Introduction to Cryptography Lecture 12

Secret sharing Electronic cash

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Secret Sharing

- 3-out-of-3 secret sharing:
 - Three parties, A, B and C.
 - Secret S.
 - No two parties should know anything about K, but all three together should be able to retrieve it.
- In other words
 - $-A+B+C \Rightarrow S$
 - But,
 - A + B **⇒** S
 - A + C \Rightarrow S
 - B + C **⇒** S

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Secret Sharing

- 3-out-of-3 secret sharing:
- How about the following scheme:
 - Let $S=s_1s_2...s_m$ be the bit representation of S. (m is a multiple of 3)
 - Party A receives $s_1, ..., s_{m/3}$.
 - Party B receives $s_{m/3+1},...,s_{2m/3}$.
 - Party C receives $s_{2m/3+1},...,s_m$.
 - All three parties can recover S.
 - Why doesn't this scheme satisfy the definition of secret sharing?

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Secret Sharing

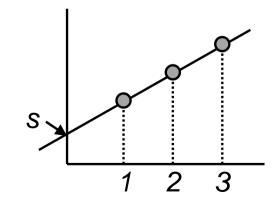
- Solution:
 - Define shares for A,B,C in the following way
 - $-(S_A, S_B, S_C)$ is a random triple, subject to the constraint that
 - $S_A \oplus S_B \oplus S_C = S$
 - or, S_A and S_B are random, and $S_C = S_A \oplus S_B \oplus S_B$.
- What if it is required that any one of the parties should be able to compute S?
 - Set $S_A = S_B = S_C = S$

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t-out-of-n secret sharing

- Provide shares to n parties, satisfying
 - Recoverability: any t shares enable the reconstruction of the secret.
 - Secrecy: any t-1 shares reveal nothing about the secret.
- We saw 1-out-of-n and n-out-of-n secret sharing.
- Consider 2-out-of-n secret sharing.
 - Define a line which intersects the Y axis at S
 - The shares are points on the line
 - Any two shares define S
 - A single share reveals nothing



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t-out-of-n secret sharing

- Fact: Let F be a field. Any d+1 pairs (a_i, b_i) define a unique polynomial P of degree ≤ d, s.t. P(a_i)=b_i. (assuming d < |F|).
- Shamir's secret sharing scheme:
 - Choose a large prime and work in the field Zp.
 - The secret S is an element in the field.
 - Define a polynomial P of degree t-1 by choosing random coefficients a_1, \ldots, a_{t-1} and defining

$$P(x) = a_{t-1}x^{t-1} + ... + a_1x + \underline{S}.$$

– The share of party j is (j, P(j)).

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t-out-of-n secret sharing

- Reconstruction of the secret:
 - Assume we have $P(x_1),...,P(x_t)$.
 - Use Lagrange interpolation to compute the unique polynomial of degree ≤ t-1 which agrees with these points.
 - Output the free coefficient of this polynomial.
- Lagrange interpolation

$$-P(x) = \sum_{i=1..t} P(x_i) \cdot L_i(x)$$

- where $L_i(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} (x x_j) / \prod_{j \neq i} (x_i x_j)$
- (Note that $L_i(x_i)=1$, $L_i(x_i)=0$ for $j\neq i$.)

– I.e.,
$$S = \sum_{i=1..t} P(x_i) \cdot \prod_{j \neq i} x_j / \prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)$$

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Properties of Shamir's secret sharing

- Perfect secrecy: Any t-1 shares give no information about the secret: Pr(secret=s | P(1),...,P(t-1)) = Pr(secret=s). (Security is not based on any assumptions.)
- Proof:
 - The polynomial is generated by choosing a random polynomial of degree t-1, subject to P(0)=secret.
 - Suppose that the shares are $P(x_1),...,P(x_{t-1})$.
 - P() is generated by choosing uniformly random values to the t-1 coefficients, a_1, \ldots, a_{t-1} . (a_0 is already set to be S)
 - Any assignment of values to $a_1, ..., a_{t-1}$ defines a single set of values to $P(x_1), ..., P(x_{t-1})$.
 - Therefore the values of $P(x_1), ..., P(x_{t-1})$ are uniformly distributed.

