

# Notes for New Constructions of DMPF

tbd

## ABSTRACT

tbd.

## CCS CONCEPTS

• Theory of computation → Cryptographic primitives.

## KEYWORDS

tbd

### ACM Reference Format:

tbd. tbd. Notes for New Constructions of DMPF. In *Proceedings of Make sure to enter the correct conference title from your rights confirmation email (Conference acronym 'XX)*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 13 pages. <https://doi.org/tbd>

## 1 INTRODUCTION

tbd

## 2 PRELIMINARY

### 2.1 Basic Notations

*Point and multi-point functions.* Given a domain size  $N$  and Abelian group  $\mathbb{G}$ , a *point function*  $f_{\alpha,\beta} : [N] \rightarrow \mathbb{G}$  for  $\alpha \in [N]$  and  $\beta \in \mathbb{G}$  evaluates to  $\beta$  on input  $\alpha$  and to 0 in  $\mathbb{G}$  on all other inputs. We denote by  $\hat{f}_{\alpha,\beta} = (N, \hat{\mathbb{G}}, \alpha, \beta)$  the representation of such a point function. A *t-point function*  $f_{A,B} : [N] \rightarrow \mathbb{G}$  for  $A = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_t) \in [N]^t$  and  $B = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_t) \in \mathbb{G}^t$  evaluates to  $\beta_i$  on input  $\alpha_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq t$  and to 0 on all other inputs. Denote  $\hat{f}_{A,B} = (N, \hat{\mathbb{G}}, t, A, B)$  the representation of such a t-point function. Call the collection of all t-point functions for all t *multi-point functions*.

**Enote:** MPF. Also representation of groups.

### 2.2 Distributed Multi-Point Functions

**Enote:** should directly adapt to multi-point function case

We begin by defining a slightly generalized notion of distributed point functions (DPFs), which accounts for the extra parameter  $\mathbb{G}'$ . **Yaxin:** What is  $\mathbb{G}'$ ?

**DEFINITION 1** (DPF [5, 10]). A (2-party) distributed point function (DPF) is a triple of algorithms  $\Pi = (\text{Gen}, \text{Eval}_0, \text{Eval}_1)$  with the following syntax:

- $\text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{\alpha,\beta}) \rightarrow (k_0, k_1)$ : On input security parameter  $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$  and point function description  $\hat{f}_{\alpha,\beta} = (N, \hat{\mathbb{G}}, \alpha, \beta)$ , the (randomized) key generation algorithm Gen returns a pair of keys  $k_0, k_1 \in \{0, 1\}^*$ . **Yaxin:** Matan points out: we want efficient

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than ACM must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from [permissions@acm.org](mailto:permissions@acm.org).  
Conference acronym 'XX, tbd, tbd

© tbd Association for Computing Machinery.

ACM ISBN tbd...\$15.00

<https://doi.org/tbd>

*procedures, i.e.,  $|k_b| \in \text{poly}(\lambda)$ . Stress it here or add efficiency requirement?* We assume that  $N$  and  $\mathbb{G}$  are determined by each key.

- $\text{Eval}_b(k_b, x) \rightarrow y_b$ : On input key  $k_b \in \{0, 1\}^*$  and input  $x \in [N]$  the (deterministic) evaluation algorithm of server  $b$ ,  $\text{Eval}_b$  returns  $y_b \in \mathbb{G}$ .

We require  $\Pi$  to satisfy the following requirements:

- **Correctness:** For every  $\lambda$ ,  $\hat{f} = \hat{f}_{\alpha,\beta} = (N, \hat{\mathbb{G}}, \alpha, \beta)$  such that  $\beta \in \mathbb{G}$ , and  $x \in [N]$ , for  $b = 0, 1$ ,

$$\Pr \left[ (k_0, k_1) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}), \sum_{i=0}^1 \text{Eval}_i(k_i, x) = f_{\alpha,\beta}(x) \right] = 1$$

- **Security:** Consider the following semantic security challenge experiment for corrupted server  $b \in \{0, 1\}$ :

- (1) The adversary produces two point function descriptions  $(\hat{f}^0 = (N, \hat{\mathbb{G}}, \alpha_0, \beta_0), \hat{f}^1 = (N, \hat{\mathbb{G}}, \alpha_1, \beta_1)) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(1^\lambda)$ , where  $\alpha_b \in [N]$  and  $\beta_b \in \mathbb{G}$ .
- (2) The challenger samples  $b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$  and  $(k_0, k_1) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}^b)$ .
- (3) The adversary outputs a guess  $b' \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(k_b)$ .

Denote by  $\text{Adv}(1^\lambda, \mathcal{A}, i) = \Pr[b = b'] - 1/2$  the advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  in guessing  $b$  in the above experiment. For every non-uniform polynomial time adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  there exists a negligible function  $v$  such that  $\text{Adv}(1^\lambda, \mathcal{A}, i) \leq v(\lambda)$  for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**DEFINITION 2** (DMPF). A (2-party) distributed multi-point function (DMPF) is a triple of algorithms  $\Pi = (\text{Gen}, \text{Eval}_0, \text{Eval}_1)$  with the following syntax:

- $\text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{A,B}) \rightarrow (k_0, k_1)$ : On input security parameter  $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$  and point function description  $\hat{f}_{A,B} = (N, \hat{\mathbb{G}}, t, A, B)$ , the (randomized) key generation algorithm Gen returns a pair of keys  $k_0, k_1 \in \{0, 1\}^*$ . **Yaxin:** On Matan's behalf: same comment as well. Maybe  $|k_i| = \text{poly}(\lambda, t)$ .
- $\text{Eval}_b(1^\lambda, k_b, x) \rightarrow y_b$ : On input key  $k_b \in \{0, 1\}^*$  and input  $x \in [N]$  the (deterministic) evaluation algorithm of server  $b$ ,  $\text{Eval}_b$  returns  $y_b \in \mathbb{G}$ .

We require  $\Pi$  to satisfy the following requirements:

- **Correctness:** For every  $\lambda$ ,  $\hat{f} = \hat{f}_{A,B} = (N, \hat{\mathbb{G}}, t, A, B)$  such that  $B \in \mathbb{G}^t$ , and  $x \in [N]$ , for  $b = 0, 1$ ,

$$\Pr \left[ (k_0, k_1) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}), \sum_{i=0}^1 \text{Eval}_i(k_i, x) = f_{A,B}(x) \right] = 1$$

- **Security:** Consider the following semantic security challenge experiment for corrupted server  $b \in \{0, 1\}$ :

- (1) The adversary produces two t-point function descriptions  $(\hat{f}^0 = (N, \hat{\mathbb{G}}, t, A_0, B_0), \hat{f}^1 = (N, \hat{\mathbb{G}}, t, A_1, B_1)) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(1^\lambda)$ , where  $\alpha_b \in [N]$  and  $\beta_b \in \mathbb{G}$ .
- (2) The challenger samples  $b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$  and  $(k_0, k_1) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}^b)$ .
- (3) The adversary outputs a guess  $b' \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(k_b)$ .

Denote by  $\text{Adv}(1^\lambda, \mathcal{A}, i) = \Pr[b = b'] - 1/2$  the advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  in guessing  $b$  in the above experiment. For every non-uniform polynomial time adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  there exists a negligible function  $v$  such that  $\text{Adv}(1^\lambda, \mathcal{A}, i) \leq v(\lambda)$  for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We will also be interested in applying the evaluation algorithm on *all* inputs. Given a DMPF  $(\text{Gen}, \text{Eval}_0, \text{Eval}_1)$ , we denote by  $\text{FullEval}_b$  an algorithm which computes  $\text{Eval}_b$  on every input  $x$ . Hence,  $\text{FullEval}_b$  receives only a key  $k_b$  as input.

One can construct a DMPF scheme for  $t$ -point functions by simply summing  $t$  DPFs. We denote this DMPF scheme as the naïve construction.

**CONSTRUCTION 1 (NAÏVE CONSTRUCTION OF DMPF).** Given DPF for domain of size  $N$  and output group  $\mathbb{G}$ , we can construct a DMPF scheme for  $t$ -point functions with domain size  $N$  and output group  $\mathbb{G}$  as follows:

- $\text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{A,B}) \rightarrow (k_0, k_1)$ : Suppose  $A = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_t\}$  and  $B = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_t\}$ . For  $1 \leq i \leq t$ , invoke  $\text{DPF.Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{\alpha_i, \beta_i}) \rightarrow (k_0^i, k_1^i)$ . Set  $(k_0, k_1) = (\{k_0^i\}_{i \in [t]}, \{k_1^i\}_{i \in [t]})$ .
- $\text{Eval}_b(k_b, x) \rightarrow y_b$ : Compute  $y_b = \sum_{i \in [t]} \text{DPF.Eval}_b(k_b^i, x)$ .
- $\text{FullEval}_b(k_b) \rightarrow Y_b$ : Compute  $Y_b = \sum_{i \in [t]} \text{DPF.FullEval}_b(k_b^i, x)$ .

When the DPF scheme is correct and secure, the naïve construction of DMPF is also correct and secure. We note that the keysize and running time of  $\text{Gen}$ ,  $\text{Eval}$  and  $\text{FullEval}$  of the naïve construction of DMPF equals  $t \times$  the keysize and  $t \times$  the running time of  $\text{Gen}$ ,  $\text{Eval}$  and  $\text{FullEval}$  of DPF, respectively. We aim to provide DMPF schemes that has  $\text{Eval}$  and  $\text{FullEval}$  time almost independent to  $t$ .

## 2.3 Batch Code

We introduce batch code and probabilistic batch code, which can be used to construct DMPF (see construction 3).

**DEFINITION 3 (BATCH CODE[11]).** An  $(N, M, t, m)$ -batch code over alphabet  $\Sigma$  is given by a pair of efficient algorithms  $(\text{Encode}, \text{Decode})$  such that:

- $\text{Encode}(x \in \Sigma^N) \rightarrow (C_1, C_2, \dots, C_m)$ : Any string  $x \in \Sigma^N$  is encoded into an  $m$ -tuple of codewords  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_m \in \Sigma^*$  of total length  $M$ .
- $\text{Decode}(I, C_1, C_2, \dots, C_m) \rightarrow \{x[i]\}_{i \in I}$ : On input a set  $I$  of  $t$  distinct indices in  $[N]$  and  $m$  codewords, recover  $t$  coordinates of  $x$  indexed by  $I$  by reading at most one coordinate from each of the  $m$  codeword.

We will focus on a special class of batch code called combinatorial batch code (CBC)[11, 14], where each codeword  $C_i$  is a subset of  $x$  and during decoding the elements read from  $m$  codewords should cover the desired set  $\{x[i]\}_{i \in I}$ . In this case, the encoding algorithm is equivalent to replicating and allocating the indices in  $[N]$  to  $m$  buckets, and the decoding algorithm is equivalent to finding a perfect matching from the size- $t$  subset  $I \subseteq [N]$  to the  $m$  buckets, while indicating which position in each bucket should be read.

**Yaxin: Add example instantiation (random regular bipartite graph) and explain it is not efficient?**

It is useful to relax the definition of batch code, allowing failure probability when decoding.

**DEFINITION 4 (PROBABILISTIC BATCH CODE [1]).** An  $(N, M, t, m, \epsilon)$ -probabilistic batch code over alphabet  $\Sigma$  is a randomized  $(N, M, t, m)$ -batch code with **public randomness**  $r$  (and possibly private randomness for each sub-procedure) such that for any string  $x$  and any set  $I$  of  $t$  distinct indices in  $[N]$ ,

$$\Pr[\text{Decode}_r(I, \text{Encode}_r(x)) \rightarrow \{x[i]\}_{i \in I}] = 1 - \epsilon$$

where the probability is taken over the public randomness  $r$  and private randomness of  $\text{Encode}$  and  $\text{Decode}$  algorithms.

