

Making Private Function Evaluation Safer, Faster, and Simpler

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Abstract. In the problem of two-party *private function evaluation* (PFE), one party P_A holds a *private function* f and (optionally) a private input x_A , while the other party P_B possesses a private input x_B . Their goal is to evaluate f on x_A and x_B , and one or both parties may obtain the evaluation result $f(x_A, x_B)$ while no other information beyond $f(x_A, x_B)$ is revealed.

In this paper, we revisit the two-party PFE problem and provide several enhancements. We propose the *first* constant-round actively secure PFE protocol with linear complexity. Based on this result, we further provide the *first* constant-round publicly verifiable covertly (PVC) secure PFE protocol with linear complexity to gain better efficiency. For instance, when the deterrence factor is $\epsilon = 1/2$, compared to the passively secure protocol, its communication cost is very close and its computation cost is around $2.6\times$. In our constructions, as a by-product, we design a specific protocol for proving that a list of ElGamal ciphertexts is derived from an *extended permutation* performed on a given list of elements. It should be noted that this protocol greatly improves the previous result and may be of independent interest. In addition, a reusability property is added to our two PFE protocols. Namely, if the same function f is involved in multiple executions of the protocol between P_A and P_B , then the protocol could be executed more efficiently from the second execution. Moreover, we further extend this property to be *global*, such that it supports multiple executions for the same f in a reusable fashion between P_A and *arbitrary* parties playing the role of P_B .

Keywords: Extended permutation · Private function evaluation · Publicly verifiable covert security · Secure two-party computation.

1 Introduction

The two-party *private function evaluation* (PFE) problem considers the scenario where a party P_A holds a *private function* f and (optionally) a private input x_A while the other party P_B has another private input x_B . These two parties intend to compute $f(x_A, x_B)$ without the existence of a third party. Finally, one or both parties may obtain $f(x_A, x_B)$, while they cannot deduce any other information beyond their specified outputs during the interaction. As a special case of secure computation, note that PFE is different from the notion of standard *secure function evaluation* (SFE). The key difference is that the function f is *commonly known* by participants in SFE, while f should *remain private* in PFE, in the sense that *everything* about the function, except an upper bound on its size and the lengths of both input and output, is hidden.

Both data and algorithms are valuable in numerous real-world scenarios, such as medical and commercial applications. For instance, we consider the following business scenario between a traditional enterprise and an algorithm-driven company. The traditional enterprise has a dataset, while the algorithm-driven company holds a powerful data mining algorithm that can process this dataset. On the one hand, the algorithm-driven company does not intend to disclose the algorithm. On the other hand, since the dataset may contain sensitive data, the traditional enterprise is unwilling to reveal the dataset to others. We note that this dilemma can be solved by a PFE protocol that allows the traditional enterprise to receive the result of privately running the algorithm on the dataset.

It is trivial to design a PFE protocol based on fully homomorphic encryption (FHE) schemes [17]. However, the efficiency of FHE schemes is still prohibitive, and researchers attempted to design PFE in the setting of traditional multi-party computation (MPC). In the literature, some PFE protocols specify a *limited* set of functions, such as polynomials [12, 35, 31] and low-depth circuits [38], while others are *general-purpose*, focusing on functions implemented by arbitrary (polynomial-size) circuits [1]. In this paper, we work on general-purpose PFE protocols, and thus the PFE protocols mentioned in the rest of this paper are assumed to be general-purpose.

To construct general-purpose PFE protocols, there exist two main approaches. The first approach reduces the PFE problem to the problem of secure computation for universal circuits (UC) (see [40, 26, 24, 29, 18, 42, 2, 30]). UC refers to a sequence of circuits $U = \{U_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, each of which can take as input (the description of) a circuit C of size n and a valid input x , and output $C(x) \leftarrow U_n(C, x)$. Therefore, we can combine UC with traditional MPC techniques, such as Yao's garbled circuits [41, 28], to obtain PFE protocols. The major goal of this line of work is to reduce the size of UC and improve the traditional MPC techniques. However, a noted barrier of UC-based PFE protocol is that a (Boolean) UC has (optimal) size $|U_n| = \Theta(n \log n)$ [40], where the constant factor (more than 12 for the state-of-the-art result [30]) and the low-order terms are significant. Hence, when the size of a circuit used for evaluation is relatively large, the considerable expansion of its size caused by the use of UC makes UC-based PFE prohibitive.

The second approach avoids the usage of UC. In 2011, Katz and Malka [22] proposed a constant-round passively secure two-party PFE protocol applied on Boolean circuits, and the protocol achieves linear complexity in circuit size. This linear-complexity PFE protocol has asymptotically less computation and communication complexity than UC-based PFE protocols that have complexity $\Theta(n \log n)$. Very recently, an implementation [20] of the passively secure PFE protocol [22] showed that this protocol outperforms the state-of-the-art UC-based PFE protocol not only in communication but also in total running time, *e.g.*, it is $\sim 3.3\times$ faster in a LAN and $\sim 7.0\times$ faster in a WAN for private circuits of size 10^6 . Subsequently, the work [33] introduced a general framework for designing PFE protocols. This general framework captures the idea of [22] and provides a slight improvement in communication cost. In addition, a PFE protocol based on *oblivious evaluation of switching networks* (OSN) was provided in [33] and was later improved in [8]. However, it is shown [2, 7] that OSN-based PFE protocols have $\Theta(n \log n)$ computation and communication complexities limit their usage when the size of circuits is considerable. More recently, a passively secure re-executable PFE protocol with linear complexity was proposed in [7]. With this reusability property, it is shown [7] that this protocol has significantly better performance than the PFE protocol in [22] and [33] when the protocol is executed any number (more than one) of times for the same function by the same two parties.

Since parties may deviate from the protocol to gain more advantages, such as learning the other party’s input and affecting the output of the protocol, it is more realistic to consider PFE protocols that are secure under stronger security models. Unfortunately, even though the line of work for PFE protocols with linear complexity has better performance theoretically and experimentally, existing protocols are mainly focused on the semi-honest model, and very few results managed to provide protocols in stronger security models.

To the best of our knowledge, only two papers considered PFE protocols with linear complexity that are secure against malicious adversaries. The seminal work [22] introduced how to compile their passively secure PFE protocol to be secure against malicious P_B , *i.e.*, the party that provides the private input x_B , via specific efficient zero-knowledge protocols. However, the security of the compiled protocol is not full-fledged, and the function provider P_A is required to be semi-honest. The subsequent work [34] proposed an actively secure PFE framework with linear complexity based on the results in [33]. However, the number of rounds in this protocol is equal to the number of gates for the evaluated circuit. This will simply become a bottleneck when the size of the circuit is considerable.

Besides the malicious model, there is no PFE protocol with linear complexity in other security models. We notice that the *publicly verifiable covert* (PVC) model is particularly useful for many scenarios that PFE protocols may apply to. *Covert security* was introduced by Aumann and Lindell [4]. It serves as a compromise between semi-honest and malicious security definitions, and thereby provides a more realistic security guarantee than semi-honest security and has significantly less overhead than malicious security. Informally, a mali-

cious party is still allowed to covertly deviate from the protocol execution in this model. However, this misbehavior will be detected by honest parties with a certain probability ϵ , which is called *deterrence factor*. The fear of being caught will deter participants from acting maliciously and deviating from the protocol. The PVC security notion that enhances the covert security model was introduced by Asharov and Orlandi in 2012 [3]. PVC security guarantees that once the misbehavior of a malicious party is caught, honest parties could generate a publicly verifiable certificate to persuade others, including those outside the protocol, that the malicious party is cheating. Meanwhile, it should be guaranteed that this malicious party learns no information about the inputs of honest parties even when the certificate is given. This notion significantly strengthens the covert security model especially when parties’ reputations are important. A general PVC-secure two-party computation protocol was proposed in [3] based on garbled circuits and the Signed-OT technique. Then the Signed-OT protocol was improved in [25] to obtain a more efficient PVC-secure protocol. Subsequently, an elegant protocol [21] using a derandomized approach was proposed in 2019. Avoiding the use of costly Signed-OT, this protocol is more efficient than the previous protocols. In the meantime, another protocol [43] introduced a notion called financially secure computation that combines a PVC-secure protocol with blockchain. Very recently, compilers that can transform a two-party passively secure protocol to a PVC-secure protocol were introduced [14, 15, 39]. It is easy to see that PVC security is useful for two-party PFE protocols in many realistic scenarios. Note that all existing results for two-party PVC security [3, 25, 21, 14, 15, 39] are only designed for SFE, *i.e.*, the function f is *publicly known*. Although UC can be integrated into these frameworks to derive a PVC-secure PFE protocol, so far there is no PVC-secure PFE protocol with linear complexity.

Therefore, the following question is open so far:

Can we construct a constant-round actively secure and a constant-round PVC-secure PFE protocols with linear complexity in the two-party setting while avoiding strong primitives such as FHE?

In this paper, we answer this question. In addition, we borrow the idea of [7] to realize a reusability property for our protocols and further extend it *globally*. A comparison of main properties for all PFE protocols *with linear complexity* is summarized in Table 1.

1.1 Our Results

We summarize our results and main contributions in this paper as follows.

Active security. We provide the *first* constant-round actively secure PFE protocol with linear complexity in the two-party setting. More precisely, we design a constant-round two-party PFE protocol that is secure against malicious function owner P_A and semi-honest private input provider P_B . Then by leveraging classical MPC results for security against malicious P_B providing private input values, such as the approach used in [22], we can automatically

Table 1: Comparison of the main properties for all PFE protocols with linear complexity.

Paper	Security	# Round	Reusable?
[22]	Passive	Constant	No.
[33]	Passive	Constant	No.
[34]	Active	# Gates	No.
[7]	Passive	Constant	Yes, for two parties.
This paper	Active	Constant	Yes, global reusability.
This paper	PVC	Constant	Yes, global reusability.

obtain the desirable actively secure protocol. Our protocol is composed of an *initiation* phase and an *evaluation* phase.

PVC security. Based on the techniques of our actively secure PFE protocol, we design the *first* constant-round PVC-secure PFE protocol with linear complexity in the two-party setting to gain much better efficiency. This protocol inherits the two-phase structure. It is noted that the additional overhead to achieve PVC security is very light from both computation and communication aspects, *e.g.*, when the deterrence factor is $\epsilon = 1/2$, compared to the passively secure protocol, its communication cost is very close and its computation cost is around $2.6\times$.

Efficiency improvement. We provide the sub-protocol Π_{zk}^{EncEP} as a core component for our actively secure and PVC-secure protocols. This protocol is designed for proving that a list of ElGamal [16] ciphertexts is derived from an *extended permutation* (see Definition 3) performed on a given list of elements. A generic construction for such a purpose was originally given in [34], and it is left open whether it is possible to construct such a protocol in a specific approach to gaining better performance. Our protocol answers this open problem, and improves the generic construction [34] significantly: the communication cost of our protocol is less than $1/56$ of the generic construction, and the computation cost is less than 36%.

Reusability (simplified follow-up executions). The reusability property is added to both of our two PFE protocols. When two specified parties intend to evaluate the same private function f on different private inputs, they only need to go through the initiation phase at one time and then execute the evaluation phase multiple times with different inputs. Moreover, we extend this property *globally*. Namely, once an initiation for a private f is performed by the function owner P_A , *arbitrary* private input providers playing the role of P_B can benefit from the reusability property for f .

2 Preliminaries

We use $|S|$ to denote the size of a set S and $\|S\|$ to denote the number of bits required to represent elements in the set S . We write $x \leftarrow_s S$ for uniformly sam-

pling an element x from the set S . For a positive integer n , let $[n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$. For a bit string x , we use $x[i]$ to represent the i th bit of x . We write a vector named a as $\vec{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_n)$, and use $\vec{0}$ and $\vec{1}$ to denote a vector where all entries are equal to 0 and 1 when its dimension is clear in the context, respectively. Let $\vec{a}\vec{b} = (a_1b_1, \dots, a_nb_n)$ denote the Hadamard product of two vectors \vec{a} and \vec{b} , $\vec{a} \circ \vec{b} = (a_1, \dots, a_{n_a}, b_1, \dots, b_{n_b})$ the concatenation of vectors, $\vec{a}^T\vec{b} = \sum_i a_i b_i$ the inner product, and $\vec{g}^{\vec{a}} = \prod_i g_i^{a_i}$ the multi-exponentiation. For a scalar c and a vector \vec{a} , the scalar product is $c\vec{a} = (ca_1, \dots, ca_n)$.

