# Advanced Cryptography - Final Exam 

## Solution

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## I $\Sigma$-Protocol for $\mathcal{P}$

We consider an alphabet $Z$, a polynomial $P$, and a predicate $R$. We assume that $R$ can be computed in polynomial time. Given $x \in Z^{*}$, we let

$$
R_{x}=\left\{w \in Z^{*} ; R(x, w) \text { and }|w| \leq P(|x|)\right\}
$$

where $|x|$ denotes the length of $x$. We define the language $L$ from $R$ by

$$
L=\left\{x \in Z^{*} ; R_{x} \neq \emptyset\right\}
$$

Q. In this question, we assume that there is an algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ such that for any $x \in L$, we obtain $\mathcal{A}(x) \in$ $R_{x}$ and that for any $x \in Z^{*}$, the running time of $\mathcal{A}(x)$ is bounded by $P(|x|)$.
Construct a $\Sigma$-protocol for $L$. Carefully specify all protocol elements and prove all properties which must be satisfied.

## Let $\varepsilon$ be a word of length 0 .

- We define $\mathcal{P}(x, w)=\varepsilon$ and $\mathcal{P}(x, w, e)=\varepsilon$.
- We take the set of challenges $E=\{\varepsilon\}$. We could actually take any set of challenges with polynomially bounded length.
- The verification algorithm $V(x, a, e, z)$ first computes $w=\mathcal{A}(x)$, then checks if $R(x, w)$ holds.
- Clearly, this protocol satisfies completeness ( $x \in L$ is accepted by the verifier when the protocol is honestly run).
- Clearly, the algorithms run in polynomial time in terms of $|x|$.
- To define a polynomial time extractor based on some values $x, a, e, e^{\prime}, z, z^{\prime}$ such that $V(x, a, e, z)$ and $V\left(x, a, e^{\prime}, z^{\prime}\right)$ hold, and $e \neq e^{\prime}$, we simply compute $w=\mathcal{A}(x)$. Clearly, we obtain a polynomial-time extractor.
- To define a simulator $S(x, e)$, we just take $(a, z)=(\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$. Clearly,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[S(x, e)=(a, z)]=\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{P}(x, w)=a, \mathcal{P}(x, w, e)=z]
$$

So, we obtain a polynomial-time simulator.
So, all properties of a $\Sigma$-protocol are satisfied.

## II OR Proof

The exercise is inspired by Proof of Partial Knowledge and Simplified Design of Witness Hiding Protocols by Cramer, Damgård and Schoenmakers. Published in the proceedings of Crypto'94 pp. 174-187, LNCS vol. 839, Springer 1994.

Let $Z=\{0,1\}$ be an alphabet. We consider two $\Sigma$-protocols $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$ for two languages $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ over the alphabet $Z$ defined by two predicates $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$. We assume that $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$ use the same challenge set $E$ which is given a group structure with a law + . For $\Sigma_{i}, i \in\{1,2\}$, we denote $\mathcal{P}_{i}$ the prover algorithm, $V_{i}$ the verification predicate, $\mathcal{E}_{i}$ the extractor, and $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ the simulator.
Q. 1 (AND proof) Construct a $\Sigma$ protocol $\Sigma=\Sigma_{1}$ AND $\Sigma_{2}$ for the language defined by

$$
R\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right),\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)\right) \Longleftrightarrow R_{1}\left(x_{1}, w_{1}\right) \text { AND } R_{2}\left(x_{2}, w_{2}\right)
$$

