

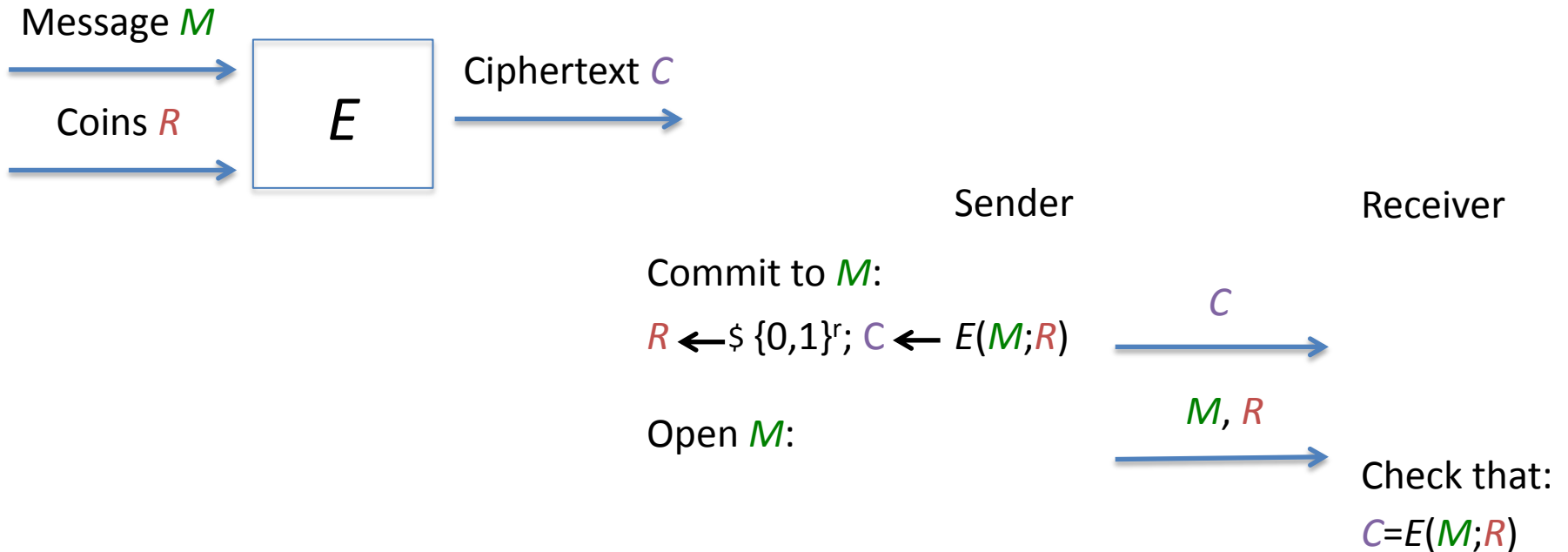
Standard Security Does Not Imply Security Against Selective-Opening

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Commitment Schemes



Hiding: It is computationally infeasible for the receiver given C to learn anything more about M than it knows a priori. Formalized via semantic security.

Binding: It is computationally infeasible for the sender to find M, M', R, R' such that: $E(M;R) = E(M';R')$ and $M \neq M'$.

We will call a commitment scheme **HB-secure** if it satisfies these properties.

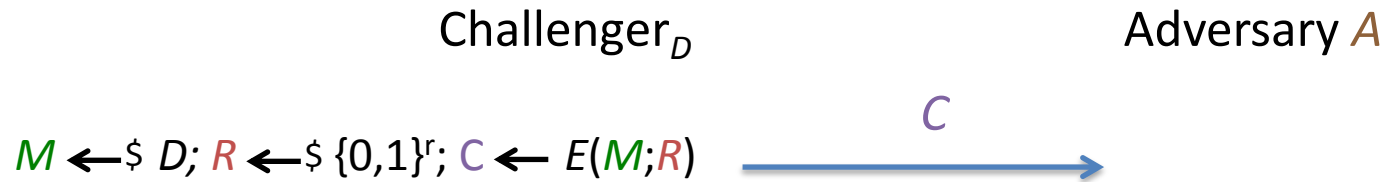
Examples of Commitment Schemes

Commitment Schemes are basic and widely used tools, for example for ZK and other protocols. There are many constructions, for example:

- Let g, h be generators of a prime order group G and let $E(M; R) = g^M h^R$ [Ped91].
- Let H be a CR hash function and Ext a strong randomness extractor and let

$$E(M; R_1 || R_2) = (H(R_2), R_1, Ext(R_1, R_2) \oplus M).$$

Hiding



Security means *A* cannot figure out anything about *M*. More precisely, anything more than that *M* is distributed according to *D*. Should hold for all *D* and is formalized by asking that a simulator denied *C* does as well as *A*.

Notation

M , R , C denote vectors.

$M = (M[1], \dots, M[n])$ is a vector of messages drawn from a distribution D .

$R = (R[1], \dots, R[n])$ is a vector of independently distributed random strings.

Let $E(M; R) = (E(M[1]; R[1]), \dots, E(M[n]; R[n]))$.

$C = (C[1], \dots, C[n]) = E(M; R)$ is a vector of commitments.

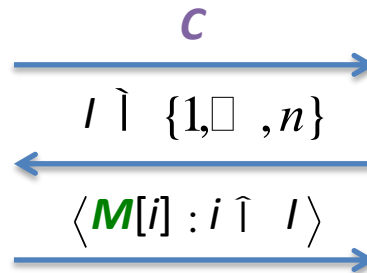
SOA-M

Challenger_D

$M \leftarrow \$ D$

$R \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^n; C \leftarrow E(M;R)$

Adversary A



Security means A cannot figure out anything about $\langle M[i] : i \notin I \rangle$.

Q: If E is HB-secure then is it SOA-M secure?

A: YES.

The proof crucially exploits that A is not given a proof of correct opening.

This version of SOA is called **SOA-M** and is not the one where difficulties arise.

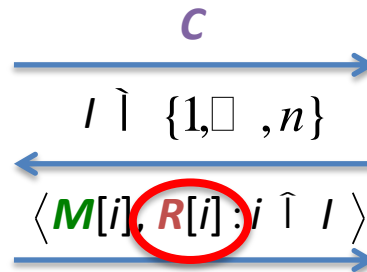
SOA-C

Challenger_D

$M \leftarrow \$ D$

$R \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^n; C \leftarrow E(M;R)$

Adversary A



Security means A cannot figure out anything about $\langle M[i] : i \notin I \rangle$

Q: If E is HB-secure then is it SOA-C secure?

A: OPEN

- No proof that HB-security implies SOA-C security.
- No counter-example scheme E that is HB-secure but not SOA-C secure.

Our Results

There exists an HB-secure commitment scheme that is not SOA-C secure.

This answers the long-standing open question. But perhaps the counter-example is artificial. What about “real” schemes?

Stronger: **Every** HB-secure commitment scheme is SOA-C insecure.

In particular the example schemes we gave earlier are not SOA-C secure.

Given **any** HB-secure scheme we present an attack breaking SOA-C security.

We also show that there exist IND-CPA PKE schemes that are not SOA-C or SOA-K secure, including “real” schemes.

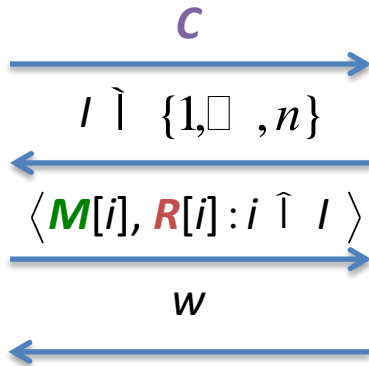
SOA-C Security

We use the simulation-style definition of SOA-C security introduced by Dwork, Naor, Reingold and Stockmeyer [DNR03].

