

Cheater Identification on a Budget: MPC with Identifiable Abort from Pairwise MACs

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Abstract. Cheater identification in secure multi-party computation (MPC) allows the honest parties to agree upon the identity of a cheating party, in case the protocol aborts. In the context of a dishonest majority, this becomes especially critical, as it serves to thwart denial-of-service attacks and mitigate known impossibility results on ensuring fairness and guaranteed output delivery.

In this work, we present a new, lightweight approach to achieving identifiable abort in dishonest majority MPC. We avoid all of the heavy machinery used in previous works, instead relying on a careful combination of lightweight detection mechanisms and techniques from state-of-the-art protocols secure with (non-identifiable) abort.

At the core of our construction is a homomorphic, multi-receiver commitment scheme secure with identifiable abort. This commitment scheme can be constructed from cheap vector oblivious linear evaluation protocols based on learning parity with noise. To support cheater identification, we design a general compilation technique, similar to a compiler of Ishai et al. (Crypto 2014), but avoid its requirement for adaptive security of the underlying protocol. Instead, we rely on a different (and seemingly easier to achieve) property we call online extractability, which may be of independent interest. Our MPC protocol can be viewed as a version of the BDOZ MPC scheme (Bendlin et al., Eurocrypt 2011) based on pairwise information-theoretic MACs, enhanced to support cheater identification and a highly efficient preprocessing phase, essentially as efficient as the non-identifiable protocol of Le Mans (Rachuri & Scholl, Crypto 2022).

1 Introduction

Secure multiparty computation (MPC) is a class of cryptographic protocols allowing a group of distrusting parties to jointly compute a function over their private inputs, without revealing anything beyond the output of the computation. While many different factors impact the usability of MPC protocols, one of the most important security-wise is the corruption threshold. It provides a limit on how many of the participants can collude and share their information, without losing the privacy guarantees of MPC. Many popular protocols, such as SPDZ [DPSZ12], BDOZ [BDOZ11] and their follow-up works ensure privacy,

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even if $n - 1$ out of the n participants are corrupted, and even for attackers that actively deviate from the protocol.

Nevertheless, privacy is not the only security guarantee that an MPC protocol may have to achieve. Fairness requires that if the corrupted parties obtain the output, then so do the honest parties. It is known [Cle86] that in the dishonest majority setting (i.e. when $\geq n/2$ parties are corrupted) we cannot achieve fairness, or the even stronger notion of guaranteed output delivery. Therefore, current highly efficient protocols settle for a weaker notion of security: security with abort. This typically means that a corrupt party can force the protocol to abort, so that some (or all) of the honest parties will abort instead of learning the correct output.⁴

Identifiable Abort for MPC. Since fairness is impossible in the dishonest majority setting, the *next best* property would be if, in the case that the protocol aborts, the honest parties agree that the protocol aborted and also agree on the identity of at least one corrupt party. This can work as a deterrent since honest parties can exclude said corrupt party if they restart the computation. This property is called *identifiable abort*.

The formal treatment of cheater identification in dishonest-majority MPC (ID-MPC) was by Ishai, Ostrovsky and Seyalioglu [IOS12], who showed that it is impossible to achieve unconditionally secure ID-MPC in a model with a broadcast channel and any pairwise ideal functionality, such as oblivious transfer. This is in contrast to the secure-with-abort model, where pairwise OT suffices. Later, Ishai *et. al.* [IOZ14] constructed a compiler that takes any semi-honest protocol that uses a source of correlated randomness, and transforms it into a protocol with security against malicious parties and with identifiable abort (in the correlated randomness model). The general idea of this compiler is similar to the GMW compiler [GMW87]: each party commits to its input and randomness that they intend to use for the semi-honest protocol and then run the semi-honest protocol by broadcasting their messages in each round and use zero-knowledge to prove that their messages are correct. To generate the correlated randomness needed for this protocol, [IOZ14] also described a compiler that transforms any cryptographic preprocessing phase that is secure-with-abort into one that has identifiable abort. Overall, this yields the first construction with identifiable abort that makes only black-box use of cryptographic primitives, namely an adaptively secure oblivious transfer (OT) protocol and a broadcast channel. The main downsides of this construction are the need for adaptively secure OT in the preprocessing phase, and the overall complexity of proving that each protocol step was executed correctly in the online phase.

To resolve this, multiple works [BOS16,SF16,CFY17,BOSS20] have given more “practical” constructions of ID-MPC. Baum et al [BOS16] construct an identifiable abort protocol for arithmetic circuits in the preprocessing model where the online phase is a variant of BDOZ [BDOZ11] that permits cheater

⁴ This is called *selective abort*, in contrast to *unanimous abort*, where the honest parties must all agree that the protocol aborted.

identification. While avoiding adaptively secure OTs, their preprocessing phase needs to perform at least n times as much computation as non-identifiable protocols, and also relies on cheater identification for lattice-based cryptography which is far from being practically efficient. [SF16] modify the SPDZ protocol and identify cheating by ensuring that correct shares are opened. Their preprocessing would, in order to be identifiable, have to rely on the same expensive mechanisms as [BOS16] (such as verifiable decryption). Cunningham et al. [CFY17] used Pedersen commitments to identify cheaters in the online phase, which limits the finite field over which the computation can happen and makes preprocessing costly as all these commitments have to be generated during preprocessing. Finally, Baum et al. [BOSS20] construct an ID-MPC protocol for boolean circuits which runs in a constant number of rounds and uses cryptographic primitives in a black box away. While in their work, public key operations after the setup phase and zero knowledge (ZK) machinery (as well as adaptive OTs) are avoided, their construction is limited to the binary setting and their use of multiparty BMR [BMR90] has a substantial overhead from reconstructing a large garbled circuit.

Challenge of adaptive security and identifiable abort. Revisiting [IOZ14], their idea for preprocessing with identifiability is to have every party commit to its random tape, and then if there is an abort, every party will open the commitments to their random tapes. This allows all other parties to detect which party cheated by re-running a local copy of the protocol. This is acceptable as the preprocessing phase is independent of the parties' inputs. What is needed for this to work is that any deviation from the honest protocol can be consistently detected by every party using the randomness that they committed to. [IOZ14] call this property \mathcal{P} -verifiability. The challenge with this approach lies in the UC simulation proof. If the protocol aborts, the simulator needs to be able to open the honest parties' random tapes to the adversary, in a way that is consistent with the previous (simulated) transcript. One way to do this is if the preprocessing protocol is adaptively secure, so the honest random tapes can be 'explained' by the simulator as if that party had just been adaptively corrupted. This is where the reliance of [IOZ14] on adaptive OT comes from, and it seems inherent to this preprocessing paradigm⁵. While some works have attempted to circumvent the adaptivity problem [BDD20], no efficient UC-secure solution for ID-MPC over arbitrary moduli of computation is known.

⁵ [BOSS20] manages to avoid the use of adaptively secure primitives by making use of a homomorphic commitment scheme and redefinitions of the offline ideal functionality. Specifically, in case of an abort of the offline phase their ideal functionality at this point did not yet output any values to the environment, so the original random tapes can safely be opened. Moreover, their preprocessing protocol uses homomorphic commitments for shares and require that all parties commit to the values they used in the preprocessing. The consistency is then ensured by opening random linear combinations of the commitments, and in the online phase these commitments can be used for cheater detection.

1.1 Our Contribution

In this work, we construct an efficient MPC protocol with identifiable abort for arithmetic circuits over large fields, with UC security [Can01]. A key feature of our protocol is an online phase based on simple, pairwise information-theoretic MACs, just as in the (secure-with-abort) BDOZ protocol [BDOZ11]. Thanks to this simple online phase, the correlated randomness that must be produced by the preprocessing phase is just standard, authenticated multiplication triples, the same as in secure-with-abort protocols. To allow identifiable abort in the online phase, our main tool is a new compiler that transforms certain classes of *sender-receiver protocols*, where one party has private input, into ones that support cheater identification. Our compiler overcomes some limitations of the similar compiler from [IOZ14], which only works for preprocessing protocols, and also requires adaptive security of the original protocol.

1.2 Technical Overview

A natural approach to achieving identifiable abort in MPC is to use a form of linear secret sharing where the parties are committed to their shares via linearly homomorphic commitments. If the commitments support *multiple receivers* and *identifiable abort*, then secret-shared values can be reliably opened, by checking commitments on the shares. A simple type of linearly homomorphic commitment, used in [BDOZ11], can be based on pairwise information-theoretic MACs, where every party is committed to their share with every other party via two-party, linear MAC schemes. However, it is particularly challenging to achieve identifiable abort with this approach. For instance, as a consequence of the result from [IOS12], it is impossible to achieve identifiable abort using only pairwise, ideal functionalities and a broadcast channel; this seems to rule out use of BDOZ MACs, since they are easily created using an ideal two-party functionality. Indeed, the work of [BOS16] devised a more complex type of identifiable MAC scheme to work around this issue, at the cost of an expensive preprocessing phase.

Compiling Sender-Receiver Protocols to Identifiable Abort. To overcome the above issue, we present a general compiler that starts with a certain class of *sender-receiver protocols*, where only one party (the sender) has private input, and upgrades them to have identifiable abort. Like IOZ, our compiler makes black-box use of the underlying protocol, rather than the ideal functionality, avoiding the impossibility result of [IOS12]. Unlike IOZ, however, we are not restricted to preprocessing protocols where no party has private input — this is a key feature, which allows us to apply our compiler to an arbitrary, linearly homomorphic commitment scheme with multiple receivers.

At a high level, our compiler follows a similar blueprint to those of previous works [IOZ14,SSS22]. To start with, the receivers all commit to their random tapes; then, the parties run the protocol with an extra layer of verification on any pairwise communication, using digital signatures. This ensures that if some party cheats, there is a signed record of the messages it sent that can later be

used to help prove this. In case the protocol at some point aborts, the idea is that receivers can open their random tapes to help identify who cheated (and this does not harm security, since receivers have no inputs). Furthermore, a cheating sender can still be identified without having to open its randomness, as long as an honest receiver can prove that they followed the protocol and aborted due to the cheating sender. There is one issue with this approach, however. Even though receivers don't have private *inputs*, they may have private *outputs* that can't be revealed. To remedy this, we use two different types of recovery mechanisms, depending on whether a sender or receiver is claiming an abort. In the first case, the receivers will all *privately* send their evidence to the sender, who will select and publish a proof. In the second case, the aborting receiver must instead immediately open its view for all parties to inspect and confirm that it aborted; because of the restricted communication pattern of sender-receiver protocols, this would imply that the sender has cheated (and so it is not a problem to leak the receiver's output, which only depends on the corrupt sender's input).

Avoiding Adaptive Security via Online Extractability. One remaining challenge in the compiler is ensuring that all of the identification stages, where honest receivers open their random tapes, can be simulated. Instead of relying on adaptive security (which allows a simulator to find randomness that “explains” previous messages), we observe that a weaker property suffices, which we call *online extractability*. In a classical UC security proof, the simulator has to equivocate the protocol outputs to match those of the ideal functionality, while also extracting the inputs of the adversarially controlled parties so they can be forwarded to the ideal functionality. Online extractability defines a special type of simulation, where the normal protocol execution suffices to extract adversarial inputs, if one does only imperceptible changes to the CRS or other hybrid functionalities. While this is already how many UC protocol simulators work, we define this property formally and show that it is composable. Having online extractability, the task of the simulator in our IA compiler is now much easier: it can simulate messages of the honest receivers by simply running an honest copy of the protocol, except for the interaction with a setup functionality like a CRS. This means that the task of opening the random tape to identify a cheater is trivial, since the simulator has followed the protocol honestly. ⁶

Building Identifiable, Homomorphic Commitments. We apply our compiler to a multi-receiver, homomorphic commitment scheme that is secure with abort. The protocol uses pairwise instances of VOLE to create BDOZ MACs, along with a consistency check to ensure the sender commits to the same message with every receiver. This gives us a linearly homomorphic commitment scheme with identifiable abort, which can be efficiently instantiated us-

⁶ Of course, one still has to prove that a protocol is online-extractable, but this is seemingly simpler than a security proof for adaptive security. Indeed, we show that any 2-message OT protocol is online-extractable for a corrupt receiver.

ing VOLE protocols based on the learning parity with noise assumption, such as [BCG18,WYKW21,BCG⁺19].

Preprocessing and Online Phases. The goal of our preprocessing phase is to create additive secret shares of random multiplication triples, which are committed to using our linearly homomorphic commitments. We therefore run n sessions of the commitment scheme in parallel where each of the MPC parties acts as a sender in one of them. To generate the triples, the parties first run a secure-with-abort protocol to create unauthenticated triples (for instance, using pairwise OLE), and then commit to their shares with the homomorphic commitments, and run a standard, sacrificing-based correctness check. To identify any cheating, here we take a similar approach to the IOZ compiler, adding authentication to the secure-with-abort protocol for generating the unauthenticated triple, and opening random tapes in case of abort. Since our commitment scheme is identifiable, we can use this to check whether parties committed to the correct shares and identify a cheater. We highlight that, even though the random tapes of the unauthenticated triple protocol are opened, we need neither adaptive security nor online extractability for this protocol. This is because in the security proof, the simulator can extract everything it needs from the homomorphic commitments, and it suffices to simulate the triple protocol by running an honest copy of the protocol.

Finally, to evaluate an arithmetic circuit in the online phase of our MPC protocol, the parties simply run a standard protocol based on Beaver’s circuit randomization technique. All openings are done via the linearly homomorphic commitment scheme, to ensure identifiable abort. We defer the formal description of the online phase to Appendix G.

Efficiency. We now briefly discuss our efficiency gains, as summarized in Table 1. Due to space constraints, we give a more detailed analysis in Appendix B.

To investigate the overhead of obtaining identifiable abort, we compare our protocol with two versions of the preprocessing and online phases from Le Mans [RS22], which is secure with abort. Le Mans v1 (called Dynamic SPDZ in [RS22]) has lower preprocessing requirements in exchange for a slower online phase, while Le Mans v2 costs more in the preprocessing phase, but gets the fastest online phase. Both versions of Le Mans, as well as our preprocessing, require $\approx n^2$ OLE and VOLE correlations for each multiplication gate, to build authenticated multiplication triples. Asymptotically, if state-of-the-art PCG techniques are used, producing the OLE/VOLEs can be done with a total of $O(n^2 \log(|C|))$ communication, where $|C|$ is the circuit size, and $O(n^2|C|)$ computation. Our preprocessing has the same base cost as Le Mans, plus sending an additional $2(n-1)|C|$ field elements per party to authenticate and check triples.

When it comes to the online phase, we use the standard BDOZ online phase with authenticated triples and signatures added to the messages, which increases the cost by $O(n)$. Overall, our communication cost per party is dominated by

Protocol	Building blocks	IA	Preprocessing cost	Online cost
Le Mans, v1	(V)OLE	✗	$n^2 \times \text{OLE}^*$	$12n$
Le Mans, v2	(V)OLE	✗	$n^2 \times \text{OLE}^* + O(n)$	$4n$
[BOS16]	depth-1 HE	✓	$O(n^3)^\dagger$	$O(n^2)^\ddagger$
Ours	(V)OLE	✓	$n^2 \times \text{OLE}^* + O(n^2)^\ddagger$	$O(n^2)^\ddagger$

* Random, pairwise OLE and VOLE correlations. Can be generated with $O(n \log |C|)$ communication per party using variants of LPN [BCG⁺19, BCG⁺20].

† Must be broadcast

‡ Corrupted party can force to be broadcast

Table 1: Comparing efficient MPC protocols with and without identifiable abort. Preprocessing cost reflects the cost per multiplication in the preprocessing phase, in terms of building blocks (OLE/VOLE) plus total communication in field elements.

$2(n-1)|C|$ field elements for an honest execution. Dynamic SPDZ has an online cost of only $12|C|$ field elements per party, achieving only security with abort.

Compared to other ID-MPC protocols like [BOS16, BOSS20], in the preprocessing phase, [BOS16] requires $O(n^3)$ broadcast messages per multiplication gate, whereas we only need $O(n^2)$ broadcasts even in the worst-case scenario. In the online phase, both [BOS16] and our protocol have $O(n^2)$ complexity.

Our protocol is expected to perform faster than [BOS16], primarily due to the use of pseudorandom correlation generator (PCG) techniques, which are estimated in [BCG⁺20] to have much lower communication overhead compared to homomorphic encryption-based (HE) approach of [BOS16].

