# DATA PRIVACY AND SECURITY

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## **CHAPTER 8:** Multi-Party **Computation**





#### **MPC** Protocols

- Multi-Party Computation (MPC): Protocols where the players do not trust each other
- Yet they want to achieve a common goal - Typically, expressed as a function on the parties' **secret inputs** (say # of players = n)



#### **Example: The Millionaires' Problem**



$$f(x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } x_1 > x_2 \\ 0 \text{ if } x_2 \ge x_1 \end{cases}$$



#### Example: Coin Tossing



$$y = \begin{cases} 0 \text{ w. p. } 1/2 \\ 1 \text{ w. p. } 1/2 \end{cases}$$





#### **Example: Secure Dating**





#### **Possible Applications**

- Cloud computing
- Digital auctions
- Online gambling (poker)
- Electronic voting

But do such protocols exist?





#### **Ideal and Real World**

• Trivial assuming a trusted third party





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#### **Every Function can be Computed Securely**



**Every** trusted party can be "simulated" in a secure manner (under some assumptions)



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#### Security Requirements (1/4)

- Consider a secure auction with secret bids
- Attacker may wish to learn the bids

Require privacy of inputs

- Attacker may wish to win using a bid lower than the highest
  - Require **correctness** of the output

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#### Security Requirements (2/4)

- Attacker may wish to ensure his bid is always the highest
  - Require independence of inputs
- Attacker may wish to abort the protocol if he is not the winner

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– Require fairness

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#### Security Requirements (3/4)

- **Privacy:** Only the output is revealed
- <u>Correctness</u>: The desidered function is computed correctly
- Independence of inputs: Parties can't choose inputs based on other parties' inputs

#### Security Requirements (4/4)

- Fairness: If one party receives the output, all parties receive the output
- Guaranteed output delivery: Corrupted parties can't prevent honest parties to receive the output



### **Defining Security (1/2)**

- First option: Define specific properties for each scenario
  - Auctions: As in previous slide
  - Elections: Only privacy, correctness and fairness
- Problem:

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- How do we know all possible concerns are covered?
- Definitions are application dependent and need to be redefined from scratch for each task



### **Defining Security (2/2)**

- Second option: Have a general definition that works for all possible scenarios
  - Need well-defined adversarial model and execution setting
  - Security guarantees are **simple** to understand



#### On the Power of the Adversary

- The adversary can **corrupt** a subset of players
  - Threshold adversary: Corrupts t < n players
  - Monolithic adversary: Single adversary corrupting all parties
- Semi-honest vs. malicious
  - Semi-honest: Follows the protocol
  - Malicious: Behaves arbitrarily
- Non-adaptive vs. adaptive
  - Non-adaptive: Identity of corrupted parties fixed
    before the protocol starts



#### **Execution Setting**

- Standalone execution
  - Consider only a **single** execution
  - Allows for **sequential composition**
- Concurrent and universal composition
  - <u>Concurrent</u>: Different instances of the same protocol are run concurrently
  - <u>Universal</u>: Arbitrary protocols are executed concurrently
- Universal composability is the true goal
  - Allows for arbitrary composition



#### **Security by Simulation**



- Given input and output can generate the adversary's view
- Inputs are well defined (semi-honest case)



#### **Properties**

- Correctness, independence of inputs, fairness not a concern in the semi-honest model
- What about privacy?
  - The attacker's view can be generated given only the input and output
  - So whatever the adversary has learned he could have also learned by talking to the simulator, which does not know the honest party's input
  - Without even running the protocol!





- First attempt: Require the existence of a simulator as before
  - The simulator should simulate the attacker's view given the input/output for the malicious party
- Problem: What is the input used by the adversary?
  - In fact, the input might not even exist!
- Moreover, independence of inputs, correctness, and fairness are not implied by the ability to simulate the adversary's view



#### **Trusted Third Parties**

- Best option: An **incorruptible** trusted party
  - All players send their inputs to the trusted party
  - The trusted party computes the outputs and gives them to the players
  - In this sense, this is an ideal world
- What can the adversary do?
  - Only change its input
- Security now says that an execution of the real protocol should be like in the ideal world



#### The Real/Ideal Paradigm





#### **Properties**

- All properties are satisfied in the ideal world
  - Privacy: As before

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- <u>Correctness</u>: Because honest parties get the correct output
- Independence of inputs: Because the simulator does not know the honest party's input
- <u>Fairness</u>: Because the honest party always receives the output
- Guaranteed output delivery: Same as fairness



