

A Simple Combinatorial Treatment of Constructions and Threshold Gaps of Ramp Schemes

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Abstract

We give easy proofs of some recent results concerning threshold gaps in ramp schemes. We then generalise a construction method for ramp schemes employing error-correcting codes so that it can be applied using nonlinear (as well as linear) codes. Finally, as an immediate consequence of these results, we provide a new explicit bound on the the minimum length of a code having a specified distance and dual distance.

1 Introduction

Suppose that t_1, t_2 and n are positive integers such that $t_1 < t_2 \leq n$. Informally, a (t_1, t_2, n) -*ramp scheme* is a method whereby a *dealer* distributes a *share* to each of n *players* such that the following two properties are satisfied:

reconstruction Any subset of t_2 players can compute a unique *secret* from the shares that they collectively hold

secrecy No subset of t_1 players can determine any information about the secret.

We call t_1 and t_2 the *lower threshold* and *upper threshold* of the scheme, respectively.

When $t_2 = t_1 + 1$, the ramp scheme is known as a (t_2, n) -*threshold scheme*. Ramp schemes were defined by Blakley and Meadows [2] and much basic information about ramp schemes can be found in [3, 12, 23]. Ramp schemes have found numerous applications in cryptography and information security over the years, including broadcast encryption [24], secure multiparty computation [5] and error decodable secret sharing [19].

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Cascudo, Cramer and Xing [4] proved the interesting result that $t_2 - t_1 \geq (n - t_1 + 1)/2^{\lambda^*}$ in any (t_1, t_2, n) -ramp scheme, where λ^* is the average length of a share. When every player's share space has cardinality q and all shares are equally likely to be chosen for each player, the bound takes the form $n - t_1 + 1 \leq q(t_2 - t_1)$. We refer to the first version of the bound as the *entropy bound* and the second version as the *combinatorial bound*. The proof of the entropy bound in [4] is rather lengthy, so we thought it would be of interest to provide a very short, elementary proof of the combinatorial bound.¹ It is quite straightforward to modify our combinatorial proof to obtain a proof of the entropy bound; however, this (obviously) requires introducing some basic entropy notions from information theory, and we do not pursue this theme here.

We also provide a simple, general treatment of construction methods for ramp schemes using both linear and nonlinear codes (previous constructions in the literature only made use of linear codes). We also construct some new ramp schemes that are optimal with respect to the threshold gap bound. Finally, as an immediate consequence of these results, we provide a new explicit bound on the the minimum length of a code having a specified distance and dual distance. We also show that there are infinite classes of codes that are optimal with respect to this bound.

2 The Threshold Gap Bound

Suppose we have a $(1, t, n)$ -ramp scheme where the *share space* $\mathcal{S} = \{1, \dots, q\}$. A *distribution rule* \mathbf{r} is written as an n -tuple with entries from \mathcal{S} , i.e., $\mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_n)$, where r_i is the share given to player P_i . Let the *secret space* be $\mathcal{K} = \{1, \dots, q'\}$ where $q' > 1$. For any $K \in \mathcal{K}$, let \mathcal{F}_K denote the collection of distribution rules corresponding to the secret having the value K . We do not require that all the n -tuples in \mathcal{F}_K are distinct. Denote $\mathcal{F} = \cup_{K \in \mathcal{K}} \mathcal{F}_K$.

Given any share S , the secrecy condition of a $(1, t, n)$ -ramp scheme requires that $\Pr[K|S] = \Pr[K]$ for all $K \in \mathcal{K}$. By Bayes' Theorem, this is equivalent to $\Pr[S|K] = \Pr[S]$, so $\Pr[S|K]$ is independent of K . Note that taking multiple copies of each distribution rule in any \mathcal{F}_K does not change $\Pr[S|K]$. Suppose that $|\mathcal{F}_{K_1}| = L_1$ and $|\mathcal{F}_{K_2}| = L_2$ where $L_2 \neq L_1$. Let $L = \text{lcm}(L_1, L_2)$. If we take L/L_1 copies of every distribution rule in \mathcal{F}_{K_1} and L/L_2 copies of every rule in \mathcal{F}_{K_2} , then we have $|\mathcal{F}_{K_1}| = |\mathcal{F}_{K_2}| = L$.

