

Capstone: Verifiable Delay Functions

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1 Introduction

A delay function is an important cryptographic primitive used for adding delay in decentralized applications. Starting with the implementation of cryptocurrency, the last decades have witnessed numerous constructions of delay function involving various mathematical techniques, and a number of exciting applications. An example of such a delay function is Verifiable Delay Function (VDF). This concept was recently introduced by Boneh, Bonneau, Bünz and Fisch [2]. As a part of my capstone project, I went over different constructions of VDFs and implemented them in Javascript. In this paper, I'll be discussing about the various VDF constructions including a recently introduced primitive called Continuous Verifiable Delay Function [3].

2 Verifiable Delay Functions

A Verifiable Delay Function (VDF)[2] is a special type of a delay function based on the notion of repeated squaring in a group of unknown order coined by Rivest Shamir and Wagner in 1996 [8]. It is a slow function that takes a pre-defined amount of time to compute even on a parallel processor, and is exponentially easier to verify by anyone. A VDF consists of three algorithms:

1. **Setup** $(\lambda, \mathcal{T}) \rightarrow pp$ is a randomized algorithm that takes a security parameter λ and a time delay bound \mathcal{T} , and outputs public parameters pp .
2. **Eval** $(pp, x) \rightarrow (y, \pi)$ takes an input $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and the public parameters pp , and produces an output $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ and a proof of the computation π .
3. **Verify** $(pp, x, y, \pi) \rightarrow \{accept, reject\}$ is a deterministic algorithm that takes an input $x \in \mathcal{X}$, output $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ and proof π , and outputs *accept* if y is the correct evaluation of the VDF on input x , otherwise outputs *reject*.

2.1 Security Properties

A VDF must satisfy the following three properties:

Sequentiality: A parallel algorithm A , using at most $\text{poly}(\lambda)$ processors, that runs in time less than T cannot compute the function. Specifically, for a random $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and pp output by $\text{Setup}(\lambda, T)$, if $(y, \pi) \rightarrow \text{Eval}(pp, x)$ then $\Pr[\text{Eval}(pp, x) \neq y]$ is negligible.

Soundness: For an input $x \in \mathcal{X}$, exactly one $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ will be accepted by Verify . Specifically, let A be an efficient algorithm that given pp as input, outputs (x, y, π) such that $\text{Verify}(pp, x, y, \pi) = \text{accept}$. Then $\Pr[\text{Eval}(pp, x) \neq y]$ is negligible.

Completeness: The deterministic Eval algorithm generates a *unique* output $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ and a proof of the computation π for an input $x \in \mathcal{X}$. The completeness property guarantees that Verify always produces an output *accept* for correctly generated proofs and computation.

2.2 Construction

There are two constructions of VDFs that were recently proposed, one by Wesolowski [9] and other by Pietrzak [6]. In this segment, I'll go over each of the constructions and provide a pseudocode to implement them.

2.2.1 Simple VDF- Wesolowski

Setup: The VDF setup requires a security parameter λ (typically between 128 and 256) as an input. It generates an RSA public modulus N of bit length λ and computes a secure hash function $H : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$.

Evaluation: The evaluation takes as input a time bound parameter $T \in N$ and computes $x = H(m) \in \mathbb{Q}\mathbb{R}_N^+$. Then using repeated squaring, it computes $y = (x^{2^T} \bmod N) \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$. It is important to know that if the evaluator knows $\phi(N)$, it can cut this computation because $x^{2^T} \bmod N = x^{2^T \bmod \phi(N)} \bmod N$.

Proof: The VDF evaluator needs to compute a proof (π) that satisfies $y = (x^{2^T} \bmod N) \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$. The proof begins by computing l which is a nextprime (H_{prime}) of x and y i.e. $l = H_{\text{prime}}(x + y)$. Then, it computes $\pi = x^{\lfloor 2^T \rfloor} \bmod N$.

Verification: A verifier takes as an input (m, T, l, π) and computes $r = 2^T \bmod l$ and $y' = \pi^l \cdot x^r \bmod N$. Then it checks whether $H_{\text{prime}}(x + y') = l$.