The protocol of [BOSS20] is incomparable to ours as it is a garbled circuit-based (GC) construction that works for Boolean circuits. In comparison, our construction allows the evaluation of circuits over \mathbb{F}_p for large p with a round complexity that depends on the circuit depth.

1.3 Related work

Interest in the area of MPC with Identifiable Abort has increased recently, leading to many exciting research directions.

Brandt et al. [BMMM20] and independently Simkin et al. [SSY22] investigated how to realize dishonest-majority MPC with identifiable abort from correlations among less than all n parties.

Cohen et al. [CGZ20] investigated the two-round MPC setting with dishonest majority and broadcast. They showed in which cases identifiable abort is achievable, depending on the broadcast use. This was extended to the honest majority setting by Damgård et al. [DMR⁺21]. In follow-up work, [DRSY23] investigated which setup is necessary for the two-round setting to achieve identifiable abort. In the plain model, Ciampi et al. [CRSW22] showed how to construct ID-MPC in the optimal 4 rounds.

When considering covert instead of malicious security, Faust et al. [FHKS21] as well as Scholl et al. [SSS22] constructed compilers from passively secure MPC to covertly [AL07] secure MPC with security against $n - 1$ corruptions using time-lock puzzles. Later, Attema et al. [ADEL22] showed how to realize this without time-lock puzzles, although requiring an honest majority. All these constructions actually achieve a stronger property called publicly verifiable MPC which implies identifiable abort.

Hazay et al. [HVW22] used framing-free designated-verifier Zero-Knowledge proofs to construct an alternative to the IOZ14 compiler. Their construction only works for honest majority protocols.

More concretely, Chen et al [CHI⁺21] constructed a dedicated RSA key generation protocol with Identifiable Abort and security against a dishonest majority. The efficiency of their construction comes from a communication model that uses a centralized “coordinator” which realizes broadcast.

Concurrent Work. Recently, Cohen et al. [CDKs23] presented another approach to identifiable abort, which also manages to avoid the need for adaptively secure OT in the [IOZ14] compiler. Their method is based on carefully revealing committed input values in case of cheating; in contrast to our approach of revealing random tapes to verify protocol messages, [CDKs23] do not make use of the underlying protocol messages in this way, instead relying on a special form of committed OT functionality. Their approach is restricted to realizing sampling functionalities, whereas our compiler from Section 5 allows one party to have private inputs, and we then use this to realize general MPC.

2 Preliminaries and Notation

We use κ as the security parameter and ρ as the statistical security parameter. Bold letters such as \mathbf{a} are used to indicate vectors, and $\mathbf{a}[i]$ refers to the i -th element of the vector. We write $[a, b]$ to denote the set of natural numbers $\{a, \dots, b\}$ and $[a, b) = \{a, \dots, b - 1\}$. We use $\mathbf{a} \odot \mathbf{b}$ to indicate the component-wise product of vectors.

2.1 Modeling Security

We work in the universal composability (UC) framework [Can01] for analyzing security and assume some familiarity with this.

In UC, protocols are run by interactive Turing Machines (iTM) called *parties*. We make the simplifying assumption that any protocol π runs between a fixed set of parties, typically denoted $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$. The *adversary* \mathcal{A} , which is also an iTM, can actively corrupt a subset $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}} \subset \mathcal{P}$ and gains control over these parties. We denote the set of honest parties by $\mathcal{P}_H = \mathcal{P} \setminus \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$. We focus on static corruptions, so these sets are fixed from the beginning. The parties can exchange messages via resources, called *ideal functionalities* (which themselves are iTMs) and which are denoted by \mathcal{F} . We assume that all parties can communicate via authenticated channels, and sometimes also use secure point-to-point channels

and a reliable broadcast channel. These are all modelled as ideal functionalities that can be realized on top of authenticated channels using standard methods. In protocol descriptions, instead of referring to the specific functionalities, we instead write e.g. P_i privately sends x to P_j or P_i broadcasts x .

As usual, we define security with respect to an iTM \mathcal{Z} called the *environment*. The environment provides inputs to and receives outputs from the parties in \mathcal{P} . To define security, let $\pi^{\mathcal{F}_1, \dots} \circ \mathcal{A}$ be the distribution of the output of an arbitrary \mathcal{Z} when interacting with \mathcal{A} in a real protocol instance π using resources \mathcal{F}_1, \dots . Furthermore, let \mathcal{S} denote an *ideal world adversary* and $\mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{S}$ be the distribution of the output of \mathcal{Z} when interacting with parties which run with \mathcal{F} instead of π and where \mathcal{S} takes care of adversarial behavior.

Definition 1. We say that π UC-securely implements \mathcal{F} if for every iTM \mathcal{A} there exists an iTM \mathcal{S} (with black-box access to \mathcal{A}) such that no environment \mathcal{Z} can distinguish $\pi^{\mathcal{F}_1, \dots} \circ \mathcal{A}$ from $\mathcal{F} \circ \mathcal{S}$ with non-negligible probability.

In the security experiment \mathcal{Z} may arbitrarily activate parties or \mathcal{A} , though *only one iTM (including \mathcal{Z}) is active at each point of time*.

Definition 2 (Identifiable Abort). Let \mathcal{F} be a functionality running with a set of parties \mathcal{P} . We define $[\mathcal{F}]^{\text{IA}}$ to be the corresponding functionality with identifiable abort, where at any time, if \mathcal{A} sends a message $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$ for some non-empty set $\mathcal{J} \subset \mathcal{P}_A$, $[\mathcal{F}]^{\text{IA}}$ sends $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$ to all parties and terminates. Additionally, if \mathcal{F} would at any point send a message Abort to \mathcal{P} , it first waits to receive a non-empty $\mathcal{J} \subset \mathcal{P}_A$ from \mathcal{A} , and then sends $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$ instead.

2.2 Useful Functionalities

We additionally use a one-to-many commitment functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$, shown in Fig. 15, as well as a coin-tossing functionality, $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$, in Fig. 16. UC commitments can be easily realized with a random oracle or CRS, while coin-tossing can be realized using $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$ with a standard commit-and-open approach.

3 Online-Extractable Protocols

We now define a new subclass of UC-secure protocols, which we call *online-extractable*. For such a protocol π we define a special experiment with a PPT iTM called the *extractor*, \mathcal{E} , which can extract the inputs of the adversary during a real execution of the protocol. The extractor is allowed to manipulate the CRS of π , or observe any random oracle queries, as well as see all communication between the adversary and any hybrid functionalities or honest parties. Otherwise, the protocol π is run as in the *real world experiment*. This manipulation done by \mathcal{E} should be invisible to the environment, while the inputs extracted by \mathcal{E} should be indistinguishable from those that the simulator \mathcal{S} obtains in the ideal world.

The definition is inspired by many security proofs of UC protocols, where the simulator \mathcal{S} in the ideal setting simulates by running the actual protocol π with dummy inputs for honest parties. At the same time, \mathcal{S} can extract the actual inputs

of the dishonest parties that are controlled by \mathcal{A} without actually deviating from the protocol⁷. This means that many protocols have this extractability property already, and constructing \mathcal{E} for them will be simple by manipulating \mathcal{S} (removing equivocation etc). We will later see that such \mathcal{E} comes in handy when simulating protocols that have identifiable abort without relying on adaptive security.

Defining Online Extractability. Towards formalizing online extractability, let π be a protocol in the CRS-model that UC-implements a functionality \mathcal{F} , possibly using some other hybrid functionalities. For simplicity, we assume that parties in π either communicate directly or access hybrid functionalities. Since we are in the CRS model, we call certain hybrid functionalities “CRS functionalities” if their input/output behavior towards parties is independent of which party called it. This is for example true of a CRS functionality \mathcal{F}_{CRS} or a random oracle — a CRS should look identical to everyone, and the random oracle should respond with the same random output to an input irrespective of the party querying it.

First, let us denote by $\hat{\mathcal{F}}$ a version of the ideal functionality \mathcal{F} which immediately outputs any inputs from \mathcal{A} to \mathcal{F} onto a special tape. We call this special tape the *ideal input tape*. It can neither be seen by parties nor \mathcal{A} or the environment in any security experiment. We denote by $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}}$ a modification of a protocol π where

1. \mathcal{E} is allowed to program the output and observe the input of any CRS functionality;
2. Every message sent between two parties P_i, P_j , where P_i is honest and P_j corrupt, is first given to \mathcal{E} and then forwarded to the receiver;
3. Every (non-CRS) hybrid functionality \mathcal{F}_H in π is modified to $\hat{\mathcal{F}}_H$, with a special ideal input tape only accessible to \mathcal{E} , on which the inputs from \mathcal{A} to \mathcal{F}_H are placed.
4. \mathcal{E} continuously outputs certain values, whenever they are available, on a special tape of its own, called the *extractor tape*.

As with the ideal input tape of $\hat{\mathcal{F}}$, we assume that in $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}}$, the extractor tape cannot be accessed by any party, functionality, adversary or environment unless mentioned otherwise. The only difference between $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}}$ and π that may be noticeable to the environment is the change to the CRS functionalities.

We now formally define online extractability.

Definition 3. *Let π be a protocol that UC-securely implements an ideal functionality \mathcal{F} with a fixed set of parties \mathcal{P} , and let $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}} \subset \mathcal{P}$. Then we say that π is online-extractable for corrupt $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ if there exists a PPT iTM \mathcal{E} such that, for any adversary \mathcal{A} who statically corrupts the parties in $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$:*

1. *No PPT environment \mathcal{Z} can distinguish $\pi \circ \mathcal{A}$ from $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}} \circ \mathcal{A}$ (where the extractor tape of \mathcal{E} is not available to \mathcal{Z} or \mathcal{A}).*
2. *The distribution of the ideal input tape of $\hat{\mathcal{F}}$ in $\hat{\mathcal{F}} \circ \mathcal{S}$ is indistinguishable from that of the extractor tape of \mathcal{E} in $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}} \circ \mathcal{A}$, for any PPT environment \mathcal{Z} (where \mathcal{S} is a simulator for π).*

⁷ A similar idea, although in the context of public verifiability, was used previously, e.g. in [BDD20].

UC Security vs. Online Extractability. The motivation for Definition 3 is that many existing UC-secure protocols can easily have such an online extractor \mathcal{E} . To show that it is *not implied* by UC security, consider a UC-secure protocol π that uses a trapdoor in the CRS for extraction. Examples⁸ for this are OT protocols such as [PVW08] or protocols that need to decrypt ciphertexts encrypted to keys in the CRS, such as [DPSZ12]. Moreover, assume an MPC functionality \mathcal{F}_{MPC} that all parties have access to. We construct a protocol π' as follows:

1. We generate a CRS crs' using \mathcal{F}_{MPC} for π . For this we run the honest sampling algorithm of π 's CRS in \mathcal{F}_{MPC} , seeded with randomness provided by all parties of π securely as input to \mathcal{F}_{MPC} .
2. After crs' is generated by \mathcal{F}_{MPC} and output to all parties, we run π on CRS crs' .

Assuming that \mathcal{F}_{MPC} is UC-secure, π' is UC-secure as well. To construct a simulator for π' , one uses the simulator of π to generate a CRS crs that can be used for equivocation. Then, the simulator for π' programs \mathcal{F}_{MPC} 's output to be crs and otherwise runs the simulator of π as before. Indistinguishability of the new simulator follows because of the indistinguishability of the simulator of π , as crs must be indistinguishable from crs' by assumption.

At the same time, π' clearly is not online-extractable because no \mathcal{E} can change the outputs of \mathcal{F}_{MPC} , which would be necessary in order to extract inputs of the adversary as in π .

Composition of Online Extractability. We now provide a Lemma which shows under which conditions the online extractability property composes. For this, for protocols ρ, π and a functionality \mathcal{F} we define $\rho^{\mathcal{F} \rightarrow \pi}$ to be the protocol that replaces the functionality \mathcal{F} in ρ with an instance of π as usual in UC composition. We show that in such a case the composed protocol is online-extractable if ρ as well as π are online-extractable. The proof is provided in Appendix C.1 and simply embeds online extractability into the standard universal composition argument.

Lemma 1. *Let ρ be a protocol that UC-securely implements \mathcal{F}_ρ in the \mathcal{F} -hybrid model and is online-extractable for a corrupt set $\mathcal{P}_A \subset \mathcal{P}$. Let π be a protocol that UC-securely implements \mathcal{F} and is online-extractable for corrupt \mathcal{P}_A . Then $\rho^{\mathcal{F} \rightarrow \pi}$ is online-extractable with the same \mathcal{F}_ρ and \mathcal{P}_A .*

The computational overhead from this composition is additive for each functionality that gets replaced as we only run the new \mathcal{E}^π parallel to π . We can therefore apply the lemma a polynomial number of times.

2-Message OT is Online-Extractable. To give an example of an online-extractable protocol, we observe that any 2-message OT protocol in the CRS

⁸ We stress that the examples are also only statically secure.

model, such as [PVW08], is online-extractable against a corrupted receiver. We will later build on this for showing that VOLE can be realised with online-extractable protocols, in Appendix C.2. We assume a standard OT functionality \mathcal{F}_{OT} , for instance, as in [PVW08].

Lemma 2. *Let Π be any 2-message protocol that securely realizes the \mathcal{F}_{OT} functionality in the \mathcal{F}_{CRS} -hybrid model. Then, Π is online-extractable for a corrupted receiver.*

Proof. Recall that in 2-message OT, the receiver must always send the first message. Without loss of generality, any simulator for a corrupted receiver can then be defined in terms of algorithms:

- crsSim : On input the security parameter, it outputs a crs together with a trapdoor τ .
- Ext_A : On input crs , τ , randomness ρ and a receiver message msg_A , it outputs an extracted input (σ, x_σ)
- Sim_A : On input crs, τ , randomness ρ and a message msg_A , it outputs a simulated sender message msg_B .

The simulator uses crsSim to emulate \mathcal{F}_{CRS} , and then, on receiving the adversary’s message msg_A , extract its input using Ext_A and the trapdoor, before simulating the sender’s response using Sim_A .

We define the extractor \mathcal{E} , which starts by emulating \mathcal{F}_{CRS} using crsSim , and then uses the trapdoor τ and the intercepted msg_A from the honest receiver to extract an input with Ext_A , which it writes to the special extractor tape. The only difference between the two executions $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}} \circ \mathcal{A}$ and $\pi \circ \mathcal{A}$ to any \mathcal{Z} is the way the CRS is sampled; but since Π is a secure protocol, these must be indistinguishable. Furthermore, since the extractor tape is defined using Ext_A , it is distributed identically to the simulation, as required.

4 Homomorphic Commitments Based on VOLE

In this section, we first define a functionality for homomorphic commitment, $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$, which will be used as a building block in our preprocessing phase. We then show how to efficiently instantiate this with a sender-receiver protocol based on VOLE, giving security with abort. Using the compiler of Section 5, this can be directly upgraded to achieve identifiable abort.

The functionality, shown in Fig. 1, allows a sender to input values that will be committed, as well as have random committed values sampled by the functionality. $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ allows linear operations to be performed on the commitments, and for values to be opened privately to any one receiver, as well as publicly to all receivers. Note that $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ only supports selective abort, and not unanimous abort. However, our compiler to identifiable abort only requires a protocol with selective abort.

Functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$

Parameters: Finite field \mathbb{F}_p . The functionality runs between a sender P_S and a set of receiver parties $\mathcal{P}_R = \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$. We assume all parties have agreed upon public identifiers id_x , for each variable x used in the computation. For a vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$, we write $\text{id}_{\mathbf{x}} = (\text{id}_{x_1}, \dots, \text{id}_{x_m})$.

Input: On receiving $(\text{Input}, \text{id}_{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{x})$ from P_S , where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{F}_p^l$, where l is the length of the vector, and $(\text{Input}, \text{id}_{\mathbf{x}})$ from all the other parties, store the pair $(\text{id}_{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{x})$, and send InputReceived to \mathcal{A} .

Linear Operation: On receiving $(\text{LinComb}, \text{id}_{\mathbf{z}}, \text{id}_{\mathbf{x}}, \text{id}_{\mathbf{y}}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma})$ from every P_i , compute $\mathbf{z} = \boldsymbol{\alpha} \odot \mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\beta} \odot \mathbf{y} + \boldsymbol{\gamma}$ and store $(\text{id}_{\mathbf{z}}, \mathbf{z})$.

