

The Exact Round Complexity of Secure Computation

Sanjam Garg^{1(✉)}, Pratyay Mukherjee¹, Omkant Pandey²,
and Antigoni Polychroniadou³

¹ University of California, Berkeley, USA
{sanjamg,pratyay85}@berkeley.edu

² Drexel University, Philadelphia, USA
omkant@drexel.edu

³ Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark
antigoni@cs.au.dk

Abstract. We revisit the *exact* round complexity of secure computation in the multi-party and two-party settings. For the special case of two-parties *without* a simultaneous message exchange channel, this question has been extensively studied and resolved. In particular, Katz and Ostrovsky (CRYPTO '04) proved that 5 rounds are necessary and sufficient for securely realizing every two-party functionality where both parties receive the output. However, the exact round complexity of general multi-party computation, as well as two-party computation *with* a simultaneous message exchange channel, is not very well understood.

These questions are intimately connected to the round complexity of non-malleable commitments. Indeed, the *exact* relationship between the round complexities of non-malleable commitments and secure multi-party computation has also not been explored.

In this work, we revisit these questions and obtain several new results. First, we establish the following main results. Suppose that there exists a k -round non-malleable commitment scheme, and let $k' = \max(4, k + 1)$; then,

- **(Two-party setting with simultaneous message transmission):** there exists a k' -round protocol for securely realizing *every* two-party functionality;
- **(Multi-party setting):** there exists a k' -round protocol for securely realizing the *multi-party coin-flipping* functionality.

As a corollary of the above results, by instantiating them with existing non-malleable commitment protocols (from the literature), we establish

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that **four** rounds are both necessary and sufficient for both the results above. Furthermore, we establish that, for *every multi-party functionality* five rounds are sufficient.

We actually obtain a variety of results offering trade-offs between rounds and the cryptographic assumptions used, depending upon the particular instantiations of underlying protocols.

1 Introduction

The round complexity of secure computation is a fundamental question in the area of secure computation [20, 39, 40]. In the past few years, we have seen tremendous progress on this question, culminating into constant round protocols for securely computing any multi-party functionality [5, 9, 10, 21, 22, 27, 28, 36, 38]. These works essentially settle the question of *asymptotic* round complexity of this problem.

The *exact* round complexity of secure computation, however, is still not very well understood¹. For the special case of two-party computation, Katz and Ostrovsky [26] proved that 5 rounds are necessary and sufficient. In particular, they proved that two-party coin-flipping cannot be achieved in 4 rounds, and presented a 5-round protocol for computing every functionality. To the best of our knowledge, the exact round complexity of multi-party computation has never been addressed before.

The standard model for multi-party computation assumes that parties are connected via authenticated point-to-point channels as well as *simultaneous message exchange* channels where everyone can send messages at the same time. Therefore, in each round, all parties can simultaneously exchange messages.

This is in sharp contrast to the “standard” model for two-party computation where, usually, a simultaneous message exchange framework is not considered. Due to this difference in the communication model, the negative result of Katz-Ostrovsky [26] for 4 rounds, does not apply to the multi-party setting. In particular, a 4 round multi-party coin-flipping protocol might still exist!

In other words, the results of Katz-Ostrovsky only hold for the special case of two parties *without* a simultaneous message exchange channel. The setting of two-party computation *with a simultaneous message exchange channel* has not been addressed before. Therefore, in this work we address the following two questions:

What is the exact round complexity of secure multi-party computation?

In the presence of a simultaneous message exchange channel, what is the exact round complexity of secure two-party computation?

These questions are intimately connected to the round complexity of *non-malleable commitments* [12]. Indeed, new results for non-malleable commitments

¹ Our rough estimate for the exact round complexity of aforementioned multi-party results in the computational setting is 20–30 rounds depending upon the underlying components and assumptions.

have almost immediately translated to new results for secure computation. For example, the round complexity of coin-flipping was improved by Barak [3], and of every multi-party functionality by Katz et al. [27] based on techniques from non-malleable commitments. Likewise, black-box constructions for constant-round non-malleable commitments resulted in constant-round black-box constructions for secure computation [21, 38]. However, all of these results only focus on *asymptotic* improvements and do not try to resolve the exact round complexity, thereby leaving the following fundamental question unresolved:

What is the relationship between the exact round complexities of non-malleable commitments and secure computation?

This question is at the heart of understanding the exact round complexity of secure computation in both multi-party, and two-party with simultaneous message transmission.

1.1 Our Contributions

In this work we try to resolve the questions mentioned above. We start by focusing on the simpler case of two-party computation with a simultaneous message exchange channel, since it is a direct special case of the multi-party setting. We then translate our results to the multi-party setting.

Lower bounds for Coin-Flipping. We start by focusing on the following question.

How many simultaneous message exchange rounds are necessary for secure two-party computation?

We show that four *simultaneous message exchange rounds* are necessary. More specifically, we show that:

Theorem (Informal): *Let κ be the security parameter. Even in the simultaneous message model, there does not exist a three-round protocol for the two-party coin-flipping functionality for $\omega(\log \kappa)$ coins which can be proven secure via black-box simulation.*

In fact, as a corollary all of the rounds must be “strictly simultaneous message transmissions”, that is, both parties must *simultaneously* send messages in each of the 4 rounds. This is because in the simultaneous message exchange setting, the security is proven against the so called “rushing adversaries” who, in each round, can decide their message after seeing the messages of all honest parties in that round. Consequently, if only one party sends a message for example in the fourth round, this message can be “absorbed” within the third message of this party², resulting in a three round protocol.

² Note that, such absorption is only possible when it maintains the mutual dependency among the messages, in particular does not affect the next-message functions.

Results in the Two-Party Setting with a *Simultaneous Message Exchange Channel*. Next, we consider the task of constructing a protocol for coin-flipping (or any general functionality) in four simultaneous message exchange rounds and obtain a positive result. In fact, we obtain our results by directly exploring the *exact relationship* between the round complexities of non-malleable commitments and secure computation. Specifically, we first prove the following result:

Theorem (Informal): *If there exists a k -round protocol for (parallel) non-malleable commitment,³ then there exists a k' -round protocol for securely computing every two-party functionality with black-box simulation in the presence of a malicious adversary in the simultaneous message model, where $k' = \max(4, k + 1)$.*

Instantiating this protocol with non-malleable commitments from [36], we get a **four round** protocol for every two-party functionality in the presence of a simultaneous message exchange channel, albeit under a non-standard assumption (adaptive one-way function). However, a recent result by Goyal et al. [23] constructs a non-malleable commitment protocol in *three* rounds from injective one-way functions, although their protocol does not immediately extend to the parallel setting. Instantiating our protocol with such a three-round parallel non-malleable commitment would yield a *four round* protocol under standard assumptions.

Results in the Multi-party Setting. Next, we focus on the case of the multi-party *coin flipping* functionality. We show that a simpler version of our two-party protocol gives a result for multi-party *coin-flipping*:

Theorem (Informal): *If there exists a k -round protocol for (parallel) non-malleable commitments, then there exists a k' -round protocol for securely computing the multi-party coin-flipping functionality with black-box simulation in the presence of a malicious adversary for polynomially many coins where $k' = \max(4, k + 1)$.*

Combining this result with the two-round multi-party protocol of Mukherjee and Wichs [34] (based on the LWE [37]), we obtain a $k' + 2$ round protocol for computing *every multi-party* functionality. Instantiating these protocols with non-malleable commitments from [36], we obtain a **four round** protocol for *coin-flipping* and a **six round** protocol for *every* functionality.

Finally, we show that the coin-flipping protocol for the multi-party setting can be extended to compute what we call the “coin-flipping with committed inputs” functionality. Using this protocol with the two-round protocol of [16] based on indistinguishability obfuscation [17], we obtain a **five round MPC** protocol.

³ Parallel simply means that the man-in-the-middle receives κ non-malleable commitments in *parallel* from the left interaction and makes κ commitments on the right. Almost all known non-malleable commitment protocols satisfy this property.

1.2 Related Work

The round complexity of secure computation has a rich and long history. We only mention the results that are most relevant to this work in the computational setting. Note that, unconditionally secure protocols such as [6, 8] are inherently non-constant round. More specifically, the impossibility result of [11] implies that a fundamental new approach must be found in order to construct protocols, that are efficient in the circuit size of the evaluated function, with reduced communication complexity that beat the complexities of BGW, CCD, GMW etc.

For the computational setting and the special case of two party computation, the semi-honest secure protocol of Yao [33, 39, 40] consists of only three rounds (see Sect. 2). For malicious security⁴, a constant round protocol based on GMW was presented by Lindell [31]. Ishai et al. [25] presented a different approach which also results in a constant round protocol.

The problem of exact round complexity of two party computation was studied in the beautiful work of Katz and Ostrovsky [26] who provided a 5 round protocol for computing any two-party functionality. They also ruled out the possibility of a four round protocol for coin-flipping, thus completely resolving the case of two party (albeit without simultaneous message exchange, as discussed earlier). Recently Ostrovsky et al. [35] constructed a different 5-round protocol for the general two-party computation by only relying on *black-box* usage of the underlying trapdoor one-way permutation.

As discussed earlier, the standard setting for two-party computation does not consider simultaneous message exchange channels, and hence the negative results for the two-party setting do not apply to the multi-party setting where simultaneous message exchange channels are standard. To the best of our knowledge, prior to our work, the case of the two-party setting in the presence of a simultaneous message exchange channel was not explored in the context of the exact round complexity of secure computation.

