

Advanced Cryptography

(Provable Security)

Yi LIU

“Real-vs-Random” Style of Security Definition

Consider: the attacker is a calling program to the following subroutines.

ctxt($m \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M}$):

$k \leftarrow \Sigma. \text{KeyGen}$

$c := \Sigma. \text{Enc}(k, m)$

return c

Vs.

ctxt($m \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M}$):

$c \leftarrow \Sigma. \mathcal{C}$

return c

No calling program should have any way of **determining which** of these two implementations is **answering subroutine calls**.

*“an encryption scheme is a **good** one if, when you **plug** its KeyGen and Enc algorithms into the template of the **ctxt** subroutine above, the two implementations of **ctxt** **induce identical behavior in every calling program**.”*

“Real-vs-Random” Style of Security Definition

- One-time pad satisfies the new security property

ctxt(m):

$k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$

$c := k \oplus m$

return c

Vs.

ctxt(m):

$c \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$

return c

“Left-vs-Right” Style of Security Definition

An intuitive idea

*“an encryption scheme is a good one if encryptions of m_L look like encryptions of m_R to an attacker when each key is *secret* and used to encrypt *only one* plaintext, *even when the attacker chooses m_L and m_R .*”*

How to express these details?

Consider: the attacker is a calling program to the following subroutine.

eavesdrop($m_L, m_R \in \Sigma.\mathcal{M}$):

$k \leftarrow \Sigma.\text{KeyGen}$

$c := \Sigma.\text{Enc}(k, m_L)$

return c

Vs.

eavesdrop($m_L, m_R \in \Sigma.\mathcal{M}$):

$k \leftarrow \Sigma.\text{KeyGen}$

$c := \Sigma.\text{Enc}(k, m_R)$

return c

“Left-vs-Right” Style of Security Definition

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 $k \leftarrow \Sigma. \text{KeyGen}$
 $c := \Sigma. \text{Enc}(k, m_R)$
 return c

No calling program should have any way of **determining which** of these two implementations is **answering subroutine calls**.

*“an encryption scheme is a **good** one if, when you **plug** its KeyGen and Enc algorithms into the template of the **eavesdrop** subroutine above, the two implementations of **eavesdrop** induce identical behavior in every calling program.”*

“Left-vs-Right” Style of Security Definition

- One-time pad satisfies the new security property

eavesdrop(m_L, m_R):

$k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$

$c := k \oplus m_L$

return c

Vs.

eavesdrop(m_L, m_R):

$k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$

$c := k \oplus m_R$

return c

Two Styles

real-vs-random paradigm and *left-vs-right* paradigm

Q: Is one “correct” and the other one “incorrect?”

Discuss later.

Formalisms for Security Definitions

- We've defined security in terms of a **single, self-contained subroutine**, and imagined the **attacker as a program** that **calls this subroutine**.
- We will need to generalize beyond a single subroutine, to **a collection of subroutines** that share **common (private) state information**.

Formalisms for Security Definitions

Definition (Libraries)

- A library \mathcal{L} is a **collection** of subroutines and **private/static variables**.
- A library's **interface** consists of the names, argument types, and output type of all of its subroutines.
- If a program \mathcal{A} includes calls to subroutines in the interface of \mathcal{L} , then we write $\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}$ to denote the result of linking \mathcal{A} to \mathcal{L} in the natural way (answering those subroutine calls using the implementation specified in \mathcal{L}).
- We write $\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow z$ to denote the event that program $\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}$ outputs the value z .

Formalisms for Security Definitions

Example

- A library \mathcal{L}
- A calling program \mathcal{A}

\mathcal{A}
$m \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ $c := \mathbf{ctxt}(m)$ return $m =_? c$

\mathcal{L}
ctxt (m): $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ $c := k \oplus m$ return c

We have $\Pr[\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow \text{true}] = 1/2^\lambda$.

Formalisms for Security Definitions

Example

- A library \mathcal{L}
 - Code **outside** of a subroutine (e.g., the first line) is **run once at the initialization time**.
 - Variables defined at initiation time (like s here) are **available in all subroutine scopes** (but **not to the calling program**).

\mathcal{L}
$s \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ reset() : $s \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ guess ($x \in \{0,1\}^\lambda$): return $x =_? s$

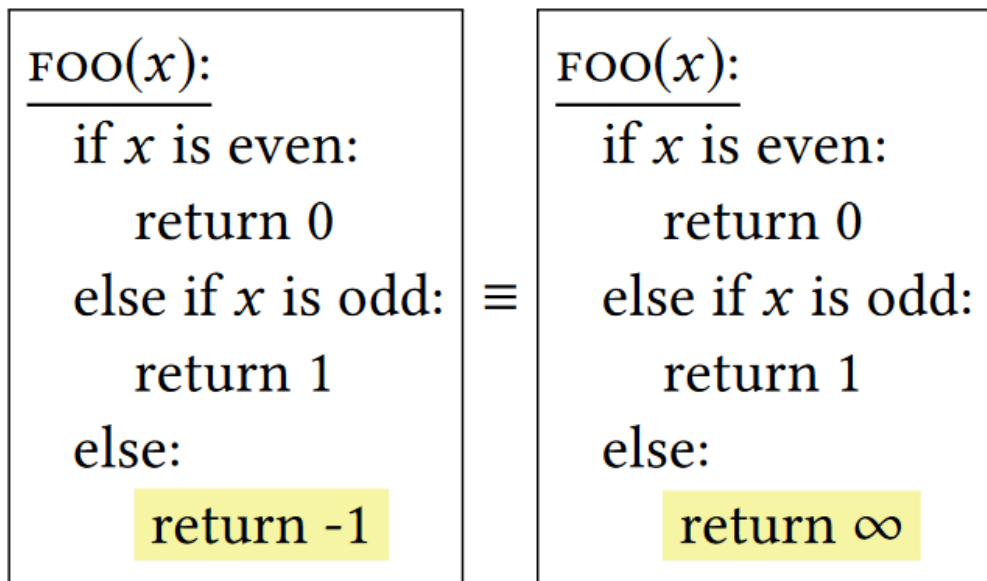
Interchangeability

Definition Let \mathcal{L}_{left} and \mathcal{L}_{right} be two libraries that have the same interface. We say that \mathcal{L}_{left} and \mathcal{L}_{right} are **interchangeable**, and write $\mathcal{L}_{left} \equiv \mathcal{L}_{right}$, if for **all programs** \mathcal{A} that output a Boolean value,

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}_{left} \Rightarrow true] = \Pr[\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}_{right} \Rightarrow true]$$

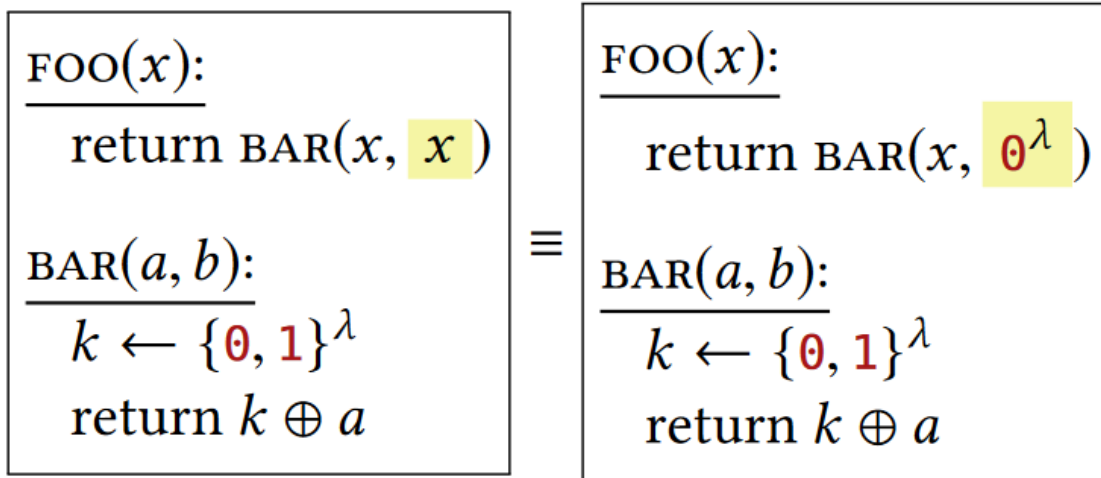
- We often refer to the calling program as a **distinguisher**.
- A Boolean output is enough for that task. Think of the output bit as the calling program's “**guess**” for which library the calling program thinks it is linked to.
- The distinction between “calling program **outputs true**” and “calling program **outputs false**” is **not significant**.

Interchangeability - Example



Their only difference happens in an unreachable block of code.

