# Robust Computational Secret Sharing and a Unified Account of Classical Secret-Sharing Goals 

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#### Abstract

We give a unified account of classical secret-sharing goals from a modern cryptographic vantage. Our treatment encompasses perfect, statistical, and computational secret sharing; static and dynamic adversaries; schemes with or without robustness; schemes where a participant recovers the secret and those where an external party does so. We then show that Krawczyk's 1993 protocol for robust computational secret sharing (RCSS) is not secure, even in the random-oracle model and for threshold schemes, when the encryption primitive it uses satisfies one-query indistinguishability (the notion Krawczyk apparently had in mind); nonetheless, we show that it is secure, in the random-oracle model and for threshold schemes, under a slightly strengthened assumption on its encryption scheme. Finally, we prove the security for a variant of the protocol, in the standard model and for arbitrary access structures, assuming one-query-indistinguishable encryption and a statistically-hiding / weakly-binding committal scheme. We explain that the latter goal can be achieved from any one-way function, establishing that a one-way function is enough for efficient RCSS.


Key words: computational secret sharing (CSS), cryptographic definitions, dynamic adversaries, provable security, robust computational secret-sharing (RCSS).

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## 1 Introduction

Work on classical secret sharing ${ }^{1}$ tends to follow the traditions and sensibilities of information theory, combinatorics, or coding theory, not those of provable-security cryptography. Even a cursory review at the literature makes this clear [40]. Consider, for example, that the word adversary does not appear in the most well-known survey of secret sharing [39] (but the word information appears some 50 times). Or consider that it was nearly 15 years after the invention of secret sharing by Blakley and Shamir [8,35] until somebody, Krawczyk [25], made more than passing mention [24] of the fact that there is a natural and useful complexity-theoretic setting for the secret-sharing problem (and, even then, subsequent work mostly ignored this setting).

Contributions. Coming at secret-sharing from a modern, provable-security angle, we make two contributions. First, we recast classical secret-sharing aims to place them squarely in the tradition of provable-security cryptography. We give concrete-security, advantage-based, adversary-at-the-center definitions that encompass the perfect secret sharing (PSS) goal of Shamir [35]; the less-than-perfect-privacy variant by Blakley [8]; the strengthening of PSS to robust schemes as envisioned by McEliece and Sarwate [28]; the alternative version of robustness described by Tompa and Woll [41]; and the relaxation of much of the above to the computational setting as considered by Krawczyk [25]. Our definitions handle dynamic adversaries, apparently for the first time, and unify the information-theoretic and computational-complexity views. Look ahead to Figure 3 for a preview of some of the secret-sharing definitions encompassed by our framework.

Second, we revisit the basics of robust computational secret sharing (RCSS) [25], which is computational secret sharing (CSS) where some of the shares submitted to the recovery algorithm might be intentionally corrupted. We show that Krawczyk's RCSS protocol, which we call ESH (encrypt-share-hash), is not secure, even for threshold schemes ${ }^{2}$ and the random-oracle (RO) model [6], even if the encryption scheme employed is a one-time pad, a mechanism that achieves (perfect) one-query indistinguishability (ind1). While Krawczyk made no formal claims about ESH, the only encryption-scheme security property he mentions [25] is the computational indistinguishability of Encrypt ${ }_{K}(X)$ and Encrypt $_{K}\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ for equal-length $X$ and $X^{\prime}$, which is ind1 in our language. Regardless, ind1-security is all the protocol seems, intuitively, to need. Despite this attack, we show that ESH is secure, for any threshold scheme, again in the RO model, if one assumes of the encryption ind1 and key1 security, the latter being one-query key-unrecoverability. This conjunct follows from two-query indistinguishability (ind2). The proof is complex and unintuitive, having to sidestep the issues that cause the one-time-pad instantiation of ESH to fail. We go on to show that making a small change to ESH fixes the identified deficiencies: the revised protocol, ESX (encrypt-share-commit) becomes provably secure for an arbitrary access structure (and beyond), in the standard model, assuming just ind1-secure encryption. The proof becomes vastly simpler. The main change is to replace the hash function by a statistically-hiding, weaklybinding (SHWB) commitment scheme, an object we define. We explain that SHWB commitment is possible if a one-way function (OWF) exists, establishing that a OWF implies efficient RCSS. Note that conventional statistically-hiding commitment is not known to be possible from a one-way function; what is different for us is that a weakened form of the binding requirement suffices. See Figure 1 for a summary of our RCSS results.

BACKGROUND FOR RCSS. Let us back up and provide a bit more background for our two contributions, beginning with the second. Quite informally, in an RCSS scheme a dealer, assumed to be honest, breaks a secret $X$ into shares $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ and distributes them to $n$ different players in such a way that an unauthorized set of players learns nothing about $X$ from their shares, while an authorized set of players can reconstruct $X$ even if some players enter bogus shares. Both guarantees are computational rather than information-theoretic. Thus RCSS relaxes the perfect secret sharing (PSS) goal of Shamir [35] in one dimension-computational

[^1]| protocol | encrypt | model / further assumption | access structure | result |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ESH | ind1 | random-oracle model | threshold | insecure (Sec. 4.2) |
| ESH | ind1 + key1 | random-oracle model | threshold | secure (Th. 1, Th. 2) |
| ESX | ind1 | statistically hiding, weakly-binding commitment | arbitrary | secure(Th. 3, Th. 4) |

Figure 1: Summary of our results on Krawczyk's RCSS protocol (ESH) and a variant of it (ESX). By ind1 and key1 we mean one-query left-or-right indistinguishability and one-query key-unrecoverability, as defined in Appendix 2.
privacy instead of information-theoretic privacy-and strengthens it in another-reconstructability in the face of incorrect shares instead of reconstructability in the face of missing shares.

The RCSS goal, as well as a candidate solution, was first outlined by Krawczyk [25]. No proofs or formal definitions ever appeared. Indeed Krawczyk's focus was not RCSS but CSS, where privacy is computational and recovery is for correct-or-missing shares. CSS was first mentioned by Karnin, Greene, and Hellman [24], who also consider the version of CSS where cheating must be detected (not corrected). Robustness was first studied, in the information-theoretic setting, by McEliece and Sarwate [28], and later by Tompa and Woll [41]. Krawczyk's reason to look at CSS and RCSS was to reduce the size of participant shares: his mechanisms illustrate that, for threshold schemes, it is possible to have shares that are shorter than the secret, something impossible in the information-theoretic setting [13,24]. In Krawczyk's protocols, a CSS scheme with short shares is achieved using Rabin's idea of an information-dispersal algorithm (IDA) [33]. Robustness is then added-on using a hash-function-based technique introduced by Krawczyk in a separate paper [26]. Follow-on work to Krawczyk's paper has mostly focused on doing CSS for more general access structures [1, 12, 27, 42].

Protocols for CSS and RCSS are useful tools for building practical and reliable information-storage systems; see $[23,32,43,44]$ for work in this direction. The emergence of secret-sharing-based product offerings ${ }^{3}$ likewise reflect the practicality of these goals.

Background for secret-sharing definitions. See Appendix A for a summary of existing PSS and CSS definitions [ $8,25,28,35,41$ ], with and without robustness. The definitions routinely assume an a priori distribution on secrets, assume it to be the uniform over a large set, elide the syntax of a secret-sharing scheme, omit mention of any adversary, and make the implicit adversary static, with no simple way to make it dynamic. ${ }^{4}$ The classical PSS definitions are so tailored to the perfect, information-theoretic case that there is no simple way to relax things to make a complexity-theoretic analog (or even a statistical-security analog). Each definition is separate from each other, cut from its own cloth. No definition of the RCSS goal has ever appeared.

It is both to facilitate our proofs and to address the issues above that we generalize and reformulate the notions of $[8,25,28,35,41]$. For us, each definition will be a point from a definitional framework, imparting a unified view of classical secret sharing. In particular, we define the privacy-advantage of an adversary $A$ attacking secret-sharing scheme $\Pi$, denoted $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$; we define the recoverability-advantage of an adversary $B$ attacking a secret-sharing scheme $\Pi$, denoted $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(B)$; and we use these to define all notions of interest. For example, a secret-sharing scheme $\Pi$ is a $\operatorname{PSS}$ scheme if $\mathbf{A d v}{ }_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)=\mathbf{A d v} \mathbf{v}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(B)=0$ for all "permissible" $A$ and $B$. There turn out to be four natural constraints on $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$ and nine natural constraints on $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(B)$. Each classical secret-sharing notion shows up as one of the 36 combinations.

Our work brings out that there have coexisted in the literature two fundamentally different settings for robustness. In the first, an uncorrupted player recovers the secret [41]; in the second, an external party has that job [28]. What is achievable in the two settings is very different (eg., external-party reconstructability can

[^2]accommodate fewer corrupted players). Our framework encompasses both kinds of robustness.
While arbitrary (monotone) access structures $[7,22]$ are already quite broad, they aren't broad enough to handle the setting where different numbers of players may withhold shares or change them [28]. We encompass such possibilities by considering classes of adversaries beyond those arising from an access structure.

While our definitional framework is broad, it does not encompass verifiable secret sharing (VSS) [15]. In a VSS scheme the dealer may be dishonest, but for the goals in scope in this paper, the dealer is honest.

## 2 Preliminaries

ALGORITHMS AND ADVERSARIES. When we speak of an algorithm we mean an always-halting deterministic or probabilistic algorithm, possibly with access to one or more named oracles. A probabilistic algorithm can uniformly choose a random number between 1 and $i$ for an arbitrary positive integer $i$ by executing a statement $a \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}[i]$. If $A$ is an algorithm then $x \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} A(\cdots)$ means to choose $x$ according to the distribution induced by algorithm $A$, run on the elided arguments. If $A$ is deterministic we write $x \leftarrow A(\cdots)$ instead. If $A$ is a finite set then $x \stackrel{\leftarrow}{\leftarrow} A$ means to sample uniformly from it. If $A$ is a probabilistic algorithm then $x \in A(\cdot)$ means that $x$ occurs as an output with nonzero probability. We denote by $X_{1}\|\cdots\| X_{n}$ or $X_{1} \cdots X_{n}$ a reasonable encoding of $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ from which the constituents are uniquely recoverable. If the lengths of each $X_{i}$ is known then concatenation serves this purpose.

Games. We employ code-based game-playing in our proofs, as explored in [4]. In brief, a game is an alwayshalting program, written in code or pseudocode, that runs with an adversary. It specifies procedures Initialize, Finalize, and additional procedures (like Deal, Corrupt, and so forth), which are called oracles. In the code of a game, sets are initialized to empty and Booleans to false. The output of a game is the output of its Finalize procedure, or the output of the adversary itself if no Finalize is specified. We write $\operatorname{Pr}\left[G^{A} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]$ for the probability that Finalize of game $G$ outputs true after the interaction with $A$.

Encryption schemes. Adapting the formalization of [2], a (symmetric) encryption scheme is a pair of algorithms $\Pi^{\text {Enc }}=\left(\right.$ Encrypt, Decrypt) where Encrypt is a possibly probabilistic algorithm from $\{0,1\}^{k} \times$ $\{0,1\}^{*}$ to $\{0,1\}^{*} \cup\{\perp\}$ and Decrypt is a deterministic algorithm from $\{0,1\}^{k} \times\{0,1\}^{*}$ to $\{0,1\}^{*} \cup\{\perp\}$. We call $k$ the key length of the scheme. We write $\operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(X)$ and $\operatorname{Decrypt}_{K}(Y)$ for Encrypt $(K, X)$ and $\operatorname{Decrypt}(K, Y)$. We assume that whether or not $\operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(X) \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ (for $K \in\{0,1\}^{k}$ ) depends only on $|X|$ and we call the set of all $X$ such that $\operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(X) \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ the domain of $\Pi$. We require that if $Y \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(X)$ and $Y \neq \perp$ then $\operatorname{Decrypt}_{K}(Y)=X$.

We define two notions of security for an encryption scheme $\Pi=($ Encrypt, Decrypt): indistinguishability (formalized in the left-or-right manner) and key-recoverability. For consistent syntax with the rest of this paper, we describe both notions using games. The indistinguishability game Ind has procedures Initialize, LR, and Finalize. The first chooses a random $K \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k}$ and a random bit $b \stackrel{\leftarrow}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}$. Procedure LR, on input $X^{0}, X^{1}$, returns $\perp$ if $\left|X_{0}\right| \neq\left|X_{1}\right|$ and $C \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}$ Encrypt $_{K}\left(X^{b}\right)$ otherwise. Procedure Finalize, on input $d$, returns true if $b=d$ and false otherwise. We let $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {ind }}(A)=2 \operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{Ind}{ }^{A} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]-1$. The notion is the same as in [2].

The key-recoverability game Key has procedures Initialize, Enc, and Finalize. The first chooses a random $K \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k}$. Procedure Enc, on input $X$, returns $C \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(X)$. Procedure Finalize, on input $K^{\prime}$, returns the predicate $K=K^{\prime}$. We let $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {key }}(A)=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{Key}^{A} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]$ be the probability that $A$ recovers the encryption key.

An encryption scheme secure against $q \geq 2$ queries in the indistinguishability sense is also secure against $q-1$ queries in key-recoverability sense. For completeness, we formalize and prove this below. In particular, two-query indistinguishability (ind2) implies one-query key-recoverability (key1). But an encryption scheme
secure in the key 1 sense need not be secure against key-recovery at all (the one-time pad is an example). These observations are relevant to the privacy of ESH.

Proposition 1 Let $\Pi=($ Encrypt, Decrypt $)$ be an encryption scheme with message space including $\{0,1\}^{m}$ for some $m$. Let $A$ be a (key-recovery) adversary. Then there exists a (distinguishing) adversary $D$ such that $\boldsymbol{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {ind }}(D) \geq \operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\mathrm{key}}(A)-2^{-m}$ and where $D$ makes one more oracle query than does $A$ and $D$ runs in time which is $A$ 's running time plus overhead for one Decrypt call on an $m$-bit string.

Proof: Construct $D$ as follows. It runs $A$, answering each $\operatorname{Enc}(X)$ query of $A$ by calling $\operatorname{LR}(X, X)$ and returning the response from that. When $A$ halts with output $K^{\prime}$, have $D$ compute $X \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{m}$, and then $C \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{LR}\left(X, 0^{m}\right)$, and then $X^{\prime}=\operatorname{Decrypt}_{K^{\prime}}(C)$. Let $D$ return 0 if $X=X^{\prime}$ and 1 otherwise.
Let Left and Right denote the games that are the same as the Ind game except the encryption oracle Enc is replaced by the oracle that always encrypts the left or right queries, respectively. Suppose that $D$ plays game Left. Then the probability that $D$ will output true is at least $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {key }}(A)$. On the other hand, suppose that $D$ plays game Right. Then if $D$ outputs true it means that $D$, given no information about $X$, managed to correctly guess it. The chance of this is at most $2^{m}$. Now, as is standard, $\operatorname{Adv}_{\boldsymbol{\Pi}}{ }^{\text {ind }}(D)=2 \operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{Ind}^{D} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]-1=$ $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{Left}^{D} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{Right}^{D} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]$, and so we conclude that $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {ind }}(D) \geq \operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {key }}(A)+2^{-m}$.

## 3 The Definitional Framework

In this section we unify and extend definitions in the literature for perfect secret sharing and computational secret sharing, both with and without robustness. We break with tradition by handling information-theoretic secret-sharing neither in terms of entropy nor equality of distributions, but in a way that directly models and measures the adversary's aims. For ease of comparison, traditional secret-sharing definitions are recalled in Appendix A.

Overview. Secret-sharing schemes have two basic requirements: privacy and recoverability (the latter is also called reconstructability). Privacy entails that an unauthorized coalition of players can't learn anything about the secret that's been shared. It can be complexity-theoretic or information-theoretic. Information-theoretic schemes maintain privacy no matter how much computing power the adversary has; complexity-theoretic ones protect the privacy of the shared secret from adversaries with "reasonable" computing resources. In the information-theoretic setting, security can be perfect (absolutely no information is revealed about the secret) or possibly less than perfect, which is called statistical privacy. The adversary that is attacking a scheme's privacy can be static (it decides which players to corrupt at the beginning of its attack) or dynamic (it chooses which players to attack one-by-one, as it learns shares). Our definition of the privacy advantage that an adversary $A$ gets in attacking a secret-sharing scheme $\Pi$, denoted $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$, encompass and measures all of the above possibilities.

Recoverability entails that authorized coalitions of players can reconstruct the secret. It can be guaranteed in the erasure model or the substitution model. In the erasure model, the adversary marks shares of corrupted players as missing but cannot otherwise modify a player's share. ${ }^{5}$ Secret-sharing schemes secure in the substitution model, where the adversary may modify a corrupted player's share, are called robust. Preserving a distinction with us since $[28,41]$, we distinguish two flavors of robustness: the shared secret can be recovered by an uncorrupted player or by an external party. It is easier for an uncorrupted player to recover the secret than for an external party to do so since an uncorrupted player knows one particular share-his own-that he can assume to be right (remember that the types of secret sharing dealt with in this paper assume an honest dealer).

