



Incremental Deterministic Public-Key Encryption*

Ilya Mironov

Google, Mountain View, CA, USA
mironov@google.com

Omkant Pandey

Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY, USA
omkant@cs.stonybrook.edu

Omer Reingold

Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA
reingold@stanford.edu

Gil Segev[†]

School of Computer Science and Engineering, Hebrew University of Jerusalem, 91904 Jerusalem, Israel
segev@cs.huji.ac.il

Communicated by Rabin.

Received 4 June 2012 / Revised 19 January 2017

Online publication 19 April 2017

Abstract. Motivated by applications in large storage systems, we initiate the study of incremental deterministic public-key encryption. Deterministic public-key encryption, introduced by Bellare, Boldyreva, and O’Neill (CRYPTO ’07), provides an alternative to randomized public-key encryption in various scenarios where the latter exhibits inherent drawbacks. A deterministic encryption algorithm, however, cannot satisfy any meaningful notion of security for low-entropy plaintexts distributions, but Bellare et al. demonstrated that a strong notion of security can in fact be realized for relatively high-entropy plaintext distributions. In order to achieve a meaningful level of security, a deterministic encryption algorithm should be typically used for encrypting rather long plaintexts for ensuring a sufficient amount of entropy. This requirement may be at odds with efficiency constraints, such as communication complexity and computation complexity in the presence of small updates. Thus, a highly desirable property of deterministic encryption algorithms is incrementality: Small changes in the plaintext translate into small changes in the corresponding ciphertext. We present a framework for model-

*A preliminary version of this work appeared in *Advances in Cryptology – EUROCRYPT ’12*, pages 628–644, 2012. Most of this work was done at Microsoft Research Silicon Valley.

[†] Supported by the European Union’s 7th Framework Program (FP7) via a Marie Curie Career Integration Grant, by the Israel Science Foundation (Grant No. 483/13), by the Israeli Centers of Research Excellence (I-CORE) Program (Center No. 4/11), by the US-Israel Binational Science Foundation (Grant No. 2014632), and by a Google Faculty Research Award.

ing the incrementality of deterministic public-key encryption. Our framework extends the study of the incrementality of cryptography primitives initiated by Bellare, Goldreich and Goldwasser (CRYPTO '94). Within our framework, we propose two schemes, which we prove to enjoy an optimal tradeoff between their security and incrementality up to lower-order factors. Our first scheme is a generic method which can be based on any deterministic public-key encryption scheme, and, in particular, can be instantiated with any semantically secure (randomized) public-key encryption scheme in the random-oracle model. Our second scheme is based on the Decisional Diffie–Hellman assumption in the standard model. The approach underpinning our schemes is inspired by the fundamental “sample-then-extract” technique due to Nisan and Zuckerman (JCSS '96) and refined by Vadhan (J. Cryptology '04), and by the closely related notion of “locally computable extractors” due to Vadhan. Most notably, whereas Vadhan used such extractors to construct *private-key* encryption schemes in the bounded-storage model, we show that techniques along these lines can also be used to construct incremental *public-key* encryption schemes.

Keywords. Public-key encryption, Deterministic encryption, Incremental cryptography.

1. Introduction

The fundamental notion of *semantic security* for public-key encryption schemes was introduced by Goldwasser and Micali [21]. While semantic security provides strong privacy guarantees, it inherently requires a *randomized* encryption algorithm. Unfortunately, randomized encryption schemes break several assumptions of large storage systems that are crucial in efficiently searching and, more generally, indexing of large data sets. Further, randomized encryption schemes necessarily expand the length of the plaintext, which may be undesirable in some applications, such as legacy code or in-place encryption.

Deterministic encryption To deal with these and other drawbacks, Bellare et al. [4] initiated the study of deterministic public-key encryption schemes. These are public-key encryption schemes where the encryption algorithm is deterministic. Bellare et al. formulate meaningful, and essentially “best possible”, security requirements for such schemes which are inspired by and very close to semantic security. Clearly, in this setting, no meaningful notion of security can be achieved if the space of plaintexts is small. Therefore, Bellare et al. [4] required security to hold only when the plaintexts are drawn from a high min-entropy distribution.

Deterministic encryption already alleviates many of the above-mentioned problems when dealing with large data sets. For example, since the encryption algorithm is deterministic, we can now do indexing and perform fast search on encrypted data. Further, schemes that have length-preserving ciphertexts are possible as well [4].

We emphasize that security of deterministic encryption is contingent on a very strong assumption about the underlying data distribution, namely that the plaintext has high min-entropy from the adversary’s point of view. One possibility for improving the security margin is to encrypt longer plaintexts whenever possible; for example, by not cutting files into smaller pieces or using larger blocks for in-place encryption. If, however, changing

the plaintext requires re-computation of the ciphertext, doing that for any update may quickly negate all efficiency gains from using deterministic encryption.

In general, one would typically like to avoid encrypting long plaintexts for various efficient considerations. In the setting of randomized encryption, it is possible to divide each plaintext m into consecutive and small blocks $m = m_1 || \dots || m_\ell$, and to separately encrypt each block m_i . The notion of semantic security is sufficiently powerful to even allow each block m_i to be as small as a single bit. In the setting of deterministic encryption, however, security can hold only when each encrypted block has a sufficient amount of min-entropy. At this point, we note that even if a plaintext $m = m_1 || \dots || m_\ell$ has high min-entropy, it may clearly be the case that some of its small blocks have very low min-entropy (or even fixed). Thus, this approach fails for deterministic encryption.

Incremental cryptography Given that we are dealing with large plaintexts, computing the ciphertext from scratch for the modified plaintext can be quite an expensive operation. One such example is maintaining an (encrypted) daily backup of your hard disk on an untrusted server. The disk may contain gigabytes of data, most of which is likely to remain unchanged between two successive back-ups. The problem is further intensified in various client-server settings where *all* of previous plaintext might not be available when the modification request is made. In such settings where plaintext is really large, downloading old data can be a serious problem. This issue is clearly not specific to (deterministic) encryption and is of very general interest.

To address this issue, Bellare, Goldreich and Goldwasser [7] introduced and developed the notion of *incremental* cryptography, first in application to digital signatures. The idea is that once we have signed a document M , signing new versions of M should be rather quick. For example, if we only flip a single bit of M , we should be able to update the signature in time polynomial in $\log |M|$ (instead of $|M|$) and the security parameter λ . Clearly, incrementality is an attractive feature to have for any cryptographic primitive such as encryption, signatures, hash functions, and so on [8, 11, 12, 18, 23].

It is clear from our discussion that when dealing with deterministic encryption over large databases, where we are forced to encrypt rather long plaintexts to ensure their min-entropy, what we really need is an *incremental* encryption scheme. That is, the scheme should allow quickly updating the ciphertexts to reflect small changes. In light of the observation that deterministic encryption is most desirable when dealing with large data volumes, perhaps it is not exaggerating to suggest that incrementality should be an important *design goal* for deterministic encryption rather than merely a “nice to have” feature.

1.1. Our Contributions

In this work, we formalize the notion of *incremental* deterministic public-key encryption. We view incrementality and security as two orthogonal objectives, which together have a great potential in improving the deployment of deterministic encryption schemes with provable security properties in real-world applications.

Modeling incremental updates Intuitively, a deterministic public-key encryption scheme is *incremental* if any small modification of a plaintext m resulting in a plaintext m' can be efficiently carried over for updating the encryption $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m)$ of m to

the encryption $c' = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m')$ of m' . For capturing the efficiency of such an update operation we consider two natural complexity measures: (1) *input locality* (i.e., the number of ciphertexts bits that are affected when flipping a single plaintext bit), and (2) *query complexity* (i.e., the number of public key, plaintext, and ciphertext bits that have to be read in order to update the ciphertext).

Modeling incremental updates for deterministic public-key encryption is slightly different than for other primitives. For example, suppose that we allow “replacements” as considered by Bellare et al. [7]. These are queries of the form (j, b) that replace the j th bit of a given plaintext m by $b \in \{0, 1\}$. Then, if there exists a public algorithm **Update** for updating the ciphertext, then one can recover the entire plaintext from the ciphertext. Indeed, the encryption algorithm is deterministic, and hence the ciphertext for every message is unique. The operation **Update** $(j, 0)$ changes the ciphertext if and only if the j th bit of m is 1. Therefore, we focus on the *bit flipping* operation instead. This operation is specified by an index j and sets the current value of $m[j] \in \{0, 1\}$ to $\neg m[j] \in \{0, 1\}$.

For capturing the above measures of efficiency, we model the update operation as a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm **Update** that receives as input the index i^* of a plaintext bit to be flipped and has oracle access to the individual bits of the public key pk , the plaintext m to be modified, and to its encryption $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m)$. That is, the algorithm **Update** can submit queries of the form (pk, i) , (m, i) or (c, i) , which are answered with the i th bit of pk , m , or c , respectively. We refer the reader to Sect. 3 for the formal description of our model, which considers also update in a “private” fashion in which the update algorithm can access the secret key but not the plaintext.

Locality lower bound An important insight is that deterministic encryption cannot have very small incrementality. Deterministic encryption schemes require high min-entropy messages to provide any meaningful guarantee, and we show that any scheme with low incrementality can be secure only for messages with much higher entropy. Specifically, we show that for every deterministic public-key encryption scheme that satisfies the minimal notion of PRIV1-IND security for plaintext distributions of min-entropy k , plaintext length n , and ciphertext length t , the incrementality Δ of the scheme must satisfy:

$$\Delta \geq \frac{n - 3}{k \log t}.$$

Ignoring the lower-order $\log t$ factor, our proof shows in particular that the input locality of the encryption algorithm must be roughly n/k . This should be compared with the case of randomized encryption, where flipping a single plaintext bit may require flipping only a single ciphertext bit. Indeed, consider encrypting a plaintext m as the pair $(\text{Enc}_{pk}(r), r \oplus m)$ for a randomly chosen mask r . Flipping a single bit of m requires flipping only a single bit of the ciphertext.

Constructions We construct two deterministic public-key encryption schemes with optimal incrementality up to lower-order factors. Our first construction is a general transformation from any deterministic encryption scheme to an incremental one. Following the terminology developed in [4–6], the resulting scheme from this approach is PRIV1-

IND-secure if the underlying scheme is PRIV-IND-secure¹. As a result, using the construction of Bellare et al. [4] in the random-oracle model, we can instantiate our approach in the random-oracle model based on any semantically secure (randomized) public-key encryption scheme and obtain a deterministic scheme with optimal incrementality up to lower-order factors.

Our second, more direct construction avoids the random-oracle model. It is based on the Decisional Diffie–Hellman assumption in the standard model and enjoys optimal incrementality up to lower-order factors. The scheme relies on the notion of *smooth trapdoor functions* that we introduce (and was implicitly used by Boldyreva et al. [6]) and realize it in an incremental manner based on the Decisional Diffie–Hellman assumption.

Both of our constructions guarantee PRIV1-IND security when encrypting n -bit plaintexts with min-entropy $k \geq n^\epsilon$, where $\epsilon > 0$ is any pre-specified constant. A natural open problem that is raised by our work is whether or not there exists a scheme with essentially optimal incrementality that is PRIV-IND-secure and not only PRIV1-IND-secure. We note that one drawback of our second construction is that its public keys are rather long (roughly n^2/k group elements). However, this is not specific to our scheme, as it is based on the non-incremental scheme of Boldyreva et al. [6] whose public keys are even longer (n^2 group elements).

