Statement-Oblivious Threshold Witness Encryption

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Abstract—The notion of witness encryption introduced by Garg et al. (STOC'13) allows to encrypt a message under a statement x from some NP-language $\mathcal L$ with associated relation $(x,w)\in\mathcal R$, where decryption can be carried out with the corresponding witness w. Unfortunately, known constructions for general-purpose witness encryption rely on strong assumptions, and are mostly of theoretical interest. To address these shortcomings, Goyal et al. (PKC'22) recently introduced a blockchain-based alternative, where a committee decrypts ciphertexts when provided with a valid witness w. Blockchain-based committee solutions have recently gained broad interest to offer security against more powerful adversaries and construct new cryptographic primitives.

We follow this line of work, and propose a new notion of *statement-oblivious* threshold witness encryption. Our new notion offers the functionality of committee-based witness encryption while additionally hiding the statement used for encryption. We present two ways to build statement-oblivious threshold witness encryption, one generic transformation based on anonymous threshold identity-based encryption (A-TIBE) and one direct construction based on bilinear maps. Due to the lack of efficient A-TIBE schemes, the former mainly constitutes a feasibility result, while the latter yields a concretely efficient scheme.

Index Terms—Threshold Witness Encryption, Statement Obliviousness, Committee-Based Decryption, Threshold Tag-Based Encryption

I. Introduction

The notion of witness encryption as introduced by Garg et al. [1] allows a party to encrypt a message m under some problem instance x such that the ciphertext can only be decrypted by someone holding a witness w. There are countless applications of witness encryption ranging from public key encryption with fast key generation, attribute-based encryption for general circuits [1], to using it for encrypting a prize for solving an NP-hard puzzle like the millennium problems, or achieving fairness in MPC [2]. More formally, witness encryption is defined for an NP language $\mathcal L$ with associated relation $(x, w) \in \mathcal{R}$, where x is the statement and w is the corresponding witness. Security as defined by Garg et al. [1] states that for any ciphertext that was created for x not in the language \mathcal{L} , ciphertexts do not reveal information about the encrypted message. While this notion only deals with statements that are not in the language, Goldwasser et al. [3] introduced the notion of extractable witness encryption stating that even for a statement in the language, ciphertexts hide the message.

Although great progress has been made over the last years [1], [3]–[7], witness encryption still has limitations. First,

known constructions rely on strong assumptions like multilinear maps [1], [3], [5], [6], indistinguishability obfuscation [4] or cryptographic invariant maps [7], and its constructions are not practically efficient yet. Second, even the stronger notion of extractable witness encryption does not hide the statement for which the ciphertext was created. This rules out interesting applications that require the statement to be private until decryption takes place, as it may disclose sensitive information.

The first shortcoming of state-of-the-art witness encryption can be circumvented via so-called *extractable Witness Encryption on Blockchains* (eWEB) put forward by Goyal et al. [8]. It is based on a blockchain following a recent trend in cryptography, where constructions leverage the power of blockchains, e.g., [2], [9]–[12]. In the context of witness encryption, this results in a shift from relying on strong number theoretic assumptions to relying on an honest quorum of users within a committee. This trend is further fueled by a line of work that presents constructions of how such committees can be obtained in a blockchain setting [10], [13], [14].

In a nutshell, the scheme of [8] works as follows. Parties encrypt a message by secret sharing it to a committee and labeling the shares with a statement x. To decrypt, parties need to send a witness to the committee proving that xis in the language \mathcal{L} and getting the secret shares back. While the construction of Goyal et al. is certainly more efficient than standard general-purpose witness encryption, the downside of their solution is the storage complexity of the committee, which grows linearly with the number of ciphertexts. Improving on the approach of [8], [9] propose as an application for their large-scale non-interactive threshold cryptosystem a solution, in which the decryption committee stores only secret key shares of a labeled threshold encryption scheme. The committee receives ciphertext-witness-pairs and decrypts only if the witness corresponds to the statement encoded as the label of the ciphertext. This reduces the storage complexity to be only constant. Following [8], [9], Campanelli et al. [10] presents a similar construction called Blockchain Witness Encryption (BWE). However, their construction is not practical (e.g., for each encryption a smart contract deployment is required).

In this work, we start with the approach of [9], which we abstractly call *threshold witness encryption*, and address the second shortcoming by a new feature called *statement*

obliviousness, which guarantees that the statement is hidden given the ciphertext. This new feature allows us to extend applications of standard (threshold) witness encryption with an additional privacy property. For instance, we can construct time-lock encryption from witness encryption, as proposed by [6], without leaking the concrete time at which a decryption can happen to third parties, or we can construct a dead-man's switch, as proposed by [8], without revealing for which person it was created. Moreover, this feature enables a new class of applications that inherently require the privacy property and are not covered by standard witness encryption. As a concrete example, imagine a user wants to buy some shares of a company or some tokens on a Decentralized Finance (DeFi) trading platform, once the price of the asset reaches a certain value; however, without the necessity of having to stay online. Privacy is an important aspect in this scenario, since revealing information, e.g., the intended purchase price, could lead to financial disadvantages, e.g., due to insider trading. To support the described scenario, the user can exploit statementoblivious threshold witness encryption in the following way. The user encrypts its transaction with the desired share price as statement and a signature of a trusted price oracle service as the required witnesses. Trusted price oracles are already available in the DeFi ecosystem and heavily used for building various financial products. The ciphertext is sent to the user's broker who repeatedly requests the signed current share price from the oracle service, attempts decryption, and, if this gives a valid transaction, executes the trade. For decrypting, the broker sends the ciphertext together with the current share price to the decryption committee. As the statement is hidden, no one, not even the oracle service, learns the desired share price until the transaction is successfully decrypted. Due to the required signature of the oracle service, the broker cannot send incorrect share prices to the decryption committee. We provide more details about use-cases of our new security feature in Section IX.

While [8] and [9] tackled the first limitation and present more efficient constructions that are effectively the same as witness encryption, both schemes still suffer from the fact that the statement is public. In this work, we address the privacy feature mentioned above. To this end, we introduce a novel notion that we call *statement-oblivious threshold witness encryption (SO-TWE)* and show how to instantiate it.

A. Contribution

We start by giving a summary of our contribution and defer an high-level overview of our constructions as well as a discussion of the technical challenges to the technical overview.

1) Primitive definition: We introduce the notion of statement-oblivious threshold witness encryption (SO-TWE). This primitive provides effectively the same functionality as witness encryption while requiring a committee with a fixed number of corrupted parties as typically done in threshold cryptography. As we envision the committee to perform decryption on request, we define a security notion against

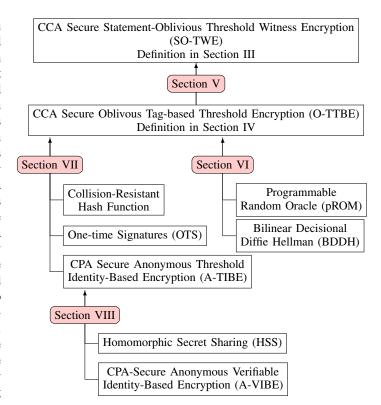


Fig. 1. The Landscape of Our Contributions.

chosen-ciphertext attacks (CCA) which is at least as strong as the notion of extractability for threshold witness encryption. In addition, the *statement-obliviousness* property guarantees that the statement used to generate a ciphertext is hidden. We provide a formal security game combining the CCA security with our new statement-obliviousness property.

We do not follow up on the existing notions of extractable Witness Encryption on Blockchains, proposed by [8], or Blockchain Witness Encryption, proposed by [10], as both notions are tied to the blockchain setting. We take a more general approach by using the committee to achieve witness encryption without defining the origin of the committee. In contrast to earlier works, however, our notion considers only static corruptions.

2) Instantiating SO-TWE: We show how to instantiate SO-TWE via a series of transformations, as depicted in Figure 1. For all constructions and transformations, we provide formal security proofs. As a first step, we introduce the notion of oblivious threshold tag-based encryption (O-TTBE) as an extension of standard threshold tag-based encryption as presented in [15]. Similar to statement-obliviousness, obliviousness in this context ensures that the tag used for encryption is hidden. Then, we present a general transformation from CCA secure O-TTBE to CCA secure SO-TWE.

As a second step, we show two ways to construct CCA secure O-TTBE schemes. First, we generically build a O-TTBE scheme from collision-resistant hash functions, one-time signatures and CPA secure anonymous threshold identity-based encryption (A-TIBE). To the best of our knowledge, there are

constructions for anonymous identity-based encryption [16], [17] and threshold identity-based encryption [18], but there is no construction of an A-TIBE scheme. The techniques used for anonymous IBE do not allow for a straightfoward thresholdization via secret sharing while maintaining a high threshold and non-interactive decryption at the same time. As a feasibility result, we show how to instantiate A-TIBE from non-threshold anonymous identity-based encryption, a signature scheme and homomorphic secret sharing (HSS). This transformation follows [10] which constructs non-anonymous threshold identity-based encryption from HSS. While proving the security of our construction, we discovered a gap in the analysis of [10]. In particular, the construction in [10] allows corrupted parties to trick honest parties into accepting invalid identity keys, and hence, does not provide key generation consistency. We propose a solution to fix this gap. While the A-TIBE-based construction constitutes a feasibility result, we emphasize that any progress in constructing these building blocks, e.g., in terms of efficiency, immediately yields more efficient constructions of SO-TWE.

As a second way, we present a concretely efficient instantiation of O-TTBE in the random oracle model. Our construction extends Hash-ElGamal with a bilinear mapping and efficient non-interactive zero knowledge arguments. The resulting scheme is concretely efficient in terms of ciphertext size and bilinear mapping evaluations. The construction also yields the first efficient threshold witness encryption scheme that additionally achieves statement obliviousness. This is because our generic transformation from O-TTBE to SO-TWE only adds simple hash function evaluations and a check of the witness relation. We formally prove the security of this construction via a reduction to the *Decision Bilinear Diffie-Hellman assumption*.

B. Technical Overview

In this section, we outline the main techniques used to construct SO-TWE and discuss the major challenges.

Emulation of the witness encryption functionality. We consider the setup of a SO-TWE scheme to be executed by a trusted dealer or via a distributed key generation protocol. During the setup, the public key and the verification key are published while the secret key shares are distributed to the committee members. It is assumed that an adversary can statically corrupt a subset of the committee members. We allow the adversary to corrupt all but one committee member. Upon corruption the adversary takes full control over the committee members, and hence, learns their secret key shares. Users can encrypt messages non-interactively based on the public key and a selfchosen statement. Decryption is performed in an interactive way via a request-response protocol. To this end, a user sends the ciphertext, a statement candidate and a witness to the committee. All committee members compute and send their decryption shares to the user, who attempts to combine the shares to the actual message. This will only be successful if it receives sufficiently many valid decryption shares and the witness relation has been verified successfully. Further, the

statement-obliviousness property provides that the combined shares will only yield the original plaintext if the statement candidate used for the decryption is the same as the one used for encryption. While emulating the functionality of witness encryption using a committee-based approach seems to be easy at first glance, achieving statement obliviousness in combination with CCA security is highly non-trivial, as discussed next.

