

Uncloneable Quantum Encryption via Oracles

Anne Broadbent 

Department of Mathematics and Statistics, University of Ottawa, Canada
abroadbe@uottawa.ca

Sébastien Lord 

Department of Mathematics and Statistics, University of Ottawa, Canada
slord050@uottawa.ca

Abstract

Quantum information is well known to achieve cryptographic feats that are unattainable using classical information alone. Here, we add to this repertoire by introducing a new cryptographic functionality called *uncloneable encryption*. This functionality allows the encryption of a classical message such that two collaborating but isolated adversaries are prevented from simultaneously recovering the message, even when the encryption key is revealed. Clearly, such functionality is unattainable using classical information alone.

We formally define uncloneable encryption, and show how to achieve it using Wiesner’s conjugate coding, combined with a quantum-secure pseudorandom function (qPRF). Modelling the qPRF as an oracle, we show security by adapting techniques from the quantum one-way-to-hiding lemma, as well as using bounds from quantum monogamy-of-entanglement games.

2012 ACM Subject Classification Theory of computation → Quantum computation theory; Theory of computation → Cryptographic primitives; Security and privacy → Symmetric cryptography and hash functions

Keywords and phrases Quantum Cryptography, Symmetric Key, Monogamy-of-Entanglement

Digital Object Identifier 10.4230/LIPIcs.TQC.2020.4

Related Version A full version of the paper is available at <https://arxiv.org/abs/1903.00130>.

Funding This material is based upon work supported by the U.S. Air Force Office of Scientific Research under award number FA9550-17-1-0083, Canada’s NSERC, an Ontario ERA, and the University of Ottawa’s Research Chairs program.

1 Introduction

A key distinction between classical and quantum information is given by the *no-cloning principle*: unlike bits, arbitrary qubits cannot be perfectly copied [11, 18, 26]. This principle is the basis of many of the feats of quantum cryptography, including quantum money [25] and quantum key distribution (QKD) [6] (for a survey on quantum cryptography, see [9]).

In QKD, two parties establish a shared secret key, using public quantum communication combined with an authentic classical channel. The quantum communication allows to *detect* eavesdropping: when the parties detect only a small amount of eavesdropping, they can produce a shared string that is essentially guaranteed to be private. Gottesman [15] studied *quantum tamper-detection* in the case of *encryption schemes*: in this work, a classical message is encrypted into a quantum ciphertext such that, at decryption time, the receiver will *detect* if an adversary could have information about the plaintext when the key is revealed. We note that classical information alone cannot produce such encryption schemes, since it is always possible to perfectly *copy* ciphertexts.

Notably, Gottesman left open the question of an encryption scheme that would *prevent* the *splitting* of a ciphertext. In other words, would it be possible to encrypt a classical message into a quantum ciphertext, such that no attack at the ciphertext level would be



© Anne Broadbent and Sébastien Lord;
licensed under Creative Commons License CC-BY

15th Conference on the Theory of Quantum Computation, Communication and Cryptography (TQC 2020).

Editor: Steven T. Flammia; Article No. 4; pp. 4:1–4:22

Leibniz International Proceedings in Informatics



LIPICs Schloss Dagstuhl – Leibniz-Zentrum für Informatik, Dagstuhl Publishing, Germany

significantly successful in producing *two* quantum registers, each of which, when combined with the decryption key, could be used to reconstruct the plaintext?

In this work, we define, construct and prove security for a scheme that answers Gottesman’s question in the positive. We call this *uncloneable encryption*. The core technical aspects of this work were first presented in one of the author’s M.Sc. thesis [16].

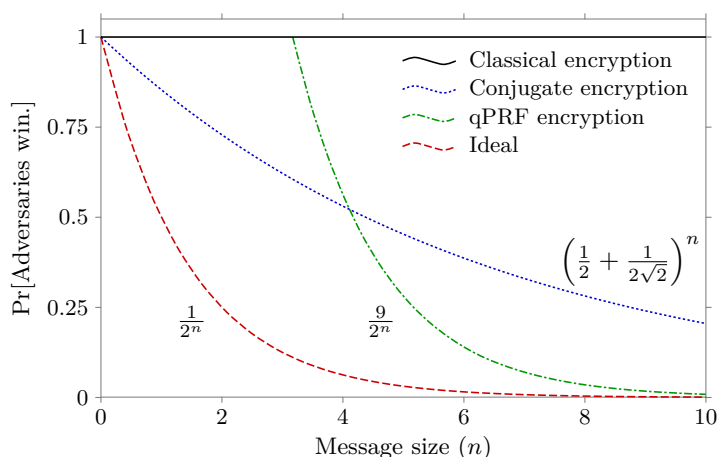
1.1 Summary of Contributions

We consider encryption schemes that encode classical plaintexts into quantum ciphertexts, which we formalize in Definition 4. For simplicity, in this work, we consider only the one-time, symmetric-key case. Next, we define uncloneable encryption (Definition 8). Informally, this can be thought of as a game, played between the honest sender (Alice) and two malicious recipients (Bob and Charlie). First, Alice picks a message $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and a key $k \in \{0, 1\}^{\kappa(\lambda)}$ (κ is a polynomial in some security parameter, λ). She encrypts her message into a quantum ciphertext register R . Initially, Bob and Charlie are physically together, and they receive R . They apply a quantum map to produce two registers: Bob keeps register B and Charlie keeps register C . Bob and Charlie are then isolated. In the next phase, Alice reveals k to both parties. Using k and their quantum register, Bob and Charlie produce m_B and m_C respectively. Bob and Charlie *win* if and only if $m_B = m_C = m$. The scheme is *t-uncloneable secure* if their winning probability is upper bounded by $2^{-n+t} + \eta(\lambda)$ for a negligible η .

Assuming that Alice picks her message uniformly at random, our results are summarized in Figure 1, where we plot upper bounds for the winning probability of Bob and Charlie against various types of encodings, according to the length of m . First of all, if the encoding is classical, then Bob and Charlie can each keep a copy of the ciphertext. Combined with the key k , each party decrypts to obtain m . This gives the horizontal line at $\Pr[\text{Adversaries win}] = 1$. Next, a lower bound on the winning probability for *any* encryption scheme is $\frac{1}{2^n}$ (corresponding to the parties coordinating a random guess). This is the *ideal* curve. Our goal is therefore to produce an encryption scheme that matches the ideal curve as close as possible.

It may seem that asking that Alice sample her message uniformly at random would be particularly restrictive, but this is not the case – we show in Theorem 9 that security in the case of uniformly sampled messages implies security in the case of non-uniformly sampled messages, if the message size does not grow with the security parameter. Specifically, if Bob and Charlie can win with probability at most $2^{-n+t} + \eta(\lambda)$ when the message is sampled uniformly at random, for some t and some negligible function η , then they can win with probability at most $2^{-h+t} + \eta'(\lambda)$ if the message m is sampled from a distribution with a min-entropy of h where η' is a negligible function which is larger than η .

Our first attempt at realizing uncloneable encryption (Appendix A) shows that the well-known Wiesner conjugate coding [25] already achieves a security bound that is better than any classical scheme. For any two bit strings $x, \theta \in \{0, 1\}^n$, define the Wiesner state $|x^\theta\rangle = H^{\theta_1}|x_1\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes H^{\theta_n}|x_n\rangle$. The encryption uses a random key $r, \theta \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and maps a classical message m into the quantum state $\rho = |(m \oplus r)^\theta\rangle\langle(m \oplus r)^\theta|$; given (r, θ) , decryption consists in measuring in the basis determined by θ to obtain x and then computing $x \oplus r$. We sketch a proof that this satisfies a notion of security for encryption schemes. The question of uncloneability then boils down to: “How well can an adversary *split* ρ into *two* registers, each of which, combined with (θ, r) can reconstruct m ?” This question is answered in prior work on *monogamy-of-entanglement games* [20]: an optimal strategy wins with probability $\left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)^n$. This is again illustrated in Figure 1.



■ **Figure 1** Upper-bounds on winning probabilities for various types of encodings (up to negligible functions of λ) for messages sampled uniformly at random.

In order to improve this bound, we use a quantum-secure pseudorandom function (qPRF, see Definition 3) $f_\lambda : \{0, 1\}^\lambda \times \{0, 1\}^\lambda \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$. The encryption (see Section 4.1) consists of a quantum state $\rho = |r^\theta\rangle\langle r^\theta|$ for random $r, \theta \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$, together with a classical string $c = m \oplus f_\lambda(s, r)$ for a random s . The key k consists in θ and s . Once again, it can be shown that this is an encryption scheme in a more usual sense and we sketch this argument in Section 4.1. Intuitively, the use of f_λ affords us a gain in uncloneable security, because an adversary who wants to output m would need to know the pre-image of m under $f_\lambda(s, \cdot)$. Reaching a formal proof along these lines, however, is tricky. First, we model the qPRF using a quantum random oracle [8]; this limits the adversaries' interaction with the qPRF to be black-box quantum queries (we refer to Section 4.3 for further details on this modelling). Next, the quantum random oracle model is notoriously tricky to use and many of the techniques in the classical literature are not directly applicable. Fortunately, we can adapt techniques from Unruh's quantum one-way-to-hiding lemma [22] to the two-player setting, which enables us to recover a precise statement along the lines of the intuition above. We thus complete the proof of our main Theorem 16, obtaining the bound $9 \cdot \frac{1}{2^n} + \text{negl}(\lambda)$. This is the fourth and final curve in Figure 1.

In addition to the above, we formally define a different type of uncloneable security: inspired by more standard security definitions of *indistinguishability*, we define *uncloneable-indistinguishability* (Definition 11). This security definition bounds the advantage that the adversaries have at *simultaneously* distinguishing between an encryption of 0^n and an encryption of a plaintext of length n , as prepared by the adversaries. In a series of results (Theorems 12 and 17 and Corollary 18), we show that our main protocol achieves this security notion against adversaries that use *unentangled strategies* and as long as the message size does not grow with λ . As discussed in Section 1.2, there are interesting uses cases where we can assume that the adversaries do not share entanglement.