Similarly, a probabilistic CBC (PCBC) will just be a CBC with failure probability when decoding. We mention Cuckoo hashing algorithm[13] as a concrete instantiation of PCBC[1].

**w-way cuckoo hashing.** Given  $t$  balls,  $m = et$  buckets ( $e$  is some expansion parameter that is bigger than 1), and  $w$  independent hash functions  $h_1, h_2, \dots, h_w$  randomly mapping every ball to a bucket, allocates all balls to the buckets such that each bucket contains at most one ball through the following process:

1. Choose an arbitrary unallocated ball  $b$ . If there is no unallocated ball, output the allocation.
2. Choose a random hash function  $h_i$  compute the bucket index  $h_i(b)$ . If this bucket is empty, then allocate  $b$  to this bucket and go to step 1. If this bucket is not empty and filled with ball  $b'$ , then evict  $b'$ , allocate  $b$  to this bucket set  $b'$  the current unallocated ball, and repeat step 2.

If the algorithm terminates then its output is an allocation of balls to buckets such that each bucket contains at most one ball. However there is no guarantee that the algorithm will terminate - it may end up in a loop and keeps running forever. To fixed this problem, the algorithm should be given a fixed amount of time to run, or equipped with a loop detection process to guarantee termination. We call it a *failure* whenever the algorithm fails to output a proper allocation where each bucket contains at most one ball. **Yaxin: Asymptotic parameters:**

On one extreme of linear buckets and many hash functions: [17, Theorem 1] gives  $w$ -way cuckoo hashing scheme for  $t$  balls, with  $w = O(\sqrt{\lambda_{\text{stat}} \log t})$  and  $m = O(t)$ , making  $O(\sqrt{\lambda_{\text{stat}} \log t})$  queries to the hash functions. It supposes the hash functions from a  $O(t\sqrt{\lambda_{\text{stat}} \log t})$ -wise independent hash function family.

On the other extreme of 3 hash functions and quasi-linear buckets: [7, Remark 1] gives  $w = 3$  and  $m = O(\lambda_{\text{stat}} t + t \log t)$ , while supposing the hash functions are collision resilient. It also claims empirical results that  $\lambda = 80$ ,  $w = 3$ ,  $m \leq 2t$  for  $30 \leq t \leq 2^{37}$ .

**The failure probability of cuckoo hashing.** Let's denote the failure probability of  $w$ -way cuckoo hashing to be  $\epsilon = 2^{-\lambda_{\text{stat}}}$ . In practice we usually consider the statistical security parameter  $\lambda_{\text{stat}}$  to be 30 or 40. The empirical result in [6] shows for  $w = 3$ ,  $m = 16384$ ,  $\lambda_{\text{stat}} = 124.4e - 144.6$  where  $e$  is the expansion parameter that  $m = et$ . For  $w = 3$ ,  $m = 8192$ ,  $\lambda_{\text{stat}} = 125e - 145$ . However we use cuckoo hashing to construct DMPF for  $t$ -point functions, in which case we'd also care about  $t$  being small, say 2, 3 or 100, and  $m$  should not be too large. In this sense the previous empirical results are not complete. **Yaxin: [1] uses  $w = 3$ ,  $e = 1.5$ ,  $t > 200$  and  $\lambda_{\text{stat}} \approx 40$  and claims it follows the analysis from [6], but I don't see how...Check [17] for concrete parameters with different  $N$  and  $t$ .**

With the  $t$  balls replicated and allocated to  $m$  buckets, the cuckoo hashing algorithm essentially finds a perfect matching from  $t$  balls to  $m$  buckets, which coincides with the form of (probabilistic) CBC decoding. Therefore a PCBC follows directly from a cuckoo hashing scheme:

**CONSTRUCTION 2 (PCBC FROM CUCKOO HASHING).** Given  $w$ -way cuckoo hashing as a sub-procedure allocating  $t$  balls to  $m$  buckets with failure probability  $\epsilon$ , an  $(N, wN, t, m, \epsilon)$ -PCBC is as follows:

- $\text{Encode}_r(x \in \Sigma^N) \rightarrow (C_1, \dots, C_m)$ : Use  $r$  to determine  $w$  independent random hash functions  $h_1, h_2, \dots, h_w$  that maps from  $[N]$  to  $[m]$ . Let  $C_j$  be  $\{x[i] : h_l(i) = j \text{ for some } l \in [w]\}$ , in ascending order of  $i$ .
- $\text{Decode}_r(I, C_1, \dots, C_m) \rightarrow \{x[i]\}_{i \in I}$ : Determine  $h_1, \dots, h_w$  as in Encode. For  $I$  of size  $t$ , find a perfect matching from  $I$  to  $[m]$  using a  $w$ -way cuckoo hashing scheme. For each  $i \in I$ , fetch  $x[i]$  from  $C_j$  where  $i$  and  $j$  are matched in the perfect matching. Note that  $x[i]$  can be found in the  $k$ th position of  $C_j$  where  $i$  is the  $k$ th smallest index of  $\{i : h_l(i) = j \text{ for some } l \in [w]\}$ .

An ambiguous point in  $\text{Decode}_r$  is how to find the index of  $x[i]$  in  $C_j$  it is mapped to. We display two solutions to this index finding problem:

- (1) When  $N$  is a feasible number, one can directly compute the entire hash tables derived by  $h_1, \dots, h_w$  and compute the index of  $x[i]$  in  $C_j$ .
- (2) One can implement  $w$  hash functions by a single *random permutation*  $P$  mapping from  $[w] \times [N]$  to  $[m] \times [B]$ , where  $B = wN/m$ . Invocation of  $h_i(j)$  is done by computing  $P(i, j)$ , which outputs the bucket number in  $[m]$  and the index in  $[B]$ . Note that in this case  $h_1, \dots, h_w$  are not independent random hash functions, but as long as they **Yaxin: satisfy some sufficient independence property. To be clarified.** This solution is noted in [7] where  $P$  is realized by a PRP.

## 2.4 DMPF Construction from CBC

We display the construction of DMPF from black-box usage of DPF basing on PCBC with appropriate parameters, which has been discussed in previous literature[3, 7]. As discussed before, we assume that the PCBC encoding and decoding are oblivious of the content of the input string.

**CONSTRUCTION 3 (DMPF FROM DPF BASING ON PCBC).** Given DPF for any domain of size no larger than  $N$  and output group  $\mathbb{G}$ , and an  $(N, M, t, m, \epsilon)$ -PCBC with alphabet  $\Sigma = \mathbb{G}$ , we can construct a DMPF scheme for  $t$ -point functions with domain size  $N$  and output group  $\mathbb{G}$  as follows:

- $\text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{A,B}) \rightarrow (k_0, k_1)$ : Suppose  $A = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_t\}$  and  $B = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_t\}$ . Compute  $\text{Encode}([N]) \rightarrow (C_1, \dots, C_m)$  according to the PCBC. Then run  $\text{Decode}(A, C_1, \dots, C_m)$  to determine a perfect matching from  $A$  to  $\{C_1, \dots, C_m\}$ . For  $1 \leq i \leq m$ , let  $f_i : [C_i] \rightarrow \mathbb{G}$  be the following:
  - If  $C_i$  is assigned none of  $A$  by the perfect matching, then set  $f_i$  to be the all-zero function.
  - If exactly one  $\alpha_j$  of  $A$  is assigned to the  $l$ th position of  $C_i$ , then set  $f_i$  to be the point function that outputs  $\beta_j$  on  $l$  and 0 elsewhere.

For  $1 \leq i \leq m$ , invoke  $\text{DPF.Gen}(1^\lambda, f_i) \rightarrow (k_0^i, k_1^i)$ . Set  $(k_0, k_1) = (\{k_0^i\}_{i \in [m]}, \{k_1^i\}_{i \in [m]})$ . If Decode fails then run Encode and Decode again with fresh randomness.

- $\text{Eval}_b(k_b, x) \rightarrow y_b$ : Follow  $\text{Encode}([N])$  to determine the positions  $l_{j_1}, l_{j_2}, \dots, l_{j_s}$  such that the  $x$  is sent to the  $l_{j_i}$ -th position of  $C_{j_i}$  (since the allocation of indices is oblivious of the content of  $TT$ ). Compute  $y_b = \sum_{i=1}^s \text{DPF.Eval}_b(k_b^{j_i}, l_{j_i})$ .
- $\text{FullEval}_b(k_b) \rightarrow Y_b$ : Compute  $Y_b^i = \text{DPF.FullEval}_b(k_b^i)$  for  $1 \leq i \leq m$ . For each input  $x \in [N]$ , follow  $\text{Encode}([N])$  to choose a position  $l_x$  in bucket  $C_{j_x}$  that  $x$  is sent to. Let  $Y_b[x] \leftarrow Y_b^{j_x}[l_x]$ .

The scheme is correct with overwhelming probability and has distinguish advantage  $< 2\epsilon$ .

Note that if one use CBC instead of PCBC then the DMPF scheme is perfectly correct and secure.

When instantiating PCBC using  $w$ -way cuckoo hashing, the *key generation time* is roughly the time for computing cuckoo hashing algorithm, the time for finding  $t$  indices for  $t$  elements in the buckets, plus the total time of all  $\text{DPF.Gen}(1^\lambda, f_i)$ . The *evaluation time* is roughly the time for finding  $w$  indices for one element in the buckets plus the total time of all  $\text{DPF.Eval}_b(k_b^i, l_i)$ . Similarly, the *full-domain evaluation time* is roughly the time for finding  $N$  indices for  $N$  elements in the buckets plus the total time of all  $\text{DPF.FullEval}_b(k_b^j)$  for  $j = 1, \dots, m$ .

## 2.5 Oblivious Key-Value Stores

We introduce the notion of Oblivious key-value stores (OKVS) which can be used to construct DMPF. OKVS was originally proposed as a primitive for private set intersection (PSI) protocols (see [9, 15]).

**DEFINITION 5 (OBLIVIOUS KEY-VALUE STORES (OKVS)[9, 15]).** An Oblivious Key-Value Stores scheme is a pair of randomized algorithms  $(\text{Encode}_r, \text{Decode}_r)$  with respect to a statistical security parameter  $\lambda_{\text{stat}}$  and a computational security parameter  $\lambda$ , a randomness space  $\{0, 1\}^\kappa$ , a key space  $\mathcal{K}$ , a value space  $\mathcal{V}$ , input length  $t$  and output length  $m$ . The algorithms are of the following syntax:

- $\text{Encode}_r(\{(k_1, v_1), (k_2, v_2), \dots, (k_t, v_t)\}) \rightarrow P$ : On input  $t$  key-value pairs with distinct keys, the encode algorithm with randomness  $r$  in the randomness space outputs an encoding  $P \in \mathcal{V}^m \cup \perp$ .
- $\text{Decode}_r(P, k) \rightarrow v$ : On input an encoding from  $\mathcal{V}^m$  and a key  $k \in \mathcal{K}$ , output a value  $v$ .

