

Separating Broadcast from Cheater Identification: The ECDSA Case

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Abstract

Distributed ECDSA signing is a common application of MPC today, as it adds an important layer of defense against attackers trying to steal signing keys. However, while protected from key theft, many such deployments are vulnerable to denial of service attacks, in that they permit an attacker to anonymously block the system from issuing signatures. One approach towards mitigating this issue is to add mechanisms by which cheaters in the protocol can be identified and weeded out—also known as Identifiable Abort (IA). However, such mechanisms do not come for free: they require some combination of cryptographic machinery, strengthened trust assumptions, and expensive broadcast channels.

In this work, we study how to construct such cheater identification mechanisms without making use of broadcast, i.e. running over point-to-point channels only. We formulate the problem precisely, and show that it is impossible to achieve with a dishonest majority. We then turn to the honest majority ($t < n/2$) setting, in which we give an efficient construction of ECDSA signing that supports cheater identification over private channels alone. Moreover, our identification mechanism distinguishes between non-responsive parties and actively protocol deviations, and enables higher level logic to handle such qualitative differences.

We report benchmarks of an implementation of our protocol, which demonstrate that with a signing threshold $t = 10$, the computational burden of the worst case execution path is under 500ms.

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1 Introduction

Threshold signatures [Des88] are a class of Multiparty Computation (MPC) protocols that allow signing authority to be delegated to a consortium of parties. Natural applications of threshold signatures include multi-factor authentication, and decentralized key management systems among others. While certain signature schemes lend themselves to distributed signing quite easily, others like ECDSA do not permit straightforward decentralization. This is unfortunate as ECDSA is one of the most widely deployed signature schemes as of writing [Hen22], and protocols for its decentralization find application in many settings. There are several works that study the design of MPC protocols to distribute ECDSA signing, many of which are tailored to different corruption thresholds, offer tradeoffs in network and computation efficiency, and security guarantees. In many ways, the different options available for ECDSA signing represent the diversity of security and efficiency tradeoffs for MPC protocols in general.

One security guarantee that is desirable in many scenarios is the ability to identify and recover from faults. This includes network faults, as well as protocol deviations by compromised or malicious parties. While certain settings (such as when all nodes are operated by the same organization) allow faults to be debugged out of band, others would benefit from in-built protocol mechanisms that catch and eliminate cheaters. Indeed, one of the early works on distributed (EC)DSA by Gennaro et al. [GJKR96] offers exactly this feature. However—low corruption tolerance notwithstanding—Gennaro et al. draw from techniques for Verifiable Secret Sharing (VSS), which do not unambiguously identify disruptive parties. This is not acceptable in several applications; while delivering output certainly is important, compromised parties must not be left anonymous or unpunished. Besides constant round VSS, another well-known technique that eventually delivers output is that of *Identifiable Abort* (IA) [GMW87], in which disruptive parties are identified and weeded out until the protocol succeeds.

While IA for general MPC has been known to be feasible for as long MPC itself, the details for its practical realization are still the subject of ongoing research [BOSS20, CDKs23, BMRS23]. For threshold ECDSA in particular, a few recent works do offer IA [CGG⁺20, CCL⁺23, FMM⁺24] following the classic GMW paradigm: each party’s entire state is represented in public commitments, and they prove their well-formedness in zero-knowledge. While conceptually appealing, this approach comes with both explicit and implicit costs. The directly visible costs have to do with the commitments and proving statements about them in zero-knowledge. The commitments themselves are ciphertexts of an additively homomorphic encryption scheme—really a byproduct of secure multiplication—and proving statements about them inherits the computational burden of operating such schemes many times over. Simultaneously, a less obvious cost in the background is that *all* communication happens on a broadcast channel. Broadcast is certainly feasible in this setting (assuming a public-key infrastructure) but typically expensive to implement with a tight corruption threshold of $t < n$ or even $t < n/2$. One approach could be to use an external

resource like a blockchain for broadcast [GMPS21, GKM⁺22, ZYP23], however this introduces assumptions external to the system along with accompanying liabilities, latencies, and financial costs.

Why Broadcast? There are essentially two ways that a misbehaving party can induce a protocol to crash:

- One way is by sending malformed protocol messages—this can be handled by employing zero-knowledge proofs [GMW87], carefully opening randomness [CDKs23, BMRS23], or a hybrid of both.
- Another way is by simply staying silent when the protocol prescribes that it send a message. This is notoriously difficult to mitigate; if Bob complains that he did not receive a message from Alice that he was expecting on a private channel, whom do we blame? Given that private channels are inherently unverifiable, a standard solution is to route all communication through verifiable broadcast.

Given that the second attack is much simpler to carry out, and much harder for anyone to attribute fault, an adversary wishing to disrupt the system is well served by implementing this strategy. In this work, a primary objective is to address this problem:

How can we identify non-responsive parties without invoking secure broadcast?

Importantly, we are interested in cheater identification that can convince an external auditor of the identity of the cheater. This is crucial in the threshold signature context, where signing nodes need to convince an operator external to the system. We define a notion of broadcast that is tailored to this setting, which we call Broadcast with Selective Identifiable Abort (BC-IA). Informally, a BC-IA protocol guarantees that each party terminates with either a signed message, or a certificate that irrefutably proves the sender’s disruptive behaviour. These certificates could correspond to either form of cheat: protocol deviations, or non-responsiveness on the part of the sender. Note that certified cheats as well as the signed message are valid outputs for an honest party, meaning that consensus is not achieved (however, parties that output the signed message will be in agreement). This is an arguably minimal building block for Identifiable Abort when we wish for cheats to be certifiable.

This work. Unfortunately, we prove that BC-IA is impossible to achieve over point-to-point channels alone with resilience to $n/2 \leq t < n$ corruptions. Intuitively, this is because a dishonest majority of corrupt parties could always collude to certify an honest sender as non-responsive. This forces us to look to the $t < n/2$, i.e. honest majority setting.

Honest Majority ($t < n/2$) Power. In this setting, we show that a simple modification of the classic Goldwasser Lindell [GL05] echo broadcast yields our desired BC-IA primitive in just two point-to-point rounds per broadcast. We take advantage of techniques enabled in the honest majority setting to design a clean validation mechanism that identifies and attributes malformed messages in an ECDSA signing protocol inspired by (the honest majority version of) Doerner et al. [DKLs24]. The ECDSA protocol is specially designed to run in three BC-IA rounds, and is substantially lighter computationally than dishonest majority protocols, as this setting permits information theoretic MPC protocols for non-linear operations. Consistency is guaranteed by simple Schnorr-like zero-knowledge proofs over Pedersen commitments.

1.1 Our Approach

All parties are connected by synchronous point-to-point channels, meaning that all messages are assumed to be delivered within a maximum delay.

Roughly, our mechanism can produce two grades of certificates: a certificate of non-responsiveness ω , or a certificate of cheating Ω . The former proves that a party did not send a message when it was expected to, whereas the latter proves conclusively that a party sent a malformed message in an attempt to cheat. We consciously choose to separate these two grades of disruptive behaviour, and leave it to higher level protocol logic to decide on appropriate penalties. For instance, non-responsiveness could be punished less harshly (up to a point) as network faults may be out of the parties' control.

We begin by constructing a broadcast protocol that meets the above notion—each party either terminates with a signed output by the dealer, or a certificate of the dealer's cheating. Importantly, parties may not achieve consensus; some may terminate successfully, while others abort. Next, we design Distributed Key Generation (DKG) and Verifiable Secret Sharing (VSS) protocols that run over broadcast channels. These protocols are designed to sample random values in secret shared form, while exposing each party's share in publicly committed form. Finally, we adapt the ECDSA tuple approach of Abram et al. [ANO⁺22] in order to combine the output of a DKG and VSS instance into an ECDSA signature via a simple depth-1 circuit. As this operation is characterized by a very simple arithmetic circuit, and each party's input to this circuit is available in publicly committed form, we show that each party can prove its honest behaviour via an efficient NIZK. We defer more detailed protocol descriptions to their respective sections.

Finally, we report on benchmarks of an implementation of our protocol with a standard 256-bit curve; its computation cost ranges from 15ms for three parties, to 480ms for ten parties. Of course, real-world performance is likely to be determined by other factors like network constraints and adversarial slowdowns. We envision our protocol to be used in scenarios where Denial of Service attacks are a constant threat, and protocol aborts are rampant—were this not the case, one could use security with abort protocols. Given this, the performance of different protocols and approaches will depend to a large extent on deployment

conditions.

2 Related Work

Broadcast and its variants. Without a setup (such as a PKI i.e. public-key infrastructure), broadcast is achievable if and only if $t < n/3$ [PSL80, LSP82]. However, if we assume a PKI setup, (cryptographically-secure) broadcast is achievable even against a dishonest majority of corruptions, namely, $t < n$ [DS83]. With respect to round complexity of deterministic broadcast protocols, it is known that $t + 1$ rounds are necessary and sufficient to achieve security against t corruptions, even assuming access to a public-key infrastructure [FL82, DS83].

Typically, broadcast protocols in the literature by default consider the notion of guaranteed output delivery i.e. the protocol terminates with all parties outputting the agreed upon value. Broadcast with the weaker security guarantee of security with selective abort, was explored in the [GL05]. This weak version of broadcast is achievable in two rounds against $t < n$ corruptions, where honest parties may not agree on whether the protocol aborted or not (but it is guaranteed that honest parties do not output inconsistent values). [FGM^v02, FGH⁺02] showed that the notion of ‘detectable broadcast’, where corrupt parties can make the protocol abort but honest parties agree on whether the protocol aborted or not, is achievable against $t < n$ corruptions.

To the best of our knowledge, our work is the first to explicitly consider the notion of broadcast with identifiability. Our notion of Broadcast with Selective Identifiable Abort (BC-IA) allows every honest party who aborted to learn and verifiably prove to an external party that the sender cheated. It is incomparable to detectable broadcast in terms of guarantees – While detectable broadcast ensures that honest parties are in agreement about whether an abort occurred (which BC-IA does not provide), it does not enable identification or certification of the cheater. As mentioned earlier, in terms of resilience, detectable broadcast is achievable against $t < n$ corruptions; while BC-IA is feasible only against $t < n/2$ corruptions. However, in terms of round complexity BC-IA fares significantly better as it is achievable in two rounds which is in stark contrast to existing detectable broadcast protocols that comprise of $O(t)$ rounds.

On Identifiability in MPC. The most common security notion of identifiability that has been explored in MPC is identifiable abort (IA), which was introduced in [AL10] and is stronger than unanimous abort (UA). IA security guarantees that parties are in agreement about the identity of (at least one) cheater, in case the protocol results in an abort. It is known that broadcast is necessary for IA [CL17], therefore all IA protocols must necessarily rely on broadcast. Therefore, when broadcast is not available, the best one can hope for is some kind of selective identifiability, where honest parties may not agree on the identity of a cheater. This was captured in the notion of selective identifiable abort (SIA), introduced in [DRSY23] which guarantees that each honest

party either obtains the output or learns the identity of a cheater, but it may so happen that different honest parties identify different cheaters. We enhance this notion to SIA to be certifiable i.e. the honest party who aborts not only learns the identity of the cheater, but also obtains a ‘proof-of-cheating’ certificate that is verifiable by any external party. This is reminiscent to the notion of IA with public verifiability / auditability in [AO12, BDO14, BOS16, CFY17] where either the correctness of the output is attested or a cheater can be found by the external party. The crucial difference is that such protocols achieving IA with public verifiability must necessarily rely on broadcast, which is not available in our setting. Therefore, we allow the party who aborted to obtain a certifiable proof of cheating *privately* which would suffice to convince any external party of the identity of the cheater, whenever needed.