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Additional properties of Shamir's secret sharing

- Ideal size: Each share is the same size as the secret.
- Extendable: Additional shares can be easily added.
- Flexible: different weights can be given to different parties by giving them more shares.
- Homomorphic property: Suppose P(1),...,P(n) are shares for S, and P'(1),...,P'(n) are shares for S', then P(1)+P'(1),...,P(n)+P'(n) are shares for S+S'.

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General secret sharing

- *P* is the set of users (say, *n* users).
- $A \in \{1,2,...,n\}$ is an authorized subset if it is authorized to access the secret.
- Γ is the set of authorized subsets.
- For example,
 - $-P = \{1,2,3,4\}$
 - $-\Gamma = Any \ set \ containing \ one \ of \ \{\ \{1,2,4\},\ \{1,3,4,\},\ \{2,3\}\ \}$
 - Not supported by threshold secret sharing
- If $A \in \Gamma$ and $A \subseteq B$, then $B \in \Gamma$.
- $A \in \Gamma$ is a minimal authorized set if there is no $C \subseteq A$ such that $C \in \Gamma$.
- The set of minimal subsets Γ_0 is called the basis of Γ .

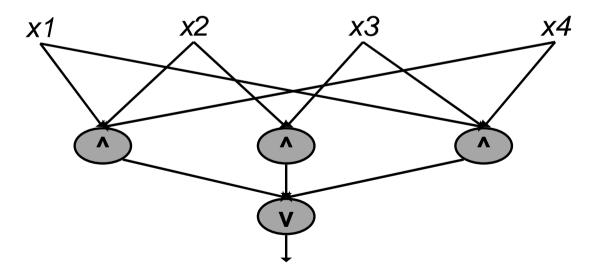
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The monotone circuit construction (Benaloh-Leichter)

- A Boolean circuit C with OR and AND gates, is monotone. Namely, if C(x)=1, then changing bits of x from 0 to 1 does not change the result to 0.
- Given Γ construct a circuit C s.t. C(A)=1 iff $A \in \Gamma$.