We require the scheme to satisfy

- For all  $S \in (\mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{V})^t$ ,  $\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\kappa} [\text{Encode}_r(S) = \perp] \leq 2^{-\lambda_{\text{stat}}}$ .
- For all  $S \in (\mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{V})^t$  and  $r \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$  such that  $\text{Encode}_r(S) \rightarrow P \neq \perp$ , it is the case that  $\text{Decode}_r(P, k) \rightarrow v$  whenever  $(k, v) \in S$ .
- **Obliviousness:** Given any distinct key sets  $\{k_1^0, k_2^0, \dots, k_t^0\}$  and  $\{k_1^1, k_2^1, \dots, k_t^1\}$  that are different, if they are paired with

random values then their encodings are computationally indistinguishable, i.e.,

$$\{r, \text{Encode}_r(\{(k_1^0, v_1), \dots, (k_t^0, v_t)\})\}_{v_1, \dots, v_t \leftarrow \mathcal{V}, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\kappa} \\ \approx_c \{r, \text{Encode}_r(\{(k_1^1, v_1), \dots, (k_t^1, v_t)\})\}_{v_1, \dots, v_t \leftarrow \mathcal{V}, r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^\kappa}$$

One can obtain a linear OKVS if in addition require:

- **Linearity:** There exists a function family  $\{\text{row}_r : \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}^m\}_{r \in \{0,1\}^\kappa}$  such that  $\text{Decode}_r(P, k) = \langle \text{row}_r(k), P \rangle$ .

The Encode process for a linear OKVS is the process of sampling a random  $P$  from the set of solutions of the linear system  $\{\langle \text{row}_r(k_i), P \rangle = v_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq t}$ .

We evaluate an OKVS scheme by its rate  $(\frac{\text{input length } t}{\text{output length } m})$ , encoding time and decoding time. A well-known, optimal-rate OKVS construction is encoding  $t$  key-value pairs using a deg- $t$  polynomial:

CONSTRUCTION 4 (POLYNOMIAL). Suppose  $\mathcal{K} = \mathcal{V} = \mathbb{F}$  is a field. Set

- $\text{Encode}(\{(k_i, v_i)\}_{1 \leq i \leq t}) \rightarrow P$  where  $P$  is the coefficients of a  $(t-1)$ -degree  $\mathbb{F}$ -polynomial  $g_P$  that  $g_P(k_i) = v_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq t$ .
- $\text{Decode}(P, k) \rightarrow g_P(k)$ .

The polynomial OKVS possesses an optimal encoding size  $m = n$ , but the Encode process is a polynomial interpolation which is only known to be achieved in time  $O(t \log^2 t)$ . The time for a single decoding is  $O(t)$  and that for batched decodings is (amortized)  $O(\log^2 t)$ .

In the sequel we stress two alternative (linear) OKVS constructions that has near optimal encoding size but much better running time.

CONSTRUCTION 5 (RR22[9, 15]). Suppose  $\mathcal{V} = \mathbb{F}$  is a field. Set  $\text{row}_r(k) := \text{row}_r^{\text{sparse}}(k) \parallel \text{row}_r^{\text{dense}}(k)$  where  $\text{row}_r^{\text{sparse}}(k)$  outputs a uniformly random weight- $w$  vector in  $\{0, 1\}^{m_1}$ , and  $\text{row}_r^{\text{dense}}(k)$  outputs a short dense vector in  $\mathbb{F}^{m_2}$ .

- $\text{Encode}_r(\{(k_i, v_i)\}_{1 \leq i \leq t}) \rightarrow P$  where  $P$  is randomly chosen from the solutions of the system  $\{\langle \text{row}_r(k_i), P \rangle = v_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq t}$ , solved by the triangulation algorithm in [15]. If the system has no solution then output  $\perp$ .
- $\text{Decode}_r(P, k) \rightarrow \langle \text{row}_r(k), P \rangle$ .

We denote  $m_1 = et$ , where  $e$  is an expansion parameter indicating the rough blowup to store  $t$  pairs. In practice the number of dense columns  $m_2$  is usually set to a small constant.

This OKVS construction features an efficient encoding process, constant decoding time  $((w + m_2)$  additions and  $m_2$  multiplications in  $\mathbb{F}$ ) while having a linear encoding size.

Encode may output  $\perp$  if the matrix formed by  $\{\text{row}_r(k_i)\}_{1 \leq i \leq t}$  is not full-rank. Therefore we need to adjust the parameters  $m_1 = et$  and  $m_2$  to ensure negligible error probability (represented by the statistical security parameter  $\lambda_{\text{stat}}$ ). The expansion parameter  $e$  and the number of dense columns  $m_2 := \hat{g}$  (where  $\hat{g}$  is a parameter relating to the equation system solving process) are given by the analysis in [15], with the range of  $N$  from  $2^6$  to  $2^{18}$ . Given  $w$ ,  $t$  and  $\lambda_{\text{stat}}$ , the choices of the  $e$  and  $\hat{g}$  are fixed through the following steps:

- Set  $e^* = \begin{cases} 1.223 & w = 3 \\ 1.293 & w = 4 \\ 0.1485w + 0.6845 & w \geq 5 \end{cases}$ .
- Compute  $\alpha := 0.55 \log_2 t + 0.093w^3 - 1.01w^2 + 2.92w - 0.13$ .
- $e := e^* + 2^{-\alpha}(\lambda_{\text{stat}} + 9.2)$ .
- $\hat{g} := \frac{\lambda_{\text{stat}}}{(w-2) \log_2(et)}$ .

Yaxin: Fix  $t$  and  $\lambda_{\text{stat}}$ , we want to find the best choice of  $w$ . The advantageous choices of  $w$  in [15] are  $w = 3$  and  $w = 5$ . From the first sight when  $w$  is smaller  $e$  can be smaller but  $\hat{g}$  will be larger. Since  $w + \hat{g}$  stands for number of  $\mathbb{F}$ -ADD's and  $\hat{g}$  stands for number of  $\mathbb{F}$ -MULT's in decoding, previously I thought  $\hat{g}$  is the dominating factor of Decode running time. However table 1 in [15] suggests that  $w = 3$  outruns nearly all of other choices of  $w$  while  $w = 5$  is almost 3 times slower in decoding time. This may suggest there are some other heavy computations other than  $\mathbb{F}$ -MULT that need to be considered when evaluating running time.

The range of  $t$  previous literature [9, 15] have considered in their empirical results are also limited, which will be one of our problems. We want to cover small  $t$ , say  $t < 100$ , while previous literature aiming for constructing PSI protocols usually consider very large  $t$ .

One may let  $\text{row}_r^{\text{dense}}$  output a short dense vector in  $\{0, 1\}^{m_2}$  to avoid multiplication of large field elements in the encoding and decoding processes. To achieve same level of security one could simply set  $m_2 = \hat{g} + \lambda_{\text{stat}}$ , as proposed in [9, 15]. As indicated by the empirical results in [15], this binary scheme is usually not as efficient as the original design. Therefore we mostly refer to construction 5.

CONSTRUCTION 6 (RB-OKVS[2]). Suppose  $\mathcal{V} = \mathbb{G}$  is a group. Let  $\text{row}_r(k)$  output a  $\{0, 1\}^m$  vector consisting of a width- $w$  random band. Formally speaking,  $\text{row}_r(k)$  first determine a starting point  $1 \leq i \leq m - w + 1$  for the band, and then determine random  $w$ -bit string to fill in the positions  $[i, i + w - 1]$  of  $\text{row}_r(k)$  and leave the rest as 0 entries.

- $\text{Encode}_r(\{(k_i, v_i)\}_{1 \leq i \leq t}) \rightarrow P$  where  $P$  is randomly chosen from the random band matrix system  $\{\langle \text{row}_r(k_i), P \rangle = v_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq t}$ . If the system has no solution then output  $\perp$ .
- $\text{Decode}_r(P, k) \rightarrow \langle \text{row}_r(k), P \rangle$ .

Denote  $m = et$  where  $e > 1$  is an expansion parameter indicating the blowup to store  $t$  pairs.

The encoding time is equivalent to solving a random band matrix system, which can be efficiently done in  $O(Nw + n \log n)$  time [2]. The decoding time is  $w$  additions in  $\mathbb{F}$  and the rate can be very close to 1.

Again, to guarantee the success of Encode, the random band matrix must be full-rank with overwhelming probability. According to [2], fixing  $e > 1$  and taking  $w = O(\lambda_{\text{stat}}/(e-1) + \log N)$  ensures the correctness and obliviousness with probability  $2^{-\lambda_{\text{stat}}}$  and  $2^{-w}$ , respectively. Practically,  $e = 1.03, 1.05, 1.07, 1.1$  are taken while  $w$  being several hundred to reach the security  $\lambda_{\text{stat}} = 40$ , with the choice of  $N$  varying from  $2^{10}$  to  $2^{20}$ .

According to the comparison in [2] of the RR22-OKVS (construction 5) and the RB-OKVS (construction 6) with the choices of  $N = 2^{16}, 2^{20}, 2^{24}$ , the RB-OKVS has a better rate and features a



tradeoff between rate and encoding/decoding time (one can choose to have better rate with longer encoding/decoding time). The RB-OVS has better encoding time while the RR22-OKVS has better decoding time.

**Yaxin:** Maybe (and how to) put a (quantitative) summarizing table of OKVS efficiency here?

In our later sections, we will give the decoding efficiency of the OKVS the most priority. To this end, we refer to the RR22-OKVS (construction 5) when instantiating OKVS. One may switch to other OKVS constructions depending on different needs in practice.

### 3 NEW DMPF CONSTRUCTIONS

In this section, we display two new constructions of DMPF in section 3.2 and section 3.3 respectively, that follow the same paradigm introduced in section 3.1.

#### 3.1 DMPF paradigm

We begin by introducing the DMPF paradigm in fig. 1, which is based on the idea of the DPF construction in [5]. Each key  $k_b$  ( $b = 0, 1$ ) generated by  $\text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{A,B})$  can span a depth- $n$  ( $n$  is the input length of  $\hat{f}_{A,B}$ ) complete binary tree  $T_b$ . Each node in either tree  $T_b$  is approached by a path starting from the root, which corresponds to a string in  $\{0, 1\}^{\leq n}$  where 0 stands for going left and 1 stands for going right. We call a path that corresponds to any nonzero input  $a \in A$  an accepting path.

We call the trees  $T_0, T_1$  the evaluation trees. Each node in the evaluation tree  $T_b$  is associated with a  $(\lambda + l)$ -bit pseudorandom string  $\text{seed}||\text{sign}$  (the  $\lambda$ -bit seed and  $l$ -bit sign are defined in line 28). The two evaluation trees satisfies the following important properties:

- (1)  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  have identical strings on every node except for the nodes lying on accepting paths.
- (2) For a node lying on an accepting path, its seed strings in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  are pseudorandom and independent, while its sign strings are pseudorandom and follow some correlation (the correlation is designed by specific instantiations).

Party  $b$  can evaluate the input  $x = x_1 \cdots x_n$  by calling  $\text{Eval}_b(1^\lambda, k_b, x)$ , which first parse the key  $k_b$  to the  $\text{seed}||\text{sign}$  string at the root together with  $n$  hints  $\{CW^{(i)}\}_{i \in [n]}$ , for the depth- $i$  layer ( $1 \leq i \leq n$ ) respectively.  $\text{Eval}_b(1^\lambda, k_b, x)$  traverses  $T_b$  along the path indicated by  $x$ , starting from the root, and at a depth- $(i-1)$  node with string  $\text{seed}||\text{sign}$  generates its children's strings by first computing the  $(2\lambda + 2l)$ -bit pseudorandom string  $G(\text{seed})$  where  $G : \{0, 1\}^\lambda \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{2\lambda + 2l}$  is a pseudorandom generator, then adding to  $G(\text{seed})$  a correction computed by  $\text{Correct}(x_1 \dots x_{i-1}, \text{sign}, CW^{(i)})$  (see line 27), and then assign the left  $(\lambda + l)$ -bit string to its left child and the rest to its right child. In particular, the additive correction for the seed strings of two children nodes are the same ( $C_{\text{seed}}$  in line 27), but those for the sign strings of two children nodes are different ( $C_{\text{sign}^0}$  for the left child and  $C_{\text{sign}^1}$  for the right child) in order to force the desired correlation of sign strings.

