

# Public-Key Encryption with Lazy Parties\*

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## Abstract

In a public-key encryption scheme, if a sender is not concerned about the security of a message and is unwilling to generate costly randomness, the security of the encrypted message can be compromised. In this work, we characterize such *lazy parties*, who are regraded as honest parties, but are unwilling to perform a costly task when they are not concerned about the security. Specifically, we consider a rather simple setting in which the costly task is to generate randomness used in algorithms, and parties can choose either perfect randomness or a fixed string. We model lazy parties as rational players who behave rationally to maximize their utilities, and define a security game between the parties and an adversary. Since a standard secure encryption scheme does not work in the setting, we provide constructions of secure encryption schemes in various settings.

## 1 Introduction

As a motivating example, consider the following situation. Alice is a teacher of a course “Introduction to Cryptography.” She promised to inform the students of their grades by using public-key encryption. Each student prepared his/her public key, and sent it to Alice. Since there are many students taking the course, it is very costly to encrypt the grades of all the students. However, because she promised to use public-key encryption, she decided to encrypt the grades. To encrypt messages, she needs to generate randomness. Generating randomness is also a costly task. While the grades are personal information for the students and thus they want them to be securely transmitted, the grades are not personal information for Alice. The security of the grades is not her concern. She noticed that, even if she generated imperfect randomness for encryption, no one may detect it. Consequently, she used imperfect randomness for encryption.

The above situation resulted in an undesirable consequence. This example demonstrates that, if a party in a cryptographic protocol is not concerned about the security and is unwilling to do a costly task, then the security of the protocol may be compromised. The insecurity is caused by the *laziness* of the party. However, the security should be preserved even if such parties exist.

### 1.1 This Work

We introduce the notion of *lazy parties*, who may compromise the security of cryptographic protocols. They are characterized such that (1) they are not concerned about the security of the protocol in a certain situation,

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and (2) they behave in an honest-looking way and are unwilling to do a costly task. As the first step toward understanding the behavior of lazy parties, we consider the following rather simple setting in public-key encryption schemes. The sender and the receiver have their own valuable messages. They want to transmit a message securely if it is valuable to them. However, since both the sender and the receiver are lazy, the sender is not willing to do a costly task if a message is not valuable to him, and the receiver vice versa. The costly task we consider is to generate randomness used in algorithms. For simplicity, we assume that players can choose either good randomness or bad randomness. We assume that the good randomness is a truly random string, and the bad randomness is a fixed string. Our goal is to design public-key encryption schemes in which valuable messages of the sender or the receiver can be transmitted securely by the lazy sender and receiver who may use bad randomness in algorithms.

**Formalizing the Problem** The security of public-key encryption with lazy parties are formalized as follows. First, a security game between a sender, a receiver, and an adversary is defined. The game is a variant of the usual chosen plaintext attack (CPA) game of public-key encryption. In the game, we see the sender and the receiver as rational players. The sender and the receiver have their utility functions, the values of which are determined by the outcome of the game, and they play the game to maximize their utilities. Roughly speaking, an encryption scheme is secure for lazy parties if there is a pair of prescribed strategies of the sender and the receiver for the game, the game is conducted in a secure way if they follow the prescribed pair of strategies, and the pair of strategies is a good equilibrium solution. The solution concepts we consider in this work are the Nash equilibrium and the strict Nash equilibrium, which is stronger than the Nash equilibrium.

**Impossibility Results** We show that to achieve the security for lazy parties with a Nash equilibrium solution in our setting, the sender must generate a secret key, and the encryption phase requires at least two rounds. Neither of them is satisfied in the usual public-key encryption. Therefore, we need to consider encryption schemes in which the sender generates a secret key in the key generation phase, and the sender and the receiver interact at least two times in encrypting a message.

**Constructions** The security for lazy parties varies according to what information each player knows. We consider several situations according to the information each player knows, and present a secure encryption scheme for lazy parties in each situation.

The first situation is a basic one: the receiver does not know whether a message to be encrypted is valuable to him or not, and the sender knows the value of the message for him. We propose a two-round encryption scheme that is secure for lazy parties with a strict Nash equilibrium solution. The idea is simple. First, the receiver generates a random string, encrypts it by the public key of the sender, and sends it to the sender. Next, the sender recovers the random string from the ciphertext and uses it to encrypt a message by the one-time pad. Since the receiver does not know whether a message to be encrypted is valuable to him or not, the receiver will generate good randomness.

The next situation is one in which the receiver may know whether a message to be encrypted is valuable to him or not. This captures a real-life situation; If we use encryption, in many cases, it is realized not only by the sender but also the receiver that what kind of message will be sent. Under this situation, the above two-round scheme seems no longer secure since the receiver would generate bad randomness if a message to be encrypted is not valuable to him. We show that for any pair of strategies the above two-round scheme cannot achieve the security with a Nash equilibrium solution. Thus we propose a three-round encryption

scheme that is secure in the setting. The encryption phase is conducted as follows. First, the sender and the receiver perform a key-agreement protocol to share a random string between them so that the shared string will be uniformly random if at least one of them chooses good one in the key-agreement protocol. Then, the sender uses the shared string as randomness in the encryption algorithm. Finally, after recovering a message, the receiver encrypts the message by the sender’s public key and makes it public. At first glance, the final step of making the encrypted message public seems redundant, but our scheme does not achieve the security without this step. Our three-round scheme is secure for lazy parties with a strict Nash equilibrium solution.

We generalize the above situation such that both the sender and the receiver may know that a message to be encrypted is valuable to them. The difference from the previous situation is that the sender may be able to know the value of the message for the receiver, and the receiver vice versa. In this situation, we realized that the above three-round scheme has two different pairs of strategies that achieve the security with a strict Nash equilibrium. There is a situation such that one pair yields a higher utility to the sender, and the other pair yields a higher utility to the receiver. Moreover, if the sender follows a strategy that yields a higher utility to him and the receiver also does so, they will conduct an encryption protocol in an insecure way, which is worse for both of them. Thus, we propose a simple way to avoid such a consequence.

Finally, we consider constructing a non-interactive encryption scheme that is secure for lazy parties. We avoid the impossibility result of existing non-interactive schemes by adding some reasonable assumption to lazy parties. The assumption is that players do not want to reveal their secret key to adversaries. Then we employ a *signcryption* scheme for an encryption scheme. A signcryption scheme is a cryptographic primitive that achieves both public-key encryption and signature simultaneously, and thus the sender also has a secret key. Some signcryption schemes (e.g., Zheng’s scheme [30]) have the *key-exposure property*, which means that the sender’s secret key can be efficiently recovered from a ciphertext and its random string. This property seems to be undesirable in a standard setting. However, we show that if a signcryption scheme with the key-exposure property is employed as a public-key encryption scheme, it is secure for lazy parties with a strict Nash equilibrium solution.

## 1.2 Related Work

Halpern and Pass [19] have introduced *Bayesian machine games* in which players’ utilities can depend on the computational costs of their strategies. We could use the framework of Halpern and Pass to define a security of public-key encryption schemes for lazy parties since the utilities of lazy parties depend on their computational cost. We did not use their framework since their framework seems too general for our purpose.

There have been many studies on *rational cryptography* [23, 12, 18], in which rational players are considered in designing cryptographic protocols. Much study has been devoted to *rational secret sharing* [20, 1, 14, 24, 25, 27, 28, 3]. There are studies on other cryptographic primitives such as fair two-party computation [2, 16], leader election [15], byzantine agreement [17], oblivious transfer [21], and commitment schemes [22]. Our work also can be seen as a study of rational cryptography. As far as we know, this is the first study of rational behavior in public-key encryption schemes.

In cryptography, there are several characterizations of parties who are neither honest nor malicious [8, 9, 4]. In particular, the deviations of honest-looking parties were studied in [8, 9]. All types of honest-looking parties defined in [8, 9] deviate from the protocol in a way that is computationally indistinguishable from the view of external or internal parties. This means that any efficient statistical test cannot tell the difference between honest parties and honest-looking parties. In this study, we look at honest-looking parties who may deviate from the protocol by using a fixed string instead of a truly random string. Since the difference

between fixed strings and truly random strings can be told by a simple statistical test, the deviations of lazy parties are bolder than honest-looking parties in [8, 9]. Note that all the characterization in [8, 9] appeared in the context of general multiparty computation, not in public-key encryption.

A problem of public-key encryption with lazy parties is that lazy parties might not use good randomness in algorithms. There are many studies on the security of cryptographic tasks when only weak randomness is available. If there are only high min-entropy sources, not including truly random one, many impossibility results are known [26, 11, 6, 10]. Bellare et al. [5] introduced hedged public-key encryption, which achieves the usual CPA security if good randomness is used, and achieves a weaker security if bad randomness is used. In this work, we consider only two types of randomness sources, truly random ones and fixed ones. We achieve the security by a mechanism such that lazy parties choose to use good randomness for their purpose.