Threshold ECDSA Signing. Given the practical relevance of the problem, there is a plethora of approaches to constructing threshold ECDSA signing. We refer the reader to Doerner et al. [DKLs24] for an overview. We will only touch upon the works that share some common features with ours. Damgård et al. [DJN⁺20] constructed an honest majority threshold ECDSA signing protocol in the security with abort model. While highly efficient, it is susceptible to denial of service attacks as a cheater can crash the protocol anonymously. Groth and Shoup [GS22] constructed an ECDSA signing protocol that can operate in an asynchronous network setting, however with a low corruption tolerance of $t < n/3$ that is inherent to the setting. Canetti et al. [CGG⁺20] and Castagnos et al. [CCL⁺23] constructed dishonest majority ECDSA signing protocols that can trace cheaters. However, they rely on verifiable broadcast channels, which we are determined to avoid.

3 Preliminaries

Corruption Model. We denote the set of parties as $\{\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_n\}$. We consider a malicious adversary \mathcal{A} who can statically corrupt up to a threshold $t < n/2$ among the n parties.

Security and Network Model. We follow the real /ideal world simulation paradigm and analyze the security of our protocols within the Universal Composability security framework of [Can01]. Our target ideal functionality for ECDSA signing is one that simply computes and outputs an ECDSA signature upon being requested by enough parties, along with appropriate provisions for identifying cheaters. This is in contrast to *idealized* signatures in the UC framework. We assume that parties are connected via pairwise authenticated channels. We consider a synchronous network communication model where the computation proceeds in rounds and the messages sent in a round are assumed to be delivered to the intended receiver(s) before the next round begins.

Building Blocks and Setup. Our final ECDSA protocol is in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{DKG}})$ -hybrid model, where $\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{DKG}}$ denote ideal functionalities corresponding to Broadcast with Selective Identifiable Abort (BC-IA), Verifiable Secret Sharing (VSS)¹ and a Distributed Key Generation (DKG) protocol respectively. We provide formal descriptions of these ideal functionalities to capture our identifiability notion. BC-IA assumes the presence of a public-key infrastructure (PKI) setup. The VSS protocol is designed in the \mathcal{F}_{BC} model and uses an openable encryption scheme ($\text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Open}, \text{Vrfy}$) (Appendix A). Our DKG protocol is designed in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}})$ -hybrid model. Both, our DKG protocol and ECDSA signing protocol make use of Simulation-Extractable Non-Interactive Zero-Knowledge Proofs (NIZKs) in the random oracle model, which are required to be straight-line simulatable, but witness extraction can be rewinding—this is because we only rely on extracting witnesses for the security argument, and not for simulating the protocol. This means that we can use Fiat-Shamir compiled NIZKs rather than more expensive Fischlin transform [Fis05] as typically required for UC security.

4 Broadcast With IA

4.1 Property-Based Definition

We begin with a property-based definition of Broadcast with Selective Identifiable Abort (BC-IA), although the definition we actually use in our protocols is formulated in the Real-Ideal paradigm and given in Section 4.3. The property-based definition is primarily meant to allow for easier comparisons with different flavours of broadcast in the literature, which are typically formulated with property-based definitions as well. We give our dishonest majority impossibility result relative to this property-based definition, illustrating that this barrier is not due to UC peculiarities.

(Property-Based Definition) Broadcast with Selective Identifiable Abort (BC-IA). Let $\{\mathcal{P}_i\}_{i \in [n]}$ denote a set of n parties, among which a designated party \mathcal{P}_d (referred to as the dealer) holds a message msg as input. Consider a tuple of two algorithms $(\text{Deal}, \text{Audit})$.

$\text{Deal}(\text{msg}) \rightarrow (\text{out}_i \in \{(m, \sigma_d), \omega, \Omega\})_{i \in [n]}$ is an algorithm that takes the message msg as input and outputs a vector of n values, each of which can correspond to either a signed message (m, σ_d) by the dealer or a certificate of non-responsiveness ω , or a certificate of cheating Ω .

$\text{Audit}(\text{out}_i) \rightarrow \{\text{accept}, \text{reject}\}$ is an algorithm that takes $\text{out}_i \in \{(m, \sigma_d), \omega, \Omega\}$ as input and outputs either **accept** or **reject**.

¹We abuse standard notation here, our VSS protocol is a verifiable secret sharing of a uniformly chosen random secret as opposed to a secret chosen by a designated dealer.

We require the following three properties of a BC-IA protocol with respect to an adversary \mathcal{A} corrupting up to a threshold t of parties.

Validity: Informally, this property is the same as validity of standard broadcast, i.e. it guarantees that if \mathcal{P}_d is honest, then all honest parties output \mathcal{P}_d 's input value. More formally, if at most t parties are corrupted and \mathcal{P}_d is honest, then $\mathbf{out}_h = (\mathbf{msg}, \sigma_d)$ for each honest party $\mathcal{P}_h (h \in \mathcal{H})$. Here, σ_d denotes a valid signature on \mathbf{msg} .

Consistency: Informally, this property guarantees that if there exists a pair of honest parties who output a signed message, they must in fact output the same signed message. More formally, if at most t parties are corrupted and a pair of honest parties \mathcal{P}_i and \mathcal{P}_j output $\mathbf{out}_i = (m^{(i)}, \sigma_d^{(i)})$ and $\mathbf{out}_j = (m^{(j)}, \sigma_d^{(j)})$ respectively, then $\mathbf{out}_i = \mathbf{out}_j$.

Defamation-Freeness: Informally, this property captures that the adversary \mathcal{A} cannot produce a certificate that implicates an honest dealer. More formally, when the dealer \mathcal{P}_d is honest and \mathcal{A} controls at most t parties, then the probability that \mathcal{A} outputs $\mathbf{out}_{\mathcal{A}} \in \{\omega, \Omega\}$ such that $\mathbf{Audit}(\mathbf{out}_{\mathcal{A}}) = \text{accept}$ is negligible.

Unforgeability: Informally, this property guarantees that an adversary \mathcal{A} will be unable to induce \mathbf{Audit} to accept (\mathbf{msg}, σ_d) if \mathbf{msg} was not actually dealt by the honest dealer \mathcal{P}_d . More formally, even after \mathcal{A} is allowed to instruct \mathcal{P}_d to deal arbitrarily many messages $\{\mathbf{msg}\}$, the probability that \mathcal{A} outputs $(\mathbf{msg}^*, \sigma_d^*)$ such that $\mathbf{Audit}(\mathbf{msg}^*, \sigma_d^*) = 1$ and $\mathbf{msg}^* \notin \{\mathbf{msg}\}$ is negligible.

Lastly, we point that the fact that the protocol terminates with the output of \mathbf{Deal} implicitly captures *identifiability* i.e. each party either outputs a signed message by the dealer or a certificate (either of non-responsiveness or of cheating). We also note that the outputs are *transferrable* as they can be verified by any external party by means of verifying the dealer's signature or using the \mathbf{Audit} algorithm. Importantly, auditing a transferred output can only verify a cheat, or that a dealer attempted to broadcast a value—auditing a single party's output can not verify consensus amongst honest parties.

The auditability properties we formulate above (unforgeability and defamation-freeness) mark a departure from standard broadcast definitions. Indeed, we show below that this notion is *impossible* to achieve when the adversary controls more than half the parties, even with a PKI. This is in contrast to standard broadcast definitions, which permit honest parties to terminate with unsigned canonical outputs when they detect malicious behaviour on the dealer's part—such notions can be satisfied by classic protocols [DS83]. This is not to say that our definition is strictly stronger, as ours allows honest parties to terminate without consensus.

4.2 Impossibility of BC-IA with $t \geq n/2$

We give the details of our argument below.

Theorem 4.1. *Consider a model where parties have access to a public-key infrastructure and only point-to-point channels. Then, Broadcast with Selective Identifiable Abort among n parties is impossible to achieve against $n/2 \leq t < n$ corruptions.*

Proof. Assume towards contradiction that protocol Π achieves BC-IA with tolerance to $n/2 \leq t < n$ corruptions. Let A and B denote two disjoint sets of participants, such that $|B| \geq n/2$ and the dealer $\mathcal{P}_d \in B$. Consider the following two scenarios:

Scenario 1: The adversary corrupts all parties in B including \mathcal{P}_d , and keeps them silent throughout the execution of Π . More specifically, \mathcal{A} instructs each party in B to simply not send any messages. Note that this scenario is possible only because \mathcal{A} is allowed to corrupt a majority of parties.

Scenario 2: The adversary corrupts all parties in A , and instructs them to follow the steps of Π honestly, *except* that they ignore any message sent by any party in B .

Upon inspection, it becomes clear that both scenarios are equivalent to a network adversary severing all connections across A and B . Moreover, the joint view of all parties in A is identical in both scenarios: it is simply derived by executing the protocol Π honestly without any messages from any party in B (messages to parties in B may as well be dropped as they induce effectively no response).

Let us now examine the output \mathbf{out}_i of $\mathcal{P}_i \in A$ in either scenario. In order to deliver guarantees compliant with BC-IA, there are two possible options in the overwhelming majority of outcomes:

- Case 1: a certified cheat, $\mathbf{out}_i \in \{\omega, \Omega\}$.
- Case 2: a certified output, $\mathbf{out}_i = (\mathbf{msg}^*, \sigma_d^*)$.

We argue that both cases contradict the requirements of BC-IA itself. Recall that in Scenario 2, the dealer \mathcal{P}_d is honest. Therefore, Case 1 directly contradicts defamation-freeness in that scenario; an honest dealer must not be implicated by a certified cheat. Simultaneously, Case 2 contradicts unforgeability: consider an \mathcal{A} who does not request *any* dealt instances from the unforgeability challenger, and therefore any certified output $(\mathbf{msg}^*, \sigma_d^*)$ it is able to produce constitutes a breach of unforgeability. The adversary is able to obtain such a $(\mathbf{msg}^*, \sigma_d^*)$ simply by executing Π entirely amongst the corrupt set A —this follows Scenario 1 wherein all of B is effectively offline, and the premise of Case 2 ensures that $(\mathbf{msg}^*, \sigma_d^*)$ is produced amongst A regardless.

We have thus arrived at a contradiction, completing the proof of Theorem 4.1. \square

We note that the above proof extends to the following weaker variants (thus, making the impossibility result stronger):

1. The proof holds even against a fail-stop adversary, as the only deviation from the protocol in the above proof is to drop messages.
2. Consider a weaker notion of BC-IA, where the cheat can be certified only jointly by honest parties (as opposed to individually by any honest party who aborts). The above proof extends easily to this notion as well, one simply considers the joint outputs of the entire set of parties in A (which the adversary can use).

Lastly, we highlight another interesting aspect of this impossibility result: We observe that the proof holds irrespective of the number of rounds that comprise Π . Notably, this does not contradict existing $O(t)$ round protocols that achieve standard broadcast with resilience to $t < n$ corruptions in the PKI model—our argument makes crucial use of the BC-IA requirement that all outputs must be certified (which is not required of standard broadcast).

4.3 Ideal Functionality

Especially given that we wish to invoke multiple instances in parallel, we formulate an ideal functionality that will allow us to achieve our desired flavour of BC-IA in the UC framework. We first give the functionality realized by our broadcast primitive, and then proceed to give the protocol itself. The **Audit** component of the property-based notion is replaced by a ‘Transfer’ interface here, intuitively to enable the transfer of protocol context to external parties.

Functionality 4.2. $\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}(n, t, d)$: Broadcast-IA

This functionality is parameterized by the party count n , the threshold t such that $n \geq 2t + 1$, and the index of the dealer d . This functionality is accessed by parties $\{\mathcal{P}_i\}_{i \in [n]}$ at most t of whom may be corrupt. Let the set of honest parties be indexed by \mathcal{H} .

Any party, indexed by a global identifier **pid**, may register at any point with this functionality. Each such party \mathcal{P}_{pid} is provided with an output out_{pid} which can be transferred to any other party. The set of such parties is initially only $\{\mathcal{P}_i\}_{i \in [n]}$, and can be expanded as necessary subsequently.