Now we can rephrase the secrecy condition in a combinatorial form: there exist non-negative integers $\lambda_{i,j}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$, $1 \leq j \leq q$, such that

$$|\{\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}_K : r_i = j\}| = \lambda_{i,j}$$

for $K = K_1, K_2$. Observe that

$$\sum_{j=1}^q \lambda_{i,j} = L$$

for any i , $1 \leq i \leq n$.

Suppose we define

$$\mu(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{s}) = |\{i : r_i = s_i\}|$$

for any $\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{F}$. By the reconstruction condition, it is required that t shares determine a unique value of the secret. Therefore, it follows that $\mu(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{s}) \leq t - 1$ if $\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_1}$ and $\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_2}$.

¹After the original version of our paper was posted on the IACR ePrint Archive, Ronald Cramer informed us (private communication) that he also had a specialised proof of the combinatorial bound; this proof is presented in the updated version of [4].

For any $\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}$, define

$$f(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_{i,r_i}.$$

Lemma 2.1. *If $\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}$, then $f(\mathbf{r}) \leq L(t-1)$.*

Proof. Suppose $\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_1}$. We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_2}} \mu(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{s}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n |\{\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_2} : r_i = s_i\}| \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_{i,r_i} \\ &= f(\mathbf{r}). \end{aligned}$$

However, $\mu(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{s}) \leq t-1$ for all $\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_2}$, so we have that $f(\mathbf{r}) \leq |\mathcal{F}_{K_2}|(t-1) = L(t-1)$. \square

Theorem 2.2. *If a $(1, t, n)$ -ramp scheme has a share space of cardinality q , then $n \leq q(t-1)$.*

Proof. We compute upper and lower bounds on the sum $\sum_{\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_1}} f(\mathbf{r})$. First, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_1}} f(\mathbf{r}) &= \sum_{\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_1}} \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_{i,r_i} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^q \sum_{\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_1} : r_i=j} \lambda_{i,j} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^q (\lambda_{i,j})^2 \\ &\geq \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^q \lambda_{i,j} \right)^2}{q} \\ &= \frac{nL^2}{q}. \end{aligned}$$

Second, from Lemma 2.1, we have that

$$\sum_{\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}_{K_1}} f(\mathbf{r}) \leq L^2(t-1).$$

Combining the upper and lower bounds, we have

$$\frac{nL^2}{q} \leq L^2(t-1),$$

which simplifies to yield the desired result. \square

Before proving the main theorem, we need a preliminary lemma.

Lemma 2.3. *If there exists a (t_1, t_2, n) -ramp scheme having a share space of cardinality q , then there exists a $(t_1 - 1, t_2 - 1, n - 1)$ -ramp scheme having a share space of cardinality q .*

Proof. Let \mathcal{F}_x consist of all the distribution rules $\mathbf{r} \in \mathcal{F}$ for which $r_n = x$ for some fixed share x where $\lambda_{n,x} > 0$. Then define

$$\mathcal{G} = \{(r_1, \dots, r_{n-1}) : \mathbf{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_n) \in \mathcal{F}_x\}.$$

It is easy to see that \mathcal{G} comprises a set of distribution rules for a $(t_1 - 1, t_2 - 1, n - 1)$ -ramp scheme having a share space of cardinality q . \square

We can now prove the main result from [4].

Theorem 2.4. *If a (t_1, t_2, n) -ramp scheme has a share space of cardinality q , then $n - t_1 + 1 \leq q(t_2 - t_1)$.*

Proof. The proof is by induction on t_1 , applying Lemma 2.3 and Theorem 2.2. \square

A ramp scheme that meets the bound of Theorem 2.4 with equality will be termed *gap-optimal*. We observe that it is easy to find examples of gap-optimal ramp schemes with $t_1 = 1$.

