

and

\[
\rho(r_{j+1}, x) < \frac{\hat{\psi}_j \hat{\lambda}(r_j, x) + 2^{-p}}{|\hat{\psi}_j| \hat{\lambda}(r_j, x)} < (1 + 2^{-p}) \rho(r_j, x) + \frac{\rho(r_{j+1}, x)}{2^p \hat{\lambda}(r_{j+1}, x)},
\]

so

\[
\rho(r_{j+1}, x)
\]

\[
\rho(r_{j+1}, x) \left(1 - \frac{1}{M(r_{j+1}, x)}\right) < (1 + 2^{-p}) \rho(r_j, x)
\]

and

\[
\rho(r_{j+1}, x) < \frac{1 + 2^{-p}}{1 - M(r_{j+1}, x)^{-1}} \rho(r_j, x).
\]

Similarly

\[
\rho(r_{j-1}, x) \geq \rho(r_j, x) \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(r_{j-1}, x) < \frac{1 + 2^{-p}}{1 - M(r_{j-1}, x)^{-1}} \rho(r_j, x).
\]

If \( P_{j-1} < d \), then \( s = 0 \), so \( t = p \). If \( P_{j-1} = d \), then since \( 2^{s+1} < 2d + 1 \), i.e., \( 2^{s-2} \leq d \), we have \( 2^{s-2} \leq d \leq 2^s/3072B^2 < 2^s/2048B^2 \), hence \( s < p - 2 \log B - 9 \) and \( t < 2(p - \log B) - 9 \). \( \square \)

Denote by \( r(x) \) the reduced ideal closest to \( x \), i.e., \( |\delta(r(x), x)| < |\delta(r, x)| \) for any reduced principal ideal \( r \neq r(x) \). Let \( \lambda_1(x) = \lambda(r(x), x) \); analogously, we define \( \lambda_2(x), \lambda_3(x), \rho_1(x) \). Clearly, \( r(x) \in \{ r_-(x), r_+(x) \} \), so Algorithm 4 computes either \( r(x + y) \) or one of its neighbours; similarly, Algorithm 5 generates \( r(mx) \) or one of its neighbours.

Our protocol is such that Alice and Bob are either both able to determine \( r(abc) \) or, if this is impossible, they both obtain \( r_+(abc) \). The next two lemmas give the details for resolving the ambiguity problem.

**Lemma 5.2.** Let \( x \in R \) and \( g^{-1} \leq \rho(x) \leq g \). If \( g^{-1} \leq \lambda_1(x) \leq g \), then \( g^{-2} < \lambda_1(x) < g^2 \).

**Proof.** For brevity omit the argument \( x \). If \( \delta = \delta(x) = \delta(r(x), x) \), then, by defini-
tion, $|\delta_1| \leq |\delta|$, which gives four cases, depending on the signs of $\delta_1$ and $\delta$:

1. $\lambda \geq \lambda_1 \geq 1$.
2. $\lambda \leq 1/\lambda_1 \leq 1$.
3. $\lambda \geq 1/\lambda_1 \geq 1$.
4. $\lambda \leq \lambda_1 \leq 1$.

Suppose first $\lambda_1 \leq g^{-2}$, so $\lambda_1 < 1$. If $\lambda \geq 1$, then, from Case 4, $\lambda = \rho \lambda \leq \rho \lambda_1 <\!\!< gg^{-2} = g^{-1}$ which is a contradiction. If $\lambda \geq 1$, then, from Case 3, $\lambda \geq \rho(1/\lambda_1) > g^{-1} g^2 = g$ which is again a contradiction. The case $\lambda_1 \geq g^2$ follows analogously.

Lemma 5.3. Let $a, b, c$, $\hat{p}(c)$, and $M(c)$ be as in Theorem 4.7. If $\lambda_1(abc) \geq g^2$ or $\lambda_1(abc) \leq g^{-2}$, then $\hat{p}(abc) = r_+(abc)$. If $g^{-2} < \lambda_1(abc) < g^2$, then $\hat{p}(abc)$ can be determined from $\hat{p}(abc)$.

