# On Communication-Efficient Asynchronous MPC with Adaptive Security

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**Abstract.** Secure multi-party computation (MPC) allows a set of n parties to jointly compute an arbitrary computation over their private inputs. Two main variants have been considered in the literature according to the underlying communication model. Synchronous MPC protocols proceed in rounds, and rely on the fact that the communication network provides strong delivery guarantees within each round. Asynchronous MPC protocols achieve security guarantees even when the network delay is arbitrary.

While the problem of MPC has largely been studied in both variants with respect to both feasibility and efficiency results, there is still a substantial gap when it comes to communication complexity of adaptively secure protocols. Concretely, while adaptively secure synchronous MPC protocols with linear communication are known for a long time, the best asynchronous protocol communicates  $\mathcal{O}(n^4\kappa)$  bits per multiplication.

In this paper, we make progress towards closing this gap by providing two protocols. First, we present an adaptively secure asynchronous protocol with optimal resilience t < n/3 and  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$  bits of communication per multiplication, improving over the state of the art protocols in this setting by a quadratic factor in the number of parties. The protocol has cryptographic security and follows the CDN approach [Eurocrypt'01], based on additive threshold homomorphic encryption. Second, we show an optimization of the above protocol that tolerates up to  $t < (1 - \epsilon)n/3$  corruptions and communicates  $\mathcal{O}(n \cdot \mathsf{poly}(\kappa))$  bits per multiplication under stronger assumptions.

#### 1 Introduction

Secure multi-party computation (MPC) allows a set of parties to compute a function of their private inputs, in such a way that the parties' inputs remain secret, and the computed output is correct. This must hold even when an adversary corrupts a subset of the parties.

The problem of MPC [Yao82, GMW87, BGW88, CCD88, RB89] has been studied mostly in the so-called synchronous network model, where parties have access to synchronized clocks and there is an upper bound on the network communication delay. Although this model is theoretically interesting and may be justified in some settings, they fail to model real-world networks such as the Internet, which is inherently asynchronous. This gave rise to the asynchronous network model, where protocols do not rely on any timing assumptions, and messages sent can be arbitrarily delayed.

Asynchronous MPC protocols have received much less attention than their synchronous counterpart, partly because of their inherent difficulty and the weaker achievable security guarantees. In particular, one cannot distinguish between a dishonest party not sending a message, or an honest party that sent a message that was delayed by the adversary. As a result, parties have to make progress in the protocol after seeing messages from n-t parties. This also implies that in this setting it is impossible to consider the inputs of all honest parties, i.e, the inputs of up to t (potentially honest) parties may be ignored. Moreover, one can show that the optimal achievable corruption tolerance in the asynchronous setting is t < n/3, even with setup, in both the cryptographic and information-theoretic setting; and perfect security is possible if and only if t < n/4.

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### 1.1 Communication Complexity of Asynchronous MPC protocols

The communication complexity in MPC has been the subject of a huge line of works. While the most communication-efficient synchronous MPC solutions without the usage of multiplicative-homomorphic encryption primitives achieve  $\mathcal{O}(n\kappa)$  bits per multiplication gate (see e.g. [HN06, DI06, BH08, BFO12, GLS19, GSZ20]), asynchronous MPC protocols still feature higher communication complexities, most notably when it comes to protocols with adaptive security.

In the adaptive security setting, all protocols are information-theoretic. The first protocol was provided by Ben-Or et al. [BKR94], and later improved by Patra et al. [PCR10, PCR08] to  $\mathcal{O}(n^5\kappa)$  per multiplication, and by Choudhury [Cho20] to  $\mathcal{O}(n^4\kappa)$  per multiplication.

When considering static security, the most efficient protocols with optimal resilience t < n/3 provide cryptographic security. The works by Hirt et al. [HNP05, HNP08] make use of an additive homomorphic encryption, with the protocol in [HNP08] being slightly more efficient and communicating  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$  per multiplication. The work by Choudhury and Patra [CP15] achieves  $\mathcal{O}(n\kappa)$  per multiplication at the cost of using somewhat-homomorphic encryption, and the work by Cohen [Coh16] achieves a communication independent of the circuit size using fully-homomorphic encryption.

Other efficient solutions have been provided for the t < n/4 setting. Notable works include the protocols in [SR00, PSR02, CHP13, PCR15], achieving information-theoretic security.

#### 1.2 Contributions

In this paper, we consider the problem of MPC over an asynchronous network with adaptive security. Our contributions can be summarized as follows.

First, we present an adaptively secure protocol with optimal resilience t < n/3 and  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$  bits of communication per multiplication, improving over the state of the art adaptively-secure protocols by a quadratic factor in the number of parties. Note, however, that in contrast to the protocol in [Cho20] which is information-theoretic, our protocol has cryptographic security. The protocol follows the CDN approach [CDN01, DN03] and makes use of an additive threshold homomorphic encryption.

Second, we show a protocol that tolerates up to  $t < (1-\epsilon)n/3$  corruptions and communicates a  $\mathcal{O}(n \cdot \mathsf{poly}(\kappa))$  number of bits per multiplication, assuming secure erasures, non-interactive zero-knowledge proofs, and access to a network providing  $atomic \ send^1$  (see e.g. [BKLL20]), which guarantees that parties are able to atomically send messages to all other parties, and also guarantees that messages sent by honest parties cannot be retrieved back, even if the sender becomes corrupted. Note that a linear protocol with optimal resilience, and without the usage of any type of multiplicative-homomorphic encryption is not known even for the case of static security.

### 2 Preliminaries

We consider protocols among a set of n parties  $P_1, \ldots, P_n$ . We denote the security parameter by  $\kappa$  and use the abbreviation ewnp for "except with negligible probability". Our protocols are proven in the model by Canetti [Can00a]. A summary can be found in Appendix A.

#### 2.1 Communication and Adversary Model

Parties have access to a network of point-to-point asynchronous and secure channels (for details of the asynchronous network model, we refer the reader to [CR98]). Asynchronous channels guarantee *eventual* delivery, meaning that messages sent are eventually delivered, and the scheduling

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This model has also been referred to as *weakly-adaptive* corruption, or simply adaptive corruption model in the literature.

of the messages is done by the adversary. In particular, the adversary can arbitrarily (but only finitely) delay all messages sent and deliver them out of order.

We consider a computationally bounded adversary that can actively corrupt up to t parties in an adaptive manner. That is, as long as the adversary has corrupted strictly less than t parties, it can corrupt any party at any point in time based on the information during the protocol execution.

# 2.2 Zero-Knowledge Proofs of Knowledge

In this subsection, we introduce the notion of patchable zero-knowledge proof of knowledge. For more details, see [DN03].

**Definition 1.** A 2-party patchable zero-knowledge proof of knowledge for a predicate Q is a protocol between a prover P and a verifier V where P has as public input an instance z and as secret input a witness x and V has public input the instance z and output in {accept, reject}. The protocol needs to satisfy the following properties.

- Completeness: On common input z, if P's secret input x satisfies Q(x, z) = true, then V accepts.
- Soundness: There exists an efficient program K (the knowledge extractor) that can interact with any prover P' such that if P' succeeds to make V accept with non-negligible probability, then K can extract a witness x' from its interaction with P' such that Q(x', z) = true.
- Zero-Knowledge: For any efficient verifier V', there exists an efficient simulator S such that for any common input z, S can simulate a run of the protocol with V' in a computationally indistinguishable way.
- Patchability: Let z be an arbitrary instance and let  $\tilde{t}$  be any step of the protocol. Let  $T_{\tilde{t}}^{V'}(z)$  be the communication of the simulator (which might not know a witness to z) with a verifier V' in the simulated run of the protocol until step  $\tilde{t}$ . We require that there exists an efficient algorithm Pat that takes as input z,  $\tilde{t}$ ,  $T_{\tilde{t}}^{V'}(z)$  and a witness x such that Q(x,z)= true and outputs randomness  $\nu$  which satisfies the following: If an honest prover P executes the protocol with V' up to step  $\tilde{t}$  on instance z and witness x using randomness  $\nu$ , then the communication is identical to  $T_{\tilde{t}}^{V'}(z)$ . Furthermore, the randomness  $\nu$  looks uniformly random to V'.

All zero-knowledge proofs used in our protocol will be 2-party patchable zero-knowledge proofs of knowledge with constant communication complexity.

### 2.3 Universally Composable Commitments

In this section, we briefly introduce universally composable (UC) commitment schemes. A detailed exposition is given in Appendix B.

A commitment scheme allows a party P to commit to a value v towards other parties without revealing information about v. If at any point in time, P wants to reveal v, then it can open the given commitment to v.

A universally composable (UC) commitment scheme is a commitment scheme in the UC framework [Can00b]. Like usual commitment schemes, a UC commitment scheme is hiding and binding. Additionally, it is extractable (that is, the simulator can extract the value a corrupted party committed to from its commitment) and equivocable (that is, the simulator can simulate a commitment on behalf of an honest party towards a corrupted party without knowing the committed value and later open the given commitment to any value it wants). Since in our model we consider an adaptive adversary, we require that when the adversary corrupts a party, the simulator can patch the internal state of that party.

In our MPC protocol, we need the following additional property of our commitment scheme. A detailed discussion about the selective decommitment problem can be found in [DNRS03].

Selective decommitment security: Consider the following security game with an integer  $t \in \{1, ..., n\}$  (representing the corruption threshold) and a message distribution M over  $R_{pk}^n$  as parameters.

- The challenger samples a uniform random bit  $b \in_R \{0, 1\}$ .
- The adversary sends a set of indices  $I \subset \{1, \ldots, n\}$  of size  $t' \in \{0, \ldots, t\}$  to the challenger.
- The challenger samples n messages according to the distribution M, enumerates them in the natural way and gives the messages with indices in I to the adversary. Next, for each message with index not in I, the challenger commits to it and gives the computed n t' commitments to the adversary.
- The adversary can adaptively choose up to t-t' of the given commitments and the challenger gives the underlying messages and the randomness used to obtain the commitments in question to the adversary. As soon as the adversary does not want to choose any more commitments, it sends "EndCorruption" to the challenger.
- Upon receipt of the "EndCorruption"-message or if the adversary has already chosen t t' commitments, the challenger does the following. Let  $I' \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\}$  be the set of indices that are not in I and such that the adversary did not choose the commitments with indices in I'.
  - If b = 0, the challenger gives the messages underlying the commitments with indices in I' to the adversary.
  - Let  $M_{I'}$  be the distribution M conditioned on the components with indices not in I' being equal to the messages already given to the adversary. If b = 1, the challenger samples |I'| messages according to the distribution  $M_{I'}$  and gives them to the adversary.
- The adversary outputs a guess b' for the value of the bit b.

The idea in the above game is that every party commits to one value and the adversary can corrupt up to t parties. In doing that, the adversary should not learn anything about the messages underlying the commitments of honest parties. This game can be generalized in a natural way to the case where each party  $P_i$  commits to a fixed number  $\ell_i$  of values (and this number can be different for each party). For the sake of simplicity, we do not give the formal description of the more general game. We define the advantage of the adversary in the generalized game by

$$\mathrm{Advtg}_{\{\ell_1,\dots,\ell_n\}}^{M,t} \coloneqq |\mathrm{Pr}[b'=b] - \frac{1}{2}|.$$

We require from our commitment scheme that for all n-tuples  $\{\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_n\}$  of integers, all message distributions M and all t < n/3, there does not exist any adversary that has non-negligible advantage  $\operatorname{Advtg}_{\{\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_n\}}^{M, t}$ .

For all the commitments in our protocols, we will use a UC adaptively secure (equivocable and extractable) commitment scheme that satisfies the "Selective decommitment security" property above and has constant communication complexity.

#### 2.4 Threshold Homomorphic Encryption

We briefly discuss threshold homomorphic encryption schemes. For a detailed exposition, see Appendix C.

A threshold homomorphic encryption scheme is a tuple (KeyGen, Enc, DecShare, Comb) of four algorithms, where

- KeyGen is a probabilistic algorithm that takes a security parameter  $\kappa$ , the number of parties n and the threshold parameter t as input and outputs a uniformly distributed tuple  $(pk, sk_1, \ldots, sk_n)$  where the public key pk is given to all parties and the secret key  $sk_i$  is given to  $P_i$  for all  $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ .

- Enc is an efficient probabilistic non-interactive algorithm that takes as input a public key pk and a message m from the message ring  $R_{pk}$  and outputs an encryption  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m)$  of m. If we want to specify the randomness r used in the execution of the algorithm, we write  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m,r)$ .
  - The Enc algorithm is a homomorphism in the sense that there exists an efficient algorithm that takes as input the public key pk and two encryptions  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_1, r_1)$  and  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_2, r_2)$  of  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  and that outputs an encryption  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_1, r_1) \oplus_{pk} \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_2, r_2) := \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_1 +_{pk} m_2, r_1 \boxplus_{pk} r_2)$  of  $m_1 +_{pk} m_2$ , where  $+_{pk}$  and  $\boxplus_{pk}$  are the group laws in the message space and the randomness space. Similarly, there exists an efficient algorithm that takes as input the public key pk, an encryption  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m,r)$  and a message  $c \in R_{pk}$  and outputs a uniquely determined encryption  $c \odot_{pk} \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m,r)$  of  $c \cdot_{pk} m$ .
- DecShare is an efficient algorithm that takes as input an index  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , the public key pk, the secret key  $sk_i$  and a ciphertext c and outputs a decryption share  $c_i$  and a proof that  $c_i$  is correctly computed using i, pk, c and  $sk_i$ .
- Comb is an efficient algorithm that takes as input the public key pk, a ciphertext c and pairs  $(c_i, p_i)$  where each pair has a different index. The algorithm outputs a message m or fails.

The scheme is correct (that is, if at least t+1 distinct decryption shares with valid proofs for the same ciphertext c are given as input to the Comb algorithm, then it outputs the message underlying c) and threshold semantically secure (that is, without the help of at least one honest party, an adversary corrupting at most t parties cannot extract information about the plaintext underlying a given ciphertext). Furthermore, there exists a patchable zero-knowledge proof of plaintext knowledge and a patchable zero-knowledge proof of correct multiplication with constant communication complexity.

From the definition of threshold homomorphic encryption scheme, it follows that there is an algorithm Blind that takes an encryption of a message m and the public key pk as input and outputs a uniformly random encryption of m (without knowing m). For details, see Proposition 2 in the appendix.

For convenience, we introduce the following functions which we will often use. For an encryption M in the ciphertext space, we define

$$\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^M\colon (x,r)\to\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^M(x,r)=(x\odot_{pk}M)\oplus_{pk}\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk},r).$$

We call a preimage with respect to the function  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^M$  of an encryption y a "preimage of y under (pk, M)". If we do not specify the second argument r of the function, then we implicitly mean that r is uniformly random in the randomness space. So (by the homomorphic property of the encryption scheme and by a similar reasoning as in the proof of Proposition 2)  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^M(x)$  is a uniformly random encryption of  $x \cdot_{pk} m$ , where m is the value encrypted by M.

In our MPC protocol, we need the following additional properties of our encryption scheme.

- Proof of compatible commitment: Let  $Q_{pk}^M((m',r_1,r_2),(y,B))$  be the binary predicate that is 1 if and only if  $y = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^M(m',r_1)$  and  $(m',r_2)$  is the opening information for the commitment B. We require that there exist efficient patchable zero-knowledge proofs of knowledge for  $Q_{pk}^M$  with constant communication complexity for all public keys pk and all encryptions M under pk.
- Lagrange arguments: There exists an n-tuple  $\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\} \in (R_{pk} \setminus \{0_{pk}\})^n$  of distinct elements such that for all  $(i,j) \in \{1,\ldots,n\}^2$  we have that  $\alpha_i \alpha_j$  is invertible in  $R_{pk}$ . For these elements, the usual Lagrange polynomials and Lagrange coefficients are well-defined.
- Patch: Given a public key pk, two encryptions  $E = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, r_0)$  and  $K = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, r_K)$  of  $0_{pk}$  under key pk and the randomness  $r_0$  and  $r_K$  used, there exists an efficient probabilistic algorithm that given any constant x computes randomness  $r_E$  such that  $E = (x \odot_{pk} K) \oplus_{pk} \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, r_E) = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^K(x, r_E)$ .

- Selective decryption security: This property is similar to the "Selective decommitment security" property of our commitment scheme. For a detailed discussion, we again refer the reader to [DNRS03].

Consider the following security game with a message distribution M over  $R_{pk}^n$  and a randomness distribution Rd over the n product of the randomness space as parameters.

- The challenger samples a uniform random bit  $b \in_R \{0, 1\}$ .
- The adversary sends a set of indices  $I \subset \{1, \dots, n\}$  of size  $t' \in \{0, \dots, t\}$  to the challenger.
- The challenger samples n messages according to the distribution M and n randomness elements according to the distribution Rd, enumerates them in the natural way and gives the messages and randomness elements with indices in I to the adversary. Next, for each message with index not in I, the challenger encrypts it using the corresponding randomness element (i.e. the randomness element with the same index) and gives the computed n t' ciphertexts to the adversary.
- The adversary can adaptively choose up to t-t' of the given ciphertexts and the challenger gives the underlying messages and the randomness used to obtain the ciphertexts in question to the adversary. As soon as the adversary does not want to choose any more ciphertexts, it sends "EndCorruption" to the challenger.
- Upon receipt of the "EndCorruption"-message or if the adversary has already chosen t-t' ciphertexts, the challenger does the following. Let  $I' \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\}$  be the set of indices that are not in I and such that the adversary did not choose the ciphertexts with indices in I'.
  - \* If b = 0, the challenger gives the messages underlying the ciphertexts with indices in I' to the adversary.
  - \* Let  $M_{I'}$  be the distribution M conditioned on the components with indices not in I' being equal to the messages already given to the adversary. If b = 1, the challenger samples |I'| messages according to the distribution  $M_{I'}$  and gives them to the adversary.
- The adversary outputs a guess b' for the value of the bit b.

The idea in the above game is that every party encrypts one value and the adversary can corrupt up to t parties. In doing that, the adversary should not learn anything about the messages underlying the encryptions of honest parties. This game can be generalized in a natural way to the case where each party  $P_i$  encrypts a fixed number  $\ell_i$  of values (and this number can be different for each party). For the sake of simplicity, we do not give the formal description of the more general game. We define the advantage of the adversary in the generalized game by

$$\operatorname{Advant}_{\{\ell_1,\dots,\ell_n\}}^{M,Rd} \coloneqq |\operatorname{Pr}[b'=b] - \frac{1}{2}|.$$

We require from our encryption scheme that for all n-tuples of integers  $\{\ell_1,\ldots,\ell_n\}$ , all message distributions M and all randomness distributions Rd, there does not exist any adversary that has non-negligible advantage  $\operatorname{Advant}_{\{\ell_1,\ldots,\ell_n\}}^{M,Rd}$ , even if it has access to a simulator for zero-knowledge proofs and the Pat algorithm.

Remark 1. By the homomorphic property of the encryption scheme, in the Patch property we have that  $x \odot_{pk} K = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, r_0 \boxminus_{pk} r_E)$ . Since multiplication by a constant is a deterministic algorithm and since the randomness space is a group, this implies that if  $r_0$  is uniformly random from the randomness space, then  $r_E$  is also uniformly random from the randomness space.

In Appendix C.1, we present the Paillier threshold encryption scheme which is an instantiation of the definition above.

# 3 Subprotocols

This section is devoted to the exposition of the subprotocols that will be used in the MPC protocol.

### 3.1 Agreement protocols

Often, parties need to have agreement on certain values or objects. To achieve this, we use the following primitives in our protocol.

