



# Multiple Key Cryptography: Overview

# Going beyond Public and Private Keys

- ◆ We've seen several uses for multiple key cryptography in the "Standard" PKE
  - Ex: public key, shared with everyone, used to check sender
  - Ex: private key, shared with no one, used to limit access
- ◆ Although this a common use of multiple keys, there are others.





# Four Techniques beyond “standard” PKE

- ◆ Diffie-Helman Key Exchange - sharing a key
- ◆ Message Broadcast
- ◆ Secret Sharing
- ◆ Secret Splitting



# Diffie Helman Key Exchange

- ◆ Considered a public key algorithm
  - This is the first one, invented late '70s
- ◆ Primarily used for generation of a key to be used in a symmetric algorithm



# Two User Protocol

- ◆ Alice and Bob share “public” keys
  - They agree on two large numbers:  $n$ ,  $g$
  - $1 < g < n$
  - $n$  should be a prime number
  - $(n-1)/2$  should also be a prime
  - $n$  should be at least 512 bits  $\leq$  that advice is from the early 90’s and is probably dated!
  - Note that there are some known bad choices for DH which should be avoided



# The Private Keys

- ◆ Alice needs a private key
  - She chooses a large random integer,  $x$
- ◆ Bob needs a private key
  - He also chooses a large random integer,  $y$



# The Exchange, part 1

- ◆ Alice uses her private key and the public keys to compute  $X$  (cap  $X$ ):

$$- X = g^x \bmod n$$

- ◆ Alice sends  $X$  (cap  $X$ ) to Bob

- $g, n$  public
- $x$  private
- $X$  sent to Bob

- ◆ Bob uses his private key and the public keys to compute  $Y$  (cap  $Y$ ):

$$- Y = g^y \bmod n$$

- ◆ Bob sends  $Y$  (cap  $Y$ ) to Alice

- $g, n$  public
- $y$  private
- $Y$  sent to Alice



# The Exchange, part 2

- ◆ Alice computes  $k_1$  as follows

- $k_1 = Y^x \bmod n$

- ◆ The keys

- $x$  is private
  - $n$  is public
  - $Y$  is from Bob
  - $k_1$  is computed

- ◆ Bob computes  $k_2$  as follows

- $k_2 = X^y \bmod n$

- ◆ The keys

- $y$  is private
  - $n$  is public
  - $X$  is from Alice
  - $k_2$  is computed





Keys K1 and K2 are identical!

$$\begin{aligned} k2 &= X^y \bmod n \\ &= (g^x \bmod n)^y \bmod n \\ &= (g^{xy}) \bmod n \\ &= (g^{yx}) \bmod n \\ &= (g^y \bmod n)^x \bmod n \\ &= (Y)^x \bmod n \\ &= k1 \end{aligned}$$



# Useful points

- ◆ Even if Mal can obtain  $n$ ,  $g$ ,  $X$ ,  $Y$  he cannot directly compute  $k_1 = k_2$ 
  - It may still be possible to \*guess\* the key, perhaps based on analysis of encrypted text, of course
- ◆ The algorithm is relatively efficient in terms of yielding a good key for use in a symmetric algorithm
- ◆ Especially nice for session keys
- ◆ Does involve additional communication
- ◆ No trusted third party is needed