Deal: On receiving $(\text{deal}, \text{sid}, \text{msg})$ from \mathcal{P}_d such that $\text{sid} =: \mathcal{P}_1 \parallel \dots \parallel \mathcal{P}_n \parallel \text{sid}'$ and sid is fresh, send $(\text{deal-req}, \text{sid}, d)$ to \mathcal{S} . On receiving $(\text{ready}, \text{sid})$ from all parties,

1. If \mathcal{P}_d is not corrupt, then set $\text{out} = \{\text{out}_i = \text{msg}\}_{i \in [n]}$.
2. Otherwise, receive $\text{out} = \{\text{out}_i \in \{\text{msg}, \text{cheat}, \perp\}\}_{i \in [n]}$ from \mathcal{S} .

Send $(\text{dealt}, \text{sid}, \text{out}_i)$ to each \mathcal{P}_i . Additionally, for each **pid** corresponding

to every party $h \in \mathcal{H}$, set and store $\text{out}_{\text{pid}} = (\text{sid}, \mathbf{out}_i)$.

Transfer: Upon receiving $(\text{transfer}, \text{sid}, \text{pid}, \text{pid}^*)$ from both \mathcal{P}_{pid} and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$

1. If \mathcal{P}_d is honest, send out_{pid} to $\mathcal{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$.
2. Otherwise, receive $\text{out}_{\text{pid}} \in \{\text{msg}, \text{cheat}, \perp\}$ from \mathcal{S} and send to $\mathcal{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$.

4.4 The Protocol

The protocol assumes a PKI and employs a simple echo broadcast technique along the lines of Goldwasser and Lindell [GL05], with a provision to output a certificate of non-responsiveness. Note that in the following description (and each subsequent one in the paper) the “send to all parties” instruction includes sending to oneself. The protocol is given informally below:

- **Round 1:** The dealer \mathcal{P}_d signs its message m , and sends m along with its signature σ_d to all parties.
- **Round 2:** Each \mathcal{P}_i that received (m, σ_d) from the dealer in Round 1 forwards it to all other parties, and any \mathcal{P}_i that received no (valid) message in Round 1 sends \perp to all parties instead. Either way, the forwarded message is accompanied by a signature σ_i .
- **Output,** per \mathcal{P}_i 's view: In case two conflicting $(m, \sigma_d), (m', \sigma'_d)$ values were received, this immediately implicates \mathcal{P}_d as a cheater with a certificate Ω . In case $t + 1$ signed \perp values were received, this collection of signatures implicates \mathcal{P}_d as non-responsive with a certificate ω . In the absence of either case of certifiable failure of \mathcal{P}_d , any (m, σ_d) received in the previous round can be safely output.

We can analyze all possible outcomes as follows:

1. If \mathcal{P}_d is honest, $(n - t) \geq t + 1$ parties will follow the protocol, and all honest parties output (m, σ_d) . A live network ensures that no ω can be produced against \mathcal{P}_d , and an unforgeable signature scheme rules out any party deriving a valid Ω .
2. If the dealer sends conflicting $(m, \sigma_d), (m', \sigma'_d)$ to *any* pair of honest parties, *all* honest parties will output Ω .
3. If the dealer withholds (m, σ_d) from *all* honest parties in Round 1, then all honest parties will output ω . Note that it is always possible for the adversary to “upgrade” the cheat from ω to Ω in the view of some subset of honest parties by sending them conflicting $(m, \sigma_d), (m', \sigma'_d)$ values via the echo phase.

4. Conditioned on at least one honest party having received some (m, σ_d) from \mathcal{P}_d and no honest party having received a conflicting (m', σ'_d) in Round 1, the adversary is free to induce each honest party to output any one of (m, σ_d) , Ω , or ω in Round 2. Note that all honest parties that output (m, σ_d) are in agreement about m , i.e. the one received by the honest party/parties in Round 1.

Care must be taken in the interpretation of the output of any individual party, especially in the context of an external retrospective audit. While Ω or ω undeniably certify \mathcal{P}_d 's deviation from the protocol, a signed output (m, σ_d) does not certify m as the output of the protocol. This is because if \mathcal{P}_d is corrupt, any colluding \mathcal{P}_i could try and pass off an arbitrary (m', σ'_d) as a “certified” output to an auditor. However, a collection of $t + 1$ parties willing to attest to (m, σ_d) having been broadcast can certify the statement—we will use this idea later on when holding parties accountable for broadcasting messages that are malformed *in context*. In particular, while certain malformed messages can immediately serve to implicate their sender (such as a non-verifying NIZK), others require establishing protocol context to explain why the message is malformed, such as a jointly sampled nonce.

We give the full protocol below.

Protocol 4.3. $\pi_{\text{BC}}(n, t, d)$: **Broadcast With IA**

This protocol is parameterized by the party count n , the threshold t such that $n \geq 2t + 1$, and the index of the dealer d . This protocol is run by parties $\{\mathcal{P}_i\}_{i \in [n]}$.

The protocol requires a PKI, where the key pair of \mathcal{P}_i is given by $(\text{sk}_i^{\text{PKI}}, \text{pk}_i^{\text{PKI}})$.

In the event that any \mathcal{P}_i aborts (with an accompanying certificate), it is taken by assumption that \mathcal{P}_i sends the certificate to all before halting the protocol.

Deal:

1. On receiving $(\text{deal}, \text{sid}, \text{msg})$ from the environment such that sid is fresh, \mathcal{P}_d does the following:

- a. Set $\text{dealmsg} = (\text{deal}, \text{sid}, \text{msg})$ and sign it:

$$\sigma^{\text{PKI}-d} \leftarrow \text{Sign}^{\text{PKI}}(\text{dealmsg})$$

- b. Send $(\text{dealmsg}, \sigma^{\text{PKI}-d})$ to each $\{\mathcal{P}_i\}_{i \in [n]}$

This completes the first round.

2. Each party \mathcal{P}_i does the following, ignoring any unsigned/malformed messages from the dealer:

- a. If some $(\text{dealmsg} = (\text{deal}, \text{sid}, \text{msg}), \sigma^{\text{PKI-d}})$ was received from the dealer, set $\text{echormsg}_i = (\text{echo}, \text{dealmsg}, \sigma^{\text{PKI-d}})$. Otherwise, set $\text{echormsg}_i = (\text{echo}, \text{sid}, \perp)$
- b. Set $\sigma_i^{\text{PKI}} \leftarrow \text{Sign}_{\text{sk}_i^{\text{PKI}}}(\text{echormsg}_i)$, and send $(\text{echormsg}_i, \sigma_i^{\text{PKI}})$ to all parties.

This completes the second round.

3. After collecting all messages $(\text{echormsg}_j, \sigma_j^{\text{PKI}})$ sent in the above round (ignoring malformed messages), each \mathcal{P}_i does the following:

- If $\exists j, j' \in [n]$ such that $\text{echormsg}_j \neq \text{echormsg}_{j'}$ and both contain valid (but conflicting) dealmsg values, then set

$$\mathbf{out}_i = \left(\text{sid}, \text{cheat}, \Omega_i = (\text{msg}_j, \text{msg}_{j'}, \sigma_j^{\text{PKI-d}}, \sigma_{j'}^{\text{PKI-d}}) \right)$$

where $(\text{msg}_j, \sigma_j^{\text{PKI-d}})$ and $(\text{msg}_{j'}, \sigma_{j'}^{\text{PKI-d}})$ are parsed from echormsg_j and $\text{echormsg}_{j'}$ respectively.

- Otherwise if $\exists \mathcal{J} \subseteq [n]$ such that $|\mathcal{J}| > t$ and $\text{echormsg}_j = (\text{echo}, \text{sid}, \perp)$ for each $j \in \mathcal{J}$, set

$$\mathbf{out}_i = (\perp, \omega_i = \{\text{sid}, \text{echormsg}_j, \sigma_j^{\text{PKI}}\}_{j \in \mathcal{J}})$$

- Otherwise, set $\mathbf{out}_i = (\text{sid}, \text{dealt}, \text{msg}_j, \sigma_j^{\text{PKI}})$ for any j where σ_j^{PKI} verifies.

Output \mathbf{out}_i as computed above.

Theorem 4.4. *Assuming a synchronous network and a PKI, protocol $\pi_{\text{BC}}(n, t, d)$ UC-realizes $\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}(n, t, d)$ in the presence of a malicious adversary that statically corrupts up to $t < n/2$ parties.*

We defer formal proofs to the full version.

5 Verifiable Secret Sharing Over P2P Channels

In this section, we construct Verifiable Secret Sharing over point-to-point channels as an important building block towards our final ECDSA protocol. The intended outcome of this protocol is not just to share a secret, but to jointly sample a uniformly random secret in Shamir shared form. In addition, we wish for a commitment—a Pedersen commitment in particular—of each party’s share to be made publicly available to all parties. Intuitively, all parties’ Pedersen commitments will lie along a degree- t polynomial, and we model adversarial bias (of the commitments) by letting the adversary simply choose this polynomial. Note that the perfectly hiding nature of Pedersen commitments ensures that the secret itself stays perfectly hidden, and uniformly random.

5.1 Ideal Functionality

We begin with a description of the ideal functionality, and then proceed to describe the protocol.

Functionality 5.1. $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$: Verifiable Secret Sharing

This functionality is parameterized by the party count n , the threshold t such that $n \geq 2t+1$, and the elliptic curve $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbb{G}, G, q)$. This functionality is accessed by parties $\{\mathcal{P}_i\}_{i \in [n]}$ at most t of whom may be corrupt. Let the set of honest parties be indexed by \mathcal{H} .

Share: On receiving $(\text{share}, \text{sid})$ from all parties such that $\text{sid} =: \mathcal{P}_1 \parallel \dots \parallel \mathcal{P}_n \parallel \text{sid}'$ and sid is fresh,

1. Sample $d \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$, and set $\hat{G} = d \cdot G$.

2. Send \hat{G} to the adversary \mathcal{S} .

3. Receive the following values from \mathcal{S} :

- $\{\mathbf{vssout}_i \in \{\text{VSS-success}, \text{cert} = (\text{type}, \mathbf{c})\}\}_{i \in [n]}$, where $\text{type} \in \{\text{cheat}, \perp\}$ specifies the type of cheating certificate and \mathbf{c} corresponds to the index of the corrupt party implicated to \mathcal{P}_i as the cheater.
- $C, (x, \hat{x}), \{\text{sh}_i, \hat{\text{sh}}_i\}_{i \notin \mathcal{H}}$, where $C \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ is a degree t polynomial, and the rest are \mathbb{Z}_q values subject to:

$$\text{sh}_i \cdot G + \hat{\text{sh}}_i \cdot \hat{G} = C(i) \quad \text{and} \quad x \cdot G + \hat{x} \cdot \hat{G} = C(0)$$

4. Sample the secret $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ uniformly at random.

5. Compute ‘opening information’ $\hat{\mathbf{s}}$ of $C(0)$ for the above secret as $\hat{\mathbf{s}} = (x - \mathbf{s})/d + \hat{\mathbf{s}}$

6. Define degree t polynomials $f, \hat{f} \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$ such that

$$f(0) = \mathbf{s}, \quad \hat{f}(0) = \hat{\mathbf{s}} \quad \text{and} \quad \{f(i) = \text{sh}_i, \hat{f}(i) = \hat{\text{sh}}_i\}_{i \notin \mathcal{H}}$$

7. For each $i \in \mathcal{H}$ where $\mathbf{vssout}_i = \text{VSS-success}$, set $\mathbf{vssout}_i = (\text{VSS-success}, C, f(i), \hat{f}(i))$.

Send $(\text{shared}, \text{sid}, \mathbf{vssout}_i)$ to each \mathcal{P}_i . Additionally, for each pid corresponding to every party $h \in \mathcal{H}$, set and store $\mathbf{vssout}_{\text{pid}} = (\text{sid}, \mathbf{vssout}_i)$.

Transfer: Upon receiving $(\text{cert-transfer}, \text{sid}, \text{pid}, \text{pid}^*)$ from both \mathcal{P}_{pid} and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$

1. If \mathcal{P}_{pid} is honest and $\text{vssout}_{\text{pid}}$ is of the form $(\text{sid}, \text{cert} = (\text{type}, \text{c}))$, send $\text{vssout}_{\text{pid}}$ to $\mathcal{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$.
2. Otherwise, receive $\text{vssout}_{\text{pid}}$ of the form $(\text{sid}, \text{cert} = (\text{type}, \text{c}))$ from \mathcal{S} where c indexes a corrupt party, and send it to $\mathcal{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$.