- 1. Reliable consensus: Reliable consensus is a weaker version of asynchronous consensus. It allows the parties to agree on one of the honest parties' input values without requiring termination if there is no pre-agreement. More precisely, every party has a (private) input and the primitive guarantees that if all honest parties have the same input, then all honest parties output their inputs. Furthermore, if an honest parties outputs a value, then all other honest parties output the same value. In Appendix D.1, we discuss the definition of reliable consensus in more details and we present a reliable consensus protocol RC for t < n/3. Our protocol is based on Bracha's A-Cast protocol [Bra84] and has communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$ , where  $\kappa$  is the size any party's secret input.
- 2. A-Cast: A-Cast is an asynchronous broadcast protocol. It allows the parties to agree on the value of a sender without requiring termination if the sender is corrupted. More precisely, the sender has a private input and the primitive guarantees that if the sender is honest, then all parties output the senders message. Furthermore, if an honest party outputs a value, then all other honest parties output the same value. In Appendix D.2, we discuss the definition of reliable broadcast in more details and we present Bracha's reliable broadcast protocol RBC for t < n/3 [Bra84]. The protocol has communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$ , where  $\kappa$  is the size of the sender's input. Moreover, we show that if the sender has computationally indistinguishably distributed input, then the RBC protocol maintains computational indistinguishability.
  - In some situations, we use Patra's Multi-Valued-Acast protocol [Pat11] which is a reliable broadcast protocol that achieves linear communication complexity for messages of size  $\Omega(n^3 \log(n))$ . This allows us to improve the efficiency of our MPC protocol.
- 3. Byzantine agreement: Byzantine agreement allows the parties to agree on one of the honest parties' input values. It guarantees that all honest parties terminate and that they output the same value. For t < n/3, Byzantine agreement can be achieved with expected communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ . For a more detailed definition of Byzantine agreement, see Appendix D.3.
- 4. ACS: The agreement on a common subset (ACS) primitive allows the parties to agree on a set of at least n-t parties that satisfy a certain property (a so-called ACS property). In Appendix D.4, we discuss the definitions of ACS property and ACS protocol in more details and we present an ACS protocol ACS with communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ .

# 3.2 Decryption Protocols

To decrypt ciphertexts of our threshold homomorphic encryption scheme, we use two decryption protocols. The PrivDec protocol is a straightforward private decryption protocol which takes as input the public key pk, the private keys  $sk_1, \ldots, sk_n$ , a ciphertext c and a party P and correctly decrypts c towards P even in the presence of an active adaptive adversary corrupting t < n/3 parties. The PubDec protocol is a public decryption protocol which takes as input  $pk, sk_1, \ldots, sk_n, n-2t$  ciphertexts  $c_1, \ldots, c_T$  and uses the PrivDec protocol to correctly publicly decrypt  $c_1, \ldots, c_T$  even in the presence of an active adaptive adversary corrupting t < n/3 parties. The PubDec protocol has communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$  and thus achieves linear communication complexity per decrypted ciphertext. For details about these two protocols and their guarantees, see Appendix D.5.

Remark 2. Additionally to the properties in the definition of threshold homomorphic encryption scheme, we require the following from our encryption scheme. Let P be any party and let  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  be two computationally indistinguishably distributed ciphertexts with computationally indistinguishably distributed underlying plaintexts. An instance of the PrivDec protocol with  $(pk, c_1, P)$  as public input (and  $sk_1, \ldots, sk_n$  as private inputs) is computationally indistinguishably distributed to an instance of the PrivDec protocol with  $(pk, c_2, P)$  as public input (and  $sk_1, \ldots, sk_n$  as private inputs) even in the presence of an active adaptive adversary corrupting up to t < n/3 parties.

Remark 3. By inspection of the PubDec protocol in Appendix D.5, it is clear that the "computational indistinguishable decryption" property also holds for the PubDec protocol.

### 3.3 Multiplication

In this section, we briefly discuss the multiplication protocol. A detailed description is given in Appendix D.6.

The main idea for the multiplication protocol is to use circuit randomization [Bea92]. To make it more efficient, we apply the ideas of [DN07] and [BH08], namely we use the PubDec protocol to process up to  $T = \lfloor \frac{n-2t}{2} \rfloor$  independent multiplication gates simultaneously. Hence, the multiplication protocol takes as input T independent multiplication gates, their encrypted inputs and their associated multiplication triples and outputs the encrypted outputs of the given gates. The protocol guarantees that if the inputs to the processed multiplication gates are computationally indistinguishably distributed, then the executions of the multiplication protocol are as well (see Proposition 5). Furthermore, it communicates  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$  bits.

# 3.4 Triple Generation

This subsection is devoted to the introduction of the Triples protocol which takes as input an integer  $\ell$  and outputs  $\ell$  encrypted multiplication triples. The protocol is based on the multiplication protocol in [DN03], the KFD-TRIPLES protocol in [HN06] and on [CP15]. We first adapted their protocols to the asynchronous setting using the ACS primitive and then improved efficiency by amortizing the cost of the ACS instances over the number of generated triples and using the communication efficient Multi-Valued-Acast protocol.

#### **Protocol** Triples

- 1: Every party  $P_j$  independently chooses uniformly random elements  $a^i_j$  in the message space  $R_{pk}$  and  $r^i_j$  in the randomness space for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . Then,  $P_j$  computes  $A^i_j = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(a^i_j, r^i_j)$  and uses the Multi-Valued-Acast protocol to broadcast  $A^i_j$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . Finally,  $P_j$  proves to  $P_k$  in zero-knowledge that it knows the plaintext underlying  $A^i_j$  using the "proof of plaintext knowledge" property of the encryption scheme with instance  $A^i_j$  and witness  $(a^i_j, r^i_j)$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$  and all  $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .
- 2: Let Q be the property such that a party  $P_k$  satisfies Q towards another party  $P_j$  if and only if the broadcasts of all  $A_k^i$  with  $i \in \{1, ..., \ell\}$  terminated for  $P_j$  and  $P_j$  accepted all proofs of plaintext knowledge for  $A_k^i$  with  $i \in \{1, ..., \ell\}$ . The parties run the ACS protocol with Q and obtain a set S of parties.
- 3: The parties wait until the broadcasts of all parties in S terminated and set  $A^i = \bigoplus_{P_k \in S} A^i_k$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ .
- 4: Every party  $P_j$  independently chooses uniformly random elements  $b^i_j$  in the message space  $R_{pk}$  and  $r'^i_j$  in the randomness space for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . Then,  $P_j$  computes  $B^i_j = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(b^i_j, r'^i_j)$  and  $(C^i_j, r''^i_j) = \mathsf{Blind}(b^i_j \odot_{pk} A^i)$  and uses the Multi-Valued-Acast protocol to broadcast  $B^i_j$  and  $C^i_j$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . Finally,  $P_j$  proves to  $P_k$  in zero-knowledge that  $C^i_j$  was computed correctly using the "proof of correct multiplication" property of the encryption scheme with instance  $(B^i_j, A^i, C^i_j)$  and witness  $(b^i_j, r'^i_j, r''^i_j)$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$  and all  $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .
- 5: Let Q' be the property such that a party  $P_k$  satisfies Q' towards another party  $P_j$  if and only if the broadcast of all  $(B_k^i, C_k^i)$  with  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$  terminated for  $P_j$  and  $P_j$  accepted all proofs of correct multiplication for  $(B_k^i, A^i, C_k^i)$  with  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . The parties run the ACS protocol with Q' and obtain a set S' of parties.

- 6: The parties wait until the broadcasts of all parties in S' terminated and set  $B^i = \bigoplus_{P_k \in S'} B^i_k$  and  $C^i = \bigoplus_{P_k \in S'} C^i_k$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ .
- 7: Each party outputs  $(A^i, B^i, C^i)$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ .

To prove security of the above Triples protocol, we give the simulator  $\mathcal{S}_{\mathsf{Triples}}$  who does not have access to the secret keys of honest parties.

# Simulator $\mathcal{S}_{\mathsf{Triples}}$

The simulator  $S_{\mathsf{Triples}}$  executes the protocol acting honestly on behalf of the honest parties. If the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  at any point of the protocol,  $S_{\mathsf{Triples}}$  gives all the information it holds on behalf of  $P_i$  about the execution of the Triples protocol to the adversary.

### **Lemma 1.** The Triples protocol above satisfies the following:

- Termination: All honest parties terminate the protocol and output  $\ell$  triples.
- Consistency: All honest parties output the same triples.
- Correctness: The output triples are correct.
- Secrecy: The plaintexts underlying the output triples are unknown to the adversary. In other words, the adversary has no more information about these plaintexts than that the plaintexts underlying the third components are the product of the plaintexts underlying the corresponding first and second components.
- Computational Uniform Randomness: The distribution of the plaintexts underlying any output triple is computationally indistinguishable from the uniform distribution over the set of all triples  $(a, b, a \cdot_{pk} b)$  for  $a, b \in R_{pk}$ .
- Independence: The plaintexts underlying any output triple are computationally independent of the plaintexts underlying all other output triples.
- Privacy: The adversary's views in the simulation and the protocol are perfectly indistinguishably distributed, i.e. the adversary does not learn anything.
- Communication complexity: The protocol communicates  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\ell\kappa + n^5\log(n))$  bits.

The proof is given in Appendix E.

Remark 4. If we choose  $\ell \kappa = \Omega(n^3 \log(n))$ , we obtain that the Triples protocol communicates  $\mathcal{O}(n^2 \kappa)$  bits per triple.

### 4 Asynchronous Adaptively Secure MPC Protocol

In this section, we present an asynchronous MPC protocol based on the protocols in [CDN01, DN03, BH08]. Then we informally prove that our protocol is secure against an active adaptive adversary corrupting up to t parties.

#### 4.1 Ideal Functionality

In this subsection, we define the specification that our protocol achieves. The following exposition is based on [BKR94, CDN00].

Let  $f: \mathbb{N} \times \{0,1\}^* \times (\{0,1\}^*)^n \to (\{0,1\}^*)^n$  be an efficiently computable function.

#### **Functionality**

- 1: The trusted party receives the security parameter  $\kappa \in \{0,1\}^*$  and the number of parties  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  as input.
- 2: Every party  $P_i$  gives its input  $x_i$  to the trusted party. Corrupted parties are allowed to give wrong input, no input at all or as long as the adversary has not specified the core set S in step 3 change their

inputs (for example after corruption of any party). If the adversary corrupts a party  $P_j$  at any point in time during or after this step, then the trusted party gives  $x_j$  to the adversary.

- 3: The adversary chooses a set of parties  $S \subseteq \mathcal{P}$  of size at least n-t and gives it to the trusted party.
- 4: The trusted party evaluates the function f on the given inputs of parties in S and using a default input d for parties not in S. From this, it obtains output y.
- 5: The trusted party sends y to all parties.
- 6: All honest parties output y. Corrupted parties can output whatever they like.

Recall that since we are in the asynchronous setting with at least n-t honest parties, the size of the set S of parties whose inputs are considered for the evaluation of f is between n-t and n. Note that it is not guaranteed that all parties in S are honest. However, we require from the adversary that it only includes corrupted parties in S for whom it gave input to the ideal functionality in step 2.

### 4.2 Informal Explanation of the Protocol

To achieve adaptive security in the asynchronous setting, we proceeded as follows. We started with the statically secure synchronous MPC protocol introduced by Cramer, Damgård and Nielsen [CDN01]. Next, we used circuit randomization [Bea92] to split the protocol into a preparation phase and a computation phase. After that, we adapted the protocol to the asynchronous setting using asynchronous broadcast and agreement on a common subset (ACS). Finally, we made the protocol adaptively secure by applying the techniques from Damgård and Nielsen [DN03], namely redefining the way values are encrypted and randomizing the output ciphertext in a specific way before decrypting it. Concretely, the new rule of encryption is: Given an encryption M and a value v to be encrypted, the encryption is set to  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^M(v)$ . Recall that if we denote the value that M encrypts by m, then by the homomorphic property of the encryption scheme and by definition of the function  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^M$ ,  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^M(v)$  is a uniformly random encryption of  $v \cdot_{pk} m$ . In the protocol, we will mostly choose  $m = 1_{pk}$  to have an encryption of v while in the simulation we will often choose  $m = 0_{pk}$  which helps the simulator to provide computationally indistinguishably distributed information. In detail, the idea of the protocol is the following.

### Preparation phase:

- Setup phase (steps 1-4): The keys for all the keyed primitives used in our protocol (namely the encryption scheme, the commitment scheme and the zero-knowledge proofs) are set up. Each party receives the keys it is entitled to along with public Lagrange arguments  $\{\alpha_i\}_{i\in\{1,\dots,n\}}$ . Additionally, two public encryptions K and R are set up and given to all parties. The encryption K is a uniformly random encryption of  $1_{pk}$  and the encryption R is a uniformly random encryption of  $0_{pk}$ . In the simulation, the simulator will cheat by choosing K to be a uniformly random encryption of  $0_{pk}$  and R to be a uniformly random encryption of  $1_{pk}$ . By semantic security of the encryption scheme, this is computationally indistinguishable to the adversary.

Finally, the parties compute the circuit corresponding to the function to be evaluated and generate multiplication triples that will be used in the Evaluation phase to evaluate the multiplication gates of the circuit.

### Computation phase:

- Input phase (steps 1 and 2): The parties receive their inputs  $x_i$  needed for the execution and want to give them to an agreed function f. To do so, every party reliably broadcasts an encryption of its input applying the new rule of encryption with M = K. While  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^K(x_i)$  is indeed an encryption of  $x_i$  in the real world (recall that in the protocol K is an encryption of  $1_{pk}$ ), it is an encryption of  $0_{pk}$  in the simulation as there, K is an encryption of  $0_{pk}$ . Hence, in the simulation all encryptions of inputs will be encryptions of  $0_{pk}$  independently

of the inputs of the parties. However, the simulator needs to be able to extract the inputs of corrupted parties because it has to provide those inputs to the ideal functionality on behalf of the corrupted parties. This is why every party commits to its input towards every other party using a UC commitment scheme. The extraction property of UC commitments allows the simulator to extract the correct inputs of corrupted parties (ewnp) and give them to the ideal functionality. To ensure correctness and prevent the adversary in the real world from having more power than an adversary in the ideal world, the parties need to prove in zero-knowledge (using the "proof of compatible commitment" property) that they know a preimage of the reliably broadcasted encryption  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^K(x_i)$  under (pk,K) and that the first component of this preimage is the same as the value that they committed to. This is important because without these proofs a corrupted party could just wait for the reliable broadcast of another party  $P_j$  to terminate and then set its input to the same as the one from  $P_j$  without knowing it. This is not possible in the ideal world and therefore, we want to prevent it in the protocol execution. Furthermore, the simulator extracts the inputs of the corrupted parties from the commitments whereas for the computation in the protocol we will use the encryptions. Thus, the simulator needs to ensure that the value underlying the commitment and the first component of the preimage under (pk, K) of the encryption are the same so that it does not give wrong inputs to the ideal functionality on behalf of the corrupted parties. Finally, the parties run the ACS protocol and obtain a set S of size at least n-t of parties that successfully broadcasted an encryption of their input which they committed to. The inputs of the parties in S are the ones that will be taken into account in the evaluation of f. Thus, the ACS protocol needs to ensure that S only contains parties that successfully completed the reliable broadcast of their inputs and all their zero-knowledge proofs towards at least one honest party (so that everything is correct and the simulator can extract the correct inputs ewnp as it received at least one valid commitment to every input of the corrupted parties in S). All inputs of parties that are not in S are set to a default value. Each party then waits until the reliable broadcast for every party in S terminated. It is okay for the parties to wait until the reliable broadcast of the parties in S terminate because we saw that for all parties  $P_k$  in S, there exists an honest party for which the reliable broadcast of  $P_k$  terminated. By the properties of reliable broadcast this implies that the reliable broadcast of  $P_k$  eventually terminates for all honest parties. The computation of the encryptions of the inputs, their reliable broadcast, the zero-knowledge proofs and the run of the ACS protocol are summed up in the BrACS protocol in Appendix F.

- Evaluation phase (step 3): The parties evaluate the circuit on the encrypted inputs of the parties using the " $+_{pk}$ -homomorphic" property, the "Multiplication by constant" property and the multiplication protocol from Appendix D.6. In the end, the parties get a ciphertext c (called  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(s)$  in the protocol and  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(\hat{s})$  in the simulation).
- Randomization phase (steps 4–7): Before the parties jointly decrypt c, they randomize it. This is done so that the simulator can cheat. In fact, as we saw above, all inputs to the circuit in the simulation are encryptions of  $0_{pk}$ . By the correctness of the gates, this implies that all ciphertexts in the circuit are encryptions of  $0_{pk}$  (not counting the intermediate ciphertexts in the multiplication protocol). Hence, c is also an encryption of  $0_{pk}$  and therefore, we cannot simply honestly decrypt c as otherwise the simulator would fail to provide a computationally indistinguishable simulation with overwhelming probability. Furthermore, our encryption scheme is not adaptively secure which is why we cannot decrypt c to anything but  $0_{pk}$  either. Thus, the parties randomize the ciphertext before decrypting it honestly.

To randomize the ciphertext c, the parties do the following. Each party chooses a random  $r_i$  and reliably broadcasts the encryption  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^R(r_i)$ . Then the parties agree on a set  $\hat{S}$  of parties of size at least t+1 of successful broadcasts using the ACS protocol. Denote the indices of the parties in the set  $\hat{S}$  by I. Next, the parties consider the unique polynomial p of

degree |I|-1 that goes through  $\mathsf{Enc}^R_{pk}(r_i)$  at position  $\alpha_i$  for all  $i \in I$ . They interpolate this polynomial at  $0_{pk}$  and add this to c using the " $+_{pk}$ -homomorphic" and the "Multiplication by constant" properties of the encryption scheme. This gives the new ciphertext c' (denoted by  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(s)'$  in the protocol and the simulation). In the real execution, R is an encryption of  $0_{pk}$  under pk and therefore, all  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^R(r_i)$  are encryptions of  $0_{pk}$  under pk. Since interpolation is a linear operation and the encryption scheme is homomorphic, the value of p at  $0_{pk}$  will also be an encryption of  $0_{pk}$  and thus c' will encrypt the same message as c. In the simulation however, R is an encryption of  $1_{pk}$ . This will help the simulator to cheat. Concretely, the simulator will adjust the  $r_i$ 's of honest parties so that at position  $0_{pk}$ , p will have a uniformly random encryption of the output s (received from the ideal functionality) of the function fevaluated on the inputs of the parties. This is possible since  $|I| \ge t + 1$  and hence, there is at least one honest party whose  $r_i$  is taken into account in the randomization and can be chosen by the simulator in the simulation. Since c is an encryption of  $0_{pk}$  in the simulation, we get that c' encrypts s as wanted. But we need to integrate a mechanism that allows the simulator to choose the  $r_i$ 's of honest parties according to those of corrupted parties. This is done in the following way.

Before reliably broadcasting  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^R(r_i)$  and agreeing on a set of successful broadcasts, the parties commit to their  $r_i$  and use the BrACS protocol to reliably broadcast  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^K(r_i)$ and agree on a set S' of successful broadcasts (including a successful proof of compatible commitment). By the ACS property we will use and by the guarantees of the ACS protocol, we have that the simulator received at least one valid commitment to  $r_k$  for every corrupted party  $P_k \in S'$ . Thus, it can extract all  $r_k$  from corrupted parties in S' ewnp (by the extraction property of UC commitment schemes). Now the simulator can adjust the  $r_i$ 's of the honest parties as described above. Then the parties execute the BrACS for  $\mathsf{Enc}^R_{pk}(r_i)$  (see above) but using the same commitments in the zero-knowledge proof as in the previous BrACS (with  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^K(r_i)$ ). We obtain a set S" and encryptions  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^R(r_i)$  for all  $P_i \in S$ ". The ACS property the parties use in the second BrACS is slightly modified to ensure that the value used to compute the broadcasted encryption in the first BrACS (the one with  $\mathsf{Enc}_{nk}^K(r_i)$ ) and the value used to compute the broadcasted encryption in the second BrACS (the one with  $\mathsf{Enc}^R_{pk}(r_i)$ ) is the same except with negligible probability. Concretely, the property ensures that for all  $P_i \in S''$  at least one honest party likes  $P_i$  for both BrACS executions. Since those BrACS protocols were run with the same commitments, we can be sure that the values used to compute the broadcasted encryptions are the same in both runs of the BrACS protocol. Then we set  $\hat{S} = S' \cap S''$  and observe that  $\hat{S}$  is of size at least  $n - 2t \ge t + 1$  as wanted. Note that the simulator has to know the  $r_k$ 's of corrupted parties in  $\hat{S} \subseteq S'$  before the broadcasting of  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^R(r_i)$  because while it can patch the encryptions and proofs of the first BrACS (with  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^K(r_i)$ ) due to K being an encryption of  $0_{pk}$ , it can not do the same for the second BrACS (with  $\mathsf{Enc}_{nk}^R(r_i)$ ) because R is an encryption of  $1_{pk}$ .

