

## CS 171: Problem Set 10

Due Date: April 25, 2024 at 8.59pm via Gradescope

### 1 Proof of Decryption (10 Points)

We will construct a zero-knowledge proof system for DDH triples. This can be used to prove that a given El Gamal ciphertext was decrypted correctly without revealing the secret decryption key.

Let  $\text{pp} = (\mathbb{G}, g, g)$  be a group in which DDH is hard. Let  $\mathcal{L}$  be the language of DDH triples for this group:

$$\mathcal{L} = \{(\text{pp}, g^a, g^b, g^c) : c = a \cdot b \pmod{q}\}$$

Given an instance  $x = (\text{pp}, g^a, g^b, g^c) \in \mathcal{L}$ , let the corresponding witness be  $w = b$ . The witness provides a simple way to verify that  $x \in \mathcal{L}$ :

$$R(x, w) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } g^w = g^b \text{ and } (g^a)^w = g^c \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

We can also prove that  $x \in \mathcal{L}$  without revealing the witness to the verifier. To do so, we will construct a zero-knowledge proof below.

A Zero-Knowledge Protocol for  $\mathcal{L}$ :

- Inputs: The prover  $P$  takes inputs  $(1^\lambda, x, w)$  and the verifier  $V$  takes inputs  $(1^\lambda, x)$ .  $x = (\text{pp}, g^a, g^b, g^c)$ , and  $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ .
- $P$  samples  $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ , computes  $g^t = (g^a)^x$ , and sends  $(g^x, g^t)$  to  $V$ . Note that  $t = a \cdot x \pmod{q}$ .
- $V$  samples  $y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$  and sends  $y$  to  $P$ .
- $P$  computes  $z = w \cdot y + x$  and sends  $z$  to  $V$ .
- $V$  checks that:
  1.  $g^z = (g^b)^y \cdot g^x$ , and
  2.  $(g^a)^z = (g^c)^y \cdot g^t$

If both checks pass, then the verifier accepts the proof. Otherwise, they reject.

**Questions:**

1. Show that this proof system satisfies completeness and soundness.
2. Show that this proof system satisfies honest-verifier zero-knowledge.

The definitions of completeness, soundness, and honest-verifier zero-knowledge are given in Discussion 11.

**Solution**

1. **Claim 1.1 (Completeness)** *If  $R(x, w) = 1$ , and if the prover and verifier follow the protocol honestly, then the verifier will accept the proof with probability 1.*

**Proof**

- (a)  $R(x, w) = 1$  if and only if  $w = \mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c} \pmod q$ .
- (b) In this case, the verifier's checks will pass:
- i.  $g^z = g^{by+x} = (g^b)^y \cdot g^x$
  - ii.  $(g^a)^z = g^{aby+ax} = g^{cy+ax} = (g^c)^y \cdot g^t$
- (c) Therefore, the verifier will accept the proof with probability 1. ■

2. **Claim 1.2 (Soundness)** *If  $x \notin \mathcal{L}$ , then when any adversarial prover  $P^*$  interacts with the honest verifier  $V(1^\lambda, x)$ , the probability that the verifier accepts the proof is  $\text{negl}(\lambda)$ .*

**Proof**

- (a) If  $x \notin \mathcal{L}$ , then  $\mathbf{c} \neq \mathbf{ab} \pmod q$ .
- (b) Let the adversarial prover's first message be  $(g^x, g^t)$  for some  $t \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ .<sup>1</sup>
- (c) The verifier accepts if and only if:

$$\begin{aligned} z &= by + x \pmod q \\ az &= cy + t \pmod q \end{aligned}$$

- (d) We will show that the verifier accepts only if  $y = \frac{ax-t}{c-ab} \pmod q$ . To see why, let's do algebra on the equations above:

$$\begin{aligned} az &= aby + ax \pmod q \\ az &= cy + t \pmod q \\ cy + t &= aby + ax \pmod q \\ (c - ab)y &= ax - t \pmod q \\ y &= \frac{ax - t}{c - ab} \pmod q \end{aligned}$$

Note that we don't encounter a divide-by-zero error because  $c - ab \neq 0 \pmod q$ .

- (e) Note that  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})$  are determined by the end of the prover's first message, before  $y$  is sampled. Then:

$$\Pr_{y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q} \left[ y = \frac{ax - t}{c - ab} \pmod q \mid (\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) \right] = \frac{1}{q} = \text{negl}(\lambda)$$

This means that the verifier will accept the proof with probability  $\leq \text{negl}(\lambda)$ .

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<sup>1</sup>We can't assume that  $t = ax \pmod q$  because the prover is dishonest.