Achieving obliviousness in the CCA-setting. Due to the committee setting in which decryption is executed on request, we require security against chosen-ciphertext attacks (CCA). The major challenge is to simultaneously guarantee CCA security and achieve our new notion of statement obliviousness. A common technique to achieve CCA security in the threshold setting is to incorporate ciphertext validation before decryption [18]–[22]. The validation ensures that each decryption request issued by the adversary in the security game is either declined or yields exactly the original plaintext created by some user. This feature is required by the security proofs of known CCA secure threshold constructions, e.g., to prevent the adversary from exploiting homomorphisms in the group structure to decrypt valid ciphertexts that contain related messages. The difficulty in our setting is that the decryption committee may not know the statement used for encryption. In fact, the information if the correct statement has been used for decryption must not be leaked before decryption is completed. Any such leakage would allow corrupted servers to break the obliviousness property. It follows that we have to allow for multiple decryptions, with different statements, of the same ciphertext, and hence, cannot follow the standard approach of previous work. The described scenario makes it highly challenging to achieve obliviousness in combination with CCA security in the threshold setting. In particular, the challenge is to render decryptions useless for statements different than the one used for encryption despite applying the correct secret key shares when generating the decryption shares. Prior CCA-secure encryption schemes apply the secret key (shares) during decryption only after ensuring that the resulting (combined) decryption yields exactly the original message. Hence, we cannot use existing approaches to solve the described challenge.

SO-TWE from oblivious threshold tag-based encryption (cf. Section V). As a first step towards SO-TWE, we present a transformation from a primitive called oblivious threshold tag-based encryption (O-TTBE). To this end, we first extend the standard notion of threshold tag-based encryption presented by Arita and Tsurudome [15] with an obliviousness property. Similar to statement-obliviousness, obliviousness for a tag-based encryption scheme requires that two ciphertexts created with different tags cannot be distinguished.

Our first transformation takes a CCA secure O-TTBE scheme in order to construct SO-TWE. The high-level idea is to use the hash of the statement as a tag for the O-TTBE scheme. For decryption, a user needs to provide a statement candidate together with a corresponding witness. The decryption servers first check if the witness is valid and

then use the hash of the provided statement candidate as the tag in the decryption of the O-TTBE scheme. The statement-obliviousness property is directly obtained from the obliviousness property of the O-TTBE scheme but constructing CCA secure O-TTBE still faces the challenges explained above. As depicted in Figure 1, we follow two different paths to overcome these challenges and to construct CCA secure O-TTBE as described below.

O-TTBE from programmable random oracles and bilinear maps (cf. Section VI). In general, independently of the obliviousness setting, the major difficulty when proving CCA security is to answer decryption queries without knowledge of the secret key. When instantiating O-TTBE from blackbox primitives, this task is realized by using oracles of the underlying primitive in the reduction. For example, in our transformation from O-TTBE to SO-TWE the reduction to O-TTBE uses the decryption oracle of the O-TTBE security game to answer decryption queries of the SO-TWE adversary. When combining CCA security with an obliviousness property, we additionally face the discussed challenge to answer different decryption queries for the same ciphertext. Here, a random looking value needs to be returned except for the decryption query that contains the tag used for encryption. For a concrete O-TTBE scheme, we need to address both challenges in parallel. Due to the strict ciphertext validation used in existing CCA secure encryptions schemes (e.g., [18]-[22]) extending these schemes to support tag obliviousness cannot be done in a straightforward way.

We propose a new construction starting from CPA secure Hash-ElGamal, which is a variant of classical ElGamal [23]. In Hash-ElGamal, the encryption algorithm given a message m samples a random exponent a and outputs two elements $A = g^a$ and $M = m \oplus H(X^a)$ for a group generator g, a random oracle H, and a public key $X = g^x$. In the threshold setting, the secret key x is secret shared among the decryption servers. The decryption shares of the servers are calculated as $d_i := A^{x_i}$, where x_i is the share of the *i*-th server. We apply an extension to this scheme that allows us to solve both aforementioned challenges at once. We do so by applying a random offset T to A in both, encryption and decryption. This offset is unique for each ciphertext-tag pair to obtain random values from decryption for tags different to the one used for encryption. When applying the offset via multiplication or exponentiation, e.g., $M = m \oplus H(X^{a \cdot T})$, an adversary can easily perform an homomorphic attack, i.e., $A^{x_i \cdot T} = (A^{x_i \cdot T'})^{\frac{T}{T'}}$. In order to prevent this, we apply the offset using a bilinear mapping e, i.e., $M = m \oplus H(e(T, X^a))$.

Further, we ensure that a ciphertext component A cannot be reused in different ciphertexts expect by the party that generated A, and hence, knows the plaintext anyway. We do so, by adding a non-interactive zero-knowledge argument of knowledge of a to the ciphertext. The second ciphertext component, M, is used for computing the challenge value of the non-interactive zero-knowledge argument, in order to link this component to the zero-knowledge argument. In classical ElGamal-based schemes, adding a zero-knowledge argument

of knowledge of a to the ciphertext is not sufficient to achieve CCA security, as demonstrated in detail by [19]. Instead, it is necessary to provide an additional trapdoor to solve the general challenge of CCA security, to answer decryption queries. Interestingly, in our construction, the tag-dependent offset does not only give us tag obliviousness but also provides us with such a trapdoor for free. In particular, in the reduction, we can simulate the random oracle used to compute the offset such that we learn the discrete logarithm of all offsets sampled by the random oracle. This allows us to compute $e(T, X^a)$ via $e(A, X)^{\log_g(T)}$. We elaborate further on the concrete challenges and the intuition of our construction in Section VI before presenting the formal specification.

Despite being the first instantiation of O-TTBE, our construction yields a concretely efficient scheme. The ciphertexts consist of a bitstring with length equal to the message length, a group element of the bilinear mapping's base group and two exponents (in \mathbb{Z}_q , where q is the bilinear group's order). Decryption shares consist of one group element in the mapping's target group and two exponents. Encryption requires a single evaluation and decryption three evaluations of the bilinear map.

O-TTBE from anonymous threshold identity-based encryption (cf. Section VII). While the construction described in the previous paragraph yields an efficient scheme, we also present a generic solution. Boneh et al. [18] show how to achieve CCA security from one-time signatures and CPA secure identitybased encryption. Following this approach, we achieve CCA security in the threshold setting by combining one-time signatures with CPA secure anonymous threshold identity-based encryption (A-TIBE). The anonymity property of the TIBE is utilized to achieve obliviousness of the TTBE scheme. The high-level idea is to encode the tag into the identity of the IBE ciphertext. Since the anonymity property guarantees that no information about the identity can be obtained from the ciphertext, the tag stays hidden as well. Only the decryption with the correct tag, i.e., with the identity key corresponding to the tag, reveals information about the plaintext.

Constructing A-TIBE (cf. Section VIII). As a final step, we explore two directions to obtain anonymous threshold identitybased encryption (A-TIBE). First, we present a black-box construction based on homomorphic secret sharing (HSS). The same approach was used by Campanelli et al. [10] in order to construct threshold IBE without anonymity. When exploring this direction, we discovered a gap in the security analysis of [10]. The construction in [10] does not provide key generation consistency, a security property that enables parties to validate correctness of received identity keys. Without that property, maliciously corrupted committee members can provide arbitrary identity key shares. This may result in an incorrect identity key such that the decryption of some ciphertext yields a different plaintext than the originally encrypted message. As such an attack is not possible in the non-threshold setting, standard IBE does not provide means to validate identity keys. It follows that the straightforward thresholdization of IBE using HSS is not sufficient to provide a secure threshold IBE scheme.

To overcome this problem, we propose a new IBE primitive with an additional verifiability property. Verifiable IBE contains a check if an identity key is computed correctly which may be of independent interest in other settings where malicious security is required. Such a scheme can be built from a standard IBE scheme together with an existentially unforgeable signature scheme. Eventually, we construct anonymous threshold IBE by executing the key generation algorithm of the verifiable IBE scheme within HSS. We provide a formal proof showing security of the construction, including the discussed identity key generation consistency property. We note that in this black-box construction, we need to consider general-purpose HSS like [10].

Finally, we explore the transformation of the concrete anonymous non-threshold IBE scheme of Boyen and Waters [16]. The challenge in this transformation is that the identity key generation requires multiplication of secret values and freshly chosen randomness that needs to remain private. A direct secret sharing of these values pose some challenges which we discuss in the full version of this paper [24]. While general-purpose secure multi-party computation can solve this task, we aim for a threshold IBE scheme that requires no interaction during identity key generation. We point out and discuss two ways how the aforementioned issues can be tackled and leave formal specifications and security analyses of these approaches to future work.

II. PRELIMINARIES

Here, we present the most important primitives. Throughout this work, we denote the security parameter by $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$. We denote the set $\{1,\ldots,k\}$ as [k]. For a negligible function negl: $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$, it holds that for every $c \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n > n_0$: $|\mathrm{negl}(n)| < \frac{1}{n^c}$. For the sake of expressiveness, we often denote a negligible function by negl. We use the abbreviation PPT to denote a probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm.

A. Bilinear Maps

We briefly recall the basics of bilinear maps following [18], [25]. Let BGen be a randomized algorithm that on input a security parameter κ outputs a prime q, such that $\log_2(q) = O(\kappa)$, two cyclic groups of prime order q and a pairing $e: \mathbb{G} \times \mathbb{G} \to \mathbb{G}_T$.

We call e a bilinear map if the following properties hold:

- Bilinearity: For all $u, v \in \mathbb{G}$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_q$, we have $e(u^a, v^b) = e(u, v)^{ab}$.
- Non-degeneracy: For generator g of \mathbb{G} it holds that $e(g,g) \neq 1$. Since \mathbb{G}_T is of prime order q, this implies that e(g,g) is a generator of \mathbb{G}_T .
- Efficiency: e can be computed efficiently in polynomial time in κ.

A bilinear map satisfying the above properties is sometimes called *admissible* bilinear map. We are only interested in admissible bilinear maps and implicitly mean this type of bilinear maps when writing bilinear maps in short. We call

BGen a *Bilinear Group Generator* if the algorithm can be computed efficiently in polynomial time in κ and each pairing e generated by BGen is a bilinear map.

While in the above setting the decisional Diffie-Hellman assumption (DDH) does not hold in group \mathbb{G} , there is an extension to the setting with bilinear maps.

