

## Handout 2: Enhanced GMR Notation

## 1 Introduction

These notations described here are the *fully formal* ones. We have somewhat looser notation in the actual lecture, but the concepts laid out here are crucial for proper understanding.

## 2 Notation

### 2.1 Enhanced GMR Notation

For handling more complex probabilistic experiments, we present an **enhancement** to the standard GMR notation [2].

#### Basic Notations

- *Integers, Sets and Strings.*

We denote by  $\mathcal{N}$  the set of natural numbers. If  $n \in \mathcal{N}$ , by  $1^n$  we denote the concatenation of  $n$  1's. We identify a binary string  $\sigma$  with the integer  $x$  whose binary representation (with possible leading zeroes) is  $\sigma$ .

By the expression  $|x|$  we denote the length of  $x$  if  $x$  is a string, the length of the binary string representing  $x$  if  $x$  is an integer, the absolute value of  $x$  if  $x$  is a real number, or the cardinality of  $x$  if  $x$  is a set.

If  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  are binary strings, we denote their concatenation by either  $\sigma \circ \tau$  or  $\sigma\tau$ .

A language is a subset of  $\{0, 1\}^*$ . If  $L$  is a language

and  $k > 0$ , we set  $L_k = \{x \in L : |x| \leq k\}$ . For variety of discourse, we may call “theorem” a string belonging to the language at hand. (A “false theorem” is a string string outside  $L$ .)

- *Algorithms.*

An algorithm is a Turing machine. An *efficient* algorithm is a probabilistic Turing machine running in expected polynomial time.

We emphasize the number of inputs received by an algorithm as follows. If algorithm  $A$  receives only one input we write “ $A(\cdot)$ ”, if it receives two inputs we write “ $A(\cdot, \cdot)$ ” and so on.

If  $A(\cdot)$  is a probabilistic algorithm, then for any input  $x$ , the notation  $A(x)$  refers to the probability space that assigns to the string  $\sigma$  the probability that  $A$ , on input  $x$ , outputs  $\sigma$ .

We assume a standard encoding is adopted and, if  $A$  is an algorithm, then we denote by  $\langle A \rangle$  the encoding of  $A$ .

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### Standard GMR Notation

- *Random assignments.* If  $S$  is a probability space, then “ $x \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} S$ ” denotes the algorithm which assigns to  $x$  an element randomly selected according to  $S$ . If  $F$  is a finite set, then the notation “ $x \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} F$ ” denotes the algorithm which assigns to  $x$  an element selected according to the probability space whose sample space is  $F$  and uniform probability distribution on the sample points.
- *Probabilistic experiments.* If  $p(\cdot, \cdot, \dots)$  is a predicate, the notation  $\Pr[x \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} S; y \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} T; \dots : p(x, y, \dots)]$  denotes the probability that  $p(x, y, \dots)$  will be true after the ordered execution of the algorithms  $x \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} S, y \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} T, \dots$

- *Probability spaces.*

The notation  $\{x \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} S; y \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} T; \dots : (x, y, \dots)\}$  denotes the probability space over  $\{(x, y, \dots)\}$  generated by the ordered execution of the algorithms  $x \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} S, y \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} T, \dots$ .

- *Negligible Functions* We denote by  $\nu : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow (0, 1)$  a function that vanishes faster than the inverse of any fixed polynomial, for all sufficiently large arguments.

### New GMR Notation

- *History-Preserving Algorithms.* We say that an algorithm (or interactive TM)  $A$  is *history-preserving* (HP, for short) if it “never forgets” anything. As soon as it flips a coin or receives an input or a message,  $A$  writes it on a separate history tape that is write-only and whose head always moves from left to right. The history tape’s content coincides with  $A$ ’s internal configuration before  $A$  executes any step.

If  $A$  is an HP algorithm, then if  $A$  appears more than once in a piece of GMR notation (e.g,  $\Pr[\dots ; a \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} A(x); \dots ; b \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} A(y); \dots : p(\dots, a, b, \dots)]$ ) then it is understood that the final internal configuration and content of the history tape of one run of  $A$  coincide with  $A$ ’s initial internal configuration and content of the history tape of the next run.

If  $A$  is an HP algorithm, then if  $A$  appears more than once in a piece of GMR notation (e.g,  $\Pr[\dots ; a \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} A(x); \dots ; b \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} A(y); \dots : p(\dots, a, b, \dots)]$ ) then the history and state of  $A$  is preserved from the end of one “use” to the beginning of the next.

The notation  $h \stackrel{H}{\leftarrow} A$  indicates that  $h$  is the content of the current history tape of  $A$ .

If  $A$  is a HP algorithm, and  $h$  the final history of an execution of  $A$ , we denote by  $A\{h\}$  the algorithm having the same tapes and finite state control of  $A$  and initial configuration equal to the last configuration of  $h$ .

- *Adversaries.* An *adversary* is an efficient history-preserving algorithm (interactive TM).

- *Non-Determinism.* If  $S$  is a set, the notation  $x \stackrel{ND}{\leftarrow} S$  indicates that  $x$  has been non-deterministically chosen from  $S$ .

Whenever non-deterministic choices appear within an experiment, they are regarded as constants (and not random variables), and all probabilistic statements made refers to each possible individual choice. For instance, the expression  $Pr(x \stackrel{ND}{\leftarrow} S : A(x) = 1) = 1/2$  means that, for every  $x \in S$ ,  $A$  on  $x$  outputs 1 with exactly probability  $1/2$ .