Interchangeability - Example



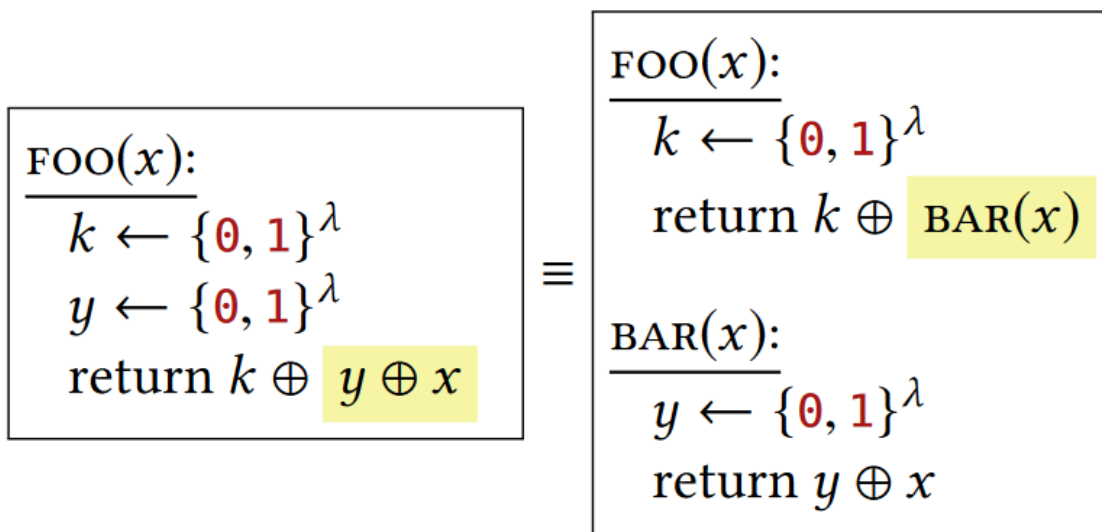
Their only difference is the value they assign to a variable that is never actually used.

Interchangeability - Example

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{c} \text{FOO}(x, n): \\ \hline \text{for } i = 1 \text{ to } \lambda: \\ \quad \text{BAR}(x, i) \end{array}} \equiv \boxed{\begin{array}{c} \text{FOO}(x, n): \\ \hline \text{for } i = 1 \text{ to } n: \\ \quad \text{BAR}(x, i) \\ \text{for } i = n + 1 \text{ to } \lambda: \\ \quad \text{BAR}(x, i) \end{array}}$$

Their only difference is that one library unrolls a loop that occurs in the other library.

Interchangeability - Example



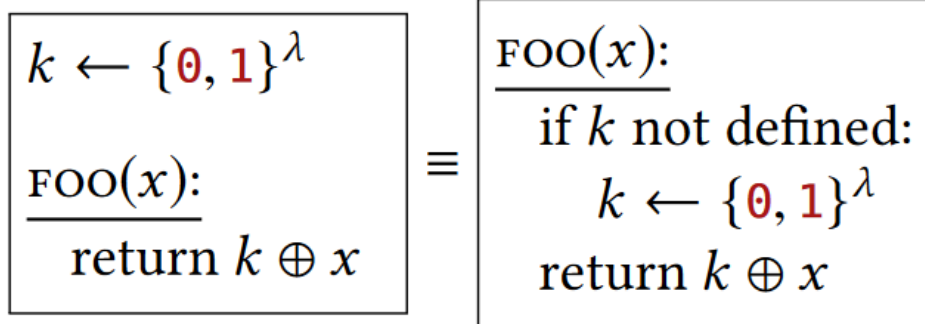
Their only difference is that one library inlines a subroutine call that occurs in the other library.

Interchangeability - Example

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} \text{FOO():} \\ \hline x \leftarrow \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}\}^\lambda \\ y \leftarrow \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}\}^\lambda \\ \text{return } x \parallel y \end{array}} \equiv \boxed{\begin{array}{l} \text{FOO():} \\ \hline z \leftarrow \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}\}^{2\lambda} \\ \text{return } z \end{array}}$$

The uniform distribution over strings acts independently on different characters in the string (“ \parallel ” refers to concatenation).

Interchangeability - Example



Sampling a value “eagerly” (as soon as possible) vs. sampling a value “lazily” (at the last possible moment before the value is needed). We assume that k is static/global across many calls to FOO , and initially undefined.

Formal Restatements of Previous Concepts

- “real-vs-random” style
 - **Definition** An encryption scheme Σ has **one-time uniform ciphertexts** if:

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots}\$-\text{real}}^\Sigma$		$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots}\$-\text{rand}}^\Sigma$
ctxt ($m \in \Sigma.\mathcal{M}$): $k \leftarrow \Sigma.\text{KeyGen}$ $c := \Sigma.\text{Enc}(k, m)$ return c	\equiv	ctxt ($m \in \Sigma.\mathcal{M}$): $c \leftarrow \Sigma.\mathcal{C}$ return c

Formal Restatements of Previous Concepts

- “left-vs-right” style
 - **Definition** An encryption scheme Σ has **one-time secrecy** if:

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-L}}^{\Sigma}$		$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-R}}^{\Sigma}$
eavesdrop ($m_L, m_R \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M}$): $k \leftarrow \Sigma. \text{KeyGen}$ $c := \Sigma. \text{Enc}(k, m_L)$ return c	\equiv	eavesdrop ($m_L, m_R \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M}$): $k \leftarrow \Sigma. \text{KeyGen}$ $c := \Sigma. \text{Enc}(k, m_R)$ return c

Formal Restatements of One-Time Pad

- “real-vs-random” style
 - **Claim** One-time pad satisfies the one-time uniform ciphertexts property. In other words:

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{otp-real}}$	\equiv	$\mathcal{L}_{\text{otp-rand}}$
$\text{ctxt}(m \in \{0,1\}^\lambda):$ $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ return $k \oplus m$		$\text{ctxt}(m \in \{0,1\}^\lambda):$ $c \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ return c

- Also satisfies the one-time secrecy property (“left-vs-right” style)

Kerckhoffs' Principle, Revisited

- The definition of **interchangeability** considers literally every calling program, so it must also consider calling programs like yours that “**know**” what algorithms are being used.
- Assume that the attacker knows every fact in the universe, **except for**:
 1. **which** of the two possible libraries it is linked to in any particular execution
 2. the **random choices** that the library will make during any particular execution (which are usually assigned to privately scoped variables within the library).

How to Demonstrate Insecurity with Attacks

- If the two libraries that you get (after calling in the specifics of a particular scheme) are **interchangeable**, then we say that the scheme **satisfies the security property**.
- If we want to show that some scheme is insecure, we have to demonstrate **just one calling program** that **behaves differently** in the presence of those two libraries.

Demonstrate Insecurity with Attacks

Insecure construction

- KeyGen: return $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$
- Enc(k, m): return k & m
- Cannot satisfy the correctness...**But** pretend we haven't noticed that yet.

Claim This construction **does not** have one-time uniform ciphertexts.

Demonstrate Insecurity with Attacks

Insecure construction

- KeyGen: return $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$
- Enc(k, m): return k & m

Claim This construction **does not** have one-time uniform ciphertexts.

Proof

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-real}}^\Sigma$
ctxt ($m \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M}$): $k \leftarrow \Sigma. \text{KeyGen}$ $c := \Sigma. \text{Enc}(k, m)$ return c

 \equiv

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ctxt ($m \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M}$): $c \leftarrow \Sigma. \mathcal{C}$ return c

Demonstrate Insecurity with Attacks

Insecure construction

- KeyGen: return $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$
- Enc(k, m): return $k \& m$

Claim This construction **does not** have one-time uniform ciphertexts.

Proof

\mathcal{A}
$c := \text{ctxt}(0^\lambda)$ return $c \stackrel{?}{=} 0^\lambda$

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots}\$-\text{real}}^\Sigma$
$\text{ctxt}(m \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M})$: $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ $c := k \& m$ return c

$\equiv?$

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots}\$-\text{rand}}^\Sigma$
$\text{ctxt}(m \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M})$: $c \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ return c

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$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots}\$-real}^\Sigma$
ctxt ($m \in \Sigma.\mathcal{M}$): $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ $c := k\&m$ return c

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}_{\text{ots}\$-real}^\Sigma \Rightarrow \text{true}] = 1$$

Demonstrate Insecurity with Attacks

Insecure construction

- KeyGen: return $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$
- Enc(k, m): return $k \ \& \ m$

Claim This construction **does not** have one-time uniform ciphertexts.

