Simplified VSS and Fast-track Multiparty Computations with Applications to Threshold Cryptography

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Abstract

The goal of this paper is to introduce a simple verifiable secret sharing scheme, to improve the efficiency of known secure multiparty protocols and, by employing these techniques, to improve the efficiency of applications which use these protocols.

First we present a very simple Verifiable Secret Sharing protocol which is based on fast cryptographic primitives and avoids altogether the need for expensive zero-knowledge proofs.

This is followed by a highly simplified protocol to compute multiplications over shared secrets. This is a major component in secure multiparty computation protocols and accounts for much of the complexity of proposed solutions. Using our protocol as a plug-in unit in known protocols reduces their complexity.

We show how to achieve efficient multiparty computations in the computational model, through the application of homomorphic commitments.

Finally, we present fast-track multiparty computation protocols. In a model in which malicious faults are rare we show that it is possible to carry out a simpler and more efficient protocol which does not perform all the expensive checks needed to combat a malicious adversary from foiling the computation. Yet, the protocol still enables detection of faults and recovers the computation when faults occur without giving any information advantage to the adversary. This results in protocols which are much more efficient under normal operation of the system i.e. when there are no faults.

As an example of the practical impact of our work we show how our techniques can be used to greatly improve the speed and the fault-tolerance of existing threshold cryptography protocols.

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1 Introduction

The past twenty years have witnessed an exciting development of research in the area of cryptography and network security. From the introduction of public-key cryptography [DH76, RSA78], to the invention of zero-knowledge proofs [GMR89], to the definition of the problem of secure multiparty computation and the somewhat surprising proof that any multiparty computation can be performed securely [Yao82, GMW87, BGW88, CCD88]. The combination of these results is extremely powerful, as they show that virtually any cryptographic problem can be solved under some reasonable appropriate assumptions.

Although theoretically impressive, these results lack in the area of practical feasibility. In today's applications even a simple public-key operation is sometimes considered too slow in comparison to the speed required by the application. Thus, the complicated exchanges of messages and zero-knowledge proofs in protocols like [Yao82, GMW87, BGW88, CCD88], might render them impractical. Thus, it is a high priority to optimize such techniques. Yet, they do provide for a sound basis for our solutions, in particular we will draw heavily on the solution introduced in [BGW88].

We shall concentrate in this paper on the problems of verifiable secret sharing and multiparty computations. The inefficiency of the general secure multiparty protocols is partially caused by the "generality" of the algorithms. Thus, optimization can be achieved in (at least) two ways. One is to tailor protocols to the specific problem at hand. Examples of this kind of approach include works on threshold cryptography (see Section 6) where efficient multiparty computation protocols are devised for the task of shared generation of digital signatures.

Another possible approach, the one which we follow in this paper, is to go back to the original works and see if their efficiency can be directly improved. If one can devise general techniques to improve on the computation/communication of secure multiparty protocols it is also likely that these techniques would improve the efficiency of "ad-hoc" optimizations.

Our contribution. The major contributions of this paper can be summarized as follows:

- A new simple and efficient design for Verifiable Secret Sharing.
- Computational simplifications of the [BGW88] protocol

- Efficient multiparty computations in the computational model
- Expediting computations through the notion of "fast-track"
- Applying all the above to a specific cryptographic problem

VSS. The first algorithm we introduce is a very simple and efficient Verifiable Secret Sharing protocol (Section 2). The main novelty of our protocol is that it is based on an efficient commitment scheme and it avoids altogether the expensive zero-knowledge proofs, which are usually carried out to ensure the correctness of actions of the participants in the protocol. Our protocol improves considerably over all existing verifiable secret sharing schemes, either in communication and/or in computation.

Computational Simplifications. The second protocol is a highly simplified protocol to compute multiplication over shared secrets. That is, in the model where there are two secrets a and b which are shared distributively among a set of n players, the protocol enables the players to secretly compute the product ab. This protocol can be used in any existing multiparty computation protocol. For example when used inside [BGW88] it improves the speed of the computation of a multiplication gate by a factor of at least 2. When used inside our general multiparty protocol, gains are even greater.

Efficient Protocols – Computational Model. We achieve efficient multiparty computations using constructions based on homomorphic commitments.

These commitments have been used for the problem of verifiable secret sharing, by Feldman and Pedersen [Fel87, Ped91a], who exhibit efficient VSS protocols.

Some of these techniques have been independently devised by [CDM97], yet they use them in the context of span programs.

Fast-track. Secure multiparty protocols pay a heavy cost in terms of communication/computation in order to guarantee robustness against malicious adversaries who may cause players to behave arbitrarily during the protocol. It is a well-known phenomenon that "private" computations (i.e. secure only against passive adversaries) are usually much simpler and efficient, as they eliminate all verification of proper conduct.

Typically, however, one can expect malicious faults to happen quite rarely. Consider for example a very sensitive distributed signature generation system (like a root certification authority) where the servers are heavily protected by firewalls and other security mechanisms. In this case one cannot rule out malicious faults (and thus cannot blindly use the simpler private protocols), but on the other hand would like to take advantage in some way of the fact that faults are rare. This model was also considered in [FY92].

We would like to build on the efficiency of private protocols, which operate under the assumption that no faults occur, while avoiding the trap of assuming that you can execute the private computation until a fault occurs and then re-compute. Indeed such a computation might turn out to be insecure, and expose secret information.

We present fast-track computations. The idea is to avoid carrying out all the verification steps, but rather to identify "critical" verification points. Only at these critical points some verification will be carried out. Once the verification is carried out in a critical point we are guaranteed that the computation up to this point is correct. These critical points must be chosen in such a manner that if faults occur between two consecutive critical points c_1 and c_2, where c_2 is a later point in the protocol, then the faults will be detected at point c_2. Furthermore, recomputing the section from critical point c_1 to c_2 will not violate the security of the computation. Thus, if no faults occurred between c_1 and c_2 we "saved" all the verifications which should have been carried out between these two points.

An attractive feature of our approach is that most of the verification at the critical points will not be the standard verification steps of the protocol, but rather a subset of the verification steps which should have been computed. For example in the general multiparty computation of an arithmetic circuit, critical points are placed on multiplications gates. At these gates we need to verify only *one* VSS compared to, for example, [BGW88] where $O(n)$ such VSS's must be checked (at least one for each player).