### 1.3 Future Work

Possible future work will extend the framework of this work to more general settings. For example, in this work, lazy players can choose either truly random (full entropy) strings or fixed (zero entropy) strings as the randomness in algorithms. Since it seems more realistic for players to be able to choose random strings from general entropy sources, extending the framework to such a general setting and defining a reasonable security on that setting are interesting for future work.

Another possible future work is to explore cryptographic protocols that may be compromised in the presence of lazy parties. This work demonstrates that public-key encryption is a primitive in which lazy participants can compromise the security of other participants. The same thing might happen in other primitives. Although we consider only generating good randomness as a costly task, it is possible to consider another thing as cost, such as time for computation and delay in the protocol.

### 1.4 Organization

In Section 2, we introduce the CPA game for lazy parties, define utility functions of lazy parties, and provide a definition of CPA security for lazy parties. Some impossibility results for achieving the security for lazy parties are presented in Section 3. Our secure encryption schemes in various situations are presented in Section 4.

### 1.5 Notations

A function  $\epsilon(\cdot)$  is called *negligible* if for any constant  $c$ ,  $\epsilon(n) < 1/n^c$  for every sufficiently large  $n$ . For two families of random variables  $X = \{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  and  $Y = \{Y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ , we say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are *computationally indistinguishable*, denoted by  $X \approx_c Y$ , if for every probabilistic polynomial-time (PPT) distinguisher  $D$ , there is a negligible function  $\epsilon(\cdot)$  such that  $|\Pr[D(X_n) = 1] - \Pr[D(Y_n) = 1]| \leq \epsilon(n)$  for every sufficiently large  $n$ . For a probabilistic algorithm  $A$ , the output of  $A$  when the input is  $x$  is denoted by  $A(x)$ , and denoted by  $A(x; r)$  when the random string  $r$  used in  $A$  is represented explicitly.

## 2 Lazy Parties in Public-Key Encryption

We assume that both a sender and a receiver are lazy parties. Each party has a set of valuable messages, and wants a message to be sent securely if it is valuable to that party. If a message to be encrypted is not

valuable to a party, he is not concerned about the security of the message, and does not want to use good randomness in the computation. In this paper, we consider only two types of randomness, good randomness and bad randomness. Good randomness is a truly random string but costly. Bad randomness is generated with zero cost, but is some fixed string.

The security is formalized as follows. Lazy parties are considered as rational players who have some utility functions and behave rationally to maximize their utilities. We define a security game between a lazy sender, a lazy receiver, and an adversary. Then, we say that an encryption scheme is secure if there is a pair of prescribed strategies of the sender and the receiver for the game, the game is conducted in a secure way if they follow the strategies, and the pair of strategies is a good equilibrium solution.

Public-key encryption is defined as an *interactive* protocol between a sender and a receiver. The reason is that we cannot achieve the security if the sender does not have a secret key or the encryption phase is conducted in one round, which will be described in Section 3. In the key generation phase, both the sender and the receiver generate their own public key and secret key, then each public key is distributed to the other player. In the encryption phase, the players conduct an interactive protocol in which the sender has a message as an input. After the encryption phase, the receiver can recover the message by running the decryption algorithm. This definition is much more general than the usual public-key encryption, in which only the receiver generates a public key and a secret key, and the encryption phase is just sending a ciphertext from the sender to the receiver.

**Definition 1** (Public-key encryption scheme). *An  $n$ -round public-key encryption scheme  $\Pi$  is the tuple  $(\{\text{GEN}_w\}_{w \in \{S, R\}}, \{\text{ENC}_i\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}, \text{DEC})$  such that*

- **Key generation:** *For each  $w \in \{S, R\}$ , on input  $1^k$ ,  $\text{GEN}_w$  outputs  $(pk_w, sk_w)$ . Let  $\mathcal{M}$  denote the message space.*
- **Encryption:** *For a message  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ , set  $st_S = (pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, m)$ ,  $st_R = (pk_S, pk_R, sk_R)$ , and  $c_0 = \perp$ . Let  $w \in \{S, R\}$  be the first sender, and  $\bar{w} \in \{S, R\} \setminus \{w\}$  the second sender. For each round  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ , when  $i$  is odd,  $\text{ENC}_i(c_{i-1}, st_w)$  outputs  $(c_i, st'_w)$ , and  $st_w$  is updated to  $st'_w$ , and when  $i$  is even,  $\text{ENC}_i(c_{i-1}, st_{\bar{w}})$  outputs  $(c_i, st'_{\bar{w}})$ , and  $st_{\bar{w}}$  is updated to  $st'_{\bar{w}}$ .*
- **Decryption:** *After the encryption phase, on input  $st_R$ ,  $\text{DEC}$  outputs  $\hat{m}$ .*
- **Correctness:** *For any message  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ , after the encryption phase,  $\text{DEC}(st_R) = m$ .*

We provide a definition of the chosen plaintext attack (CPA) game for lazy parties. The game is a variant of the usual CPA game for public-key encryption. The game is conducted as follows. The sender  $S$  (and the receiver  $R$ ) has his valuable message space  $\mathcal{M}_S$  (and  $\mathcal{M}_R$ ), which is a subset of  $\{0, 1\}^*$ . First, each player  $w \in \{S, R\}$  are asked to choose good randomness or bad randomness for the key generation algorithm. If player  $w$  chooses good randomness, a random string  $r_w^g$  for key generation is sampled as a truly random string. Otherwise,  $r_w^g$  is generated by the adversary of this game. Then, pairs of public and secret keys for the two parties are generated using  $r_w^g$  as a random string, and the public keys are distributed to the sender, the receiver, and the adversary. Next, the adversary generates two sequences  $\mathbf{m}_0$  and  $\mathbf{m}_1$  of challenge messages, where  $\mathbf{m}_b = (m_{b,1}, \dots, m_{b,\ell})$  for  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  and some polynomial  $\ell$ . After that, the challenger chooses  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  uniformly at random. The sender receives  $\mathbf{m}_b$  and is asked to choose good or bad randomness for the encryption protocol. If he chooses good randomness, random strings  $r_{i,j}^e$  for encryption is sampled as truly random strings, where  $r_{i,j}^e$  represents a random string used in the  $j$ -th round of the encryption for the  $i$ -th message  $m_{b,i}$ . Otherwise, strings  $r_{i,j}^e$ 's are generated by the adversary. Similarly, the receiver is also asked to choose good or bad randomness for the encryption protocol without seeing the challenge messages  $\mathbf{m}_b$ , and random strings  $r_{i,j}^e$ 's are generated in the same way as for the sender. Then, a

sequence of challenge messages are encrypted using  $r_{i,j}^e$ 's as random strings. Finally, the adversary receives a sequence of challenge ciphertexts, and outputs a guess  $b' \in \{0, 1\}$ . The outcome of the game consists of five values  $\text{Win}$ ,  $\text{Val}_S$ ,  $\text{Val}_R$ ,  $\text{Num}_S$ , and  $\text{Num}_R$ . The value  $\text{Win}$  takes 1 if the guess of the adversary is correct, namely  $b = b'$ , and 0 otherwise. The value  $\text{Val}_w$  for player  $w \in \{S, R\}$  takes 1 if there is at least one valuable message for player  $w$  in the sequence  $\mathbf{m}_b$  of challenge messages, and 0 otherwise. The value  $\text{Num}_w$  for player  $w \in \{S, R\}$  represents the number of times that player  $w$  chose good randomness in the game, which is between 0 and 2.

In the following, we provide a formal definition of the CPA game for lazy parties. For a probabilistic algorithm  $A$ , we denote by  $\ell(A)$  the length of random bits required in running  $A$ . We denote by  $\text{SAMP}(A)$  an algorithm that samples a random string from  $\{0, 1\}^{\ell(A)}$ .