1.2. Related Work

The problem of composing public-key encryption and de-duplication was addressed by Douceur et al. [14] via the concept of *convergent encryption*, in which files are encrypted using their own hash values as keys. Security of the scheme is argued in the random-oracle model and under the implicit assumption of the plaintext’s high min-entropy. The formal goal of leveraging entropy of the source to achieve information-theoretic security with a short symmetric key was articulated by Russell and Wang [28], followed by Dodis and Smith [16].

The notion of public-key deterministic encryption was introduced by Bellare et al. [4] and then further studied by Bellare et al. [5], Boldyreva et al. [6], Brakerski and Segev [13], Wee [30], Fuller et al. [20], and Raghunathan et al. [27]. Bellare et al. [4] proved their constructions in the random-oracle model; subsequent papers demonstrated schemes secure in the standard model based on trapdoor permutations [5] and lossy trapdoor functions [6]. Brakerski and Segev [13] and Wee [30] addressed the question of security of public-key deterministic encryption in the presence of auxiliary input. Fuller et al. [20] presented a construction based on any trapdoor function that admits a large number of simultaneous hardcore bits, and a construction that is secure for a bounded number of possibly related plaintexts. Raghunathan et al. [27] addressed the seemingly inherent restriction that plaintexts distributions must be independent of the public key of the scheme, and suggested various relaxations.

¹Informally, a deterministic public-key encryption scheme is PRIV1-IND-secure if the encryption of a *single* high-entropy message m reveals essentially no information about the message. In addition, such a scheme is PRIV-IND-secure if this holds even for the encryption of a *vector* of messages m_1, \dots, m_ℓ each of which has high entropy, but the messages may be correlated. We refer the reader to Sect. 2.2 for the formal definitions of these notions of security.

Constructions of deterministic public-key encryption schemes found an intriguing application in “hedged” public-key encryption and in “message-locked” encryption. Hedged public-key encryption schemes [3] are public-key encryption schemes that remain secure even if the randomness used during the encryption process is not perfect (controlled by or leaked to the adversary) as long as the joint distribution of plaintext-randomness has sufficient min-entropy. Message-locked encryption schemes [10] (see also the follow-up [1]) are encryption schemes that do not rely on permanent keys, but rather encrypt messages using keys that are derived from the messages themselves. Such schemes provide an elegant and efficient way to achieve secure de-duplication over encrypted data. Known constructions of both hedged and message-locked encryption scheme rely on techniques that were developed in the above-mentioned line of research on deterministic public-key encryption.

The concept of incremental cryptography started with the work of Bellare et al. [7], who considered the case of hashing and signing. They also provided discrete-logarithm-based constructions for incremental collision-resistant hash and signatures supporting block *replacement* operation. Constructions supporting block *insertion* and *deletion* were first developed in [8], with further refinements and new issues concerning incrementality such as tamper-proof updates, privacy of updates, and incrementality in symmetric encryption. In subsequent work, Fischlin presented an incremental signature schemes supporting insertion/deletion of blocks, and tamper-proof updates [18] and proved a $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ lower bound on the signature size of schemes that support substitution and replacement operations (the bound can be improved to $\Omega(n)$ in certain special cases) [19]. Bellare and Micciancio [12] revisited the case of hashing and provided new constructions for the same based on discrete logarithms and lattices. Buonanno et al. [11] considered the issue of incrementality in symmetric unforgeable encryption and suggested three modes of operations for AES achieving this notion.

The goal of incremental cryptography, i.e., *input locality*, can be contrasted with the dual question of placing cryptography in the NC^0 complexity class, i.e., identifying cryptographic primitives with constant *output locality*. This problem has essentially been resolved for public-key encryption in the positive by Applebaum, Ishai, and Kushilevitz [2], who construct schemes based on standard number-theoretic assumptions and lattice problems where each bit of the encryption operation depends on at most four bits of the input. Applebaum et al. also argue impossibility of semantically secure public-key encryption scheme with constant input locality [2, Appendix C.1].

1.3. Overview of Our Approach

In this section, we present a high-level overview of our two constructions. First, we describe the well-known “sample-then-extract” approach [25,29] that serves as our inspiration for constructing incremental schemes. Then, we describe the main ideas underlying our schemes, each of which is based on a different realization of the “sample-then-extract” approach.

“*Sample-then-extract*” A fundamental fact in the theory of pseudorandomness is that a random sample of bits from a string of high min-entropy essentially preserves the min-entropy rate. This was initially proved by Nisan and Zuckerman [25] and then

refined by the work of Vadhan [29] that captured the optimal parameters. Intuitively, the “sample-then-extract” lemma states that if $\mathcal{X} \in \{0, 1\}^n$ has min-entropy rate δ (defined as the ratio of the string’s entropy to its length), and $\mathcal{X}_S \in \{0, 1\}^t$ is the projection of \mathcal{X} onto a random set $S \subseteq [n]$ of t positions, then \mathcal{X}_S is statistically close to a source with min-entropy rate $\delta' = \Omega(\delta)$.

This lemma serves as a fundamental tool in the design of randomness extractors. Moreover, in the cryptographic setting, it was used by Vadhan [29] to construct *locally computable extractors*, which allow computing their output by examining a small number of input bits. Such extractors were used by Vadhan to design private-key encryption schemes in the bounded-storage model. In this work we demonstrate for the first time that the “sample-then-extract” approach can be leveraged to design not only *private-key* encryption schemes, but also *public-key* encryption schemes.

A generic construction via random partitioning As already discussed, in the setting of randomized encryption a promising approach for ensuring incrementality is to divide each plaintext m into consecutive and rather small blocks $m = m_1 || \dots || m_\ell$, and to separately encrypt each block m_i . Thus, changing a single bit of m affects only a single block of the ciphertext. In the setting of deterministic encryption, this approach fails since even if a plaintext $m = m_1 || \dots || m_\ell$ has high min-entropy, it may be the case that some of its small blocks have very low min-entropy.

As an alternative, however, we propose the following approach: Instead of dividing the plaintext m into fixed blocks, we project it onto a *uniformly chosen partition* S_1, \dots, S_ℓ of the plaintext positions to sets of equal sizes and then separately encrypt each of the projections $m_{S_1}, \dots, m_{S_\ell}$ using an underlying (possibly non-incremental) deterministic encryption scheme². By the fact that we use a partition of the plaintext positions, we ensure on the one hand that the plaintext m can be fully recovered and on the other that each plaintext position appears in only one set (and thus the scheme is incremental). In terms of security, since we use a uniformly chosen partition, the distribution of each individual set S_i is uniform, and therefore by carefully choosing the size of the sets the “sample-and-extract” lemma guarantees that with overwhelming probability each projection m_{S_i} preserves the min-entropy rate of m . Therefore, the scheme is secure as long as the underlying scheme guarantees PRIV-IND security (see Sect. 2.2 for the notions of security for deterministic encryption).

By instantiating this approach with the constructions of Bellare et al. [4] in the random-oracle model, we obtain as a corollary a deterministic public-key encryption scheme with optimal incrementality up to lower-order factors based either on any semantically secure (randomized) public-key encryption scheme, or on an extension of RSA-OAEP which yields a *length-preserving* incremental scheme.

A construction based on smooth trapdoor functions Although our first construction is a rather generic one, constructions of PRIV-IND-secure schemes are known only in the random-oracle model. In the standard model, Boldyreva et al. [6] introduced the slightly weaker notion of PRIV-IND security, which considers plaintexts that have high min-entropy even when conditioned on other plaintexts, and showed that it can be realized by

²A minor technical detail is that we would also like to ensure that we always encrypt distinct values, and therefore we concatenate the block number i to each projection m_{S_i} .

composing any lossy trapdoor function with a pairwise independent permutation. This approach, however, does not seem useful for constructing incremental schemes, since pairwise independence is inherently non-incremental. A simple observation, however, shows that the approach of Boldyreva et al. [6] requires in fact trapdoor functions with weaker properties that we refer to as *smooth trapdoor functions* (the definition and its application are implicit in [6]).

Informally, a collection of smooth trapdoor functions consists of two families of functions. Functions in one family are injective and can be efficiently inverted using a trapdoor. Functions in the other family are “smooth” in the sense that their output distribution on any source of input with high min-entropy is statistically close to their output distribution on a uniformly sampled input. The only security requirement is that a description of a randomly chosen function from the family of injective functions is computationally indistinguishable from a description of a randomly chosen function from the family of smooth functions. We show that any collection of smooth trapdoor functions is a PRIV1-IND-secure deterministic encryption scheme (again, this is implicit in [6]).

Next, we construct a collection of *incremental* smooth trapdoor functions based on the Decisional Diffie–Hellman (DDH) assumption, by significantly refining the DDH-based lossy trapdoor functions of Freeman et al. [17] (which in turn generalized those of Peikert and Waters [26]). Our collection is parameterized by a group G of prime order p that is generated by an element $g \in G$. A public key is of the form g^A , where $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$ is sampled from one distribution for injective keys, and from a different distribution for smooth keys³. Evaluating a function on an input $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ is done by computing $g^{Ax} \in G^n$, and inversion for injective keys is done using the secret key A^{-1} .

The key point in our scheme is the distribution of the matrix A for injective and smooth keys. For smooth keys, the matrix A is generated to satisfy two properties. The first is that each of its first ℓ rows has t randomly chosen entries with values that are chosen uniformly from \mathbb{Z}_p , and all other $n - t$ entries are zeros (where ℓ and t are carefully chosen depending on the min-entropy rate). Looking ahead, when computing the inner product of such a sparse row with a source of min-entropy larger than $\log p$, the “sample-then-extract” lemma guarantees that the output is statistically close to uniform. In a sense, this is a realization of a locally computable extractor that is embedded in our functions. The second property is that each of its last $n - \ell$ rows is linear combinations of the first ℓ rows, and therefore the image of its corresponding linear map is determined by the first ℓ rows. This way, we can argue that smooth keys hide essentially all information on the underlying input distribution.

For injective keys, we sample a matrix A from the distribution of smooth keys and then re-sample all its nonzero entries with independently and uniformly distributed elements of \mathbb{Z}_p . A subtle complication arises since such a matrix is not necessarily invertible, as required for injective keys, but this is easily resolved (without hurting the smooth keys—see Sect. 5 for more details). Observing that for injective keys each column of A contains roughly t nonzero entries, this yields a PRIV1-IND-secure scheme with optimal incrementality up to lower-order factors.

³For any matrix $A = \{a_{ij}\}_{i \in [n], j \in [n]} \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{n \times n}$ we denote by $g^A \in G^{n \times n}$ the matrix $\{g^{a_{ij}}\}_{i \in [n], j \in [n]}$.

1.4. Paper Organization

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2, we introduce the notation, tools, and computational assumptions that are used in this paper. In Sect. 3, we present a framework for modeling the incrementality of deterministic public-key encryption schemes. In Sect. 4, we present our generic construction, and in Sect. 5, we present we present our DDH-based construction. Finally, in Sect. 6 we present the lower bound.

2. Preliminaries

In this section we present the basic notions, definitions, and tools that are used in this paper.

2.1. Probability Distributions and Randomness Extraction

For a distribution \mathcal{X} , we denote by $x \leftarrow \mathcal{X}$ the process of sampling a value x according to \mathcal{X} . Similarly, for a set Ω we denote by $\omega \leftarrow \Omega$ the process of sampling a value ω from the uniform distribution over Ω . If \mathcal{X} is a distribution and f is a function defined over its support, then $f(\mathcal{X})$ denotes the outcome of the experiment where $f(x)$ is evaluated on x sampled from \mathcal{X} . For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we denote by \mathcal{U}_n the uniform distribution over the set $\{0, 1\}^n$.