Proof. Again omit the argument $abc$ for brevity. If $\lambda_1 \geq g^2$ or $\lambda_1 \leq g^{-2}$, then (since $\hat{\lambda} \geq g^{-1}$), by Lemma 5.2, $\hat{\lambda} > g$. It follows that $\lambda = \hat{\lambda}/\rho > gg^{-1} = 1$, so $\hat{p} = r_+$. Now let $g^{-2} < \lambda_1 < g^2$. From Theorem 4.7, $g^{-1} \leq \rho \leq g$ and $\hat{p} \in \{r_-, r_+, \}$, so $\hat{p} = r$ or $\hat{p}$ is one of the neighbours of $\hat{p}$. Therefore, by Lemma 5.1,

$$\rho \leq \rho_1 \leq \frac{1 + 2^{-\rho}}{1 - M_1^{-1}}.$$

Now $M_1 = \hat{\lambda}_1 2^\rho = \rho_1 \lambda_1 2^\rho \geq \rho_1 \lambda_1 2^\rho > g^{-1} g^{-2} 2^\rho = g^{-3} 2^\rho$, so $1 - M_1^{-1} = 1 - g^3 2^{-\rho}$ and

$$\frac{1 + 2^{-\rho}}{1 - M_1^{-1}} \leq \frac{1 + 2^{-\rho}}{1 - g^3 2^{-\rho}}.$$

Hence

$$g^{-3} \leq \rho \lambda_1 \leq \rho_1 \lambda_1 \leq \frac{1 + 2^{-\rho}}{1 - g^3 2^{-\rho}} \rho \lambda_1 \leq \frac{1 + 2^{-\rho}}{1 - g^3 2^{-\rho}} g^3.$$

Since $\rho, \lambda_1 = \hat{\lambda}_1$, we can determine an ideal $\lambda$ which is either $\hat{p}$ or a neighbour of $\hat{p}$ such that

$$g^{-3} \leq \hat{\lambda}(a, abc) < \frac{1 + 2^{-\rho}}{1 - g^3 2^{-\rho}} g^3$$

and

$$\rho \leq \rho(a, abc) < \frac{1 + 2^{-\rho}}{1 - g^3 2^{-\rho}}.$$

If $r = \psi a$ where $\psi \in K$, then

$$|\psi| = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda(a, abc)} = \frac{\lambda_1 \rho(a, abc)}{\hat{\lambda}(a, abc)} \geq \frac{g^{-1} \rho}{((1 + 2^{-\rho})/(1 - g^3 2^{-\rho})) g^6} \geq \frac{1 - 2^{-\rho} g^3}{(1 + 2^{-\rho}) g^6} \geq \frac{1 - 2^{-\rho} g^3}{1 + 1/\sqrt{\Delta}},$$

and

$$|\psi| < gg^{-3} \frac{1 + 2^{-\rho}}{1 - g^3 2^{-\rho}} \rho \leq \frac{1 + 2^{-\rho}}{1 - g^3 2^{-\rho}} \rho.$$
Now assume that either of the communication partners computes a final ideal \( \mathfrak{r}(abc) \) with distance \( M(abc) \). He/she then determines the ideal's two neighbours and their respective distances. If among these three ideals there is one, say \( a \), which satisfies

\[
\frac{2^p}{g^3} < M(a, abc) < \frac{(1 + 2^p)g^3}{1 + 2^{-p}g^3},
\]

then \( b = \mathfrak{r}(abc) \) from the proof of the previous lemma. Otherwise, by the same lemma, we must have \( \lambda_1(abc) \leq g^{-2} \) or \( \lambda_1(abc) \geq g^2 \) and hence \( \mathfrak{r}(abc) = \mathfrak{r}_+(abc) \). With this final observation, we are able to present the entire protocol.

6. The Protocol

1. Both Alice and Bob agree on \( D \) and an ideal \( \mathfrak{r} \in \mathbb{R} \) (obtained by applying the right neighbour algorithm to the ideal \( \mathfrak{O} = [1, (\sigma - 1 + \sqrt{D})/\sigma] \) one or more times). They compute \( p = \left\lfloor \log_2(3072 DB^2) \right\rfloor + 1 \) and \( M = M(c) = 2^p \) according to Lemma 4.8 where \( c = \log_{L} |\mu|, r = (\mu), i.e., \mathfrak{r} = \mathfrak{r}(c). D, r, \) and \( M \) can be made public.

