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https://docs.google.com/document/d/1B6gavCsgZXcCRssFZEWLVfzaO_IPbC5o/edit#heading=h.7qenq6v01ay6

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Cookery recipe

Secret Sharing scheme

Shamir's Secret Sharing (SSS) is used to secure a secret in a distributed way, most often to secure other encryption keys. The secret is split into multiple parts, called **shares**. These shares are used to reconstruct the original secret.

To unlock the secret via Shamir's secret sharing, a minimum number of shares are needed. This is called the **threshold**, and is used to denote the minimum number of shares needed to unlock the secret. An adversary who discovers any number of shares less than the threshold will not have any additional information about the secured secret-- this is called <u>perfect secrecy</u>. In this sense, SSS is a generalisation of the <u>one-time pad</u> - Vernam cipher (which is effectively SSS with a two-share threshold and two shares in total).

Let us walk through an example:

Problem: Company XYZ needs to secure their vault's passcode. They could use something standard, such as AES, but what if the holder of the key is unavailable or dies? What if the key is compromised via a malicious hacker or the holder of the key turns rogue, and uses their power over the vault to their benefit?

This is where SSS comes in. It can be used to encrypt the vault's passcode and generate a certain number of shares, where a certain number of shares can be allocated to each executive within Company XYZ. Now, only if they pool their shares can they unlock the vault. The threshold can be appropriately set for the number of executives, so the vault is always able to be accessed by the authorized individuals. Should a share or two fall into the wrong hands, they couldn't open the passcode unless the other executives cooperated.

From <<u>https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shamir%27s_Secret_Sharing</u>>

Shamir's Secret Sharing is an ideal and perfect (*t*, *N*)-threshold scheme. In such a scheme, the aim is to divide a secret *k* which is a *secret key* to decrypt a receipt Is divided into *N* pieces of data *P*1, *P*2, ..., *PN* known as shares in such a way that:

1. Knowledge of any **t** or more **P**_i pieces makes **k** easily computable. Therefore **t** is is named as

threshold. That is, the complete secret k can be reconstructed from any combination of t or more pieces of data.

2. Knowledge of any t-1 or fewer P_i pieces leaves k completely undetermined, in the sense that the possible values for **k** seem as likely as with knowledge of **0** pieces. The secret **k** cannot be reconstructed with fewer than **t** pieces.

If **t=N**, then every piece of the original secret is required to reconstruct the secret.

We are considering the field of real numbers <R,+,-,*,:>. Then the plain consisting of real numbers is $R^2 = \{(x, y); x \in R, y \in R\}$ $y_{A} = ax^{2} + bx + k$

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 $A(X_1, Y_1); B(X_2, Y_2).$ $\begin{cases} 0x_1 + b = y_1 \\ ax_2 + b = y_2 \end{cases}$

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 $\alpha(x_1 - x_2) = y_1 - y_2 \Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{y_1 - y_2}{x_1 - y_2}$ $b = \exists (x = 0) = (a \times b) |_{x=0}$ b = k

One can draw an infinite number of polynomials of degree 2 through 2 points. 3 points are required to define a unique polynomial of degree 2. This image is for illustration purposes only — Shamir's scheme uses polynomials over a finite field.

From <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shamir%27s_Secret_Sharings

 $4 = ax^2 + bx + k$ $A(X_1, Y_1); B(X_2, Y_2); G(Y_3, Y_3)$ $\left(a x_1^2 + b x_1 + C = Y_1\right)$ By solving this linear system of equation, parabola coefficients $\Rightarrow a x_2^2 + b x_2 + c = z_2$ a, b, k can be obtained. $(ax_{3}^{2} + bx_{3} + c = f_{3})$ $\begin{cases} y = a_{X} + k & B_{1} & b: E N \mathcal{C}_{k} (Rec) = C ; Rec = Dec_{k} (C) \\ B_{2} & B(X_{B}, Y_{B}) & Rec : secret recipe \\ E Dec (k Rec) = C_{2} \end{cases}$