Definition 1 (DBDH). The Decision Bilinear Diffie-Hellman assumption (DBDH) states that for every Bilinear Group Generator BGen and algorithm \mathcal{D} running in time polynomial in security parameter κ it holds that

$$\begin{split} \left| \Pr[\mathcal{D}(\bar{\mathbb{G}}, g, h, g^a, g^b, e(h, g)^{ab})] - \Pr[\mathcal{D}(\bar{\mathbb{G}}, g, h, g^a, g^b, R)] \right| \\ \leq \mathsf{negl}(\kappa) \end{split}$$

where $\bar{\mathbb{G}} = (q, \mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_T, e) \leftarrow_R \mathsf{BGen}(\kappa), \ g, h \in_R \mathbb{G}, \ R \in_R \mathbb{G}_T$, and $a, b, c \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q$. The randomness is taken over the random choices of BGen, the group elements g, h, R, the values a, b, c, and the random bits of \mathcal{D} .

B. Hash Functions and Digital Signatures

A hash function H is a function that takes as input a string $x \in \{0,1\}^*$ and returns a fixed-length output string $H(x) \in \{0,1\}^{\ell(\kappa)}$ for some polynomial $\ell(\kappa)$. A signature scheme SIG = (KeyGen, Sign, Verify) over message space \mathbb{M} consists of three probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms. The key generation algorithm KeyGen produces a key pair (SigK, VerK) on security parameter 1^{κ} . The signing algorithm Sign takes a signing key SigK and a message $m \in \mathbb{M}$ and produces a signature σ . A signature σ on message m can be verified with respect to the verification key VerK using the verification algorithm Verify. As standard, we require the hash function to satisfy collision resistance and the digital signature scheme to provide consistency and existential unforgeability against chosen-message attacks. Formal definitions of these properties are provided in Appendix B-A and B-B.

C. Anonymous Threshold Identity-Based Encryption

We derive the notion of *Anonymous Threshold Identity-Based Encryption* from [17] as follows:

Definition 2 (TIBE). *An* anonymous threshold identity-based encryption scheme (*TIBE*) TIBE is associated with the following probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms:

- 1) Setup(1^{κ} , s, n) takes as input a security parameter 1^{κ} , the number of decryption servers n and the security threshold s, with $1 \le s \le n$. It generates system parameters pk, a verification key vk, and n master secret key shares $\{sk_i\}_{i\in[n]}$. The i-th decryption server gets master secret key share sk_i .
- 2) ShareKeyGen(pk, i, sk_i, id) takes as input the public parameter pk, the decryption server index i, the corresponding secret key sk_i and an identity id $\in \{0,1\}^*$. It generates an identity key share (i,ik_i) .
- 3) ShareVf(pk, vk, id, i, ik_i) takes as input the public parameter pk, the verification key vk, an identity id, a decryption server index i and an identity key share ik_i. It outputs true or false.

- 4) Combine(pk, vk, id, $\{(i, ik_i)\}_{i \in S}$) takes as input the public parameter pk, the verification key vk, an identity id and indexed identity key shares ik_i and returns an identity key ik or \perp .
- 5) Encrypt(pk, id, m) takes as input the public parameter pk, an identity id and a message m and outputs a ciphertext c.
- 6) Decrypt(pk, id, ik, c) takes as input the public parameter pk, an identity id, an identity key ik and a ciphertext c and outputs a message m.

We require for all $\kappa, n, s \in \mathbb{N}$, where $1 \leq s \leq n$, and any $(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \{\mathsf{sk}_i\}_{i \in [n]}) \leftarrow \mathsf{Setup}(1^\kappa, s, n)$ the following properties:

- Share consistency: For any identity $id \in \{0,1\}^*$ and any $i \in [n]$, if $(i,ik_i) \leftarrow \mathsf{ShareKeyGen}(\mathsf{pk},i,\mathsf{sk}_i,\mathsf{id})$, then $\mathsf{ShareVf}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk},\mathsf{id},i,\mathsf{ik}_i) = \mathsf{true}$.
- Decryption correctness: For any identity $id \in \{0,1\}^*$, if S is a subset of [n] of size s, $\mathcal{IK} := \{(i,ik_i)|i \in S \land (i,ik_i) \leftarrow ShareKeyGen(pk,i,sk_i,id)\}_{i \in S}$, and $ik \leftarrow Combine(pk,vk,id,\mathcal{IK})$, then we require that for any m in the message space, m = Decrypt(pk,ik,Encrypt(pk,id,m)).

Security. We define security via three properties: *key generation consistency, security against chosen-identity attacks* and *anonymity*. Informally, the first one states that an adversary cannot generate a ciphertext and two sets of valid identity key shares for the same identity such that the shares combine to different keys and the ciphertext is decrypted to two different plaintexts. The last ones state that an adversary cannot distinguish between two encryptions and two identities used for encryption. We formally define the security game and ANON-IND-ID-CPA security in Appendix B-E.

III. STATEMENT-OBLIVIOUS THRESHOLD WITNESS ENCRYPTION

In the setting of threshold witness encryption (TWE), we distinguish between users and decryption servers. Users either aim to encrypt some plaintext under a statement x in some NP language \mathcal{L} or aim to decrypt some ciphertext knowing a witness corresponding to the statement $x \in \mathcal{L}$. Decryption servers possess private information and assist users while decrypting a ciphertext. The decryption servers constitute a committee with a fixed number of corrupted parties. The committee may be static or adaptive depending on the concrete instantiation. For instance, a line of work [10], [13], [14] proposed mechanisms to select committees without revealing the identity of the members until they speak to protect against adaptive adversaries. The constructions are based on techniques incorporated in many popular blockchain. We emphasize that our definition and construction abstracts from the concrete instantiation of the committee. We only assume that a committee consists of n decryption servers and only s-1 of them are corrupted. Moreover, we assume the setup procedure of a TWE construction to be executed by a trusted dealer. This approach is standard in threshold cryptography and a trusted dealer could be realized by a tailored multi-party computation protocol. The dealer distributes secret information to the decryption servers and publishes public information to all parties.

In contrast to the definition of extractable witness encryption on blockchain (eWEB) by [8], we abstract away the realization of the committee while their definition explicitly considers a dynamic committee and a hand-off procedure to move from one committee to another. Since the change of the committee members is inherent to their definition, they also consider adaptive corruption in their security game. Moreover, their definition specifically considers a model where plaintexts are shared to the committee members which reveal these information only if a witness is presented. In contrast, our definition follows the approach presented by [9] where only a single secret key is shared between the committee members. In contrast to the definition of blockchain witness encryption (BWE) by Campanelli et al. [10] we do not explicitly define our TWE based notion for blockchains. Here again, we abstract away the concrete realization of the committee.

Formally, we define our new primitive as follows.

Definition 3 (TWE). A threshold witness encryption scheme (TWE) TWE for an NP language \mathcal{L} with associated relation R consists of the following five PPT algorithms:

- 1) Setup(1^{κ} , s, n) takes as input the security parameter 1^{κ} , a threshold s, and the number of decryption servers n, where $1 \leq s \leq n$. It outputs a triple (pk, vk, $\{sk_i\}_{i \in [n]}$), where pk is a public key, vk is a verification key, and sk_i is the secret key share for the decryption server with index i.
- Encrypt(pk, x, m) takes as input the public key pk, a statement x, and a message m. It outputs a ciphertext
- 3) ShareDec(pk, c, x, w, (i, sk_i)) takes as input a public key pk, a ciphertext c, a statement x, a witness w, and the index i together with the secret key share sk_i of the i-th decryption server. It outputs a decryption share d_i or a failure symbol ⊥ together with the index i.
- 4) ShareVf(pk, vk, $c, x, (i, d_i)$) takes as input a public key pk, a verification key vk, a ciphertext c, a statement x, and an indexed decryption share (i, d_i) . It outputs false if the decryption share is invalid and true if it is valid with respect to pk, vk, c, and x.
- 5) Combine(pk, vk, $c, x, \{(i, d_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}}$) takes as input a public key pk, a verification key vk, a ciphertext c, a statement x, and a set of decryption shares $\{(i, d_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}}$. It outputs message m or \bot .

We require for every security parameter $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$, every NP-language \mathcal{L} with associated relation R, every $n, s \in \mathbb{N}$ where $1 \leq s \leq n$, every output $(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \{\mathsf{sk}_i\}_{i \in [n]})$ of $\mathsf{Setup}(1^\kappa, s, n)$, every $x \in \mathcal{L}$ and w such that $(x, w) \in R$, for every message m, and every ciphertext $c \leftarrow \mathsf{Encrypt}(\mathsf{pk}, x, m)$:

• Decryption share validity: If $(i, d_i) \leftarrow \text{ShareDec}(\mathsf{pk}, c, x, w, (i, \mathsf{sk}_i)),$ then $\text{ShareVf}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, c, x, (i, d_i)) = 1.$

• Correctness: For any $S \subseteq [n]$ of size s, if $\{(i,d_i)\}_{i \in S}$ is a set of distinct decryption shares with $(i,d_i) \leftarrow \mathsf{ShareDec}(\mathsf{pk},c,x,w,(i,\mathsf{sk}_i))$ for each $i \in S$, then $\mathsf{Combine}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk},c,x,\{(i,d_i)\}_{i \in S}) = m$.

Security. We define security via three properties: *indistinguishability under chosen-ciphertext attacks* (IND-CCA), *statement obliviousness* (SO) and *decryption consistency under chosen-ciphertext attacks* (DC-CCA). Intuitively, IND-CCA and SO state that ciphertexts created using two different messages and two different statements cannot be distinguished. We combine these property formally in the security game Exp^{SO-CCA}. The DC-CCA property states that an adversary cannot produce two sets of valid decryption shares that are combined to two different messages unequal \bot . Formally, we define the security game Exp^{SO-DC}.

In the given security game, the adversary $\mathcal{A}=(\mathcal{A}_0,\mathcal{A}_1,\mathcal{A}_2)$ corrupts the decryption servers in \mathcal{M} . \mathcal{A}_1 and \mathcal{A}_2 can use the oracle $\mathcal{O}(\cdot,\cdot,\cdot,\cdot)$ to make decryption queries. To do so, the adversary sends (i,c,x,w) to \mathcal{O} which returns $(i,d_i)\leftarrow$ ShareDec(pk, $c,x,w,(i,\mathsf{sk}_i)$). Only for \mathcal{A}_2 , the oracle first checks if $c=c^*,\ x\in\{x_0,x_1\}$ and $(x,w)\in R$. If this holds, the oracle returns (i,\bot) and otherwise it returns a correct decryption share.

Here, the adversary $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1)$ corrupts the decryption servers in \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{A}_1 can use the decryption oracle $\mathcal{O}(i, c, x, w)$ that returns $(i, d_i) \leftarrow \mathsf{ShareDec}(\mathsf{pk}, c, x, w, (i, \mathsf{sk}_i))$.