$$-\Gamma_0 = \{ \{1,2,4\}, \{1,3,4,\}, \{2,3\} \}$$

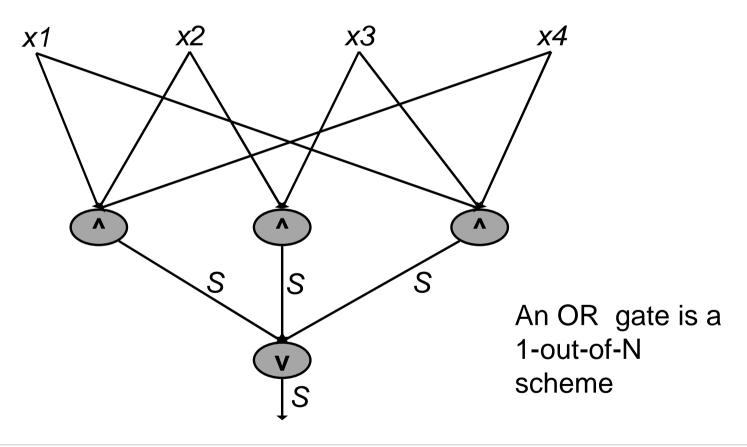


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Handling OR gates

Starting from the output gate and going backwards

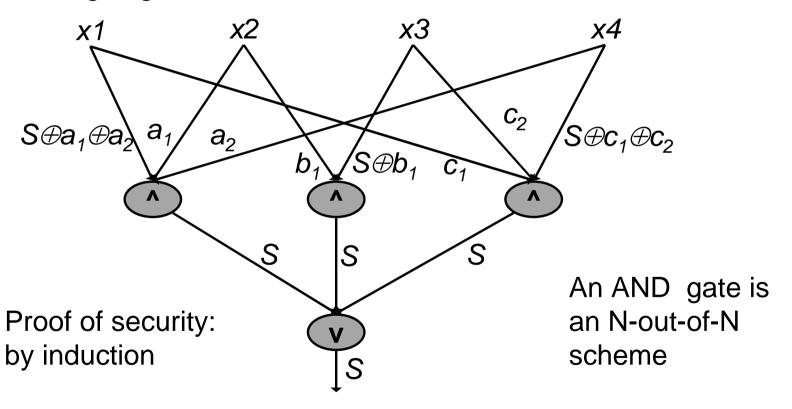


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Handling AND gates

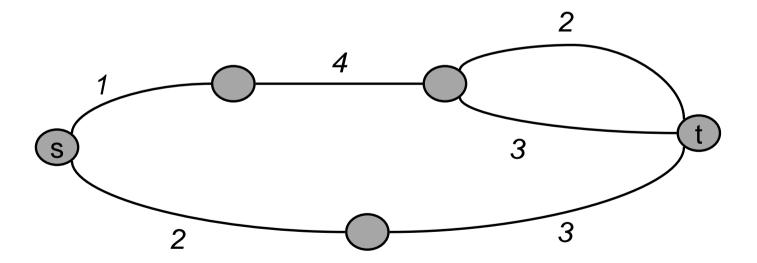
Final step: each user gets the keys of the wires going out from its variable



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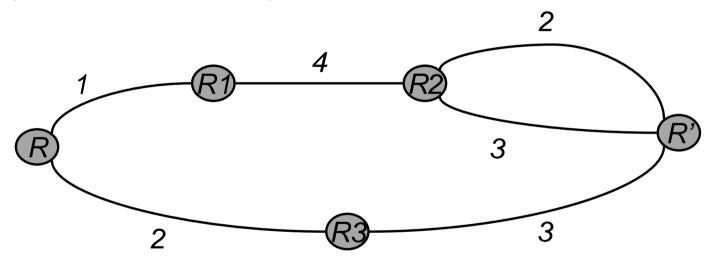
- Represent the access structure by an undirected graph.
- An authorized set corresponds to a path from s to t in an undirected graph.
- $\Gamma_0 = \{ \{1,2,4\}, \{1,3,4,\}, \{2,3\} \}$



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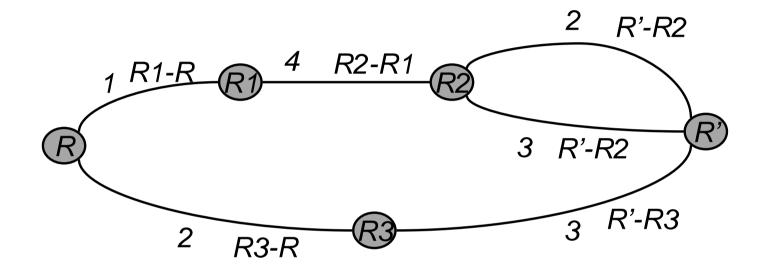
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Assign random values to nodes, s.t. *R'-R*= shared secret (*R'*=*R*+shared secret)



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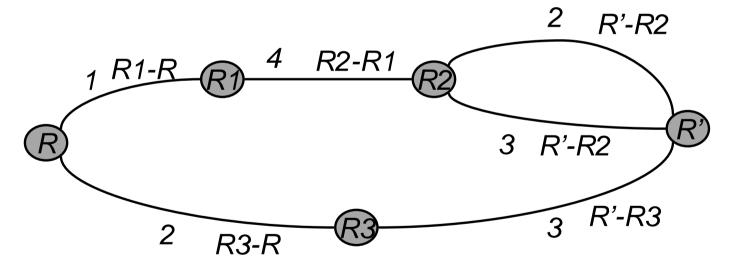