5.2 The Protocol

Before we give the protocol overview, we note that in this and subsequent protocols, we make use of the fact that the broadcast protocol π_{BC} accompanies dealt messages with the dealer’s signature. In formal protocol descriptions we invoke broadcast through the \mathcal{F}_{BC} functionality, and therefore must use its ‘transfer’ interface to access such signatures. In informal descriptions we refer to such signatures directly, as it is far more readable to follow the actual implementation.

Our honest execution path follows well-established techniques for this task, along the lines of Feldman [Fel87], Pedersen [Ped92], and Gennaro et al. [GJKR07], and requires a single broadcast round. Each \mathcal{P}_i is instructed to sample secret polynomials $f_i, \hat{f}_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\leq t}[X]$, and designate each \mathcal{P}_j to receive $f_i(j), \hat{f}_i(j)$ privately while $C_i(j) = f_i(j) \cdot G + \hat{f}_i(j) \cdot \hat{G}$ is made public. The joint secret is therefore defined to be $\sum_i f_i(0)$. In case \mathcal{P}_i is cheated by \mathcal{P}_j in that its privately communicated $f_j(i), \hat{f}_j(i)$ do not match the public $C_j(i)$, party \mathcal{P}_i saves the offending ciphertext as a certificate of \mathcal{P}_j ’s misbehaviour, accompanied by a proof of correct decryption.

- **Broadcast Round 1** as initiated by each \mathcal{P}_i for $i \in [t + 1]$: Each \mathcal{P}_i samples degree- t polynomials $f_i, \hat{f}_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$, and defines polynomial $C_i(x) = f_i(x) \cdot G + \hat{f}_i(x) \cdot \hat{G}$.

For each $j \in [n]$, \mathcal{P}_i prepares a ciphertext $\text{ct}_{ij} \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{\text{pk}_j}(f_i(j), \hat{f}_i(j))$. Finally, \mathcal{P}_i broadcasts $(C_i, \text{ct}_i = \{\text{ct}_{ij}\}_{j \in [n]})$ via π_{BC} . Note that π_{BC} is run amongst all n parties.

- **Output** per \mathcal{P}_i : any certificate of cheating by π_{BC} is output, if it exists. In case $\exists j \in [t + 1]$ such that decrypting ct_{ji} does not yield $f_j(i), \hat{f}_j(i)$ corresponding to C_j , output Ω that consists of its (proven) decryption. Otherwise, output $(C, f(i), \hat{f}(i)) = \sum_{j \in [t+1]} (C_j, f_j(i), \hat{f}_j(i))$.

Analysis. By security of π_{BC} , it holds that for each $j \in [n]$, every non-aborting honest \mathcal{P}_i agrees on (C_j, ct_j) . Therefore, any honest party that terminates successfully will output the same public commitment C . Moreover, every such \mathcal{P}_i also outputs $f(i), \hat{f}(i)$ such that $f_j(i) \cdot G + \hat{f}_j(i) \cdot \hat{G} = C_j(i)$.

A rushing \mathcal{P}_j can arbitrarily bias C by choosing C_j after seeing every other party's message, but this has *no* effect on the distribution of the joint secret, as each C_i perfectly hides $f_i(0)$.

Any aborting execution reduces to the following cases:

1. An abort in π_{BC} , which will be accompanied by a certificate Ω or ω as relevant.
2. The existence of ct_{ji} that does not decrypt to $f_j(i), \hat{f}_j(i)$ such that $f_j(i) \cdot G + \hat{f}_j(i) \cdot \hat{G} = C_j(i)$. This readily yields a certificate Ω as detailed in the protocol.

Therefore, any honest party that is not in agreement about C or in possession of a valid decommitment $f(i), \hat{f}(i)$ to $C(i)$ will be able to produce a certificate Ω or ω to implicate some corrupt \mathcal{P}_j for the failure.

Protocol 5.2. $\pi_{\text{VSS}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$: **Honest Majority VSS With IA**

This protocol is parameterized by the party count n , the threshold t , and the elliptic curve $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbb{G}, G, q)$. Additionally, it makes use of a *common random string* \hat{G} , whose discrete logarithm relative to G is unknown. The protocol runs once with parties $\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_n$, of which any t may be corrupt. The private output of this protocol for \mathcal{P}_i is $(C, f(i), \hat{f}(i))$ where $C \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ is a common degree- t polynomial, and $f(i) \cdot G + \hat{f}(i) \cdot \hat{G} = C(i)$. Any failure in obtaining the output is accompanied by failure certificate which we assume is forwarded by the aborting party to others before terminating. We do not give explicit instructions for the transfer interface, but instead express inline how the proof of each cheat is transferred upon invocation.

This protocol functions in the \mathcal{F}_{BC} -hybrid model, and makes use of an openable encryption scheme ($\text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Open}, \text{Vrfy}$) (Appendix A).

Share:

1. On receiving $(\text{init}, \text{sid})$ from the environment \mathcal{Z} , each party \mathcal{P}_i checks whether there exists a record of the form (sid, \cdot) in memory. If not, then each \mathcal{P}_i for $i \in [t + 1]$ does the following:
 - a. Sample two degree t polynomials $f_i, \hat{f}_i \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$
 - b. Define polynomial $C_i \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ such that $C_i(x) = f_i(x) \cdot G + \hat{f}_i(x) \cdot \hat{G}$
 - c. Compute encrypted shares:

$$\text{ct}_i = \{\text{ct}_{ij} \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{\text{pk}^{\text{PKI}}}(f_i(j), \hat{f}_i(j))\}_{j \in [n]}$$

- d. Invoke an instance of $\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}(n, t, i)$ with $(\text{deal}, \text{sid}, \text{msg} = (C_i, \text{ct}_i))$ for a fresh sid .

This completes the first phase.

2. Upon completion of the broadcast round, if $\exists j \in [t+1]$ such that the \mathcal{F}_{BC} instance in which \mathcal{P}_j was the dealer resulted in an abort of $\text{type} \in \{\text{cheat}, \perp\}$, then \mathcal{P}_i terminates with output $\mathbf{vssout}_i = (\text{type}, j)$, and invokes the Transfer interface of \mathcal{F}_{BC} when invoked with this sid again.

3. Each party \mathcal{P}_i does the following for $j \in [t+1]$:

- a. Obtain $f_j(i), \hat{f}_j(i) = \text{Dec}_{\text{sk}_i}(\text{ct}_{ji})$
- b. Verify that $f_j(i) \cdot G + \hat{f}_j(i) \cdot \hat{G} = C_j(i)$
 - If this fails, open the ciphertext by computing

$$\zeta_{ji} = (f_j(i), \hat{f}_j(i), \pi_{\text{ct}}) \leftarrow \text{Open}(\text{sk}_i, \text{ct}_{ji})$$

and set

$$\Omega_i^j = (\text{bad-ct}, \zeta_{ji}, (\text{sid}, \text{dealt}, (C_j, \text{ct}_j), \sigma_j^{\text{PKI}}))$$

If Ω_i^j is defined for some $j \in [t+1]$, then output $\mathbf{vssout}_i = (\text{cheat}, j)$, and transmit Ω_i^j in addition when invoked with the Transfer interface. Otherwise, compute the commitment polynomial and shares:

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \sum_{i \in [t+1]} C_i \\ f(i) &= \sum_{j \in [t+1]} f_j(i) \\ \hat{f}(i) &= \sum_{j \in [t+1]} \hat{f}_j(i) \end{aligned}$$

and output $(\text{VSS-success}, C, f(i), \hat{f}(i))$.

The formal theorem appears below, whose proof is deferred to the full version.

Theorem 5.3. *In the \mathcal{F}_{BC} -hybrid model, $\pi_{\text{VSS}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$ UC-realizes $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$ against a malicious adversary that corrupts up to $t < n/2$ parties.*

Zero sharing. As a special case of VSS, the protocol π_{Zero} generates a degree $n-1$ verifiable secret sharing of the constant value 0—this is accomplished by a straightforward tweak of π_{VSS} in which $t = n-1$ and the constant term of the polynomial is set to (and verified to be) zero. For completeness, we give this protocol in Appendix B. We denote the ideal functionality for this special case of VSS as \mathcal{F}_{ZSS} (which is defined similar to \mathcal{F}_{VSS} adopting the above tweaks).

6 Distributed Key Generation from VSS

Building on the previous section, we show how to construct *distributed key generation* (DKG) in the \mathcal{F}_{VSS} -hybrid model, so that parties can establish a public $k \cdot G$ value such that k is secret shared. We first describe the ideal functionality for DKG, followed by the protocol description.

Functionality 6.1. $\mathcal{F}_{\text{DKG}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$: Distributed Key Generation

This functionality is parameterized by the party count n , the threshold t such that $n \geq 2t+1$, and the elliptic curve $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbb{G}, G, q)$. This functionality is accessed by parties $\{\mathcal{P}_i\}_{i \in [n]}$ at most t of whom may be corrupt. Let the set of honest parties be indexed by \mathcal{H} .

Dkeygen: On receiving $(\text{dkeygen}, \text{sid})$ from all parties such that $\text{sid} =: \mathcal{P}_1 \parallel \dots \parallel \mathcal{P}_n \parallel \text{sid}'$ and sid is fresh,

1. Receive $\{(\text{sk}_i, \text{pk}_i)\}_{i \notin \mathcal{H}}$ from adversary \mathcal{S} where $\text{sk}_i \cdot G = \text{pk}_i$.
2. Sample the secret key $\text{sk} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ uniformly at random.
3. Define degree t polynomial $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$ such that $f(0) = \text{sk}$ and $f(i) = \text{sk}_i$ for $i \notin \mathcal{H}$.
4. Let $F \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ be the degree t polynomial such that $F(j) = f(j) \cdot G$ for $j \in [n]$.
5. Send F to \mathcal{S} and receive in response $\{\text{dkgout}_i \in \{\text{key-pair}, \text{cert} = (\text{type}, c)\}\}_{i \in [n]}$ from \mathcal{S} , where $\text{type} \in \{\text{cheat}, \perp\}$ specifies the type of cheating certificate and c corresponds to the index of the corrupt party implicated to \mathcal{P}_i .

If $\text{dkgout}_i = \text{key-pair}$, set $\text{dkgout}_i = (\text{key-pair}, F, f(i))$. Send $(\text{DKG-done}, \text{sid}, \text{dkgout}_i)$ to each \mathcal{P}_i . Additionally, for each pid set and store $\text{dkgout}_{\text{pid}} = (\text{sid}, \text{dkgout}_i)$.

Transfer: Upon receiving $(\text{cert-transfer}, \text{sid}, \text{pid}, \text{pid}^*)$ from both \mathcal{P}_{pid} and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$

1. If \mathcal{P}_{pid} is honest and $\text{dkgout}_{\text{pid}}$ is of the form $(\text{sid}, \text{cert} = (\text{type}, c))$, send $\text{dkgout}_{\text{pid}}$ to $\mathcal{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$.
2. Otherwise, receive $\text{dkgout}_{\text{pid}}$ of the form $(\text{sid}, \text{cert} = (\text{type}, c))$ from \mathcal{S} where c indexes a corrupt party, and send it to $\mathcal{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$.

Recall that π_{vss} establishes polynomials f, \hat{f} such that each \mathcal{P}_i holds $f(i), \hat{f}(i)$ that correspond to a public $C(i) = f(i) \cdot G + \hat{f}(i) \cdot \hat{G}$. Observe that $C(i)$ is a Pedersen commitment to which \mathcal{P}_i knows an opening. Consider the polynomials $F, \hat{F} \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ such that $F(i) = f(i) \cdot G$ and $\hat{F}(i) = \hat{f}(i) \cdot \hat{G}$: observe that π_{vss} essentially samples $F + \hat{F}$, and while this sum can be biased, F itself is *perfectly masked* by \hat{F} , and therefore uniformly random at the termination of π_{vss} . Our

π_{DKG} protocol therefore serves to simply unmask F by securely prising apart F and \hat{F} , so that F —and its discrete logarithm f —may be used as the DKG polynomial per the usual Feldman format [Fel87, GJKR07].

