Dishonest Majority Multi-Party Computation for Binary Circuits

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Abstract. We extend the Tiny-OT two party protocol of Nielsen et al (CRYPTO 2012) to the case of n parties in the dishonest majority setting. This is done by presenting a novel way of transferring pairwise authentications into global authentications. As a by product we obtain a more efficient manner of producing globally authenticated shares, in the random oracle model, which in turn leads to a more efficient two party protocol than that of Nielsen et al.

1 Introduction

In recent years actively secure MPC has moved from a theoretical subject into one which is becoming more practical. In the variants of multi-party computation which are based on secret sharing the major performance improvement has come from the technique of authenticating the shared data and/or the shares themselves using information theoretic message authentication codes (MACs). This idea has been used in a number of works: In the case of two-party MPC for binary circuits in [14], for *n*-party dishonest majority MPC for arithmetic circuits over a "largish" finite field [4,7], and for *n*-party dishonest majority MPC over binary circuits [8]. All of these protocols are in the pre-processing model, in which the parties first engage in a function and input independent offline phase. The offline phase produces various pieces of data, often Beaver style [3] "multiplication triples", which are then consumed in the online phase when the function is determined and evaluated.

In the case of the protocol of [14], called Tiny-OT in what follows, the authors use the technique of applying information theoretic MACs to the oblivious transfer (OT) based GMW protocol [10] in the two party setting. In this protocol the offline phase consists of producing a set of pre-processed random OTs which have been authenticated. The offline phase is then executed efficiently using a variant of the OT extension protocol of [12]. For a detailed discussion on OT extension see [2,12,14]. In this work we shall take OT extension as a given sub-procedure.

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One can think of the Tiny-OT protocol as applying the authentication technique of [4] to the two party, binary circuit case, with a pre-processing which is based on OT as opposed to semi-homomorphic encryption. For two party protocols over binary circuits practical experiments show that Tiny-OT far outperforms other protocols, such as those based on Yao's garbled circuit technique. This is because of the performance of the offline phase of the Tiny-OT protocol. Thus a natural question is to ask, whether one can extend the Tiny-OT protocol to the *n*-party setting for binary circuits.

Results and Techniques. In this paper we mainly address ourselves to the above question, i.e. how can we generalize the two-party protocol from [14] to the *n*-party setting?

We first describe what are the key technical difficulties we need to overcome. The Tiny-OT protocol at its heart has a method for authenticating random bits via pairwise MACs, which itself is based on an efficient protocol for OT-extension. In [14] this protocol is called **aBit**. Our aim is to use this efficient two-party process as a black-box. Unfortunately, if we extend this procedure naively to the three party case, we would obtain (for example) that parties P_1 and P_2 could execute the protocol so that P_1 obtains a random bit and a MAC, whilst P_2 obtains a key for the MAC used to authenticate the random bit. However, party P_3 obtains no authentication on the random bit obtained by P_1 , nor does it obtain any information as to the MAC or the key.

To overcome this difficulty, we present a protocol in which we fix an unknown global random key and where each party holds a share of this key. Then by executing the pairwise aBit protocol, we are able to obtain a secret shared value, as well as a shared MAC, by all *n*-parties. This resulting MAC is identical to the MAC used in the SPDZ protocol from [6]. This allows us to obtain authenticated random shares, and in addition to permit parties to enter their inputs into the MPC protocol.

The online phase will then follow similarly to [6], if we can realize a protocol to produce "multiplication triples". In [14] one can obtain such triples by utilizing a complex method to produce authenticated random OTs and authenticated random ANDs (called aOTs and aANDs)¹. We notice that our method for obtaining authenticated bits also enables us to obtain a form of authenticated OTs in a relatively trivial manner, and such authenticated OTs can be used directly to implement a multiplication gate in the online phase.

Our contribution is twofold. First, we generalize the two-party Tiny-OT protocol to the *n*-party setting, using a novel technique for authentication of secret shared bits, and completely new offline and online phases. Thus we are able to dispense with the protocols to generate aOTs and aANDs from [14], obtaining a simple and efficient online protocol. Second, and as a by product, we obtain a more efficient protocol than the original Tiny-OT protocol, in the two party

¹ In fact the paper [14] does not produce such multiplication triples, but they follow immediately from the presentation in the paper and would result in a more efficient online phase than that described in [14]

setting when one measures efficiency in terms of the number of **aBit**'s needed per multiplication gate. The security of our protocols are proven in the standard universal composability (UC) framework [5] against a malicious adversary and static corruption of parties. The definitional properties of an MPC protocol are implicit in this framework: output indistinguishability of the ideal and the real process gives *correctness*, and the fact that any information gathered by a real adversary is obtainable by an ideal adversary gives *privacy*. Although not explicitly stated, we work with the random oracle model, as we need to implement commitments to check the correctness of the MACs, more precisely, we work with programmable random oracles. See the Appendix of [6] for details.

Related Work. For the case of n party protocols, where n > 2, there are three main techniques using such MACs. In [4] each share of a given secret is authenticated by pairwise MACs, i.e. if party P_i holds a share a_i , then it will also hold a MAC $M_{i,j}$ for every $j \neq i$, and party P_j will hold a key $K_{i,j}$. Then, when the value a_i is made public, party P_i also reveals the n-1 MAC values, that are then checked by other parties using their private keys $K_{i,j}$. Note that each pair of parties holds a separate key/MAC for each share value. In [7] the authors obtain a more efficient online protocol by replacing the MACs from [4] with global MACs which authenticate the shared values a, as opposed to the shares themselves. The authentication is also done with respect to a fixed global MAC key (and not pairwise and data dependent). This method was improved in [6], where it is shown how to verify these global MACs without revealing the secret global key. In [8] the authors adapt the technique from [7] for the case of small finite fields, in a way which allows one to authenticate multiple field elements at the same time, without requiring multiple MACs. This is performed using a novel application of ideas from coding theory, and results in a reduced overhead for the online phase.

Future Directions. We end this introduction by describing two possible extensions to our work. Firstly, each bit in our protocol is authenticated by an element in a finite field $\mathbb{F}_{2^{\kappa}}$. Whilst such values are never transmitted in our online phase due to our MACCheck protocol, they do provide an overhead in the computation. In [8] the authors show how to reduce this overhead using coding theory techniques. It would be interesting to see how such techniques could be applied to our protocol, and what advantage if any they would bring.