#### **Sequential Composition**

- Secure protocols run sequentially, with arbitrary messages in between
- Why is this interesting?
  Helpful tool for analyzing security of protocols
- Formalization: The **hybrid model** 
  - Replace each protocol with the corresponding ideal functionality
  - Real messages (exchanged by the parties)
  - Ideal messages (sent to the ideal functionalities)



#### **Universal Composability**

- Sequential composition does not model settings (like, e.g., the Internet) where protocols are run concurrently
  - With different instances of the same protocol and other protocols
- Universal composability captures this
  - R. Canetti. "Universally Composable Security: A New Paradigm for Cryptographic Protocols". 2001



### **Coin Tossing**

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#### How to Realize Coin Tossing?



- But the bits should be sent at the same time
  Otherwise parties can easily cheat
  - Seems hard to realize this in the internet





#### **Solution Using Bit Commitments**



- Digital commitment satisfies two properties
  - Binding: Alice cannot commit to b and later open the commitment to  $b' \neq b$
  - <u>Hiding</u>: The commitment hides *b*



#### **Hash-Based Commitments**

- Hash function **H** (modeled as random oracle)
  In practice, could be SHA-256
- To commit to  $b \in \{0,1\}$ , pick random  $r \in \{0,1\}^k$  and output  $\mathbf{H}(b||r)$
- To open *b*, send (*b*, *r*)

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- <u>Hiding</u>: The function's outputs look random
- Binding: Finding  $(0, r_0)$  and  $(1, r_1)$  such that  $\mathbf{H}(0||r_0) = \mathbf{H}(0||r_1)$  is hard



#### **The Limitations**

 Lack of fairness when there is no honest majority (see following slides)

Partial remedies exist

- No way to force parties to use true inputs and to respect the outcome
- We can deal with these problems using Bitcoin!
  - M. Andrychowicz, S. Dziembowski, D. Malinowski,
    L. Mazurek. "Secure Multiparty Computations on Bitcoin." 2014



#### **Problem 1**



• Lack of fairness

- Alice can refuse to open the commitment

Inherent issue in most of the interesting MPC protocols

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#### **Security with Aborts**



- The simulator can abort either at the beginning, or after seeing the output (before the honest party)
- This yields a weaker notion known as security with aborts



#### Problem 2



- This is the problem of forcing the parties to respect the output
- Inherent even in the ideal world specification



#### Main Idea

Commit to *b*<sub>1</sub>

Commits to bit  $b_1$ 

#### **Transaction "commit":**

• Has value 1 BTC

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• Can be redeemed by Alice

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Claiming the transaction requires revealing b<sub>1</sub>

If Alice **didn't redeem** "commit", I can do it after one day!

 $b_2$ 





#### How to do it?

- Using the Bitcoin scripting language
- Hash-locked transactions
  - Let **H** be a hash function and  $Y = \mathbf{H}(X)$
  - A Y-hash-locked transaction can be redeemed only by publishing X (in our case  $X = (b_1, r)$ )

$T_2 =$	<i>T</i> <sub>1</sub>	1 BTC	Can be spent using Bob's signature and X such that $Y = \mathbf{H}(X)$	Alice's signature
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# Alice's Commitment





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# **Solving the Fairness Issue**



- If Alice does not open the commitment within one day, Bob can get 1BTC by posting the "refund" transaction
- Otherwise Alice gets her 1 BTC back



#### **A Commitment Contract in Ethereum**





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# **Final Result**

- Any two-party stateless functionality can be simulated in this way
- The simulation enforces financial consequences
- Generalization to multi-party reactive functionalities by Kumaresan, Moran, Bentov
- Example: Selling secret information
  - Set union plus a money transfer between Alice and Bob for each new element that they learned





# Zero Knowledge





# **Motivating Example: ID Schemes**



- Protocol is not deniable: Signature is a proof that someone has talked to the prover
- Can we have a protocol where the verifier does not learn anything?