We note that our protocols (both Definition 19 and Definition 13) have the desirable property of being *prepare-and-measure* schemes. This means that the quantum technology for the honest users is limited to the preparation of single-qubit pure states, as well as to single-qubit measurements; these quantum technologies are mature and commercially available. (Note, however, that quantum storage remains a major challenge at the implementation level).

1.2 Applications

While our focus is on the conceptual contribution of defining and proving a new primitive, we believe that uncloneable encryption could have many applications. We give two such examples.

1.2.1 Quantum Money

As it captures the idea of “uncloneable classical information” in a very generic manner, uncloneable encryption can be used as a tool to build other primitives which leverage the uncloneability of quantum states. Such constructions help us understand the landscape of quantum cryptography. As an example, any uncloneable secure encryption scheme naturally yields a private-key quantum money scheme [2, 25].

To obtain quantum money from an uncloneable encryption scheme, we identify the notion of “simultaneously passing the bank’s verification” with the notion of “simultaneously obtaining the correct plaintext”. To generate a banknote, the bank samples a message m , a key k , a serial number s and produces as output $(s, Enc(k, m))$, where $Enc(k, m)$ is the uncloneable encryption of m with the key k . When the bank is asked to verify a banknote, it verifies the serial number in its database to retrieve k , decrypts the ciphertext and verifies if the message obtained is indeed m .

The uncloneable security guarantee implies that the probability of a malicious party producing two banknotes which pass this test is negligible. If this were not the case, we could use the attack which counterfeits the banknote to essentially copy the ciphertext in the underlying uncloneable encryption scheme. The adversaries tasked with obtaining the message once the key is revealed then simply decrypt as if they were the honest receivers.

1.2.2 Preventing Storage Attacks by Classical Adversaries

Indistinguishable-uncloneable encryption prevents a single eavesdropping adversary with no quantum memory from collecting ciphertexts exchanged by two honest parties in the hope of later learning the key. We sketch an argument for this fact.

Suppose such an adversary obtains a ciphertext from an uncloneable-indistinguishable encryption scheme. We claim that they cannot correctly determine if the ciphertext corresponds to the encryption of 0^n or of some known message m with non-negligible advantage, even if the decryption key becomes known after their measurement of the ciphertext. If such an adversary existed, it could be used to break the uncloneable-indistinguishable security of the encryption scheme. Indeed, the almost-classical eavesdropper could create two copies of their classical memory and distribute it to the two adversaries who attempt to obtain the message once the key is revealed.¹

Note that the adversaries in this attack do not share any entanglement and so we can apply Corollary 18 which states that our encryption scheme is uncloneable-indistinguishable secure under this condition.

Our work is currently in the private-key setting, but can be extended in a straightforward way to the public-key setting. In this scenario, we can still guarantee the secrecy of the message even if the eavesdropper is later able to determine the decryption key from the publicly-known encryption key. In other words, an eavesdropping adversary with no quantum memory would need to attack the ciphertext during transmission. This is known as *long-term* security or *everlasting* security [21].

¹ We thank an anonymous reviewer for this suggestion.

1.3 More on Related Work

Starting with the foundational work of Wiesner [25], a rich body of literature has considered the encoding of classical information into quantum states in order to take advantage of quantum properties for cryptography.

- **Quantum Key Recycling.** The concept of quantum key recycling is a precursor to the QKD protocol, developed by Bennett, Brassard, and Breidbart [7] (the manuscript was prepared in 1982 but only published recently). According to this protocol, it is possible to encrypt a classical message into a quantum state, such that information-theoretic security is assured, but in addition, a tamper detection mechanism would allow the one-time pad key to be re-used in the case that no eavesdropping is detected. Quantum key recycling has been the object of recent related work [10, 13].
- **Tamper-Evident Encryption.** We referred above to tamper-detection in the case of encryption, which we will also call *tamper-evident encryption*. However, we emphasize that the author originally called this contribution *uncloneable encryption* [15]. We justify this choice of re-labelling in quoting the conclusion of the work:

One difficulty with such generalizations is that it is unclear to what extent the name “uncloneable encryption” is really deserved. I have not shown that a message protected by uncloneable encryption cannot be copied – only that Eve cannot copy it without being detected. Is it possible for Eve to create two states, (...), which can each be used (in conjunction with the secret key) to extract a good deal of information about the message? Or can one instead prove bounds, for instance, on the sum of the information content of the various purported copies? [15]

Since our work addresses this question, we have appropriately re-labeled prior work according to a seemingly more accurate name. To the best of our knowledge, the precise relationship between quantum key-recycling, tamper-evident encryption, and uncloneable encryption is unknown (see Section 1.4).

- **Quantum Copy-Protection.** Further related work includes the study of *quantum copy-protection*, as initiated by Aaronson [1]. Informally, this is a means to encode a function (from a given family of functions) into a quantum program state, such that an honest party can evaluate the function given the program state, but it would be impossible to somehow *split* the quantum program state so as to enable *two* parties to simultaneously evaluate the function. Aaronson gave protocols for quantum copy-protection in an oracle model, but left wide open the question of quantum copy-protection in the plain model. In a way, uncloneable encryption is a first step towards quantum copy-protection, since it prevents copying of *data*, which can be seen as a unit of information that is even simpler than a function.

1.4 Outlook and Future Work

In this work, we challenge one of the tacit assumptions of encryptions, namely that adversaries can always copy ciphertexts. We believe that this has the potential to significantly change the landscape of cryptography, for instance in terms of techniques for *key management* [5]. Furthermore, our techniques could become building blocks for a theory of uncloneable cryptography.

Our work leads to many follow-up questions, broadly classified according to the following themes:

- **Improvements.** There are many possible improvements to the current work. For instance: Could our scheme be made resilient to errors? Can we remove the reliance on the oracle, and/or on the qPRF? Could an encryption scheme simultaneously be uncloneable *and* provide *tamper detection*? Would achieving uncloneable-indistinguishable security be possible, without any restrictions on the adversary’s strategy?
- **Links with related work.** What are the links, if any, between uncloneable encryption, tamper-evident encryption [15], and quantum encryption with key recycling [7, 10, 13]? We note that both uncloneable encryption and quantum encryption with key recycling [13] make use of theorems developed in the context of one-sided device-independent QKD [20]. Can we make more formal links between these primitives?
- **More uncloneability.** Finally, our work paves the way for the study of more complex uncloneable primitives. Could this lead to uncloneable programs [1]? What about in complexity theory, could we define and realize uncloneable *proofs* [1]?

1.5 Outline

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. In Section 2, we introduce some basic notation and useful results from the literature. In Section 3, we formally define uncloneable encryption schemes and their security. Our main scheme is described in Section 4 (with a toy scheme based on Wiesner conjugate coding being described in Appendix A). Due to lack of space, most proofs are relegated to Appendix B and the remainder can be found in the full version.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we present our notation and techniques from prior works used in this paper.

2.1 Notation and Basics of Quantum Information

We denote the set of all functions of the form $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ by $\text{Bool}(n, m)$. We denote the set of strictly positive natural numbers by \mathbb{N}^+ . All Hilbert spaces are finite dimensional. We overload the expectation symbol \mathbb{E} in the following way: If X is a finite set, \mathcal{X} a random variable on X , and $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ some function, we define $\mathbb{E}_{x \leftarrow \mathcal{X}} f(x)$ to be $\sum_{x \in X} \Pr[\mathcal{X} = x] f(x)$. If we omit the random variable then we assume a uniform distribution, i.e.: $\mathbb{E}_x f(x) = \frac{1}{|X|} \sum_{x \in X} f(x)$. If \mathcal{X} is a random variable distributed over a finite set X , then its min-entropy is given by $-\max_{x \in X} \Pr[\mathcal{X} = x]$. A function $\eta : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be negligible if for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists an $x_n > 0$ such that $x > x_n$ implies that $|\eta(x)| < x^{-n}$.

A comprehensive introduction to quantum information and quantum computing may be found in [17, 24]. We fix some notation in the following paragraphs.

Let $\mathcal{Q} = \mathbb{C}^2$ be the state space of a single qubit. In particular, \mathcal{Q} is a two-dimensional complex Hilbert space spanned by the orthonormal set $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, we write $\mathcal{Q}(n) = \mathcal{Q}^{\otimes n}$ and note that $\{|s\rangle = |s_1\rangle \otimes |s_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |s_n\rangle\}_{s \in \{0,1\}^n}$ forms an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{Q}(n)$.

Let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space. The set of all unitary and density operators on \mathcal{H} are denoted, respectively, by $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$ and $\mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$. We recall that the operator norm of a linear operator $A : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}'$ between finite dimensional Hilbert spaces is given by $\|A\| = \max_{v \in \mathcal{H}, \|v\|=1} \|Av\|$ and satisfies the property that $\|Av\| \leq \|A\| \cdot \|v\|$. If A is either a projector or a unitary operator, then $\|A\| = 1$.

We use the term “quantum state” to refer to both unit vectors $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ and to density operators $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$ on some Hilbert space.

Let $H \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{Q})$ be the Hadamard operator defined by $|0\rangle \mapsto \frac{|0\rangle+|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$ and $|1\rangle \mapsto \frac{|0\rangle-|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$. For any strings $x, \theta \in \{0, 1\}^n$, we define the state $|x^\theta\rangle = H^{\theta_1} |x_1\rangle \otimes H^{\theta_2} |x_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes H^{\theta_n} |x_n\rangle$. Note that the set $\{|s^\theta\rangle\}_{s \in \{0,1\}^n}$ forms an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{Q}(n)$. Following their use in [25], we call states of the form $|x^\theta\rangle$ Wiesner states and we call $\{|s^\theta\rangle\}_{s \in \{0,1\}^n}$ a Wiesner basis. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, the Einstein-Podolski-Rosen (EPR) [12] state is given by $|\text{EPR}_n\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle \otimes |x\rangle$.

A positive operator-valued measurement (POVM) on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is a finite collection of positive semidefinite operators $\{E_i\}_{i \in I}$ on \mathcal{H} which sum to the identity. A projective measurement is a POVM composed of projectors.