Definition 4 (SO-IND-CCA Security of TWE). A threshold witness encryption scheme TWE is statement-oblivious

and message-indistinuishable under chosen-ciphertext attacks (SO-IND-CCA) secure if for all PPT adversaries $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2)$, there exist negligible functions negl_0 and negl_1 such that

$$\begin{split} \left| \Pr[\mathsf{Exp}_{\mathsf{TWE},\mathcal{A}}^{\mathsf{SO-CCA}}(1^{\kappa}) = 1] - \frac{1}{4} \right| &\leq \mathsf{negl}_0(\kappa) \quad \land \\ \Pr[\mathsf{Exp}_{\mathsf{TWE},\mathcal{A}}^{\mathsf{SO-DC}}(1^{\kappa}) = 1] &\leq \mathsf{negl}_1(\kappa). \end{split}$$

- a) Remark 1: The standard notion of witness encryption (cf. [1]) defines security without access to a decryption oracle. This is due to the fact that decryption in the standard notion can be attempted by any party locally using knowledge of the witness. In the threshold setting, decryption is performed via an interaction with a decryption committee that performs decryption in a distributed way using a secret shared trapdoor. Hence, we have to give the adversary access to a decryption oracle.
- b) Remark 2: We note that in the context of TWE SO-IND-CCA security implies extractability, an additional security requirement often required from witness encryption. We provide further details to the notion of extractability for TWE and a reduction from extractability to SO-IND-CCA security in Appendix A.

IV. OBLIVIOUS THRESHOLD TAG-BASED ENCRYPTION

In this section, we present the notion of *oblivious threshold* tag-based encryption (O-TTBE) which constitutes an extension of standard threshold tag-based encryption as presented in [15]. Intuitively, a threshold tag-based encryption scheme is *oblivious* if a ciphertext hides the tag it was created with. We first state the definition of threshold tag-based encryption and present the obliviousness property as part of the security guarantees afterwards.

Definition 5 (TTBE). A threshold tag-based encryption scheme (TTBE) TTBE consists of the following five PPT algorithms:

- 1) Setup(1^{κ} , s, n) takes as input the security parameter 1^{κ} , a threshold s, and the number of decryption servers n where $1 \leq s \leq n$. It outputs a triple (pk, vk, $\{sk_i\}_{i \in [n]}$), where pk is a public key, vk is a verification key, and sk_i is the secret key share for the i-th decryption server.
- 2) Encrypt(pk, t, m) takes as input a public key pk, a tag t, and a message m, and it outputs a ciphertext c.
- 3) ShareDec(pk, $c, t, (i, sk_i)$) takes as input a public key pk, a ciphertext c, a tag t, and the index i together with the secret key share sk_i of the decryption server with index i. It outputs a decryption share d_i or a failure symbol \bot together with the index i.
- 4) ShareVf(pk, vk, c, t, (i, d_i)) takes as input a public key pk, a verification key vk, a tag t, and an indexed decryption share (i, d_i) . It outputs false if the decryption share is invalid and true if it is valid with respect to pk, vk, c and t.
- 5) Combine(pk, vk, $c, t, \{(i, d_i)\}_{i \in S}$) takes as input a public key pk, a verification key vk, a ciphertext c, a tag t, and a

set of decryption shares $\{(i, d_i)\}_{i \in S}$. It outputs message m or \bot .

We require for every security parameter $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$, every committee parameters $n, s \in \mathbb{N}$ where $1 \leq s \leq n$, every $(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \{\mathsf{sk}_i\}_{i \in [n]})$ generated by $\mathsf{Setup}(1^\kappa, s, n)$, every message m, every tag t and every $c \leftarrow \mathsf{Encrypt}(\mathsf{pk}, t, m)$:

- $\begin{array}{lll} \bullet & \textit{Decryption} & \textit{share} & \textit{validity:} & \textit{If} \\ (d_i,i) & \leftarrow & \mathsf{ShareDec}(\mathsf{pk},c,t,(i,\mathsf{sk}_i)), & \textit{then} \\ \mathsf{ShareVf}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk},c,t,(i,d_i)) = 1. & \end{array}$
- Correctness: If $\{(i,d_i)\}_{i\in\mathcal{S}}$ is a set of s distinct decryption shares with (i,d_i) \leftarrow ShareDec(pk, $c, t, (i, \mathsf{sk}_i)$) for each $i \in \mathcal{S}$, then Combine(pk, vk, $c, t, \{(i,d_i)\}_{i\in\mathcal{S}}) = m$.

Security. Security of a TTBE scheme is defined via two properties: oblivious indistinguishable messages under chosenciphertext attacks (IND-CCA) and decryption consistency under chosen-ciphertext attacks (DC-CCA). The intuition for these properties is analog to the ones of threshold witness encryption. The IND-CCA property states that ciphertexts created using two different messages and two different tags cannot be distinguished. The DC-CCA property states that an adversary cannot produce two sets of valid decryption shares that are combined to two different messages unequal \perp . To formalize these properties, we design the following security games:

The decryption oracle $\mathcal{O}(\cdot,\cdot,\cdot)$ takes as parameter an index i, a ciphertext c and a tag t, and computes $(i,d_i) \leftarrow \text{ShareDec}(\mathsf{pk},c,t,(i,\mathsf{sk}_i))$. If $(c,t) \in \{(c^*,t_0),(c^*,t_1)\}$ it returns (i,\bot) , otherwise it returns (i,d_i) .

The decryption oracle $\mathcal{O}(\cdot,\cdot,\cdot)$ takes as parameter an index i, a ciphertext c and a tag t, and returns ShareDec(pk, c, t, (i, sk $_i)$).

Definition 6. A TTBE scheme TTBE is OB-IND-CCA secure if for every PPT adversary $A = (A_0, A_1, A_2)$, there exists negligible functions $negl_0$ and $negl_1$ such that

$$\begin{split} \left| \Pr[\mathsf{Exp}_{\mathsf{TTBE},\mathcal{A}}^{\mathsf{O-CCA}}(\kappa) = 1] - \frac{1}{4} \right| &\leq \mathsf{negl}_0(\kappa) \quad \land \\ \Pr[\mathsf{Exp}_{\mathsf{OTTBE},\mathcal{A}}^{\mathsf{O-DC}}(\kappa) = 1] &\leq \mathsf{negl}_1(\kappa). \end{split}$$

We use the notation of *oblivious TTBE* in short for referring to an OB-IND-CCA secure TTBE.

V. CONSTRUCTING STATEMENT-OBLIVIOUS TWE

In this section, we present a construction for statementoblivious threshold witness encryption (SO-TWE) from oblivious threshold tag-based encryption (O-TTBE).

Construction 1: SO-TWE_{OTTBE}

Public parameters:

The scheme is defined for a language $\mathcal L$ with relation R. The number of committee members is denoted by n and the threshold parameter is s. We make use of a oblivious tag-based encryption scheme OTTBE and a collision-resistant hash function $H: \mathbb X \to \mathbb T$, where $\mathbb X$ is the statement space of language $\mathcal L$ and $\mathbb T$ is the tag space of OTTBE.

```
\begin{split} & \mathsf{Setup}(1^\kappa, s, n) \colon \\ & \mathsf{Output} \ (\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \{\mathsf{sk}_i\}_{i \in [n]}) := \mathsf{OTTBE}.\mathsf{Setup}(1^\kappa, s, n). \\ & \mathsf{Encrypt}(\mathsf{pk}, x, m) \colon \\ & \mathsf{Output} \ c := \mathsf{OTTBE}.\mathsf{Encrypt}(\mathsf{pk}, H(x), m). \\ & \mathsf{ShareDec}(\mathsf{pk}, c, x, w, (i, \mathsf{sk}_i)) \colon \\ & \mathsf{If} \ (x, w) \in R, \ \mathsf{output} \ \mathsf{OTTBE}.\mathsf{ShareDec}(\mathsf{pk}, c, H(x), (i, \mathsf{sk}_i)). \\ & \mathsf{Otherwise}, \ \mathsf{output} \ (i, \bot). \\ & \mathsf{ShareVf}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, c, x, (i, d_i)) \colon \\ & \mathsf{If} \ d_i = \bot, \ \mathsf{output} \ \mathsf{false}. \ \mathsf{Otherwise} \ \mathsf{output} \\ & \mathsf{OTTBE}.\mathsf{ShareVf}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, c, H(x), (i, d_i)). \\ & \mathsf{Combine}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, c, x, \{(i, d_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}}) \colon \\ & \mathsf{Output} \ \mathsf{OTTBE}.\mathsf{Combine}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, c, H(x), \{(i, d_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}}). \\ \end{aligned}
```

Theorem 1. Let OTTBE be a threshold tag-based encryption scheme that is OB-IND-CCA secure and H be a collision-resistant hash function. Then, the scheme SO-TWE_{OTTBE} is a SO-IND-CCA secure threshold witness encryption scheme.

The security proof is presented in the full version of this paper [24].

Confidential witnesses and decryptions. We can add the support of confidential witnesses and decryptions to our construction by applying techniques from [8]. To ensure confidentiality of witnesses, clients send non-interactive zero-knowledge proofs of knowledge of the witness to the decryption severs. Then, as part of the decryption algorithm the servers check the validity of the proof against the submitted statement, instead of checking the witness relation directly. To achieve confidentiality of decryptions, the decryption servers encrypt

decryption shares under the public key of the client as part of the decryption algorithm. We ensure that decryption requests cannot be replayed with different public keys by applying the witness confidentiality approach and labeling the zeroknowledge proof with the submitted public key.

VI. O-TTBE FROM BILINEAR MAPPINGS AND RANDOM ORACLES

In this section, we present the construction of a concretely efficient oblivious threshold tag-based encryption scheme. Our construction is based on bilinear maps and random oracles and its security relies on the Decision Bilinear Diffie-Hellman assumption (cf. Section II-A). Before we present the formal specification of the construction, we give an intuition about the challenges of designing an O-TTBE scheme and how they are addressed by our construction.

Common approaches towards CCA security in the threshold setting incorporate ciphertext validation before decryption [18]–[22]. The validation ensures that each decryption request is either declined or yields exactly the original plaintext created by some client. This feature is the common way to prevent the adversary from executing *ciphertext-reuse*. Under this term, we understand reusing and potentially adapting ciphertext components in maliciously created ciphertext with the goal to extract decryptions for valid ciphertexts from the decryptions of maliciously created ones.

In an *oblivious threshold* scheme, declining decryptions is not possible since a single decryption server must not detect if the provided tag is valid. This is due to the fact that some servers can get corrupted in the threshold setting. If a single server was able to check the validity of a tag, the adversary would be able to exploit corrupted servers to break obliviousness. It follows that we have to apply a less strict ciphertext validation allowing for multiple decryptions, with different tags, of the same ciphertext. However, decryptions with invalid tags must not leak any information about the encrypted plaintext or the tag used for encryption. Consequently, we cannot follow the approaches of previous work.