Random: On receiving $(\text{Random}, \text{id}_{\mathbf{r}}, m)$ from all parties:

1. Sample $\mathbf{r} \leftarrow \mathbb{F}_p^m$. If $P_S \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$, instead receive \mathbf{r} from \mathcal{A} .
2. Store $(\text{id}_{\mathbf{r}}, \mathbf{r})$ and send \mathbf{r} to P_S .

Private Opening: On receiving $(\text{PrivOpen}, \text{id}_{\mathbf{x}}, P_j)$ from P_S and if $(\text{id}_{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{x})$ is stored, send \mathbf{x} to P_j .

Output: On receiving $(\text{Output}, \text{id}_{\mathbf{z}})$ from every P_i , where $\text{id}_{\mathbf{z}}$ has been stored previously, if $P_S \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$, send Abort to the parties \mathcal{A} chooses, and deliver \mathbf{z} to the rest. If $P_S \in \mathcal{P}_H$, deliver \mathbf{z} to all parties.

Fig. 1: Functionality for a Homomorphic Commitment

Information-theoretic MACs. In the protocol, the sender P_S will be committed to values in \mathbb{F}_p by holding a MAC on $x \in \mathbb{F}_p$ for each receiver, under keys known only to the receivers. The linear MAC with a receiver P_i is defined as,

$$M_i^S(x) = x \cdot \Delta^i + K_S^i(x)$$

where $\Delta^i \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ is a long-term or global key and $K_S^i(x) \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ is a local key, used only for the MAC on x . Both keys are held by receiver P_i , while P_S holds x and $M_i^S(x)$ (for each $i \in [n]$).⁹ We occasionally write M_i^S, K_S^i when it is clear from context which value is being MACed.

When x is MACed with every other receiver, we use the notation

$$\langle x \rangle = \{(x, \{M_i^S(x)\}_{i \in [n]}), K_S^1(x), \dots, K_S^n(x)\}$$

We write $\langle x \rangle^i$ to denote the parts of $\langle x \rangle$ known to P_i , that is, $\langle x \rangle^i = K_S^i(x)$ if $i \in [n]$ and $\langle x \rangle^S = (x, \{M_i^S(x)\}_{i \in [n]})$ for the sender P_S .

We write $\langle x \rangle + \langle y \rangle$ to denote addition of each party's respective components, which gives a valid set of MACs $\langle x + y \rangle$, thanks to the linearity of the MACs. We also write $\langle x \rangle + \gamma$ to denote adding a public constant γ to $\langle x \rangle$, which is done by

⁹ Note that the index in superscript denotes the party who holds a value.

Protocol Π_{HCom}

Parameters: Extension field \mathbb{F}_{p^r} , a sender P_S and receivers $\mathcal{P}_R = \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$.

Initialize: Every pair of parties (P_S, P_i) , for $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_R$, calls an instance of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ with Init , so P_i receives $\Delta^i \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$.

Input: P_S commits to an input $x \in \mathbb{F}_p$:

1. P_S broadcasts $x - l_j$, where l_j is the next available random value, to all the parties. If no such l_j is available, run the **Random** procedure.
2. Each $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_R$, locally updates its key as $K_S^i(x) = K_S^i(l_j) - \Delta^i \cdot (x - l_j)$. P_S sets $M_i^S(x) = M_i^S(l_j)$.
3. $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_R$ sets $\langle x \rangle^i = K_S^i(x)$ and P_S sets $\langle x \rangle^S = (x, \{M_i^S(x)\}_{i \in [1, n]})$, for $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_R$.

Linear Operation: To compute $z = \alpha \cdot x + \beta \cdot y + \gamma$, for public $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$, where $\langle x \rangle, \langle y \rangle$ have been committed, the parties locally compute $\langle z \rangle = \alpha \cdot \langle x \rangle + \beta \cdot \langle y \rangle + \gamma$.

Random: To commit to m random values $\langle l_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle l_m \rangle$,

1. P_S samples a seed s .
2. Each pair of parties (P_S, P_i) , for $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_R$, calls $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$, with P_S sending (Extend, s) and P_i sending Extend . P_S obtains $\{\mathbf{u}^S, \mathbf{M}_i^S\}$ and P_i receives $\mathbf{K}_S^i = \mathbf{M}_i^S - \mathbf{u}^S \cdot \Delta^i$.
3. Each $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_R$ defines $\langle l_j \rangle = K_{S,j}^i$ and P_S defines $\langle l_j \rangle = (u_j^S, \{M_{i,j}^S\}_{i \in [1, n]})$, for $j \in [1, m+1]$.
4. The parties do the following to check the consistency of inputs to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$:
 - (a) Call $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$ together with other parties to get random values $\chi_1, \dots, \chi_m \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$.
 - (b) Locally compute $\langle C \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m \chi_i \cdot \langle l_i \rangle + \langle l_{m+1} \rangle$
 - (c) Write $\langle C \rangle^S = (C, \{M_i^S\}_{i \in [n]})$ and $\langle C \rangle^i = K_S^i$.
 - (d) P_S broadcasts C , and privately sends M_i^S to each P_i .
 - (e) Each P_i checks that $M_i^S = C \cdot \Delta^i + K_S^i$, for $i \in [1, n]$. If the check fails, **abort**.

Private Output: To open a value $\langle x \rangle$ to a receiver P_i , P_S privately sends x , $M_i^S(x)$ to P_i . P_i checks that $M_i^S(x) = \Delta^i \cdot x + K_S^i(x)$ and aborts if it fails.

Output: To open a vector of values $\langle \mathbf{z} \rangle$, P_S sends \mathbf{z} , $M_i^S(\mathbf{z})$ to P_i . Each P_i checks that $M_i^S(\mathbf{z}) = \Delta^i \cdot \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{K}_S^i(\mathbf{z})$. If the checks fail, P_i outputs **abort**. Otherwise, P_i outputs \mathbf{z} .

Fig. 2: Protocol for a Homomorphic Commitment

having P_S add γ to x , while each receiver P_i subtracts $\gamma \cdot \Delta^i$ from $K_S^i(x)$, giving $\langle x + \gamma \rangle$.

Functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$

Parameters: Finite field \mathbb{F}_{p^r} , and expansion function $\text{Expand} : S \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_p^m$ with seed space S and output length m .

The functionality runs between parties P_A and P_B .

Initialise: On receiving `Init` from P_A and P_B , sample $\Delta^B \leftarrow \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ for P_B , and ignore all subsequent `Init` commands. Store Δ^B and send it to P_B .

Extend: On receiving `Extend` from P_B and $(\text{Extend}, \text{seed})$ from P_A , where $\text{seed} \in S$:

1. Compute $\mathbf{u} = \text{Expand}(\text{seed})$.
2. Sample $\mathbf{v} \leftarrow \mathbb{F}_{p^r}^m$ and compute $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \Delta^B + \mathbf{v}$.
3. Send \mathbf{w} to P_A and \mathbf{v} to P_B .

Corrupt Parties: If P_B is corrupt, Δ^B and \mathbf{v} may be chosen by \mathcal{A} . For a corrupt P_A , \mathcal{A} can choose \mathbf{w} (and then \mathbf{v} is recomputed accordingly).

Key Query: If P_A is corrupted, \mathcal{A} may send a message (guess, Δ') with $\Delta' \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$. If $\Delta' = \Delta$, send `success` to P_A . Else, send `abort` to both parties and abort.

Fig. 3: Functionality for Programmable VOLE

4.1 Protocol with Abort

Our protocol (Fig. 2) is based on a similar MAC generation protocol from [RS22], with the difference that we only have a single sender instead of n senders, which allows us to simplify the protocol. MACs are set up using the VOLE functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ (Fig. 3), which generates a batch of random MACed values between two parties. Importantly, even though the authenticated values are random, the $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ functionality allows the sender to program these by providing a seed, such that when running two instances of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ among different receivers, it ends up committed to the same set of random values. The Expand function in $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ should be a pseudorandom generator, whose precise implementation depends on how the protocol is instantiated (for instance, when using LPN-based VOLE [BCGI18, WYKW21], Expand is an LPN-based PRG).

Consistency Check. Since $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ does not guarantee that in each pair (P_S, P_i) for $i \in \mathcal{P}_R$, P_S inputs the same seed s , we use a consistency check in Π_{HCom} . In the check, the receivers challenge the sender to open a linear combination of all the committed values, with an extra random mask (l_{m+1}) to ensure privacy of the opened combination. We formalise the security of the check by modelling the errors introduced by a corrupt P_S as follows.

Let us assume P_S used inconsistent seeds with two receiver parties. Since the seeds are used to compute the \mathbf{u} values using the Expand function, this will result in two different \mathbf{u} values. The error here is not an arbitrarily chosen one, but one

that is limited to a subset of values over the field \mathbb{F}_p . However, for the analysis we simplify it by assuming it is an arbitrary error of the adversary's choosing. This will only be giving the adversary additional power. Assuming that the seed used with one of the parties, say P_1 , is the correct seed, we say that δ_j^i is the error in l_j^i due to the seed used with a party P_i , where $l^i = \text{Expand}(s^i)$, and $\hat{\delta}_j^i$ is the error in t . If both P_S and the receiver party are corrupt, we set the errors to be 0. We prove that an adversary cannot pass the check with inconsistent seeds except with negligible probability via the following lemma, which is proved in Appendix D.

Proofs for the following lemma and theorem are given in Appendix D.

Lemma 3. *Suppose $P_S \in \mathcal{A}$ introduces errors of the form $\delta_j^i, \hat{\delta}_j^i$ with party P_i . If the Random command in Π_{HCom} (Fig. 2) succeeds, then every pair of parties (P_S, P_i) , for $i \in [1, n]$ hold a secret sharing of $l_j \cdot \Delta^i$, for $j \in [1, m + 1]$. In other words, $\delta_j^i, \hat{\delta}_j^i = 0$, for every i, j , except with probability $1/|\mathbb{F}|$.*

Theorem 1. *Protocol Π_{HCom} UC-securely realises the functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ assuming a broadcast channel in the presence of a malicious adversary that can statically corrupt up to $n - 1$ parties, in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}})$ -hybrid model.*

4.2 Online Extractibility of Π_{HCom}

Lemma 4. *Protocol Π_{HCom} in Fig. 2 is online-extractable, for any adversary corrupting the sender and any subset of receivers.*

Proof. Let \mathcal{S} be the simulator for Π_{HCom} given in the proof of Theorem 5, for the case when the sender and a subset of the receivers are corrupted. In Π_{HCom} , there is never any communication from a receiver to the sender, so the only task of \mathcal{S} is to emulate the hybrid functionalities $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$ towards the adversary, while interacting with the $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ functionality. We can therefore use \mathcal{S} to define the extractor \mathcal{E} , running in the execution $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}}$, as follows:

- \mathcal{E} runs an internal copy of \mathcal{S} ; since \mathcal{E} receives any message sent from the corrupt sender to an honest receiver, it can forward these messages to \mathcal{S} , acting as the adversary.
- Whenever \mathcal{A} sends a message to a hybrid functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$, \mathcal{E} forwards the message to \mathcal{S} .
- Whenever \mathcal{S} calls $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ with some message msg , \mathcal{E} outputs msg on its special extractor tape. \mathcal{E} responds to \mathcal{S} exactly as $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ would; this is possible because P_S is corrupted, so \mathcal{E} knows all of the committed inputs and can correctly open them as needed. If $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ aborts, then \mathcal{E} aborts.

To show that \mathcal{E} is a good extractor, we first require that the executions $\pi \circ \mathcal{A}$ and $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}} \circ \mathcal{A}$ are indistinguishable. The only difference between the two executions is that \mathcal{E} is simulating the $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ instances, and also may abort in case the underlying simulator \mathcal{S} aborts. However, it follows from the proof of Theorem 5 that these differences are negligible.

Secondly, we must show that the special extractor tape in $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}}$ is indistinguishable from the special functionality tape of $\hat{\mathcal{F}}_{\text{HCom}}$ in $\hat{\mathcal{F}}_{\text{HCom}} \circ \mathcal{S}$ to any environment \mathcal{Z} . This is trivially true, because \mathcal{E} is running \mathcal{S} the same way as in an ideal execution, and the extractor tape of \mathcal{E} contains exactly the messages \mathcal{S} sends to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$.

Online Extractability of VOLE Protocol. To use Π_{HCom} in our compiler for identifiable abort, it is not enough that Π_{HCom} is online-extractable on its own, since the compiler from Section 5 requires that Π_{HCom} only uses $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$ and/or \mathcal{F}_{CRS} as its hybrid functionalities. In Appendix C.2, we show that $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ can be replaced with a VOLE protocol in the \mathcal{F}_{OT} -hybrid model, where the sender plays the OT receiver, and this protocol is online-extractable when the sender is corrupted. Since we showed in Lemma 2 how to realize \mathcal{F}_{OT} in an online-extractable way, by applying composition (Lemma 1), this gives an online-extractable protocol for $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ in the \mathcal{F}_{CRS} -hybrid model.

The identifiable abort version of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$, $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ appears in Fig. 17.

5 Compiling to Identifiable Abort

In this section, we show how to compile a protocol with active security with selective abort, and supports online extractability, into a protocol that achieves identifiable abort. More specifically, we handle any class of protocols that are in the *CRS* model and are sender-receiver protocols, where the receivers do not have any private inputs and do not have any communication between them. This is defined formally below.

Definition 4. *Let Π be a protocol in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{CRS}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}})$ -hybrid model. We say that Π is a sender-receiver protocol if (1) No receiver has private inputs and only interacts with the sender, except when communicating with \mathcal{F}_{CRS} or $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$; and (2) Whenever the sender P_S , with random tape ρ_S , is activated with an input inp and sends a message to a receiver, this is done with either:*

- *A broadcast channel, using a function $\text{NextBC}(\rho_S, \text{inp}, \text{state})$, which outputs an updated state and the message msg to be broadcast. The state may contain any outputs from \mathcal{F}_{CRS} or $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$, but is otherwise only used by NextBC .*
- *Private communication to receiver P_i , using a function $\text{NextMsg}(\rho_S, P_i, \text{view}_i)$, where view_i contains the set of messages previously received from P_i , as well as from \mathcal{F}_{CRS} or $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$.*

In particular, this definition implies that any messages sent from the sender to a receiver, including via the broadcast channel, cannot depend on any previous message sent from another receiver to the sender.

It is straightforward to see that if we take Π_{HCom} (Fig. 2), and replace $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ with any secure 2-party protocol in the CRS model, we obtain a sender-receiver protocol. In **Input**, **Private Output**, **Batch Output**, and **Output**, P_S is the only party sending messages in Π_{HCom} . In **Random**, it is clear that the messages sent from P_S to the receivers, and as input to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$, only depend on

P_S 's random tape and the messages received from $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$. Since $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ is a two-party functionality, replacing it with a secure two-party protocol ensures that the protocol messages to P_i still cannot depend on the view of any other receiver P_j .

5.1 The Compiler

In the protocol (Fig. 6), the parties start by picking a public and secret key pair for a signature scheme, and broadcast the public key. We use an EU-CMA secure signature scheme ($\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver}$). The compiler runs the original protocol Π , and in each round, the parties add signatures to every message they are supposed to send. If any signature does not verify, or a message was not received, the receiving party P_i initiates the complaint procedure in Fig. 4, which forces the sending party to broadcast the message to all parties (or be identified as a cheater).