For the multi-party setting, the exact round complexity has remained open for a long time. The work of [5] gave the first constant-round non black-box protocol for honest majority (improved by the black-box protocols of [9, 10]). Katz et al. [27], adapted techniques from [3, 5, 7, 12] to construct the first asymptotically round-optimal protocols for any multi-party functionality for the dishonest majority case. The constant-round protocol of [27] relied on non-black-box use of the adversary’s algorithm [2]. Constant-round protocols making black-box use of the adversary were constructed by [21, 28, 36], and making black-box use of one-way functions by Wee in $\omega(1)$ rounds [38] and by Goyal in constant rounds [21]. Furthermore, based on the non-malleable commitment scheme of [21, 22] construct a constant-round multi-party coin-tossing protocol. Lin et al. [30] presented a unified approach to construct UC-secure protocols from non-malleable commitments. However, as mentioned earlier, none of the aforementioned works

⁴ From here on, unless specified otherwise, we are always in the malicious setting by default.

focused on the *exact* round complexity of secure computation based on the round-complexity of non-malleable commitments. For a detailed survey of round complexity of secure computation in the preprocessing model or in the CRS model we refer to [1].

1.3 An Overview of Our Approach

We now provide an overview of our approach. As discussed earlier, we first focus on the two-party setting with a simultaneous message exchange channel.

The starting point of our construction is the Katz-Ostrovsky (KO) protocol [26] which is a *four round* protocol for *one-sided* functionalities, i.e., in that only one party gets the output. Recall that, this protocol does not assume the presence of a simultaneous message exchange channel. At the cost of an extra round, the KO two-party protocol can be converted to a *complete* (i.e. both-sided) protocol where both parties get their corresponding outputs via a standard trick [18] as follows: parties compute a modified functionality in which the first party P_1 learns its output as well as the output of the second party P_2 in an “encrypted and authenticated”⁵ form. It then sends the encrypted value to P_2 who can decrypt and verify its output.

A natural first attempt is to adapt this simple and elegant approach to the setting of simultaneous message exchange channel, so that the “encrypted/authenticated output” can somehow be communicated to P_2 simultaneously at the same time when P_2 sends its last message, thereby removing the additional round.

It is not hard to see that any such approach would not work. Indeed, in the presence of malicious adversaries while dealing with a simultaneous message exchange channel, the protocol must be proven secure against “rushing adversaries” who can send their messages after looking at the messages sent by the other party. This implies that, if P_1 could indeed send the “encrypted/authenticated output” message simultaneously with last message from P_2 , it could have sent it earlier as well. Now, applying this argument repeatedly, one can conclude that any protocol which does not use the simultaneous message exchange channel necessarily in all of the four rounds, is bound to fail (see Sect. 3). In particular, any such protocol can be transformed, by simple rescheduling, into a 3-round protocol contradicting our lower bound.⁶

This means that we must think of an approach which must use the simultaneous message exchange channel in each round. In light of this, a natural second attempt is to run two executions of a 4-round protocol (in which only one party learns the output) in “opposite” directions. This would allow both parties to learn the output. Unfortunately, such approaches do not work in general since there is no guarantee that an adversarial party would use the same input in both

⁵ In particular, the encryption prevents P_1 to know P_2 ’s output ensuring output privacy whereas the authentication does not allow P_1 to send P_2 a wrong output.

⁶ Recall that we show that (see Theorem 2 for a formal statement) 4 rounds are necessary even with simultaneous message exchange channels.

protocol executions. Furthermore, another problem with this approach is that of “non-malleability” where a cheating party can make its input dependent on the honest party’s input: for example, it can simply “replay” back the messages it receives. A natural approach to prevent such attacks is to deploy non-malleable commitments, as we discuss below.

Simultaneous Executions + Non-malleable Commitments. Following the approach discussed above we observe that:

1. A natural direction is to use two simultaneous executions of the KO protocol (or any other similar 4-round protocol) over the simultaneous message exchange channel in opposite directions. Since we have only 4 rounds, a different protocol (such as some form of 2-round semi-honest protocol based on Yao) is not a choice.
2. We must use non-malleable commitments to prevent replay/mauling attacks.

We remark that, the fact that non-malleable commitments come up as a natural tool is not a coincidence. As noted earlier, the multi-party case is well known to be *inherently connected* to non-malleable commitments. Even though our current focus is solely on the two-party case, this setting is essentially (a special case of) the multi-party setting due to the use of the simultaneous message exchange channel. Prior to our work, non-malleable commitments have been used extensively to design multi-party protocols [21, 22, 29, 33]. However, all of these works result in rather poor round complexity because of their focus on asymptotic, as opposed to exact, number of rounds.

To obtain our protocol, we put the above two ideas together, modifying several components of KO⁷ to use non-malleable commitments. These components are then put together in a way such that, even though there are essentially two simultaneous executions of the protocol in opposite directions, messages of one protocol cannot be maliciously used to affect the other messages. In the following, we highlight the main ideas of our construction:

1. The first change we make is to the proof systems used by KO. Recall that KO uses the Fiege-Shamir (FS) protocol as a mechanism to “force the output” in the simulation. Our first crucial modification is to consider a variant of the FS protocol in which the verifier gives two non-malleable commitments (`nmcom`) to two strings σ_1, σ_2 and gives a *witness indistinguishable proof-of-knowledge* (WIPOK) that it knows one of them. These are essentially the simulation trapdoors, but implemented through `nmcom` instead of a one-way function. This change is actually crucial, and as such, brings in an effect similar to “simulation sound” zero-knowledge.

⁷ The KO protocol uses a clever combination of garble circuits, semi-honest oblivious transfer, coin-tossing, and WIPOK to ensure that the protocol is executed with a fixed input (allowing at the same time simulation extractability of the input), and relies on the zero-knowledge property of a modified Fiege-Shamir proof to achieve output simulation.

2. The oblivious transfer protocol based on trapdoor permutations and coin-tossing now performs coin-tossing with the help of nmcom instead of simple commitments. This is a crucial change since this allows us to slowly get rid of the honest party's input in the simulation and still argue that the distribution of the adversary's input does not change as a result of this.

We note that there are many parallel executions on nmcom that take place at this stage, and therefore, we require that nmcom should be non-malleable under many parallel executions. This is indeed true for most nmcom .

3. Finally, we introduce a mechanism to ensure that the two parties use the exact same input in both executions. Roughly speaking, this is done by requiring the parties to prove consistency of messages “across” protocols.
4. To keep the number of rounds to $k + 1$ (or 4 if $k < 3$), many of the messages discussed above are “absorbed” with other rounds by running in parallel.

Multi-party Setting. The above protocol does not directly extend to the multi-party settings. Nevertheless, for the special case of *coin flipping*, we show that a (simplified) version of the above protocol works for the multi-party case. This is because the coin-tossing functionality does not really require any computation, and therefore, we can get rid of components such as oblivious transfer. In fact, this can be extended “slightly more” to also realize the “coin-flipping with committed inputs” since committing the input does not depend on inputs of other parties.

Next, to obtain our result for general functionalities, we simply invoke known results: using [34] with coin-flipping gives us a six round protocol, and using [26] gives a five round result.

2 Preliminaries

Notation. We denote the security parameter by κ . We say that a function $\mu : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is *negligible* if for every positive polynomial $p(\cdot)$ and all sufficiently large κ 's it holds that $\mu(\kappa) < \frac{1}{p(\kappa)}$. We use the abbreviation PPT to denote probabilistic polynomial-time. We often use $[n]$ to denote the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$. Moreover, we use $d \leftarrow \mathcal{D}$ to denote the process of sampling d from the distribution \mathcal{D} or, if \mathcal{D} is a set, a uniform choice from it. If \mathcal{D}_1 and \mathcal{D}_2 are two distributions, then we denote that they are statistically close by $\mathcal{D}_1 \approx_s \mathcal{D}_2$; we denote that they are computationally indistinguishable by $\mathcal{D}_1 \approx_c \mathcal{D}_2$; and we denote that they are identical by $\mathcal{D}_1 \equiv \mathcal{D}_2$. Let V be a random variable corresponding to the distribution \mathcal{D} . Sometimes we abuse notation by using V to denote the corresponding distribution \mathcal{D} .

We assume familiarity with several standard cryptographic primitives. For notational purposes, we recall here the basic working definitions for some of them. We skip the well-known formal definitions for secure two-party and multi-party computations (see full version for a formal description). It will be sufficient to have notation for the two-party setting. We denote a two party functionality

by $F : \{0, 1\}^* \times \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^* \times \{0, 1\}^*$ where $F = (F_1, F_2)$. For every pair of inputs (x, y) , the output-pair is a random variable $(F_1(x, y), F_2(x, y))$ ranging over pairs of strings. The first party (with input x) should obtain $F_1(x, y)$ and the second party (with input y) should obtain $F_2(x, y)$. Without loss of generality, we assume that F is deterministic. The security is defined through the ideal/real world paradigm where for adversary \mathcal{A} participating in the real world protocol, there exists an ideal world simulator \mathcal{S} such that for every (x, y) , the output of \mathcal{S} is indistinguishable from that of \mathcal{A} . See the full version for an extended discussion.

We now recall the definitions for non-malleable commitments as well as some components from the work of Katz-Ostrovsky [26].

2.1 Tag Based Non-malleable Commitments

Let $\text{nmcom} = \langle C, R \rangle$ be a k round commitment protocol where C and R represent (randomized) committer and receiver algorithms, respectively. Denote the messages exchanged by $(\text{nm}_1, \dots, \text{nm}_k)$ where nm_i denotes the message in the i -th round.