Secondly, our protocol requires $n \cdot (n-1)/2$ executions of the aBit protocol from [14]. Each pairwise invocation requires the execution of an OT-extension protocol, and hence we require $O(n^2)$ such OT-channels. In [11], in the context of traditional MPC protocols, the authors present techniques and situations in which the number of OT-channels can be reduced to O(n). It would be interesting to see how such techniques could be applied in practice to the protocol described in this paper.

2 Notation

In this section we settle the notation used throughout the paper. We use κ to denote the security parameter. We let $\operatorname{negl}(\kappa)$ denote some unspecified function $f(\kappa)$, such that $f = o(\kappa^{-c})$ for every fixed constant c, saying that such a function is *negligible* in κ . We say that a probability is *overwhelming* in κ if it is $1-\operatorname{negl}(\kappa)$.

We consider the sets $\{0,1\}$ and \mathbb{F}_{2}^{κ} endowed with the structure of the fields \mathbb{F}_{2} and $\mathbb{F}_{2^{\kappa}}$, respectively. Let $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{F}_{2^{\kappa}}$, we will denote elements in \mathbb{F} with greek letters and elements in \mathbb{F}_{2} with roman letters.

We will additively secret share bits and elements in \mathbb{F} , among a set of parties $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$, and sometimes abuse notation identifying subsets $\mathcal{I} \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\}$ with the subset of parties indexed by $i \in \mathcal{I}$. We write $\langle a \rangle^{\mathcal{I}}$ if a is shared amongst the set $\mathcal{I} = \{i_1, \ldots, i_t\}$ with party P_{i_j} holding a value a_{i_j} , such that $\sum_{i_j \in \mathcal{I}} a_{i_j} = a$. Also, if an element $x \in \mathbb{F}_2$ (resp. $\beta \in \mathbb{F}$) is additively shared among all parties we write $\langle x \rangle$ (resp. $\langle \beta \rangle$). We adopt the convention that if $a \in \mathbb{F}_2$ (resp. $\beta \in \mathbb{F}$) then the shares $a_i \in \mathbb{F}_2$ (resp. $\beta_i \in \mathbb{F}$).

(Linear) arithmetic on the $\langle \cdot \rangle^{\mathcal{I}}$ sharings can be performed as follows. Given two sharings $\langle x \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_x} = \{x_{i_j}\}_{i_j \in \mathcal{I}_x}$ and $\langle y \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_y} = \{y_{i_j}\}_{i_j \in \mathcal{I}_y}$ we can compute the following linear operations

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot \langle x \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_x} &= \{a \cdot x_{i_j}\}_{i_j \in \mathcal{I}_x}, \\ a + \langle x \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_x} &= \{a + x_{i_1}\} \cup \{x_{i_j}\}_{i_j \in \mathcal{I}_x \setminus \{i_1\}}, \\ \langle x \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_x} + \langle y \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_y} &= \langle x + y \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_x \cup \mathcal{I}_y} \\ &= \{x_{i_j}\}_{i_j \in \mathcal{I}_x \setminus \mathcal{I}_y} \cup \{y_{i_j}\}_{i_j \in \mathcal{I}_y \setminus \mathcal{I}_x} \cup \{x_{i_j} + y_{i_j}\}_{i_j \in \mathcal{I}_x \cap \mathcal{I}_y} \end{aligned}$$

Our protocols will make use of pseudo-random functions, which we will denote by $\mathsf{PRF}_s^{X,t}(\cdot)$ where for a key s and input $m \in \{0,1\}^*$ the pseudo-random function is defined by $\mathsf{PRF}_s^{X,t}(m) \in X^t$, where X is some set and t is a non-negative integer.

Authentication of Secret Shared Values. As described in the introduction the literature gives two ways to authenticate a secret globally held by a system of parties, one is to authenticate the shares of each party, as in [4], the other is to authenticate the secret itself, as in [7]. In addition we can also have authentication in a pairwise manner, as in [4,14], or in a global manner, as in [7]. Both combinations of these variants can be applied, but each implies important practical differences, e.g., the total amount of data each party needs to store and how checking of the MACs is performed. In this work we will use a combination of different techniques, indeed the main technical trick is a method to pass from the technique used in [14] to the technique used in [7].

Our main technique for authentication of secret shared bits is applied by placing an *information theoretic tag* (MAC) on the shared bit x. The authenticating key is a random line in \mathbb{F} , and the MAC on x is its corresponding line point, thus, the linear equation $\mu_{\delta}(x) = \nu_{\delta}(x) + x \cdot \delta$ holds, for some $\mu_{\delta}(x), \nu_{\delta}(x), \delta \in \mathbb{F}$. We will use these lines in various operations², for various values of δ . In particular, there will be a special value of δ , which we denote by α and assume to be $\langle \alpha \rangle^{\mathcal{P}}$ shared, which represents the *global* key for our online MPC protocol. This will be the same key for every bit that needs to be authenticated. It will turn out that for the key α we always have $\nu_{\alpha}(x) = 0$. By abuse of notation we will sometimes refer to a general δ also as a *global* key, and then the corresponding $\nu_{\delta}(x)$, is called the *local* key.

Distinguishing between parties, say \mathcal{I} , that can reconstruct bits (together with the line point), and those parties, say \mathcal{J} , that can reconstruct the line gives a natural generalization of both ways to authenticate, and it also allows to move easily from one to another. We write $[x]_{\delta,\mathcal{J}}^{\mathcal{I}}$ if there exist $\mu_{\delta}(x), \nu_{\delta}(x) \in \mathbb{F}$ such that:

$$\mu_{\delta}(x) = \nu_{\delta}(x) + x \cdot \delta,$$

where we have that x and $\mu_{\delta}(x)$ are $\langle \cdot \rangle^{\mathcal{I}}$ shared, and $\nu_{\delta}(x)$ and δ are $\langle \cdot \rangle^{\mathcal{J}}$ shared, i.e. there are values x_i, μ_i , and ν_j, δ_j , such that

$$x = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} x_i, \qquad \mu_{\delta}(x) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \mu_i, \qquad \nu_{\delta}(x) = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{J}} \nu_j, \qquad \delta = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{J}} \delta_j.$$

Notice that $\mu_{\delta}(x)$ and $\nu_{\delta}(x)$ depend on δ and x: we can fix δ and so obtain *key-consistent* representations of bits, or we can fix x and obtain different *key-dependant* representations for the same bit x. To ease the reading, we drop the sub-index \mathcal{J} if $\mathcal{J} = \mathcal{P}$, and, also, the dependence on δ and x when it is clear from the context. We note that in the case of $\mathcal{I}_x = \mathcal{J}_x$ then we can assume $\nu_j = 0$.