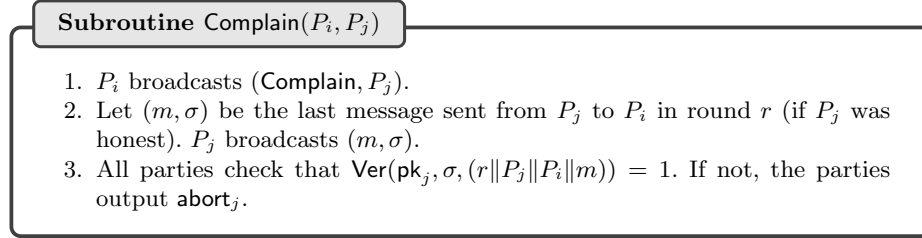


Fig. 4: Complaint procedure for a missing message from P_j to P_i

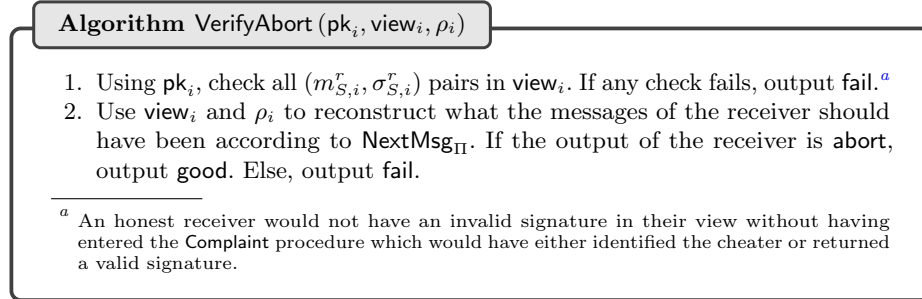


Fig. 5: Algorithm for verifying whether a receiver should have aborted.

The main challenge is to handle the case where Π aborts, and we use different strategies based on the party who aborts. If there was an abort in Π , the aborting party starts the Abort phase of the protocol, where the parties identify the cheater as follows. If a receiver party, say P_i , who aborts, then since Π is a sender-receiver protocol, it must be the case that either P_S or P_i is a cheater, so the parties just need to establish which. We therefore have P_i broadcast its view, and open its random tape to all the parties. The rest of the parties can locally check if

P_i cheated by running the `VerifyAbort` algorithm, which verifies the correctness of the messages it sent by recomputing the actual messages using the `NextMsg` function. `VerifyAbort` has the guarantee that if run with an honest P_i 's view and random tape, it always outputs `good`, and that it is not possible to frame an honest P_i by making it output `fail` because that would require forging a signature. Parties abort with either `aborti` or with `abortS` depending on who cheated.

On the other hand, if P_S was the party that aborted, the natural approach would be to have P_S broadcast its view and random tape as in the earlier case. However, we do not want to reveal the sender's random tape. We do not want the sender broadcasting even its view with all the receiver parties, as this poses a problem for simulation. In this case, we are operating with an honest sender, and a subset of receivers that are corrupt. Because this is a sender-receiver protocol, the honest receivers may have private outputs from the sender. This means the simulator cannot forge a view for the honest sender to give to the adversary.

Instead, we have all the receivers send their views and random tapes to the sender. The sender locally runs `Identify` (Fig. 7) on all the views and random tapes, including its own view, to identify the receiver party that cheated. If a receiver P_i doesn't send its view to the sender then the sender broadcasts a complaint message for P_i who is then forced to broadcast its view and its random tape. `Identify` can reconstruct what an honest receiver should have sent, based on the random tape of the receiver and the `NextMsg` function. Then it compares these messages to the messages from the sender's view, which allows it to always identify if the receiver cheated. P_S then broadcast its view *only* with respect to the cheating party, along with that party's view and random tape. The other honest parties can locally run `Identify` on these to be convinced that P_i was the cheater. This avoids the problem of the simulator having to send the *full* view of the honest sender. A formal description of the compiler appears in Fig. 6.

Theorem 2. *Let Π be a perfectly correct, sender-receiver protocol that UC-securely realises a functionality \mathcal{F} with active security and dishonest majority, and supports online extractability when the sender and a subset of receivers are corrupt. Let $(\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver})$ be a EUF-CMA secure signature scheme. Then the compiled protocol $\Pi_{\text{Comp}}^{\text{IA}}$ securely realises \mathcal{F} with active security in the CRS model, and achieves identifiable abort.*

Due to space constraints, we defer the full proof of the theorem to Appendix E and provide a proof sketch.

Proof (Sketch). First, whenever \mathcal{A} communicates with \mathcal{F}_{CRS} , \mathcal{S} calls the extractor \mathcal{E} which picks whichever CRS it wants and \mathcal{S} forwards it to \mathcal{A} . We have two cases of corruption:

1. The sender and a subset of the receivers are corrupt. In this case, \mathcal{S} can use \mathcal{E} and an honest execution of the protocol to forward \mathcal{A} 's inputs to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. The two interesting cases of abort are: a corrupt receiver or a corrupt sender. Those cases are taken care of by running `VerifyAbort` and `IA.Identify` respectively on the random tapes that \mathcal{S} received.

Compiler $\Pi_{\text{Comp}}^{\text{IA}}$

Let Π be a sender-receiver protocol that is actively secure with selective abort and supports online extractability. Π uses a CRS . We assume that Π is a protocol with one sender P_S and a set of receivers $P_j \in [1, n]$. All the calls to functionalities inside of Π are replaced by their corresponding protocols.

1. Before any step of the protocol is executed, each P_i sends $(\text{Commit}, P_i, \rho_i)$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$, where ρ_i is the random tape.
2. Each party P_i also samples a $(\text{pk}_i, \text{sk}_i)$ pair, and broadcasts pk_i .
3. Run the Π protocol as follows. In each round r of the protocol,
 - (a) Let $m_{i,j}^r$ be the message that P_i should have sent to P_j , according to NextMsg_{Π} . Note that either P_i or P_j must be P_S .
 - (b) P_i sends $(m_{i,j}^r, \sigma_{i,j}^k)$ to P_j , where $\sigma_{i,j}^k = \text{Sig}(r || P_i || P_j || m_{i,j}^r)$.
 - (c) P_j checks $\text{Ver}(\text{pk}_i, \sigma_{i,j}^k, (r || P_i || P_j || m_{i,j}^r)) = 1$. If not, or if P_i did not send a message at all, P_j calls $\text{Complain}(P_j, P_i)$ (Fig. 4)
 - (d) If any party P_i terminates with output **abort** then it initiates the **Abort** procedure.

Abort:

1. If a receiver P_i aborted:
 - (a) P_i broadcasts $(\text{abort}, \text{view}_i)$ and opens ρ_i publicly using $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$.
 - (b) All parties run $\text{VerifyAbort}(\text{pk}_i, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)$ (Fig. 5) to establish if P_i cheated.
 - (c) If VerifyAbort returns **fail**, the parties output **abort_i**, else output **abort_S**.
2. If the sender P_S aborted:
 - (a) P_S broadcasts **abort**.
 - (b) All receivers P_i send view_i to P_S and privately open ρ_i to P_S using $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$.
 - i. If P_S does not receive the view of some P_i , it broadcasts a complaint message for P_i . P_i is forced to broadcast $(\text{view}_i)^a$ and publicly open ρ_i by calling $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$ with **Open**.
 - ii. If P_i does not broadcast, then everyone outputs **abort_i**.
 - (c) P_S runs $\text{IA.Identify}(\text{pk}_i, \text{view}_i, \rho_i, \text{pk}_S, \text{view}_{S,i})$ (Fig. 7) for all receivers P_i to establish who cheated. $\text{view}_{S,i}$ is the view of the the sender P_S that contains only the messages from one particular party P_i .
 - (d) P_S broadcasts $\text{view}_{S,i}$ for the cheating party P_i . P_i broadcasts view_i and publicly opens ρ_i using $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$.
 - (e) All honest parties run $\text{IA.Identify}(\text{pk}_i, \text{view}_i, \rho_i, \text{pk}_S, \text{view}_{S,i})$ and output **abort_i**. If P_S never broadcast the views, then they identify P_S as the cheater.

^a This is ok because in this case either the receiver or the sender is corrupt.

Fig. 6: Compiler for identifiable abort

2. A subset of receivers is corrupt. In this case \mathcal{S} uses the UC simulator \mathcal{S}_{Π} of the original protocol and whenever \mathcal{S}_{Π} communicates with $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$, \mathcal{S} forwards all

Algorithm IA. Identify ($pk_i, \text{view}_i, \rho_i, pk_S, \text{view}_S$)

1. Using the random tape ρ_i and view_i , first check if the ρ_i is the one that was committed to and then compute what the messages of P_i in each round should be. Let those be $m_{i,S}^r$.
2. Check if $m_{i,S}^r \neq \hat{m}_{i,S}^r$, where $\hat{m}_{i,S}^r$ are P_i 's messages in view_S , for all rounds r of the protocol so far. If any of them are inconsistent, output P_i as the cheater.
3. Else if any of the signatures from view_S fail the check $\text{Ver}(pk_i, \sigma_S, (r_S || P_S || P_i || \hat{m}_{i,S}^r)) = 1$, output P_i as the cheater.
4. Else, verify signatures sent by P_S . If any of them are not valid, output P_S as the cheater.

Fig. 7: Algorithm for identifying a cheater.

the messages to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. The abort here can happen either by a corrupt receiver or an honest sender. As before, they are taken care of by running **VerifyAbort** and **IA. Identify** on the random tapes of the corrupt parties that it received.

In both cases, the correctness of the identified cheaters follows from the EU-CMA property of the signature scheme and the binding property of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$.

5.2 Identifiable Cheating

We now present another transformation, which does not directly yield identifiable abort, but on the other hand, is not restricted to sender-receiver protocols. Similarly to the previous compiler, we use signatures to verify point-to-point communication. This ensures that a protocol transcript is verifiable, in the sense that, in an execution where an honest party aborts, a cheater can be identified given the views of all parties, even if a corrupt party may lie about its view. We will use this transformation as part of our preprocessing protocol in Section 6, to ensure that the triple generation subprotocol can be verified in case of an abort.

Protocol assumptions. We let **NextMsg** denote a component of each party's state transition function that, on input the party identifier P_i , random tape ρ_i and previous state, outputs an updated state together with the next message m that P_i will send. We assume that the protocol Π is in the *CRS* model.

Definition 5 (Dishonest execution). *Consider a non-aborting execution of protocol Π between parties P_1, \dots, P_n with random tapes (ρ_1, \dots, ρ_n) , and a set \mathcal{P}_A of corrupted parties. We say that the execution was dishonest with respect to \mathcal{P}_A , if there exists at least one honest party whose view in the execution is different to the view of the same party in an honest execution of Π on (ρ_1, \dots, ρ_n) .*

The notion is defined via a game and a polynomial time algorithm **Identify**. The idea of the definition is as follows, we first run the protocol Π with a set of parties P_1, \dots, P_n . The protocol generates the set of views $\{\text{view}_i\}_{i \in [1,n]}$. The

Compiler $\Pi_{\text{Comp}}^{\text{IC}}$

Let Π be a maliciously secure protocol with abort that uses functionalities $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{CRS}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}})$. Let $(\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver})$ be a signature scheme.

1. Each P_i , for $i \in [n]$, samples $(\text{pk}_i, \text{sk}_i) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\lambda)$ and broadcasts pk_i .
 2. The parties run Π . Let ρ_i be the random tape of each party P_i and state_i its internal state. Whenever P_i is activated with some input inp in round r :
 - (a) If inp is a message from P_j of the form (m, σ) , P_i checks that $\text{Ver}(\text{pk}_j, \sigma, (P_j \| P_i \| m \| r - 1)) = 1$. If the check fails, run $\text{Complain}(P_i, P_j)$.
 - (b) If P_i is next instructed to send a message to some party P_j :
 - i. Let $(m_{i,j}, \text{state}) = \text{NextMsg}(P_i, \rho_i, \text{state})$.
 - ii. Let $\sigma_{i,j} = \text{Sig}(P_i \| P_j \| m_{i,j} \| r)$
 - iii. Send $(m_{i,j}, \sigma_{i,j})$ to P_j
- Otherwise, P_i executes its next instruction as usual.

Fig. 8: Compiler for identifiable cheating

Algorithm Identify $((\text{pk}_i, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)_{i \in [1, n]})$

1. Emulate an execution of Π with virtual parties P_1, \dots, P_n and random tapes ρ_1, \dots, ρ_n .
2. At each step where P_i sends a message $m_{i,j}$ to P_j in round r :
 - (a) Retrieve the next message $(\hat{m}_{i,j}, \sigma)$ from view_j .
 - (b) Check whether $\text{Ver}(\text{pk}_i, \sigma, (P_i \| P_j \| \hat{m}_{i,j} \| r)) = 1$. If not, output P_j as a cheater.
 - (c) Check whether $m_{i,j} = \hat{m}_{i,j}$. If not, output P_j as a cheater.
3. If Π ends successfully without identifying a cheater, output \perp .

Fig. 9: Algorithm for identifying a cheater.

adversary is allowed to replace up to $n - 1$ views with corrupted ones. We show that the identifiable cheating compiler guarantees that, except with negligible probability, given all the views, the random tapes of the parties, and public keys of all the parties, the Identify algorithm successfully identifies the cheating party. Formally, the definitions are as follows:

Definition 6 (Identifiable cheating). *Let Π be an actively secure protocol using \mathcal{F}_{CRS} . Let Identify be a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm with the syntax:*

- Identify $((\text{pk}_i, \rho_i, \text{view}_i)_{i \in [n]})$: *On input the public keys, random tapes and views of all the parties, Identify either outputs a corrupt party P_i or an honest execution symbol \perp .*

A protocol Π supports identifiable cheating if for any P.P.T adversary \mathcal{A} it holds that:

$$\Pr[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}^{\text{IC}}(\lambda) = 1] \leq v(\lambda)$$

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, v is a negligible function and $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}^{\text{ic}}(\lambda)$ is defined as in Fig. 10.

Experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}^{\text{ic}}(\lambda)$

1. \mathcal{A} corrupts a set of parties $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}} \subset \mathcal{P}$. Let \mathcal{P}_H be the set of honest parties.
2. For each $i \in \mathcal{P}_H$, sample a random tape ρ_i .
3. The parties run Π , where P_i uses ρ_i as its random tape. Let view_i denote the list of messages received by P_i .
4. If all honest parties output abort_j for some $j \in A$, then output 0.
5. \mathcal{A} receives (ρ_i, view_i) , for $i \in \mathcal{P}_H$.
6. \mathcal{A} outputs $\{\widetilde{\text{view}}_j\}$ for $j \in A$. Redefine $\text{view}_j := \widetilde{\text{view}}_j$.
7. Output 1 if one of the following holds:
 - The execution of Π is dishonest with respect to $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$, and $\text{Identify}((\text{pk}_i, \rho_i, \text{view}_i)_{i=1}^n) = \perp$
 - $\text{Identify}((\text{pk}_i, \rho_i, \text{view}_i)_{i=1}^n) \in \{P_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}_H}$.

Else, output 0.

Fig. 10: Experiment for Identifiable Cheating

The idea of our compiler $\Pi_{\text{Cmp}}^{\text{IC}}$ that ensures identifiable cheating is to have parties add signatures to their messages. In order for parties to sign and verify messages, each party chooses a public key and a secret key for a signature scheme, and broadcasts the public key before running the compiled protocol. If a party in the protocol thinks a message or the signature it received is invalid, it broadcasts a complaint message, upon which the sender of the message must broadcast the message and the signature to all the parties. The formal protocol for the identifiable cheating compiler appears in Fig. 8.

We prove that using this compiler with any protocol that is actively secure in the dishonest majority with abort, gives a protocol that has the identifiable cheating property.

Theorem 3. *Let Π be a protocol that UC-securely realises a functionality \mathcal{F} with active security and dishonest majority. Let $(\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver})$ be a EUF-CMA secure signature scheme. Then the compiled protocol Π_{Cmp} securely realises \mathcal{F} with active security in the CRS model and using broadcast, and achieves the identifiable cheating property.*

Due to space constraints, we defer the full proof of the theorem to Appendix E.

6 Preprocessing

In this section, we build an MPC preprocessing protocol with identifiable abort using the homomorphic commitment protocol with identifiable abort from the previous section. The preprocessing protocol allows parties to secret-share random

values such that the secret is known to one party only, as well as to create sharings of two random values together with a sharing of their product. In both cases, all shares are homomorphically committed. Parties can also apply linear operations to these sharings without interaction, or open them with identifiable abort. The preprocessing functionality, abstracting this, is formally described in Fig. 11.