The above prising apart is accomplished in a single broadcast round after π_{VSS} : each \mathcal{P}_i broadcasts $F_i = f(i) \cdot G$ (which implies a $\hat{F}_i = \hat{f}(i) \cdot \hat{G}$ given $C(i)$) along with a proof of knowledge of $\text{DLog}_G F_i$ and $\text{DLog}_{\hat{G}} \hat{F}_i$. Intuitively, due to the same reason that Pedersen commitments are binding, there is exactly one value of F_i, \hat{F}_i for which \mathcal{P}_i can produce such a proof. The value $f(0)$ therefore serves as the uniformly sampled secret key with the public $F(0)$, and each \mathcal{P}_i holds a private $f(i)$ along with the public $F_i = f(i) \cdot G$.

In more detail, the protocol π_{DKG} proceeds as follows:

- **Broadcast Round 1:** All parties run π_{VSS} so that each \mathcal{P}_i obtains $(C, f(i), \hat{f}(i))$ upon successful termination.

- **Broadcast Round 2:** Each \mathcal{P}_i sets $F_i = f(i) \cdot G$ and $\hat{F}_i = \hat{f}(i) \cdot \hat{G}$, and prepares a NIZK to prove knowledge of their respective discrete logarithms: $\pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^i \leftarrow P_{\text{DL}\wedge}((G, f(i), F_i), (\hat{G}, \hat{f}(i), \hat{F}_i))$. In addition, D is defined to be $\text{CRHF}(C)$, towards certifying agreement on C as the output of the previous broadcast round.

\mathcal{P}_i then broadcasts $(D, \hat{F}_i, \pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^i)$.

- **Output:** Every \mathcal{P}_i checks that for $j \in [n]$ every $V_{\text{DL}\wedge}(\pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^j, (G, F_j), (\hat{G}, \hat{F}_j)) = 1$, where $\hat{F}_j = C(j) - F_j$. In case $\exists j \in [n]$ for which this proof doesn't verify, \mathcal{P}_i is able to produce a certificate Ω to implicate \mathcal{P}_j as follows:

1. Find $t + 1$ (signed) messages broadcast in the previous round that all agree on D , and assemble them into a certificate ϖ_{BC} .
2. Prepare a certificate Ω that consists of C to establish context, ϖ_{BC} that proves that C was indeed the outcome of π_{VSS} , and finally $\hat{F}_j, \pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^j$ accompanied by \mathcal{P}_j 's signature.

As usual, any certificates of cheating produced in the course of π_{VSS} are output directly in case of an abort. If no cheating is detected, set $F \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ to be the degree t polynomial such that $F(j) = F_j$, and output $(F, f(i))$.

Analysis. By security of π_{VSS} , it holds that for each $j \in [n]$, every non-aborting honest \mathcal{P}_i agrees on a degree t polynomial $C \in \mathbb{G}[X]$, and privately obtains $f(i), \hat{f}(i)$ such that $C(i) = f(i) \cdot G + \hat{f}(i) \cdot \hat{G}$. Therefore, $F_i = f(i) \cdot G$ and $\hat{F}_i = \hat{f}(i) \cdot \hat{G}$ as broadcast by honest parties in the second round lie on degree t polynomials F and \hat{F} respectively.

A corrupt party \mathcal{P}_j may choose to broadcast $F_j^* \neq F(j)$, but we argue that it will be unable to produce an accepting proof $\pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^{j*}$ for such a value, by constructing a reduction to the hardness of computing discrete logarithms in \mathbb{G} . Recall that $\text{DLog}_G \hat{G}$ is unknown, and that the “honest” pair $f(j), \hat{f}(j)$ such that $C(j) = f(j) \cdot G + \hat{f}(j) \cdot \hat{G}$ is already fully specified by extrapolation of

honest parties' $f(i), \hat{f}(i)$ values. The reduction therefore embeds the discrete log challenge in the adversary's view in the form of \hat{G} , and runs the protocol honestly (controlling $t + 1$ uncorrupt parties) to obtain $f(j), \hat{f}(j)$ as an opening to the Pedersen commitment $C(j)$. Given that $\pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^j$ is a simulation extractable proof of knowledge, if \mathcal{P}_j is able to produce $\pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^j$ that proves knowledge of $\text{DLog}_G F_j^*$ and $\text{DLog}_{\hat{G}} \hat{F}_j^*$ such that $(F_j^*, \hat{F}_j^*) \neq (F_j, \hat{F}_j)$, the corresponding witness $f^*(j), \hat{f}^*(j)$ can be efficiently extracted from the adversary with nearly the same probability. This yields another opening to Pedersen commitment $C(j)$, which in combination with $f(j), \hat{f}(j)$ can be used to compute

$$\text{DLog}_G \hat{G} = \frac{f(j) - f^*(j)}{\hat{f}^*(j) - \hat{f}(j)}$$

and therefore satisfy the discrete logarithm challenger with nearly the same probability a corrupt \mathcal{P}_j is able to prove an inconsistent $F_j^* \neq F(j)$.

The adversary is then left with the following options:

1. Deviate from the protocol in π_{VSS} , which will result in an honest party obtaining certificate Ω or ω as appropriate.
2. Each corrupt \mathcal{P}_j broadcasts the honest $(D, \hat{F}_j, \pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^j)$, in which case each honest \mathcal{P}_i outputs consistent $(F, f(i))$.
3. Some corrupt \mathcal{P}_j broadcasts a tuple in which $\pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^j$ does not verify. This results in honest parties assembling a certificate Ω proving \mathcal{P}_j 's deviation from the protocol by: first establishing the polynomial F as output by π_{VSS} (certified by ϖ_{BC} , a collection of $t + 1$ signatures on $D = \text{CRHF}(C)$), and \mathcal{P}_j 's signature on the NIZK $\pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^j$ that does not verify relative to the statement implied by $C(j)$.

Therefore, in every scenario, each honest party \mathcal{P}_i either outputs a consistent, uniformly random degree t polynomial $F \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ such that it holds $\text{DLog}_G(F(i)) = f(i)$, or a certificate Ω (or ω) that conclusively proves malicious behaviour on the part of a corrupt \mathcal{P}_i .

Protocol 6.2. $\pi_{\text{DKG}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$: **DKG With IA**

This protocol is parameterized by the party count n , the threshold t , and the elliptic curve $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbb{G}, G, q)$. The protocol is designed in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}})$ -hybrid model and makes use of a collision-resistant hash function CRHF and a simulation-extractable NIZK proof system $(P_{\text{DL}\wedge}, V_{\text{DL}\wedge})$ to prove knowledge of two discrete logarithms simultaneously. The private output for a successful execution of this protocol for \mathcal{P}_i is $(F, f(i))$ where $F \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ is a common degree- t polynomial, and $f(i)$ is the discrete logarithm of $F(i)$.

We do not give explicit instructions for the transfer interface, but instead express inline how the proof of each cheat is transferred upon invocation.

Generate Key:

1. On receiving $(\mathbf{init}, \mathbf{sid})$ from the environment \mathcal{Z} , each party \mathcal{P}_i checks whether there exists a record of the form $(\mathbf{key-pair}, \mathbf{sid}, \mathbf{pk}, p(i))$ in memory. If not, then each \mathcal{P}_i for $i \in [n]$ invokes $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}}(\mathbb{G}, n, t)$ in order to generate $(\mathbf{VSS-success}, C, f(i), \hat{f}(i))$.
2. If the VSS round terminated with a cheat $(\mathbf{sid}, \mathbf{cert} = (\mathbf{type}, \mathbf{c}))$ instead, then \mathcal{P}_i terminates with output $\mathbf{dkgout}_i = (\mathbf{type} \in \{\mathbf{cheat}, \perp\}, j)$ as appropriate, and transfers this output to all other parties.
3. Otherwise, each party \mathcal{P}_i then does the following:
 - a. Compute a digest of the public polynomial generated by \mathcal{F}_{VSS} as $D = \text{CRHF}(C)$
 - b. Define $F_i = f(i) \cdot G$ and $\hat{F}_i = \hat{f}(i) \cdot \hat{G}$
 - c. Prepare a PoK of discrete logarithm pair,

$$\pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^i \leftarrow P_{\text{DL}\wedge}((G, f(i), F_i), (\hat{G}, \hat{f}(i), \hat{F}_i))$$

- d. Invoke $\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}(n, t, i)$ with $(\mathbf{deal}, \mathbf{sid}, (D, F_i, \pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^i))$
4. If any party transferred a cheat $(\mathbf{sid}, \mathbf{cert} = (\mathbf{type}, \mathbf{c}))$ in place of a standard broadcast in the above round, terminate with output $\mathbf{dkgout}_i = (\mathbf{type} \in \{\mathbf{cheat}, \perp\}, \mathbf{c})$ as appropriate. Otherwise, upon completion of the broadcast round, if $\exists j \in [t+1]$ such that the \mathcal{F}_{BC} instance in which \mathcal{P}_j was the dealer resulted in an abort of $\mathbf{type} \in \{\mathbf{cheat}, \perp\}$, then \mathcal{P}_i terminates with output $\mathbf{dkgout}_i = (\mathbf{type}, j)$, and invokes the Transfer interface of \mathcal{F}_{BC} when invoked with this \mathbf{sid} again.
5. Each \mathcal{P}_i collects at least $t+1$ tuples of the form $(\mathbf{sid}, \mathbf{deal}, (D, F_j, \pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^j), \sigma_j^{\text{PKI}})$ from the above broadcast round, the crucial detail being that D matches the one locally computed in Step 3a. These tuples are concatenated to form a certificate ϖ_{BC} , which serves to show that at least $t+1$ parties attest to D .
6. For every $j \in [t+1]$, each party \mathcal{P}_i computes $\hat{F}_j = C(j) - F_j$ and checks that $V_{\text{DL}\wedge}(\pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^j, (G, F_j), (\hat{G}, \hat{F}_j)) = 1$.
Any proof $j \in [n]$ that fails readily yields a certificate

$$\Omega_i^j = (\mathbf{bad-dkg-proof}, D, C, (\pi_{\text{DL}\wedge}^j, (G, F_j), (\hat{G}, \hat{F}_j)))$$

\mathcal{P}_i terminates with output $\mathbf{dkgout}_i = (\mathbf{cheat}, j)$. In order to transfer this cheat certificate, \mathcal{P}_i sends Ω_i^j along with invoking the transfer interface of $t+1$ instances of \mathcal{F}_{BC} from the previous round in which the output \mathbf{out}_i contains the same D .

7. In the event that all proofs pass, each \mathcal{P}_i outputs $(\text{DKG-done}, F, f(i))$, where F is the degree t polynomial such that $F(j) = F_j$ for each $j \in [n]$.

The formal theorem appears below, whose proof is deferred to the full version.

Theorem 6.3. *In the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}})$ -hybrid model, $\pi_{\text{DKG}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$ UC-realizes $\mathcal{F}_{\text{DKG}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$ against a malicious adversary that corrupts up to $t < n/2$ parties.*

7 Distributed ECDSA Signing With Identifiable Abort

We first give the functionality realized by our protocol, which is adapted from Doerner et al. [DKLs24].

Functionality 7.1. $\mathcal{F}_{\text{ECDSA}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$: Threshold ECDSA

This functionality is parameterized by the party count n , the threshold t , and the elliptic curve $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbb{G}, G, q)$. The setup phase runs once with n parties, and the signing phase may be run many times between (varying) subgroups of parties indexed by $\mathbf{P} \subseteq [n]$ such that $|\mathbf{P}| = 2t + 1$. If any party is corrupt, then the adversary \mathcal{S} may instruct the functionality to abort or fail, but in so doing it must reveal the index of one corrupt party.