Proof

<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px; text-align: center;"> \mathcal{A} </div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px;"> $c := \mathbf{ctxt}(0^\lambda)$ return $c \stackrel{?}{=} 0^\lambda$ </div>	\diamond	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 10px;"> <div style="background-color: #f0f0f0; padding: 5px; text-align: center; color: red;"> $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\\$-rand}}^\Sigma$ </div> <div style="padding: 10px;"> $\mathbf{ctxt}(m \in \Sigma.\mathcal{M})$: $c \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ return c </div> </div>	$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-real}}^\Sigma \Rightarrow \text{true}] = 1$
			$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-rand}}^\Sigma \Rightarrow \text{true}] = 1/2^\lambda$

Since these two probabilities are different, this shows that $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-real}}^\Sigma \not\equiv \mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-rand}}^\Sigma$.
In other words, the scheme **does not** satisfy this uniform ciphertexts property.

Demonstrate Insecurity with Attacks

Insecure construction

- KeyGen: return $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$
- Enc(k, m): return k & m

Claim This construction **does not** satisfy one-time secrecy.

Proof

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-L}}^\Sigma$	\equiv	$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-R}}^\Sigma$
eavesdrop ($m_L, m_R \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M}$): $k \leftarrow \Sigma. \text{KeyGen}$ $c := \Sigma. \text{Enc}(k, m_L)$ return c		eavesdrop ($m_L, m_R \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M}$): $k \leftarrow \Sigma. \text{KeyGen}$ $c := \Sigma. \text{Enc}(k, m_R)$ return c

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Claim This construction **does not** satisfy one-time secrecy.

Proof

\mathcal{A}
$c := \mathbf{eavesdrop}(0^\lambda, 1^\lambda)$ return $c =_? 0^\lambda$

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-L}}^\Sigma$	\equiv	$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-R}}^\Sigma$
eavesdrop (m_L, m_R): $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ $c := k \ \& \ m_L$ return c		eavesdrop (m_L, m_R): $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ $c := k \ \& \ m_R$ return c

Demonstrate Insecurity with Attacks

Insecure construction

- KeyGen: return $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$
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Proof

\mathcal{A}
$c := \text{eavesdrop}(0^\lambda, 1^\lambda)$ return $c =_? 0^\lambda$

\diamond

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-L}}^\Sigma$
eavesdrop (m_L, m_R): $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ $c := k \& m_L$ return c

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-L}}^\Sigma \Rightarrow \text{true}] = 1$$

Demonstrate Insecurity with Attacks

Insecure construction

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Since these two probabilities are different, this shows that $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-L}}^\Sigma \not\equiv \mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-R}}^\Sigma$. In other words, the scheme **does not** have one-time secrecy.

How to Prove Security with The Hybrid Technique

- Chaining several components
 - $\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}_1 \diamond \mathcal{L}_2$, \mathcal{L}_1 can make calls to subroutines in \mathcal{L}_2 , **but not vice-versa**.
- We can interpret $\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}_1 \diamond \mathcal{L}_2$ as:
 - $(\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}_1) \diamond \mathcal{L}_2$: **compound calling program** linked to \mathcal{L}_2 .
 - $\mathcal{A} \diamond (\mathcal{L}_1 \diamond \mathcal{L}_2)$: \mathcal{A} linked to **compound library**.

How to Prove Security with The Hybrid Technique

- **Lemma** if $\mathcal{L}_{left} \equiv \mathcal{L}_{right}$, then for any library \mathcal{L}^* , we have $\mathcal{L}^* \diamond \mathcal{L}_{left} \equiv \mathcal{L}^* \diamond \mathcal{L}_{right}$.

Proof

Let \mathcal{A} be an **arbitrary** calling program. We must show $\mathcal{A} \diamond (\mathcal{L}^* \diamond \mathcal{L}_{left})$ and $\mathcal{A} \diamond (\mathcal{L}^* \diamond \mathcal{L}_{right})$ have identical output distributions.

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\mathcal{A} \diamond (\mathcal{L}^* \diamond \mathcal{L}_{left}) \Rightarrow true] &= \Pr[(\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}^*) \diamond \mathcal{L}_{left} \Rightarrow true] \\ &= \Pr[(\mathcal{A} \diamond \mathcal{L}^*) \diamond \mathcal{L}_{right} \Rightarrow true] = \Pr[\mathcal{A} \diamond (\mathcal{L}^* \diamond \mathcal{L}_{right}) \Rightarrow true] \end{aligned}$$

An Example of Hybrid Proof

- Double OTP
 - KeyGen: $k_1 \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda, k_2 \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$, return (k_1, k_2) .
 - Enc($(k_1, k_2), m$): $c_1 := k_1 \oplus m, c_2 := k_2 \oplus c_1$, return c_2 .
 - Dec($(k_1, k_2), c$): $c_1 := k_2 \oplus c, m := k_1 \oplus c_1$, return m .

Claim The construction of Double OTP has one-time uniform ciphertexts.

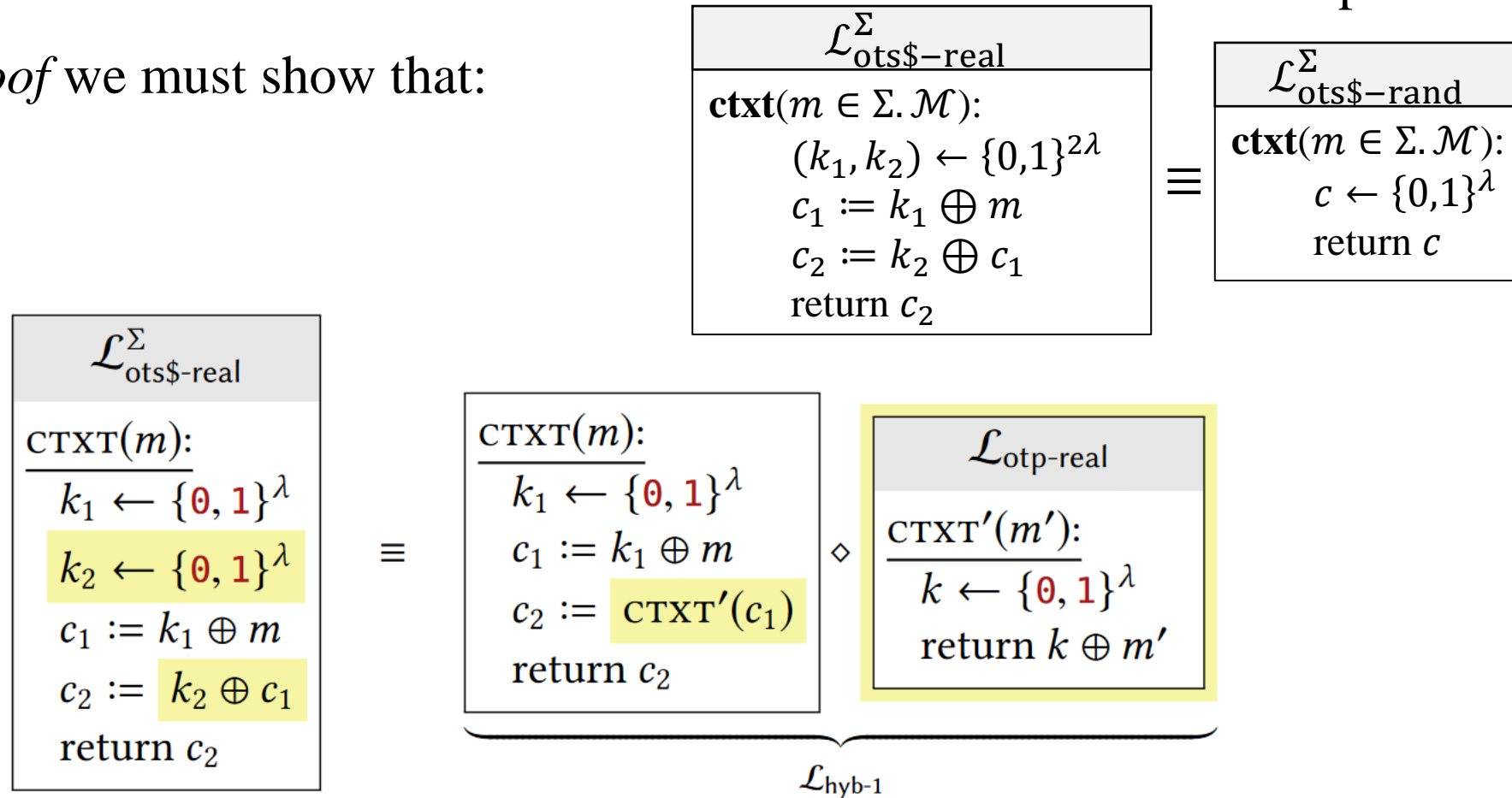
Proof we must show that:

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-real}}^\Sigma$		$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-rand}}^\Sigma$
ctxt ($m \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M}$): $(k_1, k_2) \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{2\lambda}$ $c_1 := k_1 \oplus m$ $c_2 := k_2 \oplus c_1$ return c_2	\equiv	ctxt ($m \in \Sigma. \mathcal{M}$): $c \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$ return c

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$$\underbrace{\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \text{CTXT}(m): \\ \quad k_1 \leftarrow \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}\}^\lambda \\ \quad c_1 := k_1 \oplus m \\ \quad c_2 := \text{CTXT}'(c_1) \\ \quad \text{return } c_2 \\ \hline \end{array} \diamond \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \mathcal{L}_{\text{otp-real}} \\ \hline \text{CTXT}'(m'): \\ \quad k \leftarrow \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}\}^\lambda \\ \quad \text{return } k \oplus m' \\ \hline \end{array}}_{\mathcal{L}_{\text{hyb-1}}} \equiv \underbrace{\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \text{CTXT}(m): \\ \quad k_1 \leftarrow \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}\}^\lambda \\ \quad c_1 := k_1 \oplus m \\ \quad c_2 := \text{CTXT}'(c_1) \\ \quad \text{return } c_2 \\ \hline \end{array} \diamond \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \mathcal{L}_{\text{otp-rand}} \\ \hline \text{CTXT}'(m'): \\ \quad c \leftarrow \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}\}^\lambda \\ \quad \text{return } c \\ \hline \end{array}}_{\mathcal{L}_{\text{hyb-2}}}$$

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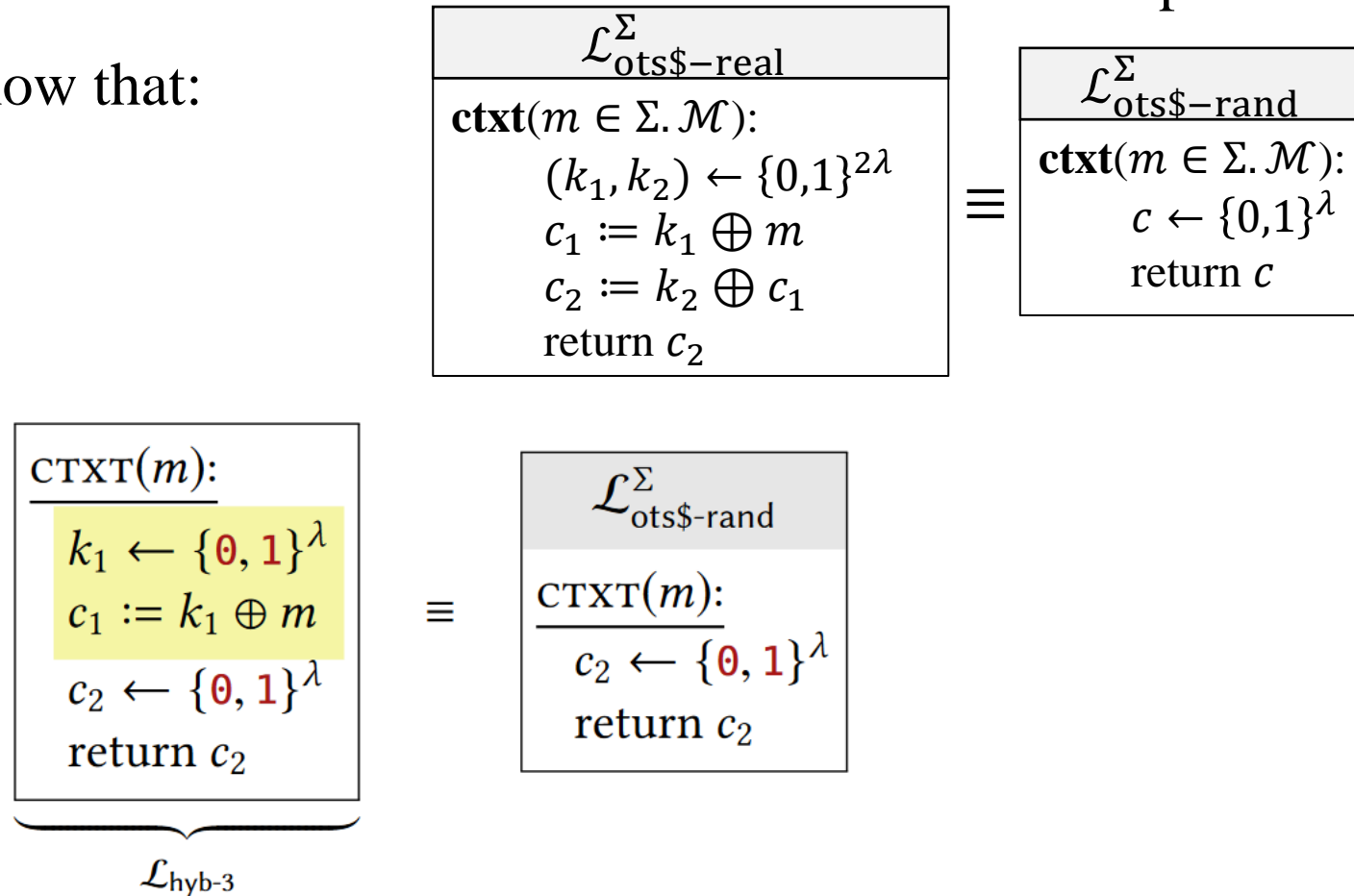
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An Example of Hybrid Proof

Claim The construction of Double OTP has one-time uniform ciphertexts.

Proof we must show that:



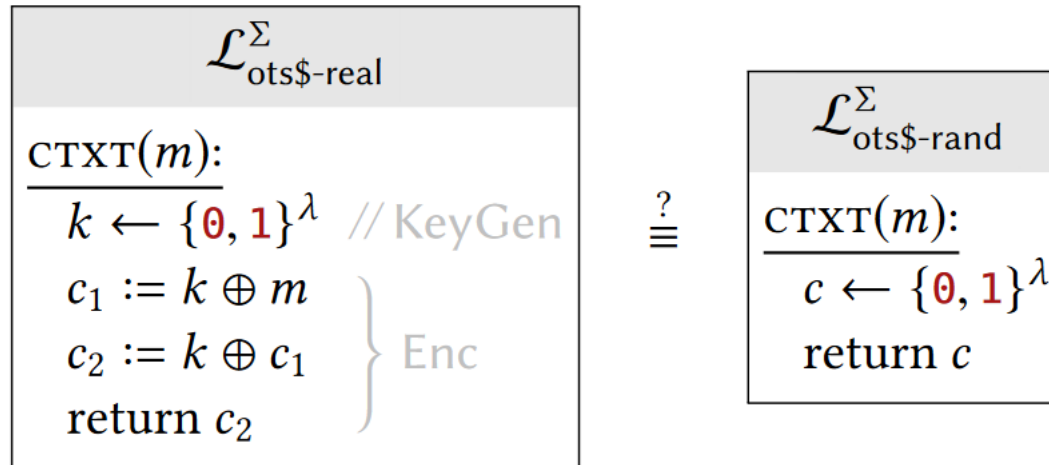
Summary of the Hybrid Technique

- Proving security means showing that **two particular libraries**, say \mathcal{L}_{left} and \mathcal{L}_{right} , are **interchangeable**.
- Often \mathcal{L}_{left} and \mathcal{L}_{right} are significantly different, The idea is to **break up the large “gap”** between \mathcal{L}_{left} and \mathcal{L}_{right} into **smaller ones that are easier to justify**.
- We must justify **why each modification doesn’t affect the calling program** (i.e., why the two libraries before/after the modification are interchangeable).

Another Construction

- KeyGen: $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$, return k .
- Enc($(k), m$): $c_1 := k \oplus m$, $c_2 := k \oplus c_1$, return c_2 .
- Dec($(k), c$): $c_1 := k \oplus c_2$, $m := k \oplus c_1$, return m .