Let κ be the computational security parameter, and κ is written in unary as input to all algorithms. A function f in a variable κ mapping natural numbers to $[0, 1]$ is *negligible* if $f(\kappa) = \mathcal{O}(\kappa^{-c})$ for every constant $c > 0$. We say that $1 - f$ is *overwhelming* if f is negligible.

Given a seed $\in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$, we can use a pseudorandom function with seed as the key in the CTR mode to derive sufficiently many pseudorandom numbers and use them as random coins for operations in protocols.

We use **Com** to denote the (non-interactive) commitment scheme. We write **decom** as the random coins for a commitment, which can be used to open this commitment. The commitment scheme **Com** achieves (computationally) binding and hiding properties. We will use a signature scheme (**KGen**, **Sig**, **Vf**) that is existentially unforgeable under chosen-message attacks (EUF-CMA) for our PVC-secure protocol in Section 4.

The oblivious transfer (OT) functionality \mathcal{F}_{OT} is presented below. Let Π_{OT} be the protocol that securely realizes a parallel version of \mathcal{F}_{OT} .

Functionality \mathcal{F}_{OT}

Private inputs: P_A has input $x \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ and P_B has input $\{(A_{i,0}, A_{i,1})\}_{i \in [\lambda]}$.

Upon receiving $x \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ from P_A and $\{(A_{i,0}, A_{i,1})\}_{i \in [\lambda]}$ from P_B , the functionality sends $\{A_{i,x[i]}\}_{i \in [\lambda]}$ to P_A .

The security of our protocol relies on the decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) assumption as follows.

Definition 1. *The decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) assumption in a cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ of prime order $q \in \Theta(2^\kappa)$ is that given (g^a, g^b) for $a, b \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$, g^{ab} is computationally indistinguishable from a random element in \mathbb{G} .*

Under the DDH assumption, we have the following lemma.

Lemma 1 ([36]). *Under the DDH assumption for the cyclic group \mathbb{G} of prime order $q \in \Theta(2^\kappa)$, for any positive integer $n = \text{poly}(\kappa)$, given $g_1, \dots, g_n \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{G}$, we have that $(g_1^{\alpha_1}, \dots, g_n^{\alpha_n})$ is computationally indistinguishable from $(g_1^\alpha, \dots, g_n^\alpha)$ for $\alpha, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$.*

It is well-known that the DDH assumption implies the discrete logarithm assumption, which is equivalent to the following assumption.

Definition 2. *The discrete logarithm relation assumption in a cyclic group \mathbb{G} of prime order $q \in \Theta(2^\kappa)$ is that for any positive integer $n = \text{poly}(\kappa)$, given*

$g_1, \dots, g_n \leftarrow_s \mathbb{G}$, it is computationally hard to find $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}_q$, such that $\exists a_i \neq 0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q \wedge \prod_{i=1}^n g_i^{a_i} = 1$. We call $\prod_{i=1}^n g_i^{a_i} = 1$ a nontrivial discrete logarithm relation.

We use the ElGamal encryption scheme in our protocol. This encryption scheme is over the cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ of prime order q , and it is indistinguishable under chosen plaintext attack (IND-CPA) under the DDH assumption for \mathbb{G} . We provide the description of algorithms for the scheme as follows.

Key Generation. This algorithm takes as input the security parameter 1^κ , picks $s \leftarrow_s \mathbb{Z}_q$, and sets $h \leftarrow g^s$. Then the algorithm outputs the public key $\text{pk} \leftarrow (\mathbb{G}, q, g, h)$ and the private key $\text{sk} \leftarrow s$.

Encryption. This algorithm takes as input a message $m \in \mathbb{G}$ and a public key pk , and returns the ciphertext $c \leftarrow (c^{(0)} = g^r, c^{(1)} = mh^r)$ for $r \leftarrow_s \mathbb{Z}_q$.

Decryption. This algorithm takes as input a ciphertext $c = (c^{(0)}, c^{(1)})$ and a key pair (pk, sk) , and returns $m \leftarrow c^{(1)} / (c^{(0)})^s$.

The ElGamal encryption scheme is multiplicatively homomorphic, such that the multiplication result of two ciphertexts is the ciphertext of the multiplication result of the two corresponding plaintexts. Computing the power of a ciphertext c also derives the ciphertext for the power of the corresponding plaintext of c .

2.1 Circuit Representation and Extended Permutation

Here, we introduce an approach to describing Boolean circuits with arbitrary fan-out (see an example circuit C_f in Fig. 1). For a circuit, we call a wire *outgoing wire* (denoted by OW) if it is an input wire of the circuit or output wire of a gate. Meanwhile, a wire is called *incoming wire* (denoted by IW) if it is the input wire of a gate. Outgoing wires are connected with incoming wires, in the sense that each incoming wire connects with exactly one outgoing wire while an outgoing wire may connect with an arbitrary number (including 0) of incoming wires. Suppose that a circuit consists of θ gates, n input bits, and m output bits. Then this circuit has $n + \theta$ outgoing wires and 2θ incoming wires. For a gate G_i , its output wire is the outgoing wire OW_{n+i} and its two input wires are the incoming wires IW_{2i-1} and IW_{2i} . The last m gates are the output gates of the circuit. Fig. 1(b) lists all gates $(G_i)_i$ inside the circuit C_f . A formal description of the connections between incoming wires and outgoing wires is captured by [33] via extended permutation.

Definition 3 ([33]). For positive integers N and M , a mapping $\pi : [N] \rightarrow [M]$ is an extended permutation (EP) if for every $x \in [N]$, there exists one $y \in [M]$, such that $y = \pi(x)$.

Given an index of an incoming wire, π maps it to the index of the outgoing wire that connects with this incoming wire (see example in Fig. 1(c)). Note that different from the one-to-one correspondence mapping of the standard permutation, EP allows to replicate or omit elements during the mapping.

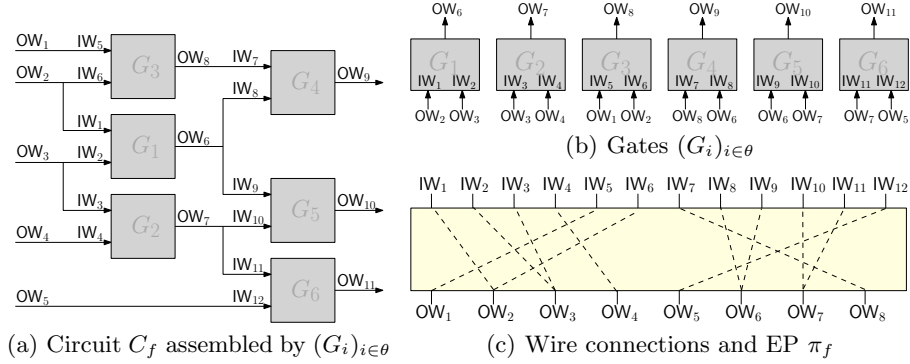


Fig. 1: A circuit C_f and the illustration of its wire connections and EP π_f .

Given a set of gates $(G_i)_{i \in [\theta]}$, the circuit owner P_A holding the description of a circuit C_f can follow the (randomized) procedure below to assign $(G_i)_{i \in [\theta]}$ to positions of gates in C_f and derive an EP π_f from the resulting circuit assembled by this set of gates.

1. Sort indices for non-output gate positions of C_f in a topological order, such that if the output wire of the i th gate is connected with the input wire of the j th gate, then i must be smaller than j . The indices of output gates are from $\theta - m + 1$ to θ .
2. Pick a random standard permutation π_R . For non-output gates with indices $i \in [\theta - m]$, the position for the i th gate of C_f is assigned to gate $G_{\pi_R(i)}$.
3. For all output gates with indices $i = \theta - m + 1, \dots, \theta$, assign gate G_i to the position of the i th gate.
4. Extract the EP π_f for connections of outgoing wires and incoming wires from the resulting circuit.

When we consider a circuit that only includes one type of gates, *e.g.*, NAND gates, the circuit can be exactly described by the corresponding EP. Now given π_f , it is easy to derive the description of the circuit. Our protocol indeed leverages this idea and assumes that circuits only consist of NAND gates for simplicity.

2.2 Building Blocks

In Table 2, we present two zero-knowledge ideal functionalities \mathcal{F}_{zk}^{DH} and \mathcal{F}_{zk}^{EncEP} associated with the relations R_{DH} and R_{EncEP} for the cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ of prime order q as building blocks for our protocols. We will introduce how to instantiate them in Section 3.

3 PFE Protocol for Active Security

In this section, we introduce our constant-round two-party PFE protocol. This protocol is secure against malicious P_A and semi-honest P_B . Note that it is

Table 2: Relations and their zero-knowledge ideal functionalities.

Relation	Functionality
$R_{\text{DH}} = \{(\mathbb{G}, q, \{g_i\}_{i \in [N]}, \{h_i\}_{i \in [N]}) \mid \exists x, s.t. \bigwedge_{i \in [N]} (h_i = g_i^x)\}$	$\mathcal{F}_{\text{zk}}^{\text{DH}}$
$R_{\text{EncEP}} = \{(\mathbb{G}, q, g, h, \{g_i\}_{i \in [M]}, \{(c_i^{(0)}, c_i^{(1)})\}_{i \in [N]}) \mid \exists \{r_i\}_{i \in [N]}, \pi, s.t. \\ c_i^{(0)} = g^{r_i} \wedge c_i^{(1)} = g_{\pi(i)} h^{r_i} \wedge \pi \text{ is an EP.}\}$	$\mathcal{F}_{\text{zk}}^{\text{EncEP}}$

straightforward to obtain a constant-round actively secure PFE protocol with linear complexity by leveraging classical MPC results, such as the approach used in [22], to compile the protocol to be secure against malicious (circuit grabler) P_B providing private input values.

In PFE, a party P_A has a private Boolean circuit input C_f (implementing a function f) and private input $x_A \in \{0, 1\}^{n_A}$, whereas the other party P_B has private input $x_B \in \{0, 1\}^{n_B}$. We present the ideal functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{activePFE}}$ for our protocol in the following. Here we consider the more general case that the circuit holder P_A has an input $x_A \in \{0, 1\}^{n_A}$, and it is not difficult to modify the protocols to the case that P_A has the private input C_f only. For the sake of simplicity, we assume that only one party will receive the evaluation result. It is also possible to modify the protocol such that both parties can receive the final result (see [19, Section 2.5.2]).

Functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{activePFE}}$

Pre-agreement: The circuit consists of θ gates, m output wires, and $n (= n_A + n_B)$ input wires.

Private inputs: P_A has a Boolean circuit input C_f and input $x_A \in \{0, 1\}^{n_A}$, whereas the other party P_B has input $x_B \in \{0, 1\}^{n_B}$.

1. If an input of the form **abort** _{i} from the party P_i for $i \in \{A, B\}$ is received, the ideal functionality sends \perp to both parties and terminates.
2. If an input circuit C_f satisfying the pre-agreement from P_A is received, store C_f .
3. If $x_A \in \{0, 1\}^{n_A}$ from P_A and $x_B \in \{0, 1\}^{n_B}$ from P_B are received and an input circuit C_f is stored, the ideal functionality computes $C_f(x_A, x_B)$.
 - (a) If P_i (which is corrupted by \mathcal{A}) is allowed to learn $C_f(x_A, x_B)$, then it sends $C_f(x_A, x_B)$ to P_i .
 - (b) Otherwise, the ideal functionality sends **nothing** to the corrupted P_i . Then if the message **continue** from \mathcal{A} is received, the ideal functionality sends $C_f(x_1, x_2)$ to the honest party. Otherwise, if **abort** _{i} is received from \mathcal{A} on behalf of the corrupted P_i , it sends \perp to the honest party.

