# Chapter 11 Secure Two-Party Computation Protocols

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#### Plan



- 1. Introduction to two-party computation protocols
- 2. Definitions
- 3. Information-theoretic impossibility
- 4. Constructions
  - 1. oblivious transfer
  - 2. computing general circuits
- 5. Fully homomorphic encryption
- 6. Practical aspects
- 7. Private Information Retrieval

#### A love problem







$$B :=$$

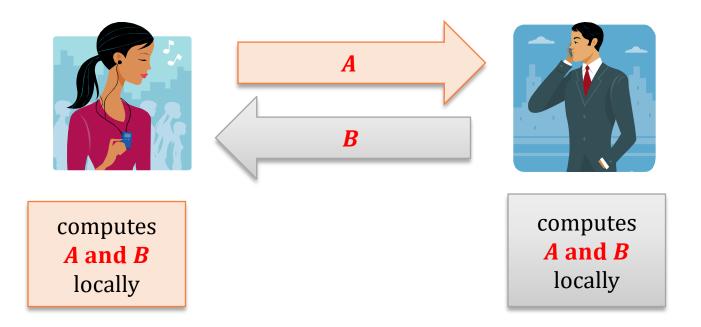
if Bob doesn't love Alice if Bob loves Alice





They want to learn the value of f(A, B) := A and B

#### Solution?

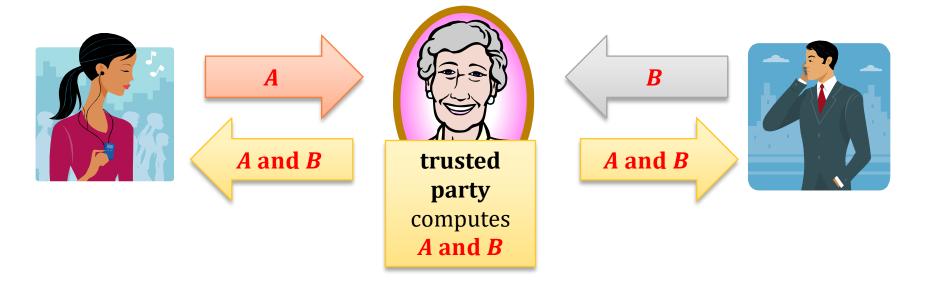


#### **Problem**

If A = 0 and B = 1 then Alice knows that Bob loves him while she doesn't!

If A = 1 and B = 0 then Bob knows that Alice loves him while he doesn't!

#### Solution?



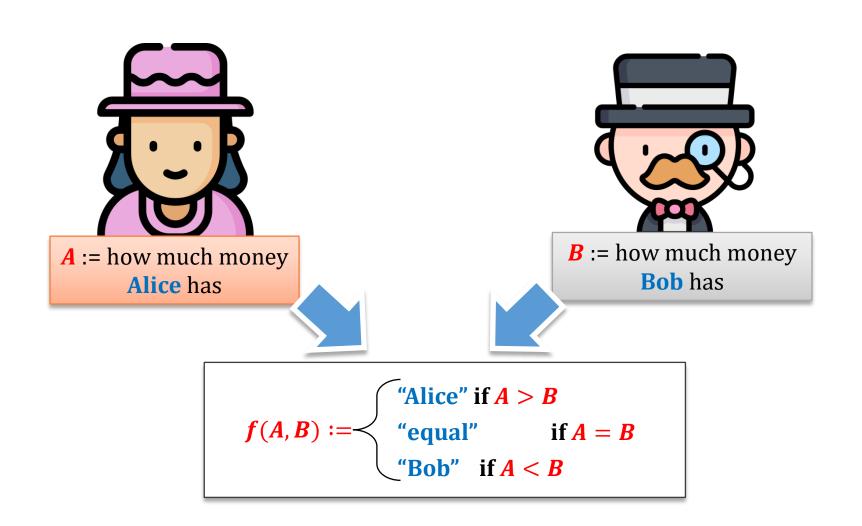
Alice and Bob learn **only** the value of f(A, B) = A and B.

Of course: if A = B = 1 then f(A, B) = 1 and there is no secret to protect.

But, e.g., if A = 0 and B = 1 then f(A, B) = 0 then Alice will not know the value of B.

**Question:** Is it possible to compute *f* without a trusted party?

## Another example: "the millionaire's problem"



#### How to solve this problem?

Can they compute *f* in a secure way?

(secure = "only the output is revealed")

Of course, they do not trust any "third party".

#### Answer

#### It turns out that:

in both cases, there exists a cryptographic protocol that allows A and B to compute f in a secure way.

#### **Moreover**:

In general, every poly-time computable function *f* can be computed securely by two-parties.

Of course, this has to be defined...

(assuming some problems are computationally hard)

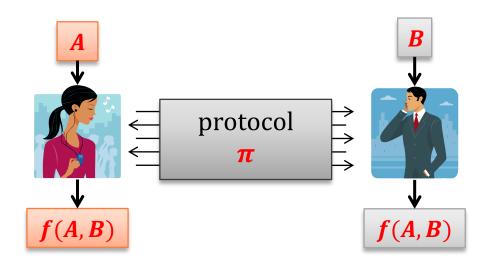
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### What do we mean by a "secure function evaluation"?

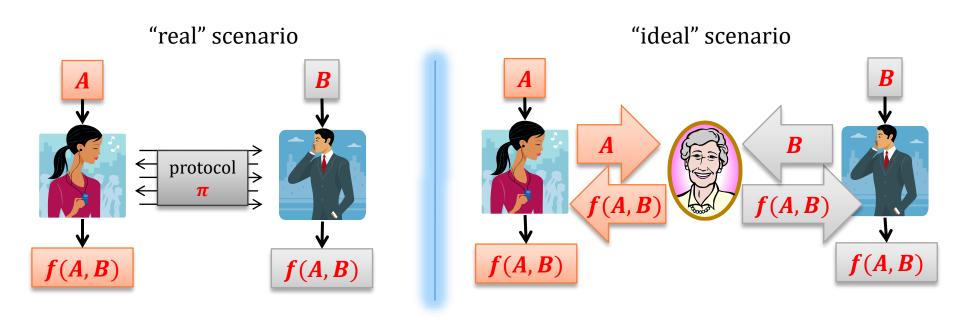
In general, the definition is complicated, and we'll not present it here. Main idea: suppose we have a function  $f: \{0, 1\}^* \times \{0, 1\}^* \to \{0, 1\}^*$ 



Each of the parties may try to:

- learn something about the input of the other party, or
- disturb the output of the protocol.

### What do we mean by a "secure function evaluation"?



A malicious participant (Alice or Bob) should not be able to

- learn more information, or
- do more damage to the output in the "real" scenario, than it can in the "ideal" one.

#### What do we mean by this?

#### For example:

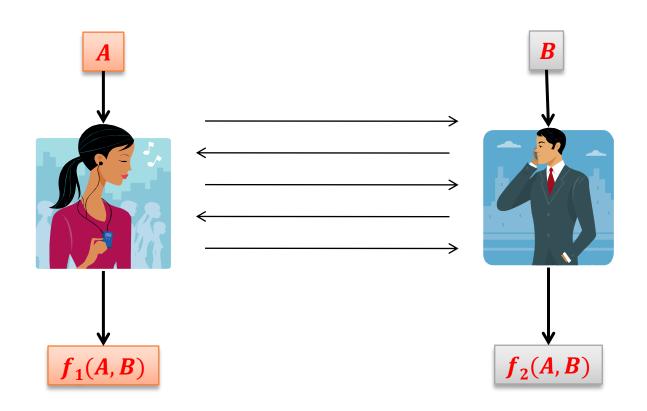
**Alice** can always declare that she loves **Bob**, while in fact she doesn't.

A millionaire can always claim to be poorer or reacher than he is...

#### **But**:

**Bob** cannot force the output of the protocol to be "equal" if he doesn't know the value of **A**.

#### Let's generalize it a bit:



- 1. the outputs of **Alice** and **Bob** can be different
- 2. the function that they compute may be randomized

#### An adversary

It is convenient to thing about an adversary that corrupts one of the players.

(clearly if the adversary corrupts **both** players, there is no sense to talk about any security)



## Two goals that the adversary may want to achieve

1. learn about the input of the other party "more than he would learn in the ideal scenario",

2. change the output of the protocol.