When we take the fixed global key α and we have $\mathcal{I}_x = \mathcal{J}_x = \mathcal{P}$, we simplify notation and write $[\![x]\!] = [x]^{\mathcal{P}}_{\alpha,\mathcal{P}}$. By our comment above we can, in this situation, set $\nu_j = 0^3$, this means that a $[\![x]\!]$ sharing is given by two sharings $(\langle x \rangle^{\mathcal{P}}, \langle \mu \rangle^{\mathcal{P}})$. Notice that the $[\![\cdot]\!]$ -representation of a bit x implies that x is *authenticated* with the global key α and that it is $\langle \cdot \rangle$ -shared, i.e. its value is actually unknown to the parties.

This notation does not quite align with the previous secret sharing schemes used in the literature, but it is useful for our purposes. For example, with this notation the MAC scheme of [4] is one where each data element x is shared via $[x_i]_{\alpha_j,j}^i$ sharings. Thus the data is shared via a $\langle x \rangle$ sharing and the authentication is performed via $[x_i]_{\alpha_j,j}^i$ sharings, i.e. we are using two sharing schemes simultaneously. In [7] the data is shared via our $[\![x]\!]$ notation, except that the MAC key value ν is set equal to $\nu = \nu'/\alpha$, where ν' being a *public value*, as opposed to a shared value. Our $[\![x]\!]$ sharing is however identical to that used in [6], bar the differences in the underlying finite fields.

Looking ahead we say that a bit [x] is *partially opened* if $\langle x \rangle$ is opened, i.e. the parties reveal the shares of x, but not the shares of the MAC value $\mu_{\alpha}(x)$.

² For example, we will also use lines to generate OT-tuples, i.e. quadruples of authenticated bits which satisfy the algebraic equation for a random OT.

 $^{^3}$ Otherwise one can subtract ν_j from $\mu_j,$ before setting ν_j to zero.

Arithmetic on $[\![x]\!]$ Shared Values. Given two representations $[x]_{\delta,\mathcal{J}_x}^{\mathcal{I}_x} = (\langle x \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_x}, \langle \mu_{\delta}(x) \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_x}, \langle \nu_{\delta}(x) \rangle^{\mathcal{J}_x})$ and $[y]_{\delta,\mathcal{J}_y}^{\mathcal{I}_y} = (\langle y \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_y}, \langle \mu_{\delta}(y) \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_y}, \langle \nu_{\delta}(y) \rangle^{\mathcal{J}_y})$, under same the δ , the parties can locally compute $[x+y]_{\delta,\mathcal{J}_x\cup\mathcal{J}_y}^{\mathcal{I}_x\cup\mathcal{I}_y}$ as $(\langle x \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_x} + \langle y \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_y}, \langle \mu_{\delta}(x) \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_x} + \langle \mu_{\delta}(y) \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_y}, \langle \nu_{\delta}(x) \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_x} + \langle \nu_{\delta}(y) \rangle^{\mathcal{I}_y})$ using the arithmetic on $\langle \cdot \rangle^{\mathcal{I}}$ sharings above.

Let $\llbracket x \rrbracket = (\langle x \rangle, \langle \mu(x) \rangle)$ and $\llbracket y \rrbracket = (\langle y \rangle, \langle \mu(y) \rangle)$ be two different authenticated bits. Since our sharings are linear, as well as the MACs, it is easy to see that the parties can locally perform linear operations:

$$\begin{split} \llbracket x \rrbracket + \llbracket y \rrbracket = (\langle x \rangle + \langle y \rangle, \langle \mu(x) \rangle + \langle \mu(y) \rangle) = \llbracket x + y \rrbracket \\ a \cdot \llbracket x \rrbracket = (a \cdot \langle x \rangle, a \cdot \langle \mu(x) \rangle) = \llbracket a \cdot x \rrbracket, \\ a + \llbracket x \rrbracket = (a + \langle x \rangle, \langle \mu(a + x) \rangle) = \llbracket a + x \rrbracket. \end{split}$$

where $\langle \mu(a+x) \rangle$ is the sharing obtained by each party $i \in \mathcal{P}$ holding the value $\alpha_i \cdot a + \mu_i(x)$.

This means that the only remaining question to enable MPC on $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ -shared values is how to perform multiplication and how to generate the $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ -shared values in the first place. Note, that a party P_i that wishes to enter a value into the MPC computation is wanting to obtain a $[x]^i_{\alpha,\mathcal{P}}$ sharing of its input value x, and that this is a $\llbracket x \rrbracket$ -representation if we set $x_i = x$ and $x_j = 0$ for $j \neq i$.

3 MPC Protocol for Binary Circuit

We start presenting a high level view of the protocols that allow us to perform multi-party computation for binary circuits. We assume synchronous communication and authentic point-to-point channels. Our protocol is in the preprocessing model in which we allow a function (and input) independent preprocessing, or offline, phase which produces correlated randomness. This enables a lightweight online phase, that does not need public-key machinery.

In the following sections we will describe a protocol, Π_{Online} , implementing the actual function evaluation in the ($\mathcal{F}_{\text{Comm}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}$)-hybrid model; a protocol, Π_{Prep} , implementing the offline phase in the ($\mathcal{F}_{\text{Comm}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Bootstrap}}$)-hybrid model; and a novel way to authenticate bits to more than two parties, which takes as starting point the aBit command of [14], and which we model with the $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Bootstrap}}$ functionality.

The online phase implements the standard functionality \mathcal{F}_{Online}

It is based on the $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ -representation of bits described in Section 2, and it

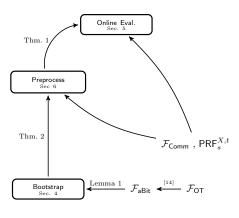


Figure 1 Overview of Protocols Enabling MPC

Functionality \mathcal{F}_{Online}					
 Initialize: On input (<i>init</i>) the functionality activates and waits for an input from the environment. Then it does the following: if it receives Abort, it waits for the environment to input a set of corrupted parties, outputs it to the parties, and aborts; otherwise it continues. Input: On input (<i>input</i>, P_i, varid, x) from P_i and (<i>input</i>, P_i, varid, ?) from all other parties. 					
with varid a fresh identifier, the functionality stores $(varid, x)$. Add: On command $(add, varid_1, varid_2, varid_3)$ from all parties (if $varid_1, varid_2$ are present in memory and $varid_3$ is not), the functionality retrieves $(varid_1, x)$, $(varid_2, y)$ and stores $(varid_3, x + y)$.					
Multiply: On input (multiply, varid ₁ , varid ₂ , varid ₃) from all parties (if varid ₁ , varid ₂ are present in memory and varid ₃ is not), the functionality retrieves (varid ₁ , x), (varid ₂ , y) and stores (varid ₃ , $x \cdot y$).					
Output: On input (<i>output</i> , <i>varid</i>) from all honest parties (if <i>varid</i> is present in memory), the functionality retrieves (<i>varid</i> , y) and outputs it to the environment. The functionality waits for an input from the environment. If this input is Deliver then y is output to all players. Otherwise it outputs \emptyset is output to all players.					