2. Alice secretly chooses \( a \in \{1, \ldots, B\} \) and from \( \mathfrak{r}(c) \) computes

\[
\mathfrak{r}(ac) = \left[ \frac{Q_1}{\sigma}, \frac{P_1 + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right], \quad M(ac) \geq \gamma
\]

using Algorithm 5. She sends the triple \( (Pa, QA, M(ac)) \) to Bob.

3. Bob secretly chooses \( b \in \{1, \ldots, B\} \) and from \( \mathfrak{r}(c) \) computes

\[
\mathfrak{r}(bc) = \left[ \frac{Q_2}{\sigma}, \frac{P_2 + \sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right], \quad M(bc) \geq \gamma
\]

using Algorithm 5. He sends the triple \( (PB, QB, M(bc)) \) to Alice.

4. From \( \mathfrak{r}(ac), M(ac), \) and \( b \), Bob computes \( \mathfrak{r}(bac) \) and its two neighbours as well as their approximate distances (i.e., \( M \) values) using Algorithms 5 and 6. If he finds among these an ideal \( a \) such that

\[
\frac{2^p}{g^3} < M(a, bac) < \frac{(1 + 2^p)g^3}{1 - 2^{-p}g^3},
\]

then \( a = \mathfrak{r}(bac) \). In this case he sends "0" back to Alice. If he cannot find such an ideal, then he has computed \( \mathfrak{r}_+(bac) \). In this case he sends "1" to Alice.

5. From \( \mathfrak{r}(bc), M(bc), \) and \( a \), Alice computes \( \mathfrak{r}(abc), M(abc) \) using Algorithm 5. If she received "0" from Bob, then she computes the neighbours of \( \mathfrak{r}(abc) \) and their approximate distances and attempts to compute \( \mathfrak{r}(abc) \). If successful, she sends "0" back to Bob. The common key is then \( \mathfrak{r}(abc) \). Otherwise the ideal \( \mathfrak{r}(abc) \) she computed is \( \mathfrak{r}_+(abc) \). In this case she sends "1" to Bob. If Alice received "1" from Bob, then he was unable to determine \( \mathfrak{r}(bac) \) in which case the ideal \( \mathfrak{r}(abc) \) computed by Alice is \( \mathfrak{r}_+(abc) \). This is then the key.
6. If Bob sent "1," then the ideal $\mathfrak{f}(bac) = r_+(bac)$ is the key. If Bob sent and received "0," then the ideal $a$ he computed in step 4 is the key. If Bob sent "0" and received "1," then Alice was unable to determine $r(abc)$. The key is then the ideal $\mathfrak{f}(bac) = r_+(bac)$ initially computed by Bob. Note that if Bob sends "1," Alice need not reply. Altogether:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bob</th>
<th>Alice</th>
<th>Key</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sends &quot;0&quot;</td>
<td>Sends &quot;0&quot;</td>
<td>$r(abc)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sends &quot;0&quot;</td>
<td>Sends &quot;1&quot;</td>
<td>$r_+(abc)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sends &quot;1&quot;</td>
<td>No reply</td>
<td>$r_+(abc)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The actual key is the bit string given by the binary representation of the coefficients of the key ideal (or any substring thereof).

7. Security

7.1. The Discrete Logarithm Problem in $\mathfrak{R}$

The only known way of breaking our scheme (apart from exhaustive search) is to solve the discrete logarithm problem in $\mathfrak{R}$, given as follows: for any given reduced ideal $r_j (j \leq l)$, find its distance $\delta_j$. If a cryptanalyst can solve any instance of the DLP, clearly he can break our scheme, since on intercepting $\mathfrak{f}(ac) = r_j$ and $M(ac)$, he can compute $ac \approx \delta_j - \log(M(ac)/2^p) + kR$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ (similarly for $b$). Since $R$ is usually larger than $ac$, $k$ will tend to be quite small; thus an adversary can retrieve the key ideal in a few trials for $k$ values.