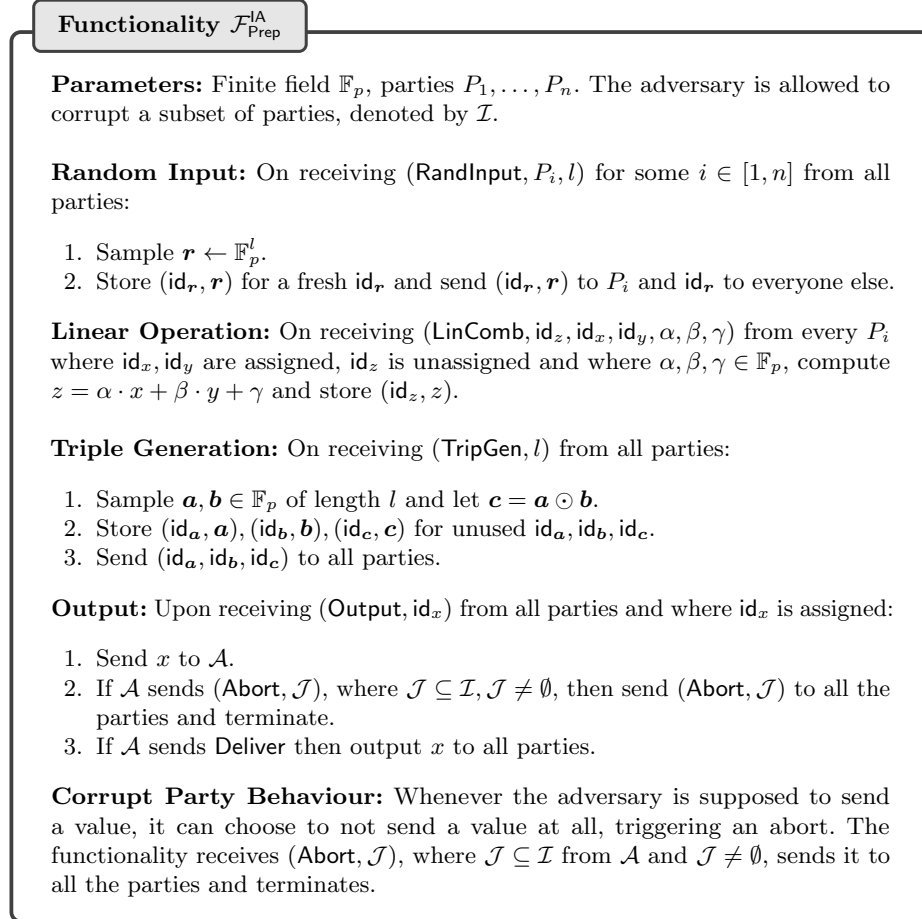


Fig. 11: Functionality for Preprocessing

In the preprocessing protocol $\Pi_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$, we will make use of n functionalities $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},1}, \dots, \mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},n}$ (as well as other functionalities), where party P_i is a sender in $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},i}$ and all other parties are receivers. The instance where P_i is the sender is referred to as P_i 's instance of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. We use the notation $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ to denote values that are additively shared and where each party P_i 's share is committed using $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},i}$ where it is the sender. For a value $\llbracket x \rrbracket$, each party P_i holds $(x^i, \text{id}_1, \dots, \text{id}_n)$, where id_i is the identifier where $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},i}$ stores the share x^i . Any linear operation

performed on $[x]$ can also be performed on the commitments, by calling `LinComb` with each $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ instance. To open $[[x]]$, each P_i calls $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},i}$ with `(Output, idi)`, for $i \in [1, n]$, and all receivers now either receive x or `(Abort, \mathcal{J})`, where \mathcal{J} indicates the set of cheating parties.

Functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Triple}}$

Parameters: Finite field \mathbb{F}_p . Parties P_1, \dots, P_n . The adversary is allowed to corrupt a subset of parties, denoted by \mathcal{I} . Denote the honest parties as \mathcal{P}_H .

Generate Triples: On receiving `(Trip, l)` from all the parties, sample a fresh set of l triples $(a_j, b_j, c_j) \in \mathbb{F}_p^3$ for $j \in [1, l]$. Output additive shares $[a_j], [b_j], [c_j]$ of the triple to each party.

Corrupt Parties: The adversary is allowed to choose its shares of the triples, as well as additive errors for the triples. If the errors are δ_a^i, δ_b^i for $i \in \mathcal{P}_H$ for a triple, the triple will now be computed as $c = a \cdot b + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}_H} (a_i \cdot \delta_b^i + b_i \cdot \delta_a^i)$.

Fig. 12: Functionality for unauthenticated triples

The preprocessing protocol is described in Fig. 13 and Fig. 14. To generate a random input towards a party, say P_i , each P_j generates a random value that is known only to it, using $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},j}$. Then, each party P_j calls $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},j}$ with `PrivOpen` to open the random value to P_i . P_i sets its random input to be the sum of all the random values it receives across the n instances of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. Since the parties only use $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ functionalities, cheater identification is trivial.

In order to generate triples, the parties start by running a triple generation protocol $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$, secure with identifiable cheating. We assume the existence of such a protocol¹⁰, which UC-securely implements the functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Triple}}$ in Fig. 12. At the end of running $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ with identifiable cheating, each party gets unauthenticated shares of the triples. These triples need to be authenticated and checked for correctness. In order to authenticate them, parties input them into their respective instances of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ using the `Input` command. Parties then run the standard triple sacrifice protocol in order to check the correctness of the triples.

Notice that there can be the following types of errors when creating triples. The triple generation protocol $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ might have an abort. The other kind of error is when $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ results in consistent shares of triples, but the adversary inputs inconsistent shares into $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. This would lead to the triple sacrifice failing. If there is an abort in $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$, parties open their random tapes using $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$ and broadcast their views from $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$. Since $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ has identifiable cheating, parties can now run the `Identify` algorithm locally on input $(\text{pk}_i, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)_{i=1}^n$ to identify a corrupt party. If there is an abort in the sacrifice check, in addition to running

¹⁰ See e.g. the highly efficient preprocessing protocol of [RS22] as a possible implementation.

Protocol $\Pi_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ (Part 1)

Parameters: Finite field \mathbb{F}_p . Parties P_1, \dots, P_n .

Initialise: Each P_i samples a random tape Rnd_i . P_i sends $(\text{Commit}, P_i, \text{Rnd}_i)$ while every other party receives P_i from $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$. Parties repeat this process with every P_i committing to its random tape. Parties also run the first step of the compiled $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{C}}$ and each party obtains the verification keys $\text{pk}_1, \dots, \text{pk}_n$.

Random Input: P_i uses the next available random input sharing id_i . If it has no random inputs left, generate a batch of l as follows:

1. Each P_j calls $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},j}$ with $(\text{Random}, \text{id}_j, l)$, while the other parties call $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},j}$ acting as receivers. P_j receives \mathbf{r}_j of length l .
2. Each P_j then calls each instance of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ with $(\text{PrivOpen}, \text{id}_j, P_i)$. P_i receives \mathbf{r}_j for $j \in [1, n]$ and sets its random input as $\mathbf{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbf{r}_j$. It considers the value of id_i as the first unused element of \mathbf{x}_i .

Linear Operation: To compute $z = \alpha \cdot x + \beta \cdot y + \gamma$, parties set $\llbracket z \rrbracket = \alpha \cdot \llbracket x \rrbracket + \beta \cdot \llbracket y \rrbracket + \gamma$.

Output: To output a value $\llbracket \mathbf{x} \rrbracket$, each party calls all instances of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ with $(\text{Output}, \text{id}_{\mathbf{x}})$.

Fig. 13: Protocol for preprocessing

Identify, they also need to check consistency of the inputs to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ to outputs of $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{C}}$. In order to do this, they call $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ with **Output** across all instances of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ and check that the inputs to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ match with the outputs of $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{C}}$. Here, any deviation allows to directly identify a cheater.

Theorem 4. *Assume that the protocol $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{C}}$ UC - securely implements $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Triple}}$ against any active adversary corrupting at most $n-1$ parties except with probability $\text{negl}(\lambda)$ and that $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{C}}$ has identifiable cheating.*

Then the protocol $\Pi_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ UC - securely implements the functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ in the presence of a malicious adversary that statically corrupts up to $n-1$ parties, in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}})$ -hybrid model, such that no environment can distinguish the simulation except with probability $1/(p-1) + \text{negl}(\lambda)$.

In the proof we construct a simulator \mathcal{S} which simulates honest parties and the ideal functionalities towards the adversary. For **Random Input** \mathcal{S} just runs the protocol, except for a malicious receiver P_i where \mathcal{S} equivocates an honest party's commitment in $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ to open to the output provided $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$. For **Output**, it does exactly the same. **Linear Operation** is entirely local, so simulation is trivial. For **Triple Generation** \mathcal{S} runs the protocol, but will always abort if the $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ instances contain values that are not consistent multiplication triples.

To show that \mathcal{S} 's output can only be distinguished from $\Pi_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ with the given probability, the main difference lies in the occurrence of aborts and the identified

Protocol $\Pi_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ (Part 2)

Triple Generation:

1. Parties run $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{C}}$ using the random tapes Rnd_i for P_i . They receive additive shares of $2l$ triples $- [a_j], [b_j], [c_j]$, for $j \in [1, 2l]$. If any party notices an abort while running $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{C}}$, then it broadcasts **Abort** and all parties go to **Abort 1**.
2. Each P_i calls $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},i}$, where it acts as the sender, with $(\text{Input}, \text{id}_{a-j}, \text{id}_{b-j}, \text{id}_{c-j}, [a_j], [b_j], [c_j])$ for $j \in [1, 2l]$. Using the identifiers, parties form $\llbracket a \rrbracket, \llbracket b \rrbracket, \llbracket c \rrbracket$.
3. Parties call $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$ to receive public random values $\mathbf{t} \in (\mathbb{F}_p^*)^l$ and a set of random combiners $\chi_1, \dots, \chi_l \in \mathbb{F}_p$.
4. For $i = 1, \dots, l$, the parties do the following (in parallel):
 - (a) For iteration i , parties select a pair of previously unused triples $(\llbracket a \rrbracket, \llbracket b \rrbracket, \llbracket c \rrbracket), (\llbracket a' \rrbracket, \llbracket b' \rrbracket, \llbracket c' \rrbracket)$.
 - (b) Compute $\llbracket \alpha \rrbracket = \llbracket t_i \cdot a + a' \rrbracket$ and $\llbracket \beta \rrbracket = \llbracket b + b' \rrbracket$. Open these values using the **Output** command of each instance of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. If any $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ instance sends **(Abort, \mathcal{J})**, parties abort with \mathcal{J} being the set of cheating parties.
 - (c) Locally compute $\llbracket d \rrbracket = t_i \cdot \llbracket c \rrbracket - \llbracket c' \rrbracket + \alpha \cdot \llbracket b \rrbracket + \beta \llbracket a' \rrbracket - \alpha \cdot \beta$ and $\llbracket \sigma \rrbracket = \sum_{i=1}^l \chi_i \cdot \llbracket d \rrbracket$.
 - (d) Open $\llbracket \sigma \rrbracket$ by calling each $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ with **Output** and check that it is 0. If $\sigma = 0$, accept $\llbracket a \rrbracket, \llbracket b \rrbracket, \llbracket c \rrbracket$ as a good triple and discard the other triple. If $\sigma \neq 0$, parties abort and go to **Abort 2**.
5. Compute $\sigma = \sum_{i=1}^l \chi_i \cdot \llbracket d_i \rrbracket$.
6. Open σ by calling each $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ with **Output**. If $\sigma = 0$, accept $\llbracket a_i \rrbracket, \llbracket b_i \rrbracket, \llbracket c_i \rrbracket$ as a good triple and discard $\llbracket a'_i \rrbracket, \llbracket b'_i \rrbracket, \llbracket c'_i \rrbracket$. If $\sigma \neq 0$, parties abort and go to **Abort 2**.

Abort 1: If there is an abort in $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{C}}$ in Step 1 of the Triple Generation,

1. Each P_i opens its commitment to Rnd_i to everyone, by sending **Open** to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$.
2. Each P_i broadcasts view_i from $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{C}}$. Then each party runs **Identify** $((\text{pk}_i, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)_{i \in [n]})$ and output as cheater whatever the algorithm outputs.

Abort 2: If there is an abort in the triple sacrifice in Step 4, parties first run the same as in **Abort 1**, and in addition, parties call all instances of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ with **Output** to open their triple shares. Parties check that the inputs of each P_i to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},i}$ matched the triple shares P_i obtained as outputs from $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{C}}$. If not, parties output **(Abort, \mathcal{J})**, where \mathcal{J} is the set of parties with inconsistent inputs to that instance of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$.

Abort 3: If there is an abort in $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$ or any instance of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$, all parties abort with **(Abort, \mathcal{J})** received from the respective functionality.

Fig. 14: Protocol for preprocessing (Triple Generation)

cheaters. The $1/(p-1)$ term comes from aborts that also happen in \mathcal{S} if $d = 0$ (while the protocol never aborts). Concerning identified cheaters, we have that **Identify** identifies no or an honest party (i.e. the wrong party) with probability at

most $\text{negl}(\lambda)$ due to the Identifiable Cheating property of $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$, while \mathcal{S} always identifies corrupt dishonest parties.

Due to space constraints, we defer the full proof of the theorem to Appendix F.

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Supplementary Material

A Additional Functionalities

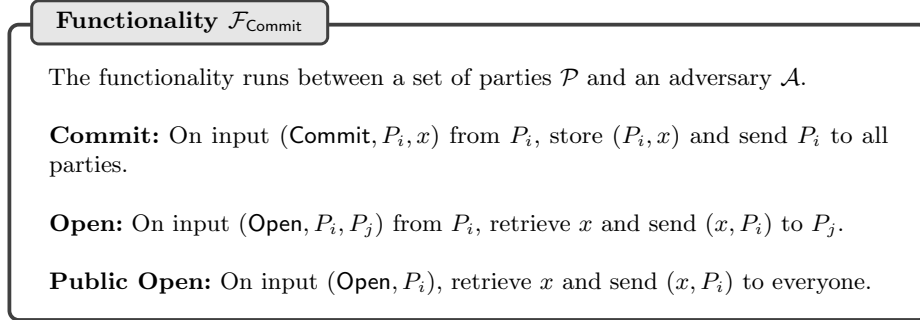


Fig. 15: Functionality for a Commitment

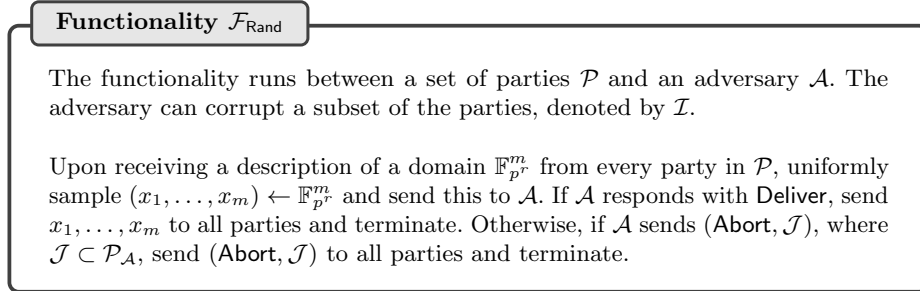


Fig. 16: Functionality for Coin Tossing with Identifiable Abort

B Efficiency Analysis

Efficiency compared with MPC with abort. To investigate the overhead of obtaining identifiable abort, we compare our protocol with the preprocessing and online phases from Le Mans [RS22], which is secure with abort. There are two ways to run the preprocessing in Le Mans. The first way, called Le Mans 1 in Table 1, is to generate what they call “partial triples”, and authenticate the triples during the online phase. Asymptotically, the preprocessing cost in this approach can have a total of $O(n^2 \log|C|)$ communication, where $|C|$ is the circuit size, when using pseudorandom correlation generators for OLE and VOLE correlations. The local computation of PCG approaches is still $O(n^2|C|)$, however. If instead, “non-silent” OLE or VOLE protocols are used, such as from

homomorphic encryption or OT, the communication would also be $O(n^2|C|)$. The online cost is $12n$ elements per party (by using the king approach). The second version of Le Mans generate the partial triples in the preprocessing, but also authenticates and checks them, costing an additional $O(n^2|C|)$ field elements, but bringing the online cost down from $12n$ to $4n$ elements per party.

Our preprocessing has the same base cost as Le Mans 1, plus an additional $2(n-1)|C|$ field elements per party, sent via point-to-point channels. When it comes to the online phase, we use the standard BDOZ online phase with authenticated triples and signatures added to the messages, which again, increases the cost by $O(n)$. Overall, our online communication cost per party is dominated by $2(n-1)|C|$ field elements, in an honest execution.