The *min-entropy* of a distribution \mathcal{X} on a set Ω is defined as $H_\infty(\mathcal{X}) = \min_{\omega \in \Omega} \log(1/\Pr[\mathcal{X} = \omega])$. A *k-source* is distribution \mathcal{X} with $H_\infty(\mathcal{X}) \geq k$, and the *min-entropy rate* of a *k-source* over the set $\{0, 1\}^n$ is k/n . The *statistical distance* between two distributions \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} over a set Ω is defined as $\text{SD}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) = \max_{S \subseteq \Omega} |\Pr[\mathcal{X} \in S] - \Pr[\mathcal{Y} \in S]|$. A distribution \mathcal{X} is *ϵ -close* to a *k-source* if there exists a *k-source* \mathcal{Y} such that $\text{SD}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) \leq \epsilon$. The following standard lemma (see, for example, [15]) essentially states that revealing r bits of information on a random variable may reduce its min-entropy by roughly r .

Lemma 2.1. *Let \mathcal{Z} be a distribution over at most 2^r values, then for any distribution \mathcal{X} , jointly distributed with \mathcal{Z} , and for any $\epsilon > 0$ it holds that*

$$\Pr_{z \leftarrow \mathcal{Z}}[H_\infty(\mathcal{X}|\mathcal{Z} = z) \geq H_\infty(\mathcal{X}) - r - \log(1/\epsilon)] \geq 1 - \epsilon.$$

A function $\nu: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is *negligible* if $|\nu(n)| < p(n)$ for any polynomial p and sufficiently large integer n . We say that two families of distributions $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathcal{X}_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\mathcal{Y} = \{\mathcal{Y}_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ are *statistically close*, denoted by $\mathcal{X} \approx \mathcal{Y}$, if the statistical distance $\text{SD}(\mathcal{X}_\lambda, \mathcal{Y}_\lambda)$ is negligible in λ . Two families of distributions $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathcal{X}_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\mathcal{Y} = \{\mathcal{Y}_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ are *computationally indistinguishable*, denoted by $\mathcal{X} \stackrel{c}{\approx} \mathcal{Y}$, if for any probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm A its advantage in distinguishing the two distributions defined as

$$|\Pr_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{X}_\lambda}[A(1^\lambda, x) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow \mathcal{Y}_\lambda}[A(1^\lambda, y) = 1]|$$

is a negligible function of λ .

The “sample-then-extract” lemma The following lemma due to Vadhan [29] plays a major role in our constructions. This is a refinement of the fundamental “sample-then-extract” lemma that was originally proved by Nisan and Zuckerman [25], stating that a random sample of bits from a string essentially preserves its min-entropy rate. Vadhan’s refinement shows that the min-entropy rate is in fact preserved up to an arbitrarily small additive loss, whereas the original lemma loses a logarithmic factor. Intuitively, the lemma states that if $\mathcal{X} \in \{0, 1\}^n$ is a δn -source, and $\mathcal{X}_S \in \{0, 1\}^t$ is the projection of \mathcal{X} onto a random set $S \subseteq [n]$ of t positions, then, with high probability, \mathcal{X}_S is statistically close to a $\delta' t$ -source, where $\delta' = \Omega(\delta)$. Whereas Nisan and Zuckerman [25] and Vadhan [29] were concerned with the amount of randomness that is required for sampling the t positions, in our case we can allow ourselves to sample the set S uniformly at random, and this leads to the following simplified form of the lemma:

Lemma 2.2. ([29]—simplified) *Let \mathcal{X} be a δn -source over $\{0, 1\}^n$, let $t \in [n]$, and let \mathcal{S} denote the uniform distribution over sets $S \subseteq [n]$ of size t . Then, there exists a distribution \mathcal{W} over $\{0, 1\}^t$, jointly distributed with \mathcal{S} , such that the following hold:*

1. $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{X}_S)$ is $2^{-\Omega(\delta t / \log(1/\delta))}$ -close to $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{W})$.
2. For any set $S \subseteq [n]$ of size t it holds that $\mathcal{W}|_{S=S}$ is a $\delta' t$ -source for $\delta' = \delta/4$.

2.2. Deterministic Public-Key Encryption

A deterministic public-key encryption scheme is almost identical to a (randomized) public-key encryption scheme, where the only difference is that the encryption algorithm is deterministic. More specifically, a deterministic public-key encryption scheme is a triple of polynomial-time algorithms $\Pi = (\text{KG}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$. The key-generation algorithm KG is a randomized algorithm which takes as input the security parameter 1^λ , where $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, and outputs a pair (pk, sk) of a public key pk and a secret key sk . The encryption algorithm Enc takes as input the security parameter 1^λ , a public key pk , and a plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^{n(\lambda)}$, and outputs a ciphertext $c \in \{0, 1\}^{t(\lambda)}$. The (possibly deterministic) decryption algorithm Dec takes as input the security parameter 1^λ , a secret key sk , and a ciphertext $c \in \{0, 1\}^{t(\lambda)}$, and outputs either a plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^{n(\lambda)}$ or the special symbol \perp . For succinctness, we will always assume 1^λ as an implicit input to all algorithms and refrain from explicitly specifying it.

In terms of security, in this paper we follow the standard approach for formalizing the security of deterministic public-key encryption schemes introduced by Bellare, Boldyreva and O’Neill [4] and further studied by Bellare et al. [5] and by Boldyreva et al. [6]. Specifically, we consider the PRIV-IND notion of security asking that any efficient algorithm has only a negligible advantage in distinguishing between encryptions of different sequences of plaintexts as long as each plaintext is sampled from high-entropy sources. We also consider the PRIV1-IND notion of security that focuses on a single plaintext, and ask that any efficient algorithm has only a negligible advantage in distinguishing between encryptions of different plaintexts that are sampled from high-entropy sources. This notion of security was shown by Boldyreva et al. [6] to guarantee security for block-sources of messages (that is, for sequences of messages where each message has high-entropy even when conditioned on the previous messages).

For defining these notions of security, we rely on the following notation. We denote by $\mathbf{m} = (m_1, \dots, m_\ell)$ a sequence of plaintexts, and by $\mathbf{c} = \text{Enc}_{pk}(\mathbf{m})$ the sequence of their encryptions $(\text{Enc}_{pk}(m_1), \dots, \text{Enc}_{pk}(m_\ell))$ under a public key pk . When encrypting such a sequence \mathbf{m} of plaintexts we assume in this paper without loss of generality that $m_i \neq m_j$ for all $i \neq j \in [\ell]$.

Definition 2.3. (*k*-source ℓ -message adversary) Let $A = (A_1, A_2)$ be a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm, and let $k = k(\lambda)$ and $\ell = \ell(\lambda)$ be functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. For any $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ denote by $(\mathcal{M}_\lambda^{(0)}, \mathcal{M}_\lambda^{(1)}, \mathcal{STAT}\mathcal{E}_\lambda)$ the distribution corresponding to the output of $A_1(1^\lambda)$. Then, A is a *k*-source ℓ -message adversary if the following properties hold:

1. For each $b \in \{0, 1\}$ it holds that $\mathcal{M}_\lambda^{(b)} = (\mathcal{M}_{1,\lambda}^{(b)}, \dots, \mathcal{M}_{\ell,\lambda}^{(b)})$ is a distribution over sequences of ℓ plaintexts.
2. For any $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $i \neq j \in [\ell]$, $b \in \{0, 1\}$, and sequence $(m_1^{(b)}, \dots, m_\ell^{(b)})$ in the support of $\mathcal{M}_\lambda^{(b)}$ it holds that $m_i^{(b)} \neq m_j^{(b)}$.
3. For any $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $b \in \{0, 1\}$, $i \in [\ell]$, and state $\in \{0, 1\}^*$ it holds that $\mathcal{M}_{i,\lambda}^{(b)}|_{\mathcal{STAT}\mathcal{E}_\lambda = \text{state}}$ is a $k(\lambda)$ -source.

Definition 2.4. (PRIV-IND) A deterministic public-key encryption scheme $\Pi = (\text{KG}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ is *PRIV-IND-secure for $k(\lambda)$ -source $\ell(\lambda)$ -message adversaries* if for any probabilistic polynomial-time $k(\lambda)$ -source $\ell(\lambda)$ -message adversary $A = (A_1, A_2)$ there exists a negligible function $\nu(\lambda)$ such that

$$\text{Adv}_{\Pi,A,\lambda}^{\text{PRIV-IND}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left| \Pr \left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi,A,\lambda}^{\text{PRIV-IND}}(0) = 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi,A,\lambda}^{\text{PRIV-IND}}(1) = 1 \right] \right| \leq \nu(\lambda)$$

for all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, where $\text{Expt}_{\Pi,A,\lambda}^{\text{PRIV-IND}}(b)$ is defined as follows:

1. $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KG}(1^\lambda)$.
2. $(\mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1, \text{state}) \leftarrow A_1(1^\lambda)$.
3. $\mathbf{c} \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{pk}(\mathbf{m}_b)$.
4. Output $A_2(1^\lambda, pk, \mathbf{c}, \text{state})$.

Definition 2.5. (PRIV1-IND) A deterministic public-key encryption scheme $\Pi = (\text{KG}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ is *PRIV1-IND-secure for $k(\lambda)$ -source adversaries* if for any probabilistic polynomial-time $k(\lambda)$ -source 1-message adversary $A = (A_1, A_2)$ there exists a negligible function $\nu(\lambda)$ such that

$$\text{Adv}_{\Pi,A,\lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left| \Pr \left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi,A,\lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(0) = 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi,A,\lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(1) = 1 \right] \right| \leq \nu(\lambda)$$

for all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, where $\text{Expt}_{\Pi,A,\lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(b)$ is defined as follows:

1. $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KG}(1^\lambda)$.
2. $(m_0, m_1, \text{state}) \leftarrow A_1(1^\lambda)$.

3. $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{pk}(m_b)$.
4. Output $A_2(1^\lambda, pk, c, \text{state})$.

2.3. The Decisional (Matrix-)DDH Assumption

Our second construction relies on the matrix form of the Decisional Diffie–Hellman (DDH) assumption, which is implied by the DDH assumption, as shown by Boneh, Halevi, Hamburg and Ostrovsky [9], and generalized by Naor and Segev [24]. Let GroupGen be a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm that takes as input a security parameter 1^λ , and outputs a triplet (G, p, g) where G is a group of prime order p that is generated by $g \in G$, and p is a λ -bit prime number. For any matrix $A = \{a_{ij}\}_{i \in [a], j \in [b]} \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{a \times b}$, we denote by $g^A \in G^{n \times n}$ the matrix $\{g^{a_{ij}}\}_{i \in [a], j \in [b]}$. In addition, we denote by $\text{Rk}_i(\mathbb{Z}_p^{a \times b})$ the set of all $a \times b$ matrices over \mathbb{Z}_p of rank i .

The matrix form of the DDH assumption states that for any integers a, b, i , and j such that $1 \leq i < j \leq \min\{a, b\}$ the distributions $\{(G, p, g, g^X)\}_{X \leftarrow \text{Rk}_i(\mathbb{Z}_p^{a \times b}), \lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{(G, p, g, g^Y)\}_{Y \leftarrow \text{Rk}_j(\mathbb{Z}_p^{a \times b}), \lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable, where $(G, p, g) \leftarrow \text{GroupGen}(1^\lambda)$.