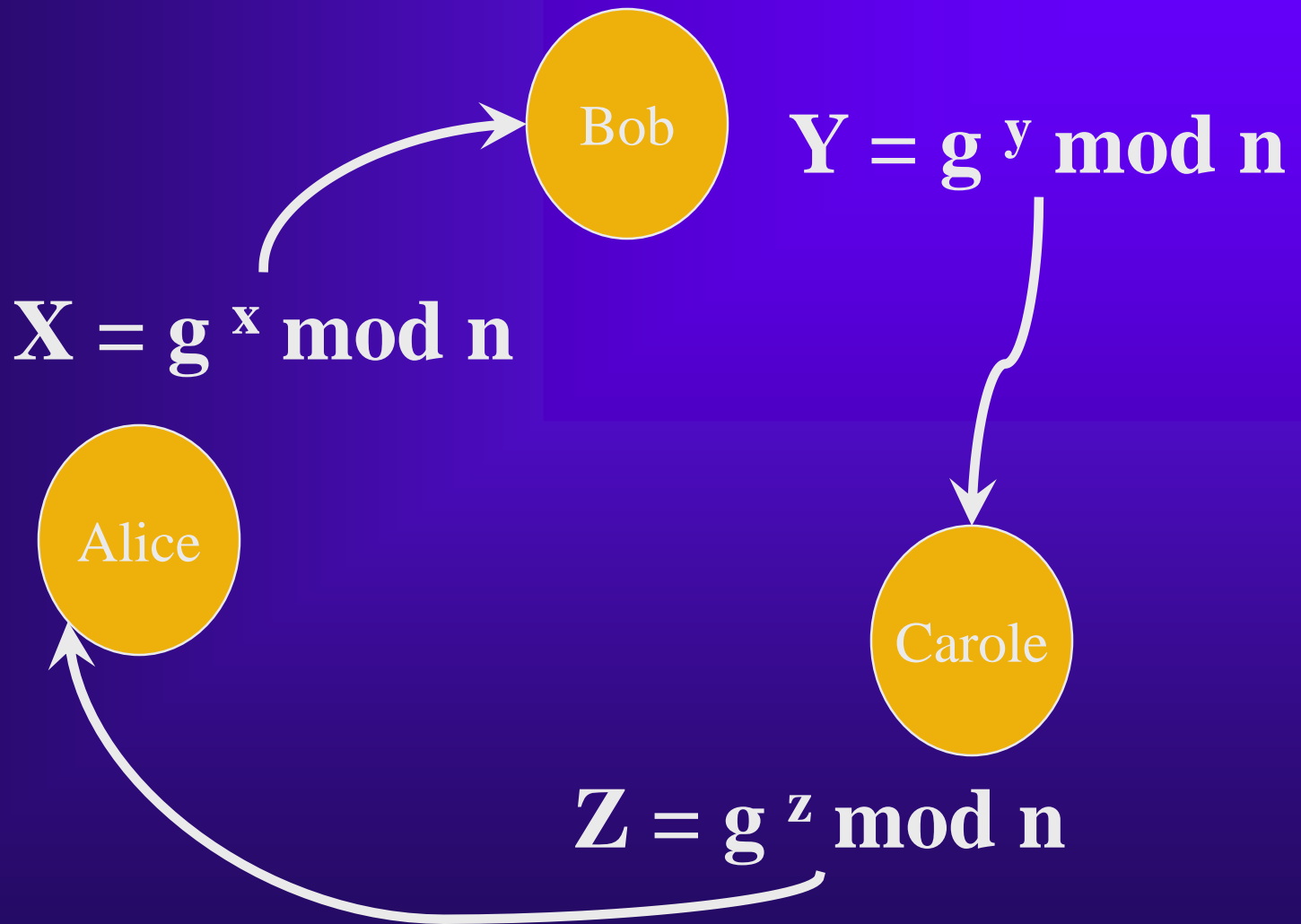


# The algorithm works for more than two participants

- ◆ We can use an extended version of DH for key exchange between three or more participants
- ◆ Each additional participant will increase the number of rounds of exchange
- ◆ We start as usual, with  $g$ ,  $n$  agreed upon in advance