3.1 Full Description of the Protocol

We now give a full description of our protocol $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$. Our protocol consists of two phases: initiation and evaluation. In the initiation phase, two parties prepare required data for later evaluations of C_f . Then given the preprocessed

data from the initiation phase, P_A and P_B evaluate C_f on their inputs x_A and x_B in the evaluation phase. At the end of the protocol, parties obtain their outputs specified by $\mathcal{F}_{\text{activePFE}}$, *i.e.*, the evaluation result $C_f(x_A, x_B)$ or **nothing**. For the first execution of the protocol, P_A and P_B together execute the initiation phase and evaluation phase sequentially. Then, if the two parties would like to evaluate the same circuit C_f on different inputs, they now only need to execute the evaluation phase using the information previously generated in the initiation phase. This reusability property will be further extended to global reusability (see Remark 2). Note that in our protocols, we consider the Boolean circuit C_f only consists of NAND gates for simplicity. We use the cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ of prime order q as above.

Here, we briefly present the main flow of the protocol. In the initiation phase, P_A derives an EP from her private circuit C_f and establishes connections of wire labels between incoming and outgoing wires, while P_B 's tasks are to assist P_A and ensure that P_A honestly follows the protocol. Then in the evaluation phase, different from the standard paradigm of garbled circuits, we let P_B *obviously* garble (all gates of) the circuit for P_A . Then P_A can evaluate the corresponding garbled circuit, since she knows the topology of her circuit and the connections of wire labels established in the initiation phase.

In this initiation phase, P_B first chooses a list G of $M = n + \theta - m$ different elements from \mathbb{G} and sends G to P_A . This list G will be used to derive the labels of outgoing wires except those that are output wires of the circuit. After receiving the list G , P_A generates an ElGamal encryption key pair. Then P_A derives the EP π_f from the circuit C_f following the procedure in Section 2.1. Now P_A performs the EP π_f on G and encrypts all elements of the resulting list to obtain the list Φ , where the i th encrypted elements in Φ are of the form $g_{\pi(i)}$. The list Φ is then sent to P_B . The EP here is to establish the connections between the outgoing wires (except output wires of the circuit since they do not connect with other wires) and the incoming wires for the further generation of wire labels, and the resulting list is encrypted to hide the EP from P_B . Then P_A picks a list $T = [t_1, \dots, t_N]$ for $t_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ as the *blinding factors*. Using the homomorphic property, P_A can compute the t_i th power of the plaintext of c_i for all c_i 's in Φ and obtain the resulting list Φ' , where the i th element is the encryption of $g_{\pi_f(i)}^{t_i}$. We note that here t_i is used to blind the encrypted values in Φ , such that P_B still does not know the base $g_{\pi_f(i)}$ when the element $g_{\pi_f(i)}^{t_i}$ is given later, and thus π_f and C_f are hidden. Finally, P_A helps P_B to decrypt all elements of Φ' to derive $P = [p_1, \dots, p_N]$, where $p_i = g_{\pi_f(i)}^{t_i}$. In Fig. 2, we give an illustration of the procedure that the circuit owner P_A will go through in the initiation phase for the previous example (Fig. 1).

During this procedure, to gain active security, it is important that P_A should prove in zero-knowledge that her operations are valid using the building blocks in Section 2.2. After the initiation phase, P_B holds the two lists G and P , while P_A holds the list T , together with lists G and P .

At the beginning of the evaluation phase, P_B generates labels for all wires. For the output wires of the circuit, P_B randomly generates wire labels representing 0

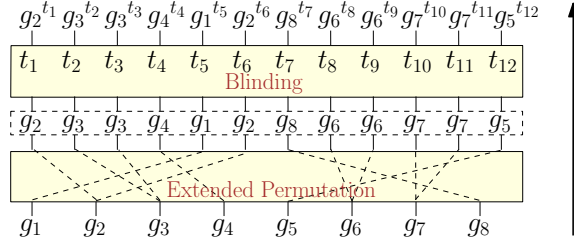


Fig. 2: Procedure of the circuit owner P_A in the initiation phase. The values in the dotted-line box are encrypted values that are hidden from P_B .

and 1 from \mathbb{G} . For labels of other wires, P_B first picks randomly two values $\alpha_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $\alpha_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_q$. Then, all incoming-wire and outgoing-wire labels, except the outgoing wires that are output wires of the circuit (whose have been generated), are generated via computing the values in the lists P and G to the power of α_0 and α_1 , respectively, for values 0 and 1. Here, each element p_i in P is for an incoming wire IW_i , and the pair of its wire labels is computed via $(v_i^0, v_i^1) \leftarrow (p_i^{\alpha_0}, p_i^{\alpha_1})$, *i.e.*, $(v_i^0, v_i^1) = (g_{\pi_f(i)}^{t_i \alpha_0}, g_{\pi_f(i)}^{t_i \alpha_1})$. Similarly, for an outgoing wire OW_i , the pair of wire labels $(w_i^0, w_i^1) \leftarrow (g_i^{\alpha_0}, g_i^{\alpha_1})$ is computed using g_i in G . P_B now can garble all θ gates of the circuit that are composed solely of NAND gates for P_A one by one using these labels via a classical approach for garbling gates as we will introduce later. Then P_B sends these garbled gates to P_A . Note that P_B is unaware of the EP π_f (and the topology of C_f). An illustration for wire labels with respect to garbled gates for the previous example (Fig. 1) is given in Fig. 3. Note that all input-wire labels of the circuit are generated and possessed by P_B ,

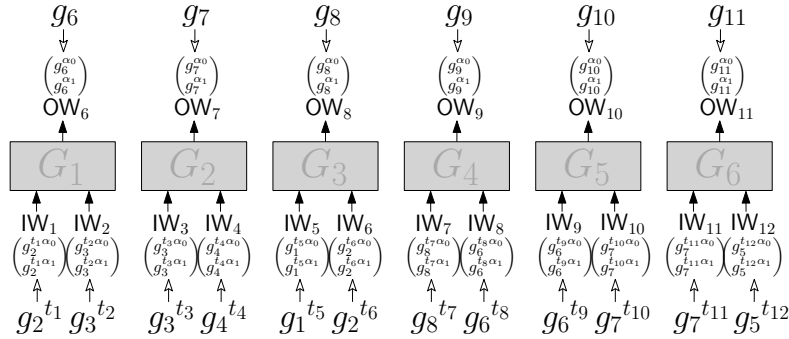


Fig. 3: Wire labels with respect to garbled gates for the circuit C_f .

and thus P_B picks out the input-wire labels corresponding to his input x_B and sends his garbled inputs to P_A . Meanwhile, P_A could retrieve the garbled inputs corresponding to her input x_A from P_B through OT. This approach inherits from the standard approach of garbled circuits. Now since P_A knows the topology of the

circuit, the list of blinding factors T , and input-wire labels, she can re-construct the garbled circuit assembled by the received garbled gates and evaluate the garbled circuit using both parties' input-wire labels $\{x_i\}_{i \in [n]}$.

We now introduce the approach to garbling gates and evaluating the garbled circuit assembled by garbled gates. Two algorithms (**Gb**, **Eval**) are involved here.

The algorithm **Gb** is invoked by P_B to generate garbled gates (in a one-by-one manner) for P_A . According to the circuit representation approach in Section 2.1, a gate G_i consists of two input wires, *i.e.*, incoming wires, with indices $2i - 1$ and $2i$, and one output wire, *i.e.*, an outgoing wire, with index $n + i$. For such a gate, **Gb** takes as input the gate index i , the two pairs of input-wire labels (v_{2i-1}^0, v_{2i-1}^1) and (v_{2i}^0, v_{2i}^1) , together with the pair of output-wire labels (w_{n+i}^0, w_{n+i}^1) , and prepares four ciphertexts: $c_i^{a,b} \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{v_{2i-1}^a, v_{2i}^b}^i(w_{n+i}^{a,b})$ for $a, b \in \{0, 1\}$ for a dual-key cipher **Enc**. **Gb** outputs the set of garbled gates $\{\text{GG}_i\}_{i \in [\theta]}$. Here $\text{GG}_i = \{c_i^{a,b}\}_{a,b \in \{0,1\}}$, where $c_i^{a,b}$ are randomly permuted.

Eval is invoked by P_A to evaluate the garbled circuit that consists of garbled gates generated by P_B . It takes as input a set of garbled gates $\{\text{GG}_i\}_{i \in [\theta]}$, a set of input-wire labels $\{x_i\}_{i \in [n]}$, the list of blinding factors $T = \{t_i\}_{i \in [N]}$, and an EP π_f . This algorithm first derives the description of the corresponding circuit C_f from π_f . Now starting from (outgoing-wire) labels $\{x_i\}_{i \in [n]}$, **Eval** computes incoming-wire labels from the corresponding outgoing-wire labels and evaluates garbled gates one by one following the topographical order of the circuit to obtain the final output-wire labels. Without loss of generality, for an outgoing wire OW_i , we denote its label in hand by w_i^b , where $b \in \{0, 1\}$. Note that each outgoing wire may connect with some incoming wires that are the input wires of some gates. Assume that an incoming wire IW_j is connected with OW_i , *i.e.*, $i = \pi_f(j)$. P_A can obtain the wire label of IW_j by computing the t_j th power of w_i^b , *i.e.*, $(w_i^b)^{t_j}$. It is easy to verify that $(w_i^b)^{t_j} = g_i^{\alpha_b t_j} = p_j^{\alpha_b} = w_j^b$, *i.e.*, the result is the input-wire (incoming-wire) label we want. When having two input-wire (incoming-wire) labels $(v_{2i-1}^b, v_{2i}^{b'})$, where $b, b' \in \{0, 1\}$, for a garbled gate GG_i , the algorithm can decrypt GG_i using these two labels as keys (via a simple reverse approach of **Enc**) and obtain the non- \perp resulting output-wire (outgoing-wire) label $w_{n+i}^{b-b'}$. It is easy to see that the values of the wire b and b' are hidden from P_A during this procedure. Since **Eval** follows the topology of the circuit, input-wire labels of a gate are always ready when we proceed to evaluate that gate. Finally, **Eval** returns the decrypted output-wire labels of the output gates.

The dual-key cipher **Enc** here can be constructed based on the random oracle (denoted by $H: \mathbb{G} \times \mathbb{G} \times \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\|\mathbb{G}\| \times \tau}$) in a standard way: to garble a gate with index i , we let $\text{Enc}_{v_{2i-1}^a, v_{2i}^b}^i(w_{n+i}^{a,b}) = H(v_{2i-1}^a, v_{2i}^b, i) \oplus w_{n+i}^{a,b}$,⁴ and further optimizations exist, *e.g.*, a variant of the point-and-permute optimization [6] (see [7]). This garbling scheme is secure under the random oracle model, and we refer readers to see more information in the full version [32].

We provide the formal descriptions of the protocol below.

⁴ The operator \oplus here is applied on the bit-representation of the right group element, and τ specifies the length of proper padding to ensure the check of correct decryption.

Protocol $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$

Pre-agreement: Both parties agree on a cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ of prime order q , where DDH assumption holds. They also have the pre-agreement that C_f consists of θ gates, m output wires, and $n(= n_A + n_B)$ input wires. We denote the number of incoming wires by $N \leftarrow 2\theta$ and the number of outgoing wires except those that are output wires of the circuit by $M \leftarrow n + \theta - m$.

Private inputs: P_A has a Boolean circuit input C_f and input $x_A \in \{0, 1\}^{n_A}$, whereas the other party P_B has input $x_B \in \{0, 1\}^{n_B}$.

Initiation Phase

In this phase, P_A has private circuit input C_f , while P_B has no input.

1. P_B picks $g_i \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{G}$ for $i \in [M]$, such that all g_i 's are different, and collects them as a list $G = [g_1, \dots, g_M]$. Then, P_B sends G to P_A .
2. P_A picks $s \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and computes $h \leftarrow g^s$. The public key and private key of the ElGamal encryption then is denoted by $\text{pk} = (\mathbb{G}, q, g, h)$ and $\text{sk} = s$, respectively.

P_A derives an EP π_f from C_f . Then P_A performs π_f on the elements of G and encrypts all resulting elements using pk to derive the list $\Phi = [c_1, c_2, \dots, c_N]$, where c_i is the encryption of $g_{\pi_f(i)}$ for $i \in [N]$.