We also recall that physically permissible transformation of a quantum system precisely coincide with the set of completely positive trace preserving (CPTP) maps. In particular, CPTP map will map density operators to density operators.

A polynomial-time uniform family of circuits $\mathbf{C} = \{\mathbf{C}_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}^+}$ is a collection of quantum circuits indexed by \mathbb{N}^+ such that there exists a polynomial-time deterministic Turing machine T which, on input 1^λ , produces a description of \mathbf{C}_λ . We refer to such families as efficient circuits. Each circuit \mathbf{C}_λ defines and implements a certain CPTP map $C_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{\text{In},\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{\text{Out},\lambda})$ where the Hilbert spaces $\mathcal{H}_{\text{In},\lambda}$ and $\mathcal{H}_{\text{Out},\lambda}$ are implicitly defined by the circuit. Note that we consider general, i.e.: possibly non-unitary, circuits. These were introduced in [3]. It is worth noting that a universal gate set for general quantum circuits exists which is composed of only unitary gates, implementing maps of the form $\rho \mapsto U\rho U^\dagger$ for some unitary operator U , and two non-unitary maps which are the single qubit partial trace map $\text{Tr} : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{C})$ and the state preparation map $\text{Aux} : \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q})$ defined by $1 \mapsto |0\rangle\langle 0|$. Further information on this circuit model can be found in [23].

2.2 Monogamy-of-Entanglement Games

Monogamy-of-entanglement games were introduced and studied in [20]. In short, such a game is played by Alice against cooperating Bob and Charlie. Alice describes to Bob and Charlie a collection of different POVMs which she could use to measure a quantum state on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_A . These POVMs are indexed by a finite set Θ and each reports a measurement result taken from a finite set X . Bob and Charlie then produce a tripartite quantum state $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B \otimes \mathcal{H}_C)$, giving the A register to Alice, the B register to Bob and the C register to Charlie. Alice then picks a $\theta \in \Theta$, measures her subsystem with the corresponding POVM and obtains some result $x \in X$. She then announces θ to Bob and Charlie who are now isolated. Bob and Charlie win if and only if they can both simultaneously guess the result x .

Upper bounds on the winning probability of Bob and Charlie in such games was the primary subject of study in [20]. One of their main results, corresponding to a game where Alice measures in a random Wiesner basis, is as follows.

► **Theorem 1** ([20]). *Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}^+$. For any Hilbert spaces \mathcal{H}_B and \mathcal{H}_C , any collections of POVMs*

$$\left\{ \{B_x^\theta\}_{x \in \{0,1\}^\lambda} \right\}_{\theta \in \{0,1\}^n} \quad \text{and} \quad \left\{ \{C_x^\theta\}_{x \in \{0,1\}^\lambda} \right\}_{\theta \in \{0,1\}^n} \quad (1)$$

4:8 Uncloneable Quantum Encryption via Oracles

on these Hilbert spaces, and any state $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q}(\lambda) \otimes \mathcal{H}_B \otimes \mathcal{H}_C)$, we have that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^{\lambda}} \text{Tr} [(|x^{\theta}\rangle\langle x^{\theta}| \otimes B_x^{\theta} \otimes C_x^{\theta}) \rho] \leq \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \right)^{\lambda}. \quad (2)$$

Using standard techniques, we recast this theorem in a context where Alice sends to Bob and Charlie a random Wiesner state and they split this state among themselves via a CPTP map Φ .

► **Corollary 2.** *Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}^+$. For any Hilbert spaces \mathcal{H}_B and \mathcal{H}_C , any collections of POVMs*

$$\left\{ \{B_x^{\theta}\}_{x \in \{0,1\}^{\lambda}} \right\}_{\theta \in \{0,1\}^{\lambda}} \quad \text{and} \quad \left\{ \{C_x^{\theta}\}_{x \in \{0,1\}^{\lambda}} \right\}_{\theta \in \{0,1\}^{\lambda}} \quad (3)$$

on these Hilbert spaces, and any CPTP map $\Phi : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q}(\lambda)) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_B \otimes \mathcal{H}_C)$, we have that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_x \text{Tr} [(B_x^{\theta} \otimes C_x^{\theta}) \Phi (|x^{\theta}\rangle\langle x^{\theta}|)] \leq \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \right)^{\lambda}. \quad (4)$$

The proof can be found in the full version, but conceptually follows from a two-step argument. First, we only consider states of the form $(\mathbb{1} \otimes \Phi) |EPR_{\lambda}\rangle\langle EPR_{\lambda}|$ for some CPTP map Φ and where Alice keeps the intact subsystems from the EPR pairs. Then, we apply the correspondence between Alice measuring her half of an EPR pair in a random Wiesner basis and her sending a random Wiesner state. This correspondence is similar to the one used in the Shor-Preiskill proof of security for the BB84 QKD protocol [19].

Corollary 2 can be seen as the source of “uncloneability” for our upcoming protocols. When Alice sends a state $|x^{\theta}\rangle\langle x^{\theta}|$, picked uniformly at random, to Bob and Charlie, she has a guarantee that it is unlikely for both of them to learn x even if she later divulges θ . It is worth noting that Theorem 1 and Corollary 2 have no computational or hardness assumptions.

2.3 Oracles and Quantum-Secure Pseudorandom Functions

A quantum-secure pseudorandom function is a keyed function which appears random to an efficient quantum adversary who only sees its input/output behaviour and is ignorant of the particular key being used. We formally define this notion with the help of oracles. Quantum accessible oracles have been previously studied in the literature, for example in [8, 22].

For a function $H \in \text{Bool}(n, m)$, a circuit \mathcal{C} is said to have oracle access to H , denoted \mathcal{C}^H , if we add to its gate set a gate implementing the unitary operator $O^H \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{Q}(n)_Q \otimes \mathcal{Q}(m)_R)$ defined on computational basis states by

$$|x\rangle_Q \otimes |y\rangle_R \mapsto |x\rangle_Q \otimes |y \oplus H(x)\rangle_R. \quad (5)$$

Colloquially, we are giving \mathcal{C} a “black box” which computes the function H . Note that for any two functions $H, H' \in \text{Bool}(n, m)$, we can obtain the circuit $\mathcal{C}^{H'}$ from \mathcal{C}^H by replacing every instance of the O^H gate by the $O^{H'}$ gate.

Our definition of a quantum-secure pseudorandom function, inspired by [27], is as follows.

► **Definition 3** (Quantum-Secure Pseudorandom Function). *A quantum-secure pseudorandom function \mathcal{F} is a collection of functions*

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ f_{\lambda} : \{0,1\}^{\lambda} \times \{0,1\}^{\ell_{In}(\lambda)} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{\ell_{Out}(\lambda)} \right\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}^+} \quad (6)$$

where $\ell_{In}, \ell_{Out} : \mathbb{N}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+$ and such that:

1. There is an efficient quantum circuit $F = \{F_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}^+}$ such that F_λ implements the CPTP map F_λ given by $\rho \mapsto U_\lambda \rho U_\lambda^\dagger$ where $U_\lambda \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{Q}(\lambda + \ell_{\text{In}}(\lambda) + \ell_{\text{Out}}(\lambda)))$ is defined by

$$U_\lambda(|k\rangle \otimes |a\rangle \otimes |b\rangle) = |k\rangle \otimes |a\rangle \otimes |b \oplus f_\lambda(k, a)\rangle. \quad (7)$$

2. For all efficient quantum circuits $D = \{D_\lambda^H\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}^+}$ having oracle access to a function of the form $H \in \text{Bool}(\ell_{\text{In}}(\lambda), \ell_{\text{Out}}(\lambda))$, each implementing a CPTP map of the form $D_\lambda^H : \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q})$, there is a negligible function η such that:

$$\left| \mathbb{E}_k \text{Tr} [|0\rangle\langle 0| D_\lambda^{f_\lambda(k, \cdot)}(1)] - \mathbb{E}_H \text{Tr} [|0\rangle\langle 0| D_\lambda^H(1)] \right| \leq \eta(\lambda). \quad (8)$$

We should think of D as a circuit which attempts to distinguish two different cases: was it given oracle access to the pseudorandom function $f(k, \cdot) : \{0, 1\}^{\ell_{\text{In}}(\lambda)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_{\text{Out}}(\lambda)}$ for a randomly sampled $k \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$? Or to a function $H \in \text{Bool}(\ell_{\text{In}}(\lambda), \ell_{\text{Out}}(\lambda))$ sampled truly at random? The circuit takes no input and produces a single bit of output, via measuring a single qubit in the computational basis. The bound given in the definition ensures that the probability distribution of the output does not change by much in both scenarios.

In his work on quantum-secure pseudorandom functions [27], Zhandry showed that certain common constructions of pseudorandom functions are secure against quantum adversaries.

3 Uncloneable Encryption

The encryption of classical plaintexts into classical ciphertexts has been extensively studied. The study of encrypting quantum plaintexts into quantum ciphertexts has also received some attention, for example in [4]. Uncloneable encryption is a security notion for classical plaintexts which is impossible to achieve in any meaningful way with classical ciphertexts. Thus, we formally define a notion of quantum encryptions for classical messages in Section 3.1 and then give our security definitions in Section 3.2.

3.1 Quantum Encryptions of Classical Messages

A quantum encryption of classical messages scheme is a procedure which takes as input a plaintext and a key, in the form of classical bit strings, and produces a ciphertext in the form of a quantum state. We model these schemes as efficient quantum circuits and CPTP maps where classical bit strings are identified with computational basis states: $s \leftrightarrow |s\rangle\langle s|$. Our schemes are parametrized by a security parameter λ . In general, the message size $n = n(\lambda)$, the key size $\kappa = \kappa(\lambda)$, and the size of the ciphertext $\ell = \ell(\lambda)$ may depend on λ . This is formalized in Definition 4.