#### Two types of adversarial behavior

In general, we consider two types of adversarial behavior:

#### passive, also called: honest-but-curious:

a corrupted party follows the protocol

a protocol is **passively secure** if it is secure against one of the parties behaving maliciously **in a passive way.** 

#### active, also called Byzantine

a corrupted party doesn't need to follow the protocol

a protocol is **actively secure** if it is secure against one of the parties behaving maliciously **in an active way.** 

#### Problem with active security

In general, it is impossible to achieve a complete fairness.

That is: one of the parties may (after receiving her own output)

prevent the other party from receiving her output (by halting the protocol)

(remember the coin-flipping protocol?)

#### Fact

Let  $\pi$  be a **passively secure** protocol computing some function f.

Then, we can construct a protocol  $\pi'$  that is **actively secure**, and computes the same function f.

#### **How?**

Using **Zero-Knowledge!** 

(we skip the details)

#### Power of the adversary

The malicious parties may be

- computationally bounded (poly-time)
- computationally unbounded.

In this case we say that security is information-theoretic

We usually allow the adversary to "break the security" with **some negligible probability**.

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Some very natural functions cannot be computed by an **information-theoretically secure** protocol

#### **Example**

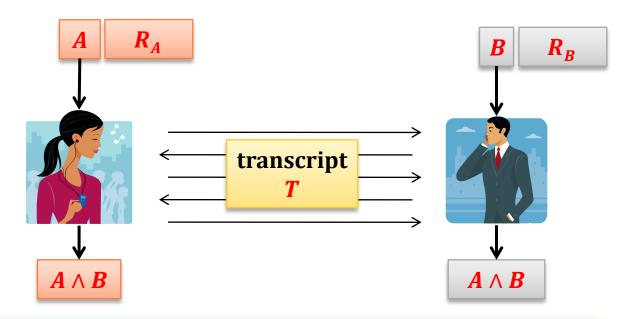
Consider a function

$$f(A,B) = A \wedge B.$$

There exists an infinitely-powerful adversary that breaks any protocol computing it.

The adversary may even be passive.

#### A transcript



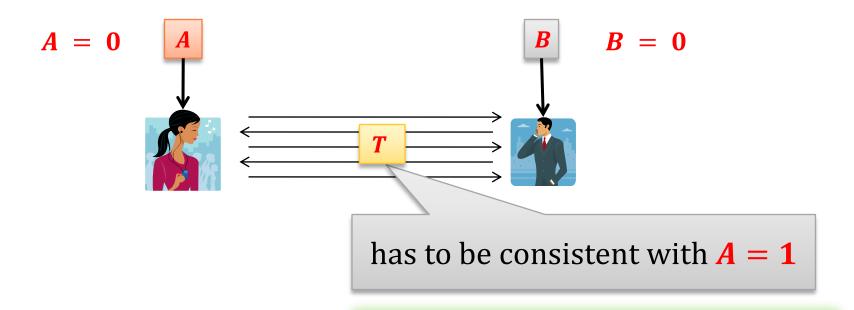
#### **Definition**

for **B** – symmetric

Transcript T is **consistent with input**  $A = A_0$  if **there exist** random inputs  $R_A$  (for Alice) and  $(B, R_B)$  (for Bob) such that T is a transcript of the execution of the protocol with inputs

- $(A_0, R_A)$  for Alice
- $(B, R_B)$  for Bob.

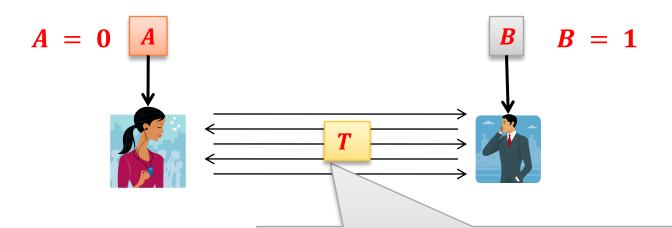
#### 1. Suppose A = 0 and B = 0





Otherwise a malicious Bob knows that A = 0

#### 2. Suppose A = 0 and B = 1

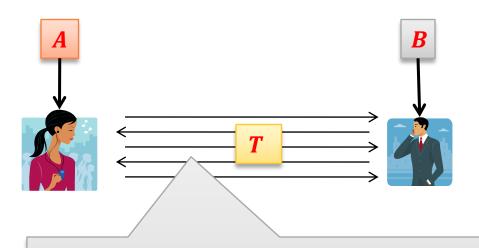


cannot be consistent with A = 1

Because the output of the protocol has to be different in these two cases:

- A = 0 and B = 1 and
- A = 1 and B = 1

So, if A = 0 then a malicious Alice has a way to learn what the input of Bob!



Alice checks if T is consistent with A = 1If **yes** then she knows that B = 0**otherwise** B = 1

#### Moral

If we want to construct a protocol for computing AND, we need to rely on computational assumptions.

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#### A question

Does there exist a protocol  $\pi$  that is "complete for secure two-party computations"?

#### In other words:

We are looking for  $\pi$  such that:

if we have a secure protocol for  $\pi$  then we can construct a provably secure protocol for any function?

#### Answer

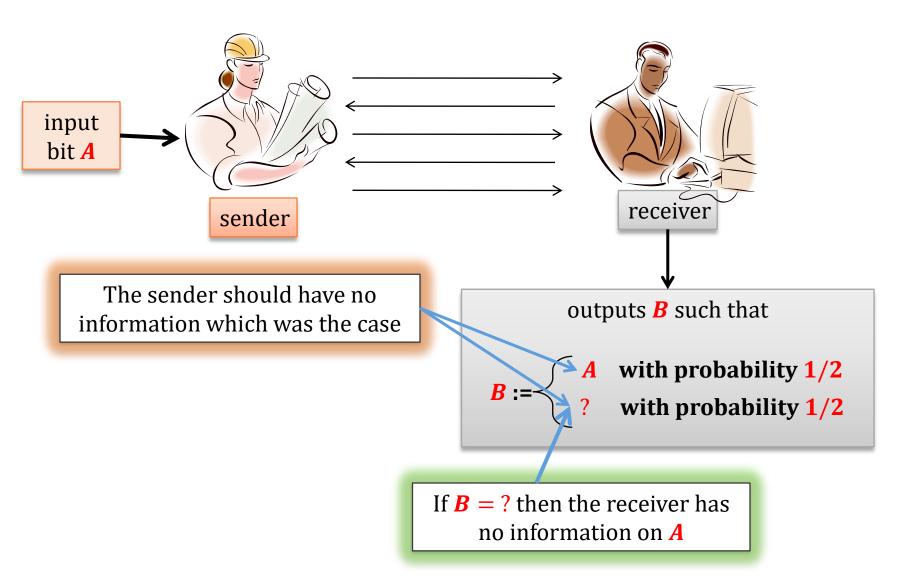
#### Yes!

A protocol like this is exists.

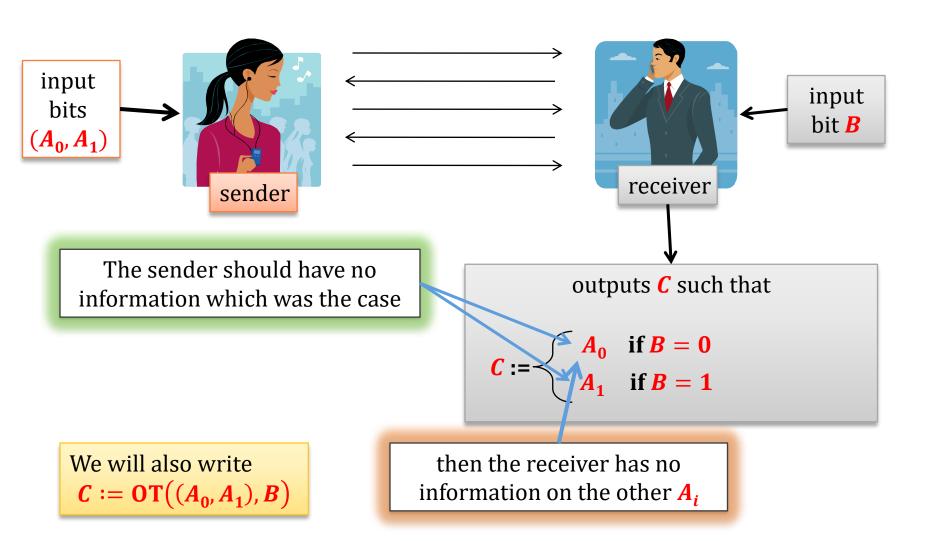
It is called **Oblivious Transfer (OT)**. There are two versions if it:

- Rabin's Oblivious Transfer
  - M. O. Rabin. **How to exchange secrets by oblivious transfer**, 1981.
- One-out-of-Two Oblivious Transfer
  - S. Even, O. Goldreich, and A. Lempel, **A Randomized Protocol for Signing Contracts**, 1985.