P_A picks $t_i \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ for $i \in [N]$, such that all t_i 's are different, and stores the list $T = [t_1, \dots, t_N]$ for the evaluation phase. P_B computes the t_i th power of each plaintext $g_{\pi_f(i)}$ of c_i via the multiplicatively homomorphic property of the ElGamal encryption to obtain c'_i . Let the resulting list $\Phi' = [c'_1, \dots, c'_N]$.

P_A computes the information for decryption of all ciphertexts c'_i (remember that $c'_i = (c_i^{(0)}, c_i^{(1)})$), *i.e.*, P_A computes $d_i \leftarrow (c_i^{(0)})^s$ for $i \in [N]$.

P_A sends h , Φ , Φ' , and $\{d_i\}_{i \in [N]}$ to P_B . Then P_A uses the functionalities $\mathcal{F}_{\text{zk}}^{\text{EncEP}}$ to prove to P_B that she has performed a valid EP on G to obtain Φ . Meanwhile, P_A uses $\mathcal{F}_{\text{zk}}^{\text{DH}}$ to prove to P_B her knowledge of s , *i.e.*, the private key, for $(g, \{c_i^{(0)}\}_{i \in [N]})$ and $(h, \{d_i\}_{i \in [N]})$, together with her knowledge of t_i for the two-tuple ciphertexts c_i and c'_i for all $i \in [N]$.

3. P_B decrypts all c'_i 's to obtain the plaintexts $p_i \leftarrow c_i^{(1)} \cdot d_i^{-1}$, and stores a list $P = [p_1, \dots, p_N]$ for the evaluation phase.

Evaluation phase

In this phase, P_A has private input π_f (for C_f) and x_A , and P_B has private input x_B . P_B holds the two lists G and P derived in the initiation phase, while P_A holds the lists T , G , and P . This phase could be executed multiple times for different input x_A and x_B once the two parties finish the initiation phase.

1. For output wires of the circuit, P_B picks $w_i^0, w_i^1 \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{G}$ for $i = M+1, \dots, M+m$ as the wire labels. Then P_B picks $\alpha_0, \alpha_1 \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. For input wires of the circuit and output wires of non-output gates, *i.e.*, all outgoing wires except output wires of the circuit, P_B computes labels $w_i^0 \leftarrow g_i^{\alpha_0}$ and $w_i^1 \leftarrow g_i^{\alpha_1}$ for $i \in [M]$. For all incoming wires, P_B computes labels $v_i^0 \leftarrow p_i^{\alpha_0}$ and $v_i^1 \leftarrow p_i^{\alpha_1}$ for $i \in [N]$. P_B computes $\{\text{GG}_i\}_{i \in [\theta]} \leftarrow \text{Gb}(\{i, (v_{2i-1}^0, v_{2i-1}^1), (v_{2i}^0, v_{2i}^1), (w_{n+i}^0, w_{n+i}^1)\}_{i \in [\theta]})$. Here, for a gate with index i , (v_{2i-1}^0, v_{2i-1}^1) and (v_{2i}^0, v_{2i}^1) are the labels of the two input wires, and (w_{n+i}^0, w_{n+i}^1) are the labels of the output wire.

2. P_A and P_B execute \mathcal{F}_{OT} . P_B uses as input $\{(w_i^0, w_i^1)\}_{i \in [n_A]}$, while P_A uses as input all bits of $x_A \in \{0, 1\}^{n_A}$. At the end, P_A receives her garbled inputs $\{x_i = w_i^{x_A[i]}\}_{i \in [n_A]}$.
3. P_B derives $x_{n_A+i} \leftarrow w_{n_A+i}^{x_B[i]}$ for $i \in [n_B]$ as his garbled inputs. Then P_B sends $GC = \{GG_i\}_{i \in [\theta]}$ and $\{x_{n_A+i}\}_{i \in [n_B]}$ to P_A . If P_A is allowed to know the evaluation result, P_B also sends the garbled output mapping $\{(w_{M+i}^0, w_{M+i}^1)\}_{i \in [n]}$ to P_A .
4. P_A computes the garbled output: $\{y_i\}_{i \in [m]} \leftarrow \text{Eval}(GC, \{x_i\}_{i \in [n_A+n_B]}, T, \pi_f)$. If P_A is allowed to know the evaluation result $y \in \{0, 1\}^m$, P_A can derive and output y from the garbled output mapping he has received. If P_B is allowed to know the evaluation result, P_A sends $\{y_i\}_{i \in [m]}$ to P_B so that P_B could derive and output the final result. If the output-wire labels are not consistent with those P_B generated, P_B outputs \perp .

We present the theorem for the security of the protocol $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$ below.

Theorem 1. *If the dual-key cipher is constructed based on the random oracle as above and the DDH assumption of \mathbb{G} holds, the protocol $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$ securely realizes $\mathcal{F}_{\text{activePFE}}$ in the presence of malicious P_A and semi-honest P_B in the $(\mathcal{F}_{OT}, \mathcal{F}_{zk}^{\text{EncEP}}, \mathcal{F}_{zk}^{\text{DH}})$ -hybrid world.*

The proof of this theorem can be found in the full version [32].

We note that there exist protocols that securely realize \mathcal{F}_{OT} (e.g., [11, 23]), such that these protocols can be executed in parallel with constant-round and have linear complexity in the number of P_B 's input wires $n_A (\leq n \ll \theta)$. Meanwhile, there exist protocols (e.g., [13] that can be compiled by Fiat-Shamir heuristic to be non-interactive) that securely realizes $\mathcal{F}_{zk}^{\text{DH}}$, such that the complexity of the total execution of the protocols is linear in $N (= 2\theta)$, i.e., linear in the number of gates θ . In Section 3.2, we will give a realization of $\mathcal{F}_{zk}^{\text{EncEP}}$ that can also be compiled to be non-interactive and has linear complexity. Therefore, the protocol $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$ can be instantiated as a constant-round PFE protocol with linear complexity. By leveraging classical MPC results, such as the approach used in [22], our protocol can be compiled to be secure against malicious P_B and still preserves constant-round and linear complexity. Hence, we obtain a constant-round actively secure PFE protocol in the two-party setting with linear complexity.

Remark 1. The approach in [22] consider the case that P_A only provides a circuit C_f , while in some scenarios, P_A may also provide a private input x_A . For this case, we could simply use standard techniques, such as XOR-tree [27], to prevent malicious P_B launching selective-failure attacks.

In the following theorem, we show that executing the evaluation phase multiple times when the protocol involves the same circuit C_f (and EP π_f) does not sacrifice the security of the protocol $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$. The proof of this theorem is put in the full version [32].

Theorem 2. *The evaluation phase of $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$ can be securely executed multiple times for a fixed circuit C_f . In other words, the protocol that executes one initiation phase and multiple evaluation phases is secure against malicious P_A and semi-honest P_B .*

We note that every execution of the evaluation phase in the view of P_B is to generate a set of new garbled gates, and the efforts to achieve reusability are mainly devoted to preventing P_A from learning additional information. Therefore, when we use classical MPC results, such as the approach used in [22], for the protocol, it is obvious that this reusability property still holds.

Remark 2. It is important that all messages from P_B in the initiation phase, including those from P_B in the protocols that securely realize \mathcal{F}_{zk}^{DH} and \mathcal{F}_{zk}^{EncEP} (in Section 3.2) are all random. Meanwhile, after the initiation phase, P_B does not possess any private information. Therefore, we can make the initiation phase non-interactive via borrowing the idea of Fiat-Shamir heuristic. Now P_A can use the random oracle to generate messages of P_B (using all previous messages), simulate the interaction, and publish her messages in this simulated interaction at one time. Via this approach, the protocol is *globally* reusable for the same circuit C_f . This means that *all* parties playing the role of P_B can retrieve P_A 's messages and verify the correctness of these published messages. Then it is sufficient for them to directly start the evaluation phase with P_A for the fixed private circuit C_f multiple times using P and G derived in this simulated interaction. No interaction for initiation phase is needed between P_A and a potential party playing the role of P_B . This is a new feature, since the reusability of previous PFE protocols with linear complexity [7] is *locally* reusable, such that P_A needs to interactively perform a setup for a fixed circuit with a specified P_B , and the reusability only works for the two parties that perform such a setup together.

3.2 Realization of Functionality \mathcal{F}_{zk}^{EncEP}

In this section, we introduce an approach securely realizing the functionality \mathcal{F}_{zk}^{EncEP} . We would like to note that although EP is a generalization of permutation (shuffle), it seems that its corresponding zero-knowledge protocol cannot be constructed by simply modifying or invoking a shuffle protocol, *e.g.*, [5, 9]. That may be the main reason why [34] failed to provide such a specific protocol for EP by extending shuffle protocols (see Appendix B of [34] for their thoughts on failed attempts) and they only provided a protocol in a generic approach. In what follows, we provide an efficient and specific protocol for \mathcal{F}_{zk}^{EncEP} .

We firstly introduce the basic idea of our protocol. The job of the prover in \mathcal{F}_{zk}^{EncEP} is to convince the verifier that the plaintexts of a list of ciphertexts $\Phi = [c_1, \dots, c_N]$ is derived from an EP that performs on a list of elements $G = [g_1, \dots, g_M]$. In other words, the plaintext of each ciphertext in Φ is one of the elements in G . Notice that this is equivalent to saying that the plaintext of a ciphertext c_i is $\tilde{g}^{\vec{e}_i} = \prod_{j=1}^M g_j^{e_{ij}}$, where the vector $\vec{e}_i = (e_{i1}, \dots, e_{iM})$ is of the form that exact one entry is 1 and all other entries are 0, *i.e.*,

$$e_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } c_i \text{ encrypts } g_j, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The vector \vec{e}_i satisfies such a condition if and only if $\vec{1}^T \vec{e}_i = 1$ and $\vec{e}_i \vec{e}_i = \vec{e}_i$. The condition $\vec{1}^T \vec{e}_i = 1$ implies that the sum of all entries of \vec{e}_i is equal to 1. The

condition $\vec{e}_i \vec{e}_i = \vec{e}_i$ implies that $\vec{e}_i(\vec{e}_i - \vec{1}) = \vec{0}$, *i.e.*, each entry of the vector is either 0 or 1. These two conditions conclude that \vec{e}_i is of the form that exact one entry is 1 and all other entries are 0. In addition, the corresponding ciphertext c_i is of the form $(g^{r^i}, \vec{g}^{\vec{e}_i} h^{r^i})$, which is reminiscent of ElGamal or Pedersen [37] commitment schemes and can be regarded as a commitment to the vector \vec{e}_i . Therefore, the prover's goal is to prove that each "committed" vector \vec{e}_i satisfies $\vec{1}^\top \vec{e}_i = 1$ and $\vec{e}_i \vec{e}_i = \vec{e}_i$, in a zero-knowledge manner. We note that it is possible for the prover to simultaneously prove the conditions for all \vec{e}_i 's.

For the proof of the condition $\vec{1}^\top \vec{e}_i = 1$, let the verifier pick a challenge $\omega \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$. Then using the homomorphic property, both parties compute $C = (\prod_{i=1}^N (c_i^{(0)})^{\omega^i}, \prod_{i=1}^N (c_i^{(1)})^{\omega^i})$, which can be regarded as a commitment to the vector $\vec{e} = \sum_{i=1}^N \omega^i \vec{e}_i$. Since ω is random, if $\sum_{i=1}^N \omega^i (\vec{1}^\top \vec{e}_i) = \sum_{i=1}^N \omega^i$ holds, then $\vec{1}^\top \vec{e}_i = 1$ holds for all $i \in [M]$ with an overwhelming probability. Let $\Omega \leftarrow \sum_{i=1}^N \omega^i$. Since $\sum_{i=1}^N \omega^i (\vec{1}^\top \vec{e}_i) = \vec{1}^\top \vec{e}$ and \vec{e} is committed in C , it is enough for the prover to prove that $\vec{1}^\top \vec{e} = \Omega$ holds if the prover is computationally bounded.