$M \leftarrow \$ D$

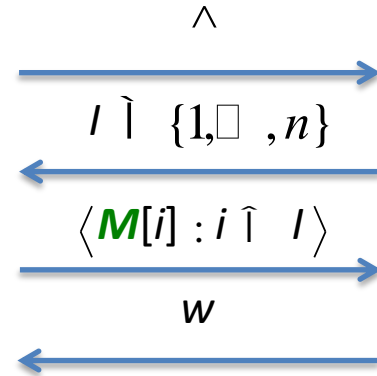
$R \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^{rn}$

$C \leftarrow E(M;R)$



A wins if $Rel(w, M, l) = 1$.

$M \leftarrow \$ D$



S wins if $Rel(w, M, l) = 1$.

$$Adv_{E,A,S} = \Pr[A \text{ wins}] - \Pr[S \text{ wins}]$$

E is SOA-C secure if for every PT adversary A there exists a PT simulator S such that $Adv_{E,A,S}$ is negligible in the security parameter.

Our Result for Commitment

Theorem: Assume CR hash functions exist. Let E be **any binding** commitment scheme. Then there is a PT message distribution D , a PT relation Rel and a PT adversary A such that for **every** PT simulator S we have:

$$Adv_{E,A,S}(\lambda) \geq 1 - \text{negl}(\lambda)$$

Furthermore the messages output by D are **uniformly and independently** distributed.

Thus we constructed D, Rel such that we can prove there does not exist a efficient simulator, meaning A is a successful attack.

We do **not** assume simulation is black-box.

History

SOA-C security for commitment was first defined and considered by Dwork, Naor, Reingold and Stockmeyer [DNRS03].

Hofheinz [Hof11] shows blackbox negative results which indicate it is hard to prove the existence of a SOA-C secure commitment using a blackbox reduction to a standard assumption. This does not say such a scheme doesn't exist. Potentially a scheme could be proved secure using a non-blackbox reduction or under non-standard assumptions.

Our results are not about the difficulty of proofs or reductions for SOA-C. They are attacks showing secure schemes don't exist.

Implications

Our results in particular mean that

$$E(M;R)=g^M h^R$$

is not SOA-C if the discrete log problem is hard. Same for other commitment schemes.

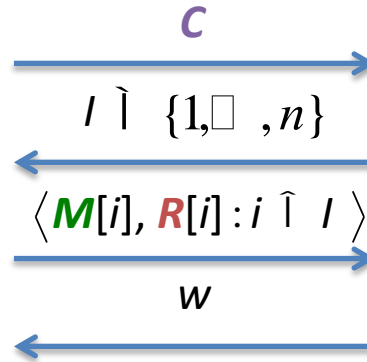
Distribution of Messages

Challenger \mathcal{D}, Rel

$M \leftarrow \$ D$

$R \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^n; C \leftarrow E(M;R)$

Adversary A



A wins if $\text{Rel}(w, M, I) = 1$.

It had been thought that the difficulty in achieving SOA-C was due to the possibility that the messages could be related to each other, but in our attack they are independently and uniformly distributed.

[DNRS03] show that hiding implies SOA-C for independent messages for a restricted version of their main definition where $\text{Rel}(w, M, I) = (f(M) = w)$ for some function f . Our result implies that this will not extend to their full definition.

No contradiction!

RO-model

SOA-C secure commitment is achievable in the programmable ROM:
 $E^H(M;R)=H(R || M)$.

Our results show it is impossible in standard and NPRROM models.

Previous separation results:

Nielsen [Nie02] showed that non-committing encryption can be **efficiently** realized in programmable ROM, but not in standard and NPRROM models.

Our separation result is about **feasibility**, not efficiency.

Dodis, Katz, Smith and Walfish [DKSW09] obtained a (feasibility) separation result for deniable authentication.

Extensions

The definition of SOA-C we have used is for one-shot adversaries and simulators. Our results extend to the case of adaptive (adversaries and) simulators assuming the messages have super logarithmic length.

Idea of the Proof

Let $H: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^h$ be a CR hash function. The challenger chooses $n=2h$ uniformly and independently distributed messages.