► **Definition 4** (Quantum Encryption of Classical Messages). A quantum encryption of classical messages (QECM) scheme is a triplet of efficient quantum circuits $\mathcal{S} = (\text{Key}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ implementing CPTP maps of the form

- $\text{Key}_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{K,\lambda})$,
- $\text{Enc}_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{K,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{T,\lambda})$, and
- $\text{Dec}_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{K,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{T,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda})$

where, for functions $n, \ell, \kappa : \mathbb{N}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+$, the plaintext space is given by $\mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda} = \mathcal{Q}(n(\lambda))$, the ciphertext space is given by $\mathcal{H}_{T,\lambda} = \mathcal{Q}(\ell(\lambda))$, and the keyspace is given by $\mathcal{H}_{K,\lambda} = \mathcal{Q}(\kappa(\lambda))$.

For all $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}^+$, $k \in \{0, 1\}^{\kappa(\lambda)}$, and $m \in \{0, 1\}^{n(\lambda)}$, the maps must satisfy

$$\text{Tr}[|k\rangle\langle k| \text{Key}(1)] > 0 \implies \text{Tr}[|m\rangle\langle m| \text{Dec}_k \circ \text{Enc}_k(|m\rangle\langle m|)] = 1 \quad (9)$$

where λ is implicit, Enc_k is the CPTP map defined by $\rho \mapsto \text{Enc}(|k\rangle\langle k| \otimes \rho)$, and we define Dec_k analogously.

A short discussion on the key generation circuit, Key , is in order. First, note that Key takes no input. Indeed, the domain of Key_λ is $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{C})$ and \mathbb{C} is the state space of zero qubits. In particular, there is a single valid quantum state on \mathbb{C} : $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{C}) = \{1\}$. To generate a classical key to be used by the encryption and decryption circuits Enc_λ and Dec_λ , a party runs the circuit Key_λ and obtains the quantum state $\text{Key}_\lambda(1)$. This quantum state is then measured in the computational basis and the result of this measurement is used as the key. We then see that Equation (9) is a correctness condition which imposes that, for all keys that may be generated, a valid ciphertext is always correctly decrypted.

3.2 Security Notions

Now that we have formal definition for QECM schemes, we can define security notions for these schemes. We define three such notions:

1. Indistinguishable security. Conceptually inspired by the original security notion of indistinguishable encryptions [14], which considers classical plaintexts and classical ciphertexts, and similar in details to an analogue definition in [4] which considers quantum plaintexts and quantum ciphertexts, this security notion considers classical plaintexts and quantum ciphertexts. It is formally stated in Definition 6.
2. Uncloneable security. This security notion is novel to this work and captures, in the broadest sense, what we mean by an “uncloneable encryption scheme”. This security notion is defined in Definition 8 and is parametrized by a real value $0 \leq t \leq n$, where n is the message size. The case where $t = 0$ is ideal and $t = n$ is trivial. In particular, no encryption scheme with classical ciphertexts may achieve t -uncloneable security for $t < n$.
3. Uncloneable-indistinguishable security. This security notion is also novel to this work. It can be seen as a combination of indistinguishable and uncloneable security. It is formally defined in Definition 11.

Each of these security notions is defined in two steps. First, we define a type of attack (Definitions 5, 7 and 10). Then, we say that the QECM scheme achieves the given security notion if all admissible attacks have their winning probability appropriately bounded (Definitions 6, 8 and 11). The definitions for uncloneable security and uncloneable-indistinguishable security will formalize the games which we described in Section 1.1.

Note that many classical encryption schemes which are secure against quantum adversaries, such as the one-time pad, are indistinguishable secure but satisfy neither uncloneable security notions as their ciphertexts can always be perfectly copied. We also discuss in Appendix A a scheme which offers non-trivial uncloneable security but is not in any way uncloneable-indistinguishable secure.

We first define our notion of indistinguishable security.

► **Definition 5** (Distinguishing Attack). *Let \mathcal{S} be a QECM scheme. A distinguishing attack against \mathcal{S} is a pair of efficient quantum circuits $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{A})$ implementing CPTP maps of the form*

- $G_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{S,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda})$ and
- $A_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{S,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{T,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q})$

where $\mathcal{H}_{S,\lambda} = \mathcal{Q}(s(\lambda))$ for a function $s : \mathbb{N}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+$ and $\mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda}$ and $\mathcal{H}_{T,\lambda}$ are as defined by \mathcal{S} .

► **Definition 6** (Indistinguishable Security). *Let \mathcal{S} be a QECM scheme. For a fixed and implicit value of λ , we define the CPTP map $\text{Enc}_k^1 : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{T,\lambda})$ by*

$$\rho \mapsto \sum_{m \in \{0,1\}^n} \text{Tr}[|m\rangle\langle m| \rho] \cdot \text{Enc}_k(|m\rangle\langle m|) \quad (10)$$

and the CPTP map $Enc_k^0 : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{T,\lambda})$ by

$$\rho \mapsto Enc_k^0(|0^n\rangle\langle 0^n|) \quad (11)$$

where $0^n \in \{0,1\}^n$ is the all zero bit string.

Then, we say that \mathcal{S} is indistinguishable secure if for all distinguishing attacks \mathcal{A} against \mathcal{S} , there exists a negligible function η such that

$$\mathbb{E}_b \mathbb{E}_{k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}} \text{Tr} [|b\rangle\langle b| A_\lambda \circ (\mathbb{1}_S \otimes Enc_k^b) \circ G(1)] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \eta(\lambda) \quad (12)$$

where λ is implicit on the left-hand side, $b \in \{0,1\}$, and \mathcal{K}_λ is the random variable distributed on the set $\{0,1\}^{\kappa(\lambda)}$ such that $\Pr[\mathcal{K}_\lambda = k] = \text{Tr}[|k\rangle\langle k| Key_\lambda(1)]$.

In Definition 6, the map Enc_k^0 should be seen as discarding whatever plaintext was given and producing the encryption of the all zero bit string. On the other hand, Enc_k^1 is the map which first measures the state given in the computational basis, to ensure that the plaintext is indeed a classical message, and then encrypts this message. We say that a QECM scheme has indistinguishable security if no efficient adversary can distinguish between both of these scenarios (by trying to determine the value of b) with more than a negligible advantage. This security notion allows us to show that the schemes we define do offer a level of security as encryption schemes.

Next, we formalize the intuitive definition for uncloneable security as given by the game described in Section 1.1. In Figure 2, we sketch out the relation between the various CPTP maps and the underlying Hilbert spaces considered in this definition.

► **Definition 7 (Cloning Attack).** Let \mathcal{S} be a QECM scheme. A cloning attack against \mathcal{S} is a triplet of efficient quantum circuits $\mathcal{A} = (A, B, C)$ implementing CPTP maps of the form

- $A_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{T,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{B,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{C,\lambda})$,
- $B_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{K,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{B,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda})$, and
- $C_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{K,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{C,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda})$

where $\mathcal{H}_{B,\lambda} = \mathcal{Q}(\beta(\lambda))$ and $\mathcal{H}_{C,\lambda} = \mathcal{Q}(\gamma(\lambda))$ for some functions $\beta, \gamma : \mathbb{N}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+$ and $\mathcal{H}_{K,\lambda}$, $\mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda}$, and $\mathcal{H}_{T,\lambda}$ are as defined by \mathcal{S} .

► **Definition 8 (Uncloneable Security).** A QECM scheme \mathcal{S} is $t(\lambda)$ -uncloneable secure if for all cloning attacks \mathcal{A} against \mathcal{S} there exists a negligible function η such that

$$\mathbb{E}_m \mathbb{E}_{k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}} \text{Tr} [(|m\rangle\langle m| \otimes |m\rangle\langle m|) (B_k \otimes C_k) \circ A \circ Enc_k^0(|m\rangle\langle m|)] \leq 2^{-n+t(\lambda)} + \eta(\lambda) \quad (13)$$

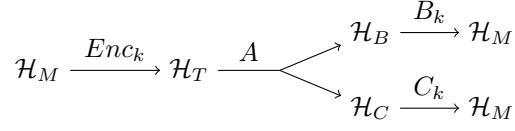
where λ is implicit on the left-hand side, \mathcal{K}_λ is a random variable distributed on $\{0,1\}^{\kappa(\lambda)}$ such that $\Pr[\mathcal{K}_\lambda = k] = \text{Tr}[|k\rangle\langle k| Key_\lambda(1)]$ and B_k is the CPTP map defined by $\rho \mapsto B(|k\rangle\langle k| \otimes \rho)$ and similarly for C_k .

If \mathcal{S} is 0-uncloneable secure, we simply say that it is uncloneable secure.

The left-hand side of Equation (13) is the probability, averaged over all messages and all keys, that both adversaries can correctly output the encrypted message.

We note that any encryption which produces classical ciphertexts cannot be t -uncloneable secure for any $t < n$. Indeed, an attack \mathcal{A} where A copies the classical ciphertext and where $B = C = \text{Dec}$ succeeds with probability 1.

Our definition of uncloneable security is with respect to messages sampled uniformly at random. However, if the length of the message is fixed, t -uncloneable security implies a similar security notion for messages sampled according to other distributions. We formalize this in the next theorem whose proof can be found in Appendix B.1.



■ **Figure 2** Schematic representation of the maps considered in a cloning attack (Definition 7). The k subscript indicates which maps have access to the encryption key.

► **Theorem 9.** *Let \mathcal{S} be a QECCM scheme which is t -uncloneable secure and whose message size is constant, i.e.: $n(\lambda) = n$. Let \mathcal{M} be a random variable distributed over $\{0, 1\}^n$ with min-entropy h . Then, for any cloning attack \mathcal{A} on \mathcal{S} there is a negligible function η such that*

$$\mathbb{E}_{m \leftarrow \mathcal{M}} \mathbb{E}_{k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}} \text{Tr} [(|m\rangle\langle m| \otimes |m\rangle\langle m|) (B_k \otimes C_k) \circ A \circ Enc_k |m\rangle\langle m|] \leq 2^{-h+t(\lambda)} + \eta(\lambda) \quad (14)$$

where λ is implicit on the left-hand side.

Finally, we formalize the notion of uncloneable-indistinguishable security (see Section 1.1 for a description in terms of a game, and Figure 3 for the relation between the various CPTP maps and the underlying Hilbert spaces).

