

## Lecture 10

Lecture date: February 12, 2024

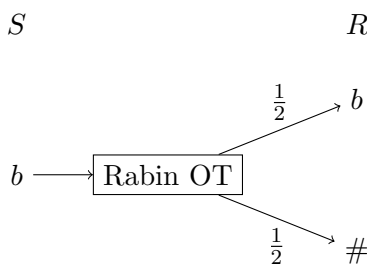
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# 1 Oblivious Transfer

## 1.1 Rabin Oblivious Transfer

In an Oblivious Transfer (OT) protocol, a sender transmits one of several pieces of information to a receiver. The receiver obtains only the specific piece it need, while the sender can't learn which piece was transferred.

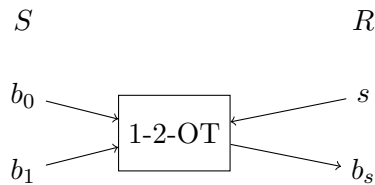
Rabin oblivious transfer is a kind of formalization of “noisy wire” communication. A Rabin OT machine models the following behavior. The sender( $S$ ) sends a bit  $b$  into the OT machine. The machine then flips a coin, and receiver( $R$ ) has a probability of  $\frac{1}{2}$  getting  $b$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$  getting nothing (notated as  $\#$  in Fig. 1).  $S$  does not know which output  $R$  received.



**Figure 1:** Rabin oblivious transfer

## 1.2 1-2-Oblivious Transfer (1-2-OT)

In 1-2-OT, sender  $S$  sends two bits  $(b_0, b_1)$  to the OT machine. Receiver  $R$  sends a selected bit  $s$  to the OT machine indicating which bit from  $S$  it want to get.  $R$  will only get the specified bit  $b_s$  but not  $b_{1-s}$  from the machine, while  $S$  knows both bits but has no idea which one  $R$  received.



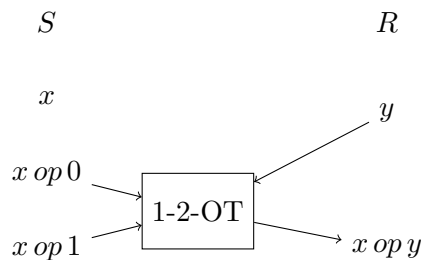
**Figure 2:** 1-2-oblivious transfer

### One Example of 1-2-OT

$S$  has a bit  $x$ ,  $R$  has a bit  $y$ , our goal is to calculate  $x \text{ op } y$  without leaking  $x$  and  $y$  to each other, where  $\text{op}$  is a bit operation. We construct a 1-2-OT as below:

1.  $S$  and  $R$  generate secret bits  $x$  and  $y$  respectively,
2. Since  $S$  doesn't know the value of  $y$ , it sends both  $x \text{ op } 0$  and  $x \text{ op } 1$  to the OT machine,
3.  $R$  sends  $y$  to the machine, and receives  $x \text{ op } y$  according to  $y$ .

Here,  $R$  only knows the outcome of  $x \text{ op } y$  without knowing  $x$ ,  $S$  knows all possible outcomes without learning  $y$ .



**Figure 3:** Example of 1-2-oblivious transfer

## 2 Secret Sharing

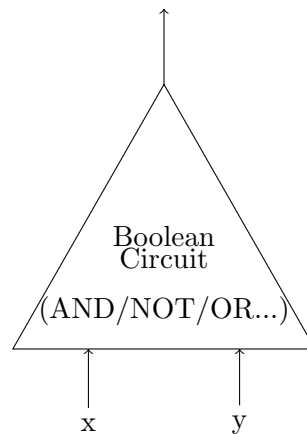
Secret Sharing (SS) refers to methods for distributing a secret among a group, in such a way that no individual holds intelligible information about the secret bits, but when a sufficient number of individuals combine their 'shares', the secret can be reconstructed.

Suppose we want to secretly share a bit  $b$  with A and B. We can coin-flip a random bit  $r$ , and give  $\alpha = r$  to A, give  $\beta = b \oplus r$  to B. In this case, we can reconstruct  $b$  by XOR  $\alpha$  and

$\beta$ . For A and B, the bit they get looks totally random, which means both of them can't figure out  $b$  only with their piece of share.

