

UC-Secure Multi-Session OT Using Tamper-Proof Hardware Tokens

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Abstract

In this paper, we show the first UC-secure *multi-session* OT protocol using tamper-proof hardware tokens. ¹ The sender and the receiver exchange tokens only at the beginning. Then these tokens are reused in arbitrarily many sessions of OT. An instantiation of the proposed scheme is UC-secure against static adversaries under the DDH assumption and the RSA assumption in the random oracle model.

Keywords: tamper-proof hardware token, UC-security, multi-session OT

1 Introduction

The framework of Universal Composability (UC), introduced by Canetti [2], guarantees very strong security properties of cryptographic protocols. UC-secure protocols are secure even if they are arbitrarily composed with other instances of the same or other protocols.

In this framework, any ideal functionality can be securely realized if a majority of the participants are uncorrupted. However, this result does not hold when half or more of the parties are corrupted. In particular, it does not hold for the important case of two-party protocols, where each party wishes to maintain its security [3, 4].

On the other hand, in the common reference string (CRS) model, any functionality can be realized in a universally composable way, regardless of the number of corrupted parties [3, 5]. However, the CRS model requires a trusted party who generates the CRS.

Katz introduced an alternative setup assumption which uses tamper-proof hardware tokens (i.e., smartcards) in order to eliminate such a trusted party [15]. In this model, each party can send a hardware token T implementing any polynomial-time functionality F to the other parties, and an adversary can do no more than observe the input/output of this token. This physical setup assumption has been studied extensively recently.

¹This problem was raised in [7]. But [7] was withdrawn from ePrint on February 5, 2013.

| | single (or bounded) use OT | multi-session OT |
|------------------|----------------------------|------------------|
| stateful tokens | [14] [8] | This paper |
| stateless tokens | [14] | |

Table 1: UC secure OT protocols using tamper-proof hardware tokens

1.1 Token Based Commitment

Katz [15] showed a commitment protocol under the DDH assumption using stateful tokens. Moran and Segev improved his protocol in several directions [17]. In particular, they showed an unconditionally secure commitment protocol.

Chandran et al. showed a commitment protocol using stateless tokens based on enhanced trapdoor permutations [6]. It uses a concurrent zero knowledge protocol of [20], and runs in $\tilde{O}(\log n)$ rounds, where n is the security parameter.

Goyal et al. [13] showed that a single stateless token is sufficient to implement statistically secure commitments and statistical zero-knowledge. Furthermore, if stateless tokens can be encapsulated into other stateless tokens, general statistically secure composable multi-party computation is possible in this setting.

1.2 Our Contribution

To summarize, three UC-secure OT protocols using hardware tokens are known, a stateful token OT [14], a stateless token OT [14] and a stateful token OT [8]. However, in these protocols, the same tokens cannot be reused in arbitrarily many OT sessions.

In this paper, we show the first UC-secure multi-session OT protocol. The sender and the receiver exchange tokens only at the beginning, and these tokens are reused in arbitrarily many sessions of OT. An instantiation of the proposed scheme is UC-secure against static adversaries under the DDH assumption and the RSA assumption in the random oracle model. It uses 2 stateful tokens and $2n$ stateless tokens, where n is the security parameter. Further each session of OT runs in constant rounds. (As shown in Table 1, the previous OT's are only for single (or bounded) use.)

Theoretically speaking, we can construct a UC-secure multi-session OT protocol from a UC-secure commitment protocol [5]. However, the resulting protocol is very inefficient.

Our protocol is obtained by combining an OT protocol of Naor-Pinkas [18] and the token-based commitment protocol of Katz [15] in a nice way. At the same time, we present a technique which can prevent the selective randomness failure attack.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Naor-Pinkas OT protocol

Naor and Pinkas [18] showed an OT protocol based on the DDH assumption such as follows. Suppose that the sender has two strings (m_0, m_1) of length ℓ and the receiver has a choice bit σ as

their inputs. Let G be a cyclic group of prime order p , and let g be a generator. Let $H : G \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\ell$ be a hash function.

step 1. The receiver chooses $a, b, c \in Z_p$ randomly, and computes

$$x = g^a, y = g^b, z_\sigma = g^{ab}, z_{1-\sigma} = g^c. \quad (1)$$

He then sends (x, y, z_0, z_1) to the sender.

step 2. The sender verifies that $z_0 \neq z_1$. She then chooses (r, u, r', u') randomly and computes

$$E_0 = (g^r x^u, m_0 \oplus H(y^r z_0^u)) \quad (2)$$

$$E_1 = (g^{r'} x^{u'}, m_1 \oplus H(y^{r'} z_1^{u'})) \quad (3)$$

She sends (E_0, E_1) to the receiver.

step 3. From $E_\sigma = (v, w)$, the receiver computes m_σ as $m_\sigma = w \oplus H(v^b)$.