► **Definition 10 (Cloning-Distinguishing Attack).** *Let \mathcal{S} be a QECCM scheme. A cloning-distinguishing attack against \mathcal{S} is a tuple $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{G}, A, B, C)$ of efficient quantum circuits implementing CPTP maps of the form*

- $G_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{S,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{M,\lambda})$,
- $A_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{S,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{T,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{B,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{C,\lambda})$,
- $B_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{K,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{B,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q})$, and
- $C_\lambda : \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{K,\lambda} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{C,\lambda}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q})$

where $\mathcal{H}_{S,\lambda} = \mathcal{Q}(s(\lambda))$, $\mathcal{H}_{B,\lambda} = \mathcal{Q}(\beta(\lambda))$, and $\mathcal{H}_{C,\lambda} = \mathcal{Q}(\gamma(\lambda))$ for $s, \beta, \gamma : \mathbb{N}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+$ and all other Hilbert spaces are as defined by \mathcal{S} .

► **Definition 11 (Uncloneable-Indistinguishable Security).** *Let \mathcal{S} be a QECCM scheme and define Enc_k^0 and Enc_k^1 as in Definition 6.*

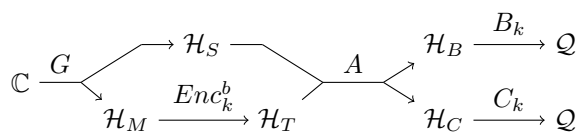
We say that \mathcal{S} is uncloneable-indistinguishable secure if for all cloning-distinguishing attacks \mathcal{A} there exists a negligible function η such that

$$\mathbb{E}_b \mathbb{E}_{k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}} \text{Tr} [(|b\rangle\langle b| \otimes |b\rangle\langle b|) (B_k \otimes C_k) \circ A \circ (\mathbb{1}_S \otimes Enc_k^b) \circ G(1)] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \eta(\lambda) \quad (15)$$

where λ is implicit on the left-hand side, \mathcal{K}_λ is the random variable distributed on $\{0, 1\}^{\kappa(\lambda)}$ such that $\Pr[\mathcal{K} = k] = \text{Tr}[|k\rangle\langle k| K(1)]$, B_k is the CPTP map defined by $\rho \mapsto B(|k\rangle\langle k| \otimes \rho)$, and similarly for C_k .

The left-hand side of Equation (15) is the probability, averaged all keys, that both adversaries can correctly determine if their submitted message (generated by \mathcal{G}) or the all 0 bit string was encrypted.

It is trivial to see, but worth noting, that uncloneable-indistinguishable security implies indistinguishable security. Indeed, if a scheme is not indistinguishable secure, then an adversary can determine which message was encrypted (with non-negligible advantage) without having to wait for the key to be divulged. Thus, instead of trying to split the ciphertext, the A circuit in an uncloneable-indistinguishable attack should attempt to determine which message was encrypted and simply pass on the result to the B and C circuits.



■ **Figure 3** Schematic representation of the maps considered in a cloning-distinguishing attack (Definition 10). The k subscript indicates which maps have access to the encryption key.

Finally, it can also be shown that any 0-uncloneable secure QECM scheme \mathcal{S} with constant message length is uncloneable-indistinguishable secure. The proof can be found in the full version and proceeds by using any cloning-distinguishing attack to construct a cloning attack. We then show that security against the constructed cloning attack implies security against the original distinguishing-cloning attack.

► **Theorem 12.** *Let \mathcal{S} be an 0-uncloneable secure QECM with constant message size, i.e.: $n(\lambda)$ is the constant function $n(\lambda) = n$, then \mathcal{S} is also uncloneable-indistinguishable secure.*

4 An Uncloneable Encryption Scheme

A first scheme which attempts to achieve a notion of uncloneable encryption is presented in Appendix A. It is based on a simple use of Wiesner states and illustrates the basic principle, but it is in many respects insufficient.

In Section 4.1, we present a refinement of the Appendix A protocol which uses quantum secure pseudorandom functions. The proof of the uncloneable security of this protocol relies on technical lemmas presented in Section 4.2. We give our final main results in Section 4.3.

4.1 Our qPRF Scheme

As discussed in Section 1.1, the motivation for this scheme is to use quantum-secure pseudorandom functions to attempt to “distill” the uncloneability found in the Wiesner state.

► **Definition 13** (\mathcal{F} -Conjugate Encryption). *Let $\mathcal{F} = \{f_\lambda : \{0, 1\}^\lambda \times \{0, 1\}^\lambda \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{n(\lambda)}\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}^+}$ be a quantum-secure pseudorandom function for a function $n : \mathbb{N}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^+$. We define the \mathcal{F} -conjugate encryption QECM scheme by the circuits implementing the following algorithms which are implicitly parametrized by λ . Note that the message size is the output size of the qPRF, $n(\lambda)$, the key size is $\kappa(\lambda) = 2\lambda$, and the ciphertext size is $\ell(\lambda) = \lambda + n(\lambda)$.*

■ **Algorithm 1** Key generation circuit, Key.

Input : None.

Output : A state $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q}(\kappa(\lambda)))$.

- 1 Sample $s \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ uniformly at random.
 - 2 Sample $\theta \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ uniformly at random.
 - 3 Output $\rho = |s\rangle\langle s| \otimes |\theta\rangle\langle \theta|$.
-

■ **Algorithm 2** Encryption circuit, Enc.

Input : A plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and a key $(s, \theta) \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$.
Output : A ciphertext $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q}(\ell(\lambda)))$.

- 1 Sample $x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ uniformly at random.
- 2 Compute $c = m \oplus f_\lambda(s, x)$.
- 3 Output $\rho = |c\rangle\langle c| \otimes |x^\theta\rangle\langle x^\theta|$.

■ **Algorithm 3** Decryption circuit, Dec.

Input : A ciphertext $|c\rangle\langle c| \otimes \rho \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q}(\ell))$ and a key $(s, \theta) \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$.
Output : A plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$.

- 1 Compute $\rho' = H^\theta \rho H^\theta$.
- 2 Measure ρ' in the computational basis. Call the result r .
- 3 Output $m = c \oplus f_\lambda(s, r)$.

It is trivial to see that this scheme is correct. It is also straightforward to see that this scheme is indistinguishable secure (Definition 6). Indeed, if we replace the qPRF with a function chosen uniformly at random from $\text{Bool}(\lambda, n(\lambda))$, then the ciphertext, averaged over all keys, is independent of the plaintext. Security then follows from the fact that efficient adversaries cannot distinguish with non-negligible advantage between the qPRF and a function chosen randomly from $\text{Bool}(\lambda, n(\lambda))$.

4.2 Technical Lemmas

The following two lemmas form the core of the upcoming proofs of uncloneable security and they can be seen as extending Unruh's one-way-to-hiding lemma [22] to a two player setting. They are interpreted as follows.

We consider two adversaries who have oracle access to a function $H \in \text{Bool}(\lambda, n)$ which is chosen uniformly at random. Their goal is to simultaneously guess the value $H(x)$ for some value of x . The adversaries share a quantum state representing all the information they initially have on x . The lemmas relate the probability of both parties simultaneously guessing $H(x)$ to their probability of being able to both simultaneously guess x .

The first of these lemmas, Lemma 14, considers this problem in a setting where the adversaries do not share any entanglement. The second, Lemma 15, imposes no such restriction.

We show that the probability that both adversaries correctly guess $H(x)$ is upper bounded by $\frac{1}{2^n} + Q \cdot G$ or $\frac{9}{2^n} + Q' \cdot G'$ where Q and Q' are polynomial functions of the number of queries the adversaries make to the oracle and G and G' quantify their probability of guessing x with a particular strategy. The factor of 9 is present only if we allow the adversaries to share entanglement.

We can interpret G and G' in a manner very similar to its analogous quantity in Unruh's one-way-to-hiding lemma [22]. The adversaries, instead of continuing until the end of their computation, will stop immediately before a certain (randomly chosen) query to the oracle and measure their query register in the computational basis. Then, G is related to the probability that this procedure succeeds at letting both adversaries simultaneously obtain x , averaged over the possible stopping points and possible functions implemented by the oracle.

The key idea in the proof of these lemmas is that we can decompose the unitary operator representing each of the adversaries' computations into two "parts" (see Equation (26)). One

of these “parts” will never query the oracle on x and the other could query the oracle on x . This idea was present in the proof of Unruh’s one-way-to-hiding lemma [22].

Recall from Section 2.3 that we model queries to an oracle implementing a function H as a unitary operator O^H acting on a query and a response register with Hilbert spaces \mathcal{H}_Q and \mathcal{H}_R respectively. The action of this unitary operator on the computational basis states is given by $|x\rangle_Q \otimes |y\rangle_R \mapsto |x\rangle_Q \otimes |y \oplus H(x)\rangle_R$. A party having access to an oracle may also have some other register with Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_S with which they perform other computations. In general, their computation can then be modeled by an operator of the form $(UO^H)^q$ where U is a unitary operator on $\mathcal{H}_Q \otimes \mathcal{H}_R \otimes \mathcal{H}_S$ and q is the number of queries made to the oracle [8, 22].

The proof of Lemma 15 can be found in Appendix B.2. The proof of Lemma 14, which uses very similar ideas to those found in the proof of Lemma 15, can be found in the full version.

► **Lemma 14.** *Let $\lambda, n \in \mathbb{N}^+$. For $L \in \{B, C\}$, we let $s_L, q_L \in \mathbb{N}^+$, $\mathcal{H}_{L_Q} = \mathcal{Q}(\lambda)$, $\mathcal{H}_{L_R} = \mathcal{Q}(n)$, $\mathcal{H}_{L_S} = \mathcal{Q}(s_L)$, $U_L \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H}_{L_Q} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{L_R} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{L_S})$, and $\{\pi_L^y\}_{y \in \{0,1\}^n}$ be a projective measurement on $\mathcal{H}_{L_Q} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{L_R} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{L_S}$.*

Finally, let $|\psi\rangle = |\psi_B\rangle \otimes |\psi_C\rangle$ be a separable unit vector with $|\psi_L\rangle \in \mathcal{Q}(n + \lambda + s_L)$ for $L \in \{B, C\}$ and $x \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$. Then, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_H \left\| \Pi^{H(x)} \left((U_B O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes (U_C O_C^H)^{q_C} \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2^n} + (3q + 2)q\sqrt{M} \quad (16)$$

where $\Pi^{H(x)} = \pi_B^{H(x)} \otimes \pi_C^{H(x)}$, $q = q_B + q_C$ and

$$M = \mathbb{E}_k \mathbb{E}_\ell \mathbb{E}_H \mathbb{E}_{H'} \left\| \left(|x\rangle\langle x|_{B_Q} \otimes |x\rangle\langle x|_{C_Q} \right) \left((U_B O_B^H)^k \otimes (U_C O_C^H)^\ell \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \quad (17)$$

with $k \in \{0, \dots, q_B - 1\}$, $\ell \in \{0, \dots, q_C - 1\}$, and $H, H' \in \text{Bool}(\lambda, n)$.