For some string $u \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$, tag $\text{id} \in \{0, 1\}^t$, non-uniform PPT algorithm M with “advice” string $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$, and security parameter κ , define (v, view) to be the output of the following experiment: M on input $(1^\kappa, z)$, interacts with C who commits to u with tag id ; simultaneously, M interacts with $R(1^\kappa, \tilde{\text{id}})$ where $\tilde{\text{id}}$ is arbitrarily chosen by M (M ’s interaction with C is called the left interaction, and its interaction with R is called the right interaction); M controls the scheduling of messages; the output of the experiment is (v, view) where v denotes the value M commits to R in the right execution unless $\tilde{\text{id}} = \text{id}$ in which case $v = \perp$, and view denotes the view of M in both interactions.

Definition 1 (Tag based non-malleable commitments). *A commitment scheme $\text{nmcom} = \langle C, R \rangle$ is said to be non-malleable with respect to commitments if for every non-uniform PPT algorithm M (man-in-the-middle), for every pair of strings $(u_0, u_1) \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa \times \{0, 1\}^\kappa$, every tag-string $\text{id} \in \{0, 1\}^t$, every (advice) string $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$, the following two distributions are computationally indistinguishable,*

$$(v_0, \text{view}^0) \stackrel{c}{\approx} (v_1, \text{view}^1).$$

Parallel Non-malleable Commitments. We consider a strengthening of nmcom in which M can receive commitments to m strings on the “left”, say (u_1, \dots, u_m) , with tags $(\text{id}_1, \dots, \text{id}_m)$ and makes m commitments on the “right” with tags $(\tilde{\text{id}}_1, \dots, \tilde{\text{id}}_m)$. We assume that m is a fixed, possibly a-priori bounded, polynomial in the security parameter κ . In the following let $i \in [m], b \in \{0, 1\}$: We say that a nmcom is m -bounded parallel non-malleable commitment if for every pair of sequences $\{u_i^b\}$ the random variables $(\{v_i^0\}, \text{view}^0)$ and $(\{v_i^1\}, \text{view}^1)$ are computationally indistinguishable where $\{v_i^b\}$ denote the values committed by M in m sessions on right with tags $\{\tilde{\text{id}}_i\}$ while receiving parallel commitments to $\{u_i^b\}$ on left with tags $\{\text{id}_i\}$, and view^b denotes M ’s view.

First Message Binding Property. It will be convenient in the notation to assume that the first message nm_1 of the non-malleable commitment scheme nmcom statistically determines the message being committed. This can be relaxed to only require that the message is fixed before the last round if $k \geq 3$.

2.2 Components of Our Protocol

In this section, we recall some components from the KO protocol [26]. These are mostly standard and recalled here for a better exposition. The only (minor but crucial) change needed in our protocol is to the FLS proof system [13–15] where a *non-malleable* commitment protocol is used by the verifier. For concreteness, let us discuss how to fix these proof systems first.

Modified Feige-Shamir Proof Systems. We use two proof systems: Π_{WIPOK} and Π_{FS} . Protocol Π_{WIPOK} is the 3-round, public-coin, witness-indistinguishable proof-of-knowledge based on the work of Feige et al. [14] for proving graph Hamiltonicity. This proof system proves statements of the form $\text{st}_1 \wedge \text{st}_2$ where st_1 is fixed at the first round of the protocol, but st_2 is determined only in the last round of the protocol.⁸ For concreteness, this proof system is given in the full version.

Protocol Π_{FS} is the 4-round zero-knowledge argument-of-knowledge protocol of Feige and Shamir [15], which allows the prover to prove statement thm , with the modification that the protocol from verifier’s side is implemented using nmcom . More specifically,

- Recall that the Feige-Shamir protocol consists of two executions of Π_{WIPOK} in reverse directions. In the first execution, the verifier selects a one-way function f and sets $x_1 = f(w_1)$, $x_2 = f(w_2)$ and proves the knowledge of a witness for $x_1 \vee x_2$. In the second execution, prover proves the knowledge of a witness to the statement $\text{thm} \vee (x_1 \vee x_2)$ where thm is the statement to be proven. The rounds of these systems can be somewhat parallelized to obtain a 4-round protocol.
- Our modified system, simply replaces the function f and x_1, x_2 with two executions of nmcom . For convenience, suppose that nmcom has only 3 rounds. Then, our protocol creates the first message of two independent executions of nmcom to strings σ_1, σ_2 , denoted by $\text{nm}_1^1, \text{nm}_1^2$ respectively, and sets $x_1 = \text{nm}_1^1, x_2 = \text{nm}_1^2$. The second and third messages of nmcom are sent with the second and third messages of the original FS protocol.

If nmcom has more than 3 rounds, simply complete the first $k - 3$ rounds of the two executions before the 4 messages of the proof system above are exchanged.

- As before, although Π_{FS} proves statement thm , as noted in [26], it actually proves statements of the form $\text{thm} \wedge \text{thm}'$ where thm can be fixed in the second round, and thm' in the fourth round. Usually thm is empty and not

⁸ Typically, st_1 is a empty statement and not usually mentioned; but KO [26] uses a specific, non-empty, statement and so does this work.

mentioned. Indeed, this is compatible with the second Π_{WIPOK} which proves statement of the form $\text{st}_1 \wedge \text{st}_2$, just set $\text{st}_1 = \text{thm}, \text{st}_2 = \text{thm}'$.

For completeness, we describe the full Π_{FS} protocol in the full version.

Components of Katz-Ostrovsky Protocol

The remainder of this section is largely taken from [26] where we provide basic notations and ideas for semi-honest secure two-party computation based on Yao’s garbled circuits and semi-honest oblivious transfer (based on trapdoor one-way permutations). Readers familiar with [26] can skip this part without loss in readability.

Semi-honest Secure Two-Party Computation. We view Yao’s garbled circuit scheme [32, 39] as a tuple of PPT algorithms $(\text{GenGC}, \text{EvalGC})$, where GenGC is the “generation procedure” which generates a garbled circuit for a circuit C along with “labels,” and EvalGC is the “evaluation procedure” which evaluates the circuit on the “correct” labels. Each individual wire i of the circuit is assigned two labels, namely $Z_{i,0}, Z_{i,1}$. More specifically, the two algorithms have the following format (here $i \in [\kappa], b \in \{0, 1\}$):

- $(\{Z_{i,b}\}, \text{GC}_y) \leftarrow \text{GenGC}(1^\kappa, F, y)$: GenGC takes as input a security parameter κ , a circuit F and a string $y \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$. It outputs a *garbled circuit* GC_y along with the set of all *input-wire labels* $\{Z_{i,b}\}$. The *garbled circuit* may be viewed as representing the function $F(\cdot, y)$.
- $v = \text{EvalGC}(\text{GC}_y, \{Z_{i,x_i}\})$: Given a garbled circuit GC_y and a set of input-wire labels $\{Z_{i,x_i}\}$ where $x \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$, EvalGC outputs either an invalid symbol \perp , or a value $v = F(x, y)$.

The following properties are required:

Correctness. $\Pr [F(x, y) = \text{EvalGC}(\text{GC}_y, \{Z_{i,x_i}\})] = 1$ for all F, x, y , taken over the correct generation of $\text{GC}_y, \{Z_{i,b}\}$ by GenGC .

Security. There exists a PPT simulator SimGC such that for any (F, x) and uniformly random labels $\{Z_{i,b}\}$, we have that:

$$(\text{GC}_y, \{Z_{i,x_i}\}) \stackrel{c}{\approx} \text{SimGC}(1^\kappa, F, v)$$

where $(\{Z_{i,b}\}, \text{GC}_y) \leftarrow \text{GenGC}(1^\kappa, F, y)$ and $v = F(x, y)$.

In the semi-honest setting, two parties can compute a function F of their inputs, in which only *one* party, say P_1 , learns the output, as follows. Let x, y be the inputs of P_1, P_2 , respectively. First, P_2 computes $(\{Z_{i,b}\}, \text{GC}_y) \leftarrow \text{GenGC}(1^\kappa, F, y)$ and sends GC_y to P_1 . Then, the two parties engage in κ parallel instances of OT. In particular, in the i -th instance, P_1 inputs x_i , P_2 inputs $(Z_{i,0}, Z_{i,1})$ to the OT protocol, and P_1 learns the “output” Z_{i,x_i} . Then, P_1 computes $v = \text{EvalGC}(\text{GC}_y, \{Z_{i,x_i}\})$ and outputs $v = F(x, y)$.

A 3-round, semi-honest, OT protocol can be constructed from enhanced trapdoor permutations (TDP). For notational purposes, define TDP as follows:

Definition 2 (Trapdoor permutations). Let \mathcal{F} be a triple of PPT algorithms (Gen, Eval, Invert) such that if Gen(1^κ) outputs a pair (f, td) , then Eval(f, \cdot) is a permutation over $\{0, 1\}^\kappa$ and Invert(f, td, \cdot) is its inverse. \mathcal{F} is a trapdoor permutation such that for all PPT adversaries A :

$$\Pr[(f, \text{td}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\kappa); y \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\kappa; x \leftarrow A(f, y) : \text{Eval}(f, x) = y] \leq \mu(\kappa).$$

For convenience, we drop (f, td) from the notation, and write $f(\cdot), f^{-1}(\cdot)$ to denote algorithms Eval(f, \cdot), Invert(f, td, \cdot) respectively, when f, td are clear from the context. We assume that \mathcal{F} satisfies (a weak variant of) “certifiability”: namely, given some f it is possible to decide in polynomial time whether Eval(f, \cdot) is a permutation over $\{0, 1\}^\kappa$.