2.2 Ideal Functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{multi-OT}}$

In a multi-session OT protocol, the sender and the receiver can run arbitrarily many sessions of OT. In the UC framework, the ideal functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{multi-OT}}$ interacts with sender S , receiver R , and the adversary as follows [7].

From sender. Upon receiving an input $(\text{send}, \text{sid}, S, R, \text{ssid}, (m_0, m_1))$ from S , where $m_0, m_1 \in \{0, 1\}^\ell$, do:

1. Send $(\text{send}, \text{sid}, S, R, \text{ssid})$ to R and the adversary.
2. Store (ssid, m_0, m_1) .

From receiver. Upon receiving an input $(\text{receive}, \text{sid}, S, R, \text{ssid}, \sigma)$ from R , where $\sigma \in \{0, 1\}$, do:

1. Send $(\text{receive}, \text{sid}, S, R, \text{ssid})$ to S and the adversary.
2. Store (ssid, σ) .

Go. Upon receiving an input $(\text{Go}, \text{sid}, S, R, \text{ssid})$ from the adversary, do:

1. Send $(\text{sid}, S, R, \text{ssid}, m_\sigma)$ to R .
2. Send $(\text{received}, \text{sid}, S, R, \text{ssid})$ to S .

2.3 Ideal Functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{wrap}}$

The ideal functionality of stateless hardware token $\mathcal{F}_{\text{wrap}}^{\text{stateless}}$, parameterized by a polynomial $p(\cdot)$ and an implicit security parameter n , is described as follows [15, 14].

Create. Upon receiving $(\text{create}, \text{sid}, P_i, P_j, \text{mid}, M)$ from P_i , where M is a Turing machine and mid is machine id, do:

1. Send $(\text{create}, \text{sid}, P_i, P_j, \text{mid})$ to P_j .
2. Store $(P_i, P_j, \text{mid}, M)$.

Execute. Upon receiving $(\text{run}, \text{sid}, P_i, \text{mid}, \text{msg})$ from P_j , find the unique stored tuple (P_i, P_j, mid) . If no such tuple exists, do nothing. Run $M(\text{msg})$ for at most $p(n)$ steps, and let out be the response ($\text{out} = \perp$ if M does not halt in $p(n)$ steps). Send $(\text{sid}, P_i, \text{mid}, \text{out})$ to P_j .

The ideal functionality of stateful hardware token $\mathcal{F}_{\text{wrap}}^{\text{stateful}}$ is defined similarly [15].

2.4 Randomness Extractor [10, 11, 9]

Let $\mathcal{H}_\infty(A)$ denote the min-entropy of a random variable A . That is, $\mathcal{H}_\infty(A) = -\log(\max_a(\Pr[A = a]))$. If $\mathcal{H}_\infty(A) \geq m$, then the random variable A is called an m -source.

The conditional min-entropy of A given B is defined by

$$\mathcal{H}_\infty(A | B) = -\log E_b \left[\max_a \Pr[A = a | B = b] \right]$$

The statistical distance between two random variables A, B is defined as

$$\text{SD}(A, B) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_v |\Pr(A = v) - \Pr(B = v)|.$$

We write $A \approx_\epsilon B$ if $\text{SD}(A, B) \leq \epsilon$. Let U_ℓ denote the uniform distribution over $\{0, 1\}^\ell$.

Definition 2.1 A randomized function $\text{Ext} : \mathcal{M} \times \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\ell$ with randomness of length s is called an (m, ℓ, ϵ) -strong extractor if for any m -source W on \mathcal{M} .

$$(\text{Ext}(W; U_s), U_s) \approx_\epsilon (U_\ell, U_s),$$

where a value of U_s is called a seed.