#### Rabin's Oblivious Transfer



#### One-out-of-two Oblivious Transfer



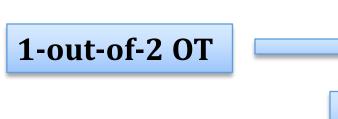
#### Fact

Rabin's Oblivious Transfer and

One-out-of-Two Oblivious Transfer

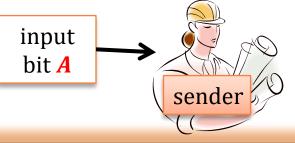
are "equivalent".

[Claude Crépeau. Equivalence between two flavours of oblivious transfer, 1988]



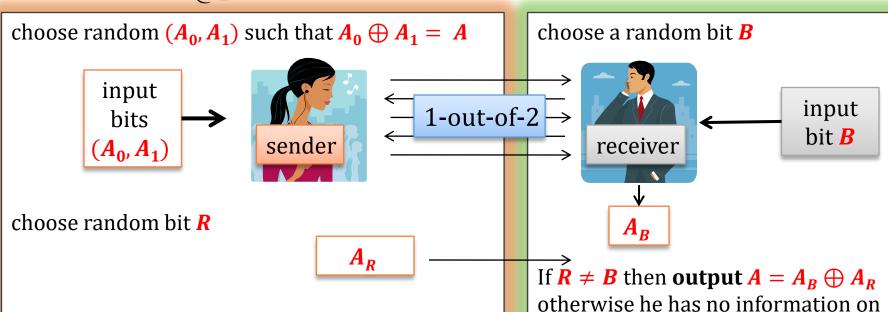
#### **Rabin OT**





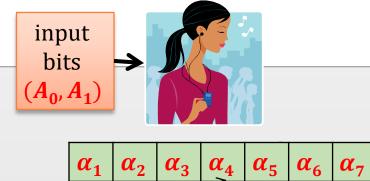


 $A_{1-B}$  so he has no information on A



### It remains to show the opposite direction

1-out-of-2 OT Rabin OT



input bit B

k times
Rabin OT

 $|\alpha_1|$ ? ?  $|\alpha_4|$   $|\alpha_5|$ ?  $|\alpha_7|$ 

the receiver knows only the indices in  $\beta_R$ 

string of bits

if 
$$B = 0$$
 send  $(X_0, X_1) := (I, I^c)$   
if  $B = 1$  send  $(X_0, X_1) := (I^c, I)$ 

Let *I* be the set of indices of the bits that he "knows".

Let *I<sup>c</sup>* be the complement of *I*.

$$oldsymbol{eta}_0\coloneqq\sum_{i\in X_0}lpha_i$$

$$\beta_1 \coloneqq \sum_{i \in X_1} \alpha_i$$

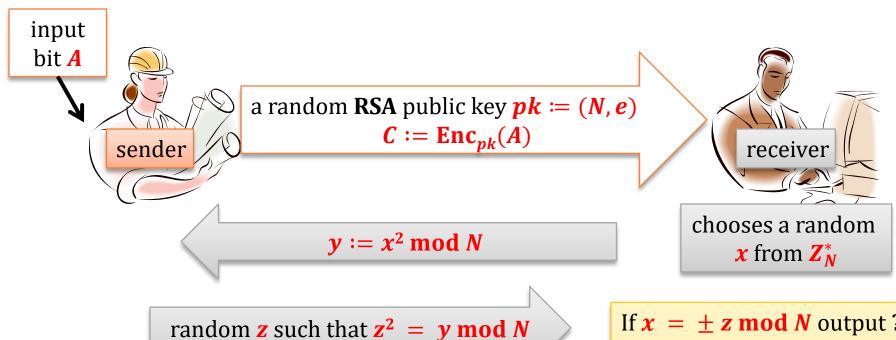
send
$$(\mathbf{Z}_0, \mathbf{Z}_1) \coloneqq (\boldsymbol{\beta}_0 \oplus A_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 \oplus A_1)$$

He outputs  $\beta_B \oplus Z_B$ 

#### Security?

- 1. The learn *B* the **sender** would need to distinguish *I* from *I*<sup>c</sup>
- 2. To learn both  $A_0$  and  $A_1$  the **receiver** would need to know both  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  This is possible only if he knows all  $\alpha_i$ 's This happens with probability  $0.5^k$ .

# An implementation of Rabin's OT



#### Remember the proof that computing square root is equivalent to factoring?

We used the reasoning:

- 1. with probability 0.5 we have  $x \neq \pm z \mod N$
- 2. if  $x \neq \pm z \mod N$  then  $\gcd(x z, N)$  is a non-trivial factor of N

If  $x = \pm z \mod N$  output?

otherwise gcd(x-z, N) is a non-trivial factor of **N hence** the receiver can decrypt **A** from **C**. Output A

## Is it secure?

Against **passive cheating**?

YES!

Against **active cheating**?

Not so clear...

The sender acts as an oracle for computing square roots modulo *N*.

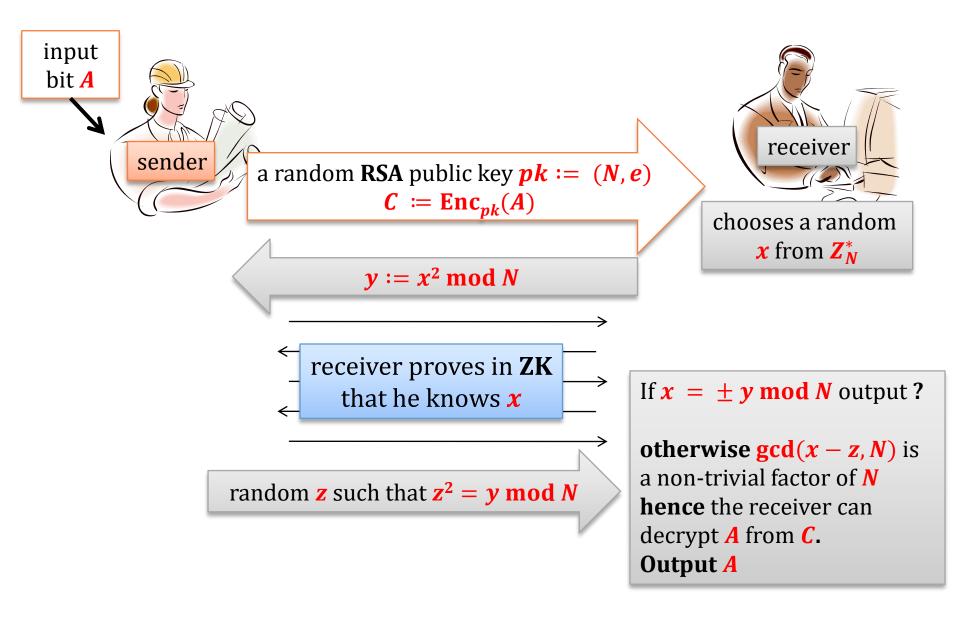
Does it can help him?

We don't know.

#### **Solution**

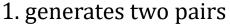
Add an intermediary step in which the receiver proves in zero-knowledge that he knows x.

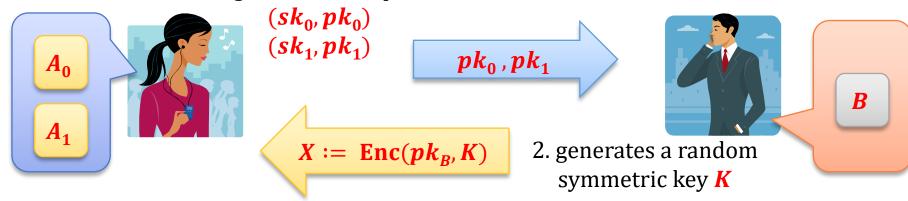
## How does it look now?