Note that an adversary can always increase the cost of our preprocessing by forcing complaint procedures to be run (by sending invalid messages). This increases our round complexity by a factor of 2, and forces the entire transcript to go via a secure broadcast channel instead of point-to-point channels. The adversary could also cause an abort at any point during the protocol, forcing parties to open their views. However, resolving an abort in our protocol is fairly cheap in terms of computation: once the parties receive the view(s), they only need to locally compute the messages that should have been sent, with no need for expensive ZK proofs.

Efficiency compared to other ID-MPC protocols. We now compare our construction to [BOS16] and [BOSS20].

In the preprocessing phase, [BOS16] requires $O(n^3)$ broadcast messages per multiplication gate because the parties need to perform $O(n^2)$ verifiable decryptions of RLWE ciphertexts. In our protocol, even in the worst case when all messages between parties are forced to be broadcast, we only need $O(n^2)$ broadcasts per multiplication. This asymptotic difference is due to the more complex information-theoretic signatures used in [BOS16], which take more work to set-up than our simple pairwise MACs. In the online phase, both [BOS16] and our protocol have $O(n^2)$ complexity.

Concretely, while it is hard to estimate costs without an implementation, we expect that our protocol will perform much faster than [BOS16]. Our protocol is designed to use Pseudo-random Correlation Generator (PCG) techniques for generating Oblivious Linear Evaluation (OLE) and Vector OLE correlations, and prior works estimate [BCG⁺20] that concretely, these have orders of magnitude less communication than homomorphic encryption-based (HE) approaches. In [BOS16], the complexity of its preprocessing requirements makes it much harder to employ practical PCG techniques instead of HE, and in particular, we do not see an easy way to avoid their asymptotic $O(n^3)$ overhead.

The protocol of [BOSS20] is incomparable to ours as it is a garbled circuit-based construction that works for Boolean circuits (with a constant-round online phase). In comparison, our construction allows the evaluation of circuits over \mathbb{F}_p for large p with a round complexity that depends on the circuit depth. Both their and our construction use homomorphic commitments during the offline phase:

[BOSS20] commits each party to its GC keys, while we let each party commit to its shares. To achieve this, [BOSS20] uses a non-interactive vector commitment while we use a VOLE-based construction. Adapting our commitments to their setting might be interesting future work.

C Online Extractability - Composition and Examples

C.1 Proof of Universal Composability

For notation, if we write $\rho \setminus \{\mathcal{F}\}$ we mean “all parts of the protocol ρ that have neither in- nor output to \mathcal{F} . We can similarly define $\rho \setminus \pi$ if π is a subprotocol used in ρ .

Proof (Proof of Lemma 1). To prove the statement, we have to construct a PPT algorithm \mathcal{E} that fulfills Definition 3 for $\rho^{\mathcal{F} \rightarrow \pi}$. We can assume that \mathcal{E}^ρ exists for the protocol ρ and \mathcal{E}^π for π , and we use these to construct \mathcal{E} .

Let $[\rho^{\mathcal{F} \rightarrow \pi}]_{\mathcal{E}}$ be the $[\cdot]_{\mathcal{E}}$ transformation applied to the protocol but for a so far unspecified \mathcal{E} . We define \mathcal{E} as follows:

- Initially run an instance of \mathcal{E}^ρ and \mathcal{E}^π . Let both manipulate the CRS functionalities for the respective protocols $\rho \setminus \pi$ and π .
- Any messages sent between one honest party and a dishonest party in $\rho \setminus \pi$ are forwarded to \mathcal{E}^ρ . If the message is sent in π then we forward it to \mathcal{E}^π .
- Any hybrid functionality in $\rho \setminus (\{\mathcal{F}\} \cup \pi)$ has its special output tape be connected to \mathcal{E}^ρ . Any wrapped hybrid functionality in π has its special output tape be connected to \mathcal{E}^π .
- Any output written on the special output tape of \mathcal{E}^π is given to \mathcal{E}^ρ as if it was coming from the special output tape of the (non-existent) wrapped \mathcal{F} .
- The special output tape of \mathcal{E} will be the special output tape of \mathcal{E}^ρ .

For criterion 1 of Definition 3, we have to show that $\rho^{\mathcal{F} \rightarrow \pi}$ and $[\rho^{\mathcal{F} \rightarrow \pi}]_{\mathcal{E}}$ are indistinguishable to any environment that does not have access to the special output tape of \mathcal{E} .

The change due to wrapping functionalities and copying messages is not visible to \mathcal{Z} as the output tapes of either $\mathcal{E}^\rho, \mathcal{E}^\pi$ are not accessible to it. The only changes are due to the changes to the CRS functionalities. By first replacing the CRS functionalities as done by \mathcal{E}^ρ and then as done by \mathcal{E}^π we get exactly the CRS functionality behavior of \mathcal{E} , and thereby indistinguishability by a hybrid argument.

For the second criterion, observe that by assumption the output tape of \mathcal{E}^π is indistinguishable from the output tape of $\hat{\mathcal{F}}$ because π is online-extractable using \mathcal{E}^π . But this in particular means that the output tape of \mathcal{E}^ρ must have the same distribution, both when using $\hat{\mathcal{F}}$ or the output of \mathcal{E}^π , as we’d otherwise have constructed a distinguisher for \mathcal{E}^π (since the only interaction that \mathcal{E}^ρ has with \mathcal{E}^π is via its output tape). But therefore \mathcal{E} must have an output tape distribution indistinguishable from $\hat{\mathcal{F}}_\rho$. \square

C.2 Online Extractability of VOLE

We show that the VOLE protocol from Wolverine [WYKW21] can be used to realise $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$ (Fig. 3), and satisfies the online extractability property for a corrupt P_A .

Wolverine was actually originally shown to realize a non-programmable VOLE functionality (where the output of an honest P_A is sampled at random by the functionality), however, as observed in [RS22], it can easily be extended to be programmable. The analysis in this section applies to both the programmable and non-programmable variants.

Single-Point VOLE. The main component of the VOLE construction is a protocol for single-point VOLE, where P_A 's vector \mathbf{u} has a single non-zero entry. This is modelled by a functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{spVOLE}}$, which is then used to build $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}$ using the LPN assumption. The latter transformation is completely non-interactive, so clearly online extractable in the $\mathcal{F}_{\text{spVOLE}}^{\text{ci}}$ -hybrid model. It remains to analyze the protocol $\Pi_{\text{spVOLE}}^{\text{ci}}$ that realizes $\mathcal{F}_{\text{spVOLE}}^{\text{ci}}$, which is significantly more complex and also uses several setup functionalities.

Setup Functionalities: \mathcal{F}_{OT} , \mathcal{F}_{EQ} and $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}$. Π_{spVOLE} uses three hybrid functionalities: oblivious transfer (\mathcal{F}_{OT}), equality testing and a smaller $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}$ functionality (which is essentially bootstrapped to the larger, more efficient one). Using Lemma 2, we can replace \mathcal{F}_{OT} by a 2-round OT protocol in the \mathcal{F}_{CRS} model, and preserve online extractability, because P_A is always the receiver in \mathcal{F}_{OT} . \mathcal{F}_{EQ} can be easily realized with a commitment functionality, as described in [WYKW21], and the resulting protocol has identifiable abort if the underlying commitment functionality does. So, there is no need to argue online extractability of \mathcal{F}_{EQ} . The initial $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}$ functionality used as setup can be realised with \mathcal{F}_{OT} using OT extension techniques [Roy22]. After analyzing Π_{spVOLE} , we argue that the setup VOLE protocol also satisfies online extractability.

Online Extractability of Single-Point VOLE. In the following, we refer to the protocol and proof of Π_{spVOLE} in Fig. 7 and Theorem 3 of [WYKW21].

Proposition 1. *The protocol for single-point VOLE in [WYKW21, Fig. 7] is online-extractable for a corrupt P_A .*

Proof. Briefly, the view of a sender in this protocol consists of the following:

- Interaction with hybrid functionalities $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}$, \mathcal{F}_{OT} and \mathcal{F}_{EQ}
- A value d sent by P_B , used to fix one of P_B 's outputs to the correct value

The proof in [WYKW21, Theorem 3] constructs a simulator \mathcal{S} for a corrupt P_A , which emulates the hybrid functionalities and produces a value d , while interacting with $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}$. The simulated d is sampled uniformly at random. To achieve online extractability, the key property we require of \mathcal{S} is that it extracts

all the inputs it sends to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}$, without modifying the output behaviour of any hybrid functionalities. By inspection of the protocol, the hybrid functionalities $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}$ and \mathcal{F}_{OT} do not send any output to the adversary, so it trivially holds that the simulator does not modify these functionalities. The simulator does emulate the \mathcal{F}_{EQ} functionality in a specific way, however, following the argument in the proof, this is identically distributed to how the functionality behaves in the real execution.

We then define a modified simulator, \mathcal{S}' , which works exactly as \mathcal{S} , except that d is now generated as an honest P_B would, according to the protocol. Following the proof of [WYKW21], this is computationally indistinguishable from the original simulation. Finally, we can now use \mathcal{S}' to build an extractor \mathcal{E} . \mathcal{E} simply runs a copy of \mathcal{S}' , taking any messages sent from the corrupt P_A (including ones to the hybrid functionalities), and forwards them to \mathcal{S}' . Whenever \mathcal{S}' calls $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}$, \mathcal{E} writes the input to its special extractor tape. The challenge is if \mathcal{E} needs to respond to \mathcal{S}' ; this occurs if \mathcal{S}' made a **Key Query** command to try and guess the honest party's secret Δ . \mathcal{E} does not know Δ , however, since it can observe the execution of the real protocol, it can still respond faithfully. Key queries are only successful if the corresponding real protocol does not abort, so \mathcal{E} can simply observe whether the protocol aborts, and either respond successfully or abort with \mathcal{S}' in the same way.

We argue that \mathcal{E} is a good online extractor, because \mathcal{S}' is a good simulator. More concretely, the executions $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}} \circ \mathcal{A}$ and $\pi \circ \mathcal{A}$ are indistinguishable, because the view of any \mathcal{Z} in $[\pi]_{\mathcal{E}}$ is identical to that produced by the simulator \mathcal{S}' in an ideal execution. Secondly, the extractor tape of \mathcal{Z} is produced exactly as \mathcal{S}' would in an ideal execution, as required.

Online Extractability of the VOLE Setup. Since Π_{spVOLE} uses a smaller VOLE functionality as setup, we need to show that this can also be implemented with online extractability. We consider the main VOLE protocol from [Roy22], which is in the \mathcal{F}_{OT} -hybrid model. In our case, the party P_A translates to the VOLE sender in [Roy22]. Most of the challenges in that security proof come from extracting the sender's input when it is corrupt; simulating the view of the adversary is actually trivial, and done exactly as in the protocol. Online extractability is therefore straightforward, as the extractor can simply run the simulator to obtain the extracted inputs.

D Homomorphic Commitment

Lemma 5 (Lemma 3, restated). *Suppose $P_S \in \mathcal{A}$ introduces errors of the form $\delta_j^i, \hat{\delta}_j^i$ with party P_i . If the Random command in Π_{HCom} (Fig. 2) succeeds, then every pair of parties (P_S, P_i) , for $i \in [1, n]$ hold a secret sharing of $l_j \cdot \Delta^i$, for $j \in [1, m+1]$. In other words, $\delta_j^i, \hat{\delta}_j^i = 0$, for every i, j except with probability $1/|\mathbb{F}|$.*

Proof. Let the seed used with party P_1 be the “correct” seed, denoted by s . If an adversary party P_S used a different seed s^i in step 2 with a party P_i , this will result in an additive error of δ_j^i in \mathbf{u}_j^S , where $\mathbf{u} = \text{Expand}(s)$, and therefore in C .

In step 4d, \mathcal{A} can add an additive error to the MAC value it sends to each P_i , let us denote the MAC by \tilde{M}_i^S and the error by e^i . Then, the following relation needs to hold in order for the adversary to pass the check with party P_i ,

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{M}_i^j &= (C + \chi \cdot \delta_j^i) \cdot \Delta^i + K_j^i \\ &= M_i^j + (\chi \cdot \delta_j^i) \cdot \Delta^i + K_j^i\end{aligned}$$

Cancelling out the terms we get, $e^i = (\chi \cdot \delta_j^i) \cdot \Delta^i$. Since the χ values are sampled after \mathcal{A} picks the errors δ^i , and \mathcal{A} does not know Δ^i for the honest parties, the values on the right of the equation are uniformly random. Therefore, the probability of \mathcal{A} guessing the correct error e^i is $1/|\mathbb{F}|$.

Theorem 5. *Protocol Π_{HCom} UC-securely realises the functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ assuming a broadcast channel in the presence of a malicious adversary that can statically corrupt up to $n - 1$ parties, in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}})$ -hybrid model.*

Proof. We have two cases of corruption. One is when the adversary corrupts the sender and some of the receivers and the other is when the adversary corrupts a set of only receivers.

For both cases, we construct a PPT Simulator (\mathcal{S}) that runs the adversary (\mathcal{A}) as a subroutine, and is given access to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$. It internally emulates the functionalities $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$ and we implicitly assume that it passes all communication between \mathcal{A} and the environment (\mathcal{Z}).

The parties controlled by the \mathcal{A} are indicated by $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ and the honest parties by $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{H}}$. The sender is denoted by P_S and receiver parties are denoted by \mathcal{P}_R . The \mathcal{S} also keeps track of a flag that is set to 0 initially, and set to 1 if the \mathcal{A} cheats in any of the steps.

Adversary corrupts a subset of receivers and P_S (Case 1). The simulation proceeds as follows:

Initialize: \mathcal{S} receives Init and emulates $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$. It receives Δ^i from P_i , where $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ and $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_R$ and stores it.

Input: \mathcal{S} receives a message d from the adversary. \mathcal{S} uses the next unused l_j that was generated in **Random** and sends $(\text{Input}, \text{id}_x, x)$, where $x = d + l_j$, to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$, and stores (id_x, x) .

Linear Operation: These are local operations. \mathcal{S} computes $z = \alpha \cdot x + \beta \cdot y + \gamma$ (also the corresponding MAC), picks a new id_z , stores $(z, \{M_i^S(z)\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{H}}})$, and sends $(\text{LinComb}, \text{id}_z, \text{id}_x, \text{id}_y, \alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$.

Random:

1. \mathcal{S} receives (Extend, s^i) from P_S for $i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{H}}$. \mathcal{S} also receives M_i^S from a corrupt P_S , for all $i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{H}}$, and stores them. If P_S sends inconsistent seeds, \mathcal{S} sets $\text{flag} = 1$. We do not simulate the case when both the sender and receiver are corrupt.

2. If $\text{flag} = 0$, \mathcal{S} sets $\mathbf{u}^S = \text{Expand}(s)$ and stores $\langle l_j \rangle = \{u_j^S, w_j^S\}$ as P_S 's shares. If $\text{flag} = 1$, \mathcal{S} arbitrarily chooses one of the seeds received and computes $\langle l_j \rangle$ with it.
3. \mathcal{S} samples $\chi_1, \dots, \chi_n \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ and sends them to \mathcal{A} to emulate $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$.
4. \mathcal{S} stores $\tilde{C}^S, \left(\tilde{M}_i^S\right)_{i \in [1, \mathcal{P}_H]}$ it receives from P_S .
5. If $\tilde{C}^S = C^S$ and $\text{flag} = 0$, send $(\text{Random}, \text{id}_l, l, P_S)$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$, along with s , where s is the seed received in step 1.
6. If $\tilde{C}^S = C^S$ and $\text{flag} = 1$, or $\tilde{C}^S \neq C^S$, send **abort** to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ and abort.

Private Opening: \mathcal{S} receives $(z, \tilde{M}_i^S(z))$, where z is a previously stored value and i is the index of the party to open to. It checks if $\tilde{M}_i^S(z) = M_i^S(z)$, since the simulator knows what the MAC on z is supposed to be. If the MACs are not consistent, it aborts.

Batch Opening: \mathcal{S} receives $(z, \tilde{M}_i^S(z))$, where z are a set of stored values, for all $i \in \mathcal{P}_H$. It checks if $\tilde{M}_i^S(z) = M_i^S(z)$, since the simulator knows what the MAC on z is supposed to be. If the MACs are not consistent, it aborts.