It is  $\text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{A,B})$ 's job to generate appropriate strings for roots of  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  and hints  $\{CW^{(i)}\}$  for all layers that maintains the properties 1 and 2. At the depth- $i$  layer,  $\text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{A,B})$  utilizes  $\text{GenCW}(i,$

$A, \{\text{seed}_b^{(i-1)}, \text{sign}_b^{(i-1)}\}_{b=0,1})$  to generate the hint  $CW^{(i)}$  for both parties (line 11), where  $\text{seed}_b^{(i-1)}$  records the seed strings in  $T_b$  at the nodes on the accepting paths in the previous layer, and so on. To force the properties 1 and 2 of the evaluation tree, the hint  $CW^{(i)}$  should satisfy the following principles:

- (1) If a depth- $(i-1)$  parent node is on an accepting path and it has a child node exiting this accepting path, then the corrections for this child node (computed by line 27) should force the strings at this node in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  to be the same.
- (2) For every depth- $(i-1)$  parent node on an accepting path, the sign corrections for its child that is still on an accepting path should force the sign strings at this node in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  to follow the desired correlation.

The detailed realization of these principles will be discussed in concrete instantiations. We note that forcing the same strings at each node that exits an accepting suffices for achieving property 1: According to the computation of  $\text{Eval}_b$ , if a parent node is associated with the same strings in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$ , then each of its children is associated with the same strings in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$ , and so is each of the nodes in the subtree rooted at the parent node.

The paradigm add a convert layer after the last layer of the evaluation tree to convert the strings at the leaf nodes to an element in the output group  $\mathbb{G}$  of  $f_{A,B}$ . A hint  $CW^{(n+1)}$  is associated with the convert layer. The output at a leaf node  $x$  with string  $\text{seed}||\text{sign}$  is generated by first computing a pseudorandom  $\mathbb{G}$ -element  $G_{\text{conv}}(\text{seed})$ , then adding to  $G_{\text{conv}}(\text{seed})$  a correction computed by  $\text{ConvCorrect}(x, \text{sign}, CW^{(n+1)})$ , and then give a sign  $(-1)^b$  depending on the party (see line 30). If the leaf node is not on any accepting path, then  $G_{\text{conv}}(\text{seed})$  and the correction should be the same in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$ , which means the outputs in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  at this node should add up to  $0_{\mathbb{G}}$ . On the other hand, if the leaf node is on any accepting path, then the hint  $CW^{(n+1)}$  given by  $\text{Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{A,B})$  should yield corrections that force the outputs in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  to add up to the corresponding element in  $B$ . Such  $CW^{(n+1)}$  is correctly generated by  $\text{GenConvCW}$  (see line 19).

To sum up, we provide the key generation  $\text{Gen}$ , single-input evaluation  $\text{Eval}$  and full-domain evaluation  $\text{FullEval}$  in the paradigm in fig. 1. The computation involves the following methods which will be realized in the next sections:

- Initialize defines the strings at the roots of  $T_0, T_1$ .
- $\text{GenCW}$  computes hints  $\{CW^{(1)}, \dots, CW^{(n)}\}$  associated with  $n$  layers that help generate corrections for the strings at the nodes. Two parties use the same set of correction words.
- $\text{GenConvCW}$  computes the hint  $CW^{(n+1)}$  associated with the convert layer that help generate corrections for the final output. Two parties use the same set of correction words.
- $\text{Correct}$  given a depth- $(i-1)$  parent node, its sign string and the hint  $CW^{(i)}$ , outputs an (additive) correction for its children's strings.
- $\text{ConvCorrect}$  given a leaf node, its sign string and the hint  $CW^{(n+1)}$ , outputs a correction for the final output in the output group  $\mathbb{G}$ .

**Yaxin:** Mention early termination?

**Figure 1: The paradigm of our DMPF schemes. We leave the sign string length  $l$ , methods Initialize, GenCW, GenConvCW, Correct, ConvCorrect to be determined by specific constructions.**

```

1: Public parameters:
2: The  $t$ -point function family  $\{f_{A,B}\}$  with  $t$  an upperbound of the number of nonzero points, input domain  $[N] = \{0, 1\}^n$  and the output group  $\mathbb{G}$ .
3: Suppose there is a public PRG  $G : \{0, 1\}^\lambda \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{2\lambda+2l}$ . Parse  $G(x) = G_0(x) \| G_1(x)$  to the left half and right half of the output.
4: Suppose there is a public PRG  $G_{\text{conv}} : \{0, 1\}^\lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{G}$ .

5: procedure GEN( $1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{A,B}$ )
6:   Denote  $A = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_t)$  in lexicographically order,  $B = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_t)$ . If  $|A| < t$ , extend  $A$  to size- $t$  with arbitrary  $\{0, 1\}^n$  strings and  $B$  with 0's.
7:   For  $0 \leq i \leq n-1$ , let  $A^{(i)}$  denote the sorted and deduplicated list of  $i$ -bit prefixes of strings in  $A$ . Specifically,  $A^{(0)} = [\epsilon]$ .
8:   For  $0 \leq i \leq n-1$  and  $b = 0, 1$ , initialize empty lists  $\text{seed}_b^{(i)}$  and  $\text{sign}_b^{(i)}$ .
9:   Initialize( $\{\text{seed}_b^{(0)}, \text{sign}_b^{(0)}\}_{b=0,1}$ ).
10:  for  $i = 1$  to  $n$  do
11:     $CW^{(i)} \leftarrow \text{GenCW}(i, A, \{\text{seed}_b^{(i-1)}, \text{sign}_b^{(i-1)}\}_{b=0,1})$ .
12:    for  $k = 1$  to  $|A^{(i-1)}|$  and  $z = 0, 1$  do
13:      Compute  $C_{\text{seed},b} \| C_{\text{sign}^0,b} \| C_{\text{sign}^1,b} \leftarrow \text{Correct}(A^{(i-1)}[k], \text{sign}_b^{(i-1)}[k], CW^{(i)})$  for  $b = 0, 1$ , where  $|C_{\text{seed},b}| = \lambda$  and  $|C_{\text{sign}^0,b}| = |C_{\text{sign}^1,b}| = l$ .
14:      if  $A^{(i-1)}[k] \| z \in A^{(i)}$  then
15:        Append the first  $\lambda$  bits of  $G_z(\text{seed}_b^{(i-1)}[k]) \oplus (C_{\text{seed},b} \| C_{\text{sign}^z,b})$  to  $\text{seed}_b^{(i)}$  and the rest  $l$  bits to  $\text{sign}_b^{(i)}$ .
16:      end if
17:    end for
18:  end for
19:   $CW^{(n+1)} \leftarrow \text{GenConvCW}(A, B, \{\text{seed}_b^{(n)}, \text{sign}_b^{(n)}\}_{b=0,1})$ .
20:  Set  $k_b \leftarrow (\text{seed}_b^{(0)}, \text{sign}_b^{(0)}, CW^{(1)}, CW^{(2)}, \dots, CW^{(n+1)})$ .
21:  return  $(k_0, k_1)$ .
22: end procedure

23: procedure EVAL $_b(1^\lambda, k_b, x)$ 
24:  Parse  $k_b = ([\text{seed}], [\text{sign}], CW^{(1)}, CW^{(2)}, \dots, CW^{(n+1)})$ .
25:  Denote  $x = x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$ .
26:  for  $i = 1$  to  $n$  do
27:     $C_{\text{seed}} \| C_{\text{sign}^0} \| C_{\text{sign}^1} \leftarrow \text{Correct}(x_1 \dots x_{i-1}, \text{sign}, CW^{(i)})$ , where  $|C_{\text{seed}}| = \lambda$  and  $|C_{\text{sign}^0}| = |C_{\text{sign}^1}| = l$ .
28:     $\text{seed} \| \text{sign} \leftarrow G_{x_i}(\text{seed}) \oplus (C_{\text{seed}} \| C_{\text{sign}^{x_i}})$ , where  $|\text{seed}| = \lambda$  and  $|\text{sign}| = l$ .
29:  end for
30:  return  $(-1)^b \cdot (G_{\text{conv}}(\text{seed}) + \text{ConvCorrect}(x, \text{sign}, CW^{(n+1)}))$ .
31: end procedure

32: procedure FULLEVAL $_b(1^\lambda, k_b)$ 
33:  Parse  $k_b = (\text{seed}^{(0)}, \text{sign}^{(0)}, CW^{(1)}, CW^{(2)}, \dots, CW^{(n+1)})$ .
34:  For  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $\text{Path}^{(i)} \leftarrow$  the lexicographical ordered list of  $\{0, 1\}^i$ .  $\text{Path}^{(0)} \leftarrow [\epsilon]$ .
35:  Yaxin: The evaluation is BFS-style, which costs a lot of memory to store lists  $\text{seed}^{(i)}, \text{sign}^{(i)}$ . Need a DFS version for large  $N$  to reduce memory use? Write in the clear or explain by words?
36:  for  $i = 1$  to  $n$  do
37:    for  $k = 1$  to  $2^{i-1}$  do
38:       $C_{\text{seed}} \| C_{\text{sign}^0} \| C_{\text{sign}^1} \leftarrow \text{Correct}(\text{Path}^{(i-1)}[k], \text{sign}^{(i-1)}[k], CW^{(i)})$ , where  $|C_{\text{seed}}| = \lambda$  and  $|C_{\text{sign}^0}| = |C_{\text{sign}^1}| = l$ .
39:       $\text{seed}^{(i)}[2k] \| \text{sign}^{(i)}[2k] \leftarrow G_0(\text{seed}^{(i-1)}[k]) \oplus (C_{\text{seed}} \| C_{\text{sign}^0})$ , where  $|\text{seed}^{(i)}[2k]| = \lambda$  and  $|\text{sign}^{(i)}[2k]| = l$ .
40:       $\text{seed}^{(i)}[2k+1] \| \text{sign}^{(i)}[2k+1] \leftarrow G_1(\text{seed}^{(i-1)}[k]) \oplus (C_{\text{seed}} \| C_{\text{sign}^1})$ , where  $|\text{seed}^{(i)}[2k+1]| = \lambda$  and  $|\text{sign}^{(i)}[2k+1]| = l$ .
41:    end for
42:  end for
43:  for  $k = 1$  to  $2^n$  do
44:     $\text{Output}[k] \leftarrow (-1)^b \cdot (G_{\text{conv}}(\text{seed}^{(n)}[k]) + \text{ConvCorrect}(\text{Path}[k], \text{sign}^{(n)}[k], CW^{(n+1)}))$ .
45:  end for
46:  return Output.
47: end procedure

```

### 3.2 Big-State DMPF

We display our first instantiation of DMPF in fig. 2, basing on the paradigm of DMPF in fig. 1. In the big-state DMPF we set the length  $l$  of the sign string to be  $t$ , the number of accepting inputs indicated in  $\hat{f}_{A,B}$ . The evaluation trees  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  satisfies properties 1 and 2, such that the sign string at a node stores a share of the unit vector indicating which accepting path this node is on: for a node lying on the  $k$ th accepting path in the depth- $i$  layer, its sign strings in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  should add up (by bit-wise XOR) to  $e_k = 0^{k-1}10^{t-k}$ . Then, the (additive) corrections for computing strings at its children generated by line 33 of fig. 2 equals  $CW^{(i)}[k]$ , the  $k$ th entry of the hint  $CW^{(i)}$  associated with this layer. According to line 19 in the construction of GenCW, if one of the children exits the accepting path, the seed correction  $C_{seed}$  will zero out the difference of this child's seed strings in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$ . Otherwise  $C_{seed}$  will be a random correction. The sign corrections  $C_{sign^0}$  and  $C_{sign^1}$  will force the sign strings at each child to be a share of  $0^t$  if this child exits the accepting path, or to be a unit vector indicating the index of the accepting path in the next layer this child lies on.