[^3]| Procedure Deal $\left(S^{0}, S^{1}\right)$ | PROCEDURE Corrupt $(i)$ | Game Priv |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| IF NOT $\boldsymbol{S}$ THEN $b \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}, \quad \boldsymbol{S} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}\left(S^{b}\right)$ | $T \leftarrow T \cup\{i\}$ |  |
| RETURN | RETURN $\boldsymbol{S}[i]$ |  |
| PROCEDURE Finalize (d) RETURN $b=d$ |  |  |
| PROCEDURE Deal $(S)$ | PROCEDURE Corrupt $(i)$ | Game Rec |
| If not $\boldsymbol{S}$ THEN $\boldsymbol{S} \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\leftarrow}$ Share $(S)$ | $T \leftarrow T \cup\{i\}$ |  |
| RETURN | RETURN $\boldsymbol{S}[i]$ |  |
| Procedure Finalize ( $\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j$ ) |  |  |
| RETURN $\operatorname{Recover}\left(\boldsymbol{S}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \boldsymbol{S}_{T}^{\prime}, j\right) \neq S$ |  |  |

Figure 2: Games used to define privacy and recoverability of secret-sharing scheme $\Pi=$ (Share, Recover).

As before, a recoverability-attacking adversary may be static or dynamic. Our definition of the recoverability advantage that an adversary $A$ gets in attacking a secret-sharing scheme $\Pi$, denoted $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A)$, encompass and measures all of the above possibilities. To accomplish this, we regard the erasure model as a special class of adversaries, $\operatorname{Rec} \diamond$, where any $A \in \operatorname{Rec} \diamond$ replaces the shares of corrupted players with the distinguished value $\diamond$ (missing). We likewise regard recovery-by-an-uncorrupted player as a special class of adversaries, Rec1, where an $A \in \operatorname{Rec} 1$ is obliged to output the identity of some uncorrupted player $j$. Adversaries that may arbitrarily substitute shares for corrupted players live live in the class Rec.

We will define notions in a way that permits consideration of an arbitrary access structure. Indeed we will be more general still, defining privacy and recoverability in a way that depends on an arbitrary set of adversaries.

To simplify and strengthen definitions and theorem statements, we focus on concrete (as opposed to asymptotic) definitions. But we do explain how to lift the definitions to the asymptotic setting.

SYntAX. An $n$-party secret-sharing scheme with message space $\mathbb{S}$ is a pair $\Pi=($ Share, Recover $)$ where

- Share is a probabilistic algorithm that, on input $S \in \mathbb{S}$ returns the $n$-vector $\boldsymbol{S} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}(S)$ where each $\boldsymbol{S}[i] \in\{0,1\}^{*}$. We assume $\operatorname{Share}(S)$ returns $\perp$ ("undefined") if $S \notin \mathbb{S}$.
- Recover is deterministic algorithm that on input $\boldsymbol{S} \in\left(\{0,1\}^{*} \cup\{\diamond\}\right)^{n}$ and $j \in[0 . . n]$ returns a value $S \leftarrow \operatorname{Recover}(\boldsymbol{S}, j)$ where $S \in \mathbb{S} \cup\{\diamond\}$.
Let us explain the intent of the syntax. A secret-sharing scheme specifies two different algorithms. The first, Share, is used by a dealer who wants to distribute some secret $S \in \mathbb{S}$ to a group of $n$ players, numbered $1, \ldots, n$. The dealer applies $S h a r e ~ t o ~ t h e ~ s e c r e t ~ S . ~ T h e ~ r e s u l t ~ i s ~ a ~ v e c t o r ~ S ~=~(S[1], \ldots, S[n]) ~ w i t h ~ e a c h ~ s h a r e ~$ $\boldsymbol{S}[i]$ a string. The dealer gives $\boldsymbol{S}[i]$ to party $i$. As Share is probabilistic, different runs of $\operatorname{Share}(S)$ may return different vectors of shares. When, at some later point, an entity would like to recover the secret, it must first try to collect up enough shares. It forms an $n$-element vector $\boldsymbol{S}=(\boldsymbol{S}[1], \ldots, \boldsymbol{S}[n])$. The $i^{\text {th }}$ component of this vector, $\boldsymbol{S}[i]$, is either a string $\boldsymbol{S}[i] \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ or the distinguished value $\diamond$. In the first case the value $\boldsymbol{S}[i]$ is the purported share of party $i$ while in the second case the share $\boldsymbol{S}[i]=\diamond$ has been marked as missing. The party who wants to recover the shared secret now applies the algorithm Recover to the vector $\boldsymbol{S}$ and a number $j \in[0 . . n]$, the number indicating the location of a share that is known to be valid. If no particular share is known valid, set $j=0$ and write $\operatorname{Recover}(\boldsymbol{S})$ for $\operatorname{Recover}(\boldsymbol{S}, 0)$. To make sense, one must have $\boldsymbol{S}[j] \neq \diamond$ if $j \in[n]=[1 . . n]$. The value that emerges from applying Recover will be either the recovered secret $S \in \mathbb{S}$ or the distinguished value $\diamond$. The latter indicates that the algorithm is unable to recover the underlying secret.

Privacy. Fix an $n$-party secret-sharing scheme $\Pi=$ (Share, Recover) with message space $\mathbb{S}$. Let $A$ be an adversary. We consider the privacy game Priv of Figure 2. To run $A$ with Priv the following happens. First, initialize $T \leftarrow \emptyset$. Now run adversary $A$. The adversary should first make an oracle call $\operatorname{Deal}\left(S^{0}, S^{1}\right)$ satisfy-

| Name | $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$ | when $A$ is in | $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A)$ | when $A$ is in | aka | reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PSS-PR0 | 0 | $\mathcal{A} \cap$ Priv | 0 | $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} \diamond$ | PSS | Shamir [35] |
| PSS-PR2 | 0 | $\mathcal{A} \cap$ Priv | 0 | $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec}$ |  | McEliece, Sarwate [28] |
| PSS-SR1 | 0 | $\mathcal{A} \cap$ Priv | small | $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} 1$ |  | Tompa, Woll [41] |
| SSS-PR0 | small | $\mathcal{A} \cap$ Priv | 0 | $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} \diamond$ |  | Blakley [8] |
| CSS-PR0 | small | $\mathcal{A} \cap$ Priv $\cap$ Prac | 0 | $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} \diamond$ | CSS | Krawczyk [25] |
| CSS-CR1 | small | $\mathcal{A} \cap$ Priv $\cap$ Prac | small | $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} 1 \cap \operatorname{Prac}$ | RCSS1 |  |
| CSS-CR2 | small | $\mathcal{A} \cap$ Priv $\cap$ Prac | small | $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} \cap \operatorname{Prac}$ | RCSS | Krawczyk[25] |
| NSS-PR0 | - | - | 0 | $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} \diamond$ | IDA | Rabin [33] |
| NSS-PR1 | - | - | 0 | $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} 1$ | ECC1 |  |
| NSS-PR2 | - | - | 0 | $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec}$ | ECC |  |

Figure 3: Selected ways of combining $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$ and $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$ constraints to recover significant definitions. For some notions it is conventional to also demand that $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A)=0$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} \diamond$.
ing $S^{0}, S^{1} \in \mathbb{S}$ and $\left|S^{0}\right|=\left|S^{1}\right|$. The game then chooses a hidden bit $b \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}$ and samples $\boldsymbol{S} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}$ Share $\left(S^{b}\right)$. Nothing is returned to the adversary $A$ in response to its $\operatorname{Deal}\left(S^{0}, S^{1}\right)$ call. Next the adversary $A$ makes oracle queries of the form $\operatorname{Corrupt}(i)$ where $i \in[n]$. The query is a request to corrupt the indicated player. In response to query Corrupt $(i)$ the game sets $T \leftarrow T \cup\{i\}$ and returns share $\boldsymbol{S}[i]$. When $A$ is done corrupting players it outputs a bit $d$ and halts. It is said to win if $b=d$. We measure its success as twice the probability of its winning minus one; formally, $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)=2 \operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{Priv}^{A} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]-1$. Let Priv be the class of adversaries, the privacy adversaries, that behave as we have described, regardless of oracle responses.
Recoverability. Fix an $n$-party secret-sharing scheme $\Pi=$ (Share, Recover) with message space $\mathbb{S}$. Let $A$ be an adversary. We consider the recoverability game Rec of Figure 2. First, initialize $T \leftarrow \emptyset$. Now run adversary $A$. The adversary should first call $\operatorname{Deal}(S)$ for some $S \in \mathbb{S}$. Note that Deal takes just one argument this time. The game then selects an $n$-vector $S \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}(S)$. Next the adversary corrupts players. Each time it calls Corrupt $(i)$ the game sets $T \leftarrow T \cup\{i\}$ and returns $\boldsymbol{S}[i]$. When the adversary is done corrupting players it outputs a pair $\left(\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j\right)$ where $j \in[0 \ldots n] \backslash T$ and $\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime} \in\left(\{0,1\}^{*} \cup\{\diamond\}\right)^{n}$. Let $\boldsymbol{S}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \boldsymbol{S}_{T}^{\prime}$ be the $n$-vector whose $i^{\text {th }}$ component is $\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}[i]$ if $i \in T$ and $\boldsymbol{S}[i]$ otherwise. The adversary is said to win if $\operatorname{Recover}\left(\boldsymbol{S}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \boldsymbol{S}_{T}^{\prime}, j\right) \neq S$. We measure the adversary's success by the real number $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A)=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{Rec}{ }^{A} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]$. Let Rec be the class of adversaries, the recoverability adversaries, that behave as we have described, regardless of oracle responses.

We define a set $\operatorname{Rec} \diamond \subseteq \operatorname{Rec}$, the erasure adversaries. Adversary $A \in \operatorname{Rec}$ is in Rec $\diamond$ if, whenever $A$ outputs $\left(\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j\right)$, we have $\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}[i]=\diamond$ for all $i \in[n]$. The adversary replaces the shares of corrupted players by $\diamond$. Similarly, we define a set Rec1 $\subseteq$ Rec, the recoverability-1 adversaries. Adversary $A \in \operatorname{Rec}$ is in Rec1 if, whenever $A$ outputs $\left(S^{\prime}, j\right)$, we have $j>0$. The adversary is obliged to point to an uncorrupted player. As a mnemonic, the adversary must identify one good player.

We say $A \in \operatorname{Rec}$ generates $\left(S, \boldsymbol{S}, T, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j\right)$ if it can call Deal $(S)$, resulting in shares $\boldsymbol{S}$, corrupt $T \subseteq[n]$, and output $\left(\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j\right)$. We say $\left(S, \boldsymbol{S}, T, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j\right)$ is $\mathcal{A}$-generable if $A$ generates $\left(S, \boldsymbol{S}, T, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j\right)$ for some $A \in \mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec}$.

SECRET-SHARING DEFINITIONS. Let $\Pi=$ (Share, Recover) be secret-sharing scheme and let $\mathcal{A}$ be a class of adversaries. We can demand $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$ be: PSS: zero for any privacy adversaries in $\mathcal{A}$; SSS: small for any privacy adversary in $\mathcal{A}$; CSS: small for any practical privacy adversary in $\mathcal{A}$; or NSS: no privacy demands at all. (Letters $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{C}$, and $\mathbf{N}$ stand for perfect, statistical, computational, and none, while $\mathbf{S S}$ is for secret sharing.) Similarly, we can demand $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A)$ be: PR0: zero for any erasure adversary in $\mathcal{A}$; PR1: zero for any recoverability-1 adversary in $\mathcal{A}$; PR2: zero for any recoverability adversary in $\mathcal{A}$; $\mathbf{S R 0}$ :
small for for any erasure adversary in $\mathcal{A}$; SR1: small for any recoverability-1 adversary in $\mathcal{A}$; SR2: small for any recoverability adversary in $\mathcal{A}$; CR0: small for any practical erasure adversary in $\mathcal{A}$; CR1: small for any practical recoverability-1 adversary in $\mathcal{A}$; or CR2: small for any practical recoverability adversary in $\mathcal{A}$. (Letters $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{S}$, and $\mathbf{C}$ are as before, and $\mathbf{R}$ is for robustness.) All in all then there are $4 \cdot 9=36$ possible notions obtained by combining the named requirements on $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$ and $\mathbf{A d v}{ }_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A)$. We single out some of them in Figure 3.

Several entries in the table are familiar, and several go by other names; these are credited, where appropriate, to the party associated to the basic notion. Some notions are not conventionally regarded as secret-sharing yet show up in the table: error-correcting codes and Rabin's information dispersal algorithms [33].
(As we will be using IDAs and ECCs, let us pause and give a concrete instantiation. The simplest IDA is based on replication: $\operatorname{Share}(X)=(X, \ldots, X)$ and $\operatorname{Recover}\left(\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right), j\right)=X$ if $\{\boldsymbol{X}[i]: \boldsymbol{X}[i] \neq$ $\diamond\}=\{X\}$ while $\operatorname{Recover}\left(\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right), j\right)=\diamond$ otherwise. IDAs with shorter share lengths also exist [33]. A simple ECC scheme again uses replication: $\operatorname{Share}(X)=(X, \ldots, X)$ and $\operatorname{Recover}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)=X$ if there is a string $X$ that occurs more than $n / 2$ times among $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$, and $\operatorname{Recover}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)=\diamond$ otherwise. When $\mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} \subseteq \operatorname{Rec} 1$ we can change this to $\operatorname{Share}(X)=(X, \ldots, X)$ and $\operatorname{Recover}\left(\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right), j\right)=X_{j}$ if $X_{j} \neq \diamond$ and Recover $\left(\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right), j\right)=\diamond$ if $X_{j}=\diamond$.)

Figure 3 defines the PSS, IDA, ECC, and ECC1 goals. These quantities are simple to deal with because they enjoy perfect security. A secret-sharing scheme $\Pi$ has perfect privacy over $\mathcal{A}$ if $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)=0$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A} \cap$ Priv. It has perfect recoverability over $\mathcal{A}$ if $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A)=0$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec}$.

The remaining quantities of Figure 3 contain small or Prac, which we haven't yet described. For the statistical notions (small but no Prac) one can introduce a real number in place of small [41]. For example, an $\epsilon$-robust PSS-SR1 scheme $\Pi$ over $\mathcal{A}$ has perfect privacy over $\mathcal{A}$ and $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A) \leq \epsilon$ for all $A \in \mathcal{A} \cap \operatorname{Rec} 1$.

For the computational goals, there are two options. One is to leave the security notion formally undefined but make concrete-security statements that bound $\mathbf{A d} \mathbf{v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$ or $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A)$ in terms of other quantities. This is the concrete-security approach, and we adopt it for Theorems 1-4.

A different option (which applies to any of the 36 notions) is to move to the asymptotic setting. For this one adds in a security parameter $k$ and interprets small in Figure 3 as negligible (vanishing faster than the inverse of any polynomial) and interprets Prac as the class of probabilistic polynomial time (PPT) algorithms. A secret-sharing scheme now involves $n(k)$ parties and has a message space $\mathbb{S}(k) \subseteq\{0,1\}^{*}$. The Share and Recover algorithms are polynomial-time algorithms that take an additional (first) input of $1^{k}$. The adversary $A$ is likewise provided $1^{k}$. The advantage measures $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$ and $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A)$ of an adversary $A$ become functions of $k$. Note that in moving to the asymptotic setting we do not use the length of the secret as the security parameter; see Appendix A.

AcCess structures. We defined secret-sharing goals with respect to an adversary class, but the classical approach is to use an access structure instead. An $n$-party access structure is a set $\mathcal{A}$ of subsets of $[n]$ that is monotone: if $R \subseteq S \subseteq[n]$ and $R \in \mathcal{A}$ then $S \in \mathcal{A}$. Each $S \in \mathcal{A}$ is said to be authorized. The most common access structure is the threshold access structure $\mathcal{A}_{m, n}$ where $m, n \geq 1$ and $0 \leq m \leq n$. This is the access structure defined by saying that $S \in \mathcal{A}_{m, n}$ iff $S \subseteq[n]$ and $|S| \geq m$.

We associate to any $n$-party access structure $\mathcal{A}$ two classes of adversaries. The first, $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{p}}$, is all privacy adversaries $A$ that never corrupt an authorized set ( $A$ never corrupts a set $S \in \mathcal{A}$ ). The second, $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{r}}$, is all recoverability adversaries $A$ that always leave uncorrupted an authorized set (if $A$ corrupts $T$ then $[n] \backslash T \in \mathcal{A}$ ). ${ }^{6}$ In speaking of the players that $A$ can corrupt we quantify over all possible oracle responses (not necessarily those associated to any particular game) and allow $A$ any collection of oracles. Corrupting $i$ means calling Corrupt $(i)$. To access structure $\mathcal{A}$ we associate adversary class $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{p}} \cup \mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{r}}$, which we also refer to as $\mathcal{A}$. In this

[^4]way each definition over an adversary class provides the corresponding definition over an access structure.
VALID ADVERSARIES. For our robustness results we need a technical condition on the class of adversaries that can be handled. If $\boldsymbol{S}, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime} \in\left(\{0,1\}^{*} \cup\{\diamond\}\right)^{n}$ we say that $\boldsymbol{S} \leadsto \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}$ if $\boldsymbol{S}[i]=\diamond$ implies $\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}[i]=\diamond$. We say that $\mathcal{A} \subseteq$ Rec is valid (with respect to some secret-sharing scheme $\Pi$ ) if the following is true: if $\left(S, \boldsymbol{S}, T, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j\right.$ ) is $\mathcal{A}$-generable and $S^{\prime} \leadsto \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime \prime}$, then the following adversary $A_{S, T, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j}$ is in $\mathcal{A}$ : it calls $\operatorname{Deal}(S)$; then it calls Corrupt $(i)$ for each $i \in T$ (in numerical order); then it outputs $\left(S^{\prime \prime}, j\right)$.