We could follow a similar approach for the proof of the condition $\vec{e}_i \vec{e}_i = \vec{e}_i$. Let the verifier pick a random challenge $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$. Then, using the homomorphic property, both parties compute $c_{\vec{d}} = (\prod_{i=1}^N (c_i^{(0)})^{x^i}, \prod_{i=1}^N (c_i^{(1)})^{x^i})$, which can be regarded as a commitment to $\vec{d} = \sum_{i=1}^N x^i \vec{e}_i$. Since x is randomly chosen, if $\sum_{i=1}^N x^i \vec{e}_i \vec{e}_i - \vec{d} = \vec{0}$ holds, then $\vec{e}_i \vec{e}_i = \vec{e}_i$ holds for all $i \in [N]$ with an overwhelming probability. Moreover, let the verifier pick another random challenge $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and define a bilinear map $*$: $\mathbb{Z}_q^M \times \mathbb{Z}_q^M \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ by $(a_1, \dots, a_M) * (b_1, \dots, b_M) = \sum_{j=1}^M a_j b_j y^j$. Similarly, if $\vec{e}_i * \vec{e}_i - \vec{1} * \vec{e}_i = 0$, then $\vec{e}_i \vec{e}_i = \vec{e}_i$ holds with an overwhelming probability. Hence, since the vectors \vec{e}_i 's and \vec{d} have been committed in c_i 's and $c_{\vec{d}}$, it is enough for the prover to prove that $\sum_{i=1}^N x^i \vec{e}_i * \vec{e}_i - \vec{1} * \vec{d} = 0$ holds if the prover is computationally bounded.

It is important to note that all g_i 's are generated by P_B , and thus a computationally bounded P_A cannot find a non-trivial discrete logarithm relation for $\{g_i\}_{i \in [M]}$ except a negligible probability. This guarantees the soundness of the protocols. Now we present the protocol $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{EncEP}}$ between a prover P and a verifier V below. Two sub-protocols $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Sum}}$ and $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Zero}}$ then follow respectively. In these protocols, V always verifies whether the received messages are of correct form, and rejects once they are not. These protocols are all public-coin honest-verifier zero-knowledge, and we can compile them to be non-interactive and secure via Fiat-Shamir heuristic to obtain the protocols we want.

Protocol $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{EncEP}}$

Public Inputs: A cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ of prime order q , where DDH assumption holds. The public key of the ElGamal encryption scheme $\text{pk} = (\mathbb{G}, q, g, h)$. A list of elements $G = [g_1, \dots, g_M]$. A list of ElGamal ciphertexts $\Phi = [c_1, \dots, c_N]$, where $c_i = (c_i^{(0)}, c_i^{(1)})$. Elements in G and Φ all belong to the group \mathbb{G} .

Witness: P has an EP π and a list $R = [r_1, \dots, r_N]$ that are random coins of ciphertexts in Φ , where $r_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$.

1. For $i \in [N]$, P derives a vector $\vec{e}_i = (e_{i,1}, \dots, e_{i,M}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^M$ from π , such that the encrypted value of c_i can be represented by $\vec{g}^{\vec{e}_i}$. For the EP π , this vector is of the form where exact one entry is 1 and all other entries are all 0.
2. V picks an element $\omega \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ and sends it to P. Both parties compute $C \leftarrow (C^{(0)} = \prod_{i=1}^N (c_i^{(0)})^{\omega^i}, C^{(1)} = \prod_{i=1}^N (c_i^{(1)})^{\omega^i})$. P computes $\vec{e} \leftarrow \sum_{i=1}^N \omega^i \vec{e}_i$ and $r_{\vec{e}} \leftarrow \sum_{i=1}^N \omega^i r_i$. Both parties compute $\Omega \leftarrow \sum_{i=1}^N \omega^i$. P proves to V the following relation R_{Sum} for $\vec{y} = \vec{1}$ via the protocol $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Sum}}$:

$$\{(\mathbb{G}, g, q, h, G, C, \Omega, \vec{y}) \mid \exists(\vec{e}, r_{\vec{e}}) : C^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{e}}} \wedge C^{(1)} = \vec{g}^{\vec{e}} h^{r_{\vec{e}}} \wedge \vec{y}^{\text{T}} \vec{e} = \Omega\}.$$

3. V picks two elements $x, y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ and sends them to P. Both parties compute $c_{\vec{d}_i} \leftarrow (c_i^{(0)})^{x^i}, c_{\vec{d}_i}^{(1)} \leftarrow (c_i^{(1)})^{x^i}$ for $i \in [N]$ and also $c_{\vec{d}} \leftarrow (c_{\vec{d}}^{(0)} = \prod_{i=1}^N (c_i^{(0)})^{x^i}, c_{\vec{d}}^{(1)} = \prod_{i=1}^N (c_i^{(1)})^{x^i})$ and $c_{-\vec{1}} \leftarrow (\prod_{i=1}^M g_i^{-1}, 1)$. P computes $\vec{d}_i \leftarrow x^i \vec{e}_i$ and $r_{\vec{d}_i} \leftarrow x^i r_i$ for $i \in [N]$, $\vec{d} \leftarrow \sum_{i=1}^N \vec{d}_i$, and $r_{\vec{d}} = \sum_{i=1}^N r_{\vec{d}_i}$. Define a bilinear map $*$: $\mathbb{Z}_q^M \times \mathbb{Z}_q^M \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ by $(a_1, \dots, a_M) * (b_1, \dots, b_M) = \sum_{j=1}^M a_j b_j y^j$. P proves to V the following relation R_{Zero} via the protocol $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Zero}}$:

$$\begin{aligned} & \{(\mathbb{G}, g, q, h, G, \Phi, \{c_{\vec{d}_i}\}_{i \in [N]}, c_{\vec{d}}, c_{-\vec{1}}) \mid \exists(\{\vec{e}_i, r_i, \vec{d}_i, r_{\vec{d}_i}\}_{i \in [N]}, \vec{d}, r_{\vec{d}}) : \\ & (\forall i \in [N], c_i^{(0)} = g^{r_i} \wedge c_i^{(1)} = \vec{g}^{\vec{e}_i} h^{r_i} \wedge c_{\vec{d}_i}^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{d}_i}} \wedge c_{\vec{d}_i}^{(1)} = \vec{g}^{\vec{d}_i} h^{r_{\vec{d}_i}}) \\ & \wedge c_{\vec{d}}^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{d}}} \wedge c_{\vec{d}}^{(1)} = \vec{g}^{\vec{d}} h^{r_{\vec{d}}} \wedge \sum_{i=1}^N \vec{e}_i * \vec{d}_i - \vec{1} * \vec{d} = 0\}. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 3. *The protocol $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{EncEP}}$ is an honest-verifier zero-knowledge argument of knowledge for R_{EncEP} .*

The proof of this theorem can be found in the full version [32].

The protocol $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Sum}}$ between a prover P and a verifier V below uses the idea mentioned in [10] for recursing the protocol and halving the statement in each recursion. Thus, $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Sum}}$ has logarithmic communication cost. Throughout this protocol, we assume that the parameter M is a power of 2. If needed, one can easily pad the inputs to ensure that this holds as in [10].

Protocol $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Sum}}$

Public Inputs: A cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ of prime order q , where DDH assumption holds. The public key of the ElGamal encryption scheme $\text{pk} = (\mathbb{G}, g, h)$. An ElGamal ciphertexts $C = (C^{(0)}, C^{(1)})$. An element $\Omega \in \mathbb{Z}_q$. Two vectors $\vec{g} = (g_1, \dots, g_M)$ and $\vec{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_M)$ of length M . Denote the length of vectors \vec{g} and \vec{y} by $\ell = M$. Let $c_{\vec{e}} \leftarrow C^{(1)}$. Both parties initiate an element $c'_{\vec{e}} \leftarrow g^{\Omega}$.

Witness: The prover P has witness $\vec{e}, r_{\vec{e}}$.

Statement: There exist \vec{e} and $r_{\vec{e}}$, such that $C^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{e}}} \wedge c_{\vec{e}} = \vec{g}^{\vec{e}} h^{r_{\vec{e}}} \wedge c'_{\vec{e}} = g^{\vec{y}^{\text{T}} \vec{e}}$.

- V picks $u \leftarrow \mathbb{G}$ and sends u to P. P initiates $\rho_{\vec{e}} = 0$, and $\rho'_{\vec{e}} = 0$. Then two parties engage in the procedure below to prove the statement:

- There exist \vec{e} , $r_{\vec{e}}$, $\rho_{\vec{e}}$, and $\rho'_{\vec{e}}$, such that $C^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{e}}} \wedge c_{\vec{e}} = \vec{g}^{\vec{e}} u^{\rho_{\vec{e}}} h^{r_{\vec{e}}} \wedge c'_{\vec{e}} = g^{\vec{y}^T \vec{e}} u^{\rho'_{\vec{e}}}$.
- If $\ell = 1$, we denote the only element in \vec{e} , \vec{g} , and \vec{y} by \bar{e} , \bar{g} , and \bar{y} , respectively. Let $\gamma \leftarrow g^{\bar{y}}$. Now $c_{\bar{e}}$, $c'_{\bar{e}}$, and $C^{(0)}$ are of the form $c_{\bar{e}} = \bar{g}^{\bar{e}} u^{\rho_{\bar{e}}} h^{r_{\bar{e}}}$, $c'_{\bar{e}} = \gamma^{\bar{e}} u^{\rho'_{\bar{e}}}$, and $C^{(0)} = g^{r_{\bar{e}}}$, respectively. P and V follow the procedure as follows.
 1. P picks $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$, and sends $a_1 \leftarrow \bar{g}^{x_1} u^{x_2} h^{x_3}$, $a_2 \leftarrow \gamma^{x_1} u^{x_4}$, $a_3 \leftarrow g^{x_3}$ to V.
 2. V sends $\alpha \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ to P.
 3. P sends $z_1 \leftarrow x_1 + \alpha \bar{e}$, $z_2 \leftarrow x_2 + \alpha \rho_{\bar{e}}$, $z_3 \leftarrow x_3 + \alpha r_{\bar{e}}$, and $z_4 \leftarrow x_4 + \alpha \rho'_{\bar{e}}$ to V.
 4. V verifies whether equations $\bar{g}^{z_1} u^{z_2} h^{z_3} = a_1 c_{\bar{e}}^\alpha$, $\gamma^{z_1} u^{z_4} = a_2 (c'_{\bar{e}})^\alpha$, and $g^{z_3} = a_3 (C^{(0)})^\alpha$ hold. If they all hold, V outputs **accept**. Otherwise, V outputs **reject**.
 - If $\ell \neq 1$, P and V follow the following procedure.
 1. We write $\vec{e} = \vec{e}_L \circ \vec{e}_R$, $\vec{g} = \vec{g}_L \circ \vec{g}_R$, and $\vec{y} = \vec{y}_L \circ \vec{y}_R$. P computes $v_L \leftarrow \vec{g}_L^{\vec{e}_L} u^{\rho_L}$, $v_R \leftarrow \vec{g}_R^{\vec{e}_R} u^{\rho_R}$, $v'_L \leftarrow g^{\vec{y}_L^T \vec{e}_L} u^{\rho'_L}$, and $v'_R \leftarrow g^{\vec{y}_R^T \vec{e}_R} u^{\rho'_R}$, where $\rho_L, \rho_R, \rho'_L, \rho'_R \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. Then P sends v_L, v_R, v'_L , and v'_R to V.
 2. V sends $\alpha \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ to P.
 3. P computes $\vec{e}' = \alpha \vec{e}_L + \alpha^{-1} \vec{e}_R$ of length $\ell' = \ell/2$, and also computes $\rho_{\vec{e}'} \leftarrow \rho_{\vec{e}} + \alpha^2 \rho_L + \alpha^{-2} \rho_R$ and $\rho'_{\vec{e}'} \leftarrow \rho'_{\vec{e}} + \alpha^2 \rho'_L + \alpha^{-2} \rho'_R$. Both parties compute $c_{\vec{e}'} \leftarrow c_{\vec{e}} v_L^\alpha v_R^{\alpha^{-2}}$ and $c'_{\vec{e}'} \leftarrow c'_{\vec{e}} (v'_L)^\alpha (v'_R)^{\alpha^{-2}}$, and two vectors $\vec{g}' \leftarrow \vec{g}_L^{\alpha^{-1}} \vec{g}_R^\alpha$ and $\vec{y}' \leftarrow \alpha^{-1} \vec{y}_L + \alpha \vec{y}_R$ of length $\ell' = \ell/2$. It is easy to verify that $c_{\vec{e}'} = \vec{g}'^{\vec{e}' } u^{\rho_{\vec{e}'}} h^{r_{\vec{e}'}}$ and $c'_{\vec{e}'} = g^{\vec{y}'^T \vec{e}'} u^{\rho'_{\vec{e}'}}$.
 4. Both parties recurse on $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Sum}}$ for the same $C^{(0)}$, (\mathbb{G}, q, g, h) , u but using $c_{\vec{e}'}$, $c'_{\vec{e}'}$, \vec{g}' , \vec{y}' in place of $c_{\vec{e}}$, $c'_{\vec{e}}$, \vec{g} , \vec{y} . P in the recursion uses the same $r_{\vec{e}}$, but uses $\rho_{\vec{e}'}$, $\rho'_{\vec{e}'}$, \vec{e}' in place of $\rho_{\vec{e}}$, $\rho'_{\vec{e}}$, \vec{e} . We use $\ell' = \ell/2$ in place of ℓ to denote the length of vector \vec{g}' , \vec{y}' , and \vec{e}' .