Let H be the *hardcore bit function* for κ bits for the family \mathcal{F} ; κ hardcore bits are obtained from a single-bit hardcore function h and $f \in \mathcal{F}$ as follows: $H(z) = h(z) \| h(f(z)) \| \dots \| h(f^{\kappa-1}(z))$. Informally, $H(z)$ looks pseudo-random given $f^\kappa(z)$.

The semi-honest OT protocol based on TDP is constructed as follows. Let P_2 hold two strings $Z_0, Z_1 \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$ and P_1 hold a bit b . In the first round, P_2 chooses trapdoor permutation $(f, f^{-1}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\kappa)$ and sends f to P_1 . Then P_1 chooses two random string $z'_0, z'_1 \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\kappa$, computes $z_b = f^\kappa(z'_b)$ and $z_{1-b} = z'_{1-b}$ and sends (z_0, z_1) to P_2 . In the last round P_2 computes $W_a = Z_a \oplus H(f^{-\kappa}(z_a))$ where $a \in \{0, 1\}$, H is the hardcore bit function and sends (W_0, W_1) to P_1 . Finally, P_2 can recover Z_b by computing $Z_b = W_b \oplus H(z_b)$.

Putting it altogether, we obtain the following 3-round, semi-honest secure two-party protocol for the single-output functionality F (here only P_1 receives the output):

Protocol Π_{SH} . P_1 holds input $x \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$ and P_2 holds inputs $y \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$. Let \mathcal{F} be a family of trapdoor permutations and let H be a hardcore bit function. For all $i \in [\kappa]$ and $b \in \{0, 1\}$ the following steps are executed:

Round-1: P_2 computes $(\{Z_{i,b}\}, \text{GC}_y) \leftarrow \text{GenGC}(1^\kappa, F, y)$ and chooses trapdoor permutation $(f_{i,b}, f_{i,b}^{-1}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\kappa)$ and sends $(\text{GC}_y, \{f_{i,b}\})$ to P_2 .

Round-2: P_1 chooses random strings $\{z'_{i,b}\}$, computes $z_{i,b} = f_{i,b}^\kappa(z'_{i,b})$ and $z_{i,1-b} = z'_{i,1-b}$ and sends $\{z_{i,b}\}$ to P_2 .

Round-3: P_2 computes $W_{i,b} = Z_{i,b} \oplus H(f_{i,b}^{-\kappa}(z_{i,b}))$ and sends $\{W_{i,b}\}$ to P_2 .

Output: P_1 recovers the labels $Z_{i,x_i} = W_{i,x_i} \oplus H(z_{i,x_i})$ and computes $v = \text{EvalGC}(\text{GC}_y, \{Z_{i,x_i}\})$ where $v = F(x, y)$

Equivocal Commitment Scheme Eqcom. We assume familiarity with equivocal commitments, and use the following equivocal commitment scheme Eqcom based on any (standard) non-interactive, perfectly binding, commitment scheme com: to commit to a bit x , the sender chooses coins ζ_1, ζ_2 and computes $\text{Eqcom}(x; \zeta_1, \zeta_2) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{com}(x; \zeta_1) \parallel \text{com}(x; \zeta_2)$. It sends $C_x = \text{Eqcom}(x; \zeta_1, \zeta_2)$ to the receiver along with a zero-knowledge proof that C_x was constructed correctly (i.e., that there exist x, ζ_1, ζ_2 such that $C_x = \text{Eqcom}(x; \zeta_1, \zeta_2)$).

To decommit, the sender chooses a bit b at random and reveals x, ζ_b . Note that a simulator can “equivocate” the commitment by setting $C = \text{com}(x; \zeta_1) \parallel \text{com}(\bar{x}; \zeta_2)$ for a random bit x , simulating the zero-knowledge proof and then revealing ζ_1 or ζ_2 depending on x and the bit to be revealed. This extends to strings by committing bitwise.

Sketch of the Two-Party KO Protocol. The main component of the two-party KO protocol is Yao’s 3-round protocol Π_{SH} , described above, secure against semi-honest adversaries. In order to achieve security against a malicious adversary their protocol proceeds as follows. Both parties commit to their inputs; run (modified) coin-tossing protocols to guarantee that each party obtains random coins which are committed to the other party (note that coin flipping for the side of the garbler P_2 is not needed since a malicious garbler P_2 gains nothing by using non-uniform coins. To force P_1 to use random coins the authors use a 3-round sub-protocol which is based on the work of [4]); and run the Π_{SH} protocol together with ZK arguments to avoid adversarial inconsistencies in each round. Then, simulation extractability is guaranteed by the use of WI proof of knowledge and output simulation by the Feige-Shamir ZK argument of knowledge.

However, since even a ZK argument for the first round of the protocol alone will already require 4 rounds, the authors use specific proof systems to achieve in total a 4-round protocol. In particular, the KO protocol uses a specific WI proof of knowledge system with the property that the statement to be proven need not be known until the last round of the protocol, yet soundness, completeness, and witness-indistinguishability still hold. Also, this proof system has the property that the first message from the prover is computed independently of the statement being proved. Note that their 4-round ZK argument of knowledge enjoys the same properties. Furthermore, their protocol uses an equivocal commitment scheme to commit to the garble circuit for the following reason. Party P_1 may send his round-two message before the proof of correctness for round one given by P_2 is complete. Therefore, the protocol has to be constructed in a way that the proof of correctness for round one completes in round three and that party P_2 reveals the garbled circuit in the third round. But since the proof of security requires P_2 to commit to a garble circuit at the end of the first round, P_2 does so using an equivocal commitment scheme.

3 The Exact Round Complexity of Coin Tossing

In this section we first show that it is impossible to construct two-party (simulatable) coin-flipping for a super-logarithmic number of coins in 3 simultaneous message exchange rounds. We first recall the definition of a simulatable coin flipping protocol using the real/ideal paradigm from [27].

Definition 3 ([27]). *An n -party protocol Π is a simulatable coin-flipping protocol if it is an $(n - 1)$ -secure protocol realizing the coin-flipping functionality. That is, for every PPT adversary \mathcal{A} corrupting at most $n - 1$ parties there exists an expected PPT simulator \mathcal{S} such that the (output of the) following experiments are indistinguishable. Here we parse the result of running protocol Π with adversary \mathcal{A} (denoted by $\text{REAL}_{\Pi, \mathcal{A}}(1^\kappa, 1^\lambda)$) as a pair $(c, \text{view}_{\mathcal{A}})$ where $c \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda \cup \{\perp\}$ is the outcome and $\text{view}_{\mathcal{A}}$ is the view of the adversary \mathcal{A} .*

$\text{REAL}(1^\kappa, 1^\lambda)$	$\text{IDEAL}(1^\kappa, 1^\lambda)$
$c, \text{view}_{\mathcal{A}} \leftarrow \text{REAL}_{\Pi, \mathcal{A}}(1^\kappa, 1^\lambda)$	$c' \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\lambda$
	$\tilde{c}, \text{view}_{\mathcal{S}} \leftarrow \mathcal{S}^{\mathcal{A}}(c', 1^\kappa, 1^\lambda)$
Output $(c, \text{view}_{\mathcal{A}})$	If $\tilde{c} = \{c', \perp\}$ then Output $(\tilde{c}, \text{view}_{\mathcal{S}})$ Else output fail

We restrict ourselves to the case of two parties ($n = 2$), which can be extended to any $n > 2$. Below we denote messages in protocol Π which are sent by party P_i to party P_j in the ρ -th round by $m_{i,j}^{\Pi[\rho]}$.

As mentioned earlier, Katz and Östrovsky [26] showed that simulatable coin-flipping protocol is impossible in 4 rounds without simultaneous message exchange. Since we will use the result for our proofs in this section, we state their result below without giving their proof.

Lemma 1. [26, Theorem 1] *Let $p(\kappa) = \omega(\log \kappa)$, where κ is the security parameter. Then there does not exist a 4-round protocol without simultaneous message transmission for tossing $p(\kappa)$ coins which can be proven secure via black-box simulation.*

In the following, we state our impossibility result for coin-flipping in 3 rounds of simultaneous message exchange.

Lemma 2. *Let $p(\kappa) = \omega(\log \kappa)$, where κ is the security parameter. Then there does not exist a 3-round protocol with simultaneous message transmission for tossing $p(\kappa)$ coins which can be proven secure via black-box simulation.*

Proof: We prove the above statement by showing that a 3-round simultaneous message exchange protocol can be “rescheduled” to a 4-round *non-simultaneous* protocol which contradicts the impossibility of [26]. Here by rescheduling we

mean rearrangement of the messages without violating mutual dependencies among them, in particular without altering the next-message functions.

For the sake of contradiction, assume that there exists a protocol $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}$ which realizes simulatable coin-flipping in 3 simultaneous message exchange rounds, then we can reschedule it in order to construct a protocol $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftarrow}$ which realizes simulatable coin-flipping in 4 rounds⁹ without simultaneous message exchange as follows:

Protocol $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftarrow}$

Round-1: P_1 sends the first message $m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftarrow}[1]} := m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[1]}$ to P_2 .

Round-2: Party P_2 sends to P_1 the second message
 $m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftarrow}[2]} := (m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[1]}, m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[2]}).$

Round-3: Party P_1 sends to P_2 the third message
 $m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftarrow}[3]} := (m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[2]}, m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[3]}).$

Round-4: Finally P_2 sends to P_1 the last message
 $m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftarrow}[4]} := m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[3]}.$

We provide a pictorial presentation of the above rescheduling in Fig. 1 for better illustration.