Applications. As an example of the practical impact of our approach, we present its application in the area of threshold cryptography. We show that existing threshold signature protocols can be greatly enhanced in speed using our techniques. We exemplify this over the threshold DSS protocol of [GJKR96b]. The improvements are quite substantial. We improve the fault-tolerance from $n/4$ to $n/2$ without increasing the communication or the computational complexity, thanks to our simplified VSS and multiplication protocols. We also present a fast-track version of the protocol where the exponentiation requirement from each server is a factor of n less than a fully fault-tolerant protocol (e.g. in [GJKR96b]) (see Section 6).

Model and Definitions. We consider a synchronous model with private channels and broadcast (e.g.[RB89, Bea89]). The parties engage in a distributed computation, following a protocol π, in order to evaluate $F(x_1, ..., x_n)$. We assume that there is an adversary $\mathcal{A}$ that corrupts up to t players and coordinates their actions in an arbitrary manner. The adversary we consider is *static* i.e. it decides which players to corrupt at the beginning of the computation. Also our adversary is computationally unbounded. We follow formal definitions of VSS and secure multiparty computations that have appeared in several papers [FM, MR91, Bea91, CFGN96, Can95].

Remark. Because of space limitations, formal definitions and proofs have been omitted from this abstract. We refer the reader to the final version of the paper [GRR98].

2 Verifiable Secret Sharing Made Very Simple

Since the appearance of Shamir's [Sha79] and Blakley's [Bla79] seminal papers on secret sharing which introduced the notion of sharing a secret and gave very simple solutions to the problem, the research on this topic has been extensive. These two solutions worked in the model where there are no faults in the system. Tompa and Woll [TW88] and McEliece and Sarwate [MS81] gave the first (partial) solutions for a model with faults. Finally the paper of Chor et al. [CGMA85] defined the complete notion of Verifiable Secret Sharing (VSS), and gave a solution. Under various assumptions, solutions to the problem were given [CGMA85, GMW91, Fel87, BGW88, CCD88, RB89, Ped91a]. In order to achieve the goal of verifiability, these protocols deviate from the original solutions' simplicity. They require either heavy computations and/or extensive zero-knowledge proofs

of proper conduct. Furthermore, in order to reconstruct the secret there is again a need for extensive computations.

In this section we describe a VSS protocol which returns to the original simplicity of Shamir's scheme, furthermore the implementation requires very little computational and communication overhead (both for sharing and reconstructing). This simple solution is enabled through an observation that all existing protocols achieve much more than is required, and by eliminating all the overhead, efficiency can be regained.

2.1 Our VSS protocol

We now proceed to describe a protocol which satisfies the [FM]'s definition of VSS. It will be based on Shamir's secret sharing, with an additional low cost added construction. This add-on will basically be an efficient public commitment of the dealer to each one of the shares held by the players. Note that once the dealer commits to each one of the shares we can define a unique value to which the dealer is committed. The value is defined as follows: if all the pre-images of the public commitments lie on a polynomial of degree t, then the secret is the constant term of this polynomial. Otherwise, we take a default value. However, the existence of a well defined secret does not guarantee its reconstructability by the good players, due to the fact that the bad players may later refuse to open their commitments. Thus, we need to commit to the shares of the players in a special manner such that as soon as enough good players open their commitments everybody is able to verify *all other* commitments.

More specifically our protocol will work as follows: The dealer will choose two random polynomials $f(x)$ and $r(x)$ of degree t. The constant term of $f(x)$ will be the shared secret. The second polynomial will be used to generate t-wise independent random strings which will be used to commit to the shares. Each player P_i will receive both $f(i)$, which is his share of the secret, and $r(i)$ which is the randomness associated with him. The dealer will publicly commit to the shares of all players by broadcasting $\mathcal{C}(f(i), r(i))$ where $\mathcal{C}$ is a commitment function. Just to help with the intuition, the reader can think of $\mathcal{C}(x, r)$ as SHA-1(x, r). Our VSS protocol appears in Figure 1.

Provable Security. Notice that in the protocol New-VSS we use the commitment function $\mathcal{C}$ in a specific way. The random strings used to commit to the shares are not independent but lie also on a polynomial of degree t. In general this may leak information about the secret, but we present two specific instantiations of the commitment scheme $\mathcal{C}$ for which we are able to prove the security of the VSS.

Theorem 1 *If $\mathcal{C}$ is a homomorphic commitment (see Section 4.1) then protocol* New-VSS *in Figure 1 is a VSS protocol.*

All the homomorphic commitment schemes we know are based on modular arithmetic over large numbers. We devised a new commitment scheme, based on [DPP96], which uses only collision-resistant hash functions and when used inside New-VSS yields a provably secure VSS protocol. The scheme is described in Appendix A.

Theorem 2 *The protocol* MD-VSS *in Appendix A is a VSS protocol.*

Efficiency. We would like to stress the efficiency of MD-VSS. During the sharing phase the dealer has to compute n times a collision-resistant hash function while each player computes a single evaluation. During the recover phase each player has to compute the hash n times. No costly modular exponentiations or complex ZK proofs are required.

2.2 Previous approaches

Almost all the VSS protocols in the literature (with the curious exception of the first one [CGMA85]) are based on Shamir's protocol. On top of that they add some proof from the dealer that the values shared lie on a polynomial of degree t, thus ensuring that the shares identify a unique secret. We refer to this property as the VSPS property, which will be defined more rigorously later.

In [GMW91] the shares are encrypted and then the VSPS property is proven via a "generic" zero-knowledge (ZK) proof of an NP-complete problem. The public knowledge of the encrypted shares also prevents bad players from contributing bad shares during reconstruction. This approach is made more efficient in [Fel87, Ped91a] where the dealer publicly commits to the polynomial using some form of "homomorphic" commitment scheme. These commitments in return provide for a simpler proof of the VSPS property.

In [BGW88, CCD88, Rab94] the model assumes a computationally unbounded adversary, disabling the use of encryption. In this case the ZK proof is done via a cut-and-choose approach ([BGW88] also has an alternative construction). Correction of bad shares during recover is done via error-correcting codes [BGW88, CCD88] or via a mechanism of mutual authentication [Rab94].