The leftover hash lemma states that if $\text{Ext} : \mathcal{M} \times \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\ell$ is a universal function with

$$\ell = m + 2 - 2 \log\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right),$$

then it is a (m, ℓ, ϵ) -strong extractor. Here Ext is called universal if for any w_1, w_2 ,

$$\Pr_{\text{seed}} [\text{Ext}(w_1; \text{seed}) = \text{Ext}(w_2; \text{seed})] = 2^{-\ell}.$$

It is generalized to conditional min-entropy without any loss [9, Lemma 2.4]: for any X (possibly dependent on W), if $\mathcal{H}_\infty(W | X) \geq m$ and $\ell = m + 2 - 2 \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$, then

$$(\text{Ext}(W; U_s), U_s, X) \approx_\epsilon (U_\ell, U_s, X).$$

This is called the generalized leftover hash lemma.

3 Our Idea

In this section, we show the idea of our UC-secure multi-session OT protocol which uses tamper-proof hardware tokens. Let n be the security parameter.

3.1 Basic Scheme

Katz [15] showed a UC-secure commitment scheme using stateful hardware tokens. We notice that his commit phase is closely related to the OT protocol of Naor-Pinkas [18] in the following sense.

- In his commit phase, a party P sends a statistically-binding commitment $\mathbf{Scom}(\sigma)$ to another party P' to commit to a bit σ .
- In the OT protocol of Naor-Pinkas, the receiver sends (x, y, z_0, z_1) of eq.(1) to the sender at step 1. Here (x, y, z_0, z_1) can be considered as a statistically-binding commitment of the choice bit σ .

Our basic idea is to combine these two schemes in such a way that $\mathbf{Scom}(\sigma) = (x, y, z_0, z_1)$. Namely, let **Katz-Commit** denote the commit phase of the Katz protocol such that $\mathbf{Scom}(\sigma) = (x, y, z_0, z_1)$. Then our basic scheme is as follows.

(Our Basic Scheme)

1. The receiver commits a choice bit σ by running **Katz-Commit**.
2. The sender computes (E_0, E_1) as shown in eq.(2) and eq.(3), and sends them to the receiver.

To prove the UC-security, we must show a simulator **Sim** which can extract σ from a corrupted receiver, and extract (m_0, m_1) from a corrupted sender. To extract σ from a corrupted receiver, we can use the simulator given by Katz in [15] because we use his commit phase to commit to σ .

However, we cannot construct a simulator which can extract (m_0, m_1) from a corrupted sender. Hence the above scheme is not UC-secure yet.

3.2 How to Extract (m_0, m_1)

We modify our basic scheme as follows. Let $\Sigma = (\mathbf{Gen}, \mathbf{Sign}, \mathbf{Verify})$ be a secure signature scheme. In the setup phase, the receiver R generates public-key/secret-key $(\mathbf{PK}_2, \mathbf{SK}_2)$ of Σ , and sends to the sender S a stateless token T_R in which \mathbf{SK}_2 is embedded.

(Our First Attempt)

- | Token | Sender | Receiver |
|-------|--------|--|
| | | 1. R commits a choice bit σ by running Katz-Commit . |
| | | 2. S computes (E_0, E_1) and sends them to R . |
| | | 3. S sends $X = (r, u, r', u', m_0, m_1)$ to T_R . |
| | | 4. T_R computes (E_0, E_1) from X , and returns $\tau = \mathbf{Sign}_{\mathbf{SK}_2}(E_0, E_1)$. |

5. S sends τ to R as the evidence that S sent X to T_R .

Now a simulator can extract (m_0, m_1) from a corrupted sender just by observing the sender's query $X = (r, u, r', u', m_0, m_1)$ to T_R .

However, this protocol is broken by the so called selective input failure attack: A malicious receiver sends a malicious token T_R to the sender which returns \perp for some subset of (m_0, m_1) . Then the receiver can learn some information on (m_0, m_1) (hence on $m_{1-\sigma}$) by observing if the sender aborts or not.