Output: \mathcal{S} receives $(z, \tilde{M}_i^S(z))$, where z is a previously stored value, for party P_i . It checks if $\tilde{M}_i^S(z) = M_i^S(z)$, since the simulator knows what the MAC on z is supposed to be. If the MACs are not consistent, it aborts.

We need to argue that an adversary \mathcal{A} cannot distinguish whether it interacts with Π_{HCom} or the simulator \mathcal{S} equipped with $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$. First we'll prove indistinguishability of the simulator when $P_S \in \mathcal{P}_A$ along with a subset of the receivers.

During **Initialise**, in both worlds the adversary picks its own random values Δ^i for the corrupt receivers. In **Input**, in the real world, \mathcal{A} sends a message d , which is supposed to be $x - l_j$, where l_j is unused random value generated in **Random**. In the ideal world, the adversary sends a message d and the simulator extracts the adversary's input by computing $d - l_j$ since it knows l_j , and sends it to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$. For **Random**, in the ideal world, the \mathcal{S} receives the seeds and adversary's MACs. Then the \mathcal{S} decides to abort if it received inconsistent seeds. If \mathcal{A} cheats by sending inconsistent seeds, \mathcal{S} always aborts where as in the real world the \mathcal{A} can pass the check with probability $1/p^r$, as proven in Lemma 3. Therefore, **Random** is indistinguishable except with negligible probability. In the **Output phase**, the simulator always aborts if the MAC sent by the adversary is incorrect, as it knows what the correct MAC is supposed to be. In the real world, \mathcal{A} can send an inconsistent MAC and still pass the check, if it manages to guess the honest parties' Δ values correctly, which happens with negligible probability. The argument is similar for the **Private Opening** and **Batch Opening** commands.

Adversary corrupts only a subset of receivers (Case 2). The simulation proceeds as follows:

Initialize: \mathcal{S} receives Init from \mathcal{A} and emulates $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VOLE}}^{\text{prog}}$. It receives Δ^i from P_i , where $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ and stores it. \mathcal{S} sends Init to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$.

Input: \mathcal{S} samples d uniformly, sends it to the adversary, and sends $(\text{Input}, \text{id}_x)$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$.

Linear Operation: These are local operations. \mathcal{S} computes $K_i^{\mathcal{S}}(z) = \alpha \cdot K_i^{\mathcal{S}}(x) + \beta \cdot K_i^{\mathcal{S}}(y)$ for all $i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$. It sends $(\text{LinComb}, \text{id}_z, \text{id}_x, \text{id}_y, \alpha, \beta)$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$.

Random:

1. \mathcal{S} receives Extend from P_i for $i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ and receives \mathbf{v}^i from \mathcal{A} .
2. \mathcal{S} samples $\chi_1, \dots, \chi_n \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$ and sends them to \mathcal{A} to emulate $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$.
3. \mathcal{S} picks $C^{\mathcal{S}}, (M_i^{\mathcal{S}})_{i \in [1, n]}$ such that the check in step 4e passes, and sends them to $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$.

Private Opening: \mathcal{S} sends $(\text{PrivOpen}, \text{id}_z, P_i)$ on behalf of $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ to privately open the value to P_i . It receives z from $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$, and picks $M_i^{\mathcal{S}}(z)$ such that check passes and sends it to P_i .

Output: \mathcal{S} sends $(\text{Output}, \text{id}_z)$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ to receive the output z . It computes $M_i^{\mathcal{S}}(z) = K_S^i(z) + \Delta^i \cdot z$ and then outputs $(z, M_i^{\mathcal{S}}(z))$, for all $i \in \mathcal{P}_H$.

Now we'll provide the indistinguishability argument for the case when $P_S \notin \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$. During **Initialize**, in both worlds the adversary picks its own random values Δ^i for the corrupt receivers. In **Input**, in the real world \mathcal{A} receives a random share of the senders input. In the ideal world, \mathcal{A} receives a random message d . For **Random**, in the real world \mathcal{S} sends $C^{\mathcal{S}}, (M_i^{\mathcal{S}})$. The adversary will check whether $M_i^{\mathcal{S}} = C^{\mathcal{S}} \cdot \Delta^i + K_S^i(C)$ but \mathcal{S} knows Δ^i and $K_S^i(C)$ so it can pick $C^{\mathcal{S}}, (M_i^{\mathcal{S}})$ accordingly so that the check always passes. In the **Output** (and similarly in **Private Opening** and **Batch Opening**, \mathcal{S} receives the output z from $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$ and computes the appropriate MAC which sends to \mathcal{A} .

E Proofs of Theorems 2, 3

Theorem 6 (Theorem 2, restated). *Let Π be a sender-receiver protocol that UC-securely realises a functionality \mathcal{F} with active security and dishonest majority, and supports online extractability when the sender and a subset of receivers are corrupt. Let $(\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver})$ be a EUF-CMA secure signature scheme. Then the compiled protocol $\Pi_{\text{Cmp}}^{\text{IA}}$ securely realises \mathcal{F} with active security in the CRS model, and achieves identifiable abort.*

Proof. We have two cases of corruption. In the first case, the sender and a subset of the receivers is corrupt and in the second case the sender is honest and only a subset of receivers is corrupt. For both cases, we construct a PPT Simulator (\mathcal{S}) that runs the adversary (\mathcal{A}) as a subroutine, and is given access to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$.

Functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$

Parameters: Finite field \mathbb{F}_p . The functionality runs between a sender P_S and a set of receiver parties $\mathcal{P}_R = \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$. We assume all parties have agreed upon public identifiers id_x , for each variable x used in the computation. For a vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$, we write $\text{id}_{\mathbf{x}} = (\text{id}_{x_1}, \dots, \text{id}_{x_m})$.

Inherits **Input**, **Linear Operation**, **Random**, **Output**, and **Private Opening** from $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$.

Abort Behaviour: \mathcal{A} may corrupt any subset $\mathcal{I} \subset P_S \cup \{P_R\}$. At any point in the protocol, it may send $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$, where $\mathcal{J} \neq \emptyset$ and $\mathcal{J} \subseteq \mathcal{I}$, upon which the functionality will send $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$ to all parties and aborts.

Fig. 17: Functionality for a Homomorphic Commitment with Identifiable Abort

Whenever \mathcal{A} communicates with \mathcal{F}_{CRS} , \mathcal{S} calls the extractor \mathcal{E} which picks whichever CRS it wants and \mathcal{S} forwards it to \mathcal{A} . The $\tilde{\cdot}$ (tilde) symbol is used to indicate the potentially inconsistent views received from \mathcal{A} .

The adversary \mathcal{A} corrupts a subset of receivers and P_S (Case 1). The simulation proceeds as follows.

1. \mathcal{S} receives the random tapes that \mathcal{A} picked.
2. \mathcal{S} samples $(\text{pk}_{\mathcal{H}}, \text{sk}_{\mathcal{H}})$ for the honest receivers, broadcasts $\text{pk}_{\mathcal{H}}$, and receives the corresponding $\text{pk}_{\mathcal{A}}$ from \mathcal{A} .
3. \mathcal{S} picks random tapes for the honest parties and runs the Π protocol honestly. During the execution of Π , \mathcal{S} sees all messages between the adversary and the honest parties and forwards them to \mathcal{E} who outputs \mathcal{A} 's inputs on its extractor tape. As \mathcal{E} writes on its extractor tape, \mathcal{S} forwards \mathcal{A} 's inputs to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ for all the relevant commands. Additionally:
 - \mathcal{S} adds a signature to every message it sends, as in the compiled protocol.
 - When \mathcal{S} receives $(m_{S,j}^r, \sigma_{S,j}^r)$ it verifies the signature and if the check fails, it broadcasts $(\text{Complain}, P_S)$. If P_S fails to broadcast a valid signature during **Complain**, \mathcal{S} sends (Abort, P_S) to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ and aborts.

Abort. Depending on which party aborted in the execution of Π , \mathcal{S} takes care of each case as follows.

1. Abort by an honest receiver P_i :
 - (a) \mathcal{S} broadcasts $(\text{abort}, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)$ for the honest receiver P_i who aborted.
 - (b) \mathcal{S} sends (Abort, P_S) to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ and aborts with output $\text{abort}_{\mathcal{S}}$.
2. Abort by corrupt receiver P_j :
 - (a) \mathcal{S} receives $(\text{abort}, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)$ from \mathcal{A} for some P_i .
 - (b) \mathcal{S} will run **VerifyAbort** $(\text{pk}_i, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)$ to establish if P_i aborted.
 - (c) If P_i indeed aborted, \mathcal{S} will send (Abort, P_S) to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. Else it will send (Abort, P_i) to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$.

3. Abort by corrupt sender P_S :
 - (a) \mathcal{S} receives **abort** from \mathcal{A} .
 - (b) \mathcal{S} sends (view_i, ρ_i) to \mathcal{A} for all honest P_i .
 - (c) \mathcal{A} broadcasts $(\text{view}_{S,i}, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)$ for some P_i .
 - (d) \mathcal{S} runs $\text{IA.Identify}(\text{pk}_i, \text{view}_i, \rho_i, \text{pk}_S, \text{view}_{S,i})$. If P_i aborted then send (Abort, P_S) to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. In the unusual case where P_i is also corrupt but did not abort send (Abort, P_i) to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$.

We will now prove why \mathcal{A} cannot distinguish if it is interacting with Π^{IA} or the simulator \mathcal{S} equipped with \mathcal{F}^{IA} .

In step 1, in both worlds \mathcal{A} chooses and broadcasts its own random tapes. In step 2 in both worlds \mathcal{A} receives public keys for the honest parties and broadcasts the keys that it picked. For step 3, because the honest parties have no input and their messages only depend on what the corrupt sender sends so \mathcal{S} can perfectly match those messages. In step 5 if \mathcal{A} has received a complaint message, it will broadcast $(m_{S,j}^r, \sigma_{S,j}^r)$ in both worlds. In step 6, \mathcal{A} receives an abort message in both worlds. The abort in the real world will happen if the signature check fails. Because of the security of the signature scheme the probability of \mathcal{A} fooling an honest party is negligible.

In the abort phase we have three cases:

Abort by honest receiver. In step 1(a) \mathcal{S} broadcasts $(\text{abort}, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)$. This is identically distributed to the real world, again, because \mathcal{S} ran the real protocol Π using honestly generated random tapes, and because the receivers have no input.

Abort by corrupt receiver. The simulator doesn't send anything in this case so it's straightforward to argue indistinguishability.

Abort by corrupt sender. In step 3(b) \mathcal{A} receives view_i, ρ_i and the argument is the same as in step 1(a). The only way a corrupt sender can frame an honest receiver is by producing some incriminating view but that only happens with negligible probability due to the security of the signature scheme.

Finally, we also consider the outputs of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ seen by the environment. In case of abort, we already argued above that a corrupt party will always be identified. For the non-abort outputs of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$, we rely on the online extractability property, which guarantees that the inputs to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ sent by \mathcal{S} (from the extractor tape) are indistinguishable from those in the original simulation of Π , for $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$. Therefore, the non-aborting outputs of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ are distributed the same as those in the original simulation, and indistinguishable from the real world.

The adversary \mathcal{A} corrupts only a subset of receivers (Case 2). The simulation proceeds as follows.

1. \mathcal{S} receives the random tapes that \mathcal{A} picked.
2. \mathcal{S} samples and broadcasts $(\text{pk}_{\mathcal{H}}, \text{sk}_{\mathcal{H}})$ for the honest parties and receives the corresponding $\text{pk}_{\mathcal{A}}$ from \mathcal{A} .
3. \mathcal{S} runs the simulator \mathcal{S}_{Π} :
 - (a) Whenever \mathcal{S}_{Π} sends messages to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}$, \mathcal{S} forwards these messages to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ for all the relevant commands.

- (b) When \mathcal{S} receives $(m_{i,\mathcal{S}}^r, \sigma_{i,\mathcal{S}}^r)$ it verifies the signature and if the check fails, it broadcasts $(\text{Complain}, P_i)$. If the check passes \mathcal{S} sends $(m_{i,\mathcal{S}}^r)$ to \mathcal{S}_Π .
- 4. \mathcal{A} either broadcasts $(m_{i,\mathcal{S}}^r, \sigma_{i,\mathcal{S}}^r)$ or sends nothing.
- 5. \mathcal{S} sends (Abort, P_i) to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ and aborts.

Abort. Depending on which party aborted during the execution of \mathcal{S}_Π , \mathcal{S} takes care of each case as follows.

- 1. Abort by an honest receiver P_i :
 - This will never happen since the sender is honest so we can ignore it.
- 2. Abort by a corrupt receiver P_j :
 - (a) \mathcal{S} receives $(\text{abort}, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)$ from \mathcal{A} for some P_i .
 - (b) \mathcal{S} will run $\text{VerifyAbort}(\text{pk}_i, \text{view}_i, \rho_i)$ to establish if P_i cheated. This is not really necessary.
 - (c) \mathcal{S} will send (Abort, P_i) to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ and abort.
- 3. Abort by an honest sender P_S :
 - (a) \mathcal{S} broadcasts **abort**.
 - (b) \mathcal{A} sends $\widetilde{\text{view}}_j$ and the opening to the random tape ρ_j for all corrupt parties P_j or sends nothing (in which case \mathcal{S} launches a complaint and the views need to be broadcast). If \mathcal{A} doesn't broadcast these for some party P_i , then \mathcal{S} sends abort_i to the functionality.
 - (c) \mathcal{S} runs $\text{IA.Identify}(\text{pk}_j, \text{view}_j, \rho_j, \text{pk}_S, \text{view}_{S,j})$ for all corrupt parties P_j to establish who cheated.
 - (d) \mathcal{S} broadcasts $(\text{view}_{S,j}, \text{view}_j, \rho_j)$ for the particular P_j who cheated.
 - (e) \mathcal{S} sends (Abort, P_j) to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ and aborts.

We will now prove why \mathcal{A} cannot distinguish if it is interacting with Π^{IA} or the simulator \mathcal{S} equipped with \mathcal{F}^{IA} .

In step 1, in both worlds \mathcal{A} chooses and broadcasts its own random tapes. In step 2 in both worlds \mathcal{A} receives public keys for the honest parties and broadcasts the keys that it picked. In step 3(b), we know that \mathcal{S}_Π is a good simulator for Π so the view it simulates is indistinguishable from the real world.

In the abort phase we have three cases. In 2(c) \mathcal{S} aborts with the same probability as in the real world. In step 3(d) \mathcal{S} broadcasts $(\text{view}_{S,j}, \text{view}_j, \rho_j)$. \mathcal{S} can reproduce $\text{view}_{S,j}$ because it consists only of messages received from \mathcal{A} . \square

Theorem 7 (Theorem 3, restated). *Let Π be a protocol that UC-securely realises a functionality \mathcal{F} with active security and dishonest majority. Let $(\text{Gen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Ver})$ be a EUF-CMA secure signature scheme. Then the compiled protocol Π_{Cmp} securely realises \mathcal{F} with active security in the CRS model and using broadcast, and achieves the identifiable cheating property.*

Proof. UC-Security: If Π has any calls to hybrid functionalities, they are replaced with the corresponding protocols in the CRS model. This is allowed according to the UC theorem, so it does not break security. The transformed protocol securely realises \mathcal{F} in the CRS model. The simulator \mathcal{S} for a static adversary \mathcal{A} corrupting up to $n - 1$ parties works as follows:

1. \mathcal{S} emulates the CRS by picking it according to the simulator for Π and sends it to the adversary.
2. \mathcal{S} records pk from \mathcal{A} , picks keys on behalf of the honest parties, and sends the public keys to \mathcal{A} .
3. Assume that P_i was supposed to send a message to P_j in a given round of the protocol. There can be three different kinds of communication between parties P_i, P_j :
 - (a) P_i is corrupt, but not P_j : \mathcal{S} receives a message and the corresponding signature from \mathcal{A} . If the signature does not verify, \mathcal{S} asks \mathcal{A} to broadcast the signature. If \mathcal{A} does not broadcast the signature, or if it does and the signature it broadcasted does not verify, parties abort with abort_i .
 - (b) P_i is honest, and P_j is corrupt: \mathcal{S} runs the simulator for Π to get the message m that P_i was supposed to send in the current round. \mathcal{S} signs m under the keys it picked for P_i . It sends $m, \text{Sig}(m)$ to the receiver P_j and waits for a response from \mathcal{A} . It forwards \mathcal{A} 's response to the functionality \mathcal{F} .
 - (c) Both parties are corrupt: This case is trivial to simulate.
4. Whenever \mathcal{S} is supposed to send a message to the functionality, it does whatever the simulator for Π does to compute the message to be sent and forwards it to the functionality.