Theorem 4. *The protocol $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Sum}}$ is an honest-verifier zero-knowledge argument of knowledge for the relation R_{Sum} .*

The proof of this theorem can be found in the full version [32].

The protocol $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Zero}}$ between a prover P and a verifier V below borrows the idea of the *zero argument* in [5]. We tailor the protocol to support the ElGamal encryption scheme and introduce how to further reduce the communication cost in Remark 3.

Protocol $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Zero}}$

Public Inputs: A cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ of prime order q , where DDH assumption holds. The public key of the ElGamal encryption scheme $\text{pk} = (\mathbb{G}, q, g, h)$. A list $G = [g_1, \dots, g_M]$. Two lists of ElGamal ciphertexts $\{c_{\vec{u}_i}^{(0)}, c_{\vec{u}_i}^{(1)}\}_{i \in [\ell]}$, $\{c_{\vec{v}_i}^{(0)}, c_{\vec{v}_i}^{(1)}\}_{i \in [\ell]}$. The description of the bilinear map $*$ for a variable y .

Witness: The prover P has witness $\{\vec{u}_i, r_{\vec{u}_i}\}_{i \in [\ell]}$, $\{\vec{v}_i, r_{\vec{v}_i}\}_{i \in [\ell]}$.

Statement: There exist $\{\vec{u}_i, r_{\vec{u}_i}\}_{i \in [\ell]}$ and $\{\vec{v}_i, r_{\vec{v}_i}\}_{i \in [\ell]}$, such that $c_{\vec{u}_i}^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{u}_i}}$, $c_{\vec{u}_i}^{(1)} = \vec{g}^{\vec{u}_i} h^{r_{\vec{u}_i}}$, $c_{\vec{v}_i}^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{v}_i}}$, $c_{\vec{v}_i}^{(1)} = \vec{g}^{\vec{v}_i} h^{r_{\vec{v}_i}}$ for all $i \in [\ell]$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \vec{u}_i * \vec{v}_i = 0$.

1. P picks $\vec{u}_0, \vec{v}_{\ell+1} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^M$ and $r_{\vec{u}_0}, r_{\vec{v}_{\ell+1}} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$. Then P computes $c_{\vec{u}_0} \leftarrow (c_{\vec{u}_0}^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{u}_0}}, c_{\vec{u}_0}^{(1)} = \vec{g}^{\vec{u}_0} h^{r_{\vec{u}_0}})$ and $c_{\vec{v}_{\ell+1}} \leftarrow (c_{\vec{v}_{\ell+1}}^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{v}_{\ell+1}}}, c_{\vec{v}_{\ell+1}}^{(1)} = \vec{g}^{\vec{v}_{\ell+1}} h^{r_{\vec{v}_{\ell+1}}})$. P computes for $\phi = 0, \dots, 2\ell$

$$d_\phi \leftarrow \sum_{\substack{0 \leq i \leq \ell, 1 \leq j \leq \ell+1 \\ j = \ell+1 - \phi + i}} \vec{u}_i * \vec{v}_j.$$

P picks $r_{d_\phi} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ for $\phi \in \{0, \dots, 2\ell\} \setminus \{\ell+1\}$ and computes $c_{d_\phi} \leftarrow g^{d_\phi} h^{r_{d_\phi}}$ for $\phi \in \{0, \dots, 2\ell\} \setminus \{\ell+1\}$. For $\phi = \ell+1$, both parties set $r_{d_{\ell+1}} \leftarrow 0$ and $c_{d_{\ell+1}} \leftarrow 1$. After the computation, P sends $c_{\vec{u}_0}, c_{\vec{v}_{\ell+1}}$, and $\{c_{d_\phi}\}_{\phi \in \{0, \dots, 2\ell\} \setminus \{\ell+1\}}$ to V .

2. V sends $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ to P .
3. P computes $\vec{u} \leftarrow \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} x^i \vec{u}_i$, $r_{\vec{u}} \leftarrow \sum_{i=0}^{\ell} x^i r_{\vec{u}_i}$, $\vec{v} \leftarrow \sum_{j=1}^{\ell+1} x^{\ell-j+1} \vec{v}_j$, $r_{\vec{v}} \leftarrow \sum_{j=1}^{\ell+1} x^{\ell+1-j} r_{\vec{v}_j}$, and $t \leftarrow \sum_{\phi=0}^{2\ell} x^\phi r_{d_\phi}$, and sends $\vec{u}, r_{\vec{u}}, \vec{v}, r_{\vec{v}}, t$ to V .
4. V outputs **accept** if all equations $\prod_{i=0}^{\ell} (c_{\vec{u}_i}^{(0)})^{x^i} = g^{r_{\vec{u}}}$, $\prod_{i=0}^{\ell} (c_{\vec{u}_i}^{(1)})^{x^i} = \vec{g}^{\vec{u}} h^{r_{\vec{u}}}$, $\prod_{j=1}^{\ell+1} (c_{\vec{v}_j}^{(0)})^{x^{\ell+1-j}} = g^{r_{\vec{v}}}$, $\prod_{j=1}^{\ell+1} (c_{\vec{v}_j}^{(1)})^{x^{\ell+1-j}} = \vec{g}^{\vec{v}} h^{r_{\vec{v}}}$, and $\prod_{\phi=0}^{2\ell} c_{d_\phi}^{x^\phi} = g^{\vec{u} * \vec{v}} h^t$ hold. Otherwise, V outputs **reject**.

Theorem 5. *The protocol $\Pi_{\mathsf{zk}}^{\mathsf{Zero}}$ is an honest-verifier zero-knowledge argument of knowledge for the relation R_{Zero} .*

The proof of this theorem can be found in the full version [32].

Remark 3. We can further reduce the communication cost of $\Pi_{\mathsf{zk}}^{\mathsf{Zero}}$. Notice that in Step 1, P needs to commit to all elements in $\{d_\phi\}_{\phi=0, \dots, 2\ell}$. We could include a list of $2\ell + 1$ random elements of \mathbb{G} , e.g., $H = \{h_\phi\}_{\phi=0, \dots, 2\ell}$, in the common reference string. P can thus commit to $\{d_\phi\}_{\phi=0, \dots, 2\ell}$ by computing $c_{\vec{d}} \leftarrow (g^{r_{\vec{d}}}, \sum_{\phi=0}^{2\ell} h_\phi^{d_\phi} h^{r_{\vec{d}}})$ for $r_{\vec{d}} \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$. P now only needs to send $c_{\vec{d}}$ to verifier instead of $\{c_{d_\phi}\}_{\phi \in \{2, \dots, 2\ell\} \setminus \{\ell+1\}}$, and does not need to send t to V in Step 3. Alternatively, P proves to V the following statement for $\vec{y} = [x^0, \dots, x^\ell, 0, x^{\ell+2}, x^{2\ell}]$ and $D = \vec{u} * \vec{v}$ via the protocol $\Pi_{\mathsf{zk}}^{\mathsf{Sum}}$ in Step 4:

$$\{(\mathbb{G}, g, h, H, c_{\vec{d}}, D, \vec{y}) \mid \exists (\vec{d}, r_{\vec{d}}) : c_{\vec{d}}^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{d}}} \wedge c_{\vec{d}}^{(1)} = \vec{h}^{\vec{d}} h^{r_{\vec{d}}} \wedge \vec{y}^T \vec{d} = D\}.$$

Following this approach, we reduce the linear communication cost of sending d_ϕ 's to the logarithmic communication cost of using $\Pi_{\mathsf{zk}}^{\mathsf{Sum}}$. Similarly, P can avoid directly sending \vec{v} and $r_{\vec{v}}$, i.e., the opening for $c_{\vec{v}} = (c_{\vec{v}}^{(0)}, c_{\vec{v}}^{(1)}) = (\prod_{j=1}^{\ell+1} (c_{\vec{v}_j}^{(0)})^{x^{\ell+1-j}}, \prod_{j=1}^{\ell+1} (c_{\vec{v}_j}^{(1)})^{x^{\ell+1-j}})$. Now P only sends \vec{u} and $r_{\vec{u}}$ in Step 3, and V only verifies the two equations related to \vec{u} and $r_{\vec{u}}$ in Step 4. Then, P sends $D = \vec{u} * \vec{v}$ to V and proves the following statement for $\vec{y} = [y^1 u_1, \dots, y^M u_M]$ via the protocol $\Pi_{\mathsf{zk}}^{\mathsf{Sum}}$ in Step 4:

$$\{(\mathbb{G}, g, h, G, c_{\vec{v}}, D, \vec{y}) \mid \exists (\vec{v}, r_{\vec{v}}) : c_{\vec{v}}^{(0)} = g^{r_{\vec{v}}} \wedge c_{\vec{v}}^{(1)} = \vec{g}^{\vec{v}} h^{r_{\vec{v}}} \wedge \vec{y}^T \vec{v} = D\}.$$

4 PFE Protocol for PVC Security

In this section, we introduce the *first* constant-round PVC-secure PFE protocol with linear complexity in the two-party setting based on the results in Section 3. The corresponding ideal functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{covertPFE}}$ is given in the following.

Functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{covertPFE}}$
<p>Pre-agreement: The circuit C_f consists of θ gates, m output wires, and $n(=n_A + n_B)$ input wires.</p> <p>Private inputs: P_A has a Boolean circuit input C_f and input $x_A \in \{0, 1\}^{n_A}$, whereas the other party P_B has input $x_B \in \{0, 1\}^{n_B}$.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If an input of the form abort_i from the party P_i for some $i = \{A, B\}$ is received, the ideal functionality sends \perp to both parties and the ideal execution terminates. 2. If a circuit C_f satisfying the pre-agreement from P_A is received, store C_f. 3. If an input of the form blatantCheat from P_B is received, the ideal functionality sends corrupted to both parties and terminates. 4. If an input of the form cheat from P_B is received and P_A's inputs C_f and x_A were received previously: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – With probability ϵ, the ideal functionality sends corrupted to both parties and terminates. – With probability $1 - \epsilon$, the ideal functionality sends (undetected, x_A, C_f) to P_B. If P_A is allowed to receive the output, the ideal functionality waits for $y \in \{0, 1\}^m$ from the adversary \mathcal{A}, sends y to P_A, and terminates. 5. If input $x_A \in \{0, 1\}^{n_A}$ from P_A and $x_B \in \{0, 1\}^{n_B}$ from P_B are received and an input circuit C_f is stored, the ideal functionality computes $C_f(x_A, x_B)$. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (a) If P_A (when she is corrupted by \mathcal{A}) is allowed to learn $C_f(x_A, x_B)$, then it sends $C_f(x_A, x_B)$ to P_A. (b) Otherwise, the ideal functionality sends nothing to P_A. Then if continue from \mathcal{A} is received, the ideal functionality sends $C_f(x_1, x_2)$ to the honest P_B. Otherwise, if abort_A is received from \mathcal{A} on behalf of the corrupted P_A, it sends \perp to the honest P_B.