(Our Second Attempt)

- | Token | Sender | Receiver |
|-------|--|---|
| 1. | | R commits a choice bit σ by running Katz-Commit. |
| 2. | S computes (E_0, E_1) and sends them to R . | |
| 3. | S sends $Y = (r, u, r', u')$ to T_R . | |
| 4. | T_R returns $\tau = \text{Sign}_{\text{SK}_2}(g^r x^u, g^{r'} x^{u'})$. | |
| 5. | S sends τ to R as the evidence that S sent Y to T_R . | |

Now this protocol is secure against the selective input failure attack because (m_0, m_1) is not the input to the token T_R . Also a simulator can compute (m_0, m_1) from (E_0, E_1) and $Y = (r, u, r', u')$. However, it is vulnerable to the selective randomness failure attack such as follows. A malicious receiver sends a malicious token T_R to the sender which returns \perp for some subset of (r, u, r', u') . In other words, the receiver can control the distribution of the randomness (r, u, r', u') . Then the receiver would learn some information on $m_{1-\sigma}$.

We solve this problem as follows. In the setup phase, R sends $2n$ stateless tokens T_R^1, \dots, T_R^{2n} to S such that SK_2 is embedded in each T_R^i .

(Final Scheme)

- | Tokens | Sender | Receiver |
|--------|--|---|
| 1. | | R commits a choice bit σ by running Katz-Commit. |
| 2. | S choose $r_1, \dots, r_{2n}, u_1, \dots, u_{2n}$ such that | |
| | | $r = r_1 + \dots + r_n \bmod p, r' = r_{n+1} + \dots + r_{2n} \bmod p,$ |
| | | $u = u_1 + \dots + u_n \bmod p, u' = u_{n+1} + \dots + u_{2n} \bmod p$ |
| | | randomly, and queries (r_i, u_i) to T_R^i for all i . |
| 3. | T_R^i returns $\tau_i = \text{Sign}_{\text{SK}_2}(g^{r_i} x^{u_i})$ for $i = 1, \dots, 2n$. | |
| 4. | S sends $(g^{r_i} x^{u_i}, \tau_i)$ to R for $i = 1, \dots, 2n$. | |
| | S also sends to R | |

$$w_0 = m_0 \oplus \text{Ext}(y^r z_0^u), w_1 = m_1 \oplus \text{Ext}(y^{r'} z_1^{u'})$$

Now suppose that $\sigma = 1$ and $m_{1-\sigma} = m_0$. Then from a view point of the receiver, we can prove that the min-entropy of $y^r z_0^u$ is greater than $\log(p) - 1$ no matter how malicious tokens T_R^1, \dots, T_R^{2n} behave. Hence $\text{Ext}(y^r z_0^u)$ is a random string due to the (generalized) leftover hash lemma. Hence S learns nothing on $m_{1-\sigma} = m_0$.

Also our simulator can obtain all (r_i, u_i) by observing the sender's queries to T_R^i , and then compute (m_0, m_1) .

3.3 On Signature Scheme

The last problem is that a malicious token T_R^i may output a signature τ_i which includes the information about (r_i, u_i) if the signing algorithm is probabilistic. Then the receiver would learn some information on $m_{1-\sigma}$. We can prevent this covert channel attack if the signing algorithm is deterministic.

4 UC-Secure Multi-Session OT Using Tokens

In this section, we show the first UC-secure multi-session OT protocol using hardware tokens. The sender and the receiver exchange tokens only at the setup phase. These tokens are reused in arbitrarily many sessions of OT.

Let p and $q = 2p + 1$ be two primes. Let G be the subgroup of Z_q^* such that $|G| = p$.

4.1 Setup Phase

The first half of our setup phase is the same as the setup phase of Katz [15]. At a high level,

1. S and R exchange stateful tokens mid_S and mid_R .
2. R and mid_S jointly generate $\text{tuple}_S = (g, h, \hat{g}, \hat{h}) \in G^4$, where g and h are generators of G . R then sends tuple_S to S .
3. S acts symmetrically, and sends tuple_R to R .

In the second half of our setup phase, R sends $2n$ stateless tokens $\text{mid}_{R_1}, \dots, \text{mid}_{R_{2n}}$ to S as follows. Let $\Sigma = (\text{Gen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Verify})$ be an unforgeable signature scheme against chosen message attack such that the signing algorithm Sign is deterministic.

