

# Efficient Card-Based Protocols for Generating a Hidden Random Permutation Without Fixed Points

Rie Ishikawa<sup>1</sup>, Eikoh Chida<sup>1</sup>, and Takaaki Mizuki<sup>2</sup>✉

<sup>1</sup> Electrical and Computer Engineering, National Institute of Technology, Ichinoseki College, Takanashi, Hagisho, Ichinoseki 021–8511, Japan  
`{g10205,chida}@g.ichinoseki.ac.jp`

<sup>2</sup> Cyberscience Center, Tohoku University, 6–3 Aramaki-Aza-Aoba, Aoba-ku, Sendai 980–8578, Japan  
`tm-paper+cardperm@g-mail.tohoku-university.jp`

**Abstract.** Consider the holiday season, where there are  $n$  players who would like to exchange gifts. That is, we would like to generate a random permutation having no fixed point. It is known that such a random permutation can be obtained in a hidden form by using a number of physical cards of four colors with identical backs, guaranteeing that it has no fixed point (without revealing the permutation itself). This paper deals with such a problem and improves the known result: whereas the known protocol needs  $O(n^2)$  cards of four colors, our efficient protocol uses only  $O(n \log n)$  cards of two colors.



## 1 Introduction

Consider the holiday season, where there are  $n$  players who would like to exchange gifts. We wish to avoid the undesirable situation in which a player must buy a present for himself/herself. That is, we need to produce a random permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  that has no fixed point, where  $S_n$  denotes the symmetric group of degree  $n$  (throughout this paper). There is an unconventional solution to the “no fixed point” problem, i.e., it is known that such a random permutation can be obtained in a hidden form by using a number of physical cards of four colors, say  $\spadesuit$ ,  $\heartsuit$ ,  $\diamondsuit$ , and  $\clubsuit$ ,<sup>1</sup> with identical backs  $\square$ , guaranteeing that it has no fixed point (without revealing the permutation itself) [3]. This paper deals with such a problem and proposes an efficient approach that improves the known result.


### 1.1 Known Method for Generating a Random Permutation

In 1993, Crépeau and Kilian gave a card-based protocol for generating a random permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  without any fixed point [3]. Their protocol produces a pile

<sup>1</sup> Throughout this paper, we say that a card has the same “color” as another one if they have the same pattern on their face sides.





of  $n$  cards that consists of  $(n - 1)$  s and one  with their faces down (on the table) for every player  $p_i, 1 \leq i \leq n$ :

$$p_i : \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?}.$$

The position of card  corresponds to the value of  $\pi(i)$  when all the  $n$  cards are revealed:

$$p_i : \overset{1}{\boxed{\clubsuit}} \overset{2}{\boxed{\clubsuit}} \cdots \overset{\pi(i)}{\boxed{\heartsuit}} \cdots \overset{n}{\boxed{\clubsuit}}.$$

Thus, if player  $p_i$  looks at his/her pile privately, then the information about who  $p_i$  is going to buy a present for will be kept secret.

Because the protocol produces a pile of such cards for each of the  $n$  players, as seen above, it uses  $n(n - 1)$  s and  $n$  s. In addition, it requires a number of cards of different colors, namely  $n^2/2$  s and  $n^2/2$  s. Thus, the known method needs  $2n^2$  cards of four colors in total<sup>2</sup>. Further details are given in Sect. 2.

### 1.2 Our Results and Related Work

Table 1 summarizes both the known result and our results. As mentioned above, to generate a random permutation without fixed points, the known method [3] requires  $2n^2$  cards of four colors. In this paper, we reduce the number of required colors and cards. First, we devise a new shuffling operation called a “pile-scramble shuffle” in Sect. 3. Using this new shuffle, we can enhance the efficiency of the known protocol, and consequently, we can show that  $n^2$  cards of two colors are sufficient. We then show in Sect. 4 that  $(2n \lceil \log n \rceil + 6)$  cards<sup>3</sup> of two colors are sufficient to solve the “no fixed point” problem by considering another expression of each player’s index.