**Definition 2** (CPA game for lazy parties). *Let  $\Pi = (\{\text{GEN}_w\}_{w \in \{S, R\}}, \{\text{ENC}_i\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}, \text{DEC})$  be a public-key encryption scheme. For an adversary  $A$ , the security parameter  $k$ , valuable message spaces  $\mathcal{M}_S$  and  $\mathcal{M}_R$ , and a pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ , we define the following game.*

**Game<sup>cpa</sup>**( $\Pi, k, A, \mathcal{M}_S, \mathcal{M}_R, \sigma_S, \sigma_R$ ):

1. **Choice of randomness for key generation:** For each  $w \in \{S, R\}$ , compute  $x_w^g \leftarrow \sigma_w(1^k, \mathcal{M}_w)$ , where  $x_w^g \in \{\text{Good}, \text{Bad}\}$  and we assume that  $\mathcal{M}_w$  has a polynomial-size representation. If  $x_w^g = \text{Bad}$ , then given  $(1^k, w)$ ,  $A$  outputs  $r_w^g \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\text{GEN}_w(1^k))}$ . Otherwise sample  $r_w^g \leftarrow \text{SAMP}(\text{GEN}_w(1^k))$ .
2. **Key generation:** For each  $w \in \{S, R\}$ , generate  $(pk_w, sk_w) \leftarrow \text{GEN}_w(1^k; r_w^g)$ . Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be the corresponding message space.
3. **Challenge generation:** Given  $(pk_S, pk_R)$ ,  $A$  outputs  $\mathbf{m}_0 = (m_{0,1}, \dots, m_{0,\ell})$  and  $\mathbf{m}_1 = (m_{1,1}, \dots, m_{1,\ell})$ , where  $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$  is a polynomial in  $k$  and  $m_{i,j} \in \mathcal{M}$  for each  $i \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $j \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . Then sample  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  uniformly at random.
4. **Choice of randomness for encryption:** For each  $w \in \{S, R\}$ , compute  $x_w^e \leftarrow \sigma_w(pk_S, pk_R, sk_w, aux_w)$ , where  $x_w^e \in \{\text{Good}, \text{Bad}\}$ ,  $aux_S = \mathbf{m}_b$ , and  $aux_R = \perp$ . If  $x_w^e = \text{Bad}$ , then given  $w$ ,  $A$  outputs  $r_{i,j}^e \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\text{ENC}_j(\cdot))}$  for each  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$  and  $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . Otherwise sample  $r_{i,j}^e \leftarrow \text{SAMP}(\text{ENC}_j(\cdot))$  for each  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$  and  $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . Let  $w$  be the first sender, and  $\bar{w}$  the second sender, which are determined by  $\Pi$ .
5. **Encryption:** For  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ , do the following. Set  $st_S = (pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, m_{b,i})$ ,  $st_R = (pk_S, pk_R, sk_R)$ , and  $c_{i,0} = \perp$ . For  $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ , when  $j$  is odd, compute  $(c_{i,j}, st'_w) \leftarrow \text{ENC}_j(c_{i,j-1}, st_w; r_{i,j}^e)$  and  $st_w$  is updated to  $st'_w$ , and when  $j$  is even, compute  $s(c_{i,j}, st'_{\bar{w}}) \leftarrow \text{ENC}_j(c_{i,j-1}, st_{\bar{w}}; r_{i,j}^e)$  and  $st_{\bar{w}}$  is updated to  $st'_{\bar{w}}$ .
6. **Guess:** Given  $\{c_{i,j} : i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}\}$ ,  $A$  outputs  $b' \in \{0, 1\}$ .
7. **Output** ( $\text{Win}, \text{Val}_S, \text{Val}_R, \text{Num}_S, \text{Num}_R$ ), where  $\text{Win}$  takes 1 if  $b' = b$ , and 0 otherwise,  $\text{Val}_w$  takes 1 if  $m_{b,i} \in \mathcal{M}_w$  for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ , and 0 otherwise, and  $\text{Num}_w$  represents the number of times that  $\sigma_w$  output Good in the game.

Next, we define the utility functions of lazy sender and receiver for this game. We take the following points into consideration: (1) If a message to be sent is valuable to player  $w$ , then player  $w$  prefers the adversary not to correctly guess the message. Otherwise, player  $w$  does not concern about the guess of the adversary. (2) Each player prefers to generate good randomness as few times as possible. (3) Each player prefers to pay the cost of good randomness if a message to be sent is valuable him.

**Definition 3** (Utility function for CPA game). *Let  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  be a pair of strategies of the game **Game<sup>cpa</sup>**. The utility of player  $w \in \{S, R\}$  when the outcome  $\text{Out} = (\text{Win}, \text{Val}_S, \text{Val}_R, \text{Num}_S, \text{Num}_R)$  happens is defined*

by

$$u_w(\text{Out}) = (-\alpha_w) \cdot \text{Win} \cdot \text{Val}_w + (-\beta_w) \cdot \text{Num}_w,$$

where  $\alpha_w, \beta_w \in \mathbb{R}$  are some non-negative constant. Let  $q_w$  be the maximum number that  $\text{Num}_w$  can take. ( $q_w$  is either 0, 1, or 2, depending on the scheme  $\Pi$ .) We say that the utility is non-trivial if  $\alpha_w/2 > q_w \cdot \beta_w$  for each  $w \in \{S, R\}$ .

The utility when the players follow a pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is defined by

$$U_w(\sigma_S, \sigma_R) = \min_{A, \mathcal{M}_S, \mathcal{M}_R} \{\mathbf{E}[u_w(\text{Out})]\},$$

where  $\text{Out}$  is the outcome of the game  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}(\Pi, k, A, \mathcal{M}_S, \mathcal{M}_R, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ , and the minimum is taken over all PPT adversaries  $A$  and valuable message spaces  $\mathcal{M}_S$  and  $\mathcal{M}_R$ . Note that  $U_w(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is implicitly a function of the security parameter  $k$ .

In the definition of the utility when players follow a pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ , we take the minimum over all possible adversaries and valuable message spaces. This is because we would like to evaluate a pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  by considering the worst-case for possible adversaries and valuable message spaces. In other words, we would like to say that a pair of strategies is good if it is guaranteed to yield high utility for any adversary and players, who are associated with valuable message spaces.

Note that the non-triviality condition of the utility guarantees that players have an incentive to use good randomness to achieve the security. If players do not use good randomness, then there is an adversary such that  $\text{Win} \cdot \text{Val}_w$  is always 1. The best we can hope for is that the expected value of  $\text{Win} \cdot \text{Val}_w$  is  $1/2$  (plus some negligible value), which increases the utility by  $\alpha_w/2$ . Since  $\text{Num}_w$  takes at most  $q_w$  in the game, the inequality  $\alpha_w/2 > q_w \cdot \beta_w$  means that achieving the security is worth paying the cost of good randomness. Hereafter, we assume that the utility functions are non-trivial.

As game theoretic solution concepts, we define the Nash equilibrium and the strict Nash equilibrium. Since any strategy that a player can follow should be computable in a polynomial time and a negligible difference of the outcome of the game should be ignored for PPT algorithms, we consider a computational Nash equilibrium.

**Definition 4** (Computational Nash equilibrium). *A pair of PPT strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  of the game  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}$  is called a computational Nash equilibrium if for every player  $w \in \{S, R\}$  and every pair of PPT strategies  $(\sigma'_S, \sigma'_R)$ , there is a negligible function  $\epsilon(\cdot)$  such that*

$$U_w(\sigma_S^*, \sigma_R^*) \leq U_w(\sigma_S, \sigma_R) + \epsilon(k),$$

where  $(\sigma_S^*, \sigma_R^*) = (\sigma'_S, \sigma_R)$  if  $w = S$ ,  $(\sigma_S^*, \sigma_R^*) = (\sigma_S, \sigma'_R)$  otherwise.

Strict Nash equilibrium is a stronger solution concept than plain Nash equilibrium, and guarantees that if a player deviates from the strategy, then the utility of the player decreases by a non-negligible amount. The definition is based on that of [13], which appeared in the context of rational secret sharing.

**Definition 5** (Equivalent strategy). *Let  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  be a pair of strategies of the game  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}$ , and  $\sigma'_w$  any strategy of player  $w \in \{S, R\}$ . We say  $\sigma'_w$  is equivalent to  $\sigma_w$ , denoted by  $\sigma'_w \approx \sigma_w$ , if for any PPT adversary  $A$  and valuable message spaces  $\mathcal{M}_S$  and  $\mathcal{M}_R$ ,*

$$\{\text{Trans}(1^k, \sigma_w)\} \approx_c \{\text{Trans}(1^k, \sigma'_w)\},$$

where  $\text{Trans}(1^k, \sigma_w)$  represents the transcript of the game  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}(\Pi, k, A, \mathcal{M}_S, \mathcal{M}_R, \sigma_S^*, \sigma_R^*)$ , which includes all values generated in the game except the internal random coin of  $\sigma'_w$ , and  $(\sigma_S^*, \sigma_R^*) = (\sigma'_S, \sigma_R)$  if  $w = S$ ,  $(\sigma_S^*, \sigma_R^*) = (\sigma_S, \sigma'_R)$  otherwise.