## Implementation of the 1-out-of-2 OT

(**Gen**, **Enc**, **Dec**) – public key encryption scheme (**E**, **D**) – private key encryption scheme





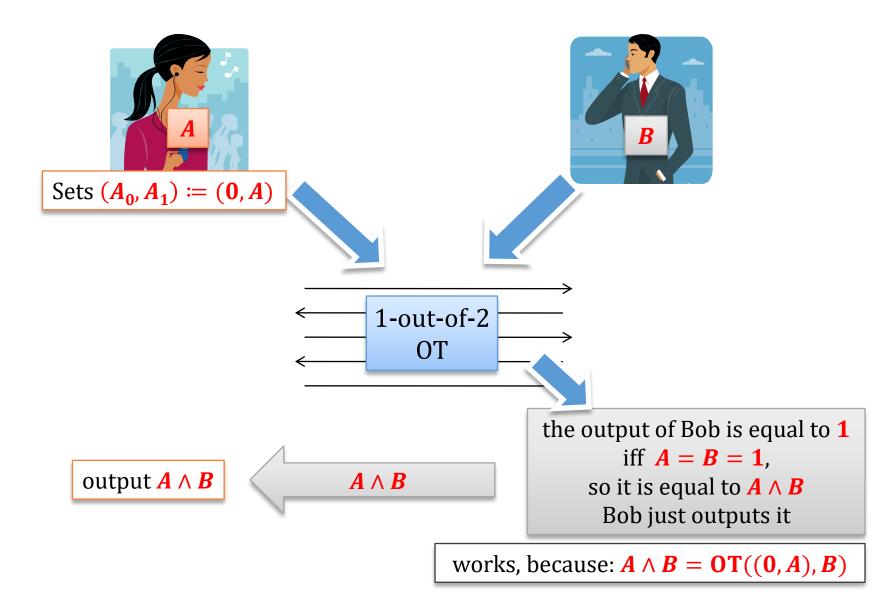
two cases:

		B = 0	B = 1	3. computes:
	$K_0=$	K	"random"	$K_0 := \operatorname{Dec}(sk_0, X)$
_	<b>K</b> <sub>1</sub> =	"random"	K	$K_1 := \operatorname{Dec}(sk_1, X)$
				$C$ . $\Gamma(V, A)$

 $C_0 := E(K_0, A_0)$   $C_1 := E(K_1, A_1)$ 



# How to solve the love problem of Alice and Bob using OT?



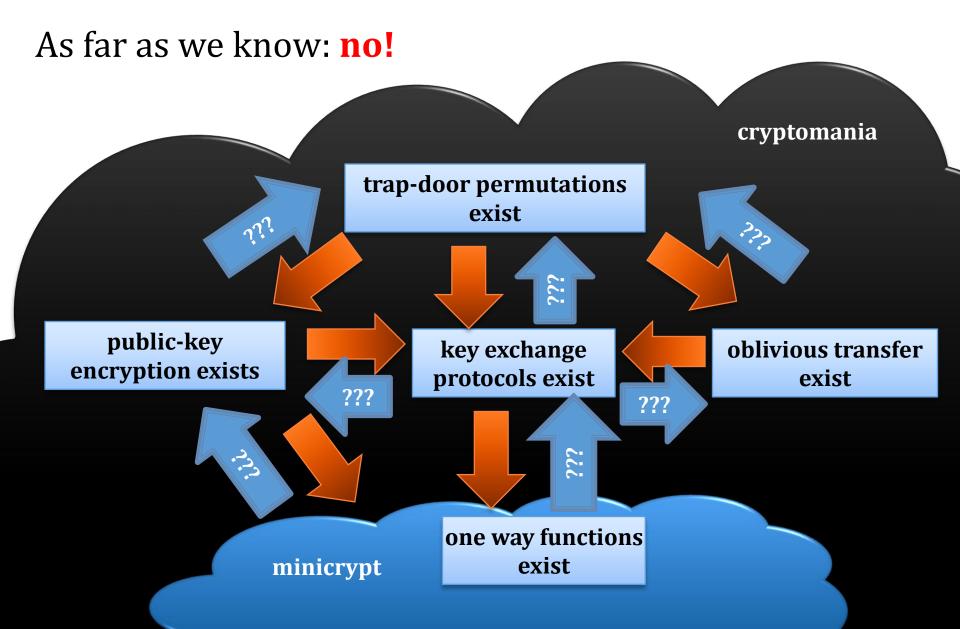
# Oblivious Transfer for strings

What if the sender's input  $(A_0, A_1)$  is such that each  $A_i$  is a bit-string  $(A_i^0, ..., A_i^n)$ ?

If the adversary is passive: just apply OT to each  $(A_0^j, A_1^j)$  separately (with the same B).

If the adversary is active: it's more complicated, but a reduction also exists.

# Is the oblivious transfer in Minicrypt?



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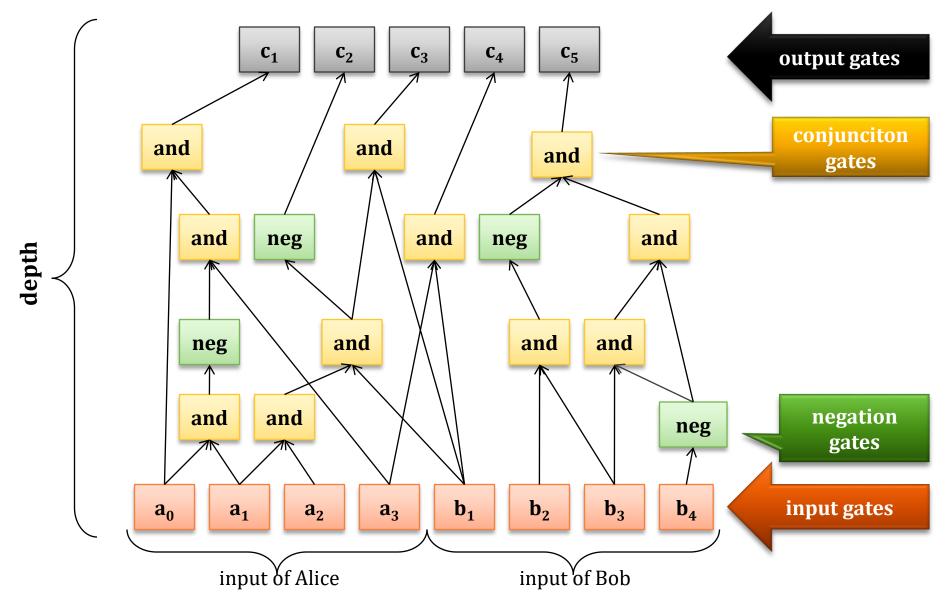
# How to compute any function?

We will now show how Alice and Bob can securely compute any function f.

**More precisely**: they can compute any function that can be computed by a **poly-time Boolean circuit**.

#### Boolean circuits

**size:** number of gates



#### Main idea

"Yao's Garbled circuits" (Andrew Yao, FOCS'86):

**Alice** "encrypts" the circuit together with her input and sends it to **Bob**.

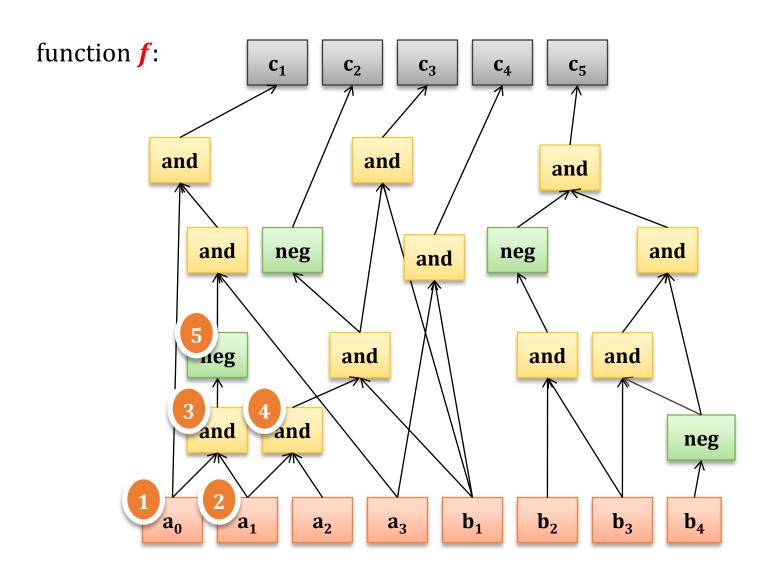
**Bob** adds his input and computes the circuit **gate-by-gate**.