1. R generates a public-key/secret-key $(\text{PK}_2, \text{SK}_2)$ of Σ .
2. For $i = 1, \dots, 2n$, R sends $(\text{create}, \text{sid}, \text{receiver}, \text{sender}, \text{mid}_{R_i}, M_{ot})$ to $\mathcal{F}_{wrap}^{\text{stateless}}$, where M_{ot} implements the following functionality: On input $(\text{ssid}, g, x, r, u)$, output $\tau = \text{Sign}_{\text{SK}_2}(\text{ssid}, g, x, g^r x^u)$, where $g, x \in G$ and $r, u \in Z_p$.

4.2 Oblivious Transfer Phase

In each session of OT, the sender is given (ssid, m_0, m_1) and the receiver is given (ssid, σ) by an environment \mathcal{Z} , where $m_0, m_1 \in \{0, 1\}^\ell$ and $\sigma \in \{0, 1\}$. Let $\text{Ext} : G \times \{0, 1\}^s \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\ell$ be a universal hash function which is an $(\log(p) - 1, \ell, \epsilon)$ -strong extractor (see Sec.2.4).

At step B-1, R commits the choice bit σ by using the commit phase of Katz [15] such that $\text{Scom}(\sigma) = (x, y, z_0, z_1)$. Given $\text{tuple} = (g, h, \hat{g}, \hat{h})$, let $\text{Com}_{\text{tuple}}(\sigma) = (g^{s_1} h^{s_2}, \hat{g}^{s_1} \hat{h}^{s_2} g^\sigma)$, where s_1 and s_2 are randomly chosen from Z_p .

(B-1: Katz-Commit) R chooses a, b, c randomly from Z_p , and computes

$$x = g^a, y = g^b, z_\sigma = g^{ab}, z_{1-\sigma} = g^c$$

Let $\text{Scom}(\sigma) = (x, y, z_0, z_1)$. He also computes $\text{Com}_{\text{tuple}_R}(\sigma)$ randomly, and sends $\text{Scom}(\sigma)$ and $\text{Com}_{\text{tuple}_R}(\sigma)$ to S .

He then gives an interactive witness indistinguishable proof that either (i) both $\text{Scom}(\sigma)$ and $\text{Com}_{\text{tuple}_R}(\sigma)$ are commitments to the same bit σ , or (ii) tuple_S is a DH tuple. (We can construct a constant round protocol of this easily.)

(B-2) S aborts if $z_0 \neq z_1$. Otherwise for $i = 1, \dots, 2n$, she chooses $r_i, u_i \in Z_p$ randomly, and queries $(ssid, g, x, r_i, u_i)$ to mid_{R_i} to obtain

$$\tau_i = \text{Sign}_{\text{SK}_2}(ssid, g, x, g^{r_i} x^{u_i}).$$

(B-3) She aborts if mid_{R_i} returns \perp or an invalid signature τ_i for some i .

Otherwise for $i = 1, \dots, 2n$, she sends τ_i and $t_i = g^{r_i} x^{u_i}$ to R .

Also she computes

$$\begin{aligned} r &= r_1 + \dots + r_n \bmod p, & r' &= r_{n+1} + \dots + r_{2n} \bmod p, \\ u &= u_1 + \dots + u_n \bmod p, & u' &= u_{n+1} + \dots + u_{2n} \bmod p. \\ v_0 &= g^r x^u, & v_1 &= g^{r'} x^{u'} \\ w_0 &= m_0 \oplus \text{Ext}(y^r z_0^u), & w_1 &= m_1 \oplus \text{Ext}(y^{r'} z_1^{u'}), \end{aligned}$$

and sends (w_0, w_1) to R together with the seeds of Ext .

(B-4) R aborts if $\text{Verify}_{\text{PK}_2}((ssid, g, x, t_i), \tau_i) = \text{reject}$ for some i .

Otherwise he computes

$$v_0 = t_1 \times \dots \times t_n, \quad v_1 = t_{n+1} \times \dots \times t_{2n}$$

and outputs $m_\sigma = w_\sigma \oplus \text{Ext}(v_\sigma^b)$,

5 UC security

In this section, we prove the UC-security of our multi-session OT protocol in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{wrap}}^{\text{stateful}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{wrap}}^{\text{stateless}})$ -hybrid model against static adversaries.