## 2.1 A Solution for Secret Sharing Boolean Circuit Computation

Boolean circuit is a circuit which turns inputs into boolean bit. It's structure is shown as Fig. 4.



**Figure 4:** Boolean circuit

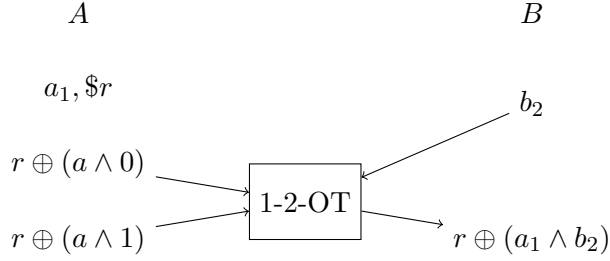
Suppose there are two honest-but-curious players, A and B, each has a portion of the inputs to a boolean circuit and wish to determine the output without revealing their inputs. They can do this using secret sharing.

For **XOR** circuit, let A has  $a_1, a_2$ , B has  $b_1, b_2$ , they want to compute  $F = (a_1 \oplus b_1) \oplus (a_2 \oplus b_2)$ . Because of the commutative and associative property of XOR, we can safely conclude that  $(a_1 \oplus b_1) \oplus (a_2 \oplus b_2) = (a_1 \oplus a_2) \oplus (b_1 \oplus b_2)$ . Therefore, A and B can xor their pieces of bits first, and xor the result of A and B to generate the final output. Since xor of two bits can be seen as a coin-flip, and one player doesn't know the composition of the two bits of the other, therefore the output of  $a_1 \oplus a_2$  ( $b_1 \oplus b_2$ ) is totally random to B (A). Thus, they can get the final output of XOR without leaking information to the other player.

For **AND** circuit, things are a little bit more complex. Let A has  $a_1, a_2$ , B has  $b_1, b_2$ , and they want to compute  $F = (a_1 \oplus b_1) \wedge (a_2 \oplus b_2)$ . First we unfold this formula:

$$(a_1 \oplus b_1) \wedge (a_2 \oplus b_2) = (a_1 \wedge a_2) \oplus (a_1 \wedge b_2) \oplus (a_2 \wedge b_1) \oplus (b_1 \wedge b_2)$$

where  $(a_1 \wedge a_2)$  can be directly calculated by A and  $(b_1 \wedge b_2)$  can be calculated by B. Next we compute  $(a_1 \wedge b_2)$  and  $(a_2 \wedge b_1)$  with 1-2-oblivious transfer.



**Figure 5:** Computation of  $a_1 \wedge b_2$  for AND circuit

An intuition solution to compute  $a_1 \wedge b_2$  is, as what we did in 1-2-OT part,  $A$  sends  $(a_1 \wedge 0)$  and  $(a_1 \wedge 1)$  to the OT machine,  $B$  sends  $b_2$  to the machine, and  $B$  receives  $(a_1 \wedge b_2)$ . However, there is a potential risk of leaking  $a_1$  to  $B$ . If  $a_1 \wedge b_2 = 1$ , then there is no doubt that  $a_1 = 1$ ; or if  $a_1 \wedge b_2 = 0$  and  $b_2 = 1$ , then  $B$  will know  $a_1 = 0$ .

Therefore, to ensure the secret sharing, we add a random bit  $r$  to hide  $a_1$ . Specifically,  $A$  chooses a random bit  $r$ , and sends  $r \oplus (a_1 \wedge 0)$  and  $r \oplus (a_1 \wedge 1)$  to the OT machine, and  $B$  receives  $r \oplus (a_1 \wedge b_2)$ . Since  $r$  is totally unknown to  $B$ , for any outcome it receives, the probability of  $a_1 = 1$  and  $a_1 = 0$  is the same for  $B$ , and thus we secure the sharing process. To eliminate the influence of  $r$  in the final  $F$ ,  $A$  will do xor for  $a_1 \wedge a_2$ . Since for any  $x$ ,  $x \oplus x = 0$ , therefore  $(a_1 \wedge a_2) \oplus (a_1 \wedge b_2) = (r \oplus (a_1 \wedge a_2)) \oplus (r \oplus (a_1 \wedge b_2))$ . The process of calculating  $a_2 \wedge b_1$  is the same. Thus, the final formula will be like this:

$$F = (r_1 \oplus r_2 \oplus (a_1 \wedge a_2)) \oplus (r_1 \oplus (a_1 \wedge b_2)) \oplus (r_2 \oplus (a_2 \wedge b_1)) \oplus (b_1 \wedge b_2)$$

