

# More Efficient Threshold Protocols Based on PVSS

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# Preface

I would like to thank everybody who kept me busy the last year, especially my promoter and my assistants. I would also like to thank the jury for reading the text. My sincere gratitude also goes to my wife and the rest of my family.

*Dheeraj Kumar Suryakari*

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# Abstract

The **abstract** environment contains a more extensive overview of the work. But it should be limited to one page.

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# List of Abbreviations and Symbols

## Abbreviations

DL	Discrete Logarithm
DLEQ	Discrete Logarithm Equality
PDL	Polynomial Discrete Logarithm
$\mathcal{PPT}$	Probabilistic Polynomial Time
NIZK	Non-Interactive Zero Knowledge
PoK	Proof of Knowledge
AoK	Argument of Knowledge
PSSS	Packed Shamir Secret Sharing
PVSS	Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing
PPVSS	Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing
PPPVSS	Packed Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing

## Symbols

$q$	prime number
$\mathbb{G}$	Cyclic group of order $q$
$\mathbb{Z}_q$	Modular ring with $q$ elements
$\mathbb{Z}_q[X]$	Univariate polynomial ring in the variable $X$ with coefficients in $\mathbb{Z}_q$
$\mathbb{Z}_q[X]_t$	Set of polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]$ of degree $t$
$\mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t}$	Set of polynomials in $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]$ of degree at most $t$
$\lambda$	Security Parameter
$negl$	Negligible function
$\mathcal{O}$	Big-O notation



# Chapter 1

## Literature Review

In 1979, Shamir introduced a threshold secret sharing scheme called Shamir Secret Sharing scheme [21], which is now a well-known and widely used secret sharing scheme to this day because of its numerous applications in cryptography. It was first of its kind to have Information Theoretic (IT) security under certain assumptions against passive adversaries who can only see the secret shares of the parties they have corrupted. In reality, however, the adversaries are usually stronger than just being passive, moreover, they possess the power to manipulate the share values of the corrupted parties itself. Shamir's scheme is not tailored to defend against active adversaries as one cannot verify the correctness of the shares. This led to numerous inventions of Verifiable Secret Sharing (VSS) schemes, which not only does allow the parties to verify the correctness of the shares shared by the dealer but also allows the parties to verify the correctness of the shares when opened by the parties during the reconstruction phase. Because of the feature of verifiability, VSS schemes can defend the applications against active adversaries.

There are many VSS schemes ([11], [12]) in the literature which are based on Shamir Secret Sharing scheme. Throughout the years, many advancements have been made in the field of VSS schemes, and as of writing this report the efficient VSS schemes are  $\Pi_F$ ,  $\Pi_P$  and  $\Pi_{LA}$  [4], each of which have distinct security features. In VSS, only shareholders can actually verify the correctness of the shares. Certain applications demand to have verifiability feature available to anyone, which is solved by Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing (PVSS) schemes. PVSS is an extension of VSS, where the correctness of the shares can be verified by anyone. Many cool applications exist today which use PVSS schemes, such as, e-voting [20], randomness beacons [8], etc. In [5], authors have noticed that the Schoenmakers' PVSS scheme used for the e-voting application in [20] is actually more than a PVSS scheme, and they coined the term Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing (PPVSS) scheme. PPVSS is a special type of PVSS where the dealer additionally publishes a commitment to the secret itself. The authors have also shown that any PVSS scheme can be transformed into a PPVSS scheme with minimal changes, and constructed a PPVSS  $\Lambda_{RO}$  from the PVSS  $\Pi_S$  [4] as an example, where they used  $\Lambda_{RO}$  to build an efficient e-voting application.

With PPVSS, one can build versatile applications and also can improve the efficiency of existing applications. In ALBATROSS [9], authors built a randomness beacon application using a PVSS. We have an intuition that an efficient randomness beacon application can be built using a scheme based on PPVSS on certain conditions. In this report, we will introduce Packed PPVSS (PPPVSS) along with its security proofs and give an example based on  $\Lambda_{RO}$ , which will be used to improve ALBATROSS in many cases.

## Chapter 2

# Preliminaries

### 2.1 Notation

Let  $(\mathbb{G}, \times)$  be a cyclic group of prime order  $q$  with hard Discrete Log (DL) and its generator being  $g$ . Also, we write  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]_d$  to denote the set of all  $d$  degree polynomials univariate in  $X$  with coefficients in the finite field  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ . For remainder of the chapter we let  $n > t$  for some positive integers  $n$  and  $t$ .

### 2.2 Coding Theory

This subsection is a brief recall of linear codes and their properties.

**Definition 2.2.1** (Codeword). A **codeword** of length  $n$  is a vector  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ .

**Definition 2.2.2** (Linear Code). [15] If  $\mathcal{C}$  be a vector subspace of  $\mathbb{Z}_q^n$  with dimension  $k$ , then  $\mathcal{C}$  is said to be a **linear code** (/ linear  $q$ -ary code) of length  $n$  and dimension  $k$ .

In the remainder of the subsection, we let  $\mathcal{C}$  be a linear  $q$ -ary code of length  $n$  and dimension  $k$ .

**Definition 2.2.3** (Hamming distance). The *hamming distance*  $d$  of two codewords of equal length is the number of positions at which the codewords differ. Also, the *hamming distance* of  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $d(\mathcal{C})$  is defined to be the minimum hamming distance of any two codewords in  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Definition 2.2.4** (Hamming weight). The *hamming weight*  $wt$  of a codeword  $c$  is the number of non-zero positions in  $c$ . Also, the *hamming weight* of  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $wt(\mathcal{C})$  is defined to be the minimum hamming weight of any codeword in  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Lemma 2.2.1.** [15] Given a tuple of codewords of equal length  $n$ ,  $(u, v, w)$ , let  $d(u, v)$  and  $wt(w)$  denote the hamming distance of  $u, v$  and the hamming weight of  $w$  respectively. Then  $d(u, v) = wt(u - v)$  and  $d(u, v) \leq d(u, w) + d(w, v)$ .

**Definition 2.2.5** (error). A vector  $r$  is said to be an **error** of a codeword  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  if  $r = c + e$  for some  $e \neq 0$  and  $e$  is called error term of  $r$ .

It is trivial to observe that the hamming distance of error  $r$  of  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  is the minimum of the hamming distances of  $r$  with each codeword in  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Definition 2.2.6** (Detectable Error). An error  $r$  of  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  is said to be **detectable** in  $\mathcal{C}$  if  $r \notin \mathcal{C}$ , otherwise it is said to be an **undetectable**.

**Theorem 2.2.1.** [15] An error  $r$  of  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  is detectable if the hamming distance of  $c$  and  $r$  is less than the hamming distance of  $\mathcal{C}$ , more precisely  $d(r, c) < d(\mathcal{C})$ .

*Proof.* Consider the negation of the statement, i.e., the hamming distance of  $c$  and  $r$  is less than the hamming distance of  $\mathcal{C}$  and  $r$  is an undetectable error in  $\mathcal{C}$ , mathematically we have  $d(r, c) < d(\mathcal{C})$  and  $r \in \mathcal{C}$ . The distance of any two codewords in  $\mathcal{C}$  should be at least  $d(\mathcal{C})$  implying  $d(r, c) \geq d(\mathcal{C})$ , which is a contradiction to the negation of our statement.  $\square$

The theorem 2.2.1 says that any error of a codeword in  $\mathcal{C}$  is detectable as long as their hamming distance is strictly less than the hamming distance of  $\mathcal{C}$  itself.

**Definition 2.2.7** (Correctable Error). A detectable error  $r$  of  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  is said to be **correctable** if one can obtain its error term  $e$  such that  $c + e = r$ .

**Theorem 2.2.2.** [15] One can find the error term  $e$  of the detectable error  $r$  of  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  if  $wt(e) < \frac{d(\mathcal{C})}{2}$ .

