

# 1 Interactive Proofs vs. Argument Schemes in Zero-Knowledge

## 1.1 Computational/Perfect Security and Binding

We have the following definition of **Hiding**, and **Binding** in commitment schemes.

1. **Hiding:** How well, for commitment  $\text{commit}(b)$ , the scheme hides  $b$  from the receiver  $R$ . That is, how difficult it is for  $R$  to determine the value of  $b$  given  $\text{commit}(b)$ .
2. **Binding:** How difficult, for commitment  $\text{commit}(b)$ , it is for the Committer  $C$  to decommit to a values  $b' \neq b$  after sending  $\text{commit}(b)$ .

### 1.1.1 Statistically Binding, Computationally Hiding

Recall the scheme where the Committer  $C$  sends commitment:

$$\text{commit}(b) = (b \oplus \langle x, r \rangle, f(x), r)$$

With one way permutation  $f$  and decommits with  $x$ . Firstly, since  $f$  is a permutation, only one  $x$  can decommit the  $f(x)$  value so the commitment is **perfectly binding**. Furthermore, we demonstrated that there is no PPT adversary that can successfully predict  $\langle x, r \rangle$  with non-negligible probability, and therefore the scheme is **computationally binding**.

### 1.1.2 Computationally Binding, Statistically Hiding

First we define the notion of a **Claw-Free Pair**  $(f_1, f_2)$  which are a pair of 1-way permutations s.t. no polytime machine can find  $x_0, x_1$  such that  $f_1(x_0) = f_2(x_1)$ .

With this, we can construct the following commitment scheme that is **Perfectly hiding** and **Computationally Binding**:

1. Committer  $C$  selects random  $x \xleftarrow{\$} X$  and commitment  $f_b(x)$ .
2. Decommit by sending  $x$ , where receiver can calculate the decommitment by testing whether  $f_1/f_0 = f_b(x)$ .

This scheme is clearly computationally binding since a PPT committer cannot find two values  $x_0, x_1$  such that  $f_0(x_0) = f_1(x_1)$ . Furthermore, since it

relies on the fact that  $C$  is weak, the receiver  $R$  cannot distinguish whether  $f_b(x)$  was derived from  $f_0(x_0)$  or  $f_1(x_1)$ , and therefore cannot determine the commitment.

This type of commitment is called a Zero Knowledge Argument opposed to a proof since an infinitely powerful prover could cheat. However, in practice it is very useful as even an infinitely powerful *eavesdropper* cannot successfully decommit  $C$ 's commitment before  $C$  does.

### 1.1.3 Impossibility of Perfect Hiding and Binding

It is impossible for a scheme to be both perfectly hiding and binding. Consider a commitment scheme between an infinitely powerful committer  $C$  and receiver  $R$  that achieves both perfect hiding and binding. Perfect binding implies that once  $C$  chooses  $b$ ,  $\text{decommit}(\text{commit}(b)) = b$ . Since the receiver is infinitely powerful, it can enumerate through all possible inputs of the commitment scheme until it finds one that generates the same value as  $\text{commit}(b)$ , and can therefore determine  $b$ , demonstrating that the scheme cannot be perfectly hiding.

## 2 Pseudo Random Generators

A pseudo random generator  $G$  takes small seed  $s$  and outputs string  $G(s)$  that is of length  $Q(|s|)$  for some polynomial  $Q$ . The notion of **Indistinguishability** means that two strings  $r \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}^{Q(|x|)}$  and  $G(s)$  with  $s \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}$  are indistinguishable by any PPT adversary  $A$ . We have a new notion of **Next-Bit Security** as follows:

### 2.1 Next-Bit Security of a PRG [Blum, Micali]

A PRG is **Next-Bit secure** if, given a stream of polynomially many bits generated from  $\text{PRG}(s) = b_0b_1\dots b_{\text{poly}}$ , no PPT adversary, given  $b_0, \dots, b_{i-1}$  can predict  $b_i$  with probability  $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon(\text{poly})$ .

#### 2.1.1 Next-Bit secure PRG

We define the PRG as follows given 1 way permutation  $f$ :

1.  $G$  selects a random  $r$  and seed  $x_0$  to generate a string of length  $m + 2n$ .

2. Firstly, for we generate  $m$  bits in the following manner. For  $i = 1, \dots, m$ ,  $x_i = f(x_{i-1})$  and  $d_i = \langle x_i, r \rangle$ . Then the PRG outputs  $x_m | r | d_m, d_{m-1}, \dots, d_1$ .

To demonstrate that this scheme is secure, we must argue that that any adversary that can determine  $b_i$  given  $b_1, \dots, b_{i-1}$  with non-negligible advantage can successfully invert  $f$  with non-negligible probability. Firstly, recall that if an adversary  $A$  exists that can successfully predict  $\langle x, r \rangle$  given  $(f(x), r)$ , then we can construct an  $A'$  that can successfully invert  $f$  with non-negligible probability. Thus, we will show that the existence of an adversary that has advantage over guessing  $b_i$  for some  $i$  has an advantage in guessing  $(f(x), r)$ . The adversary  $A$ , given oracle access to  $A_G$ , which predicts  $b_i$ , does the following:

1.  $A$  receives  $(f(x'), r)$  and has to output  $\langle x', r \rangle$  with non-negligible probability, firstly, it generates the string as done above using  $r$ . Then, for random  $x_i$ , it replaces it with  $f(x')$  and computes the remainder of the bits according the the algorithm.
2. Now, it sequentially passing the bits  $b_1, \dots, b_{m+2n}$  to  $A_G$  until  $A_G$  outputs  $b_i$ . If  $i$  was the location where the initial  $x$  was swapped for  $f(x')$ , then  $A$  outputs  $A_G$ 's guess.