2.2.2 Implementation of Simple VDF:

Wesolowski's construction has two protocols- interactive and non-interactive [9]. The non-interactive protocol is based on Fiat-Shamir Heuristic [4]. In this paper, I will only show the implementation of non-interactive protocol. This implementation requires us to find the

next-prime. I've used the concept of 8/30 wheel followed by a primality test to compute the next-prime.

Algorithm 1 Wesolowski's VDF

Evaluation and Proof

```

1: Input:  $\mathcal{T} \in N, m \in \{0, 1\}^*$ 
2: Proof:
3:  $x \leftarrow H(m)$ 
4:  $y \leftarrow x$ 
5: for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $\mathcal{T}$  do
6:    $y \leftarrow y^2 \bmod N$  ▷ Repeated Squaring
7: end for
8:  $l \leftarrow H_{\text{prime}}(x + y)$  ▷ Choose a prime  $l \in \{1, \dots, 2^\lambda\}$  to make this interactive
9:  $\pi \leftarrow x^{\lfloor 2^\mathcal{T}/l \rfloor} \bmod N$ 
10: Output:  $(\pi, l)$ 

```

Verification

```

1: Input:  $x, \mathcal{T}, \pi, l$ 
2: Process:
3:  $r \leftarrow 2^\mathcal{T} \bmod l$ 
4:  $y \leftarrow \pi^l \cdot x^r \bmod N$ 
5: if  $l = H_{\text{prime}}(x + y)$  then
6:   accept
7: else
8:   reject
9: end if
10: Output:  $(\text{accept}, \text{reject})$ 

```

Algorithm 2 Finding Next Prime

```
1: Input:  $num$ 
2: Process:
3: if  $num = even$  then
4:    $num \leftarrow num + 1$ 
5: end if
6: for  $i \leftarrow num$  to  $2 \times num$  do
7:   if  $i \bmod 3 \neq 0$  and  $i \bmod 5 \neq 0$  then
8:     if  $num = prime$  then ▷ Miller Rabin Primality Test
9:        $pp \leftarrow i$ 
10:      break
11:    end if
12:  end if
13:  Increment  $i$  by 2
14: end for
15: Output:  $(pp)$ 
```

2.2.3 Efficient VDF- Pietrzak

The Setup and Evaluation part of the Pietrzak's VDF are the same as Wesolowski's VDF.

Proof: The proof for Pietrzak's VDF is computed recursively. It uses the variables defined below. For $i \in [1, t]$ where $\mathcal{T} = 2^t$

$$\begin{aligned} u_i &= x^{2^{\mathcal{T}/2^i}} \\ r_i &= H(x_i + y_i + u_i) \\ x_{i+1} &= x_i^{r_i} \cdot u_i \bmod N; x_1 = x \\ y_{i+1} &= u_i^{r_i} \cdot y_i \bmod N; y_1 = y \end{aligned}$$

Here, the proof is $\pi = \{u_i\}_{i \in [1, t]}$.

Verification: For verification, the verifier computes x_{t+1} and y_{t+1} the same way as in the proof section for each value of u_i received.

$$\begin{aligned} r_i &= H(x_i + y_i + u_i) \\ x_{i+1} &= x_i^{r_i} \cdot u_i \bmod N; x_1 = x \\ y_{i+1} &= u_i^{r_i} \cdot y_i \bmod N; y_1 = y \end{aligned}$$

Finally, it checks whether $y_{t+1} = x_{t+1}^2$.

2.2.4 Implementation of Efficient Simple VDF:

Pietrzak's construction also has two protocols- interactive and non-interactive [6]. The non-interactive protocol is based on Fiat-Shamir Heuristic. In this paper, I will only show the implementation of non-interactive protocol.