**Definition 6** (Computational strict Nash equilibrium). *A pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  of the game  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}$  is called a computational strict Nash equilibrium if*

1.  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a Nash equilibrium;
2. For every  $w \in \{S, R\}$  and every PPT strategy  $\sigma'_w \neq \sigma_w$ , there is a constant  $c > 0$  such that  $U_w(\sigma_S^*, \sigma_R^*) \leq U_w(\sigma_S, \sigma_R) - 1/k^c$  for infinitely many  $k$ , where  $(\sigma_S^*, \sigma_R^*) = (\sigma'_S, \sigma_R)$  if  $w = S$ ,  $(\sigma_S^*, \sigma_R^*) = (\sigma_S, \sigma'_R)$  otherwise.

We define the security of encryption schemes for lazy parties.

**Definition 7** (CPA security for lazy parties). *Let  $\Pi = (\{\text{GEN}_w\}_{w \in \{S, R\}}, \{\text{ENC}_i\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}, \text{DEC})$  be a public-key encryption scheme, and  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  a pair of strategies of the game  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}$ . We say that  $(\Pi, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is CPA secure with a (strict) Nash equilibrium for  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}$  if*

1. For any PPT adversary  $A$  and valuable message spaces  $\mathcal{M}_S, \mathcal{M}_R$ , there is a negligible function  $\epsilon(\cdot)$  such that  $\Pr[\text{Win} \cdot (\text{Val}_S + \text{Val}_R) \neq 0] \leq 1/2 + \epsilon(k)$ , where  $\text{Win}, \text{Val}_S, \text{Val}_R$  are components of the outcome of the game  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}(\Pi, k, A, \mathcal{M}_S, \mathcal{M}_R, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ .
2. The pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a computational (strict) Nash equilibrium.

In the first condition, we evaluate the value of  $\text{Win} \cdot (\text{Val}_S + \text{Val}_R)$  since if  $\text{Val}_S + \text{Val}_R = 0$ , all the messages chosen by the adversary are not valuable to both the sender and the receiver.

A solution of a game can be considered a prediction of how the game will be played. Thus, it is more plausible for players to follow a scheme with a stronger solution.

Note that the usual CPA security of usual (non-interactive) public-key encryption is a special case of the above definition. If the scheme  $\Pi$  consists of  $(\text{GEN}_R, \text{ENC}_1, \text{DEC})$ , a pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is such that both  $\sigma_S$  and  $\sigma_R$  always output Good, and the second condition of the security is not considered, then the above security is equivalent to the usual CPA security of public-key encryption. If a non-interactive scheme  $\Pi$  is CPA secure in the usual sense, we say simply that  $\Pi$  is *CPA secure*.

### 3 Impossibility Results

In this section, we show that to achieve CPA security for lazy parties, (1) the sender must generate a secret key and (2) the encryption phase requires at least two rounds. Neither of them is satisfied in the usual public-key encryption.

Roughly speaking, the reason why secure schemes require the generation of a secret key for a sender is that if the messages to be encrypted are valuable to the receiver but not to the sender, the sender does not use good randomness and thus the adversary can correctly guess which of the challenge messages was encrypted because she knows all the inputs to the sender.

Furthermore, even if the sender has his secret key, if the encryption phase is 1-round, there is an adversary who can guess the challenge correctly. Consider an adversary who submits challenge messages where one consists of the same two messages and the other consists of different two messages, and all the messages are valuable to the receiver but not to the sender. Then the sender does not use good randomness,



and thus the adversary can choose randomness for encryption. If she choose the same random strings for two challenge messages, then although the adversary does not know the secret key of the sender, since the encryption is 1-round, she can correctly guess which of the challenges was encrypted by checking whether given two challenge ciphertexts are the same or not.

We show that the above two properties are necessary for achieving CPA security with a Nash equilibrium.

**Proposition 1.** *For any public-key encryption scheme  $\Pi = (\{\text{GEN}_w\}_{w \in \{S,R\}}, \{\text{ENC}_i\}_{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}}, \text{DEC})$  and any pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ , if  $\text{GEN}_S$  does not output  $sk_S$ , then  $(\Pi, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is not CPA secure with a Nash equilibrium for  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{CPA}}$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $(\Pi, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is CPA secure with a Nash equilibrium. Consider an adversary  $A$  who submits challenge messages  $(\mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1)$  such that  $\mathbf{m}_0 = m_0$ ,  $\mathbf{m}_1 = m_1$ ,  $m_0 \neq m_1$ , and  $m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}_R \setminus \mathcal{M}_S$ . Since any challenge message is not in  $\mathcal{M}_S$ , the best strategy of the sender for  $A$  in the encryption phase is to choose  $x_S^e = \text{Bad}$  regardless of the receiver's strategy. Therefore,  $\sigma_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S) = \text{Bad}$  with probability at least  $1 - \epsilon(k)$ , where  $\epsilon(\cdot)$  is a negligible function. Then, since  $A$  knows all the input to the sender in the encryption phase, which consists of  $st_S = (pk_S, pk_R, aux_S, \mathbf{m}_b)$  and the random strings for encryption,  $A$  can correctly guess  $b$  from  $c_{1,1}, \dots, c_{1,n}$ . This implies that the first condition of the CPA security does not hold.  $\square$

**Proposition 2.** *For any 1-round public-key encryption scheme  $\Pi = (\{\text{GEN}_w\}_{w \in \{S,R\}}, \text{ENC}, \text{DEC})$  and any pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ ,  $(\Pi, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is not CPA secure with a Nash equilibrium for  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{CPA}}$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $(\Pi, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is CPA secure with a Nash equilibrium. Consider an adversary  $A$  who submits challenge messages  $(\mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1)$  such that  $\mathbf{m}_0 = (m, m)$ ,  $\mathbf{m}_1 = (m, m')$ ,  $m \neq m'$ , and  $m, m' \in \mathcal{M}_R \setminus \mathcal{M}_S$ . Since any challenge message is not in  $\mathcal{M}_S$ , the best strategy of the sender for  $A$  in the encryption phase is to choose  $x_S^e = \text{Bad}$  regardless of the receiver's strategy, which implies that  $\sigma_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S) = \text{Bad}$  with probability at least  $1 - \epsilon(k)$  for a negligible function  $\epsilon(\cdot)$ . Then,  $A$  receives the pair of ciphertexts  $(c_1, c_2)$  such that  $c_1 = \text{ENC}(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, m; r_1^e)$  and  $c_2 = \text{ENC}(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, m^*; r_2^e)$ , where  $m^*$  is either  $m$  or  $m'$ . Since  $A$  knows  $pk_S, pk_R, m, m', r_1^e, r_2^e$ , the only information  $A$  does not know in  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  is  $sk_S$ . Hence,  $c_1 = c_2$  if  $m^* = m$ . By the correctness property of the encryption scheme,  $c_1 \neq c_2$  if  $m^* \neq m$ . Therefore,  $A$  can correctly guess  $b$  from  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ . This implies that the first condition of the CPA security does not hold.  $\square$

## 4 Secure Encryption Schemes for Lazy Parties

### 4.1 Two-Round Encryption Scheme

We present a two-round public-key encryption scheme that is CPA secure with a strict Nash equilibrium. The encryption phase is conducted as follows. First, the receiver generates a random string, encrypts it by the public key of the sender, and sends it to the sender. Next, the sender encrypts a message by the one-time pad, in which the sender uses the random string received from the receiver. The receiver can recover the message since he knows the random string. Our scheme is based on any CPA-secure public-key encryption scheme  $\Pi = (\text{GEN}, \text{ENC}, \text{DEC})$  in which the message space is  $\{0, 1\}^\mu$  and the length of random bits required in  $\text{ENC}$  is  $\mu$ .

The description of our two-round scheme  $\Pi_{\text{two}} = (\text{GEN}_S, \{\text{ENC}_i\}_{i \in \{1,2\}}, \text{DEC}_R)$  is the following.

- $\text{GEN}_S(1^k)$ : Generate  $(pk_S, sk_S) \leftarrow \text{GEN}(1^k)$ , and output  $(pk_S, sk_S)$ .  
Let  $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^\mu$  be the message space, where  $\mu$  is a polynomial in  $k$ . Set  $st_S = sk_S$  and  $st_R^1 = pk_S$ .
- $\text{ENC}_1(st_R^1)$ : Sample  $r \in \{0, 1\}^\mu$  uniformly at random, compute  $c_1 \leftarrow \text{ENC}(pk_S, r)$ , set  $st_R^2 = r$ , and output  $(c_1, st_R^2)$ .  
 $\text{ENC}_2(c_1, st_S)$ : Compute  $\hat{r} \leftarrow \text{DEC}(sk_S, c_1)$  and  $c_2 = m \oplus \hat{r}$ , and output  $c_2$ .
- $\text{DEC}_R(c_2, st_R^2)$ : Compute  $\hat{m} = c_2 \oplus r$  and output  $\hat{m}$ .

