

Publicly Verifiable Covert Computation with Staged Judgement

Abstract

Here we provide a formal proof of security for our PVC protocol.

Simulation for corrupted P_2 . We construct a simulator \mathcal{S} for a corrupted P_2 and prove that the simulator produces a transcript indistinguishable from an adversary running the real protocol. Let \mathcal{A} be a PPT malicious adversary corrupting P_2 . We construct a simulator \mathcal{S} as follows:

1. \mathcal{S} acts like P_1 in Step 1 to Step 3.
2. In Step 4a, \mathcal{S} receives \mathcal{A} 's inputs to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{SignedOT}}^\Pi$ and proceeds as follows. If \mathcal{A} 's input is abort_2 , then \mathcal{S} sends abort_2 to the trusted party, outputs whatever \mathcal{A} outputs. Otherwise, \mathcal{S} receives $(\mathbf{t}^i, \mathbf{v}^i)$ from \mathcal{A} , and \mathbf{u}^i as well. If the checks in Step 4c pass, \mathcal{S} extracts \mathbf{r}' by computing $\mathbf{u}^i \oplus \mathbf{t}^i \oplus \mathbf{v}^i$. Otherwise, \mathcal{S} sends abort_2 to the trusted party, and outputs whatever \mathcal{A} outputs.
3. \mathcal{S} parses $\mathbf{r}' = \mathbf{x}_2 \parallel \phi$ and sends x_2 to the trusted party, receiving back output y_2 .
4. \mathcal{S} acts as P_1 in Step 4d.
5. \mathcal{S} chooses $\rho \leftarrow [\lambda]$. For $j \in [\lambda] \setminus \{\rho\}$, \mathcal{S} acts like P_1 in Step 5. For $j \in \rho$, \mathcal{S} computes $GC_\rho \leftarrow \mathcal{S}_{GC}(1^\kappa, y_2, \phi(C))$, where \mathcal{S}_{GC} is a garbled circuit simulator, taking as input the security parameter 1^κ , an output bitstring \mathbf{y} , and circuit leakage $\phi(C)$. \mathcal{S} then acts like P_1 in Step 6 to 7.
6. \mathcal{S} receives \mathcal{A} 's input γ to $\binom{\lambda}{1}\text{-}\mathcal{F}_{\text{SignedOT}}^\Pi$ and proceeds as follows:
 - (a) If \mathcal{A} 's input is abort_2 , then \mathcal{S} sends abort_2 to the trusted party, and outputs whatever \mathcal{A} outputs.
 - (b) If the input is a choice bit γ , \mathcal{S} does the following. If $\gamma \neq \rho$, \mathcal{S} rewinds to Step 5 above, unless \mathcal{S} has rewound $\kappa\lambda$ times, in which case it halts. otherwise, \mathcal{S} inputs $(\{\delta_i, \text{seed}_i\}_{i \in [\lambda] \setminus j}, \mathbf{k}_{\omega_i, x_1[i]}^j)_{i \in [L]}$ as the j th input to $\binom{\lambda}{1}\text{-}\mathcal{F}_{\text{SignedOT}}^\Pi$, and then proceeds as an honest P_1 would.
 - (c) \mathcal{S} acts like P_1 for the rest of the protocol, and outputs whatever \mathcal{A} outputs.

The proof that \mathcal{S} correctly simulates a malicious P_2 is similar to the proof by Aumann *et al.* Aumann and Lindell (2007) and Kolesnikov *et al.* Kolesnikov and Malozemoff (2015). We just give a sketch here due to page limit.

Non-halting detection accuracy. We claim that Π_{PVC} is non-halting detection accurate in the sense that for an honest party P_1 and a fail-stop party P_2 , the probability that P_1 outputs corrupted_1 is negligible. Note that the output of the honest P_1 is corrupted_1 only if it has

received invalid circuits, invalid wire labels, or detected selective OT attack. However, P_1 must cheat actively in order that the above will happen. Due to the security of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{SignedOT}}^\Pi$ and $\binom{\lambda}{1}\text{-}\mathcal{F}_{\text{SignedOT}}^\Pi$, the adversary corrupting P_1 cannot know the challenges of P_2 . Therefore, the adversary cannot abort as a consequence of being detected cheating.