- Output phase (steps 8 and 9): The parties decrypt c' and obtain s. Then they run the reliable consensus protocol on secret input s as termination procedure. The persistency property of reliable consensus ensures that everyone terminates on the same correct output s.

A detailed description of the protocol can be found in Appendix F.

#### 4.3 Main Theorem

Our protocol achieves the following.

**Theorem 1.** The MPC protocol in Appendix F t-securely realizes the ideal functionality in Subsection 4.1 in the KG-hybrid model for t < n/3. The protocol communicates  $\mathcal{O}(c_M n^2 \kappa + D n^2 \kappa + n^3 \kappa + n^5 \log(n))$  bits, where  $c_M$  is the number of multiplication gates in the circuit and D is the multiplicative depth of the circuit.

The simulator and an informal proof of the theorem are given in Appendix G.

Remark 5. It is straightforward to generalize the above protocol to the case where the function f takes  $c_I$  inputs and provides  $c_O$  outputs. If a party  $P_i$  has multiple inputs, it commits to each one of them, reliably broadcasts a random encryption of each one of them and proves compatible commitment for each one of them (in the BrACS). Furthermore, with multiple outputs, the parties execute steps 4–7 of the protocol for each encrypted output of the circuit and then reconstruct the randomized outputs towards the entitled parties. This results in an increase of the communication complexity by a quadratic factor per input and by a cubic factor per output, which leads to the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.** There exists an MPC protocol that t-securely realizes the ideal functionality in Subsection 4.1 in the KG-hybrid model for t < n/3. The protocol communicates  $\mathcal{O}(c_M n^2 \kappa + Dn^2 \kappa + c_I n^2 \kappa + c_O n^3 \kappa + n^3 \kappa + n^5 \log(n))$  bits, where D is the multiplicative depth of the circuit,  $c_M$  is the number of multiplication gates,  $c_I$  is the number of input gates and  $c_O$  is the number of (public and private) output gates in the circuit.

Remark 6. This paper does not focus on round complexity. For information about round-efficient MPC, we refer the reader to [CGHZ16]. Our protocol has a round complexity that depends on the circuit depth.

### 5 Near-Linear MPC in the Atomic Send Model

In this section, we show how to improve the efficiency of our MPC protocol at the cost of stronger assumptions on the model and a slightly lower corruption threshold.

Taking a closer look at the communication complexity of the protocol in Appendix F reveals that the complexity is dominated by the communication in the Triples protocol. While the number of messages sent between the parties per produced triple (and hence per multiplication gate of the circuit) in the Triples protocol is quadratic in the number of parties, the Computation Phase of the protocol only needs near-linear communication per evaluated gate assuming a shallow circuit (except for the input phase which has quadratic communication complexity per input gate). By considering slightly stronger assumptions on the model, we can reduce the communication complexity of the triple generation and obtain a near-linear MPC protocol.

#### 5.1 Model

In this subsection, we present the model which will be used to achieve better efficiency in the generation of multiplication triples. The subsection is based on [BKLL20].

As before (see Subsection 2.1), we consider multiparty computation among a set of n parties  $P_1, \ldots, P_n$ , where every pair of parties is connected by a secure asynchronous communication channel. A protocol in our setting comprises a number of atomic steps.

The adversary in the new setting is computationally bounded and can actively corrupt up to t parties in an atomic send adaptive manner. That is, as long as the adversary has corrupted strictly less than t parties, it can corrupt any party at any point in time considering all the information it has seen so far and make this party behave as it wishes for the remaining steps of the protocol. However, if in some step a party needs to send several messages simultaneously, then the adversary is only allowed to corrupt this party before or after it sent all the messages (that is, the adversary cannot corrupt the party in the midst of the sending). Furthermore, messages sent by any honest party  $P_i$  are guaranteed to arrive eventually, even if  $P_i$  is later corrupted. Once a party is corrupted, the adversary learns its internal state and the party remains corrupted until the end of the protocol.

We assume the existence of non-interactive zero-knowledge (NIZK) proofs and secure erasure.

Moreover, we assume the existence of a trusted party that provides the parties with public and private setup information before the execution of a protocol, more details below. The size of the setup is defined to be the sum of the size of the total private setup information and the size of the public setup information (hence, we count the private information of each party separately, but the public information only once for all parties).

#### 5.2 VACS

This subsection is devoted to the introduction of the VACS primitive. We follow the exposition in [BKLL20].

In the efficient WeakTriples protocol, we need a primitive that allows the parties to agree on a sufficiently large subset of their inputs satisfying a specific predicate. This can be achieved by the VACS primitive.

**Definition 2.** Consider a predicate Q and an n-party protocol  $\pi$ , where every party  $P_i$  has a secret input  $m_i$  and outputs a multiset S of size at most n. Every honest party's input satisfies Q and every party terminates upon generating output. We say that  $\pi$  is a t-secure Q-validated ACS protocol (VACS) with q-output quality if for all adversaries corrupting up to t parties and for all inputs the following is satisfied:

- Q-Validity: Let S be the output of an honest party. Then for every  $m \in S$ , we have Q(m) = 1.
- Consistency: All honest parties agree on S.
- q-Output Quality: The output multiset S of every honest party is of size at least q and contains the inputs of at least q-t parties that were honest at the beginning of the protocol.

**Theorem 3.** Let  $0 < \epsilon < 1/3$ ,  $t \leqslant (1-2\epsilon) \cdot n/3$  and  $q \leqslant (1+\epsilon/2) \cdot 2n/3$ . There exists a t-secure Q-validated ACS protocol  $\Pi_{\mathsf{VACS}}^{q,Q}$  with q-output quality, expected setup size  $\mathcal{O}(q\kappa^4)$  and expected communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}((\mathcal{I}+\kappa^3)\cdot q\kappa n)$ , where  $\mathcal{I}$  is the size of any party's secret input. In addition to the properties of t-secure Q-validated ACS protocols, the  $\Pi_{\mathsf{VACS}}^{q,Q}$  protocol guarantees that the output multiset S contains the inputs of at least  $\frac{q}{2}$  parties that were honest at the beginning of the protocol except with probability smaller than  $e^{\frac{-q\epsilon^2}{(2-3\epsilon)(2+\epsilon)}}$ .

The construction of  $\Pi_{\mathsf{VACS}}^{q,Q}$  and the proof of the first part of the theorem can be found in [BKLL20]. The second part of the theorem can be proven using Lemma 24 of [BKLL20].

### 5.3 Triple Generation

To obtain an efficient protocol for the triple generation in the atomic send model, we start with our Triples protocol from Subsection 3.4 and make it more efficient using the VACS primitive, NIZK proofs and erasures. The following protocol is inspired by the protocols in [BKLL20]. It takes as input an integer  $\ell$  and outputs  $\ell$  encrypted multiplication triples.

### **Protocol** WeakTriples

Let  $\ell$  be the number of triples we want to generate . We assume that the parties have access to the setup for two runs of the VACS protocol with output quality  $\kappa$ .

- 1: Each party  $P_j$  independently chooses uniformly random messages  $a_j^k \in R_{pk}$  and uniformly random elements  $r_j^k$  in the randomness space for all  $k \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}$ . Then,  $P_j$  computes  $A_j^k = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(a_j^k, r_j^k)$  and an NIZK proof  $p_{1,j}^k$  of plaintext knowledge with instance  $A_j^k$  and witness  $(a_j^k, r_j^k)$  for all  $k \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}$ . Finally,  $P_j$  erases  $(a_j^k, r_j^k)$  for all  $k \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}$ .
- 2: The parties run an instance of the  $H^{\kappa,Q}_{\mathsf{VACS}}$  protocol with output quality  $\kappa$ , where every party  $P_j$  has input  $\{(A_j^k,p_{1,j}^k)\}_{k\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}}$  and  $Q(\{(A_j^k,p_{1,j}^k)\}_{k\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}})=1$  if and only if  $p_{1,j}^k$  is a correct NIZK proof of plaintext knowledge with instance  $A_j^k$  for all  $k\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}$ . The parties obtain a multiset S of size at least  $\kappa$  and define  $A^i=\bigoplus_{j\colon\{(A_j^k,p_{1,j}^k)\}_{k\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}}\in S}A_j^i$  for all  $i\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}$ .

- 3: Each party  $P_j$  independently chooses uniformly random messages  $b_j^k \in R_{pk}$  and uniformly random elements  $\hat{r}_j^k$  in the randomness space for all  $k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . Then,  $P_j$  computes  $B_j^k = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(b_j^k, \hat{r}_j^k)$  and  $(C_j^k, \tilde{r}_j^k) = \mathsf{Blind}(b_j^k \odot_{pk} A^k)$ , where  $\mathsf{Blind}$  is the blinding algorithm of the encryption scheme. Furthermore,  $P_j$  computes an NIZK proof  $p_{2,j}^k$  of correct multiplication with instance  $(B_j^k, A^k, C_j^k)$  and witness  $(b_j^k, \hat{r}_j^k, \tilde{r}_j^k)$  for all  $k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . Finally,  $P_j$  erases  $(b_j^k, \hat{r}_j^k)$ ,  $\hat{r}_j^k$  and the information used in the blinding algorithm for all  $k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ .
- 4: The parties run an instance of the VACS protocol  $\Pi^{\kappa,Q'}_{\mathsf{VACS}}$  with output quality  $\kappa$ , where every party  $P_j$  has input  $\{(B^k_j, C^k_j, p^k_{2,j})\}_{k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}}$  and Q' is defined such that  $Q'(\{(B^k_j, C^k_j, p^k_{2,j})\}_{k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}}) = 1$  if and only if  $p^k_{2,j}$  is a correct NIZK proof of correct multiplication with instance  $(B^k_j, A^k, C^k_j)$  for all  $k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . The parties obtain a multiset S' of size at least  $\kappa$  and define  $B^i = \bigoplus_{j \colon \{(B^k_j, C^k_j, p^k_{2,j})\}_{k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\} \in S'}} B^i_j$  and  $C^i = \bigoplus_{j \colon \{(B^k_j, C^k_j, p^k_{2,j})\}_{k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\} \in S'}} C^i_j$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ .
- 5: Every party outputs  $(A^i, B^i, C^i)$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ .

Remark 7. Because we want to ensure that all parties who contribute to the triples know the plaintexts underlying their contributions and because the VACS protocol requires Q and Q' (defined in steps 2 and 4) to be predicates on the inputs of the parties to the VACS protocol, we need to use NIZK proofs.

To prove security of the above WeakTriples protocol, we give the simulator  $\mathcal{S}_{WeakTriples}$  who does not have access to the secret keys of honest parties.

# Simulator $\mathcal{S}_{\mathsf{WeakTriples}}$

The simulator  $S_{\text{WeakTriples}}$  executes the protocol acting honestly on behalf of the honest parties. If the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  at any point of the protocol,  $S_{\text{WeakTriples}}$  gives all the information it holds on behalf of  $P_i$  about the execution of the WeakTriples protocol to the adversary.

**Lemma 2.** For  $0 < \epsilon < 1/3$  and  $t \le (1 - 2\epsilon) \cdot n/3$ , the WeakTriples protocol above satisfies the following:

- Termination: All honest parties terminate the protocol and output  $\ell$  triples.
- Consistency: All honest parties output the same triples.
- Correctness: The output triples are correct.
- Secrecy: The plaintexts underlying the output triples are unknown to the adversary. In other words, the adversary has no more information about these plaintexts than that the plaintexts underlying the third components are the product of the plaintexts underlying the corresponding first and second components.
- Computational Uniform Randomness: The distribution of the plaintexts underlying any output triple is computationally indistinguishable from the uniform distribution over the set of all triples  $(a, b, a \cdot_{pk} b)$  for  $a, b \in R_{pk}$ .
- Independence: The plaintexts underlying any output triple are computationally independent of the plaintexts underlying all other output triples.
- Privacy: The adversary's views in the simulation and the protocol are perfectly indistinguishably distributed, i.e. the adversary does not learn anything.
- Communication complexity: The protocol has expected communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}(\ell \kappa^3 n + \kappa^5 n)$ .

The proof is given in Appendix H.

#### 5.4 Main Theorem for the Atomic Send Model

By replacing the instance of the Triples protocol in step 4 of the Preparation Phase of the MPC protocol in Appendix F by the WeakTriples protocol above, we can improve the communication complexity of our MPC protocol and achieve  $\mathcal{O}(n \cdot \mathsf{poly}(\kappa))$  bits per multiplication

in expectation. Furthermore, using the reliable broadcast protocol presented in [BKLL20] in our BrACS protocol, we can reduce the communication complexity per input and obtain the following theorem.

**Theorem 4.** Let  $0 < \epsilon < 1/3$  and  $t \le (1-2\epsilon) \cdot n/3$ . There exists an MPC protocol that t-securely realizes the ideal functionality in Subsection 4.1 in the KG-hybrid atomic send model and that has expected communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}(c_M n \kappa^3 + D n^2 \kappa + c_I n \kappa^2 + c_O n^3 \kappa + n^3 \kappa + n \kappa^5)$ , where D is the multiplicative depth of the circuit,  $c_M$  is the number of multiplication gates,  $c_I$  is the number of input gates and  $c_O$  is the number of (public and private) output gates in the circuit.

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# **Appendix**

# A MPC Security Model

In this subsection, we briefly summarize the main aspects of the model of Canetti [Can00a] that we use for our protocols. The goal of a protocol is to emulate an *ideal functionality*, which models a trusted party that receives inputs and provides outputs to the parties. Intuitively, a protocol is proven secure if one shows that for any attack that an adversary can perform in the real protocol, one can construct a corresponding ideal adversary which can perform the same attack in the ideal world via what is called the simulator. The simulator runs in the ideal world, interacting only with the ideal functionality and the real adversary, and has to be such that the distributions of messages seen in the real world and ideal world executions are indistinguishable.

**Definition 3 (Real world).** Consider an n-party protocol  $\pi$  and an active adaptive adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  corrupting up to t parties. Let  $\kappa$  be a security parameter, a be an auxiliary string for the adversary and x be the vector of public and private inputs of the parties. We define  $REAL_{\pi,\mathcal{A}}(\kappa,x,a)$  to be the distribution of the private and public outputs of all parties in an execution of  $\pi$  on inputs  $\kappa,x$  and a in the network model described in Subsection 2.1 and in the presence of adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  (the probability comes from the randomness used in an execution of  $\pi$ ). The distribution ensemble  $\{REAL_{\pi,\mathcal{A}}(\kappa,x,a)\}_{\kappa\in\mathbb{N},x\in(\{0,1\}^*)^{2n},a\in\{0,1\}^*}$  is denoted by  $REAL_{\pi,\mathcal{A}}$ . This setting is called the real world model.

Let us introduce the notion of an ideal functionality.

**Definition 4.** An ideal functionality F is an incorruptible trusted party that is connected via a secure channel to each party, takes input from all parties and gives output to all parties according to a specified input-output relation. In other words, F is a black box achieving a specified input-output relation.

**Definition 5 (Ideal world).** Consider an ideal functionality F and an active adaptive simulator (a.k.a. ideal world adversary) S corrupting up to t parties. As in the previous definition, let  $\kappa$  be a security parameter, a be an auxiliary string for the simulator and x be the vector of public and private inputs of the parties. We define  $IDEAL_{F,S}(\kappa, x, a)$  to be the distribution of the private and public outputs of all parties in an execution of F on inputs  $\kappa$ , x and a in the presence of the simulator S (the probability comes from the randomness used in an execution of F). The distribution ensemble  $\{IDEAL_{F,S}(\kappa, x, a)\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}, x \in (\{0,1\}^*)^{2n}, a \in \{0,1\}^*}$  is denoted by  $IDEAL_{F,S}$ . This setting is called the ideal world model.

**Definition 6 (Hybrid world).** Let  $F_1, \ldots, F_l$  be ideal functionalities. We call the  $(F_1, \ldots, F_l)$ -hybrid model to be the real world model where the parties additionally have access to the ideal functionalities  $F_1, \ldots, F_l$ . The distribution of the private and public outputs of all parties in the  $(F_1, \ldots, F_l)$ -hybrid model with inputs  $\kappa, x$  and a in the presence of an active adaptive  $(F_1, \ldots, F_l)$ -hybrid-adversary A corrupting up to t parties is denoted by  $REAL_{\pi, A}^{(F_1, \ldots, F_l)}(\kappa, x, a)$ . Like before, the distribution ensemble  $\{REAL_{\pi, A}^{(F_1, \ldots, F_l)}(\kappa, x, a)\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}, x \in (\{0,1\}^*)^{2n}, a \in \{0,1\}^*}$  is denoted by  $REAL_{\pi, A}^{(F_1, \ldots, F_l)}$ . The ()-hybrid model is the real world model.

The security notion states that the execution of a protocol in the hybrid model does not reveal any more information to the adversary than the ideal functionality that the protocol realizes. This is formalized as follows.

**Definition 7.** Consider an n-party protocol  $\pi$  and ideal functionalities  $F, F_1, \ldots, F_l$ . We say that  $\pi$  t-securely realizes F in the  $(F_1, \ldots, F_l)$ -hybrid model if for all active adaptive  $(F_1, \ldots, F_l)$ -hybrid-adversaries  $\mathcal{A}$  corrupting up to t parties there exists an active adaptive simulator  $\mathcal{S}$  corrupting up to t parties such that  $REAL_{\pi,\mathcal{A}}^{(F_1,\ldots,F_l)} \stackrel{c}{\approx} IDEAL_{F,\mathcal{S}}$ .

# B Details on Universally Composable Commitment Schemes

This subsection is devoted to the introduction of universally composable commitment schemes and some of their properties. The exposition is based on [CF01]. For more details and instantiations see [CF01] and [DN03].

The authors of [CF01] define the ideal functionality of a universally composable commitment scheme between parties  $P_1, \ldots, P_n$  and simulator S as follows. Let sid be a session ID (sid is useful when running several copies of F).

# Functionality F

- 1: On input (Commit, sid,  $P_i$ ,  $P_j$ ,  $b \in \{0,1\}$ ) from  $P_i$ , save b and send (Receipt, sid,  $P_i$ ,  $P_j$ ) to  $P_j$  and S. Disregard any further Commit-messages from  $P_i$  to  $P_j$  associated with sid.
- 2: On input (Open, sid,  $P_i$ ,  $P_j$ ) from  $P_i$ , if there is a saved commitment value b from  $P_i$  to  $P_j$  associated with sid, send (Open, sid,  $P_i$ ,  $P_j$ , b) to  $P_j$  and S and halt. Else halt.

Step 1 models a Commit phase where a party  $P_i$  commits to  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  towards a party  $P_j$ . The ideal functionality receives the value b, the session ID, the sender and the receiver through the Commit-message and informs the receiver as well as the simulator that the sender committed to some value associated to the session ID by sending the Receipt-message.

Step 2 models an Opening phase where a party  $P_i$  opens its commitment towards  $P_j$  (if it indeed committed to a value towards  $P_j$ ).

**Definition 8.** A protocol that securely realizes F is called a universally composable (UC) commitment scheme. If the scheme is secure in the presence of an adaptive adversary, we call it a UC adaptively secure commitment scheme.

UC adaptively secure commitment schemes achieve the following guarantees.

**Proposition 1.** Let  $\pi$  be a UC adaptively secure commitment scheme, let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an adversary and let  $\mathcal{S}_{\pi}$  be the corresponding simulator. Then we have the following properties.