We define a pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  such that

- $\sigma_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs Good with probability 1.
- $\sigma_R(pk_S, aux_R)$  outputs Good with probability 1.

**Theorem 1.** *If  $\Pi$  is CPA secure,  $(\Pi_{\text{two}}, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is CPA secure with a strict Nash equilibrium for  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}$ .*

*Proof.* First, we show the correctness of the scheme  $\Pi_{\text{two}}$ . Note that  $c_1 = \text{ENC}(pk_S, r)$ ,  $c_2 = m \oplus \text{DEC}(sk_S, c_1)$ , and the output of  $\text{DEC}_R$  is  $\hat{m} = c_2 \oplus r$ . It follows from the correctness of the underlying scheme  $\Pi$  that  $\hat{m} = (m \oplus \text{DEC}(sk_S, c_1)) \oplus r = m \oplus r \oplus r = m$ .

Next, we show that for any PPT adversary  $A$ , valuable message spaces  $\mathcal{M}_S$  and  $\mathcal{M}_R$ , after running the game  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}$  with a pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ , we have  $\Pr[\text{Win} \cdot (\text{Val}_S + \text{Val}_R) \neq 0] \leq 1/2 + \epsilon(k)$  for some negligible function  $\epsilon(\cdot)$ . It is sufficient to show that  $\Pr[\text{Win} = 1] \leq 1/2 + \epsilon(k)$ . In the game  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}$  with  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ , the adversary  $A$  needs to guess  $b$  from  $(pk_S, c_1, c_2, \mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1)$ . For any  $m_0 \in \mathbf{m}_0, m_1 \in \mathbf{m}_1$ , it follows from the security of the underlying scheme  $\Pi = (\text{GEN}, \text{ENC}, \text{DEC})$  that

$$\begin{aligned}
& \{pk_S, \text{ENC}(pk_S, r), r \oplus m_0, \mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1\} \\
& \approx_c \{pk_S, \text{ENC}(pk_S, r'), r \oplus m_0, \mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1\} \\
& = \{pk_S, \text{ENC}(pk_S, r'), r'', \mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1\} \\
& = \{pk_S, \text{ENC}(pk_S, r'), r \oplus m_1, \mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1\} \\
& \approx_c \{pk_S, \text{ENC}(pk_S, r), r \oplus m_1, \mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1\},
\end{aligned}$$

where  $r, r', r''$  are independently and uniformly sampled from the message space  $\{0, 1\}^\mu$ . This implies that  $\Pr[\text{Win} = 1] \leq 1/2 + \epsilon(k)$  for some negligible function  $\epsilon(\cdot)$ .

Finally, we show that  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a strict Nash equilibrium. It is required to show that  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a Nash equilibrium. Suppose that the receiver follows  $\sigma_R$ . When  $\sigma_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs Bad, which increases the utility of the sender by  $\beta_S$ , there is an adversary who can compute  $sk_S$  correctly, and thus guess  $b$  correctly. If all the challenge messages are in  $\mathcal{M}_S$ , this reduces the utility of the sender by  $\alpha_S/2$ . Thus, when the receiver follows  $\sigma_R$ , since any deviation from  $\sigma_S$  reduces the utility by  $\alpha_S/2 - \beta_S > 0$ , the strategy  $\sigma_S$  maximizes the utility of the sender. Suppose that the sender follows  $\sigma_S$ . When  $\sigma_R(pk_S, aux_R)$  outputs Bad, which increases the utility of the receiver by  $\beta_R$ , there is an adversary who computes  $m_b = r \oplus c_2$  by using  $c_2$  and  $r = r_R^e$ . If all the challenge messages are in  $\mathcal{M}_R$ , this reduces the utility of the receiver by  $\alpha_R/2$ . Hence, when the sender follows  $\sigma_S$ , since any deviation from  $\sigma_R$  reduces the utility by  $\alpha_R/2 - \beta_R > 0$ , the strategy  $\sigma_R$  maximizes the utility of the receiver. Therefore, the pair  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a Nash equilibrium.

To show the second condition of the strict Nash equilibrium, consider a strategy  $\sigma'_S$  of the sender such that  $\sigma'_S \neq \sigma_S$ . This implies that  $\sigma'_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs Bad with probability at least  $1/k^c$  for a constant  $c$ . By the same argument as above, this reduces the utility of the sender by  $(1/k^c) \cdot (\alpha_S/2 - \beta_S)$ , namely  $U_S(\sigma'_S, \sigma_R) \leq U_S(\sigma_S, \sigma_R) - (\alpha_S/2 - \beta_S)/k^c$ . Consider a strategy  $\sigma'_R$  such that  $\sigma'_R \neq \sigma_R$ , which implies

that  $\sigma'_R(pk_S, aux_R)$  outputs **Bad** with probability at least  $1/k^c$  for a constant  $c$ . As above, this reduces the utility of the receiver by  $(1/k^c) \cdot (\alpha_R/2 - \beta_R)$ , namely  $U_R(\sigma_S, \sigma'_R) \leq U_R(\sigma_S, \sigma_R) - (\alpha_R/2 - \beta_R)/k^c$ . Therefore  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a strict Nash equilibrium.  $\square$

## 4.2 Additional Information to the Receiver

We consider a situation in which the receiver may know whether a message to be encrypted is valuable to the receiver or not. The situation can be reflected by changing the game  $\mathbf{Game}^{\text{cpa}}$  such that the adversary can choose either “ $aux_R = \perp$ ” or “ $aux_R = \text{Val}_R$ ” in the challenge generation phase. Let  $\mathbf{Game}_R^{\text{cpa}}$  denote the modified game.

Then, the scheme presented in Section 4.1 is no longer secure. Intuitively, this is because the receiver does not generate good randomness if a message to be encrypted is not valuable to him.

**Proposition 3.** *For any pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ ,  $(\Pi_{\text{two}}, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is not CPA secure with a Nash equilibrium for  $\mathbf{Game}_R^{\text{cpa}}$ .*

*Proof.* Suppose that  $(\Pi_{\text{two}}, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is CPA secure with a Nash equilibrium. Consider an adversary  $A$  who sets  $aux_R = \text{Val}_R$  and submits challenge messages  $(m_0, m_1)$  such that  $m_0 = m_0$ ,  $m_1 = m_1$ ,  $m_0 \neq m_1$ , and  $m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}_S \setminus \mathcal{M}_R$ . The best strategy of the receiver for  $A$  is to choose  $x_R^e = \text{Bad}$  regardless of the sender's strategy. Therefore,  $\sigma_S(pk_S, aux_R) = \text{Bad}$  with probability at least  $1 - \epsilon(k)$ , where  $\epsilon(\cdot)$  is a negligible function. Since  $A$  knows the random string  $r$  for encryption, she can correctly guess  $b$  by computing  $m_b = c_2 \oplus r$ . This implies that the first condition of the CPA security does not hold.  $\square$

We present a three-round encryption scheme that is secure for  $\mathbf{Game}_R^{\text{cpa}}$ . In the encryption phase, first, the sender and the receiver perform a key-agreement protocol that generates a random string shared between them. The shared string is good randomness if one of the sender and the receiver uses good randomness in the key-agreement protocol. Then, the sender uses the shared string as randomness to encrypt a message. Finally, after recovering a message, the receiver encrypt the message by the sender's public key and makes it public. As described later, the final step is necessary to achieve the security. Our scheme is based on any CPA-secure public-key encryption scheme  $\Pi = (\text{GEN}, \text{ENC}, \text{DEC})$  in which the message space is  $\{0, 1\}^{2\mu}$  and the length of random bits required in  $\text{ENC}$  is  $\mu$ .

The description of the encryption scheme  $\Pi_{\text{three}} = (\{\text{GEN}_w\}_{w \in \{S, R\}}, \{\text{ENC}_i\}_{i \in \{1, 2, 3\}})$  is the following. The decryption algorithm does not exist in  $\Pi_{\text{three}}$  since the receiver decrypts a message in computing  $\text{ENC}_3$ .