In the real world, an environment \mathcal{Z} runs our multi-session OT protocol, where the hardware tokens are idealized by $\mathcal{F}_{\text{wrap}}^{\text{stateful}}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{\text{wrap}}^{\text{stateless}}$. In the ideal world, \mathcal{Z} interacts with the dummy sender and the dummy receiver, where the dummy players communicate with the ideal functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{multi-OT}}$ which is given in Sec.2.2.

Let Sim_S denote the simulator for a corrupted sender, and Sim_R denote the simulator for a corrupted receiver given by Katz for his UC-secure commitment protocol [15]. Note that our setup phase is the same as that of Katz [15] (except step 5), and step B-1 of our oblivious transfer phase is the same as the commit phase of Katz [15].

5.1 Sender corruption

Suppose that the sender is corrupted by an adversary A in the real world. We show a simulator Sim in the ideal world which simulates A . Our Sim runs an internal copy of A playing a role of the honest receiver, forwarding all messages from \mathcal{Z} to A and vice versa. (This means that Sim generates $(\text{PK}_2, \text{SK}_2)$ honestly.) Let L be a list which is empty first.

(S-1) In the setup phase and at step B-1, Sim behaves in the same way as Sim_S .

(S-2) At step B-2, if A queries $(ssid, g, x, r, u)$ to some mid_{R_i} , then Sim computes $t = g^r x^u$ and $\tau = \text{Sign}_{\text{SK}_2}(ssid, g, x, t)$, and stores $[(ssid, x, r, u), (t, \tau)]$ in L .

(S-3) At step B-3, suppose that A sends $(t_1, \tau_1), \dots, (t_{2n}, \tau_{2n}), (w_0, w_1)$ and the seeds of Ext to the receiver such that each τ_i is a valid signature.

If there exists some (t_i, τ_i) which does not appear in L , then Sim aborts.

(S-4) Otherwise Sim finds (r_i, u_i) such that $(ssid, x, r_i, u_i), (t_i, \tau_i) \in L$ for $i = 1, \dots, 2n$. By using these (r_i, u_i) , Sim computes (v_0, v_1) in the same way as step B-3, and computes (m_0, m_1) as

$$m_0 = w_0 \oplus \text{Ext}(v_0^b), \quad m_1 = w_1 \oplus \text{Ext}(v_1^b). \quad (4)$$

(S-5) Sim sends the above (m_0, m_1) to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{multi-OT}}$.

Theorem 5.1 *Suppose that the underlying signature scheme Σ is unforgeable against chosen message attack and the signing algorithm is deterministic. Then no environment \mathcal{Z} can distinguish between the ideal world and the real world under the DDH assumption.*

(Proof) We consider a sequence of games.

Game₀: In this game, \mathcal{Z} interacts with a simulator Sim_0 only. That is, Sim_0 receives both (m_0, m_1) and σ from \mathcal{Z} , and Sim_0 plays both roles of the corrupted sender A and the honest receiver. It then internally simulates a real execution of the protocol between A and the receiver. Clearly **Game₀** is identical to the real world.

Game₁: In this game, a simulator Sim_1 behaves in the same way as Sim_0 except for that Sim_1 does (S-2). It is clear that **Game₀** and **Game₁** are identical from a view point of \mathcal{Z} .

Game₂: In this game, a simulator Sim_2 behaves in the same way as Sim_1 except for that Sim_2 does (S-3). Since the signature scheme Σ is unforgeable, **Game₁** and **Game₂** are indistinguishable.

Game₃: In this game, a simulator Sim_3 behaves in the same way as Sim_2 except for that Sim_3 does (S-4). Sim_3 then outputs m_σ of eq.(4) as the output of the receiver. It is easy to see that the receiver outputs the same m_σ as in **Game₂**. Hence **Game₂** and **Game₃** are identical.

Game₄: In this game, a simulator Sim_4 behaves in the same way as Sim_3 except for that Sim_4 does (S-1). Then **Game₃** and **Game₄** are indistinguishable under the DDH assumption as shown in [15].

Game₅: This is the ideal world. In particular, Sim extracts (m_0, m_1) as shown in (S-4), and sends it to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{multi-OT}}$. The output of the receiver in this case is exactly the output in **Game₄**. Thus this game is identical to **Game₄**.