Rec: secret recipe B(XB, JB) Enc (k, Rec) = GRec Dec (k, Grec) = Rec × A(XA, YA) shares; {A, B, B1, B2, B3} In the case of linear interpolation Threshold=2 If (A, B) can not participate in recovery secret k, then secret k can be recovered by any other pair (B1, B2), (B1, B3), (B2, B3) In general, secret k can be recovered by C52 pairs $(A_1B), (A_1B_3), (A_1B_2), \dots, (B_2, B_3) \quad C_5^2 = \frac{5 \cdot 4}{2} = 10$ But 2- shares could be not enough to protect the secret k. due to bribering Let it be 3-share created to protect the secret. It is required to choose parabola $y = ax^2 + bx + k$ while can be recovered by Lagrangian interpolation using 3-points (A, B, C) => threshold =3 A decided to share the secret to 6-parts among $\{A, B, B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4\}$ The number of triplets to recover secret k is $G_6^3 = \frac{6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4}{3 \cdot 2 \cdot 4} = 20$. $y = x^2 - 2x - 3$ 4-4 5 6 2-

 $\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{c} \\ \mathbf{$ k = -3 B_2 $\left(\alpha x_{4}^{2} + b x_{1} + k = y_{1}\right)$ B1 $a X_2^2 + b X_2 + k = f_2 + z = 3$ $y = ax^{(2)} + bx + k$ $Q X_3^2 + b X_3 + k = y_3$ (n) = t - 1 = 3 - 1 = 2.k = -3For any t= n+1 we must choose n-th degree polynomial $Y = P_n(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + a_1 x^1 + a_0; \quad a_0 = k.$ This polynomial can be recovered by Lagrange interpolation tednique having n+1 points - uniquely recovered. $\{P_2, P_2, \dots, P_{n+1}\} = \{(X_1, Y_1), (X_2, Y_2), \dots, (X_{n+1}, Y_{n+1})\}$ $\begin{cases} a_{n} \chi_{4}^{n} + a_{n-1} \chi_{4}^{n-1} + \dots + a_{0} = J_{4} \\ a_{n} \chi_{n+4}^{n} + a_{n-1} \chi_{n+4}^{n-1} + \dots + a_{0} = J_{n+1} \end{cases} \implies (a_{n}, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_{4}, a_{0})$ Let $p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ be a polynomial of order n. In p(x) the number of unknown $\uparrow y = p(x)$ coefficients is equal to n+1: to define p(x) it is Po required to construct $k = a_c$ n+1 linear equations to find coefficients {ao, a1, ..., an-1, an }. We must have (n+1) points {Po, P1, ..., Pn-1, Pn} where p(x) is crossing these poits.

This technique is normed Lagrangian interpolation: t-1= ". $k = a_0 = p(x = 0) = \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} 4_i \prod_{j=0}^{t-1} \frac{x_j}{x_j - x_i}$ Infinite field R must be replaced by finite field Fp = Ip. Arithmetic of Finite fields $Z_p = F_p = \{0, 1, 2, ..., p-1\}$, when p is prime. + mod **p**, - mod **p**, * mod **p**, : mod **p** : mod p by 0": Z/O - is not defined. 1) Ip in an additive group: < Ip, + modp> 2) \mathbb{Z}_p has multiplicative group $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$ $\mathcal{I}_{\rho}^{*} \subset \mathcal{I}_{\rho}$ $\langle \mathcal{I}_{p}^{*}, * mod p \rangle$ 3) The distributive low takes place in Lp: for all $a_1 b, c \in \mathcal{Z}_p$: $a * (b+c) = (a * b + a * c) \mod p$ $\prod_{i=1}^{3} a_i = a_1 \cdot a_2 \cdot a_3$ $\mathcal{L}_{M} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 10\}; +, -, \circ, : mod 11$ DSA - Digital Signature Algorithm - the principle So four we considered a group $\mathcal{L}_p^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$ Part of this group elemets are a generators (~40%) and other elements are not. **Discrete Exponent Function (8/14)** P=11The results of any binary operation (multiplication, addition, etc.) defined in any finite group is named Cayley table including multiplication table, addition table etc. Multiplication table of multiplicative group Z_{11}^* is represented below. Multiplicatio Z₁₁* n tab. mod 11 Values of inverse elements in Z_{11}^* $1^{-1} = 1 \mod 11$ $2^{-1} = 6 \mod 11$ $3^{-1} = 4 \mod 11$ $4^{-1} = 3 \mod 11$ $5^{-1} = 9 \mod 11$