Theorem 2.5. *For all integers $t, q \geq 2$, there exists a gap-optimal $(1, t, n)$ -ramp scheme having a share space of cardinality q .*

Proof. Let $n = q(t - 1)$, $\mathcal{S} = \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $\mathcal{K} = \{K_1, K_2\}$. For any integer m , define $v(i, m) \in \mathcal{S}^m$ to be the m -tuple all of whose entries are equal to i . Now let

$$\mathcal{F}_1 = \{v(i, n) : i \in \mathcal{S}\}$$

and let

$$\mathcal{F}_2 = \{v(i, t - 1) \parallel v(i + 1 \bmod q, t - 1) \parallel \dots \parallel v(i - 1 \bmod q, t - 1) : i \in \mathcal{S}\}.$$

For example, if $q = t = 3$, then

$$\mathcal{F}_{K_1} = \{(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1), (2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2), (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0)\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{F}_{K_2} = \{(1, 1, 2, 2, 0, 0), (2, 2, 0, 0, 1, 1), (0, 0, 1, 1, 2, 2)\}.$$

It can be verified that \mathcal{F}_{K_1} and \mathcal{F}_{K_2} comprise distribution rules for a $(1, t, q(t - 1))$ -ramp scheme having a share space of cardinality q and a secret space of cardinality two. \square

It is more difficult to find examples of gap-optimal ramp schemes when $t_1 \geq 2$; however, we will give some examples with $t_1 = 2$ in Section 3.

2.1 Orthogonal Array Bounds

An *orthogonal array* $\text{OA}_\lambda(t, m, q)$ is a $\lambda q^t \times m$ array A of symbols chosen from a set X of cardinality q , such that, within any t columns of A , every ordered t -tuple of symbols occurs in exactly λ rows of A . The parameter t is often called the *strength* of the orthogonal array. Orthogonal arrays have been studied extensively for over 60 years; for an extensive treatment of these objects, see Hedayat, Sloane and Stufken [11].

An *ideal threshold scheme* is one in which the share space and secret space have the same cardinality. It is well-known (see, for example, [7]) that an ideal (t, n) -threshold scheme with a share space of cardinality q is equivalent to an $\text{OA}_1(t, n + 1, q)$. In this case, Theorem 2.4 tells us that $n \leq q + t - 1$. It may be of interest to note that this special case of Theorem 2.4 is a classical orthogonal array bound (from 1952) known as the “Bush Bound”. The standard proof of the Bush bound consists of two parts:

1. A proof that an $\text{OA}_1(2, n, q)$ exists only if $n \leq q + 1$.
2. A proof that an $\text{OA}_1(t, n, q)$ implies the existence of an $\text{OA}_1(t - 1, n - 1, q)$.

The proof of 1. is in fact similar to, but even simpler than the proof of Theorem 2.2. It is interesting to note that the bound in 1. also follows immediately from the more complicated “Rao Bound”, which was first proven in 1947. Finally, the proof of 2. is basically identical to that of Lemma 2.3. For details of the proofs of these and related bounds, see [11].

3 Codes and Ramp Schemes

Constructions of secret sharing schemes and ramp schemes from linear codes have been used for over 30 years. The basic idea is to start with a suitable linear code, let one or more designated coordinates in each codeword define the secret, and let the remaining coordinates define the shares. The first result along this line is due to McEliece and Sarwate [22] in 1981, who applied this idea using Reed-Solomon codes. They were also the first to suggest using more than one coordinate to define the secret, which was actually the first published construction of a ramp scheme. Massey [20] pointed out the connection between properties of the access structure of a secret sharing scheme and codewords in the *dual code* of the linear code that is used to construct the scheme.

When using a linear code \mathcal{C} to construct a (t_1, t_2, n) -ramp scheme, useful information about t_1 and t_2 follows from the the minimum distance (i.e., the minimum weight of a nonzero codeword) of \mathcal{C} and its dual code, \mathcal{C}^\perp . Specifically, it was noted by Sudan [25] in 2001 that one obtains a ramp scheme with $t_1 = d^* - 2$ and $t_2 = n - d + 1$, where \mathcal{C} has distance d , \mathcal{C}^\perp has distance d^* and these codes have length n . This result concerned the case where a single coordinate in each codeword is used to define the secret. Chen *et al.* [6, Section 4.1] generalised this result to use multiple coordinates to define the secret (thereby increasing the information rate of the resulting ramp scheme). Finally, some papers have used properties other than distance to find bounds on the parameters of the constructed ramp schemes. For example, [14] employs the notion of “relative generalized hamming weight” in this context.