Therefore no \mathcal{Z} can distinguish between the real world and the ideal world under the DDH assumption. Q.E.D.

5.2 Receiver corruption

Suppose that the receiver is corrupted by an adversary A in the real world. We show a simulator Sim in the ideal world which simulates A . Our Sim runs an internal copy of A playing a role of the honest sender, forwarding all messages from \mathcal{Z} to A and vice versa. Let L be a list which is empty first.

(R-1) In the setup phase and at step B-1, Sim behaves in the same way as Sim_R . Note that Sim_R can extract σ from A as shown in [15].

(R-2) Sim sends the above σ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{multi-OT}}$, and receives m_σ .

(R-3) Let $m_{1-\sigma}$ be a random string. Sim uses this $(m_\sigma, m_{1-\sigma})$ at step B-3.

Theorem 5.2 *No environment \mathcal{Z} can distinguish between the ideal world and the real world under the DDH assumption.*

(Proof) We consider a sequence of games.

Game₀: In this game, \mathcal{Z} interacts with a simulator Sim_0 only. That is, Sim_0 receives both (m_0, m_1) and σ from \mathcal{Z} , and Sim_0 plays both roles of the corrupted receiver A and the honest sender. It then internally simulates a real execution of the protocol between A and the sender. Clearly **Game₀** is identical to the real world.

Game₁: In this game, a simulator Sim_1 behaves in the same way as Sim_0 except for that Sim_1 does (R-1) and extracts σ . Then as shown in [15], **Game₀** and **Game₁** are indistinguishable under the DDH assumption.

Game₂: In this game, a simulator Sim_2 behaves in the same way as Sim_1 except for that Sim_2 lets $m_{1-\sigma}$ be a random string. We will show that **Game₁** and **Game₂** are indistinguishable below.

Game₃: This is the ideal world. It is easy to see that **Game₂** and **Game₃** are indistinguishable.

We finally prove that **Game₁** and **Game₂** are indistinguishable. Let T_i be the set of (r_i, u_i) such that (a malicious) mid_{R_i} returns τ_i correctly on input $(\text{ssid}, g, x, r_i, u_i)$.²

Lemma 5.1 *If $|T_i| < p^2/2$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$, then the sender aborts at step B-3 with probability more than $1 - 1/2^n$.*

²The definition of T_i is meaningful even for (a malicious) mid_{R_i} which is stateful or probabilistic. Just fix the current state and the current randomness.

(Proof) Let RET_i be the event that mid_{R_i} returns τ_i correctly. Then

$$\Pr(\text{RET}_i) = |T_i|/p^2 < 1/2$$

because the honest sender chooses (r_i, u_i) randomly from Z_p^2 . Let RET be the event that all mid_{R_i} return τ_i correctly. Note that each RET_i is an independent event because the honest sender chooses (r_i, u_i) independently. Therefore

$$\Pr(\text{RET}) = \Pr(\text{RET}_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \text{RET}_n) < 1/2^n.$$

Hence the sender aborts at step B-3 with probability more than $1 - 1/2^n$.

Q.E.D.

Let \mathcal{R} denote the random variable of (r, u) , and V_0 denote the random variable of v_0 .

Lemma 5.2 *If $|T_i| \geq p^2/2$ for some $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, then*

$$\max_{(r,u)} \Pr(\mathcal{R} = (r, u)) \leq 2/p^2.$$

(Proof) Wlog, suppose that $|T_1| \geq p^2/2$. Let X denote the random variable of (r_1, u_1) and X' denote the random variable of $(r_2 + \cdots + r_n, u_2 + \cdots + u_n)$. Hence $\mathcal{R} = X + X' \bmod p$. Then for any $(r, u) \in Z_p^2$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(\mathcal{R} = (r, u)) &= \Pr(X + X' = (r, u) \bmod p) \\ &= \sum_{(\alpha, \beta) \in T_1} \Pr(X = (\alpha, \beta)) \Pr(X' = (r - \alpha, u - \beta) \bmod p) \\ &= 1/|T_1| \sum_{(\alpha, \beta) \in T_1} \Pr(X' = (r - \alpha, u - \beta) \bmod p) \\ &\leq 2/p^2 \sum_{(\alpha, \beta) \in T_1} \Pr(X' = (r - \alpha, u - \beta) \bmod p) \leq 2/p^2. \end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.