- $\text{GEN}_w(1^k)$ : Generate  $(pk_w, sk_w) \leftarrow \text{GEN}(1^k)$ , and output  $(pk_w, sk_w)$ .  
Let  $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^{2\mu}$  be the message space, where  $\mu$  is a polynomial in  $k$ . Set  $st_S^1 = (pk_S, pk_R, sk_S)$  and  $st_R^1 = (pk_S, pk_R, sk_R)$ .
- $\text{ENC}_1(st_R^1)$ : Sample  $r_1 \in \{0, 1\}^{2\mu}$  uniformly at random, compute  $c_1 \leftarrow \text{ENC}(pk_S, r_1)$ , set  $st_R^2 = (st_R^1, r_1)$ , and output  $(c_1, st_R^2)$ .  
 $\text{ENC}_2(c_1, st_S^1)$ : Sample  $r_2 \in \{0, 1\}^{2\mu}$  uniformly at random and compute  $c_2 \leftarrow \text{ENC}(pk_R, r_2)$  and  $\hat{r}_1 \leftarrow \text{DEC}(sk_S, c_1)$ . Then  $r_L \circ r_R = \hat{r}_1 \oplus r_2$  such that  $|r_L| = |r_R| = \mu$ , compute  $c_3 \leftarrow \text{ENC}(pk_R, m; r_L)$ , and output  $((c_2, c_3), st_S^2)$ , where  $x \circ y$  denote the concatenation of strings  $x$  and  $y$ , and  $st_S^2 = st_S^1$ .  
 $\text{ENC}_3((c_2, c_3), st_R^2)$ : Compute  $\hat{r}_2 \leftarrow \text{DEC}(sk_R, c_2)$ , set  $\hat{r}_L \circ \hat{r}_R = r_1 \oplus \hat{r}_2$ , compute  $\hat{m} \leftarrow \text{DEC}(sk_R, c_3)$  and  $c_4 \leftarrow \text{ENC}(pk_S, \hat{m}; \hat{r}_R)$ , and make  $c_4$  public. The decrypted message is  $\hat{m}$ .

We define a pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  such that

- $\sigma_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs Good with probability 1.  $\sigma_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs Good if  $m_{b,i} \in \mathcal{M}_S$  for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ , and Bad otherwise.
- $\sigma_R(1^k, \mathcal{M}_R)$  outputs Good with probability 1.  $\sigma_R(pk_S, pk_R, sk_R, aux_R)$  outputs Good if  $aux_R = \perp$  or  $Val_R = 1$ , and Bad otherwise.

At first glance, it does not seem necessary to make  $c_4$  public at the third round of the encryption phase. However, it is necessary to do so because if not, the sender can achieve the security without using good randomness in the key generation phase. Then, the receiver cannot achieve the security for his valuable messages. Consider the case that a message to be sent is valuable only to the receiver. In the encryption phase, the sender will choose bad randomness, and the receiver will choose good randomness. However, since bad randomness was chosen in the key generation phase, the randomness chosen by the receiver will be revealed to the adversary by observing the first-round ciphertext. Hence, the adversary can correctly guess the message.

**Theorem 2.** *If  $\Pi$  is CPA secure,  $(\Pi_{\text{three}}, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is CPA secure with a strict Nash equilibrium for  $\mathbf{Game}_R^{\text{cpa}}$ .*

*Proof.* First, we show the correctness of the scheme  $\Pi_{\text{three}}$ . Note that  $c_1 = \text{ENC}(pk_S, r_1)$ ,  $c_2 = \text{ENC}(pk_S, r_2)$ ,  $c_3 = \text{ENC}(pk_R, m; r_L)$ , and the decrypted message is  $\hat{m} = \text{DEC}(sk_S, c_3)$ . It follows from the correctness of the underlying scheme  $\Pi$  that  $\hat{m} = m$ .

Next, we show that for any PPT adversary  $A$ , valuable message spaces  $\mathcal{M}_S$  and  $\mathcal{M}_R$ , after running the game  $\mathbf{Game}_R^{\text{cpa}}$  with a pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ , we have  $\Pr[\text{Win} \cdot (\text{Val}_S + \text{Val}_R) \neq 0] \leq 1/2 + \epsilon(k)$  for some negligible function  $\epsilon(\cdot)$ . Without loss of generality, we assume that  $\text{Val}_S + \text{Val}_R \neq 0$ . We will show that  $\Pr[\text{Win} = 1] \leq 1/2 + \epsilon(k)$ . Since  $\text{Val}_S + \text{Val}_R \neq 0$  and the players follow  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ , at least one of  $x_S^e$  and  $x_R^e$  will be Good. Suppose that  $x_S^e = \text{Good}$  and  $x_R^e = \text{Bad}$ . When  $A$  chose  $m_0, m_1$  as the challenge messages, the view of  $A$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
& \{pk_S, pk_R, (r_1, r_e), c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4\} \\
& = \{pk_S, pk_R, (r_1, r_e), \text{ENC}(pk_S, r_1; r_e), \text{ENC}(pk_R, r_2), \\
& \quad \text{ENC}(pk_R, m_b; r_L), \text{ENC}(pk_S, m_b; r_R)\} \\
& \approx_c \{pk_S, pk_R, (r_1, r_e), \text{ENC}(pk_S, r_1; r_e), \text{ENC}(pk_R, r'_2), \\
& \quad \text{ENC}(pk_R, m_b; r_L), \text{ENC}(pk_S, m_b; r_R)\} \\
& \approx_c \{pk_S, pk_R, (r_1, r_e), \text{ENC}(pk_S, r_1; r_e), \text{ENC}(pk_R, r'_2), \\
& \quad \text{ENC}(pk_R, m_{1-b}; r_L), \text{ENC}(pk_S, m_{1-b}; r_R)\} \\
& \approx_c \{pk_S, pk_R, (r_1, r_e), \text{ENC}(pk_S, r_1; r_e), \text{ENC}(pk_R, r_2), \\
& \quad \text{ENC}(pk_R, m_{1-b}; r_L), \text{ENC}(pk_S, m_{1-b}; r_R)\},
\end{aligned}$$

where  $r_e$  is the randomness used in computing  $c_1 \leftarrow \text{ENC}_1(pk_S, r_1)$ ,  $r_2$  and  $r'_2$  are uniformly random strings, and  $r_L \circ r_R = r_1 \oplus r_2$ . The above relations follow from the security of the underlying scheme  $\Pi$ . Therefore, we have that  $\Pr[\text{Win} = 1] \leq 1/2 + \epsilon(k)$ . The proof of the case that  $x_S^e = \text{Bad}$  and  $x_R^e = \text{Good}$  can be done in a similar way.

Finally we show that the pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a strict Nash equilibrium. Suppose that the receiver follows  $\sigma_R$ . Consider any strategy  $\sigma'_S$  of the sender, and an adversary who set  $aux_R = \text{Val}_R$  and submits challenge messages such that all of them are in  $\mathcal{M}_S \setminus \mathcal{M}_R$ . If  $\sigma'_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs Bad, which increases the utility of the sender by  $\beta_S$ , the adversary can compute  $sk_S$  correctly, and thus can guess  $b$  correctly from  $c_4 = \text{ENC}(pk_S, m)$ . If  $\sigma'_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs Bad, which also increases the utility of the sender

by  $\beta_S$ , since the receiver chooses **Bad** in the encryption phase, the adversary can compute  $r_1 \oplus r_2$  correctly, and guess  $b$  correctly from  $c_3 = \text{Enc}(pk_R, m; r_L)$ , where  $r_1 \oplus r_2 = r_L \circ r_R$ . Since the adversary can guess  $b$  correctly in both cases, the utility of the sender decreases by at least  $\alpha_S/2 - 2\beta_S > 0$  if the sender deviated from  $\sigma_S$ . This implies that the strategy  $\sigma_S$  maximizes the utility of the sender if the receiver follows  $\sigma_R$ . Next, suppose that the sender follows  $\sigma_S$ . Consider any strategy  $\sigma'_R$  of the receiver, and an adversary who submits challenge messages such that all of them are in  $\mathcal{M}_R \setminus \mathcal{M}_S$ . If  $\sigma'_R(1^k, \mathcal{M}_R)$  outputs **Bad**, which increases the utility of the receiver by  $\beta_R$ , the adversary can compute  $sk_R$  correctly, and thus can guess  $b$  correctly from  $c_3 = \text{Enc}(pk_R, m)$ . If  $\sigma'_R(pk_S, pk_R, sk_R, aux_R)$  outputs **Bad**, which increases the utility of the receiver by  $\beta_R$ , since the sender chooses **Bad** in the encryption phase, the adversary can compute  $r_1 \oplus r_2$  correctly, and guess  $b$  correctly from  $c_4 = \text{Enc}(pk_R, m; r_R)$ , where  $r_1 \oplus r_2 = r_L \circ r_R$ . Since the adversary can guess  $b$  correctly in both cases, the utility of the receiver decreases by at least  $\alpha_R/2 - 2\beta_R > 0$  if the receiver deviated from  $\sigma_S$ . This implies that the strategy  $\sigma_R$  maximizes the utility of the receiver if the sender follows  $\sigma_S$ . Therefore,  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a Nash equilibrium.