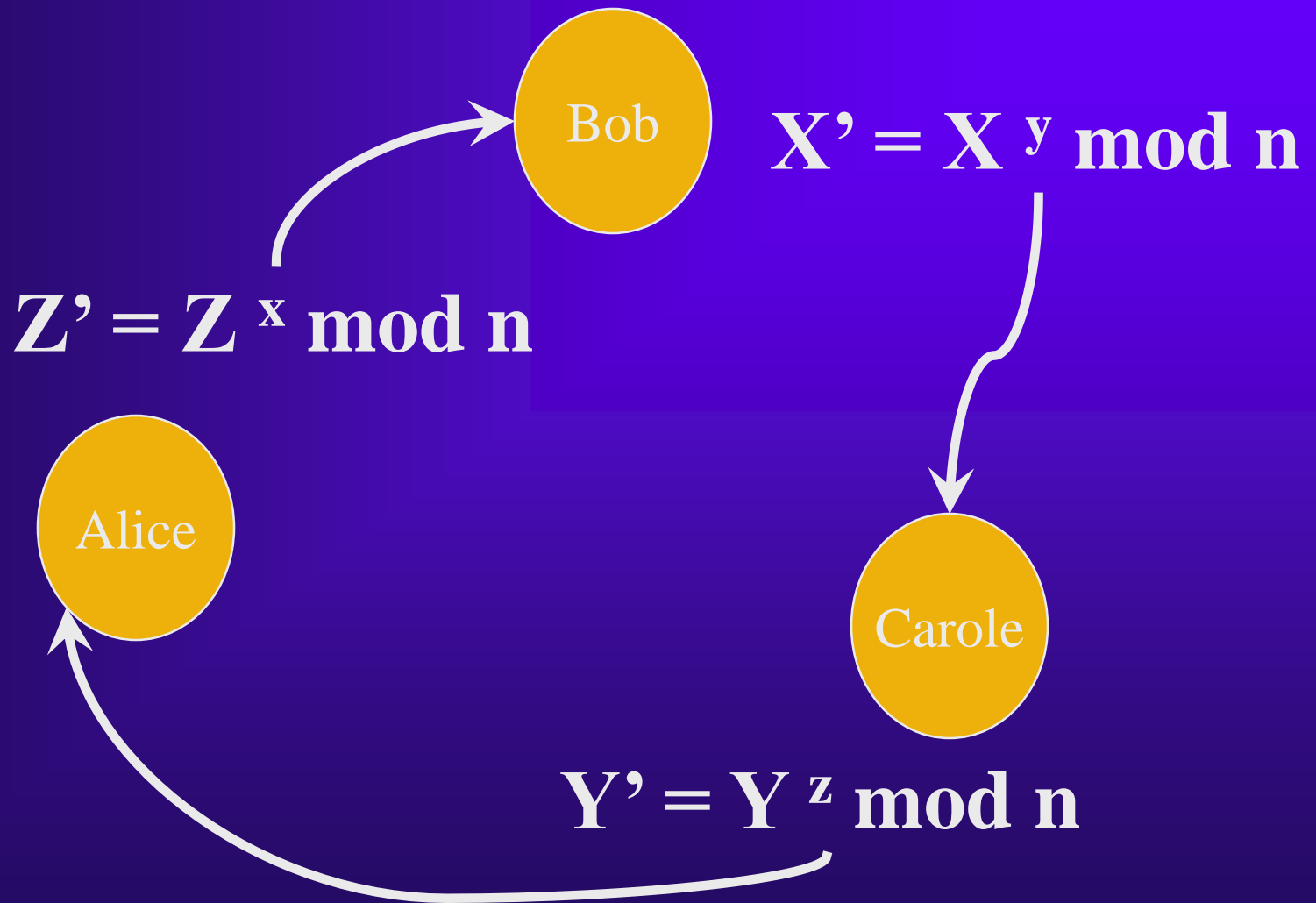


# Key Exchange, Step 1

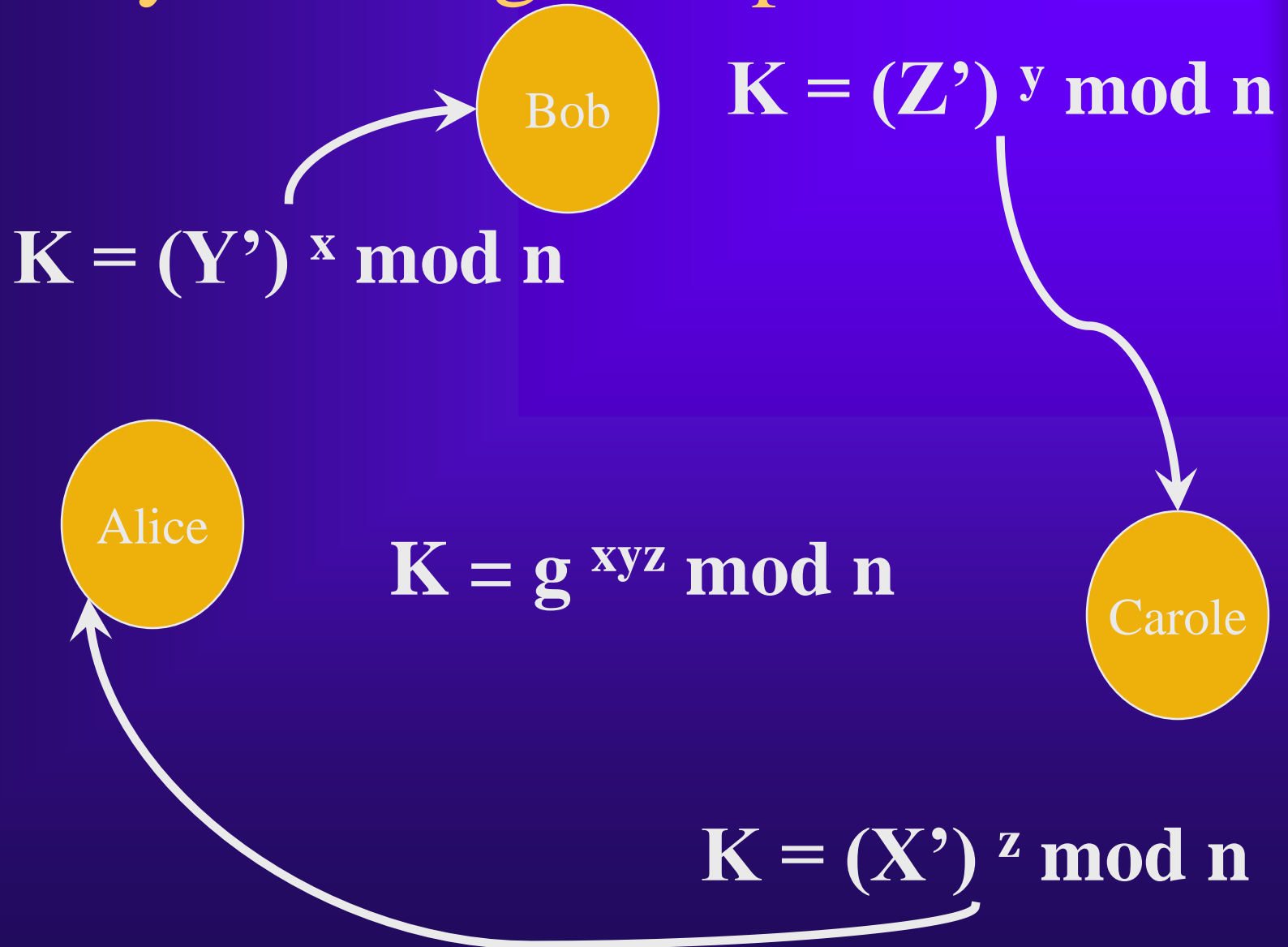




# Key Exchange, Step 2



# Key Exchange, Step 3





# Secure Message Broadcast

- ◆ Suppose that we have a very large number of entities that we wish to communicate with from a central location
- ◆ Sometimes we want to send the \*same\* message to a subset of these entities ... but that the particular subset may vary



# Some Options

- ◆ We could develop or share a different symmetric key with each entity
  - we would have as many key pairs as message recipients
  - we would have to encrypt the message for each recipient
  - Variant: We could also sign and send the *\*same\** key to each recipient, then encrypt the message itself just once





# Another Option

- ◆ We could identify all possible subsets of recipients, assign each one a “private” key (private to that group) in advance.
  - This would let us encrypt the message only once per subset of recipients
  - This requires \*many\* keys
  - This is a hard strategy to use when recipients can “leave” or “enter” groups



# Using Multiple RSA

- ◆ We could also use the “multiple” version of RSA (details are left to homework)
- ◆ Operationally, it works like this:
  - Multiple Public Key Cryptography
  - Determine a set of “semi-public” keys based on the number of desired subsets.
  - Distribute the keys so that each subset has at least one in common
  - Encrypt with the “inverse set” of the common keys



# An Example with $K_A K_B K_C$

Encrypt With:

$K_A$

$K_A K_B$

$K_A K_C$

Decrypt With

$K_B K_C$

$K_C$

$K_B$

Essentially, if “k” of the “n” keys are used to encrypt then we need the remaining “n-k” keys to decrypt.



# Secret Splitting

- ◆ Usage: you want to keep “components” of some secret in several locations, so that compromise of one location won’t compromise the entire secret.
- ◆ This is a very “strong” method, in that it is not vulnerable to guessing IFF it is used correctly
- ◆ This method is vulnerable to destruction of one of the “secret” locations



# Simple Technique!

- ◆ Trent has a message  $M$  to protect
- ◆ Trent generates a random message  $R$  with as many bits in it as message  $M$
- ◆ Trent uses XOR of  $M$  and  $R$  to generate  $P$

$$P = M \oplus R$$

- ◆ Trent gives  $P$  to Alice and  $R$  to Bob and destroys  $M$
- ◆ Success!