**Table 1.** Performance of each protocol

|   | No. of colors | No. of cards                  |
|---|---------------|-------------------------------|
| Known protocol [3] (§2)                     | 4             | $2n^2$                        |
| Improvement with pile-scramble shuffle (§3) | 2             | $n^2$                         |
| Our main protocol (§4)                      | 2             | $2n \lceil \log n \rceil + 6$ |

Before presenting our protocols, we present a complete description of the known protocol [3] in Sect. 2. Section 5 concludes this paper with some discussion.

Card-based cryptography allows us not only to generate a random permutation, but also to have various kinds of cryptographic protocols such as secure multiparty computations and zero-knowledge proof. For example, there are known

<sup>2</sup> Note that we cannot use a standard deck of playing cards because each of them has a unique pattern on its face side.

<sup>3</sup> All logarithms are base 2 throughout this paper.

protocols for securely computing AND [1,3,7,8,10,13], XOR [3,8,9], adder [6], 3-variable symmetric functions [12], and so on. Furthermore, the relationship between playing cards and cryptography has been explored in the literature (e.g., [2,4,5,14]).

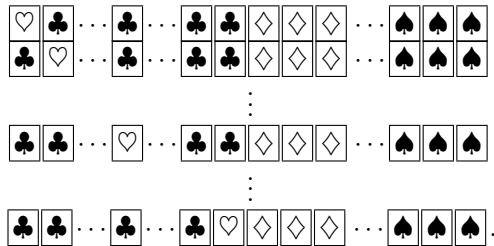
## 2 Known Protocol

In this section, we present a complete description of the Crépeau-Kilian protocol [3] that generates a hidden random permutation having no fixed point.

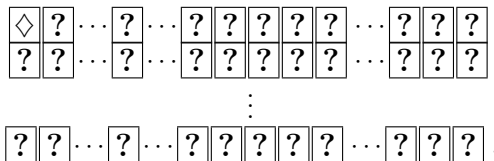
Assume that  $n$  players  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$  would like to produce a random permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  without any fixed point. Their protocol consists of two phases, the Random-Permutation Generating phase and the Fixed-Point Checking phase, as follows.

[ Random-Permutation Generating phase ]

- 1-1. Using  $n(n - 1)$  ♣s and  $n$  ♥s, arrange the cards as below (putting each ♥ on the diagonal), and insert a “marker” after each row, where a marker consists of  $n/2$  ◇s and  $n/2$  ♠s (for simplicity,  $n$  is assumed to be an even number):



- 1-2. Turn over the cards so that they are all face down, and apply a random cut, i.e., a cyclic shuffle, to the sequence of  $2n^2$  cards (obtained by row-wise concatenation).
- 1-3. Reveal the first card. If the face-up card is either ♣ or ♥, go back to step (1–2). If it is either ◇ or ♠, i.e., a marker, then proceed to the next step. Note that the probability of returning to step (1–2) is exactly  $1/2$ .
- 1-4. Assume that the face-up card is ◇:



Its right-hand card must also be a marker. Reveal the markers right next to it one by one. After all the makers on the right side (which are  $\ell$  ◇s for some  $\ell$

and  $n/2$   $\spadesuit$ s are face up, reveal the remaining markers on the left side (where the first card's "left" is the last card), namely  $(n/2 - \ell - 1)$   $\diamond$ s.

For the case where the first card is  $\spadesuit$ , we manipulate the sequence of cards similarly to the  $\diamond$  case. Note that in this case, we start revealing the markers toward the left side first.

Remove all of the (face-up)  $n$  markers.

- 1-5. After all of the  $n$  markers are removed, we regard the first  $n$  cards as the value of  $\pi(1)$ . That is, the pile of these  $n$  cards is assigned to player  $p_1$  and corresponds to  $\pi(1)$ :

$$p_1 : \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?}.$$

- 1-6. Similarly, for the remaining cards, repeat steps (1-2)–(1-4) so that we obtain piles corresponding to  $\pi(2), \pi(3), \dots, \pi(n)$ .

[ Fixed-Point Checking phase ]

- 2-1. To verify that the generated permutation  $\pi$  has no fixed point, arrange the piles of cards assigned to  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$  as below:

$$\begin{array}{c} p_1 : \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \\ p_2 : \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \\ \vdots \\ p_n : \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \boxed{?}. \end{array}$$

- 2-2. Reveal all the cards on the diagonal to determine if they are all  $\clubsuit$ . If so,  $\pi$  has no fixed point. If one of them is  $\heartsuit$ , then the pile corresponds to a fixed point and in this case, we must return to the Random-Permutation Generating phase.