To show the second condition of the strict Nash equilibrium, consider any strategy  $\sigma'_S$  of the sender such that  $\sigma'_S \neq \sigma_S$ . This implies that, if  $aux_R = \text{Val}_R$  and all the challenge messages are in  $\mathcal{M}_S \setminus \mathcal{M}_R$ , either  $\sigma'_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  or  $\sigma'_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs **Bad** with probability at least  $1/k^c$  for a constant  $c$ . By the same argument as above, this reduces the utility of the sender by  $(1/k^c) \cdot (\alpha_S/2 - 2\beta_S)$ , namely  $U_S(\sigma'_S, \sigma_R) \leq U_S(\sigma_S, \sigma_R) - (\alpha_S/2 - 2\beta_S)/k^c$ . Consider any strategy  $\sigma'_R$  of the receiver such that  $\sigma'_R \neq \sigma_R$ , which implies that, if all the challenge messages are in  $\mathcal{M}_R \setminus \mathcal{M}_S$ , either  $\sigma'_R(1^k, \mathcal{M}_R)$  or  $\sigma'_R(pk_S, pk_R, sk_R, aux_R)$  outputs **Bad** with probability at least  $1/k^c$  for a constant  $c$ . As above, this implies that  $U_R(\sigma_S, \sigma'_R) \leq U_R(\sigma_S, \sigma_R) - (\alpha_R/2 - 2\beta_R)/k^c$ . Therefore, the pair of strategy  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a strict Nash equilibrium.  $\square$

### 4.3 Additional Information to the Sender and the Receiver

We study the case in which both the sender and the receiver may know that a message to be encrypted is valuable to them. The situation is different from that of the previous section because the sender may be able to know the value of a message for the receiver, and the receiver vice versa. We change the game  $\text{Game}_{S,R}^{\text{cpa}}$  such that the adversary can choose either “ $aux_S = m_b$ ” or “ $aux_S = (m_b, \text{Val}_R)$ ”, and either “ $aux_R = \perp$ ”, “ $aux_R = \text{Val}_R$ ”, “ $aux_R = \text{Val}_S$ ”, or “ $aux_R = (\text{Val}_S, \text{Val}_R)$ ” in the challenge generation phase. Let  $\text{Game}_{S,R}^{\text{cpa}}$  denote the modified game.

Then, the scheme  $\Pi_{\text{three}}$  has two different strict Nash equilibria.

**Proposition 4.** *There are two pairs of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  and  $(\rho_S, \rho_R)$  such that  $\sigma_S \neq \rho_S$ ,  $\sigma_R \neq \rho_R$ , and both  $(\Pi_{\text{three}}, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  and  $(\Pi_{\text{three}}, \rho_S, \rho_R)$  are CPA secure with a strict Nash equilibrium for  $\text{Game}_{S,R}^{\text{cpa}}$ . Furthermore, there is a PPT adversary  $A$  and valuable message spaces  $\mathcal{M}_S$  and  $\mathcal{M}_R$  such that  $\mathbf{E}[u_S(\text{Out}_\sigma)] - \mathbf{E}[u_S(\text{Out}_\rho)] \geq \beta_S - \epsilon(k)$  and  $\mathbf{E}[u_R(\text{Out}_\sigma)] - \mathbf{E}[u_R(\text{Out}_\rho)] \geq \beta_R - \epsilon(k)$  for every sufficiently large  $k$ , where  $\text{Out}_\sigma$  is the outcome of the game  $\text{Game}_{S,R}^{\text{cpa}}$  in which players follow  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ ,  $\text{Out}_\rho$  is the outcome of the game  $\text{Game}_{S,R}^{\text{cpa}}$  in which players follow  $(\rho_S, \rho_R)$ , and  $\epsilon(\cdot)$  is a negligible function.*

*Proof.* We define  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  and  $(\rho_S, \rho_R)$  as follows.

- $\sigma_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs **Good** with probability 1.  
 $\sigma_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs **Good** if  $m_{b,i} \in \mathcal{M}_S$  for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ , and **Bad** otherwise.
- $\sigma_R(1^k, \mathcal{M}_R)$  outputs **Good** with probability 1.  
 $\sigma_R(pk_S, pk_R, sk_R, aux_R)$  outputs **Good** if
  - $aux_R = \perp$ ,

- $aux_R = \text{Val}_S$  and  $\text{Val}_S = 0$ ,
- $aux_R = \text{Val}_R$  and  $\text{Val}_R = 1$ , or
- $aux_R = (\text{Val}_S, \text{Val}_R)$ ,  $\text{Val}_S = 0$ , and  $\text{Val}_R = 1$ ,

and Bad otherwise.

- $\rho_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs Good with probability 1.  
 $\rho_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs Good if
  - $aux_S = \mathbf{m}_b$  and  $m_{b,i} \in \mathcal{M}_S$  for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ , or
  - $aux_S = (\mathbf{m}_b, \text{Val}_R)$ ,  $m_{b,i} \in \mathcal{M}_S$  for some  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ , and  $\text{Val}_R = 0$ ,

and Bad otherwise.

- $\rho_R(1^k, \mathcal{M}_R)$  outputs Good with probability 1.  
 $\rho_R(pk_S, pk_R, sk_R, aux_R)$  outputs Good if
  - $aux_R = \perp$ ,
  - $aux_R = \text{Val}_S$ ,
  - $aux_R = \text{Val}_R$  and  $\text{Val}_R = 1$ , or
  - $aux_R = (\text{Val}_S, \text{Val}_R)$  and  $\text{Val}_R = 1$ ,

and Bad otherwise.

The difference between the outputs of  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  and  $(\rho_S, \rho_R)$  is only when  $aux_S = (\mathbf{m}_b, \text{Val}_R)$ ,  $aux_R = (\text{Val}_S, \text{Val}_R)$ , and  $\text{Val}_S = \text{Val}_R = 1$ . Then, only the sender uses good randomness in  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ , while only the receiver uses good randomness in  $(\rho_S, \rho_R)$ . Hence we have that  $\sigma_S \neq \rho_S$  and  $\sigma_R \neq \rho_R$ . In the proof of Theorem 2, we show that, if at least one of  $x_S^e$  and  $x_R^e$  is Good,  $\Pi_{\text{three}}$  satisfies the first condition of the CPA security. Thus, we can verify that both  $(\Pi_{\text{three}}, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  and  $(\Pi_{\text{three}}, \rho_S, \rho_R)$  satisfy the first condition of the CPA security.

Consider an adversary who sets  $aux_S = (\mathbf{m}_b, \text{Val}_R)$  and  $aux_R = (\text{Val}_S, \text{Val}_R)$ , and submits challenge messages such that all of them are in  $\mathcal{M}_S \cap \mathcal{M}_R$ . For this adversary,  $\sigma_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs Good and  $\sigma_R(pk_S, pk_R, sk_R, aux_R)$  outputs Bad, while  $\rho_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs Bad and  $\rho_R(pk_S, pk_R, sk_R, aux_R)$  outputs Good. Since it follows from the above argument that the expected value of  $\text{Win} \cdot \text{Val}_w$  is at most  $1/2 + \epsilon(k)$  for a negligible function  $\epsilon(\cdot)$ , we have that  $\mathbf{E}[u_S(\text{Out}_\rho)] - \mathbf{E}[u_S(\text{Out}_\sigma)] \geq \beta_S - \epsilon'(k)$  and  $\mathbf{E}[u_R(\text{Out}_\sigma)] - \mathbf{E}[u_R(\text{Out}_\rho)] \geq \beta_R - \epsilon'(k)$  for a negligible function  $\epsilon'(\cdot)$ .