#### **Interactive Proofs**



- <u>Completeness</u>: Honest prover always convinces the verifier
- Soundness: No malicious prover can convince the verifier in case  $x \notin L$



#### **The Schnorr Protocol**



- **Completeness:**  $g^{\gamma} = g^{\beta \cdot w + a} = g^a \cdot (g^w)^{\beta}$
- <u>Soundness</u>: Follows from the DL assumption
- Honest-Verifier Zero-Knowledge: Pick random  $\beta, \gamma$  such that  $\alpha = g^{\gamma} \cdot x^{-\beta}$



# What Can be Proven in Zero Knowledge?

- Assuming OWFs exist every language in NP!
  - O. Goldreich, S. Micali, A. Widgerson. "Proofs that yield nothing but their validity." 1986
- The above is achieved by showing a zeroknowledge proof for an NP-complete language
  - E.g., 3-coloring or graph Hamiltonicity

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#### Zero Knowledge from FHE



• Let  $L \in NP$  with relation R

- Consider the circuit  $f_{R,x}(w) = R(x, w)$ 

- The above protocol is **not sound!** 
  - Can you say why?



#### Adding Soundness (1/2)







# Adding Soundness (2/2)

- Soundness follows by the fact that, for x ∉ L, both ciphertexts will be encryptions of zero
   Thus, Alice can cheat with probability 1/2
- However, we need to ensure that pk, c are well formed
  - Alice generates  $pk_1, pk_2$  and Bob asks her to "open" one at random
  - With the other key Alice encrypts  $\vec{w}_1, \vec{w}_2$  s.t.  $\vec{w}_1 \oplus \vec{w}_2 = \vec{w}$ , and Bob asks her to "open" one of the encryptions at random



# Adding Zero Knowledge

- The previous protocol is only honest-verifier zero-knowledge
  - In fact, malicious Bob could send to Alice the first ciphertext in the vector  $\vec{c}$ , so that d reveals the first bit of w
- This can be fixed using **commitments** 
  - Namely, Alice sends a commitment to  $\boldsymbol{d}$
  - Hence, Bob must reveal his randomness in order to prove he run the computation as needed
  - Finally, Alice opens the commitment revealing  $\boldsymbol{d}$



# **The Fiat-Shamir Transformation**



• Non-Interactive zero knowledge

The proof now consists of a single message

 Security relies on the assumption that hash function **H** behaves as a random oracle



# **Applications**

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- Suppose  $m = m_1 || m_2$  is signed by Bob with  $\sigma = \mathbf{S}(sk, m)$  and Alice wants to reveal to Carol  $m_2$  while keeping  $m_1, \sigma$  secret  $-L = \{m_2: \exists m_1, \sigma \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{V}(pk, m_1 || m_2, \sigma) = 1\}$
- Alice holds an ID card signed by some authority and wants to prove she is 18 without revealing her age
- Ubiquitous primitive in advanced cryptographic constructions



# **Oblivious Transfer**

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# **Oblivious Transfer**

• Introduced by Rabin in 1981



- Properties
  - Sender learns nothing about b
  - Receiver learns nothing about  $S_{1-b}$



# Why is it Useful?



- Bob's output is 1 iff b = b' = 1 (so it is equivalent to computing  $b \cdot b'$ )
- Impossible to compute AND with information theoretic security (even for passive security)



## **Protocol Transcript**



Transcript T is consistent with x<sub>1</sub> if there exist values r<sub>1</sub> and (x<sub>2</sub>, r<sub>2</sub>) such that T is a transcript of the protocol with inputs

$$-(x_1, r_1)$$
 for Alice

 $-(x_2, r_2)$  for Bob



#### Suppose $x_1 = 0$ and $x_2 = 0$







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#### Suppose $x_1 = 0$ and $x_2 = 1$



 $x_1 = 0, r_1$ 





Cannot be consistent with  $x_1 = 1$ , because the output of the protocol has to be different in the following cases

• 
$$x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1$$

• 
$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$



# **The Attacker**



- Check if *T* is **consistent** with  $x_1 = 1$ 
  - If it is,  $x_2 = 0$
  - Else,  $x_2 = 1$
- <u>Corollary</u>: Any secure protocol for AND must rely on computational assumptions



#### **OT with Passive Security**

- Recall the Elgamal PKE
  - Ciphertext is  $c = (g^r, h^r \cdot m)$  for  $h = g^x$
  - Oblivious key generation: Can generate h without knowing the secret key x