Figure 2 Secure Function Evaluation

is very similar to the online phase of other MPC protocols [6,7,8,14]. We compute a function represented as a binary circuit, where private inputs

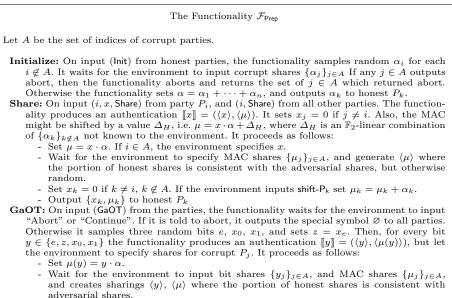
are additively shared among the parties, and correctness is guaranteed by using additive secret sharings of linear MACs with global secret key α . For simplicity we assume one single input for each party and one public output. The online protocol, presented in Section 5, uses the linearity of the $[\cdot]$ -sharings to perform additions and scalar multiplications locally. For general multiplications we need utilize data produced during the offline phase, in particular the output of the GaOT (Global authenticated OT) command of Section 6. Refer to Figure 4 for a complete description of the functionality for preprocessing data. The aforementioned command GaOT builds upon $\Pi_{\text{Bootstrap}}$ protocol, described in Section 4, to generate random authenticated OTs and, as we noted above, we skip the less efficient procedures of [14].

Notice that, as in [6,7,8,14], during the online computation of the circuit we do not know if we are working with the correct values, since we do not check the MACs of partially opened values during the computation. This check is postponed to the end of the protocol, where we call the MACCheck procedure as in [6] (see Protocol 3). Note this procedure enables the checking of multiple sets of values partially opened during the computation without revealing the global secret key α , thus our MPC protocol can implement reactive functionalities.

The MAC checking protocol is called in both the offline and the online phases, it requires access to an ideal functionality for commitments \mathcal{F}_{Comm} in the random oracle model (see full version), and it is not intended to implement any functionality. Also, note that the algebraic correctness of the output of the GaOT command in the offline phase is checked in the offline phase and not in the online phase.

Protocol $\Pi_{MACCheck}$					
 Protocol Π_{MACCheck} Usage: The parties have a set of [[a_i]], sharings and public bits b_i, for i = 1,,t, and they wish to check that a_i = b_i, i.e. they want to check whether the public values are consistent with the shared MACs held by the parties. As input the system has sharings (⟨α⟩, {b_i, ⟨a_i⟩, ⟨μ(a_i)⟩}^t_{i=1}). If the MAC values are correct then we have that μ(a_i) = b_i · α, for all i. MACCheck({b₁,, b_i}): Every party P_i samples a seed s_i and asks F_{Comm} to broadcast τ_i = Comm(s_i). Every party P_i calls F_{Comm} with Open(τ_i) and all parties obtain s_j for all j. Set s = s₁ + ··· + s_n. Parties sample a random vector χ = PRF^{F,t}_s(0) ∈ F^t; note all parties obtain the same vector as they have agreed on the seed s. Each party computes the public value b = ∑^t_{i=1} χ_i · b_i ∈ F. The parties locally compute the sharings ⟨μ(a)⟩ = χ₁ · ⟨μ(a₁)⟩ + ··· + χ_t · ⟨μ(a_t)⟩ and ⟨σ⟩ = ⟨μ(a)⟩ - b · ⟨α⟩. Party i asks F_{Comm} with Open(τ'_i), and all parties obtain σ_j for all j. 					

Protocol 3 Method to Check MACs on Partially Opened Values



- Output $\{y_k, \mu_k\}$ to honest P_k .

Figure 4 Ideal Preprocessing

4 From Tiny-OT aBit's to [.]-Sharings

At the heart of our MPC protocol is a method to translate from the two party aBits produced by the offline phase of the Tiny-OT protocol in [14], to the $[\![\cdot]\!]$ -sharings under some global shared key α from Section 2. We note that the protocol to produce aBit's is the only sub-protocol from [14] which we use in this paper, and thus the more complex protocols in [14] for producing aOT's and

aAND's we discard. We first deal with the underlying two party sub-protocols, and then we use these to define our multi-party protocols.

4.1 Two-party $[\cdot]$ -representations.

Thus throughout we assume access to an ideal functionality \mathcal{F}_{aBit} , given in Figure 5, that produces a substantially unbounded number of (oblivious) authenticated *random* bits for two parties, under some *randomly* chosen key δ_j known by one of the parties. This functionality can be implemented assuming a functionality \mathcal{F}_{OT} and using OT-extension techniques as in [14]. For ease of exposition we present the functionality as returning single bits for single requests. In practice the functionality is implemented via OT-extension and so one is able to obtain *many* aBits on each invocation of the functionality, for a given value of δ_j . Adapting our protocols to deal with multiple aBit production for a single random fixed δ_j chosen by the functionality is left to the reader⁴.

The Functionality \mathcal{F}_{aBit}					
The remember of aBit					
Authenticated Bit(P_i, P_j): This functionality selects a random $\delta_j \in \mathbb{F}$ and a random bit r , and returns a sharing $[r]^i_{\delta_i,j}$.					
 On input (aBit, i, j) from honest P_i and P_j, the functionality samples a random δ_j and a random sharing [r]ⁱ_{δj}, j = (r, μ_i, ν_j), such that μ_i = ν_j + r · δ_j. It then outputs {r, μ_i} to P_i and {δ_j, ν_j} to P_j. If P_i is corrupted, the functionality waits for the environment to input the pair {r, μ_i} 					
 and it sets ν_j = μ_i + r · δ_j for some randomly chosen δ_j, and {δ_j, ν_j} is returned to party P_j. If P_j is corrupted, the functionality waits for the environment to input the pair {δ_j, ν_j}, r is selected at random and μ_i is set to be ν_j - r · δ_j. The pair {r, μ_i} is returned to 					
party P_i .					