3. Modeling Incremental Deterministic Public-Key Encryption

In this section, we present a framework for modeling the incrementality of deterministic public-key encryption schemes. Intuitively, a deterministic public-key encryption scheme is *incremental* if any small modification of a plaintext m resulting in a plaintext m' can be efficiently carried over for updating the encryption $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m)$ of m to the encryption $c' = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m')$ of m' . For capturing the efficiency of such an update operation, we consider two natural complexity measures⁴:

- **Input locality:** The number of ciphertexts bits that are affected when flipping a single plaintext bit.
- **Query complexity:** The number of public key, plaintext, and ciphertext bits that have to be read in order to update the ciphertext when flipping a single plaintext bit.

For capturing the above measures of efficiency, we model the update operation as a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm Update that receives as input the index i^* of a plaintext bit to be flipped and has oracle access to the individual bits of the public key pk , the plaintext m to be modified, and to the encryption $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m)$. Specifically, we equip the update algorithm with access to an oracle, denoted \mathcal{O} , that is given as input a triplet (pk, m, c) . The algorithm Update can submit oracle queries of the form (pk, i) , (m, i) or (c, i) , which the oracle \mathcal{O} answers with the i th bit of pk , m , or c , respectively.

More formally, let $\Pi = (\text{KG}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be a deterministic public-key encryption scheme with message space $\{0, 1\}^n$ and ciphertext space $\{0, 1\}^t$ (where $n = n(\lambda)$ and $t = t(\lambda)$ are functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$), and let Update be its corresponding update algorithm. We denote by $S \leftarrow \text{Update}^{\mathcal{O}(pk, m, c)}(1^\lambda, i^*)$ the process in which the

⁴For simplicity, we focus on the case where both plaintexts and ciphertexts are represented as bit strings. We note, however, that our approach easily generalizes to arbitrary message and ciphertext spaces.

update algorithm with input $i^* \in [n]$ and oracle access to the individual bits of the public key pk , the plaintext m to be modified, and to its encryption $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m)$, outputs a set $S \subseteq [t]$ of positions indicating which bits of the ciphertext c have to be flipped.

Definition 3.1. (Incremental deterministic PKE) Let $\Pi = (\text{KG}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be a deterministic public-key encryption scheme with message space $\{0, 1\}^n$ and ciphertext space $\{0, 1\}^t$, where $n = n(\lambda)$ and $t = t(\lambda)$ are functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. The scheme Π is $\Delta(\lambda)$ -incremental if there exists a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm **Update** satisfying the following requirements:

1. **Correctness:** There exists a negligible function $\nu(\lambda)$ such that for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, for any plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and for any index $i^* \in [n]$ it holds that

$$\Pr \left[c' = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m') \mid \begin{array}{l} (pk, \cdot) \leftarrow \text{KG}(1^\lambda), c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m), S \leftarrow \text{Update}^{\mathcal{O}(pk, m, c)}(1^\lambda, i^*) \\ m'[i^*] = \neg m[i^*] \text{ and } m'[i] = m[i] \text{ for all } i \in [n] \setminus \{i^*\} \\ c'[j] = \neg c[j] \text{ for all } j \in S \text{ and } c'[j] = c[j] \text{ for all } j \in [t] \setminus S \end{array} \right] \geq 1 - \nu(\lambda),$$

where the probability is taken over the internal coin tosses of **KG** and **Update**.

2. **Input locality:** For all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ the algorithm $\text{Update}^{(\cdot)}(1^\lambda, \cdot)$ outputs sets S of size at most $\Delta(\lambda)$.
3. **Query complexity:** For all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ the algorithm $\text{Update}^{(\cdot)}(1^\lambda, \cdot)$ issues at most $\Delta(\lambda)$ queries to the oracle \mathcal{O} .

Access to the plaintext When providing the update algorithm with oracle access to the bits of the plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$, we can assume without loss of generality that the only update operations are to flip the i th bit of m for $i \in [n]$. That is, one can also consider the operation of setting the i th bit of m to 0 or 1, but this can be handled by first querying the i th bit of m and then flipping it if it is different than the required value. We note, however, that for supporting only flipping operations it is not clear that access to the plaintext must be provided.

An important observation is that when access to the plaintext is not provided (i.e., when the update algorithm can query only the public key and the ciphertext), it is impossible to support the operation of setting a bit to 0 and 1 while providing PRIV1-IND security. That is, any such update algorithm can be used to attack the PRIV1-IND security of the scheme by distinguishing between encryptions of high-entropy messages (and this holds for any level of incrementality)⁵.

Privately incremental schemes In various scenarios, it may be natural to provide the update algorithm with access not to the plaintext m but rather to the secret key sk (and thus indirect access to the plaintext which may be less efficient in terms of query

⁵Consider the adversary $A = (A_1, A_2)$ that is defined as follows. The algorithm A_1 outputs (m_0, m_1, state) where $m_0 \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_k \parallel 0^{n-k}$ and $m_1 \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_n$ are sampled independently at random, and $\text{state} = \perp$. That is, m_0 is distributed uniformly conditioned on ending with 0^{n-k} , and m_1 is distributed uniformly. The algorithm A_2 on input $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m_b)$ invokes the update algorithm to set the leftmost k bits of the plaintext corresponding to c to 0, and then compares the resulting ciphertext to $\text{Enc}_{pk}(0^n)$. Note that if $b = 0$, then the two ciphertexts are always equal, and if $b = 1$, then they are equal only with probability $2^{-(n-k)}$.

complexity). Consider, for example, a scenario in which a client stores an encrypted version \bar{F} of a file F on a remote and untrusted server. In this the client does not have direct access to the file F , but only indirect access by using its secret key to recover parts of the file. In such a scenario, it is required to capture the efficiency of the client by considering its query complexity to the secret key (and ciphertext) and not to the plaintext. This leads to a natural variant of Definition 3.1 in which the update algorithm is given oracle access to the public key pk , the secret key sk , and the ciphertext c (but no direct access to the plaintext).

Definition 3.2. (Privately incremental deterministic PKE) Let $\Pi = (\text{KG}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be a deterministic public-key encryption scheme with message space $\{0, 1\}^n$ and ciphertext space $\{0, 1\}^t$, where $n = n(\lambda)$ and $t = t(\lambda)$ are functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. The scheme Π is $\Delta(\lambda)$ -privately incremental if there exists a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm Update satisfying the following requirements:

1. Correctness: There exists a negligible function $\nu(\lambda)$ such that for all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, for any plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and for any index $i^* \in [n]$ it holds that

$$\Pr \left[c' = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m') \left| \begin{array}{l} c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m), S \leftarrow \text{Update}^{\mathcal{O}(pk,m,c)}(1^\lambda, i^*) \\ m'[i^*] = \neg m[i^*] \text{ and } m'[i] = m[i] \text{ for all } i \in [n] \setminus \{i^*\} \\ c'[j] = \neg c[j] \text{ for all } j \in S \text{ and } c'[j] = c[j] \text{ for all } j \in [t] \setminus S \end{array} \right. \right] \geq 1 - \nu(\lambda),$$

where the probability is taken over the internal coin tosses of KG and Update .

2. Input locality: For all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ the algorithm $\text{Update}^{(\cdot)}(1^\lambda, \cdot)$ outputs sets S of size at most $\Delta(\lambda)$.
3. Query complexity: For all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ the algorithm $\text{Update}^{(\cdot)}(1^\lambda, \cdot)$ issues at most $\Delta(\lambda)$ queries to the oracle \mathcal{C} .

4. A Generic Construction via Random Partitioning

In this section, we present a generic construction of an incremental PRIV1-IND-secure deterministic public-key encryption scheme from any PRIV-IND-secure deterministic public-key encryption scheme. As discussed in Sect. 1.3 our approach is a “randomized” alternative to the commonly-used approach of dividing the plaintext into small blocks and encrypting each block. Instead of dividing an n -bit plaintext m into fixed blocks, we project it onto a uniformly chosen partition $S_1, \dots, S_{n/t}$ of the plaintext positions $\{1, \dots, n\}$ to sets of size t each and then separately encrypt each of the projections $m_{S_1}, \dots, m_{S_{n/t}}$ using the underlying encryption scheme. Thus, when flipping a single bit of m we only need to update the encryption of the projection m_{S_i} for which the corresponding position belongs to the set S_i . Therefore, the resulting scheme enjoys the same incrementality that the underlying scheme has for small blocks. A more formal description follows.

The scheme Let $\Pi' = (\text{KG}', \text{Enc}', \text{Dec}')$ be a deterministic public-key encryption scheme for n' -bit plaintexts that is PRIV-IND-secure for k' -source ℓ' -message adversaries, where $n' = n'(\lambda)$, $k' = k'(\lambda)$ and $\ell' = \ell'(\lambda)$ are functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. We construct an incremental deterministic public-key encryption scheme $\Pi = (\text{KG}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Update})$ for n -bit plaintexts that is PRIV1-IND-secure for k -source adversaries, where $n = n(\lambda)$ and $k = k(\lambda)$ are functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ as follows:

- *Key generation* The algorithm KG on input the security parameter 1^λ samples $(pk', sk') \leftarrow \text{KG}'(1^\lambda)$ together with a uniformly chosen partition $S_1, \dots, S_{n/t}$ of $[n]$, where each set in the partition is of size $t = \frac{\alpha n \log n}{k} \cdot k'$ for a sufficiently large constant $\alpha \geq 1$.⁶ It then outputs $pk = (pk', S_1, \dots, S_{n/t})$ and $sk = sk'$.⁷
- *Encryption* The algorithm $\text{Enc}_{pk}(\cdot)$ on input a plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$ outputs the ciphertext $(\text{Enc}'_{pk'}(1||m_{S_1}), \dots, \text{Enc}'_{pk'}(n/t||m_{S_{n/t}}))$.
- *Decryption* The algorithm $\text{Dec}_{sk}(\cdot)$ on input a ciphertext $(c_1, \dots, c_{n/t})$ computes $m_{S_i} = \text{Dec}'_{sk'}(c_i)$ for every $i \in [n/t]$ and outputs the plaintext m defined by the projections $m_{S_1}, \dots, m_{S_{n/t}}$.
- *Update* The algorithm $\text{Update}^{\mathcal{O}(pk, m, c)}(\cdot)$ on input an index $i^* \in [n]$ of a plaintext bit to be flipped, first finds the unique $j^* \in [n/t]$ such that $i^* \in S_{j^*}$. Then, it retrieves the projection $m_{S_{j^*}}$, and computes $m'_{S_{j^*}}$ by flipping the plaintext bit in position i^* in m . Finally, it computes $c'_{j^*} = \text{Enc}'_{pk'}(j^*||m'_{S_{j^*}})$ and $c_{j^*} = \text{Enc}'_{pk'}(j^*||m_{S_{j^*}})$, and outputs the set of positions on which they differ.

The security of the scheme The main idea underlying the proof of security is that for a plaintext m that has min-entropy k , the “sample-and-extract” together with our choice of parameters, and the fact that each set S_i is individually uniform imply that each of the encrypted strings $i||m_{S_i}$ is a distribution with min-entropy k' . The PRIV-IND security of Π' then immediately yields the PRIV1-IND security of Π . This enables us to prove the following theorem:

Theorem 4.1. *Let $n = n(\lambda)$, $k = k(\lambda)$, and $k' = k'(\lambda)$, let $\alpha \geq 1$ be a sufficiently large constant as above, and assume that Π' encrypts n' -bit plaintexts and is PRIV-IND-secure for k' -source ℓ' -message adversaries, where $t = \frac{\alpha n \log n}{k} \cdot k'$, $n' = t + \lceil \log(n/t) \rceil$, and $\ell' = n/t$. Then, the scheme Π is PRIV1-IND-secure for k -sources.*

Proof. For any k -source adversary $A = (A_1, A_2)$ against PRIV1-IND security of the scheme Π , we show that there exists an adversary $A' = (A'_1, A'_2)$ that is statistically close to a k' -source n/t -message adversary against the PRIV-IND security of the scheme Π' and has the same advantage.