> The prover and the verifier are simply defined by a parallel execution of $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$ together with the same challenge. So are the extractor and the simulator.
> More precisely, $\mathcal{P}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right),\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right) ; r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$ runs $\mathscr{P}_{i}\left(x_{i}, w_{i} ; r_{i}\right)=a_{i}$ for $i=1,2$ and yield $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)$. Uppon challenge $e \in E, \mathscr{P}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right),\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right), e ; r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$ runs $\mathscr{P}_{i}\left(x_{i}, w_{i}, e ; r_{i}\right)=z_{i}$ for $i=1,2$ and yield $\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right)$. The verification holds $V\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right),\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right), e,\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right)\right)$ if and only if both $V_{i}\left(x_{i}, a_{i}, e, z_{i}\right)$ hold for $i=1,2$. The extractor $\mathcal{E}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right),\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right), e, e^{\prime},\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right),\left(z_{1}^{\prime}, z_{2}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ runs $w_{i}=\mathcal{E}_{i}\left(x_{i}, a_{i}, e, e^{\prime}, z_{i}, z_{i}^{\prime}\right)$ for $i=1,2$ and yield $\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)$. The simulator $\mathcal{S}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), e\right)$ runs $\left(a_{i}, z_{i}\right)=S_{i}\left(x_{i}, e\right)$ for $i=1,2$ and yields $\left(\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right),\left(z_{1}, z_{2}\right)\right)$.
> Note: $i$ it important important to use the same challenge for both protocols in order to avoid troubles in the extraction.
(OR proof) In the remaining of the exercise, we now let

$$
R\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), w\right) \Longleftrightarrow R_{1}\left(x_{1}, w\right) \text { OR } R_{2}\left(x_{2}, w\right)
$$

This predicate defines a new language $L$. We construct a new $\Sigma$-protocol $\Sigma=\Sigma_{i}$ OR $\Sigma_{2}$ for $L$ by

- $\mathcal{P}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), w ; r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$ finds out $i$ such that $R_{i}\left(x_{i}, w\right)$ holds, sets $j=3-i$, then picks a random $e_{j} \in E$ and runs $\mathcal{S}_{j}\left(x_{j}, e_{j} ; r_{1}\right)=\left(a_{j}, e_{j}, z_{j}\right)$. Then, it runs $\mathcal{P}\left(x_{i}, w ; r_{2}\right)=a_{i}$ and yield $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)$.
- Upon receiving $e, \mathcal{P}\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right), w, e ; r_{1}, r_{2}\right)$ sets $e_{i}=e-e_{j}$, runs $\mathcal{P}\left(x_{i}, w, e_{i} ; r_{2}\right)=z_{i}$ and yields $\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, z_{1}, z_{2}\right)$.

The verification predicate is

$$
V\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right),\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right), e,\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, z_{1}, z_{2}\right)\right) \Longleftrightarrow\left\{\begin{array}{l}
e=e_{1}+e_{2} \text { AND } \\
V_{1}\left(x_{1}, a_{1}, e_{1}, z_{1}\right) \text { AND } \\
V_{2}\left(x_{2}, a_{2}, e_{2}, z_{2}\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Q. 2 Show that $\Sigma$ is complete and works in polynomial time.

The protocol $\mathcal{P}$ is a finite sequence of polynomial time operations or subroutines, so it is polynomial. Since $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ have a polynomially bounded complexity, so does $V$. We already know that $E$ is polynomially samplable. So $\Sigma$ works in polynomial time (except that we did not specify yet the extractor and the simulator).
If the protocols are honestly run, we have $S_{j}\left(x_{j}, e_{j}\right) \rightarrow\left(a_{j}, e_{j}, z_{j}\right)$. So, by the property of the simulator for $\Sigma_{j}$, we have that $V_{j}\left(x_{j}, a_{j}, e_{j}, z_{j}\right)$ holds. Since $w$ is a correct witness for $x_{i}$ in $\Sigma_{i}$, since $\mathcal{P}\left(x_{i}, w ; r_{2}\right)=a_{i}$ and $\mathcal{P}\left(x_{i}, w, e_{i} ; r_{2}\right)=z_{i}$, due to the completeness of $\Sigma_{i}$ we have that $V_{i}\left(x_{i}, a_{i}, e_{i}, z_{i}\right)$ holds. Since we further have $e_{i}=e-e_{j}$, the last condition for $V\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right),\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right), e,\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, z_{1}, z_{2}\right)\right)$ to hold is satisfied. So, $\Sigma$ satisfies the completeness property of $\Sigma$-protocols.
Q. 3 Construct an extractor $\mathcal{E}$ for $\Sigma$ and show that is works, in polynomial time.