- The scheme is hiding and binding.
- Extraction: Let  $P_i$  be any corrupted party and let T be the transcript of the communication between the adversary and the simulator during a successful Commit phase where  $P_i$  commits to a value b (which might be unknown to  $P_i$ ) towards an honest party  $P_j$ . Then the simulator can extract b from T ewnp.
- Equivocability: Let  $P_i$  be any corrupted party, b be any value and  $\mathcal{T}'_b$  be the distribution of the messages from honest parties during the Commit phase in the real execution, where an honest party  $P_j$  commits to b towards  $P_i$ . Then —without having any information about b— the simulator can efficiently sample messages T from a distribution T such that T is computationally indistinguishable from  $T'_b$ . Furthermore, upon receiving an Open-message for b from the ideal functionality, the simulator can open the commitment given by T to b, that is it can simulate the messages from honest parties in the Opening phase of the commitment given by T to b in a computationally indistinguishable way.
- Adaptiveness: If at any point, the adversary corrupts a party  $P_i$ , the simulator can provide computationally indistinguishably distributed information about the internal state of  $P_i$  (using the information received from the ideal functionality upon corruption of  $P_i$ ) and can patch the information sent to the adversary in a computationally indistinguishable way to the information that the simulator receives from the ideal functionality F.

*Proof.* The proposition follows directly from the definition of the ideal functionality, the definition of UC commitment schemes and the definition of adaptive security.

# C Details on Threshold Homomorphic Encryption Schemes

In this section, we define threshold homomorphic encryption schemes. Our definition is based on the definitions given in [CDN00] and [FPS01]. We use the notation from [CDN00] and [DN03].

**Definition 9.** A threshold homomorphic encryption scheme is a tuple (KeyGen, Enc, DecShare, Comb) such that the following holds.

- KeyGen is a probabilistic algorithm that takes a security parameter  $\kappa$ , the number of parties n and the threshold parameter t as input and outputs a uniformly distributed tuple  $(pk, sk_1, \ldots, sk_n)$  where the public key pk is given to all parties and the secret key  $sk_i$  is given to  $P_i$  for all  $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ .
- Enc is an efficient probabilistic non-interactive algorithm that takes as input a public key pk and a message m and outputs an encryption  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m)$  of m. If we want to specify the randomness r used in the execution of the algorithm, we write  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m,r)$ .
- DecShare is an efficient algorithm that takes as input an index  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , the public key pk, the secret key  $sk_i$  and a ciphertext c and outputs a decryption share  $c_i$  and a proof that  $c_i$  is correctly computed using i, pk, c and  $sk_i$ . We require that from the output of the DecShare algorithm, a computationally bounded adversary does not learn anything about the secret input used, even under parallel composition.
- Comb is an efficient algorithm that takes as input the public key pk, a ciphertext c and pairs  $(c_i, p_i)$  where each pair has a different index. The algorithm outputs a message m or fails.

Furthermore, the scheme needs to satisfy the following properties.

- Correctness (this corresponds to the t-robust property in [FPS01]): Let  $(pk, sk_1, \ldots, sk_n)$  be any output of the KeyGen algorithm, m be any message in the message space  $R_{pk}$ , r be any randomness from the randomness space,  $\mathcal{P}' \subseteq \mathcal{P}$  be any set of parties of size at least t+1 and  $\{(c_i, p_i^c)\}_{P_i \in \mathcal{P}'}$  be any set of pairs of values, where each  $(c_i, p_i^c)$  is from  $P_i \in \mathcal{P}'$  and the second component  $p_i^c$  is a valid proof that the first component  $c_i$  is a correctly computed decryption share for  $i, pk, c = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m, r)$  and  $sk_i$ . We require that, even in the presence of an active adversary that corrupted up to t parties before the KeyGen algorithm,  $\mathsf{Comb}(pk, \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m, r), \{(c_i, p_i^c)\}_{i=1,\ldots,n}) = m$  ewnp, where  $\{(c_i, p_i^c)\}_{P_i \notin \mathcal{P}'}$  are pairs from parties not in  $\mathcal{P}'$  (missing values are set to  $\bot$  by default). In particular, this implies that for any set  $\mathcal{P}' \subseteq \mathcal{P}$  of size at least t+1 and for  $(\tilde{c}_i, \tilde{p}_i^c) = \mathsf{DecShare}(i, pk, sk_i, \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m, r))$  for all  $P_i \in \mathcal{P}'$ , we have  $\mathsf{Comb}(pk, \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m, r), \{(\tilde{c}_i, \tilde{p}_i^c)\}_{P_i \in \mathcal{P}'}, \{(c_i, p_i^c)\}_{P_i \notin \mathcal{P}'}) = m$  ewnp, where again  $\{(c_i, p_i^c)\}_{P_i \notin \mathcal{T}}$  are pairs from parties not in  $\mathcal{P}'$ .
- Threshold semantic security: Let  $\kappa$  be the security parameter and let  $(pk, sk_1, \ldots sk_n)$  be the output of the KeyGen algorithm on input  $(\kappa, n, t)$ . Consider any efficient probabilistic adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  that on input  $\kappa$ , set  $C \subseteq \mathcal{P}$  of size at most t, public key pk and secret keys  $\{sk_i\}_{i\in C}$  of the parties in C outputs two messages  $m_0$  and  $m_1$ . Let  $c_0 = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m_0)$  be an encryption of  $m_0$  and  $c_1 = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m_1)$  an encryption of  $m_1$ . We denote the distribution of  $c_0$  over  $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $C \subseteq \mathcal{P}$  with  $|C| \leqslant t$  by  $X_0(\kappa, C)$  and the distribution of  $c_1$  over the same set as  $X_0$  (namely  $\kappa$  and C) by  $X_1(\kappa, C)$ . We require that the distributions  $\{X_0(\kappa, C)\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}, C \subseteq \mathcal{P}}$  and  $\{X_1(\kappa, C)\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}, C \subseteq \mathcal{P}}$  are computationally indistinguishable.
- Message ring: Let  $R_{pk}$  be the message space for a public key pk. Then  $(R_{pk}, +_{pk}, \cdot_{pk}, 0_{pk}, 1_{pk})$  is a commutative ring. Furthermore, knowing pk, it is possible to do computations in  $R_{pk}$  efficiently.
- Randomness space: The domain for the randomness used in the probabilistic algorithm Enc is a group with group operation  $\boxplus_{pk}$ .
- $+_{pk}$ -homomorphic: There exists an efficient algorithm that takes as input the public key pk and two encryptions  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_1, r_1)$  and  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_2, r_2)$  of  $m_1$  using randomness  $r_1$  respectively of  $m_2$  using randomness  $r_2$  and computes the uniquely determined encryption  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_1 +_{pk} m_2, r_1 \boxplus_{pk} r_2)$  of  $m_1 +_{pk} m_2$  using randomness  $r_1 \boxplus_{pk} r_2$ . We denote a call to this algorithm with inputs pk,  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_1)$  and  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_2)$  by  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_1) \oplus_{pk} \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m_2)$ .

- Multiplication by constant: There exists an efficient algorithm that takes as input the public key pk, a constant  $c \in R_{pk}$  and an encryption  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m)$  of m and computes a uniquely determined encryption  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(c \cdot_{pk} m)$  of  $c \cdot_{pk} m$ . We denote a call to this algorithm with inputs pk, c and  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m)$  by  $c \odot_{pk} \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m)$ .
- Proof of plaintext knowledge: Let  $Q_{pk}$  be the binary predicate such that  $Q_{pk}((m,r),y) = true$  if and only if  $y = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(m,r)$ . We require that there exist efficient patchable zero-knowledge proofs of knowledge for  $Q_{pk}$  with constant communication complexity for all public keys pk.
- Proof of correct multiplication: Similar to the previous property, let  $P_{pk}$  be the binary predicate such that  $P_{pk}((\alpha, r_1, r_2), (y_1, y_2, y_3)) = true$  if and only if  $y_1 = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(\alpha, r_1)$  and  $y_3 = (\alpha \odot_{pk} y_2) \oplus_{pk} \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, r_2)$ . We require that there exist efficient patchable zero-knowledge proofs of knowledge for  $P_{pk}$  with constant communication complexity for all public keys pk.

Remark 8. As noted in [CDN00] we have that if the additive group of the message space  $R_{pk}$  can be spanned by  $1_{pk}$ , then the multiplication by constant property is a direct consequence of the  $+_{pk}$ -homomorphic property.

Furthermore, the Blindable property in [CDN00] follows directly from the slightly modified version of the  $+_{pk}$ -homomorphic property above:

**Proposition 2.** Let (KeyGen, Enc, DecShare, Comb) be any threshold homomorphic encryption scheme. Then there exists an efficient probabilistic algorithm Blind that takes as input a public key pk and an encryption  $y = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m)$  of a message m and outputs an encryption  $z = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m,r)$  of m, where r is a uniformly random element from the randomness space, and the randomization factor  $r_1$ . More precisely, we define  $\operatorname{Blind}(pk,y) := (z,r_1)$ , where  $z = y \oplus_{pk} \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk},r_1)$  and  $r_1$  is a uniformly randomly sampled element of the randomness space. If the public key pk is clear from the context, we omit it as an input to the algorithm.

Proof. Let  $r_1$  be uniformly random in the randomness space and define  $z = y \oplus_{pk} \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, r_1)$  as above. Then by the  $+_{pk}$ -homomorphic property of the encryption scheme we have that  $z = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m +_{pk} 0_{pk}, r_0 \boxplus_{pk} r_1)$  where  $r_0$  is the randomness such that  $y = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m, r_0)$ . Clearly  $m +_{pk} 0_{pk} = m$  and  $r_0 \boxplus_{pk} r_1$  is uniformly random because the randomness space is a group and  $r_1$  is uniformly random in it. Hence, z satisfies the wanted properties.

### C.1 Paillier Threshold Encryption Scheme

In this subsection, we present the Paillier encryption scheme (which was first introduced in [Pai99]) and a threshold version of it (introduced in [FPS01] and [DJ00]). The Paillier threshold version is an instantiation of the above definition. Our exposition of the original scheme and the threshold version closely follows the description in [FPS01]. For more details, we refer the reader to [FPS01], [DJ00] and [DN03].

Paillier Encryption Scheme Let us shortly recall the original Paillier encryption scheme.

Key Generation: Let N = pq be an RSA-modulus and let g be an integer such that  $\operatorname{ord}(g) = \alpha N$  mod  $N^2$ . Let  $\lambda$  be the Carmichael lambda function in  $\mathbb{Z}_{N^2}^*$ . We define the public key to be the pair (N, g) and the secret key to be  $\lambda(N)$ .

Encryption: Let m be a message from the message ring  $\mathbb{Z}_N$ . To encrypt m, choose a uniformly random element  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  and define the ciphertext to be  $c = g^m r^N \mod N^2$ .

Decryption: Let  $W = \{w \in \mathbb{N}_0 \mid w < N^2 \text{ and } w = 1 \mod N\}$  and define the function  $L \colon W \to \mathbb{N}_0 \text{ by } L(w) = \frac{w-1}{N} \text{ (for the well-definedness of the function } L, \text{ see [FPS01]). To decrypt a ciphertext } c, \text{ compute the message } m = \frac{L(c^{\lambda(N)} \mod N^2)}{L(g^{\lambda(N)} \mod N^2)} \mod N. \text{ Correctness of the decrypt and } N$ 

decryption algorithm can be checked using two properties of the Carmichael lambda function, namely that for all elements  $w \in \mathbb{Z}_{N^2}^*$ , we have  $w^{\lambda(N)} = 1 \mod N$  and  $w^{N\lambda(N)} = 1 \mod N^2$ .

For a security analysis of this scheme, see [Pai99].

**Paillier Threshold Version** We continue with the threshold version. Let n be the number of parties. Define  $\Delta = n!$ . The key generation algorithm uses the Shamir sharing scheme to share the secret key among all parties. This secret sharing scheme ensures that all sets of at least t+1 parties can collectively reconstruct the secret key while no set of up to t parties have any information about the secret key. For an explanation of the Shamir sharing scheme, we refer the reader to Section 3.1 of [FPS01] and to [Sha79] where it was first introduced.

Key Generation: Let N be an integer such that N = pq for p = 2p' + 1 and q = 2q' + 1for p' and q' prime and such that  $\gcd(N,\varphi(N))=1$ . We define  $\chi=p'q'$  and we choose  $(\beta, \gamma, \delta) \in (\mathbb{Z}_N^*)^3$  randomly. Next, we set  $g = (1 + N)^{\gamma} \cdot \delta^N \mod N^2$  and we share the secret key  $\beta \cdot \chi$  with the Shamir sharing scheme by setting  $\ell_0 = \beta \cdot \chi$ , randomly choosing coefficients  $\ell_i \in \{0, \dots, \chi N - 1\}$  for  $i \in \{1, \dots, t\}$ , defining the polynomial  $\ell(x) = \sum_{i=0}^t \ell_i x^i$  and providing the share  $sk_i = \ell(i) \mod \chi N$  of the secret key  $\beta \cdot \chi$  to party  $P_i$  for  $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ . The public key is  $pk = (g, N, \theta = L(g^{\chi\beta}) = \gamma\chi\beta \mod N$ ). Finally, let VK = v be a generator of the cyclic group of squares in  $\mathbb{Z}_{N^2}^*$  and set the verification keys to  $VK_i = v^{\Delta sk_i} \mod N^2$  (the verification keys will be used in zero-knowledge proofs in the decryption process).

Encryption: Let m be a message from the message ring  $R_{pk} = \mathbb{Z}_N$ . To encrypt m, choose a

uniformly random  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  and define the ciphertext to be  $c = g^m r^N \mod N^2$ . Decryption Shares: Every party  $P_i$  sends its decryption share  $c_i = c^{2\Delta sk_i} \mod N^2$  to everyone and proves that its share is correct, that is that  $c^{4\Delta} \mod N^2$  and  $v^{\Delta} \mod N^2$  raised to the same power  $sk_i$  yield  $c_i^2$  and  $v_i$ . For a description of the proof used to show that a decryption share is correct, see Section 3.2 of [FPS01].

Combination: If at least t+1 decryption shares are proven to be correct, consider a set U of t+1 correct decryption shares. Define the Lagrange coefficients  $\mu_j^U = \Delta \cdot \frac{\prod_{j' \in U \setminus \{j\}} (-j')}{\prod_{j' \in U \setminus \{j\}} (j-j')} \in \text{ for } I$ 

all  $j \in U$  and compute the message  $m = L(\prod_{j \in U} c_j^{2\mu_j^U} \mod N^2) \cdot \frac{1}{4\Delta^2\theta} \mod N$ . Else (if less than t+1 decryption shares are proven to be correct), the algorithm fails.

We assume without proof that the Paillier threshold encryption scheme satisfies the "Proof of plaintext knowledge" property, the "Proof of correct multiplication" property and the "Proof of compatible commitment" property. In [FPS01], all the remaining properties of Definition 9 are proven to hold for the Paillier threshold encryption scheme. Furthermore, the Paillier threshold encryption scheme satisfies the "Patch" and "Lagrange arguments" properties. In fact, for the "Patch" property, we have that  $r_E$  can be computed efficiently as  $r_E = r_K^{-x} \cdot r_0 \mod N$ , where N is the Paillier public key. For the "Lagrange arguments" property we have that if N = pqis such that  $n < \min\{p,q\}$  and if we set  $\alpha_i = i$  for all  $i \in \{1,\ldots,n\}$ , then the  $\alpha_i$ 's satisfy the condition of the property. In fact, since  $n < \min\{p,q\}$ , we have for all  $(i,j) \in \{1,\ldots,n\}^2$  that  $|\alpha_i - \alpha_j| \in \{0, \dots, n\}$  and thus  $\gcd\{|\alpha_i - \alpha_j|, N\} = 1$ . Hence,  $|\alpha_i - \alpha_j|$  is invertible in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  and thus so is  $\alpha_i - \alpha_j$ . Therefore, we will assume from now on, that N is sufficiently larger than n so that  $n < \min\{p, q\}$ . Finally, we conjecture that the Paillier threshold encryption scheme satisfies the "Selective decryption security" property and Remark 2 (which is another additional property that we need from our encryption scheme to ensure that the presented MPC protocol is secure). However, we do not know how to prove this.

We can thus conclude that the described Paillier threshold encryption scheme is an instantiation of Definition 9 that presumably also satisfies the additional properties we need for our MPC protocol.

# D Details of the Subprotocols

### D.1 Reliable Consensus

In this subsection, we discuss reliable consensus which is a weaker version of asynchronous consensus. Our protocol is a slight modification of the A-Cast protocol in [Bra84]. We follow the exposition of the A-Cast protocol in [CR98]. In this whole subsection, an honest party is a party that is never corrupted by the adversary and remains honest during the whole execution of the protocol.

**Definition 10.** Consider an n-party protocol  $\pi$ , where each party  $P_i$  potentially eventually (possibly not even before it terminates the protocol  $\pi$ ) has a secret input  $m_i$  that can be influenced by other protocols running in parallel. We say that  $\pi$  is a t-resilient reliable asynchronous consensus protocol if for all active adaptive adversaries corrupting up to t parties and for all inputs the following is satisfied:

- Persistency: If the honest parties all eventually have the same secret input m (that is if there is pre-agreement on m), then all honest parties output m and terminate.
- Consistency: If an honest party  $P_i$  outputs a value y and terminates, then all honest parties output y and terminate.

Reliable consensus does not require that honest parties eventually terminate. It is allowed that the protocol runs forever if there is no pre-agreement.

### **Protocol** RC

Each party  $P_i$  acts as follows:

- 1: On input the secret input  $m_i$ , if  $P_i$  has not sent an (echo, m')-message for some m' (potentially equal to  $m_i$ ) to all parties yet, it sends (echo,  $m_i$ ) to all parties.
- 2: On input (echo, m') from n-t parties, if  $P_i$  has not sent (ready, m') to all parties yet, it does so.
- 3: On input (ready, m') from t+1 parties, if  $P_i$  has not sent (ready, m') to all parties yet, it does so.
- 4: On input (ready, m') from n-t parties,  $P_i$  outputs m' and terminates.

**Theorem 5.** The RC protocol is a t-resilient reliable asynchronous consensus protocol for t < n/3 communicating  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$  bits, where  $\kappa$  is the size any party's secret input.

The theorem can be proven along the lines of the proof in [Bra84] for the A-Cast protocol.

#### D.2 A-Cast

In this subsection, we introduce the so-called A-Cast or reliable broadcast (RBC) which is an asynchronous broadcast protocol that was originally introduced in [Bra84]. We follow the exposition in [CR98]. In the whole subsection (as in the previous subsection), an honest party is a party that is never corrupted by the adversary and remains honest during the whole execution of the protocol.

**Definition 11.** Consider an n-party protocol  $\pi$ , where party  $P_S$  (the sender) has input m (the message that it wants to broadcast) and all other parties have input  $P_S$ . We say that  $\pi$  is a t-resilient reliable asynchronous broadcast protocol if for all active adaptive adversaries corrupting up to t parties and for all inputs the following is satisfied:

- Validity: If  $P_S$  is honest, then all honest parties output m and terminate.
- Consistency: If an honest party  $P_i$  outputs a value y and terminates, then all honest parties output y and terminate.

Reliable broadcast (like reliable consensus) does not require that honest parties eventually terminate. It is allowed that the protocol runs forever if the sender is corrupted during or before the execution.

#### Protocol RBC [Bra84]

- 1:  $P_S$  sends m to every party. Denote the value that  $P_i$  receives from  $P_S$  by  $m_i$ .
- 2: The parties run the RC protocol with secret input  $m_i$  for all honest parties  $P_i$  (malicious parties can choose an arbitrary input).

**Theorem 6.** The RBC protocol is a t-resilient reliable asynchronous broadcast protocol for t < n/3 communicating  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$  bits, where  $\kappa$  is the size of the sender's input.

*Proof.* First we will prove that validity holds and then we will show that the protocol achieves consistency.

- Validity: Suppose  $P_S$  is honest. Then  $P_S$  sends m to all parties and all honest parties eventually receive m and use it as their secret input in the run of the RC protocol. Hence, by the persistency property of reliable consensus, we can conclude that all honest parties output m and terminate.
- Consistency: Suppose that there exists an honest party  $P_i$  that outputs y and terminates. The consistency property of the reliable consensus protocol ensures that all other honest parties also output y and terminate and thus we can conclude.

For the communication complexity we have that the RC protocol communicates  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$  bits (see Theorem 5) and hence, it is easy to see that the RBC protocol also communicates  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$  bits.

Our proof works for an adaptive adversary corrupting at most t parties because the reasoning above is independent of which parties the adversary corrupts at what point in time (we only talk about parties that remain honest during the whole execution of the protocol).