► **Lemma 15.** *Let $\lambda, n \in \mathbb{N}^+$. For $L \in \{B, C\}$, we let $s_L, q_L \in \mathbb{N}^+$, $\mathcal{H}_{L_Q} = \mathcal{Q}(\lambda)$, $\mathcal{H}_{L_R} = \mathcal{Q}(n)$, $\mathcal{H}_{L_S} = \mathcal{Q}(s_L)$, $U_L \in \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H}_{L_Q} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{L_R} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{L_S})$, and $\{\pi_L^y\}_{y \in \{0,1\}^n}$ be a projective measurement on $\mathcal{H}_{L_Q} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{L_R} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{L_S}$.*

Finally, let $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{Q}(2(\lambda + n) + s_B + s_C)$ be a unit vector and $x \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$. Then, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_H \left\| \Pi^{H(x)} \left((U_B O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes (U_C O_C^H)^{q_C} \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \leq \frac{9}{2^n} + (3q_B q_C + 2)q_B q_C \sqrt{M} \quad (18)$$

where $\Pi^{H(x)} = \pi_B^{H(x)} \otimes \pi_C^{H(x)}$ and

$$M = \mathbb{E}_k \mathbb{E}_\ell \mathbb{E}_H \left\| \left(|x\rangle\langle x|_{B_Q} \otimes |x\rangle\langle x|_{C_Q} \right) \left((U_B O_B^H)^k \otimes (U_C O_C^H)^\ell \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \quad (19)$$

with $k \in \{0, \dots, q_B - 1\}$, $\ell \in \{0, \dots, q_C - 1\}$, and $H \in \text{Bool}(\lambda, n)$.

4.3 Main Results

We now have all the necessary tools to state our main results.

► **Theorem 16.** *Let \mathcal{S} be the QECM scheme defined in Definition 13. If the qPRF is modeled by a quantum oracle, then \mathcal{S} is $\log_2(9)$ -uncloneable secure.*

Our main results (Theorem 16) holds under the following assumptions:

1. The family of functions used in the encryption is indistinguishable from truly random functions for efficient adversaries (i.e.: it satisfies the indistinguishable property of a pseudorandom function).

2. The adversarial circuit A (the one which attempts to split the ciphertext) does not know precisely which function was used. This models the idea that the A circuit does not know the encryption key.
3. The adversarial circuits B and C (the ones attempting to guess the plaintext) may only interact with the function as a “black box”.

One way to model these assumptions is to use the quantum random oracle model, where in addition we specify that the A circuit cannot query the oracle. This captures the idea that all circuits, except the A circuit, are given the encryption key.

The above explains our design choice of presenting the scheme with a qPRF, which is modelled as an oracle in the proof. This allows us to assume that the B and C circuits only use the key k to query $f(k, \cdot)$ as a black box. By definition of a qPRF, and since all adversaries are efficient, this scenario is indistinguishable from the random oracle scenario discussed above.

The proof of Theorem 16 can be found in Appendix B.2. It essentially argues that Lemma 15 can be applied with a bound of $M \leq \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)^\lambda$, which is negligible in λ , due to Corollary 2.

We can strengthen this result if the adversaries do not share any entanglement (see Section 1.2 for an application).

► **Theorem 17.** *Let \mathcal{S} be the QECM scheme given in Definition 13. If the qPRF is modeled by a quantum oracle and the adversaries cannot share any entanglement, then \mathcal{S} is 0-uncloneable secure.*

Proof (Sketch). Follow the proof of Theorem 16 using Lemma 14 instead of Lemma 15. ◀

► **Corollary 18.** *Let \mathcal{S} be the QECM scheme given in Definition 13 with constant message size, i.e.: $n(\lambda) = n$. If the qPRF is modeled by a quantum oracle and the adversaries cannot share any entanglement, then \mathcal{S} is indistinguishable-uncloneable secure.*

Proof (Sketch). Use Theorem 17 with Theorem 12. ◀

References

- 1 Scott Aaronson. Quantum copy-protection and quantum money. In *24th Annual Conference on Computational Complexity—CCC 2009*, pages 229–242, 2009. doi:10.1109/CCC.2009.42.
- 2 Scott Aaronson and Paul Christiano. Quantum money from hidden subspaces. In *44th Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing—STOC 2012*, pages 41–60, 2012. doi:10.1145/2213977.2213983.
- 3 Dorit Aharonov, Alexei Kitaev, and Noam Nisan. Quantum circuits with mixed states. In *30th Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing—STOC 1998*, pages 20–30, 1998. doi:10.1145/276698.276708.
- 4 Gorjan Alagic, Anne Broadbent, Bill Fefferman, Tommaso Gagliardoni, Christian Schaffner, and Michael St. Jules. Computational security of quantum encryption. In *Information Theoretic Security: 9th International Conference—ICITS 2016*, pages 47–71, 2016. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-49175-2_3.
- 5 Elaine Barker. Recommendation for key management part 1: General (revision 4). Technical Report SP 800-57, National Institute of Standards and Technology, 2016. doi:10.6028/NIST.SP.800-57pt1r4.
- 6 Charles H. Bennett and Gilles Brassard. Quantum cryptography: Public key distribution and coin tossing. In *International Conference on Computers, Systems and Signal Processing*, pages 175–179, 1984. arXiv:2003.06557.

- 7 Charles H. Bennett, Gilles Brassard, and Seth Breidbart. Quantum cryptography II: How to re-use a one-time pad safely even if $P=NP$. *Natural Computing*, 13(4):453–458, 2014. doi:10.1007/s11047-014-9453-6.
- 8 Dan Boneh, Özgür Dagdelen, Marc Fischlin, Anja Lehmann, Christian Schaffner, and Mark Zhandry. Random oracles in a quantum world. In *Advances in Cryptology—ASIACRYPT 2011*, pages 41–69, 2011. doi:10.1007/978-3-642-25385-0_3.
- 9 Anne Broadbent and Christian Schaffner. Quantum cryptography beyond quantum key distribution. *Designs, Codes and Cryptography*, 78(1):351–382, 2016. doi:10.1007/s10623-015-0157-4.
- 10 Ivan Damgård, Thomas Brochmann Pedersen, and Louis Salvail. A quantum cipher with near optimal key-recycling. In *Advances in Cryptology—CRYPTO 2005*, pages 494–510, 2005. doi:10.1007/11535218_30.
- 11 D. Dieks. Communication by EPR devices. *Physics Letters A*, 92(6):271–272, 1982. doi:10.1016/0375-9601(82)90084-6.
- 12 A. Einstein, B. Podolsky, and N. Rosen. Can quantum-mechanical description of physical reality be considered complete? *Physical Review Letters*, 47(10):777–780, 1935. doi:10.1103/physrev.47.777.
- 13 Serge Fehr and Louis Salvail. Quantum authentication and encryption with key recycling. In *Advances in Cryptology—EUROCRYPT 2017*, volume 3, pages 311–338, 2017. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-56617-7_11.
- 14 Shafi Goldwasser and Silvio Micali. Probabilistic encryption. *Journal of Computer and System Sciences*, 28(2):270–299, 1984. doi:10.1016/0022-0000(84)90070-9.
- 15 Daniel Gottesman. Uncloneable encryption. *Quantum Information & Computation*, 3(6):581–602, 2003. arXiv:quant-ph/0210062.
- 16 Sébastien Lord. Uncloneable quantum encryption via random oracles. Master’s thesis, University of Ottawa, 2019. doi:10.20381/ruor-23107.
- 17 Michael A. Nielsen and Issac L. Chuang. *Quantum Computation and Quantum Information*. Cambridge University Press, 2000.
- 18 James L. Park. The concept of transition in quantum mechanics. *Foundations of Physics*, 1(1):23–33, 1970. doi:10.1007/BF00708652.
- 19 Peter W. Shor and John Preskill. Simple proof of security of the BB84 quantum key distribution protocol. *Physical Review Letters*, 85(2):441–444, 2000. doi:10.1103/physrevlett.85.441.
- 20 Marco Tomamichel, Serge Fehr, Jędrzej Kaniewski, and Stephanie Wehner. A monogamy-of-entanglement game with applications to device-independent quantum cryptography. *New Journal of Physics*, 15(10):103002, 2013. doi:10.1088/1367-2630/15/10/103002.
- 21 Dominique Unruh. Everlasting multi-party computation. In *Advances in Cryptology—CRYPTO 2013*, volume 2, pages 380–397, 2013. doi:10.1007/978-3-642-40084-1_22.
- 22 Dominique Unruh. Revocable quantum timed-release encryption. *Journal of the ACM*, 62(6):49, 2015. doi:10.1145/2817206.
- 23 John Watrous. Quantum computational complexity. In *Encyclopedia of complexity and systems science*, pages 7174–7201. Springer, 2009. doi:10.1007/978-3-642-27737-5_428-3.
- 24 John Watrous. *The Theory of Quantum Information*. Cambridge University Press, 1st edition, 2018.
- 25 Stephen Wiesner. Conjugate coding. *ACM SIGACT News*, 15(1):78–88, 1983. doi:10.1145/1008908.1008920.
- 26 W. K. Wootters and W. H. Zurek. A single quantum cannot be cloned. *Nature*, 299:802–803, 1982. doi:10.1038/299802a0.
- 27 Mark Zhandry. How to construct quantum random functions. In *53rd Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science—FOCS 2012*, pages 679–687, 2012. doi:10.1109/FOCS.2012.37.