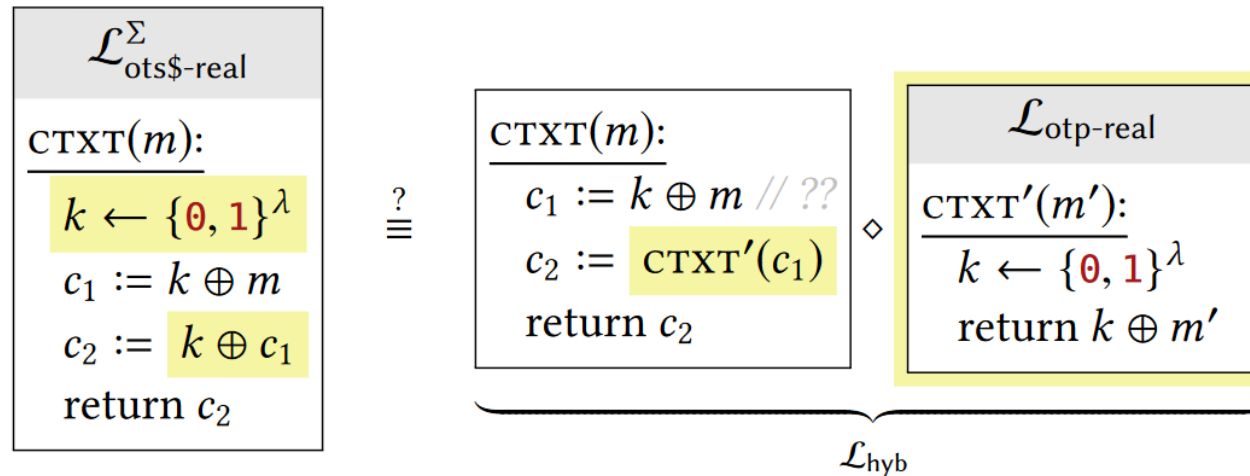
Let's try to repeat the steps of our previous security proof on this (insecure) scheme and see where things break down.



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$\mathcal{L}_{\text{otp-real}}$ only gives us a way to **use k in one xor expression**, whereas we need to use the **same k** in **two xor expressions** to match the behavior of $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-real}}$. **Failed!**

How to Compare/Contrast Security Definitions

- A definition can't really be “wrong,” but it can be “not as useful as you hoped” or it can “fail to adequately capture your intuition”.
- One way to compare/contrast two security definitions is to prove that one implies the other.
 - if an encryption scheme satisfies definition #1, then it also satisfies definition #2.

One Security Definition Implies Another

Theorem If an encryption scheme Σ has **one-time uniform ciphertexts**, then Σ also has **one-time secrecy**. In other words:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-real}}^{\Sigma} \equiv \mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-rand}}^{\Sigma} \implies \mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-L}}^{\Sigma} \equiv \mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-R}}^{\Sigma}$$

Proof

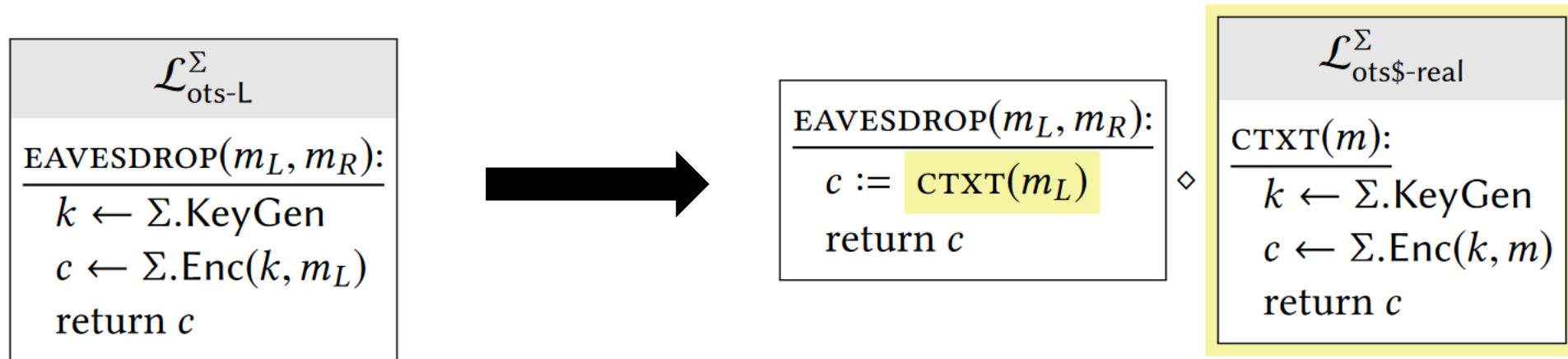
- We will start with the library $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-L}}^{\Sigma}$, and make a small sequence of justifiable changes to it, until finally reaching $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-R}}^{\Sigma}$.
- Along the way, we can use the fact that $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-real}}^{\Sigma} \equiv \mathcal{L}_{\text{ots\$-rand}}^{\Sigma}$.

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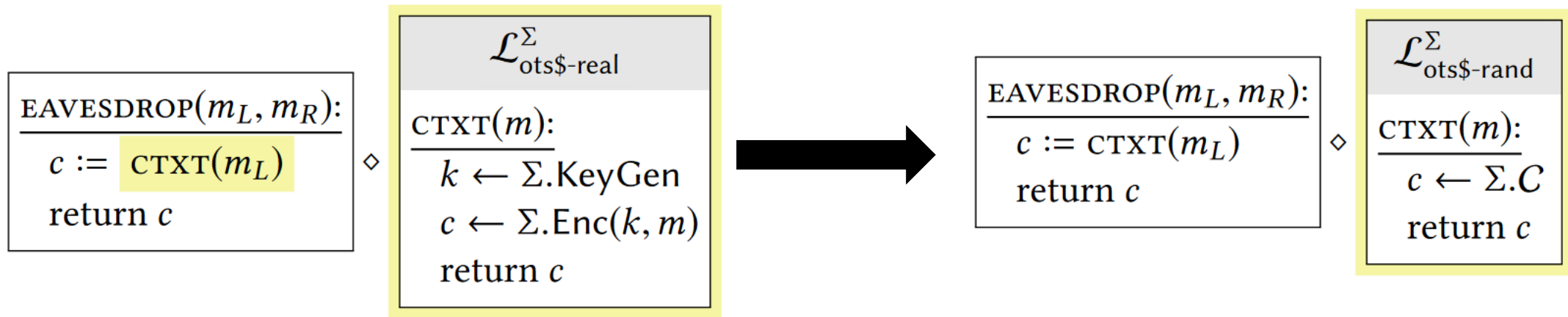


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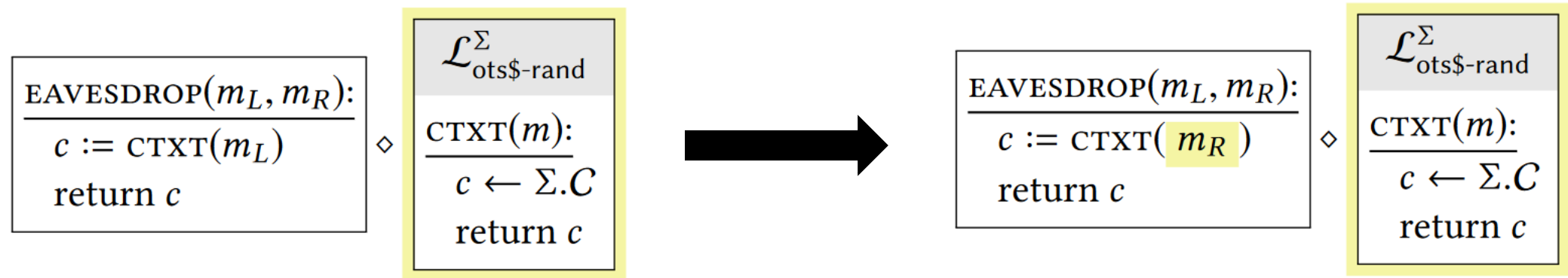


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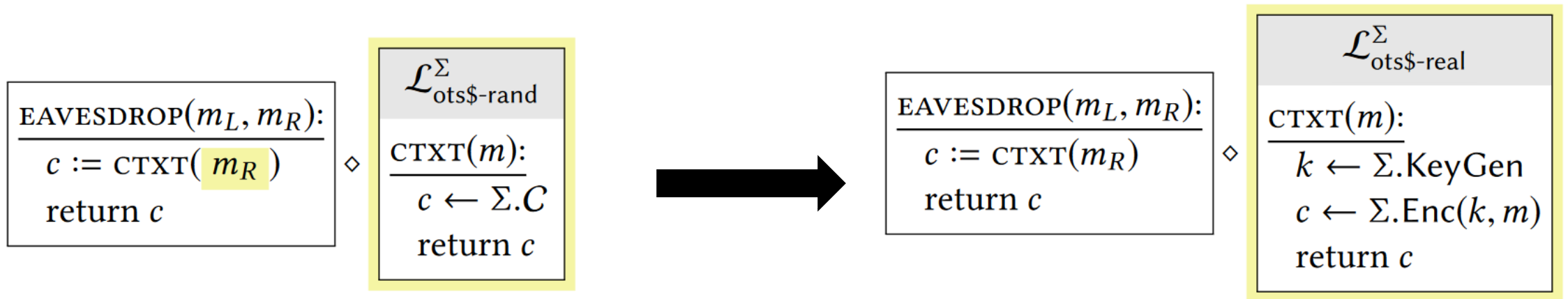
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Perform the **same** sequence of steps, but **in reverse**.