Is there a trend developing in all these solutions which explains why our solution is so simple? The answer is yes. The above mentioned results achieve more than just having the dealer commit to a single value. Indeed the dealer commits to a polynomial of degree t, where the intended secret is the free term of this polynomial. This additional commitment apparently complicates the protocol, and adds computations, and is not necessary in order to achieve the sole goal of verifiable secret sharing. Indeed our protocol shows that it is possible to commit to a single value without committing to the full polynomial. We will refer to the above protocols with the new name of *Verifiable Secret and Polynomial Sharing* (VSPS).

Definition 1 *We say that π is a* Verifiable Secret and Polynomial Sharing *protocol (VSPS) if the following properties hold for any adversary $\mathcal{A}$:*
1. The protocol is a Verifiable Secret Sharing
2. **VSPS property** *If the value set by the VSS is σ then there exists a polynomial $f(x)$ of degree at most t, such that $f(0) = \sigma$ and player P_i knows the value $f(i)$.*

In Section 4.2.1 we will provide a method to enhance our VSS scheme by adding the VSPS property.

As we will show later VSPS protocols are important as a tool for multiparty computation, due to their structural homomorphic properties. However, they are an overkill for a single VSS. And indeed there are several applications, such as storing important information for back-up in a distributed fashion on insecure devices, where there is a need only for VSS without the VSPS property.

3 Simplification to Secure Multiparty Computations

We consider the problem of *secure multiparty computation* [Yao82, GMW87, BGW88, CCD88]. There are n players

Verifiable Secret Sharing

Sharing Phase

1. Protocol for Dealer on input a secret s:
   - Randomly choose polynomials $f(x) = a_t x^t + ... + a_1 x + s$, and $r(x) = r_t x^t + ... + r_1 x + r_0$.
   - Compute and hand player P_i the values $\alpha_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(i)$ and $\rho_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} r(i)$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$
   - Compute and broadcast the value $\mathcal{A}_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i)$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$
2. Player P_i verifies that $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i)$. If the equation does not hold then he broadcasts a complaint against the dealer.
3. If player P_i broadcasted a complaint then the dealer broadcasts the values α_i, ρ_i, s.t. $\mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i) = \mathcal{A}_i$.
4. If the dealer does not follow some step he is disqualified, otherwise conclude that a secret has been shared.

Reconstruction Phase

1. Each player broadcasts the values α_i, ρ_i.
2. Take $t+1$ broadcasted values for which $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i)$ and interpolate polynomials $\hat{f}(x)$ and $\hat{r}(x)$ of degree at most t that pass through those points.
3. Compute $\hat{\alpha_i} = \hat{f}(i)$ and $\hat{\rho_i} = \hat{r}(i)$ and verify that $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\hat{\alpha_i}, \hat{\rho_i})$ for all i. If yes, output $\hat{f}(0)$ else output 0.

Figure 1: New-VSS: - Sharing and Reconstruction Protocols

$P_1, \ldots, P_n$. Player P_i holds an input x_i and the players want to compute a function $F(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ in a *secure* manner, which intuitively means that the adversary cannot disrupt the computation, i.e. the value computed is correct, furthermore the adversary does not learn any information about the inputs of the good players (except for what is revealed by the function value).

In this section we will describe two simplifications to the [BGW88] protocol, and in particular to the multiplication protocol. We first describe an algebraic simplification followed by a simplified zero-knowledge proof for a specific property.

3.1 Algebraic Simplification for Multiplication Protocol

In the following we shall present a simple method for computing the multiplication of two secrets which are distributed among a set of players[1].

Given two secrets α and β shared by polynomials $f_\alpha(x)$ and $f_\beta(x)$ respectively of degree t, the players would like to compute the product $\alpha\beta$. In their seminal paper Ben-Or et al. [BGW88] note that it is not sufficient for each player to locally multiply his shares of both secrets, as this generates a polynomial whose constant term is the desired one, i.e. $\alpha\beta$, but it is of degree $2t$ and is not a random polynomial. To overcome this they introduced a degree reduction and randomization protocols. We will show how to achieve both the degree reduction and the randomization in a single step. This building block can be substituted for the multiplication step in the protocol of [BGW88], as it works in the same model of computation. The computation in this section is described under the assumption that all players act properly (as has been said, methods for how to remove this assumption appear in the next section).

Denote by $f_\alpha(i)$ and $f_\beta(i)$ the shares of player P_i on $f_\alpha(x)$ and $f_\beta(x)$ respectively. The product of $f_\alpha(x)$ and $f_\beta(x)$ is $f_\alpha(x)f_\beta(x) = \gamma_{2t}x^{2t} + ... + \gamma_1 x + \alpha\beta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f_{\alpha\beta}(x)$. For $1 \leq i \leq 2t+1$, $f_{\alpha\beta}(i) = f_\alpha(i)f_\beta(i)$. Thus we can write

$$A \begin{bmatrix} \alpha\beta \\ \gamma_1 \\ \vdots \\ \gamma_{2t} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_{\alpha\beta}(1) \\ f_{\alpha\beta}(2) \\ \vdots \\ f_{\alpha\beta}(2t+1) \end{bmatrix}$$

Where $A = (a_{ij})$ is the $(2t+1)$ by $(2t+1)$ Van der Monde matrix defined by $a_{ij} = i^{j-1}$. Clearly A is non-singular and has an inverse. Let the first row of the inverse matrix, A^{-1}, be $(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_{2t+1})$, note that these are known constants. Then the previous equation implies that $\alpha\beta = \lambda_1 f_{\alpha\beta}(1) + ... + \lambda_{2t+1} f_{\alpha\beta}(2t+1)$.

Given polynomials $h_1(x), ..., h_{2t+1}(x)$ all of degree t which satisfy that $h_i(0) = f_{\alpha\beta}(i)$ for $1 \leq i \leq 2t+1$, define $H(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^{2t+1} \lambda_i h_i(x)$. Note that $H(0)$ is exactly $\lambda_1 f_{\alpha\beta}(1) + ... + \lambda_{2t+1} f_{\alpha\beta}(2t+1)$ and hence $\alpha\beta$.