Since $\delta_j = \log \mu_j$ for $r_j = (\mu_j) \in \mathfrak{R}$, the DLP in $\mathfrak{R}$ is equivalent to the problem of finding, for any reduced principal ideal $r_j$, a generator $\mu_j$. It should be pointed out that a fast algorithm for solving the DLP can be used to find the regulator $R$ of $\mathbb{K}$ quickly. Details of this method are given in [3] and [2]. By a result of Schoof [18], we know that if it is possible to find $R$ quickly, then $D$ can be factored quickly. Thus the DLP in $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{D})$ is at least as difficult as factoring $D$.

An algorithm to solve the DLP is sketched in [3]. The first stage employs a method which can also be used to determine $R$ and the structure of the class group of $\mathbb{K}$. Details and an implementation are given in [4]. As an example, we mention that the computation for $\Delta = 10^{40} + 1$ (a discriminant far too small to guarantee security in our scheme) took 8.3 hours on a SparcStation 2. Then the results computed in the first stage are used to solve the actual DLP by an index calculus technique. This second part of the algorithm is explained in the case of imaginary quadratic fields (i.e., $D < 0$) in [15]; an extension to the real quadratic case is outlined in [3]. The overall algorithm seems to be subexponential, with the precomputation in the first stage requiring most of the work. The complexity is $L(\Delta)^{\frac{1}{2}+\epsilon_{15}^{[1]}},$ assuming certain Extended Riemann Hypotheses (ERH), where $L(x) = \exp(\sqrt{\log x \log \log x})$. For large values of $D$, this method is totally impractical.
7.2. Choice of D

To prevent an exhaustive key-search attack, we need to ensure that the number $l$ of reduced principal ideals in $K$ is sufficiently large. Since $\eta = \prod_{i=1}^{l} |\psi_i|$, where $r_i = (1)$ and $\psi_i = (\sqrt{D} - P_i)/Q_i (1 \leq j \leq l)$, we have $R = \log \eta = \sum_{j=1}^{l} \log |\psi_j| < (l/2) \log \Delta$ by Lemma 3.2(c), and therefore $l > 2R/\log \Delta$. Hence we require a lower bound on $R$.

The analytic class number formula yields $R = (L(1, \chi)/2h)\sqrt{\Delta}$, where $L(s, \chi) = \sum_{k \geq 1} (\chi(k)/k^s)$ is the Dirichlet $L$-function corresponding to the Kronecker symbol $\chi = (\Delta/\cdot)$ of $K$ and $h$ is the class number of $K$. By a result of Littlewood [13], we have $L(1, \chi) > C/(\log \log A)$ (assuming ERH), where $C = \pi^2/12\gamma(1 + o(1))$ and $\gamma$ is Euler's constant. Hence

$$l > \frac{C}{h \log \log \Delta},$$

and we need to bound $h$ from above.

If $k$ is the odd part of the class number, i.e., $h = 2^m k$ where $2 \nmid k$, then we can use the heuristics of Cohen and Lenstra [5], [6] to show that the probability that $k > x$ is asymptotic to $1/2x$. This can be done by estimating $\sum_{n \leq x, n \text{ odd}} (\omega(n)/n)$ (for notation see [5]) and using the Tauberian theorem mentioned in the proof of Lemma 5.2 of [6], followed by partial summation. Now it is known (see, for example, [7]) that $h$ is odd if $D = p, D = 2p, or D = p_1 p_2$ where $p$ is any odd prime and $p_1, p_2$ are primes congruent to 3 (mod 4). More cases of values of $D$ for which the even part of the class number can be bounded are given in [10]. Thus by selecting such a $D$ value which is large, we expect that it would be most unlikely that $l < \sqrt{D/(10^{20} \log D \log \log D)}$. This renders the likelihood of success of a search technique to be very slight indeed.

8. Remarks on the Implementation

The implementation was done in C language using multiprecise integer arithmetic. Unfortunately, the only machine available to us at the time was a DEC MicroVAX. Tests show that a more modern workstation (such as a DECStation 5000) yields computation times which are approximately 100 times faster than those achieved by the MicroVAX.