They do it in such a way that the values on the gates remain secret (except of the output gates)

#### **Simplifying assumptions**:

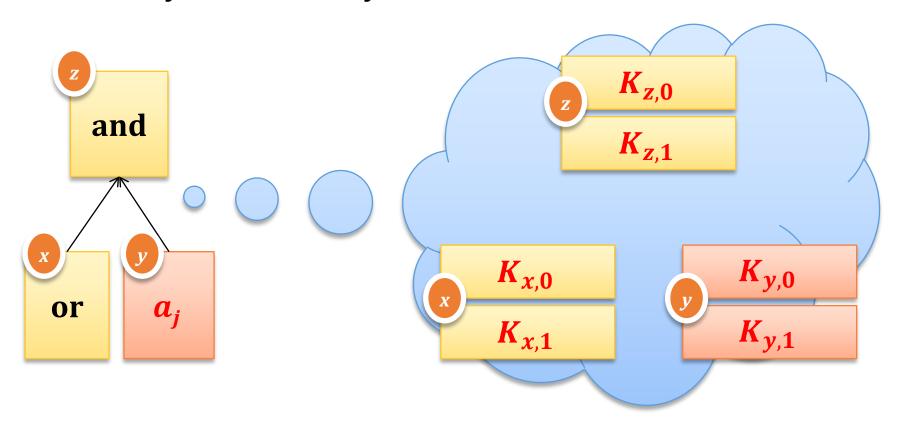
- Dishonest parties are *honest-but-curious*.
- Only Bob learns the output.

# Let's number the gates



# Step 1: key generation

For every gate (except of the output) **Alice** chooses two random symmetric keys.



**Alice** does **not** send these keys to **Bob**.

# Question

How to encrypt a message

M

in such a way that in order to decrypt it one needs to know two keys  $K_0$  and  $K_1$ ?

**Answer** 

encrypt twice:

 $E(K_0, E(K_1, M))$ 

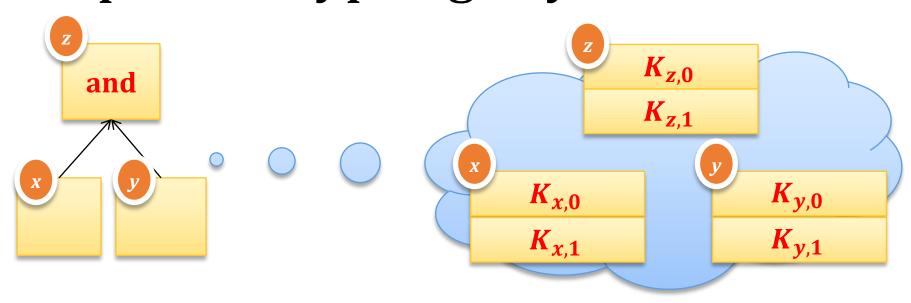
# Another assumption

Let's assume that the encryption scheme (E, D) is such that decrypting

$$C = E(K, M)$$

with a random key K' yields **error** ( $\perp$ ) with overwhelming probability.

# Step 2: encrypting keys



X	y	x and Y	encrypted keys
0	0	0	$E(K_{x,0}, E(K_{y,0}, K_{z,0}))$
0	1	0	$E(K_{x,0}, E(K_{y,1}, K_{z,0}))$
1	0	0	$E(K_{x,1}, E(K_{y,0}, K_{z,0}))$
1	1	1	$E(K_{x,1}, E(K_{y,1}, K_{z,1}))$

analogously for the **xor** and **neg** gates

## Main idea

X	y	x and Y	encrypted keys
0	0	0	$E(K_{x,0}, E(K_{y,0}, K_{z,0}))$
0	1	0	$E(K_{x,{\color{olive}0}}$ , $E(K_{y,1}$ , $K_{z,{\color{olive}0}})$
1	0	0	$E(K_{x,1}, E(K_{y,0}, K_{z,0}))$
1	1	1	$E(\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{x},1}, E(K_{y,1}, K_{z,1}))$

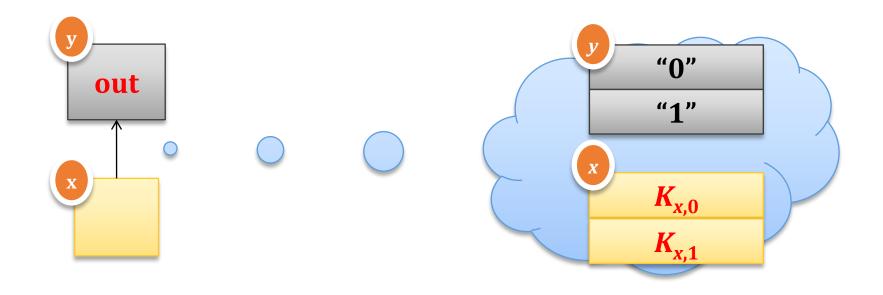
If one knows

$$K_{x,a}$$
 and  $K_{y,b}$ 

then one is able to decrypt only  $K_{z,c}$  such that  $c = a \wedge b$ 

(all the other  $K_{z,i}$ 's decrypt to  $\perp$ )

# Output gates



X	ciphertexts
0	$E(K_{x,0},"0")$
1	$E(K_{x,1}, "1")$

# Step 3: sending ciphertexts

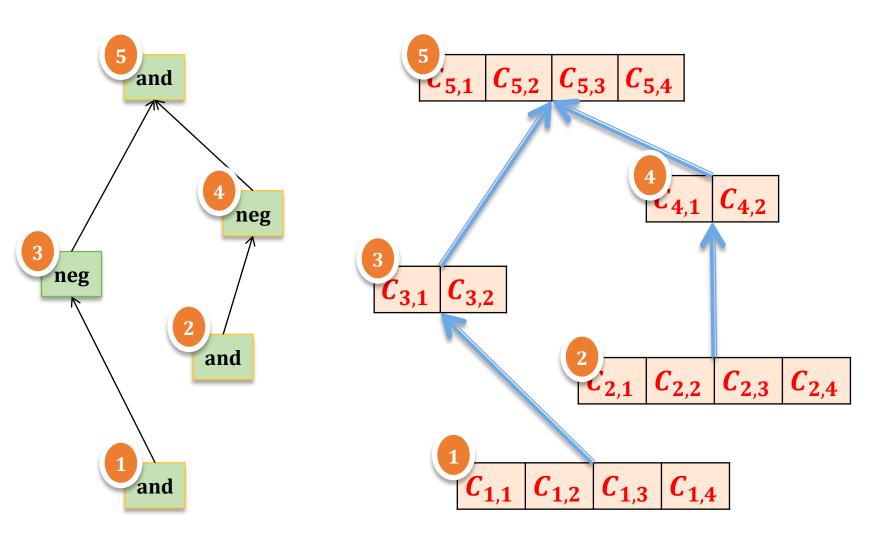
For every gate **Alice** randomly permutes "encrypted keys" and sends them to **Bob**.

encrypted keys	
$E(K_{x,0}, E(K_{y,0}, K_{z,0}))$	$C_{z,1}$
$E(K_{x,0}, E(K_{y,1}, K_{z,0}))$	$C_{z,2}$
$E(K_{x,1}, E(K_{y,0}, K_{z,0}))$	$C_{z,3}$
$E(K_{x,1}, E(K_{y,1}, K_{z,1}))$	$C_{z,4}$





# The situation: Bob knows 2 or 4 ciphertexts for each gate

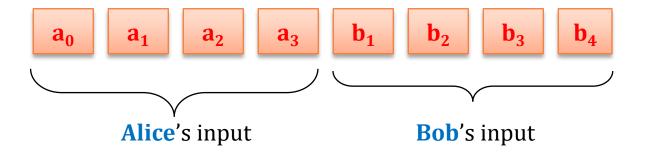


# How can Bob compute the output?

Our method: decrypt the circuit "bottom up" to obtain the keys that decrypt the output.