Instead, we have to take one step back and address the challenge of achieving CCA security independent of previous work. It turns out that the discussed ciphertext validation is necessary but not sufficient to prove CCA security. In particular, when constructing a CCA secure encryption scheme it is not sufficient to take a CPA secure scheme and add a zeroknowledge proof of correct encryption to the ciphertexts. Proving security via a reduction to a number theoretic assumption is typically done by building a simulator that uses a concrete adversary on the scheme to break the underlying assumption. Even if a ciphertext is proven to be created correctly, the simulator needs to be capable of answering decryption queries of the adversary without actually knowing the secret key. This challenge is typically addressed by incorporating an additional trapdoor into the construction. It follows that for achieving CCA security we need both, (i) a way to prevent ciphertext reuse and (ii) a trapdoor to enable the simulator to answer decryption queries. In addition, for tag obliviousness, we have to achieve the former while (iii) still allowing multiple decryptions, with different tags, for the same ciphertext.

We propose a new construction deploying a single extension together with a simple zero-knowledge proof of correct encryption to a standard threshold variant of CPA secure Hash-ElGamal. The extension provides both, (iii) tag obliviousness and (ii) a trapdoor for decryption, such that a simple zero-knwoledge proof of correct encryption is sufficient to decline invalid ciphertexts, and hence, (i) prevent ciphertext reuse.

We start by briefly recalling Hash-ElGamal. In Hash-ElGamal, the encryption of a message m samples a random exponent a and outputs two elements $A=g^a$ and $M=m\oplus H(X^a)$ for a group generator g, a random oracle H, and a public key $X=g^x$. In the threshold setting, the secret key x is secret shared among the decryption servers. The decryption shares of the servers are calculated as $d_i:=A^{x_i}$, where x_i is the share of the i-th server.

Our extension is to apply a random offset T to A for both, encryption and decryption, using a bilinear map e. This offset is unique for each ciphertext-tag pair. Precisely, we compute $M:=H(e(T,X^a))\oplus m$ for encryption and $d_i:=e(T,A^{x_i})$ for decryption. As our notion requires each encrypting party and decryption server to be capable of generating the offset independently, we generate the offset using a random oracle. In particular, we compute the offset T by applying the random oracle to the tag t and the ciphertext component A, i.e., we compute $T = H_2(t, A)$. Finally, we add a non-interactive Schnorr zero-knowledge argument of knowledge of a [26] to the ciphertext, which we bind to the ciphertext component M. The binding is done by incorporating M into the generation of the challenge in the Fiat-Shamir transformation [27]. In addition, we add a Chaum-Pedersen zero-knowledge argument [28] of correct decryption to decryption shares.

The random offset T adds a random exponent $\log_a(T)$ to decryptions with invalid tags, and hence, ensures that invalid decryptions do not give any information about the encrypted message (cf. (iii)). Further it provides a backdoor that can be exploited by the simulator to answer decryption queries without knowledge of x_i (cf. (ii)). In particular, the simulator can simulate the random oracle such that the simulator learns $k = \log_a(T)$ for each T generated by H_2 . This way, the simulator can calculate the combined decryption shares $D = e(X^k, A) = e(T, A^x)$ which can again be used to interpolate decryption shares of individual parties. Finally, the zero-knowledge argument of knowledge of a ensures that a component A cannot be re-used for different ciphertexts, and hence, prevents ciphertext reuse (cf. (i)). Further, the zero-knowledge argument of correct decryption ensures that malicious servers cannot trick honest clients into excepting incorrect decryptions.

Our construction yields a concretely efficient scheme. The ciphertexts consist of a bitstring with length equal to the message length, a group element of the bilinear mapping's base group and two exponents (in \mathbb{Z}_q , where q is the bilinear group's order). Decryption shares consist of one group element in the mapping's target group and two exponents. Encryption

requires a single evaluation and decryption three evaluations of the bilinear map.

We continue by presenting the concrete construction:

Construction 2: TTBE_{pROM}

Public parameters:

The scheme is defined over a bilinear map $e: \mathbb{G} \times \mathbb{G} \to \mathbb{G}_T$ with groups \mathbb{G} and \mathbb{G}_T where each group is of order q. The number of committee members is denoted by n and the threshold parameter is s. The message and tag length is defined as l. We make use of random oracles $H_1: \mathbb{G}_T \to \{0,1\}^l, H_2: \{0,1\}^l \times \mathbb{G} \to \mathbb{G}, H_3: \{0,1\}^l \times \mathbb{G}^2 \to \mathbb{Z}_q, H_4: \mathbb{G}^3 \to \mathbb{Z}_q.$

Setup $(1^{\kappa}, s, n)$:

Sample a generator, g, of \mathbb{G} , a secret key $x \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q$ and a sharing polynomial F of degree s-1 over \mathbb{Z}_q such that F(0)=x. Set $\mathsf{pk}=(g,X:=g^x)$, $\mathsf{vk}:=\{g^{F(i)}\}_{i\in[n]}$ and $\mathsf{sk}_i:=F(i)=x_i$ for each $i\in[n]$. Output $(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk},\{\mathsf{sk}_i\}_{i\in[n]})$.

Encrypt(pk, t, m):

Sample $a, r \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q$ and calculate:

$$A := g^a, T = H_2(t, A), \widetilde{M} := e(T, X^a), M := H_1(\widetilde{M}) \oplus m$$

 $U := g^r, w = H_3(M, A, U), f = r + aw, \pi := (w, f)$

Return $c = (M, A, \pi)$.

Note that π constitutes a zero knowledge argument of knowledge of $\log_q(A)$.

ValidateCT(c):

Parse $c = (M, A, \pi = (w, f))$ and return true iff

$$w = H_3(M, A, U)$$
 for $U = \frac{g^f}{A^w}$.

ShareDec $(pk, c, t', (i, sk_i))$:

If $\mathsf{ValidateCT}(c) = \mathsf{false}$ return (i, \perp) . Otherwise choose $r_i \in \mathbb{R}$ \mathbb{Z}_q and compute,

$$T' := H_2(t', A), D_i := e(T', A^{x_i})$$

$$U_i := e(T', A^{r_i}), V_i := e(T', g^{r_i})$$

$$w_i := H_4(D_i, U_i, V_i), f_i := r_i + x_i \cdot w_i$$

$$\pi_i := (w_i, f_i)$$

and return $d_i := (i, D_i, \pi_i)$.

Note that π_i constitutes a zero knowledge argument that $(e(T', A), e(T', \mathsf{vk}_i), D_i)$ is a Diffie-Hellmann triple.

ShareVf(pk, vk_i , c, t', d_i):

Parse $d_i=(i,D_i,\pi_i=(w_i,f_i)),\ c=(\cdot,A,\cdot),$ calculate $T':=H_2(t',A)$ and return true iff

$$w_i = H_4(D_i, U_i, V_i) \text{ for } U_i = \frac{e(T', A)^{f_i}}{D_i^{w_i}}, V_i = \frac{e(T', g)^{f_i}}{e(T', \mathsf{vk}_i)^{w_i}}.$$

Combine(pk, vk, c, t', $\{(d_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}}$):

Return $m = M \oplus H_1(\prod_{i \in \mathcal{S}} (D_i)^{\lambda_{0,i}^{\mathcal{S}}}).$

Correctness of the scheme can be shown as follows:

$$\begin{split} m &= M \oplus H_1(\prod_{i \in \mathcal{S}} (D_i)^{\lambda_{0,i}^{\mathcal{S}}}) = M \oplus H_1(\prod_{i \in \mathcal{S}} (e(T',A^{x_i}))^{\lambda_{0,i}^{\mathcal{S}}}) \\ &= M \oplus H_1(\prod_{i \in \mathcal{S}} e(T',A)^{x_i \cdot \lambda_{0,i}^{\mathcal{S}}}) = M \oplus H_1(e(T',A)^x) \\ &= m \oplus H_1(e(T,g^{ax})) \oplus H_1(e(T',g^{ax})) = m, \\ \text{where } t = t' \text{ yields } H_2(t,A) = T = T' = H_2(t',A)). \end{split}$$

For security, we state the following theorem:

Theorem 2. Let BGen be a Bilinear Group Generator, $(e, \mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_T, q) \leftarrow_R \mathsf{BGen}(\kappa)$ be a bilinear group in which the Decisional Bilinear Diffie-Hellman (DBDH) assumption holds, and H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4 be programmable random oracles. Then, the scheme $\mathsf{TTBE}_{\mathsf{pROM}}$ is an OB-IND-CCA secure oblivious threshold tag-based encryption scheme.

We will provide an intuition of our proof for indistinguishable messages under chosen-ciphertext attacks, here, and defer the formal security proof for both indistinguishable messages under chosen-ciphertext attacks (defined via $\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{O-CCA}}_{\mathsf{TTBE}_{\mathsf{pROM}},\mathcal{A}}$) and decryption consistency under chosen-ciphertext attacks (defined via $\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{O-DC}}_{\mathsf{TTBE}_{\mathsf{pROM}},\mathcal{A}}$) to the full version of this paper [24].

Proof intuition. We prove indistinguishable messages via a reduction to the DBDH assumption. Hence, we build a distinguisher $\mathcal D$ that receives a tuple $(\bar g, \bar h, \alpha = \bar g^x, \beta = \bar g^y, \gamma)$ and decides if the received tuple is a DBDH tuple, i.e., if $\gamma = e(\bar h, \bar g)^{xy}$. $\mathcal D$ has access to an adversary $\mathcal A$ on the experiment $\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{O-CCA}}_{\mathsf{TTBE}_{\mathsf{PROM}}, \mathcal A}$.

The reduction is based on the observation that, in order to win in $\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{O-CCA}}_{\mathsf{TTBE}_{\mathsf{PROM}},\mathcal{A}}$, adversary \mathcal{A} when receiving a challenge ciphertext (M^*,A^*,\cdot) has to query H_1 at either $P_0 = e(H_2(t_0, A^*), A^*)^x \text{ or } P_1 = e(H_2(t_1, A^*), A^*)^x.$ If ${\cal D}$ defines public parameters $g=\bar{g}$ and pk = $X=\alpha$ and challenge ciphertext components $H_2(t_{1-b}, A^*) \leftarrow h$ (via programming of the random oracle) and $A^* = \beta$ for some $b \in \mathbb{R} \{0,1\}$, it follows that $P_{1-b} = \gamma$ iff the received tuple is a DBDH tuple. Hence, we can distinguish DBDH tuples from random tuples based on the event that γ has been queried by A. However, setting $M^* = m_{b_m} \oplus H_1(\gamma)$ for $b_m \in \mathbb{R} \{0,1\}$ does not yield a valid ciphertext if the tuple is no DBDH tuple, a fact that makes the reduction distinguishable from a real experiment. While there are techniques to deal with this problem (cf. [19]), this distinguishability makes the argumentation more long-winded. Instead, we make use of the fact that we are in the tag-based setting, i.e., there are two possible keys at which H_1 can be queried to decide which tag or message has been used for encryption. In particular, we create M^* such that it is a correct encryption of m_{b_m} under tag t_b , i.e., $M^* = m \oplus H_1(P_b)$. At the same time, we program H_2 such that $P_{1-b} = \gamma$ iff the received tuple is a DBDH tuple, i.e., by programming $H_2(t_{1-b}, A^*) \leftarrow h$. Hence, we can distinguish based on the event that γ has been queried while still creating a valid ciphertext.