The class $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{r}}$ associated to any access structure $\mathcal{A}$ is valid. So too is $\mathcal{A}_{m, n, t} \cap \operatorname{Rec}$ where $\mathcal{A}_{m, n, t}$ [28] is $\mathcal{A}_{m, n}^{\mathrm{p}} \cup\left(\mathcal{A}_{m, n}^{\mathrm{r}} \cap \mathcal{A}_{t}\right)$ and $\mathcal{A}_{t}$ is adversaries that can only output $\left(\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j\right)$ with $\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}$ having at most $t$ non- $\diamond$ components. Thus $A \in \mathcal{A}_{m, n, t}$ is a privacy adversary that can corrupt at most $m-1$ players or a recoverability adversary that can corrupt at most $n-m$ players, replacing at most $t$ shares with strings and the rest with $\diamond$.

SETUP. One can augment a secret-sharing scheme by allowing a Setup algorithm; we would now have a triple of algorithms $\Pi=($ Setup, Share, Recover $)$. Setup is probabilistic and outputs a public parameter $P \in\{0,1\}^{*}$. Procedures Share and Recover are provided $P$, as is any adversary attacking the scheme. While Share could always install the public parameter in each player's share, the effect is not the same as adding a Setup: in one setting, the adversary has to corrupt a player to get $P$ and in the other it is free; and there are important efficiency-accounting consequences, as pulling out the public parameter might shorten the shares.

RANDOM-ORACLE SETTING. The privacy and recoverability notions $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)$ and $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A)$ can easily be lifted to the random-oracle setting [6]. To do so, one adds to games Priv and Rec an oracle (procedure call) Hash that realizes a random function from strings of arbitrary length to strings of some desired length. Algorithms Share and Recover are allowed to call Hash, as may the adversary itself.

Static adversaries. Classical definitions of secret sharing assume a static adversary. This is encompassed by our framework in the sense that it is easy to restrict attention to static adversaries. Let Static be the set of all adversaries $A$ for which there is a set $T$ associated to $A$ such that, regardless of $A$ 's input, coins, and oracle responses, the set of players corrupted by $A$ is $T$. To consider static adversaries restrict to sets like Priv $\cap$ Static. A static adversary $A$ can be imagined to deterministically "decide" at the beginning of its execution which players $T$ to corrupt. We define adversaries

## 4 The ESH Protocol - Krawczyk's Method for RCSS

### 4.1 The construction

Fix a family of adversaries $\mathcal{A}$. Following Krawczyk [25], we build an $n$-party secret-sharing scheme with message space $\mathbb{S}$ from the following five components: (1) a symmetric encryption scheme $\Pi^{\text {Enc }}=($ Encrypt, Decrypt) with $k$-bit keys and message space $\mathbb{S}$; (2) an $n$-party PSS $\Pi^{P S S}=\left(S h a r e^{P S S}\right.$, Recover $\left.^{P S S}\right)$ over $\mathcal{A}$ with message space $\{0,1\}^{k}$; (3) an $n$-party IDA $\Pi^{I D A}=\left(S_{h a r e}{ }^{I D A}\right.$, Recover $\left.^{I D A}\right)$ over $\mathcal{A}$ with message space $\Sigma^{*}$; (4) an $n$-party ECC $\Pi^{E C C}=\left(\right.$ Share ${ }^{E C C}$, Recover $\left.^{E C C}\right)$ over $\mathcal{A}$ with message space $\{0,1\}^{h}$; and (5) a hash function Hash : $\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{h}$. We call $\Pi^{E n c}, \Pi^{P S S}, \Pi^{I D A}, \Pi^{E C C}$, Hash the underlying primitives of the ESH scheme, and we say that they are over $\mathcal{A}$, for $n$ parties, for $k$-bit keys, and for $h$-bit hashes. From such a set of primitives we define the secret-sharing scheme $\operatorname{ESH}\left[\Pi^{E n c}, \Pi^{P S S}, \Pi^{I D A}, \Pi^{E C C}\right.$, Hash $]=$ (Share, Recover) as specified and illustrated in Figure 4. In its line 21, if $\boldsymbol{X}[i]=\diamond$ then our convention is to assign $\diamond$ to all variables on the left-hand side of the assignment statement; otherwise $\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ is parsed into its corresponding, uniquely defined constituents. Similarly, if $K=\diamond$ or $C=\diamond$ when line 29 is executed then our convention is that $X=\diamond$. Let ESH $\left[\Pi^{E n c}, \Pi^{P S S}, \Pi^{I D A}, \Pi^{E C C}\right]=($ Share, Recover $)$ be the random-oracle variant of this scheme in which Hash: $\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{h}$ is chosen at random by games Priv and Rec.


Figure 4: Left: definition of the ESH construction $\Pi=$ (Share, Recover $)=\operatorname{ESH}\left[\Pi^{E n c}, \Pi^{P S S}, \Pi^{I D A}, \Pi^{E C C}\right.$, Hash $]$. Right: illustration of the scheme's Share algorithm for $n=3$ players. Rand, on input $k$, returns a uniformly random $k$-bit string.

### 4.2 An attack

Since an encryption key is used by the share algorithm to encrypt just one message, it is natural to expect that ESH is secure if the encryption scheme is one-query indistinguishable (ind1). Indeed this is what Krawczyk would seem to have in mind, as the only privacy property he defines is ind1 [25] (which he formulates in terms of indistinguishability of the ensembles associated to two different messages). But this intuition is false; the ind1 condition does not guarantee privacy of ESH, even in the random-oracle model. We will show that even one-time-pad encryption, which is certainly ind1-secure, isn't enough.

For concreteness, assume we have $n=3$ players and wish to use the access structure $\mathcal{A}_{2,3}$, a 2-out-of-3 threshold scheme. Assume the domain of secrets is $\mathbb{S}=\{0,1\}^{128}$ and the domain of messages is the same. In the RO-based construction $\operatorname{ESH}\left[\Pi^{E n c}, \Pi^{P S S}, \Pi^{D A}, \Pi^{E C C}\right]$, assume we instantiate $\Pi^{E n c}$ with one-time-pad encryption, $C=\operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(X)=K \oplus X$. Assume we instantiate $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}$ with the 2-out-of-3 Shamir secret-sharing scheme over the finite field $\mathbb{F}_{2^{128}}$. Assume we instantiate $\Pi^{\text {IDA }}$ with replication, so Share ${ }^{\text {DA }}(C)=(C, C, C)$. Assume we likewise instantiate $\Pi^{\text {ECC }}$ with replication, so $\operatorname{Share}^{\mathrm{ECC}}(H)=(H, H, H)$.

To understand the attack we first point out that with Shamir's secret-sharing scheme [35], not only can you reconstruct the key (the secret) from $m=2$ out of $n=3$ shares, but you can also reconstruct a share (say share 2) given one share (say share 1) and the underlying key $K$ that was dealt. (This is done by interpolation, in the same manner that the secret is normally recovered.) Specifically, for the 2 -out-of- 3 scheme there is an al-
gorithm $R$ such that $R(\boldsymbol{K}[1], K)=\boldsymbol{K}[2]$ for all $\boldsymbol{K} \in \operatorname{Share}^{P S S}(K)$. We will use this fact to violate privacy. Let the adversary select any two distinct 128 -bit strings, $X^{0}$ and $X^{1}$, and call Deal ( $X^{0}, X^{1}$ ). Let $b, K, \boldsymbol{K}, \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{H}$, and $\boldsymbol{X}$ be as specified in game Priv in response to the Deal query. Next the adversary calls Corrupt(1) to get back $\boldsymbol{X}[1]$, from which it parses out $\boldsymbol{K}[1]$ and $\boldsymbol{C}[1]=C$, the latter because the IDA is replication. It now sets $K^{0}=C \oplus X^{0}$ and $K^{1}=C \oplus X^{1}$. Note that $K^{b}=K$. The adversary now defines the candidate share $\boldsymbol{K}^{0}[2]=R\left(\boldsymbol{K}[1], K^{0}\right)$ for $K^{0}$ and defines the candidate share $\boldsymbol{K}^{1}[2]=R\left(\boldsymbol{K}[1], K^{1}\right)$ for $K^{1}$. We know that $\boldsymbol{K}^{b}[2]=\boldsymbol{K}[2]$. The adversary computes $\boldsymbol{H}^{0}[2]=\operatorname{Hash}\left(\boldsymbol{K}^{0}[2] \| C\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{H}^{1}[2]=\operatorname{Hash}\left(\boldsymbol{K}^{1}[2] \| C\right)$. We know that $\boldsymbol{H}^{b}[2]=\boldsymbol{H}[2]$. But embedded in $\boldsymbol{X}[1]$ is $\boldsymbol{H}[2]$, since the ECC also was replication, which the adversary extracts. So the adversary returns 1 if $\boldsymbol{H}^{1}[2]=\boldsymbol{H}[2]$ and 0 otherwise. It's not hard to see that this adversary has advantage $1-2^{-h}$.

One might be tempted to reason that if the ESH construction is wrong even with a one-time pad and even in the RO model, then certainly it is wrong when any "real" encryption scheme and hash-function are used, as these will have inferior properties. But this is not the case, as there are ways in which a "real" encryption scheme is superior to a one-time pad that are of relevance here. The attack above used the fact that with a one-timepad, given a plaintext/ciphertext pair $(X, C)$ one can recover the key $K$ via $K=C \oplus X$. Had the encryption scheme been secure against one-query key-recovery (key1), meaning that it was computationally infeasible to find the key from a plaintext/ciphertext pair, we would not have been able to mount the attack. And common encryption schemes like CBC mode do provide security against key recoverability under standard assumptions.

### 4.3 Privacy (in the RO model)

We now show that ind $1+$ key1 security is enough to prove the security of ESH, in the RO model, under certain conditions on the access structure. Our result applies to threshold access structures or any other adversary class $\mathcal{A}$ where $\mathcal{A} \cap$ Priv $=\mathcal{A}_{m, n}^{\mathrm{p}}$. This includes $\mathcal{A}_{m, n, t}$ as the distinction between $\mathcal{A}_{m, n, t}$ and $\mathcal{A}_{m, n}$ vanishes after interacting with Priv.

Theorem 1 [Privacy of ESH, random-oracle model, threshold schemes] Let $\mathcal{A}=\mathcal{A}_{m, n}^{\mathrm{p}}$ and let $\Pi=$ $\operatorname{ESH}\left[\Pi^{\mathrm{Enc}}, \Pi^{\mathrm{PSS}}, \Pi^{\text {DA }}, \Pi^{\mathrm{ECC}}\right]$ with primitives over $\mathcal{A}$, for $n$-parties, and for $h$-bit hashes. Let $A \in \mathcal{A}$ be an adversary that makes at most $q$ queries to its Hash oracle. Then there are adversaries $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ attacking the symmetric encryption scheme $\Pi^{E n c}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A) \leq \operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\mathrm{ind}}\left(B_{1}\right)+2 q n \cdot \mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\mathrm{Enc}}{ }^{\mathrm{key}}\left(B_{2}\right)+\frac{2 q+n^{2}}{2^{h}}
$$

where adversary $B_{1}$ makes only one query to its left-or-right oracle, adversary $B_{2}$ makes only one query to its encryption oracle, and the running times of $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$ are that of $A$ plus overhead consisting of one execution of the Share algorithm of $\Pi$ and, for $B_{2}$, an additional $n$ executions of the Recover algorithm of $\Pi^{P S S}$.

Demanding of $\Pi^{\text {Enc }}$ that $\mathbf{A d v}{ }_{\Pi}^{\mathrm{ind}}\left(B_{1}\right)$ and $\mathbf{A d} \mathbf{v}_{\Pi}^{\mathrm{Key}} \mathrm{Enc}\left(B_{2}\right)$ be small (ind1 + key1 security) is asking for less than two-query indistinguishability (ind2). The proof is standard (see Section 2). Note that a PRP-secure blockcipher is ind1 + key1 secure (even though it is not ind2-secure), and therefore an appropriate realization of $\Pi^{\text {Enc }}$ for ESH. Similarly, common modes of operation like CBC are ind $1+\mathrm{key} 1$ secure, even for a fixed IV.

Proof intuition. The proof is challenging due to the basic weakness in ESH exploited in our earlier attackthat the hash function is deterministic and thus may not preserve privacy of the shares to which it is applied. The full proof, which relies on some lemmas concerning PSS privacy from Appendix B.1, will follow. First we give a brief sketch.

We begin by highlighting two features of the proof. The first is that it relies not just on the privacy but also the recoverability of $\Pi^{P s S}$. (At first glance it may not be clear why the privacy of $\Pi$ should depend on the recoverability of $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}$.) The second is that it requires a condition on $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}$ that we call share unpredictability.

This condition is not true for an arbitrary access structure. But it is true for threshold access structures and, more generally, for all access structures that are extensible. We define the latter property in what follows.

Suppose we aim to construct an adversary $B_{1}$ attacking the ind1-property of $\Pi^{E n c}$. It would run $A$. The difficulty is that $B_{1}$ would not know the key $K$ and thus it would be unable to reply to oracle queries of $A$ because these replies are a function of the shares of $K$. We can, however, consider a new game where the plaintext is encrypted under $K$ but the share vector $K$ is produced from a different key $K^{\prime}$, expecting this to be perfectly adversarially indistinguishable from the original game due to the privacy of the PSS scheme. It is the determinism of the hash function that causes difficulties in establishing something like this. The difficulty is in answering a hash query of $A$ that contains the share $K[i]$ of an uncorrupted player $i$. This is addressed in two steps.

The first is to argue that as long as $m-2$ or fewer players have been corrupted, the share of an uncorrupted player is unpredictable and thus has low probability of being a Hash query of $A$. This is true because of the share-unpredictability lemmas of Appendix B.1, which say that even an adversary knowing the secret and $m-2$ or fewer shares cannot predict any remaining share with reasonable advantage. Here the threshold is $m$, meaning privacy of the secret is guaranteed even if the adversary knows $m-1$ shares, but share-unpredictability allows the adversary only $m-2$ shares, because we need to assume it might also know the secret.

The second step is to argue that if the adversary has corrupted $m-1$ players then, if it queries Hash on the share of an uncorrupted player, we have $m$ shares of the secret and, via the Recover procedure of the PSS scheme, can recover the underlying key. This leads to a key-recovery adversary.

We warn that this sketch elides many issues. We now fill them in.
PROOF OF PRIVACY. We will actually show something stronger than what is claimed in the theorem statement, namely, that the scheme works for any extendible access structure, as defined in Appendix B.