Now, without loss of generality assume that P_1 is corrupted. Then we need to build an expected PPT simulator \mathcal{S}_{P_1} (or simply \mathcal{S}) meeting the adequate requirements (according to Definition 1). First note that, since by assumption the protocol $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}$ is secure (i.e. achieves Definition 1) the following holds: for any corrupt P_1^{\leftrightarrow} executing the simultaneous message exchange protocol $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}$ there exists an expected PPT simulator $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$ (let us call it the “inner” simulator and \mathcal{S} the “outer” simulator) in the ideal world. So, \mathcal{S} can be constructed using $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$ for a corrupted party P_1^{\leftrightarrow} which can be *emulated* by \mathcal{S} based on P_1 . Finally, \mathcal{S} just outputs whatever $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$ returns. \mathcal{S} emulates the interaction between $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$ and P_1^{\leftrightarrow} as follows:

1. On receiving a value $c' \in \{0,1\}^\lambda$ from the ideal functionality, \mathcal{S} runs the inner simulator $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}(c', 1^\kappa, 1^\lambda)$ to get the first message $m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[1]}$. Notice that in protocol $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}$ the first message from (honest) party P_2^{\leftrightarrow} does not depend on the first message of the corrupted party P_1^{\leftrightarrow} . So, the inner simulator must be able to produce the first message even before seeing the first message of party P_1 (or the emulated party P_1^{\leftrightarrow})¹⁰. Then it runs P_1 to receive the first message $m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[1]}$.

⁹ The superscript \leftrightarrow stands for the simultaneous message exchange setting and \leftarrow for the setting without simultaneous message exchange.

¹⁰ In particular, for so-called “rushing” adversaries, who can wait until receiving the first message and then send its own, the inner simulator must simulate the first message to get the first message from the adversary.

2. Then \mathcal{S} forwards $m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[1]}$ to the inner simulator which then returns the second simulated message $m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[2]}$. Now \mathcal{S} can construct the simulated message $m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftarrow}[2]}$ by combining $m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[2]}$ and $m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[1]}$ received earlier (see above) which \mathcal{S} then forwards to P_1 .
3. In the next step, \mathcal{S} gets back messages $m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftarrow}[3]} = (m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[2]}, m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[3]})$ from P_1 . It then forwards the second message $m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[2]}$ to $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$, which then returns the third simulated message $m_{2,1}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[3]}$. Finally it forwards the third message $m_{1,2}^{\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}[3]}$ to $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$.
4. \mathcal{S} outputs whatever transcript $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$ outputs in the end.
5. Note that, whenever the inner simulator $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$ asks to rewind the emulated P_1^{\leftrightarrow} , \mathcal{S} rewinds P_1 .

It is not hard to see that the simulator \mathcal{S} emulates correctly the party P_1^{\leftrightarrow} and hence by the security of $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}$, the inner simulator $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$ returns an indistinguishable (with the real world) view. The key-point is that the re-scheduling of the messages from protocol $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}$ does not affect the dependency (hence the corresponding next message functions) and hence the correctness and security remains intact in $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftarrow}$.

We stress that the proof for the case where P_2 is corrupted is straightforward given the above. However, in that case, since P_2 's first message depends on the first message of honest P_1 , it is mandatory for the inner simulator $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$ to output the first message before seeing anything even in order to run the corrupted P_2 which is not necessary in the above case. As we stated earlier this is possible as the inner simulator $\mathcal{S}^{\leftrightarrow}$ should be able to handle rushing adversaries.

Hence we prove that if the underlying protocol $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftrightarrow}$ securely realizes simulatable coin-flipping in 3 simultaneous rounds then $\Pi_{\text{flip}}^{\leftarrow}$ securely realizes coin-flipping in 4 non-simultaneous rounds which contradicts the KO lower bound (Lemma 1). This concludes the proof. \square

Going a step further we show that any four-round simultaneous message exchange protocol realizing simulatable coin-flipping must satisfy a necessary property, that is each round must be a strictly simultaneous message exchange round, in other words, both parties must send some “non-redundant” message in each round. By “non-redundant” we mean that the next message from the other party must depend on the current message. Below we show the above, otherwise the messages can be again subject to a “rescheduling” mechanism similar to the one in Lemma 2, to yield a four-round non-simultaneous protocol; thus contradicting Lemma 1. More specifically,

Lemma 3. *Let $p(\kappa) = \omega(\log \kappa)$, where κ is the security parameter. Then there does not exist a 4-round protocol with at least one unidirectional round (i.e. a round without simultaneous message exchange) for tossing $p(\kappa)$ coins which can be proven secure via black-box simulation.*

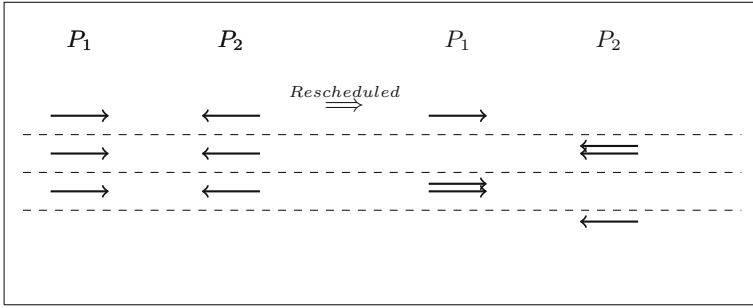


Fig. 1. A 3-round simultaneous protocol rescheduled to a 4-round non-simultaneous protocol.

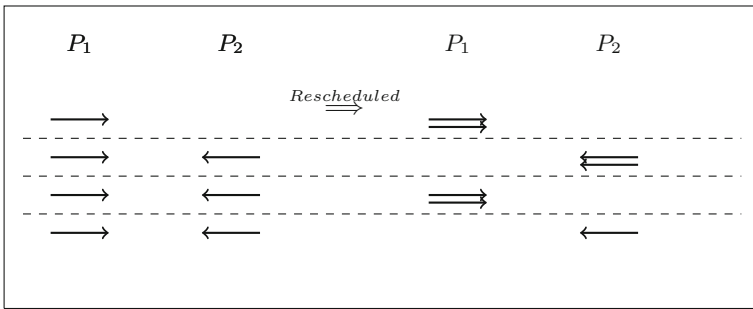


Fig. 2. Rescheduling when P_2 does not send the first message.

Proof: [Proof (Sketch)] We provide a sketch for any protocol with exactly one unidirectional round where only one party, say P_1 sends a message to P_2 . Clearly, there can be four such cases where P_2 's message is omitted in one of the four rounds. In Fig. 2 we show the case where P_2 does not send the message in the first round, and any such protocol can be re-scheduled (similar to the proof of Lemma 2) to a non-simultaneous 4-round protocol without altering any possible message dependency. This observation can be formalized in a straightforward manner following the proof of Lemma 2 and hence we omit the details. Therefore, again combining with the impossibility from Lemma 1 by [26] such simultaneous protocol can not realize simulatable coin-flipping. The other cases can be easily observed by similar rescheduling trick and therefore we omit the details for those cases. \square

4 Two-Party Computation in the Simultaneous Message Exchange Model

In this section, we present our two party protocol for computing any functionality in the presence of a static, malicious and rushing adversary. As discussed earlier, we are in the simultaneous message exchange channel setting where both parties can simultaneously exchange messages in each round. The structure of this protocol will provide a basis for our later protocols as well.

An overview of the protocol appears in the introduction (Sect. 1). In a high level, the protocol consists of two simultaneous executions of a one-sided (single-output) protocol to guarantee that both parties learn the output. The overall skeleton of the one-sided protocol resembles the KO protocol [26] which uses a clever combination of OT, coin-tossing, and Π_{WIPOK} to ensure that the protocol is executed with a fixed input (allowing at the same time simulation extractability of the input), and relies on the zero-knowledge property of Π_{FS} to “force the output”. A sketch of the KO protocol is given in Sect. 2.2. In order to ensure “independence of inputs” our protocol relies heavily on non-malleable commitments. To this end, we change the one-sided protocol to further incorporate non-malleable commitments so that similar guarantees can be obtained even in the presence of the “opposite side” protocol, and we further rely on zero-knowledge proofs to ensure that parties use the same input in both executions.

4.1 Our Protocol

To formally define our protocol, let:

- (GenGC, EvalGC) be the garbled-circuit mechanism with simulator SimGC; $\mathcal{F} = (\text{Gen}, \text{Eval}, \text{Invert})$ be a family of TDPs with domain $\{0, 1\}^\kappa$; \mathbf{H} be the hardcore bit function for κ bits; com be a perfectly binding non-interactive commitment scheme; Eqcom be the equivocal scheme based on com , as described in Sect. 2;
- nmcom be a tag based, *parallel*¹¹ non-malleable commitment scheme for strings, supporting tags/identities of length κ ;
- Π_{WIPOK} be the witness-indistinguishable proof-of-knowledge for NP as described in Sect. 2;
- Π_{FS} be the proof system for NP, based on nmcom and Π_{WIPOK} , as described in Sect. 2;
- **Simplifying assumption:** *for notational convenience only*, we assume for now that nmcom consists of exactly three rounds, denoted by $(\text{nm}_1, \text{nm}_2, \text{nm}_3)$. This assumption is removed later (see Remark 1).

We also assume that the first round, nm_1 , is from the committer and statistically determines the message to be committed. We use the notation $\text{nm}_1 = \text{nmcom}_1(\text{id}, r; \omega)$ to denote the committer’s first message when executing nmcom with identity id to commit to string r with randomness ω .

¹¹ We actually need security against an a-priori bounded number of polynomial executions. Almost all known protocols for nmcom have this additional property.

We are now ready to describe our protocol.