*Proof.* We have the following triangular inequality from lemma 2.2.1 for any  $w \in \mathcal{C}$  with  $w \neq c$ :

$$d(\mathcal{C}) \leq d(w, c) \leq d(w, r) + d(r, c). \quad (2.1)$$

From the equation (2.1), we get

$$d(w, r) \geq d(\mathcal{C}) - d(r, c). \quad (2.2)$$

Since,  $w \neq c$  we always will have

$$d(w, r) > d(r, c). \quad (2.3)$$

. From the equations (2.2) and (2.3), we have the following result:

$$d(\mathcal{C}) - d(r, c) > d(r, c) \implies d(\mathcal{C}) > 2d(r, c) \iff d(\mathcal{C}) > 2wt(e).$$

$\square$

If one wants to correct a detectable error of a codeword in  $\mathcal{C}$  then from theorem 2.2.2, its hamming distance with the codeword should be strictly less than half the hamming distance of  $\mathcal{C}$  itself.

**Definition 2.2.8** (Dual Code). *The vector subspace  $\mathcal{C}^\perp$  is called a Dual (Code) of  $\mathcal{C}$  if it is orthogonal to  $\mathcal{C}$ .*

**Definition 2.2.9** (Generating Matrix). *The  $k \times n$ -matrix  $\mathcal{G}$  is said to be a generating matrix of  $\mathcal{C}$  if it generates  $\mathcal{C}$ , more precisely, the rows of  $G$  form a basis for  $\mathcal{C}$ . Also,  $\mathcal{G}$  is said to be in its **standard form** if it is of the form*

$$\mathcal{G} = [I_k \ P],$$

where  $I_k$  is the  $k \times k$  identity matrix and  $P$  is some  $k \times (n - k)$  matrix.

**Definition 2.2.10** (Parity Check Matrix). *Consider the linear transformation  $\phi$  as follows:*

$$\phi : \mathbb{Z}_q^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^{n-k},$$

where kernel of  $\phi$  is  $\mathcal{C}$ . Then the matrix associated to  $\phi$ ,  $\mathcal{H}$ , is called the **parity check matrix** of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Lemma 2.2.2.** [15] *If  $\mathcal{G}$  is a generating matrix of  $\mathcal{C}$  in its standard form, i.e.,  $\mathcal{G} = [I_k \ P]$ , then  $\mathcal{H}$  being a parity check matrix of  $\mathcal{C}$  is given by*

$$\mathcal{H} = [-P^T \ I_{n-k}],$$

where  $I_{n-k}$  is the  $(n - k) \times (n - k)$  identity matrix where  $P^T$  is the transpose of  $P$ .

One can easily check if a codeword is in  $\mathcal{C}$  by multiplying it with its corresponding parity check matrix  $\mathcal{H}$ .

### 2.2.1 Reed Solomon Codes

Consider the set of all univariate polynomials in  $X$  of degree at most  $t$  over  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , denoted by  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t}$ . It is trivial to observe that  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t}$  is isomorphic to the  $t + 1$  dimensional vector space  $\mathbb{Z}_q^{t+1}$ , where each vector consists the coefficients of a unique polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t}$ . Now, consider the following set of codewords determined by the evaluation of the polynomials in  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t}$  at  $n$  **distinct** points  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ :

$$RS = \{(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n)) : f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t}, x_i \neq x_j \text{ for } i \neq j\}. \quad (2.4)$$

**Lemma 2.2.3.** *Assume  $n > t$ . The hamming distance of any two codewords in  $RS$  is at least  $n - t$ . Furthermore,  $RS$  is a linear code of length  $n$  and dimension  $t + 1$ .*

*Proof.* For  $n > t$ , saying that the hamming distance of any two codewords is at least  $n - t$  is same as saying that the two codewords in  $RS$  are equal in at most  $t$  positions. Assume by contradiction that there exists two **distinct**  $t$  degree polynomials  $f, g$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  with corresponding codewords in  $RS$  are equal in  $t + 1$  positions, i.e., their hamming distance is  $n - t - 1$ . As  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  is an integral domain, any  $t + 1$  distinct points

in the set  $\mathbb{Z}_q \times \mathbb{Z}_q$  will determine a unique  $t$  degree polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]_t$ . As a consequence, we should have  $f = g$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  which is a contradiction.

The remainder of the proof is by a consequence of the first part. More precisely, each codeword in  $RS$  determined by a polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t}$  is actually a unique representation of the polynomial itself as it consists at least  $t+1$  distinct evaluations of that polynomial where  $n > t$ . That is,  $RS$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t}$  as a vector space which has dimension  $t+1$ .  $\square$

**Definition 2.2.11** (Reed Solomon Code). *The  $q$ -ary linear code  $RS$  of length  $n$  and dimension  $t+1$  defined in (2.4) with minimum hamming distance  $n-t$  is called a  $[n, t+1, n-t]$ -**Reed Solomon Code** [18] in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .*

**Corollary 2.2.1.** *All errors in a  $[n, t+1, n-t]$ -Reed Solomon ( $RS$ ) code are detectable if their hamming distances with  $RS$  are at most  $t$  and  $2t < n$ . Moreover, all errors of hamming distance with  $RS$  being at most  $t$  can be corrected if  $3t < n$ .*

*Proof.* We have that any error of  $RS$  has hamming distance at most  $t$  with  $RS$ . From theorem 2.2.1, any error of a codeword in  $RS$  is detectable if its hamming distance is strictly less than the hamming distance of  $RS$  itself, i.e.,  $t < n-t$ , which is equivalent to  $2t < n$ .

To be able to correct the errors of hamming distance at most  $t$  with  $RS$ , we need  $t < \frac{n-t}{2}$  from theorem 2.2.2 which is equivalent to  $3t < n$ .  $\square$

In this report, we will use  $[n, t+1, n-t]$ -Reed Solomon code of the following form:

$$RS = \{(f(1), \dots, f(n)) : f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t}\}. \quad (2.5)$$

### 2.3 Packed Shamir Secret Sharing

$(n, t, \ell)$ -Packed Shamir secret sharing ([14], [6]) scheme is a threshold secret sharing scheme which is a variant of  $(n, t)$ -Shamir's secret sharing scheme [21] where  $n > 2t + \ell - 1$ . In a nutshell, the  $t + \ell - 1$  degree secret polynomial with coefficients in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  which evaluates to  $\ell$  secrets is secret shared amongst  $n$  parties such that any  $t + \ell$  parties can reconstruct back the secret polynomial. Recall that Shamir's secret sharing scheme requires at least  $t+1$  parties to reconstruct the secret polynomial in contrast to the  $t + \ell$  parties in the Packed Shamir secret sharing scheme. The scheme is summarized in the Figure 2.1.

One can observe that all the secret shares of a secret polynomial chosen by the dealer form a codeword in  $[n, t + \ell, n - t - \ell + 1]$ -RS code. If the adversary is malicious and can corrupt at most  $t$  parties, then from corollary 2.2.1, the honest shareholders can detect the errors if  $2t \leq n - \ell$  and moreover all such errors can be corrected if  $3t \leq n - \ell$ . Also, one can use the Berlekamp-Welch algorithm [23] to correct the errors.

But Shamir secret sharing scheme is designed particularly to defend against passive adversaries and not against malicious adversaries. A class of threshold secret

**Packed Shamir Secret Sharing**

Given  $\ell$  secrets to share amongst  $n$  parties, where at most  $t$  of them can be (*passively*) corrupt, the  $(n, t, \ell)$ -Packed Shamir secret sharing scheme description is as follows:

**Sharing Algorithm:**

- Dealer constructs the secret polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{t+\ell-1}$  via the lagrange interpolation by choosing  $t + \ell$  elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  where  $\ell$  of them are secrets,  $\{s_i\}_{i=0}^{\ell-1}$ , with  $f(-i) = s_i$  for all  $i$  and remaining  $t$  are chosen uniformly at random in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .
- Each party  $P_i$  receives their share  $f(i)$  from the Dealer for each  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

**Reconstruction Algorithm:**

- Any  $\mathcal{Q}$  set containing at least  $t + \ell$  parties can use the lagrange interpolation to compute  $\{s_i\}_{i=0}^{\ell-1}$  as follows:

$$s_m = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{Q}} f(i) \left[ \prod_{j \in \mathcal{Q}, j \neq i} \frac{-m-j}{i-j} \right], m \in \{0, \dots, \ell-1\}$$

- The secrets  $\{s_i\}_{i=0}^{\ell-1}$  are outputted as the result.