Challenger D, Rel

$M \leftarrow \$ D$

$R \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^{rn}; C \leftarrow E(M; R)$

Adversary A

$b[1] \dots b[h] \leftarrow H(C)$

C

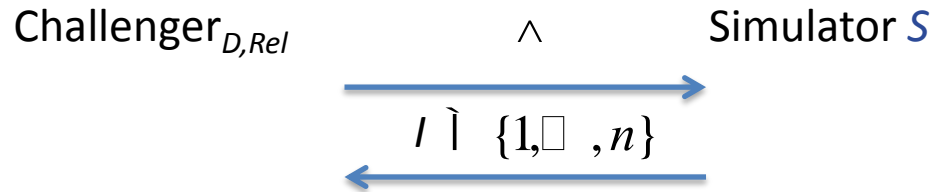
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- The adversary corrupts h out of the n senders.
- Whether sender $2i-1$ or $2i$ is corrupted depends on the value of $b[i]$
- The set of corrupted senders is basically an encoding of the hash output.

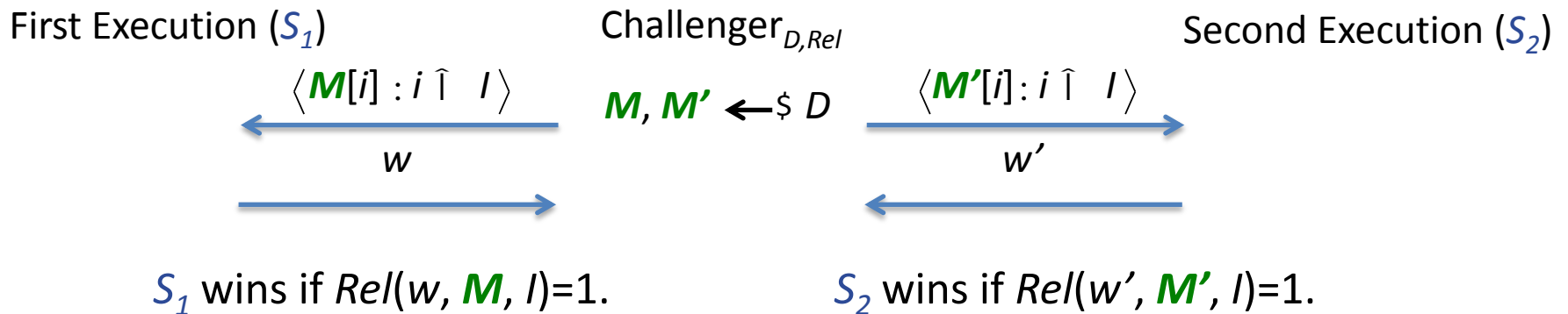
- Hash constraint: Does the set of corrupted senders correspond to the hash output?
- Opening constraint: Does $C[i] = E(M[i]; R[i])$ for all corrupted senders $i \in I$?

Idea of the Proof

Note that the specified adversary always makes the relation return true.



From this state, run two executions of the simulator (sampling different message vectors).



The probability of winning the game in both executions and having $C \neq C'$ implies a collision in the hash function.

$C = C'$ implies a violation of the binding property.

SOA-C for Encryption

SOA first arose in the context of encryption [CFGN96]. It was noticed that at the heart of the difficulty was the fact that the encryption functions of most encryption schemes are committing.

For encryption, SOA-C security is achievable by building schemes that are not committing. schemes based on lossy encryption [BHY09, BY09, HLOV11] or deniable encryption [FHKW10, BWY11]. The first solutions were based on non-committing encryption [CFGN96], but these have long keys.

But the basic question remained open:

Is every IND-CPA scheme SOA-C secure? No proof or counter-example.

For example, is ElGamal encryption scheme SOA-C secure?

$$E(g^x, M; R) = (g^R, Mg^{xR})$$

No proof or attack.

Our Result for SOA-C Encryption

There exists an encryption scheme that is IND-CPA secure but not SOA-C secure.