We give the PVC-security definition for our PFE protocol $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$ as follows.

Definition 4. *A two-party PFE protocol $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$ along with algorithms **Blame** and **Judge** is publicly verifiable covert secure with ϵ -deterrent if the following conditions hold.*

PVC security *The protocol $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$, which might output **cert** if the honest party detects covert cheating, securely realizes $\mathcal{F}_{\text{covertPFE}}$ with ϵ -deterrent.*

Public verifiability *If the honest party outputs **cert** during the protocol execution, then the output of the algorithm **Judge** for **cert** is 1, except a negligible probability.*

Defamation freeness *If one party is honest, the probability that the other malicious party generates a certificate **cert** for which **Judge** outputs 1 is negligible.*

4.1 Full Description of the Protocol

In the two-party case, active security implies covert security with public verifiability, since we could regard attempts to cheat as abortions. Therefore, techniques for dealing with malicious P_A are workable for the PVC-secure setting.

Here we briefly introduce the main idea of our PVC-secure protocol $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$. Recall that in Remark 2, we describe how to make the initiation phase non-interactive. This approach can also be adopted here in $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$. Thus, we now do not need to consider malicious P_B in the initiation phase. We can reuse the initiation phase of $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$ for $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$, with the exception that we include G in the common reference string to simplify the proof of security. Note that this small change does not hinder the protocol from achieving global reusability.

In the evaluation phase of $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$, P_A receives the garbled circuit and garbled inputs, evaluates the garbled circuit, and derives the resulting outputs or sends garbled outputs back to P_B . It is easy to see that P_A has no chance to cheat in the protocol. Even if P_A sends incorrect garbled outputs to P_B , the incorrect garbled outputs will still be rejected by P_B due to the authenticity of the garbling. Hence, we only need to focus on the security against covert P_B .

To achieve covert security, we follow the same paradigm of all existing work, *i.e.*, parties generate λ instances of a passively secure protocol, check the correctness of $\lambda - 1$ randomly chosen instances, and take the result of the unopened one. In addition, we use a derandomized approach to supporting efficient correctness check in our protocol. More concretely, P_B needs to pick for each instance a seed to generate random coins during the execution of that instance (including the circuit garbling and OT protocol). P_A then uses OT protocol to retrieve all but one of the seeds, such that P_B is unaware of which instances are checked. Now given the seeds, P_A can easily check the correctness of the corresponding instances. To prevent P_B leaking inputs, P_B commits to his pairs of input-wire labels in random order with randomness derived from the seed and send these two commitments to P_A for each instance. Hence, P_A can effectively check the correctness of these commitments using the seed for opened instance, while P_B 's inputs are preserved. After the check, P_A points out the unopened instance, and now one of the two commitments for her input wires needs to be opened by P_B as his garbled input to enable P_A to evaluate the unopened garbled circuit.

To add public verifiability to the approach above, we let P_B sign all transcripts that have been produced before the time when P_A reveals the index of the unopened instance. In addition, for each instance, let P_A commit to a random seed at the beginning of the protocol and uses this seed to derived random coins during her execution of the instance. This commitment will be included in P_B 's transcript and signed by P_B , such that it can prevent P_A from defaming honest P_B . If P_B deviates from an instance checked by P_A , P_A can generate a certificate that includes related transcripts and P_B 's signature on them for that instance, such that it allows a third party to verify this proof of misbehavior. Since P_B cannot realize in time that the instance in which he deviates from the protocol has been checked by P_A , he cannot abort before P_A has collected enough materials to generate the certificate.

Our protocol $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$ is given in the following. Since parties need to commit to transcripts of the OT executions in the protocol, the description directly uses the protocol Π_{OT} that securely realizes a parallel version of \mathcal{F}_{OT} .

Protocol $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$

Pre-agreement: Both parties agree on a cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ of prime order q , where DDH assumption holds. They also have the pre-agreement about C_f : θ gates, m output wires, $n(= n_A + n_B)$ input wires, $N = 2\theta$ incoming wires, and $M = n + \theta - m$ outgoing wires except output wires of the circuit. The common reference string includes a list $G = [g_1, \dots, g_M] \in \mathbb{G}^M$, where all g_i 's are different.

Private inputs: P_A has a Boolean circuit input C_f and input $x_A \in \{0, 1\}^{n_A}$, whereas the other party P_B has input $x_B \in \{0, 1\}^{n_B}$ and keys (vk, sigk) for a signature scheme. P_A knows the verification key vk .

————— **Initiation Phase** —————

1. P_A picks $s \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and computes $h \leftarrow g^s$. Denote the public and private keys of the ElGamal encryption by $\text{pk} = (\mathbb{G}, q, g, h)$ and $\text{sk} = s$, respectively. P_A derives an EP π_f from C_f . Then P_A permutes elements of G according to π_f and encrypts all resulting elements using pk to derive the list $\Phi = [c_1, c_2, \dots, c_N]$, where c_i is the encryption of $g_{\pi_f(i)}$ for $i \in [N]$. P_A picks $t_i \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ for $i \in [N]$, such that all t_i 's are different, and stores the list $T = [t_1, \dots, t_N]$ for the evaluation phase. P_B computes the t_i th power of each plaintext $g_{\pi_f(i)}$ of c_i via the multiplicatively homomorphic property of the ElGamal encryption (using pk) to obtain c'_i . Let the resulting list $\Phi' = [c'_1, \dots, c'_N]$. P_A computes the information for decryption of all ciphertexts c'_i (remember that $c'_i = (c_i^{(0)}, c_i^{(1)})$), i.e., P_A computes $d_i \leftarrow (c_i^{(0)})^s$ for $i \in [N]$. P_A sends h, Φ, Φ' , and $\{d_i\}_{i \in [N]}$ to P_B . Then P_A uses the functionality $\mathcal{F}_{\text{zk}}^{\text{EncEP}}$ to prove to P_B that she has performed a valid EP on G to obtain the list of ciphertexts Φ . Meanwhile, P_A uses $\mathcal{F}_{\text{zk}}^{\text{DH}}$ to prove to P_B her knowledge of s , i.e., sk , for $(g, \{c_i^{(0)}\}_{i \in [N]})$ and $(h, \{d_i\}_{i \in [N]})$, together with her knowledge of t_i for the two-tuple ciphertexts c_i and c'_i for all $i \in [N]$.
2. P_B decrypts all c'_i 's to obtain the plaintexts via $p_i \leftarrow c_i^{(1)} \cdot d_i^{-1}$. P_B stores a list $P = [p_1, \dots, p_N]$ for the evaluation phase.

————— **Evaluation phase** —————

0. P_A chooses uniform κ -bit strings $\{\text{seed}_j^A\}_{j \in [\lambda]}$, computes $c^{\text{seed}_j^A} \leftarrow \text{Com}(\text{seed}_j^A)$ and sends $\{c^{\text{seed}_j^A}\}_{j \in [\lambda]}$ to P_B . P_B chooses uniform κ -bit strings $\{\text{seed}_j^B, \text{witness}_j\}_{j \in [\lambda]}$, while P_A picks $\hat{j} \leftarrow_{\$} [\lambda]$ and sets $b_j = 1$ and $b_j = 0$ for $j \neq \hat{j}$. P_B and P_A run λ executions of Π_{OT} . In the j th execution, P_B uses as input $(\text{seed}_j^B, \text{witness}_j)$ and P_A uses as input b_j with randomness derived from seed_j^A . At the end, P_A has $\{\text{seed}_j^B\}_{j \neq \hat{j}}$ and witness_j . Let us denote the transcript of the j th execution by trans_j .
1. For $j \in [\lambda]$, using the randomness derived from seed_j^B , P_B picks $w_{i,j}^0, w_{i,j}^1 \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{G}$ for $i = M + 1, \dots, M + m$ and $\alpha_{0,j}, \alpha_{1,j} \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. P_B also computes wire labels and produces garbled gates as in $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$. At the end, P_B obtains the resulting collection of garbled gates $\text{GC}_j = \{\text{GG}_{i,j}\}_{i \in [\theta]}$, P_A 's input-wire

- labels $\{(w_{i,j}^0, w_{i,j}^1)\}_{i \in [n_A]}$, P_B 's input-wire labels $\{(w_{n_A+i,j}^0, w_{n_A+i,j}^1)\}_{i \in [n_B]}$, and output-wire labels of the garbled circuit $\{(w_{M+i,j}^0, w_{M+i,j}^1)\}_{i=1, \dots, m}$.
2. P_A and P_B are involved in λ executions of Π_{OT} . In the j th execution, P_B uses as input $(w_{i,j}^0, w_{i,j}^1)_{i \in [n_A]}$, while P_A uses as input x_A if $j = \hat{j}$ and 0^{n_A} otherwise, and random coins of P_A and P_B are derived from seed_j^A and seed_j^B , respectively. At the end, P_A obtains her garbled input $\{x_i = w_{i,\hat{j}}^{x_A[i]}\}_{i \in [n_A]}$. Let h_j^{OT} denote the hash value of the transcript for the j th execution of Π_{OT} .
 3. (a) For all $j \in [\lambda]$, P_B computes $c_{i,j,b}^{x_B} \leftarrow \text{Com}(w_{n_A+i,j}^b)$ for all $i \in [n_B]$ and $b \in \{0, 1\}$. Let h_j^O be the hash value of $\{(w_{M+i,j}^0, w_{M+i,j}^1)\}_{i=1, \dots, m}$. P_B then computes $c_j \leftarrow \text{Com}(\text{GC}_j, \{c_{i,j,b}^{x_B}\}_{i \in [n_B], b \in \{0,1\}}, h_j^O)$, where two elements in each pair $(c_{i,j,0}^{x_B}, c_{i,j,1}^{x_B})$ are permuted in random order. The random coins of commitments and permutations are derived from seed_j^B .
 (b) P_B generates $\sigma_j \leftarrow \text{Sig}_{\text{sigk}}(G, P, j, c^{\text{seed}_j^A}, \text{trans}_j, h_j^{OT}, c_j)$ for $j \in [\lambda]$. Then P_B sends $\{c_j, \sigma_j\}_{j \in [\lambda]}$ to P_A .
 4. P_A verifies that whether all σ_j 's are valid. If not, P_A halts and outputs \perp . Then P_A calls $\text{Blame}(\{h_j^{OT}, c_j\}_{j \in [\lambda] \setminus \{\hat{j}\}})$. If the output is cert , P_B sends cert to P_B , outputs corrupted , and halts. Otherwise, P_A sends $(\hat{j}, \{\text{seed}_j^B\}_{j \neq \hat{j}}, \text{witness}_{\hat{j}})$ to P_B . P_B verifies that these values are all consistent with those he has sent in Step 0 and aborts if not.
 5. P_B assigns $x_{n_A+i} \leftarrow w_{n_A+i,\hat{j}}^{x_B[i]}$ for $i \in [n_B]$. Then P_B sends $\text{GC}_j, \{x_{n_A+i}\}_{i \in [n_B]}, \{c_{i,j,b}^{x_B}\}_{i \in [n_B], b \in \{0,1\}}$ (in the same order as Step 3a), and h_j^O , together with decom^{c_j} and $\{\text{decom}^{c_{i,j,x_B[i]}}\}_{i \in [n_B]}$, to P_A . If P_A is allowed to know the evaluation result, P_B also sends the garbled output mapping $\{(w_{M+i}^0, w_{M+i}^1)\}_{i \in [m]}$ to P_A .
 6. P_A outputs \perp and aborts if $\text{Com}(\text{GC}_j, \{c_{i,j,b}^{x_B}\}_{i \in [n_B], b \in \{0,1\}}, h_j^O; \text{decom}^{c_j}) \neq c_j$, for some $i \in [n_B]$, $\text{Com}(x_{n_A+i}; \text{decom}^{c_{i,j,x_B[i]}}) \notin \{c_{i,j,0}^{x_B}, c_{i,j,1}^{x_B}\}$, or h_j^O is not consistent (if it is verifiable).
 P_A computes $\{y_i\}_{i \in [m]} \leftarrow \text{Eval}(\text{GC}_j, \{x_i\}_{i \in [n]}, T, \pi_f)$. If P_A is allowed to know the evaluation result, P_A can thereby derive the output. If $y_i \notin \{w_i^0, w_i^1\}$ for some $i \in \{M+1, \dots, M+m\}$, P_A outputs \perp . If P_B is allowed to know the evaluation result, P_A sends $\{y_i\}_{i \in [m]}$ to P_B so that P_B could derive the result. If the output-wire labels are not consistent with those P_B generated, P_B outputs \perp .