FIGURE 2.1: Packed Shamir Secret Sharing

sharing schemes which are designed to defend against malicious adversaries is Verifiable Secret Sharing (VSS). There are many VSS schemes in the literature, and as of writing this report the efficient VSS schemes based on Shamir secret sharing are  $\Pi_F$ ,  $\Pi_P$  and  $\Pi_{LA}$  [4] which are alternatives to the original VSS schemes from Feldman [12], Pedersen [16] and the more recent ABCP [3]. VSS schemes based on Shamir secret sharing allow shareholders to verify the correctness of the shares obtained during both the sharing and reconstruction phases. This enables these VSS schemes to defend against malicious adversaries who can actively corrupt  $t$  parties as long as  $t \leq \frac{n-1}{2}$  (In contrast to  $t < \frac{n}{3}$  in Shamir secret sharing). Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing (PVSS) is an extension of VSS where anyone can verify the validity of the secret shares during the sharing phase. More recently, Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing (PPVSS)[5] was proposed which is an extension of PVSS. The main tools used in VSS, PVSS and PPVSS schemes are the **Zero Knowledge Proofs** which we overview in the next section 2.4.

## 2.4 Zero Knowledge Proofs

The agenda of this subsection is to give a brief formal background about some important primitives used in the PVSS  $\Pi_S$  [4], and the PPVSS  $\Lambda_{RO}$  [5], schemes. A *Zero Knowledge Argument of Knowledge* (ZK AoK)[7] is a protocol between a prover and a verifier where the prover tries to convince the verifier that a statement is true without revealing any information about why it is true. Unlike the Zero Knowledge Proof of Knowledge (ZK PoK) where the prover cannot cheat the verifier even with unbounded computational power, a ZK AoK requires the prover to be computationally bounded to not be able to cheat any verifier.

Let  $Y, X$  and  $W$  be three sets with  $R$  being a ternary relation on  $Y \times X \times W$ . Consider the three PPT interactive algorithms  $(Setup, P, V)$ , where  $Setup$  returns a common reference string (CRS)  $\sigma$  when input  $1^\lambda$ . Given  $\sigma$ , the following is the CRS-dependent language of the relation  $R$ .

$$L_\sigma = \{x \in X : \exists w \in W, (\sigma, x, w) \in R\},$$

where we call  $w$  a witness for a statement  $x$  if  $(\sigma, x, w) \in R$ . Also, let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a PPT algorithm that returns an element in the relation  $R$  when input  $1^\lambda$ .

Given a relation  $R$  and its corresponding language, a  $\Sigma$ -**protocol** is a 3-round *interactive* protocol between two Probabilistic Polynomial Time (PPT) algorithms, a prover  $P$  and a verifier  $V$ . For some statement in the language of  $R$ , in the first round  $P$  sends a commitment  $a$  to  $V$ . To which  $V$  sends a challenge  $d$  to  $P$  in the second round and finally  $P$  responds back with the response  $z$  to  $V$  in the third round.  $V$  outputs **true** or **false** upon the proof verification on transcript  $trans := (a, d, z)$ . Informally, with a  $\Sigma$ -protocol a prover  $P$  tries to convince a verifier  $V$  that they know a witness  $w$  for a given statement  $x$  in the language without revealing any information about  $w$ . To state it formally, a  $\Sigma$ -protocol is supposed to satisfy *completeness*, *Honest Verifier Zero Knowledge* (HVZK) and *Special Soundness* which are defined as follows.

**Definition 2.4.1** (Completeness). A  $\Sigma$ -protocol is said to be **complete** for  $\mathcal{R}$  if the honest verifier  $V$  always accepts the honest prover  $P$  for any statement in the language defined by  $R$ .

**Definition 2.4.2** (HVZK). A  $\Sigma$ -protocol is said to be *Honest Verifier Zero Knowledge* (**HVZK**) for  $\mathcal{R}$  if there exist a PPT algorithm  $\mathcal{S}$  that simulates  $trans$  of the scheme corresponding to a given statement,  $x$ , in the language that has witness  $w$ . That is, given  $x$ ,

$$trans(P(x, w) \leftrightarrow V(x)) \approx trans(\mathcal{S}(x) \leftrightarrow V(x)) \quad , \text{ for any witness } w \text{ of } x.$$

Where  $trans(P(\cdot) \leftrightarrow V(\cdot))$  is the transcript of the  $\Sigma$ -protocol amongst  $P$  and  $V$  and  $\approx$  denotes the indistinguishability of the two transcripts.

**Definition 2.4.3** (Special Soundness). A  $\Sigma$ -protocol is said to satisfy **Special Soundness** for  $\mathcal{R}$ , if there exists a PPT extractor  $\mathcal{E}$  for any two valid transcripts,



$(a, d, z)$  and  $(a, d', z')$ , corresponding to a given statement  $x$  in the language with only a unique witness  $w$  and  $d \neq d'$  such that  $\mathcal{E}(a, d, z, d', z')$  outputs the witness  $w$ .

It is shown that a public-coin, complete, HVZK, special soundness  $\Sigma$ -protocol can be made into a Non Interactive Zero Knowledge (NIZK) Proof of Knowledge (PoK) or Argument of Knowledge (AoK) in the Random Oracle (RO) model using Fiat-Shamir transform [13]. In the following subsections, we recall two important NIZK PoK schemes which are used in  $\Pi_S$  and  $\Lambda_{RO}$  schemes. Also, we will introduce a NIZK AoK scheme which will be used in one of our new protocols.

### 2.4.1 Chaum-Pedersen Protocol for DL Equality

Recall  $\mathbb{G}$  being the cyclic group of prime order  $q$  with hard Discrete Logarithm (DL). For some  $g, h \in \mathbb{G}$  consider the following relation:

$$R_{DLEQ} = \{(g, h, a, b), x : a = g^x, b = h^x\}.$$

In [10], Chaum and Pedersen proposed a NIZK PoK scheme for the DL Equality relation,  $R_{DLEQ}$ . Informally, a prover  $P$  can convince a verifier  $V$  that they know  $x$  such that it can be used with both  $g$  and  $h$  to obtain  $a$  and  $b$  respectively. This protocol is widely used in many cryptographic applications like threshold decryption, e-voting and Randomness Beacons. We summarize the protocol in Figure 2.2.

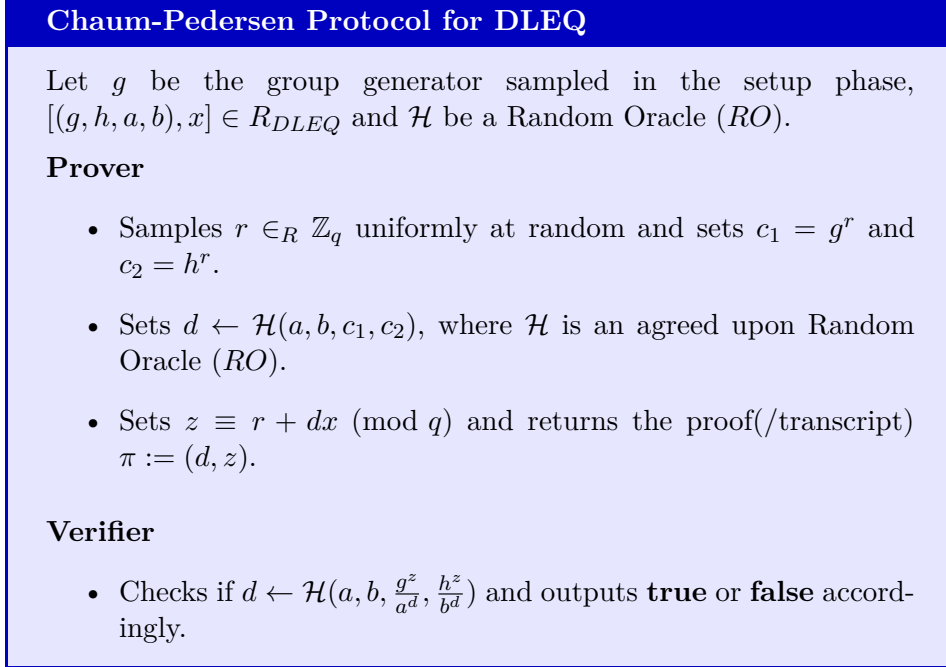


FIGURE 2.2: Chaum-Pedersen NIZK PoK for DLEQ

### 2.4.2 NIZK PoK for Polynomial DL

Recall  $\mathbb{G}$  being the cyclic group of prime order  $q$  with hard Discrete Logarithm (DL) and  $g$  being its generator. Consider the following relation for some polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_t$  with degree  $t < n$ :