Furthermore, $H(j) = \sum_{i=1}^{2t+1} \lambda_i h_i(j)$.

Thus, if each player P_i shares his share using a polynomial $h_i(x)$ with the properties as defined above, then the polynomial $H(x)$, used for the sharing of $\alpha\beta$ is automatically of degree t. It is random because the λ_i are non-zero (easy to check by inspection) and there are $n-t$ polynomials $h_i(x)$ chosen by good players, and hence at random. Thus, the sharing of $\alpha\beta$ by a random polynomial of degree t can be achieved directly following Protocol Simple-Mult in Figure 2.

Theorem 3 *Protocol* Simple-Mult *is a secure multiplication protocol in the presence of a passive adversary computationally unbounded.*

In order to tolerate an active adversary there is a need to verify the actions of the players. [BGW88] uses a computationally expensive protocol to do this (which could be combined with Simple-Mult). However, we were able to simplify this protocol as well, and greatly improve its efficiency. The description of our simplification appears in Appendix B.

[1] This simplification of the multiplication step of [BGW88] was discovered by the second author in 1994, and presented by him in class.

Simple-Mult

Input of Player P_i**:** The values $f_\alpha(i)$ and $f_\beta(i)$

1. Player P_i shares the value $f_\alpha(i)f_\beta(i)$ by choosing a random polynomial $h_i(x)$ of degree t, such that $h_i(0) = f_\alpha(i)f_\beta(i)$. He gives player P_j the value $h_i(j)$ for $1 \leq j \leq 2t+1$.
2. Each player P_j computes his share of $\alpha\beta$ via a random polynomial H, i.e. the value $H(j)$, by locally computing the linear combination $H(j) = \sum_{i=1}^{2t+1} \lambda_i h_i(j)$.

Figure 2: Simplified Multiplication Protocol with honest players

4 Computations with a Polynomial Time Adversary

In this section we describe how to carry out multiparty computations in the presence of a computationally bounded adversary. It is well known that in this model there exist VSS protocols due to Feldman [Fel87] and Pedersen [Ped91a] which are quite efficient and require limited interaction. We will show that is possible to use this kind of VSS protocols, including our New-VSS, to perform multiparty computations efficiently.

The basic idea is to use a homomorphic commitment (see Section 4.1) to commit to the sharing of the inputs during the VSS. The computation will then follow the [BGW88] paradigm. Additions are computed locally by just summing up the shares of the secret values being added. For multiplication we run a robust version of the simplified multiplication protocol Simple-Mult presented above. But we will use the public commitments over the inputs to enforce correct behavior on the part of the players.

This idea originated in [CCD88] in the information-theoretic model, where such "commitments" were achieved by a second layer of input sharings. In the cryptographic model we use homomorphic commitments to generate the same effect. Some of these techniques have been independently devised by [CDM97], yet they use them in the context of span programs.

In the following sections we will concentrate on the multiplication protocol. Given two secrets α and β shared via some form of VSS, which generated some representation of the secrets, we want to compute a sharing of $\gamma = \alpha\beta$ resulting in the same representation. By representation we mean either the commitment to the coefficients or the commitment to the points of the polynomial. Player P_i holds shares α_i, β_i of α and β (resp.). In order to get a robust version of the multiplication protocol described in Section 3 we need to enforce that P_i shares the product $\alpha_i\beta_i$ via a polynomial of degree t.

4.1 Homomorphic Commitments

The approach we follow requires the usage of *homomorphic commitments*. Denote by $\mathcal{C}(\alpha, \rho)$ a commitment to α with randomness ρ. We shall say that it is a homomorphic commitment if it has the following property: given $A_1 = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_1, \rho_1)$ and $A_2 = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_2, \rho_2)$ it holds for some ρ that: $A_1 \cdot A_2 = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \rho)$

In our protocols we also need a ZK proof for the following: A prover P publishes three commitments: $A = \mathcal{C}(\alpha, \rho)$, $B = \mathcal{C}(\beta, \sigma)$ and $C = \mathcal{C}(\alpha\beta, \tau)$ and wants to prove in ZK to a verifier V that C is a commitment to the product of the committed values in A and B (see Appendix C).

Homomorphic commitments based on general computational assumptions have been recently introduced and studied by Cramer and Damgard [CD97]. The ZK proof in Appendix C is also due to them. For simplicity of exposition we will use a specific commitment scheme due to Pedersen described below. However the reader should keep in mind that any of the commitments in [CD97] will do.

Let p and q be primes such that $p = \mu q + 1$, let g be an element of order q in Z_p^* and $h \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} g^z \bmod p$. The value z is chosen at random and is unknown to the dealer and players.
Discrete Log Assumption: We assume that it is infeasible to compute discrete logarithms in the subgroup of Z_p^* generated by g.
A commitment to a string $\alpha \in Z_q$ using a random $\rho \in_R Z_q$ is the value $A = g^\alpha h^\rho \bmod p$. It is proven in [Ped91a] that this commitment is information-theoretic secure in terms of privacy and can be opened in two different ways only by somebody who can compute z.

Polynomial evaluations. Consider a polynomial $f(x) = a_t x^t + ... + a_1 x + a_0$. The following two operations can be carried out:

- if the coefficients of the polynomial are committed to using the above scheme, then directly from these commitments we can compute commitments to the value $f(i)$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$. In the following we will call this procedure "evaluation in the exponent".
- Reversely, given commitments to at least $t+1$ values $f(i)$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$, it is possible to compute commitments to the coefficients of the polynomial. In the following we will call this procedure "interpolation in the exponent".

Both of these computations are possible as there is a linear relation between the coefficients and the evaluated points thus, due to the homomorphic properties of the commitment, the computation can be carried out in the exponent.

4.2 Multiparty Computation Using our VSS

When we introduced our VSS protocol we said that it gained in efficency because it did not satisfy the VSPS property, i.e. it didn't guarantee that there exists an underlying polynomial. We further said that this property is needed for the multiparty computations of [BGW88]. Thus, if we want to use our VSS for multiparty computations we will first need to reintroduce the VSPS property into our VSS. Yet, we add the VSPS in such a manner that our VSS with VSPS enjoys a novel property which is that the verification of the existence of a secret is disjoint from the verification of the VSPS property. This split will enable us to expedite our

computations when we move to the fast-track paradigm (see Section 5). We start by showing how to verify the VSPS property followed by the presentation of the robust multiplication gate.