If $V\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right),\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right), e,\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, z_{1}, z_{2}\right)\right)$ and $V\left(\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right),\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right), e^{\prime},\left(e_{1}^{\prime}, e_{2}^{\prime}, z_{1}^{\prime}, z_{2}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ hold with $e \neq e^{\prime}$, we must have either $e_{1} \neq e_{1}^{\prime}$ or $e_{2} \neq e_{2}^{\prime}$. Let assume that $e_{1} \neq e_{1}^{\prime}$. Then, we know that $V_{1}\left(x_{1}, a_{1}, e_{1}, z_{1}\right)$ and $V_{1}\left(x_{1}, a_{1}, e_{1}^{\prime}, z_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ hold. So, we can run the $\mathcal{E}_{1}$ extractor on $\left(x_{1}, a_{1}, e_{1}, e_{1}^{\prime}, z_{1}, z_{1}^{\prime}\right)$ to extract a witness $w$ for $x_{1}$ in $L_{1}$. Clearly, $w$ is also a witness for $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ in $L$. The method is similar in the case $e_{2} \neq e_{2}^{\prime}$.
Clearly, we obtain a polynomially bounded extractor.
Q. 4 Construct a simulator $\mathcal{S}$ for $\Sigma$ and show that is works, in polynomial time.

Given $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ and $e$, we pick a random $e_{1}$ and let $e_{2}=e-e_{1}$. Then, we run $\mathcal{S}_{1}\left(x_{1}, e_{1}\right) \rightarrow$ $\left(a_{1}, e_{1}, z_{1}\right)$ and $S_{2}\left(x_{2}, e_{2}\right) \rightarrow\left(a_{2}, e_{2}, z_{2}\right)$. The output is $\left(\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right), e,\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, z_{1}, z_{2}\right)\right)$. This defines our simulator $S$.
Clearly, this works in polynomial time.
We let $a=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)$ and $z=\left(e_{1}, e_{2}, z_{1}, z_{2}\right)$. We have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{S} \rightarrow a, e, z \mid e]=\sum_{e_{1}+e_{2}=e} \operatorname{Pr}\left[e_{1}\right] \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{S}_{1} \rightarrow a_{1}, e_{1}, z_{1} \mid e_{1}\right] \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{S}_{2} \rightarrow a_{2}, e_{2}, z_{2} \mid e_{2}\right]
$$

Since $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ are simulators for $\Sigma_{1}$ and $\Sigma_{2}$, we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{S} \rightarrow a, e, z \mid e]=\sum_{e_{1}+e_{2}=e} \operatorname{Pr}\left[e_{j}\right] \operatorname{Pr}\left[\Sigma_{j} \rightarrow a_{j}, e_{j}, z_{j} \mid e_{j}\right] \operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathcal{S}_{i} \rightarrow a_{i}, e_{i}, z_{i} \mid e_{i}\right]
$$

for whatever pair $(i, j)$ such that $\{i, j\}=\{1,2\}$. We let $i$ be random defined by $\mathcal{P}$. Clearly, the above sum equals $\operatorname{Pr}[\Sigma \rightarrow a, e, z \mid e]$. So, $\mathcal{S}$ satisfies the property of a simulator for $\Sigma$.

## III Smashing SQUASH-0

The exercise is inspired by Smashing SQUASH-0 by Ouafi and Vaudenay. Published in the proceedings of Eurocrypt'09 pp. 300-312, LNCS vol. 5479, Springer 2009.

We consider an access control protocol called SQUASH-0 in which a client and a server hold a secret key $K$. In the protocol, the server sends a challenge $C$. The client must respond with

$$
S=(\operatorname{stoi}(C \oplus K))^{2} \bmod N
$$

for a given modulus $N$, where stoi is a function transforming a bitstring into an integer by $\operatorname{stoi}(\varepsilon)=0$ for the zero-length bitstring $\varepsilon$, and

$$
\operatorname{stoi}(b \| s)=b+2 \times \operatorname{stoi}(s)
$$

for any bit $b \in\{0,1\}$ and any bitstring $s$. By convention, the least significant bit has position 0 . We further assume that $N$ is larger than $K$ and $C$.
Q. 1 Let $c_{i}$ be -1 raised to the power of the bit position $i$ in $C$. Let $k_{i}$ be -1 raised to the power of the bit position $i$ in $K$.
Show that

