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### Multisignatures and Threshold Signatures in a Bitcoin Context

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- Bitcoin is a cryptocurrency denominated in *unspent transaction outputs* (UTXOs) labelled by a value and (script) public key.
- Transactions destroy UTXOs and create new UTXOs with equivalent value and different public keys.
- Transactions are serialized onto a *blockchain* which defines a canonical history.

- Bitcoin users generate a lot of keys; must store and recognize these.
- Loss or theft of a key is not recoverable.
- Keys are typically not uniform random; are related in detectable ways.
- Diverse hardware: PCs, tiny devices, cell phones, virtual machines. Allergic to randomness.

## Schnorr Signatures

$$P = \mathbf{x}G$$

R = kG e = H(P, R, m)s = k + ex

Notice P in the hash function.

- Consider "BIP32" keys P and P', where  $P' = P + \gamma G$  for some non-secret  $\gamma$ .
- Used to make key generation and backup more tractable.

$$R = kG$$
  

$$e = H(R, m)$$
  

$$s = k + ex$$
  

$$\rightarrow k + ex + e\gamma$$

# Sign-to-Contract

- Consider the "sign-to-contract" construction which overloads a signature as a signature on another, auxiliary message.
- Used for timestamping, wallet audit logging, and anti-covert-sidechannel resistance.

$$P = \mathbf{x}G$$

$$R^{0} = kG$$

$$R = R^{0} + H(R^{0}||c)G$$

$$e = H(P, R, m)$$

$$s = (k + H(R^{0}||c)) + ex$$

Now suppose  $\mathbf{k} = H(\mathbf{x} || \mathbf{m})$ , as in RFC6979.

 $s = (k + H(R^0 || c)) + ex$ -  $s = (k + H(R^0 || c')) + e'x$ 

$$0 = H(R^0 || c) - H(R^0 || c') + (e - e')x$$

So we'd better have  $\mathbf{k} = H(\mathbf{x} || \mathbf{m} || \mathbf{c})!$ 

- If *k* deviates from uniform by any amount, given enough signatures lattice techniques can be used to extract secret keys. (In practice at least a couple bits of bias are needed.)
- A malicious manufacturer could insert such bias in a way that only the attacker could detect the deviation.
- No way to prove that deterministic randomness was used (general zkps? Hard on typical signing hardware.)

- If the hardware device knows c before producing  $R^0$  it can grind k so that  $(k + H(R^0 || c))$  has detectable bias.
- If it doesn't know *c* how can it prevent replay attacks?
- Send hardware device H(c) and receive  $R^0$  before giving it c.
- Then k = H(x || m || H(c)).

- Bitcoin people use "multisignature" in a funny way.
- Includes thresholds (or arbitrary monotone functions of individuals' keys).
- Do not expect or want verifiers to see the original keys, for efficiency and privacy.

- Plain public-key model.
- May be chosen (from the set of available keys) adversarially and adaptively.
- Keys controlled by inflexible offline signing hardware.
- No good place to store KOSK proofs. No keygen authorities.
- Keys may encode semantics (e.g. Taproot, pay-to-contract) where KOSK is insufficient for security!

- Consider Schnorr multisignatures with combined keys of the form  $P = \sum P_i$ .
- Vulnerable to rogue-key attacks where one participant cancels others' keys.
- Bitcoin's *Taproot* uses keys of the form P = P' + H(P'||c)G which admits a new form of rogue-key attack.
- KOSK cannot protect against the latter!

- Derandomization of the form k = H(x || c) no longer works.
- In a multi-round protocol need to consider replay attacks, parallel attacks, VM forking, etc.
- General ZKPs can save us here. More R&D needed.

- Accountability: ability to prove which specific set of signers contributed to a threshold signature.
- Constant-size non-accountable signatures. Log-sized accountable signatures.
- Can we close this gap?

Thank you.

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