- Assign to edge R1→R2 the value R2-R1
- Give to each user the values associated with its edges

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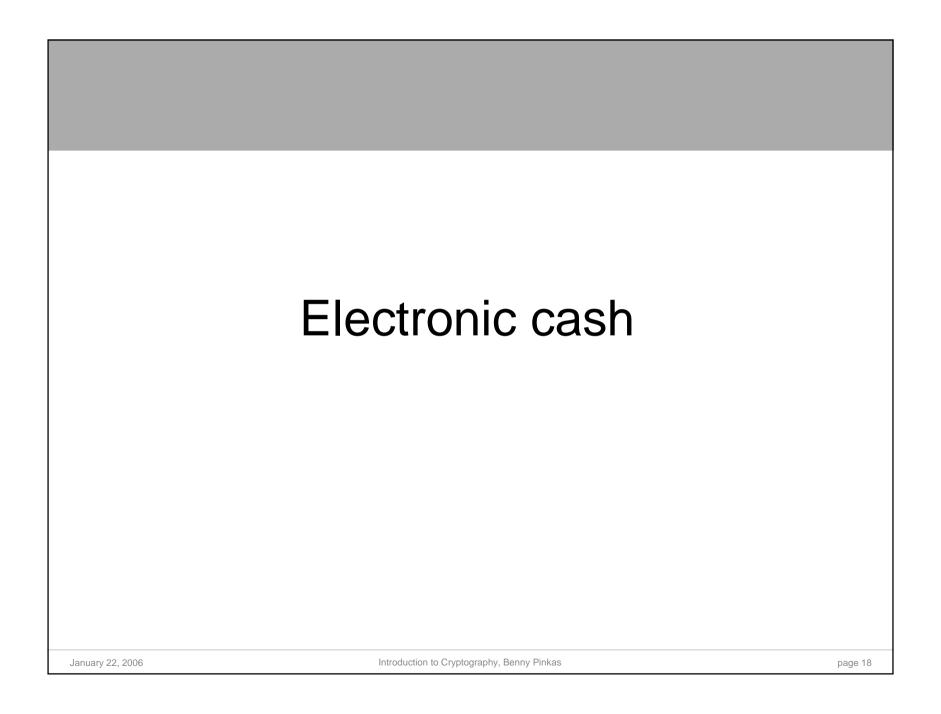
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- Consider the set {1,2,4}
- why can an authorized set reconstruct the secret? Why can't a unauthorized set do that?



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Simple electronic checks

- A payment protocol:
 - Sign a document transferring money from your account to another account
 - This document goes to your bank
 - The bank verifies that this is not a copy of a previous check
 - The bank checks your balance
 - The bank transfers the sum
- Problems:
 - Requires online access to the bank (to prevent reusage)
 - Expensive.
 - The transaction is traceable (namely, the bank knows about the transaction between you and Alice).

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First try at a payment protocol

- Withdrawal
 - User gets bank signature on {I am a \$100 bill, #1234}
 - Bank deducts \$100 from user's account
- Payment
 - User gives the signature to a merchant
 - Merchant verifies the signature, and checks online with the bank to verify that this is the first time that it is used.
- Problems:
 - As before, online access to the bank, and lack of anonymity.
- Advantage:
 - The bank doesn't have to check online whether there is money in the user's account.
 - In fact, there is no real need for the signature, since the bank checks its own siganture.

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Anonymous cash via blind signatures

- The bank signs the bill without seeing it
 - (e.g. like signing on a carbon paper)
- RSA Blind signatures (Chaum)
- RSA signature: $(H(m))^{1/e} \mod n$
- Blind RSA signature:
 - Alice sends Bob $(r e H(m)) \mod n$, where r is a random value.
 - Bob computes $(r e H(m))^{1/e} = r H(m)^{1/e} \mod n$, and sends to Alice.
 - Alice divides by r and computes $H(m)^{1/e} \mod n$
- Problem: Alice can get Bob to sign anything, Bob does not know what he is signing.