3. **Claim 1.3 (Honest-Verifier Zero-Knowledge)** *Let  $x \in \mathcal{L}$ , and let the prover and verifier follow the protocol honestly. Then there exists a simulator  $\text{Sim}$  such that  $\text{view}(V; 1^\lambda, x, w)$  is identically distributed to  $\text{Sim}(1^\lambda, x)$ .*

**Proof**

- (a) The verifier's view is the list of their inputs and the messages sent to and from the verifier during the protocol:

$$\text{view}(V; 1^\lambda, x, w) = [(1^\lambda, \text{pp}, g^a, g^b, g^c), (g^x, g^t, y, z)]$$

- (b)  $\text{Sim}^V(1^\lambda, x)$ :

- i. Sample  $y, z \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$  independently and uniformly at random.
- ii. Compute

$$g^x = g^z \cdot (g^b)^{-y} \tag{1.1}$$

$$g^t = (g^a)^z \cdot (g^c)^{-y} \tag{1.2}$$

- iii. Output

$$(1^\lambda, \text{pp}, g^a, g^b, g^c), (g^x, g^t, y, z)$$

4. We will argue that the distribution of  $(y, z, g^x, g^t)$  is the same in the real and simulated protocols.
5. In the simulated protocol:  $(x, t, y, z)$  have the following distribution: for a given  $(a, b, c, x, t, y, z)$ ,

$$\Pr[X = x, T = t, Y = y, Z = z] = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{q^2} & \text{if eqs. 1.1 and 1.2 are satisfied} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The randomness comes from  $Y, Z$ , which are independent and uniformly random.

6. In the real protocol:

- (a)  $(a, b, c, x, t, y, z)$  will satisfy equations 1.1 and 1.2. This is because

$$z = b \cdot y + x$$

$$x = z - b \cdot y$$

and

$$t = a \cdot x = a \cdot z - a \cdot b \cdot y$$

$$= a \cdot z - c \cdot y$$

- (b)  $x$  and  $y$  are sampled independently and uniformly at random. And for a given  $(a, b, c, x, y)$ :  $(t, z)$  take the unique values that satisfy equations 1.1 and 1.2.

(c) Therefore, for a given  $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$ :

$$\Pr[X = \mathbf{x}, T = \mathbf{t}, Y = \mathbf{y}, Z = \mathbf{z}] = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{q^2} & \text{if eqs. 1.1 and 1.2 are satisfied} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The randomness comes from  $X, Y$ , which are independent and uniformly random.

7. We've show that the distribution of  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$  is the same in the real protocol and the simulated protocol.

That means the distribution of  $\text{view}(V; 1^\lambda, x, w)$  is identical to the distribution of  $\text{Sim}^V(1^\lambda, x)$ , so the protocol satisfies honest-verifier zero-knowledge. ■

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## 2 Hiding and Binding For KZG Commitments (15 Points)

In discussion 11, we showed that the basic KZG commitment protocol is not hiding because the `Commit` function is deterministic. In section 2.1 below, we give a modified version of the scheme in which the `Commit` function is randomized.

**Question:** Prove that the commitment scheme given in section 2.1 satisfies the notions of hiding and polynomial binding given in section 2.2, assuming that the  $d$ -discrete log problem is hard.

### 2.1 A Randomized Polynomial Commitment Scheme

1. `Gen`( $1^n$ ):

- (a) Let  $d$  be polynomial in  $n$ .
- (b) Set up a bilinear map by sampling

$$\text{pp} = (\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_T, q, g, e) \leftarrow \mathcal{G}(1^n)$$

- (c) Sample  $h \leftarrow \mathbb{G}$  and  $\tau \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ .
- (d) Finally, output

$$\text{params} = \left( \text{pp}, g^\tau, g^{(\tau^2)}, \dots, g^{(\tau^d)}, h, h^\tau, h^{(\tau^2)}, \dots, h^{(\tau^d)} \right)$$

2. `Commit`(`params`,  $f$ ):

- (a) Let  $f$  be a polynomial  $\in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  of degree  $\leq d$ :

$$f(X) = \sum_{i=0}^d \alpha_i \cdot X^i$$

where every  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ .

- (b) Sample a polynomial  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  of degree  $\leq d$  uniformly at random. In other words, sample  $\beta_0, \dots, \beta_d \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$  independently and uniformly at random, and let

$$r(X) = \sum_{i=0}^d \beta_i \cdot X^i$$

- (c) Compute and output the commitment:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{com} &= \prod_{i=0}^d \left( g^{(\tau^i)} \right)^{\beta_i} \cdot \prod_{i=0}^d \left( h^{(\tau^i)} \right)^{\alpha_i} \\ &= g^{r(\tau)} \cdot h^{f(\tau)} \end{aligned}$$

*Note:* We also define `Commit`(`params`,  $f$ ;  $r$ ) to take the random polynomial  $r$  as input, rather than sampling  $r$  internally.