Protocol Π_{2PC} . We denote the two parties by P_1 and P_2 ; P_1 holds input $x \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$ and P_2 holds input $y \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$. Furthermore, the identities of P_1, P_2 are id_1, id_2 respectively where $\text{id}_1 \neq \text{id}_2$. Let $F := (F_1, F_2) : \{0, 1\}^\kappa \times \{0, 1\}^\kappa \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\kappa \times \{0, 1\}^\kappa$ be the functions to be computed.

The protocol consists of four (strictly) simultaneous message exchange rounds, i.e., both parties send messages in each round. The protocol essentially consists of two simultaneous executions of a protocol in which only one party learns the output. In the first protocol, P_1 learns the output and the messages of this protocol are denoted by (m_1, m_2, m_3, m_4) where (m_1, m_3) are sent by P_1 and (m_2, m_4) are sent by P_2 . Likewise, in the second protocol P_2 learns the output and the messages of this protocol are denoted by $(\tilde{m}_1, \tilde{m}_2, \tilde{m}_3, \tilde{m}_4)$ where $(\tilde{m}_1, \tilde{m}_3)$ are sent by P_2 and $(\tilde{m}_2, \tilde{m}_4)$ are sent by P_1 . Therefore, messages (m_j, \tilde{m}_j) are exchanged simultaneously in the j -th round, $j \in \{1, \dots, 4\}$ (see Fig. 3).

We now describe how these messages are constructed in each round below. In the following i always ranges from 1 to κ and b from 0 to 1.

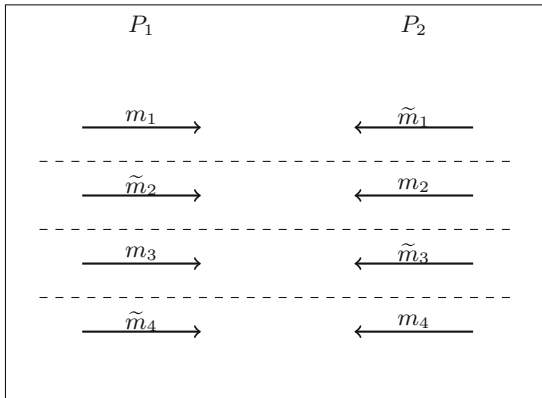


Fig. 3. 2-PC in the simultaneous message exchange model.

Round 1. In this round P_1 sends a message m_1 and P_2 sends a symmetrically constructed message \tilde{m}_1 . We first describe how P_1 constructs m_1 .

Actions of P_1 :

1. P_1 starts by committing to 2κ random strings $\{(r_{1,0}, r_{1,1}), \dots, (r_{\kappa,0}, r_{\kappa,1})\}$ using 2κ parallel and independent executions of nmcom with identity id_1 . I.e., it uniformly chooses strings $r_{i,b}$, randomness $\omega_{i,b}$, and generates $\text{nm}_1^{i,b}$ which is the first message corresponding to the execution of $\text{nmcom}(\text{id}_1, r_{i,b}; \omega_{i,b})$.

2. P_1 prepares the first message \mathbf{p}_1 of Π_{WIPoK} , as well as the first message \mathbf{fs}_1 of Π_{FS} .

For later reference, define \mathbf{st}_1 to be the following: $\exists\{(r_i, \omega_i)\}_{i \in [\kappa]}$ s.t.:

$$\forall i : (\text{nm}_1^{i,0} = \text{nmcom}_1(\text{id}_1, r_i; \omega_i) \vee \text{nm}_1^{i,1} = \text{nmcom}_1(\text{id}_1, r_i; \omega_i))$$

Informally, \mathbf{st}_1 represents that P_1 “knows” one of the decommitment values for every i .

3. Message m_1 is defined to be the tuple $(\{\text{nm}_1^{i,b}\}, \mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{fs}_1)$.

Actions of P_2 :

Performs the same actions as P_1 to sample the values $\{(\tilde{r}_{i,b}, \tilde{\omega}_{i,b})\}$ and constructs $\tilde{m}_1 := (\{\tilde{\text{nm}}_1^{i,b}\}, \tilde{\mathbf{p}}_1, \tilde{\mathbf{fs}}_1)$ where all $\tilde{\text{nm}}_1^{i,b}$ are generated with id_2 .

Define the statement $\tilde{\mathbf{st}}_1$ analogously for these values.

Round 2. In this round P_2 sends a message m_2 and P_1 sends a symmetrically constructed message \tilde{m}_2 . We first describe how P_2 constructs m_2 .

Actions of P_2 :

1. P_2 generates the second messages $\{\text{nm}_2^{i,b}\}$ corresponding to all executions of nmcom initiated by P_1 (with id_1).
2. P_2 prepares the second message \mathbf{p}_2 of the Π_{WIPoK} protocol initiated by P_1 .
3. P_2 samples random strings $\{r'_{i,b}\}$ and $(f_{i,b}, f_{i,b}^{-1}) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^\kappa)$ for the oblivious transfer executions.
4. P_2 obtains the garbled labels and the circuit for F_1 : $(\{Z_{i,b}\}, \text{GC}_y) = \text{GenGC}(1^\kappa, F_1, y; \Omega)$.
5. P_2 generates standard commitments to the labels, and an equivocal commitment to the garbled circuit: i.e., $\text{C}_{\text{lab}}^{i,b} \leftarrow \text{com}(Z_{i,b}; \omega'_{i,b})$ and $\text{C}_{\text{gc}} \leftarrow \text{Eqcom}(\text{GC}_y; \zeta)$.
6. P_2 prepares the second message \mathbf{fs}_2 of the Π_{FS} protocol initiated by P_1 . For later reference, define \mathbf{st}_2 to be the following: $\exists (y, \Omega, \text{GC}_y, \{Z_{i,b}, \omega'_{i,b}\}, \zeta)$ s.t.:
 - (a) $(\{Z_{i,b}\}, \text{GC}_y) = \text{GenGC}(1^\kappa, F_1, y; \Omega)$
 - (b) $\forall (i, b) : \text{C}_{\text{lab}}^{i,b} = \text{com}(Z_{i,b}; \omega'_{i,b})$
 - (c) $\text{C}_{\text{gc}} = \text{Eqcom}(\text{GC}_y; \zeta)$
 (Informally, \mathbf{st}_2 is the statement that P_2 performed this step correctly.)
7. Define message $m_2 := (\{\text{nm}_2^{i,b}, r'_{i,b}, f_{i,b}, \text{C}_{\text{lab}}^{i,b}\}, \text{C}_{\text{gc}}, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{fs}_2)$.

Actions of P_1 :

Performs the same actions as P_2 in the previous step to construct the message $\tilde{m}_2 := (\{\tilde{\text{nm}}_2^{i,b}, \tilde{r}'_{i,b}, \tilde{f}_{i,b}, \tilde{\text{C}}_{\text{lab}}^{i,b}\}, \tilde{\text{C}}_{\text{gc}}, \tilde{\mathbf{p}}_2, \tilde{\mathbf{fs}}_2)$ w.r.t. identity id_2 , function F_2 , and input x . Define the (remaining) values $\tilde{f}'_{i,b}^{-1}, \tilde{Z}_{i,b}, \tilde{\omega}'_{i,b}, \text{GC}_x, \tilde{\Omega}, \tilde{\zeta}$ and statement $\tilde{\mathbf{st}}_2$ analogously.

Round 3. In this round P_1 sends a message m_3 and P_2 sends a symmetrically constructed message \tilde{m}_3 . We first describe how P_1 constructs m_3 .

Actions of P_1 :

1. P_1 prepares the third message $\{\text{nm}_3^{i,b}\}$ of nmcom (with id_1).
2. If any of $\{f_{i,b}\}$ are invalid, P_1 aborts. Otherwise, it invokes κ parallel executions of oblivious transfer to obtain the input-wire labels corresponding to its input x . More specifically, P_1 proceeds as follows:
 - If $x_i = 0$, sample $z'_{i,0} \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\kappa$, set $z_{i,0} = f_{i,0}^\kappa(z'_{i,0})$, and $z_{i,1} = r_{i,1} \oplus r'_{i,1}$.
 - If $x_i = 1$, sample $z'_{i,1} \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\kappa$, set $z_{i,1} = f_{i,1}^\kappa(z'_{i,1})$, and $z_{i,0} = r_{i,0} \oplus r'_{i,0}$.
3. Define st_3 to be the following: $\exists\{(r_i, \omega_i)\}_{i \in [\kappa]}$ s.t. $\forall i$:
 - (a) $(\text{nm}_1^{i,0} = \text{nmcom}_1(\text{id}_1, r_i; \omega_i) \wedge z_{i,0} = r_i \oplus r'_{i,0})$, **or**
 - (b) $(\text{nm}_1^{i,1} = \text{nmcom}_1(\text{id}_1, r_i; \omega_i) \wedge z_{i,1} = r_i \oplus r'_{i,1})$
 Informally, st_3 says that P_1 correctly constructed $\{z_{i,b}\}$.
4. P_1 prepares the final message p_3 of Π_{WIPOK} proving the statement: $\text{st}_1 \wedge \text{st}_3$.¹² P_1 also prepares the third message fs_3 of Π_{FS} .
5. Define $m_3 := (\{\text{nm}_3^{i,b}, z_{i,b}\}, \text{p}_3, \text{fs}_3)$ to P_2 .

Actions of P_2 :

Performs the same actions as P_1 in the previous step to construct the message $\tilde{m}_3 := (\{\tilde{\text{nm}}_3^{i,b}, \tilde{z}_{i,b}\}, \tilde{\text{p}}_3, \tilde{\text{fs}}_3)$ w.r.t. identity id_2 and input y . The (remaining) values $\{\tilde{z}_{i,b}, \tilde{z}'_{i,b}\}$ and statement $\tilde{\text{st}}_3$ are defined analogously.