Algorithm 3 Pietrzak VDF

Evaluation and Proof

```

1: Input:  $\mathcal{T} \in N, m \in \{0, 1\}^*$ 
2: Process:
3:  $x \leftarrow H(m)$ 
4:  $y \leftarrow x$ 
5: for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $\mathcal{T}$  do
6:    $y \leftarrow y^2 \bmod N$  ▷ Repeated Squaring
7: end for
8:  $t \leftarrow \lfloor \log_2(\mathcal{T}) \rfloor$ 
9:  $(x_1, y_1) = (x, y)$ 
10: for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $t$  do
11:   if  $\mathcal{T} = \text{Odd}$  then
12:      $\mathcal{T} \leftarrow (\mathcal{T} + 1)/2$ 
13:      $u_i \leftarrow x_i^{2^{\mathcal{T}}}$ 
14:      $r_i \leftarrow H(x_i + y_i + u_i)$  ▷ Choose any  $r \in \{1, 2, \dots, 2^\lambda\}$  to make this interactive
15:      $x_{i+1} \leftarrow x_i^{r_i} \cdot u_i \bmod N$ 
16:      $y'_{i+1} \leftarrow u_i^{r_i} \cdot y_i \bmod N$ 
17:      $y_{i+1} \leftarrow (y'_{i+1})^2$ 
18:   else
19:      $\mathcal{T} \leftarrow \mathcal{T}/2$ 
20:      $u_i \leftarrow x_i^{2^{\mathcal{T}}}$ 
21:      $r_i \leftarrow H(x_i + y_i + u_i)$ 
22:      $x_{i+1} \leftarrow x_i^{r_i} \cdot u_i \bmod N$ 
23:      $y_{i+1} \leftarrow u_i^{r_i} \cdot y_i \bmod N$ 
24:   end if
25: end for
26: Output:  $\pi \leftarrow \{u_i\}_{i \in [1, t]}$ 

```

Verification

```
1: Input:  $x, \mathcal{T}, pi$ 
2: Process:
3:  $t \leftarrow \lfloor \log_2(\mathcal{T}) \rfloor$ 
4:  $(x_1, y_1) = (x, y)$ 
5: for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $t$  do
6:    $r_i \leftarrow H(x_i + y_i + u_i)$ 
7:    $x_{i+1} \leftarrow x_i^{r_i} \cdot u_i \bmod N$ 
8:    $y_{i+1} \leftarrow u_i^{r_i} \cdot y_i \bmod N$ 
9: end for
10: if  $y_{t+1} = x_{t+1}^2$  then
11:   accept
12: else
13:   reject
14: end if
15: Output:  $\{u_i\}_{i \in [1, t]}$ 
```

2.3 Performance Graph

After implementing both the constructions (Wesolowski's VDF and Pietrzak's VDF) on javascript, I tested their performance as mentioned in the paper by Attis, Vigneri and Dimitrov [1]. I ran the simulations for values of \mathcal{T} between 2^{20} and 2^{25} and values of RSA modulus bit length λ in $\{256, 512, 1024\}$. These were my results:

Evaluation Time Analysis: The values for both Pietrzak and Wesolowski VDFs are identical here since both the implementations follow the same Evaluation procedure. As shown in Figure 1, as the number of exponentiation increases, the time taken to compute the function also increases. We can also see an impact of the RSA bit length as it yields a great variation.

Proof Time Analysis: From Figure 2, we can see that Wesolowski's proof takes much more time than Pietrzak's. This might be due to the next-prime function I have on my code for Wesolowski's proof. We can reduce the overall proof time of Wesolowski if we implement a more efficient algorithm for next-prime.

Verification Analysis: From Figure 3, we can see that Wesolowski's proof takes much longer to get verified. One reason could again be due to the next-prime function on my code.