Setup: On receiving $(\text{init}, \text{sid})$ from some party \mathcal{P}_i such that $\text{sid} =: \mathcal{P}_1 \parallel \dots \parallel \mathcal{P}_n \parallel \text{sid}'$ and $i \in [n]$ and sid is fresh, send $(\text{init-req}, \text{sid}, i)$ to \mathcal{S} . On receiving $(\text{init}, \text{sid})$ from all parties,

1. Sample the joint secret and public keys, $(\text{pk}, \text{sk}) \leftarrow \text{ECDSAGen}(\mathcal{G})$.
2. Store $(\text{secret-key}, \text{sid}, \text{sk})$ in memory.
3. Send $(\text{public-key}, \text{sid}, \text{pk})$ directly to \mathcal{S} .
4. On receiving $(\text{release}, \text{sid})$ from \mathcal{S} , send $(\text{public-key}, \text{sid}, \text{pk})$ to all parties and store $(\text{pk-delivered}, \text{sid})$ in memory. On receiving $(\text{abort}, \text{sid}, \mathcal{P}_c)$ where c is the index of a corrupt party, send $(\text{abort}, \text{sid}, \mathcal{P}_c)$ to all parties and halt.

Signing: On receiving $(\text{sign}, \text{sid}, \text{sigid}, m)$ from any party \mathcal{P}_i , parse $\text{sigid} =: \mathbf{P} \parallel \text{sigid}'$ such that $|\mathbf{P}| = 2t + 1$ and ignore the message if $i \notin \mathbf{P}$ or $\mathbf{P} \not\subseteq [n]$ or sigid is not fresh or if $(\text{pk-delivered}, \text{sid})$ does not exist in memory. Otherwise, send $(\text{sig-req}, \text{sid}, \text{sigid}, i, m)$ directly to \mathcal{S} .

On receiving $(\text{sign}, \text{sid}, \text{sigid}, m)$ from each \mathcal{P}_i for every $i \in \mathbf{P}$, sample $\sigma \leftarrow \text{ECDSASign}(\mathcal{G}, \text{sk}, m_{\mathbf{P}_1})$ and then take the appropriate action:

- If no corrupt parties are indexed by \mathbf{P} , send $(\text{signature}, \text{sid}, \text{sigid}, \sigma)$ to \mathcal{P}_i for every $i \in \mathbf{P}$.
- Otherwise, send σ to \mathcal{S} and receive in response $\{\text{sigout}_i \in \{\text{signature}, \text{cert} = (\text{type}, \text{c})\}\}_{i \in [n]}$ from \mathcal{S} , where $\text{type} \in \{\text{cheat}, \perp\}$ specifies the type of cheating certificate and c corresponds to the index of the corrupt party implicated to \mathcal{P}_i .

If $\text{sigout}_i = \text{signature}$, set $\text{sigout}_i = (\text{signature}, \sigma)$. Send $(\text{sign-done}, \text{sid}, \text{sigout}_i)$ to each \mathcal{P}_i . Additionally, for each pid set and store $\text{sigout}_{\text{pid}} = (\text{sid}, \text{sigout}_i)$.

Transfer: Upon receiving $(\text{cert-transfer}, \text{sid}, \text{pid}, \text{pid}^*)$ from both \mathbf{P}_{pid} and $\mathbf{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$

1. If \mathbf{P}_{pid} is honest and $\text{sigout}_{\text{pid}}$ is of the form $(\text{sid}, \text{cert} = (\text{type}, \text{c}))$, send $\text{sigout}_{\text{pid}}$ to $\mathbf{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$.
2. Otherwise, receive $\text{sigout}_{\text{pid}}$ of the form $(\text{sid}, \text{cert} = (\text{type}, \text{c}))$ from \mathcal{S} where c indexes a corrupt party, and send it to $\mathbf{P}_{\text{pid}^*}$.

7.1 The Protocol

ECDSA Tuples. Our protocol is built upon the “ECDSA tuple” technique of Abram et al. [ANO⁺22], which we describe here. Recall that an ECDSA signature σ on a message m consists of two components (r^x, s) , where r^x is the x -coordinate of the elliptic curve point $R = k \cdot G$ (a public value), and the scalar $s = (\text{SHA2}(m) + r^x \cdot \text{sk})/k \pmod{q}$. The idea behind the ECDSA tuple (first used by Lindell and Nof [LN18]) is that the numerator and denominator of s can each be individually revealed in masked form. In particular, if $\phi \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ is a uniformly random mask, then one can safely reveal the masked numerator $w = (\text{SHA2}(m) + r^x \cdot \text{sk}) \cdot \phi$, and the masked denominator $u = k \cdot \phi$. Intuitively, u is simply a uniform value from \mathbb{Z}_q (as ϕ acts as a one-time pad), and w is perfectly specified upon fixing u and the s component of the signature—this implies a straightforward simulation strategy wherein u is sampled uniformly, and w is computed as $s \cdot u$. Given the masked numerator and denominator, computing the signature itself is as simple as just taking their quotient.

The ECDSA tuple itself is correlated randomness that enables the computation of the masked numerator and denominator information theoretically, much like a Beaver triple enables secure multiplication. It consists of shares of the values $(k, \text{sk}, \phi, u, v)$, where $v = \phi \cdot \text{sk}$ and $u = \phi \cdot k$. Observe that the denominator u is already included in the tuple, and the numerator w can be computed as $\text{SHA2}(m) \cdot \phi + r^x \cdot v$, which is a linear combination of secrets as $\text{SHA2}(m)$ and r^x are public.

Securely Computing ECDSA Tuples. Doerner et al. [DKLs24] loosely sketched how ECDSA tuples can be derived in the honest majority setting,

which we make concrete here. Observe that ECDSA tuples are a depth-1 correlation, meaning that there is an arithmetic circuit that computes it with only a single layer of (fan-in 2) multiplication gates. If degree t Shamir shares of k, sk, ϕ are available, completing the tuple by deriving degree $2t$ shares of u, v is non-interactive—one multiplication comes “for free” in this setting. Therefore, honest majority ECDSA signing can follow the structure below:

1. Degree t shares of sk are available by virtue of Distributed Key Generation executed during the setup phase.
2. The following values are sampled in two rounds during signing:
 - a. R , and degree t shares of its discrete logarithm k , via Distributed Key Generation.
 - b. Degree t shares of ϕ , jointly sampled by each party dealing Shamir shares of random values.
 - c. Two degree $2t$ sharings of zero, jointly sampled by each party dealing Shamir shares of zero.
3. Degree $2t$ shares of u, v are derived by each party locally multiplying its shares of ϕ and k, sk respectively, and adding the shares of zero to randomize the result. They also locally derive shares of $w = \text{SHA2}(m) \cdot \phi + r^x \cdot v$.
4. Parties broadcast their shares of u and w to reconstruct them, and output the signature as $(R, s = w/u)$.

Adding Identifiability. Assuming that Verifiable Secret Sharing and Distributed Key Generation are available with Identifiable Abort, we can augment the above structure to support identifiability. To begin with, Steps 2b and 2c employ VSS rather than naive joint sampling. This ensures that by the final broadcast round in Step 4, each party’s secrets are available in publicly committed form. In particular, each party’s share of k, sk is available directly in the exponent due to the respective DKGs, and their shares of ϕ and zero are available as Pedersen commitments via VSS. In the final broadcast round, each party attaches a NIZK to its shares of u and w , proving that they have been derived correctly relative to their committed secrets. These NIZKs are quite efficient, following from standard Schnorr-like sigma protocols.

Protocol Overview. Assuming that DKG and VSS (including zero-sharing) is available, ECDSA signing itself is a single additional broadcast round. We describe the protocol below.

- **Setup.** Parties execute DKG to derive a public degree t polynomial $F_{\text{pk}} \in \mathbb{G}[X]$, such that each \mathcal{P}_i holds sk_i where $\text{sk}_i \cdot G = F_{\text{pk}}(i)$. The public key is defined to be $\text{pk} = F_{\text{pk}}(0)$. The rest of the protocol below pertains to signing.

- **Broadcast Rounds 1 and 2.** Parties execute DKG, VSS, and two ZSS instances in parallel to derive the following values:

- *Public:* Degree t polynomials $F_R, C^\phi \in \mathbb{G}[X]$, and degree $2t$ polynomials $Z_0, Z_1 \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ where $Z_0(0) = Z_1(0) = 0$. The signing nonce is determined as $R = F_R(0)$.
- *Private:* Each party \mathcal{P}_i holds $k_i, f^\phi(i), \hat{f}^\phi(i), z_0(i), \hat{z}_0(i), z_1(i), \hat{z}_1(i)$ from \mathbb{Z}_q such that,

$$\begin{aligned} k_i \cdot G &= F_R(i) & z_0(i) \cdot G + \hat{z}_0(i) \cdot \hat{G} &= Z_0(i) \\ f^\phi(i) \cdot G + \hat{f}^\phi(i) \cdot \hat{G} &= C^\phi(i) & z_1(i) \cdot G + \hat{z}_1(i) \cdot \hat{G} &= Z_1(i) \end{aligned}$$

Given these values, each \mathcal{P}_i locally derives its share of the ECDSA tuple:

$$(k_i, \text{sk}_i, f^\phi(i), u_i = f^\phi(i) \cdot k_i + z_1(i), v_i = f^\phi(i) \cdot \text{sk}_i + z_0(i))$$

following which \mathcal{P}_i 's share of the signature is set to u_i and $w_i = f^\phi(i) \cdot \text{SHA2}(m) + r^x \cdot v_i$.

Notice that each of \mathcal{P}_i 's private values are available in publicly committed form—either directly in the exponent as in $\text{pk}_i, F_R(i)$, or as Pedersen commitments $C^\phi(i), Z_0(i), Z_1(i)$ —and the signature shares w_i, u_i are deterministic functions of these private values. Therefore, \mathcal{P}_i additionally computes NIZKs π_i^w, π_i^u which prove that w_i, u_i respectively are correctly derived relative to the public committed inputs. Intuitively, the relations proven by the NIZK are that the product of the openings to two Pedersen commitments is contained in a third, eg. the product of $f^\phi(i)$ and k_i (committed in $C^\phi(i)$ and $F_R(i)$ respectively) is committed in $u_i \cdot G - Z_1(i)$. We defer specifics to Protocol 7.2.

- **Broadcast Round 3.** Each \mathcal{P}_i broadcasts two sets of values:

- $D = \text{CRHF}(F_{\text{pk}}, F_R, C^\phi, Z_0, Z_1)$ to confirm the output of the DKG and VSS.
- $w_i, u_i, \pi_i^w, \pi_i^u$ to complete the ECDSA signature.

Upon receiving every $w_j, u_j, \pi_j^w, \pi_j^u$ value from all parties, each \mathcal{P}_i first checks that all the NIZKs verify. If a single NIZK—sent by \mathcal{P}_j —fails verification, \mathcal{P}_i assembles a certificate Ω that includes the following values:

- (F_R, C^ϕ, Z_0, Z_1) to establish the context of the protocol.
- $t + 1$ signatures on $D = \text{CRHF}(F_{\text{pk}}, F_R, C^\phi, Z_0, Z_1)$ as received via broadcast this round, to establish agreement on the above protocol context.
- $(w_j, u_j, \pi_j^w, \pi_j^u)$ along with \mathcal{P}_j 's signature as broadcast in this round.

If all NIZKs pass verification, each \mathcal{P}_i assembles the signature

$$\sigma = \left(R, s = \left(\sum_{j \in [n]} \lambda_j \cdot w_j \right) / \left(\sum_{j \in [n]} \lambda_j \cdot u_j \right) \right)$$

and outputs it, where $\{\lambda_j\}_{j \in [n]}$ is the set of Lagrange coefficients that interpolate the y -intercept of a degree $n - 1$ polynomial.