$(h_0, h_1)$	

 $(c_0, c_1)$ 

$$s_0, s_1$$
  

$$c_0 = (g^{r_0}, h_0^{r_0} \cdot s_0)$$
  

$$c_1 = (g^{r_1}, h_1^{r_1} \cdot s_1)$$



Decrypt  $c_b$  using x



#### **OT with Active Security**

Let (K, E, D) be a PKE and (E', D') be an SKE







# **Oblivious Transfer for Strings**

- What if the sender inputs  $(s_0, s_1)$  consist of a sequence of strings  $s_b = (s_b^1, ..., s_b^t)$ ?
- **Passive case:** Just apply basic OT to each  $(s_0^j, s_1^j)$  separately (with the same b)
- Active case: It's more complicated

- But a generic construction also exists

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# **Garbled Circuits**

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#### **Protocols for Arbitrary Functions**

- We now show how Alice and Bob can compute any function securely
  - I.e., a general solution for the problem of secure two-party computation
  - We start with the simpler case of passive security
  - Also assume only one party gets the output (we will see how to generalize it later)
- Main idea: Represent the function as a Boolean circuit
  - Recall: NAND gate is complete



#### **Boolean Circuits**



# **High-Level Idea**

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- Alice encrypts (garbles) the circuit together with her input and sends it to Bob
- Bob adds its own input and evaluates the encrypted circuit gate by gate
- The above must be done in such a way that the values for the input and internal gates remain secret
  - Except for the output gates

#### **Step 1: Key Generation**



![](_page_65_Picture_3.jpeg)

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# **Double Encryption (1/2)**

- How to encrypt a message m in such a way that in order to decrypt it one needs to know two keys k<sub>0</sub>, k<sub>1</sub>?
  - Encrypt twice, i.e.  $\mathbf{E}(k_0, \mathbf{E}(k_1, m))$
- Special properties
  - <u>Elusive range</u>: Hard to generate a valid ciphertext without knowing the key k
  - Verifiable range: Given k, c it is easy to test if c is in the output range of  $\mathbf{E}(k, \cdot)$

![](_page_66_Picture_7.jpeg)

# **Double Encryption (2/2)**

![](_page_67_Figure_1.jpeg)

- Elusive range: Hard to find r s.t. it is possible to predict the last n bits of  $\mathbf{F}(k, r)$
- Verifiable range: Given k and (r, s) can compute  $\mathbf{F}(k, r)$  and check that the last n bits equal the last n bits of s

![](_page_67_Picture_5.jpeg)

#### **Step 2: Garbling Gates**

![](_page_68_Figure_1.jpeg)

Given  $k_x^a$ ,  $k_x^b$  it is possible to decrypt only  $k_z^c$  such that c =a NAND b (all other entries yield **invalid outcome**)

x	y	x NAND y	Garbled Output
0	0	1	$\mathbf{E}(k_{x}^{0}, \mathbf{E}(k_{y}^{0}, k_{z}^{1}))$
0	1	1	$\mathbf{E}(k_{x}^{0}, \mathbf{E}(k_{y}^{1}, k_{z}^{1}))$
1	0	1	$\mathbf{E}(k_{x}^{1}, \mathbf{E}(k_{y}^{0}, k_{z}^{1}))$
1	1	0	$\mathbf{E}(k_x^1, \mathbf{E}(k_y^1, k_z^0))$

#### **Garbling Output Gates**

![](_page_69_Figure_1.jpeg)

x	y	x NAND y	Garbled Output
0	0	1	$\mathbf{E}(k_{x}^{0}, \mathbf{E}(k_{y}^{0}, 1))$
0	1	1	$\mathbf{E}(k_{x}^{0}, \mathbf{E}(k_{y}^{1}, 1))$
1	0	1	$\mathbf{E}(k_{x}^{1}, \mathbf{E}(k_{y}^{0}, 1))$
1	1	0	$\mathbf{E}(k_{x}^{1}, \mathbf{E}(k_{y}^{1}, 0))$

![](_page_69_Picture_3.jpeg)

#### **Step 3: Sending Garbled Gates**

- For every gate Alice sends the encrypted labels in randomly permuted order
  - So for each gate Bob knows 4 ciphertexts

x	y	x NAND y	Garbled Output		To Bob
0	0	1	$\mathbf{E}(k_{x}^{0}, \mathbf{E}(k_{y}^{0}, 1))$		$c_z^1$
0	1	1	$\mathbf{E}(k_{x}^{0}, \mathbf{E}(k_{y}^{1}, 1))$		$c_z^2$
1	0	1	$\mathbf{E}(k_x^1, \mathbf{E}(k_y^0, 1))$		$c_z^3$
1	1	0	$\mathbf{E}(k_x^1, \mathbf{E}(k_y^1, 0))$	$\nearrow$	$c_z^4$