Proof of Theorem 1: The proof will use code-based game-playing [4]. A game in this case will consist of an Initialize procedure, procedures to respond to adversary oracle queries of Deal, Corrupt, and Hash, and a Finalize procedure.
As is usually the case with game-playing proofs, the different games used have many procedures in common. To compact the game descriptions, we accordingly do not describe each game in full but rather describe all procedures used individually, putting next to their name the games in which they appear. Boxed code in a procedure appears in the game if and only if the game name has a box around it. In this way, Figures 5 and 6 describe a total of 10 games, $G_{0}-G_{9}$. As an example of how to read the figures, the upper left Initialize of Figure 5 occurs in games $G_{0}, G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}, G_{4}, G_{6}, G_{7}, G_{8}$ while the upper right Initialize of the same Figure occurs in the remaining two games, namely $G_{5}, G_{9}$. The Corrupt and Finalize procedures are the same for all games.
We will be building adversaries that will run $A$ as a subroutine, themselves responding to the latter's oracle queries. Game $G_{0}$ moves us towards this perspective. (Game $G_{0}$ is specified by the procedures in the left column of Figure 5, with the boxed statement included in the Deal procedure.) Our claim is that

$$
\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\mathrm{priv}}(A)=2 \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{0}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-1
$$

To justify this let us explain what the game does. Its Initialize procedure picks the key $K$ and generates shares for it just like in the game defining the privacy of $\Pi$. While, ideally, we would like to pick the response to $\operatorname{Hash}(x)$ at the time $x$ is queried to Hash, the game picks the values $\operatorname{Hash}(\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i])$ up-front in the Deal procedure. (This value is represented by $\boldsymbol{H}[i]$. The IF statement in procedure Deal ensures consistency, meaning that $\operatorname{Hash}(\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i])=\operatorname{Hash}\left(\boldsymbol{K}[j] \| C_{j}\right)$ in case the arguments to Hash are the same in both cases.) It does this because it may soon need to provide $\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ as a response to a Corrupt $(i)$ query, and this share depends on $\operatorname{Hash}\left(\boldsymbol{K}[j] \| C_{j}\right)$ for all $1 \leq j \leq n$. The assignment of $\boldsymbol{H}[i]$ to $\operatorname{Hash}(\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i])$ is done only at the time the adversary makes hash oracle query $\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i]$, necessitating the IF statement in the corresponding procedure.

| PROCEDURE Initialize $G_{0}-G_{4}, G_{6}-G_{8}$ $\begin{aligned} & K \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k} ; b \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\} \\ & \boldsymbol{K} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \text { Share }^{\text {PSS }}(K) \\ & \text { FOR } i \leftarrow 1 \text { тO } n \text { DO } \boldsymbol{Y}[i] \leftarrow \diamond \end{aligned}$ | PROCEDURE Initialize $G_{5}, G_{9}$ $K, K^{\prime} \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k} ; b \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}$ <br> $\boldsymbol{K} \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {PSS }}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$ <br> FOR $i \leftarrow 1$ TO $n$ DO $\boldsymbol{Y}[i] \leftarrow \diamond$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\operatorname{ProcEdURE} \operatorname{Deal}\left(X^{0}, X^{1}\right)$ <br> $G_{0}, G_{1}$ $\begin{gathered} C \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}\left(X^{b}\right) \\ \boldsymbol{C} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {DA }}(C) \\ \text { FOR } i \leftarrow 1 \text { то } n \text { DO } \\ \boldsymbol{H}[i] \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{h} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Procedure } \operatorname{Deal}\left(X^{0}, X^{1}\right) \quad G_{2}-G_{9} \\ & C \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}\left(X^{b}\right) \\ & \boldsymbol{C} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {IDA }}(C) \\ & \text { FOR } i \leftarrow 1 \text { TO } n \text { DO } \\ & \quad \boldsymbol{H}[i] \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{h} ; \boldsymbol{S}_{i} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{E C C}(\boldsymbol{H}[i]) \end{aligned}$ |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { bad } \leftarrow \text { true } ; \boldsymbol{H}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{H}[j] \\ \boldsymbol{S}_{i} \stackrel{\oplus}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\mathrm{ECC}}(\boldsymbol{H}[i]) \end{gathered}$ | PROCEDURE Hash ( $x$ ) <br> $G_{2}, G_{3}$ <br> $\operatorname{Hash}[x] \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{h}$ |
| $\begin{array}{ll} \operatorname{PROCEDURE} \operatorname{Corrupt}(i) & G_{0}-G_{9} \\ \boldsymbol{Y}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{K}[i] & \\ \boldsymbol{X}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{K}[i] \boldsymbol{C}[i] \boldsymbol{S}_{1}[i] \cdots \boldsymbol{S}_{n}[i] & \\ \text { RETURN } \boldsymbol{X}[i] & \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { IF } \boldsymbol{Y}[i] \neq \diamond \text { THEN } \\ & \text { IF }(x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \\| \boldsymbol{C}[i]) \text { THEN Hash }[x] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{H}[i] \\ & \text { ELSE IF }(x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \\| \boldsymbol{C}[i]) \text { THEN } \\ & \quad \text { bad } \leftarrow \text { true } ; \text { Hash }[x] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{H}[i] \end{aligned}$ |
| Procedure $\operatorname{Hash}(x) \quad G_{0}, G_{1}$ | Return Hash [x] |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Hash }[x] \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{h} \\ & \text { FOR } i \leftarrow 1 \text { TO } n \text { DO } \\ & \quad \text { IF }(x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \\| \boldsymbol{C}[i]) \text { THEN Hash }[x] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{H}[i] \\ & \text { RETURN Hash }[x] \end{aligned}$ | PROCEDURE Hash $(x)$ $G_{4}, G_{5}$ <br> $\operatorname{Hash}[x] \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{h}$ <br> FOR $i \leftarrow 1$ TOn DO <br> IF $\boldsymbol{Y}[i] \neq \diamond$ THEN |
| PROCEDURE Finalize ( $d$ ) $G_{0}-G_{9}$ <br> RETURN $(d=b)$ | IF $(x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \\| \boldsymbol{C}[i])$ THEN Hash $[x] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{H}[i]$ RETURN Hash $[x]$ |

Figure 5: Procedures for games in the RO-based instantiation of the ESH scheme, Theorem 1.

With the goal now being to upper bound $\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{0}^{A} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]$, let us try to provide some intuition for what follows. Suppose we aim to construct an adversary $B$ attacking the privacy of $\Pi^{E n c}$ with advantage at least $\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{0}^{A} \Rightarrow\right.$ true]. It would run $A$ to get $X^{0}, X^{1}$ and pass these to its left-or-right encryption oracle, getting back a ciphertext $C$ encrypting $X^{c}$, where $c$ was the random challenge bit underlying its privacy game. It could now use $C$ to construct $C$ and then continue to run $A$, answering its oracle queries as $G_{0}$ does, and then $A$ 's prediction of whether it is seeing $X^{0}$ or $X^{1}$ would reveal $c$ to $B$. However, adversary $B$ can't answer $A$ 's oracle queries because they depend on shares of $K$ and $B$ does not have access to $K$, which is chosen by its privacy game. The obvious way to get around this is to have $B$ pick some new, random $K^{\prime}$, generate $\boldsymbol{K}$ via Share ${ }^{\text {PSS }}$, and use these, arguing that $A$ will not know the difference due to the privacy of the PSS scheme. But the Deal procedure, which we are suggesting $B$ run, needs to know all the values $\boldsymbol{K}[1], \ldots, \boldsymbol{K}[n]$ to perform the test in the IF statement. Similarly, the procedure for replying to Hash queries needs to test whether a query contains $\boldsymbol{K}[i]$ for some $i$ and thus needs to know all the values $\boldsymbol{K}$ too. But the PSS scheme does not provide privacy if all shares are revealed.

So our goal to implement the above idea is to put the game in a form where responding to $A$ 's queries is possible without knowing the shares of any authorized subset of players. (For concreteness, consider the case where the access structure is $\mathcal{A}=\mathcal{A}_{m, n}$. In this case, we want to be able to respond to $A$ 's queries knowing only $m-1$

```
PROCEDURE \(\operatorname{Hash}(x) \quad G_{6}\)
\(\operatorname{Hash}[x] \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{h}\)
FOR \(i \leftarrow 1\) TO \(n\) DO
    IF \(\boldsymbol{Y}[i] \neq \diamond\) THEN
        IF \((x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i])\) THEN Hash \([x] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{H}[i]\)
    ELSE IF \((x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i])\) And \(\operatorname{Opened}(\boldsymbol{Y}) \cup\{i\} \notin \mathcal{A}\) THEN
        bad \(\leftarrow\) true
Return Hash \([x]\)
    PROCEDURE Hash ( \(x\) )
        \(G_{7}\)
    \(\operatorname{Hash}[x] \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{h}\)
FOR \(i \leftarrow 1\) TO \(n\) DO
    IF \(\boldsymbol{Y}[i] \neq \diamond\) THEN
        \(\operatorname{IF}(x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i])\) THEN Hash \([x] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{H}[i]\)
    ELSE IF \((x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i])\) AND \(\operatorname{Opened}(\boldsymbol{Y}) \cup\{i\} \in \mathcal{A}\) THEN
        bad \(\leftarrow\) true
RETURN Hash \([x]\)
```

Procedure $\operatorname{Hash}(x) \quad G_{8}, G_{9}$
$\operatorname{Hash}[x] \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{h}$
FOR $i \leftarrow 1$ TO $n$ DO
IF $\boldsymbol{Y}[i] \neq \diamond$ THEN
IF ( $x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i]$ ) THEN
$\operatorname{Hash}[x] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{H}[i]$
ELSE
$K_{i} \| C_{i} \leftarrow x$
$\boldsymbol{Y}_{x} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{Y} ; \boldsymbol{Y}_{x}[i] \leftarrow K_{i}$
$L \leftarrow \operatorname{Recover}^{P S S}\left(\boldsymbol{Y}_{x}\right)$
IF $L=K$ THEN bad $\leftarrow$ true
RETURN Hash $[x]$

Figure 6: More procedures for the games in the proof of Theorem 1. Above, Opened $(\boldsymbol{Y})$ denotes the set $\{i: \boldsymbol{Y}[i] \neq \diamond\}$ of all indices at which $\boldsymbol{Y}$ is defined, and by $K_{i} \| C_{i} \leftarrow x$ we mean that $x$ is uniquely parsed into its constituents.
or less shares of $K$.) We do this in a few steps. Games $G_{0}, G_{1}$ differ only in statements following the setting of the flag bad, meaning are identical-until-bad in the terminology of [4], and so by the Fundamental Lemma of Game Playing from that paper we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{0}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] & =\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{1}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]+\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{0}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{1}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]\right) \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{1}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{1}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Consider the experiment in which we pick $K, \boldsymbol{K}$ as in the Initialize procedure of $G_{1}$. For $1 \leq j<i \leq n$ let $E_{j, i}$ denote the event that $\boldsymbol{K}[j]=\boldsymbol{K}[i]$. Consider the adversary $E_{j, i}$ for game GSh that makes a Corrupt $(j)$ query to get $\boldsymbol{K}[j]$, and then outputs $i, \boldsymbol{K}[j]$. Then by Lemma 6 we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{j, i}\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{GSh}^{E_{j, i}} \Rightarrow \operatorname{true}\right] \leq \frac{1}{2^{k}}
$$

So by the union bound,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{1}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\exists j<i: E_{j, i}\right] \leq \sum_{j<i} \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{j, i}\right] \leq \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \frac{1}{2^{k}}
$$

Since the outcome of $G_{1}$ is not affected by whether or not bad is set, this means that the problematic IF statement of the Deal procedure can be removed at the cost of a small loss. The Deal procedure of $G_{2}$ makes this change. With the goal of making responses to Hash queries possible without having shares of an authorized subset of players, we split the IF statement of the corresponding procedure of $G_{1}$ into two parts in $G_{2}$. Now we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{1}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] & =\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{2}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]  \tag{1}\\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]+\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{2}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]\right) \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right], \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

the last step again by the Fundamental Lemma of Game Playing. The setting of the flag bad by the Hash procedure of $G_{3}$ does not affect the game outcome and so we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{4}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]
$$

Now notice that $G_{4}$ does not make reference to unopened shares of $K$. So at this point we claim that the privacy of the PSS scheme implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{4}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{5}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $G_{5}$ differs from $G_{4}$ only in the Initialize procedure which now produces $\boldsymbol{K}$ by sharing not $K$ but an independently and randomly chosen key $K^{\prime}$.
Let us now justify (3). To do this we build an adversary $P_{1}$ attacking the privacy of $\Pi^{P S S}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi^{P S S}}^{\mathrm{priv}}\left(P_{1}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{4}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{5}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

But the privacy of $\Pi^{P S S}$ tells us that the advantage of $P_{1}$ is zero, yielding (3). Adversary $P_{1}$ begins by picking $K$ and $K^{\prime}$ at random from $\{0,1\}^{k}$ and $b$ at random from $\{0,1\}$. It creates $n$-vector $\boldsymbol{Y}$ to have all components $\diamond$. It then queries $K^{\prime}, K$ to its Deal oracle. We know that the latter creates a share vector $\boldsymbol{K} \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}{ }^{P S S}(L)$ where $L=K^{\prime}$ if the challenge bit $b^{\prime}$ of the oracle is 0 and $L=K$ if $b^{\prime}=1$. Now $P_{1}$ starts running $A$, responding to $A$ 's oracle queries as follows. When $A$ makes a Deal query $X^{0}, X^{1}$, adversary $P_{1}$ executes the code of the Deal procedure of games $G_{4}, G_{5}$. When $A$ makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query, $P_{1}$ itself makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query to obtain share $\boldsymbol{K}[i]$. It then sets $\boldsymbol{X}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{K}[i] \boldsymbol{C}[i] \boldsymbol{S}_{1}[i] \cdots \boldsymbol{S}_{n}[i]$ and $\boldsymbol{Y}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{K}[i]$, and returns $\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ to $A$. When $A$ makes a $\operatorname{Hash}(x)$ query, $P_{1}$ executes the code of the Hash procedure of games $G_{4}, G_{5}$ and returns Hash $[x]$ to $A$. When $A$ halts and outputs a bit $d$, adversary $P_{1}$ returns 1 if $b=d$ and 0 otherwise. It is easy to see that (4) is true.

Game $G_{5}$ uses $C$, an encryption of $X^{b}$ under $K$, but makes no other reference to $K$. This puts us in the position we wanted above where we can use the privacy of $\Pi^{E n c}$. Namely, we will now specify $B_{1}$ so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{5}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-1 \leq \mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi^{E n c}}^{\operatorname{ind}}\left(B_{1}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Adversary $B_{1}$ picks $K^{\prime}$ at random and lets $\boldsymbol{K} \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}{ }^{P S S}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. It creates $n$-vector $\boldsymbol{Y}$ to have all components $\diamond$. It then runs $A$. When $A$ makes a query $X^{0}, X^{1}$ to its Deal oracle, $B_{1}$ queries $X^{0}, X^{1}$ to its own left-or-right encryption oracle to get back a ciphertext $C \stackrel{\oiint}{\leftarrow}$ Encrypt $_{K}\left(X^{b}\right)$, where $b$ is the challenge bit chosen by the left-or-right encryption oracle. Now $B_{1}$ executes the last three lines of the Deal procedure of game $G_{5}$. When $A$ makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query, $B_{1}$ can execute the code of the Corrupt procedure of game $G_{5}$ since it knows $\boldsymbol{K}[i]$. When $A$ makes a $H a s h(x)$ query, $B_{1}$ can similarly execute the code of procedure Hash of $G_{5}$ to obtain the reply and return it to $A$. When $A$ halts and outputs a bit $d$, adversary $B_{1}$ returns $d$. The advantage of $B_{1}$ is $2 \operatorname{Pr}[b=d]-1$, so (5) is true.
To summarize, at this point we have shown that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A) \leq \mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi^{E n c}}^{\operatorname{ind}^{E}}\left(B_{1}\right)+\frac{n(n-1)}{2^{k}}+2 \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The difficult part of the proof is to bound $\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A}\right.$ sets bad $]$. For this we use the key-recovery security of $\Pi^{\text {Enc }}$.
Let us again first try to give some intuition. The difficulty with applying the privacy of the PSS scheme is that $A$ has information about $C$. Indeed, in the worst case, the ECC could be replication, meaning $C[i]=C$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$, so that $A$ would have $C$ after one Corrupt query. If the encryption scheme, like in our one-time-pad example, permitted recovery of the key from a ciphertext, then $A$ could set bad in $G_{3}$ with high probability. For example, suppose the access structure is $\mathcal{A}_{m, n}$ and we are using Shamir's PSS scheme. Adversary $A$ can obtain
$m-1$ shares of $K$, then use $K$ and these shares to compute an unopened share $\boldsymbol{K}[i]$, and query $\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i]$ to Hash. In this case, however, we could obtain $K$ from this last oracle query and the opened shares by using the recovery procedure of the PSS scheme. But we can't apply this strategy if $A$ sets bad after opening only $m-2$ or fewer shares. In that case, however, Lemma 7 applies, saying that even though $A$ knows $K$, it has low probability of predicting an unopened share.
However, in implementing this we face the same difficulties as above. We can't build a key-recovery adversary if it needs to know shares of the challenge key $K$ to simulate $A$. We want instead to use shares of a different, random $K^{\prime}$. But for this to be justifiable via the security of the PSS scheme, the game must refer only to opened shares, and $G_{3}$ does not do this. We now proceed to resolve these problems.
We begin by splitting the bad event into two, one for the case where the set of corrupted players together with the player indicated in the query setting bad do not form an authorized subset, and the other where they do:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{6}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{7}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] .
$$

To get some intuition, consider again the case where the access structure is $\mathcal{A}_{m, n}$. Then the first case corresponds to bad being set with $m-2$ or less shares opened, and the second the case where $m-1$ shares were open.
We claim Lemma 7 implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{6}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] \leq \frac{q}{2^{k}} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us justify this. For each $j$ in the range $1 \leq j \leq q$ we consider the following adversary $F_{j}$ for the $\mathrm{GSh}_{+}$ game. It gets as input a key $K$ chosen at random from $\{0,1\}^{k}$ by the game, and, via a $\operatorname{Corrupt}(i)$ query, can obtain $\boldsymbol{K}[i]$, where $\boldsymbol{K} \stackrel{\uplus}{\leftarrow}$ Share ${ }^{\text {PSS }}(K)$ were generated by the $\mathrm{GSh}_{+}$game. $F_{j}$ begins by creating $n$-vector $\boldsymbol{Y}$ to have all components $\rangle$. It then picks a bit $b$ at random, and initializing a counter $c$ to 0 . It then runs $A$. When $A$ makes a query $X^{0}, X_{1}$ to its Deal oracle, $F_{j}$ executes the code of the Deal procedure of game $G_{6}$, which it can do since it knows $K$. When $A$ makes a query $i$ to its Corrupt oracle, $F_{j}$ obtains $\boldsymbol{K}[i]$ via a corrupt query and then executes the code of the Corrupt procedure of $G_{6}$. When $A$ makes a query $x$ to its Hash oracle, $F_{j}$ does the following:

```
\(c \leftarrow c+1 ; \operatorname{Hash}[x] \stackrel{₫}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{h}\)
FOR \(i \leftarrow 1\) TO \(n\) DO
    IF \(\boldsymbol{Y}[i] \neq \diamond\) THEN
        If \((x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i])\) THEN Hash \([x] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{H}[i]\)
    ELSE IF ( \(c=j\) ) THEN \(K_{j} \| C_{j} \leftarrow x\)
return Hash \([x]\)
```