The next question is how to actually compute P_b without knowing x nor $y = \log_g(A^*)$. Here we make use of the fact that $\mathcal D$ simulates the random oracle H_2 that is used to compute the tag-dependent offset. In particular, whenever the random oracle H_2 is supposed to sample a random value in $\mathbb G$, it samples a random exponent $k \in_R \mathbb Z_q$ instead and returns $\bar g^k$. The output is still uniformly random distributed in $\mathbb G$ but $\mathcal D$ learns the discrete logarithm of every value sampled by H_2 . This way, $\mathcal D$ can restore $k = \log_g(H_2(t_b, A^*))$ and compute $P_b = e(\alpha, \beta^k) = e(H_2(t_b, A^*), A^*)^x$.

As explained above, the major challenge is to answer decryption queries without having access to the private key x. However, this problem can be solved the same way as computing P_b . In particular, \mathcal{D} answers decryption queries for ciphertext $c = (\cdot, A, \cdot)$ and tag t by restoring k = $\log_a(H_2(t,A))$ and computing $e(\beta,A^k)=e(H_2(t,A),A^x)$. The only keys for which the restoring of the exponent k does not work are $(t_{1-b}, A^*) = (t_{1-b}, \beta)$ for which \mathcal{D} programmed the random oracle to \bar{h} without knowing $\log_a(\bar{h})$. However, in consistency with the original security game, \mathcal{D} declines decryptions for (c,t) if $(c,t) \in \{(c^*,t_0),(c^*,t_1)\}$. Hence, \mathcal{D} only fails to answer decryption queries if A sends a valid ciphertext $c \neq c^*$ such that $c = (\cdot, A^*, \pi)$. However, to do so, the adversary needs to be capable of generating a valid zeroknowledge argument π of knowledge of $y = \log_a(A^*)$ without actually knowing y. In fact, not even \mathcal{D} has knowledge of y. The probability is negligible for a computationally bounded adversary to find such a proof. It follows that \mathcal{D} is capable of answering all decryption queries, expect with negligible probability.

VII. OBLIVIOUS TTBE FROM ANONYMOUS TIBE

This section presents a general transformation from an anonymous threshold identity-based encryption scheme, a one-time signature scheme and a collision-resistant hash functions to an oblivious threshold tag-based encryption scheme. The scheme depicts an extension of [18].

Construction 3: TTBE_{IBE}

Public parameters:

The number of committee members is denoted by n and the threshold parameter is s. We make use of a one-time signature scheme OTS, an anonymous threshold identity-based encryption scheme TIBE, and a collision-resistant hash function $H: \mathbb{T} \times \mathbb{K} \to \mathbb{I}$, where $\mathbb{T}, \mathbb{K}, \mathbb{I}$ is the tag space, the verification key space of OTS, and the identity space of TIBE.

```
Setup(1^{\kappa}, s, n):
Run (\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \{\mathsf{sk}_i\}_{i \in [n]}) \leftarrow \mathsf{TIBE}.\mathsf{Setup}(1^{\kappa}, s, n) and output the keys (\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \{\mathsf{sk}_i\}_{i \in [n]}).
```

Encrypt(pk, t, m):

Generate a signature key pair (SigK, VerK) \leftarrow OTS.KeyGen (1^{κ}) , calculate id := H(t, VerK), $c_0 := \text{TIBE.Encrypt}(\text{pk}, \text{id}, m)$, and $\sigma := \text{OTS.Sign}(\text{SigK}, c_0)$. Output $c := (c_0, \text{VerK}, \sigma)$.

ShareDec($pk, c, t, (i, sk_i)$):

Parse c to $(c_0, \operatorname{VerK}, \sigma)$ and check that OTS.Verify $(\operatorname{VerK}, \sigma, c_0) = \operatorname{true}$. If the check fails, output (i, \bot) . Otherwise, calculate id $:= H(t, \operatorname{VerK})$ and output an identity key share $(i, \operatorname{ik}_i) \leftarrow \operatorname{TIBE.ShareKeyGen}(\operatorname{pk}, i, \operatorname{sk}_i, \operatorname{id})$ as d_i .

 $\begin{array}{lll} \mathsf{ShareVf}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk},c,t,(i,d_i)) \text{:} \\ \mathsf{Parse} & c & \mathsf{to} & (c_0,\mathsf{VerK},\sigma) & \mathsf{and} & \mathsf{output} & \mathsf{true} \\ \mathsf{iff} & \mathsf{OTS}.\mathsf{Verify}(\mathsf{VerK},\sigma,c_0) & = & \mathsf{true} & \mathsf{and} \\ \mathsf{TIBE}.\mathsf{ShareVf}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{vk},H(t,\mathsf{VerK}),i,d_i) & = \mathsf{true}. \end{array}$

Combine(pk, vk, $c, t, \{(i, d_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}}$):
Parse c to $(c_0, \mathsf{VerK}, \sigma)$, calculate id $= H(t, \mathsf{VerK})$ and ik $:= \mathsf{TIBE.Combine}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \mathsf{id}, \{(d_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}})$. If ik $= \bot$, output \bot .

Otherwise, output $m := \mathsf{TIBE}.\mathsf{Decrypt}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{id},\mathsf{ik},c_0)$.

Correctness of the scheme is easy to see. If the same tag is used for decryption and encryption, the encryption contains a ciphertext under the same identity for which the decryption algorithm creates the identity key. Next, we show security.

Theorem 3. Let TIBE be an anonymous threshold identity-based encryption scheme that is ANON-IND-ID-CPA secure, H be collision-resistant hash function, and OTS an existentially unforgeable one-time signature scheme. Then, the scheme TTBE_{IBE} is a OB-IND-CCA secure threshold tagbased encryption scheme.

The security proof is presented in the full version of the paper [24].

VIII. CONSTRUCTING ANONYMOUS TIBE

In this section, we construct an anonymous threshold identity-based encryption scheme (TIBE) from an anonymous non-threshold verifiable identity-based encryption scheme (VIBE) and an homomorphic secret sharing scheme (HSS) with linear decoding. A VIBE extends the definition of an identity-based encryption scheme with a verification algorithm that allows to check if an identity key was generated correctly. An HSS scheme allows to secret share some value and to perform operations on the shares such that the result of the combination yields the output of a function applied directly to the value. We state the definitions for VIBE and HSS in Appendix B-C and B-D respectively. The HSS scheme is used to execute the Extract algorithm of the VIBE scheme in a distributed way. The operations that need to be supported by the HSS scheme depend on the concrete VIBE scheme, i.e., how the output shares of its Extract algorithm can be computed. While we use the HSS scheme in a black-box way, it is an interesting open question to provide concrete instantiations of the following black-box transformation. In the full version of this paper [24], we discuss potential pathways to obtain an anonymous threshold IBE scheme from the concrete anonymous IBE scheme by Boyen and Waters [16].

Construction 4: Anonymous TIBE

Public parameters:

The number of committee members is denoted by n and the threshold parameter is s. This construction uses an ANON-IND-ID-CPA secure VIBE scheme VIBE = (VIBE.Setup, VIBE.Extract, VIBE.Verify, VIBE.Encrypt, VIBE.Decrypt) and a linear decoding HSS scheme HSS = (HSS.Share, HSS.Eval, HSS.Dec) for the function $y := (\mathrm{ik}_z, \rho_z) \leftarrow \mathrm{VIBE.Extract}(\mathrm{pk}, x, z)$ with public input $z = \mathrm{id}$ and shared private input $x = \mathrm{msk}$, as building blocks.

Setup $(1^{\kappa}, s, n)$:

- $\bullet \ (\mathsf{pk}_{\mathsf{VIBE}}, \mathsf{vk}_{\mathsf{VIBE}}, \mathsf{msk}) \leftarrow \mathsf{VIBE}.\mathsf{Setup}(1^\kappa)$
- $(\mathsf{msk}_1, \dots, \mathsf{msk}_n) \leftarrow \mathsf{HSS}.\mathsf{Share}(1^{\kappa}, \mathsf{msk})$
- return $(pk, vk, (sk_1, ..., sk_n))$:= $(pk_{VIBE}, vk_{VIBE}, (msk_1, ..., msk_n))$

ShareKeyGen(pk, i, sk_i, id):

```
• return (i, ik_i), where ik_i := y_i \leftarrow \mathsf{HSS}.\mathsf{Eval}(i, \mathsf{id}, \mathsf{sk}_i)

ShareVf(pk, vk, id, i, ik_i):
• return true

Combine(pk, vk, id, \{(i, ik_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}}):
• y \leftarrow \mathsf{HSS}.\mathsf{Dec}(\{ik_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}})
• Parse y := (ik, \rho)
• if VIBE.Verify(pk, vk, id, ik, \rho) = 1 return ik
• else return \bot

Encrypt(pk, id, m):
• return VIBE.Encrypt(pk, id, m)

Decrypt(pk, id, ik, c):
• return VIBE.Decrypt(pk, ik, c)
```

We first show that our construction satisfies the correctness properties, in particular share consistency and decryption correctness. Then, we prove the security property, ANON-IND-ID-CPA security.

The share consistency property states that for all correctly generated identity key shares, the ShareVf algorithm outputs true. Since the ShareVf algorithm of our construction always outputs true, the property is apparently satisfied. Decryption correctness is easy to see as well. Let, for any $\kappa, n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $1 \leq s \leq n$, $(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \{\mathsf{sk}_i\}_{i \in [n]}) \leftarrow \mathsf{Setup}(1^{\kappa}, s, n)$. Note that $sk_i := msk_i$ where msk_i is the *i*-th share obtained using HSS.Share(1^{κ} , msk) for a master secret key of the non-threshold VIBE scheme VIBE. Then, for any id, ShareKeyGen(pk, i, sk_i , id) returns an output share of $HSS.Eval(i, id, msk_i)$ which equals a share of VIBE.Extract(pk, msk, id). Given any set of identity kev shares, the Combine algorithm first decodes shares to (ik, ρ) and outputs ik VIBE. Verify(pk, vk, id, ik, ρ) = 1. Due to the correctness property of the (s, n)-HSS scheme, (ik, ρ) is exactly output of VIBE.Extract(pk, msk, id). Now, due to the correctness property of VIBE, it follows Decrypt(pk, ik, Encrypt(pk, id, m)) = m holds forany message m.