$$R_{PDL} = \{(g, x_1, \dots, x_n, F_1, \dots, F_n), f(X) : (F_i = g^{f(x_i)}, 1 \leq i \leq n) \wedge (x_i \neq x_j, i \neq j)\}.$$

The  $R_{PDL}$  is based on the Polynomial Discrete Logarithm formally introduced in [4], and we recall its definition in the following.

**Definition 2.4.4** (Polynomial Discrete Logarithm). *Let  $g$  be a generator for the prime order  $q$  cyclic group  $\mathbb{G}$ . Given  $F_1, \dots, F_n$  and distinct elements  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , find a polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  with degree at most  $t$ , where  $F_i = g^{f(x_i)}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  and  $t \leq n - 1$ .*

*In other words, an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  is said to have an advantage  $\epsilon$  in solving PDL if*

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A}(x_1, \dots, x_n, g, g^{f(x_1)}, \dots, g^{f(x_n)})] \geq \epsilon,$$

*where  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  is at most a  $t$  degree polynomial with  $t \leq n - 1$  and the probability is over a chosen random generator  $g$  of  $\mathbb{G}$  with  $q = |\mathbb{G}|$  being prime and distinct  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .*

**Theorem 2.4.1.** [4] *Let  $[(g, x_1, \dots, x_n, F_1, \dots, F_n), f(X)] \in R_{PDL}$  where  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t}$ . Assuming PDL is hard, for  $0 \leq t \leq n - 1$ , the protocol  $\pi_{PDL}$  2.3 (described in figure 2.3) is a NIZK PoK for  $R_{PDL}$  in the RO model.*

In [4], Bagheri formally introduced a NIZK PoK scheme for the Polynomial DL relation,  $R_{PDL}$ , which is a generalization of Schnorr's ID protocol [19]. Informally, a prover  $P$  can convince a verifier  $V$  that they know a  $t$  degree polynomial  $f$  such that it can be used with  $g$  to obtain  $F_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . This protocol is used to construct the PPVSS  $\Lambda_{RO}$  [5], which was essential in building an efficient e-voting protocol. We summarize the protocol in Figure 2.3.

In the next section we will give a brief overview of the Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing (PPVSS).

## 2.5 Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing

Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing (PPVSS) was first introduced in [5], which was used as a building block to construct an efficient e-voting protocol alternative to Schoenmakers' e-voting protocol. Interestingly, the authors in [5] observed that the Schoenmakers' e-voting protocol, though not efficient in practice, published in 1999 is an unusual application as it is based on a PVSS, which led them to discover that the underlying PVSS used is actually a PPVSS. What sets PPVSS apart from standard PVSS schemes is that it can be used to build versatile applications, such as e-voting, randomness beacons etc., and can also improve efficiency of some existing protocols. The subtle difference between PPVSS and PVSS is that

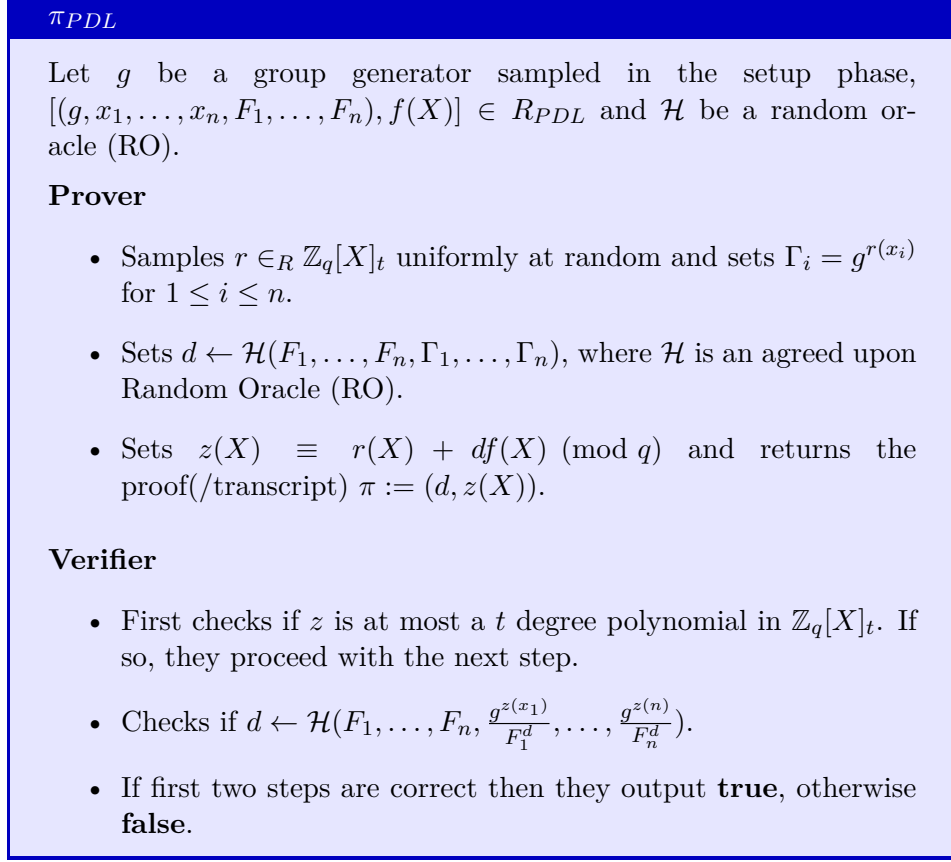


FIGURE 2.3: A NIZK PoK for Polynomial DL based on Schoenmakers' PVSS

the secret itself is committed by the prover along with all its corresponding secret shares. The relevance of this section is that we will generalize the PPVSS to the case where there is more than one secret and use them to revisit a real time application to improve its efficiency. Because of its importance in this thesis, we will recall the definitions of a PPVSS and an example subsequently.

### 2.5.1 Definitions

The following definitions are directly taken from [5].

**Definition 2.5.1** (PPVSS). *A PPVSS scheme should have four algorithms, namely, Initial, Share, Verify and Reconstruction whose descriptions are as follows:*

- **Initial**  $(1^\lambda) \rightarrow (\{PK_i, SK_i\}_{i=1}^n \sqcup \{h_0 \text{ or } (PK_0, SK_0)\})$ : When given  $1^\lambda$ , each party  $P_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  registers their public key  $PK_i$  in a public ledger and withholds the corresponding secret key  $SK_i$ . Also, all parties and the dealer  $D$  agree on a commitment key or public key whose secret key is known to a target person. Note that the message space of the public-key scheme is a subgroup of  $(\mathbb{G}, \times)$ .