For the convert layer, GenConvCW set  $CW^{(n+1)}[k]$  to be the correction that makes the  $k$ th accepting leaf's outputs in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  to add up to  $B[k]$ .

We informally argue that the correctness of the big-state DMPF holds since properties 1 and 2 of  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  are ensured, which in turn gives correct shares of outputs in the end of evaluation. The security holds since (1) the seed||sign string at the root of  $T_b$  is independent of  $A$  and  $B$ , and (2) each hint  $CW^{(i)}$  is masked by the pseudorandom value determined by the other party's key, which is indistinguishable with a truly random hint.

In the end of this section we briefly discuss about the efficiency of the big-state DMPF, which will be discussed in more details in section 4. Set the naïve solution of DMPF that is a sum of  $t$  DPFs as a primary benchmark. The ratio of keysize of the big-state DMPF over the naïve solution is roughly  $(\lambda + 2t)/(\lambda + 2) > 1$ , which is close to 1 if  $t \ll \lambda$ . Gen, Eval and FullEval all traverse one evaluation tree while the naïve solution traverse  $t$  evaluation trees. However, the PRG used in the big-state DMPF have output length  $2\lambda + 2t$ , which means the running time still grows with  $t$ . In short, the big-state DMPF is faster than the naïve solution with the sacrifice of larger keysize. When  $t \ll \lambda$ , compared to the naïve solution, the big-state DMPF has similar keysize and almost  $\times t$  speedup in running time.

### 3.3 OKVS-based DMPF

Next we display our second instantiation of DMPF in fig. 3, basing on the paradigm of DMPF in fig. 1. We call this instantiation the OKVS-based DMPF, since we utilize primitive OKVS (see section 2.5 for introduction).

In the OKVS-based DMPF, we set the length  $l$  of the sign string to be 1. The sign strings at the same node in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  will obey the following correlation: they are shares of 1 if this node is on an accepting path and 0 if this node is not on any accepting path. In order to ensure properties 1 and 2, for a parent node on an accepting path, the additive correction  $C_{seed}$ ,  $C_{sign^0}$  and  $C_{sign^1}$  for the strings at its children can be determined (see the right hand side in line 15 and 18): if one of its children exits the accepting path, then the seed correction  $C_{seed}$  should zero out this child's seed strings in

**Figure 2: The parameter  $l$  and methods' setting that turns the paradigm of DMPF in fig. 1 into the big-state DMPF.**

```

1: Set  $l \leftarrow t$ , the upperbound of  $|A|$ .
2: procedure INITIALIZE( $\{\text{seed}_b^{(0)}, \text{sign}_b^{(0)}\}_{b=0,1}$ )
3:   For  $b = 0, 1$ , let  $\text{seed}_b^{(0)} = [r_b]$  where  $r_b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ .
4:   For  $b = 0, 1$ , set  $\text{sign}_b^{(0)} = [b \| 0^{t-1}]$ .
5: end procedure

6: procedure GENCW( $i, A, \{\text{seed}_b^{(i-1)}, \text{sign}_b^{(i-1)}\}_{b=0,1}$ )
7:   Let  $\{A^{(i)}\}_{0 \leq i \leq n}$  be defined as in fig. 1.
8:   Sample a list  $CW$  of  $t$  random strings from  $\{0, 1\}^{\lambda+2t}$ .
9:   for  $k = 1$  to  $|A^{(i-1)}|$  do
10:    Parse  $G(\text{seed}_b^{(i-1)}[k]) = \text{seed}_b^0 \| \text{sign}_b^0 \| \text{seed}_b^1 \| \text{sign}_b^1$ ,
    for  $b = 0, 1$ ,  $\text{seed}_b^0, \text{seed}_b^1 \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$  and  $\text{sign}_b^0, \text{sign}_b^1 \in \{0, 1\}^t$ .
11:    Compute  $\Delta \text{seed}^c = \text{seed}_b^c \oplus \text{seed}_1^c$  and  $\Delta \text{sign}^c = \text{sign}_b^c \oplus \text{sign}_1^c$  for  $c = 0, 1$ .
12:    Denote  $\text{path} \leftarrow A^{(i-1)}[k]$ .
13:    if both  $\text{path} \| z$  for  $z = 0, 1$  are in  $A^{(i)}$  then
14:       $d \leftarrow$  the index of  $\text{path} \| 0$  in  $A^{(i)}$ .
15:       $CW[k] \leftarrow r \| (\Delta \text{sign}^0 \oplus e_d) \| (\Delta \text{sign}^1 \oplus e_{d+1})$  where
       $r \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^\lambda, e_d = 0^{d-1}10^{t-d}$ .
16:    else
17:      Let  $z$  be such that  $\text{path} \| z \in A^{(i)}$ .
18:       $d \leftarrow$  the index of  $\text{path} \| z$  in  $A^{(i)}$ .
19:       $CW[k] \leftarrow \begin{cases} \Delta \text{seed}^1 \| (\Delta \text{sign}^0 \oplus e_d) \| \Delta \text{sign}^1 & z = 0 \\ \Delta \text{seed}^0 \| \Delta \text{sign}^0 \| (\Delta \text{sign}^1 \oplus e_d) & z = 1 \end{cases}$ .
20:    end if
21:  end for
22:  return  $CW$ .
23: end procedure

24: procedure GENCONVCW( $A, B, \{\text{seed}_b^{(n)}, \text{sign}_b^{(n)}\}$ )
25:   Sample a list  $CW$  of  $t$  random  $\mathbb{G}$ -elements.
26:   for  $k = 1$  to  $|A|$  do
27:     $\Delta g \leftarrow G_{\text{conv}}(\text{seed}_0^{(n)}[k]) - G_{\text{conv}}(\text{seed}_1^{(n)}[k])$ .
28:     $CW[k] \leftarrow (-1)^{\text{sign}_0^{(n)}[k]} (\Delta g - B[k])$ .
29:   end for
30:   return  $CW$ .
31: end procedure

32: procedure CORRECT( $\bar{x}, \text{sign}, CW$ )
33:   return  $C_{\text{seed}} \| C_{\text{sign}^0} \| C_{\text{sign}^1} \leftarrow \sum_{i=1}^t \text{sign}[i] \cdot CW[i]$ , where
    $C_{\text{sign}^0}$  and  $C_{\text{sign}^1}$  are  $t$ -bit.
34: end procedure

35: procedure CONVCORRECT( $x, \text{sign}, CW$ )
36:   return  $\sum_{i=1}^t \text{sign}[i] \cdot CW[i]$ .
37: end procedure

```

$T_0$  and  $T_1$ . Otherwise  $C_{\text{seed}}$  will be a random correction. The sign corrections  $C_{\text{sign}^0}$  and  $C_{\text{sign}^1}$  will force the sign strings at each child to be a share of 0 if this child exits the accepting path, or to be a share of 1 if it remains on an accepting path.

To generate hints  $\{CW^{(i)}\}$  to yield the corrections, we utilize the OKVS primitive that can encode key-value pairs to a data structure, which can be later decoded with any stored key to its corresponding value. On the depth- $i$  layer, we define the key space to be the set of all depth- $i$  nodes and the value space to be  $\{0, 1\}^{\lambda+2}$ . Each node on this layer that is also on an accepting path needs a  $(\lambda + 2)$ -bit correction. We encode these (node, correction) pairs (there are up to  $t$  such pairs) using an OKVS scheme and set the hint  $CW^{(i)}$  to be the encoding (see line 26). When evaluating, we decode  $CW^{(i)}$  using the same OKVS scheme to obtain the correction with regard to any node (see line 37).

For the convert layer, GenConvCW set  $CW^{(n+1)}$  to be the encoding of (leaf node, output correction) pairs where each output correction associated with a leaf node makes the leaf's outputs in  $T_0$  and  $T_1$  add up to the corresponding element in  $B$ .

Note that in fig. 3 the OKVS scheme  $\text{OKVS}_i$  we use for the depth- $i$  layer has key space of size  $2^i$  and value space  $\{0, 1\}^\lambda$ . For simplicity we may extend the key space of  $\text{OKVS}_i$  to size  $2^n$ , and realize  $\{\text{OKVS}_i\}_{i \in [n]}$  using the same OKVS scheme.

**Yaxin:** One point: the row matrix of the current layer contains the row matrix of the previous layers, which might be useful for speedup.

We informally argue that armed with an OKVS scheme that fails with negligible probability, the correctness of the OKVS-based DMPF holds with overwhelming probability since properties 1 and 2 are ensured, which in turn gives correct shares of outputs in the end of evaluation. The security holds as long as the OKVS scheme is oblivious. Since the corrections are pseudorandom strings that are masked by pseudorandom values determined by the other party's key, the OKVS scheme won't leak any information about the accepting paths due to its obliviousness.

The efficiency of OKVS-based DMPF relies highly on the efficiency of the OKVS scheme it uses. Setting the naïve solution as a benchmark, the ratio of keysize of the naïve solution over the OKVS-based DMPF is roughly the rate of the OKVS scheme. Similar to the advantage of the big-state DMPF, the OKVS-based DMPF also only traverse one evaluation tree (as opposed to traversing  $t$  evaluation trees in the naïve solution). However Gen consumes an OKVS encoding time per layer, and Eval and FullEval consume an OKVS decoding/batch decodings per layer. Therefore with an OKVS scheme that has high rate, fast encoding and decoding will result in an OKVS-based DMPF scheme that has small keysize, fast Gen and Eval/FullEval, respectively.

### 3.4 Comparison

In this section we summarize the efficiency of the DMPF instantiations we've mentioned and constructed so far. We display the key-size and running time of Gen, Eval and FullEval of different DMPF schemes, computed in terms of costs of abstract tools such as PRG, batch code and OKVS. The concrete efficiency will be discussed later in application scenarios in section 4.