A

 Conjugate Encryption

Our first QECM scheme is a one-time pad encoded into Wiesner states. We emphasize that this scheme will not offer much in terms of uncloneable security but it remains an instructive example.

► **Definition 19** (Conjugate Encryption). *We define the conjugate encryption QECM scheme by the circuits implementing the following algorithms, each implicitly parametrized by λ . Note that the message size is $n(\lambda) = \lambda$, the key size is $\kappa(\lambda) = 2\lambda$ and the ciphertext size is $\ell(\lambda) = \lambda$.*

■ **Algorithm 4** The key generation circuit **Key**.

Input : None.

Output : A state $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q}(\kappa))$.

- 1 Sample $r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ uniformly at random.
 - 2 Sample $\theta \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ uniformly at random.
 - 3 Output $\rho = |r\rangle\langle r| \otimes |\theta\rangle\langle \theta|$.
-

■ **Algorithm 5** The encryption circuit **Enc**.

Input : A plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and a key $(r, \theta) \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$.

Output : A ciphertext $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q}(n))$.

- 1 Output $\rho = |(m \oplus r)^\theta\rangle\langle (m \oplus r)^\theta|$.
-

■ **Algorithm 6** The decryption circuit **Dec**.

Input : A ciphertext $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q}(n))$ and a key $(r, \theta) \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$.

Output : A plaintext $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$.

- 1 Compute $\rho' = H^\theta \rho H^\theta$.
 - 2 Measure ρ' in the computational basis. Call the result c . Output $c \oplus r$.
-

The correctness of this scheme is trivial to verify and it is indistinguishable secure. The indistinguishable security follows from the fact that if $Enc_{r,\theta}^0$ and $Enc_{r,\theta}^1$ are as defined in Definition 6, then for any state $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_S \otimes \mathcal{Q}(n))$ we have that

$$\mathbb{E}_r \mathbb{E}_\theta \left(\mathbb{1}_S \otimes Enc_{(r,\theta)}^1 \right) (\rho) = \mathbb{E}_r \mathbb{E}_\theta \left(\mathbb{1}_S \otimes Enc_{(r,\theta)}^0 \right) (\rho). \quad (20)$$

We will need one small technical lemma before proceeding to the proof of uncloneable security for this scheme.

► **Lemma 20.** *Let $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, $f : \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function and $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$ be a string. Then, $\mathbb{E}_x f(x, x \oplus s) = \mathbb{E}_x f(x \oplus s, x)$.*

The proof of Lemma 20 may be found in the full version.

► **Theorem 21.** *The scheme in Definition 19 is $\lambda \log_2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$ -uncloneable secure.*

Proof. It suffices to show that for any cloning attack \mathcal{A} the quantity

$$\mathbb{E}_m \mathbb{E}_r \mathbb{E}_\theta \text{Tr} [(|m\rangle\langle m| \otimes |m\rangle\langle m|) (B_{(r,\theta)} \otimes C_{(r,\theta)}) \circ A (|(m \oplus r)^\theta\rangle\langle (m \oplus r)^\theta|)] \quad (21)$$

is upper bounded by $\left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)^\lambda$. By applying Lemma 20 with respect to the expectation over m , this quantity is the same as

$$\mathbb{E}_m \mathbb{E}_r \mathbb{E}_\theta \text{Tr} [(|m \oplus r\rangle\langle m \oplus r| \otimes |m \oplus r\rangle\langle m \oplus r|) (B_{(r,\theta)} \otimes C_{(r,\theta)}) \circ A (|m^\theta\rangle\langle m^\theta|)]. \quad (22)$$

We then see that for any fixed r , we can apply Corollary 2 to bound the expectation of the trace over m and θ by $\left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)^\lambda$. Setting this quantity to be equal to 2^{-n+t} , recalling that $n = \lambda$, and solving for t completes the proof. \blacktriangleleft

Finally, note that this scheme cannot be uncloneable-indistinguishable secure if $n \geq 2$. Indeed, the adversaries could submit the all 1 plaintext to be encrypted and split the ciphertext such that each adversary gets half of the qubits. Once the key is revealed, the adversaries can then each obtain half of the message with probability 1. This is sufficient to distinguish between the two possible messages.

B Proofs

B.1 From Section 3

Proof of Theorem 9. For all $k \in \{0, 1\}^{\kappa(\lambda)}$ and $m \in \{0, 1\}^n$, define

$$p(k, m) = \text{Tr} [(|m\rangle\langle m| \otimes |m\rangle\langle m|) (B_k \otimes C_k) \circ A \circ \text{Enc}_k (|m\rangle\langle m|)]. \quad (23)$$

Recalling the min-entropy of \mathcal{M} and that \mathcal{S} is t -uncloneable, we may write

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}_{m \leftarrow \mathcal{M}} \mathbb{E}_{k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}} \text{Tr} [(|m\rangle\langle m| \otimes |m\rangle\langle m|) (B_k \otimes C_k) \circ A \circ \text{Enc}_k (|m\rangle\langle m|)] \\ &= \sum_{m \in \{0,1\}^n} \Pr[\mathcal{M} = m] \mathbb{E}_{k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}} p(k, m) \leq 2^{-h} \cdot 2^n \mathbb{E}_{m \leftarrow \mathcal{M}} \mathbb{E}_{k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}} p(k, m) \leq 2^{-h} (2^t + 2^n \eta(\lambda)). \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

Noting that $\lambda \mapsto 2^{-h+n}\eta(\lambda)$ is a negligible function concludes the proof. \blacktriangleleft

B.2 From Section 4

Before giving the proofs of Lemmas 14 and 15, we need the following three small lemmas. The first two, Lemma 22 and Lemma 23, have straightforward proofs which may be found in the full version. The third, Lemma 24, implicitly appears in [22].

► **Lemma 22.** *Let R be a ring with $a, b \in R$ and $c = a + b$. Then, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, we have that $c^n = a^n + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a^{n-k-1} b c^k$.*

► **Lemma 23.** *Let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space, $n \in \mathbb{N}^+$, and $\{v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be $n + 1$ vectors in \mathcal{H} such that $\|v_i\| \leq 1$ for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $\|\sum_{i=0}^n v_i\| \leq 1$. Then, we have that $\|\sum_{i=0}^n v_i\|^2 \leq \|v_0\|^2 + (3n + 2) \sum_{i=1}^n \|v_i\|$.*

► **Lemma 24.** *Let $f : \text{Bool}(n, m) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function and $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ be a string. For any $H \in \text{Bool}(n, m)$ and $y \in \{0, 1\}^m$, define $H_{x,y} \in \text{Bool}(n, m)$ by*

$$s \mapsto \begin{cases} H(s) & \text{if } s \neq x, \\ y & \text{if } s = x. \end{cases} \quad (25)$$

Then, $\mathbb{E}_H f(H) = \mathbb{E}_H \mathbb{E}_y f(H_{x,y})$.

We can now give the proofs of our main technical lemma from Section 4.2.

Proof of Lemma 15. For $L \in \{B, C\}$, we define $P_L = |x\rangle\langle x|_{L_Q}$. Using Lemma 22 and the fact that we may write $U_L O_L^H = U_L O_L^H P_L + U_L O_L^H (\mathbb{1} - P_L)$, we have that

$$(U_L O_L^H)^{q_L} = \overbrace{(U_L O_L^H (\mathbb{1} - P_L))^{q_L}}{=V_L^H} + \sum_{k=0}^{q_L-1} \overbrace{(U_L O_L^H (\mathbb{1} - P_L))^{q_L-k-1} U_L O_L^H P_L (U_L O_L^H)^k}_{=W_L^{H,k}} \quad (26)$$

and we define $W_L^H = \sum_{k=0}^{q_L-1} W_L^{H,k}$. This implies that

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\| \Pi^{H(x)} \left((U_B O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes (U_C O_C^H)^{q_C} \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \\ &= \left\| \Pi^{H(x)} \left((O_B O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes V_C^H + V_B^H \otimes W_C^H + W_B^H \otimes W_C^H \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2. \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

We now claim that the contribution from the $W_B^H \otimes W_C^H$ operator corresponds to the M in the upper bound provided in the statement. Indeed, using Lemma 23, the definition of the various W operators, and properties of the operator norm on projectors and unitary operators, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\| \Pi^{H(x)} \left((O_B O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes V_C^H + V_B^H \otimes W_C^H + W_B^H \otimes W_C^H \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \\ & \leq \left\| \Pi^{H(x)} \left((O_B O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes V_C^H + V_B^H \otimes W_C^H \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \\ & \quad + (3q_B q_C + 2) q_B q_C \mathbb{E}_k \mathbb{E}_\ell \left\| (P_B \otimes P_C) \left((U_B O_B^H)^k \otimes (U_C O_C^H)^\ell \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2. \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

Using Jensen's inequality, the above inequality and the definition of M , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}_H \left\| \Pi^{H(x)} \left((O_B O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes V_C^H + V_B^H \otimes W_C^H + W_B^H \otimes W_C^H \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \\ & \leq \mathbb{E}_H \left\| \Pi^{H(x)} \left((O_B O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes V_C^H + V_B^H \otimes W_C^H \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 + (3q_B q_C + 2) q_B q_C \sqrt{M}. \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

It now suffices to show that

$$\mathbb{E}_H \left\| \Pi^{H(x)} \left((O_B O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes V_C^H + V_B^H \otimes W_C^H \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \leq \frac{9}{2^n}. \quad (30)$$

By Lemma 24, this is equivalent to showing that

$$\mathbb{E}_H \mathbb{E}_y \left\| \Pi^y \left((U_B O_B^{H_{x,y}})^{q_B} \otimes V_C^{H_{x,y}} + V_B^{H_{x,y}} \otimes W_C^{H_{x,y}} \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \leq \frac{9}{2^n}. \quad (31)$$