- **Share**  $(n, t, f_0, \{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n \sqcup \{h_0 \text{ or } PK_0\})$   
 $\rightarrow (\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n, \pi_{PPVSS})$ :  
*It secret shares  $f_0$  to obtain the shares  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$ . For  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , uses the public key  $PK_i$  to encrypt  $f_i$  and obtain the encrypted share  $y_i$ . Now, it uses the commitment key  $h_0$  ( or public key  $PK_0$ ) to commit(/encrypt)  $f_0$  to obtain  $y_0$ . In the next step, it uses a NIZK proof  $\pi_{PPVSS}$  protocol to prove that  $y_0$  is a valid commitment(/encryption) of the secret and  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  has valid encryptions of the corresponding shares. Finally, it returns  $(\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n, \pi_{PPVSS})$ .*
- **Verify**  $(n, t, \{y_i\}_{i=0}^n, \pi_{PPVSS}) \rightarrow \text{true/false}$ : *This algorithm(which can be performed by anyone) checks if the NIZK proof  $\pi_{PPVSS}$  is valid for  $\{y_0, \dots, y_n\}$  and then returns true, otherwise false.*
- **Reconstruct**: *There are two approaches based on cooperation of the dealer  $D$  and are as follows:*
  - **(Optimistic) Reconstruction** $^{opt}[\{h_0, f_0, r_0, y_0\} \text{ or } \{PK_0, SK_0, y_0\}]$   
 $\rightarrow (f_0 \text{ or false})$ :  
*Given the input a verifier checks if  $y_0$  is a valid commitment(/encryption) of the secret. If so, it returns  $f_0$ ; otherwise it returns false.*
  - **(Pessimistic) Reconstruction** $^{pes}[\{y_i, SK_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{Q}, |\mathcal{Q}|=t+1}] \rightarrow (f_0 \text{ or false})$ :  
*Given any  $t+1$  encrypted shares along with corresponding secret keys, it outputs the secret  $f_0$  or false. This can be done in two phases as follows:*
    - \* **Decryption of the shares**, each party  $P_i \in \mathcal{Q}$  decrypts  $y_i$  to obtain  $f_i$  using its secret key  $SK_i$ . Then it generates a NIZK proof  $\pi_i^{Dec}$  which proves that  $f_i$  is the correct decryption of  $y_i$ . Now,  $P_i$  publishes  $(f_i, \pi_i^{Dec})$ .
    - \* **Share pooling**, a verifier  $V$  (not necessarily from the shareholders) checks if proof  $\pi_i^{Dec}$  is correct for each  $P_i \in \mathcal{Q}$ . If any check fails, then  $V$  returns false; otherwise  $V$  applies a reconstruction procedure to the set of valid shares,  $\{f_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{Q}, |\mathcal{Q}|=t+1}$ , and returns  $f_0$ .

A PPVSS is said to be secure:

- **Correctness**: If the dealer and parties follow the protocol, then the **Verify** algorithm returns **true** and the **Reconstruct** algorithm returns  $f_0$  irrespective of which approach. For any integer  $n \geq t+1$  with  $t \geq 0$ , a PPVSS is said to be correct for  $(\{PK_i, SK_i\}_{i=1}^n \sqcup \{h_0 \text{ or } (PK_0, SK_0)\}) \leftarrow \text{Initial} (1^\lambda)$  when it satisfies the following based on the output of the **Share** algorithm.

When **Share** algorithm outputs a commitment(/encryption) of the secret, then

$$Pr \left[ \begin{array}{ll} (\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n, \pi_{PPVSS}) & \leftarrow \text{Share}(n, t, f_0, \{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n \sqcup \{h_0 \text{ or } PK_0\}) : \\ \text{true} & \leftarrow \text{Verify}(n, t, \{y_i\}_{i=0}^n, \pi_{PPVSS}) \end{array} \right] = 1,$$

$$Pr \left[ \begin{array}{ll} (\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n, \pi_{PPVSS}) & \leftarrow \mathbf{Share}(n, t, f_0, \{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n \sqcup \{h_0 \text{ or } PK_0\}), \\ f'_0 & \leftarrow \text{Reconstruction}^{opt}[\{h_0, f_0, r_0, y_0\} \\ & \text{or } \{PK_0, SK_0, y_0\} \vee \\ f'_0 & \leftarrow \text{Reconstruction}^{pes}[\{y_i, SK_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{Q}, |\mathcal{Q}|=t+1}] : \\ & f'_0 = f_0 \end{array} \right] = 1.$$

- **Verifiability:** If **Verify** returns **true**, then (**Optimistic**)  $\text{Reconstruct}^{opt}$  and/or (**Pessimistic**)  $\text{Reconstruct}^{pes}$  output being  $f_0$  is the actual secret of whom the shares are encrypted. Moreover,  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  are valid encryptions of the shares of same secret with high probability if the following statement is true.

$y_0$  is a valid commitment(/encryption) of the secret with high probability. More formally, given  $\lambda$ , for any integers  $n \geq 2t + 1$  and  $t \geq 0$ , a PPVSS is said to be verifiable if for any  $\mathcal{PPT}$  adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ , we have:

$$Pr \left[ \begin{array}{ll} (\{PK_i, SK_i\}_{i=1}^n \sqcup \{h_0 \text{ or } (PK_0, SK_0)\}) & \leftarrow \mathbf{Initial} (1^\lambda), \\ (\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n, \pi_{PPVSS}) & \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(n, t, f_0, \{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n \sqcup \{h_0 \text{ or } PK_0\}), \\ f'_0 & \leftarrow \text{Reconstruction}^{opt}[\{h_0, f_0, r_0, y_0\} \\ & \text{or } \{PK_0, SK_0, y_0\} \vee \\ f'_0 & \leftarrow \text{Reconstruction}^{pes}[\{y_i, SK_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{Q}, |\mathcal{Q}|=t+1}] : \\ \mathbf{true} & \leftarrow \mathbf{Verify}(n, t, \{y_i\}_{i=0}^n, \pi_{PPVSS}) \wedge f'_0 \neq f_0 \end{array} \right] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda),$$

where  $\mathcal{Q}$  is the set of honest parties.

- **IND1-Secrecy (Indistinguishability of Secrets):** Before reconstruction phase, any amount of public information along with secret keys of at most  $t$  parties excluding  $SK_0$  will give absolutely no information about the secret  $f_0$ . More formally, for integers  $n > 1$  and  $t + 1 \leq n$ , the PPVSS is said to satisfy *IND1-Secrecy* if for any  $\mathcal{PPT}$  adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  corrupting at most  $t$  parties, excluding the owners of  $SK_0$ , has negligible advantage in the following game played against a challenger.

- The challenger runs **Initial** ( $1^\lambda$ ) of PPVSS to obtain  $\{PK_i, SK_i\}_{i=1}^n \sqcup \{h_0 \text{ or } (PK_0, SK_0)\}$  and sends all public information along with secret information of all corrupted parties to  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- The challenger chooses two secrets,  $s_0 = f_0$  and  $s_1 = f'_0$  at random in the space of secrets. Furthermore, it chooses  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  uniformly at random and runs **Share** ( $n, t, s_0, \{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n \sqcup \{h_0 \text{ or } PK_0\}$ ) algorithm of the PPVSS scheme and obtains  $(\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n, \pi_{PPVSS})$ . Finally, it sends all public information generated in *Share* phase together with  $s_b$ .
- $\mathcal{A}$  guesses a bit  $b' \in \{0, 1\}$ .

The advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  is defined to be  $|Pr[b' = b] - \frac{1}{2}|$ .

We now will recall  $\Lambda_{RO}$ , the PPVSS scheme introduced in [5] which is actually based on  $\Pi_S$  [4] in figure 2.4.

The security guarantees of  $\Lambda_{RO}$  are explained in [5] which follows from the security guarantees of  $\Pi_S$ , also the authors used  $\Lambda_{RO}$  to build a new e-voting protocol alternative to the replaced Schoenmakers' e-voting protocol [20] and showed that they achieved improvement in the verification phase (7 to 30 times faster in implementation for some parameters).