**Figure 3: The parameter  $l$  and methods' setting that turns the paradigm of DMPF in fig. 1 into the OKVS-based DMPF.**

```

1: Set  $l \leftarrow 1$ .
2: For  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , let  $\text{OKVS}_i$  be an OKVS scheme (definition 5)
   with key space  $\mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^{i-1}$ , value space  $\mathcal{V} = \{0, 1\}^{\lambda+2}$  and
   input length  $t$ .
3: let  $\text{OKVS}_{\text{conv}}$  be an OKVS scheme with key space  $\mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^n$ ,
   value space  $\mathcal{V} = \mathbb{G}$  and input length  $\min\{2^{i-1}, t\}$ .

4: procedure INITIALIZE( $\{\text{seed}_b^{(0)}, \text{sign}_b^{(0)}\}_{b=0,1}$ )
5:   For  $b = 0, 1$ , let  $\text{seed}_b^{(0)} = [r_b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^\lambda]$  and  $\text{sign}_b^{(0)} = [b]$ .
6: end procedure

7: procedure GENCW( $i, A, \{\text{seed}_b^{(i-1)}, \text{sign}_b^{(i-1)}\}_{b=0,1}$ )
8:   Let  $\{A^{(i)}\}_{0 \leq i \leq n}$  be defined as in fig. 1.
9:   Sample a list  $V$  of  $t$  random strings from  $\{0, 1\}^{\lambda+2}$ .
10:  for  $k = 1$  to  $|A^{(i-1)}|$  do
11:    Parse  $G(\text{seed}_b^{(i-1)}[k]) = \text{seed}_b^0 \parallel \text{sign}_b^0 \parallel \text{seed}_b^1 \parallel \text{sign}_b^1$ ,
    for  $b = 0, 1$ ,  $\text{seed}_b^0, \text{seed}_b^1 \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$  and  $\text{sign}_b^0, \text{sign}_b^1 \in \{0, 1\}$ .
12:    Compute  $\Delta \text{seed}^c = \text{seed}_0^c \oplus \text{seed}_1^c$  and  $\Delta \text{sign}^c = \text{sign}_0^c \oplus \text{sign}_1^c$  for  $c = 0, 1$ .
13:    Denote  $\text{path} \leftarrow A^{(i-1)}[k]$ .
14:    if both  $\text{path} \parallel z$  for  $z = 0, 1$  are in  $A^{(i)}$  then
15:       $V[k] \leftarrow r \parallel \Delta \text{sign}^0 \oplus 1 \parallel \Delta \text{sign}^1 \oplus 1$ , where  $r \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ .
16:    else
17:      Let  $z$  be such that  $\text{path} \parallel z \in A^{(i)}$ .
18:       $V[k] \leftarrow \Delta \text{seed}^{1-z} \parallel \Delta \text{sign}^0 \oplus (1 - z) \parallel \Delta \text{sign}^1 \oplus z$ .
19:    end if
20:  end for
21:  Copy the list  $A^{(i-1)}$  to the list  $K$ .
22:  for  $j = |K| + 1$  to  $\min\{2^{i-1}, t\}$  do
23:    Set  $K[j]$  to be an arbitrary string in  $\{0, 1\}^{i-1}$  that is
    different from  $K[1 \dots j - 1]$ .
24:    Set  $V[j]$  to be a random string in  $\{0, 1\}^{\lambda+2}$ .
25:  end for
26:  return  $\text{OKVS}_i.\text{Encode}(\{K[j], V[j]\}_{1 \leq j \leq |K|})$ .
27: end procedure

28: procedure GENCONVCW( $A, B, \{\text{seed}_b^{(n)}, \text{sign}_b^{(n)}\}$ )
29:   Sample a list  $V$  of  $t$  random  $\mathbb{G}$ -elements.
30:   for  $k = 1$  to  $|A|$  do
31:      $\Delta g \leftarrow G_{\text{conv}}(\text{seed}_0^{(n)}[k]) - G_{\text{conv}}(\text{seed}_1^{(n)}[k])$ .
32:      $V[k] \leftarrow (-1)^{\text{sign}_0^{(n)}[k]} (\Delta g - B[k])$ .
33:   end for
34:   return  $\text{OKVS}_{\text{conv}}(\{A[k], V[k]\}_{1 \leq k \leq t})$ .
35: end procedure

36: procedure CORRECT( $\bar{x}, \text{sign}, CW$ )
37:   return  $C_{\text{seed}} \parallel C_{\text{sign}^0} \parallel C_{\text{sign}^1} \leftarrow \text{sign} \cdot \text{OKVS}_i.\text{Decode}(CW, \bar{x})$ ,
   where  $C_{\text{sign}^0}$  and  $C_{\text{sign}^1}$  are bits.
38: end procedure

39: procedure CONVCORRECT( $x, \text{sign}, CW$ )
40:   return  $\text{sign} \cdot \text{OKVS}_{\text{conv}}.\text{Decode}(CW, x)$ .
41: end procedure

```



**Table 1: Keysize and running time comparison for different DMPF constructions for domain size  $N$ ,  $t$  accepting points, output group  $\mathbb{G}$  and computational security parameter  $\lambda$ . We leave this table with the abstraction of (probabilistic) batch code in the second column and the abstraction of OKVS in the last column, and plug in concrete instantiations later.  $m$  in the second column stands for the number of buckets in batch code, and  $w$  stands for the number of buckets that each input coordinate is mapped to (we only consider regular degree because this is the case in most instantiations). **Yaxin: Denote  $T_G$  as the time for computing  $G : \{0, 1\}^{\lambda+1} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{2\lambda+2}$ , and  $T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$  as the time for computing  $G_{\text{conv}} : \{0, 1\}^\lambda \rightarrow \mathbb{G}$ . In the last column, denote OKVS as the OKVS scheme used for the first  $n$  layers, and  $\text{OKVS}_{\text{conv}}$  as the OKVS scheme used for the convert layer.****

	Sum of $t$ DPFs	CBC-based DMPF[1, 3, 7, 16]	Big-state DMPF	OKVS-based DMPF
Keysize	$t(\lambda + 2) \log N + t \log \mathbb{G}$	$m(\lambda + 2) \log(wN/m) + m \log \mathbb{G}$	$t(\lambda + 2t) \log N + t \log \mathbb{G}$	$\log N \times \text{OKVS.CodeSize} + \text{OKVS}_{\text{conv}}.\text{CodeSize}$
$Gen()$	$2t \log N \times T_G + 2t \times T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$	$2m \log(wN/m) \times T_G + 2m \times T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$ CBC.Encode + CBC.Decode	$2t \log N \times T_{G^*}^1$	$2t \log N \times T_G + 2t \times T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$ + $\log N \times \text{OKVS.Encode}$ + $\text{OKVS}_{\text{conv}}.\text{Encode}$
$Eval()$	$t \log N \times T_G + t \times T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$	$w \log(wN/m) \times T_G + w \times T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$ Finding all positions the input is mapped to	$\log N \times T_{G^*} + T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$	$\log N \times T_G$ + $\log N \times \text{OKVS.Decode}$ + $\text{OKVS}_{\text{conv}}.\text{Decode}$
$FullEval()$	$tN \times T_G + tN \times T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$	$wN \times T_G + wN \times T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$ Finding the full mapping	$N \times T_{G^*} + N \times T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$	$N \times T_G$ + $N \times \text{OKVS.Decode}$ + $N \times \text{OKVS}_{\text{conv}}.\text{Decode}$

<sup>1</sup> The PRG used in big-state DMPF maps from  $\{0, 1\}^\lambda$  to  $\{0, 1\}^{2\lambda+2t}$  whose computation time should grow with  $t$ . We mark this PRG as  $G^*$  and its computation time as  $T_{G^*}$ .

Take PCG as a potential application. We care about FullEval time which is related to PCG seed expanding time. In this aspect, the CBC-based DMPF consumes  $d \times \text{PRGs}$  than big-state DMPF and OKVS-based DMPF, while big-state DMPF's FullEval time scales with  $t$  and OKVS-based DMPF in addition consumes large field multiplications (in OKVS decoding, and maybe more than this). Therefore we expect different DMPF schemes to be the top choice in different choices of  $t$  and depending on the computing time of PRG and large field multiplication.

### 3.5 Distributed Key Generation

### 3.6 Distributed Multi-Inverval

## 4 APPLICATIONS

In this section we compare and discuss about the efficiency of different DMPF schemes in concrete application scenarios, namely when used for constructing pseudorandom correlation generator (PCG) and unbalanced private set intersection protocol (unbalanced PSI). For convenience of discussion, we use  $\text{DMPF}_{t,N,\mathbb{G}}$  to denote a DMPF scheme for  $t$ -point functions with domain  $[N]$  and output group  $\mathbb{G}$ .

To give a rough impression, we list the number of accepting points  $t$ , the domain size  $N$  and the output group  $\mathbb{G}$  of DMPF usually used in generating the PCG or unbalanced PSI protocol in table 2.

### 4.1 PCG for OLE from Ring-LPN

In this section we discuss the efficiency of different DMPF schemes in the PCG application. We begin by briefly introducing the protocol of PCG for OLE from Ring-LPN assumption, proposed in [4].

*The PCG protocol for OLE correlation.* The hardness assumption we will make use of is a variant of Ring-LPN, called module-LPN assumption.

**DEFINITION 6 (MODULE-LPN).** Let  $c \geq 2$  be an integer,  $R = \mathbb{Z}_p[X]/F(X)$  for a prime  $p$  and a  $\deg-N$  polynomial  $F(X) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[X]$ , and  $\mathcal{H}\mathcal{W}_{R,t}$  be the uniform distribution over weight- $t$  polynomials in  $R$  whose degree is less than  $N$  and has at most  $t$  nonzero coefficients. For  $R = R(\lambda)$ ,  $t = t(\lambda)$  and  $m = m(\lambda)$ , we say that the module-LPN problem  $R^c$ -LPN is hard if for every nonuniform polynomial-time probabilistic distinguisher  $\mathcal{A}$ , it holds that

$$|\Pr[\mathcal{A}(\{\vec{a}^{(i)}, \langle \vec{a}^{(i)}, \vec{s} \rangle + \vec{e}^{(i)}\}_{i \in [m]})] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\{\vec{a}^{(i)}, \vec{u}^{(i)}\}_{i \in [m]})]| \leq \text{negl}(\lambda)$$

**Table 2: Parameters of DMPF in concrete applications.**

Concrete application	Cost in terms of DMPF per correlation/execution	Typical DMPF parameters
PCG for OLE from Ring-LPN	seedsize $\propto$ DMPF.keysize expand time $\propto$ DMPF.FullEval()	Number of accepting points: $5^2, 16^2, 76^2$ Domain size: $2^{20}$ Output group: $\mathbb{Z}_p$ where $\log p = 128$
PSI-WCA	communication $\propto$ DMPF.keysize client computation $\propto$ DMPF.Gen() server computation $\propto$ DMPF.Eval()	Number of accepting points: any Domain size: $2^{128}$ Output group: any

where the probabilities are taken over the randomness of  $\mathcal{A}$ , random samples  $\vec{a}^{(1)}, \dots, \vec{a}^{(m)} \leftarrow R^{c-1}$ ,  $\vec{u}^{(1)}, \dots, \vec{u}^{(m)} \leftarrow R$ ,  $\vec{s} \leftarrow \mathcal{HW}_{R,t}^{c-1}$ , and  $\vec{e}^{(1)}, \dots, \vec{e}^{(m)} \leftarrow \mathcal{HW}_{R,t}^c$ .

When we only consider  $m = 1$ , each  $R^c$ -LPN instance  $\langle \vec{a}, \vec{s} \rangle + \vec{e}$  can be restated as  $\langle \vec{a}', \vec{e}' \rangle$  where  $\vec{a}' = 1||\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{e}' \leftarrow \mathcal{HW}_{R,t}^c$ .

The PCG protocol in [4] generates seed for the OLE correlation  $(x_0, x_1, z_0, z_1) \in R^4$  such that  $x_0 + x_1 = z_0 \cdot z_1$ , where  $R = \mathbb{Z}_p[X]/F(X)$  for a prime  $p$  and a deg- $N$  polynomial  $F(X) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[X]$ . The idea is to first set  $z_b = \langle \vec{a}, \vec{e}_b \rangle$  (an  $R^c$ -LPN instance with public  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{e}_b \leftarrow \mathcal{HW}_{R,t}^c$ ). Basing on the fact that  $\langle \vec{a}, \vec{e}_0 \rangle \cdot \langle \vec{a}, \vec{e}_1 \rangle = \langle \vec{a} \otimes \vec{a}, \vec{e}_0 \otimes \vec{e}_1 \rangle$ , the next step is to additively share the tensor product  $\vec{e}_0 \otimes \vec{e}_1$  and each party can compute an additive share of  $z_0 \cdot z_1$ . Note that the tensor product  $\vec{e}_0 \otimes \vec{e}_1$  consists of  $c^2$  entries, each being an deg- $2N$  polynomial with at most  $t^2$  nonzero coefficients. Therefore it can be shared by invoking  $\text{DMPF}_{t^2, 2N, \mathbb{Z}_p}$  for  $c^2$  times.