Figure 5 Two-party Bit Authentication [14]

Using the protocol $\Pi_{2\text{-Share}}$, described in Protocol 6, we can obtain a "twoparty" representation $[r]_{\delta_j,j}^i$ of a random bit known to P_i , under the key *chosen* by P_j . This extension is needed because we need to adapt the aBit command to the multi-party case. For example, if two parties, P_i and P_j , run the command (aBit, i, j), they obtain a random $[r]_{\delta'_j,j}^i$, with respect to δ'_j ; when P_j calls (aBit, k, j) with a different party $P_k, k \neq j$, then they obtain a random $[s]_{\delta_j,j}^k$, with a different $\tilde{\delta}_j$. Thus allowing the parties to select their own values of δ_j means that we can obtain key-consistent [·]-representations, in which each party P_j uses the same fixed δ_j . The security of the protocol $\Pi_{2\text{-Share}}$ follows from the security of the original aBit in [14]: intuitively the changes required to obtain a

⁴ Note, that in this situation we (say) produce 1,000,000 aBits per invocation with a fixed random value of δ_j , then on the next invocation we obtain another 1,000,000 aBits but with a new random δ_j value. This is not explicit in the ideal functionality description of aBit presented in [14], but is implied by their protocol.

The Subprotocol $\Pi_{2-Share}$					
2Share $(i, j; \delta_j)$: On input (2-Share, i, j, δ_j), where P_j has $\delta_j \in \mathbb{F}$ as input, this command produces a $[r]_{\delta_{i,j}}^i$ sharing of a random bit r .					
1. P_i and P'_j call \mathcal{F}_{aBit} on input ($aBit, i, j$): The box samples a random δ'_j and then produces					
$[r]^i_{\delta'_j,j}=(r,\mu'_i,\nu_j),$					
such that $\mu'_i = \nu_j + r \cdot \delta'_j$, and outputs $\{r, \mu'_i\}$ to P_i and $\{\delta'_i, \nu_j\}$ to P_j .					
2. P_j computes $\sigma_j = \delta_j + \delta'_j$ and sends σ_j to party P_i .					
3. P_i sets $\mu_i = \mu'_i + r \cdot \sigma_j = \nu_j + r \cdot \delta_j$.					

Protocol 6 Switching to Fixed δ -shares

consistent [·]-representation do not compromise security, because δ_j is one-timepadded with the random δ'_j produced by $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{aBit}}$. See [13] for details. Notice that the command 2-Share takes δ_j as the input of P_j . In particular the value δ_j may not be used to authenticate bits. Thus we could use the protocol $\Pi_{2-\text{Share}}$ to obtain a sharing of the scalar product $r \cdot \delta_j$, where P_i obtains the random bit r, and the other party decides what field element $\delta_j \in \mathbb{F}$ gets multiplied in. Then party P_i obtains the result μ_i masked by a one-time pad value ν_j known only to P_j . This application of the subprotocol $\Pi_{2-\text{Share}}$ is going to be crucial in our method to obtain authenticated OT's in our pre-processing phase. As a consequence we do not always see δ_i as an authentication key.

4.2 Multiparty [·]-representation

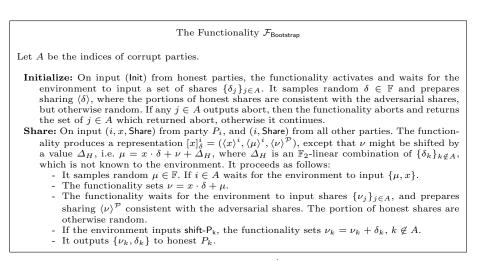


Figure 7 Ideal Generation of $[\cdot]^{i}_{\delta,\mathcal{P}}$ -representations

Here we show how to generalize the $\Pi_{2-\text{Share}}$ protocol in order to obtain an *n*-party representation $[x]^i_{\delta}$ of a bit x chosen by P_i . This is what the functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Bootstrap}}$ models in Figure 7. It bootstraps from a two party authentication to a multi-party authentication of the shared bit. As before for $\Pi_{2-\text{Share}}$, we can see the outputs of $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Bootstrap}}$ as the shares of scalar products $x \cdot \delta$, where one party P_i chooses the scalar (bit) x, but now the field element δ is unknown and additively shared among all the parties. An interesting feature of this functionality is that the adversary can only influence *honest* outputs in a small way, that we model with the shift- P_k flag. Additionally, we can not prevent corrupt parties from outputting what they wish, this is reflected on the fact that the functionality leaves their outputs undefined. The main difference between this functionality and the equivalent in the SPDZ protocol [7], is that in [7] the functionality takes as input an offset known to the adversary who adjusts his shares to obtain an invalid MAC value by this linear amount. We do not model this in our functionality, instead we allow the adversary to choose his shares arbitrarily (which obtains the same effect). However, in our protocol the adversary can also introduce an unknown (to the adversary) error into the MAC values. In particular the adversary can decide whether to shift honest shares, but he cannot choose the shifting, namely, an element on the \mathbb{F}_2 -span of secrets δ_k of honest parties P_k . Later, we manage to determine whether there are any errors (both adversarially known and unknown ones) using an *information-theoretic* MACCheck procedure that we borrow from [6]. See full version for details.

The protocol $\Pi_{\text{Bootstrap}}$, described in Protocol 8, realizes the ideal functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Bootstrap}}$ in a hybrid model in which we are given access to \mathcal{F}_{aBit} . It permits to obtain $[x]^i_{\delta}$ and it is implemented by sending to each $P_j, j \neq i$, a mask of xusing the random bits given by **2-Share** $(i, j; \delta_j)$ as paddings, and then allowing P_j to adjust his share to the right value. In total the protocol needs to execute n-1 aBit per scalar product.

The Protocol $\Pi_{Bootstrap}$				
 Initialize: Each party P_i samples a random δ_i. Define δ = δ₁ + ··· + δ_n. Share: On input (i, x, Share) from P_i and (i, Share) from all other parties, do: For each j ≠ i, call Π_{2-Share} with (2-Share, i, j, δ_j). Party P_i obtains {r_{i,j}, μ_{i,j}}_{j≠i} whilst party P_j obtains ν_{i,j}, such that μ_{i,j} = ν_{i,j} + r_{i,j} · δ_j. Party P_i samples ε at random and sets μ_i = ε + Σ_{j≠i} μ_{i,j} and ν_i = ε + x · δ_i. Party P_i sends d_j = x + r_{i,j} to party P_j for all j ≠ i. For j ≠ i, P_j sets ν_j = ν_{i,j} + d_j · δ_j. 				
5. Output $\{\mu_i, \nu_i\}$ to P_i and $\{\nu_j\}$ to party P_j , for $j \neq i$. The system now has $[x]^i_{\delta}$.				