4.2.1 Checking the VSPS Property

The original description of our VSS protocol simply assumed a commitment scheme, but for the multiparty computations we will implement this commitment with the homomorphic commitment of Pedersen. Now, the dealer will share his secret $\alpha \in Z_q$ in the following manner. He will choose polynomials $f(x) = a_t x^t + ... + a_1 x + \alpha$, and $r(x) = r_t x^t + ... + r_0$. The dealer will compute and give player P_i the values $\alpha_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(i)$ and $\rho_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} r(i)$. The commitment will be done by $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} g^{\alpha_i} h^{\rho_i} \bmod p$. For reasons that will become apparent later we extend the VSS protocol by having the dealer commit also to the secret itself, which is $f(x)$ evaluated at 0, by publishing $\mathcal{A}_0 = g^{\alpha} h^{r_0}$. The reconstruction phase is, in essence, as before; player P_i broadcasts α_i and ρ_i. We accept only those values that match the published commitment $\mathcal{A}_i$. The polynomials $\hat{f}$ and $\hat{r}$ are interpolated from the accepted values and a check is carried out that, for all $i = 0, \ldots, n$, $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\hat{f}(i), \hat{r}(i))$. If this check succeeds then $\alpha \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \hat{f}(0)$ otherwise $\alpha \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 0$.

We denote with DL-VSS the above implementation of New-VSS. Although it looks similar to Pedersen's VSS it differs from it because in DL-VSS the public commitments are to the points on the polynomial, while in Pedersen's VSS the commitments are to the coefficient. For this same reason however DL-VSS does not have the VSPS property i.e. it does not insure that the shares lie on a t-degree polynomial.

The first method that comes to mind to verify the VSPS property, is to interpolate in the exponent the polynomial from $t+1$ values, and then to evaluate in the exponent the remaining points, and see if they match. Yet, this solution is highly expensive in computation. We present a more efficient randomized solution.

If the $\mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_n$ determine a unique pair of t-degree polynomials (f, r) such that $\mathcal{A}_i = g^{f(i)} h^{r(i)}$, then $\mathcal{A}_0, ..., \mathcal{A}_t$ should define (f, r) and so should $\mathcal{A}_{t+1}, ..., \mathcal{A}_{2t+1}$. Denote by $f^{(1)}(x) = a_{1,t} x^t + \ldots + a_{1,0}$, $r^{(1)}(x) = r_{1,t} x^t + \ldots + r_{1,0}$ and $f^{(2)}(x) = a_{2,t} x^t + \ldots + a_{2,0}$, $r^{(2)}(x) = r_{2,t} x^t + \ldots + r_{2,0}$ the polynomials defined by the first and second sets respectively. The idea of the check is to prove that for a random value $\delta \in Z_q$ we have

$$g^{f^{(1)}(\delta)} h^{r^{(1)}(\delta)} = g^{f^{(2)}(\delta)} h^{r^{(2)}(\delta)} \quad (1)$$

as $h = g^z$ this implies that $f^{(1)}(\delta) + z r^{(1)}(\delta) = f^{(2)}(\delta) + z r^{(2)}(\delta)$. But since δ is chosen at random that means that with probability $1 - \frac{t}{q}$ we have

$$f^{(1)}(x) + z r^{(1)}(x) = f^{(2)}(x) + z r^{(2)}(x) \quad (2)$$

For large q the probability of error can be made negligible.

Recall that our final goal is to prove that $f^{(1)}(x) = f^{(2)}(x)$ and $r^{(1)}(x) = r^{(2)}(x)$. Suppose that the dealer distributed shares such that $f^{(1)}(x) \neq f^{(2)}(x)$ and $r^{(1)}(x) \neq r^{(2)}(x)$, but such that Equation (2) holds. Then it is easy to see that the dealer can compute z which contradicts the assumptions.

Thus, the whole test reduces to a local check by each player of Equation (1) for a random $\delta \in Z_q$ chosen by the player. The left side of the equation can be computed as follows:

$$g^{f^{(1)}(\delta)} h^{r^{(1)}(\delta)} = g^{\sum_{j=0}^{t} a_{1,j} \delta^j} h^{\sum_{j=0}^{t} r_{1,j} \delta^j} = g^{\sum_{j=0}^{t} \sum_{i=0}^{t} f(i) \lambda_{ji} \delta^j} h^{\sum_{j=0}^{t} \sum_{i=0}^{t} r(i) \lambda_{ji} \delta^j} = \prod_{i=1}^{t+1} (g^{f(i)} h^{r(i)})^{\Delta_i} = \prod_{i=1}^{t+1} \mathcal{A}_i^{\Delta_i}$$

where $\Delta_i = \sum_{j=0}^{t} \lambda_{ji} \delta^j$ for appropriate Lagrange coefficients λ_{ji}. Similarly compute the right-hand side of Equation (1). We denote with VSPS-Check the above method for verifying the VSPS property.

4.2.2 The Robust Multiplication Gate with our VSS

Let us assume that we are given two secrets α and β shared via our DL-VSS protocol with polynomial pairs $(f_\alpha(x), r(x))$ and $(f_\beta(x), s(x))$ resp. Player P_i has shares $\alpha_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f_\alpha(i)$ and $\beta_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f_\beta(i)$ in addition to $\rho_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} r(i)$ and $\sigma_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} s(i)$. The values $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i) = g^{\alpha_i} h^{\rho_i}$ and $\mathcal{B}_i = \mathcal{C}(\beta_i, \sigma_i) = g^{\beta_i} h^{\sigma_i}$ are public. We assume that the VSPS property of these two sharings has been checked.

The basic idea of the robust multiplication protocol is the following: each player P_i shares $c_i = \lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i$ via our DL-VSS protocol, where λ_i is the coefficient defined in Section 3.1. If c_{ij} and τ_{ij} are the values P_i sends to P_j, then P_i publishes $\mathcal{C}_{ij} = \mathcal{C}(c_{ij}, \tau_{ij}) = g^{c_{ij}} h^{\tau_{ij}}$.