One can compute the seed size and expanding time of this PCG protocol as follows:

- The seed size is  $ct(\log N + \log p)$  bits for specifying  $\vec{e}_b$  plus the  $c^2 \times \text{keysize}$  of DMPF.
- The expanding time is  $c^2$  multiplications in the deg- $2N$  polynomial ring **Yaxin: or  $2c^2$  multiplications since  $\vec{a} \otimes \vec{a}$  need also be computed?** plus  $c^2 \times \text{full-domain evaluation time}$  of DMPF.

**REMARK 7 (FROM OLE OVER POLYNOMIAL RING  $R$  TO OLE OVER  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ ).** Note that the above PCG protocol generates seed for OLE correlation over deg- $N$  polynomial ring  $R$ . One can immediately convert an OLE correlation over ring  $R$  to  $N$  **OLE correlations over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$**  if the polynomial  $F(X)$  splits into  $N$  distinct linear factors modulo  $p$ [4]. Therefore we mostly consider reducible  $F$  and more concretely  $F$  a two-power cyclotomic due to its useful properties.

*Amortized expanding time for each OLE correlation over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .* The amortized expanding time for each OLE correlation over  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is computed by

$$T_{\text{Amortized}} = c^2 \cdot (2\bar{T}_N^{\text{MULT}} + \bar{T}_{t,N}^{\text{FullEval}})$$

where

$$\bar{T}_N^{\text{MULT}} := \frac{\text{deg} < N \text{ polynomial multiplication}}{N}$$

is the amortized cost for computing one  $\text{deg} < N$  polynomial multiplication, and

$$\bar{T}_{t,N}^{\text{FullEval}} := \frac{\text{DMPF}_{t^2, 2N, \mathbb{Z}_p}.\text{FullEval}}{N}$$

is the amortized cost for computing a share of an entry of  $\vec{e}_0 \otimes \vec{e}_1$ . This cost differs under different  $\text{DMPF}_{t^2, 2N, \mathbb{Z}_p}$  instantiations: **Yaxin:  $T_{G_{\text{conv}}}$  is ignored for now.**

- Sum of DPFs:  $2t^2 \times T_G$ .
- CBC-based DMPF ( $\mathcal{HW}_t$ ):  $2w \times T_G + 2w \times T_{\text{hash}}^1$ .
- Big-state DMPF:  $2T_{G^*}$ , where  $G^*$  maps  $\lambda$ -bit to  $(2\lambda + 2t)$ -bit.
- OKVS-based DMPF:  $2(T_G + \text{OKVS.Decode})^2$ .

Using the regular noise distribution to split  $\text{DMPF}_{t^2, 2N, \mathbb{Z}_p}$ . A previous optimization in [4], aiming to share the entries of  $\vec{e}_0 \otimes \vec{e}_1$  through DPFs but with less overhead (in contrast to the  $2t^2 \times T_G$  cost before), is to substitute  $\mathcal{HW}_{R,t}$  with the distribution of random regular weight- $t$  polynomials denoted as  $\mathcal{RHW}_{R,t}$ . Each regular weight- $t$  polynomial  $e$  contains exactly one nonzero coefficient  $e_j$  in the range of degree  $[j \cdot N/t, (j+1) \cdot N/t - 1]$  for  $j = 0, \dots, t-1$ . When multiplying two regular weight- $t$  polynomials  $e$  and  $f$ ,  $e_i \cdot f_j$  contributes to a coefficient in the range of degree  $[(i+j) \cdot N/t, (i+j+2) \cdot N/t - 2]$ . Therefore the deg- $2N$  polynomial  $e \cdot f$  can be shared by invoking  $\{\text{DMPF}^{(k)} = \text{DMPF}_{\min(k, 2t-k), 2N/t, \mathbb{Z}_p}\}_{1 \leq k \leq 2t-1}$ , where  $\text{DMPF}^{(k)}$ 's domain corresponds to the coefficients in the range of degree  $[(k-1)N/t, (k+1)N/t - 2]$  in the resulting polynomial  $e \cdot f$ . Then each  $\text{DMPF}^{(k)}$  in the set  $\{\text{DMPF}^{(k)}\}_{1 \leq k \leq 2t-1}$  can be instantiated by one of the mentioned schemes: sum of DPFs (used in [4]), CBC-based, big-state, or OKVS-based DMPF. We note that the efficiency (in terms of FullEval time) of all these instantiations are more or less related to the number of nonzero inputs in the targeted DMPF, therefore using  $\mathcal{RHW}_{R,t}$  instead to  $\mathcal{HW}_{R,t}$  reduces the number of nonzero inputs from  $t^2$  to at most  $t$  may be beneficial in some occasions.

An alternative way to split  $\text{DMPF}_{t^2, 2N, \mathbb{Z}_p}$ , basing on the previous observation, is to share the coefficients of  $e \cdot f$  by invoking  $\{\text{DMPF}'^{(k)} = \text{DMPF}_{2\min(k+1, 2t-k)-1, N/t, \mathbb{Z}_p}\}_{0 \leq k \leq 2t-1}$ , where  $\text{DMPF}'^{(k)}$ 's domain corresponds to the coefficients in the range of degree  $[kN/t, (k+1)N/t - 1]$ . Since the number of nonzero coefficients in  $[kN/t, (k+1)N/t - 1]$  is upperbounded by the sum of number of nonzero coefficients in  $[(k-1)N/t, (k+1)N/t - 2]$  and in  $[kN/t, (k+2)N/t - 2]$ ,  $\text{DMPF}'^{(k)}$  has at most  $2\min(k+1, 2t-k) - 1$  nonzero inputs. The advantage of using  $\{\text{DMPF}'^{(k)}\}_{0 \leq k \leq 2t-1}$  is

<sup>1</sup>The hash function's domain and range are related to  $t$ .

<sup>2</sup>The OKVS scheme encodes at most  $t$  key-value pairs. OKVS.Decode usually takes a small number of field addition or field multiplication in  $\mathbb{F}_{2^\lambda}$ , depending on the implementation.

that the previous concatenation through  $\{\text{DMPF}^{(k)}\}_{1 \leq k \leq 2t-1}$  creates overlapping ranges, which doubles the number of PRG invocations when realizing by CBC-based, big-state, and OKVS-based DMPF. By using  $\{\text{DMPF}'^{(k)}\}_{0 \leq k \leq 2t-1}$ , the ranges are not overlapping and therefore maintains the minimal PRG invocations, while also preserving a relatively small number of nonzero inputs (at most  $2t - 1$ ) in each  $\text{DMPF}'^{(k)}$ .

Previously, [4] uses sum of DPFs to instantiate  $\{\text{DMPF}^{(k)}\}_{1 \leq k \leq 2t-1}$  in the first optimized design with regular noise distribution. It indicates using batch code to achieve DMPF as another optimization but not in the clear. We'll analyze the cost of this PCG protocol under the following settings:

- (1) with noise distribution  $\mathcal{H}\mathcal{W}_{R,t}$  and each multiplication of sparse polynomials is shared by  $\text{DMPF}_{t^2, 2N, \mathbb{Z}_p}$
- (2)  $i$ th noise distribution  $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{H}\mathcal{W}_{R,t}$  and each multiplication of regular sparse polynomials is shared by

$$\{\text{DMPF}^{(k)} = \text{DMPF}_{\min(k, 2t-k), 2N/t, \mathbb{Z}_p}\}_{1 \leq k \leq 2t-1}$$

- (3)  $i$ th noise distribution  $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{H}\mathcal{W}_{R,t}$  and each multiplication of sparse polynomials is shared by

$$\{\text{DMPF}'^{(k)} = \text{DMPF}_{2\min(k+1, 2t-k)-1, N/t, \mathbb{Z}_p}\}_{0 \leq k \leq 2t-1}$$

**Yaxin: Dec 27: It is also mentioned using more advanced noise distributions to avoid overlapping ranges. For now it remains to give the concrete costs for (1)  $\text{DMPF}_{t^2, 2N, \mathbb{Z}_p}$ ; (2)  $\text{DMPF}_{1/2/\dots/t, 2N/t, \mathbb{Z}_p}$ ; (3)  $\text{DMPF}_{1/2/\dots/(2t-1), N/t, \mathbb{Z}_p}$  under sum of DPFs/CBC-based/big-state/OKVS-based instantiations.**

We'll instantiate DMPF in different ways as listed in table 1. The costs of PCG protocols under different settings are listed in table 3.

**Yaxin: One caveat: can CBC-based / OKVS-based DMPF fit into the regular design, while it requires shares of 1, 2, 3-point functions?**

*Setting parameters  $(N, c, t)$  against best attacks.* Next we plug in concrete parameters and evaluate the performance of different DMPF schemes under different PCG parameter settings.

The parameters  $(N, c, t)$  should be set in a way that the corresponding  $R^c$ -LPN problem is secure with computational security parameter  $\lambda$ . In [4] the parameters are taken to be  $(\lambda, N, c, t) \in \{(128, 2^{20}, 8, 5), (128, 2^{20}, 4, 16), (128, 2^{20}, 2, 76)\}$  against several attacks, with the best among which predicted to be the SD attack. The three parameters are comparable in efficiency in [4] because they used the second DMPF instantiation (concatenation of DPFs under  $\mathcal{R}\mathcal{H}\mathcal{W}_t$  distribution) whose cost scales with  $c^2t$ . By using the new DMPF instantiations we may see significant difference among the three tuples of parameters.

**How to compute  $(N, c, t)$ :** Define the number of noisy coordinate  $W := ct$ . We set the parameters  $(\lambda, c, N, W)$  such that the best attack requires at least  $2^\lambda$  arithmetic operations over field  $\mathbb{F}_p$  of size approximately  $2^{128}$ . According to [4], for  $R$  from an irreducible  $F$ , we lowerbound the number of arithmetic operations by  $N \cdot (c \cdot \frac{N}{N-1})^W \approx N \cdot c^W$ . **Yaxin: TBD: Check [12] for latest update about this cost. Double check if the cost of practical attacks against  $R^c$ -LPN scales with entropy.** For  $R$  from a reducible  $F$ , we

lowerbound the number of arithmetic operations by  $2^i \cdot c^{W_i}$ , where

$$i := \arg \min_{1 \leq j \leq \log N} (2^j \cdot c^{W_j})$$

$$W_j := W - 2^j c + ((2^j - 1)c + W) \cdot (1 - 2^{-j})^{W/c-1}$$

In the end we round  $W$  such that  $t = W/c$  is an integer.

**Yaxin: Previous calculation as a reference:** choosing the big-state DMPF for  $t < 8$  and the OKVS-DMPF for  $t \geq 8$  gives at least  $\times 2$  acceleration on expand time over other choices with sacrifice on the keysize. There is a tradeoff between the CBC-based and OKVS-DMPF in that the OKVS-DMPF always provides a  $\sim \times 2$  acceleration on expand time, but a loss in seed size that when  $t$  is large it may blow up the seed size to  $\sim \times 2$  that of the CBC-based-DMPF.