Examples show that among the three cases of Algorithm 4, Case 1 was never encountered, Case 3 occurred very rarely (at most once per application of Algorithm 5), and Case 2 occurred almost always. This is to be expected since Case 1 (1 \leq L \leq g^3) permits only a very small range of $L$ values and corresponds to a very unlikely event, namely, having found $f(x + y)$ immediately after the reduction step. Using the bounds from Theorem 4.4, we see that the range for $L$ in Case 2 \((1/4g\sqrt{D} < L < 1)\) is much larger than the one for Case 3 \((1 < L < 4g^2(q + 1)(q' + 1)(q'' + 1))\). In addition, as pointed out in the proof of Theorem 4.3, the number of iterations of Algorithm 1(b) in Case 3 was always very small. In fact, it never exceeded two, even for our largest discriminants which were around 200 digits.
In all our examples, we encountered the simple case of the protocol where Bob and Alice both compute $r_*(abc)$ and only Bob needs to send his bit 1. Again, we expect this since the bounds given in step 4 of the protocol leave an extremely narrow range for $M(a,bac)$ and force $M(a,bac)$ to be very close to $2^e$.

8.1. Examples

Among many examples, we ran our scheme on the two fields $K_1, K_2$ generated by the square root of $D_1 = 2^{107} - 1$ (a 33-digit prime) and $D_2 = 2^{607} - 1$ (a 183-digit prime), respectively. For $K_1$, we chose $B = [\sqrt{D}]$ as our bound on $a$ and $b$, requiring $O(D^{3/2})$ bits or roughly 50 decimal digits of precision. The computation time for a 16-digit exponent was 3 minutes 21 seconds. For $K_2$, we used $B = [\sqrt[2]{D}]$ (precision $O(D^{3/2})$ or 275 decimal digits) for a 91-digit exponent and $B = [\sqrt[4]{D}]$ (precision $O(D)$) for a 45-digit exponent. We consider the latter bound sufficiently secure. The first exponent took approximately 97 CPU minutes to compute; the second one used 41 minutes of computation time. Recall that, by our previous remark, the above parameters would give us computation times of approximately 2 seconds, 1 minute, and 25 seconds, respectively, on a modern workstation.

8.2. Improvements

Considering the above remarks about the frequency of occurrence of the three cases of Algorithm 4 and the number of iterations of Algorithm 1 in each case, we focused our efforts for speed-up on Case 2 of Algorithm 4, i.e., on speeding up Algorithm 1(a). The following version of the continued fraction algorithm due to Tenner (see [22]) is a significant improvement and can be used for both Algorithms 3 and 4. Let

$$a = \left[ \frac{Q}{P} + \frac{\sqrt{D}}{\sigma} \right]$$

be a primitive ideal principal. Set

$$P_0 = P, \quad Q_0 = Q, \quad Q_{-1} = \frac{D - P_0^2}{Q_0}, \quad t_0 = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } Q > 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } Q < 0, \end{cases}$$

$$P_0 + d + t_0 = q_0 Q_0 + r_0$$

(i.e., $q_0 = [(P_0 + d + t_0)/Q_0]$ and $r_0 = P_0 + d + t_0 - q_0 Q_0$), and, for $j \geq 0$,

$$P_{j+1} = d + t_j - r_j, \quad Q_{j+1} = Q_{j-1} - a_j (P_{j+1} - P_j),$$

$$t_{j+1} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } Q_{j+1} > 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } Q_{j+1} < 0, \end{cases}$$

$$P_{j+1} + d + t_{j+1} = q_{j+1} Q_{j+1} + r_{j+1}$$

(i.e., $q_{j+1} = [(P_{j+1} + d + t_{j+1})/Q_{j+1}]$ and $r_{j+1} = P_{j+1} + d + t_{j+1} - q_{j+1} Q_{j+1}$).

This algorithm is particularly useful if division with remainder is a single operation as was the case in our implementation, since $q_{j+1}$ and $r_{j+1}$ are computed in one step. It cuts down the number of divisions and multiplications by half (i.e., from two to one per step) and merely introduces one extra addition if the ideals are reduced.
A Key-Exchange Protocol Using Real Quadratic Fields

References