Analysis. Assuming that VSS, DKG, and zero sharing are secure, we only need analyze the outcomes of the final broadcast round. We enumerate all possible cases below:

1. Some honest party \mathcal{P}_i does not complete VSS/DKG. In this event, \mathcal{P}_i must have obtained a certificate of cheating to implicate a corrupt \mathcal{P}_j , which it then forwards to all parties (who then echo and output it).
2. All honest parties agree upon $(F_{\text{pk}}, F_R, C^\phi, Z_0, Z_1)$, and get at least $t + 1$ signatures on their hashed digest D . At this point, all parties' inputs for the final round are fixed, and the values they are expected to broadcast are a simple deterministic function of these inputs (randomness for NIZKs notwithstanding). Assuming that each party \mathcal{P}_i broadcasts *some* value $(w_i, u_i, \pi_i^w, \pi_i^u)$, there are two possible outcomes in each party's view:

- *All NIZKs verify.* In this case, we argue that each (w_i, u_i) value is correctly derived. Recall that the NIZKs prove Pedersen commitment relations, in particular that the product of the first two is committed in the third. Each (corrupt) \mathcal{P}_i 's witness for the NIZK is completely specified by its DKG and VSS outputs—ignoring linear offsets, w_i is derived from the product of $f^\phi(i)$, sk_i , and u_i from the product of $f^\phi(i)$, k_i . Producing accepting NIZKs for some $(w_i^*, u_i^*) \neq (w_i, u_i)$ entails using an alternative witness, i.e. an alternative opening to the same Pedersen commitments $C^\phi(i), Z_0(i), Z_1(i)$ generated by VSS. Invoking the extractor for the NIZK in this event therefore yields an alternative opening to the same Pedersen commitment (the original one being from VSS), which directly yields a reduction to computing the discrete logarithm $\text{DLog}_{\hat{G}} G$.

Therefore in this case, by correctness of the ECDSA tuple, it holds that a valid ECDSA signature $(R, s = (\sum_i \lambda_i w_i) / (\sum_i \lambda_i u_i))$ is obtained.

- *Some NIZK π_i^w, π_i^u fails verification.* In this case, a certificate consisting of $F_{\text{pk}}, F_R, C^\phi, Z_0, Z_1$ (along with $t + 1$ signatures on their hashed digest D), and signed π_i^w, π_i^u themselves, is assembled to implicate \mathcal{P}_i to an external auditor.

This information is sufficient to run the verification algorithm and see that at least one of the NIZKs does not verify. Moreover, the $t + 1$ signatures on the digest D (which must be verified by recomputing CRHF)

validates that $F_{\text{pk}}, F_R, C^\phi, Z_0, Z_1$ were indeed the output of their respective DKG/VSS instances, and that no honest party is in disagreement about the *statement* of the NIZK.

Therefore in each case, every honest party either obtains a valid ECDSA signature on the message, or a certificate implicating a corrupt party.

Protocol 7.2. $\pi_{\text{ECDSA}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$: **Honest Majority ECDSA With IA**

This protocol is parameterized by the party count n , the threshold t , and the elliptic curve $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbb{G}, G, q)$. The setup phase runs once with parties $\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_n$, and the signing phase may be run many times between (varying) subsets of parties of size $2t + 1$. The protocol makes use of the ideal functionalities $\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{DKG}}$ as well as the simulation extractable NIZK proof system $(P_{\text{prod}}, V_{\text{prod}})$ to prove products of Pedersen-committed values. Let $\{\lambda_i\}_{i \in [n]}$ be the set of Lagrange coefficients required to interpolate the constant term of a degree $n - 1 = 2t$ polynomial, i.e. $\sum_{i \in [n]} \lambda_i \cdot f(i) = f(0)$

for any polynomial $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\leq n}[X]$.

Setup:

1. On receiving `(init, sid)` from the environment \mathcal{Z} , each party \mathcal{P}_i checks whether there exists a record of the form `(DKG-done, $F_{\text{pk}}, \text{sk}_i$)` in memory. If not, then each \mathcal{P}_i for $i \in [t + 1]$ invokes \mathcal{F}_{DKG} in order to generate `(DKG-done, $F_{\text{pk}}, \text{sk}_i$)`.

In case \mathcal{P}_i observes the DKG to fail, it transfers the appropriate certificate.

Signing:

1. Upon receiving the instruction to sign a message m with fresh signature ID `sigid`, each \mathcal{P}_i does the following in parallel:
 - a. Invoke $\mathcal{F}_{\text{DKG}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$ to generate `(DKG-done, F_R, k_i)`
 - b. Invoke $\mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$ to generate `(VSS-success, $C^\phi, f^\phi(i), \hat{f}^\phi(i)$)`
 - c. Invoke $\mathcal{F}_{\text{ZSS}}(\mathcal{G}, n, 2t)$ twice to generate `(ZSS-success, $Z_0, z_0(i), \hat{z}_0(i)$)` and `(ZSS-success, $Z_1, z_1(i), \hat{z}_1(i)$)`.

This requires two broadcast rounds (when π_{DKG} is used to realize \mathcal{F}_{DKG}).

2. If any of the VSS, ZSS, or DKG invoked above terminated with a cheat `(sid, cert = (type, c))`, then \mathcal{P}_i terminates with output `sigouti = (type ∈ {cheat, ⊥}, j)` as appropriate, and transfers this output to all other parties.
3. Otherwise, each \mathcal{P}_i does the following:

- a. Compute $R = F_R(0)$, and parse $(r^x, r^y) = R$
- b. Prepare signature shares

$$w_i = f^\phi(i) \cdot \text{SHA2}(m) + f^\phi(i) \cdot \text{sk}_i \cdot r^x + z_0(i)$$

and

$$u_i = f^\phi(i) \cdot k_i + z_1(i)$$

- c. Derive the Pedersen commitment randomness for the publicly committed versions of the above values,

$$\rho_{i,0} = -\frac{(\text{SHA2}(m) \cdot \hat{f}^\phi(i) + \hat{z}_0(i))}{r^x} \quad \text{and} \quad \rho_{i,1} = -\hat{z}_1(i)$$

Prepare proofs that the above values were computed honestly:

$$\pi_i^w \leftarrow P_{\text{prod}}^{G, \hat{G}}((f^\phi(i), \hat{f}^\phi(i)), (\text{sk}_i, 0), (f^\phi(i) \cdot \text{sk}_i, \rho_{i,0}))$$

$$\pi_i^u \leftarrow P_{\text{prod}}^{G, \hat{G}}((f^\phi(i), \hat{f}^\phi(i)), (k_i, 0), (k_i \cdot f^\phi(i), \rho_{i,1}))$$

- d. Compute digest $D = \text{CRHF}(F_{\text{pk}}, F_R, Z_0, Z_1, C^\phi)$
 - e. Invoke $\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}(n, t, i)$ with $(\text{deal}, \text{sid}, (w_i, u_i, \pi_i^w, \pi_i^u))$.
 - f. Invoke $\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}(n, t, i)$ with $(\text{deal}, \text{sid}, D)$.
4. If any party transferred a cheat $(\text{sid}, \text{cert} = (\text{type}, c))$ in place of a standard broadcast in the above round, terminate with output $\text{sigout}_i = (\text{type} \in \{\text{cheat}, \perp\}, c)$ as appropriate. Otherwise, upon completion of the broadcast round, if $\exists j \in [t+1]$ such that the \mathcal{F}_{BC} instance in which \mathcal{P}_j was the dealer resulted in an abort of $\text{type} \in \{\text{cheat}, \perp\}$, then \mathcal{P}_i terminates with output $\text{sigout}_i = (\text{type}, j)$, and invokes the Transfer interface of \mathcal{F}_{BC} when invoked with this sid again.
 5. Otherwise, upon termination of the broadcast phase, each \mathcal{P}_i does the following:
 - a. Parse $t+1$ signatures on R from the previous broadcast round, store this collection as ϖ_{BC} .
Any party \mathcal{P}_j that broadcast a conflicting $D^* \neq D$ can be identified as a cheater with the following certificate:

$$\Omega_i^j = (\text{bad-context}, \varpi_{\text{BC}}, D^*)$$

where σ_j^{PKI} is the signature that accompanied the broadcast value D^* from \mathcal{P}_j .

b. For each $j \in [n]$, check \mathcal{P}_j 's proof by defining the statements

$$\text{stmt}_0^j = (w_j \cdot G - (Z_0(j) + \text{SHA2}(m) \cdot C^\phi(j))) / r^x$$

and

$$\text{stmt}_1^j = u_j \cdot G - Z_1(j)$$

and validating the proofs π_j^w, π_j^u against them by checking

$$V_{\text{prod}}^{G, \hat{G}}(C^\phi(j), \text{pk}_j, \text{stmt}_0^j, \pi_j^w) = V_{\text{prod}}^{G, \hat{G}}(C^\phi(j), R_j, \text{stmt}_1^j, \pi_j^u) = 1$$

A non-verifying proof yields the following certificate of cheating:

$$\Omega_i^j = (\text{bad-tuple}, j, (F_{\text{pk}}, F_R, Z_0, Z_1, C^\phi, \varpi_{\text{BC}}), (w_j, u_j, \pi_j^w, \pi_j^u, \sigma_j^{\text{PKI}}))$$

$$\Omega_i^j = (\text{bad-tuple}, j, (F_{\text{pk}}, F_R, Z_0, Z_1, C^\phi), (w_j, u_j, \pi_j^w, \pi_j^u, \sigma_j^{\text{PKI}}))$$

\mathcal{P}_i terminates with output $\mathbf{sigout}_i = (\text{cheat}, j)$. In order to transfer this cheat certificate, \mathcal{P}_i sends Ω_i^j along with invoking the transfer interface of $t + 1$ instances of \mathcal{F}_{BC} from the previous round in which the output \mathbf{out}_i contains the same D .

c. In case all checks pass, compute

$$s = \frac{\sum_{i \in [n]} \lambda_i \cdot w_i}{\sum_{i \in [n]} \lambda_i \cdot u_i}$$

and output the ECDSA signature (r^x, s)

The formal theorem appears below, whose proof is deferred to the full version.

Theorem 7.3. *In the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{BC}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{VSS}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{ZSS}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{DKG}})$ -hybrid model, $\pi_{\text{ECDSA}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$ UC-realizes $\mathcal{F}_{\text{ECDSA}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$ against a malicious adversary that corrupts up to $t < n/2$ parties.*

The above protocol requires three broadcast rounds, which when instantiated with π_{BC} yields a protocol that requires six point-to-point rounds in total.

8 Performance

We give an accounting of the costs associated with a non-aborting instance of our protocol below. We give both asymptotic costs, as well as concrete costs for the commonly used 128-bit security level, i.e. for a 256-bit elliptic curve.

- **Broadcast** requires two p2p rounds, and broadcasting a message m induces $O(|m| + \lambda)$ bits of communication between each pair of parties (λ to account for the dealer's signature).

- **VSS** requires a single broadcast round (meaning two p2p rounds), in which $t + 1$ parties broadcast n ciphertexts and a degree t polynomial each. This induces $O(tn\lambda)$ communication between each pair of parties. Concretely, each party sends $48n^2 + 32t + 64$ bytes to every party for a 256-bit curve with ElGamal encryption. Computation for each party is dominated by interpolating the t different $\mathbb{G}[X]$ polynomials when checking consistency of their decrypted share with the corresponding public value— nt curve multiplications in total.
- **DKG** requires a VSS instance, and another broadcast (four p2p rounds total) of a hash digest, an elliptic curve point, and a NIZK proving knowledge of two discrete logarithms. The communication complexity in addition to the VSS is $O(n\lambda)$ between each pair of parties, which is entirely subsumed by VSS. Concretely, each party sends $48n^2 + 32t + 192$ bytes to every party for a 256-bit curve. Computation in addition to VSS is dominated by checking t NIZKs that each prove knowledge of two discrete logarithms in the curve—equivalent to verifying $2t$ signatures, subsumed by VSS overall.
- **ECDSA setup** is equivalent to a single DKG instance.
- **ECDSA signing** invokes three VSS instances and a single DKG, and additionally has each party broadcast signature shares (two \mathbb{Z}_q values) with accompanying NIZKs. The dominating communication complexity term is that of the ($O(1)$ number of) VSS instances, as the signature shares and NIZKs only requires $O(n\lambda)$ bits between each party. Concretely, each party sends $192n^2 + 128n + 960$ bytes to every party for a 256-bit curve. Computation, in addition to the VSS and DKG, is dominated by verifying the $2n$ NIZKs that each prove product relations of Pedersen commitments—equivalent to verifying $18n$ signatures.