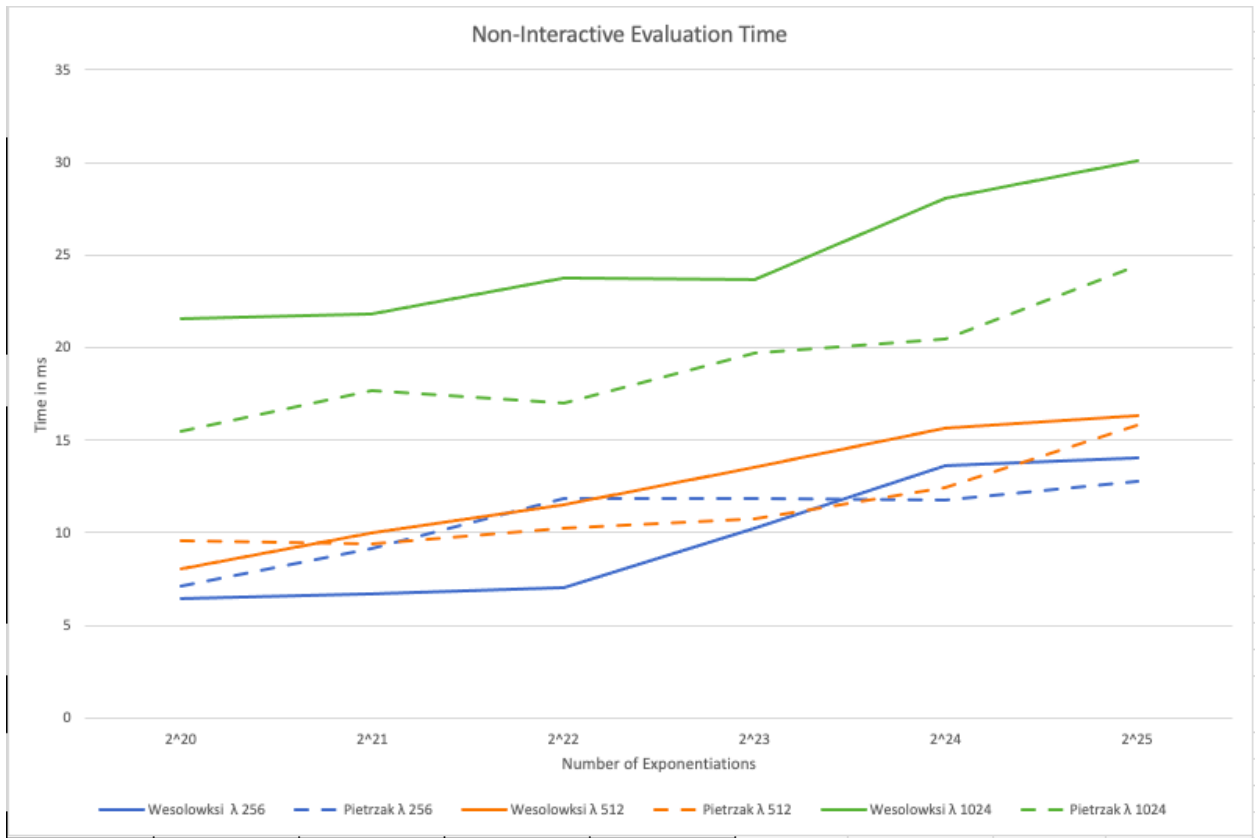


Figure 1: Evaluation Time

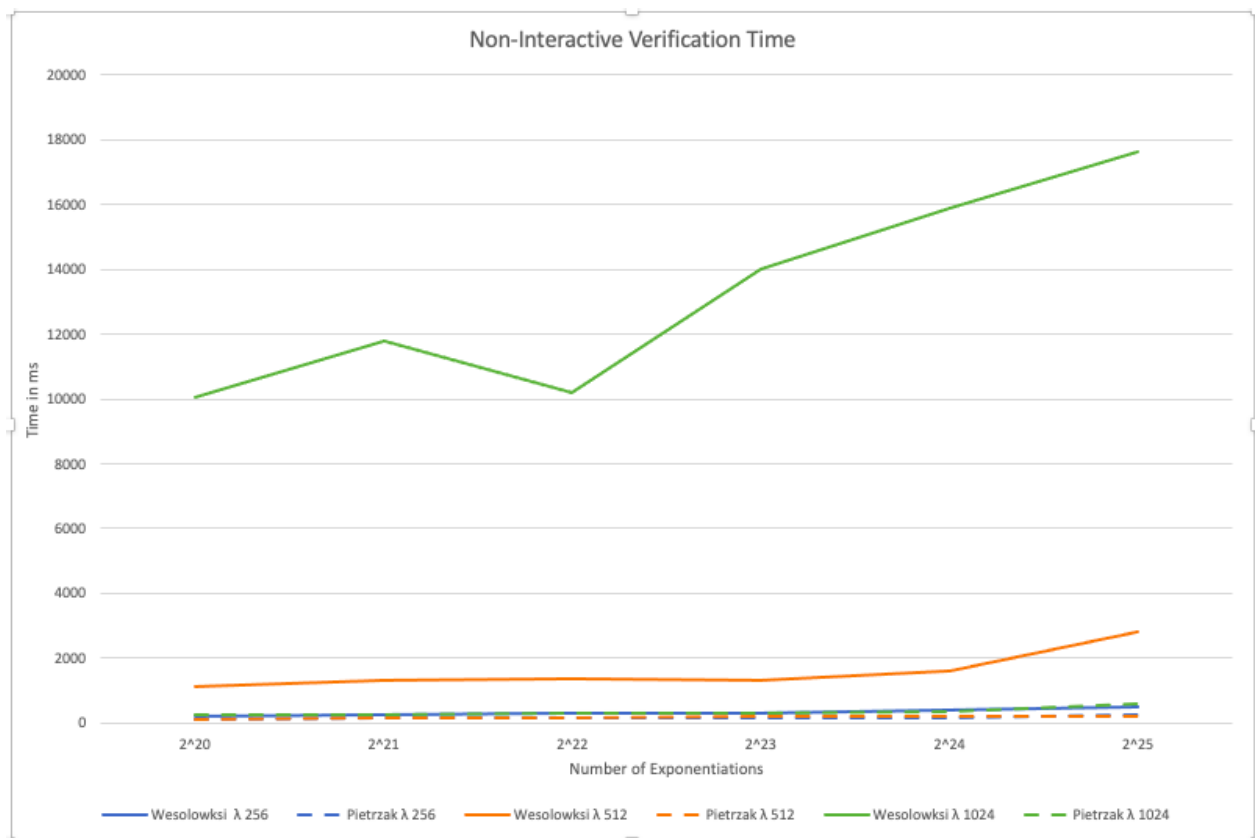


Figure 2: Proof Time

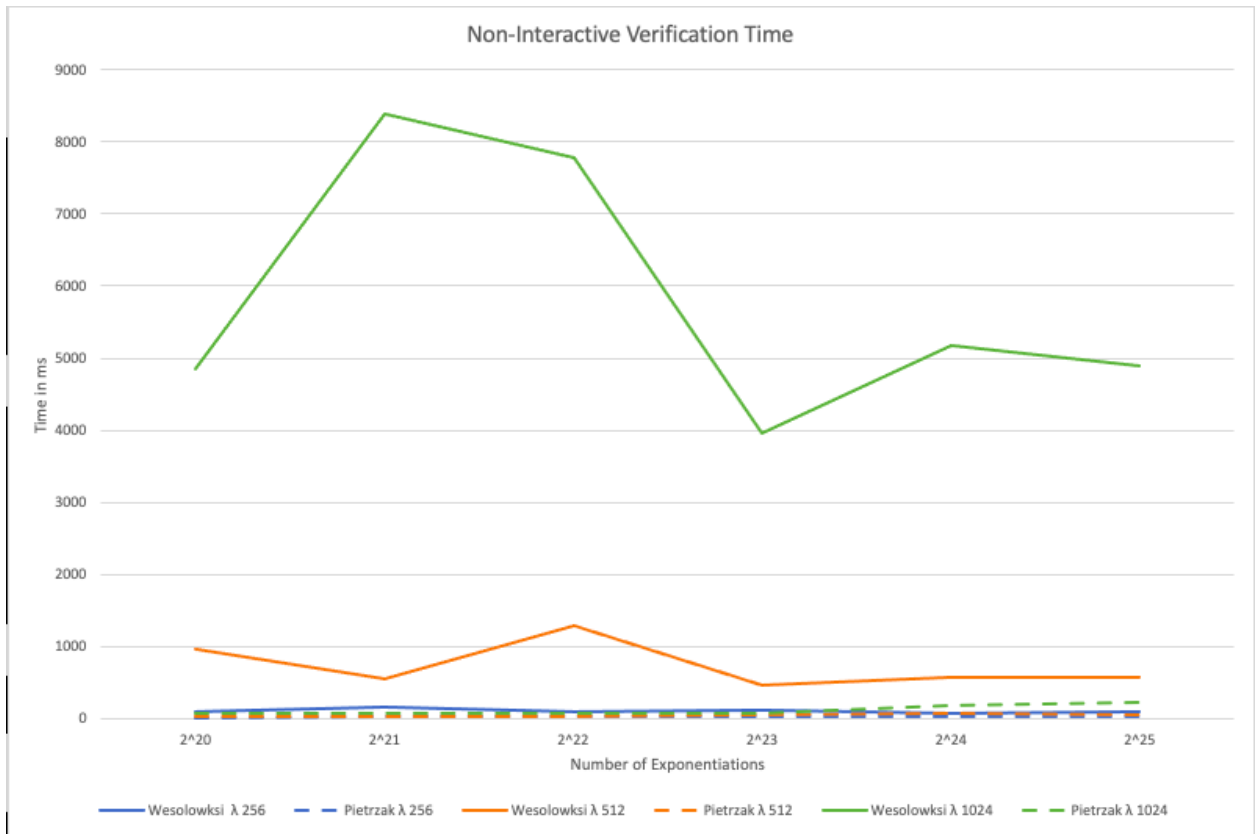


Figure 3: Verification Time

2.4 Application of VDF

Randomness Beacon: Randomness Beacon is a notion first suggested by Rabin in 1983 [7] as an ideal service that regularly publishes unpredictable and independent random values which no party can predict or manipulate. This concept has received a substantial amount of attention since its introduction, and even more so in recent years due to its many applications to more efficient and reliable consensus protocols in the context of blockchain technologies. VDFs are useful for constructing randomness beacons from source such as stock prices or proof-of-work blockchains [2]. Its sequentiality property ensures that it takes at least time \mathcal{T} to compute the function even with parallel machines. Using a VDF, we can construct a randomness beacon where the output at interval \mathcal{T} is computed as the \mathcal{T} -times repeated squaring of the seed x , i.e., $f(x, \mathcal{T}) = x^{2^{\mathcal{T}}}$. After time \mathcal{T} , the beacon’s output should be unpredictable sufficiently far in the future.