Thus, the first phase of this protocol produces a random permutation  $\pi \in S_n$ , and then the second phase checks that  $\pi$  has no fixed point. In the first phase, we need to repeat the steps until markers are found, and hence it is a Las Vegas algorithm taking  $2n$  trials on average. With respect to the second phase, note that in general, the probability that a random permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  has no fixed point is  $\sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i / i!$ , which is approximately  $1/e$ , where  $e$  is the base of the natural logarithm [3]. Therefore, the average number of how many times we need to execute the Fixed-Point Checking phase is approximately  $e \approx 2.7$ .

This is the existing protocol for solving the "no fixed point" problem. It uses  $2n^2$  cards of four colors, as detailed above. We improve on this efficiency in the succeeding sections.

### 3 Pile-Scramble Shuffle

In this section, we focus on the process of producing a random permutation and propose an efficient method for achieving this.

Remember that the known protocol [3] uses random cuts and markers to generate a random permutation, as shown in the preceding section. That is, in order to shuffle  $n$  piles (each of which consists of  $n$  cards and is assigned to a player), we repeatedly apply a random cut to create each value of  $\pi(i)$  one by one, while markers are used as “delimiters.” Here, instead of using markers, we consider a somewhat more direct way of shuffling piles.

Assume that there are a number of face-down cards that are divided into  $n$  piles of the same size. We denote each pile by  $pile_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Given a sequence of piles  $(pile_1, pile_2, pile_3, \dots, pile_n)$ , consider a shuffle operation that outputs  $(pile_{\pi(1)}, pile_{\pi(2)}, pile_{\pi(3)}, \dots, pile_{\pi(n)})$ , where  $\pi \in S_n$  is a random permutation. As we now have  $n$  piles, a permutation is randomly chosen from the  $n!$  possibilities. We call such a shuffling operation a *pile-scramble shuffle*. We believe that the pile-scramble shuffle can be easily implemented by human beings using rubber bands, clips, envelopes, or something similar.

If steps (1-2)–(1-6) in the Random-Permutation Generating phase of the known protocol [3] introduced in Sect. 2 are replaced with the pile-scramble shuffle, it is obvious that  $n^2$  cards of two colors are sufficient to produce a random permutation. That is, we can generate a random permutation without any marker, meaning that we do not require any trials, and hence can output a random permutation after exactly one pile-scramble shuffle. Therefore, taking the Fixed-Point Checking phase into account, such an improved protocol needs only  $n^2$  cards of two colors and takes an average number of about 2.7 trials to generate a random permutation having no fixed point. Thus, we are able to reduce the numbers of required cards and colors by half (see Table 1 again).

In the next section, we further reduce the number of required cards.

## 4 Our Main Protocol

In this section, we propose a more efficient method than those mentioned previously. Our main protocol requires only  $(2n\lceil \log n \rceil + 6)$  cards to generate a random permutation having no fixed point.

First, in Sect. 4.1, we show that considering a binary representation of players’ indices dramatically reduces the number of required cards. Next, in Sect. 4.2, we present a sub-protocol to check for fixed points under such a binary representation. Finally, in Sect. 4.3, by combining these components, we present a complete description of our protocol.

### 4.1 Binary Representation

In the Crépeau-Kilian protocol [3] presented in Sect. 2, each player’s index  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  and its permuted position  $\pi(i)$  are represented by a pile of  $n$  cards, i.e.,  $(n - 1)$  ♣s and one ♥, say

$$p_i : \overset{1}{\boxed{\clubsuit}} \overset{2}{\boxed{\clubsuit}} \cdots \overset{i}{\boxed{\heartsuit}} \cdots \overset{n}{\boxed{\clubsuit}} \text{ or } \overset{1}{\boxed{\clubsuit}} \overset{2}{\boxed{\clubsuit}} \cdots \overset{\pi(i)}{\boxed{\heartsuit}} \cdots \overset{n}{\boxed{\clubsuit}}.$$

In contrast, we represent this information using a binary representation with  $2\lceil \log n \rceil$  cards as follows.