## 4.2 Unbalanced PSI-WCA

A private set intersection (PSI) protocol allows two parties with input  $X, Y$  being two sets to learn about their intersection  $X \cap Y$  without revealing additional information of  $X$  or  $Y$ . We denote by PSI-WCA (weighted cardinality) a variant of PSI that computes the weighted cardinality of elements in  $X \cap Y$  where the weights are determined by a pre-fixed function  $w(\cdot)$ .

We will be interested in *unbalanced* PSI-WCA where  $|X| \gg |Y|$  and the output should be received by the party holding  $Y$ . In this problem we call the party holding  $X$  as the server, and the party holding  $Y$  as the client. If further the big set  $X$  is held by two non-colluding servers, then such an unbalanced PSI-WCA protocol can be constructed from DMPF, as suggested in [8]:

- The client invokes  $\text{DMPF.Gen}(1^\lambda, \hat{f}_{Y, w(Y)}) \rightarrow (k_0, k_1)$ , where  $w(Y)$  is the set of weights of elements in  $Y$ . Then the client send  $k_0$  to server 0 and  $k_1$  to server 1.
- Server  $b$  computes  $s_b = \sum_{x \in X} \text{DMPF.Eval}_b(1^\lambda, k_b, x)$  and send it back to the client.
- The client computes  $s_0 + s_1$ , which will be the weighted cardinality of  $X \cap Y$ .

One caveat is that this protocol reveals information about  $Y$  that is leaked by DMPF. Plugging in any DMPF instantiations we have mentioned, the size of  $|Y|$  will be leaked to the servers.

The cost of our unbalanced PSI-WCA can be computed as follows:

- The communication cost equals the keysize of DMPF.
- The client computation time equals the key generation time of DMPF.
- The server computation time equals  $|X| \times$  the evaluation time of DMPF.

We'll instantiate DMPF in different ways as listed in table 1. As suggested in [8], we take an infeasibly large domain for the sets  $X$  and  $Y$  to locate, whose size is  $N = 2^{128}$ . The set sizes  $|X|$  and  $|Y|$  can vary depending on application scenarios. Since  $|Y|$  is the crucial factor that distinguishes different DMPF instantiations, we will only consider the change of  $|Y|$ . The costs of PSI-WCA protocols under different settings of  $|Y|$  are listed in table 4.

**Yaxin: Previous calculation as a reference:** A short conclusion is using big-state DMPF for  $t < 64$  and the OKVS-DMPF for  $t \geq 64$  gives at  $\sim \times 2$  faster Eval() time and faster Gen() time compared

**Table 3: Seed size and expanding time of PCG protocols for the same  $(\lambda, N, c, t)$  with different choices of noise distributions in module-LPN assumption, and with different DMPF instantiations. We use construction 5 as an instantiation of OKVS. The seed size is represented by total DMPF share size and the expanding time is represented by total DMPF.FullEval time. The PRG evaluations in the first  $\log(2N)$  layers and in the convert layer are both regarded as the same PRG.  $e = m/t$  in the second row represents the expansion parameter for PBC where  $m$  is the number of buckets, and  $e'$  in the last row represents the expansion parameter (the inverse of rate) for OKVS.**

DMPF instantiation	Noise type	Total share size	Total FullEval time (only listed PRG and OKVS)
Sum of DPFs	regular	$c^2 t^2 \lambda \log(2N/t) + c^2 t^2 \log p$	$4c^2 t N \times \text{PRG}$
	nonregular	$c^2 t^2 \lambda \log(2N) + c^2 t^2 \log p$	$4c^2 t^2 N \times \text{PRG}$
Batch-code DMPF	regular	$ec^2 t^2 \lambda \log(\frac{wN}{et}) + ec^2 t^2 \log p$	$8c^2 w N \times \text{PRG}$
	nonregular	$ec^2 t^2 \lambda \log(\frac{2wN}{et^2}) + ec^2 t^2 \log p$	$4c^2 w N \times \text{PRG}$
Big-state DMPF	regular	$c^2 t^2 (\lambda + \frac{4}{3}t) \log(2N) + c^2 t^2 \log p$	$8c^2 N \times \text{PRG}^*1$
	nonregular	$c^2 t^2 (\lambda + 2t) \log(2N) + c^2 t^2 \log p$	$4c^2 N \times \text{PRG}^*$
OKVS-based DMPF	regular	$e' c^2 t^2 \lambda \log(2N/t) + e' c^2 t^2 \log p$	$8c^2 N \times \text{PRG} + 8c^2 N \times \text{OKVS.Decode}$
	nonregular	$e' c^2 t^2 \lambda \log(2N) + e' c^2 t^2 \log p$	$4c^2 N \times \text{PRG} + 4c^2 N \times \text{OKVS.Decode}$

<sup>1</sup> The PRG used in big-state DMPF maps from  $\{0, 1\}^\lambda$  to  $\{0, 1\}^{2\lambda+2t^2}$  whose computation time should grow with  $t^2$ .

**Table 4: Communication cost, client and server computation time of the PSI-WCA protocol for domain size  $N = 2^{128}$ , weight group  $\mathbb{G}$ , and different choices of client's set size  $|Y|$ . We use construction 5 as an instantiation of OKVS. The PRG evaluations in the first  $\log N$  layers and in the convert layer are both regarded as the same PRG.  $e$  in the second row represents the expansion parameter for PBC, and  $e'$  in the last row represents the expansion parameter for OKVS.**

DMPF instantiation	Communication cost	Client computation time	Server computation time
Sum of DPFs	$ Y  \lambda \log N +  Y  \log  \mathbb{G} $	$2 Y  \log N \times \text{PRG}$	$ X  \cdot  Y  \log N \times \text{PRG}$
Batch-code DMPF	$e Y  \lambda \log(\frac{wN}{e Y }) + e Y  \log  \mathbb{G} $	$2e Y  \log(\frac{wN}{e Y }) \times \text{PRG}$	$w X  \log(\frac{wN}{e Y }) \times \text{PRG}$
Big-state DMPF	$ Y (\lambda + 2 Y ) \log N +  Y  \log  \mathbb{G} $	$2 Y  \log N \times \text{PRG}^*1$	$ X  \log N \times \text{PRG}^*$
OKVS-based DMPF	$e' Y  \lambda \log N + e' Y  \log  \mathbb{G} $	$2 Y  \log N \times \text{PRG} + \log N \times \text{OKVS.Encode}$	$ X (\log N \times \text{PRG} + \log N \times \text{OKVS.Decode})$

<sup>1</sup> The PRG used in big-state DMPF maps from  $\{0, 1\}^\lambda$  to  $\{0, 1\}^{2\lambda+2|Y|}$  whose computation time should grow with  $|Y|$ .

to the naive and CBC-based construction. The keysize ( $\propto$  communication complexity) of our choice is usually smaller than the CBC-based DMPF and slightly larger than the naive construction.

### 4.3 Security analysis

### 4.4 Heavy-hitters

private heavy-hitter  
or parallel ORAM?

## 5 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

tbd

## REFERENCES

- [1] Sebastian Angel, Hao Chen, Kim Laine, and Srinath Setty. 2017. PIR with compressed queries and amortized query processing. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Paper 2017/1142. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2017/1142>
- [2] Alexander Bienstock, Sarvar Patel, Joon Young Seo, and Kevin Yeo. 2023. Near-Optimal Oblivious Key-Value Stores for Efficient PSI, PSU and Volume-Hiding Multi-Maps. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Paper 2023/903. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2023/903>
- [3] Elette Boyle, Geoffroy Couteau, Niv Gilboa, and Yuval Ishai. 2019. Compressing Vector OLE. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Paper 2019/273. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3243734.3243868>
- [4] Elette Boyle, Geoffroy Couteau, Niv Gilboa, Yuval Ishai, Lisa Kohl, and Peter Scholl. 2022. Efficient Pseudorandom Correlation Generators from Ring-LPN. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Paper 2022/1035. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-56880-1\\_14](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-56880-1_14)
- [5] Elette Boyle, Niv Gilboa, and Yuval Ishai. 2018. Function Secret Sharing: Improvements and Extensions. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Paper 2018/707. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2018/707>
- [6] Hao Chen, Kim Laine, and Peter Rindal. 2017. Fast Private Set Intersection from Homomorphic Encryption. In *Proceedings of the 2017 ACM SIGSAC Conference on Computer and Communications Security (CCS '17)*. Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 1243–1255. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3133956.3134061>
- [7] Leo de Castro and Antigoni Polychroniadou. 2021. Lightweight, Maliciously Secure Verifiable Function Secret Sharing. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Paper



- 2021/580. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2021/580> <https://eprint.iacr.org/2021/580>.
- [8] Samuel Dittmer, Yuval Ishai, Steve Lu, Rafail Ostrovsky, Mohamed Elsabagh, Nikolaos Kiourtis, Brian Schulte, and Angelos Stavrou. 2020. Function Secret Sharing for PSI-CA: With Applications to Private Contact Tracing. *Cryptology ePrint Archive*, Paper 2020/1599. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2020/1599> <https://eprint.iacr.org/2020/1599>.
- [9] Gayathri Garimella, Benny Pinkas, Mike Rosulek, Ni Trieu, and Avishay Yanai. 2021. Oblivious Key-Value Stores and Amplification for Private Set Intersection. *Cryptology ePrint Archive*, Paper 2021/883. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2021/883> <https://eprint.iacr.org/2021/883>.
- [10] Niv Gilboa and Yuval Ishai. 2014. Distributed Point Functions and Their Applications. In *Advances in Cryptology – EUROCRYPT 2014*, Phong Q. Nguyen and Elisabeth Oswald (Eds.). Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 640–658.
- [11] Yuval Ishai, Eyal Kushilevitz, Rafail Ostrovsky, and Amit Sahai. 2004. Batch Codes and Their Applications. In *Proceedings of the Thirty-Sixth Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing* (Chicago, IL, USA) (STOC '04). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 262–271. <https://doi.org/10.1145/1007352.1007396>
- [12] Hanlin Liu, Xiao Wang, Kang Yang, and Yu Yu. 2022. The Hardness of LPN over Any Integer Ring and Field for PCG Applications. *Cryptology ePrint Archive*, Paper 2022/712. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2022/712> <https://eprint.iacr.org/2022/712>.
- [13] Rasmus Pagh and Flemming Friche Rodler. 2001. Cuckoo Hashing. In *Algorithms – ESA 2001*, Friedhelm Meyer auf der Heide (Ed.). Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 121–133.
- [14] M. B. Paterson, D. R. Stinson, and R. Wei. 2008. Combinatorial batch codes. *Cryptology ePrint Archive*, Paper 2008/306. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2008/306> <https://eprint.iacr.org/2008/306>.
- [15] Srinivasan Raghuraman and Peter Rindal. 2022. Blazing Fast PSI from Improved OKVS and Subfield VOLE. *Cryptology ePrint Archive*, Paper 2022/320. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2022/320> <https://eprint.iacr.org/2022/320>.
- [16] Philipp Schoppmann, Adrià Gascón, Leonie Reichert, and Mariana Raykova. 2019. Distributed Vector-OLE: Improved Constructions and Implementation. *Cryptology ePrint Archive*, Paper 2019/1084. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3319535.3363228> <https://eprint.iacr.org/2019/1084>.
- [17] Kevin Yeo. 2022. Cuckoo Hashing in Cryptography: Optimal Parameters, Robustness and Applications. *Cryptology ePrint Archive*, Paper 2022/1455. <https://eprint.iacr.org/2022/1455> <https://eprint.iacr.org/2022/1455>.

## A SECURITY PROOFS