Protocol 8 Transforming Two-party Representations onto $[\cdot]^i_{\delta,\mathcal{P}}$ -representations

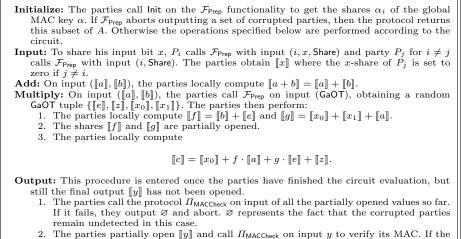
Lemma 1. In the \mathcal{F}_{aBit} -hybrid model, the protocol $\Pi_{Bootstrap}$ implements $\mathcal{F}_{Bootstrap}$ with perfect security against any static adversary corrupting up to n-1 parties.

Proof. See full version.

5 The Online Phase

In this section we present the protocol Π_{Online} , described in Protocol 9, which implements the online functionality in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{Comm}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}})$ -hybrid model. The basic idea behind our online phase is to use the set of GaOTs output in the offline phase to evaluate each multiplication gate. To see how this is done, consider that we want to multiply two authenticated bits $[\![a]\!], [\![b]\!]$. The parties take a GaOT tuple $\{[\![e]\!], [\![z]\!], [\![x_0]\!], [\![x_1]\!]\}$ off the pre-computed list. Recall we have for such tuples $z = x_e$. It is then relatively straightforward to compute authenticated shares of $[\![c]\!]$, where $c = a \cdot b$, as follows: First, the parties partially open $[\![f]\!] =$ $[\![b]\!] + [\![e]\!]$ and $[\![g]\!] = [\![x_0]\!] + [\![x_1]\!] + [\![a]\!]$, and then set $[\![c]\!] = [\![x_0]\!] + f \cdot [\![a]\!] + g \cdot [\![e]\!] + [\![e]\!]$. To see why this is correct, note that since, $x_e + x_0 + e \cdot (x_0 + x_1) = 0$, we have $c = x_0 + (b + e) \cdot a + (x_0 + x_1 + a) \cdot e + z = a \cdot b$.





2. The parties partially open $\llbracket y \rrbracket$ and call $\Pi_{MACCheck}$ on input y to verify its MAC. If the check fails, they output \varnothing and abort, otherwise they accept y as a valid output.

 $\mathbf{Protocol} \ 9 \ \mathrm{Secure} \ \mathrm{Function} \ \mathrm{Evaluation} \ \mathrm{in} \ \mathrm{the} \ \mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Comm}}, \mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Prep}}\text{-}\mathrm{hybrid} \ \mathrm{Model}$

Theorem 1. In the $(\mathcal{F}_{Comm}, \mathcal{F}_{Prep})$ -hybrid model, the protocol Π_{Online} securely implements \mathcal{F}_{Online} against any static adversary corrupting up to n-1 parties, assuming protocol MACCheck utilizes a secure pseudo-random function $\mathsf{PRF}_{s}^{\mathbb{F},t}(\cdot)$.

Proof. See full version.

6 The Offline Phase

Here we present our offline protocol Π_{Prep} (Protocol 10). The key part of this protocol is the GaOT command. In [14] the authors give a two-party protocol

to enable one party, say A, to obtain two authenticated bits e, z, and the other party, say B, to obtain two authenticated secret bits x_0, x_1 , such that $z = x_e$ and e, x_0 and x_1 are chosen at random. We generalize such a procedure to many parties and we obtain sharings $[\![e]\!], [\![x]\!], [\![x_0]\!], [\![x_1]\!]$, subject to $z = x_e$. Notice that the values e, z, x_0, x_1 are not known so they can be used in the online phase to implement multiplication gates.

The idea behind the GaOT command it is to exploit the relation between "affine functions" and "selector functions", in which a bit e selects one of two elements (χ_0, χ_1) in F. This connection was already noted in [1] on the context of garbling arithmetic circuits via randomized encodings. Thus, on one hand we have authentications, that are essentially evaluations of affine functions, and on the other we have OT quadruples, that can be seen as selectors. Seeing both as the same object means that a way to authenticate bits also gives us a way to generate OTs, and the other way around. The procedure is broken into three steps, Share OT, Authenticate OT and Sacrifice OT. We examine these three stages in turn. To produce bit quadruples (e, z, x_0, x_1) , such that $z = x_e$, the parties will use a (secret) affine line in \mathbb{F} parametrized by (ϑ, η) . Note that with our functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Bootstrap}}$ we get $[e_i]^i_{\eta}$, where e_i is known to P_i , and an additive sharing $\langle \eta \rangle$ is held by the system. We denote this concrete execution of the functionality as $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Bootstrap}}(\eta)$, since we shall use fresh copies of $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Bootstrap}}$ to generate more OT quadruples and also for authentication purposes. Note, that η is not an input to the functionality but a shared random value produced when initialising the functionality. Now, performing n independent queries of Share command on this copy $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Bootstrap}}(\eta)$, the parties can generate

$$[e]^{\mathcal{P}}_{\eta} = [e_1]^1_{\eta} + \dots + [e_n]^n_{\eta}.$$
 (1)

Thus, the system obtains two (secret) elements $\langle e \rangle$, $\langle \zeta \rangle$, such that $\zeta = \vartheta + e \cdot \eta$, for line $(\langle \vartheta \rangle, \langle \eta \rangle)$. Define $\chi_0 = \vartheta$ and $\chi_1 = \vartheta + \eta$, so it holds $\zeta = \chi_e$. The quadruple (e, z, x_0, x_1) is then given by the least significant bits of the corresponding field elements $(e, \zeta, \chi_0, \chi_1)$. This conclude the **Share OT** step.

To add MACs to each bit of the quadruple that the parties just generated, the protocol uses the $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Bootstrap}}(\alpha)$ instance to obtain a sharing $\langle \alpha \rangle$ of the global key. Each party can now authenticate his shares of (e, z, x_0, x_1) querying Share command and obtaining $[\![e]\!]$, $[\![z]\!]$, $[\![x_0]\!]$, $[\![x_1]\!]$. We emphasize that the same α is used to authenticate all OT quadruples, thus $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Bootstrap}}(\alpha)$ is fixed once and for all.