To deal with Boolean values, following the previous studies (e.g., [1, 3, 10, 13]), we use the encoding rule with a pair of cards:

$$\boxed{\clubsuit}\boxed{\heartsuit} = 0, \quad \boxed{\heartsuit}\boxed{\clubsuit} = 1. \tag{1}$$

For a bit  $x \in \{0, 1\}$ , when two face-down cards  $\boxed{?}\boxed{?}$  have a value equaling  $x$  according to encoding (1) above, the pair of these face-down cards is called a *commitment* to  $x$ , and is written as

$$\underbrace{\boxed{?}\boxed{?}}_x.$$

Under such an encoding rule, each player’s index can be represented by  $\lceil \log n \rceil$  commitments, namely  $2\lceil \log n \rceil$  cards. Therefore,  $n$  players’ indices are represented naturally by  $2n\lceil \log n \rceil$  cards. Thus, we can greatly reduce the number of required cards to express players’ indices.

It is obvious that we can easily produce a random permutation by applying a pile-scramble shuffle (explained in Sect. 3) to these  $n$  piles that are based on this binary expression.

### 4.2 How to Check for Fixed Points

In this subsection, we present a sub-protocol to check that a random permutation in the form of binary representation has no fixed point.

Assume that a random permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  has been generated by a pile-scramble shuffle, as shown in Sect. 3, based on the binary representation shown in Sect. 4.1. That is, a pile of  $\lceil \log n \rceil$  commitments is assigned to each player  $p_i$ :

$$p_i : \underbrace{\boxed{?}\boxed{?}}_{a_{1\log n}} \cdots \underbrace{\boxed{?}\boxed{?}}_{a_2} \underbrace{\boxed{?}\boxed{?}}_{a_1},$$

where and hereafter,  $\log n$  in the subscript means  $\lceil \log n \rceil$ . Because the pile above corresponds to  $\pi(i)$ , we have

$$(\pi(i) - 1)_{10} = (a_{1\log n} \cdots a_2 a_1)_2.$$

In order to verify that the pile is not a fixed point, namely  $\pi(i) \neq i$ , we check whether the equation below holds:

$$(a_1 \oplus \overline{b_1}) \wedge (a_2 \oplus \overline{b_2}) \wedge \cdots \wedge (a_{1\log n} \oplus \overline{b_{1\log n}}) = 0, \tag{2}$$

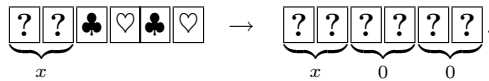
where  $\oplus$  denotes the exclusive-or (XOR) operation and bits  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{1\log n}$  are defined as

$$(i - 1)_{10} = (b_{1\log n} \cdots b_2 b_1)_2.$$

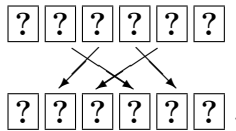
Aiming to compute Eq. (2) efficiently without revealing values  $a_i, 1 \leq i \leq \lceil \log n \rceil$ , we first introduce the existing copy protocol [8], and then present a “one-input-preserving” AND protocol. Finally we describe a sub-protocol for checking that Eq. (2) holds.

**Copy Protocol.** Give a commitment to a bit  $x$  together with four additional cards, the known copy protocol [8] generates two copied commitments to  $x$ , as follows.

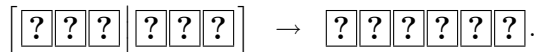
1. Arrange two commitments to 0:



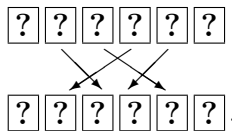
2. Rearrange the order of the sequence as:



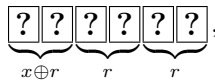
3. Bisect the sequence of six cards and switch the two portions randomly (we call this a random bisection cut [8] and denote it by  $[\cdot | \cdot]$ ):



4. Rearrange the order of the sequence as:

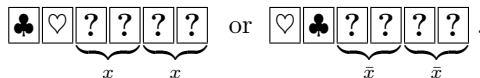


We then have



where  $r$  is a (uniformly distributed) random bit because of the random bisection cut.

