

# How to Share a Secret

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In this paper we show how to divide data  $D$  into  $n$  pieces in such a way that  $D$  is easily reconstructable from any  $k$  pieces, but even complete knowledge of  $k - 1$  pieces reveals absolutely no information about  $D$ . This technique enables the construction of robust key management schemes for cryptographic systems that can function securely and reliably even when misfortunes destroy half the pieces and security breaches expose all but one of the remaining pieces.

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## 1. Introduction

In [4], Liu considers the following problem:

Eleven scientists are working on a secret project. They wish to lock up the documents in a cabinet so that the cabinet can be opened if and only if six or more of the scientists are present. What is the smallest number of locks needed? What is the smallest number of keys to the locks each scientist must carry?

It is not hard to show that the minimal solution uses 462 locks and 252 keys per scientist. These numbers are clearly impractical, and they become exponentially worse when the number of scientists increases.

In this paper we generalize the problem to one in which the secret is some data  $D$  (e.g., the safe combina-

tion) and in which nonmechanical solutions (which manipulate this data) are also allowed. Our goal is to divide  $D$  into  $n$  pieces  $D_1, \dots, D_n$  in such a way that:

- (1) knowledge of any  $k$  or more  $D_i$  pieces makes  $D$  easily computable;
- (2) knowledge of any  $k - 1$  or fewer  $D_i$  pieces leaves  $D$  completely undetermined (in the sense that all its possible values are equally likely).

Such a scheme is called a  $(k, n)$  threshold scheme.

Efficient threshold schemes can be very helpful in the management of cryptographic keys. In order to protect data we can encrypt it, but in order to protect the encryption key we need a different method (further encryptions change the problem rather than solve it). The most secure key management scheme keeps the key in a single, well-guarded location (a computer, a human brain, or a safe). This scheme is highly unreliable since a single misfortune (a computer breakdown, sudden death, or sabotage) can make the information inaccessible. An obvious solution is to store multiple copies of the key at different locations, but this increases the danger of security breaches (computer penetration, betrayal, or human errors). By using a  $(k, n)$  threshold scheme with  $n = 2k - 1$  we get a very robust key management scheme: We can recover the original key even when  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor = k - 1$  of the  $n$  pieces are destroyed, but our opponents cannot reconstruct the key even when security breaches expose  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor = k - 1$  of the remaining  $k$  pieces.

In other applications the tradeoff is not between secrecy and reliability, but between safety and convenience of use. Consider, for example, a company that digitally signs all its checks (see RSA [5]). If each executive is given a copy of the company's secret signature key, the system is convenient but easy to misuse. If the cooperation of all the company's executives is necessary in order to sign each check, the system is safe but inconvenient. The standard solution requires at least three signatures per check, and it is easy to implement with a  $(3, n)$  threshold scheme. Each executive is given a small magnetic card with one  $D_i$  piece, and the company's signature generating device accepts any three of them in order to generate (and later destroy) a temporary copy of the actual signature key  $D$ . The device does not contain any secret information and thus it need not be protected against inspection. An unfaithful executive must have at least two accomplices in order to forge the company's signature in this scheme.

Threshold schemes are ideally suited to applications in which a group of mutually suspicious individuals with conflicting interests must cooperate. Ideally we would like the cooperation to be based on mutual consent, but the veto power this mechanism gives to each member can paralyze the activities of the group. By properly choosing the  $k$  and  $n$  parameters we can give any sufficiently large majority the authority to take some action while giving any sufficiently large minority the power to block it.

目标：将数据 $D$ 分成 $n$ 份，分别为 $D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n$ ，并有以下规则：  
1. 任何 $k$ 或更多的 $D_i$ 块，能够很容易地计算出 $D$ 。  
2. 任何 $k-1$ 或更少的 $D_i$ 块，会使 $D$ 完全不确定（不可能得到 $D$ ）。  
这就叫 $(k, n)$ 门限方案。

为了保护数据，我们可以对数据进行加密，但是为了保护加密密钥，我们就需要一个截然不同的方法（更进一步的加密——对密钥加密，改变了问题而不是解决了问题。最安全的密钥管理模式是将密钥存放在一个单独的、有良好安保措施的环境（电脑、人脑、安全之地），但是这种模式使非常不可靠的，因为任何不幸事件发生都会使信息处于不可获取的情况。对于这种模式，一个显而易见的解决方法就是在不同的地方存储多个备份密钥，但是这样就增加了系统被统计的危险程度。通过使用 $(k, n)$ 门限方案（ $n$ 为基数 $2k-1$ ），我们可以得到一个很强大的密钥管理模式：即使有 $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ 个密钥被摧毁，我们都能够恢复数据，但是攻击者却不能通过这一般的密钥获得我们的数据。

门限方案不是在安全性和可靠性之间的妥协，而是在安全性和使用方便性。

不忠诚的执行官必须拥有至少两名共犯，才能伪造公司的签名。

门限方案非常理想的适用于存在利益冲突的互相可疑群体必须合作的场景。理想情况下，我们希望公司能够基于不变而相同的理念，但是这个机制所赋予每个成员的否决权可以使群体的活动麻痹。通过选择合适的 $k$ 和 $n$ 参数，我们能够给大多数人权利去采取行动，而给其余少数人权利去阻止它。