Round 4. In this round P_2 sends a message m_4 and P_1 sends a symmetrically constructed message \tilde{m}_4 . We first describe how P_2 constructs m_4 .

Actions of P_2 :

1. If p_3, fs_3 are not accepting, P_2 aborts. Otherwise, P_2 completes the execution of the oblivious transfers for every (i, b) . I.e., it computes $W_{i,b} = Z_{i,b} \oplus \text{H}(f^{-\kappa}(z_{i,b}))$.
2. Define st_4 to be the following: $\exists (y, \Omega, \text{GC}_y, \{Z_{i,b}\}, \omega'_{i,b}, z'_{i,b}, \tilde{z}'_i)$ $i \in [\kappa], b \in \{0,1\}$ s.t.
 - (a) $\forall (i, b): (C_{\text{lab}}^{i,b} = \text{com}(Z_{i,b}; \omega'_{i,b})) \wedge (f_{i,b}^\kappa(z'_{i,b}) = z_{i,b}) \wedge (W_{i,b} = Z_{i,b} \oplus \text{H}((z'_{i,b})))$
 - (b) $((\{Z_{i,b}\}, \text{GC}_y) = \text{GenGC}(1^\kappa, F_1, y; \Omega)) \wedge (C_{\text{gc}} = \text{Eqcom}(\text{GC}_y; \zeta))$
 - (c) $\forall i: \tilde{z}_{i,y_i} = \tilde{f}_{i,y_i}^\kappa(\tilde{z}'_i)$
 Informally, this means that P_2 performed *both* oblivious transfers correctly.
3. P_2 prepares the final message fs_4 of Π_{FS} proving the statement $\text{st}_2 \wedge \text{st}_4$.¹³
4. Define $m_4 := (\{W_{i,b}\}, \text{fs}_4, \text{GC}_y, \zeta)$.

Actions of P_1 :

Performs the same actions as P_2 in the previous step to construct the message $\tilde{m}_4 := (\{\tilde{W}_{i,b}\}, \tilde{\text{fs}}_4, \text{GC}_x, \tilde{\zeta})$ and analogously defined statement $\tilde{\text{st}}_4$.

¹² Honest P_1 knows multiple witnesses for st_1 . For concreteness, we have to use one of them randomly in the proof.

¹³ Recall that Π_{FS} is a modified version of FS protocol: it uses two executions of nmcom to construct its first message, namely, the first message consists of $(\text{nm}_1^1, \text{nm}_1^2)$ corresponding to two executions of nmcom committing to strings σ_1, σ_2 (see Sect. 2).

Output Computation.

P_1 's **output**: If any of $(\text{fs}_4, \text{GC}_y, \zeta)$ or the openings of $\{W_{i,b}\}$ are invalid, P_1 aborts. Otherwise, P_1 recovers the garbled labels $\{Z_i := Z_{i,x_i}\}$ from the completion of the oblivious transfer, and computes $F_1(x, y) = \text{EvalGC}(\text{GC}_y, \{Z_i\})$.

P_2 's **output**: If any of $(\tilde{\text{fs}}_4, \text{GC}_x, \tilde{\zeta})$ or the openings of $\{\tilde{W}_{i,b}\}$ are invalid, P_2 aborts. Otherwise, P_2 recovers the garbled labels $\{\tilde{Z}_i := \tilde{Z}_{i,y_i}\}$ from the completion of the oblivious transfer, and computes $F_2(x, y) = \text{EvalGC}(\text{GC}_x, \{\tilde{Z}_i\})$.

Remark 1: If nmcom has $k > 3$ rounds, the first $k - 3$ rounds can be performed before the 4 rounds of $\Pi_{2\text{PC}}$ start; this results in a protocol with $k + 1$ rounds. If $k < 3$, then the protocol has only 4 rounds. Also, for large k , it suffices if the first $k - 2$ rounds of nmcom statistically determine the message to be committed; the notation is adjusted to simply use the transcript up to $k - 2$ rounds to define the statements for the proof systems.

Finally, the construction is described for a deterministic F . Known transformations (see [19, Sect. 7.3]) yield a protocol for randomized functionalities, without increasing the rounds.

4.2 Proof of Security

We prove the security of our protocol according to the ideal/real paradigm. We design a sequence of hybrids where we start with the real world execution and gradually modify it until the input of the honest party is not needed. The resulting final hybrid represents the simulator for the ideal world.

Theorem 1. *Assuming the existence of a trapdoor permutation family and a k -round parallel non-malleable commitment schemes, protocol $\Pi_{2\text{PC}}$ securely computes every two-party functionality $F = (F_1, F_2)$ with black-box simulation in the presence of a malicious adversary. The round complexity of $\Pi_{2\text{PC}}$ is $k' = \max(4, k + 1)$.*

Proof: Due to the symmetric nature of our protocol, it is *sufficient* to prove security against the malicious behavior of any party, say P_1 . We show that for every adversary \mathcal{A} who participates as P_1 in the “real” world execution of $\Pi_{2\text{PC}}$, there exists an “ideal” world adversary (simulator) \mathcal{S} such that for all inputs x, y of equal length and security parameter $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$\{\text{IDEAL}_{F,\mathcal{S}}(\kappa, x, y)\}_{\kappa,x,y} \stackrel{\mathcal{C}}{\approx} \{\text{REAL}_{\Pi,\mathcal{A}}(\kappa, x, y)\}_{\kappa,x,y}$$

We prove this claim by considering hybrid experiments H_0, H_1, \dots as described below. We start with H_0 which has access to both inputs x and y , and gradually get rid of the honest party’s input y to reach the final hybrid.

H_0 : Identical to the real execution. More specifically, H_0 starts the execution of \mathcal{A} providing it fresh randomness and input x , and interacts with it honestly

by performing all actions of P_2 with uniform randomness and input y . The output consists of \mathcal{A} 's view.

By construction, H_0 and the output of \mathcal{A} in the real execution are identically distributed.

H_1 : Identical to H_0 except that this hybrid also performs extraction of \mathcal{A} 's implicit input x^* from Π_{WIPOK} ; in addition, it also extracts the “simulation trapdoor” σ from the first three rounds ($\text{fs}_1, \text{fs}_2, \text{fs}_3$) of Π_{FS} .¹⁴ More specifically, H_1 proceeds as follows:

1. It completes the first three broadcast rounds exactly as in H_0 , and waits until \mathcal{A} either aborts or successfully completes the third round.
2. At this point, H_1 proceeds to extract the witness corresponding to each proof-of-knowledge completed in the first three rounds.

Specifically, H_1 defines a cheating prover P^* which acts identically to H_0 , simulating all messages for \mathcal{A} , except those corresponding to (each execution of) Π_{WIPOK} which are forwarded outside. It then applies the extractor of Π_{WIPOK} to obtain the “witnesses” which consists of the following: values $\{(r_i, \omega_i)\}_{i \in [\kappa]}$ which is the witness for $\text{st}_1 \wedge \text{st}_3$, and a value (σ, ω_σ) which is the simulation trapdoor for Π_{FS} .

If extraction fails, H_1 outputs fail. Otherwise, let $b_i \in \{0, 1\}$ be such that $\text{nm}_1^{i, b_i} = \text{nmcom}_1(\text{id}_1, r_i; \omega_i)$. H_1 defines a string $x^* = (x_1^*, \dots, x_\kappa^*)$ as follows:

$$\text{If } z_{i, b_i} = r_i \oplus r'_{i, b_i} \text{ then } x_i^* = 1 - b_i; \text{ otherwise } x_i^* = b_i$$

3. H_1 completes the final round and prepares the output exactly as H_0 .

Claim 1. H_1 is expected polynomial time, and H_0, H_1 are statistically close.

Proof sketch: This is a (completely) standard proof which we sketch here. Let p be the probability with which \mathcal{A} completes Π_{WIPOK} in the third round, and let trans be the transcript. The extractor for Π_{WIPOK} takes expected time $\text{poly}(\kappa)/p$ and succeeds with probability $1 - \mu(\kappa)$. It follows that the expected running time of H_1 is $\text{poly}(\kappa) + p \cdot \frac{\text{poly}(\kappa)}{p} = \text{poly}(\kappa)$, and its output is statistically close to that of H_0 .¹⁵ \diamond

H_2 : Identical to H_1 except that this hybrid uses the simulation trapdoor (σ, ω_σ) as the witness to compute fs_4 in the last round. (Recall that fs_4 is the last round of an execution of Π_{WIPOK}).

It is easy to see that H_2 and H_3 are computationally indistinguishable due the WI property of Π_{WIPOK} .

H_3 : In this hybrid, we get rid of P_2 's input y that is implicitly present in values $\{z_{i, b}\}$ and $\{r_{i, b}\}$ in nmcom (but keep it everywhere else for the time being).

¹⁴ Recall that $(\text{fs}_1, \text{fs}_2, \text{fs}_3)$ contains two non-malleable commitments (to values σ_1, σ_2) along with proof-of-knowledge of one of the committed values using Π_{WIPOK} ; this execution of Π_{WIPOK} runs in parallel and therefore, it is possible to extract from it at the same time as x^* .

¹⁵ See “witness extended emulation” in [31] for full exposition.

Formally, H_3 is identical to H_2 except that in round 3 it sets $\tilde{z}_{i,b} = \tilde{r}_{i,b} \oplus \tilde{r}'_{i,b}$ for all (i, b) .

Claim 2. The outputs of H_2 and H_3 are computationally indistinguishable.

Proof. We rely on the non-malleability of nmcom to prove this claim. Let D be a distinguisher for H_2 and H_3 .