In this section, we generalise the construction technique described above so that it can be applied to nonlinear as well as linear codes. The fundamental tool is the concept of *dual distance* as introduced by Delsarte [8, 9]. First, we give some basic definitions relating to codes: A code \mathcal{C} of length n over an alphabet Γ of cardinality q is a subset of Γ^n . The n -tuples in \mathcal{C} are termed

codewords. The *distance* of \mathcal{C} , denoted by d , is the minimum hamming distance between any two distinct codewords. The code \mathcal{C} is a *linear* code if Γ is a finite field and \mathcal{C} is a vector subspace of Γ^n . The code is a *binary* code if $q = 2$. Much information about codes can be found in standard textbooks, such as [1, 16, 18]. All the codes we require in this paper can be found in one or more of these textbooks, unless otherwise noted.

Here is the definition of dual distance of a code: suppose $A(\mathcal{C})$ is the distance distribution of a code \mathcal{C} and $A'(\mathcal{C})$ is the MacWilliams transform of $A(\mathcal{C})$ (for more details, see [9]). Then the dual distance of \mathcal{C} is the smallest positive integer d' such that $A'_{d'}(\mathcal{C}) \neq 0$. This definition applies to nonlinear as well as linear codes. It is well-known that the dual distance of a linear code is in fact equal to the distance of the dual code. Delsarte proved the following fundamental result:

Lemma 3.1. [8, 9] *Suppose \mathcal{C} is a code of length n , on an alphabet of size q , having dual distance d^* . Then the $|\mathcal{C}| \times n$ array consisting of all the codewords in \mathcal{C} is an $OA_\lambda(t, n, q)$, where $t = d^* - 1$ and $\lambda = |\mathcal{C}|/q^t$.*

Now we present the construction of a ramp scheme from an arbitrary (linear or nonlinear) code.

Theorem 3.2. *Suppose \mathcal{C} is a code of length n having distance d and dual distance d^* . Let $1 \leq s \leq d^* - 2$. Then there is a $(t_1, t_2, n - s)$ -ramp scheme having information rate s , where $t_1 = d^* - s - 1$ and $t_2 = n - d + 1$.*

Proof. By Lemma 3.1, it follows that the $|\mathcal{C}| \times n$ array consisting of all the codewords in \mathcal{C} is an orthogonal array of strength $t = d^* - 1$. Suppose the last s co-ordinates of each codeword define the secret and the remaining $n - s$ coordinates specify shares for $n - s$ participants. Therefore, we define

$$\mathcal{F}_{(r_{n-s+1}, \dots, r_n)} = \{(r_1, \dots, r_{n-s}) : (r_1, \dots, r_n) \in \mathcal{C}\}$$

for all $(r_{n-s+1}, \dots, r_n) \in \mathcal{S}^s$. Given any $t - s$ shares and any \mathcal{K} , there are exactly $\lambda = |\mathcal{C}|/q^t$ distribution rules in $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{K}}$ having the specified $t - s$ shares; this follows immediately because \mathcal{C} is an orthogonal array of strength t . On the other hand, given any $n - d + 1$ shares, it is easy to show that there is at most one distribution rule containing the specified shares. For, if there existed two distribution rules containing $n - d + 1$ given shares, then the distance between the corresponding codewords would be at most $d - 1$, which is a contradiction. \square

The above construction allows one to easily find ramp schemes for a wide variety of parameter situations by using “off-the-shelf” codes. We briefly discuss a few examples of interest. First we give the “classic” construction of ramp schemes using Reed-Solomon codes from [22].