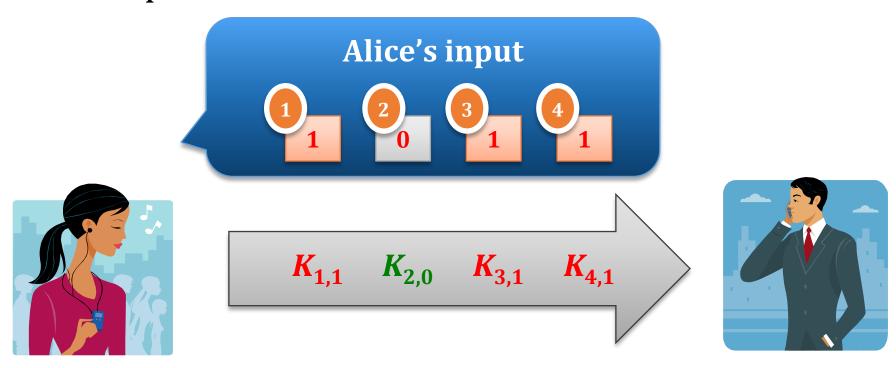
In order to start Bob needs to learn the keys that correspond to the input gates.

Recall that the input gates "belong" either to Alice or to Bob.



## There is no problem with Alice's input

**Step 4: Alice** sends to Bob the keys that correspond to her input bits.



**Note:** since the gates are permuted **Bob** does not learn if he got a key that corresponds to **0** or to **1**.

# How to deal with Bob's input?

$K_{5,0}$	$K_{6,0}$	<i>K</i> <sub>7,0</sub>	<i>K</i> <sub>8,0</sub>
<i>K</i> <sub>5,1</sub>	<i>K</i> <sub>6,1</sub>	K <sub>7,1</sub>	<i>K</i> <sub>8,1</sub>





**Problem**: **Bob** cannot ask **Alice** to send him the keys that correspond to his input (because he would reveal his input to her).

**On the other hand: Alice** cannot send him both keys (because then he would he able to compute **f** on different inputs).

**Solution: 1-out-of-2 Oblivious Transfer!** 

## Yao's method summarized

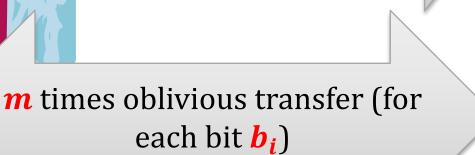


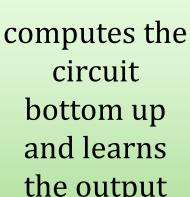
"garbled" circuit computing **f** 

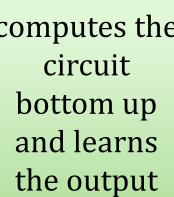
keys corresponding to input bits  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ 

each bit **b**<sub>i</sub>)









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# A problem

Yao's protocol has a high communication complexity:

**Alice** needs to send the entire encrypted circuit to **Bob**.

Can we do better?

## An idea

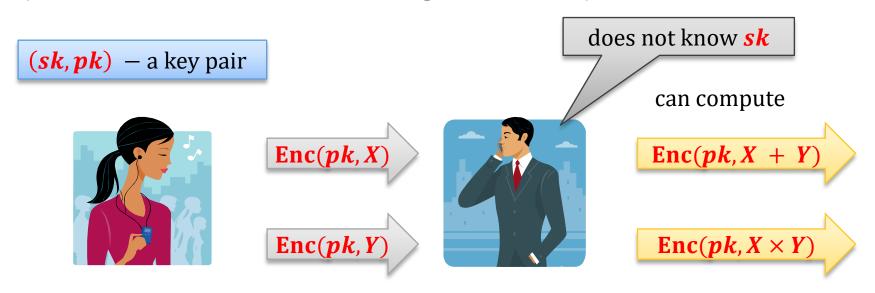
If we could construct an encryption scheme

#### homomorphic with respect to field operations

then secure function evaluation would be simple.

#### Fully homomorphic encryption:

(assume that the set of messages is a field)



# How to compute *f* using such a cipher?

Assume that the field is  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ .

Then **logical conjunction** is equal to **multiplication** and **negation** equals to "adding 1".

input:  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ 

 $pk, a_1, \dots, a_n$ 

input:  $b_1, \ldots, b_m$ 

- 1. generates a pair (sk, pk)
- 2. for every *i* computes:

$$c_i = \operatorname{Enc}(pk, a_i)$$

3. for every *i* computes:

$$d_i = \operatorname{Enc}(pk, b_i)$$

4. computes *f* using the homomorphism.

5. computes the result as Dec(sk, c)

computes the ciphertext *c* that corresponds to the output

# Do such ciphers exist?

Some well-known ciphers are homomorphic with respect to **one** field operation, e.g.:

- RSA is homomorphic with respect to multiplication,
- Paillier encryption is homomorphic with respect to addition.

**Fully Homomorphic Encryption – see Chapter 7** 

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# Practicality?

In practice this protocol is extremely inefficient.

But it shows that some things in principle can be done.

#### **Research direction**

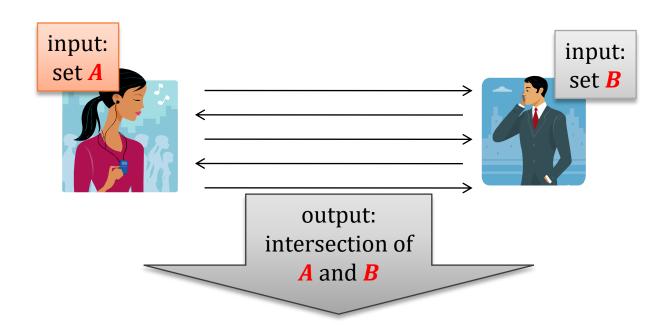
Construct protocols (for concrete problems) that are efficient.

# Example

Michael J. Freedman, Kobbi Nissim, Benny Pinkas: Efficient Private Matching and Set Intersection. EUROCRYPT 2004

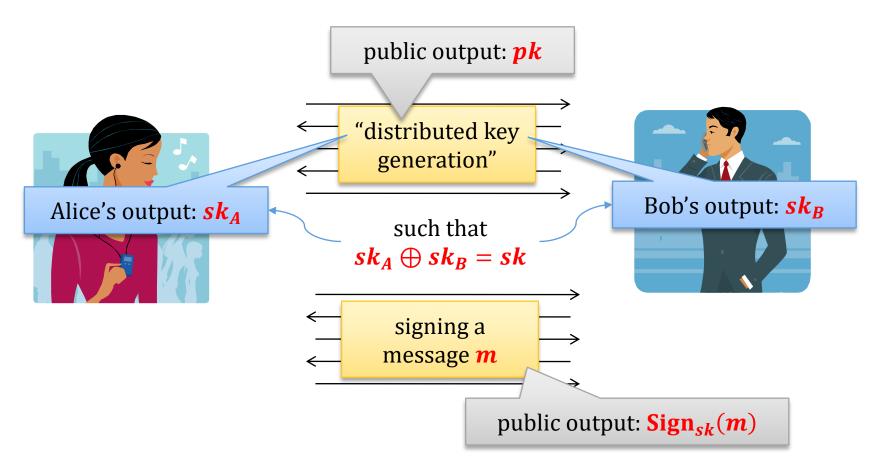
#### **Set intersection:**

Alice and Bob want to see which friends they have in common (without revealing to each other their lists of friends)



## Another popular practical scenario

(Gen, Sign, Vrfy) – signature scheme



The same works for **public-key encryption**!

# A natural question?

What if the number of parties is greater than 2?

Solutions for this also exist!

(see Chapter 12)

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  - 1. introduction
  - 2. constructions



# Private Information Retrieval (PIR)

#### In a nutshell:

a protocol that allows to access a database without revealing what is accessed.

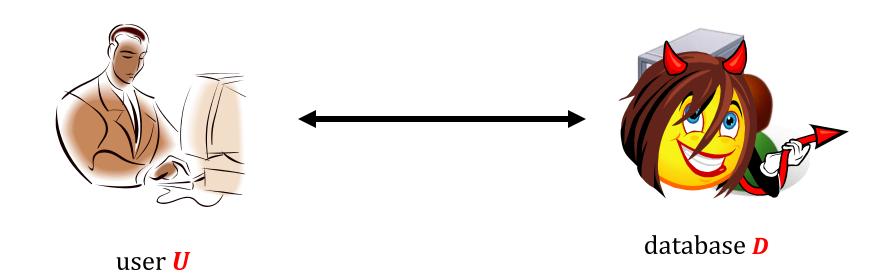
Main difference with the secure two-party computations:

- 1. secrecy of only one party is protected,
- on the other hand: there is a restriction on communication complexity.