![](_page_70_Picture_4.jpeg)

![](_page_70_Picture_5.jpeg)

# Step 4: Garbled Circuit Evaluation (1/3)

- Bob needs to evaluate the circuit bottom-up to obtain the keys that reveal the output
- To do so, he needs the labels corresponding to the inputs
  - Recall that part of the input is from Alice and part is from Bob

![](_page_71_Figure_4.jpeg)
## Step 4: Garbled Circuit Evaluation (2/3)

- Alice can simply **send** the labels  $k_i^{a_i}$  corresponding to **her inputs** 
  - The labels are clearly independent of the inputs
- Moreover, since the gates are permuted Bob does not learn whether he received the label corresponding to 0 or to 1



## Step 4: Garbled Circuit Evaluation (3/3)

- But how can Bob get the labels corresponding to his inputs?
  - He **cannot reveal** the input to Alice
  - Alice cannot send both labels, otherwise Bob could compute the function on multiple inputs
- Solution: Use 1-out-of-2 OT!





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#### Yao's Protocol Overview





### What Can Go Wrong?







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#### Cut & Choose

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### **Balls and Bins**

• Say k circuits in total, out of which c are corrupted and t are tested by the evaluator (k - c)

# of ways to pick only good =  $\begin{pmatrix} k - c \\ t \end{pmatrix}$ 

# of ways to pick 
$$t = \binom{\kappa}{t}$$

• Probability that garbler succeeds Setting t = k/2 $\frac{\binom{k-c}{t}}{\binom{k}{t}} = \frac{k/2 \cdot (k/2 - 1) \cdot \dots \cdot (k/2 - c)}{k \cdot (k - 1) \cdot \dots \cdot (k - c)} < 2^{-c}$ 



#### Consequences

- The above equation implies that the probability that the test passes in case
  - -O(k) circuits are corrupted is **negligible**
  - -O(1) circuits are corrupted is **noticeable**

$$\left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{c}{k}\right)^{c} \leq \frac{\binom{k-c}{t}}{\binom{k}{t}} < 2^{-c}$$
$$\operatorname{Since} \frac{k/2-c}{k-c} \geq \frac{k/2-c}{k} = \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{c}{k}\right)$$



## **First Idea: Aborting**

- Bob evaluates all **unopened** garbled circuits
- If some of the outputs differ, abort
- Consider the following attack:



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## Second Idea: Take Majority

 If some of the outputs differ, define the output to be the majority of the outputs





#### **Another Problem**



#### **Input Consistency**

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#### **Input Consistency Attack**



Protocol output:  $Maj(b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4)$ 





#### **Need to Prove Input Consistency**





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#### **Problem: Malicious OT**





#### **Selective Failure Attack**



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#### **OT on Committed Inputs**





## **Randomized Functionalities**

- Let  $f(x_1, x_2)$  be a **randomized** functionality - Write  $f(x_1, x_2; r)$  for a run with randomness r- Consider  $g((x_1, r_1), (x_2, r_2)) = f(x_1, x_2; r_1 \oplus r_2)$
- Given a secure protocol for *g* we construct secure protocol for *f* :
  - Alice picks random  $r_1$  and Bob picks random  $r_2$
  - Alice and Bob run the protocol for  $\boldsymbol{g}$
  - If one party is honest  $r = r_1 \oplus r_2$  is random
- Works both for passive/active security



## 2-Output Functionalities (Semi-Honest)

- Let  $f(x_1, x_2) = (f_1(x_1, x_2), f_2(x_1, x_2))$ 
  - I.e., Alice and Bob get different outputs
- Given a secure protocol for 1-output functions
  - Alice picks random  $r_1$  and Bob picks random  $x_2$
  - Alice and Bob run the protocol for
    - $f'((x_1, r_1), (x_2, r_2))$ =  $f_1(x_1, x_2) \oplus r_1 || f_2(x_1, x_2) \oplus r_2$
  - Bob obtains u||v, sends u to Alice and outputs  $v \oplus r_2$
  - Alice outputs  $u \oplus r_1$