Indistinguishability is straightforward to argue as the protocol messages of Π which the adversary sees (and the messages to \mathcal{F}) are identically distributed as in the regular simulation. In order to distinguish between the ideal world and the real world, one must therefore break UC security of the underlying protocol.

Identifiable cheating: Consider an adversary \mathcal{A} who wins the experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}^{\text{ic}}(\lambda)$ with some non-negligible probability. The adversary can win in one of two ways. The first is when the adversary corrupts some party and misbehaves, but Identify does not output any party as corrupt. The second is when the adversary manages to make Identify output an honest party, say P_j , as the corrupt party.

Assume it wins due to the first scenario. In this case, no parties are in conflict, meaning that none of the honest parties broadcasted a **complain** message and the Identify algorithm did not identify any party as misbehaving. Let the message that the adversary incorrectly generated be $\tilde{m}_{i,j}^l$ (according to ρ_i), and $\tilde{m}_{i,j}^l \neq m_{i,j}^l$. However, Identify always identifies a party P_i as cheater if it produces an inconsistent message. Therefore, it is a contradiction that the adversary can misbehave with an inconsistent message and not get caught by Identify .

The other case can only happen if \mathcal{A} has forged a signature of some honest party. Assume that P_i was identified as the cheater in round l . Since round l was when the party P_i was identified, all the messages until round $l - 1$ should have been consistent. This means the messages P_i sent in round l will be correct and have signatures on $(P_i || P_j || m_{i,j}^l || l)$. If \mathcal{A} can instead produce a valid signature on $(P_i || P_j || \tilde{m}_{i,j}^l || l)$ with $\tilde{m}_{i,j}^l \neq m_{i,j}^l$ then a successful \mathcal{A} can directly be used to construct an attacker on the EUF-CMA property of the signature scheme with a loss factor n in success probability as the reduction has to guess which simulated honest party to use to embed the challenge pk in.

F Proof of Theorem 4

Proof. We construct a PPT simulator \mathcal{S} that runs the adversary \mathcal{A} as a subroutine, and is given access to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$. It internally emulates the functionalities $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},1}, \dots, \mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},n}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$ and we implicitly assume that it passes all communication between \mathcal{A} and the environment \mathcal{Z} .

Parties controlled by the adversary are indicated by $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ and the honest parties are denoted by \mathcal{P}_H .

For simplicity, we specify behavior as if the adversary uses $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$ or $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$ truthfully as specified in the protocol. If any of the functionalities abort, or a dishonest party does not send a command in a round to a functionality as it was supposed in the protocol, then the simulator will simply collect the sets of corrupted parties that are identified by the hybrid functionalities as \mathcal{J} and immediately send $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ as parties would do in **Abort 3** of the protocol.

Initialise: \mathcal{A} chooses its random tape ρ_i for each dishonest party $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ and sends them to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$ which is emulated by \mathcal{S} . For each honest party $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_H$, the simulator emulates making a commitment via $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Commit}}$ to \mathcal{A} .

Random Input: Let P_i be the party to receive l inputs. If $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_H$ then the simulator just emulates running the protocol and sends $(\text{RandInput}, P_i, l)$ in the name of each dishonest party P_j to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ whenever \mathcal{A} sends PrivOpen to the respective $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},j}$. If P_i is dishonest:

1. For every $P_j \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ that sends $(\text{Random}, \text{id}_r, l)$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},j}$ send $(\text{RandInput}, P_i, l)$ in its name to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ and note the committed value as r_j . For every honest party $P_j \in \mathcal{P}_H$, simulate committing to these values via each simulated instance of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},j}$ for a randomly chosen r_j .
2. Let P_{j^*} be a designated honest party. Once \mathcal{S} obtains (id_r, r) from $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ the simulator emulates opening the random value r_j to P_i by $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},j}$ of any honest $P_j \neq P_{j^*}$ with $(\text{PrivOpen}, \text{id}_r)$. For P_{j^*} , it instead lets $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA},j^*}$ send the value $\delta = r - \sum_{j \in [n], j \neq j^*} r_j$ to P_i .

Linear Operation: These are a local operations so they need not be simulated.

Triple Generation:

1. \mathcal{S} runs $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$, which is secure with identifiable cheating, by picking dummy random tapes for each $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_H$. If an abort occurs in $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$, the simulator opens its commitment to the honest parties' random tapes and receives the opening from \mathcal{A} for its tapes. Then, \mathcal{S} sends $\{\text{view}_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}_H}$ for each honest party to \mathcal{A} and receives $\{\text{view}_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}}$ for all the parties \mathcal{A} controls. It runs the Identify algorithm with input $(\text{pk}_1, \dots, \text{pk}_n, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_n, \text{view}_1, \dots, \text{view}_n)$.

- If **Identify** only identifies dishonest parties \mathcal{J} , then \mathcal{S} sends $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ and terminates. If **Identify** outputs \perp or also an honest party, then \mathcal{S} sends $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}})$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ and terminates.
2. \mathcal{S} emulates each instance of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ by receiving \mathcal{A} 's shares of the triples it obtains from $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ and storing them, and also consistently inputting its own shares into $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ instances consistent with the outputs it obtained from $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$.
 3. \mathcal{S} emulates $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Rand}}$ by picking a random value t and random combiners χ_1, \dots, χ_l , and sending them to \mathcal{A} .
 4. \mathcal{S} receives commands to each $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ from \mathcal{A} needed to compute $\llbracket t \cdot a - a' \rrbracket$ and $\llbracket b - b' \rrbracket$ for each triple. It honestly computes the corresponding shares for the honest parties. \mathcal{S} then opens its shares via **Output** to \mathcal{A} to open $t \cdot a - a'$ and $b - b'$ and waits for \mathcal{A} to open its shares.
 5. \mathcal{S} honestly computes $\llbracket \sigma \rrbracket$ for the honest parties and sends the shares to \mathcal{A} via the opening of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. It receives \mathcal{A} 's shares of $\llbracket \sigma \rrbracket$ and checks if $\sigma = 0$.
 - (a) If $d = 0$ and all multiplication triples are consistent, then \mathcal{S} sends $(\text{TripGen}, l)$ in the name of each dishonest party to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$.
 - (b) If $d = 0$ but there are inconsistent multiplication triples committed to, then \mathcal{S} simply sends $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}})$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ and aborts.
 - (c) If $d \neq 0$, \mathcal{S} broadcasts an **Abort**, opens the honest parties' random tape commitments as well as all triple shares it has committed to via $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. Then, it waits to receive \mathcal{A} 's openings of its random tape commitments and triple share commitments via $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$. \mathcal{S} then broadcasts $\{\text{view}_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}_H}$ and waits for the \mathcal{A} 's views $\{\text{view}_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}}$. Using all the views and the random tapes, \mathcal{S} can now run the **Identify** algorithm as in the protocol. As above, if **Identify** identifies dishonest parties \mathcal{J} , then \mathcal{S} sends $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ and terminates. If **Identify** outputs \perp or also an honest party, then \mathcal{S} sends $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}})$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ and terminates. If no cheaters are detected in $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$, \mathcal{S} checks if the $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ output shares that \mathcal{A} opened via $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ are consistent with the shares $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ generated. If \mathcal{S} then identifies parties where these are different, then it sends $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$, where \mathcal{J} is the set of parties with inconsistent triple commitments. If no such party could be identified, then \mathcal{S} sends $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}})$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$.

Output: On receiving $(\text{Output}, \text{id}_x)$ from $P_i \in \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}, i}$, the simulator forwards the message to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$, from which it gets the value x . \mathcal{S} knows \mathcal{A} 's shares of the output as they are committed in $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}, i}$, so it picks shares for one honest party P_{j^*} (as in the input phase) such that they add up to x and makes $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}, j^*}$ output the correct share to $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$.

Indistinguishability: We argue that no computationally bounded environment can distinguish between the real world and ideal world executions, except with probability $1/p + \text{negl}(\lambda)$.

For all operations except **Triple Generation**, it is trivial to see that simulation and real protocol are perfectly indistinguishable in its abort behavior and

in terms of consistency as \mathcal{S} does the same as **Abort 3** and each hybrid functionality only identifies dishonest parties as cheaters. We can therefore focus on **Triple Generation**.

First we look at the part running $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ or where it may abort. In the ideal world, if we have an abort during $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ then the simulator will always abort with dishonest parties only. In the real world, the algorithm **Identify** may identify no cheater at all or even an honest party. But since $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ has the identifiable cheating property, by Definition 6 this can only occur with probability $\text{negl}(\lambda)$.

In the ideal world, the simulation of the triple check always aborts if a committed triple is incorrect (i.e. even if $d = 0$). In the real protocol, this may not be the case. By a standard argument (see e.g. [LN17, Lemma 3.5]), the probability of this event happening to allow distinguishability is $1/(p - 1)$.

Next, consider the case where $d \neq 0$ and the triple check turns to cheater identification. There, if **Identify** identifies an honest party then this is distinguishable between real and ideal world as \mathcal{S} always aborts in the ideal world, but this can happen with only with probability $\text{negl}(\lambda)$. The other abort that can happen is if no cheater is identified from running **Identify** on $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ and from the opening of all $\mathcal{F}_{\text{HCom}}^{\text{IA}}$ instances, i.e. each party consistently committed to the outputs of $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$, but these did not form consistent multiplication triples. In this case, \mathcal{S} always aborts with $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{A}}$ in the ideal world. In the real world, since $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ UC-securely implements $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Triple}}$, and each party acted honestly during $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ (except with probability $\text{negl}(\lambda)$ as otherwise **Identify** would have identified the party deviating from the protocol as having cheated by the Identifiable Cheating of $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$), the outputs of $\Pi_{\text{Trip}}^{\text{IC}}$ in case of no abort must be valid multiplication triples except with probability $\text{negl}(\lambda)$ by assumption. \square

G Online Phase Protocol

In Fig. 19, we present the protocol $\Pi_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$ for the online phase with identifiable abort and prove its security. More formally:

Theorem 8. *The protocol $\Pi_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$ UC-securely implements the functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$ in the $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ -hybrid model and using a broadcast channel with perfect security against any active attacker corrupting at most $n - 1$ of the n parties.*

Proof. We only sketch the simulator here, as it directly follows from the observations above. For it, observe that the simulator simulates the hybrid functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$. If $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ aborts at any point or the adversary does not send any messages, then \mathcal{S} identifies the cheaters the same way as in the real protocol.

During **Input** for a dishonest P_i we extract the adversarial input x by observing the difference between the privately opened value r from $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ and the broadcast δ , which is then input in the name of P_i to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$. For an honest P_i , we simply broadcast a uniformly random δ .

Functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$

Parameters: Finite field \mathbb{F}_p , parties P_1, \dots, P_n . The adversary is allowed to corrupt a subset of parties, denoted by \mathcal{I} . The computation happens over \mathbb{F}_p .

Input: On receiving $(\text{Input}, P_i, \text{id}_x, x)$ from P_i and $(\text{Input}, P_i, \text{id}_x)$ from all other parties:

1. Store (id_x, x) .
2. Send $(\text{Stored}, \text{id}_x)$ to every party.

Linear Operation: On receiving $(\text{LinComb}, \text{id}_z, \text{id}_x, \text{id}_y, \alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ from every P_i where id_x, id_y are assigned, id_z is unassigned and where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{F}_p$, compute $z = \alpha \cdot x + \beta \cdot y + \gamma$ and store (id_z, z) .

Multiplication: On receiving $(\text{Mult}, \text{id}_z, \text{id}_x, \text{id}_y)$ from all parties where id_x, id_y have been assigned and id_z is unassigned:

1. Store $(\text{id}_z, x \cdot y)$.
2. Send $(\text{Multiplied}, \text{id}_z)$ to all parties.

Output: Upon receiving $(\text{Output}, \text{id}_x)$ from all parties and where id_x is assigned:

1. Send x to \mathcal{A} .
2. If \mathcal{A} sends $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$, where $\mathcal{J} \subseteq \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{J} \neq \emptyset$, then send $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$ to all the parties and terminate.
3. If \mathcal{A} sends Deliver then output x to all parties.

Corrupt Party Behaviour: Whenever the adversary is supposed to send a value, it can choose to not send a value at all, triggering an abort. The functionality receives $(\text{Abort}, \mathcal{J})$, where $\mathcal{J} \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ from \mathcal{A} and $\mathcal{J} \neq \emptyset$, sends it to all the parties and terminates.

Fig. 18: Functionality for MPC

No messages are sent during **Linear Operation**. For **Multiplication**, the simulator follows the protocol but lets $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ open uniformly random values for α, β .

During **Output** the simulator first obtains the output x from $\mathcal{F}_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$. It then makes $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ output x as well, and any abort is forwarded to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$.

To see that the simulation is perfect, observe that the value δ in the real protocol is uniformly random as the uniformly random r has been used to compute it, while it is also uniformly random in the ideal world. The same argument can be made for α and β , which are also perfectly indistinguishable. For **Output** we also have perfect indistinguishability as $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ outputs the same correct value in the simulation and the real protocol. As no honest party is ever detected as cheater in $\Pi_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$ by definition and $\mathcal{F}_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$ outputs the exact same aborting parties as $\Pi_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$, the statement follows. \square

Protocol $\Pi_{\text{MPC}}^{\text{IA}}$

Parameters: Finite field \mathbb{F}_p , parties P_1, \dots, P_n . The adversary is allowed to corrupt a subset of parties, denoted by \mathcal{L} . The computation happens over \mathbb{F}_p . We let l be a fixed constant for amortization.

The parties have access to a broadcast channel and an instance of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$. If at any point $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ outputs **(Abort, \mathcal{J})** or a set of parties \mathcal{J} did not send their expected messages via the broadcast channel, then all parties abort with set \mathcal{J} .

Input: Party P_i wants to input $x \in \mathbb{F}_p$ for an unused id_x :

1. All parties check if there is an unused output of **RandInput** for party P_i . If so, then let id_r be the identifier of that output. If not, then all parties send **(RandInput, P_i, l)** to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ such that they get l identifiers. Then, let id_r be the first such fresh identifier.
2. P_i finds the value $r \in \mathbb{F}_p$ associated to id_r .
3. P_i broadcasts $\delta = x - r$.
4. Upon receiving δ , all parties send **(LinComb, $\text{id}_x, \text{id}_r, \perp, 1, 0, \delta$)** to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$.
5. All parties consider the random value id_r as used.

Linear Operation: The parties directly forward the respective message to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$.

Multiplication: To multiply two values represented by id_x, id_y obtaining a new value represented by id_z that so far is unassigned, the parties do the following:

1. The parties check if there is an unused triple generated by **TripleGen** of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$. If yes, then let $\text{id}_a, \text{id}_b, \text{id}_c$ be the identifiers of that triple. If not, then all parties send **(TripleGen, l)** to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$, wait for the outputs and use the first fresh triple $\text{id}_a, \text{id}_b, \text{id}_c$.
2. Each party sends **(LinComp, $\text{id}_\alpha, \text{id}_x, \text{id}_a, 1, -1, 0$)** and **(LinComp, $\text{id}_\beta, \text{id}_y, \text{id}_b, 1, -1, 0$)** to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$.
3. Each party sends **(Output, id_α)** and **(Output, id_β)** to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$, publicly reconstructing α, β .
4. Each party locally computes $\gamma = \alpha \cdot \beta$ and sends **(LinComb, $\text{id}_f, \text{id}_a, \text{id}_b, \beta, \alpha, -\gamma$)** as well as **(LinComb, $\text{id}_z, \text{id}_f, \text{id}_c, 1, 1, 0$)** to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$.
5. All parties consider the triple $\text{id}_a, \text{id}_b, \text{id}_c$ as used.

Output: To reveal a value id_x that is defined, the parties send **(Output, id_x)** to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{Prep}}^{\text{IA}}$ and obtain the value x .

Fig. 19: Online phase for MPC with Identifiable Abort