3 Continuous Verifiable Delay Functions

One of the problems with VDF is that it can’t be outsourced. This means that only its final state can be verified. So if anybody wants to verify its current state, they would have to compute the entire function i.e. perform a repeated squaring for time \mathcal{T} which is time consuming by definition. To solve this problem, Ephraim et. al [3] introduced the concept of Continuous Verifiable Delay functions (CVDF). A CVDF is essentially a VDF in which the intermediate steps of the VDF computation can be continuously and publicly verified. The existing CVDF is constructed based on Pietrzak’s protocol. However, the existing CVDF construction scheme is not cost efficient in terms of proof size ($\mathcal{O}(b^2, h^2)$) where b is the branching factor of the tree and $h = \log_b(t)$, and verification time.

As a part of my capstone project, I also worked on the implementation of a new CVDF construction that is based on Wesolowski’s protocol and the soundness of the Fiat-Shamir Heuristic [4]. This new construct is more cost efficient in terms of proof size $\mathcal{O}(b)$ and the verification time.

3.1 Implementation

There are two constructions of CVDF using Wesolowski’s protocol [9]. One is a basic implementation where every state of Wesolowski’s VDF is sent for verification. The other one is a recursive implementation called Stronger CVDF that uses a branching factor b as mentioned in the existing Peitzak based CVDF [3].

Algorithm 4 Basic CVDF using Wesolowski

Evaluation and Proof

- 1: **Input:** $\mathcal{T} \in N, m \in \{0, 1\}^*$
- 2: **Process:**
- 3: $x \leftarrow H(m)$
- 4: **for** $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** \mathcal{T} **do**
- 5: $y \leftarrow x^{2^i} \bmod N$ ▷ Repeated Squaring
- 6: $l_i \leftarrow H_{\text{prime}}(x + y)$
- 7: $\pi_i \leftarrow x^{\lfloor 2^i / l_i \rfloor} \bmod N$
- 8: **end for**
- 9: **Output:** $(\pi \leftarrow \{\pi_i\}, l \leftarrow \{l_i\} \text{ where } i \in [1, \mathcal{T}])$

Verification

- 1: **Input:** x, \mathcal{T}, π, l
 - 2: **Process:**
 - 3: **for** $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** \mathcal{T} **do**
 - 4: $r_i \leftarrow 2^i \bmod l_i$
 - 5: $y \leftarrow \pi_i^{l_i} \cdot x^{r_i} \bmod N$
 - 6: **if** $l_i = H_{\text{prime}}(x + y)$ **then**
 - 7: accept
 - 8: **else**
 - 9: reject
 - 10: **break**
 - 11: **end if**
 - 12: **end for**
 - 13: **Output:** $(\text{accept}, \text{reject})$
-