The algorithm A'_1 . On input 1^λ the algorithm A'_1 samples $(m^{(0)}, m^{(1)}, \text{state}) \leftarrow A_1(1^\lambda)$ and a uniformly chosen partition $S_1, \dots, S_{n/t}$ of $[n]$, where each set in the

⁶We note that the constant α is determined by the hidden constant in the statistical closeness $2^{-\Omega(\delta t / \log(1/\delta))}$ from Lemma 2.2.

⁷Without loss of generality we can assume that t divides n , as otherwise we can pad plaintexts with at most t zeros, and for our choice of parameters this would only have a minor effect on the min-entropy rate.

partition is of size $t = \lceil \frac{4n}{k} \cdot k' \rceil$. Then, it outputs $(\mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1, \text{state}')$, where $\mathbf{m}_b = \left(1 \parallel m_{S_1}^{(b)}, \dots, n/t \parallel m_{S_{n/t}}^{(b)}\right)$ for each $b \in \{0, 1\}$, and $\text{state}' = (\text{state}, S_1, \dots, S_{n/t})$. The algorithm A'_2 . On input $(1^\lambda, pk', \mathbf{c}, \text{state}')$ the algorithm A'_2 first parses state' as $\text{state}' = (\text{state}, S_1, \dots, S_{n/t})$ and defines $pk = (pk', S_1, \dots, S_{n/t})$. Then, it outputs $A_2(1^\lambda, pk, \mathbf{c}, \text{state})$.

Note that A' provides a perfect simulation of the $\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV-IND}}(0)$ and $\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV-IND}}(1)$ to A , and therefore we only need to prove that A' is statistically close to a k' -source n/t -message adversary. First, observe that in any vector of plaintexts $\mathbf{m}_b = \left(1 \parallel m_{S_1}^{(b)}, \dots, n/t \parallel m_{S_{n/t}}^{(b)}\right)$ that is produced by A_1 it always holds that all plaintexts are distinct (and this holds for both $b = 0$ and $b = 1$). Second, the fact that A is a k -source adversary means that for each $b \in \{0, 1\}$ the plaintext $m^{(b)}$ is sampled from a source with min-entropy at least k over $\{0, 1\}^n$, even when conditioned on state . In turn, the “sample-then-extract” lemma (see Lemma 2.2) guarantees that for every $j \in [n/t]$ the projection $m_{S_j}^{(b)}$ is ϵ -close to a source with min-entropy $\delta t/4$ over $\{0, 1\}^t$, where $\delta = k/n$, and $\epsilon = 2^{-\Omega(\delta t / \log(1/\delta))}$. Our choice of $t = \frac{\alpha n \log n}{k} \cdot k'$ guarantees that

$$\frac{\delta}{4} \cdot t \geq k' + 1,$$

and

$$\epsilon \leq 2^{-(k'+1)}.$$

This implies, in particular, that $m_{S_j}^{(b)}$ is a k' -source, and concludes the proof of the theorem. \square

The incrementality of the scheme When flipping a single bit of a plaintext m , we only need to update a single output block. The underlying scheme might have trivial incrementality and require to re-encrypt the whole block (which is significantly shorter than the length of the plaintext m), as described above. In terms of oracle access to the individual bits of pk , m , and c , this requires accessing $\lceil \log(n/t) \rceil$ bits of pk , t bits of m , and all the bits of pk' . Given that the length of pk' may depend only on the security parameter (i.e., n and k can be chosen afterward and be significantly larger), the dominant factor here is $t = \frac{\alpha n \log n}{k} \cdot k'$. We prove the following theorem:

Theorem 4.2. *Let $n = n(\lambda)$, $k = k(\lambda)$, $k' = k'(\lambda)$, and $w' = w'(\lambda)$ be functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, and assume that Π' encrypts n' -bit plaintexts with r' -bit ciphertexts and w' -bit public keys. Then, the scheme Π has incrementality $\Delta = \max\{r', \lceil \log \frac{k}{4k'} \rceil + \frac{\alpha n \log n}{k} \cdot k' + w'\}$.*

Proof. The correctness of the **Update** algorithm is easy to verify, and here we upper-bound the input locality and query complexity of the scheme Π (recall Definition 3.1).

For an upper bound on the input locality, note that when flipping the bit m_{i^*} of a plaintext m we only need to update a single output block. This block is the encryption

of the projection $m_{S_{j^*}}$ for which $i^* \in S_{j^*}$. Therefore, the number of ciphertext bits that need to be changed is at most r' , the bit-length of the ciphertexts produced by the scheme Π' . Thus, the input locality of the scheme Π is at most r' .

For an upper bound on the query complexity, note that the update algorithm first needs to find the unique $j^* \in [n/t]$ such that $i^* \in S_{j^*}$. Using a suitable encoding of the partition $S_1, \dots, S_{n/t}$, this can be done by accessing only $\lceil \log(n/t) \rceil$ bits of the public key. Then, it needs to retrieve the projection $m_{S_{j^*}}$, and this requires accessing t bits of m . Finally, for computing the new ciphertext block the update algorithm also needs to access the public key pk' of the scheme Π' , whose length is w' bits. Recall that $t = \frac{\alpha n \log n}{k} \cdot k'$, and therefore the query complexity of the scheme Π is at most

$$\left\lceil \log \frac{n}{t} \right\rceil + t + w' \leq \left\lceil \log \frac{k}{4k'} \right\rceil + \frac{\alpha n \log n}{k} \cdot k' + w'.$$

□

Specific instantiations Our generic construction can be instantiated with the two PRIV-IND-secure schemes of Bellare et al. [4] in the random-oracle model. These schemes encrypt n' -bit messages and are PRIV-IND-secure for any (fixed) super-logarithmic min-entropy k' . For example, when choosing $k' = \log^2 n$, the dominant factor t in the incrementality of our schemes becomes $t = O(\frac{n}{k} \cdot \log^3 n)$. Their first scheme is based on any semantically secure (randomized) public-key encryption scheme, and their second scheme is length-preserving extension of RSA-OAEP. We note that when instantiating our generic construction with their length-preserving scheme there is in fact no need to concatenate the block number i to each projection m_{S_i} (for ensuring that we always encrypt distinct values), but only to use the block number as a prefix for the random oracle when encrypting m_{S_i} . Therefore in this case the resulting scheme is still a length-preserving one.

5. A Construction Based on the Decisional Diffie–Hellman Assumption

In this section, we construct a deterministic public-key encryption scheme that enjoys essentially optimal incrementality, and guarantees PRIV1-IND security based on the Decisional Diffie–Hellman (DDH) assumption. We begin by introducing rather standard notation and then describe the scheme.

Notation Let G be a group of prime order p that is generated by $g \in G$. Recall that for any matrix $A = \{a_{ij}\}_{i \in [n], j \in [n]} \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{n \times n}$ we denote by $g^A \in G^{n \times n}$ the matrix $\{g^{a_{ij}}\}_{i \in [n], j \in [n]}$. In addition, for a column vector $m = (m_1, \dots, m_n)^\top \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n$ and a matrix $A = \{a_{ij}\}_{i \in [n], j \in [n]} \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{n \times n}$ we define

$$A \odot g^m \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} g^A \odot m \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} g^{Am} = (g^{\sum_i a_{1,i} m_i}, \dots, g^{\sum_i a_{n,i} m_i})^\top \in G^n.$$

The scheme Let **GroupGen** be a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm that takes as input the security parameter 1^λ , and outputs a triplet (G, p, g) where G is a group of prime order p that is generated by $g \in G$, and p is a λ -bit prime number. The scheme is parameterized by the security parameter λ , the message length $n = n(\lambda)$, and the min-entropy $k = k(\lambda)$ for which the scheme is secure. Both n and k are polynomials in the security parameter. The scheme $\Pi = (\text{KG}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Update})$ is defined as follows:

- *Key generation* The algorithm **KG** on input the security parameter 1^λ samples $(G, p, g) \leftarrow \text{GroupGen}(1^\lambda)$, and a matrix $A \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}$, where $\mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}$ is a distribution over $\mathbb{Z}_p^{n \times n}$ which is defined below. It then outputs $pk = (G, p, g, g^A)$ and $sk = A^{-1}$.
- *Encryption* The algorithm $\text{Enc}_{pk}(\cdot)$ on input a plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$ outputs the ciphertext $g^A \odot m = g^{Am} \in G^n$.
- *Decryption* The algorithm $\text{Dec}_{sk}(\cdot)$ on input a ciphertext $g^c = (g^{c_1}, \dots, g^{c_n}) \in G^n$ first computes $w = A^{-1} \odot g^c = g^{A^{-1}c} \in G^n$, and lets $w = (g^{m_1}, \dots, g^{m_n})$. If $m = (m_1, \dots, m_n) \in \{0, 1\}^n$ (note that this test can be computed efficiently) then it outputs m , and otherwise it outputs \perp .
- *Update* The algorithm $\text{Update}^{\mathcal{O}(pk,m,c)}(\cdot)$, where $g^c = (g^{c_1}, \dots, g^{c_n}) \in G^n$, on input an index $i^* \in [n]$ of a plaintext bit to be flipped, first computes the set $S \subseteq [n]$ of the indices of the rows of A that have a nonzero element in position i^* (using a straightforward lookup table this requires accessing $|S| \log n$ bits of pk). Then, for each $j \in S$ the update algorithm has to modify the ciphertext component g^{c_j} . The modified component, denote $g^{c'_j}$, is computed as $g^{c'_j} = g^{c_j} \cdot g^{a_{j,i^*}}$ if $m_{i^*} = 0$ and as $g^{c'_j} = g^{c_j} \cdot g^{-a_{j,i^*}}$ if $m_{i^*} = 1$ (this requires accessing the bit m_{i^*} as well as the $|S|$ elements $g^{a_{j,i^*}}$, each of which is $\log p$ bits).

The distribution $\mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}$ For completing the description of our scheme, it remains to specify the distribution $\mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}$ that is defined over $\mathbb{Z}_p^{n \times n}$. Looking ahead this distribution will be used to define the distribution of injective keys in our collection of smooth trapdoor functions. In fact, we find it convenient to first specify the distribution $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}$ that will be used to define the distribution of smooth keys. These two distributions rely on the following distributions as building blocks:

- $\mathcal{R}_{n,k,p}$: *sparse random* $\ell \times n$ matrices. The distribution $\mathcal{R}_{n,k,p}$ is defined as a random sample from $\mathbb{Z}_p^{\ell \times n}$ matrices that have exactly $t = \lceil \frac{n}{k} \cdot 16 \log p \rceil$ nonzero entries in each row, where $\ell = \lfloor k/(2 \log p) \rfloor$.
- $\mathcal{D}_{n,k,p}$: *diagonally-stripped* $\ell \times n$ matrices. The distribution $\mathcal{D}_{n,k,p}$ is defined as a random sample from $\mathbb{Z}_p^{\ell \times n}$ matrices whose elements d_{ij} are nonzero if and only if $i \equiv j \pmod{\ell}$ (for simplicity we assume that n is divisible by ℓ).