$$
S=\left(\frac{1}{4} \sum_{i, j} 2^{i+j} c_{i} c_{j} k_{i} k_{j}-\frac{2^{\ell}-1}{2} \sum_{i} 2^{i} c_{i} k_{i}+\frac{\left(2^{\ell}-1\right)^{2}}{4}\right) \bmod N
$$

where $\ell$ is the bitlength of $N$.
The XOR of two bits in the $\pm 1$ representation is obtained by a regular multiplication. The $\pm 1$ representation of bits can be converted to a 0-1 representation by $x \mapsto \frac{1-x}{2}$. So,

$$
\operatorname{stoi}(C \oplus K)=\sum_{i} 2^{i} \frac{1-c_{i} k_{i}}{2}=\frac{2^{\ell}-1}{2}-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} 2^{i} c_{i} k_{i}
$$

By squaring it we obtain the result for $S$.
The SQUASH-0 proposal suggests to use Mersenne numbers for $N$. incidentally, we obtain $2^{\ell}-1=N$. We deduce

$$
S=\left(\frac{1}{4} \sum_{i, j} 2^{i+j} c_{i} c_{j} k_{i} k_{j}\right) \bmod N
$$

In what follows, we assume that $N=2^{\ell}-1$. Deduce

$$
S=\left(\frac{1}{4} \sum_{i, j} 2^{i+j} c_{i} c_{j} k_{i} k_{j}\right) \bmod N
$$

Q. 2 Deduce that by using about $\ell^{2}$ challenges and their responses, an adversary could recover $K$ by solving a linear system of $O\left(\ell^{2}\right)$ equations with $\frac{\ell(\ell-1)}{2}$ unknowns.
As an example, consider $\ell=1024$. What is the complexity of the attack?
Hint: define $\kappa_{i, j}=k_{i} k_{j}$.

We let $\kappa_{i, j}=k_{i} k_{j}$ for $i<j$. For $i=j$, we have $k_{i} k_{j}=1$. For $i>j$, we have $k_{i} k_{j}=\kappa_{j, i}$. So, all $k_{i} k_{j}$ can be expressed in terms of $\kappa$ 's. This way, the equation becomes linear. We have $\frac{(\ell(\ell-1)}{2}$ unknowns $\kappa$. So, by collecting enough equations (namely, about $\ell^{2}$ ), we can solve the linear system. The complexity of such algorithm is essentially $O\left(\ell^{6}\right)$. For $\ell=2^{10}$, we need $2^{20}$ known challenges and we reach a complexity of $2^{60}$, which is not practical.
Q. 3 Given a function $\varphi$ mapping a bitstring of length $d$ to a real number, we define

$$
\hat{\varphi}(V)=\sum_{x}(-1)^{x \cdot V} \varphi(x)
$$

where • denotes the dot product between two bitstrings and the sum goes on all bitstrings $x$ of length $d$. For the function $\varphi(x)=(-1)^{x \cdot U}$, show that $\hat{\varphi}(V)=2^{d}$ if $V=U$ and $\hat{\varphi}(V)=0$ otherwise. We write it $\hat{\varphi}(V)=2^{d} 1_{V=U}$.

$$
\text { We have } \quad \hat{\varphi}(V)=\sum_{x}(-1)^{x \cdot(U \oplus V)}
$$

When $U \oplus V \neq 0$, this is zero. When $U=V$, this is clearly $2^{d}$.
Q. 4 In a chosen challenge attack, an adversary creates $d$ challenges $C^{1}, \ldots, C^{d}$ and all linear combinations of these challenges. Namely, $C\left(x_{1} \ldots x_{d}\right)=x_{1} C^{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus x_{d} C^{d}$. Given a $d$-bit vector $x$, we thus define $C(x)$. We write $x$ as an argument of $S$ and $c_{i}$ as well so that $S(x)$ is the response to challenge $C(x)$ and $c_{i}(x)$ is -1 raised to the power of the bit position $i$ in $C(x)$. Let $U_{i}$ be the $d$-bit vector consisting of the bit at position $i$ of $C^{1}, \ldots, C^{d}$.
Deduce that

$$
\hat{S}(V)=\frac{1}{4} \sum_{i, j} 2^{d+i+j} k_{i} k_{j} 1_{V=U_{i} \oplus U_{j}}
$$