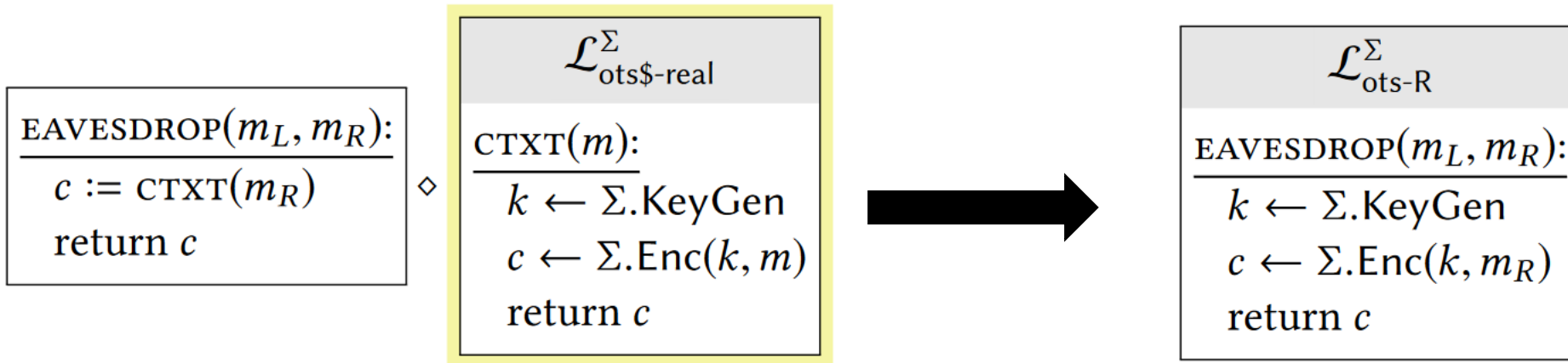
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One Security Definition Doesn't Imply Another

- If we have two security definitions that both capture our intuitions rather well, then any scheme which satisfies one definition and not the other is bound to appear **unnatural** and **contrived**.
- The point is to **gain more understanding of the security definitions themselves**, and unnatural/contrived schemes are just a means to do that.

One Security Definition Doesn't Imply Another

Theorem There is an encryption scheme that satisfies one-time secrecy **but not** one-time uniform ciphertexts. In other words, **one-time secrecy does not necessarily imply one-time uniform ciphertexts**.

Proof

KeyGen: return $k \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\lambda$.

Enc($k, m \in \{0,1\}^\lambda$): $c' := k \oplus m$, $c := c' || 00$, return c .

Dec($k, c \in \{0,1\}^{\lambda+2}$): $c' :=$ first λ bits of c , return $k \oplus c'$.

One Security Definition Doesn't Imply Another

Theorem There is an encryption scheme that satisfies one-time secrecy **but not** one-time uniform ciphertexts.

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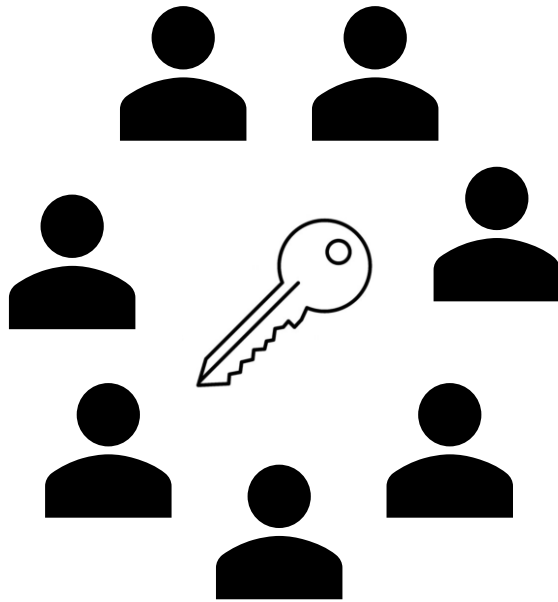
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- This scheme satisfies **one-time secrecy**. Encryptions of m_L are distributed **identically** to encryptions of m_R for all (m_L, m_R) .
- This scheme **does not** satisfy the **one-time uniform ciphertexts** property.
 - Its ciphertexts **always** end with 00, whereas **uniform strings end with 00 with probability 1/4**.
- This can be fixed by redefining the ciphertext space as \mathcal{C} as the set of $\lambda + 2$ -bit strings whose last two bits are 00.

Secret Sharing

Applications



Secret-Sharing Scheme

Definition A t -out-of- n **threshold secret-sharing scheme** (TSSS) consists of the following algorithms:

- Share: a **randomized** algorithm that takes a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ as input, and outputs a sequence $s = (s_1, \dots, s_n)$ of **shares**.
 - Reconstruct: a **deterministic** algorithm that takes a collection of **t or more** shares as input, and outputs a message.
-
- \mathcal{M} is the **message space**, t is the **threshold**.

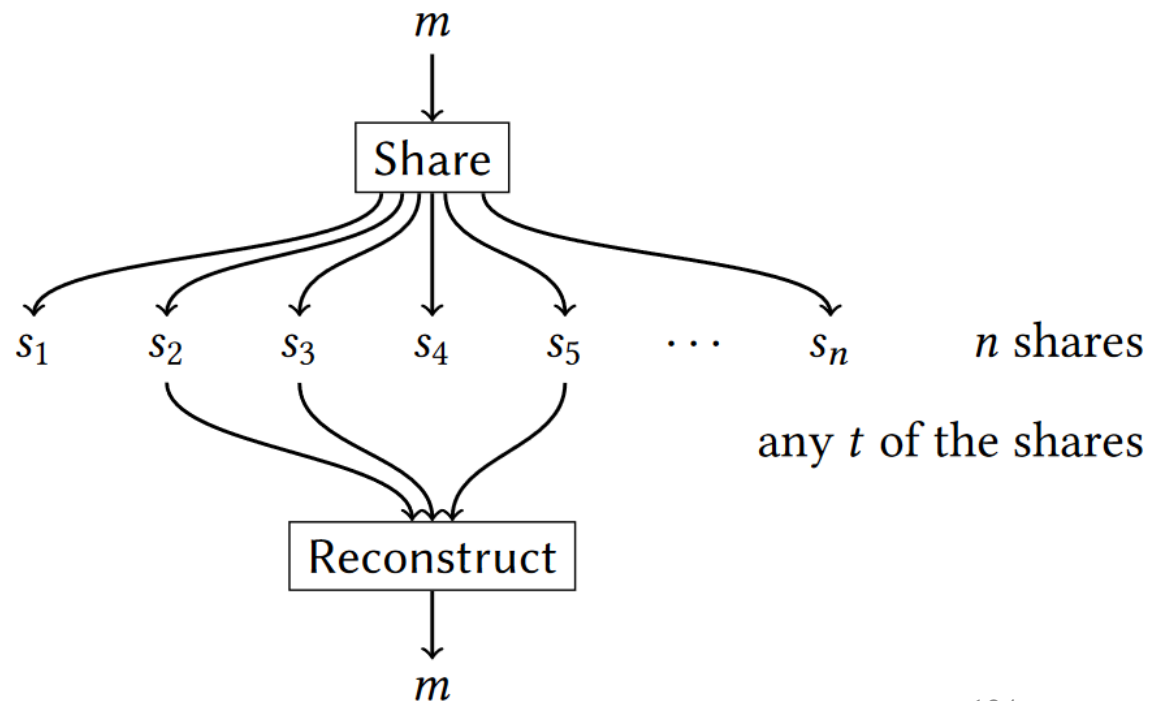
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- Reconstruct: a **deterministic** algorithm that takes a collection of **t or more** shares as input, and outputs a message.
- Let $U \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ be a subset of users. If $|U| \geq t$, we say that U is **authorized**; otherwise it is **unauthorized**.
- The goal of secret sharing is for **all authorized** sets of users/shares to be able to **reconstruct the secret**, while **all unauthorized** sets **learn nothing**.