## 2.2 Protocols

Following [1], we consider a two-party protocol as a pair,  $(A, B)$ , of interactive Turing machines. (ITMs for short). Briefly, on input  $(x, y)$ , where  $x$  is a private input for  $A$  and  $y$  a private input for  $B$ , and random input  $(r_A, r_B)$ , where  $r_A$  is a private random tape for  $A$  and  $r_B$  a private random tape for  $B$ , protocol  $(A, B)$  computes in a sequence of rounds, alternating between  $A$ -rounds and  $B$ -rounds. In an  $A$ -round ( $B$ -round) only  $A$  (only  $B$ ) is active and sends a message (i.e., a string) that will become an available input to  $B$  (to  $A$ ) in the next  $B$ -round ( $A$ -round). A computation of  $(A, B)$  ends in a  $B$ -round in which  $B$  sends the empty message and computes a private output.<sup>1</sup>

### Executions, Transcripts, and Outputs

If  $(A, B)$  is a protocol and  $(x, y)$  an input for  $(A, B)$ , we let  $EXE^{A, B}(x|y)$  denote the experiment of randomly executing  $(A, B)$  on input  $(x, y)$ . In our definitions, we think of this experiment as affecting the computation history of the participants rather than having an output.

Letting  $E$  be an execution of protocol  $(A, B)$  on input  $(x, y)$  and random input  $(r_A, r_B)$ , we make the following definitions:

- The *transcript* of  $E$  consists of the sequence of messages exchanged by  $A$  and  $B$ , and is denoted by  $TRANS^{A, B}(x, r_A|y, r_B)$ ;
- The *view of  $A$*  consists of the triplet  $(x, r_A, t)$ , where  $t$  is  $E$ 's transcript, and is denoted by  $VIEW_A^{A, B}(x, r_A|y, r_B)$ ;
- The *view of  $B$*  consists of the triplet  $(y, r_B, t)$ , where  $t$  is  $E$ 's transcript, and is denoted by  $VIEW_B^{A, B}(x, r_A|y, r_B)$ ;
- The *output of  $B$  in  $E$*  consists of the string  $z$  output by  $B$  in the last round of  $E$ , and is denoted by  $OUT_B^{A, B}(x, r_A|y, r_B)$ , though it only depends on  $B$ 's inputs, coin tosses, and  $E$ 's transcript.

When we are only concerned with the output, and when both parties have the same input  $x$ , we sometimes write  $(A, B)[x]$  as shorthand for  $OUT^{A, B}(x, \cdot|y, \cdot)$ .

We also define the following random distributions

- $TRANS^{A, B}(x, \cdot|y, r_B)$ ,  $TRANS^{A, B}(x, r_A|y, \cdot)$ , and  $TRANS^{A, B}(x, \cdot|y, \cdot)$

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<sup>1</sup>Due to the one-sidedness of secure computation, only machine  $B$  produces an output.

as the distribution respectively obtained by randomly selecting  $r_A$ ,  $r_B$ , or both, and then drawing from  $TRANS^{A,B}(x, r_A|y, r_B)$ . We also consider the similarly defined random variables

- $VIEW_A(x, \cdot|y, r_B)$ ,  $VIEW_A(x, r_A|y, \cdot)$ ,  $VIEW_A(x, \cdot|y, \cdot)$ ,  $VIEW_B(x, \cdot|y, r_B)$ ,  $VIEW_B(x, r_A|y, \cdot)$ , and  $VIEW_B(x, \cdot|y, \cdot)$ ; and
- $OUT_B^{A,B}(x, \cdot|y, r_B)$ ,  $OUT_B^{A,B}(x, r_A|y, \cdot)$ , and  $OUT_B^{A,B}(x, \cdot|y, \cdot)$ ;

In all above quantities the superscript  $(A, B)$  will sometimes be omitted when clear from the context. When we do not wish to explicitly consider the random coins of the participants, we will omit them.

### Polynomial-Time Protocols

A protocol  $(A, B)$  is called *polynomial time* if there is a fixed polynomial  $P$  such that, for all  $k \in \mathcal{N}$ , in every execution in which the length of both private inputs is  $\leq k$ , the number of steps taken by both  $A$  and  $B$  in that execution is  $\leq P(k)$ .

### Security parameters

If  $k$  is a positive integer, we denote by  $1^k$  the unary representation of  $k$  (i.e., the string consisting of  $k$  1-symbols). We say that an execution of a protocol  $(A, B)$  has *security parameter*  $k$  if the private input of  $A$  is of the form  $(1^k, x)$  and the private input of  $B$  is of the form  $(1^k, y)$ . (Thus, *de facto*  $1^k$  is a “common input” while  $x$  and  $y$  are the “real private inputs.”)

## References

- [1] Shafi Goldwasser, Silvio Micali, and Charles Rackoff. The knowledge complexity of interactive proof systems. In *Proceedings of the 17th ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing*, pages 291–304, 1985. Superseded by journal version.
- [2] Shafi Goldwasser, Silvio Micali, and Ronald L. Rivest. A digital-signature scheme secure against adaptive chosen-message attacks. *SIAM J. Computing*, 17(2):281–308, April 1988.