The RBC protocol satisfies the following property.

**Proposition 3.** Let  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  be any two computationally indistinguishably distributed messages. Then, even in the presence of an active adaptive adversary corrupting up to t < n/3 parties, an execution of the RBC protocol where  $P_S$  has input  $m_1$  is computationally indistinguishably distributed from an execution of the RBC protocol where  $P_S$  has input  $m_2$ .

The proposition can be proven by reduction.

Remark 9. In [Pat11], Patra presents a t-resilient reliable asynchronous broadcast protocol Multi-Valued-Acast for t < n/3 which achieves linear communication complexity for messages of size  $\Omega(n^3 \log(n))$ . More precisely, for messages of size  $\ell$ , the protocol communicates  $\mathcal{O}(n\ell + n^4 \log(n))$  bits. We use the Multi-Valued-Acast protocol in selected steps of our MPC protocol to reduce the communication complexity.

#### D.3 Byzantine Agreement

In this subsection, we briefly introduce Byzantine agreement. The following definition is taken from [CR98].

**Definition 12.** Consider an n-party protocol  $\pi$ , where each party  $P_i$  eventually has a secret input that can be influenced by other protocols running in parallel. The protocol  $\pi$  is a  $(1 - \epsilon)$ -terminating, t-resilient Byzantine agreement protocol (BA) if for all active adaptive adversaries corrupting up to t parties and for all inputs the following is satisfied:

- Termination: With probability  $1 \epsilon$  all parties terminate.
- Correctness: All honest parties that terminate have the same output. Moreover, if all parties that remain honest during the whole execution of the protocol have the same input m, then all these parties output m and terminate.

For t < n/3,  $(1-\epsilon)$ -terminating, t-resilient asynchronous Byzantine agreement with expected communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  is achieved in [MMR15].

#### D.4 ACS

This subsection is devoted to the introduction of the "agreement on a common subset"-protocol which was first introduced by Canetti in [Can95]. Our exposition is based on Section 4 of [BKR94]. For more details, we refer the reader to [BKR94] and [Can95].

**Definition 13.** Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a set of n parties and let Q be a property that can be influenced by multiple protocols running in parallel. Every party  $P_i \in \mathcal{P}$  can decide for every party  $P_j \in \mathcal{P}$  based on the protocols running in parallel whether  $P_j$  satisfies the property towards  $P_i$  or not. If it does, we say  $P_i$  likes  $P_j$  for Q or simply  $P_i$  likes  $P_j$  if the property Q is clear from the context. We require that once a party likes another party, it cannot unlike it. Such a property Q is called an ACS property if for every pair of uncorrupted parties  $(P_i, P_j) \in \mathcal{P}^2$  we have that  $P_i$  will eventually like  $P_j$ .

While the definition guarantees that all honest parties eventually like each other, a dishonest party can also satisfy Q towards an honest party and then the honest party will like the dishonest party. Furthermore, it is possible for a dishonest party to satisfy Q towards an honest party  $P_i$ , but not towards a different honest party  $P_i$ .

Additionally, the relation goes only one way in terms of if a party  $P_i$  knows that a party  $P_j$  does not satisfy Q, it cannot dislike  $P_i$ . It will simply never like  $P_i$ .

Moreover, as Q can depend on protocols running in parallel, it is not required that at the beginning of the current protocol, all parties already know which parties they like. This can be determined later on.

A simple example of such a property Q is if all parties send a "Present"-message to all other parties to announce that they are in the protocol. A party  $P_i$  likes  $P_j$  as soon as it receives a "Present"-message from  $P_j$ . In this work, Q will usually be a property like "reliable broadcast of an input terminated" or "zero-knowledge proof is accepted".

**Definition 14.** The "agreement on a common subset"-protocol (ACS) is an adaptively secure asynchronous protocol that takes as input an ACS property Q and outputs a set S of parties of size at least n-t such that for each  $P_i \in S$  there exists at least one honest party  $P_j$  that likes  $P_i$  for Q. The protocol ensures that all honest parties terminate with high probability and agree on S.

Observe that while all parties in S are liked by at least one honest party, there might be parties (possibly even honest ones) that are liked by an honest party but are not in S. This is not in contradiction to the guarantee given by the ACS protocol.

To achieve ACS, we run n instances of  $(1-\epsilon)$  terminating, t-resilient Byzantine agreement (BA), one for each party  $P_i \in \mathcal{P}$ . If the output of BA<sub>i</sub> is 1, we add  $P_i$  to S, else we don't.

#### Protocol ACS

Every  $P_i$  does the following:

- 1: For every party  $P_i$  that  $P_i$  likes,  $P_i$  inputs 1 to  $BA_i$ .
- 2: As soon as n-t BA's terminated on output 1,  $P_i$  inputs 0 to all the BA's that it hasn't given input yet.
- 3: After all BA's terminated,  $P_i$  defines S to be the set of parties whose BA terminated on 1, that is  $S = \{P_j \text{ such that the output of BA}_j \text{ is 1}\}.$
- 4: Party  $P_i$  outputs S.

**Proposition 4.** The ACS protocol is indeed an ACS protocol according to Definition 14. The protocol communicates  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$  bits.

The proposition can be proven along the lines of the proof of Lemma 2 in [BKR94] (replace 2t + 1 by n - t in the whole proof).

### D.5 Decryption protocols

**Private Decryption** The private decryption protocol PrivDec takes the public key pk, a ciphertext c and a party P as public input and the secret keys  $sk_1, \ldots, sk_n$  as private inputs. The protocol has no public nor private output for all parties except for P, who privately outputs the plaintext underlying c. This section is along the lines of [BH08, CHP12, CP15].

### Protocol PrivDec

- 1: Every party  $P_i$  computes  $(c_i, p_i^c) = \mathsf{DecShare}(i, pk, sk_i, c)$ , sends  $(c_i, p_i^c)$  to P and terminates.
- 2: As soon as P has received at least t+1 pairs  $(c_k, p_k^c)$  from distinct parties  $P_k$  such that  $p_k^c$  is a valid proof for  $c_k$  from  $P_k$ , P uses the Comb algorithm to compute  $m = \text{Comb}(pk, c, \{(c_k, p_k^c)\}_{k \in \{1, ..., n\}})$ , where P sets all the values that is has not received to  $\bot$ . Then P outputs m.

**Lemma 3.** Every party that remains uncorrupted until the end of the execution terminates the PrivDec protocol. Furthermore, if P is honest at the end of the protocol, then its output m is the correct decryption of c even in the presence of an adaptive adversary actively corrupting up to t < n/3 parties. The protocol has communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n\kappa)$ .

*Proof.* In this whole proof, an honest party is a party that is never corrupted by the adversary and remains honest during the whole execution of the protocol.

Termination: Clearly all honest parties apart from P terminate as they only need to compute a decryption share and send it to P. Furthermore, if P is honest, then it terminates since all honest parties send correct decryption shares. Hence, P eventually receives at least  $n-t\geqslant t+1$  correct decryption shares from distinct parties, runs Comb and obtains and outputs a message m.

Correctness: As we saw above, P eventually receives at least t+1 correct decryption shares from distinct parties. Hence, thanks to correctness of the threshold homomorphic encryption scheme, we can deduce that P can compute the correct decryption m of c. If P is honest, then it computes and outputs m.

It is easy to see that the communication complexity is indeed  $\mathcal{O}(n\kappa)$ .

The proof works for an adaptive adversary corrupting at most t parties because the reasoning above is independent of which parties the adversary corrupts at what point in time (we only talk about parties that remain honest during the whole execution of the protocol).

Amortized Public Decryption The public reconstruction protocol PubDec takes the public key pk and T = n - 2t ciphertexts  $c_1, \ldots, c_T$  as public inputs and the secret keys  $sk_1, \ldots, sk_n$  as private inputs. The protocol publicly outputs the plaintexts  $m_1, \ldots, m_T$  underlying the ciphertexts  $c_1, \ldots, c_T$ . This section is along the lines of [DN07, CHP12, BH08, CP15].

### Protocol PubDec

- 1: Every party defines the polynomial  $g(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{T} x^{j-1} \odot_{pk} c_j$  and computes  $v_i = g(\alpha_i)$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .
- 2: The parties use their secret keys to run  $PrivDec(P_i, v_i)$  for all  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ . Let  $u_i$  be  $P_i$ 's private output from  $PrivDec(P_i, v_i)$  for all  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ .
- 3: Every party  $P_i \in \mathcal{P}$  sends  $u_i$  to all other parties.
- 4: Every party  $P_i \in \mathcal{P}$  locally defines a set  $\mathcal{P}'_i$  of parties and adds party  $P_k$  to  $\mathcal{P}'_i$  as soon as it receives  $u'_k$  from  $P_k$ .

For  $j=0,1,\ldots t$ , as soon as  $|\mathcal{P}_i'|\geqslant T+t+j$ ,  $P_i$  applies an efficient algorithm PolyFind (for example the Berlekamp-Welch decoder) on the points  $\{(\alpha_k,u_k')\}_{P_k\in\mathcal{P}_i'}$  to check whether there exists a polynomial p of degree at most T-1 such that at least T+t of the input points lie on p. If this is the case, then PolyFind outputs this polynomial and  $P_i$  outputs  $m_1=p_1,\ldots,m_T=p_T$ , where  $p(x)=\sum_{j=1}^T x^{j-1}\cdot_{pk}p_j$ , and terminates. Otherwise,  $P_i$  proceeds with iteration j+1.

**Lemma 4.** Every party that remains uncorrupted until the end of the execution terminates the PubDec protocol and outputs the correct decryptions of  $c_1, \ldots, c_T$  even in the presence of an adaptive adversary actively corrupting up to t < n/3 parties. The protocol has communication complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$ .

*Proof.* In this whole proof, an honest party is a party that is never corrupted by the adversary and remains honest during the whole execution of the protocol.

Termination: (taken from [CHP12]) Since all honest parties participate in the  $PrivDec(P_i, v_i)$ protocols for all  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , termination of the PrivDec protocol implies that all honest parties terminate steps 1–3. Next, define the polynomial  $g'(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{T} x^{j-1} \cdot_{pk} m_j$ . Since  $c_j$  is an encryption of  $m_j$  under pk for all  $j \in \{1, \ldots, T\}$ , the homomorphic property of the encryption scheme implies that g(x) is an encryption of g'(x) under pk for all  $x \in R_{pk}$ . In particular, this holds for  $x = \alpha_k$  for all  $k \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ . Hence, by the correctness of the PrivDec protocol and by definition of  $u_k$ , we have  $u_k = g'(\alpha_k)$  for all honest parties  $P_k$ . Now, let  $P_i$  be an arbitrary honest party and let  $\hat{j}$  be the first iteration when all honest parties are in  $\mathcal{P}'_i$  (note that every honest party eventually includes all honest parties in  $\mathcal{P}'_i$  and since there are at most n = T + 2tparties, we have  $\hat{j} \leq t$ ). Then, either PolyFind already found a polynomial in iteration j for  $j < \hat{j}$  and  $P_i$  terminated before iteration  $\hat{j}$  or in iteration  $\hat{j}$ ,  $\mathcal{P}'_i$  is of size  $T + t + \hat{j}$  and contains n-t=T+t honest parties. Hence, since g' is a polynomial of degree at most T-1 and at least T+t input points (namely the points from honest parties) lie on g', we can be sure that the PolyFind algorithm finds a polynomial and  $P_i$  terminates in step  $\hat{j}$ . Hence, after at most  $\hat{j} \leq t$  iterations,  $P_i$  terminates. Note that if in an iteration j the PolyFind algorithm fails to find a polynomial that passes the checks, then  $P_i$  has not received all the  $u'_k = u_k$ 's from honest parties as otherwise the PolyFind algorithm would have succeeded (see above). Hence, if in an iteration the PolyFind algorithm fails to compute a suitable polynomial, then it is ok for  $P_i$  to proceed with the next iteration because it is guaranteed that  $P_i$  can eventually add at least one party to  $\mathcal{P}'_i$  and as soon as  $P_i$  has all the  $u_k$ 's from honest parties (i.e all honest parties are in  $\mathcal{P}'_i$ ), it can terminate (and this will happen before the tth iteration ended).

Correctness: Let  $P_i$  be any honest party. As  $P_i$  terminates, it found a polynomial p of degree at most T-1 and a set of parties  $\mathcal{P}_i''$  of size at least T+t such that  $P_i$  received a message  $u_k'$  from all  $P_k \in \mathcal{P}_i''$  and  $u_k' = p(\alpha_k)$  for all  $P_k \in \mathcal{P}_i''$ . Since there are at most t corrupted parties, at least T of the parties in  $\mathcal{P}_i''$  are honest. In the proof for termination, we saw that for honest parties,  $u_k' = u_k = g'(\alpha_k)$ . Therefore, there exist T distinct elements  $\alpha_k$  with  $p(\alpha_k) = g'(\alpha_k)$ . Since T points uniquely define a polynomial of degree at most T-1 and both p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials of degree at most p and p are polynomials p are polynomials degree at most p and p are polynomials p are polynomials p are polynomials

The claim about the communication complexity follows directly from the communication complexity of the PrivDec protocol.

Again, the proof works for an adaptive adversary corrupting at most t parties because the reasoning above is independent of which parties the adversary corrupts at what point in time (we only talk about parties that remain honest during the whole execution of the protocol).

Remark 10. In every instance of the PubDec protocol, each party executes the PolyFind algorithm up to t+1 times. By using local player elimination, we can reduce the number of runs of the PolyFind algorithm in m instances of the PubDec protocol to t+m per party (instead of m(t+1)). More precisely, if in iteration j the run of the PolyFind algorithm of an honest party fails to output a polynomial that passes the checks, then at least j+1 of the inputs must be wrong (otherwise the PolyFind algorithm would have succeeded). Since every party outputs a polynomial satisfying all the checks at latest in round t, each party can then detect which inputs were wrong and can locally eliminate the parties that sent those wrong values. In any future run of the PolyFind algorithm in the PubDec protocol, the party ignores the values sent

from parties it locally eliminated (respectively, it does not include parties it locally eliminated in  $\mathcal{P}'_i$ ).

Remark 11. By reduction and by Remark 2, we can deduce that for  $c_1^1, \ldots, c_T^1$  and  $c_1^2, \ldots, c_T^2$  two computationally indistinguishably distributed sets of T ciphertexts with computationally indistinguishably distributed sets of underlying plaintexts, an instance of the PubDec protocol with  $(pk, c_1^1, \ldots, c_T^1)$  as public input (and  $sk_1, \ldots, sk_n$  as private inputs) is computationally indistinguishably distributed to an instance of the PubDec protocol with  $(pk, c_1^2, \ldots, c_T^2)$  as public input (and  $sk_1, \ldots, sk_n$  as private inputs) even in the presence of an active adaptive adversary corrupting up to t < n/3 parties.

### D.6 Multiplication

This subsection presents the multiplication protocol which is based on [DN07] and the Multiplication Gate in the Computation Phase protocol of [BH08]. The protocol uses circuit randomization which was originally introduced in [Bea92].

Let  $T = \lfloor \frac{n-2t}{2} \rfloor$ . Our multiplication protocol processes up to T independent multiplication gates at the same time. To ensure independence of the gates, every run of the multiplication protocol only considers multiplication gates with a specific multiplicative depth.

The multiplication protocol takes as input T multiplication gates  $m_1, \ldots, m_T$  with the same multiplicative depth, the 2T inputs  $\{(X_i, Y_i)\}_{i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}}$  (encrypting the values  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}}$ ) to the given multiplication gates and the T encrypted multiplication triples  $\{(A_i, B_i, C_i)\}_{i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}}$  (encrypting the values  $\{(a_i, b_i, a_i \cdot_{pk} b_i)\}_{i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}}$ ) associated with the given multiplication gates. We require that the multiplication triples underlying the encrypted triples  $\{(A_i, B_i, C_i)\}_{i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}}$  are unknown to the adversary and computationally uniformly and independently distributed over the space of all multiplication triples (the latter is equivalent to the plaintexts underlying the first and second components of the triples being computationally uniformly and independently distributed and the third component being the product of the first two). The protocol publicly outputs T encryptions  $\{Z_i\}_{i\in\{1,\ldots,T\}}$ , where the underlying plaintexts  $z_i$  are equal to  $x_i \cdot_{pk} y_i$  for all  $i \in \{1,\ldots,T\}$ .

#### **Protocol** Multiplication

- 1: Every party locally computes  $X_i \ominus_{pk} A_i$  encrypting  $x_i -_{pk} a_i$  and  $Y_i \ominus_{pk} B_i$  encrypting  $y_i -_{pk} b_i$  for all  $i \in \{1, ..., T\}$  using the " $+_{pk}$ -homomorphic" property of the encryption scheme.
- 2: The parties use their secret keys to run  $\mathsf{PubDec}(\{X_i \ominus_{pk} A_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}}, \{Y_i \ominus_{pk} B_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}})$  and obtain  $x_i -_{pk} a_i$  and  $y_i -_{pk} b_i$  for all  $i \in \{1,...,T\}$ .
- 3: Each party locally computes  $E_i = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}((x_i -_{pk} a_i) \cdot_{pk} (y_i -_{pk} b_i), e)$  for all  $i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}$ , where e is the neutral element of the randomness space. Then, it computes  $Z_i = E_i \oplus_{pk} [(x_i -_{pk} a_i) \odot_{pk} B_i] \oplus_{pk} [(y_i -_{pk} b_i) \odot_{pk} A_i] \oplus_{pk} C_i$  for all  $i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}$ .
- 4: Every party outputs  $\{Z_i\}_{i\in\{1,\ldots,T\}}$ .
- Remark 12. 1. If n-2t is odd, then the parties only input n-2t-1 ciphertexts to the PubDec protocol in step 2. In that case, the parties additionally give  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk},e)$  as input to the PubDec protocol, where e is again the neutral element of the randomness space, obtain the plaintext  $0_{pk}$  as one of the outputs of PubDec and simply disregard it in all further steps.
- 2. If only T' < T multiplication gates are input to the multiplication protocol (for example when there are less than T multiplication gates with the same multiplicative depth in a given circuit), then the parties execute the protocol normally doing all the computations for indices in  $\{1, \ldots, T'\}$  instead of in  $\{1, \ldots, T\}$  and adding the encryption  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, e)$  to the inputs of the PubDec protocol n-2t-2T' times (where e is again the neutral element of the randomness space).

The multiplication protocol achieves the following.

**Proposition 5.** Let  $m_1, \ldots, m_T$  be T multiplication gates with the same multiplicative depth and let  $\{(A_i, B_i, C_i)\}_{i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}}$  be the encrypted multiplication triples associated with the given gates. Furthermore, let  $\{(X_i^1, Y_i^1)\}_{i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}}$  and  $\{(X_i^2, Y_i^2)\}_{i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}}$  be two computationally indistinguishably distributed sets of 2T ciphertexts. Then, even in the presence of an active adaptive adversary corrupting up to t < n/3 parties, an execution of the multiplication protocol with  $\{(X_i^1, Y_i^1)\}_{i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}}$  as inputs to the given gates is computationally indistinguishably distributed from an execution of the multiplication protocol with  $\{(X_i^2, Y_i^2)\}_{i \in \{1, \ldots, T\}}$  as inputs to the given gates.

*Proof.* Using reduction it is easy to see that step 1 is computationally indistinguishably distributed in both executions (even if the adversary corrupts a party during step 1).

For step 2, we know by reduction that the ciphertexts  $(\{X_i^1 \ominus_{pk} A_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}}, \{Y_i^1 \ominus_{pk} B_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}})$  and  $(\{X_i^2 \ominus_{pk} A_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}}, \{Y_i^2 \ominus_{pk} B_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}})$  are computationally indistinguishably distributed. Furthermore, we know that the plaintexts underlying  $\{A_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}}$  and the plaintexts underlying  $\{B_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}}$  are unknown to the adversary and computationally uniformly and independently distributed. Therefore, the plaintexts underlying  $\{X_i^1 \ominus_{pk} A_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}}, \{Y_i^1 \ominus_{pk} B_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}}), \{X_i^2 \ominus_{pk} A_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}} \text{ and } \{Y_i^2 \ominus_{pk} B_i\}_{i \in \{1,...,T\}})$  are all unknown to the adversary and computationally uniformly and independently distributed and thus, they are computationally indistinguishably distributed. By Remark 11, we can conclude that step 2 of the multiplication protocol is computationally indistinguishably distributed in both executions, even if the adversary corrupts a party.