### Demonstrating Advantage:

Firstly, observe that the last  $2n$  bits of the  $PRG$  are completely random. Since  $f$  is a permutation  $Pr[x_m = x_m] = \frac{1}{2^n}$ . Furthermore, since  $r$  is also random it cannot predict any  $b_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, 2n$  with probability greater than  $1/2$ .

For the last  $m$  bits of  $G$ , there must be some  $i$  where  $A_G$  can predict  $b_i$  with non-negligible probability. If that location is exactly where we replaced  $\langle x_i, r \rangle$  with  $\langle x', r \rangle$ , then the  $A$ 's advantage of guessing  $\langle x', r \rangle$  is  $\frac{1}{m} \cdot \epsilon(n)$  where  $\epsilon(n)$  is  $A_G$ 's advantage of predicting the next bit of the PRG, which is still a non-negligible advantage.

To demonstrate why we can simply replace a random  $\langle x_i, r \rangle$  with  $\langle x', r \rangle$ , consider any honestly generated sequence  $x_m | r | b_1, \dots, b_m$ . Then  $A_G$  must have an advantage on guessing some  $b_i$ . Since  $b_i = \langle x_i, r \rangle$ , we can guarantee that  $A$  has a non-negligible advantage on  $(f(x_i), r)$  since we can construct the first  $2n + i$  bits as described above.

## 2.2 Equivalence of Indistinguishability and Next-Bit Security

We need to show that **Indistinguishability**  $\iff$  **Next Bit Security**. Direction that **Indistinguishability**  $\implies$  **Next-Bit Security**. To demonstrate this we show that if we have an adversary that can guess the next bit of  $G(s)$ , then there exists adversary that can distinguish  $G(s)$  and random string  $r$ . This is simply done by feeding the adversary  $A$  the bits of  $G(s)/r$  and outputting 1 if it guesses a bit correctly and 0 if it gets it wrong.

### 2.2.1 Next-Bit Security $\implies$ Indistinguishability

We demonstrate that if there exists an adversary  $A$  that can distinguish  $G(s)$  from  $r$  with non-negligible probability, then it can guess the next-bit of a stream of either  $r$  or  $G(s)$  with non-negligible probability. We once again use the hybrid argument as follows, since:

$$|Pr[A(G(s)) = 1] - Pr[A(r) = 1]| = \epsilon(n)$$

There must be some  $i$  where,  $X_i = PRG(S)_1, \dots, PRG(S)_i, r_{i+1}, \dots, r_n$ :

$$|Pr[A(X_{i-1}) = 1] - Pr[A(X_i) = 1]| \geq \frac{\epsilon(n)}{m}$$

We design  $A'$ , which guesses bit  $i$  from  $G(S)$  as follows.

1. Receive the first  $i - 1$  bits and construct  $X = b_1, \dots, b_{i-1}$ .
2. Guess bit  $b_i$  as  $b'$  and generate  $n - i$  random bits  $r$ .
3. If  $A(b_1, \dots, b_{i-1}, b', r_{i+1}, \dots, r_n) = 1$  output guess  $b'$ , else  $1 - b'$

**Analysis:** To argue that it guesses  $b_i$  with non-negligible probability, we first simplify  $\epsilon(n)/m$  to  $\epsilon(n)$  and get the following:

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[A'(b_1 \dots b_{i-1}) = b_i] &= Pr[b' = b_i] \cdot Pr[A(X_i) = 1] \\ &\quad + Pr[b' = 1 - b_i] \cdot Pr[A(b_1 \dots b_{i-1} \hat{b}_i r_{i+1} \dots r_n) = 0] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \epsilon(n) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot q \end{aligned}$$

Before solving for  $q$ , the first part of the above probability is the probability that the guessed  $b'$  is actually  $b_i$  times the probability  $A$  outputs 1. We say

that  $P_i = Pr[A(X_i) = 1]$  To solve for  $q$ , we need to find out:

$$\begin{aligned}
Pr[A(X_{i-1}) = 1] &= Pr[A(b_1..b_{i-1}b_iR) = 1] \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot Pr[A(b_1..b_{i-1}\bar{b}_iR) = 1] \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \cdot P_i + \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1 - q) \\
q &= P_i + 1 - 2 \cdot P_{i-1}
\end{aligned}$$

Plugging  $q$  back into the original equation we get:

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{2} \cdot P_i + \frac{1}{2} \cdot q \\
&= \frac{1}{2}(2P_i + 1 - 2P_{i-1}) \\
&\geq \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon(n)
\end{aligned}$$