Lemma 5.3 *If $|T_i| \geq p^2/2$ for some $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, then*

$$\mathcal{H}_\infty(\mathcal{R} | V_0) \geq \log(p) - 1.$$

(Proof) Note that

$$\mathcal{H}_\infty(\mathcal{R} | V_0) = -\log E_v \left[\max_{(r,u)} \Pr[\mathcal{R} = (r, u) | V_0 = v] \right]$$

Let $q_v = \max_{(r,u)} \Pr[\mathcal{R} = (r, u) | V_0 = v]$. Suppose that q_v is given by $(r, u) = (r_v, u_v)$. Then v is uniquely determined by (r_v, u_v) as $v = g^{r_v} x^{u_v}$. Therefore

$$q_v = \Pr[\mathcal{R} = (r_v, u_v) | V_0 = v] = \frac{\Pr[\mathcal{R} = (r_v, u_v), V_0 = v]}{\Pr(V_0 = v)} = \frac{\Pr[\mathcal{R} = (r_v, u_v)]}{\Pr(V_0 = v)}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} E_v[q_v] &= \sum_{v \in Z_p} \frac{\Pr[\mathcal{R} = (r_v, u_v)]}{\Pr(V_0 = v)} \times \Pr(V_0 = v) \\ &= \sum_{v \in Z_p} \Pr[\mathcal{R} = (r_v, u_v)] \leq p \times 2/p^2 = 2/p \end{aligned}$$

from Lemma 5.2. Therefore $\mathcal{H}_\infty(R | V_0) = -\log E_v[q_v] \geq \log(p) - 1$.

Q.E.D.

Lemma 5.4 *Fix v_0 arbitrarily. If $z_0 \neq g^{ab}$, then $f(r, u) = y^r z_0^u$ is an injection from $\{(r, u) | v_0 = g^r x^u\}$ to G .*

(Proof) Let $g^r x^u = g^\alpha$ and $y^r z_0^u = g^\beta$. Then

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & a \\ b & c \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} r \\ u \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

where $x = g^a, y = g^b, z_0 = g^c$ and α is fixed. Since $z_0 \neq g^{ab}$, the 2×2 matrix of the left hand side is nonsingular. This means that $f(r, u) = y^r z_0^u$ is an injection from $\{(r, u) | v_0 = g^r x^u\}$ to G . Q.E.D.

Lemma 5.5 *Game₁ and Game₂ are indistinguishable.*

(Proof)

(Case 1) $|T_i| < p^2/2$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

In this case, from Lemma 5.1, the receiver aborts with probability more than $1 - 1/2^n$ at step B-3. Hence Game₁ and Game₂ are indistinguishable.

(Case 2) $|T_i| > p^2/2$ for some $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.

Wlog, suppose that $\sigma = 1$. Then $\mathcal{H}_\infty((r, u) | V_0) \geq \log(p) - 1$ from Lemma 5.3. This means that $\mathcal{H}_\infty(y^r z_0^u | V_0) \geq \log(p) - 1$ from Lemma 5.4. Therefore $(\text{Ext}(y^r z_0^u), \text{seed}, v_0)$ and $(\text{rand}, \text{seed}, v_0)$ are indistinguishable from the generalized leftover hash lemma (see Sec.2.4), where **rand** is a random string of length ℓ and *seed* is the seed of the extractor **Ext**.

Hence Game₁ and Game₂ are indistinguishable.

Q.E.D.

Therefore no \mathcal{Z} can distinguish between the real world and the ideal world.

Q.E.D.

5.3 UC-Security

The full domain hash (FDH) RSA signature scheme [1] is unforgeable against chosen message attack under the RSA assumption in the random oracle model, and its signing algorithm is deterministic. Therefore we have the following corollary.

Corollary 5.1 *Suppose that Σ is the FDH RSA signature scheme. Then our protocol UC-realizes the ideal functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{multi-OT}}$ in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{wrap}}^{\text{stateful}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{wrap}}^{\text{stateless}})$ -hybrid model against static adversaries under the DDH assumption and the RSA assumption in the random oracle model.*

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