Note that an aborting instance costs *strictly less* than a successfully terminating instance. This is in contrast to alternative approaches like Canetti et al. [CGG⁺20] whose protocol has a dedicated cheater identification phase in case of a cheat.

Empirical Wallclock Time. We implemented our protocol in Rust, and benchmarked it on commodity hardware (Intel i7 14700, 32GB RAM). We averaged our numbers over 100 samples. We plot the results in Figure 1. To give a point of comparison, we benchmarked the state of the art dishonest majority (non-IA) protocol of Doerner et al. [DKLs24] in the same environment. We also include the running times of the only other threshold ECDSA protocol that offers identifiable abort, that of Canetti et al. [CGG⁺20] (numbers taken from Haitner et al. [HLNR23], which does not include the cost of the extra identification phase or broadcast channels). We varied the corruption threshold t from 1 to 10 for our comparison, meaning that the number n of signers in our protocol

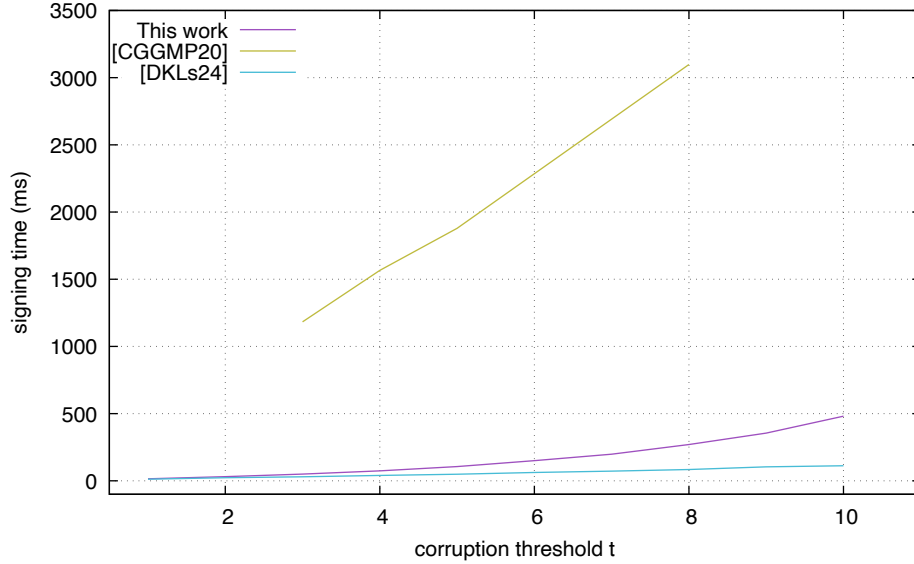


Figure 1: Comparison of signing times for state of the art ECDSA signing protocols

is about twice as many as that of Doerner et al. and Canetti et al. for the same threshold.

Note that this comparison is for the computation time alone, and does not include network costs. In the optimistic execution path where no party cheats, the fact that our protocol runs in six (p2p) rounds means that network latency will likely dictate wallclock time—compare this with only three p2p rounds for Doerner et al., or four *broadcast* rounds for Canetti et al. However, given that our protocol is meant to be used in scenarios where protocol deviations and failures are rampant, it is more interesting to compare the pessimistic paths. The worst slowdown an adversary can inflict on our protocol is to force each round to take the maximal possible time just under the timeout threshold. Therefore if the network timeout is set to NTO , then our protocol terminates in time roughly $6NTO$ in the worst case. The protocol of Canetti et al. terminates in time $4\times$ the worst case timeout complexity of the underlying broadcast channel, which must also account for the fact that *honest* signing with their protocol can take several seconds for computation alone. The protocol of Doerner et al. does not achieve identifiability, and can be induced to terminate without output if a single party deviates from its instructions.

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A Verifiable Decryption

We detail an El-Gamal based encryption scheme that allows for verifiably decryptable ciphertexts. Besides the standard key generation, encryption, and decryption algorithms, a verifiably decryptable scheme also consists of an “open” algorithm that outputs a proof of correct decryption, and a verification algorithm to check such proofs.

Protocol A.1. : Verifiably Decryptable Encryption Scheme

These protocols are parameterized by a security parameter λ and an elliptic curve $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbb{G}, G, q)$ such that $q \in \Omega(2^\lambda)$. The message space is \mathbb{Z}_q^2 , i.e. a pair of \mathbb{Z}_q elements. The protocols make use of a simulation extractable NIZK proof system $(P_{\text{prod}}, V_{\text{prod}})$ to prove that a Diffie-Hellman tuple is well-formed. Additionally, they make use of a hash function $H_q : \{0, 1\}^* \mapsto \mathbb{Z}_q$ that is assumed to implement a random oracle.

KeyGen (1^λ) : .

1. Sample $\text{sk} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$, compute $\text{pk} = \text{sk} \cdot G$.
2. Output (sk, pk) .

Enc $_{\text{pk}}(\mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1)$: .

1. Sample $r \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$, compute $R = r \cdot G$.
2. Compute $K = r \cdot \text{pk}$ and pads $\mathbf{k}_0 = H_q(0||K)$ and $\mathbf{k}_1 = H_q(1||K)$.
3. Set ciphertexts $\mathbf{ct}_0 = \mathbf{k}_0 + \mathbf{m}_0$ and $\mathbf{ct}_1 = \mathbf{k}_1 + \mathbf{m}_1$.
4. Output $(R, \mathbf{ct}_0, \mathbf{ct}_1)$

Dec $_{\text{sk}}(\mathbf{ct})$: .

1. Parse $(R, \mathbf{ct}_0, \mathbf{ct}_1) := \mathbf{ct}$
2. Compute $K = \text{sk} \cdot R$ and pads $\mathbf{k}_0 = H_q(0||K)$ and $\mathbf{k}_1 = H_q(1||K)$.
3. Set messages $\mathbf{m}_0 = \mathbf{ct}_0 - \mathbf{k}_0$ and $\mathbf{m}_1 = \mathbf{ct}_1 - \mathbf{k}_1$.
4. Output $(\mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1)$

Open(sk, ct): .

1. Parse $(R, \mathbf{ct}_0, \mathbf{ct}_1) := \mathbf{ct}$
2. Compute $K = \text{sk} \cdot R$ and pads $\mathbf{k}_0 = H_q(0||K)$ and $\mathbf{k}_1 = H_q(1||K)$.
3. Set messages $\mathbf{m}_0 = \mathbf{ct}_0 - \mathbf{k}_0$ and $\mathbf{m}_1 = \mathbf{ct}_1 - \mathbf{k}_1$.
4. Prove that (R, pk, K) is a DH tuple: $\pi_{\text{DH}} \leftarrow P_{\text{DH}}(\text{sk}, (R, \text{pk}, K))$
5. Set opening information $\pi_{\text{ct}} = (K, \pi_{\text{DH}})$
6. Output $(\mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1, \pi_{\text{ct}})$

Vrfy(ct, m₀, m₁, π_{ct}): .

1. Parse $(R, \mathbf{ct}_0, \mathbf{ct}_1) := \mathbf{ct}$ and $(K, \pi_{\text{DH}}) := \pi_{\text{ct}}$
2. Set pads $\mathbf{k}_0 = H_q(0||K)$ and $\mathbf{k}_1 = H_q(1||K)$.
3. Verify that $\mathbf{m}_0 \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{ct}_0 - \mathbf{k}_0$ and $\mathbf{m}_1 \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{ct}_1 - \mathbf{k}_1$.
4. Verify that (R, pk, K) is a DH tuple: $V_{\text{DH}}(\pi_{\text{DH}}, (R, \text{pk}, K)) \stackrel{?}{=} 1$
5. Output 1 if all the above checks pass, 0 otherwise.

B Zero Sharing

We provide the zero-sharing protocol π_{Zero} for completeness.

Protocol B.1. $\pi_{\text{Zero}}(\mathcal{G}, n, t)$: Honest Majority Zero-sharing With IA

This protocol is parameterized by the party count n , the threshold t , and the elliptic curve $\mathcal{G} = (\mathbb{G}, G, q)$. The protocol runs once with parties $\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_n$, of which any t may be corrupt. The private output of this protocol for \mathcal{P}_i is $(C, f(i), \hat{f}(i))$ where $C \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ is a common degree- t polynomial, and $f(i) \cdot G + \hat{f}(i) \cdot \hat{G} = C(i)$. This protocol assumes a PKI and a broadcast protocol π_{BC} , and makes use of an openable encryption scheme (Enc, Dec, Open, Vrfy).

Differences from π_{VSS} are highlighted like this.

Share:

1. On receiving (init, sid) from the environment \mathcal{Z} , each party \mathcal{P}_i checks whether there exists a record of the form (sid, ·) in memory. If not, then each \mathcal{P}_i for $i \in [t + 1]$ does the following:
 - a. Sample two degree t polynomials $f_i, \hat{f}_i \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$, conditioned on $f_i(0) = \hat{f}_i(0) = 0$.

- b. Define polynomial $C_i \in \mathbb{G}[X]$ such that $C_i(x) = f_i(x) \cdot G + \hat{f}_i(x) \cdot \hat{G}$
c. Compute encrypted shares:

$$\mathbf{ct}_i = \{\mathbf{ct}_{ij} \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{\text{pk}_j^{\text{PKI}}}(f_i(j), \hat{f}_i(j))\}_{j \in [n]}$$

- d. **Broadcast** (C_i, \mathbf{ct}_i)

This completes the first phase. Note that for every successfully terminated broadcast instance $j \in [t+1]$, party \mathcal{P}_i has a signed output $(\text{sid}, \text{dealt}, (C_j, \mathbf{ct}_j), \sigma_j^{\text{PKI}})$.

2. Upon completion of the broadcast round, if $\exists j \in [t+1]$ such that π_{BC} failed to produce output when \mathcal{P}_j was the dealer, then \mathcal{P}_i terminates here and sends relevant failure certificate $(\mathbf{out}_i, \sigma_i^{\text{PKI}-\circ})$ when activated with this sid again.
3. Each party \mathcal{P}_i does the following for $j \in [t+1]$:

- a. Obtain $f_j(i), \hat{f}_j(i) = \text{Dec}_{\text{sk}_i}(\mathbf{ct}_{ji})$
b. Verify that $f_j(i) \cdot G + \hat{f}_j(i) \cdot \hat{G} = C_j(i)$
• If this fails, open the ciphertext by computing

$$\zeta_{ji} = (f_j(i), \hat{f}_j(i), \pi_{\text{ct}}) \leftarrow \text{Open}(\text{sk}_i, \mathbf{ct}_{ji})$$

and set

$$\Omega_i^j = (\text{bad-ct}, \zeta_{ji}, (\text{sid}, \text{dealt}, (C_j, \mathbf{ct}_j), \sigma_j^{\text{PKI}}))$$

- c. Verify that C_j is a degree- t polynomial, and that $C_j(0) = 0$. If this verification fails, set

$$\Omega_i^j = (\text{bad-poly}, (\text{sid}, \text{dealt}, (C_j, \mathbf{ct}_j), \sigma_j^{\text{PKI}}))$$

If Ω_i^j is defined for some $j \in [t+1]$, then output $(\text{cheat-detected}, \Omega_i^j)$ and echo it to all parties. Otherwise, output

$$(\text{success}, C = \sum_{i \in [t+1]} C_i, f(i) = \sum_{j \in [t+1]} f_j(i), \hat{f}(i) = \sum_{j \in [t+1]} \hat{f}_j(i))$$