After the **Authenticate OT** step the parties have sharings $[\![e]\!], [\![x]\!], [\![x_0]\!], [\![x_1]\!]$, which could suffer from two possible errors induced by the corrupted parties: Firstly the algebraic equation $z = x_e$ may not hold, and second the MAC values may be inconsistent. For the latter problem we will check all the partially opened values using the MACCheck procedure at the end of the offline phase. For the former case we use the **Sacrifice OT** step. We use the same methodology as in [4,7,6], i.e. one quadruple is checked by "sacrificing" another quadruple. The idea involving sacrificing can be seen as follows: We associate to each pair of quadruples a polynomial S(t) over the field of secrets (\mathbb{F}_2 in our case), which is

The Protocol Π_{Prep}					
Let A be the set of indices of corrupt parties.					
Initialize: On input (Init) from honest parties and adversary, the system runs a copy of $\mathcal{F}_{Bootstrap}$ which is denoted $\mathcal{F}_{Bootstrap}(\alpha)$. Then it calls lnit on $\mathcal{F}_{Bootstrap}(\alpha)$. If $\mathcal{F}_{Bootstrap}(\alpha)$ aborts, out- putting a set of corrupted parties, then the protocol returns this subset of A and aborts. Otherwise, the values δ_i returned by $\mathcal{F}_{Bootstrap}(\alpha)$ are labelled as α_i . Set $\alpha = \alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n$, and output α_i to honest parties P_i .					
Share: On input (i, x, Share) from party i and (j, Share) from all parties $j \neq i$. The protocol					
calls Share command of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Bootstrap}}(\alpha)$ to obtain $[x]_{\alpha}^{i}$, given by $\{\langle \mu \rangle^{i}, \langle \nu \rangle^{\mathcal{P}}\}$. Then, for $j \neq i$, party P_{j} sets his share of x to be zero, and $\mu_{j}(x) = \nu_{j}$. Party P_{i} sets $\mu_{i}(x) = \mu + \nu_{i}$. Thus, the parties obtain $[x]$.					
GaOT: On input (GaOT) from all P_i , execute the following sub-procedures:					
Share OT. This generates sharings $(\langle e \rangle, \langle z \rangle, \langle x_0 \rangle, \langle x_1 \rangle)$ such that x_0, x_1 and e are random bits. If all parties are honest then it holds $z = x_e$.					
 The system runs a fresh copy of <i>F</i>_{Bootstrap} on lnit command getting an additive sharing ⟨η⟩ for some random η ∈ F. Denote this copy as <i>F</i>_{Bootstrap}(η). Each party samples a random bit e_i. Define e = e₁ + · · · + e_n. 					
3. For each $i = 1,, n$, the system calls $\mathcal{F}_{Bootstrap}(\eta)$ on input $(i, e_i, Share)$ from					
party P_i and input (<i>i</i> , Share) from any other P_j , to obtain $[e_i]^i_{\eta}$. That is, (in					
an honest execution) P_i gets $\zeta_i \in \mathbb{F}$, and the parties gets an additive sharing $\langle \vartheta_i \rangle$ of some unknown $\vartheta_i \in \mathbb{F}$, such that $\zeta_i = \vartheta_i + e_i \cdot \eta$. The parties compute $[e]_{\eta}^{\mathcal{P}} = [e_1]_{\eta}^{1} + \cdots + [e_n]_{\eta}^{n}$.					
4. At this point of the protocol, the system holds sharings $\langle e \rangle$, $\langle \zeta \rangle$, $\langle \vartheta \rangle$, $\langle \eta \rangle$, so it can derive $\langle \chi_0 \rangle = \langle \vartheta \rangle$, and $\langle \chi_1 \rangle = \langle \vartheta \rangle + \langle \eta \rangle$. Note that (for an honest execution) $\zeta = \vartheta + e \cdot \eta$, or in other words $\zeta = \chi_e$.					
5. Each party P_i sets z_i , $x_{0,i}$, $x_{1,i}$ to be the least significant bits of ζ_i , $\chi_{0,i}$, $\chi_{1,i}$ respectively, so as to obtain sharings $\langle z \rangle$, $\langle x_0 \rangle$ and $\langle x_1 \rangle$.					
Authenticate OT. This step produces authentications on the bits previously computed.					
For every bit $y \in \{e, z, x_0, x_1\}$ it does the following:					
6. Call $\mathcal{F}_{Bootstrap}(\alpha)$ on input $(i, y_i, Share)$ from P_i and $(j, Share)$ for party P_j to obtain $[y_i]_{\alpha}^i$.					
7. Compute $\llbracket y \rrbracket$ by forming $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}} [y_i]_{\alpha}^i$, and then computing $\mu(y) - \nu(y)$.					
Sacrifice OT. This step checks that the authenticated OT-quadruples are correct. Let					
$\llbracket e \rrbracket, \llbracket z \rrbracket, \llbracket x_0 \rrbracket, \llbracket x_1 \rrbracket$ be the quadruple to check, and κ a security parameter:					
8. Every party P_i samples a seed s_i and asks \mathcal{F}_{Comm} to broadcast $\tau_i = Comm(s_i)$. 9. Every P_i calls \mathcal{F}_{Comm} with $Open(\tau_i)$ and all parties obtain s_j for all j . Set $s =$					
$s_1 + \cdots + s_n$.					
10. Parties sample a random vector $\mathbf{t} = PRF_{s}^{\mathbb{F}_2,\kappa}(0) \in \mathbb{F}_2^{\kappa}$. Note all parties obtain the same vector as they have agreed on the seed s.					
11. For $i = 1, \ldots, \kappa$, repeat the following:					
 Take one fresh quadruple [[e_i]], [[x_i]], [[x_{0,i}]], [[x_{1,i}]], and partially open the values p_i = t_i · ([[x₀]] + [[x₁]]) + [[x_{0,i}]] + [[x_{1,i}]] and q_i = [[e]] + [[e_i]]. Locally evaluate c_i such that [[c_i]] = t_i · ([[x]] + [[x₀]]) + [[x_i]] + [[x_{0,i}]] + p_i · [[e]] + q_i · ([[x_{0,i}]] + [[x_{1,i}]]), and check it partially opens to zero. If it does not, 					
then abort. 12. The parties call $\Pi_{MACCheck}$ on the values partially opened in step 11.					
13. If no abort occurs, output $[e], [z], [x_0], [x_1]$ as a valid quadruple.					