Above, by $K_{j} \| C_{j} \leftarrow x$ we mean that $x$ is uniquely parsed into its constituents. When $A$ has terminated, algorithm $F_{j}$ returns $K_{j}$ and halts. Then

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{6}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] \leq \sum_{j=1}^{q} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{GSh}_{+}^{F_{j}} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \leq \sum_{j=1}^{q} \frac{1}{2^{k}}=\frac{q}{2^{k}},
$$

yielding (7). Above, the second inequality is by Lemma 7.
If bad is set in $G_{7}$ then $\operatorname{Opened}\left(\boldsymbol{Y}_{x}\right)=\left\{i: \boldsymbol{Y}_{x}[i] \neq \diamond\right\}$ is an authorized subset and hence by the recoverability properties of $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}$, applying Recover ${ }^{\text {PSS }}$ to $\boldsymbol{Y}_{x}$ is guaranteed to return the secret $K$ in $G_{8}$. Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{7}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{8}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, once again, we have managed to create a game, namely $G_{8}$, that does not reference any unopened share, and are thus in a position to apply the privacy of $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}$, which we claim implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{8}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{9}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note $G_{9}$ differs from $G_{8}$ only in the Initialize procedure which generates $\boldsymbol{K}$ not from $K$ but from an independently chosen $K^{\prime}$. To justify (9) we can again build an adversary $P_{2}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi^{P S S}}^{\text {priv }}\left(P_{2}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{8}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{9}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

obtaining (9) because the advantage of $P_{2}$ is 0 due to the assumed privacy of $\Pi^{P S S}$. Adversary $P_{2}$ begins by picking $K$ and $K^{\prime}$ at random from $\{0,1\}^{k}$ and $b$ at random from $\{0,1\}$. It creates $n$-vector $\boldsymbol{Y}$ to have all components $\diamond$. It then queries $K^{\prime}, K$ to its Deal oracle. The latter creates shares $\boldsymbol{K} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {PSS }}(L)$ where $L=K^{\prime}$ if the challenge bit $b^{\prime}$ of the oracle is 0 and $L=K$ if $b^{\prime}=1$. Now $P_{2}$ starts running $A$, responding to $A$ 's oracle queries as follows. When $A$ makes a Deal query $X^{0}, X^{1}$, adversary $P_{2}$ executes the code of the Deal procedure of games $G_{8}, G_{9}$. When $A$ makes a $\operatorname{Corrupt}(i)$ query, $P_{2}$ itself makes a $\operatorname{Corrupt}(i)$ query to obtain share $\boldsymbol{K}[i]$. It then sets $\boldsymbol{X}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{K}[i] \boldsymbol{C}[i] \boldsymbol{S}_{1}[i] \cdots \boldsymbol{S}_{n}[i]$ and $\boldsymbol{Y}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{K}[i]$, and returns $\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ to $A$. When $A$ makes a Hash $(x)$ query, $P_{2}$ executes the code of the Hash procedure of games $G_{8}, G_{9}$ and returns Hash $[x]$ to $A$. When $A$ halts and outputs a bit $d$, adversary $P_{2}$ ignores $d$ and returns 1 iff bad was set when it responded to some Hash query. It is easy to see that (10) is true.

We will now specify $B_{2}$ so that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{9}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] \leq q n \cdot \mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi^{\mathrm{Enc}}}^{\mathrm{key}}\left(B_{2}\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall that the key-recovery game picks at random a key $K$ and provides $B_{2}$ with an encryption oracle Encrypt $_{K}(\cdot)$. Adversary $B_{2}$ picks $K^{\prime}$ at random and lets $K \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{P S S}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. It creates $n$-vector $\boldsymbol{Y}$ to have all components $\diamond$ and picks bit $b$ at random. It initializes a counter $c$ to 0 . It then picks a guess $g_{1} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}[q]$ and a guess $g_{2} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}[n]$. It then runs $A$. When $A$ makes a query $X^{0}, X^{1}$ to its Deal oracle, adversary $B_{2}$ queries $X^{b}$ to its encryption oracle to get back an encryption $C$ of $X^{b}$ under $K$. Now $B_{2}$ executes the last three lines of the Deal procedure of game $G_{9}$. When $A$ makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query, adversary $B_{2}$ can execute the code of the Corrupt procedure of game $G_{5}$ since it knows $\boldsymbol{K}[i]$. When $A$ makes a $\operatorname{Hash}(x)$ query, adversary $B_{2}$ does the following:

```
\(c \leftarrow c+1 ; \operatorname{Hash}[x] \stackrel{\Phi}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{h}\)
FOR \(i \leftarrow 1\) TO \(n\) DO
    IF \(\boldsymbol{Y}[i] \neq \diamond\) THEN
        IF \((x=\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i])\) THEN Hash \([x] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{H}[i]\)
    ELSE IF \((c, i)=\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right)\) THEN
        \(K_{i} \| C_{i} \leftarrow x ; \boldsymbol{Y}_{x} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{Y} ; \boldsymbol{Y}_{x}[i] \leftarrow K_{i} ; L \leftarrow \operatorname{Recover}^{P S S}\left(\boldsymbol{Y}_{x}\right)\)
RETURN Hash [ \(x\) ]
```

That is, when $(c, i)$ is equal to $\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right)$, adversary $B_{2}$ records the candidate key as $L$. When $A$ has terminated, adversary $B_{2}$ returns $L$ and halts. One can check that (11) is true.
In summary, this second part of the proof has shown that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \text { sets bad }\right] \leq \frac{q}{2^{k}}+q n \cdot \mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi^{\mathrm{Enc}}}^{\mathrm{key}}\left(B_{2}\right)
$$

Combining this with (6) completes the proof of the theorem.

### 4.4 Recoverability (in the RO model)

We prove recoverability for any (valid) class of adversaries, which includes the adversaries associated to any access structure, and $\mathcal{A}_{m, n, t}$ as well.

Theorem 2 [Recoverability of ESH, random-oracle model] Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a valid class of adversaries, and let $\Pi=\operatorname{ESH}\left[\Pi^{E n c}, \Pi^{P S S}, \Pi^{I D A}, \Pi^{E C C}\right]$ with primitives over $\mathcal{A}$, for $n$ parties, and for $h$-bit hashes. Let $A \in \mathcal{A}$ be an adversary that asks at most $q$ queries to its Hash oracle. Then $\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A) \leq(q+2 n)^{2} / 2^{h+1}$.

The recoverability of ESH actually requires only the collision-intractability of the hash function Hash; it is possible to restate the theorem above and adjust its proof to show that an attack on the recoverability of ESH implies an equally effective method to find collisions in Hash. We didn't express the result this way since the proof of privacy was already in the random-oracle model.
Proof of Theorem 2: Let $\Pi=($ Share, Recover $), \Pi^{E n c}=($ Encrypt, Decrypt $), \Pi^{P S S}=\left(\right.$ Share $^{\text {PSS }}$, Recover $\left.^{P S S}\right)$, $\Pi^{I D A}=\left(\right.$ Share $^{I D A}$, Recover $\left.^{I D A}\right)$, and $\Pi^{E C C}=\left(\right.$ Share $^{E C C}$, Recover $\left.^{E C C}\right)$. Consider running $A$ with game Rec. Let $K, C, \boldsymbol{K}, \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{H}, \boldsymbol{S}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{S}_{n}, \boldsymbol{X}$ denote the quantities chosen by the $S h a r e$ algorithm when it is executed by the Deal procedure in response to $A$ 's Deal query of $X$. Let $\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\prime}, j\right)$ denote the output of $A$. Let $K^{\prime}, C^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{H}^{\prime}$, $\boldsymbol{S}_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{S}_{n}^{\prime}, X^{\prime}$ denote, respectively, the quantities $K, C, \boldsymbol{K}, \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{H}, \boldsymbol{S}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{S}_{n}, X$ as defined by $\operatorname{Recover}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup\right.$ $\boldsymbol{X}_{T}^{\prime}, j$ ) when it is executed by the Finalize procedure of $R e c$, where $T$ is the set of players that $A$ corrupted. We consider the following events:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
E_{1}: & \exists \ell \in[n] \text { such that } \boldsymbol{H}[\ell] \neq \boldsymbol{H}^{\prime}[\ell] \\
E_{2}: & \exists \ell \in T \text { such that } \boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}[\ell] \| \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}[\ell] \notin\{\diamond\|\diamond, \boldsymbol{K}[\ell]\| \boldsymbol{C}[\ell]\} \\
E_{3}: & K \neq K^{\prime} \\
E_{4}: & C \neq C^{\prime}
\end{array}
$$

If $C=C^{\prime}$ and $K=K^{\prime}$ then the secret $X^{\prime}$ that is recovered equals $X$ so

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\mathrm{rec}}(A) & \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{3} \vee E_{4}\right] \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1} \vee E_{2} \vee E_{3} \vee E_{4}\right] \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{1} \wedge E_{2}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{1} \wedge \bar{E}_{2} \wedge E_{3}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{1} \wedge \bar{E}_{2} \wedge \bar{E}_{3} \wedge E_{4}\right] \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{1} \wedge E_{2}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{2} \wedge E_{3}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{2} \wedge E_{4}\right] \tag{12}
\end{align*}
$$

We bound each addend above in turn. Let $E_{1, \ell}$ be the event that $\boldsymbol{H}[\ell] \neq \boldsymbol{H}^{\prime}[\ell]$. If $i \notin T$ then $\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \boldsymbol{X}_{T}^{\prime}\right)[i]=$ $\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ and hence $\boldsymbol{S}_{\ell}^{\prime}[i]=\boldsymbol{S}_{\ell}[i]$ by line 21 in Figure 4. But $\boldsymbol{S}_{\ell}$ is an output of $\operatorname{Share}^{E C C}(\boldsymbol{H}[\ell])$ and $\bar{T} \in \mathcal{A}$, so $\operatorname{Recover}^{E C C}\left(\boldsymbol{S}_{\ell}^{\prime}, j\right)=\boldsymbol{H}[\ell]$ by Lemma 8 applied to $\Pi^{E C C}$, meaning $\boldsymbol{H}^{\prime}[\ell]=\boldsymbol{H}[\ell]$. So $\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1, \ell}\right]=0$. Now by the union bound we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right] \leq \sum_{\ell=1}^{n} \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1, \ell}\right]=0 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{2}\right] \leq \frac{(q+2 n)^{2}}{2^{h+1}} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

We justify this as follows. Suppose $\ell \in T$ and $\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}[\ell]\left\|\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}[\ell] \neq \diamond\right\| \diamond$. By lines 21 and 25 of Figure 4 it must be that $\operatorname{Hash}\left(\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}[\ell] \| \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}[\ell]\right)=\boldsymbol{H}[\ell]$. But if $\bar{E}_{1}$ then $\boldsymbol{H}^{\prime}[\ell]=\boldsymbol{H}[\ell]$, and by line 14 of Figure 4 we know that $\boldsymbol{H}[\ell]=\operatorname{Hash}(\boldsymbol{K}[\ell] \| \boldsymbol{C}[\ell])$. So we have $\operatorname{Hash}\left(\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}[\ell] \| \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}[\ell]\right)=\operatorname{Hash}(\boldsymbol{K}[\ell] \| \boldsymbol{C}[\ell])$. Thus if $\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}[\ell] \| \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}[\ell] \neq$ $\boldsymbol{K}[\ell] \| \boldsymbol{C}[\ell]$ then we have a collision in Hash. Thus if $\bar{E}_{1} \wedge E_{2}$ we have found a collision in Hash. At this point we need only bound the probability of a collision in Hash. The random-oracle Hash is invoked at most $q+2 n$ times, justifying (14).

Next we claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{2} \wedge E_{3}\right]=0 \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

We justify this as follows. If $i \notin T$ then $\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \boldsymbol{X}_{T}^{\prime}\right)[i]=\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ and hence $\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}[i]=\boldsymbol{K}[i]$ by line 21 of Figure 4. If $i \in T$ and $\bar{E}_{2}$ holds then $\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}[i] \in\{\forall, \boldsymbol{K}[i]\}$. But $\boldsymbol{K}$ is an output of Share ${ }^{P S S}(K)$ and $\bar{T} \in \mathcal{A}$, so Recover ${ }^{P S S}\left(\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}, j\right)=K$ by Lemma 8 applied to $\Pi^{P S S}$, meaning $K^{\prime}=K$. So $E_{3}$ cannot hold.

Finally, we claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{2} \wedge E_{4}\right]=0 \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

We justify this as follows. If $i \notin T$ then $\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \boldsymbol{X}_{T}^{\prime}\right)[i]=\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ and hence $\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}[i]=\boldsymbol{C}[i]$ by line 21 of Figure 4. If $i \in T$ and $\bar{E}_{2}$ holds then $\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}[i] \in\{\diamond, \boldsymbol{C}[i]\}$. But $\boldsymbol{C}$ is an output of $\operatorname{Share}^{I D A}(C)$ and $\bar{T} \in \mathcal{A}$, so Recover ${ }^{\text {IDA }}\left(\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}, j\right)=C$ by Lemma 8 applied to $\Pi^{I D A}$, meaning $C^{\prime}=C$. So $E_{4}$ cannot hold.

Putting together equations (12)-(16) completes the proof. \|

## 5 The ESX Protocol - Provable Security Without ROs

In this section we alter ESH by replacing its deterministic hash function Hash with a randomized commitment scheme. This changes the protocol, as the randomness used in the commitment must be inserted into the shares. We are then able to show that the new protocol, ESX, is a good RCSS under standard assumptions.

### 5.1 The construction

COMMITMENT SCHEMES. We formalize a (noninteractive) commitment scheme as a deterministic algorithm Comm: $\{0,1\}^{*} \times \operatorname{Coins}(\operatorname{Comm}) \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{h} \cup\{\perp\}$ where Coins $(\operatorname{Comm})$ is a finite set and $h \in \mathbb{N}$ is the commitment length. The domain $\operatorname{Dom}(\operatorname{Comm}) \subseteq\{0,1\}^{*}$ of Comm is the set of all $M \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ such that $\operatorname{Comm}(M, R) \in\{0,1\}^{h}$ for all $R \in \operatorname{Coins}(\operatorname{Comm})$. We assume that whether or not $\operatorname{Comm}(M, R) \in\{0,1\}^{h}$ does not depend on $R$ (which ensures that it is easy to check if a point is in the domain). There are two security properties, hiding and binding, each defined by a game.

For the hiding game, Hide, the Initialize procedure chooses a bit $b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}$. The game has only one oracle, LR, which, on input of strings $M_{0}, M_{1} \in \operatorname{Dom}(C o m m)$ (not necessarily of equal length), picks $R \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Coins}(\operatorname{Comm})$, sets $Y \leftarrow \operatorname{Comm}\left(M_{b}, R\right)$, and returns $Y$. (Multiple queries to this oracle are allowed.) The adversary returns a bit $d$ and Finalize returns the predicate $b=d$. The advantage of $A$ in attacking the hiding-property of the commitment scheme is $\mathbf{A d v}_{\text {Comm }}^{\text {hide }}(A)=2 \operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{Hide}^{A} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]-1$. We say that Comm is $\epsilon(\cdot)$-hiding if $\mathbf{A d v}_{\text {Comm }}^{\text {hide }}(A) \leq \epsilon(q)$ for any adversary $A$ that makes at most $q$ oracle queries. Note that the adversary is not computationally restricted; we have given a statistical notion of privacy.

For the binding game, Bind, there is no Initialize procedure. It has one oracle, Commit, that, on input $M_{0} \in$ $\operatorname{Dom}(\operatorname{Comm})$, picks $R_{0} \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Coins}(C o m m)$ and returns $R_{0}$. The Finalize procedure, given $M_{1} \in \operatorname{Dom}(C o m m)$ and $R_{1} \in \operatorname{Coins}(\operatorname{Comm})$ returns the predicate $M_{0} \neq M_{1}$ AND $\operatorname{Comm}\left(M_{0}, R_{0}\right)=\operatorname{Comm}\left(M_{1}, R_{1}\right)$. We define the advantage of $A$ in attacking the binding-property of the commitment scheme as $\operatorname{Adv}_{\text {Comm }}^{\text {bind }}(A)=$ $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{Bind}^{A} \Rightarrow\right.$ true $]$. The notion is weaker than the classical notion of binding, which would speak to the computational infeasibility to find any $M_{0}, R_{0}, M_{1}, R_{1}$ such that $M_{0} \neq M_{1}$ but $\operatorname{Comm}\left(M_{0}, R_{0}\right)=$ $\operatorname{Comm}\left(M_{1}, R_{1}\right)$. The conventional notion is analogous to the collision resistance of a hash function while our notion is more like a UOWHF [30] (also called TCR hash-function [5]).