5. Reveal the first two cards from the left. We then have



Thus, we obtain two copied commitments to  $x$ . In the latter case, we can easily convert  $\bar{x}$  to  $x$  using the NOT operation that swaps the left and right cards. In addition, the two face-up cards  $\clubsuit \heartsuit$  are available for another computation.

**One-input-preserving AND Protocol.** We present a *one-input-preserving AND protocol* that can keep one of input commitments after the AND computation. The protocol can be constructed immediately based on two known ideas: the AND protocol [8] and the half-adder protocol [6].

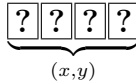
First, we present some notation. For a pair of bits  $(x, y)$ , define operations *get* and *shift* as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{get}^0(x, y) &= x; & \text{get}^1(x, y) &= y, \\ \text{shift}^0(x, y) &= (x, y); & \text{shift}^1(x, y) &= (y, x). \end{aligned}$$

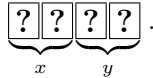
Note that

$$a \wedge b = \text{get}^{a \oplus r}(\text{shift}^r(0, b)) \tag{3}$$

for an arbitrary bit  $r \in \{0, 1\}$ . In addition, for two bits  $x$  and  $y$ , the expression

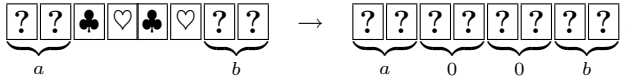


means

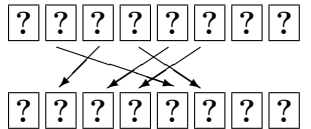


The following is a one-input-preserving AND protocol that produces not only a commitment to  $a \wedge b$  but also a commitment to the input  $a$  using eight cards.

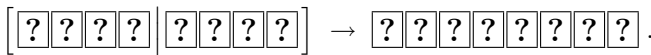
1. In addition to the input commitments to  $a$  and  $b$ , arrange two commitments to 0 as follows:



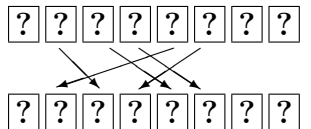
2. Rearrange the order of the sequence as:



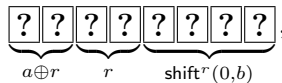
3. Apply a random bisection cut:



4. Rearrange the order of the sequence as:



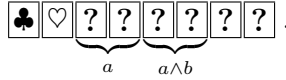
We then have



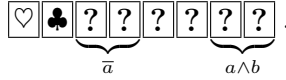
where  $r$  is a (uniformly distributed) random bit.



5. Reveal the first two cards. If they are  $\spadesuit \heartsuit$ , we have  $a \oplus r = 0$ , i.e.,  $r = a$ . Therefore, the output is (see Eq. (3)):

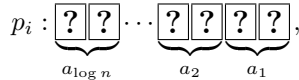


If they are  $\heartsuit \spadesuit$ , we have  $a \oplus r = 1$ , i.e.,  $r = \bar{a}$ . Therefore, the output is:



In this way, we can obtain commitments to both  $a \wedge b$  and  $a$ . The two face-up cards  $\spadesuit \heartsuit$  are still available for another computation. In addition, the two cards of the remaining commitment can also be available after they are shuffled.

**Sub-protocol for Checking Eq. (2).** Given the discussion above, we are ready to present a procedure for checking Eq. (2) to determine if there are fixed points. Given a pile



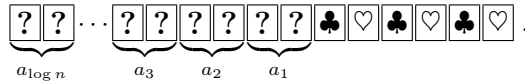
the following sub-protocol computes the value of

$$(a_1 \oplus \bar{b}_1) \wedge (a_2 \oplus \bar{b}_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (a_{\log n} \oplus \bar{b}_{\log n}),$$

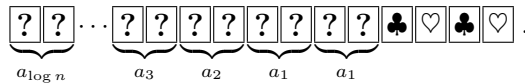
where

$$(i - 1)_{10} = (b_{\log n} \dots b_2 b_1)_2.$$

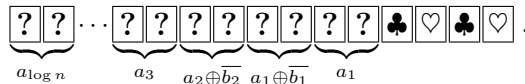
1. Arrange  $\lceil \log n \rceil$  input commitments and six additional cards as follows:



2. Copy the commitment to  $a_1$  using the copy protocol [8] mentioned above:

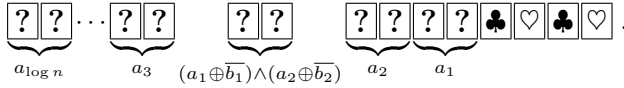


3. Apply the NOT computation depending on the values of  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  so that we have

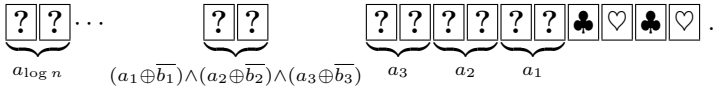


Note that each value of  $b_i$  is public.

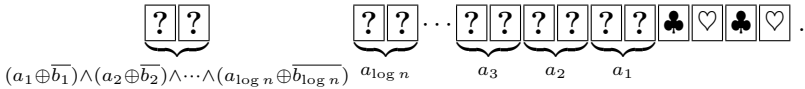
4. Apply the one-input-preserving AND protocol presented above to obtain commitments to  $(a_1 \oplus \bar{b}_1) \wedge (a_2 \oplus \bar{b}_2)$  and  $(a_2 \oplus \bar{b}_2)$ . Furthermore, apply the NOT computation to the latter commitment depending on the value of  $b_2$ . We then have



5. Similarly, obtain commitments to  $(a_1 \oplus \bar{b}_1) \wedge (a_2 \oplus \bar{b}_2) \wedge (a_3 \oplus \bar{b}_3)$  and  $a_3$ :



Repeat this until we have

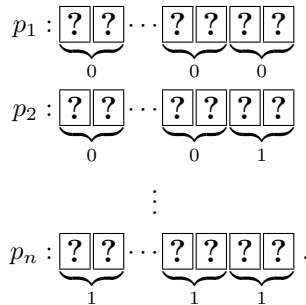


6. Reveal the commitment to  $(a_1 \oplus \bar{b}_1) \wedge (a_2 \oplus \bar{b}_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (a_{log n} \oplus \bar{b}_{log n})$ . If the value is 1, then this is a fixed point. Otherwise, it is not a fixed point. It should be noted that in either case, any commitments to  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{log n}$  are not lost.

### 4.3 Description of Our Proposed Protocol

We are now ready to present an efficient protocol for generating a random permutation having no fixed point. Our protocol uses  $(2n \lceil \log n \rceil + 6)$  cards to produce  $n$  piles corresponding to this random permutation.

1. Using  $n \lceil \log n \rceil$   $\clubsuit$ s and  $n \lceil \log n \rceil$   $\heartsuit$ s, arrange  $n \lceil \log n \rceil$  commitments according to players' indices based on the binary representation:



- Regarding each row as a pile, apply a pile-scramble shuffle to the  $n$  piles; we then obtain a random permutation  $\pi$  in which the  $i$ -th pile corresponds to  $\pi(i)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_1 &: \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \\
 p_2 &: \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \\
 &\vdots \\
 p_n &: \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \cdots \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \boxed{?} \boxed{?}.
 \end{aligned}$$

- Using six additional cards, apply the sub-protocol presented in Sect. 4.2 to confirm that  $\pi$  has no fixed point, that is, to verify that  $p_i$  is not a fixed point for every  $i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , in turns. If we find a fixed point, then we go back to step (2). If we confirm that there is no fixed point, the permutation  $\pi$  is a desired one.

This is our main protocol for solving the “no fixed point” problem with  $O(n \log n)$  cards.

## 5 Conclusions

The known protocol [3] requires  $2n^2$  cards of four colors to generate a random permutation having no fixed point. In this paper, we first devised a new shuffle operation called a pile-scramble shuffle that immediately enabled us to achieve the same task using only  $n^2$  cards of two colors. Furthermore, we showed that using a binary representation dramatically reduces the number of required cards, that is,  $(2n \lceil \log n \rceil + 6)$  cards of two colors are sufficient.