As for step 1, a reduction argument shows that steps 3 and 4 maintain computational indistinguishability (even if the adversary corrupts a party during these steps).

**Proposition 6.** The multiplication protocol communicates  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\kappa)$  bits.

# E Proof of Lemma 1

We will prove each property separately. The proof is inspired by [BH08, DN03, HN06, BHN08, CP15]. In this whole proof, an honest party is a party that remains honest during the whole execution of the protocol. Furthermore, we use uppercase letters to denote ciphertexts and the corresponding lowercase letters to denote the plaintexts underlying these ciphertexts.

- Termination and Consistency: By validity of reliable broadcast and completeness of zero-knowledge proofs, Q and Q' defined in the Triples protocol are indeed ACS properties according to Definition 13. Hence, the guarantees of the ACS primitive ensure that all honest parties eventually terminate the two ACS instances in the protocol and consistently output a set S, respectively S', of parties of size at least n-t, where each party in S, respectively S', is liked by at least one honest party for Q, respectively Q'. Therefore, for each  $P_k \in S$ , respectively  $P_k \in S'$ , at least one honest party terminated the Multi-Valued-Acast of  $A_k^i|_{i\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}}$ , respectively  $\{(B_k^i, C_k^i)\}_{i\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}}$ . Consistency of reliable broadcast then implies that all honest parties eventually terminate the reliable broadcasts of  $A_k^i|_{i\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}}$ , respectively  $A_k^i|_{i\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}}$  for all parties  $A_k^i|_{i\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}}$ , with the same output. Hence, all honest parties can compute  $A_k^i|_{i\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}}$  as described in the protocol for  $A_k^i|_{i\in\{1,\dots,\ell\}}$ , output the same triples and terminate.
- Correctness: By the properties of the ACS primitive, the definition of Q' and soundness of zero-knowledge proofs, we know that for every party  $P_k$  in S', the plaintext underlying  $C_k^i$  is the product of the plaintexts underlying  $B_k^i$  and  $A^i$  for all  $i \in \{1, ..., \ell\}$ . By definition of  $B^i$  and  $C^i$  for  $i \in \{1, ..., \ell\}$ , we can directly conclude that the plaintext underlying  $C^i$  is the product of the plaintexts underlying  $B^i$  and  $A^i$  for all  $i \in \{1, ..., \ell\}$ . Hence, the output triples are correct.

- Secrecy, Computational Uniform Randomness and Independence: First note that the Computational Uniform Randomness and the Independence properties are equivalent to the distributions of the plaintexts underlying the first and second components of any output triple being computationally indistinguishable from the uniform distribution over the message space  $R_{pk}$  and computationally independent of the distribution of all other first and second components of output triples (because the plaintexts underlying the third components are uniquely determined by the plaintexts underlying the corresponding first two components). In the following, we show the latter.

We start by showing that the plaintexts underlying  $A^{i}$  are computationally uniformly and independently distributed and unknown to the adversary for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . We do this by reduction to the presented special case of the "Selective decryption security" property of the encryption scheme (i.e.  $\ell_j = 1$  for all  $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ ). Let i be an arbitrary index in  $\{1,\ldots,\ell\}$ . Suppose there exists an adversary  $\mathcal{A}_1$  that has non-negligible advantage in distinguishing the plaintext underlying  $A^i$  (generated in a instance of the Triples protocol) from a uniformly and independently distributed plaintext (i.e.  $\mathcal{A}_1$  runs the Triples protocol with its challenger (who acts honestly on behalf of honest parties) and afterwards,  $A_1$  is given the plaintexts underlying the first and second components of all triples except for  $A^i$ and a plaintext which is either the plaintext underlying  $A^i$  or a uniformly and independently distributed plaintext). From  $A_1$ , we can construct an adversary  $A_2$  against the security game described in the "Selective decryption security" property with M being the uniform distribution over  $R_{nk}^n$  and Rd being the uniform distribution over the n product of the randomness space. The adversary  $A_2$  starts an instance of the Triples protocol with the adversary  $A_1$ , sets I to be the indices of the parties that are corrupted by  $A_1$  at the beginning of the Triples protocol and sends I to its challenger. Then it receives n-t' ciphertexts and runs the Triples protocol with  $A_1$  acting honestly on behalf of honest parties except in step 1 where it uses the ciphertexts received from its challenger as the  $A_i^i$ 's of honest parties  $P_j$  and the simulator for zero-knowledge proofs of knowledge for the simulation of the zero-knowledge proofs of plaintext knowledge of the  $A_i^i$ 's of honest parties. If at any point a party is corrupted by  $A_1$ , then  $A_2$  asks its challenger to open the corresponding ciphertext and uses the Pat algorithm to patch the given zero-knowledge proof. Then it gives the information it holds on behalf of the corrupted party and the patched information to the adversary. As soon as the Triples protocol terminates,  $A_2$  sends the "EndCorruption"-message to its challenger and receives |I'| plaintexts. Next, it extracts all the contributions to the first components of corrupted parties in S and the contributions to the second components of corrupted parties in S' (this is possible by the guarantees of the ACS primitive, the definitions of Q and Q'and soundness of zero-knowledge proofs). Then,  $A_2$  computes the plaintexts underlying all first and second components of the output triples except  $A^{i}$  and gives them to the adversary (this is possible because  $A_2$  chose the contributions of honest parties to the first and second components except for  $A^i$  and  $A_2$  extracted the contributions of the relevant corrupted parties). Furthermore,  $A_2$  sums the plaintexts with indices in  $S \setminus C$  that it received from its challenger to the contributions to  $A^i$  of the corrupted parties in S and gives the resulting plaintext to the adversary. Then, it receives a guess from  $A_1$  and outputs the same guess. It is easy to see that thanks to the definition of M and Rd,  $A_2$  simulates the Triples protocol for  $A_1$  in an indistinguishable way. Furthermore, since S is of size at least n-t, there is at least one honest party in S. We choose an arbitrary honest party in S and denote its index by h. The guarantees of the ACS primitive and the definition of the ACS property Q ensure that for each  $P_k \in S$ , at least one honest party accepts the zero-knowledge proof of plaintext knowledge for  $A_k^i$ . Therefore, soundness of zero-knowledge proofs implies that with high probability the adversary knows the plaintext  $a_k^i$  underlying  $A_k^i$  for all corrupted parties  $P_k$  in S. By semantic security and the "Selective decryption security" property, the adversary does not know the plaintext  $a_h^i$  underlying  $A_h^i$ . Thus, the  $a_k^i$ 's from corrupted

parties  $P_k \in S$  are independent of  $a_h^i$ . Since M is the uniform distribution and thus,  $M_{S\setminus C}$  is still the uniform distribution, we can conclude that if b=1, then the plaintext given to  $\mathcal{A}_1$  is a uniformly and independently distributed plaintext. Clearly, if b=0, then the plaintext given to  $\mathcal{A}_1$  is the plaintext underlying  $A^i$  and therefore, we have that if  $\mathcal{A}_1$  wins, then  $\mathcal{A}_2$  wins as well. Hence,  $\mathcal{A}_2$  has at least the same non-negligible advantage as  $\mathcal{A}_1$ . This contradicts the "Selective decryption security" property. Since i was an arbitrary index in  $\{1,\ldots,\ell\}$ , we can conclude that the plaintexts underlying the first components of the output triples are computationally uniformly and independently distributed and unknown to the adversary.

The argument for the plaintexts underlying the second components of the output triples is analogous and thus, we can conclude that Computational Uniform Randomness and Independence hold. For Secrecy, we still need to argue that the adversary does not have more information about the plaintexts underlying  $C^i$  than that they are the product of the plaintexts underlying  $A^i$  and  $B^i$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . To do so, we use a reduction to the secrecy of the plaintexts underlying the first and second components. We observe the following. Let i be an arbitrary index in  $\{1,\ldots,\ell\}$  and let k be any index such that  $P_k\in S'$ . If  $P_k$ is corrupted at any point of the Triples protocol, then the adversary knows  $b_k^i$  with high probability (by the guarantees of the ACS primitive, the definition of the ACS property Q'and soundness of zero-knowledge proofs). However, since  $a^i$  is unknown to the adversary (see above) and by reduction, the adversary still does not know anything more about  $c_k^i$ than that it is the product of  $b_k^i$  and the unknown plaintext  $a^i$  underlying  $A^i$  (note that since  $P_k$  is in S', the guarantees of the ACS primitive, the definition of the ACS property Q' and soundness of zero-knowledge proofs ensure that with high probability  $C_k^i$  is indeed the product of the plaintexts underlying  $B_k^i$  and  $A^i$ ). If  $P_k$  remains honest during the whole execution of the protocol, then by semantic security and the "Selective decryption security" property, the adversary does not have more information about  $c_k^i$  than that it is the product of the plaintexts underlying  $B_k^i$  and  $A^i$  which are both unknown to the adversary. Hence, since  $C^i = \bigoplus_{P_k \in S'} C^i_k$ ,  $B^i = \bigoplus_{P_k \in S'} B^i_k$  and all  $B^i_k$ 's are only used to compute  $B^i$ , we can conclude that the adversary does not know anything about the plaintext underlying  $C^i$  but that it is the product of the plaintexts underlying  $A^i$  and  $B^i$ . Finally, since i was an arbitrary index in  $\{1, \ldots, \ell\}$ , we can conclude that Secrecy holds.

- Privacy: It is easy to see that this property holds because the simulator  $\mathcal{S}_{\mathsf{Triples}}$  can perfectly imitate the honest parties (no party has any secret input to this protocol). Hence, also if the adversary decides to corrupt any party during the execution of the protocol, the simulator can give perfectly indistinguishably distributed information to the adversary.
- Communication complexity: The parties only communicate in steps 1, 2, 4 and 5 of the protocol. Furthermore, it is easy to see that the communication complexity of steps 1 and 4 are in the same complexity class and the communication complexity of steps 2 and 5 are in the same complexity class. Hence, the overall communication complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(\{\text{communication complexity of step 1}\} + \{\text{communication complexity of step 2}\})$ . In step 1, each party uses the Multi-Valued-Acast to broadcast  $\ell$  values (of size  $\kappa$ ) and proves bilaterally to each party plaintext knowledge of the  $\ell$  broadcasted values. Hence, the communication complexity of step 1 is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\ell\kappa + n^5\log(n))$ . By Appendix D.4, we know that the communication complexity of step 2 is  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ . Thus, we can conclude that the total communication complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2\ell\kappa + n^5\log(n))$ .

### F Protocol

The protocol we present uses a key generation oracle (KG) which sets up all the public and private keys used in our protocol, gives the keys to the entitled parties and provides public Lagrange arguments for all parties. We assume that the simulator has access to an efficient key

generation algorithm (KGA) that computes a computationally indistinguishably distributed set of public and private keys and Lagrange arguments. Furthermore, we assume that the parties have access to an encoder and a decoder algorithm that transform values from the message space of the encryption scheme to  $\{0,1\}^*$  and vice versa. We do not explicitly mention when the parties use the encoder and decoder algorithms. They are implicitly used whenever a transformation is necessary.

The description of the protocol follows the structure of the FuncEval<sub>f</sub> Algorithm in [CDN00].

#### **Protocol**

#### Preparation Phase:

- 1: Every party  $P_i$  receives a security parameter  $\kappa$ , the number of parties n, a secret input  $x_i \in \{0,1\}^*$  and a random string  $b_i \in \{0,1\}^*$  as input. The adversary is given the inputs  $\kappa$ , n, a random string  $b \in \{0,1\}^*$  and an auxiliary string  $a \in \{0,1\}^*$ .
- 2: The parties call the key generation oracle KG. Every party  $P_i$  receives the common outputs  $pk, K, R, \{K_{\nu}\}_{\nu}$ ,  $\{\alpha_i\}_{i\in\{1,...,n\}}$  and the secret outputs  $sk_i, \{K_{\chi}^i\}_{\chi}$ , where  $(pk, sk_1, ..., sk_n)$  is a uniformly random threshold encryption key, K is a uniformly random encryption of  $1_{pk}$  under pk, R is a uniformly random encryption of  $0_{pk}$  under  $pk, \{K_{\nu}\}_{\nu}$  are the public keys used for the zero-knowledge proofs and the commitment scheme,  $\{K_{\chi}^i\}_{\chi}$  are the private keys of  $P_i$  used for the zero-knowledge proofs and the commitment scheme and  $\{\alpha_i\}_{i\in\{1,...,n\}}$  are Lagrange arguments.
- 3: On input pk, every party computes the arithmetic circuit over  $R_{pk}$  corresponding to the function f evaluated on n inputs. We denote the gates in the circuit by  $H_{pk}^1, \ldots, H_{pk}^l$ .
- 4: Let  $c_M$  be the number of multiplication gates in the circuit. The parties execute the Triples protocol with input  $c_M$  and obtain a set of triples  $\{(A_i, B_i, C_i)\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$ , where  $\mathcal{I}$  is the set of all indices of multiplication gates in the circuit.

#### Computation Phase:

- 1: Each party  $P_i$  commits to its secret input  $x_i$  towards every party  $P_j$  for all  $j \in \{1, ..., n\}$  under the corresponding commitment key. For all  $(i, j) \in \{1, ..., n\}^2$ , let  $C_{i \to j}$  be the commitment to  $x_i$  from  $P_i$  towards  $P_j$  and let  $(x_i, c_{ij})$  be the opening information for  $C_{i \to j}$ .
- 2: Each party  $P_i$  chooses a uniformly random value  $r_{x_i}$  from the randomness space. The parties run the BrACS protocol from Appendix F with public input (pk, K) and secret input  $(x_i, r_{x_i}, \{c_{ij}\}_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}}, \{C_{i \to j}\}_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}}, \{C_{j \to i}\}_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}})$  for every party  $P_i$  and obtain as output a set S and encryptions  $\{\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^K(x_i)\}_{i \in P_i \in S}$ .
- 3: Evaluate the circuit as in [CDN00]: While there are gates that have not been evaluated yet, let  $J \subseteq \{1, \ldots, l\}$  be the set of non-evaluated gates that are ready to be evaluated. Evaluate all gates in J in parallel by doing for every  $j \in J$ :
  - a) If  $H_{pk}^j$  is an input gate for a party  $P_i \in S$ , then every party sets  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_j) = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^K(x_i)$ . If  $H_{pk}^j$  is an input gate for a party  $P_i \notin S$ , then every party computes  $d \odot_{pk} K$  using the "Multiplication by constant" property of the encryption scheme and sets  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_j) = d \odot_{pk} K$ , where d is a default value.
  - b) If  $H_{pk}^j$  is a constant input gate for a constant c, then every party sets  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_j) = c \odot_{pk} K$  by using the "Multiplication by constant" property of the encryption scheme.
  - c) If  $H_{pk}^j$  is an addition gate for  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_{j_1})$  and  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_{j_2})$ , every party sets  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_j) = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_{j_1}) \oplus_{pk} \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_{j_2})$  using the " $+_{pk}$ -homomorphic" property of the encryption scheme.
  - d) If  $H^j_{pk}$  is a multiplication by a constant gate for values c and  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_{j_1})$ , every party sets  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_j) = c \odot_{pk} \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(h_{j_1})$  using the "Multiplication by constant" property of the encryption scheme.
  - e) If  $H^j_{pk}$  is a multiplication gate, the parties wait until all the multiplication gates with the same multiplicative depth as  $H^j_{pk}$  are ready to be evaluated. As soon as this is the case, the parties split these multiplication gates into blocks of  $\lfloor \frac{n-2t}{2} \rfloor$  gates. For each block, the parties use the multiplication protocol from Appendix D.6 with the following input: the gates in the block, their input ciphertexts and the encrypted multiplication triples associated with the gates in the considered block. From this, the parties obtain the encrypted outputs of all the multiplication gates with the same multiplicative depth as  $H^j_{pk}$ .
  - Let  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(s)$  be the output of the evaluated circuit.
- 4: Every party  $P_i$  generates a uniformly random  $r_i$  from the message space  $R_{pk}$ . Each  $P_i$  commits to  $r_i$  towards every party  $P_j$  for all  $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$  under the corresponding commitment key. For all  $(i, j) \in \{1, \ldots, n\}^2$ , let  $B_{i \to j}$  be the commitment to  $r_i$  from  $P_i$  towards  $P_j$  and let  $(r_i, b_{ij})$  be the opening information for  $B_{i \to j}$ .

- 5: Every party  $P_i$  chooses a uniformly random value  $r_{r_i}^K$  from the randomness space. Then, the parties run the BrACS protocol (see Appendix F) with public input (pk, K) and secret input  $(r_i, r_{r_i}^K, \{b_{ij}\}_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}}, \{B_{i \to j}\}_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}}, \{B_{j \to i}\}_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}})$  for every party  $P_i$ . The parties get as output a set S' and encryptions  $\{\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^K(r_i)\}_{i \in P_i \in S'}$ .
- 6: Every party  $P_i$  chooses a uniformly random value  $r_{r_i}^R$  from the randomness space. Then, the parties run the BrACS protocol with public input (pk, R) and secret input  $(r_i, r_{r_i}^R, \{b_{ij}\}_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}}, \{B_{i \to j}\}_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}}, \{B_{j \to i}\}_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}})$  for every party  $P_i$ . In this execution of the BrACS, we take a slightly modified ACS property Q, namely to all the conditions described in the BrACS protocol, we add that a party  $P_j$  only likes another party  $P_i$  if  $P_j$  likes  $P_i$  for the ACS property of the BrACS execution in step 5 (it is okay if  $P_j$  only likes  $P_i$  after the BrACS from step 5 terminated and input 0 to BA<sub>i</sub> in the ACS of step 5). The parties obtain as output a set S'' and encryptions  $\{\text{Enc}_{pk}^R(r_i)\}_{i \in P_i \in S''}$ .
- 7: Let  $\hat{S} = S' \cap S''$ . Let I be the set of indices of the parties in  $\hat{S}$  and let  $\{\lambda_i\}_{i \in I}$  be the Lagrange coefficients of degree |I| 1 over  $R_{pk}$  such that for any polynomial g of degree at most |I| 1 we have  $g(0_{pk}) = \sum_{i \in I} \lambda_i \cdot_{pk} g(\alpha_i)$  (precisely  $\lambda_i = \prod_{\substack{j \in I \\ j \neq i}} (0_{pk} \alpha_j) \cdot_{pk} (\alpha_i \alpha_j)^{-1}$  for all  $i \in I$ ). Every party  $P_i$  locally computes  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(s)' = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(s) \bigoplus_{\substack{pk \\ i \in I}} (\lambda_i \odot_{pk} \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^R(r_i))$ .
- 8: The parties use their secret keys to run  $\mathsf{PrivDec}(P_i, \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(s)')$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  and all parties obtain s.
- 9: The parties run the reliable consensus protocol RC taking as secret input the value s decrypted in the previous step (as soon as they obtain it).

**BrACS** In this subsection, we discuss the BrACS protocol used in our MPC protocol. The subprotocol takes as public input the public key pk of the encryption scheme and an encryption M (in our protocol and simulation this is sometimes an encryption of  $1_{pk}$  and other times an encryption of  $0_{pk}$ ). The message encrypted by M is denoted by m. For each party  $P_i$  the protocol takes as secret input a message  $a_i$ , a randomness  $r_{a_i}$ , n values  $c_{ij}$  and 2n commitments  $C_{j\to i}$  and  $C_{i\to j}$  for  $j \in \{1\dots, n\}$ . The  $C_{j\to i}$ 's represent commitments from  $P_j$  towards  $P_i$ . If  $P_i$  and  $P_j$  are both honest,  $(a_i, c_{ij})$  is the opening information for the commitment  $C_{i\to j}$  that  $P_j$  holds. The protocol publicly outputs a set S of parties and for each party  $P_i \in S$  it publicly outputs an encryption of  $a_i \cdot p_k m$ .