The ESX construction. Fix a family of adversaries $\mathcal{A}$. We proceed to build an $n$-party secret-sharing scheme with message space $\mathbb{S}$ from the following five components: (1) a symmetric encryption scheme $\Pi^{E n c}=$ (Encrypt, Decrypt) with $k$-bit keys and a message space $\mathbb{S}$; (2) an $n$-party secret-sharing scheme $\Pi^{P S S}=$ $\left(\right.$ Share ${ }^{P S S}$, Recover $\left.^{P S S}\right)$ over $\mathcal{A}$ with message space $\{0,1\}^{k} ;(3)$ an $n$-party IDA $\Pi^{I D A}=\left(\right.$ Share ${ }^{\text {IDA }}$, Recover $\left.^{\text {IDA }}\right)$

```
PROCEDURE Share( }X\mathrm{ )
    K\stackrel{&}{\leftarrow}{0,1\mp@subsup{}}{}{k}
1 C}\stackrel{&}{\leftarrow}\mp@subsup{\mathrm{ Encrypt }}{K}{}(X
    K}\stackrel{$}{\leftarrow}\mp@subsup{\operatorname{Share}}{}{PSS}(K);\boldsymbol{C}\stackrel{$}{\leftarrow}\mp@subsup{\operatorname{Share}}{}{IDA}(C
    FOR }i\leftarrow1\mathrm{ TO }n\mathrm{ DO
        R[i]}\stackrel{$}{\leftarrow}\operatorname{Coins(Comm)
        H[i]\leftarrowComm}(\boldsymbol{K}[i]|\boldsymbol{C}[i],\boldsymbol{R}[i]
        S
    FOR }i\leftarrow1\mathrm{ TO }n\mathrm{ DO
        X [i] \leftarrow\boldsymbol{R}[i]\boldsymbol{K}[i]\boldsymbol{C}[i] \mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{S}}{1}{}[i]\cdots\mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{S}}{n}{}[i]
    RETURN X
```

```
```

PROCEDURE Recover $(\boldsymbol{X}, j)$

```
```

PROCEDURE Recover $(\boldsymbol{X}, j)$
FOR $i \leftarrow 1$ TO $n$ DO
FOR $i \leftarrow 1$ TO $n$ DO
$\boldsymbol{R}[i] \boldsymbol{K}[i] \boldsymbol{C}[i] \boldsymbol{S}_{1}[i] \cdots \boldsymbol{S}_{n}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{X}[i]$
$\boldsymbol{R}[i] \boldsymbol{K}[i] \boldsymbol{C}[i] \boldsymbol{S}_{1}[i] \cdots \boldsymbol{S}_{n}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{X}[i]$
FOR $i \leftarrow 1$ TO $n$ DO
FOR $i \leftarrow 1$ TO $n$ DO
$\boldsymbol{H}[i] \leftarrow \operatorname{Recover}^{E C C}\left(\boldsymbol{S}_{i}, j\right)$
$\boldsymbol{H}[i] \leftarrow \operatorname{Recover}^{E C C}\left(\boldsymbol{S}_{i}, j\right)$
FOR $i \leftarrow 1$ TO $n$ DO
FOR $i \leftarrow 1$ TO $n$ DO
IF $\boldsymbol{X}[i] \neq \diamond$ AND $\operatorname{Comm}(\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i], \boldsymbol{R}[i]) \neq \boldsymbol{H}[i]$
IF $\boldsymbol{X}[i] \neq \diamond$ AND $\operatorname{Comm}(\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i], \boldsymbol{R}[i]) \neq \boldsymbol{H}[i]$
THEN $\boldsymbol{K}[i] \leftarrow \diamond ; \boldsymbol{C}[i] \leftarrow \diamond$
THEN $\boldsymbol{K}[i] \leftarrow \diamond ; \boldsymbol{C}[i] \leftarrow \diamond$
$K \leftarrow \operatorname{Recover}^{P S S}(\boldsymbol{K}, j)$
$K \leftarrow \operatorname{Recover}^{P S S}(\boldsymbol{K}, j)$
$C \leftarrow \operatorname{Recover}^{\text {IDA }}(\boldsymbol{C}, j)$
$C \leftarrow \operatorname{Recover}^{\text {IDA }}(\boldsymbol{C}, j)$
$X \leftarrow \operatorname{Decrypt}_{K}(C)$
$X \leftarrow \operatorname{Decrypt}_{K}(C)$
RETURN $X$

```
```

    RETURN \(X\)
    ```
```

Figure 7: Definition of the ESX construction $\Pi=($ Share, Recover $)=\mathrm{ESX}\left[\Pi^{\text {Enc }}, \Pi^{P S S}, \Pi^{\text {IDA }}, \Pi^{\text {ECC }}\right.$, Comm $]$.
over $\mathcal{A}$ with message space $\Sigma^{*}$; (4) an $n$-party ECC $\Pi^{E C C}=\left(\right.$ Share $^{\mathrm{ECC}}$, Recover $\left.{ }^{\mathrm{ECC}}\right)$ over $\mathcal{A}$ with message space $\{0,1\}^{h}$; and (5) a commitment scheme Comm: $\operatorname{Dom}(\operatorname{Comm}) \times \operatorname{Coins}(\operatorname{Comm}) \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{h}$ where $\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i] \in \operatorname{Dom}(\operatorname{Comm})$ if $\boldsymbol{K} \in \operatorname{Share}^{\text {PSS }}(K)$ and $\boldsymbol{C} \in \operatorname{Share}^{\text {DA }}(C)$ for some $K \in\{0,1\}^{k}, X \in \mathbb{S}$, and $C \in \operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(X)$. We call $\Pi^{E n c}, \Pi^{P S S}, \Pi^{I A}, \Pi^{E C C}$, Comm the underlying primitives of the ESX scheme, and we say that they are over $\mathcal{A}$, for $n$ parties, for $k$-bit keys, and for $h$-bit committals. From such a set of primitives we define the secret-sharing scheme $\mathrm{ESX}\left[\Pi^{\mathrm{Enc}}, \Pi^{P S S}, \Pi^{\text {DA }}, \Pi^{\mathrm{ECC}}\right.$, Comm $]=($ Share, Recover $)$ as specified by Figure 7. The figure uses the same conventions as those of Figure 4.

### 5.2 Privacy (in the standard model)

The difficulty in establishing privacy in the standard model is that our adversary is dynamic, and so we run into the selective-decommitment problem; see Dwork, Naor, and Reingold [17]. One could always pretend the adversary to be static and take a hit of $2^{n}$ in the security bound when the adversary is dynamic, but we don't want to do this, as we are interested in concrete security and results with good asymptotic counterparts. Another way around this is to use a statistically-hiding chameleon commitment-scheme. Instead we make do with a weaker requirement, just the statistical hiding. We comment that for the case of static adversaries, it would suffice that the commitment be computationally rather than statistically hiding.

Theorem 3 [Privacy of ESX] Let $\mathcal{A}$ be an adversary class and let $\Pi=\operatorname{ESX}\left[\Pi^{\text {Enc }}, \Pi^{\text {PSS }}, \Pi^{D P A}, \Pi^{E C C}, C o m m\right]$ with primitives over $\mathcal{A}$, for $n$ parties, and with an $\epsilon(\cdot)$-hiding Comm. Let $A \in \mathcal{A} \cap$ Priv be an adversary for attacking the privacy of $\Pi$. Then there is an adversary $B$ for attacking the privacy of $\Pi^{\mathrm{Enc}}$ such that

$$
\boldsymbol{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A) \leq \mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi}^{\mathrm{ind}}(B)+4 \epsilon(n)
$$

where $B$ makes only one query to its left-or-right oracle and the running time of $B$ is that of $A$ plus overhead consisting of one execution of the Share algorithm of $\Pi$.

Proof of Theorem 3: The proof relies on the games in Figure 8. The figure shows many procedures, indicating next to each in which games it is included. For example, game $G_{0}$ is defined by the procedures on the left-hand-side of the figure. We note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {priv }}(A)=2 \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{0}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-1 \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

| PROCEDURE Initialize $G_{0}-G_{2}$ $\begin{aligned} & K \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k} ; b \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\} \\ & \boldsymbol{K} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {PSS }}(K) \end{aligned}$ <br> RETURN | PROCEDURE Initialize $G_{3}-G_{5}$ $\begin{aligned} & \left.K, K^{\prime} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k} ; b \stackrel{\S}{\leftarrow}_{\leftarrow} 0,1\right\} \\ & \boldsymbol{K} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \text { Share }^{\text {PSS }}\left(K^{\prime}\right) \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { PROCEDURE Deal }\left(X^{0}, X^{1}\right) \quad G_{0}, G_{1}, G_{4}, G_{5} \\ & C \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}\left(X^{b}\right) \\ & \boldsymbol{C} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {DA }}(C) \\ & \text { FOR } i \leftarrow 1 \text { To } n \text { DO } \\ & \quad \boldsymbol{R}[i] \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Coins}(\operatorname{Comm}) \\ & \boldsymbol{H}[i] \leftarrow \operatorname{Comm}(\boldsymbol{K}[i] \\| C[i], \boldsymbol{R}[i]) \\ & \boldsymbol{S}_{i} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {ECC }}(\boldsymbol{H}[i]) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { PRocedure } \operatorname{Deal}\left(X^{0}, X^{1}\right) \quad G_{2}, G_{3} \\ & C \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}\left(X^{b}\right) \\ & \boldsymbol{C} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {IDA }}(C) \\ & \text { FOR } i \leftarrow 1 \text { TO } n \text { DO } \\ & \boldsymbol{R}[i] \leftarrow \operatorname{Coins}(\operatorname{Comm}) \\ & \boldsymbol{H}[i] \leftarrow \operatorname{Comm}^{\circ}(0 \\| \boldsymbol{C}[i], \boldsymbol{R}[i]) \\ & \boldsymbol{S}_{i} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {ECC }}(\boldsymbol{H}[i]) \end{aligned}$ |
| $\begin{array}{ll} \text { Procedure Corrupt }(i) & G_{0}, G_{5} \\ \boldsymbol{X}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{R}[i] \\| \boldsymbol{K}[i] C[i] \boldsymbol{S}_{1}[i] \cdots \boldsymbol{S}_{n}[i] \\ \text { RETURN } \boldsymbol{X}[i] \\ \hline \text { Procedure Finalize }(d) & G_{0}-G_{5} \\ \text { RETURN }(d=b) & \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Procedure Corrupt }(i) \\ & \boldsymbol{R}[i] \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{R \in \operatorname{Coins}(\operatorname{Comm}): \\ & \boldsymbol{\operatorname { C o m m } ( \boldsymbol { K } [ i ] \\| \boldsymbol { C } [ i ] , R ) = \boldsymbol { H } [ i ] \}} \\ & \boldsymbol{X}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{R}[i]\\|\boldsymbol{K}[i]\\| \boldsymbol{C}[i] \boldsymbol{S}_{1}[i] \cdots \boldsymbol{S}_{n}[i] \\ & \text { RETURN } \boldsymbol{X}[i] \end{aligned}$ |

Figure 8: Games for proving Theorem 3, the privacy of the ESX scheme.

Game $G_{1}$ differs from game $G_{0}$ only in the Corrupt procedure, which resamples $\boldsymbol{R}[i]$ as shown. Clearly,

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{0}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] & =\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{1}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]  \tag{18}\\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{2}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]+\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{1}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{2}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]\right) \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

We will construct an adversary $D_{1}$ attacking the hiding-property of Comm such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{1}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{2}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]=\mathbf{A d v}_{\text {Comm }}^{\text {hide }}\left(D_{1}\right) \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Adversary $D_{1}$ picks $b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}$ and runs $A$. When $A$ makes a query $X^{0}, X^{1}$ to its Deal oracle, adversary $D_{1}$ picks $K \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k}$ and $C \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}$ Encrypt $_{K}\left(X^{b}\right)$. It then picks $K \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {PSS }}(K)$. For $i$ running from 1 to $n$, it queries $0\|\boldsymbol{C}[i], \boldsymbol{K}[i]\| \boldsymbol{C}[i]$ to its LR oracle, lets $\boldsymbol{H}[i]$ denote the value returned, and lets $\boldsymbol{S}_{i} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}{ }^{E C C}(\boldsymbol{H}[i])$. When $A$ makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query, adversary $D_{1}$ computes its reply according to the code of the Corrupt procedure of games $G_{1}, G_{2}$. Note that this step is not necessarily efficient, but $D_{1}$ does not have to be computationally bounded. When $A$ halts without output $d$, adversary $D$ returns 1 if $d=b$ and 0 otherwise. One can check that (20) is true.

Next we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{2}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]+\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{2}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]\right) \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $G_{3}$ differs from $G_{2}$ only in the Initialize procedure which now produces $K$ by sharing not $K$ but an independently and randomly chosen key $K^{\prime}$. We claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{2}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

To justify the above, we build an adversary $P$ attacking the privacy of the PSS scheme $\Pi^{P S S}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi^{P S S}}^{\text {priv }}(P)=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{2}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

But the privacy of $\Pi^{P S S}$ tells us that the advantage of $P$ is zero, yielding (22). Adversary $P$ begins by picking $K$ and $K^{\prime}$ at random from $\{0,1\}^{k}$ and $b$ at random from $\{0,1\}$. It then queries $K^{\prime}, K$ to its Deal oracle. We know that the latter creates shares $K \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{\text {PSS }}(L)$ where $L=K^{\prime}$ if the challenge bit chosen by game Priv is zero and $L=K$ if it is one. Now $P$ starts running $A$, responding to $A$ 's oracle queries as follows. When $A$ queries $\operatorname{Deal}\left(X^{0}, X^{1}\right)$ adversary $P$ executes the code of the Deal procedure of games $G_{2}, G_{3}$. When $A$ makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query, adversary $P$ itself makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query to obtain share $\boldsymbol{K}[i]$, produces $\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ as per the code of the Corrupt procedure of games $G_{2}, G_{3}$, and returns $\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ to $A$. As before, this step is not necessarily efficient, but $P$ need not be computationally bounded. When $A$ halts and outputs a bit $d$, adversary $P$ returns 1 if $b=d$ and 0 otherwise. It is easy to see that (23) is true.
Next we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{4}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]+\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{4}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]\right) \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

We next construct an adversary $D_{2}$ attacking the hiding-property of Comm such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{3}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{4}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]=\mathbf{A d v} \underset{\text { Comm }}{\text { hide }}\left(D_{2}\right) \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

The construction of $D_{2}$ is similar to that of $D_{1}$ and is therefore omitted. Games $G_{5}$ differs from $G_{4}$ only in its Corrupt procedure as shown. Clearly

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{4}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{5}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now construct adversary $B$ attacking the privacy of $\Pi^{E n c}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 \cdot \operatorname{Pr}\left[G_{5}^{A} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-1 \leq \operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi^{E n c}}^{\operatorname{ind}}(B) \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Adversary $B$ picks $K^{\prime}$ at random and lets $K \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{P S S}\left(K^{\prime}\right)$. It then runs $A$. When $A$ makes a query $\operatorname{Deal}\left(X^{0}, X^{1}\right), B$ queries $X^{0}, X^{1}$ to its own left-or-right encryption oracle to get back $C \stackrel{\oplus}{\leftarrow}$ Encrypt $_{K}\left(X^{b}\right)$, where $b$ is the challenge bit and $K$ the key chosen by the Ind game defining the privacy of $\Pi^{\mathrm{Enc}}$. Now $B$ executes the last five lines of the Deal procedure of game $G_{5}$. When $A$ makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query, adversary $B$ can execute the code of the Corrupt procedure of game $G_{5}$ since it knows $\boldsymbol{K}[i]$. When $A$ halts and outputs a bit $d$, adversary $B$ returns $d$. The advantage of $B$ is $2 \operatorname{Pr}[b=d]-1$, so (27) is true.
Let $D$ be the hiding-adversary that flips a fair coin and, if it lands heads, runs $D_{1}$, otherwise, $D_{2}$. Clearly

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Adv}_{C o m m}^{\text {hide }}(D)=0.5 \cdot \mathbf{A d} \mathbf{v}_{C o m m}^{\text {hide }}\left(D_{1}\right)+0.5 \cdot \mathbf{A d v}_{\text {Comm }}^{\text {hide }}\left(D_{2}\right) \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since Comm is assumed to be $\epsilon(\cdot)$-hiding and $D$ makes at most $n$ oracle queries we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{A d v}_{\text {Comm }}^{\text {hide }}(D) \leq \epsilon(n) \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Putting together (17)-(29) concludes the proof.

### 5.3 Recoverability (in the standard model)

We now establish the recoverability of ESX. The theorem applies to any valid adversary class and assumes a weakly-binding committal.

Theorem 4 [Recoverability of ESX] Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a valid adversary class and let $\Pi=\operatorname{ESX}\left[\Pi^{E n c}, \Pi^{P S S}, \Pi^{\text {IDA }}\right.$, $\Pi^{E C C}$, Comm $]$ with primitives over $\mathcal{A}$ and for $n$ parties. Let $A \in \mathcal{A}$. Then there is an adversary $B$ attacking the binding-property of $C o m m$ such that $\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A) \leq n \cdot \mathbf{A d v}_{\text {Comm }}^{\text {bind }}(B)$ and where the running time of $B$ is that of $A$ plus overhead consisting of an execution of the Share and Recover algorithms of $\Pi$.