In fact, it will be sufficient to show that for any particular H , the expectation over y is bounded by $9 \cdot 2^{-n}$. If, for any H , we define

$$\alpha = \mathbb{E}_y \left\| \Pi^y \left((U_B O_B^{H_{x,y}})^{q_B} \otimes V_C^{H_{x,y}} \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \mathbb{E}_y \left\| \Pi^y \left(V_B^{H_{x,y}} \otimes W_C^{H_{x,y}} \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \quad (32)$$

then, using the triangle inequality and the fact that the operators in $\{\Pi^y\}_{y \in \{0,1\}^n}$ project on mutually orthogonal subspaces, we have that

$$\mathbb{E}_y \left\| \Pi^y \left((O_B O_B^{H_{x,y}})^{q_B} \otimes V_C^{H_{x,y}} + V_B^{H_{x,y}} \otimes W_C^{H_{x,y}} \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \leq \alpha + \beta + 2\sqrt{\alpha\beta}. \quad (33)$$

Now, noting that $V_B^{H_{x,y}}$ and $V_C^{H_{x,y}}$ do not depend on the value of y , as they always project on a subspace which does not query the oracle H on x , and using properties of the operator norm, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
\alpha &= \mathbb{E}_y \left\| \Pi^y \left((U_B O_B^{H_{x,y}})^{q_B} \otimes V_C^{H_{x,y}} \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \\
&\leq \mathbb{E}_y \|\pi_B^y \otimes \mathbb{1}_C\|^2 \cdot \left\| (U_B O_B^{H_{x,y}})^{q_B} \otimes \mathbb{1}_C \right\|^2 \cdot \left\| (\mathbb{1}_B \otimes \pi_C^y) (\mathbb{1}_B \otimes V_C^{H_{x,y}}) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \\
&\leq \mathbb{E}_y \left\| (\mathbb{1}_B \otimes \pi_C^y) (\mathbb{1}_B \otimes V_C^{H_{x,y}}) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \\
&= \frac{1}{2^n} \left\| (\mathbb{1}_B \otimes V_C^H) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2^n}.
\end{aligned} \tag{34}$$

A similar reasoning yields that $\beta \leq 4 \cdot 2^{-n}$, where the 4 is a result of squaring the upper bound

$$\left\| W_C^{H_{x,y}} \right\| \leq \left\| (U_C O_C^{H_{x,y}})^{q_C} \right\| + \left\| V_C^{H_{x,y}} \right\| \leq 2. \tag{35}$$

Finally, noting that $\alpha + \beta + 2\sqrt{\alpha\beta} \leq 9 \cdot 2^{-n}$ finishes the proof. \blacktriangleleft

Finally, we can give the proof of our main result.

Proof of Theorem 16. Let $\mathcal{A} = (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{C})$ be a cloning attack against \mathcal{S} as described in Definition 7. We need to show that the probability that the adversaries can simultaneously guess a message chosen uniformly at random is upper bounded by $9 \cdot 2^{-n} + \eta(\lambda)$ for a negligible function η . Furthermore, since the adversaries treat the qPRF as an oracle, it suffices to show that their winning probability is upper bounded by $9 \cdot 2^{-n} + \eta(\lambda)$ when averaged over all functions in $\text{Bool}(\lambda, n)$ and not only the functions $\{f_\lambda(s, \cdot)\}_{s \in \{0,1\}^\lambda}$. Indeed, by definition of a qPRF, their winning probability in both cases can differ by at most a negligible function of λ .

The remainder of the proof is an application of Lemma 15 followed by an application of Corollary 2.

Accounting for the randomness of the encryption and for a fixed and implicit λ , the quantity we wish to bound is given by

$$\omega = \mathbb{E}_H \mathbb{E}_\theta \mathbb{E}_x \mathbb{E}_m \text{Tr} \left[P^m (B_\theta^H \otimes C_\theta^H) \circ A (|m \oplus H(x)\rangle\langle m \oplus H(x)| \otimes |x^\theta\rangle\langle x^\theta|) \right] \tag{36}$$

where $P^m = |m\rangle\langle m| \otimes |m\rangle\langle m|$ and $H \in \text{Bool}(\lambda, n)$. Then, by using Lemma 20 with respect to the expectation over m to move the dependence on the string $H(x)$ from the state to the projector, we have that

$$\omega = \mathbb{E}_H \mathbb{E}_\theta \mathbb{E}_x \mathbb{E}_m \text{Tr} \left[P^{m \oplus H(x)} (B_\theta^H \otimes C_\theta^H) \circ A (|m\rangle\langle m| \otimes |x^\theta\rangle\langle x^\theta|) \right]. \tag{37}$$

Using standard purification arguments, we add auxiliary states $|\text{aux-B}\rangle\langle \text{aux-B}|$ and $|\text{aux-C}\rangle\langle \text{aux-C}|$ to the state $A(|m\rangle\langle m| \otimes |x^\theta\rangle\langle x^\theta|)$, replace the CPTP maps B_θ^H and C_θ^H by unitary operators on the resulting larger Hilbert spaces and replace the projectors $|m\rangle\langle m|$ by projectors $\{\pi_B^m\}_{m \in \{0,1\}^n}$ and $\{\pi_C^m\}_{m \in \{0,1\}^n}$ on these larger Hilbert spaces.

Following [8], these purified unitary operators will be of the form $(U_L^\theta O_L^H)^{q_L}$, acting on a Hilbert space of the form $\mathcal{Q}(\lambda)_{L_Q} \otimes \mathcal{Q}(n)_{L_R} \otimes \mathcal{Q}(s_L)_{L_S}$ for some $q_L, s_L \in \mathbb{N}^+$ as they model

4:22 Uncloneable Quantum Encryption via Oracles

oracle computations. In particular, we note that q_L represents the number of queries made to the oracle by that particular party. We also assume that

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^{m,x,\theta} &= A(|m\rangle\langle m| \otimes |x^\theta\rangle\langle x^\theta|) \otimes |\text{aux-B}\rangle\langle \text{aux-B}| \otimes |\text{aux-C}\rangle\langle \text{aux-C}| \\ &\in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{Q}(\lambda)_{B_Q} \otimes \mathcal{Q}(n)_{B_R} \otimes \mathcal{Q}(s_B)_{B_S} \otimes \mathcal{Q}(\lambda)_{C_Q} \otimes \mathcal{Q}(n)_{C_R} \otimes \mathcal{Q}(s_C)_{C_S}). \end{aligned} \quad (38)$$

Next, we can write $\rho^{m,x,\theta}$ as an ensemble of pure states, which is to say that

$$\rho^{m,x,\theta} = \sum_{i \in I^{m,x,\theta}} p_i \left| \psi_i^{m,x,\theta} \right\rangle \left\langle \psi_i^{m,x,\theta} \right| \quad (39)$$

for some index set $I^{m,x,\theta}$, some non-zero p_i which sum to 1, and some unit vectors $\left| \psi_i^{m,x,\theta} \right\rangle$. It then follows that ω can be expressed as

$$\mathbb{E}_m \mathbb{E}_\theta \mathbb{E}_x \mathbb{E}_H \sum_{i \in I^{m,x,\theta}} p_i \left\| \left(\pi_B^{m \oplus H(x)} \otimes \pi_C^{m \oplus H(x)} \right) \left((U_B^\theta O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes (U_C^\theta O_C^H)^{q_C} \right) \left| \psi_i^{m,x,\theta} \right\rangle \right\|^2. \quad (40)$$

Noting that we can bring the expectation with respect to H into the summation, we can then use Lemma 15 to upper bound ω by

$$\frac{9}{2^n} + q \mathbb{E}_m \mathbb{E}_\theta \mathbb{E}_x \sum_{i \in I^{m,x,\theta}} p_i \sqrt{\mathbb{E}_H \mathbb{E}_k \mathbb{E}_\ell \left\| Q_x \left((U_B O_B^H)^{q_B} \otimes (U_C O_C^H)^{q_C} \right) \left| \psi_i^{m,x,\theta} \right\rangle \right\|^2} \quad (41)$$

where $q = (3q_B q_C + 2)q_B q_C$ and $Q_x = |x\rangle\langle x|_{Q_B} \otimes |x\rangle\langle x|_{Q_C}$. Defining

$$\beta_x^{\theta,H,k} = \left((U_B^\theta O_B^H)^{q_B} \right)^\dagger |x\rangle\langle x|_{Q_B} \left((U_B^\theta O_B^H)^{q_B} \right), \quad (42)$$

and similarly for $\gamma_x^{\theta,H,\ell}$ by replacing every instance of B with C , we use Jensen's lemma to bring the remaining expectations and sums into the square root and obtain

$$\omega = \frac{9}{2^n} + q \sqrt{\mathbb{E}_m \mathbb{E}_\theta \mathbb{E}_x \mathbb{E}_H \mathbb{E}_k \mathbb{E}_\ell \text{Tr} \left[\left(\beta_x^{\theta,H,k} \otimes \gamma_x^{\theta,H,\ell} \right) \rho^{m,x,\theta} \right]}. \quad (43)$$

Letting Φ_m to be the CPTP map defined by

$$\rho \mapsto A(|m\rangle\langle m| \otimes \rho) \otimes |\text{aux-B}\rangle\langle \text{aux-B}| \otimes |\text{aux-C}\rangle\langle \text{aux-C}| \quad (44)$$

we see that, for any fixed H, k, ℓ , and m , Corollary 2 implies that

$$\mathbb{E}_x \mathbb{E}_\theta \text{Tr} \left[\left(\beta_x^{\theta,H,k} \otimes \gamma_x^{\theta,H,\ell} \right) \rho^{m,x,\theta} \right] \leq \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \right)^\lambda \quad (45)$$

since $\rho^{m,x,\theta} = \Phi_m(|x^\theta\rangle\langle x^\theta|)$. Thus,

$$\omega \leq \frac{9}{2^n} + q \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}} \right)^\lambda. \quad (46)$$

Finally, since B and C are efficient quantum circuits, they may query the oracle a number of time which grows at most polynomially in λ . Thus, $q \leq p(\lambda)$ for some polynomial p . Noting that the function $\lambda \mapsto p(\lambda) \cdot \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}} \right)^\lambda$ is a negligible function completes the proof. \blacktriangleleft