## 2.2 Definitions

Hiding basically says that  $\text{Commit}(f, \text{params})$  doesn't reveal any information about  $f$ . The definition of hiding resembles the definition of CPA security.

### Definition 2.1 (Hiding)

Hiding-Game $(n, \mathcal{A})$ :

1. The challenger samples  $\text{params} \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^n)$  and sends  $\text{params}$  to the adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ .
2.  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs two polynomials  $f_0, f_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  of degree  $\leq d$ .
3. The challenger samples  $b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$  and computes:  $\text{com}^* = \text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_b)$ . They send  $\text{com}^*$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ .
4.  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs a guess  $b'$  for  $b$ . The output of the game is 1 if  $b' = b$  and 0 otherwise.

The commitment scheme is **hiding** if for any PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ ,

$$\Pr[\text{Hiding-Game}(n, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \text{negl}(n)$$

Next, we'll consider a notion called polynomial binding, which says that the adversary cannot find two inputs to  $\text{Commit}$  that produce the same commitment. This resembles the definition of collision-resistance.

### Definition 2.2 (Polynomial Binding)

Polynomial-Binding-Game $(n, \mathcal{A})$ :

1. The challenger samples  $\text{params} \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^n)$  and sends  $\text{params}$  to the adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ .
2.  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs two pairs  $(f_0, r_0)$  and  $(f_1, r_1)$ , where  $f_0, r_0, f_1, r_1$  are polynomials  $\in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  of degree  $\leq d$ .
3. The output of the game is 1 if  $f_0 \neq f_1$ , and

$$\text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_0; r_0) = \text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_1; r_1)$$

Otherwise, the output of the game is 0.

The commitment scheme satisfies **polynomial binding** if

$$\Pr[\text{Polynomial-Binding-Game}(n, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow 1] \leq \text{negl}(n)$$

Finally, we will prove polynomial binding using the hardness of the following problem.

### Definition 2.3 (A Variant of Discrete Log)

d-Discrete-Log $(n, \mathcal{A})$ :

1. Let  $d$  be polynomial in  $n$ .

2. The challenger samples  $\text{pp} = (\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_T, q, g, e) \leftarrow \mathcal{G}(1^n)$  as well as  $\tau \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ . Then they send the adversary:  $(\text{pp}, g^\tau, g^{(\tau^2)}, \dots, g^{(\tau^d)})$
3. The adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs a guess  $\tau'$  for  $\tau$ . The output of the game is 1 if  $\tau' = \tau$  and 0 otherwise.

The  $d$ -discrete-log problem is hard if for any PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ ,

$$\Pr[d\text{-Discrete-Log}(n, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow 1] \leq \text{negl}(n)$$

Note that if the  $d$ -discrete-log problem is hard, then in addition, the regular discrete log problem is hard for  $\mathbb{G}$ .

**Solution**

1. **Claim 2.4** *The commitment scheme is hiding.*

**Proof**

- (a) Key Idea:  $g^{r(\tau)}$  is uniformly random over the randomness of  $r$ , so  $g^{r(\tau)}$  masks the value of  $h^{f(\tau)}$ .
- (b) For any given  $\tau$ ,  $r(\tau)$  is uniformly random in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , over the randomness of  $r$ . Then for any polynomial  $f$  and any parameters  $\text{params}$ , the output of  $\text{Commit}(\text{params}, f)$  is uniformly random in  $\mathbb{G}$  due to the randomness of  $r$ .
- (c) Then the commitment  $\text{com}^* = \text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_b)$  is actually independent of  $b$ . In this case, the adversary's probability of correctly guessing  $b$  is exactly  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Therefore, the scheme is hiding. ■

2. **Claim 2.5** *The commitment scheme satisfies polynomial binding.*

**Proof**

- (a) If the  $d$ -discrete log problem is hard, then in addition, the regular discrete log problem is hard for  $\mathbb{G}$ . Assume toward contradiction that there is an adversary  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{Binding}}$  that breaks polynomial binding. Then we will use  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{Binding}}$  to construct two adversaries:
- An adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  that solves the discrete log problem in  $\mathbb{G}$  to find the  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  for which  $h = g^x$ .
  - An adversary  $\mathcal{C}$  that solves the  $d$ -discrete log problem by computing  $\tau$  from  $\text{params}$ .

We will show that one of these adversaries succeeds with non-negligible probability. This is a contradiction because discrete log and  $d$ -discrete log are hard. Therefore, there is no adversary that breaks binding.