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Enabling the bank to verify the signed value

- "cut and choose" protocol
- Suppose Alice wants to sign a \$20 bill.
 - A \$20 bill is defined as H(random index,\$20).
 - Alice sends to bank 100 different \$20 bills for blind signature.
 - The bank chooses 99 of these and asks Alice to unblind them (divide by the corresponding r values). It verifies that they are all \$20 bills.
 - The bank blindly signs the remaining bill and gives it to Alice.
 - Alice can use the bill without being identified by the bank.
- If Alice tries to cheat she is caught with probability 99/100.
- 100 can be replaced by any parameter *m*.
- We would like to have an exponentially small cheating probability.

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Exponentially small cheating probability

- Define that a \$20 bill is valid if it is the e^{th} root of the multiplication of 50 values of the form H(x), (where x="random index,\$20"), and the owner of the bill can present all 50 x values.
- The withdrawal protocol:
 - Alice sends to the Bank $z_1, z_2, ..., z_{100}$ (where $z_i = r_i e \cdot H(x_i)$).
 - The Bank asks Alice to reveal ½ of the values $z_i = r_i^e \cdot H(x_i)$.
 - The Bank verifies them and extracts the eth root of the multiplication of all the other 50 values.
- Payment: Alice sends the signed bill and reveals the 50 preimage values. The merchant sends them to the bank which verifies that they haven't been used before.

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Online vs. offline digital cash

- We solved the anonymity problem, while verifying that Alice can only get signatures on bills of the right value.
- The bills can still be duplicated
- Merchants must check with the bank whenever they get a new bill, to verify that it wasn't used before.
- A new idea:
 - During the payment protocol the user is forced to encode a random identity string (RIS) into the bill
 - If the bill is used twice, the RIS reveals the user's identity and she loses her anonymity.

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Offline digital cash

Withdrawal protocol:

- Alice prepares 100 bills of the form
 - {I am a \$20 bill, #1234, $y_1, y'_1, y_2, y'_2, ..., y_m, y'_m$ }
 - S.t. $\forall i \ y_i = H(x_i), \ y'_i = H(x'_i), \ and it holds that <math>x_i \oplus x'_i = Alice's \ id,$ where H() is a collision resistant function.
- Alice blinds these bills and sends to the bank.
- The bank asks her to unblind 99 bills and show their x_i, x_i' values, and checks their validity. (Alternatively, as in the previous example, Alice can do a check with fails with only an exponential probability.)
- The bank signs the remaining blinded bill.

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Offline digital cash

Payment protocol:

- Alice gives a signed bill to the vendor
 - {I am a \$20 bill, #1234, $y_1, y'_1, y_2, y'_2, \dots, y_m, y'_m$ }
- The vendor verifies the signature, and if it is valid sends to Alice a random bit string $b=b_1b_2...b_m$ of length m.
- $\forall i \text{ if } b_i = 0 \text{ Alice returns } x_i, \text{ otherwise } (b_i = 1) \text{ she returns } x'_i$
- The vendor checks that $y_i=H(x_i)$ or $y'_i=H(x'_i)$ (depending on b_i). If this check is successful it accepts the bill. (Note that Alice's identity is kept secret.)
- Note that the merchant does not need to contact the bank during the payment protocol.

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Offline digital cash

- The merchant must deposit the bill in the bank. It cannot use the bill to pay someone else.
 - Because it cannot answer challenges b* different from the challenge b it sent to Alice.
- How can the bank detect double spenders?
 - Suppose two merchants M and M* receive the same bill
 - With very high probability, they send different queries b,b*
 - There is an index *i* for which $b_i=0$, $b^*_i=1$. Therefore *M* receives x_i and M^* receives x_i^* .
 - When they deposit the bills the bank receives x_i and x_i^* , and can compute $x_i \oplus x_i^* = Alice$'s id.

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