Secret-Sharing Scheme - Correctness

Definition A t -out-of- n TSSS satisfies **correctness** if, for **all authorized** sets $U \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$ (i.e., $|U| > t$) and for all $s \leftarrow \text{Share}(m)$, we have $\text{Reconstruct}(\{s_i \mid i \in U\}) = m$.



Security Definition

- Intuition

if you know only an unauthorized set of shares, then you learn no information about the choice of secret message.

- Define **two** libraries that allow the calling program to learn a set of shares (for an **unauthorized** set), and that **differ only in which secret is shared**.

Security Definition

- Let Σ be a threshold secret-sharing scheme. We say that Σ is secure if $\mathcal{L}_{\text{tsss-L}}^\Sigma \equiv \mathcal{L}_{\text{tsss-R}}^\Sigma$, where $U \in \{1, \dots, \Sigma.n\}$ and:

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{tsss-L}}^\Sigma$
share ($m_L, m_R \in \Sigma.\mathcal{M}, U$): If $ U \geq \Sigma.t$: return err $s \leftarrow \Sigma.\text{Share}(m_L)$ return $\{s_i \mid i \in U\}$

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{tsss-R}}^\Sigma$
share ($m_L, m_R \in \Sigma.\mathcal{M}, U$): If $ U \geq \Sigma.t$: return err $s \leftarrow \Sigma.\text{Share}(m_R)$ return $\{s_i \mid i \in U\}$

- Return **err** means we want security that the attackers see only unauthorized set of shares.

More About Secret Sharing

- Two **independent** executions of the Share algorithm
 - Share algorithm generated by one call to Share should not be expected to function with shares generated by another call, **even if both calls to Share used the same secret message.**

An Construction

- $\mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^{500}$, $t = 5$, $n = 5$
 - i.e., we want to split a secret into 5 pieces so that any 4 of the pieces leak nothing
- $\text{Share}(m)$: split m into $m = s_1 || \cdots || s_5$, where $|s_i| = 100$, return (s_1, \dots, s_5) .
- $\text{Reconstruct}(s_1, \dots, s_5)$: return $s_1 || \cdots || s_5$.
- This construction satisfies the correctness property.
- But this construction is insecure.

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- But this construction is **insecure**.

\mathcal{A}
$s_1 := \text{SHARE}(\mathbf{0}^{500}, \mathbf{1}^{500}, \{1\})$ return $s_1 \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{0}^{100}$

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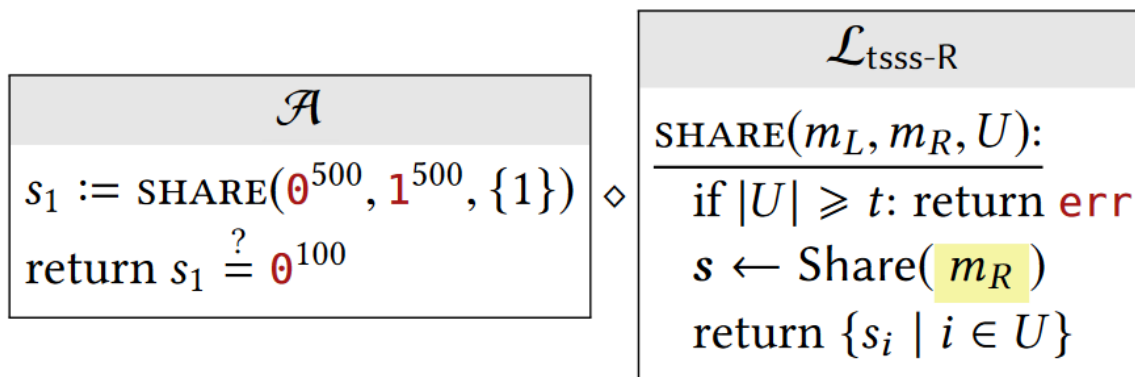
\mathcal{A}
$s_1 := \text{SHARE}(\mathbf{0}^{500}, \mathbf{1}^{500}, \{1\})$ $\text{return } s_1 \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{0}^{100}$

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{tsss-L}}$
$\text{SHARE}(m_L, m_R, U):$ $\text{if } U \geq t: \text{return } \text{err}$ $s \leftarrow \text{Share}(m_L)$ $\text{return } \{s_i \mid i \in U\}$

\mathcal{A} outputs 1 with probability 1 for $\mathcal{L}_{\text{tsss-L}}$.

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- $\mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^{500}$, $t = 5$, $n = 5$
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\mathcal{A} outputs 1 with probability 1 for $\mathcal{L}_{\text{tsss-L}}$.

\mathcal{A} outputs 1 with probability 0 for $\mathcal{L}_{\text{tsss-R}}$.

A Simple 2-out-of-2 Scheme

- $\mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^\ell$, $t = 2$, $n = 2$
- $\text{Share}(m)$: $s_1 \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\ell$, $s_2 := s_1 \oplus m$, return (s_1, s_2) .
- $\text{Reconstruct}(s_1, s_2)$: return $s_1 \oplus s_2$.

Theorem This construction is a **secure 2-out-of-2** threshold secret-sharing scheme.

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Proof

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{tsss-L}}^\Sigma$
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Because s_2 is never used in this branch.