After the sharing the players check the VSPS property for P_i's sharing. Notice that P_i broadcasted the value $C_{i0} = g^{\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i} h^{\tau_{i0}}$. P_i uses this value to prove in zero-knowledge that he shared $\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i$ with respect to $\mathcal{A}_i$ and $\mathcal{B}_i$ using the protocol in Appendix C. For any player who does not follow the protocol, all his private information is made public through reconstruction. It is important to note that our representation of the secret as a commitment to the points on the polynomial lends naturally to the ZK proof, as the values are already in the format needed for the proof.

Now we are at the starting point of the multiplication operation described in Section 3.1 with the additional property that we know that all the sharings are correct. Thus, each player locally sums the shares which he has received from all the other players in order to compute $\gamma_i = \sum_{j=1}^{2t+1} c_{ji}$ and $\tau_i = \sum_{j=1}^{2t+1} \tau_{ji}$. Furthermore, the public information corresponding to this new share is generated: $\mathcal{C}_i = \mathcal{C}(\gamma_i, \tau_i) = g^{\gamma_i} h^{\tau_i} = \prod_{j=1}^{2t+1} \mathcal{C}_{ji}$. The full protocol appears in Figure 3 and is denoted Mult.

Theorem 4 *Under the the discrete log assumption protocol* Mult *is a secure multiplication protocol in the presence of a computationally bounded active adversary.*

Plugging the above multiplication protocol into the [BGW88] construction one gets a secure multiparty computation protocol for any function F in the computational model. We note that this protocol is quite efficient in terms of computation and communication required by each player.

4.3 Efficiency Analysis

A protocol similar to Mult can be constructed using Pedersen's VSS instead of our DL-VSS. We omit from this extended abstract the complete description of such protocol, its computational analysis and the comparison between Mult and the Pedersen-based one.

Mult: **Robust Multiplication**

Input of player P_i: values $\alpha_i = f_\alpha(i)$, $\beta_i = f_\beta(i)$, $\rho_i = r(i)$, $\sigma_i = s(i)$.
Public input: $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i) = g^{\alpha_i} h^{\rho_i}$, $\mathcal{B}_i = \mathcal{C}(\beta_i, \sigma_i) = g^{\beta_i} h^{\sigma_i}$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$

1. Each player P_i shares $\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i$ using the DL-VSS protocol. That is set $c_{ij} = f_{\alpha\beta,i}(j)$, $\tau_{ij} = u_i(j)$ where $f_{\alpha\beta,i}$, u_i are random polynomials of degree t such that $f_{\alpha\beta,i}(0) = \lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i$.
   Secret information of P_i**:** share c_{ji}, τ_{ji} of $\lambda_j \alpha_j \beta_j$
   Public information: $\mathcal{C}_{ij} = g^{c_{ij}} h^{\tau_{ij}}$ for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ $\mathcal{C}_{i0} = g^{c_{i0}} h^{\tau_{i0}}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$
2. Players run a VSPS-Check on P_i's sharing. If a sharing fails the test then expose the secret through the VSS reconstruction.
3. P_i proves in zero-knowledge that C_{i0} is a commitment to the product of $\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i$ using the ZK proof from Appendix C. Expose the values of the players who fail the proof.
4. Player P_i computes $\gamma_i = \sum_{j=1}^{2t+1} c_{ji}$ which is a share of $\gamma = \alpha\beta$ via a random polynomial of degree t. Compute also $\tau_i = \sum_{j=1}^{2t+1} \tau_{ji}$ and $\mathcal{C}_j = \mathcal{C}(\gamma_j, \tau_j) = g^{\gamma_j} h^{\tau_j} = \prod_{l=1}^{2t+1} \mathcal{C}_{lj}$, for $1 \leq j \leq n$.
   Secret information of P_i**:** share γ_i
   Public information: $\mathcal{C}_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$

Figure 3: Robust multiplication protocol using DL-VSS

Here we only point out the major issues in this comparison.

- Our new VSS DL-VSS generates commitments to the points of the polynomial, and these are the values which are required as input for the ZK proof of proper conduct. Pedersen's VSS instead has commitments to the coefficients of the polynomial and thus is required in the multiplication protocol to compute these values via evaluation in the exponent.
- Pedersen's VSS takes advantage of the fact that the check of the VSPS property requires exponentiations to relatively small exponents. Our VSPS-Check instead requires full exponentiations in the group generated by g. However a close look at the cost analysis shows that only for very small n there is an advantage of using Pedersen's VSS versus DL-VSS plus VSPS-Check. Relatively fast (in the growth of n) they have the same performance.
- However, the most attractive feature of using DL-VSS is that the verification of the existence of a secret and the verification of the VSPS property are separate computations. This will allow for the introduction of the fast-track paradigm described in Section 5 which will improve the overall performance of the protocol when there are no faults in the system.

5 Fast-track Computation

As we mentioned in the Introduction secure multiparty protocols pay a heavy cost in terms of communication/computation in order to guarantee robustness against malicious adversaries. Typically, however, one can expect malicious faults to happen quite rarely. We would like to build on the efficiency of private protocols, which operate under the assumption that no faults occur, while avoiding the trap of assuming that you can execute the private computation until a fault occurs and then re-compute. Indeed such a computation might turn out to be insecure, and expose secret information. This model also appears in [FY92]. We call it fast-track computation.

Thus at this point we introduce a fast-track version of our multiparty computation protocol. Our idea is to avoid carrying out all the verification steps, but rather to identify "critical" verification points. Only at these critical points some verification will be carried out. Once the verification is carried out in a critical point we are guaranteed that the computation up to this point was correct. These critical points must be chosen in such a manner that if faults occur between two consecutive critical points c_1 and c_2, where c_2 is a later point in the protocol, then the faults will be detected at point c_2. Furthermore, recomputing the section from critical point c_1 to c_2 will not violate the security of the computation. Thus, if no faults occurred between c_1 and c_2 we "saved" all the verifications which should have been carried out between these two points. The main result of this section is the following.

Theorem 5 *There exists a fast-track secure multiparty multiplication protocol* FT-Mult *that requires a factor of n less computation than* Mult *when there are no faults in the system.*

It will become clear here why our DL-VSS protocol with VSPS-Check , which has a disjoint verification for the existence of a secret and for the VSPS property, falls nicely into the framework of fast-track. It allows to verify the existence of a valid secret at a low cost, and delay the expensive VSPS check to a later point, in which the property can be effectively verified for many secrets by a single check.