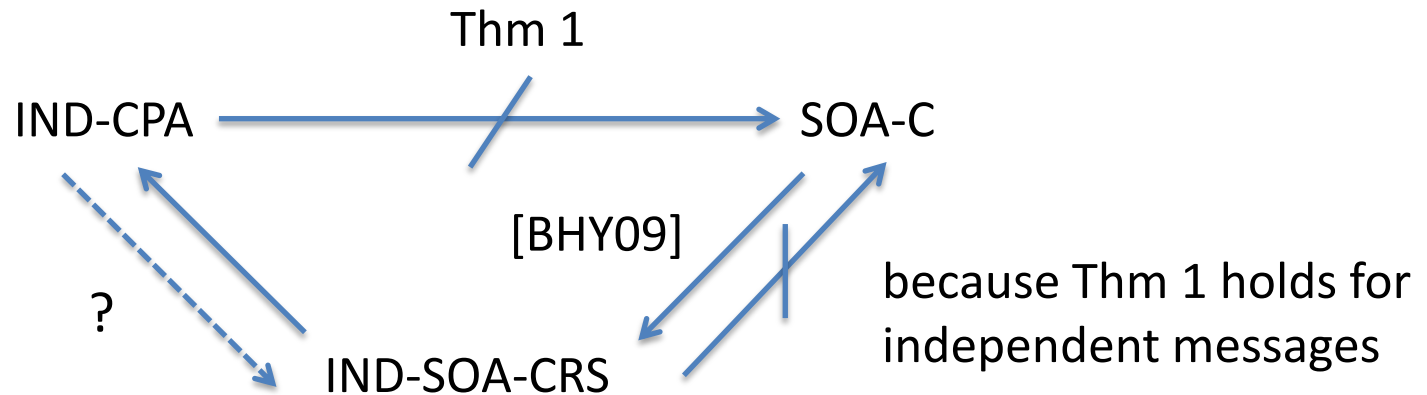
Stronger: **Every** committing encryption scheme is not SOA-C secure.

We give a precise definition of what being committing means for encryption schemes.

This result includes ElGamal and most standard encryption schemes, so our counter-examples are not artificial.

Relation to IND

There exists also an indistinguishability-style definition of SOA-security, denoted IND-SOA-CRS, but it is only defined for efficiently conditionally re-samplable distributions.



In a subsequent work, Böhl, Hofheinz and Kraschewski [BHK12] further clarified the relations between the different notions of SOA-security, but the above question remains open.

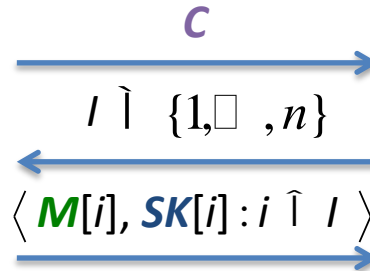
Our Result for SOA-K Encryption

Challenger D

$M \leftarrow \$ D; (PK, SK) \leftarrow \$ (KG(\lambda))^n$

$R \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^{rn}; C \leftarrow E(PK, M; R)$

Adversary A

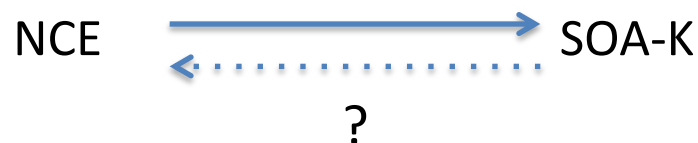


We define the notion of decryption verifiability that is a weak form of robustness [ABN10]. For example, ElGamal encryption scheme is not robust, but it is decryption-verifiable.

Our result for SOA-K secure encryption: **No** decryption-verifiable encryption scheme is SOA-K secure.

Achievability of SOA-K security

Nielsen [Nie02] showed that any PKE scheme achieving non-committing encryption must have long keys.



So conceivably SOA-K can be achieved with short keys. Not ruled out by our above result. But we also show:

Theorem: SOA-K security is impossible with short keys.

Note: this result is not in our abstract/online paper.

Summary

- Every HB-secure commitment scheme is SOA-C insecure.
- Every committing encryption scheme is SOA-C insecure.
- Schemes specifically designed to achieve SOA-C security are really necessary.
- Every decryption-verifiable encryption scheme is SOA-K insecure.
- SOA-K security needs long keys.

Thank you!