The high level idea is as follows: first we define two string sequences $\{u_{i,b}^1\}$ and $\{u_{i,b}^2\}$ and a man-in-the-middle M (which incorporates \mathcal{A}) and receives non-malleable commitments to one of these sequences in parallel. Then we define a distinguisher D_{nm} which incorporates both M and D , takes as input the value committed by M and its view, and can distinguish which sequence was committed to M . This violates non-malleability of nmcom .

Formally, define a man-in-middle M who receives 2κ nmcom commitments on left and makes 2κ commitments on right as follows:

1. M incorporates \mathcal{A} internally, and proceeds exactly as H_1 by sampling all messages internally except for the messages of nmcom corresponding to P_2 . These messages are received from an outside committer as follows. M samples uniformly random values $\{\tilde{z}_{i,b}\}$ and $\{\tilde{r}'_{i,b}\}$ and defines $\{u_{i,b}^0\}$ and $\{u_{i,b}^1\}$ as:

$$u_{i,y_i}^0 = \tilde{z}_{i,y_i} \oplus \tilde{r}'_{i,y_i}, \quad u_{i,\bar{y}_i}^0 \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^\kappa, \quad u_{i,b}^1 = \tilde{z}_{i,b} \oplus \tilde{r}'_{i,b} \forall (i, b)$$

It forwards $\{u_{i,b}^0\}$ and $\{u_{i,b}^1\}$ to the outside committer who commits to one of these sequences in parallel. M forwards these messages to \mathcal{A} , and forwards the message given by \mathcal{A} corresponding to nmcom to the outside receiver.

2. After the first three rounds are finished, M halts by outputting its view. In particular, M does not continue further like H_1 , it does not extract any values, and does not complete the fourth round. (In fact, M cannot complete the fourth round, since it does not have the witness).

Let $\{v_{i,b}^0\}$ (resp., $\{v_{i,b}^1\}$) be the sequence of values committed by M with id_2 when it receives a commitment to $\{u_{i,b}^0\}$ (resp., $\{u_{i,b}^1\}$) with id_1 .

Define the distinguisher D_{nm} as follows: D_{nm} incorporates both M and D . It receives as input a pair $(\{v_{i,b}\}, \text{view})$ and proceeds as follows:

1. D_{nm} parses $v_{i,b}$ to obtain a string σ corresponding to the “trapdoor witness.”¹⁶
2. D_{nm} starts M and feeds him the view view and continues the execution just like H_1 . It, however, does not rewind \mathcal{A} (internal to M), instead it uses σ (which is part of its input) and values in view to complete the last round of the protocol.
3. When \mathcal{A} halts, D_{nm} feeds the view of \mathcal{A} to D and outputs whatever D outputs.

It is straightforward to verify that if M receives commitments corresponding to $\{u_{i,b}^0\}$ (resp., $\{u_{i,b}^1\}$) then the output of D_{nm} is identical to that of H_2 (resp., H_3). The claim follows. \diamond

¹⁶ Note that, by construction, such a value is guaranteed in both sequences and w.l.o.g. can be the value in the first nmcom .

H_4 : Identical to H_3 except that H_4 changes the “inputs of the oblivious transfer” from $(Z_{i,0}, Z_{i,1})$ to $(Z_{i,x_i^*}, Z_{i,x_i^*})$. Formally, in the last round, H_4 sets $W_{i,b} = Z_{i,x_i^*} \oplus H((z'_{i,b}))$ for every (i, b) , but does everything else as H_3 .

H_3 and H_4 are computationally indistinguishable due to the (indistinguishable) security of oblivious transfer w.r.t. a malicious receiver. This part is identical to the proof in [26], and relies on the fact that one of the two strings for oblivious transfer are obtained by “coin tossing;” and therefore its inverse is hidden, which implies that the hardcore bits look pseudorandom.

H_5 : Identical to H_4 except that now we simulate the garbled circuit and its labels for values x^* and $F_1(x^*, y)$. Formally, H_5 starts by proceeding exactly as H_4 up to round 3 except that instead of committing to correct garbled circuit and labels in round 2, it simply commits to random values. After completing round 3, H_5 extracts x^* exactly as in H_4 . If extraction succeeds, it sends x^* to the trusted party, receives back $v_1 = F_1(x^*, y)$, and computes $(\{Z_{i,b}\}, \text{GC}_*) \leftarrow \text{SimGC}(1^\kappa, F_1, x^*, v_1)$. It uses labels $\{Z_{i,x_i^*}\}$ to define the values $\{W_{i,b}\}$ as in H_3 , and equivocates C_{gc} to obtain openings corresponding to the simulated circuit GC^* . It then computes fs_4 as before (by using the trapdoor witness (σ, ω_σ)), and constructs $m_4 := (\{W_{i,b}\}, \text{fs}_4, \text{GC}^*, \zeta)$. It feeds m_4 to \mathcal{A} and finally outputs \mathcal{A} 's view and halts.

We claim that H_4 and H_5 are computationally indistinguishable. First observe that the joint distribution of values $(\{C_{\text{lab}}^{i,b}\}, C_{\text{gc}})$ and GC_y (along with real openings) in H_4 is indistinguishable from the joint distribution of the values $(\{C_{\text{lab}}^{i,b}\}, C_{\text{gc}})$ and GC^* (along with equivocal openings) in H_5 . The two hybrids are identical except for sampling of these values, and can be simulated perfectly given these values from outside. The claim follows.¹⁷

Observe that H_5 is now independent of the input y . Our simulator \mathcal{S} is H_5 . This completes the proof. \square

5 Multi-party Coin Flipping Protocol

In this section, we show a protocol for the multi-party coin-flipping functionality. Since we need neither OT nor garbled circuits for coin-flipping, this protocol is simpler than the the two-party protocol.

At a high level, the multi-party coin flipping protocol Π_{MCF} simply consists of each party “committing” to a random string r , which is opened in the last round along with a simulatable proof of correct opening given to *all* parties independently. The output consists of the \oplus of all strings. This actually does not work directly as stated, but with a few more components, such as equivocal commitment to r for the proof to go through. In particular, we prove the following theorem.

¹⁷ Let us note that changing the commitment in second round (from correct garbled labels/circuit to random strings) is performed from the beginning—i.e., in the “main thread” of simulation—therefore the running time stays expected polynomial time as in claim 1.

Theorem 2. *Assuming the existence of a trapdoor permutation family and a k -round protocol for (parallel) non-malleable commitments, then the multi-party protocol Π_{MCF} securely computing the multi-party coin-flipping functionality with black-box simulation in the presence of a malicious adversary for polynomially many coins. The round complexity of Π_{MCF} is $k' = \max(4, k + 1)$.*

The multi-party coin flipping protocol Π_{MCF} and its security proof can be found in the full version.

5.1 Coin Flipping with Committed Inputs

We now discuss an extension of the coin-flipping functionality which will be useful in the next section. The extension considers a functionality which, in addition to providing a random string to the parties, also “attests” to a commitment to their input.

More specifically, we consider the following setting. Each party P_i has an input string x_i and randomness ρ_i . Let com be a non-interactive perfectly-binding commitment scheme. The Coin Flipping with Committed Inputs functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{CF-CI}}$ acts as follows:

1. Each party sends (x_i, ρ_i, c_i) to the functionality where $c_i = \text{com}(x_i; \rho_i)$.
2. Functionality samples a random string r .
3. Functionality tests that for every i , $c_i = \text{com}(x_i; \rho_i)$. If the test succeeds, it sets $y_i = (r, c_i, \text{true})$; otherwise, $y_i = (r, c_i, \text{false})$.
4. Functionality sends (y_1, \dots, y_n) to all parties.

We claim that a minor modification of our coin-flipping protocol can actually implement $\mathcal{F}_{\text{CF-CI}}$. More details on the new protocol $\Pi_{\text{CF-CI}}$ which implements $\mathcal{F}_{\text{CF-CI}}$ can be found in the full version.

5.2 Results for General Multi-party Functionalities

We now discuss how to obtain protocols for general, as opposed to coin-flipping, functionalities in the multiparty case.

Mukherjee and Wichs [34] construct a 2-round protocol for general multiparty functionalities under the Learning With Errors (LWE) assumption in the CRS model. Combining their protocol with Π_{MCF} (to obtain the CRS), we obtain a protocol for general functionalities with $k' + 2$ rounds under the LWE assumption.

Likewise, Garg et al. [16] also construct a 2-round protocol for the same task in the CRS model, under the assumption that general purpose indistinguishability obfuscation exists. Their protocol actually has a special structure: it can be computed in just one round given access to the $\mathcal{F}_{\text{CF-CI}}$ functionality that we have defined above. Consequently, using their protocol with protocol $\Pi_{\text{CF-CI}}$ actually gives a $k' + 1$ round protocol.

We thus get the following theorem.

Theorem 3. *Assuming the existence of a trapdoor permutation family and k -round parallel non-malleable commitment schemes, there exists a protocol for securely computing every multiparty functionality in the presence of a malicious adversary such that: (a) the protocol has $k' + 1$ rounds assuming general purpose indistinguishability obfuscation, and (b) $k' + 2$ rounds assuming the LWE assumption where $k' = \max(4, k + 1)$.*

As a corollary of the above theorem, an instantiation of the above protocols with the nmcom scheme in [36] gives a **five** round protocol (assuming indistinguishability obfuscation), and a **six** round protocol (assuming LWE) for general multiparty functionalities.

We note that we can also use the four round protocol of [24] for nmcom; this will result in one extra round and gives seven rounds under LWE, and six under indistinguishability obfuscation.

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