## 2-Output Functionalities (Malicious)

- Let  $f(x_1, x_2) = (f_1(x_1, x_2), f_2(x_1, x_2))$ 
  - Alice picks random  $x_1, \alpha, \beta$
  - Alice and Bob run the **1-output** protocol for  $f'((x_1, r_1, \alpha, \beta), x_2) = c_1 ||f_2(x_1, x_2)|| \gamma$   $c_1 = f_1(x_1, x_2) \bigoplus r_1$   $\gamma = \alpha \cdot c_1 + \beta$
- Bob gets u||v||w, sends u||w to Alice and outputs v
- Alice outputs  $u \oplus r_1$  iff  $w = \alpha \cdot u + \beta$



#### Performances

Protocol	Security	# Gates	Gates/Sec
Fairplay ('04)	HBC	4k	600
C&C ('08)	MAL	1k	4
AES Circuit ('09)	MAL	40k	35
C&C + ZK ('11)	MAL	40k	130
C&C + ZK + Parallel ('11)	MAL	6B	130
C&C + Parallel ('13)	MAL	1B	1M



# MPC with Honest Majority





#### How to Share a Secret?

- A dealer wants to share a secret m between a set of parties in such a way that
  - Any coalition of t parties has zero information about m
  - Any set of at least t + 1 parties can reconstruct the secret m
  - The adversary is **passive but all powerful**
- The above is called a *t*-out-of-*n* secret sharing scheme



#### Simple Construction for $\mathbf{t} = n - \mathbf{1}$



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### Shamir's Secret Sharing (1/4)







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## Shamir's Secret Sharing (2/4)

- Sharing
  - The dealer chooses a **random polynomial**  $p(X) = m + \sum_{i=1}^{t} a_i \cdot X^i$  over some finite field  $\mathbb{F}$ , and distributes  $s_i = p(i)$  to the *i*-th player



## Shamir's Secret Sharing (3/4)

- Reconstruction
  - Given t + 1 points  $(x_0, y_0), ..., (x_t, y_t)$  one can interpolate the polynomial and recover the secret
  - Lagrange interpolation: Define p(X) =
    - $\sum_{i=0}^{t} y_i \cdot p_i(X) \text{ where we let } p_i(X) = \prod_{i \neq j} (X x_j) / (x_i x_j) \text{ so that } m = p(0) = \sum_{i=0}^{t} y_i \cdot p_i(0)$



## Shamir's Secret Sharing (4/4)

- Privacy
  - For any distribution M, any non-zero  $x_1, \dots, x_t \in \mathbb{F}$ , and any  $y_1, \dots, y_t \in \mathbb{F}$  we have that once we fix  $p(0) = a_0 = m$

$$\mathbb{P}[p(x_1) = y_1, \dots, p(x_t) = y_t | M = m] = 1/|\mathbb{F}|^t$$



## **Additive Homomorphism**





#### **More on Secret Sharing**

- Computational secret sharing
   Computational vs. unconditional security
- General access structures
  - Richer sets of authorized players
- Verifiable secret sharing
  - Allows to deal with malicious dealers handing wrong shares
- Robust and non-malleable secret sharing
  - Malicious players handing wrong shares



## **Threshold Cryptography**

- Suppose we have a secret key sk for a signature scheme, but we don't want to store it on a machine
- Solution:
  - Share sk within n machines
  - Sign in a distributed manner (without ever reconstructing sk)
- Useful in cryptocurrencies to protect users' wallets from thefts



## **From Secret Sharing to MPC**

- We now describe a protocol for computing any *n*-party functionality
- High-level idea

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- We represent the function as an **arithmetic circuit**
- Each party shares its input with the other parties
- Evaluate the circuit gate by gate (invariant: the values of the intermediary gates are shared between the parties)
- Reconstruct the output



#### **Arithmetic Circuits**



## **Step 1: Share Inputs**

- Each player secret shares its own input u by picking a random polynomial p(X) of degree  $\leq t$  such that p(0) = u
- At the end of this phase, each party thus holds one share for each of the inputs

$$u_1 = p(1)$$
  
 $u_2 = p(2)$   
 $u_4 = p(4)$   
 $u, p(X)$   
 $u_3 = p(3)$ 

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## Step 2: Addition Gates (1/2)

- Given secret sharing  $[u] = (u_1, ..., u_n)$  and  $[v] = (v_1, ..., v_n)$  we want to compute a secret sharing [w] of the output w = u + v
- By additive homomorphism each player can locally compute  $w_i = u_i + v_i$



### Step 2: Addition Gates (2/2)

• Since [u] = (p(1), ..., p(n)) and [v] = (q(1), ..., q(n)) for random polynomials p, qs.t. u = p(0) and v = q(0), it also holds that [w] = ((p + q)(1), ..., (p + q)(n)) satisfies w = (p + q)(0)