Theorem 3.3. *Suppose that q is a prime power and $1 \leq s < t \leq n \leq q + 1$. Then there exists a $(t_1, t_2, n - s)$ -ramp scheme over \mathbb{F}_q having information rate s , where $t_1 = t - s$ and $t_2 = t$.*

Proof. If q is a prime power and $1 \leq t \leq n \leq q + 1$, then there is a Reed-Solomon code defined over \mathbb{F}_q , having length n , dimension t , distance $n - t + 1$ and dual distance $t + 1$. Let $s \leq t - 1$ and apply Theorem 3.2. We obtain a $(t_1, t_2, n - s)$ -ramp scheme, where $t_1 = t - s$ and $t_2 = t$. \square

Remark. In the above-constructed ramp scheme, the share space has cardinality q^s , which yields the optimal information rate (e.g., see [12]). When $s = 1$, we obtain the Shamir threshold scheme.

Algebraic geometry codes (AG codes) provide a rich source of ramp schemes; this approach was first described in [5]. In [5], the goal was to construct sequences of ramp schemes having certain

“multiplicative” properties; among other things, this required a careful algebraic analysis of the constructed codes. However, if one wishes to construct a single “basic” ramp scheme from an AG code, it of course suffices to determine minimum distance and dual distance of the obtained codes. This is what we do here, basing our presentation on the simple treatment of AG codes given by van Lint [17]. The resulting ramp scheme has the same thresholds as the schemes in [5].

The starting point of van Lint’s approach is an irreducible nonsingular projective curve of genus g having $n + 1$ rational points (i.e., points whose coordinates are in \mathbb{F}_q). Take m to be an integer such that $2g - 2 < m < n$. Under these assumptions, there is an AG code of length n , dimension $m - g + 1$, distance $d \geq n - m$ and dual distance $d^* \geq m - 2g + 2$. Then an application of Theorem 3.2 immediately yields a ramp scheme with $t_2 = m + 1$ and $t_1 = m - 2g$.

Next, we give a new construction for ramp schemes that makes use of Reed-Muller codes. (We note that Reed-Muller codes have recently been employed to construct *arithmetic codices* in [10].) For $0 \leq r \leq m$, an r -th order Reed-Muller code, denoted $\mathcal{R}(r, m)$, is a binary linear code having length $n = 2^m$ and distance $d = 2^{m-r}$. For $0 \leq r < m$, the dual code of $\mathcal{R}(r, m)$ is $\mathcal{R}(m - r - 1, m)$, and so the dual distance of $\mathcal{R}(r, m)$ is $d^* = 2^{r+1}$. Setting $s = 1$ in Theorem 3.2, we obtain the following.

Theorem 3.4. *For $0 \leq r < m$, there exists a $(2^{r+1} - 2, 2^m - 2^{m-r} + 1, 2^m - 1)$ -ramp scheme over a binary alphabet, having information rate 1.*

The above construction is of particular interest because it yields an infinite class of gap-optimal ramp schemes with $t_1 = 2$.

Corollary 3.5. *For $m \geq 2$, there exists a gap-optimal $(2, 2^{m-1} + 1, 2^m - 1)$ -ramp scheme over a binary alphabet, having information rate 1.*

Proof. Setting $r = 1$ in Theorem 3.4, the result is a (t_1, t_2, n) -ramp scheme over a binary alphabet, where $t_1 = 2$, $t_2 = 2^{m-1} + 1$ and $n = 2^m - 1$. Since

$$q(t_2 - t_1) = 2^m - 2 = n - t_1 + 1,$$

the scheme is gap-optimal. □

We finish this section by presenting a simple application of Theorem 3.2 that makes use of nonlinear codes. Let $r \geq 3$ be odd. The *Kerdock code* $\mathcal{K}(r + 1)$ is a nonlinear binary code of length $n = 2^{r+1}$ having distance $d = 2^r - 2^{(r-1)/2}$ and dual distance $d^* = 6$.