The distribution $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}$ over $\mathbb{Z}_p^{n \times n}$ is defined as matrices \tilde{A} obtained by independently sampling $R \leftarrow \mathcal{R}_{n,k,p}$, $D_1 \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{n,k,p}$, and $D_2 \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{n,k,p}$, and letting $\tilde{A} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} D_2^\top \times (R + D_1)$. Then, the distribution $\mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}$ is defined as matrices A obtained by sampling a matrix $\tilde{A} \leftarrow \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}$ and then *re-sampling* all its nonzero entries from \mathbb{Z}_p independently and uniformly at random. In other words, the resulting matrix A preserves zeroes of the matrix \tilde{A} , while randomizing all other elements (and thus linear dependencies between

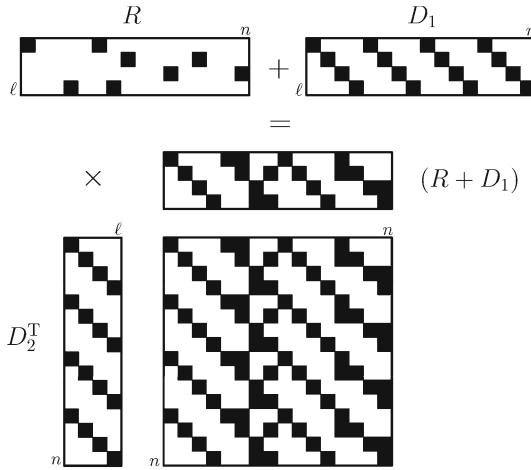


Fig. 1. The distributions $\mathcal{R}_{n,k,p}$, $\mathcal{D}_{n,k,p}$ and $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}$.

rows) of the original matrix. See Fig. 1 for an illustration of the distributions $\mathcal{R}_{n,k,p}$, $\mathcal{D}_{n,k,p}$ and $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}$.

Intuitively, the matrix D_1 is only meant to ensure that such the resulting matrix A is invertible. Indeed, the matrix D_1 guarantees that with an overwhelming probability all the elements on the main diagonal of A are nonzeros. Now, ignoring the matrix D_1 , the matrix \tilde{A} is generated to satisfy two properties. The first is that each of its first ℓ rows has t randomly chosen entries with values that are chosen uniformly from \mathbb{Z}_p , and all other $n - t$ entries are zeros. Looking ahead, when computing the inner product of such a row with a source of min-entropy larger than $\log p$, the “sample-then-extract” lemma (see Lemma 2.2) guarantees that the output is statistically close to uniform. The second property is that each of its last $n - \ell$ rows is a linear combination of the first ℓ rows, and therefore the action of its corresponding linear map is determined by the first ℓ rows.

The incrementality of the scheme When naturally storing the public-key element g^A as a sparse matrix, listing only the entries corresponding to the nonzero entries of A , the dominant factor in the incrementality of the scheme corresponds to the maximal number of nonzero entries in the columns of A (multiplied by $\log p$). For our choice of $t = \lceil \frac{n}{k} \cdot 16 \log p \rceil$ and $\ell = \lfloor k/(2 \log p) \rfloor$, each column of the matrix A has at most $O(t + n/\ell) = O(\frac{n}{k} \cdot \log p)$ nonzero entries with all but a negligible probability.

Theorem 5.1. *Let $n = n(\lambda)$ and $k = k(\lambda)$ be functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, the scheme Π has incrementality $\Delta = \frac{n}{k} \cdot 40\lambda(\log n + \lambda)$.*

Proof. The correctness of the Update algorithm is easy to verify, and here we upper-bound the input locality and query complexity of the scheme Π (recall Definition 3.1).

For bounding the input locality, note that when flipping the bit m_{i^*} of a plaintext m the update algorithm computes the set $S \subseteq [n]$ of the indices of the rows of A that have a nonzero element in position i^* . Only these rows of the ciphertext have to be

updated (where each such row consists of $\log p$ bits). Noting that with an overwhelming probability $|S| \leq 2(t+n/\ell) \leq \frac{n}{k} \cdot 40 \log p$, and that p is a λ -bit prime number. Therefore, the input locality of the scheme is at most $\frac{n}{k} \cdot 40\lambda^2$.

For bounding the query complexity, note that computing the set $S \subseteq [n]$ of the indices of the rows of A that have a nonzero element in position i^* can be done by accessing $|S| \log n$ bits of pk (say, using a lookup table). Then, for each $j \in S$ the update algorithm has to modify the ciphertext component g^{c_j} . This requires accessing the bit m_{i^*} as well as the $|S|$ elements $g^{a_{j,i^*}}$, each of which is $\log p$ bits. As before, with an overwhelming probability $|S| \leq \frac{n}{k} \cdot 40 \log p$, and therefore the query complexity of the scheme Π is at most

$$|S|(\log n + \log p) \leq \frac{n}{k} \cdot 40\lambda(\log n + \lambda).$$

□

The security of the scheme As discussed in Sect. 1.3, the security of our scheme is based on the notion of *smooth trapdoor functions*, which we formalize in Sect. 5.1, and then in Sect. 5.2 we show that our scheme is in fact a collection of smooth trapdoor functions. This enables us to prove the following theorem:

Theorem 5.2. *For any $n = n(\lambda)$ and $k = k(\lambda)$ such that $16 \log p \leq k \leq n$, under the Decisional Diffie–Hellman assumption the scheme Π is PRIV1-IND-secure for k -sources.*

5.1. Smooth Trapdoor Functions

A *collection of smooth trapdoor functions* consists of two families of functions. Functions in one family are injective and can be efficiently inverted using a trapdoor. Functions in the other family are “smooth” in the sense that their output distribution on any source of input with high min-entropy is statistically close to their output distribution on a uniformly sampled input. The only security requirement is that a description of a randomly chosen function from the family of injective functions is computationally indistinguishable from a description of a randomly chosen function from the family of smooth functions.

Definition 5.3. (Smooth trapdoor functions) Let $n = n(\lambda)$ and $k = k(\lambda)$ be functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. A *collection of (n, k) -smooth trapdoor functions* is a 4-tuple of probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms $(\text{KG}_{\text{Inj}}, \text{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}, \text{F}, \text{F}^{-1})$ such that:

1. **Injectivity:** With overwhelming probability over the choice of $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KG}_{\text{Inj}}(1^\lambda)$, for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ it holds that $\text{F}_{sk}^{-1}(\text{F}_{pk}(x)) = x$.
2. **Smoothness:** For every k -source $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathcal{X}_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ over $\{0, 1\}^n$ the statistical distance between the distributions $\{(pk, \text{F}_{pk}(x)) : pk \leftarrow \text{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}(1^\lambda), x \leftarrow \mathcal{X}_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{(pk, \text{F}_{pk}(x)) : pk \leftarrow \text{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}(1^\lambda), x \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_n\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ is negligible in λ .
3. **Indistinguishability:** The two distributions $\{pk : (pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KG}_{\text{Inj}}(1^\lambda)\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{pk : pk \leftarrow \text{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}(1^\lambda)\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable.

We note that the definition of a *hidden universal-mode encryption* of Boldyreva et al. [6] is stronger than our definition of smooth trapdoor functions, as evident from our construction in this section, which is not universal in its smooth mode (that would interfere with the incrementality requirement). In addition, Boldyreva et al. showed that the composition of any lossy trapdoor function with a pairwise independent permutation is a hidden universal-mode encryption, and thus a collection of smooth trapdoor functions. The pairwise independent permutation, however, again contradicts the incrementality property that we require.

The following theorem states that any collection of smooth trapdoor functions is also a PRIV1-IND-secure deterministic public-key encryption scheme. The theorem was implicitly proved by Boldyreva et al. [6, Theorem 5.1], and here we provide its proof for completeness in light of our new notion of smooth trapdoor functions.

Theorem 5.4. *Let $n = n(\lambda)$ and $k = k(\lambda)$ be functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $(\text{KG}_{\text{Inj}}, \text{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}, \text{F}, \text{F}^{-1})$ be a collection of (n, k) -smooth trapdoor functions. Then $\Pi = (\text{KG}_{\text{Inj}}, \text{F}, \text{F}^{-1})$ is a deterministic public-key encryption scheme that is PRIV1-IND-secure for k -sources.*

Proof. Let $A = (A_1, A_2)$ be a k -source adversary. For any $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ and $b \in \{0, 1\}$ we denote by $\widetilde{\text{Expt}}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(b)$ the experiment that is obtained from the experiment $\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(b)$ by sampling the public key pk using $\text{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}(1^\lambda)$ instead of $\text{KG}_{\text{Inj}}(1^\lambda)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Adv}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}_{\Pi, A, \lambda} &= \left| \Pr \left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(0) = 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(1) = 1 \right] \right| \\ &\leq \left| \Pr \left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(0) = 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\widetilde{\text{Expt}}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(0) = 1 \right] \right| \end{aligned} \quad (5.1)$$

$$+ \left| \Pr \left[\widetilde{\text{Expt}}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(0) = 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\widetilde{\text{Expt}}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(1) = 1 \right] \right| \quad (5.2)$$

$$+ \left| \Pr \left[\widetilde{\text{Expt}}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(1) = 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(1) = 1 \right] \right|. \quad (5.3)$$

By definition for any $b \in \{0, 1\}$ the experiments $\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(b)$ and $\widetilde{\text{Expt}}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(b)$ differ only on the distribution of the public key pk . Therefore, the indistinguishability property of the collection $(\text{KG}_{\text{Inj}}, \text{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}, \text{F}, \text{F}^{-1})$ between public keys that are “injective” and “smooth” directly guarantees that the terms (5.1) and (5.3) are negligible.

In addition, the smoothness property of the collection $(\text{KG}_{\text{Inj}}, \text{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}, \text{F}, \text{F}^{-1})$ and the fact that A is a k -source adversary guarantee that in the experiments $\widetilde{\text{Expt}}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(0)$ and $\widetilde{\text{Expt}}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(1)$ the ciphertext $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m_b)$ is statistically close to the image of a uniformly distributed message from A 's point of view. This implies that also the term (5.2) is negligible and concludes the proof of the theorem. \square

5.2. Proof of Security

The description of our encryption scheme naturally defines a 4-tuple $(\mathbf{KG}_{\text{Inj}}, \mathbf{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{F}^{-1})$, which we show here to be a collection of smooth trapdoor functions. For completeness, we describe this collection explicitly here.

- *Generation of injective keys* The algorithm \mathbf{KG}_{Inj} on input the security parameter 1^λ samples $(G, p, g) \leftarrow \mathbf{GroupGen}(1^\lambda)$, and a matrix $A \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}$. It then outputs $pk = (G, p, g, g^A)$ and $sk = A^{-1}$.
- *Generation of smooth keys* The algorithm $\mathbf{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}$ on input the security parameter 1^λ samples $(G, p, g) \leftarrow \mathbf{GroupGen}(1^\lambda)$, and a matrix $A \leftarrow \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}$. It then outputs $pk = (G, p, g, g^A)$.
- *Evaluation* The algorithm $\mathbf{F}_{pk}(\cdot)$ on input $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$ outputs $g^A \odot m = g^{Am} \in G^n$.
- *Inversion* The algorithm $\mathbf{F}_{sk}^{-1}(\cdot)$ on input $g^c = (g^{c_1}, \dots, g^{c_n}) \in G^n$ first computes $w = A^{-1} \odot g^c = g^{A^{-1}c} \in G^n$, and lets $m = (g^{m_1}, \dots, g^{m_n})$. If $m = (m_1, \dots, m_n) \in \{0, 1\}^n$ (note that this test can be computed efficiently) then it outputs m , and otherwise it outputs \perp .