 $w_i = u_i + v_i$ 





## Step 2: Multiplication by a Constant (1/2)

- Given secret sharing  $[u] = (u_1, ..., u_n)$  we want to compute a secret sharing [w] of the output  $w = c \cdot u$
- By additive homomorphism each player can locally compute  $w_i = c \cdot u_i$





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# Step 2: Multiplication By a Constant (2/2)

• Since [u] = (p(1), ..., p(n)) for random polynomial p s.t. u = p(0), it holds that  $[w] = (c \cdot p(1), ..., c \cdot p(n))$  satisfies  $w = c \cdot p(0)$ 



# Step 2: Multiplication Gates (1/6)

- Given secret sharing  $[u] = (u_1, ..., u_n)$  and  $[v] = (v_1, ..., v_n)$  we want to compute a secret sharing [w] of the output  $w = u \times v$
- Each player can **locally** compute  $w_i = u_i \times v_i$



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MPC

# Step 2: Multiplication Gates (2/6)

- Since [u] = (p(1), ..., p(n)) and [v] = (q(1), ..., q(n)) for random polynomials p, qs.t. u = p(0) and v = q(0), it also holds that  $[w] = ((p \times q)(1), ..., (p \times q)(n))$  satisfies  $w = (p \times q)(0)$ 
  - Note that the degree of  $(p \times q)(X)$  is now 2*t*, but as long as n > 2t we can still **uniquely** reconstruct the secret



# Step 2: Multiplication Gates (3/6)

- Unfortunately, after another multiplication the degree would become 4t, which is too large if we just want to assume honest majority
  - To handle this problem, we use a trick to reduce the degree





# Step 2: Multiplication Gates (4/6)

- Each party first lets  $[z] = [u] \times [v] =$  $(z_1, ..., z_n)$ , and then creates a **fresh secret sharing** of each  $[z_i] = (z_{i,1}, ..., z_{i,n})$ 
  - That is, it picks random  $p_i(X)$  of degree  $\leq t$  s.t.  $p_i(0) = z_i$  and  $z_{i,j} = p_i(j)$ , and sends  $z_{i,j}$  to the *j*-th player



# Step 2: Multiplication Gates (5/6)

• Now, let

$$[w] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \cdot [z_i]$$
$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \cdot z_{i,1}, \dots, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \cdot z_{i,n}\right)$$

- Here  $\alpha_i$  are the **lagrange coefficients** for the reconstruction of  $z = \sum \alpha_i \cdot z_i$ 
  - Hence,  $[w] = (p^*(1), \dots, p^*(n))$  where  $p^*(X) = \sum_i \alpha_i \cdot p_i(X)$  is a degree  $\leq t$  polynomial s.t.  $p^*(0) = \sum_i \alpha_i \cdot p_i(0) = w$

#### Step 2: Multiplication Gates (6/6)





#### **Step 3: Output Reconstruction**

- At the end of the protocol, each player owns a share of the output wire [y] which it sends to each other player
- Thus, each player can **obtain the output**





# Feasibility of Maliciously Secure MPC

- Given an MPC protocol secure against passive adversaries, can we compile it into an MPC protocol secure against active adversaries?
- Main idea:
  - Each player behaves as in the semi-honest protocol, but also
  - Each player proves in zero-knowledge that the messages it sends are computed correctly
  - O. Goldreich, S. Micali, A. Wigderson. "How to play any mental game." 1987



# **Efficient MPC with Malicious Security**

- I. Damgård, V. Pastro, N. P. Smart, S. Zakarias. "Multiparty computation from somewhat homomorphic encryption." 2012
- N. Chandran, J. A. Garay, P. Mohassel, S. Vusirikala. "Efficient, constant-round and actively secure MPC: Beyond the three-party case." 2017
- X. Wang, S. Ranellucci, J. Katz: "Global-scale secure multiparty computation." 2017



# Redactable Blockchain



# **Blockchain Technology**

- Many **applications** beyond cryptocurrencies
  - Healthcare
  - Identity and Reputation Management
  - IoT Devices
  - Smart Grid
  - Supply Chain Management
  - Post-trade Services (US cash equities)
- HYPE?