## 2.6 Conclusion

In summary, we recalled some basic concepts of linear codes and Reed Solomon codes as an example. We then recalled the Packed Shamir secret sharing scheme which is a generalization of the Shamir Secret Sharing scheme [21] that was originally designed to defend against passive adversaries and showed its correspondence with Reed Solomon codes. As one of the goals of this thesis is to explore threshold secret sharing schemes that commits to secret and also can defend against malicious adversaries, we briefly recalled PPVSS [5]. Moving forward, in the next chapter we will introduce Packed Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing (PPPVSS) which is a generalization of PPVSS and give two examples whose inspiration is drawn from  $\Lambda_{RO}$ .

$\Lambda_{RO}$  [5]

**Initialization:** All parties  $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and dealer  $D$  agree on the prime field  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , a group  $(\mathbb{G}, \times)$  of order  $q$  with a generator  $g$ , random oracle  $\mathcal{H}$ . Also, each party  $P_i$  registers their public key  $PK_i$  in the public ledger and all agree on a commitment key or a public key,  $PK_0 \neq g$ , whose secret key is known to a target person.

**Share:**

- Dealer  $D$  samples a  $t$ -degree polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  uniformly at random and sets  $g^{f_0}$  as the secret to be shared, where  $f_0 = f(0)$ .
- For each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $D$  computes  $f(i) = f_i$  and uses  $PK_i$  to encrypt the secret share to obtain  $PK_i^{f_i} = y_i$ .  $D$  also encrypts(/commits) to the secret  $g^{f_0}$  using the encryption(/commitment) key  $PK_0$  to obtain  $y_0 = PK_0^{f_0}$ .
- $D$  uses the PDL proof scheme 2.4.2 to generate  $\pi_{PDL}$  as follows:
  - Samples a  $t$ -degree polynomial  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  uniformly at random and computes  $c_i = PK_i^{r_i}$  where  $r_i = r(i)$  for  $0 \leq i \leq n$ .
  - Using  $\mathcal{H}$ ,  $d = \mathcal{H}(y_0, \dots, y_n, c_0, \dots, c_n)$  is computed.
  - Sets  $z(X) = r(X) + df(X)$ , hence  $\pi_{PDL} = (d, z(X))$  is obtained.
- $D$  broadcasts the encryptions of the shares along with the encryption(/commitment) of the secret with  $\pi_{PDL}$  which proves the validity of the encrypted shares and encrypted(/committed) secret, i.e., broadcasts  $\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n$  and  $(d, z(X))$ .

**Verification:** Given public keys  $\{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and public(commitment) key  $PK_0$ , any entity can check  $\pi_{PDL}$  to verify the correctness of the encrypted shares  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and  $y_0$  being the encryption(/commitment) of the secret. They will output **true** or **false** based on the verification of the proof. The procedure is outlined as follows:

- The entity checks if  $z(X)$  is a  $t$ -degree polynomial or not.
- Checks if  $d = \mathcal{H}(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n, \frac{PK_0^{z(0)}}{y_0^d}, \frac{PK_1^{z(1)}}{y_1^d}, \dots, \frac{PK_n^{z(n)}}{y_n^d})$ .
- Outputs **true** if both of the above checks are satisfied, otherwise **false**.

**Reconstruction:** There are two approaches to reconstruct the secret  $g^{f_0}$  based on the cooperation of the dealer  $D$  which are as follows:

- **Optimistic Reconstruction:**  $D$  publishes  $f_0$ , then any verifier (not necessarily shareholders) when given  $g, PK_0, y_0$  can check if  $y_0 = PK_0^{f_0}$  and returns  $g^{f_0}$  if the check passes, if not they return **false**.
- **Pessimistic Reconstruction:** If  $D$  refuses to reveal  $f_0$ , then any set  $\mathcal{Q}$  consisting at least  $t + 1$  shareholders will do the following (which is same as the reconstruction step in the PVSS  $\Pi_S$  protocol):
  - Each party  $P_i \in \mathcal{Q}$  decrypts their share  $y_i$  using their private key  $SK_i$  corresponding to  $PK_i$  to obtain  $g^{f_i}$ . Then they publish  $g^{f_i}$  along with a DLEQ proof 2.4.1,  $\pi_{DLEQ}$  which proves that the  $g^{f_i}$  is the correct decryption of  $y_i$ .
  - If  $\mathcal{Q}$  consists at least  $t + 1$  honest parties, they can use the lagrange interpolation to compute the secret  $g^{f_0}$  as follows:

$$g^{f_0} = \prod_{i=1}^{t+1} g^{f_i \lambda_i} = g^{\sum_{i=1}^{t+1} f_i \lambda_i},$$

where  $\lambda_i = \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{j}{j-i}$  are lagrange coefficients.

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FIGURE 2.4: a Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing (PPVSS) scheme





## Chapter 3

# Packed Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing

In most of the real time distributed applications, each participant runs as a dealer once to share their secrets with other participants. To retrieve back the secrets, remaining participants need to open their shares and perform a bunch of operations, which requires a lot of communication amongst the participants. During the whole time of secret reconstruction one could have asked to the dealer itself to reveal the secret which will save a lot of time and communication. This is the main motivation behind the work of *Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing* (PPVSS) [5], where the authors have given the complete description of PPVSS and an example  $\Lambda_{RO}$  to improve the original e-voting protocol proposed by Schoenmakers [20].

In this chapter we will introduce Packed Pre-Constructed Publicly Verifiable Secret Sharing (PPPVSS) which merely is an extension to the notion of PPVSS. As Packed Shamir Secret Sharing 2.3 allows a dealer to share multiple secrets encoded in a single polynomial, we want to add this feature to PPVSS. We remark that the definition of PPVSS naturally extends to PPPVSS where a commitment to the secret is replaced by a vector of commitments of the secrets or a single commitment that represents all secrets. In the latter case where a single commitment is used, we will detail the assumptions due to which our protocols can remain secure. In the subsequent sections we will provide our two constructions for PPPVSS based on packed secret sharing scheme 2.3 along with the security guarantees these schemes can achieve.

A general construction of Shamir based PPVSS is given in [5], and we extend this idea to give two Packed Shamir based PPPVSS outlined in figures 3.1 and 3.2. In next section, we will give a practical PPPVSS scheme. Before giving out the details of our schemes, we will first introduce a new relation, its correspondence with a problem and finally a NIZK AoK protocol for a statement in the language of that relation. The reason we had to introduce this new relation is because we needed it to construct our second PPPVSS scheme.

### 3.1 A NIZK AoK protocol

Consider the set  $\{g_i\}_{i=-(\ell-1)}^n$  containing  $n + \ell$  distinct generators (obtained as CRS) of the prime order  $q$  cyclic group  $\mathcal{G}$  different from  $g$  with  $g$  also being a generator of  $\mathbb{G}$ , where  $n + \ell < \varphi(q)$  and  $\varphi(q)$  is the total number of distinct generators of the cyclic group  $\mathbb{G}$ . Consider the following relation for some polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{t+\ell-1}$  with  $t + \ell \leq n$ :

$$R_{\text{mod-PDL}} = \{(g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n, g, x_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, x_n, F_0, \dots, F_n), f(X) : \\ F_0 = \prod_{i=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_i^{f(x_i)}, F_i = g_i^{f(x_i)}, 1 \leq i \leq n\}, \quad (3.1)$$

where all  $x_i$ 's are distinct in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ . The  $R_{\text{mod-PDL}}$  is based on *modified-PDL* (inspired from the PDL in [4]) which is defined in the following.