- (b) Construction of  $\mathcal{B}$ :

- i. The discrete log challenger samples  $\text{pp} = (\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_T, q, g, e) \leftarrow \mathcal{G}(1^n)$  and  $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ . They send  $(\text{pp}, g^x)$  to  $\mathcal{B}$ .
- ii.  $\mathcal{B}$  sets  $h = g^x$ . Then they sample  $\tau \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and compute

$$\text{params} = \left( \text{pp}, g^\tau, g^{(\tau^2)}, \dots, g^{(\tau^d)}, h, h^\tau, h^{(\tau^2)}, \dots, h^{(\tau^d)} \right)$$

- iii. They run  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{Binding}}$  on input  $\text{params}$ . With non-negligible probability,  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{Binding}}$  outputs  $(f_0, r_0)$  and  $(f_1, r_1)$  such that  $f_0 \neq f_1$ , and  $\text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_0; r_0) = \text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_1; r_1)$ .
- iv. Compute and output

$$x = \frac{r_1(\tau) - r_0(\tau)}{f_0(\tau) - f_1(\tau)}$$



- (c) If  $\text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_0; r_0) = \text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_1; r_1)$ , and  $f_0(\tau) \neq f_1(\tau)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} g^{r_0(\tau)} \cdot h^{f_0(\tau)} &= g^{r_1(\tau)} \cdot h^{f_1(\tau)} \\ h^{f_0(\tau) - f_1(\tau)} &= g^{r_1(\tau) - r_0(\tau)} \\ x \cdot [f_0(\tau) - f_1(\tau)] &= r_1(\tau) - r_0(\tau) \pmod q \\ x &= \frac{r_1(\tau) - r_0(\tau)}{f_0(\tau) - f_1(\tau)} \pmod q \end{aligned}$$

In this case,  $\mathcal{B}$  solves the discrete log problem.

### 3. Construction of $\mathcal{C}$ :

- (a) The  $d$ -discrete-log challenger samples  $\text{pp} = (\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_T, q, g, e) \leftarrow \mathcal{G}(1^n)$  as well as  $\tau \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$ . Then they send the adversary:

$$\left( \text{pp}, g^\tau, g^{(\tau^2)}, \dots, g^{(\tau^d)} \right)$$

- (b) The adversary  $\mathcal{C}$  samples  $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$  and computes

$$\begin{aligned} h &= g^x, \quad h^\tau = (g^\tau)^x, \quad \dots, \quad h^{(\tau^d)} = (g^{(\tau^d)})^x \\ \text{params} &= \left( \text{pp}, g^\tau, g^{(\tau^2)}, \dots, g^{(\tau^d)}, h, h^\tau, h^{(\tau^2)}, \dots, h^{(\tau^d)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

- (c) They run  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{Binding}}$  on input  $\text{params}$ . With non-negligible probability,  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{Binding}}$  outputs  $(f_0, r_0)$  and  $(f_1, r_1)$  such that  $f_0 \neq f_1$ , and  $\text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_0; r_0) = \text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_1; r_1)$ .

- (d) If  $f_0 \neq f_1$ , then compute the roots of the polynomial  $f_0(X) - f_1(X)$ . For each root  $\tau'$ , check whether  $g^{\tau'} = g^\tau$ . If so, output  $\tau'$ .

4. If  $f_0 \neq f_1$ , then  $f_0(X) - f_1(X)$  is a non-zero polynomial of degree  $\leq d$ . Therefore, it has at most  $d$  roots. If  $f_0(\tau) = f_1(\tau)$ , then  $\tau$  is one of those roots, so  $\mathcal{C}$  will find  $\tau$  and win the  $d$ -discrete-log game.

5. One of the following events occurs with non-negligible probability:

- (a)  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{Binding}}$  outputs  $(f_0, r_0)$  and  $(f_1, r_1)$  such that  $f_0 \neq f_1$ , and  $\text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_0; r_0) = \text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_1; r_1)$ , and  $\underline{f_0(\tau) \neq f_1(\tau)}$ .
- (b)  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{Binding}}$  outputs  $(f_0, r_0)$  and  $(f_1, r_1)$  such that  $f_0 \neq f_1$ , and  $\text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_0; r_0) = \text{Commit}(\text{params}, f_1; r_1)$ , and  $\underline{f_0(\tau) = f_1(\tau)}$ .

If the first event has non-negligible probability, then  $\mathcal{B}$  breaks the hardness of discrete log. If the second event has non-negligible probability, then  $\mathcal{C}$  breaks the hardness of  $d$ -discrete log.

In either case, we've arrived at a contradiction because both discrete log in  $\mathbb{G}$  and  $d$ -discrete log are assumed to be hard. Therefore, there does not exist a PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{Binding}}$  that breaks the polynomial binding of the commitment scheme. ■

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### **3 Course Evaluation (Extra Credit: 2 Points)**

Complete your course evaluation for this course. You can write as much or as little as you want. Include a screenshot of the submission receipt when you submit this assignment to Gradescope to prove that you've finished your evaluation.