```
procedure Corrupt(i)
RETURN }\boldsymbol{X}[i
procedure Finalize ( }\mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{X}}{}{\prime},j
FOR }i\leftarrow1\mathrm{ TO }n\mathrm{ DO
    \mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{R}}{}{\prime}[i]}\mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{K}}{}{\prime}[i]\mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{C}}{}{\prime}[i] \mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{S}}{1}{\prime}[i]\mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{S}}{2}{\prime}[i]\cdots\mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{S}}{n}{\prime}[i]\leftarrow\mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{X}}{}{\prime}[i
REtURN (}\mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{K}}{}{\prime}[\ell]|\mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{C}}{}{\prime}[\ell],\mp@subsup{\boldsymbol{R}}{}{\prime}[\ell]
```

```
Procedure Deal \((X)\)
\(\ell \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}[n] ; K \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\{0,1\}^{k} ; C \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\) Encrypt \(_{K}(X)\)
\(\boldsymbol{K} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\) Share \(^{\text {PSS }}(K) ; \boldsymbol{C} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\) Share \(^{\text {DA }}(C)\)
FOR \(i \leftarrow 1\) TO \(n\) DO
    IF \(i=\ell\) THEN \(\boldsymbol{R}[\ell] \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Commit}(\boldsymbol{K}[\ell] \| \boldsymbol{C}[\ell])\)
    ELSE \(\boldsymbol{R}[i] \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow}\) Coins(Comm)
    \(\boldsymbol{H}[i] \leftarrow \operatorname{Comm}(\boldsymbol{K}[i] \| \boldsymbol{C}[i], \boldsymbol{R}[i])\)
    \(\boldsymbol{S}_{i} \stackrel{\&}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Share}^{E C C}(\boldsymbol{H}[i])\)
FOR \(i \leftarrow 1\) TO \(n\) DO
    \(\boldsymbol{X}[i] \leftarrow \boldsymbol{R}[i] \boldsymbol{K}[i] \boldsymbol{C}[i] \boldsymbol{S}_{1}[i] \cdots \boldsymbol{S}_{n}[i]\)
```

Figure 9: Procedures used by adversary $A_{\text {BIND }}$ to respond to oracle queries of $A$ in the proof of Theorem 4.

Proof of Theorem 4: Let $\Pi=($ Share, Recover $), \Pi^{\text {Enc }}=($ Encrypt, Decrypt $)$, $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}=\left(\right.$ Share ${ }^{\text {PSS }}$, Recover $\left.{ }^{\text {PSS }}\right)$, $\Pi^{\text {DA }}=\left(\right.$ Share ${ }^{\text {DA }}$, Recover $\left.^{I D A}\right)$, and $\Pi^{E C C}=\left(\right.$ Share $^{E C C}$, Recover $\left.{ }^{E C C}\right)$. Consider running $A$ with game Rec. Let $K, C, \boldsymbol{K}, \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{H}, \boldsymbol{S}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{S}_{n}, \boldsymbol{X}$ denote the quantities chosen by the Share algorithm when it is executed by the Deal procedure in response to $A$ 's Deal query of $X$. Let $\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\prime}, j\right)$ denote the output of $A$. Let $K^{\prime}, C^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{H}^{\prime}$, $\boldsymbol{S}_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{S}_{n}^{\prime}, X^{\prime}$ denote, respectively, the quantities $K, C, \boldsymbol{K}, \boldsymbol{C}, \boldsymbol{H}, \boldsymbol{S}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{S}_{n}, X$ as defined by $\operatorname{Recover}\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup\right.$ $\boldsymbol{X}_{T}^{\prime}, j$ ) when it is executed by the Finalize procedure of Rec, where $T$ is the set of players that $A$ corrupted. We consider the following events:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
E_{1}: & \exists \ell \in[n] \text { such that } \boldsymbol{H}[\ell] \neq \boldsymbol{H}^{\prime}[\ell] \\
E_{2}: & \exists \ell \in T \text { such that } \boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}[\ell] \| \boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}[\ell] \notin\{\diamond\|\diamond, \boldsymbol{K}[\ell]\| \boldsymbol{C}[\ell]\} \\
E_{3}: & K \neq K^{\prime} \\
E_{4}: & C \neq C^{\prime}
\end{array}
$$

If $C=C^{\prime}$ and $K=K^{\prime}$ then the secret $X^{\prime}$ that is recovered equals $X$ so

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text {rec }}(A) & \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{3} \vee E_{4}\right] \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1} \vee E_{2} \vee E_{3} \vee E_{4}\right] \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{1} \wedge E_{2}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{1} \wedge \bar{E}_{2} \wedge E_{3}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{1} \wedge \bar{E}_{2} \wedge \bar{E}_{3} \wedge E_{4}\right] \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{1} \wedge E_{2}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{2} \wedge E_{3}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{2} \wedge E_{4}\right] . \tag{30}
\end{align*}
$$

We bound each addend above in turn. Let $E_{1, \ell}$ be the event that $\boldsymbol{H}[\ell] \neq \boldsymbol{H}^{\prime}[\ell]$. If $i \notin T$ then $\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \overline{X_{T}}\right)[i]=$ $\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ and hence $\boldsymbol{S}_{\ell}^{\prime}[i]=\boldsymbol{S}_{\ell}[i]$ by line 21 in Figure 7. But $\boldsymbol{S}_{\ell}$ is an output of $\operatorname{Share}^{E C C}(\boldsymbol{H}[\ell])$ and $\bar{T} \in \mathcal{A}$, so Recover ${ }^{E C C}\left(\boldsymbol{S}_{\ell}^{\prime}, j\right)=\boldsymbol{H}[\ell]$ by Lemma 8 applied to $\Pi^{E C C}$, meaning $\boldsymbol{H}^{\prime}[\ell]=\boldsymbol{H}[\ell]$. So $\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1, \ell}\right]=0$. Now by the union bound we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right] \leq \sum_{\ell=1}^{n} \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1, \ell}\right]=0 \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we construct adversary $B$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{1} \wedge E_{2}\right] \leq n \cdot \mathbf{A d v}_{\text {Comm }}^{\text {bind }}(B) \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

Adversary $B$ runs $A$, responding to its Deal and Corrupt oracle calls via the procedures of Figure 9. When $A$ halts with output $\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{\prime}, j\right)$, adversary $B$ runs the Finalize procedure of the same figure.
Next we claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{2} \wedge E_{3}\right]=0 \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

We justify this as follows. If $i \notin T$ then $\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \boldsymbol{X}_{T}^{\prime}\right)[i]=\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ and hence $\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}[i]=\boldsymbol{K}[i]$ by line 21 of Figure 7. If $i \in T$ and $\bar{E}_{2}$ holds then $\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}[i] \in\{\diamond, \boldsymbol{K}[i]\}$. But $\boldsymbol{K}$ is an output of $\operatorname{Share}{ }^{P S S}(K)$ and $\bar{T} \in \mathcal{A}$, so $\operatorname{Recover}^{P S S}\left(\boldsymbol{K}^{\prime}, j\right)=K$ by Lemma 8 applied to $\Pi^{P S S}$, meaning $K^{\prime}=K$. So $E_{3}$ cannot hold.

Finally, we claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bar{E}_{2} \wedge E_{4}\right]=0 \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

We justify this as follows. If $i \notin T$ then $\left(\boldsymbol{X}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \boldsymbol{X}_{T}^{\prime}\right)[i]=\boldsymbol{X}[i]$ and hence $\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}[i]=\boldsymbol{C}[i]$ by line 21 of Figure 7. If $i \in T$ and $\bar{E}_{2}$ holds then $\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}[i] \in\{\diamond, \boldsymbol{C}[i]\}$. But $\boldsymbol{C}$ is an output of $\operatorname{Share}^{\text {IDA }}(C)$ and $\bar{T} \in \mathcal{A}$, so Recover ${ }^{\text {IDA }}\left(\boldsymbol{C}^{\prime}, j\right)=C$ by Lemma 8 applied to $\Pi^{I D A}$, meaning $C^{\prime}=C$. So $E_{4}$ cannot hold.

Putting together equations (30)-(34) completes the proof. I

### 5.4 RCSS from any one-way function

Our requirements on the statistically-hiding (SH) commitment scheme are weaker than standard ones in a couple of ways. First, as we noted earlier, the standard binding requirement for a commitment scheme is stronger than ours. Second, our definition effectively models the situation where the committer (for us, the dealer) is honest. On the other hand, our scheme must be noninteractive.

Building a standard SH commitment-scheme is well-studied. Naor, Ostrovsky, Venkatesan, and Yung [29] have an interactive solution based on a one-way-permutation. Damgård, Pedersen, and Pfitzmann [16], and later Halevi and Micali [20], present efficient variants of this based on a family of collision-resistant hashfunctions. An OWF solution remains open. But due to the goal-relaxations we discussed above, we can alter the constructions of $[16,20]$ to achieve our notion of a (noninteractive) statistically-hiding, weakly-binding (SHWB) commitment scheme. We simply replace the family of collision-resistant hash-functions by a family of UOWHFs [30] and let the committer (rather than the receiver as in $[16,20]$ ) choose the key for this family. (This works because the committer is honest.)

In slightly more detail, in this scheme the coins $R$, used to commit to a message $M$, specify keys $J, L$ for functions from the UOWHF family $F$, a member $h$ from a family of universal hash functions, and a random point $x$, and the committal is $\left(J, L, F_{L}(x), h(x) \oplus F_{J}(M)\right)$. Since UOWHFs exist given any OWF [34], we obtain a OWF-based SHWB commitment scheme, which suffices to implement ESX. Thus we obtain a provably-secure, OWF-based RCSS.

However, for the result to be nontrivial the RCSS scheme needs to have shares shorter than the messagesotherwise the RCSS goal is achievable information-theoretically (for appropriate adversary classes) [28, 41]. The scheme above will not have short shares because the keys for the UOWHF family are long. We can address this by making the UOWHF keys $(J, L)$ public parameters that are chosen up front once and for all, and are made available to all parties (think of them as embedded in the software of the algorithms). This means the same $J$ and $L$ will be used not just for committals to different parties but also across multiple invocations of the Share and Recover algorithms. Now the committal is merely $\left(F_{L}(x), h(x) \oplus F_{J}(M)\right)$, which is short. Formally, this means we will be in the with-Setup setting of Section 3, with the Setup algorithm choosing $J, L$.

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## A Prior Definitions for Secret Sharing

Blakley and Shamir (1979). A threshold scheme with parameters $m$ and $n$ (that is, a secret-sharing scheme for the access structure $\mathcal{A}_{m, n}$ ) was defined by Shamir [35] as follows ${ }^{7}$ : Our goal is to divide $S$ into $n$ pieces $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{n}$ in such a way that: (1) knowledge of any $m$ or more $S_{i}$ pieces makes $S$ easily computable; and (2) knowledge of any $m-1$ or fewer $S_{i}$ pieces leaves $S$ completely undetermined (in the sense that all its possible values are equally likely).

The definition above is somewhat informal, and admits multiple, basically equivalent formalizations. The two most prominent are the conditional-probability formulation and the entropy formulation. Both approaches assume that the finite set of possible secrets $\mathbb{S}$ is endowed with a distribution; in effect, they define a threshold scheme for this distribution. (Of course one can always say afterwards that the specified requirement should hold for any distribution $\mathbb{S}$, although this seems to be explicitly said only rarely.) For both formulations, let $S$ denote the random variable that takes on values from $\mathbb{S}$ according to the associated distribution and let $S_{i}$ be the random variable that takes on values of the share $i$ for $i \in[n]$.

For the conditional-probability formulation one requires that for any distinct $\left\{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{r}\right\} \subseteq[n]$ and any $\left(s_{i_{1}}, \ldots, s_{i_{r}}\right)$ such that $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\left(S_{i_{1}}, \ldots, S_{i_{r}}\right)=\left(s_{i_{1}}, \ldots, s_{i_{r}}\right)\right]>0$, we have that: (1) if $r \geq m$ then there exists a unique $s \in \mathbb{S}$ such that $\operatorname{Pr}\left[S=s \mid S_{i_{1}}=s_{i_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge S_{i_{r}}=s_{i_{r}}\right]=1$; and (2) if $r<m$ then, for each $s \in \mathbb{S}$ we have that $\operatorname{Pr}\left[S=s \mid S_{i_{1}}=s_{i_{1}} \wedge \cdots \wedge S_{i_{r}}=s_{i_{r}}\right]=\operatorname{Pr}[S=s]$. The statement we have just given paraphrases [31].

For the entropy formalization [24] one requires that: (1) for any $m$-tuple of distinct indices $i_{1}, \ldots, i_{m} \in$ [ $n$ ] we have that $H\left(S \mid S_{i_{1}}, \ldots, S_{i_{m}}\right)=0$; and (2) for any $r<m$ and for any $r$-tuple of distinct indices $i_{1}, \ldots, i_{r} \in[n]$ we have that $H\left(S \mid S_{1}, \ldots, S_{r}\right)=H(S)$. Here $H(X)=-\sum_{x \in X} p(x) \lg p(x)$ and $H(X \mid Y)=-\sum_{x \in X, y \in Y} p(x) p(x \mid y) \lg p(x \mid y)$ and $X$ and $Y$ are random variables and $p(x)$ denotes the probability that $X=x$ and $p(y)$ denotes the probability that $Y=y$ and $p(x \mid y)$ denotes the probability that $X=x$ given that $Y=y$. Both formulations of the PSS notion readily lift to define secret-sharing schemes over an arbitrary access structure $\mathcal{A}$.

McEliece and Sarwate (1981). These authors were interested in threshold schemes that are secure against computationally-unbounded adversaries that can arbitrarily replace the shares of some $t$ of the players [28]. An external party, not a protocol participant, recovers the secret. It is not possible to say precisely what notion the authors aim for because their work is stated in terms of characteristics of schemes achievable using ReedSolomon codes, not general characteristics sought in a secret-sharing scheme. That said, the authors seem to be interested in achieving the PSS-PR2 goal of Figure 3 with respect to the adversary class we called $\mathcal{A}_{m, n, t}$.

Tompa and Woll (1986). These authors are interested in $m$-out-of- $n$ threshold schemes that are secure against computationally-unbounded adversaries that can arbitrarily replace the shares of the $m-1$ corrupted players and where some uncorrupted protocol participant is the entity that is recovering the secret [41]. The envisaged adversary is static. The authors state the problem like this (changing only some variable names): Divide a secret $S \in\{0,1, \ldots, s-1\}$ into "shares" $S_{1}, S_{2}, \ldots, S_{n}$ such that: (a) Knowledge of any $m$ shares is sufficient to reconstruct $S$ efficiently. (b) Knowledge of $m-1$ shares provides no more information about the value of $S$ that was known before. (c) There is only a small probability $\epsilon>0$ that any $m-1$ participants $i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{m-1}$ can fabricate new shares $S_{i_{1}}^{\prime}, S_{i_{2}}^{\prime}, \ldots, S_{i_{m-1}}^{\prime}$ that deceive a $m^{\text {th }}$ participant $i_{m}$. Here, deceiving the $m^{\text {th }}$ participant means that, from $S_{i_{1}}^{\prime}, S_{i_{2}}^{\prime}, \ldots, S_{i_{m-1}}^{\prime}$, and $S_{i_{m}}$, the secret $S^{\prime}$ reconstructed is "legal" (i.e., $S^{\prime} \in\{0,1, \ldots, s-1\}$ ), but "incorrect" (i.e., $S^{\prime} \neq S$ ). This model is investigated in works like $[14,31]$, which also close minor issues of informality (for example, the definition above does not make clear if the underlying secret $S$ is uniform or if one is instead maximizing over all $S$ ).

The above goal is approximately translated into our definition for PSS-SR1 (and also demanding perfectrecoverability for erasure adversaries). Note that in a setting like this, with concrete security and a statistical

[^5]error bound, the difference between static and dynamic adversaries will be relevant: one could easily construct an (artificial) secret-sharing scheme with a larger smallest-possible robustness parameter $\epsilon$ if one quantifies over the class of static adversaries instead of dynamic ones.

KRAWCZYK (1993) AND OTHERS. A definition for CSS, for the case of an $n$-out-of- $m$ threshold scheme, was sketched by Krawczyk [25]. It is stated like this, apart from minor changes in notation. Let $\Pi$ be an n-party secret-sharing scheme. For any secret $S$ and for any set of indices $1 \leq i_{i} \leq \cdots \leq i_{r} \leq n$ let $\mathcal{D}_{\Pi}\left(S, i_{1}, \ldots, i_{r}\right)$ denote the probability distribution on the sequence of shares $S_{i_{1}}, S_{i_{2}}, \ldots, S_{i_{r}}$ induced by the output of running the Share algorithm on $S$. The requirement is that for any pair of equal-length secrets $S^{\prime}$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$ and any set of indices $i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{r}$ with $r<m$, the distributions $\mathcal{D}_{\Pi}\left(S^{\prime}, i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{r}\right)$ and $\mathcal{D}_{\Pi}\left(S^{\prime \prime}, i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{r}\right)$ must be polynomially indistinguishable. Krawczyk earlier indicates that indistinguishability is in terms of the lengths of messages or secrets. In Krawczyk's definitional sketch, he omits mention of recoverability. Parameterizing security by in the length of the secret might be unfortunate, effectively excluding a treatment of protocols that share a one-bit secret, say, an apparently legitimate thing to want to do.