**Definition 3.1.1** (*modified- Polynomial Discrete Logarithm problem*). *Let*

$\{g_i : g_i \neq g\}_{i=-(\ell-1)}^n$  *be a set of random distinct generators for the prime order  $q$  cyclic group  $\mathbb{G}$  generated by  $g$ . Given  $F_0, \dots, F_n$  and distinct elements  $x_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, x_n$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , find a polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  with degree at most  $t + \ell - 1$ , where  $F_0 = \prod_{i=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_i^{f(x_i)}$  and  $F_i = g_i^{f(x_i)}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  with  $t + \ell \leq n$ .*

*In other words, an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  is said to have an advantage  $\epsilon$  in solving modified-PDL if*

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A}(x_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, x_n, g, g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n, \prod_{i=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_i^{f(x_i)}, g_1^{f(x_1)}, \dots, g_n^{f(x_n)})] \geq \epsilon,$$

*where  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  is at most a  $t + \ell - 1$  degree polynomial with  $t \leq n$  and the probability is over distinct generators  $g, g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n$  of  $\mathbb{G}$  chosen at random and distinct  $x_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, x_n$  elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .*

It is intuitive to observe that the *modified-PDL* problem can be reduced to the Discrete Logarithm (DL) problem. We will prove this via contradiction. More explicitly, let there exist an adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  who can solve the *modified-PDL* problem. We will now construct an adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  who can solve DL problem using  $\mathcal{A}$  as a subroutine. Let  $(g, h := g^f)$  be the challenge for the DL problem, now  $\mathcal{B}$  will set  $F_1 = h$ ,  $x_i = i$  for  $-(\ell-1) \leq i \leq n$  and sets  $F_0, F_2, \dots, F_n$  to be  $n$  random elements in the group  $\mathbb{G}$ .  $\mathcal{B}$  will send  $(g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n, g, x_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, x_n, F_0, \dots, F_n)$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ . If  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs a polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{t+\ell-1}$  such that  $F_0 = \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_j^{f(j)}$  and  $F_i = g_i^{f(i)}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , then  $\mathcal{B}$  can send  $f(1)$  to the DL challenger.

Now consider the CRS dependent language of  $R_{\text{mod-PDL}}$  as follows:

$$L_{g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n}^{\text{mod-PDL}} = \{(g, x_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, x_n, F_0, \dots, F_n) : \exists f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{t+\ell-1}, \\ [(g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n, g, x_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, x_n, F_0, \dots, F_n), f(X)] \in R_{\text{mod-PDL}}\}.$$

We will now present a new NIZK AoK  $\pi_{\text{mod-PDL}}^{\text{AoK}}$  for the aforementioned relation  $R_{\text{mod-PDL}}$  in the figure 3.3.

**Theorem 3.1.1** (A NIZK Argurement of Knowledge for  $R_{\text{mod-PDL}}$ ). *Consider  $(g, x_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, x_n, F_0, \dots, F_n) \in L_{g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n}^{\text{mod-PDL}}$ , where  $L_{g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n}^{\text{mod-PDL}}$  is the CRS dependent language defined by the relation  $R_{\text{mod-PDL}}$ , with its corresponding witness being  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t+\ell-1}$ . Assuming modified-PDL is computationally hard, for  $t + \ell \leq n$ , the protocol  $\pi_{\text{mod-PDL}}^{\text{AoK}}$  (described in figure 3.3) is a NIZK AoK for  $R_{\text{mod-PDL}}$  in the RO model.*

*Proof.* The corresponding proof is similar to the proof of theorem 2.4.1 given in [4]. Formally, we will prove the security of the interactive setting (i.e., without RO being used) and then using Fiat-Shamir transform it can be extended for the non-interactive setting in the RO model.

- **Correctness:** If both prover and verifier are honest, then for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} g_i^{z(i)} &= g_i^{r(i)+df(i)} \\ &= g_i^{r(i)} (g_i^{f(i)})^d \\ &= \Gamma_i F_i^d, \end{aligned} \tag{3.2}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_j^{z(j)} &= \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_j^{r(j)+df(j)} \\ &= \left( \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_j^{r(j)} \right) \left( \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_j^{f(j)} \right)^d \\ &= \Gamma_0 F_0^d. \end{aligned} \tag{3.3}$$

The aforementioned equations imply that verification returns *true* and honest verifier accepts the honest prover.

- **Special Soundness:** Let  $(\Gamma_0, \dots, \Gamma_n, d, z(X)), (\Gamma_0, \dots, \Gamma_n, d', z'(X))$  be two acceptable transcripts where response polynomials will differ as a consequence of different challenge values. For  $1 \leq i \leq n$  we have the following from equation 3.2:

$$g_i^{z(x_i)} = \Gamma_i F_i^d, g_i^{z'(x_i)} = \Gamma_i F_i^{d'};$$

which implies

$$g_i^{z(x_i)-z'(x_i)} = F_i^{d-d'} \iff g_i^{\frac{z(x_i)-z'(x_i)}{d-d'}} = F_i, \tag{3.4}$$

[if and only if because  $d - d'$  is always invertible in modulo prime  $q$  whenever  $d \neq d' \pmod{q}$ ]. Similarly, we have the following from equation 3.3:

$$\prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_j^{z(x_j)} = \Gamma_0 F_0^d, \quad \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_j^{z'(x_j)} = \Gamma_0 F_0^{d'};$$

implying

$$\prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_j^{z(x_j)-z'(x_j)} = F_0^{d-d'} \iff \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_j^{\frac{z(x_j)-z'(x_j)}{d-d'}} = F_0. \quad (3.5)$$

As we have  $n \geq t + \ell$ , information from equation 3.4 is enough for an extractor to extract a unique witness polynomial  $f$  for the given statement in  $R_{mod-PDL}$  as it implies that  $f_i = \frac{z(x_i)-z'(x_i)}{d-d'}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . More explicitly, as  $z(X)$  is a  $t + \ell - 1$  degree polynomial with high probability in  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]$ , an extractor  $\mathcal{E}$  can construct the unique  $t + \ell - 1$ -degree polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$ , being the desired witness (resp. solution) for a given statement in  $R_{mod-PDL}$  relation (resp. *modified*-PDL problem), from any  $t + \ell$  evaluation points in  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$  whenever  $n \geq t + \ell$ .

- **Honest Verifier Zero Knowledge (HVZK):** Given the statement

$(g, x_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, x_n, F_0, \dots, F_n) \in L_{g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n}^{mod-PDL}$  and a challenge value  $d$ , a simulator  $\mathcal{S}$  can choose a polynomial  $z' \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{t+\ell-1}$  uniformly at random and sets  $\Gamma'_0 = \frac{\prod_{i=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_i^{z'(x_i)}}{F_0^d}$  and  $\Gamma'_i = \frac{g_i^{z'(x_i)}}{F_i^d}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Now,  $\mathcal{S}$  returns  $(\Gamma'_0, \dots, \Gamma'_n, z'(X))$  as the simulated proof. As  $z(X)$  is a random degree  $t + \ell - 1$ -polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  and  $z'(X)$  is chosen uniformly at random, the simulated proof of  $\mathcal{S}$  is indistinguishable from the real one.

As the interactive scheme is public coin, satisfies *completeness*, (computational) *Special Soundness* and (computational) *HVZK*, then in the random oracle (*RO*) model, using Fiat-Shamir transform [13], it can be turned into a NIZK Argument of Knowledge for  $R_{mod-PDL}$  (defined in equation 3.1).  $\square$

The importance of this section is that we will use a modified version of the aforementioned NIZK AoK protocol to construct one of the two Packed Pre-Constructed Polynomial Verifiable Secret Sharing (PPPVSS) schemes we introduce in the next section.

## 3.2 Practical PPPVSS schemes

We finally present our two practical PPPVSS schemes presented in figures 3.4 and 3.5.  $\Lambda'_{RO}$  is a direct extension of  $\Lambda_{RO}$  [5] (which originally is based on  $\Pi_S$  [4]) whereas  $\Lambda_{RO}^{packed}$  is based on the NIZK AoK  $\pi_{mod-RO}^{AoK}$  outlined in previous section 3.1. We give their security proofs subsequently in this section.