#### **Necessity of Hard Forks**

- Resolve human errors
  - Accommodate legal and regulatory requirements, and address bugs, and mischief
- General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)
  - Privacy violations lead to hefty fines: 4 percent of a company's annual revenue or EUR 20 million
- Smart contracts require **flexibility** 
  - The DAO had \$60 million worth of cryptocurrency stolen

Data Privacy and Security



### Recent Developments (1/3)

- The "right to be forgotten"
  - A real case has stalled after the European Court of Justice found a Dutch man's identity information was uploaded on the Bitcoin blockchain
- The Open Data Institute (**ODI**) Report:
  - "Immutable data storage in blockchains may be incompatible with legislation which requires changes to the official truth"
  - "Even if personal data is not stored on a blockchain, metadata can be sufficient to reveal information"



# Recent Developments (2/3)

- The European Union Agency for Network and Information Security (ENISA) Report:
  - "Define what to be kept confidential in order to remain compliant with regulatory requirements"
  - "Identify or develop standard methods for removing data from a ledger"



### Recent Developments (3/3)

- The European Securities and Markets Authority (ESMA) Report:
  - "The DLT that was originally designed for Bitcoin created immutable records, meaning that transactions once validated cannot be modified, cancelled or revoked"
  - "While this immutability had clear benefits in a permissionless DLT framework, it appears ill-suited to securities markets, e.g., operational errors may necessitate the cancellation of some transactions"



#### An Emergency Lockbox



Data Privacy and Security



CIS Sapienza

#### Edit a Block

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#### **Remove a Block**





#### **Chameleon Hashing**





CIS Sapienza

# Simple Construction (Inadequate)

- Let G be a cyclic group of order q with generator g
  - E.g.,  $\mathbb G$  is the subgroup of quadratic residues of  $\mathbb Z_p^*$
- Hash key and **trapdoor**:  $hk = g^a$  and tk = a
- Hash computation:  $h = g^m \cdot hk^r$  for random  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
- Hash collision: Given m, r, m', solve for  $ar + m = ar' + m' \mod q$

– After few collisions the trapdoor is exposed!



#### **Enhanced Collision Resistance**



 Hard finding collisions even with access to collision oracle

Collision should be fresh

Randomness plays the role of "check value"



#### Leaving an Immutable Scar



...







# Concluding Remarks (1/2)

- Geared for "permissioned" systems, not for open, decentralized cryptocurrency systems
- Database or spreadsheet?
  - A redactable blockchain is decentralized and immutable as all other blockchains
  - There is no centralized server and bad actors won't
     be able to make changes
- Only trusted administrators acting on agreed rules of governance can edit, rewrite or remove blocks without breaking the chain



# Concluding Remarks (2/2)

- The key can be divided in shares
  - Must be protected as the keys of CAs
  - None of the authorities knows the trapdoor
  - When needed collisions can be computed via a secure distributed protocol (MPC)
- Amending by appending is often pointless
- Storing just the hash does not help since the hash provides a "proof of existence"

#### Summary

- Technology developed and patented with Accenture
- The blockchain remains decentralized and immutable
  - But a "plan b" is supported if things go wrong
- The invention preserves blockchain's benefits, while making it viable for enterprise use
- Disruptive, breaking a taboo
  - NYT, FT, Forbes, Reuters, Fortune, MIT Tech Review



### **Redaction in the Permissionless Setting**

- The previous solution is clearly impractical in the permissionless setting
- We now give a more **practical** solution
  - No additional trust assumption
  - Consensus on what needs to be redacted
  - Publicly verifiable and accountable
- D. Deuber et al. Redactable Blockchain in the Permissionless Setting. IEEE S&P 2019



#### **Redaction Request**



- Modify the block structure

   Two links instead of one (old link, new link)
- The new block is also sent to a candidate pool





- Miners retrieve proposed blocks
- As they know the hash h, each miner can vote by including h in newly minted blocks
- Voting phase spans an epoch
   1024 blocks in Bitcoin (2 weeks)
- Policy: Say if 50% of the blocks voted, the redaction is approved





- Standard blocks
  - Check PoW, PoS, etc.
  - Check validity of data and links (old/new)
- Redacted blocks
  - Check PoW, PoS, etc. (w.r.t. old link)
  - Check new link broken, old link good
  - Check the redaction was approved



#### **Integration in Bitcoin**



RESEARCH

AND INFORMATION SEC

MPC



- Old link is H(prev\_hash, TX, TY, salt)
   *TY* is from the previous block header
- New link is H(prev\_hash, TX', TY, salt)