The security of our encryption scheme (i.e., Theorem 5.2) then follows as a corollary by putting together Theorem 5.4 and the following theorem:

Theorem 5.5. *For any $n = n(\lambda)$ and $k = k(\lambda)$ such that $16 \log p \leq k \leq n$, let $t = \lceil \frac{n}{k} \cdot 16 \log p \rceil$ and $\ell = \lfloor k / (2 \log p) \rfloor$. Then, under the Decisional Diffie–Hellman assumption, $(\mathbf{KG}_{\text{Inj}}, \mathbf{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{F}^{-1})$ is a collection of (n, k) -smooth trapdoor functions.*

Proof. We prove the theorem using the following three lemmas, establishing the required properties of injectivity, smoothness, and indistinguishability.

Lemma 5.6. *(Injectivity) With overwhelming probability over the choice of $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \mathbf{KG}_{\text{Inj}}(1^\lambda)$, for every $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ it holds that $\mathbf{F}_{sk}^{-1}(\mathbf{F}_{pk}(x)) = x$.*

Proof of Lemma 5.6. We prove the lemma by showing that a matrix drawn from $\mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}$ is invertible except with probability $O(n/p)$. Consider the intermediate steps of drawing a matrix A from $\mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}$. First R, D_1 and D_2 are sampled from $\mathcal{R}_{n,k,p}, \mathcal{D}_{n,k,p}$, and $\mathcal{D}_{n,k,p}$, respectively. Then the matrix \tilde{A} is computed as $A = D_2^\top \times (R + D_1)$, and the matrix A is produced by re-sampling all its nonzero entries. We show that A is invertible by arguing that all elements on its main diagonal are nonzero, except with probability $O(n/p)$.

Call the elements of an $\ell \times n$ matrix with coordinates (u, v) , where $u \equiv v \pmod{\ell}$, *pseudodiagonal*. The pseudodiagonal elements of D_2 are nonzero by construction. There are exactly n pseudodiagonal elements chosen at random in D_1 , and with probability $O(n/p)$ one of them is zero. The probability that any of the pseudodiagonal elements of D_1 is canceled after summing it with R is $O(n/p)$. Conditioning on these events *not* happening, i.e., all pseudodiagonal elements of $D_1 + R$ are not zero, all elements on the main diagonal of M that are products of two pseudodiagonal elements from $D_1 + R$ and D_2 , are thus also nonzero.

It means that when the nonzero entries of the matrix \tilde{A} are re-sampled to produce A , all elements on the main diagonal of A will be assigned fresh random values from \mathbb{Z}_p , and thus they will all be nonzero except with probability $O(n/p)$. This is sufficient to imply invertibility with high probability: Express $\det A$ as a function of formal variables corresponding to the nonzero elements of A . The total degree of this polynomial is n , and since the main diagonal of A is nonzero, the polynomial is not identically zero. By the Schwartz-Zippel lemma, the probability that this polynomial evaluates to zero (and thus the matrix is rank-deficient) is $O(n/p)$. \square

Lemma 5.7. (*Smoothness*) For any $n = n(\lambda)$ and $k = k(\lambda)$ such that $16 \log p \leq k \leq n$, let $t = \lceil \frac{n}{k} \cdot 16 \log p \rceil$ and $\ell = \lfloor k/(2 \log p) \rfloor$. Then, for every k -source $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathcal{X}_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ over $\{0, 1\}^n$ the statistical distance between the distributions $\{(pk, F_{pk}(x)) : pk \leftarrow \text{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}(1^\lambda), x \leftarrow \mathcal{X}_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{(pk, F_{pk}(x)) : pk \leftarrow \text{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}(1^\lambda), x \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_n\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ is negligible in λ .

Proof of Lemma 5.7. Fix $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $\tilde{A} \leftarrow \tilde{A}_{n,k,p}$, $x \leftarrow \mathcal{X}_\lambda$, and $y = Ax$. The first observation is that such a matrix \tilde{A} has rank at most ℓ as it is a product of matrices of dimensions $n \times \ell$ and $\ell \times n$, each having rank at most ℓ . Further, for such a matrix \tilde{A} of rank ℓ , the first ℓ entries of y determine the rest of y . Indeed, if i and j are two coordinates and $i \equiv j \pmod{\ell}$, then y_i/y_j is exactly the ratio of the corresponding (nonzero) elements of D_2 with coordinates $(i, i \bmod \ell)$ and $(j, j \bmod \ell)$ (identifying columns 0 and ℓ of D_2).

Therefore, it is sufficient to consider the distribution of $y = Ax$ over the first ℓ coordinates of the result, denoted as $\mathcal{Y}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Y}_\ell$. We shall prove that $(\mathcal{Y}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Y}_\ell)$ is statistically close to the uniform distribution over \mathbb{Z}_p^ℓ (i.e., independent of \mathcal{X} , and thus the lemma easily follows). Specifically, for every $i \in [\ell]$ we prove that with an overwhelming probability over the choice of $(y_1, \dots, y_{i-1}) \leftarrow (\mathcal{Y}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Y}_{i-1})$, it holds that the distribution of \mathcal{Y}_i when conditioned on $\mathcal{Y}_1 = y_1, \dots, \mathcal{Y}_{i-1} = y_{i-1}$ is statistically close to the uniform distribution over \mathbb{Z}_p . A standard hybrid argument implies the claim about the joint distribution of $\mathcal{Y}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Y}_\ell$.

Recall that \mathcal{X} is a source of min-entropy k . Lemma 2.1 guarantees that with an overwhelming probability over the choice of $(y_1, \dots, y_{i-1}) \leftarrow (\mathcal{Y}_1, \dots, \mathcal{Y}_{i-1})$, the min-entropy of \mathcal{X} conditioned on $\mathcal{Y}_1 = y_1, \dots, \mathcal{Y}_{i-1} = y_{i-1}$ is at least $k' \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} k - (i-1) \log p - \omega(\log \lambda)$ (intuitively, the values y_1, \dots, y_{i-1} reduced the min-entropy of the k -source \mathcal{X} by essentially no more than $(i-1) \log p$ bits). Note that since $i \leq \ell$ and $\ell = \lfloor k/(2 \log p) \rfloor$, it holds that

$$\begin{aligned} k' &= k - (i-1) \log p - \omega(\log \lambda) \\ &\geq k - (\ell-1) \log p - \omega(\log \lambda) \\ &\geq k - \ell \log p \\ &\geq k/2. \end{aligned}$$

Consider the evaluation of $y_i = \langle \tilde{A}^{(i)}, x \rangle$, where $\tilde{A}^{(i)}$ is the i th row of \tilde{A} . By construction, $\tilde{A}^{(i)} = d_i(R^{(i)} + D_1^{(i)})^\top$, where d_i is a pseudodiagonal element of D_2 . Let S be the set indices of the t nonzero entries of $R^{(i)}$ (the i th row of R). By Lemma 2.2, the projection

of \mathcal{X} onto S , denoted as \mathcal{X}_S , is $2^{-\Omega(\delta t / \log(1/\delta))}$ -close to a $\delta t/4$ -source over t bits, where $\delta = k'/n$. Note that since $k' \geq k/2$ and $t = \lceil \frac{n}{k} \cdot 16 \log p \rceil$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\delta t}{4} &= \frac{k' t}{4n} \\ &\geq \frac{kt}{8n} \\ &\geq 2 \log p. \end{aligned}$$

The action of $\tilde{A}_S^{(i)}$ on \mathcal{X}_S is statistically close to the scalar product of a $\delta t/4$ -source with a uniform vector (we account for the entries of $\tilde{A}_S^{(i)}$ being nonzero by adding another t/p term to the statistical distance), which is a universal hash function from $\{0, 1\}^t$ to \mathbb{Z}_p . By the leftover hash lemma⁸, since $\delta t/4 \geq 2 \log p$, the statistical distance between \mathcal{Y}_i and the uniform distribution over \mathbb{Z}_p given S, y_1, \dots, y_{i-1} is negligible. \square

Lemma 5.8. (*Indistinguishability*) *Under the Decisional Diffie–Hellman assumption, the distributions $\{pk : (pk, sk) \leftarrow \mathbf{KG}_{\text{Inj}}(1^\lambda)\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{pk : pk \leftarrow \mathbf{KG}_{\text{Smooth}}(1^\lambda)\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ are computationally indistinguishable.*

Proof of Lemma 5.8. Consider a sample from the distribution $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}$. It is obtained by sampling a sparse $\ell \times n$ matrix (from the distribution $\mathcal{R}_{n,k,p} + \mathcal{D}_{n,k,p}$), and then replicating every row of this matrix n/ℓ times multiplying it with a random nonzero field element each time. The distribution $\mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}$ is sampled by drawing a matrix from $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}$ and re-sampling all its nonzero elements. Therefore, matrix minors defined as all nonzero elements of rows congruent modulo ℓ have rank 1 if the matrix is drawn from $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}$ and rank n/ℓ if it comes from $\mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}$. We use this observation together with the matrix-DDH assumption (which is implied by the decisional Diffie–Hellman assumption—see Sect. 2.3) to prove the lemma.

Consider hybrid distributions $\mathcal{H}_0, \dots, \mathcal{H}_\ell$, where $\mathcal{H}_0 = g^{\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}}$ and $\mathcal{H}_\ell = g^{\mathcal{A}_{n,k,p}}$. Each intermediate distribution \mathcal{H}_i is obtained by drawing a matrix from $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_{n,k,p}$ and re-sampling all rows congruent to an element of the set $\{0, \dots, i-1\}$ modulo ℓ (if $i=0$, no rows are re-sampled).

The difference between \mathcal{H}_i and \mathcal{H}_{i+1} is in the distribution of rows congruent to i modulo ℓ . We now change the procedure for sampling from \mathcal{H}_i and \mathcal{H}_{i+1} by embedding an instance of the matrix-DDH problem. Draw a matrix from \mathcal{H}_i . Let the number of entries not equal to g^0 in the i th row be r . Sample a random rank-1 matrix A from $\mathbb{Z}_p^{n/\ell \times r}$. Replace the minor of \mathcal{H}_i corresponding to the entries not equal to 1 in the rows congruent to i modulo ℓ with g^A . Analogously, change the distribution \mathcal{H}_{i+1} by replacing the similarly defined minor with the matrix g^B , where B is a random n/ℓ -rank matrix of size $n/\ell \times r$. It is easy to check that except with probability $O(n^2/p)$ (to account for

⁸Recall that a collection \mathcal{H} of functions $H : U \rightarrow V$ is *universal* if for any $x_1, x_2 \in U$ such that $x_1 \neq x_2$ it holds that $\Pr_{H \leftarrow \mathcal{H}}[H(x_1) = H(x_2)] = 1/|V|$. The leftover hash lemma [22] states that for any k -source \mathcal{X} over U with $k \geq \log |V| + 2 \log(1/\epsilon) + \Theta(1)$, it holds that the distribution $(H, H(\mathcal{X}))$, where $H \leftarrow \mathcal{H}$, is ϵ -close to the uniform distribution over $\mathcal{H} \times V$.

a possibility of zero elements in A or B) the new sampling procedures do not change the distributions \mathcal{H}_i and \mathcal{H}_{i+1} .

By the matrix-DDH assumption, the resulting distributions are computationally indistinguishable. Applying the hybrid argument to the sequence $\mathcal{H}_0, \dots, \mathcal{H}_\ell$, we complete the proof.