Finally, we show that the scheme TIBE is ANON-IND-ID-CPA secure. Formally, we state the following theorem.

Theorem 4. Let VIBE be an ANON-IND-ID-CPA secure VIBE scheme satisfying soundness and let HSS be a linear decoding (s, n)-HSS scheme satisfying correctness and computational security. Then, TIBE defined in Construction 4 is an ANON-IND-ID-CPA secure (n, s)-TIBE scheme.

The security proof is presented in the full version of the paper [24].

IX. APPLICATIONS

Statement-oblivious threshold witness encryption (SO-TWE) is interesting whenever use-cases of classical witness encryption, e.g., the ones presented in [1], [8], should be extended by an additional privacy property, i.e., if the statement used for encryption is required to stay hidden until

the decryption is successful. A straightforward example is witness encryption based time-lock encryption, as proposed by [6], with a hidden release time. In simplified settings, in which the decryption servers have access to public data (e.g., timestamps), our intermediate notion of oblivious threshold tag-based encryption (O-TTBE) is often sufficient. However, in more sophisticated scenarios, e.g., if the decryption servers need to rely on external authorities to provide authenticated public data, it is necessary to use SO-TWE. We present use-cases and briefly explain how they can be realized using our primitives; one of the use-case is provided in this section and others are deferred to the full version of this paper [24]. The use-cases are partial extensions to the ones presented by [8] for their notion of eWEB.

Price-dependent transaction execution with hidden price. Imaging a user that wants to buy some asset at a Decentralized Finance (DeFi) trading platform once the share price reaches a certain value. Since the user does not know when this event happens, it does not want to stay online all the time. The user's goal is to keep the transaction and the desired share price private until the price hits the intended value. Privacy is an important aspect in this scenario, since revealing information, e.g., the intended purchase price, could lead to financial disadvantage, e.g., due to insider trading. In the DeFi space, oracle services are widely deployed and commonly used. These services provide signed information about real-world data such as share prices. However, achieving the user's goal requires additional techniques. To support the described scenario, the user can exploit SO-TWE.

In more detail, suppose there is a committee holding the secret key shares of a SO-TWE scheme with public key pk for language \mathcal{L} with associated relation R. \mathcal{L} is defined such that a statement x specifies the intended share price as well as the public key of the oracle service and $(x, w) \in R$ if the witness w contains a proof that the current share price equals the specified one signed by the oracle. Initially, the user creates a transaction tx containing the trade description and encrypts it using the public key of the SO-TWE scheme, i.e., $c = \text{Encrypt}(pk, x, \mathsf{tx})$, where the statement is from the specified language. The user sends the ciphertext c to its broker. Next, the broker regularly requests the current share price together with a proof from the oracle and provides this information as the witness w together with the ciphertext c to the decryption committee. Each committee member performs ShareDec($pk, c, x, w, (i, sk_i)$) to obtain a decryption share (i, d_i) . After obtaining s valid shares from the committee, the broker executes Combine(pk, vk, c, $x\{(i, d_i)\}_{i \in S}$). If decryption was executed with the intended share price, the result is tx. In this case, the broker executes the transaction which effectively performs the trade. Otherwise, the output of the Combine-algorithm does not constitute a valid transaction.

The statement-obliviousness property guarantees that no party, not even the broker or the oracles, gets to know anything about the trade, neither the asset, the amount or the specified price, until the transaction is successfully decrypted and the trade can be executed. This way, we prevent insider trading. To

incentivize the broker to execute the trade reliably and timely, users can rely on multiple brokers rewarding the one executing the trade first.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The first, third, and fourth authors were supported by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) *iBlockchain project* (grant nr. 16KIS0902), by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) *SFB 1119 – 236615297 (CROSSING Project S7)*, and by the BMBF and the Hessian Ministry of Higher Education, Research, Science and the Arts within their joint support of the *National Research Center for Applied Cybersecurity ATHENE*. The second author was supported by ISF grant No. 1316/18 and by the Algorand Centres of Excellence programme managed by Algorand Foundation. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of Algorand Foundation.

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APPENDIX A REDUCTION: EXTRACTABILITY TO SO-IND-CCA SECURITY

This section provides further details to the notion of extractable threshold witness encryption and presents the reduction from extractability to SO-IND-CCA security in the threshold setting.

Intuitively, the original notion of extractable witness encryption states that any adversary that is able to obtain non-trivial information about a plaintext is also able to provide the witness for the corresponding ciphertext. Formally, this is defined by allowing the adversary to win the security game with nonnegligible advantage but requiring that such an adversary can be used to extract the witness for the challenged plaintext. It is natural to translate this notion from witness encryption to our context, the one of threshold witness encryption, by defining extrability via the same security game as the one of SO-IND-CCA security, Exp^{SO-CCA}, with the only difference that the adversary is allowed to query the decryption oracle $\mathcal{O}(\cdot,\cdot,\cdot,\cdot,\cdot)$ with any ciphertext-witness pair while the oracle in the original experiment returns \perp if $c = c^*$, $x \in \{x_0, x_1\}$ and $(x,(w_s,w_p))\in R$. We call this game $\mathsf{Exp}_{\mathsf{TWE},\mathcal{A}}^{\mathsf{SO-Ext}}$, when played with an adversary A for a scheme TWE.

Extractability now requires that if the adversary has a nonnegligible advantage in the security game, then it is possible to construct a witness extractor that extracts a valid witness with non-negligible probability.

Definition 7 (Extractability of SO-TWE). Let \mathcal{A} be a PPT adversary $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2)$ such that the following holds: for every pk generated by Setup, for every x_0, x_1, m_0, m_1 and every auxiliary information $z \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathsf{poly}(\kappa)}$:

$$\Pr[\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{SO-Ext}}_{\mathsf{TWE},\mathcal{A}}(1^\kappa) = 1] \geq \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{\mathsf{poly}(\kappa)}.$$

Then there exists a PPT extractor \mathcal{E} such that:

$$\Pr[(b, w) = \mathcal{E}(1^{\kappa}, x_0, x_1, z) : (x_b, w) \in R] \ge \frac{1}{\mathsf{poly}(\kappa)}.$$

We state the following theorem:

Theorem 5. Any statement-oblivious threshold witness encryption scheme TWE, that is SO-IND-CCA secure, is also extractable.

Proof: Assume an adversary $\mathcal{A}=(\mathcal{A}_0,\mathcal{A}_1,\mathcal{A}_2)$ that breaks extractability of TWE. This means that \mathcal{A} is able to win game $\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{SO-Ext}}_{\mathsf{TWE},\mathcal{A}}(1^\kappa)$ with a non-negligible advantage and there is no extractor \mathcal{E} .

From the fact that there is no extractor, we can derive that \mathcal{A} does not query the oracle with input $(\cdot,\cdot,x_b,w_s,w_p)$ such that $x_b \in \{x_0,x_1\}$ and $R(x_b,(w_s,w_p)) = \text{true}$; otherwise, there would exist the trivial extractor $\mathcal{E}_{\text{triv}}$ that equals \mathcal{A} up to this query and then outputs $(x_b,(w_s,w_p))$.

As the adversary \mathcal{A} does not make such queries, it can be used in the SO-IND-CCA game without any modifications and will still win with non-neglgible probability.

APPENDIX B FURTHER DEFINITIONS

A. Collision Resistance of Hash Functions

The *collision resistance* property of hash functions states that any PPT adversary can find two values x, x' such that $x \neq x'$ and H(x) = H(x') only with negligible probability.

B. Security Properties of Digital Signatures

We assume digital signatures to satisfy *consistency* and *existential unforgeability against chosen-message attacks*. The *consistency* property states that for all $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$, for all (SigK, VerK) \leftarrow KeyGen(1^{κ}) and for every $m \in \mathbb{M}$ it holds $\Pr[\text{Verify}(\text{VerK}, m, \text{Sign}(\text{SigK}, m))] = 1.$

We define existential unforgeability against chosen-message attacks via the following game

where the adversary may ask its oracle \mathcal{O} on a message $m \in \mathbb{M}$ and gets back the signature $\sigma \leftarrow \mathsf{Sign}(\mathsf{SigK}, m)$. The pair (m^*, σ^*) output by \mathcal{A} must be different to any (m, σ) obtained by the oracle.

Definition 8. A signature scheme SIG is existentially unforgeable against chosen-message attacks if for every $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$ and every PPT adversary \mathcal{A} there exists a negligible function negl such that

$$\Pr[\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{EX-UNF}}_{\mathsf{SIG},\mathcal{A}}(\kappa) = 1] \leq \mathsf{negI}(\kappa).$$

Definition 9 (OTS). *A signature scheme* OTS = (KeyGen, Sign, Verify) *is called* one-time signature *scheme*

with existential unforgeability against chosen-message attacks, if for every $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$ and every PPT adversary \mathcal{A}' that makes as most one oracle query there exists a negligible function negl such that

$$\Pr[\mathsf{Exp}_{\mathsf{OTS},\mathcal{A}'}^{\mathsf{EX-UNF}}(\kappa) = 1] \leq \mathsf{negl}(\kappa).$$

C. Verifiable IBE

We state a definition for verifiable identity-based encryption as an extension of identity-based encryption presented by Boneh and Franklin [25]. In particular, the primitive contains a verification algorithm that allows to check if an identity key is generated correctly.

Definition 10 (VIBE). A verifiable identity-based encryption scheme VIBE consists of five probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms:

- 1) Setup(1^{κ}) takes as input a security parameter 1^{κ} and outputs a public key pk including public parameters, a verification key vk and a master key msk. pk include a description of the finite message space \mathbb{M} and the finite ciphertext space \mathbb{C} .
- 2) Extract(pk, msk, id) takes as input the public key pk, the master key msk and an identity id $\in \{0,1\}^*$. It outputs an identity secret key ikid together with a proof ρ_{id} stating that ikid was computed correctly.
- 3) Verify(pk, vk, id, ik_{id}, ρ_{id}) takes as input the public key pk, the verification key vk, an identity id, an identity key ik_{id}, and a proof ρ_{id} . It outputs 1 if ik_{id} is a valid identity key for identity id and 0 otherwise.
- 4) Encrypt(pk, id, m) takes as input the public key pk, an identity id and a message m. It outputs a ciphertext c encrypted under identity id.
- 5) Decrypt(pk, ik_{id}, c) takes as input the public key pk, an identity secret key ik_{id} and a ciphertext c. It outputs a message m.

We require these algorithms to fulfill the following correctness and verifiability properties for all $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$:

• Correctness: For every (pk, vk, msk) \leftarrow Setup(1^{κ}), every id $\in \{0,1\}^*$, every (ik_{id}, ·) \leftarrow Extract(pk, msk, id) and every $m \in \mathbb{M}$:

$$Decrypt(pk, ik_{id}, Encrypt(pk, id, m)) = m.$$

• *Verifiability:* For every (pk, vk, msk) \leftarrow Setup(1^{κ}), every id $\in \{0, 1\}^*$ and every (ik_{id}, ρ_{id}) \leftarrow Extract(pk, msk, id)

Verify(pk, vk, id, ik_{id},
$$\rho_{id}$$
) = 1.