Hint: observe $c_{i}(x)=(-1)^{x \cdot U_{i}}$ and use Q. 1 then Q.3.
The bit at position $i$ of $C(x)$ is clearly $x \cdot U_{i}$. So,

$$
c_{i}(x)=(-1)^{x \cdot U_{i}}
$$

We now use Q.1. By the definition of $\hat{S}$, we have

$$
\hat{S}(V)=\sum_{x}(-1)^{x \cdot V}\left(\frac{1}{4} \sum_{i, j} 2^{i+j} c_{i}(x) c_{j}(x) k_{i} k_{j}\right) \bmod N
$$

We can now use our observation and permute the two sums and obtain

$$
\hat{S}(V)=\frac{1}{4} \sum_{i, j} 2^{i+j} k_{i} k_{j} \sum_{x}(-1)^{x \cdot\left(V \oplus U_{i} \oplus U_{j}\right)}
$$

We can then use Q.3.
Q. 5 With the same notations, we assume that the function mapping a non-ordered pair $\{i, j\}$ with $i \neq j$ to $U_{i} \oplus U_{j}$ behaves like a random function. We further assume that $d$ is pretty small. For each $V$, estimate the number of non-ordered pairs $\{i, j\}$ with $i \neq j$ such that $V=U_{i} \oplus U_{j}$.
Deduce that we get $2^{d}$ equations modulo $N$ with $\ell(\ell-1) 2^{-d-1}$ unknowns $\kappa_{i, j}$ on average taking values in $\{-1,+1\}$.

We have $\frac{\ell(\ell-1)}{2}$ non-ordered pairs $\{i, j\}$ with $i \neq j$. The vector $U_{i} \oplus U_{j}$ takes values in a set of $2^{d}$ elements. So, each $V$ has (on average) $\ell(\ell-1) 2^{-d-1}$ pairs. Therefore, each equation $\hat{S}(V)$ uses this amount of unknowns $\kappa_{i, j}=k_{i} k_{j}$.
Q. 6 We take $d=2 \log _{2} \ell$ and solve each equation by exhaustive search. Deduce a chosen-challenge attack to break the algorithm.
How many chosen challenges does it use, asymptotically?
What is its complexity?
With $d=2 \log _{2} \ell$, each equation has $\frac{1}{2}$ unknown on average. So, exhaustive search works in constant time. We just solve $O\left(\ell^{2}\right)$ equations using $O\left(\ell^{2}\right)$ chosen challenges.
1: pick $C^{1}, \ldots, C^{d}$
2. for each $x$, define $C(x)$ and get $S(x)$

3: do an FFT transform on $S$ to get the table $\hat{S}$
4: for each $V$, make an exhaustive search on the expressed $\kappa_{i, j}= \pm 1$ in $\hat{S}(V)$ to recover the к's
5: pick $k_{1}$ at random and infer $k_{i}$ from $\kappa_{1, i}$
The FFT complexity is $O\left(d 2^{d}\right)$. So, the overall complexity is $O\left(\ell^{2} \log \ell\right)$. This is much better than $O\left(\ell^{6}\right)$.

## IV PIF Implies PAF

We consider a function family $F_{k}$ taking inputs of length $\lambda$, making outputs of length $\lambda$, and where the key $k$ is also of length $\lambda$. We consider the two following games:

```
Game \(\operatorname{PIF}\left(\mathcal{A}, 1^{\lambda}\right)\) :
    pick some random coins \(k\) of length \(\lambda\)
    pick \(\rho\)
    run \(\mathcal{A}(\rho) \rightarrow x\)
    if \(|x| \neq \lambda\), output 0 and stop
    pick a random bit \(b\)
    if \(b=0\) then
        compute \(y=F_{k}(x)\)
    else
        pick a random \(y\) of \(\lambda\) bits
    end if
    run \(\mathcal{A}(y ; \rho) \rightarrow b^{\prime}\)
    output \(b \oplus b^{\prime} \oplus 1\)
```