#### Protocol BrACS

- 1: Every party  $P_i$  generates an encryption of  $a_i \cdot_{pk} m$  by computing  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^M(a_i, r_{a_i})$  and reliably broadcasts  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^M(a_i, r_{a_i})$  using the RBC protocol.
- 2: Every  $P_i$  uses the "Proof of compatible commitment" property in Subsection 2.4 and proves to all  $P_j$  for  $j \in \{1, ..., n\}$  with instance  $(\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^M(a_i, r_{a_i}), C_{i \to j})$  and witness  $(a_i, r_{a_i}, c_{ij})$ .
- 3: Let Q be the property such that a party  $P_k$  satisfies Q towards another party  $P_j$  if and only if the reliable broadcast of  $P_k$  in step 1 terminated for  $P_j$  and the proof in step 2 was accepted by  $P_j$ . The parties run the ACS protocol with property Q and obtain a set  $S \subseteq \mathcal{P}$ . Every  $P_i$  waits until the reliable broadcast of all parties  $P_k \in S$  terminated. Then each party outputs S and for each  $P_k \in S$  the value received from the terminated reliable broadcast.

### **Proposition 7.** The BrACS protocol achieves the following properties.

- a) The protocol terminates for all honest parties.
- b) All parties agree on the set S and the encryptions of parties in S.
- c) The set S is of size at least n-t.
- d) Every honest party  $P_i$  in S succeeds to reliably broadcast a correct encryption  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^M(a_i)$  of  $a_i \cdot_{pk} m$ . This means that the reliable broadcast of  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^M(a_i)$  terminates for all honest parties and that at least one honest party  $P_j$  accepts the proof given by  $P_i$  in step 2, namely that  $P_i$  knows a preimage of  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^M(a_i)$  under (pk, M) and that the first component of this preimage is equal to the value  $P_i$  committed to with  $C_{i \to j}$ .
  - Furthermore, for every corrupted party  $P_i$  in S, the reliable broadcast of y of  $P_i$  in step 1 terminates for all honest parties and at least one honest party  $P_i$  accepts the proof (see

above) given by  $P_i$  in step 2. Hence, with high probability,  $P_i$  knows values  $(a'_i, c'_{ij})$  such that  $y = \mathsf{Enc}^M_{pk}(a'_i)$  and  $(a'_i, c'_{ij})$  is the opening information to  $C_{i \to j}$ .

The proof is straightforward and therefore omitted.

### G Proof of Theorem 4.3

We will only informally prove the theorem. To do so, we construct the simulator.

#### G.1 Simulator

The description follows the structure of the simulator in [CDN00]. The simulator receives  $\kappa$ , n, a random string  $c \in \{0,1\}^*$  and a as inputs. We denote the set of corrupted parties by C. Every time the adversary decides to adaptively corrupt a party  $P_i$ ,  $P_i$  is added to C and the simulator sends a corruption request for  $P_i$  to the ideal functionality (we will not mention this explicitly in the description of the simulator).

#### Simulator S

#### Preparation Phase:

- 1: Give  $\kappa$  and n to the ideal functionality. Then, give  $\kappa$ , n, b and a to the adversary, where b is a prefix of c. If the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, receive  $x_i$  from the ideal functionality and give it to the adversary.
- 2: Run the key generation algorithm (KGA) and get a threshold key  $(pk, sk_1, \ldots, sk_n)$ , the public and private keys  $\{K_{\nu}\}_{\nu}$  and  $\{\{K_{\chi}^i\}_{\chi}\}_{i\in\{1,\ldots,n\}}$  used for the zero-knowledge proofs and the commitment scheme, the Lagrange arguments  $\{\alpha_i\}_{i\in\{1,\ldots,n\}}$  and the uniformly random encryptions K (encrypts  $1_{pk}$ ) and R (encrypts  $0_{pk}$ ). Then, choose uniformly random elements  $r_K$  and  $r_R$  in the randomness space and redefine  $K = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, r_K)$  and  $R = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(1_{pk}, r_R)$ . Give  $pk, K, R, \{K_{\nu}\}_{\nu}, \{\{K_{\chi}^i\}_{\chi}\}_{i\in C}, \{\alpha_i\}_{i\in\{1,\ldots,n\}}$  and  $\{sk_i\}_{i\in C}$  to the adversary. If the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, receive  $x_i$  from the ideal functionality and give  $x_i$ ,  $sk_i$  and  $\{K_{\chi}^i\}_{\chi}$  to the adversary.
- 3: Execute this step honestly on behalf of honest parties. If the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, give all the information that  $P_i$  holds about the execution of this step to the adversary.
- 4: Run the Triples simulator  $S_{Triples}$  described in Subsection 3.4. If the adversary decides to corrupt a party during or after this step, the Triples simulator  $S_{Triples}$  handles what information is given to the adversary about this step.

#### Computation Phase:

- 1: For every corrupted party  $P_j$  and every honest party  $P_i$ , act honestly on behalf of  $P_i$  in the commit protocol that allows  $P_j$  to commit to a value towards  $P_i$ .
  - For each honest party  $P_i$  and every  $j \in \{1, ..., n\}$ , use the simulator of the commitment scheme to simulate a commitment  $C_{i \to j}$  from  $P_i$  towards  $P_j$  (if  $P_j$  is honest, act honestly on behalf of  $P_j$ ). If the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  during or after this step, receive  $x_i$  from the ideal functionality and patch all the commitments from  $P_i$  towards any  $P_j$  that were already started or sent before  $P_i$  was corrupted to  $x_i$  using the adaptiveness property of the commitment scheme for all  $P_j$  for  $j \in \{1, ..., n\}$ . Give the information from the patching and all the information  $P_i$  holds about commitments made towards  $P_i$  to the adversary.
- 2: The steps in the BrACS protocol are simulated as follows.
  - 1. Act honestly on behalf of honest parties in the reliable broadcasts with corrupted parties as senders. For every honest party  $P_i$ , compute  $D_i = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk},\widehat{r_{x_i}})$  using a uniformly random value  $\widehat{r_{x_i}}$  and reliably broadcast  $D_i$ . If the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  after the reliable broadcast, receive  $x_i$  from the ideal functionality and compute the randomness  $r_{x_i}$  such that  $D_i = (x_i \odot_{pk} K) \oplus_{pk} \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, r_{x_i}) = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^K(x_i, r_{x_i})$  using pk,  $D_i$ ,  $\widehat{r_{x_i}}$ , K,  $r_K$  and the "Patch" property of the encryption scheme. Then give  $r_{x_i}$  to the adversary.
  - 2. Act honestly on behalf of honest parties in the zero-knowledge proofs from corrupted parties towards honest parties.
    - Use the simulator for zero-knowledge proofs for all zero-knowledge proofs with an honest party as prover. If the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  during or after this step, receive  $x_i$  from the ideal functionality, compute  $r_{x_i}$  and patch the commitments as in the previous steps. For every  $P_j \in \mathcal{P}$ , let  $c'_{ij}$  be the opening information received from the patching of the commitment  $C_{i\to j}$  to  $x_i$ . Give the instance  $(\operatorname{Enc}^K_{pk}(x_i, r_{x_i}), C_{i\to j})$ , the witness  $(x_i, r_{x_i}, c'_{ij})$ , the step  $\tilde{t}$  in the zero-knowledge protocol when

- the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  and the communication for the zero-knowledge proof up to  $\tilde{t}$  to the Pat algorithm of the "Proof of compatible commitment" zero-knowledge proof and Pat will output randomness  $\nu_i$  that patches the proof. Give  $\nu_i$  to the adversary for all  $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ .
- 3. Run the ACS honestly with the same ACS property Q as in the protocol and obtain the set  $S \subseteq \mathcal{P}$ . Wait until all the reliable broadcasts of the corrupted parties in S terminate and set  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^K(x_i)$  to the output of the honest parties in the reliable broadcast with  $P_i$  as sender for all i such that  $P_i \in S \cap C$ . Extract  $x_i$  from a valid commitment received from  $P_i$  to  $x_i$  for all i such that  $P_i \in S \cap C$ . Give all  $x_i$  for  $P_i \in S \cap C$  to the ideal functionality as inputs on behalf of the corrupted parties in  $S \cap C$ . Additionally give the set S as input and receive the output s from the ideal functionality. If the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  during or after this step, patch the previous steps as described in the steps before and give all the information  $P_i$  holds about the running of the ACS in this step to the adversary.
- 3: Evaluate the circuit as described in step 3 of the protocol acting honestly on behalf of honest parties. If the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, give all the information  $P_i$  holds about the execution of this step to the adversary. Let  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(\hat{s})$  be the output of the evaluated circuit.
- 4: For every corrupted party  $P_j$  and every honest party  $P_i$ , act honestly on behalf of  $P_i$  in the commit protocol that allows  $P_j$  to commit to a value towards  $P_i$ .

  For each honest party  $P_i$ , generate a uniformly random  $r'_i$  from the message space. For every  $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ , use the simulator of the commitment scheme to simulate a commitment  $B_{i \to j}$  from  $P_i$  towards  $P_j$  (if  $P_j$  is honest, act honestly on behalf of  $P_j$ ). If the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  during or directly after this step, patch all the commitments from  $P_i$  towards any  $P_j$  that were already started or sent before  $P_i$  was corrupted to  $r'_i$  using the adaptiveness property of the commitment scheme for all  $P_j$  for  $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ . Give  $r'_i$ , the information from the patching and all the information  $P_i$  holds about commitments made towards  $P_i$  to the adversary.
- 5: The steps in the BrACS protocol are simulated very similarly to the BrACS in step 2.
  - 1. Act honestly on behalf of honest parties in the reliable broadcasts with corrupted parties as senders. For every honest party, compute  $V_i = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, \widehat{r_{r'}^K})$  using a uniformly random value  $\widehat{r_{r'}^K}$  and reliably broadcast  $V_i$ . If the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  directly after the reliable broadcast, patch all the commitments of  $P_i$  towards other parties in step 4 to  $r'_i$  using the adaptiveness property of the commitment scheme and compute the randomness  $r_{r'_i}^K$  such that  $V_i = (r'_i \odot_{pk} K) \oplus_{pk} \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(0_{pk}, r_{r'_i}^K) = \mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^K(r'_i, r_{r'_i}^K)$  using pk,  $V_i$ ,  $\widehat{r_{r'_i}^K}$ , K,  $r_K$  and the "Patch" property of the encryption scheme. Then give  $r'_i$ ,  $r_{r'_i}^K$ , the information from the patching of the commitments and all the information  $P_i$  holds about commitments made towards  $P_i$  in step 4 to the adversary.
  - 2. Act honestly on behalf of honest parties in the zero-knowledge proofs from corrupted parties towards honest parties.
    - Use the simulator for zero-knowledge proofs for all zero-knowledge proofs with an honest party as prover. If the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  during or directly after this step, compute  $r_{r_i'}^K$  and patch the commitments as in the previous step. For every  $P_j \in \mathcal{P}$ , let  $b'_{ij}$  be the opening information received from the patching of the commitment  $B_{i \to j}$  to  $r'_i$ . Give the instance  $(\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^K(r'_i, r_{r_i'}^K), B_{i \to j})$ , the witness  $(r'_i, r_{r_i'}^K, b'_{ij})$ , the step  $\tilde{t}$  in the zero-knowledge protocol when the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  and the communication for the zero-knowledge proof up to  $\tilde{t}$  to the Pat algorithm of the "Proof of compatible commitment" zero-knowledge proof and Pat will output randomness  $\nu'_j$  that patches the proof. Give  $r'_i, r_{r'_i}^K$ , the information from the patching of the commitments, all the information  $P_i$  holds about commitments made towards  $P_i$  in step 4 and  $\nu'_i$  to the adversary for all  $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ .
  - 3. Run the ACS honestly with the same ACS property Q as in the protocol and obtain the set  $S' \subseteq \mathcal{P}$ . Wait until all the reliable broadcasts of the corrupted parties in S' terminate and set  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}^K(r_i)$  to the output of the honest parties in the reliable broadcast with  $P_i$  as sender for all i such that  $P_i \in S' \cap C$ . Extract  $r_i$  from a valid commitment received from  $P_i$  to  $r_i$  for all i such that  $P_i \in S' \cap C$ . If the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  during or directly after this step, patch as described in the previous step and give all the information  $P_i$  holds about the running of the ACS along with the information that the adversary would receive upon corrupting  $P_i$  directly after the previous step to the adversary.
- 6: Let I' be the set of indices of all the corrupted parties in S' and let  $r_i$  be the value they committed to in step 4. If |I'| < t, randomly choose t |I'| > 0 honest parties in S', add their indices to I' and set  $r_i = r_i'$  for the added parties. Then choose the unique polynomial p of degree less than or equal to t that at position  $\alpha_i$  goes through  $r_i$  for  $i \in I'$  and at position  $0_{pk}$  goes through s, where s is the output received from the ideal functionality. Set  $r_j = p(\alpha_j)$  for all honest parties  $P_j$  with  $j \notin I'$ .
  - For every honest party  $P_i$ , choose a uniformly random value  $r_{r_i}^R$  from the randomness space. Patch the commitments of  $P_i$  towards other parties in step 4 to  $p(\alpha_i)$  using the adaptiveness property and execute the BrACS (with the slightly modified ACS property) honestly for public input (pk, R) and secret input  $(r_i = 1)$

 $p(\alpha_i), r_{r_i}^R, \{b_{ij}'\}_{j \in \{1,\dots,n\}}, \{B_{i \to j}\}_{j \in \{1,\dots,n\}}, \{B_{j \to i}\}_{j \in \{1,\dots,n\}}), \text{ where } \{(p(\alpha_i), b_{ij}')\}_{j \in \{1,\dots,n\}} \text{ is the opening information of the commitments } \{B_{i \to j}\}_{j \in \{1,\dots,n\}} \text{ to } p(\alpha_i) \text{ learned from the patching. From this execution obtain the set } S'' \text{ and encryptions } \{\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}^R(r_i)\}_{P_i \in S''}. \text{ If the adversary decides to corrupt } P_i \text{ at any point during or after this step, then}$ 

- if  $i \in I'$ , patch as described in step 5.3. and give all the information  $P_i$  holds about the execution of the current step along with all the information that the adversary would receive upon corrupting  $P_i$  directly after step 5.3 to the adversary.
- if  $i \notin I'$ , patch steps 1–3 of the Computation Phase as described in the simulator of those steps. Patch the commitments of  $P_i$  towards other parties in step 4 to  $p(\alpha_i)$  and patch the execution of the BrACS in step 5 to the secret input  $r_i = p(\alpha_i)$  in the same way as the execution of the BrACS in step 2 was patched to  $x_i$  (see step 2 of the simulator). Finally give all the information along with the state of  $P_i$  in step 6 to the adversary.
- 7: For all honest parties, execute step 7 as described in the protocol (replacing  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(s)$  by  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(\hat{s})$ ). If the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  during or after this step, give all the information  $P_i$  holds about the execution of this step to the adversary.
- 8: Run the *n* instances of the PrivDec protocol with input ciphertext  $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(s)'$  acting honestly on behalf of honest parties. Again, if the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, give all the information  $P_i$  holds about the execution of this step to the adversary.
- 9: Run the RC protocol acting honestly on behalf of honest parties. Again, if the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, give all the information that  $P_i$  holds about the running of the RC protocol to the adversary.

### G.2 Informal Proof of Security

Let us informally prove that the distributions of the simulation and the real execution are computationally indistinguishable (note that the distributions are in fact comparable). As in [CDN00], we will show that every step in the protocol is computationally indistinguishably distributed from the corresponding step in the simulation. Hence, after every step, computational indistinguishability is ensured which implies that after step 9 of the Computation phase, we can conclude that the distributions are computationally indistinguishable. Note that thanks to the "Selective decryption security" property of the encryption scheme and the "Selective decommitment security" property of the commitment scheme, if the adversary corrupts a party at any point in time in both the real world and the ideal world, then the adversary only learns information about the internal state of this party and does not learn anything about the messages underlying any other party's commitments or encryptions.

# - Preparation Phase:

- 1. Clearly the adversary receives the exact same inputs in both settings.
- 2. Thanks to the guarantees given by the KGA, the threshold key, the Lagrange arguments and the public and private keys used for the zero-knowledge proofs and the commitment scheme are computationally indistinguishably distributed in the real execution and in the simulation. By the semantic security of the encryption scheme, we obtain that the distributions of K and R in the simulation (where they are redefined by the simulator) and the real execution are computationally indistinguishable.
- 3. It is easy to see that this step keeps the computational indistinguishability.
- 4. Lemma 1 shows that this step is perfectly indistinguishably distributed in the simulation and the real protocol.

#### Computation Phase:

1. By the equivocability property, the simulator of the commitment scheme gives a computationally indistinguishably distributed simulation of the commitments from honest parties. Furthermore, the simulator acts honestly on behalf of honest parties in commit protocols that allow a corrupted party to commit to a value towards an honest party. Thus, this step is computationally indistinguishably distributed from the corresponding one in the protocol. If the adversary corrupts a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, the simulator can perfectly patch the commitment to the value it receives from the ideal functionality (adaptiveness property) and give the information to the adversary.

- 2. 1. Since the simulator acts honestly on behalf of honest parties in the reliable broadcasts with corrupted parties as senders, we have that the communication in these reliable broadcasts is computationally indistinguishably distributed. By semantic security of the encryption scheme, the inputs from honest parties to the reliable broadcasts where they act as senders are also computationally indistinguishably distributed. Hence, Proposition 3 applies and we can deduce that the communication in the reliable broadcasts with honest parties as senders is computationally indistinguishably distributed in the real execution and the simulation. If the adversary corrupts a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, the "Patch" property of the encryption scheme ensures that the simulator can perfectly patch the internal state of  $P_i$  to the value that it receives from the ideal functionality and give this information to the adversary. (More precisely, the simulator can compute the randomness  $r_{x_i}$  so that the reliably broadcasted encryption is equal to  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(x_i, r_{x_i})$  and  $r_{x_i}$  is uniformly random in the randomness space.) Moreover, the simulator executes the reliable broadcasts honestly for all honest parties and hence, it can provide the adversary with computationally indistinguishably distributed information about the state of  $P_i$  in all reliable broadcasts.
  - 2. Since the simulator acts honestly on behalf of honest parties in zero-knowledge proofs with honest parties as verifiers, we have that the communication in these zero-knowledge proofs is computationally indistinguishably distributed. Thanks to the simulator of zero-knowledge proofs giving a computationally indistinguishably distributed view of the zero-knowledge proofs with honest parties as provers, the view of the adversary in the simulation of these zero-knowledge proofs is also computationally indistinguishably distributed from its view in the real execution. As before, if the adversary decides to corrupt party  $P_i$  during or after this step, the simulator can patch the commitments and the reliably broadcasted encryption and give this information as a witness to the Pat algorithm who will then patch the zero-knowledge proof. The adversary is given the patched internal state of  $P_i$  which is computationally indistinguishably distributed from the one in the real execution.
  - 3. As the ACS protocol is run honestly and since the ACS property Q is not susceptible to changes of the ciphertexts and the zero-knowledge proofs up to computational indistinguishability, we have that the distributions remain computationally indistinguishable. If the adversary corrupts  $P_i$  during or after this step, its view is computationally indistinguishably distributed from the real execution since this was true after the previous step and this step is run honestly and can be efficiently simulated using only information that the adversary knows (reduction).
- 3. Since the simulator evaluates the circuit as described in the protocol, we have the following. For gates of type a), it is easy to see that they maintain computational indistinguishability. For gates of type b), we can conclude by the semantic security of the encryption scheme. For gates of type c) and d), we can reduce the computational indistinguishability of the distribution of the output to the computational indistinguishability of the distributions of the inputs. Finally, for gates of type e), we obtain computational indistinguishability by Proposition 5. If the adversary decides to corrupt a party during the evaluation of a gate, then the simulator can give computationally indistinguishably distributed information for gates of type a)—d) because it acts honestly on behalf of honest parties and by reduction to the computational indistinguishability of the distributions of the inputs to the considered gate. For gates of type e) we can conclude by Proposition 5 and because the simulator acts honestly on behalf of honest parties. The outputs of the circuit  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(s)$  and  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(\hat{s})$  are computationally indistinguishably distributed because the inputs and outputs to all types of gates are computationally indistinguishably distributed.