3 10

4 10

 $6^{-1} = 2 \mod 11$

 $7^{-1} = 8 \mod 11$

 $8^{-1} = 7 \mod 11$

1 4 4

	U	U	1	1	\mathcal{L}	0	3	ソ	4	10	J	0 ⁻¹ = 2 mod 11	
	7	7	3	10	6	2	9	5	1	8	4	$7^{-1} = 8 \mod 11$	
	8	8	5	2	10	7	4	1	9	6	3	$8^{-1} = 7 \mod 11$	
	9	9	7	5	3	1	10	8	6	4	2	$9^{-1}=5 \mod 11$	
1	10	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	$10^{-1} = 10 \mod 11$	

Discrete Exponent Function (9/14)

The table of exponent values for p = 11 in Z_{11}^* computed **mod** 11 and is presented in table below. Notice that according to Fermat little theorem for all $z \in Z_{11}^*$, $z^{p-1} = z^{10} = z^0 = 1 \mod 11$.

Exponent tab. mod	Z ₁₁ *										
^	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	2	4	8	5	10	9	7	3	6	1
3	1	3	9	5	4	1	3	9	5	4	1
4	1	4	5	9	3	1	4	5	9	3	1
5	1	5	3	4	9	1	5	3	4	9	1
6	1	6	3	7	9	10	5	8	4	2	1
7	1	7	5	2	3	10	4	6	9	8	1
8	1	8	9	6	4	10	3	2	5	7	1
9	1	9	4	3	5	1	9	4	3	5	1
10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1

Discrete Exponent Function (10/14)

Notice that there are elements satisfying the following different relations, for example:

 $3^5 = 1 \mod 11$ and $3^2 \neq 1 \mod 11$.

The set of such elements forms a subgroup of prime order q = 5 if we add to these elements the *neutral* group element 1.

This subgroup has a great importance in cryptography we denote by

 $G_5 = \{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\}.$

The multiplication table of G_5 elements extracted from multiplication table of Z_{11}^* is presented below.

Multiplication	G5						Exponent	G5					
tab. mod 11						Values of inverse	tab. mod 11						
						elements in G							
*	1	3	4	5	9	ciements in 05	^	0	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	3	4	5	9	$1^{-1} = 1 \mod 11$	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
3	3	9	1	4	5	$3^{-1} = 4 \mod 11$	3	1	3	9	5	4	1
4	4	1	5	9	3	$4^{-1}=3 \mod 11$	4	1	4	5	9	3	1
5	5	4	9	3	1	$5^{-1} = 9 \mod 11$	5	1	5	3	4	9	1
9	9	5	3	1	4	$9^{-1} = 5 \mod 11$	9	1	9	4	3	5	1

Let p-is a l ge strong prime : p~22048 $p = 2 \cdot q + 1$; e, q. if $p = 11 - p = 2 \cdot 5 + 1 - q = 5$ $\begin{aligned} \mathcal{Q}_{\mathcal{M}}^{*} &= \{ 1, 2, 3, \dots, 10 \} ; \quad G_{2} = \{ 1, 10 \} ; \quad G_{5} = \{ 1, 3, 4, 5, 9 \} \\ &\left[\mathcal{Q}_{\mathcal{M}}^{*} \right] &= 10 = 2 5 ; \quad \left| G_{2} \right] = 2 ; \quad \left| G_{5} \right| = 5 ; \end{aligned}$ 0

Urd
$$(G_2) = 2$$
 to $Ord(G_5) = 5$ are prime orders.
T. If cyclic group has prime order, then all its elemets except
neutral element 1 are generators.
Let p is strong prime, i.e. $p = 2 \cdot q + 1$.
Then \mathcal{I}_p^* contains a subgroup G_q where all elements except 1
are generators.
Let $p \sim 2^{2048} \longrightarrow |\mathcal{I}_p^*| = p - 1$
 $|G_q| = p - 1/2 \quad \langle G_q, * \mod p >$

Taking a look at Exponent tables of Z_p^* and Z_q it is seen that the properties of generators are different. 1. The element g in Z_p^* is a generator if and only if $g^2 \neq 1 \mod p$ & $g^q \neq 1 \mod p$. 2. The element γ in Z_p^* is a generator if and only if $\gamma^2 \neq 1 \mod p$ & $\gamma^q = 1 \mod p$.