Simulatability with ϵ -deterrent for corrupted P_1 . Let \mathcal{A} be a PPT covert adversary corrupting P_1 . We construct a simulator \mathcal{S} as follows:

1. \mathcal{S} acts as P_2 up through Step 3;
2. In Step 4, \mathcal{S} receives \mathcal{A} 's inputs to $\mathcal{F}_{\text{SignedOT}}^\Pi$ and proceeds as follows:
 - (a) If \mathcal{A} inputs abort_1 in any iteration, \mathcal{S} sends abort_1 to the trusted party, and outputs whatever \mathcal{A} outputs.
 - (b) Otherwise, \mathcal{S} obtains \mathbf{s} , and acts as P_1 in Step 4a to 4c.
 - (c) \mathcal{S} receives $\mathbf{y}_{\omega_{\ell+j},0}^i, \mathbf{y}_{\omega_{\ell+j},1}^i$ and the signatures of them from \mathcal{A} . If any signature is invalid, \mathcal{S} sends abort_1 to the trusted party, and outputs whatever \mathcal{A} outputs. Otherwise, \mathcal{S} obtains $\mathbf{k}_{\omega_{\ell+j},0}^i$ and $\mathbf{k}_{\omega_{\ell+j},1}^i$ by computing

$$\mathbf{k}_{\omega_{\ell+j},r_j}^i = \mathbf{y}_{\omega_{\ell+j},r_j}^i \oplus H(j, \mathbf{t}_j),$$

$$\mathbf{k}_{\omega_{\ell+j},1-r_j}^i = \mathbf{y}_{\omega_{\ell+j},1-r_j}^i \oplus H(j, \mathbf{t}_j \oplus \mathbf{s}).$$

3. \mathcal{S} acts as P_2 through Step 7.
4. In Step 8, \mathcal{S} receives \mathcal{A} 's input to $\binom{\lambda}{1}\text{-}\mathcal{F}_{\text{SignedOT}}^\Pi$ and proceeds as follows:
 - (a) If \mathcal{A} 's input is abort_1 , then \mathcal{S} sends to abort_1 to the trusted party, and outputs whatever \mathcal{A} outputs.
 - (b) Otherwise, \mathcal{S} parses the input as λ tuples, where the j th tuple is constructed as $(\{\delta_i, \text{seed}_i\}_{i \in [\lambda] \setminus \{\gamma\}}, \mathbf{k}_{\omega_i, x_1[i]}^j)_{i \in [\ell]}$.
5. For $\gamma \in [\lambda]$, \mathcal{S} sends γ to $\binom{\lambda}{1}\text{-}\mathcal{F}_{\text{SignedOT}}^\Pi$, receiving back

$$\left((\gamma, (\{\delta_i, \text{seed}_i\}_{i \in [\lambda] \setminus \{\gamma\}}, \mathbf{k}_{\omega_i, x_1[i]}^j)_{i \in [\ell]}), \sigma \right).$$

If σ is not a valid signature, \mathcal{S} aborts as an honest P_2 would, outputting whatever \mathcal{A} outputs. Otherwise, \mathcal{S} rewinds to before it sent γ to $\binom{\lambda}{1}\text{-}\mathcal{F}_{\text{SignedOT}}^\Pi$ and receives back the appropriate output. A detailed description of this process is shown in Kolesnikov and Malozemoff (2015).

6. \mathcal{S} acts as P_2 in Steps 9 through 13.
7. \mathcal{S} uses the circuit openings retrieved during the rewinding to open the circuit GC_γ and extract \mathcal{A} 's input \mathbf{x}'_1 . \mathcal{S} then sends \mathbf{x}'_1 to the trusted party, and outputs whatever \mathcal{A} outputs.

The proof that \mathcal{S} correctly simulates a covert P_1 follows closely to the proof by Aumann *et al.* Aumann and Lindell (2007) and Kolesnikov *et al.* Kolesnikov and Malozemoff (2015), and thus we do not repeat it here.