In the following, we provide the algorithms Blame and Judge used in $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$.

Algorithm Blame

Specified parameters: $G, P, \{\text{trans}_j, \sigma_j, \text{seed}_j^A, \text{decom}^{\text{seed}_j^A}, \text{seed}_j^B\}_{j \in [\lambda] \setminus \{\hat{j}\}}$.

Inputs: $\{h_j^{OT}, c_j\}_{j \in [\lambda] \setminus \{\hat{j}\}}$.

1. For all $j \neq \hat{j}$, simulate P_B 's computation in steps 1, 2, and 3a, and particularly compute h_j^{OT} and \hat{c}_j . Let J be the set of indices, such that for $j \in J$, $(h_j^{OT}, \hat{c}_j) \neq (h_j^{OT}, c_j)$.
2. (a) If $|J| = 0$, the algorithm returns accept .
 (b) If $|J| \geq 1$, the algorithm picks $j \leftarrow \$J$ and outputs a certificate $\text{cert} = (P, j, \text{trans}_j, h_j^{OT}, c_j, \sigma_j, \text{seed}_j^A, \text{decom}^{\text{seed}_j^A})$.

Algorithm Judge

Inputs: A verification key vk for the signature scheme, a certificate $\text{cert} = (P, j, \text{trans}_j, \text{h}_j^{\text{OT}}, \text{c}_j, \sigma_j, \text{seed}_j^A, \text{decom}^{\text{seed}_j^A})$, common reference string G .

1. Compute $\text{c}^{\text{seed}_j^A} \leftarrow \text{Com}(\text{seed}_j^A; \text{decom}^{\text{seed}_j^A})$.
2. If $\text{Vf}((G, P, j, \text{c}^{\text{seed}_j^A}, \text{trans}_j, \text{h}_j^{\text{OT}}, \text{c}_j), \sigma_j) = 0$, output 0.
3. Simulate the execution of Π_{OT} that involves trans_j (Step 0 of the evaluation phase). In this simulation, the input of P_A is 0, random coins are derived from seed_j^A , and the incoming messages of P_B are those included in trans_j . Check whether messages sent by P_A are consistent with that of trans_j and output 0 if not. Otherwise, denote P_A 's output of this simulation of Π_{OT} by seed_j^B .
4. Use seed_j^A and seed_j^B to simulate the execution of Steps 1, 2, and 3a of the evaluation phase, and particularly compute $\hat{\text{h}}_j^{\text{OT}}$ and $\hat{\text{c}}_j$.
5. (a) If $(\hat{\text{h}}_j^{\text{OT}}, \hat{\text{c}}_j) = (\text{h}_j^{\text{OT}}, \text{c}_j)$, output 0.
 (b) If $\hat{\text{c}}_j \neq \text{c}_j$, output 1.
 (c) If the first message for which $\hat{\text{h}}_j^{\text{OT}} \neq \text{h}_j^{\text{OT}}$ corresponds to P_A , output 0. Otherwise, output 1.

We present the theorem for the security of the protocol $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$ as follows.

Theorem 6. *If the commitment algorithm Com is computationally binding and hiding, the hash function is modeled as a random oracle, the garbling scheme is secure under the random oracle model, the DDH assumption of \mathbb{G} holds, perfectly correct protocol Π_{OT} UC-realizes \mathcal{F}_{OT} , and the signature scheme $(\text{KGen}, \text{Sig}, \text{Vf})$ is EUF-CMA, then the protocol $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$ along with Blame and Judge is publicly verifiable covert secure with deterrence factor $\epsilon = 1 - \frac{1}{\lambda}$ in the $(\mathcal{F}_{\text{zk}}^{\text{EncEP}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{zk}}^{\text{DH}})$ -hybrid world.*

The proof of this theorem can be found in the full version [32]. Following the same discussion as $\Pi_{\text{activePFE}}$, it is easy to see that $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$ could be instantiated as a constant-round PVC-secure PFE protocol with linear complexity. Similarly, it is straightforward that we have the theorem below, and Remark 2 is also applicable to $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$ to achieve global reusability.

Theorem 7. *Once the initiation phase for a private circuit C_f is executed, every subsequent execution of the evaluation phase of $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$ does not degenerate the security of $\Pi_{\text{covertPFE}}$.*

5 Analysis

5.1 Performance of $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{EncEP}}$

In Table 3, we provide from two directions the communication cost of each part of $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{EncEP}}$ for one execution of $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{EncEP}}$ with parameters M and N in the honest-verifier zero-knowledge setting. Note that $\Pi_{\text{zk}}^{\text{Zero}^+}$ is the optimized protocol of

Π_{zk}^{Zero} according to the idea introduced in Remark 3. The row of remaining is for the communication cost of Π_{zk}^{EncEP} excluding the cost of sub-protocols. Since messages sent from \mathbf{V} to \mathbf{P} are random messages in all protocols, we can leverage the random oracle and compile these protocols to be non-interactive via the Fiat-Shamir heuristic. Using this approach, the communication cost now only takes into account the cost from \mathbf{P} to \mathbf{V} .

Table 3: Communication cost of each part of Π_{zk}^{EncEP} with parameters M and N .

Protocols	Bits from \mathbf{P} to \mathbf{V}	Bits from \mathbf{V} to \mathbf{P}
Π_{zk}^{Sum}	$(4\lceil\log_2 M\rceil + 3)\ \mathbb{G}\ + 4\ \mathbb{Z}_q\ $	$\ \mathbb{G}\ + (\lceil\log_2 M\rceil + 1)\ \mathbb{Z}_q\ $
Π_{zk}^{Zero}	$(2N + 4)\ \mathbb{G}\ + (2M + 3)\ \mathbb{Z}_q\ $	$\ \mathbb{Z}_q\ $
Π_{zk}^{Zero+}	$(4\lceil\log_2(2N + 3)\rceil + 4\lceil\log_2 M\rceil + 12)\ \mathbb{G}\ + (M + 10)\ \mathbb{Z}_q\ $	$2\ \mathbb{G}\ + (\lceil\log_2(2N + 3)\rceil + \lceil\log_2 M\rceil + 3)\ \mathbb{Z}_q\ $
Remaining	0	$3\ \mathbb{Z}_q\ $

We give comparisons between the previous generic work [34] and our protocol Π_{zk}^{EncEP} (using the optimized protocol Π_{zk}^{Zero+}) in Tables 4 and 5. From Table 4,

Table 4: Communication cost comparison between the previous generic work [34] and Π_{zk}^{EncEP} in this paper with parameters M and N .

Protocols	Bits from \mathbf{P} to \mathbf{V}	Bits from \mathbf{V} to \mathbf{P}
[34]	$\sim (32N\ \mathbb{G}\ + 12N\ \mathbb{Z}_q\)$	$\sim (2N\ \mathbb{G}\ + 10N\ \mathbb{Z}_q\)$
This paper	$\sim (4\lceil\log_2(N)\rceil + 8\lceil\log_2 M\rceil)\ \mathbb{G}\ + M\ \mathbb{Z}_q\ $	$\sim (\lceil\log_2 N\rceil + 2\lceil\log_2 M\rceil)\ \mathbb{Z}_q\ $

we can see that the (non-interactive) communication cost of our protocol is around $M\|\mathbb{Z}_q\|$. In comparison, the protocol in [34] cannot be compiled to be non-interactive. Its total communication cost is around $(34N\|\mathbb{G}\| + 22N\|\mathbb{Z}_q\|)$ bits. For a regular circuit, we always have $M < N$. Meanwhile, we have $\|\mathbb{G}\| > \|\mathbb{Z}_q\|$. Hence, the number of the transmitted bits of the previous generic protocol is at least $56\times$ larger than ours.

Table 5: Computation cost comparison between the previous generic work [34] and Π_{zk}^{EncEP} in this paper with parameters M and N .

Protocols	Time \mathbf{P} Expos	Time \mathbf{V} Expos
[34]	$\sim 59N$	$\sim 52N$
This paper	$\sim (16N + 11M)$	$\sim (10N + 3M)$

In Table 5, we count the total number of exponentiations that \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{V} need to perform in these two protocols. It is easy to see that the execution of our protocol should be much faster than the protocol in [34].

5.2 Performance of Our PFE Protocols

In this paper, we provide the *first* constant-round actively secure PFE protocol with linear complexity and the *first* constant-round PVC-secure PFE protocol

with linear complexity in the two-party setting. Furthermore, our constructions have comparably good performance with existing passively secure PFE protocols.

The same initiation phase of the two protocols can be compiled to be non-interactive, and the resulting non-interactive information for the initiation phase is around $(8N\|\mathbb{G}\| + 2M\|\mathbb{Z}_q\|)$ bits. The linear constant-round passively secure PFE protocols in [22] and [33] do not achieve reusability, but we can still divide them into the same two phases, such that the phase for preprocessing the circuit C_f is the initiation phase, and the phase for generating, sending the garbled circuit, and evaluating that circuit is the evaluation phase. The communication cost of the initiation phase of the optimized protocol in [22], the protocol in [33], and the protocol in [7] are $(2M + 6N)\|\mathbb{G}\|$ bits, $(2M + 4N)\|\mathbb{G}\|$ bits, and $(M + N)\|\mathbb{G}\|$ bits, respectively. We can see that our protocol is competitive, even if it is actively secure. We also remark that since the protocols in [22] and [33] do not achieve reusability. Their initiation phases require to be executed every time when the same circuit C_f is involved, while the cost of the initiation phase can be amortized to multiple executions if a protocol achieves reusability. Meanwhile, the initiation phase of the protocol in [7] is interactive, and it does not achieve global reusability. In comparison, the initiation phase of our protocol could be non-interactive, and it achieves global reusability.

It is shown that the linear passively secure PFE protocol in [7] outperforms the protocols in [22] and [33] when it is executed any number (more than one) of time for a fixed private circuit. Here, we reason that our PVC-secure protocol does not have too much overhead compared with the passively secure protocol in [7] in the evaluation phase. The additional communication cost of Π_{coverPFE} compared with the passively secure protocol in [7] mainly includes the following.

1. The λ executions of Π_{OT} in Step 0 for seed transmission.
2. The extra $\lambda - 1$ executions of Π_{OT} for input-wire labels retrieval in Step 2.
3. The λ tuples of $\{c_j, \sigma_j\}$ sent in Step 3.
4. The messages $\{c_{i,j,b}^{x_B}\}_{i \in [n_B], b \in \{0,1\}}$, h_j^O , decom^{c_j} , and $\{\text{decom}^{c_{i,j,x_B^{[i]}}}\}_{i \in [n_B]}$ sent in Step 5.

Let us analyze the cost of Π_{coverPFE} for the deterrence factor $\epsilon = 1/2$, *i.e.*, $\lambda = 2$. The additional communication cost of Step 1 and Step 3 is constant now. Meanwhile, the additional communication cost of Step 2 and Step 4 now only depends on the input length n of the circuit. For most regular circuits, this cost is significantly smaller than the dominant communication cost of transmitting the garbled gates, which is bounded by $\mathcal{O}(\theta)$ for circuit size θ . The additional computation cost for both parties is mainly from the cost of generating the corresponding GC_j 's to compute the commitments c_j 's for checked instances. Therefore, for the evaluation phase, the computation cost of both parties in our PVC-secure PFE protocol with $\epsilon = 1/2$ is only around $2.6\times$ that of the passively secure PFE protocol [7], and thus it is acceptable.

Finally, let us see the size of the certificate in our PVC-secure PFE protocol. Note that all elements other than the list P inside a certificate do not depend on the size of the private circuit C_f . If the initiation phase is compiled to be

non-interactive, we can assume that all parties have already held the messages generated in the initiation phase, including P . Now we do not need to include P in the certificate, and the size of the certificate is constant.

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