, where  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are random bits picked for calculating  $a_1 \wedge b_2$  and  $a_2 \wedge b_1$  respectively.

Some problems for thought:

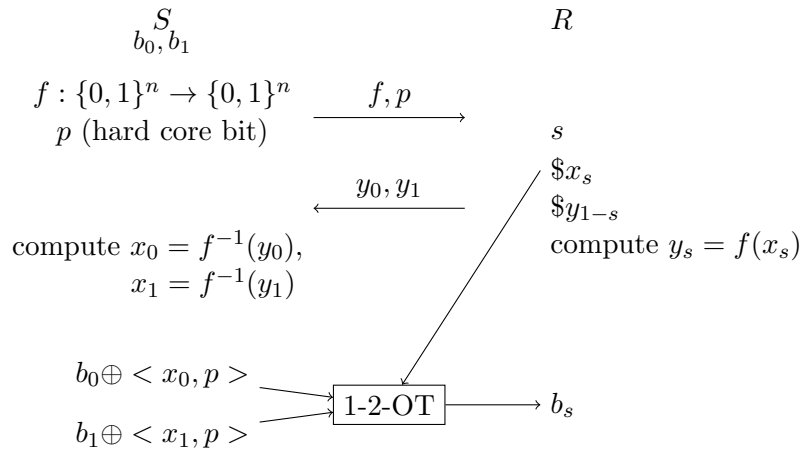
1. For  $n$  ( $n > 1$ ) non-collusion players, at least how many random bits are needed to compute the AND circuit of all players without leaking any information, i.e.,  $x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge \dots \wedge x_n$ , where  $x_i$  is the secret bit of Player  $i$ ? Currently, researchers already proved that 2 random bits are necessary, and 8 bits are sufficient.
2. If there are more than two players, what will happen if players collude?

### 3 Construct 1-2-OT with Trapdoor One-Way Permutation Family

Suppose  $S$  has two message  $b_0, b_1$  to be transfer, we can construct a 1-2-OT with a trapdoor one-way permutation family through the following process:

1.  $S$  picks a trapdoor one-way permutation  $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ ,  $p$  is its hard core bit, and  $S$  knows its trapdoor while  $R$  doesn't
2.  $S$  sends  $f$  and  $p$  to  $R$
3.  $R$  randomly picks an  $x_s$  with selected bit  $s$ , and compute  $y_s = f(x_s)$ . Then  $R$  randomly picks a  $y_{1-s}$  and sends  $y_0, y_1$  (i.e.  $y_s, y_{1-s}$ ) to  $S$
4.  $S$  compute  $x_0 = f^{-1}(y_0)$ ,  $x_1 = f^{-1}(y_1)$  using the trapdoor, and sends  $b_0 \oplus \langle x_0, p \rangle$  and  $b_1 \oplus \langle x_1, p \rangle$  to the OT machine
5.  $R$  sends  $x_s$  to the OT machine and receives  $b_s \oplus \langle x_s, p \rangle$ , and then computes  $b_s$  using  $x_s$  and  $p$

Since  $R$  knows  $x_s$  and  $p$ , it can compute  $b_s$  in polynomial time. However, for  $b_{1-s}$ ,  $R$  doesn't know  $x_{1-s}$  because  $f$  is a one-way permutation and  $R$  doesn't have the trapdoor. As a result,  $R$  cannot open  $b_{1-s}$ . In this way, we construct a 1-2-oblivious transfer with a trapdoor one-way permutation.



**Figure 6:** 1-2-OT with Trapdoor One-Way Permutation