Accountability. We need to show that for every PPT adversary \mathcal{A} corrupting party P_1 the following holds:

If $\text{OUTPUT}(\text{EXEC}_{\pi, \mathcal{A}(z), 1}(x_1, x_2; 1^n)) = \text{corrupted}_1$, then

$$\Pr[\text{PreJudge}(\text{Cert}) = \text{id}_1] > 1 - \mu(n),$$

where Cert is the output certificate of P_2 invoking the Blame algorithm in the execution. This follows from the description of the protocol π and the Blame, PreJudge, Appeal, Judge algorithms. There are two cases to consider.

- An adversarial P_1 deviates from protocol description and does not invoke the Appeal algorithm after receiving Cert from P_2 . The adversary who constructs one faulty circuit must decide before the oblivious transfer in Step 8 if it wished to abort, or if it wishes to proceed. Note that due to the security of the oblivious transfer, P_1 cannot know what value γ party P_2 inputs to $\binom{A}{1}\text{-}\mathcal{F}_{\text{SignedOT}}^\Pi$, and so cannot avoid being detected. Once the honest party outputs the certificate, it contains all the necessary information that caused the party to decide on the corruption. The verification algorithm PreJudge performs exactly the same check as the honest party, and so accountability holds.
- An adversarial P_1 deviates from protocol description and *invokes* the Appeal algorithm after receiving Cert from P_2 . Denote the output certificate of the Appeal algorithm as Cert^* . In this case, the Judge algorithm is invoked with inputs Cert and Cert^* . Note that the adversary cannot provide a valid certificate in this case, and the Judge algorithm will give the same output with the PreJudge algorithm. Therefore, accountability also holds in the case where the Appeal algorithm is invoked by an adversarial P_1 .

Defamation-Free. We need to show that for every PPT adversary \mathcal{A} controlling $i^* \in \{1, 2\}$ and interacting with the honest party, there exists a negligible function $\mu(\cdot)$ such that for all sufficiently large $x_1, x_2, z \in (\{0, 1\}^*)^3$:

$$\Pr[\text{Cert}^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}; \text{PreJudge}(\text{Cert}^*) = \text{id}_1 \wedge \text{Judge}(\text{Cert}^*, \text{Cert}) = \text{id}_1] < \mu(n)$$

or

$$\Pr[\text{Cert}^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}; \text{PreJudge}(\text{Cert}) = \text{id}_1 \wedge \text{Judge}(\text{Cert}, \text{Cert}^*) = \text{id}_2] < \mu(n)$$

There are two cases to consider.

- The first case is that an adversarial P_2 succeeded in defaming an honest P_1 in the PreJudge algorithm. This could only happen when $\text{key} = \text{SelectiveOTattack}$. In this case, an honest P_1 can obtain some evidence of P_2 cheating by comparing some information about P_2 's corrupted input matrix during signed-OT phase in Cert with the original correct input recovered from personal input and P_2 's one bit private input included in Cert . Therefore, by invoking the Appeal algorithm, P_1 can generate a valid certificate and prove that P_2 has cheated in the PreJudge algorithm.
- The second case is that an honest P_2 obtains a valid certificate in Π_{PVC} , submits it to the PreJudge algorithm, and successfully caught an adversarial P_1 . The adversary corrupting P_1 could invoke the Appeal algorithm when $\text{key} = \text{SelectiveOTattack}$, and generates a

certificate $Cert^*$. This certificate, however, will not pass the checks in the Judge algorithm, unless the adversary can forge a signature. That is, if the adversary produces a certificate that passes the verification, it must have forged one of the messages.

This completes our proof. ■

References

- Aumann, Y., Lindell, Y., 2007. Security against covert adversaries: Efficient protocols for realistic adversaries, in: Theory of Cryptography Conference, Springer. pp. 137–156.
- Kolesnikov, V., Malozemoff, A.J., 2015. Public verifiability in the covert model (almost) for free, in: International Conference on the Theory and Application of Cryptology and Information Security, Springer. pp. 210–235.