A somewhat different approach to formalizing CSS is given by Cachin [12] and refined by Vinod et al. [42]. For privacy one requires that the probability that an adversary can guess the shared secret is negligible (in the security parameterized, which is again the length of the secret). One effectively assumes that the set of secrets is large and that secrets are chosen uniformly from that set (assumptions that seem undesirable). Regardless, an inability to guess the shared secret, an idea going back to Blakley [8], seems to make for an overly weak notion of security, as a huge amount of partial information about the secret might be leaked while the secret remains hard-to-guess. Such considerations are well-known from the context of encryption-scheme privacy, going back to Goldwasser and Micali [19], and they are just as relevant here.

As for the RCSS goal, Krawczyk says only that this is a secret-sharing scheme that can correctly recover the secret even in the presence of a (bounded) number of corrupted shares, while keeping the secrecy requirement [25]. Comments in the paper make it clear that the author was thinking in terms of the model of robustness, where an external party recovers the secret.

Krawczyk clearly had further ideas along the lines of those pursued in the current paper. In particular, he indicates that a stronger definition can be stated in terms of a dynamic and adaptive adversary that progressively chooses the $m-1$ shares to be revealed to him depending on previously opened shares. He also indicates that the traditional notion of perfect secret sharing can be defined in an analogous way . . . by replacing "polynomially indistinguishable" with "identical" (or equivalently, by replacing polynomial-time distinguishability tests with computationally unlimited tests) [25].

## B Secret-Sharing Lemmas

## B. 1 Share-prediction lemmas

Assume that a secret is uniformly chosen from a finite set of possible secrets. We consider the probability that an adversary, without having corrupted an authorized subset of players, predicts either the secret that was distributed or the share of an uncorrupted player. The probability of the first is easily shown to be low by the privacy of the scheme, essentially confirming that our definition implies previous ones. Share prediction is more subtle since whether or not it is hard depends on the access structure. We provide sufficient conditions on the access structure for share prediction to have low probability. We give two lemmas, one for adversaries that don't know the secret and one for adversaries that do. The latter is used in our proof of privacy of the ESH construction (Theorem 1). We consider dynamic adversaries throughout, and in that sense our statements are stronger than in traditional treatments of secret sharing.

We formalize the claims via the games of Figure 10. The Figure shows different procedures, listing next to each the games in which this procedure appears, so that a total of four games are described. For our first lemma, we consider the game GSe whose Initialize procedure picks a random secret from the (finite) message space $\mathbb{S}$


Figure 10: Procedures for games in the PSS lemmas. This Figure defines four games, GSe, GSh, GSh ${ }_{+}$, and an auxiliary game $G$ to be used in the proofs.
of the given PSS scheme $\Pi^{P S S}$ and creates shares for it. The game answers Corrupt queries and declares the adversary to have won if its output $Y$ equals the secret but the set of corrupted players is not authorized. The following says that the probability that the adversary wins is at most $1 /|\mathbb{S}|$.

Lemma 5 Let $\Pi^{P S S}=\left(\right.$ Share $^{P S S}$, Recover $\left.^{P S S}\right)$ be a $n$-party PSS scheme over message space $\mathbb{S}$ and access structure $\mathcal{A}$. Then for any adversary $D$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{GSe}^{D} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \leq \frac{1}{|\mathbb{S}|} \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof of Lemma 5: We will specify an adversary $P$ attacking the privacy of $\Pi^{P S S}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi^{P S S}}^{\text {priv }}(P) \geq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{GSe}^{D} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\frac{1}{|\mathbb{S}|} \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the advantage of $P$ is 0 by the assumed privacy of the PSS scheme, equation (36) implies equation (35). Adversary $P$ picks $S^{0}, S^{1}$ at random from $\mathbb{S}$ and queries $S^{0}, S^{1}$ to its Deal oracle. It then starts running $A$. When $A$ makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query, adversary $P$ itself makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query, and returns the response to $D$. When $D$ halts with output $Y$, adversary $P$ returns 1 if $Y=S^{1}$ and 0 otherwise. Denoting the output of $P$ by $d$ and the challenge bit chosen by game Priv by $b$ we have

$$
\mathbf{A d v}_{\Pi^{P S S}}^{\text {priv }}(P)=\operatorname{Pr}[d=1 \mid b=1]-\operatorname{Pr}[d=1 \mid b=0]
$$

Now we claim

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{Pr}[d=1 \mid b=1]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{GSe}^{D} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]  \tag{37}\\
& \operatorname{Pr}[d=1 \mid b=0] \leq \frac{1}{|\mathbb{S}|} \tag{38}
\end{align*}
$$

from which (36) follows. Equality (37) is evident from the definitions. In the case $b=0$, adversary $P$ has no information about $S^{1}$ which is chosen at random from $\mathbb{S}$ and hence the probability that $Y=S^{1}$ is at most $1 /|\mathbb{S}|$, justifying (38).

Our next lemma considers the game GSh whose Initialize procedure picks a random secret from the (finite) message space $\mathbb{S}$ of the given PSS scheme $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}$ and creates shares for it. The game answers Corrupt queries and declares the adversary to have won if it outputs $j, Y$ such that $Y$ equals the $j$-th share of the secret but no Corrupt $(j)$ query was made. We are interested in bounding the probability that the adversary wins.

However, this probability is not always small. It depends on the access structure. Consider for example the access structure $\mathcal{A}$ that contains just the sets $[n-1]$ and $[n]$ and let $\mathbb{S}=\{0,1\}^{k}$. Let algorithm Share ${ }^{\text {PSS }}(S)$ return $\boldsymbol{S}$ where $\boldsymbol{S}[1], \ldots, \boldsymbol{S}[n-1]$ are chosen at random from $\mathbb{S}$ subject to $\boldsymbol{S}[1] \oplus \cdots \oplus \boldsymbol{S}[n-1]=S$ and $\boldsymbol{S}[n]=0^{k}$. Then an adversary that outputs $n, 0^{k}$ wins with probability 1 .

This type of anomaly seems however absent for "natural" access structures, and in particular for the threshold one $\mathcal{A}_{m, n}$. To be general, we define a property of access structures that is sufficient to ensure that the probability of the adversary winning the GSh game is small. We say that $\mathcal{A}$ is extendible if for every $T \subseteq[n]$ such that $T \notin \mathcal{A}$, and every $j \notin T$, there exists a $T^{\prime} \subseteq[n]$ such that $T \cup T^{\prime} \notin \mathcal{A}$ but $T \cup T^{\prime} \cup\{j\} \in \mathcal{A}$. That is, $T$ can be extended to an unauthorized subset such that addition of $j$ makes it authorized. We call $T$ an extension of $T, j$.

Note that the $\mathcal{A}$ of our example above is not extendible. Indeed if we set $j=n$ and $T=\emptyset$ then $T, j$ has no extension. However, $\mathcal{A}_{m, n}$ is extendible, as are many other natural access structures. The following says that the probability of winning GSh is at most $1 /|\mathbb{S}|$ if the access structure is extendible. The interesting aspect of the proof is that it relies on the recoverability of the PSS scheme, not just its privacy. Below, if $\boldsymbol{Y}$ is a share vector then $\operatorname{Opened}(\boldsymbol{Y})$ denotes the set $\{i: \boldsymbol{Y}[i] \neq \diamond\}$ of all indices at which $\boldsymbol{Y}$ is defined.

Lemma 6 Let $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}=\left(\right.$ Share $^{P S S}$, Recover $\left.{ }^{P S S}\right)$ be a $n$-party PSS scheme over message space $\mathbb{S}$ and extendible access structure $\mathcal{A}$. Then for any adversary $E$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{GSh}^{E} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \leq \frac{1}{|\mathbb{S}|} \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof of Lemma 5: Consider the following adversary $D$ for the GSe game. It initializes $n$-vector $\boldsymbol{Y}$ to have all components $\diamond$, and then runs $E$. When $E$ makes a $\operatorname{Corrupt}(i)$ query, so does $D$. It stores the response as $\boldsymbol{Y}[i]$ and also returns this response to $E$. Eventually, adversary $E$ halts with output $j, Y$. We say this output is valid if $\operatorname{Opened}(\boldsymbol{Y}) \notin \mathcal{A}$ and $j \notin \operatorname{Opened}(\boldsymbol{Y})$. If the output is not valid then $D$ returns something arbitrary like $0, \varepsilon$. Else, it lets $\boldsymbol{Y}[j] \leftarrow Y$ and lets $T^{\prime}$ be an extension of $T, j$, which we know exists by the extendibility assumption on $\mathcal{A}$. For each $i \in T^{\prime}$ it makes a $\operatorname{Corrupt}(i)$ query and stores the response in $\boldsymbol{Y}[i]$. The extendibility property now guarantees that $\operatorname{Opened}(\boldsymbol{Y}) \in \mathcal{A}$, so $D$ runs $\operatorname{Recover}^{P S S}(\boldsymbol{Y})$ to get back a secret $S^{\prime}$, outputs $S^{\prime}$, and halts. The extendibility property also guarantees that $T \cup T^{\prime} \notin \mathcal{A}$ so that $D$ has not corrupted an authorized subset in the case the output of $E$ is valid. Now if the output $j, Y$ of $E$ is valid and satisfies $S[j]=Y$ then $S^{\prime}=S$. If the output of $E$ is not valid then $E$ does not win. This means that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{GSh}^{E} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{GSe}^{D} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right], \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

whence (39) follows from Lemma 5. I

An adversary in the GSh ${ }_{+}$game has the same share-prediction objective as an adversary in the GSh game but differs in that it gets the secret as input. (The secret is the output of the Initialize procedure which by definition becomes the input to the adversary.) Thus we are now asking how hard it is to predict a share when you know the secret. The following lemma bounds the probability that the adversary wins under the same conditions as in Lemma 6. The crucial difference is that in the GSh ${ }_{+}$game, the adversary wins only if not just $T$ but $T \cup\{j\}$ is not authorized. In the case $\mathcal{A}=\mathcal{A}_{m, n}$, this means that we allow it to corrupt only $m-2$ players, not $m-1$ as in Lemma 6. Intuitively, this says that giving the adversary the secret is like giving it one extra share from the point of view of its ability to predict other shares.

Lemma 7 Let $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}=\left(\right.$ Share $^{\text {PSS }}$, Recover $\left.{ }^{\text {PSS }}\right)$ be a $n$-party PSS scheme over message space $\mathbb{S}$ and extendible access structure $\mathcal{A}$. Then for any adversary $F$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{GSh}_{+}^{F} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \leq \frac{1}{|\mathbb{S}|} \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof of Lemma 7: We first claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{GSh}_{+}^{F} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G^{F} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

where game $G$ is defined via Figure 10. Intuitively, this says that providing $F$ the shared secret as input does not help it; it does equally well with a random, independent secret as input. To justify (42) we provide an adversary $P$ attacking the privacy of $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Adv}_{\Pi^{\text {prSS }}}^{\text {priv }}(P)=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{GSh}_{+}^{F} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]-\operatorname{Pr}\left[G^{F} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] . \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the advantage of $P$ is 0 by the assumed privacy of $\Pi^{\text {PSS }}$, (43) implies (42). Adversary $P$ picks $S^{0}, S^{1}$ at random from $\mathbb{S}$ and queries $S^{0}, S^{1}$ to its Deal oracle. It initializes set $T$ to empty and starts running $F$ on input $S^{1}$. When $A$ makes a Corrupt $(i)$ query, $P$ puts $i$ in $T$, itself makes a $\operatorname{Corrupt}(i)$ query, and returns the response to $F$. When $F$ halts with output $(j, Y)$, adversary $P$ makes a $\operatorname{Corrupt}(j)$ query to obtain $\boldsymbol{S}[j]$. If $\boldsymbol{S}[j]=Y$ and $j \notin T$ then $P$ returns 1, else 0 . Equation (43) follows because

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[d=1 \mid b=1]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{GSh}_{+}^{F} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \quad \text { and } \quad \operatorname{Pr}[d=1 \mid b=0]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[G^{F} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right],
$$

where $d$ denotes the output bit of $P$ and $b$ the challenge bit chosen by game Priv.
Note that the set of players corrupted by $P$ is $T \cup\{j\}$ where $T$ is the set of players corrupted by $F$. But if $T \cup\{j\}$ is not authorized, as is required for $F$ to win, then $P$ has not corrupted an authorized player, as is required for it to win. This is where we use the assumption that $F$ wins only if not just $T$ but $T \cup\{j\}$ is not authorized.

To complete the proof we specify an adversary $E$ for game GSh such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[G^{F} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right] \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{GSh}^{E} \Rightarrow \text { true }\right]
$$

Now (41) follows from Lemma 6. Adversary $E$ picks $S^{\prime}$ at random from $\mathbb{S}$ and runs $F$ on input $S^{\prime}$. It answers $F$ 's Corrupt queries via its own Corrupt oracle. When $F$ halts with output $j, Y$, adversary $E$ also outputs $j, Y$ and halts.

## B. 2 A recoverability lemma

The following result lets one think of perfect recoverability in a more conventional, adversary-free way.
Lemma 8 [adversary-free recoverability] Let $\Pi=$ (Share, Recover) be a secret-sharing scheme over message space $\mathbb{S}$ that achieves perfect recoverability over the valid access structure $\mathcal{A}$. Suppose $\left(S, \boldsymbol{S}, T, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j\right)$ is $\mathcal{A}$-generable and $\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime} \leadsto \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime \prime}$. Then $\operatorname{Recover}\left(\boldsymbol{S}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \boldsymbol{S}_{T}^{\prime \prime}, j\right)=S$.
Proof: By the validity of $\mathcal{A}$ there is an adversary $A_{S, T, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j} \in \mathcal{A}$ that calls $\operatorname{Deal}(S)$, calls $\operatorname{Corrupt}(i)$ for each $i \in T$, then outputs ( $\boldsymbol{S}^{\prime \prime}, j$ ). Now $A_{S, T, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j}$ will win the Rec game iff Recover outputs an $S^{*} \neq S$. But $A_{S, T, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j}$ never wins the Rec game because $\boldsymbol{A d v} \boldsymbol{A d}_{\Pi}^{\mathrm{rec}}\left(A_{S, T, \boldsymbol{S}^{\prime}, j}\right)=0$. It follows that $\operatorname{Recover}\left(\boldsymbol{S}_{\bar{T}}^{\prime} \sqcup \boldsymbol{S}_{T}^{\prime \prime}, j\right)=$ $\operatorname{Recover}\left(\boldsymbol{S}_{\bar{T}} \sqcup \boldsymbol{S}_{T}^{\prime \prime}, j\right)=S$.


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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ By classical secret-sharing we intend to exclude goals like verifiable secret sharing (VSS) [15] and proactive secret sharing [21], which have always been treated in the provable-security tradition.
    ${ }^{2}$ An $m$-out-of- $n$ threshold scheme is a secret-sharing scheme for which any $m$ uncorrupted players can recover the secret but smaller sets of players cannot. The set of sets of players authorized to recover the secret is the access structure for the scheme.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Cleversafe Corp. and Security First Corp. are examples of two such companies; see http://www.cleversafe.com (last visited Oct. 2006) and http://securityfirstcorp.com/about (last visited Oct. 2006).
    ${ }^{4}$ A static adversary controls a certain set of players from the beginning, while a dynamic adversary chooses whom to corrupt as it corrupts players and learns their shares.

[^3]:    ${ }^{5}$ One could distinguish two variants: the adversary must mark the shares of corrupted players as missing, or the adversary may mark the shares of corrupted players as missing (or may leave them unchanged). We assume the former.

[^4]:    ${ }^{6}$ These may sound the same, but they are not. For example, if $n=3$ and $\mathcal{A}=\{\{1,2\},\{2,3\},\{1,2,3\}\}$ then the adversary that always corrupts $T=\{2\}$ is in $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{p}}$ but not in $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{r}}$. If instead $\mathcal{A}=\{\{2\},\{1,3\},\{1,2,3\}\}$ then the same adversary is in $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{r}}$ but not $\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{p}}$. For threshold schemes, $\mathcal{A}_{m, n}^{\mathrm{p}}$ are privacy adversaries that corrupt at most $m-1$ players, while $\mathcal{A}_{m, n}^{\mathrm{r}}$ are recoverability adversaries that corrupt at most $n-m-1$ players.

[^5]:    ${ }^{7}$ For consistency with the rest of this paper, we have changed the names of variables.