Game $\operatorname{PAF}\left(\mathcal{A}, 1^{\lambda}\right)$ :
1: pick some random coins $k$ of length $\lambda$
pick $\rho$
: pick a random $x$ of length $\lambda$
compute $y=F_{k}(x)$
run $\mathcal{A}(y ; \rho) \rightarrow x^{\prime}$
output $1_{x=x^{\prime}}$

We say that $F_{k}$ is PIF-secure (resp. PAF-secure) if for all polynomially bounded $\mathcal{A}$, we have that $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{PIF}\left(\mathcal{A}, 1^{\lambda}\right)=1\right]-\frac{1}{2}\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{PAF}\left(\mathcal{A}, 1^{\lambda}\right)=1\right]\right)$ is a negligible function in terms of $\lambda$.
Q. Show that if $F_{k}$ is PIF-secure, then it is PAF-secure.

Hint: based on a PAF-adversary $\mathcal{A}$ and some coins $\rho^{\prime}=r^{\prime}\|\rho\| b^{\prime \prime}$, define $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}\left(\rho^{\prime}\right)=x$ picked at random from $r^{\prime}$ then $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}\left(y, \rho^{\prime}\right)=1$ if $\mathcal{A}(y ; \rho)=x$ and $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}\left(y, \rho^{\prime}\right)=b^{\prime \prime}$ otherwise. By considering $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ as a PIF-adversary, look at the link between $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{PIF}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\prime}, 1^{\lambda}\right)=1\right]-\frac{1}{2}$ and $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{PAF}\left(\mathcal{A}, 1^{\lambda}\right)=1\right]$.

Consider an adversary $\mathcal{A}$ who is polynomially bounded. We want to show that $p=$ $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{PAF}\left(\mathcal{A}, 1^{\lambda}\right)=1\right]$ is negligible.
For this, we define the adversary $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ as follows: we let $\rho^{\prime}=r^{\prime}\|\rho\| b^{\prime \prime}$ and $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}\left(\rho^{\prime}\right)$ picks a random $x$ using $r^{\prime}$. Then, $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}\left(y ; \rho^{\prime}\right)$ runs $\mathcal{A}(y ; \rho)=x^{\prime \prime}$. If $x=x^{\prime \prime}$, it answers 1 . Otherwise, it answers by $b^{\prime \prime}$.
When running the game $\operatorname{PIF}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\prime}, 1^{\lambda}\right)$, in the $b=0$ case, we have $x=x^{\prime \prime}$ with probability $p$ and $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ never answers 0 . We have $x \neq x^{\prime \prime}$ with probability $1-p$ and $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ answers 0 with probability $\frac{1}{2}$. So, $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ answers 0 with probability $\frac{1-p}{2}$. So,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{PIF}\left(\mathscr{A}^{\prime}, 1^{\lambda}\right)=1 \mid b=0\right]=\frac{1-p}{2}
$$

When $b=1, \mathcal{A}(y ; \rho)$ has no information about $x$, so $x$ is independent from $x^{\prime \prime}$ and we have $\operatorname{Pr}\left[x=x^{\prime \prime}\right]=2^{-\lambda}$. Thus,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{PIF}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\prime}, 1^{\lambda}\right)=1 \mid b=1\right]=2^{-\lambda}+\frac{1-2^{-\lambda}}{2}
$$

Finally, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{PIF}\left(\mathfrak{A}^{\prime}, 1^{\lambda}\right)=1\right]-\frac{1}{2} & =\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1-p}{2}+2^{-\lambda}+\frac{1-2^{-\lambda}}{2}\right)-\frac{1}{2} \\
& =-\frac{p}{4}+\frac{2^{-\lambda}}{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $F_{k}$ is PIF-secure, we know that $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{PIF}\left(\mathcal{A}^{\prime}, 1^{\lambda}\right)=1\right]-\frac{1}{2}$ must be negligible. Thus, $-\frac{p}{4}+\frac{2^{-\lambda}}{4}$ is negligible. Since $\frac{2^{-\lambda}}{4}$ is negligible, we obtain that $\frac{p}{4}$ is negligible. So, $p$ is negligible.