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◇

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 $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ots-L}}^{\text{OTP}}$   
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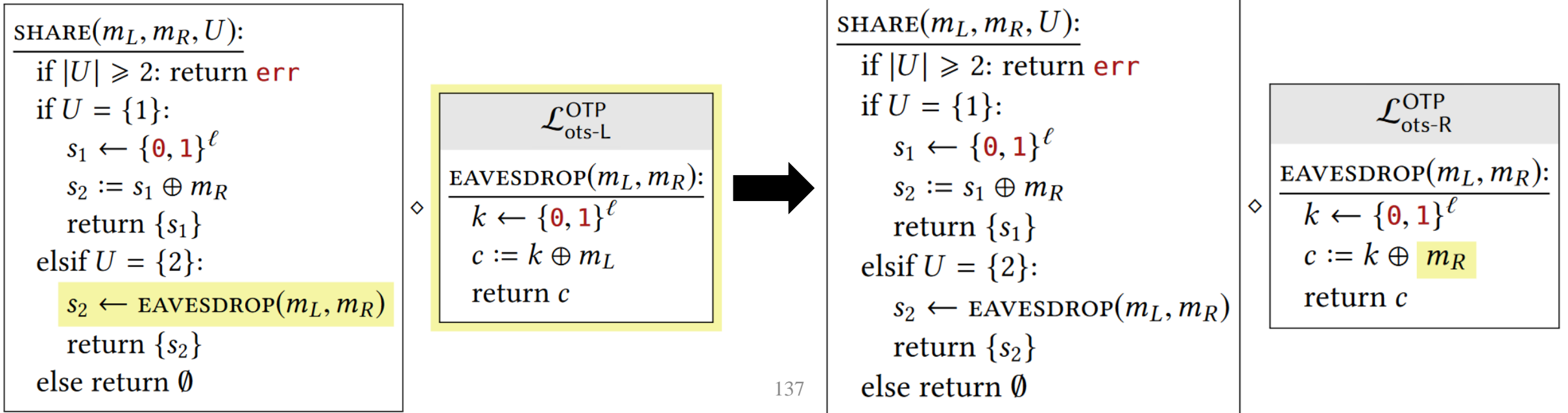
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```
 $\mathcal{L}_{\text{tsss-R}}^\Sigma$   
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   $s_1 \leftarrow \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}\}^\ell$   
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  return  $\{s_i \mid i \in U\}$ 
```


Rewrite the Construction

- $\mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^\ell$, $t = 2$, $n = 2$
- $\text{Share}(m)$: $s_1 \leftarrow \Sigma.\text{KeyGen}$, $s_2 := \Sigma.\text{Enc}(s_1, m)$, return (s_1, s_2) .
- $\text{Reconstruct}(s_1, s_2)$: return $\Sigma.\text{Dec}(s_1, s_2)$.

Theorem If Σ is an encryption scheme with **one-time secrecy**, then this **2-out-of-2** threshold secret-sharing scheme is **secure**.

Polynomial Interpolation

- Two points determine a line.
- Three points determine a parabola.
- $d + 1$ points determine a unique degree- d polynomial.
- If f is a polynomial that can be written as $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^d f_i x^i$, then we say that f is a **degree- d** polynomial.

Polynomial Interpolation

Theorem Let $\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ be a set of points whose x_i values are **all distinct**. Then there is a **unique** degree- d polynomial f with real coefficients that satisfies **$y_i = f(x_i)$ for all i** .

Proof

$$\ell_1(x) = \frac{(x - x_2)(x - x_3) \cdots (x - x_{d+1})}{(x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3) \cdots (x_1 - x_{d+1})}$$

It is clear that ℓ_1 is a degree- d polynomial.

- $\ell_1(x_1) = 1$
- $\ell_1(x_i) = 0$ for $i \neq 1$

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Proof

$$\ell_j(x) = \frac{(x - x_2)(x - x_3) \cdots (x - x_{d+1})}{(x_j - x_2)(x_j - x_3) \cdots (x_j - x_{d+1})}$$

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ℓ_j is called LaGrange polynomials. It is a degree- d polynomials and

$$\ell_j(x_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

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Proof

$$\ell_j(x_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Let $f(x) = y_1 \ell_1(x) + y_2 \ell_2(x) + \dots + y_{d+1} \ell_{d+1}(x)$. Hence,
$$f(x_i) = y_1 \cdot 0 + \dots + y_i \cdot 1 + y_{d+1} \cdot 0 = y_i$$

This shows that there is some degree- d polynomial satisfying **$y_i = f(x_i)$ for all i** .

Polynomial Interpolation

Theorem Let $\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ be a set of points whose x_i values are **all distinct**. Then there is a **unique** degree- d polynomial f with real coefficients that satisfies **$y_i = f(x_i)$ for all i** .

Proof

Suppose there are two degree- d polynomials f and f' , such that **$f(x_i) = f'(x_i) = y_i$** . Then **$g(x) = f(x) - f'(x)$** is also **degree- d** , and it satisfies **$g(x_i) = 0$ for all i** .

But the only degree- d polynomial with $d + 1$ roots is the identically-zero polynomial $g(x) = 0$. Hence, $f = f'$. So f is the unique polynomial.

Polynomials mod p

- Since we **cannot** have a **uniform distribution** over the **real numbers**, we must instead consider polynomials with coefficients in \mathbb{Z}_p .
- It is still true that **$d + 1$** points determine a unique degree- d polynomial when working modulo p , **if p is a prime!**

Polynomial Interpolation mod p

Theorem Let p be a **prime**, and let $\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})\} \subseteq (\mathbb{Z}_p)^2$ be a set of points whose x_i values are **all distinct**. Then there is a **unique** degree- d polynomial f with **coefficients from \mathbb{Z}_p** that satisfies $y_i \equiv_p f(x_i)$ for all i .

- $d + 1$ points uniquely determine a degree- d polynomial
- **Generalization:** For any k points, there are exactly p^{d+1-k} polynomials of degree- d that hit those points, mod p .

Polynomial Interpolation mod p

Corollary Let $\mathcal{P} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_k, y_k)\} \subseteq (\mathbb{Z}_p)^2$ be a set of points whose x_i values are distinct. Let d satisfy $k \leq d + 1$ and $p > d$. Then the number of degree- d polynomials f with coefficients in \mathbb{Z}_p that satisfy the condition $y_i \equiv_p f(x_i)$ for all i is exactly p^{d+1-k} .

Proof

Prove by induction on the value $d + 1 - k$.

Base case: $d + 1 - k = 0$, then we have $k = d + 1$ distinct points. Has been proved.

Inductive case ($k + 1$ case holds): $k \leq d$ points in \mathcal{P} . Let $x^* \in \mathbb{Z}_p \neq x_i$ for all i .

Every polynomial must give some value when evaluated at x^* .

Compute [# of degree $\leq d$ polynomials pass through points in \mathcal{P}]

Polynomial Interpolation mod p

Corollary Let $\mathcal{P} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_k, y_k)\} \subseteq (\mathbb{Z}_p)^2$ be a set of points whose x_i values are distinct. Let d satisfy $k \leq d + 1$ and $p > d$. Then the number of degree- d polynomials f with coefficients in \mathbb{Z}_p that satisfy the condition $y_i \equiv_p f(x_i)$ for all i is exactly p^{d+1-k} .

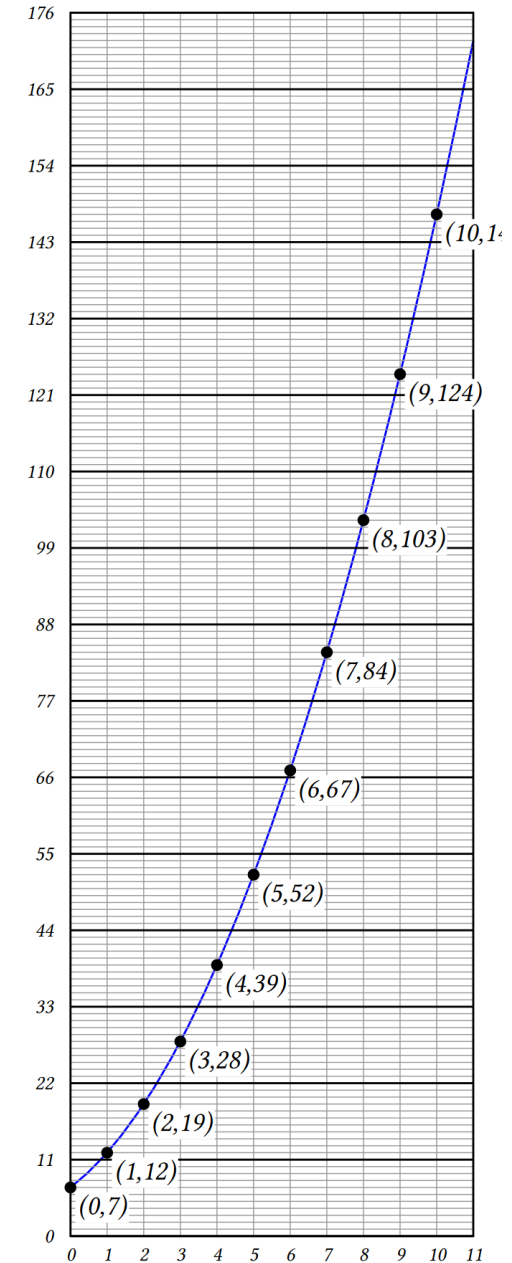
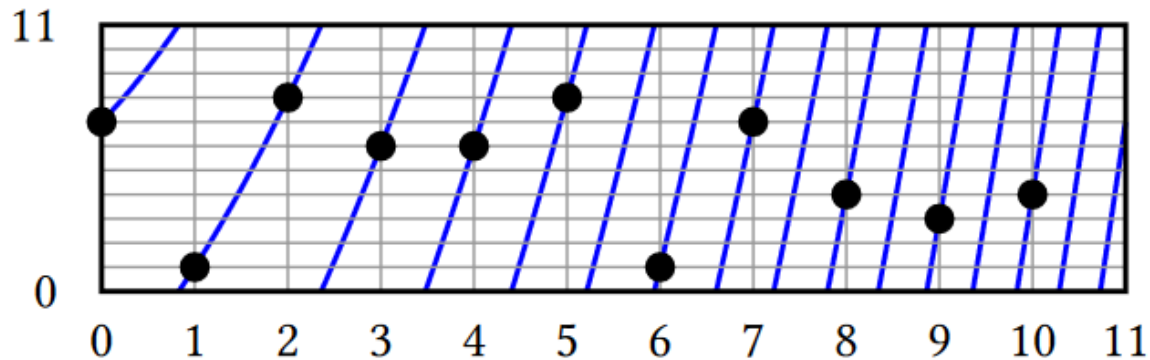
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Inductive case ($k + 1$ case holds): $k \leq d$ points in \mathcal{P} . Let $x^* \in \mathbb{Z}_p \neq x_i$ for all i . Every polynomial must give some value when evaluated at x^* .

Compute $[\# \text{ of degree } - d \text{ polynomials pass through points in } \mathcal{P}] =$
 $\sum_{y^* \in \mathbb{Z}_p} [\# \text{ of degree } - d \text{ polynomials pass through points in } \mathcal{P} \cup \{(x^*, y^*)\}] =$
 $\sum_{y^* \in \mathbb{Z}_p} p^{d+1-(k+1)} = p \cdot p^{d+1-k-1} = p^{d+1-k}$

An Example

- $f(x) = x^2 + 4x + 7$
- mod 11?
 - We care only about \mathbb{Z}_{11} inputs to f
 - Just the 11 highlighted points alone (not the blue curve)



Shamir Secret Sharing

- Any $d + 1$ points on a degree- d polynomial are enough to uniquely reconstruct the polynomial.
- To share a secret $m \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ with threshold t , first choose a degree- $(t - 1)$ polynomial f that satisfies $f(0) \equiv_p m$, with all other coefficients chosen uniformly in \mathbb{Z}_p .
- The i th user receives the point $(i, f(i) \% p)$ on the polynomial.
- Now, any t shares can uniquely determine the polynomial f , and hence recover the secret $f(0)$.