We show that  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a strict Nash equilibria. We follow the same reasoning as the proof of Theorem 2. It is sufficient to show that, for each  $w \in \{S, R\}$ , if player  $w$  follows a different strategy  $\sigma'_w$  from  $\sigma_w$ , then the utility of player  $w$  decreases by some constant value. We show that if  $\sigma'_w$  outputs Bad and  $\sigma_w$  outputs Good, there exists an adversary who can guess  $b$  correctly, which decreases the utility of player  $w$  by at least  $\alpha_w/2 - 2\beta_w > 0$ . First, note that, for each  $w \in \{S, R\}$ , if  $\sigma'_w(1^k, \mathcal{M}_w)$  outputs Bad, the adversary can guess  $b$  correctly by the same argument as the proof of Theorem 2. Suppose that  $\sigma'_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs Bad and  $\sigma_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs Good. Consider an adversary who sets  $aux_R = \text{Val}_R$  and submits challenge messages such that all of them are in  $\mathcal{M}_S \setminus \mathcal{M}_R$ . Since the receiver chooses  $x_R^e = \text{Bad}$  for this adversary, the adversary can guess  $b$  correctly from  $r_1 \oplus r_2$  and  $c_3 = \text{Enc}(pk_R, m; r_L)$ , where  $r_1 \oplus r_2 = r_L \circ r_R$ . Next, suppose that  $\sigma'_R(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_R)$  outputs Bad and  $\sigma_R(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_R)$  outputs Good. Consider an adversary who submits challenge messages such that all of them are in  $\mathcal{M}_R \setminus \mathcal{M}_S$ . Since the sender chooses  $x_S^e = \text{Bad}$  for this adversary, the adversary can guess  $b$  correctly from  $r_1 \oplus r_2$  and  $c_4 = \text{Enc}(pk_R, m; r_R)$ ,

where  $r_1 \oplus r_2 = r_L \circ r_R$ . Therefore, by the same reasoning as the proof of Theorem 2,  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a strict Nash equilibrium. By the same argument, we can show that  $(\rho_S, \rho_R)$  is also a strict Nash equilibrium.  $\square$

As shown in the proof, the difference between the outputs of  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  and  $(\rho_S, \rho_R)$  is only when  $aux_S = (m_b, Val_R)$ ,  $aux_R = (Val_S, Val_R)$ , and  $Val_S = Val_R = 1$ . Then, only the sender uses good randomness in  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ , while only the receiver uses good randomness in  $(\rho_S, \rho_R)$ . Therefore, the sender prefers to following  $(\rho_S, \rho_R)$ , while the receiver prefers to following  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$ . It is difficult to determine which pair of strategies the players follow. If the protocol have started, but the sender and the receiver have not agreed on which pair of strategies they follow, the outcome can be worse for both of them. If the sender follows  $(\rho_S, \rho_R)$  and the receiver follows  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  when  $Val_S = Val_R = 1$ , in this case both players are to use bad randomness in the encryption, thus the adversary can correctly guess  $b$  with probability 1. Such an outcome should be avoided for both players.

There is a simple way of avoiding that outcome. In the encryption phase, if  $x_R^e \neq \text{Good}$ , the receiver uses the all-zero string as a random string. Since the sender can verify if the random string chosen by the receiver is all-zero or not, if so, the sender will use good randomness if a message is valuable. The all-zero string is a *signal* that the receiver did not use good randomness.

#### 4.4 Signcryption with an Additional Assumption

A signcryption scheme is one of cryptographic primitives that achieves both public-key encryption and signature simultaneously. In particular, a secret key for encryption is also used as a signing key for signature, and a public key for encryption is also used as a verification key for signature.

We show that signcryption schemes with some property can achieve CPA security for lazy parties if we add an assumption for players. The assumption is that players do not want to reveal their secret keys. This is plausible since, if the secret key of some player is revealed, it is equivalent to the fact that the encrypted messages to the player are revealed and the signatures of the player are forged.

Formally, a signcryption scheme  $\Pi_{\text{sigenc}}$  consists of three PPT algorithms  $(\{\text{GEN}_w\}_{w \in \{S, R\}}, \text{SIGENC}, \text{VERDEC})$  such that

- $\text{GEN}_w(1^k)$ : Output a signing/decryption key (secret key)  $sk_w$  and a verification/encryption key (public key)  $pk_w$ ; Let  $\mathcal{M}$  denote the message space.
- $\text{SIGENC}(pk_R, sk_S, m)$ : For a message  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ , output the ciphertext  $c$ ;
- $\text{VERDEC}(pk_S, sk_R, c)$ : For a ciphertext  $c$ , output  $\perp$  if the verification fails, and the decrypted message  $\hat{m}$  otherwise.

Regarding the security, we only require the usual CPA security as a public-key encryption scheme in which the sender also generates the secret key and the public key.

Some signcryption schemes (e.g., [30]) have the *key-exposure* property that, if the randomness used in  $\text{SIGENC}$  is revealed, then the secret key of the sender is efficiently computable from the randomness. This property seems to be undesirable in a standard setting. However, if a signcryption scheme with key-exposure property is used as a public-key encryption scheme, it can achieve CPA security for lazy parties.

We modify the game  $\text{Game}^{\text{cpa}}$  such that the adversary outputs  $(b', sk'_S)$  in the guess phase, and  $\text{Secret}$  is included in the output of the game, where  $\text{Secret}$  takes 1 if  $sk_S = sk'_S$  and 0 otherwise. Let  $\text{Game}_{\text{secret}}^{\text{cpa}}$  denote the modified game.

The utility function for the sender when the outcome  $\text{Out} = (\text{Win}, \text{Val}_S, \text{Val}_R, \text{Num}_S, \text{Num}_R, \text{Secret})$  happens is defined by

$$u_S(\text{Out}) = (-\alpha_S) \cdot \text{Win} \cdot \text{Val}_S + (-\beta_S) \cdot \text{Num}_S + (-\gamma_S) \cdot \text{Secret},$$

where  $\gamma_S \in \mathbb{R}$  is a non-negative constant such that  $\gamma_S > \alpha_S/2 + q_S \cdot \beta_S$ . The condition on  $\gamma_S$  implies that achieving  $\text{Secret} = 0$  is the most valuable to the sender.

We define a pair of strategies  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  for the game  $\mathbf{Game}_{\text{secret}}^{\text{cpa}}$  such that

- $\sigma_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs **Good** with probability 1.  
 $\sigma_S(pk_S, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs **Good** with probability 1.
- $\sigma_R(1^k, \mathcal{M}_R)$  outputs **Good** with probability 1.

**Theorem 3.** *Let  $\Pi_{\text{sigenc}} = (\{\text{GEN}_w\}_{w \in \{S,R\}}, \text{SIGENC}, \text{VERDEC})$  be a signcryption scheme with CPA security and key-exposure property. Then  $(\Pi_{\text{sigenc}}, \sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is CPA secure with a strict Nash equilibrium for the game  $\mathbf{Game}_{\text{secret}}^{\text{cpa}}$ .*

*Proof.* The first condition of the CPA security follows from the CPA security of  $\Pi_{\text{sigenc}}$ . Hence, we show the second condition, namely,  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a strict Nash equilibrium for  $\mathbf{Game}_{\text{secret}}^{\text{cpa}}$ .

First, we show that  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a Nash equilibrium. Suppose that the receiver follows  $\sigma_R$ . Let  $\sigma'_S$  be a strategy of the sender. If  $\sigma'_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs **Bad**, then an adversary chooses the random string of the key generation algorithm, and thus can obtain the secret key  $sk_S$  correctly. If  $\sigma'_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs **Bad**, then the adversary chooses the random string  $r^e$  of the ciphertext  $c = \text{SIGENC}(pk_R, sk_S, m_b; r^e)$ , and can obtain the secret key  $sk_S$  by the key-exposure property of  $\Pi_{\text{sigenc}}$ . In either case, the adversary can obtain  $sk_S$ , and thus the utility of the sender takes some negative value. Since the utility when the sender follows  $\sigma_S$  is non-negative,  $\sigma_S$  maximizes the utility of the sender when the receiver follows  $\sigma_R$ . Next, suppose that the sender follows  $\sigma_S$ . Consider any strategy  $\sigma'_R$  of the receiver and an adversary who submits challenge messages  $(m_0, m_1)$  such that  $m_0 = (m, m)$ ,  $m_1 = (m, m')$ ,  $m \neq m'$ , and  $m, m' \in \mathcal{M}_R$ . If  $\sigma'_R(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs **Bad**, the adversary can compute  $sk_R$ , and thus guess  $b$  correctly by computing  $\text{DEC}(pk_S, sk_R, c)$ , which implies that the utility of the sender takes some negative value. Thus, the strategy  $\sigma_R$  maximizes the utility of the receiver when the sender follows  $\sigma_S$ . Therefore,  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a Nash equilibrium.

To show the second condition of the strict Nash equilibrium, consider any strategy  $\sigma'_S$  of the sender such that  $\sigma'_S \neq \sigma_S$ . This implies that either  $\sigma'_S(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  or  $\sigma'_S(pk_S, pk_R, sk_S, aux_S)$  outputs **Bad** with probability at least  $1/k^c$  for a constant  $c$ . By the same argument above, this reduces the utility of the sender by at least  $(1/k^c) \cdot (\gamma_S - \alpha_S/2 - 2\beta_S)$ . Next, consider any  $\sigma'_R$  of the receiver such that  $\sigma'_R \neq \sigma_R$ . This implies that  $\sigma'_R(1^k, \mathcal{M}_S)$  outputs **Bad** with probability at least  $1/k^c$  for a constant  $c$ . As above, this reduces the utility of the receiver by at least  $(1/k^c) \cdot (\alpha_R/2 - \beta_R)$ . Therefore,  $(\sigma_S, \sigma_R)$  is a strict Nash equilibrium.  $\square$

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