From the properties of injectivity (Lemma 5.6), smoothness (Lemma 5.7), and indistinguishability (Lemma 5.8) the claim of Theorem 5.5 follows. \square

6. The Lower Bound

In this section, we prove a lower bound on the incrementality of deterministic public-key encryption schemes (the reader is referred to Definition 3.1 for our notion of incrementality). In what follows we state our lower bound, provide a high-level overview of its proof, and then provide its formal proof.

Theorem 6.1. *Let $n = n(\lambda)$, $t = t(\lambda)$, $k = k(\lambda)$, and $\Delta = \Delta(\lambda)$ be functions of the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $\Pi = (\text{KG}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be a deterministic public-key encryption scheme with plaintext space $\{0, 1\}^n$ and ciphertext space $\{0, 1\}^t$. If Π is Δ -incremental and PRIV1-IND-secure for k -sources, then $\Delta \geq \frac{n-3}{k \log t}$.*

Proof overview Our definition of incrementality implies the following simple fact for any Δ -incremental scheme: With an overwhelming probability over the choice of the public key, for any two plaintexts that differ in exactly one position, their corresponding ciphertexts differ in at most Δ positions. This follows directly from combining the correctness requirement and input locality requirement in Definition 3.1.

Given a public key for which the above holds, consider now the encryption of the n -bit messages m_0 and m_1 sampled as $m_0 \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_k || 0^{n-k}$ and $m_1 \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_n$. That is, m_0 is distributed uniformly conditioned on ending with 0^{n-k} , and m_1 is distributed uniformly. We claim that if Δ is smaller than roughly $n/(k \log t)$, then it is quite simple to distinguish the encryptions of these two messages. Since the messages m_0 and 0^n differ in at most k positions, then their encryptions differ in at most $k\Delta$ positions. However, using a simple counting argument we show that this is not the case for m_1 . This translates into an adversary against the PRIV1-IND security of the scheme, where the advantage of this adversary yields a lower bound on the incrementality Δ .

Proof of Theorem 6.1. Assuming that Π is a Δ -incremental scheme, Definition 3.1 implies that there exists a negligible function $\epsilon = \epsilon(\lambda)$ and a sequence of sets $\{\mathcal{P}_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ of public keys such that the following two properties hold:

1. For all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ it holds that $\Pr_{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KG}(1^\lambda)}[pk \in \mathcal{P}_\lambda] > 1 - \epsilon(\lambda)$.
2. For all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $pk \in \mathcal{P}_\lambda$, and $m, m' \in \{0, 1\}^n$, if m and m' differ on at most one position then the ciphertexts $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m)$ and $c' = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m')$ differ on at most Δ positions.

Consider the adversary $A = (A_1, A_2)$ that is defined as follows. The algorithm A_1 on input 1^λ outputs (m_0, m_1, state) where $m_0 \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_k || 0^{n-k}$ and $m_1 \leftarrow \mathcal{U}_n$ are sampled independently at random, and $\text{state} = \perp$. That is, m_0 is distributed uniformly conditioned on ending with 0^{n-k} , and m_1 is distributed uniformly. The algorithm A_2 on input a public key pk and a ciphertext $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m_b)$ first computes $c^* = \text{Enc}_{pk}(0^n)$. Then, if the Hamming distance between c and c^* is at most $k\Delta$ then it outputs 0, and otherwise it outputs 1. We now analyze the advantage of A by considering the cases $b = 0$ and $b = 1$.

The case $b = 0$ The Hamming distance between m_0 and 0^n is at most k , and therefore for any $pk \in \mathcal{P}_\lambda$ the Hamming distance between $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m_0)$ and $c^* = \text{Enc}_{pk}(0^n)$ is at most $k\Delta$. Thus, for any $pk \in \mathcal{P}_\lambda$ the adversary A will always output 0. This implies that for all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ it holds that

$$\Pr\left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(0) = 1\right] \leq \Pr_{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KG}(1^\lambda)}[pk \notin \mathcal{P}_\lambda] < \epsilon. \quad (6.1)$$

The case $b = 1$ In this case we prove an upper bound on the probability that the Hamming distance between $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m_1)$ and $c^* = \text{Enc}_{pk}(0^n)$ is at most $k\Delta$. The encryption algorithm outputs t -bit ciphertexts, and note that the number of t -bit strings that are within Hamming distance $k\Delta$ to c^* is at most

$$2^{k\Delta} \binom{t}{k\Delta} \leq (2t)^{k\Delta}.$$

As a result, the number of n -bit plaintexts whose ciphertext under pk is within Hamming distance $k\Delta$ to c^* is also at most $(2t)^{k\Delta}$. The plaintext m_1 is sampled uniformly at random from $\{0, 1\}^n$, and therefore

$$\Pr\left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(1) = 1\right] \geq 1 - \frac{(2t)^{k\Delta}}{2^n}. \quad (6.2)$$

By combining Eqs. (6.1) and (6.2), for all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ it holds that

$$\text{Adv}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}} = \left| \Pr\left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(0) = 1\right] - \Pr\left[\text{Expt}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}(1) = 1\right] \right| > 1 - \epsilon - \frac{(2t)^{k\Delta}}{2^n}.$$

The PRIV1-IND security of the scheme guarantees that there is a negligible function $\nu = \nu(\lambda)$ such that $\nu \geq \text{Adv}_{\Pi, A, \lambda}^{\text{PRIV1-IND}}$ for all sufficiently large $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \nu &\geq 1 - \epsilon - \frac{(2t)^{k\Delta}}{2^n} \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2} - \frac{(2t)^{k\Delta}}{2^n}, \end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$\Delta \geq \frac{n-3}{k \log t}. \quad \square$$

Acknowledgements

We thank Salil Vadhan for useful discussions regarding Lemma 2.2 and the anonymous reviewers for many useful comments.

References

- [1] M. Abadi, D. Boneh, I. Mironov, A. Raghunathan, and G. Segev. Message-locked encryption for lock-dependent messages. In *Advances in Cryptology—CRYPTO '13*, pp. 374–391, 2013.
- [2] B. Applebaum, Y. Ishai, and E. Kushilevitz. Cryptography in NC^0 . *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 36(4):845–888, 2006.
- [3] M. Bellare, Z. Brakerski, M. Naor, T. Ristenpart, G. Segev, H. Shacham, and S. Yilek. Hedged public-key encryption: how to protect against bad randomness. In *Advances in Cryptology—ASIACRYPT '09*, pp. 232–249, 2009.
- [4] M. Bellare, A. Boldyreva, and A. O’Neill. Deterministic and efficiently searchable encryption. In *Advances in Cryptology—CRYPTO '07*, pp. 535–552, 2007.
- [5] M. Bellare, M. Fischlin, A. O’Neill, and T. Ristenpart. Deterministic encryption: definitional equivalences and constructions without random oracles. In *Advances in Cryptology—CRYPTO '08*, pp. 360–378, 2008.
- [6] A. Boldyreva, S. Fehr, and A. O’Neill. On notions of security for deterministic encryption, and efficient constructions without random oracles. In *Advances in Cryptology—CRYPTO '08*, pp. 335–359, 2008.
- [7] M. Bellare, O. Goldreich, and S. Goldwasser. Incremental cryptography: the case of hashing and signing. In *Advances in Cryptology—CRYPTO '94*, pp. 216–233, 1994.
- [8] M. Bellare, O. Goldreich, and S. Goldwasser. Incremental cryptography and application to virus protection. In *Proceedings of the 27th Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing*, pp. 45–56, 1995.
- [9] D. Boneh, S. Halevi, M. Hamburg, and R. Ostrovsky. Circular-secure encryption from Decision Diffie–Hellman. In *Advances in Cryptology—CRYPTO '08*, pp. 108–125, 2008.
- [10] M. Bellare, S. Keelveedhi, and T. Ristenpart. Message-locked encryption and secure deduplication. In *Advances in Cryptology—EUROCRYPT '13*, pp. 296–312, 2013.
- [11] E. Buonanno, J. Katz, and M. Yung. Incremental unforgeable encryption. In *Proceedings of the 8th International Workshop on Fast Software Encryption*, pp. 109–124, 2001.
- [12] M. Bellare and D. Micciancio. A new paradigm for collision-free hashing: Incrementality at reduced cost. In *Advances in Cryptology—EUROCRYPT '97*, pp. 163–192, 1997.
- [13] Z. Brakerski and G. Segev. Better security for deterministic public-key encryption: The auxiliary-input setting. In *Advances in Cryptology—CRYPTO '11*, pp. 543–560, 2011.
- [14] J. R. Douceur, A. Adya, W. J. Bolosky, D. Simon, and M. Theimer. Reclaiming space from duplicate files in a serverless distributed file system. In *Proceedings of the 22nd International Conference on Distributed Computing Systems*, pp. 617–624, 2002.
- [15] Y. Dodis, R. Ostrovsky, L. Reyzin, and A. Smith. Fuzzy extractors: How to generate strong keys from biometrics and other noisy data. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 38(1):97–139, 2008.
- [16] Y. Dodis and A. Smith. Entropic security and the encryption of high entropy messages. In *Proceedings of the 2nd Theory of Cryptography Conference*, pp. 556–577, 2005.
- [17] D. M. Freeman, O. Goldreich, E. Kiltz, A. Rosen, and G. Segev. More constructions of lossy and correlation-secure trapdoor functions. *Journal of Cryptology*, 26(1):39–74, 2013.
- [18] M. Fischlin. Incremental cryptography and memory checkers. In *Advances in Cryptology—EUROCRYPT '97*, pp. 293–408, 1997.

- [19] M. Fischlin. Lower bounds for the signature size of incremental schemes. In *Proceedings of the 38th Annual IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science*, pp. 438–447, 1997.
- [20] B. Fuller, A. O’Neill, and L. Reyzin. A unified approach to deterministic encryption: new constructions and a connection to computational entropy. In *Proceedings of the 9th Theory of Cryptography Conference*, pp. 582–599, 2012.
- [21] S. Goldwasser and S. Micali. Probabilistic encryption. *Journal of Computer and System Sciences*, 28(2):270–299, 1984.
- [22] J. Håstad, R. Impagliazzo, L. A. Levin, and M. Luby. A pseudorandom generator from any one-way function. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 28(4):1364–1396, 1999.
- [23] D. Micciancio. Oblivious data structures: applications to cryptography. In *Proceedings of the 29th Annual ACM Symposium on the Theory of Computing*, pp. 456–464, 1997.
- [24] M. Naor and G. Segev. Public-key cryptosystems resilient to key leakage. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 41(4):772–814, 2012.
- [25] N. Nisan and D. Zuckerman. Randomness is linear in space. *Journal of Computer and System Sciences*, 52(1):43–52, 1996.
- [26] C. Peikert and B. Waters. Lossy trapdoor functions and their applications. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 40(6):1803–1844, 2011.
- [27] A. Raghunathan, G. Segev, and S. Vadhan. Deterministic public-key encryption for adaptively chosen plaintext distributions. In *Advances in Cryptology—EUROCRYPT ’13*, pp. 93–110, 2013.
- [28] A. Russell and H. Wang. How to fool an unbounded adversary with a short key. *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 52(3):1130–1140, 2006.
- [29] S. P. Vadhan. Constructing locally computable extractors and cryptosystems in the bounded-storage model. *Journal of Cryptology*, 17(1):43–77, 2004.
- [30] H. Wee. Dual projective hashing and its applications—lossy trapdoor functions and more. In *Advances in Cryptology—EUROCRYPT ’12*, pp. 246–262, 2012.