# Reconstruction

- ◆ If Trent wishes to reconstruct the original message:
  - Trent gets P from Alice
  - Trent gets R from Bob
  - Trent XORs them together; the result is M

$$P \oplus R$$

- ◆ As long as we do not reuse R, no amount of brute force guessing will allow an enemy to learn that he/she has the right M if only one of P or R is compromised



# Quick Illustration

- ◆ Suppose that the message is 1101
- ◆ Trent chooses random number 0101

$$P = M \oplus R = (1101) \oplus (0101)$$

$$\text{Bitwise: } (1 \oplus 0, 1 \oplus 1, 0 \oplus 0, 1 \oplus 1)$$

$$P = (1, 0, 0, 0)$$

- ◆ Reversing:

$$P \oplus R = (1000) \oplus (0101)$$

$$\text{Bitwise: } (1 \oplus 0, 0 \oplus 1, 0 \oplus 0, 0 \oplus 1)$$

$$M = (1, 1, 0, 1)$$





# We can extend this:

- ◆ For splitting the secret  $M$  amongst  $n$  individuals rather than two, Trent must generate a sequence of random strings:

$$R_1 \dots R_{n-1}$$

- ◆ Computing  $P$  is then:

$$-P = M \oplus R_1 \oplus \dots \oplus R_{n-1}$$

- ◆ Reconstruction involves XORing all of the  $R_i$  plus  $P$ .





# Secret Sharing

- ◆ Note that secret splitting was vulnerable to the loss of one site
- ◆ If you wish to balance a desire to preserve a message with the need to keep the message secret, a “secret sharing” technique may be more appropriate
  - There are several
  - We’ll talk about one involving Polynomials!
  - Note that this example is vastly scaled down for ease of typing :)



# Threshold Scheme

- ◆ (m,n) Threshold Scheme:
  - A secret is divided into “n” pieces (called the shadows), such that combining any “m” of the shadows will reconstruct the original secret.
- ◆ We’ll use Shamir’s LaGrange Interpolating Polynomial Scheme as our example (scaled down!)



# Shamir's Scheme

- ◆ Choose a (public) large polynomial “ $p$ ” bigger than
  - the possible number of shadows
  - the size of the secret
  - other requirements for strength
  - all arithmetic will be “mod  $p$ ”
- ◆ Generate an arbitrary polynomial of degree “ $m-1$ ”
- ◆ Evaluate the polynomial at “ $n$ ” different points to obtain the shadows “ $k_i$ ”
- ◆ Distribute the shadows and destroy  $M$  and all the polynomial coefficients



# Example poly: (3,n) threshold

- ◆ Form of our arbitrary polynomial
- ◆  $m=3$  so polynomial is degree 2
  - $F(x) = ax^2 + bx + M \pmod{P}$
- ◆ We must decide on a size for  $n$  - this is the number of shadows. The number of shadows is independent of the size of the polynomial



## (3,5) Threshold with $M=11$

- ◆ Suppose we want a (3,5) scheme - that means we will have 5 shadows - for hiding message “11” (eleven)
- ◆ We choose a prime  $>5, 11$ : say 13
- ◆ Our polynomial must be degree 2. We select the coefficients  $a, b$  randomly:

$$F(x) = 7x^2 + 8x + 11 \pmod{13}$$



# Continuing ...

- ◆ We must now generate five shadows. We decide to evaluate at points 1,2,3,4,5 (normally we'd mix them up!)
  - $F(x) = 7x^2 + 8x + 11 \pmod{13}$
  - $k_1 = F(x_1=1) = 7+8+11 = 0$
  - $k_2 = F(x_2=2) = \dots = 3$
  - $k_3 = F(x_3=3) = \dots = 7$
  - $k_4 = F(x_4=4) = \dots = 12$
  - $k_5 = F(x_5=5) = \dots = 5$



# Distribution!

- ◆ We then put the shadows (the  $k_i$ ) somewhere. We need to either keep the selected value for  $x$  with the shadow or with the “coordinator”. Discard  $M$ ,  $a$ ,  $b$ .

(1,0)

(2,3)

(3,7)

(5,5)

(4,12)





# How do we get the message back?

- ◆ We know that this is a (3,5) scheme, so the polynomial is known to be of degree 2:

$$F(x) = Ax^2 + Bx + M$$

(1,0)

(2,3)

(3,7)

(5,5)

(4,12)





# Restoring...

- ◆ We would obtain **THREE** shadows from any of the five locations below. That would give us three equations and three unknowns:

$$F(x) = Ax^2 + Bx + M$$

(1,0)

(2,3)

(3,7)

(5,5)

(4,12)



# Restoring...

- ◆ For instance, choose shadows  $k_2, k_3, k_5$

$$F(5) = A5^2 + B5 + M = 5$$

(5,5)

(2,3)

$$F(2) = A2^2 + B2 + M = 3$$

$$F(3) = A3^2 + B3 + M = 7$$

(3,7)

This gives us three equations and three unknowns, which is solvable, and yields  $A=7$ ,  $B=8$ ,  $M=11$ .