## 2. A Simple (k, n) Threshold Scheme

Our scheme is based on **polynomial<sup>1</sup> interpolation**: given  $k$  points in the 2-dimensional plane  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_k, y_k)$  with distinct  $x_i$ 's, there is one and only one polynomial  $q(x)$  of degree  $k-1$  such that  $q(x_i) = y_i$  for all  $i$ . Without loss of generality, we can assume that the data  $D$  is (or can be made) a number. To divide it into pieces  $D_i$ , we pick a random  $k-1$  degree polynomial  $q(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{k-1}x^{k-1}$  in which  $a_0 = D$ , and evaluate:

$k-1$ 次多项式:指的是——映射的关系,即一个 $x$ ,对应一个 $y$ ,不存在一个 $x$ 对应多个 $y$ 的存在。

$$D_1 = q(1), \dots, D_i = q(i), \dots, D_n = q(n).$$

Given any subset of  $k$  of these  $D_i$  values (together with their identifying indices), we can find the coefficients of  $q(x)$  by interpolation, and then evaluate  $D = q(0)$ . Knowledge of just  $k-1$  of these values, on the other hand, does not suffice in order to calculate  $D$ .

To make this claim more precise, we use modular arithmetic instead of real arithmetic. The set of integers modulo a prime number  $p$  forms a field in which interpolation is possible. Given an integer valued data  $D$ , we pick a prime  $p$  which is bigger than both  $D$  and  $n$ . The coefficients  $a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}$  in  $q(x)$  are randomly chosen from a uniform distribution over the integers in  $[0, p)$ , and the values  $D_1, \dots, D_n$  are computed modulo  $p$ .

Let us now assume that  $k-1$  of these  $n$  pieces are revealed to an opponent. For each candidate value  $D'$  in  $[0, p)$  he can construct one and only one polynomial  $q'(x)$  of degree  $k-1$  such that  $q'(0) = D'$  and  $q'(i) = D_i$  for the  $k-1$  given arguments. By construction, these  $p$  possible polynomials are equally likely, and thus there is absolutely nothing the opponent can deduce about the real value of  $D$ .

Efficient  $O(n \log^2 n)$  algorithms for polynomial evaluation and interpolation are discussed in [1] and [3], but even the straightforward quadratic algorithms are fast enough for practical key management schemes. If the number  $D$  is long, it is advisable to break it into shorter blocks of bits (which are handled separately) in order to avoid multiprecision arithmetic operations. The blocks cannot be arbitrarily short, since the smallest usable value of  $p$  is  $n+1$  (there must be at least  $n+1$  distinct arguments in  $[0, p)$  to evaluate  $q(x)$  at). However, this is not a severe limitation since sixteen bit modulus (which can be handled by a cheap sixteen bit arithmetic unit) suffices for applications with up to 64,000  $D_i$  pieces.

Some of the useful properties of this  $(k, n)$  threshold scheme (when compared to the mechanical locks and keys solutions) are:

- (1) The size of each piece does not exceed the size of the original data.
- (2) When  $k$  is kept fixed,  $D_i$  pieces can be dynamically added or deleted (e.g., when executives join or leave

the company) without affecting the other  $D_i$  pieces. (A piece is deleted only when a leaving executive makes it completely inaccessible, even to himself.)

- (3) It is easy to change the  $D_i$  pieces without changing the original data  $D$ —all we need is a new polynomial  $q(x)$  with the same free term. A frequent change of this type can greatly enhance security since the pieces exposed by security breaches cannot be accumulated unless all of them are values of the same edition of the  $q(x)$  polynomial.

of polynomial values as  $D_i$  pieces, we can get a hierarchical scheme in which the number of pieces needed to determine  $D$  depends on their importance. For example, if we give the company's president three values of  $q(x)$ , each vice-president two values of  $q(x)$ , and each executive one value of  $q(x)$ , then a  $(3, n)$  threshold scheme enables checks to be signed either by any three executives, or by any two executives one of whom is a vice-president, or by the president alone.

A different (and somewhat less efficient) threshold scheme was recently developed by G.R. Blakley [2].

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(k, n)门限方案有用参数:

1. 子块的大小不能超过原数据块的大小。
2. 如果 $k$ 保持固定不变,  $D_i$ 子块的数量在不影响其他子块的前提下,可以随意增减。
3. 在不改变原始数据 $D$ 的前提下,可以很容易的改变子数据块 $D_i$ ,我们需要做的只是一个新的多项式罢了。定期更换多项式还要助于提高安全性。
4. 通过多项式中的元组值,可以获得一个以数据块个数为标准的层次结构(数据块个数等价于重要性)。

<sup>1</sup>The polynomials can be replaced by any other collection of functions which are easy to evaluate and to interpolate.