5.1 Fast-track Robust Multiplication Protocol

In this section we describe FT-Mult . When computing a multiplication gate we do not check the VSPS property on every sharing of the values $\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i$ but rather we check *only the combined secret* which should be the result of the multiplication. Basically we run a single VSPS-Check protocol on the values $\mathcal{C}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{C}_n$. Thus, we reduce the number of VSPS checks by a factor of n (assuming there are no faults). If the check fails then we know that there were faults and reiterate the computation of the gate using the Mult protocol.

The protocol works in the following manner: each player P_i shares the product of his local shares, i.e. $\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i$ via our DL-VSS protocol. Using the commitment to the free term

he proves (using the ZK proof in Appendix C) that he has in fact shared the proper value. Then the player computes the sum of the shares which he has received, and on the set of result of this computation the players check the VSPS property. The complete protocol appears in Appendix D.

6 Threshold Cryptography Applications

In recent years it has become evident that one of the most important applications of secure multiparty computation is *threshold cryptography* [Boy89, CH89, Des87, Des94]. Consider for example the cryptographic function of signing which receives as input a secret key and a message, and generates the signature on the message. The signer holding the secret key can easily generate the signature. But if his computer is broken into, then the secrecy of his key is compromised. In other words, the storage of the secret key creates a single point of failure which we would like to eliminate. This can be achieved by sharing the secret key among several signing servers in a threshold fashion. Now the computation of the signature must be carried out in a distributed manner via a multiparty computation protocol among the signing servers.

Threshold cryptography is indeed the study of efficient multiparty computation protocols for cryptographic functions (e.g. signing or decrypting) in which each party has as input a share of the secret key that allows the computation of such function. Examples of threshold cryptography protocols can be found in [DF91, DF89, CMI93, Har94, DDFY94, PK96, GJKR96b, FGY96, GJKR96a, JY].

The above cited protocols use, in various ways, expensive VSS protocols and zero-knowledge proofs. Though some are more efficient than others there is still room and need for improvement. Our techniques can be readily applied to this scenario to obtain much more efficient protocols.

In the final paper we present a specific application of our techniques to the robust threshold DSS protocol of Gennaro e tal [GJKR96b]. The improvements to that protocol will be twofold:

fault-tolerance the simplified multiplication protocol described in this paper brings the fault-tolerance of the scheme up to $\frac{n-1}{2}$ (from $\frac{n-1}{4}$) without an increase in communication or computational complexity.

efficiency Our new DSS protocol has a fast-track version which requires a factor of n less computation (in terms of modular exponentiations) from each player.

SECURITY. Formal definitions of security for threshold signature protocols can be found in [GJKR96b]. We stress that our new protocol can be proven secure under the sole assumption of the unforgeability of DSS signatures.

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A A Simple VSS Based on Collision-resistance

The scheme is based on New-VSS but with a different istantiation of the commitment function $\mathcal{C}$. We use a new commitment scheme which is based on the one described in [DPP96].

The commitment works as follows. Let $x \in \{0,1\}^m$ be the value the sender wants to commit. The scheme uses a family of universal hash functions [CW79] $\mathcal{H} = \{h : \{0,1\}^L \longrightarrow \{0,1\}^m\}$ and a collision resistant hash function $MD : \{0,1\}^L \longrightarrow \{0,1\}^k$

The sender chooses two random strings $r, \ell \in_R \{0,1\}^L$ and a universal hash function $h \in_R \mathcal{H}$ such that $h(r) = x$. He then computes $y = MD(r \oplus \ell)$. The commitment to x is the triple $\mathcal{C}(x, r, h, \ell) =< y, h, \ell >$. The scheme is statistically hiding and can be opened in two way only by finding collisions in MD.

We call MD-VSS the version of New-VSS based on this commitment shown in Figure 4. It can be proven that for sufficiently large L and k the views of the adversary when sharing two different secrets are statistically close (which in turns mean that the protocol reveals no information about the secret).

B Computing Multiplication with Faults

The underlying assumption for the computation in the previous section is that each player P_i shared a polynomial $h_i(x)$ such that $h_i(0) = f_\alpha(i)f_\beta(i)$. We present a simple method for verifying that P_i has shared the proper value. To reduce the complexity of exposition we change the notation, saying that player P_i has values α and β and he needs to share a polynomial whose constant term is $\alpha\beta$. We take as a starting point that the values α, β have been shared properly using polynomials $f_\alpha(x), f_\beta(x)$ resp. (see [BGW88] for proof). Thus, we need to prove that the three polynomials satisfy the property that $h(0) = f_\alpha(0)f_\beta(0)$.

We are able to present a simpler proof for this property based on a combination of two ideas. The first idea is, as in the multiplication step, that instead of reducing the degree of a polynomial and randomizing it through computation it can be directly shared as a random polynomial of degree t. And the second is that the prover is present and can help the players out during the proof stage. More specifically, previous proofs assumed that the players need to reconstruct the polynomials while correcting errors. Under this assumption a set of $3t+1$ players can *interpolate* a polynomial of degree at most t. But if the dealer exposes the polynomial directly and the players only need to verify their points, then a set of $3t+1$ players can *check* their values and insure the validity of a polynomial of degree (at most) $2t$.

Thus, we shall have player P_i share $h(x)$ of degree t and prove that $h(0) = f_\alpha(0)f_\beta(0)$ in the following manner. First, P_i will prove that $h(x)$ is of degree t. Then, P_i will share an additional polynomial $r(x)$ of degree $2t-1$, there is no need to verify that it is of the right degree, because one of two things can happen: information of P_i will be revealed is P_i's, or the proof will not go through. To complete the proof P_i will broadcast the polynomial $R(x) = xr(x) + f_\alpha(x)f_\beta(x) - h(x)$. This is a random polynomial of degree $2t$ and hence reveals no information about the coefficients of $f_\alpha(x)f_\beta(x)$ or $h(x)$. Each player P_j checks that $R_i(0) = 0$ which indicates that $h(x)$ as as its constant term the product $\alpha\beta$. Furthermore, P_j verifies that $R(j) = jr(j) + f_\alpha(j)f_\beta(j) - h(j)$, to ensure that his share of $h(x)$ is in fact on the polynomial, if there is no match he requests that his values be made public.