Protocol~10 Preprocessing: Input Sharing and Creation of OT Quadruples in the $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Bootstrap}}\text{-}\mathrm{hybrid}$ Model

the zero polynomial only if both quadruples are correct. Thus, proving correctness of quadruples is equivalent to proving that S(t) is the zero polynomial. This is done by securely evaluating S(t) on a random public challenge bit t via a combination of addition gates and two openings (plus one extra opening to check the evaluation), and then checking that the result of the evaluation partially opens to zero. In this way we would waste κ quadruples to check one quadruple, to get security of $2^{-\kappa}$; we refer the reader to Section 7 for a more efficient sacrifice procedure.

Theorem 2. Let κ be the security parameter and $t \in \mathbb{N}$. In the $(\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Comm}}, \mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Bootstrap}})$ hybrid model, the protocol Π_{Prep} securely implements $\mathcal{F}_{\mathsf{Prep}}$ with statistical security on κ against any static adversary corrupting up to n-1 parties, assuming the existence of $\mathsf{PRF}^{X,m}_{\mathsf{s}}(\cdot)$ with domain $X = \mathbb{F}$ (resp. \mathbb{F}_2) and m = t (resp. κ).

Proof. See full version.

7 Batching the Sacrifice Step

This technique (an adaptation of a technique to be found originally in [15,6,9]) permits to check a batch of OT quadruples for algebraic correctness using a *smaller* number of "sacrificed" quadruples than the basic version we described in Section 6. Recall, the idea is to check that an authenticated OT-quadruple $GaOT_i = (\llbracket e_i \rrbracket, \llbracket z_i \rrbracket, \llbracket x_i \rrbracket, \llbracket y_i \rrbracket)$ verifies the "multiplicative" relation $m_i = z_i + x_i + e_i \cdot (x_i + y_i) = 0$.

At a high level, Protocol 11 essentially consists of two different phases. Let $(GaOT_1, \ldots, GaOT_N)$ be a set of OT quadruples, in the first phase a fixed portion of these GaOTs are partially opened as in a classical cut-and-choose step. If any of the opened OT quadruples does not satisfy the multiplicative relation the protocol aborts. Otherwise it runs the second phase: the remaining GaOTs are permuted and uniformly distributed into t buckets of size T. Then, for each of the buckets, the protocol selects a BucketHead, i.e. the first (in the lex order) GaOT in the bucket (as in [9]), and uses the remaining GaOTs in the same bucket to check that BucketHead correctly satisfies the multiplicative relation.

We call CheckGaOTs the GaOTs used to check the BucketHead, and we denote them by CheckGaOT = ([e], [g], [b], [b], [g]), with $\mathfrak{z} = \mathfrak{h} + \mathfrak{e}(\mathfrak{h} + \mathfrak{g})$.

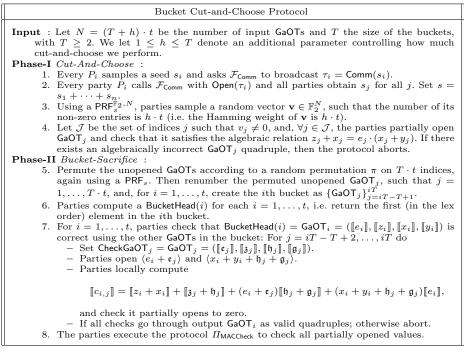
If any BucketHead does not pass the test, then we know that some parties are corrupted and the protocol aborts. If all the checks pass then we obtain t algebraically correct BucketHeads, i.e. t OT quadruples, with overwhelming probability.

Theorem 3. For $T \geq \frac{\kappa + \log_2(t)}{\log_2(t)}$ the previous protocol provide t correct GaOTs with error probability $2^{-\kappa}$.

Proof. See full version.

We can replace the **Sacrifice OT** step in Π_{Prep} with the above Bucket-Cutand-Choose Protocol and, for an appropriate choice of the parameters, Theorem 2 (and relative proof) still holds.

Notice, how the value h has little effect on the final probability (we suppressed the effect in the statement of the Theorem since it is so low). This means we can take h = 1 to obtain the most efficient protocol, which means the amount of cut-and-choose performed is relatively low.



Protocol 11 Bucket Cut-and-Choose Protocol

To measure the efficiency of this protocol we can consider the ratio $r=\frac{(T+h)\cdot t}{t}=T+h$: it measures the number of GaOTs that we need to produce one actively secure OT quadruple. Setting h=1 and an error probability of 2^{-40} , we obtain Table 1 for different values of $t=2^{10},2^{14},2^{20}$.

	r	T = r - h	t	$\frac{40 + \log_2(t)}{\log_2(t)}$
ſ	4	3	2^{20}	3
	5	4	2^{14}	3.85
	6	5	2^{10}	5

Table 1 Number of GaOTs we need to check t quadruples

8 Efficiency Analysis

Here we briefly examine the cost of a multiplication in terms of the number of aBits required in the case of two parties. We use the Bucket-Cut-and-Choose Protocol described in Section 7. We notice that each GaOT requires us to consume ten aBits; we need to execute the **Share OT** step to determine e, z, x_0, x_1

(which requires one aBit consumption per player, i.e. two in total when n = 2); in addition each of these four bits needs to be authenticated in **Authenticate OT** in Protocol 10 (which again requires one aBit consumption per player, i.e. eight in total when n = 2). Since we need one checked GaOT to perform a secure multiplication, and we sacrifice r - 1 GaOT to obtain a checked one; this means we require $r \cdot 10$ aBits per secure multiplication in the two party case. Depending on the parameters we use for our sacrifice step in Appendix 7, this equates to 40, 50 or 60 aBits per secure multiplication, setting $t = 2^{20}, 2^{14}, 2^{10}$, respectively, and an error probability of 2^{-40} .

We now compare this to the number of aBits needed in the Tiny-OT protocol [14]. In this protocol each secure multiplication requires two aBits, two aANDs and two aOTs. Assuming a bucket size T in the protocols to generate aANDs and aOTs; each aAND (resp. aOT) requires four LaANDs (resp LaOTs). Each LaAND requires four aBits and each LaOT requires three aBits. Thus the total number of aBits per secure multiplication is $2 \cdot (1 + T \cdot 4 + T \cdot 3) = 14 \cdot T + 2$. To achieve the same error probability of 2^{-40} , with same values of $t = 2^{20}, 2^{14}, 2^{10}$, they need 44, 58 and 72 aBits, respectively. We see therefore that we can make our protocol (in the two party case) more efficient than the Tiny-OT protocol, when we measure efficiency in terms of the number of aBits consumed.

9 Acknowledgements

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