We define security by three properties: *soundness*, *anonymity* and *security against chosen-plaintext attacks*. We start defining the soundness property. Informally, soundness means that an adversary cannot come up with two different but valid identity keys that decrypt a chosen ciphertext to two different plaintexts. Formally, we define the soundness property via the following game.

The adversary can use its oracle $\mathcal{O}(\cdot)$ to make identity key queries. More precisely, upon receiving id from \mathcal{A} the oracle returns $(ik_{id}, \rho_{id}) \leftarrow \mathsf{Extract}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{msk}, \mathsf{id})$ for any $\mathsf{id} \in \{0, 1\}^*$.

Definition 11 (Soundness). A verifiable identity-based encryption scheme VIBE satisfies soundness if for all $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$ and all PPT adversary

$$\Pr[\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{SOUND}}_{\mathsf{VIBE},\mathcal{A}}(\kappa) = 1] \leq \mathsf{negl}(\kappa).$$

We next move on to the anonymity and security against chosen-plaintext attacks. The anonymity property of a VIBE scheme informally states that an adversary cannot learn the associated identity from a ciphertext, while the security against chosen-plaintext attacks states that an adversary cannot distinguish two ciphertexts over different messages. We combine both properties following Gentry [17] and define security via the following game.

In the game $\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{A-V-CPA}}_{\mathsf{VIBE},\mathcal{A}}$, the adversary can use its oracle $\mathcal O$ to make key generation queries. Upon receiving id, $\mathcal O$ returns $\mathsf{Extract}(\mathsf{pk},\mathsf{msk},\mathsf{id})$ if $\mathsf{id} \notin \{\mathsf{ID}_0,\mathsf{ID}_1\}$ and \bot otherwise.

Definition 12 (ANON-IND-ID-CPA). A VIBE scheme VIBE is ANON-IND-ID-CPA secure if for all PPT adversary \mathcal{A} in game $\mathsf{Exp}_{\mathsf{VIBE},\mathcal{A}}^{\mathsf{A-V-CPA}}$, there exists a negligible function negl such that

$$\left|\Pr[\mathsf{Exp}_{\mathsf{VIBE},\mathcal{A}}^{\mathsf{A-V-CPA}}(\kappa) = 1] - \frac{1}{4}\right| \leq \mathsf{negl}(\kappa).$$

In the full version of this paper [24], we show how to construct a VIBE scheme from a standard identity-based encryption scheme IBE combined with an existentially unforgeable signature scheme SIG. Assuming IBE satisfies ANON-IND-ID-CPA security, the VIBE construction satisfies soundness and ANON-IND-ID-CPA security.

D. Homomorphic Secret Sharing

We follow the definition of Boyle et al. [29] for homomorphic secret sharing (HSS) schemes but state a simplified version that fits our application. In particular, we consider only a single input HSS and incorporate robust decoding in our definition where only s output shares are required for correct decoding. Additionally, we use the notation of s-out-of-n HSS to denote an n-server (s-1)-secure HSS according to the definition of Boyle et al.

In Section VIII, we utilize an HSS to transform a VIBE scheme into a threshold IBE scheme. In particular, the identity key generation will be executed in a distributed fashion, i.e., the Extract algorithm of the non-threshold scheme. The homomorphic operations that need to be supported by the HSS depend on the concrete VIBE construction. Since we present a black-box construction in Section VIII, we consider a generalized homomorphic secret sharing scheme.

Definition 13 (HSS). An s-out-of-n homomorphic secret sharing scheme HSS for a function $F: (\{0,1\}^*)^2 \to \{0,1\}^*$, or (s,n)-HSS in short, consists of three PPT algorithms:

- 1) Share $(1^{\kappa}, x)$ takes as input a security parameter 1^{κ} and a user input x. It outputs n shares (x_1, \ldots, x_n) , where server i gets share x_i .
- 2) Eval (i, z, x_i) takes as input a server index i, a public input z and the i-th share x_i . It outputs $y_i \in \{0, 1\}^*$, corresponding to server i's share of F(z; x).
- 3) $Dec(\{y_i\}_{i \in S})$ takes as input a set of output shares and outputs the final output $y \in \{0,1\}^*$.

We require the following correctness and security properties for every $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$:

• Correctness: For any input $z, x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ and any set of shares $(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \leftarrow \mathsf{Share}(1^\kappa, x)$. Let $\forall i \in [n] \ y_i \leftarrow \mathsf{Eval}(i, z, x_i)$, then for any set $\mathcal{S} \subseteq [n]$ of size s it holds that

$$Dec(\{y_i\}_{i\in\mathcal{S}}) = F(z;x).$$

• Computational security: Security of an HSS HSS is defined via the experiment $\mathsf{Exp}_{\mathsf{HSS},\mathcal{A},I}^{\mathsf{HSS}}$ where the adversary $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_0,\mathcal{A}_1)$ corrupts a set $\mathcal{M} \subset [n]$ of s-1 servers. Then, we require

$$\left| \Pr[\mathsf{Exp}_{\mathsf{HSS},\mathcal{A},\mathcal{M}}^{\mathsf{HSS}}(\kappa) = 1] - \frac{1}{2} \right| \leq \mathsf{negl}(\kappa),$$

where the experiment is defined as follows.

Experiment
$$\operatorname{Exp}_{\mathsf{HSS},\mathcal{A},I}^{\mathsf{HSS}}(\kappa)$$
 $(x_0,x_1) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_0(1^{\kappa}), \ \textit{where} \ |x_0| = |x_1|.$
 $b \in_R \{0,1\}$
 $(\hat{x}_1,\ldots,\hat{x}_n) \leftarrow \operatorname{Share}(1^{\kappa},x_b)$
 $b' \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_1(\{\hat{x}_i\}_{i\in I})$
 $\operatorname{\mathbf{return}} \ b = b'$

A trivial construction of the Eval algorithm is the identity function. Then, the Dec algorithm first reconstructs x and computes F(z;x) next. As described above, we utilize an

HSS to perform the Extract algorithm of a VIBE scheme in a distributed way. In this scenario, the Eval algorithm being the identity function means that the party that should learn the identity key also learns the master secret key. Since this is an undesired effect, we impose an additional requirement on the decoding algorithm. We define a *linear decoding* HSS as a slightly weakening of an additive HSS as defined by Boyle et al. [29]. Intuitively, a linear decoding HSS requires the decoding to be a linear combination of the output shares. In contrast to an additive HSS, a linear decoding HSS enables a decoding algorithm whose output depends on the set of servers from which shares are obtained. In particular, the coefficients depend on the servers' indices that computed the shares. This notion allows to capture any *s*-out-of-*n* Shamir's secret sharing.

Definition 14 (Linear Decoding HSS). An (s,n)-HSS scheme HSS = (Share, Eval, Dec) is called linear decoding if Dec works as follows:

Let $\{y_1, \ldots, y_n\}$ be a set of output shares. Then, for any set $S \subseteq [n]$ of size s, there exists a set of s coefficient $\{a_{S,i}\}_{i \in S}$ such that

$$\mathsf{Dec}(\{y_i\}_{i\in\mathcal{S}}) = \sum_{i\in\mathcal{S}} a_{\mathcal{S},i} \cdot y_i.$$

E. Threshold IBE

In this section, we state the formal security games for threshold identity-based encryption schemes (TIBE). The notation for TIBE is given in Section II-C. We first define the security game for anonymity and security against chosen-identity attacks.

The adversary can use its oracle $\mathcal{O}(\cdot,\cdot)$ to make key generation queries. To do so, the adversary sends (i, id) to \mathcal{O} and receives $(i, \mathsf{ik}_i) \leftarrow \mathsf{ShareKeyGen}(\mathsf{pk}, i, \mathsf{sk}_i, \mathsf{id})$. In the game, we require that ID_0 and ID_1 was not used in any oracle query of \mathcal{A}_1 before or after providing the identities and messages.

Next, we define the game for key generation consistency.

```
Experiment \operatorname{Exp}_{\mathsf{TIBE},\mathcal{A}}^{\mathsf{KC-CPA}}(1^{\kappa})
\mathcal{M} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_0(1^{\kappa}), \text{ where } |\mathcal{M}| < s
(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \{\mathsf{sk}_i\}_{i \in [n]}) \leftarrow \operatorname{Setup}(1^{\kappa}, s, n)
(\mathsf{ID}, c, \{(i, \mathsf{ik}_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}}, \{(i, \mathsf{ik}_i')\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}'}) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_1^{\mathcal{O}(\cdot, \cdot)}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \{\mathsf{sk}_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{M}}),
\text{where } \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{S}' \subseteq [n] \land |\mathcal{S}| = s = |\mathcal{S}'|
\text{if } \forall i \in \mathcal{S} : \operatorname{ShareVf}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \mathsf{ID}, i, \mathsf{ik}_i) = \operatorname{true}
\land \forall i \in \mathcal{S}' : \operatorname{ShareVf}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \mathsf{ID}, i, \mathsf{ik}_i') = \operatorname{true}
\land \mathsf{ik} = \operatorname{Combine}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \mathsf{ID}, \{\mathsf{ik}_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}})
\land \mathsf{ik}' = \operatorname{Combine}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{vk}, \mathsf{ID}, \{\mathsf{ik}_i'\}_{i \in \mathcal{S}'})
\land \mathsf{ik}, \mathsf{ik}' \neq \bot
\land \operatorname{Decrypt}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{ID}, \mathsf{ik}, c) \neq \operatorname{Decrypt}(\mathsf{pk}, \mathsf{ID}, \mathsf{ik}', c)
\mathbf{return } 1
\mathbf{else}
\mathbf{return } 0
```

The adversary can use its oracle $\mathcal{O}(\cdot,\cdot)$ in the same way as described above without any restrictions on the queried identities.

Definition 15 (ANON-IND-ID-CPA). A TIBE scheme TIBE is ANON-IND-ID-CPA secure if for every $\kappa, n \in \mathbb{N}$, every $1 \le s \le n$ and for every PPT adversary $\mathcal{A} := (\mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2)$ there exist two negligible function negl_0 and negl_1 such that

$$\begin{split} \left| \Pr[\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{A-T-CPA}}_{\mathsf{TIBE},\mathcal{A}}(\kappa) = 1] - \frac{1}{4} \right| &\leq \mathsf{negl}_0(\kappa) \quad \land \\ \Pr[\mathsf{Exp}^{\mathsf{KC-CPA}}_{\mathsf{TIBE},\mathcal{A}}(\kappa) = 1] &\leq \mathsf{negl}_1(\kappa). \end{split}$$