#### **PIR** was introduced in:

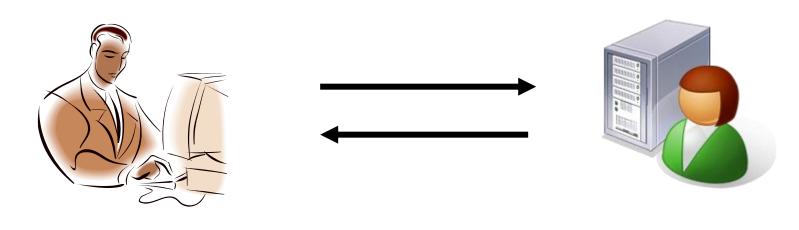
B. Chor, E. Kushilevitz, O. Goldreich and M. Sudan, **Private Information Retrieval**, Journal of ACM, 1998

# Our settings



# Question

How to protect privacy of queries?



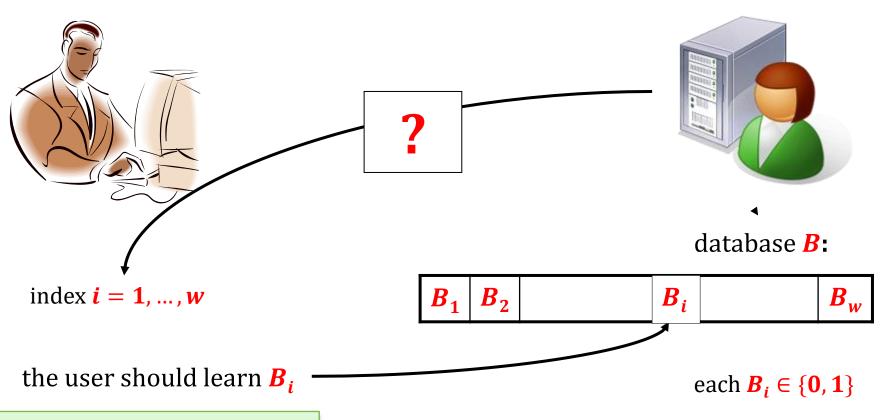
user *U* 

database **D** 

wants to retrieve some data from **D** 

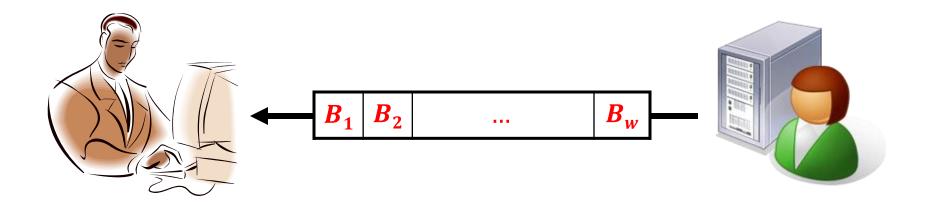
shouldn't learn what *U* retrieved

# Let's make things simple!



(he may also learn other  $B_i$ 's)

## Trivial solution



The database simply sends everything to the user!

# Non-triviality

The previous solution has a drawback:

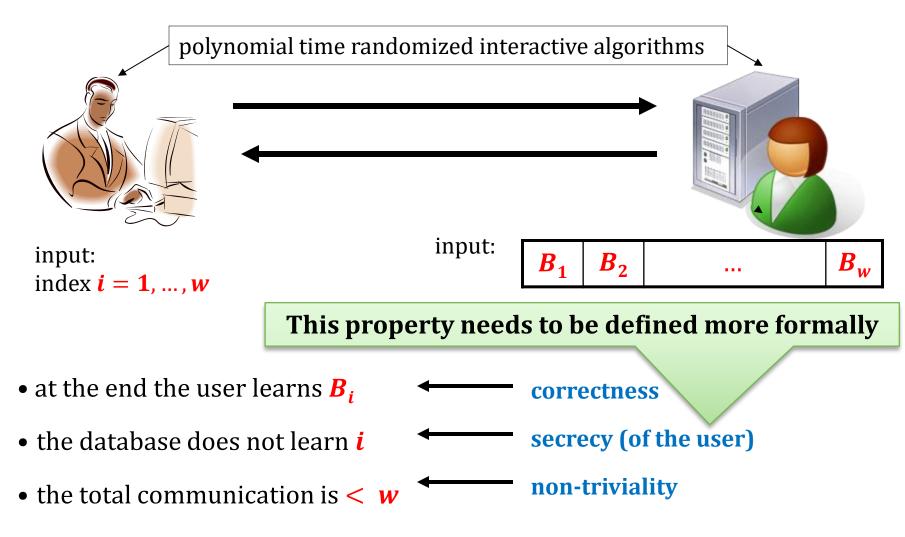
the communication complexity is huge!

Therefore we introduce the following requirement:

"Non-triviality":

the number of bits communicated between U and D has to be smaller than w.

## Private Information Retrieval



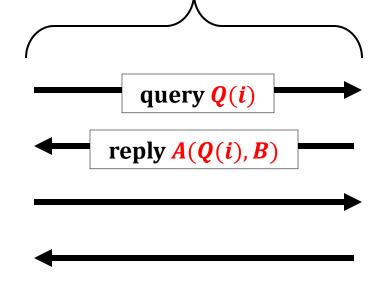
**Note**: secrecy of the database is not required

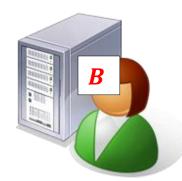
How to define secrecy of the user [1/2]?

<u>Def.</u> T(i, B) – **transcript** of the conversation.

For fixed *i* and *B* T(i,B)is a **random variable**(since the parties are randomized)







# How to define secrecy of the user [2/2]?

<u>Secrecy of the user</u>: for every i, j ∈ {0, 1}



#### single-round case:

it is impossible to distinguish between Q(i) and Q(j)

#### multi-round case:

it is impossible to distinguish between T(i, B) and T(j, B)

even if the adversary is malicious

depending on the settings: computational or unconditional indistinguishability

# Computationally-secure PIR – formally

computational-secrecy:



For every  $i, j \in \{0, 1\}$ 

efficiently
between

T(i, B) and T(j, B)

**Formally**: for every **polynomial-time** probabilistic algorithm **A** the value:

$$|P(A(T(i,B)) = 0) - P(A(T(j,B)) = 0)|$$
  
should be **negligible.**

# Is it possible?

#### **Fact**

Information-theoretically secure single-server PIR does not exist [exercise].

#### What can be constructed is the following:

- computationally-secure PIR (we show it now)
- information-theoretically secure multi-server PIR [exercise]

## PIR vs OT

PIR looks similar to the 1-out-of-w OT

#### Differences:

- advantage of PIR: low communication complexity
- advantage of OT: privacy of the database is protected

Can we combine both?

Yes! It's called "symmetric PIR".

## Plan

- 1. Introduction to two-party computation protocols
- 2. Definitions
- 3. Information-theoretic impossibility
- 4. Constructions
- 5. Fully homomorphic encryption
- 6. Practical aspects
- 7. Private Information Retrieval
  - 1. introduction
  - 2. constructions

## The construction

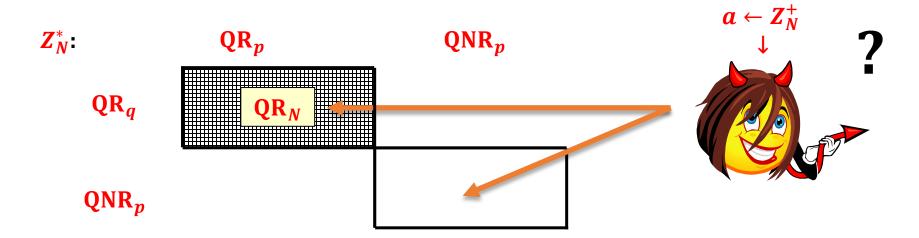
Kushilevitz and R. Ostrovsky Replication Is NOT Needed: SINGLE Database, Computationally-Private Information Retrieval, FOCS 1997

based on the Quadratic Residuosity Assumption.

### Our presentation strategy:

- 1. we first present a **wrong** solution
- 2. then we fix it.

## Quadratic Residuosity Assumption



#### **Quadratic Residuosity Assumption (QRA)**:

For a random  $a \leftarrow Z_N^+$  it is computationally hard

to determine if  $a \in QR_N$ .