- 4. Again, by the equivocability property, the simulator of the commitment scheme gives a computationally indistinguishably distributed simulation of the commitments from honest parties. Furthermore, the simulator acts honestly on behalf of honest parties in commit protocols that allow a corrupted party to commit to a value towards an honest party. Thus, this step is computationally indistinguishably distributed from the corresponding one in the protocol. If the adversary corrupts a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, the simulator can perfectly patch the commitments to  $r'_i$  (which is uniformly random like  $r_i$  in the protocol) using the adaptiveness property and give the computationally indistinguishably distributed information to the adversary.
- 5. 1. By the same reasoning as in step 2.1, this step is computationally indistinguishably distributed from the one in the real execution (use Proposition 3 and semantic security of the encryption scheme). Furthermore, if the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, the "Patch" property of the encryption scheme ensures that the simulator can perfectly patch the internal state of  $P_i$  to  $r'_i$  (as in step 2.1, the randomness learned in the patching of the reliably broadcasted value to  $r'_i$  in the protocol and in the simulation is distributed identically, namely uniformly). Hence, the simulator can give indistinguishably distributed information about the state of  $P_i$  in the reliable broadcast with  $P_i$  as sender to the adversary. Moreover, the simulator executes all reliable broadcasts honestly on behalf of honest parties and hence, it can provide the adversary with computationally indistinguishably distributed information about the state of  $P_i$  in all reliable broadcasts.
  - 2. The same reasoning as in step 2.2. applies.
  - 3. The same reasoning as in step 2.3. applies.
- 6. By the same reasoning as in step 5 (use semantic security of the encryption scheme, Proposition 3, the zero-knowledge property of the proof given and reduction), this step is computationally indistinguishably distributed from the corresponding step in the real execution. It remains to argue that if the adversary decides to corrupt party  $P_i$  during or after this step, the simulator can give it computationally indistinguishably distributed information about the state of  $P_i$ .
  - If  $i \in I'$ , then by the reasoning in step 5, the simulator can provide computationally indistinguishably distributed information about the state of  $P_i$  up to (and including) step 5 (since  $r_i = r_i'$  for  $i \in I'$ , we have that  $r_i$  is uniformly random like in the real execution of the protocol). Since step 6 is executed honestly and can be efficiently simulated using only information that the adversary knows (reduction), the distribution of the information given in the simulation is computationally indistinguishable to the one in the real execution.
  - If  $i \notin I'$ , we first want to show that, as in the real execution, the  $r_i$  that the adversary receives from the simulator is uniformly random conditioned on the  $r_l$ 's of the adversary. Let  $R_l^{\mathcal{S}}$  be the random variables capturing the values of the  $r_l$ 's in step 6 of the simulation for  $l \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ . With this notation, we want to show that the random variable  $R_i^{\mathcal{S}}$  conditioned on  $R_l^{\mathcal{S}}$  for  $P_l \in C$  is uniformly distributed for all  $P_i \notin C$ .

For an index set  $\hat{I} \subseteq \{0,\ldots,n\}$  of size t+1 and for values  $\{a_k\}_{k\in \hat{I}}$ , we denote the unique polynomial of degree less than or equal to t passing through all points  $\{(\alpha_k,a_k)_{k\in \hat{I}\setminus\{0_{pk}\}}\}$  and  $(0_{pk},a_0)$  by  $p_{\{a_k\}_{k\in \hat{I}}}$ . Since the adversary was still able to corrupt  $P_i$ , this implies that there exists at least

Since the adversary was still able to corrupt  $P_i$ , this implies that there exists at least one honest party  $P_j$  which is still honest such that  $j \in I'$  (otherwise the adversary could corrupt at least t+1 parties). Let us denote the set of indices of honest parties in I' by J. By the reasoning above, we have  $J \neq \emptyset$ .

Let now  $a, b, \{v_k\}_{P_k \in S' \setminus C}$  be arbitrary values in the message space. We will show that

$$\Pr[R_i^{\mathcal{S}} = a \mid R_k^{\mathcal{S}} = v_k \text{ for } P_k \in S' \cap C] = \Pr[R_i^{\mathcal{S}} = b \mid R_k^{\mathcal{S}} = v_k \text{ for } P_k \in S' \cap C].$$

This equality implies that  $r_i$  is uniformly random conditioned on all  $r_l$ 's of the adversary because the simulator defines  $r_i$  independently of  $r_l$  for  $P_l \in C \setminus S'$ . We have

where on the second line we used the law of total probability and where  $1_A$  is the indicator random variable for an event A. The second equality follows from the fact that  $R_i^S$  is determined by  $\{R_k^S\}_{k\in I'}$  and the last equality holds because by definition of the simulator,  $R_k^S$  is uniformly distributed in the message space  $R_{pk}$  and independent of all  $R_l^S$  for all  $k, l \in J$ . By the same reasoning, we have

$$\Pr[R_i^{\mathcal{S}} = b \mid R_k^{\mathcal{S}} = v_k \text{ for } P_k \in S' \cap C] = \sum_{\substack{\{a_k\}_{k \in J} \\ b = p_{s, \{a_k\}_{k \in J}, \{v_k\}_{k \in I' \setminus J}}} \left(\frac{1}{|R_{pk}|}\right)^{|J|}.$$

The sets  $A=\{\{a_k\}_{k\in J}\colon a=p_{s,\{a_k\}_{k\in J},\{v_k\}_{k\in I'\setminus J}}(\alpha_i)\}$  and  $B=\{\{a_k\}_{k\in J}\colon b=p_{s,\{a_k\}_{k\in J},\{v_k\}_{k\in I'\setminus J}}(\alpha_i)\}$  have the same cardinality, namely  $|A|=|B|=N^{|J|-1}\geqslant 1$  (remember that we argued above that  $|J|\geqslant 1$ ). Hence,

$$\sum_{\substack{\{a_k\}_{k\in J}\\a=p_s,\{a_k\}_{k\in J},\{v_k\}_{k\in I'\setminus J}(\alpha_i)}} \left(\frac{1}{|R_{pk}|}\right)^{|J|} = \sum_{\substack{\{a_k\}_{k\in J}\\b=p_s,\{a_k\}_{k\in J},\{v_k\}_{k\in I'\setminus J}(\alpha_i)}} \left(\frac{1}{|R_{pk}|}\right)^{|J|}$$

and thus,

$$\Pr[R_i^{\mathcal{S}} = a \mid R_k^{\mathcal{S}} = v_k \text{ for } P_k \in S' \cap C] = \Pr[R_i^{\mathcal{S}} = b \mid R_k^{\mathcal{S}} = v_k \text{ for } P_k \in S' \cap C].$$

We can conclude that the distribution of  $r_i$  that the adversary sees in the simulation is indistinguishable from the distribution in the real execution.

Hence, by the reasoning in step 4, the simulator can provide computationally indistinguishably distributed information about the state of  $P_i$  up to (and including) step 4 (the commitments in step 4 are patched to  $r_i = p(\alpha_i)$  instead of  $r'_i$ , but the reasoning to show computational indistinguishability is the same). Furthermore, by the same reasoning as in step 5 for the case where the adversary corrupts  $P_i$  and the simulator patches the internal state of  $P_i$  to  $r'_i$ , we have that the simulator can patch the internal state of  $P_i$  for the execution of step 5 to  $r_i = p(\alpha_i)$ . As step 6 is executed honestly with respect to  $r_i$  and can be efficiently simulated using only information that the adversary knows (reduction), the simulator can now provide the adversary with information about the internal state of  $P_i$  that is computationally indistinguishably distributed from the one in the real execution.

- 7. If the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, the simulator can give computationally indistinguishably distributed information about the internal state of  $P_i$  to the adversary because it executes the step honestly and the step can be efficiently executed using only information that the adversary knows (reduction).
- 8. Since in the simulation R is an encryption of  $1_{pk}$  and K is an encryption of  $0_{pk}$ , now  $\operatorname{\mathsf{Enc}}^R_{pk}(r_i)$  are encryptions of  $r_i$  for all  $P_i \in \hat{S}$  (ewnp) and  $\operatorname{\mathsf{Enc}}_{pk}(\hat{s})$  is an encryption of  $0_{pk}$ . Hence,  $\operatorname{\mathsf{Enc}}_{pk}(s)'$  is an encryption of  $\sum_{i \in I} \lambda_i \cdot_{pk} r_i$  and thus,  $\operatorname{\mathsf{Enc}}_{pk}(s)'$  and  $\operatorname{\mathsf{Enc}}_{pk}(\hat{s})$ do not encrypt the same value anymore. By construction in step 6 of the simulator  $\sum_{i \in I} \lambda_i \cdot_{pk} r_i = s$  and thus,  $\mathsf{Enc}_{pk}(s)'$  is an encryption of s. Note that ewnp the output s of the ideal functionality is identically distributed to the message underlying the output of the circuit in the real execution. This is true because the circuit is correct and because the messages underlying the encrypted inputs of corrupted parties to the circuit in the real execution and the inputs given to the ideal functionality in the simulation are identically distributed ewnp (by the extraction property of UC commitment schemes and by computational indistinguishability of the real execution and the simulation up to the step when corrupted parties give input). Hence, we have that the distributions of the decrypted value in the simulation and the real execution are identical ewnp. Furthermore, by the reasoning in the previous steps, we know that the distributions of  $\mathsf{Enc}_{nk}(s)'$  are computationally indistinguishable in the real execution and the simulation. Thus, by Remark 2, the communication in this step is computationally indistinguishably distributed in the real execution and the simulation. Hence, we can conclude that the step maintains computational indistinguishability. If the adversary decides to corrupt  $P_i$  during or after this step, then the simulator can give computationally indistinguishably distributed information about the internal state of  $P_i$  in this step to the adversary thanks to Remark 2 and because the simulator runs the decryption protocol honestly on behalf of  $P_i$ .
- 9. Since the secret input s of the parties is identically distributed in the real execution and in the simulation of this step (ewnp) and since the simulator acts honestly on behalf of honest parties, computational indistinguishability is maintained. If the adversary decides to corrupt a party  $P_i$  during or after this step, the simulator can give computationally indistinguishably distributed information about the internal state of  $P_i$  in this step because the simulator executes the step honestly on behalf of  $P_i$ .

### H Proof of Lemma 2

We will prove each property separately. The proof is inspired by [BH08, DN03, HN06, BHN08, CP15] and analogous to the proof of Lemma 1 (see Appendix E). In this whole proof, an honest party is a party that remains honest during the whole execution of the protocol. Furthermore, we use uppercase letters to denote ciphertexts and the corresponding lowercase letters to denote the plaintexts underlying these ciphertexts.

- Termination: Since all honest parties terminate the  $\Pi_{VACS}^{\kappa,Q}$  protocol and the  $\Pi_{VACS}^{\kappa,Q'}$  protocol ewnp, we can immediately conclude that they terminate the WeakTriples protocol ewnp and output  $\ell$  triples.
- Consistency: This property holds by consistency of the VACS primitive.
- Correctness: By the soundness of zero-knowledge proofs, we know that for every element  $\{(B_j^k, C_j^k, p_{2,j}^k)\}_{k \in \{1,\dots,\ell\}}$  in S', the plaintext underlying  $C_j^k$  is the product of the plaintexts underlying  $B_j^k$  and  $A^k$  for all  $k \in \{1,\dots,\ell\}$ . By definition of  $B^k$  and  $C^k$  for  $k \in \{1,\dots,\ell\}$ ,

we can directly conclude that the plaintext underlying  $C^k$  is the product of the plaintexts underlying  $B^k$  and  $A^k$  for all  $k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . Hence, the output triples are correct.

- Secrecy, Computational Uniform Randomness and Independence: First note that the Computational Uniform Randomness and the Independence properties are equivalent to the distributions of the plaintexts underlying the first and second components of any output triple being computationally indistinguishable from the uniform distribution over the message space  $R_{pk}$  and computationally independent of the distribution of all other first and second components of output triples (because the plaintexts underlying the third components are uniquely determined by the plaintexts underlying the corresponding first two components). In the following, we show the latter.

We start by showing that the plaintexts underlying  $A^{i}$  are computationally uniformly and independently distributed and unknown to the adversary for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . We do this by reduction to the presented special case of the "Selective decryption security" property of the encryption scheme (i.e.  $\ell_j = 1$  for all  $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ ). Let i be an arbitrary index in  $\{1,\ldots,\ell\}$ . Suppose there exists an adversary  $\mathcal{A}_1$  that has non-negligible advantage in distinguishing the plaintexts underlying  $A^{i}$  (generated in a instance of the WeakTriples protocol) from a uniformly and independently distributed plaintext (i.e.  $A_1$  runs the WeakTriples protocol with its challenger (who acts honestly on behalf of honest parties) and afterwards,  $\mathcal{A}_1$  is given the plaintexts underlying the first and second components of all output triples except  $A^i$  and a plaintext which is either the plaintext underlying  $A^i$  or a uniformly and independently distributed plaintext). From  $A_1$ , we can construct an adversary  $A_2$  against the security game described in the "Selective decryption security" property with M being the uniform distribution over  $\mathbb{R}^n_{pk}$  and  $\mathbb{R}d$  being the uniform distribution over the n product of the randomness space. The adversary  $A_2$  starts an instance of the WeakTriples protocol with the adversary  $A_1$ , sets I to be the indices of the parties that are corrupted by  $A_1$  at the beginning of the WeakTriples protocol and sends I to its challenger. Then it receives n-t' ciphertexts and runs the WeakTriples protocol with  $A_1$  acting honestly on behalf of honest parties except in step 1, where it uses the ciphertexts received from its challenger as the  $A_i^i$ 's of honest parties  $P_j$  and the simulator for NIZK proofs of plaintext knowledge for the simulation of the zero-knowledge proofs of plaintext knowledge for the  $A_i^i$ 's of honest parties. Furthermore,  $A_2$  does not erase any of the contributions used on behalf of honest parties. If at any point a party is corrupted by  $A_1$ , then  $A_2$  asks its challenger to open the corresponding ciphertext. Then,  $A_2$  gives all the information it holds on behalf of the corrupted party to the adversary except for the nonerased contributions of this party and the received opening from its challenger. As soon as the protocol terminates,  $A_2$  sends the "EndCorruption"-message to its challenger and receives |I'| plaintexts. Next, it extracts all the contributions to the first components of corrupted parties in S and the contributions to the second components of corrupted parties in S' (this is possible by the guarantees of the VACS primitive, the definitions of Q and Q' and soundness of zero-knowledge proofs). Then,  $A_2$  computes the plaintexts underlying all first and second components of the output triples except  $A^i$  and gives them to the adversary (this is possible because  $A_2$  chose the contributions of honest parties to the first and second components except for  $A^{i}$ , it did not erase them and it extracted the contributions to any of the components of the relevant corrupted parties). Furthermore,  $A_2$  sums the plaintexts with indices in  $S \setminus C$  received from its challenger to the contributions to  $A^i$  of the corrupted parties in S and gives the resulting plaintext to the adversary. Next, it receives a guess from  $A_1$  and outputs the same guess. It is easy to see that thanks to the definition of M and Rd,  $A_2$  simulates the WeakTriples protocol for  $A_1$  in an indistinguishable way. Furthermore, by Theorem 3, we have that ewnp S contains the input  $\{(A_h^k, p_{1,h}^k)\}_{k \in \{1,\dots,\ell\}}$  of at least one honest party  $P_h$ . The guarantees of the VACS primitive and the definition of Q ensure that for every  $\{(A_j^k, p_{1,j}^k)\}_{k \in \{1,\dots,\ell\}} \in S$ ,  $p_{1,i}^k$  is a valid zero-knowledge proof of plaintext knowledge for  $A_i^k$  for all  $k \in \{1,\ldots,\ell\}$ .

Therefore, soundness of zero-knowledge proofs implies that with high probability the adversary knows the plaintext  $a_j^i$  underlying  $A_j^i$  for all inputs  $\{(A_j^k, p_{1,j}^k)\}_{k \in \{1,\dots,\ell\}} \in S$  with  $P_j$  corrupted at the beginning of the VACS protocol. By semantic security and the "Selective decryption security" property, the adversary does not know the plaintext  $a_h^i$  underlying  $A_h^i$ . Thus, the  $a_j^i$ 's from corrupted parties are independent of  $a_h^i$ . Since M is the uniform distribution and thus,  $M_{S\setminus C}$  is still the uniform distribution, we can conclude that if b=1, then the plaintext given to  $A_1$  is a uniformly and independently distributed plaintext. Clearly, if b=0, then the given plaintext is the plaintext underlying  $A^i$  and therefore, we have that if  $A_1$  wins, then  $A_2$  wins as well. Hence,  $A_2$  has at least the same non-negligible advantage as  $A_1$ . This contradicts the "Selective decryption security" property. Since i was an arbitrary index in  $\{1,\dots,\ell\}$ , we can conclude that the plaintexts underlying the first components of the output triples are computationally uniformly and independently distributed and unknown to the adversary.

The argument for the plaintexts underlying the second components of the output triples is analogous and thus, we can conclude that Computational Uniform Randomness and Independence hold. For Secrecy, we still need to argue that the adversary does not have more information about the plaintexts underlying  $C^i$  than that they are the product of the plaintexts underlying  $A^i$  and  $B^i$  for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}$ . To do so, we use a reduction to the secrecy of the plaintexts underlying the first and second components. We observe the following. Let i be an arbitrary index in  $\{1, \ldots, \ell\}$  and let  $\{(B_j^k, C_j^k, p_{2,j}^k)\}_{k \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\}}$  be any element of S'. If  $P_j$  is corrupted before it is told to erase  $b_j^i$ , then the adversary knows  $b_j^i$  with high probability (by the guarantees of the VACS protocol, the definition of Q' and soundness of zero-knowledge proofs). However, since  $a^i$  is unknown to the adversary (see above) and by reduction, the adversary still does not know anything more about  $c_i^i$  than that it is the product of  $b_i^i$  and the unknown plaintext  $a^i$  underlying  $A^i$  (note that since  $\{(B_j^k, C_j^k, p_{2,j}^k)\}_{k \in \{1,\dots,\ell\}}$  is in S', the guarantees of the VACS protocol, the definition of Q' and soundness of zero-knowledge proofs ensure that with high probability  $C_i^i$  is indeed the product of the plaintexts underlying  $B_i^i$  and  $A^i$ ). If  $P_j$  remains honest during the whole execution of the protocol or is corrupted after it already erased  $b_i^i$ , then by semantic security and the "Selective decryption security" property, the adversary does not have more information about  $c_i^i$  than that it is the product of the plaintexts underlying  $B_i^i$  and  $A^i$  which are both unknown to the adversary. Hence, since  $C^i = \bigoplus_{j \colon \{(B^k_j, C^k_j, p^k_{2,j})\}_{k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}} \in S'} C^i_j$ ,  $B^i = \bigoplus_{j \colon \{(B^k_j, C^k_j, p^k_{2,j})\}_{k \in \{1, \dots, \ell\}} \in S'} B^i_j$  and all  $B^i_j$ 's are only used to compute  $B^i$ , we can conclude that the adversary does not know anything about the plaintext underlying  $C^i$  but that it is the product of the plaintexts underlying  $A^i$ and  $B^i$ . Finally, since i was an arbitrary index in  $\{1,\ldots,\ell\}$ , we can conclude that Secrecy holds.

- Privacy: It is easy to see that this property holds because the simulator  $\mathcal{S}_{\mathsf{WeakTriples}}$  can perfectly imitate the honest parties (no party has any secret input to this protocol). Hence, also if the adversary decides to corrupt any party during the execution of the protocol, the simulator can give perfectly indistinguishably distributed information to the adversary.
- Communication complexity: The parties only communicate in the executions of the  $\Pi_{VACS}^{\kappa,Q}$  and the  $\Pi_{VACS}^{\kappa,Q'}$  protocols in steps 2 and 4 of the WeakTriples protocol. Hence, by Theorem 3 and since the size of the inputs of the parties in the  $\Pi_{VACS}^{\kappa,Q}$  and the  $\Pi_{VACS}^{\kappa,Q'}$  protocols is  $\mathcal{O}(\ell\kappa)$ , we have that the expected communication complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(\ell\kappa^3 n + \kappa^5 n)$ .