Theorem 3.6. *Suppose $r \geq 3$ is odd and $1 \leq s \leq 4$. Then there exists a $(t_1, t_2, n - s)$ -ramp scheme over a binary alphabet, having information rate s , where $t_1 = 5 - s$ and $t_2 = 2^r + 2^{(r-1)/2}$.*

4 A New Bound on Codes with Specified Distance and Dual Distance

We combine two previously discussed results in order to obtain a new bound on codes having specified distance and dual distance:

Theorem 4.1. *Suppose \mathcal{C} is a code of length n , on an alphabet of size q , having distance d and dual distance d^* . Then*

$$d \leq \frac{q-1}{q}(n-d^*+2)+1. \quad (1)$$

Proof. From the hypothesized code, we get a $(t_1, t_2, n-1)$ -ramp scheme having a share space of cardinality q , where $t_1 = d^* - 2$ and $t_2 = n - d + 1$, by applying Theorem 3.2. Now we apply Theorem 2.4, which yields

$$(n-1) - (d^* - 2) + 1 \leq q((n-1-d+2) - (d^* - 2)),$$

or

$$n - d^* + 2 \leq q(n - d - d^* + 3).$$

This simplifies to give the desired result. \square

We also note that a bound having a similar flavour was proven much earlier (in 1973) by Delsarte [9], namely,

$$d \leq n - d^* + 2. \quad (2)$$

Matsumoto *et al.* [21] studied the function $N(d, d^*)$, which denotes the minimum length n of a linear binary code having distance d and dual distance d^* . (Their motivation was an application to the construction of certain boolean functions; see [15].) Several lower bounds for $N(d, d^*)$ were proven in [21], and constructions for small codes meeting some of these bounds were given. Additional work along this line can be found in [13].

If we set $q = 2$ in (1), then we obtain the following new bound on $N(d, d^*)$:

Corollary 4.2.

$$N(d, d^*) \geq 2d + d^* - 4. \quad (3)$$

The bound (3) is apparently unrelated to the bounds proven in [21]. The strongest bounds in [21] are linear programming bounds. As such, they cannot be considered to be explicit bounds, because a different LP has to be solved for every new parameter case in order to evaluate the bound. The bound (3) is, in general, not as strong as the linear programming bounds, but it is a very simple explicit bound which is often fairly close to the LP bounds.

We also note that the bound (3) holds for nonlinear as well as linear codes. The work in [21, 13] only considers linear codes, though some of the bounds proven in those papers also hold for nonlinear codes.

4.1 Examples

In this section, we give some examples of infinite classes of codes for which the bounds we proved above are tight. This allows the exact determination of $N(d, 3)$ and $N(d, 4)$ for infinitely many values of d .

A *simplex code* is a linear code of dimension k over the alphabet \mathbb{F}_q (it is in fact the dual of the hamming code). Its length is $n = (q^k - 1)/(q - 1)$, it has distance $d = q^{k-1}$ and its dual distance $d^* = 3$. It is easy to verify that a simplex code meets the bound (1) with equality, because

$$\frac{q-1}{q}(n-d^*+2)+1 = \frac{q-1}{q} \left(\frac{q^k-1}{q-1} - 3 + 2 \right) + 1 = q^{k-1}.$$

Setting $q = 2$, we immediately obtain the following theorem.

Theorem 4.3. $N(2^m, 3) = 2^{m+1} - 1$ for all integers $m \geq 1$.

Analogously, from a first-order Reed-Muller code (see Section 3), we obtain the following.

Theorem 4.4. $N(2^m, 4) = 2^{m+1}$ for all integers $m \geq 1$.

We refer again to the Kerdock codes as an interesting example involving nonlinear codes. As mentioned in Section 3, the Kerdock code $\mathcal{K}(r+1)$ has length $n = 2^{r+1}$, distance $d = 2^r - 2^{(r-1)/2}$ and dual distance $d^* = 6$, where r is odd. Here we have

$$2d + d^* - 4 = 2^{r+1} - 2^{(r+1)/2} + 2 = n - \sqrt{n} + 2,$$

so the parameters of these codes are fairly close to the bound given in (3).

5 Summary

The main contributions of this paper are:

- a simplified proof of the threshold gap bound for ramp schemes,
- a simple, general construction of ramp schemes from nonlinear as well as linear codes, and
- a new bound on the length of codes having specified distance and dual distance.

One main topic for additional research is to find additional examples of ramp schemes and codes that meet the proven bounds with equality.

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