**Formally**: for every **polynomial-time** probabilistic algorithm **D** the value:

$$\left| P(D(N,a) = Q_N(a)) - \frac{1}{2} \right|$$

(where  $a \leftarrow Z_N^+$ ) is negligible.

Where a predicate

$$Q_N: Z_N^+ \to \{0, 1\}$$
 is defined as follows:

$$Q_N(a) = 0$$
 if  $a \in QR_N$ 

$$Q_N(a) = 1$$
 otherwise

# Homomorphism of $Q_N$

For all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_N^+$ 

$$Q_N(ab) = Q_N(a) \oplus Q_N(b)$$

# First (wrong) idea



 $\boldsymbol{B_1}$  $\boldsymbol{B_2}$ 

 $B_{i-1}$ 

 $\boldsymbol{B_i}$ 

 $B_{i+1}$ 

 $B_{w-1}$ 

 $\boldsymbol{B}_{\boldsymbol{w}}$ 

QR QR  $X_1$  $\boldsymbol{X_2}$ 

QR  $X_{i-1}$ 

**NQR**  $X_{i}$ 

QR  $X_{i+1}$ 

QR  $X_{w-1}$ 

QR  $X_{w}$ 

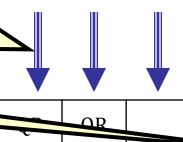


for every j = 1, ..., w the database sets

$$Y_j = \begin{cases} X_j^2 & \text{if } B_j = 0 \\ X_j & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 $Y_i$  is a QR iff  $B_i = 0$ 

M is a QR iff  $B_i = 0$ 





 $Y_{i-1}$ 



$$\begin{bmatrix} QR \\ Y_{i+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$QR$$
 $Y_{w-1}$ 

QR  $\boldsymbol{Y_w}$ 

the user checks if **M** is a **QR** 

M

 $\overline{\text{Set}} M = Y_1 \cdot Y_2 \cdot \cdots \cdot Y_w$ 

## **Problems!**

**PIR** from the previous slide:

- correctness √
- security?

To learn *i* the database would need to distinguish **NQR** from **QR**.

QR <b>X</b> <sub>1</sub>	QR X <sub>2</sub>		QR <b>X</b> <sub>i-1</sub>	NQR X <sub>i</sub>	QR <b>X</b> <sub>i+1</sub>		QR <b>X</b> <sub>w-1</sub>	QR X <sub>w</sub>
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non-triviality? doesn't hold!

#### <u>communication</u>:

user  $\rightarrow$  database:  $|B| \cdot |N|$ 

database  $\rightarrow$  user: |N|



## How to fix it?

#### <u>Idea</u>

Given:

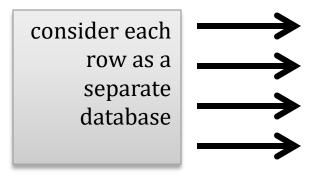
$$(|B|, 1)$$
-PIR

construct

$$(\sqrt{|B|}, \sqrt{|B|})$$
-PIR

**Suppose** that  $|B| = v^2$  and present **B** as a  $v \times v$ -matrix:

<b>B</b> 1	<b>B2</b>	<i>B</i> 3	<b>B</b> 4	<i>B</i> 5	<b>B</b> 6	<i>B</i> 7	<b>B8</b>	<i>B</i> 9	<i>B</i> 10	<i>B</i> 11	<i>B</i> 12	<i>B</i> 13	<i>B</i> 14	<i>B</i> 15	<i>B</i> 16
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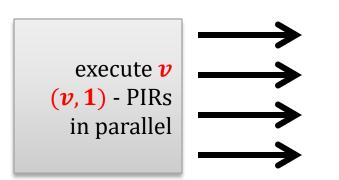
# An improved idea

Looks even worse:

communication:

user → database:  $v^2 \cdot |N|$ 

database  $\rightarrow$  user:  $\boldsymbol{v} \cdot |\boldsymbol{N}|$ 



				<b>1</b>
<b>B</b> 1	<b>B2</b>	<b>B3</b>	<b>B4</b>	
<i>B</i> 5	<b>B6</b>	<b>B7</b>	<b>B8</b>	
<i>B</i> 9	<i>B</i> 10	<i>B</i> 11	<b>B12</b>	
<b>B</b> 13	<b>B14</b>	<i>B</i> 15	<b>B</b> 16	

v

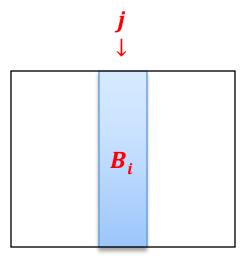
#### The method

Let j be the column where  $B_i$  is.

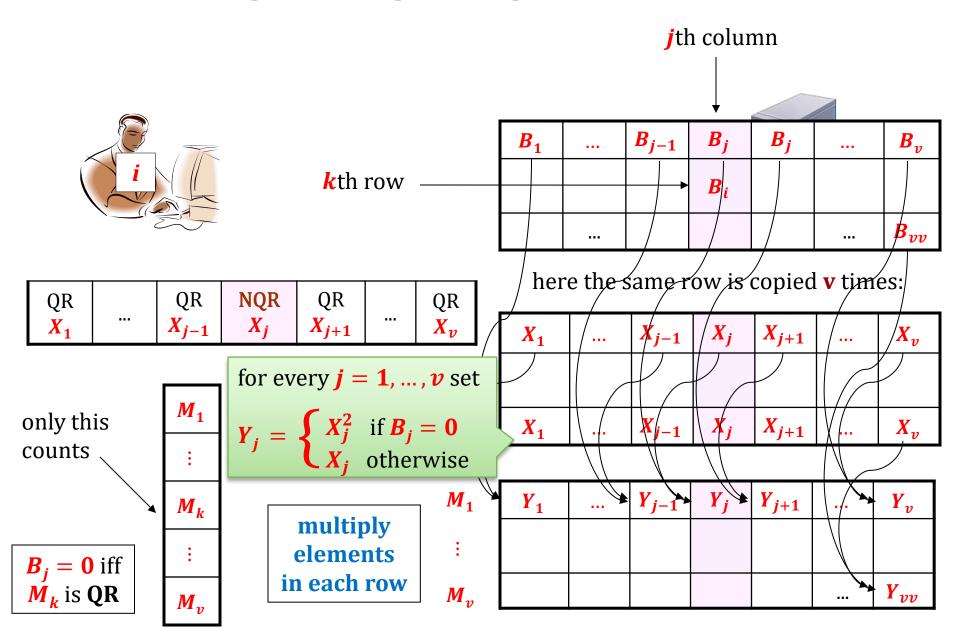
In every "row" the user asks for the *j*th element

So, instead of sending  $\boldsymbol{v}$  queries the user can send one!

Observe: in this way the user learns all the elements in the *j*th column!



# Putting things together



## So we are done!

**PIR** from the previous slide:

- correctness  $\sqrt{\phantom{a}}$
- non-triviality: communication complexity =  $2\sqrt{|B|} \cdot |N| = \sqrt{|B|}$
- security?

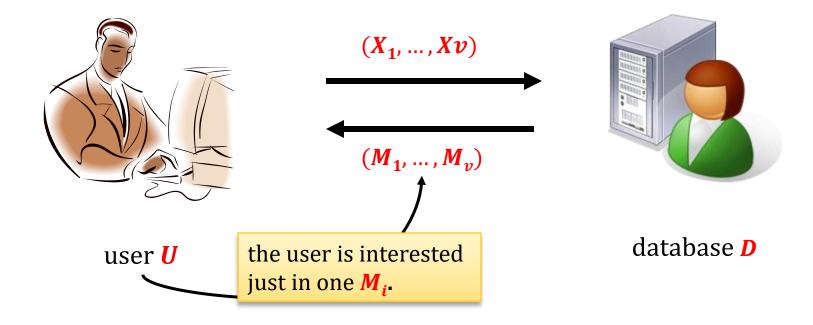
To learn *i* the database would need to distinguish NQR from QR.

#### **Formally**:

#### from

any adversary that breaks our scheme we can construct an algorithm that breaks QRA

# Improvements



**<u>Idea</u>**: apply **PIR** recursively!

## Extensions

• Symmetric PIR (also protect privacy of the database).

[Gertner, Ishai, Kushilevitz, Malkin. 1998]

- Searching by key-words
   [Chor, Gilboa, Naor, 1997]
- Public-key encryption with key-word search
   [Boneh, Di Crescenzo, Ostrovsky, Persiano]