Algorithm 5 Stronger CVDF

Evaluation and Proof

```
1: procedure EVAL( $(pp, m, \mathcal{T}, b)$ )
2:    $g \leftarrow H(m)$ 
3:   if  $\mathcal{T} < b$  then
4:      $y \leftarrow g^{2^\mathcal{T}} \bmod N$ 
5:      $l \leftarrow H_{\text{prime}}(x + y)$ 
6:      $\pi' \leftarrow g^{\lfloor 2^\mathcal{T}/l \rfloor} \bmod N$ 
7:   else
8:     for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $b$  do
9:       if  $i = 1$  then
10:         $x_i \leftarrow g$ 
11:         $\pi \leftarrow (x_i, y_i, \pi')$ , where  $(y_i, \pi') \leftarrow \text{EVAL}(pp, x_i, \mathcal{T}/b, b)$ 
12:      else
13:         $x_i \leftarrow g^{(i-1) \cdot \mathcal{T}/b} \bmod N$ 
14:         $\pi \leftarrow (x_i, y_i, \pi')$ , where  $(y_i, \pi') \leftarrow \text{EVAL}(pp, x_i, \mathcal{T}/b, b)$ 
15:      end if
16:    end for
17:  end if
18:  return  $(y, \pi)$ 
19: end procedure
```

Verification

```
1: procedure VERIFY( $pp, m, y, \pi, b, \mathcal{T}$ )
2:    $g \leftarrow H(m)$ 
3:   if  $\mathcal{T} < b$  then
4:      $l \leftarrow H_{\text{prime}}(x + y)$ 
5:      $r \leftarrow 2^\mathcal{T} \bmod l$ 
6:     if  $\pi^l \cdot g^r = y$  then
7:       accept
8:     else
9:       reject
10:    end if
11:  else
12:    for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $b$  do
13:      VERIFY( $pp, g, y, \pi, b, \mathcal{T}/\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$ )
14:    end for
15:  end if
16:  return  $(\text{accept}, \text{reject})$ 
17: end procedure
```

3.2 Outsourcing with CVDF

We can show the outsourcing of CVDF using Multiplicative Homomorphic Encryption. For this project, I've used El-Gamal cryptosystem to show the outsourcing of CVDF. Proposed by Taher Elgamal [5], El-Gamal cryptosystem can be defined as follows:

1. **Key Generation:** The key generation requires a cyclic group G with order n using a generator g . Then, it computes $h = g^y$ for $y \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ and outputs the public key (G, n, g, h) and the secret key x .
2. **Encryption:** The message m is encrypted using g and x , where $x \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$. The output is a ciphertext pair $(c = c_1, c_2)$:

$$c = E(m) = (g^x, mh^x) = (g^x, mg^{xy}) = (c_1, c_2)$$

3. **Decryption:** The decryption algorithm works as follows:

$$c_2 \cdot c_1^{-1} = mg^{xy} \cdot g^{-xy} = m$$

4. **Homomorphic Property:** The homomorphic multiplicative property works as follows:

$$E(m_1) \cdot E(m_2) = (g^{x_1}, m_1 h^{x_1}) \times (g^{x_2}, m_2 h^{x_2}) = g^{x_1+x_2}, m_1 \times m_2 h^{x_1+x_2} = E(m_1 \times m_2)$$

3.2.1 Limitations on the coding segment:

1. While I managed to implement a basic version of outsourceable CVDF, my code does not work for larger values of x or time bound \mathcal{T} . The code works until the output generated i.e. the final decrypted value is less than the RSA modulus N . I tried applying the modulus ($\text{mod } N$) on the final decrypted value. While this approach seemed intuitive and correct to me, it did not give me a correct output for larger values.
2. I tried implementing the outsourcing of CVDF using two clients. However, since the encrypted values were big-integers, I was unable to send these values from one client to the other. Therefore, my code does not show a peer-to-peer communication.

4 Future Work

4.1 Double Spending

While the CVDF solves the problem of outsourcing VDF, it can't handle the 'double spending' problem of the outsourceable VDF. The double spending problem arises when the same amount of work is outsourced to more than one person. Eg: Assume Alice tries to compute

a VDF $y = x^{2^t}$. She works on the problem for time $t/2$ and decides to outsource it to Bob. With CVDF, this is possible since each of the states of VDF can be verified. However, there is always a possibility that Alice will outsource her work to another person, say Carol. This leads to a double spending problem. Future work concerns solving the double spending problem and implementing it.

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