This is much more efficient than the proof in [BGW88] that uses error-correction in quite a complicated way to enforce the condition that $h(0) = f_\alpha(0)f_\beta(0)$.

C ZK Proof for multiplication of committed values

In both the Mult and FT-Mult protocols a crucial tool to prove that a player is acting properly is a ZK proof of the following statement.

The prover P publishes three commitments: $A = g^\alpha h^\rho$, $B = g^\beta h^\sigma$ and $C = g^{\alpha\beta}h^\tau$. He wants to prove in ZK to a verifier V that he knows how to open such commitments and the opening of C that he knows is really the product of the values he committed to in A and B.

The following ZK proof is adapted from a more general one invented by Cramer and Damgard [CD97]. The basic idea is for the prover to prove that he knows that C can be written as $B^\alpha h^{\tau-\sigma\alpha}$.

1. P chooses $d, s, x, s_1, s_2 \in_R Z_q$. He sends to V the messages $M = g^d h^s$, $M_1 = g^x h^{s_1}$, $M_2 = B^x h^{s_2}$.
2. V chooses a challenge $e \in_R Z_q$ and sends it to P
3. P replies with the following values: $y = d + e\beta$, $w = s + e\sigma$, $z = x + e\alpha$, $w_1 = s_1 + e\rho$, $w_2 = s_2 + e(\tau - \sigma\alpha)$.
4. V checks that: $g^y h^w = MB^e$, $g^z h^{w_1} = M_1 A^e$ and $B^z h^{w_2} = M_2 C^e$.

The above protocol is only ZK against an honest verifier but can be transformed in a ZK proof against any verifier by standard techniques, i.e. by having the verifier commit to the challenge as a first round.

Notice that the protocol involves only a constant number of exponentiations (i.e. $O(k)$ multiplications).

Remark: In our protocol we can exploit the fact that the verifier only sends a random challenge to the prover. Indeed this allows us to run a *single* proof from P_i to *all* the other players. The proof would go as follows: 1) all the other players commit to a random number in Z_q; 2) the prover sends the first message; 3) all the players would decommit and the challenge will be computed as the sum of the decommitted values. If the original commitment is non-malleable this is secure.

D Fast-track Multiplication

Protocol appears in Figure 5.

Verifiable Secret Sharing

Sharing Phase

1. Protocol for Dealer on input a secret s:
   - Randomly choose polynomials $f(x) = a_t x^t + ... + a_1 x + s$, and $r(x) = r_t x^t + ... + r_1 x + r_0$.
   - Compute and hand player P_i the values $\alpha_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(i)$ and $\rho_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} r(i)$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$
   - Choose n universal hash functions h_i (randomly and independently) such that $h_i(\rho_i) = \alpha_i$. Choose n independent random strings ℓ_i.
   - Compute and broadcast the value $\mathcal{A}_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i, h_i, \ell_i)$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$
2. Player P_i verifies that $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i)$. If the equation does not hold then he broadcasts a complaint against the dealer.
3. If player P_i broadcasted a complaint then the dealer broadcasts the values α_i, ρ_i, s.t. $\mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i) = \mathcal{A}_i$.
4. If the dealer does not follow some step he is disqualified, otherwise conclude that a secret has been shared.

Reconstruction Phase

1. Each player broadcasts the values α_i, ρ_i.
2. Take $t+1$ broadcasted values for which $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i)$ and interpolate polynomials $\hat{f}(x)$ and $\hat{r}(x)$ of degree at most t that pass through those points.
3. Compute $\hat{\alpha_i} = \hat{f}(i)$ and $\hat{\rho_i} = \hat{r}(i)$ and verify that $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\hat{\alpha_i}, \hat{\rho_i})$ for all i. If yes, output $\hat{f}(0)$ else output 0.

Figure 4: MD-VSS: - Sharing and Reconstruction Protocols

FT-Mult: **Fast-track Multiplication**

Input of player P_i: values $\alpha_i = f_\alpha(i)$, $\beta_i = f_\beta(i)$, $\rho_i = r(i)$, $\sigma_i = s(i)$.
Public input $\mathcal{A}_i = \mathcal{C}(\alpha_i, \rho_i) = g^{\alpha_i} h^{\rho_i}$, $\mathcal{B}_i = \mathcal{C}(\beta_i, \sigma_i) = g^{\beta_i} h^{\sigma_i}$ for $0 \leq i \leq n$

1. Each player P_i shares $\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i$ using the VSS protocol. That is set $c_{ij} = f_{\alpha\beta,i}(j)$, $\tau_{ij} = u_i(j)$ where $f_{\alpha\beta,i}$, u_i are random polynomials of degree t such that $f_{\alpha\beta,i}(0) = \lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i$.

   Secret information of P_i: share c_{ji}, τ_{ji} of $\lambda_j \alpha_j \beta_j$
   Public information: $\mathcal{C}_{ij} = g^{c_{ij}} h^{\tau_{ij}}$ for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$
   $\mathcal{C}_{i0} = g^{c_{i0}} h^{\tau_{i0}}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$

2. P_i proves in zero-knowledge that C_{i0} is a commitment to the product of $\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i$ using the ZK proof from Appendix C. Expose the values of the players who fail the proof.
3. Player P_i computes $\gamma_i = \sum_{j=1}^{2t+1} c_{ji}$ which is a share of $\gamma = \alpha\beta$ via a random polynomial of degree t, and $\tau_i = \sum_{j=1}^{2t+1} \tau_{ji}$.
4. Player P_i computes and broadcasts $\mathcal{C}_i = \mathcal{C}(\gamma_i, \tau_i) = g^{\gamma_i} h^{\tau_i} = \prod_{j=1}^{2t+1} \mathcal{C}_{ji}$.
5. Players run a VSPS-Check on $\mathcal{C}_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. If the test fails STOP and run Multfrom Step 2.

   Secret information of P_i: share γ_i
   Public information: $\mathcal{C}_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$

Figure 5: Fast-track multiplication protocol