In our protocol, the  $2n \lceil \log n \rceil$  cards are used to hold each players’ index, and the remaining six cards correspond to the additional cards  $\clubsuit \heartsuit \clubsuit \heartsuit \clubsuit \heartsuit$  required to execute the sub-protocol for checking fixed points. This comes from the fact that the one-input-preserving AND protocol given in Sect. 4.2 requires four additional cards. Recently, it was shown that such a one-input-preserving AND computation can be done with only two additional cards [11]. Therefore, applying this recently invented protocol [11], we can reduce the number of required cards to  $2n \lceil \log n \rceil + 4$ .

In addition to the protocol solving the “no fixed point” problem, Crépeau and Kilian designed a general protocol for producing a random permutation that satisfies a predetermined condition such as having no short cycle of length at most  $k$ , and showed that it can be applied to the “Discreet Solitary Games” [3]. Thus, it is intriguing future work to design an efficient way to determine whether a given permutation based on our binary representation has  $k$ -cycles.

Although the card-based protocol is an unconventional way to secure multi-party computations, this approach has many advantages. The most important feature is that even nonspecialists are able to easily understand why the computation is secure.

**Acknowledgments.** We thank the anonymous referees whose comments helped us to improve the presentation of the paper. This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 26330001.

## References

1. den Boer, B.: More efficient match-making and satisfiability. In: Quisquater, J.J., Vandewalle, J. (eds.) EUROCRYPT 1989. LNCS, vol. 434, pp. 208–217. Springer, Heidelberg (1990)
2. Cordon-Franco, A., Van Ditmarsch, H., Fernández-Duque, D., Soler-Toscano, F.: A colouring protocol for the generalized Russian cards problem. *Theor. Comput. Sci.* **495**, 81–95 (2013)
3. Crépeau, C., Kilian, J.: Discreet solitary games. In: Stinson, D.R. (ed.) CRYPTO 1993. LNCS, vol. 773, pp. 319–330. Springer, Heidelberg (1994)
4. Duan, Z., Yang, C.: Unconditional secure communication: a Russian cards protocol. *J. Comb. Optim.* **19**(4), 501–530 (2010)
5. Fischer, M.J., Wright, R.N.: Bounds on secret key exchange using a random deal of cards. *J. Cryptology* **9**(2), 71–99 (1996)
6. Mizuki, T., Asiedu, I.K., Sone, H.: Voting with a logarithmic number of cards. In: Mauri, G., Dennunzio, A., Manzoni, L., Porreca, A.E. (eds.) UCNC 2013. LNCS, vol. 7956, pp. 162–173. Springer, Heidelberg (2013)
7. Mizuki, T., Kumamoto, M., Sone, H.: The five-card trick can be done with four cards. In: Wang, X., Sako, K. (eds.) ASIACRYPT 2012. LNCS, vol. 7658, pp. 598–606. Springer, Heidelberg (2012)
8. Mizuki, T., Sone, H.: Six-card secure AND and four-card secure XOR. In: Deng, X., Hopcroft, J.E., Xue, J. (eds.) FAW 2009. LNCS, vol. 5598, pp. 358–369. Springer, Heidelberg (2009)
9. Mizuki, T., Uchiike, F., Sone, H.: Securely computing XOR with 10 cards. *Australas. J. Comb.* **36**, 279–293 (2006)
10. Niemi, V., Renvall, A.: Secure multiparty computations without computers. *Theor. Comput. Sci.* **191**(1–2), 173–183 (1998)
11. Nishida, T., Hayashi, Y., Mizuki, T., Sone, H.: Card-based protocols for any Boolean function. In: Jain, R., Jain, S., Stephan, F. (eds.) TAMC 2015. LNCS, vol. 9076, pp. 110–121. Springer, Heidelberg (2015)
12. Nishida, T., Mizuki, T., Sone, H.: Securely computing the three-input majority function with eight cards. In: Dediu, A.-H., Martín-Vide, C., Truthe, B., Vega-Rodríguez, M.A. (eds.) TPNC 2013. LNCS, vol. 8273, pp. 193–204. Springer, Heidelberg (2013)
13. Stiglic, A.: Computations with a deck of cards. *Theor. Comput. Sci.* **259**(1–2), 671–678 (2001)
14. Swanson, C.M., Stinson, D.R.: Combinatorial solutions providing improved security for the generalized Russian cards problem. *Des. Codes Crypt.* **72**(2), 345–367 (2014)