The generators in both sets can be found by choosing (randomly) a candidate element z in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*} and vrifying Conditions either (1) or (2).

In **Digital Signature Algorithm - DSA** the group Z_q is used instead of Z_p^* , since it significantly increases the security against cryptanalytic attacks due to the fact that all elements (except 1) are generators in Z_q . Group Z_q is also used in other cryptographic methods based on DEF.

Till this place

Discrete Exponent Function (11/14)

Notice that since G_5 is a subgroup of Z_{11}^* the multiplication operations in it are performed **mod** 11. The exponent table shows that all elements $\{3, 4, 5, 9\}$ are the generators in G_5 .

Notice also that for all $\gamma \in \{3, 4, 5, 9\}$ their exponents 0 and 5 yields the same result, i.e.

$$\mathbf{\gamma}^0 = \mathbf{\gamma}^5 = 1 \mod 11.$$

This means that exponents of generators γ are computed **mod** 5.

This property makes the usage of modular groups of prime order q valuable in cryptography since they provide a higher-level security based on the stronger assumptions we will mention later.

Therefore, in many cases instead the group Z_p^* defined by the prime (not necessarily strong prime) number p the subgroup of prime order G_q in Z_p^* is used.

In this case if p is strong prime, then generator γ in G_q can be found by random search satisfying the following conditions

 $\gamma^q = 1 \mod p$ and $\gamma^2 \neq 1 \mod p$.

Analogously in this generalized case this means that exponents of generators γ are computed **mod** q. In our modeling we will use group \mathbb{Z}_p^* instead of G_q for simplicity.

Discrete Exponent Function (12/14)

Let as above p=11 and is strong prime and generator we choose g = 7 from the set $\Gamma = \{2, 6, 7, 8\}$. Public Parameters are **PP**=(**11**,**7**), Then **DEF**_g(x) = **DEF**₇(x) is defined in the following way:

	$\mathbf{DEF}_7(\mathbf{x}) = 7^{\mathbf{x}} \mod 11 = \mathbf{a};$																							
DEF	DEF ₇ (\boldsymbol{x}) provides the following 1-to-1 mapping, displayed in the table below.																							
	x 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14																							
	$7^x \mod p = a$	1	7	5	2	3	10	4	6	9	8	1	7	5	2	3								
You	You can see that <i>a</i> values are repeating when $x = 10, 11, 12, 13, 14$, etc. since exponents are reduced mod																							
10 di	ue to Ferma	ıt littl	e theo	orem.																				
The	illustration	why '	7^x mo	od <i>p</i> \	alues	s are i	repeat	ing v	vhen	<i>x</i> =	10, 1	1, 12,	13, 1	4, etc	. is p	resen	ite	d	in					
com	putations be	elow:																						
10 m	nod $10 = 0;$	710 :	= 70 =	=	1 mo	d 11	= 1.																	
11 m	$11 \mod 10 = 1; \ 711 = 71 = 7 \mod 11 = 7.$																							
12 m	$12 \mod 10 = 2; \ 712 = 72 = 49 \mod 11 = 5.$																							
13 m	nod $10 = 3;$	713 :	= 73 =	= 34	3 mo	d 11	= 2.																	
14 m	nod $10 = 4;$	714 :	= 74 =	= 240)1 mo	d 11	= 3.																	

etc.

Discrete Exponent Function (13/14)

For illustration of 1-to-1 mapping of $\mathbf{DEF}_7(\mathbf{x})$ we perform the following step-by-step computations.

	<u>x</u> ∈2	210	$a \in Z_{11}^*$
$7^0 = 1 \mod 11$	0	\mathbf{X}	1
$7^1 = 7 \mod 11$	1		2
$7^2 = 5 \mod 11$	2		3
$7^3 = 2 \mod 11$	3	\mathbf{X}	4
$7^4 = 3 \mod 11$	4	\sim	5
$7^5 = 10 \mod 11$	5		6
$7^6 = 4 \mod 11$	6		7
$7^7 = 6 \mod{11}$	7		8
$7^8 = 9 \mod 11$	8		9
$7^9 = 8 \mod{11}$	9		10

It is seen that one value of x is mapped to one value of a.