**Theorem 3.2.1.** *Assuming Polynomial Discrete Logarithm (PDL) and Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) are computationally hard,  $\Lambda'_{RO}$  is secure against any static computationally bounded adversary. Moreover, if  $n$  is the number of parties then the security of  $\Lambda'_{RO}$  holds whenever  $n \geq 2t + \ell$  where  $t$  is the maximum number of adversarially corrupted parties and  $\ell \geq 1$  is the number of secrets to be shared.*

*Proof.* This directly follows from the proof of  $\Lambda_{RO}$  in [5] as we mainly make use of  $\pi_{PDL}$  and  $\pi_{DLEQ}$ . For the sake of completeness, we give the proof as follows:

- **Correctness:** Assume the dealer  $D$  and parties  $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n$  follow the protocol. Given a setup from initial phase of the protocol for an input  $1^\lambda$  we have  $(y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_n, (d, z(X)))$  from the sharing phase of the  $\Lambda'_{RO}$  where  $y_i = (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{f_j}$  for  $-(\ell-1) \leq j \leq 0$  and  $y_i = PK_i^{f_i}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $d$  is an output from the random oracle  $\mathcal{H}$  for the input  $(y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_n, c_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, c_n)$  and  $z(X) = r(x) + df(X)$  is a  $t + \ell$ -degree polynomial such that  $f(X)$  is the secret polynomial,  $r(X)$  is the polynomial (also secret to  $D$ ) chosen uniformly at random,  $c_i = (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{r(j)}$  for  $-(\ell-1) \leq j \leq 0$  and  $c_i = PK_i^{r(i)}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

Now with  $(y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_n, (d, z(X)))$ , a verifier checks that the following part of the verification phase evaluates to  $d$  when additionally given with  $\ell$  commitment keys for the secrets and  $n$  public keys for the shares:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathcal{H}(y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_n, \frac{h_{-(\ell-1)}^{z(-(\ell-1))}}{y_{-(\ell-1)}^d}, \dots, \frac{h_0^{z(0)}}{y_0^d}, \frac{PK_1^{z(1)}}{y_1^d}, \dots, \frac{PK_n^{z(n)}}{y_n^d}) \\ &= \mathcal{H}(y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_n, \frac{h_{-(\ell-1)}^{r(-(\ell-1))+df(-(\ell-1))}}{h_{-(\ell-1)}^{df(-(\ell-1))}}, \dots, \frac{h_0^{r(0)+df(0)}}{h_0^{df(0)}}, \frac{PK_1^{r(1)+df(1)}}{PK_1^{df(1)}}, \dots, \frac{PK_n^{r(n)+df(n)}}{h_n^{df(n)}}) \\ &= \mathcal{H}(y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_n, h_{-(\ell-1)}^{r(-(\ell-1))}, \dots, h_0^{r(0)}, PK_1^{r(1)}, \dots, PK_n^{r(n)}). \end{aligned}$$

Verifier computes  $d$  even when up to  $\ell$  public keys of some target entities are used instead of the commitment keys for the secrets.

Moreover, the reconstruction phase always yields  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  in both the approaches. Explicitly, it is clear in the optimistic phase that yields  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  after one checks  $\{y_j = (h_i \text{ or } PK_j)^{f_j}\}$  for  $-(\ell-1) \leq j \leq n$ , when given  $(g, \{y_j, f_j, h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0)$ . The Pessimistic case also yields  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  which inherently is the reconstruction step from the PVSS  $\Pi_S$  [4]. In essence, we just proved that if the dealer and parties follow the protocol, then verification step returns true and the Reconstruction phase returns the actual secrets.

- **Verifiability:** We need to show that if verify algorithm returns true then for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $y_i$  is a valid encryption of  $i$ 'th share of the secrets  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  which is intended to party  $P_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  and for  $-(\ell-1) \leq j \leq 0$ ,  $y_j$  is the valid commitment(/encryption) of the secret  $g^{f_j}$  and reconstruct algorithm returns  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  irrespective of the approach with high probability. The trick to do that is to leverage the special soundness property of underlying proof system.

Assuming verification phase outputs true, consider two acceptable transcripts  $(c_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, c_n, d, z(X))$  of the interactive version of the NIZK argument for

PDL problem output by the dealer during the sharing phase as follows (WLOG assume the secrets are encrypted using the  $\ell$  encryption keys of some target entities).

$$PK_i^{z(i)} = c_i y_i^d, PK_i^{z'(i)} = c_i y_i^{d'}, \text{ for } -(\ell-1) \leq i \leq n;$$

this implies,

$$PK_i^{z(i)-z'(i)} = y_i^{d-d'} \iff PK_i^{\frac{z(i)-z'(i)}{d-d'}} = y_i \text{ for } -(\ell-1) \leq i \leq n.$$

If all  $n \geq t + \ell$  checks for verification pass, then it means that the set  $\{y_i\}_{-(\ell-1)}^n$  consists valid encryptions(/commitments) of  $\ell$  secrets and encryptions of  $n$  shares, as a consequence if any set  $\mathcal{Q}$  of  $t + \ell$  honest parties decrypt the encryptions of their shares to reconstruct secrets via pessimistic approach, then the following is obtained,

$$g^{\frac{z(i)-z'(i)}{d-d'}} = F_i \text{ for } i \in \mathcal{Q}, |\mathcal{Q}| = t + \ell.$$

After the DLEQ proofs  $\pi_{DLEQ}$  are checked, as with high probability  $z(X), z'(X)$  are exactly  $t + \ell - 1$  degree polynomial, an extractor having access to the two acceptable transcripts can construct the secrets from  $f_i = \frac{z(i)-z'(i)}{d-d'}$  for  $i \in \mathcal{Q}$  which are  $t + \ell$  evaluations of the  $t + \ell - 1$ -degree polynomial  $f(X) = \frac{z(X)-z'(X)}{d-d'}$ . This implies that pessimistic approach yields the actual secrets  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  with high probability.

Similarly, the optimistic approach also yields the actual secrets  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  with high probability as a consequence of special soundness of the NIZK argument for PDL problem deployed in our PPPVSS.

- **IND1-Secrecy:** We will prove that our scheme will not leak any information about the secrets to any static computationally bounded adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  who corrupts at most  $t$  parties and has access to their secret keys, all public information except the secret keys of target entities, i.e.,  $\{SK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , assuming the DDH assumption is true.

In a nutshell, let  $s_0 = (g^{f_{-(\ell-1)}}, \dots, g^{f_0})$  and  $s_1 = (g^{f'_{-(\ell-1)}}, \dots, g^{f'_0})$  be the tuples of secrets in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  chosen at random by the IND1-Secrecy challenger. The challenger runs the setup phase of our PPPVSS scheme  $\Lambda'_{RO}$  to obtain the public keys  $\{PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  for encrypting the secrets and the public keys  $\{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n$  to encrypt the shares meant for shareholders  $P_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . The challenger runs  $share(n, t + \ell - 1, s_0, \{PK_i\}_{i=-(\ell-1)}^n)$  and obtains  $(y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_n, \pi_{PPVSS}^{share})$  as the encrypted secrets and shares and the proof of correctness of the sharing phase. The challenger chooses  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  uniformly at random and sends  $s_b, (y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_n, \pi_{PPVSS}^{share})$  along with the public information generated in the sharing phase to  $\mathcal{A}$ . *Without loss of generality, let*

$f_i = f'_i$  for  $-(\ell - 1) \leq i \leq -1$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{A}$  is trying to distinguish between two tuples of secrets where they may differ only in last position.

By contradiction, assume  $\mathcal{A}$  can break the IND1-Secrecy property of our scheme. Then we will show that there exists an adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  who can break the DDH assumption using  $\mathcal{A}$  as a subroutine. Also, without loss of generality assume  $\mathcal{A}$  corrupts first  $t$  shareholders, i.e., corrupts  $P_1, \dots, P_t$  so it knows their secret keys.

Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be an adversary who is given a DDH instance  $(h, h^\alpha, h^\beta, h^\gamma)$ , where  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  with  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  being non-zero. Now  $\mathcal{B}$  using  $\mathcal{A}$  simulates the IND1 game  $\mathcal{A}$  as follows:

- $\mathcal{B}$  sets  $g = h^\alpha$ .
- For  $t + 1 \leq i \leq n$  and  $-(\ell - 1) \leq i \leq 0$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  selects  $u_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  (implicitly defines  $s_i = \frac{u_i}{\alpha}$ ) uniformly at random and sends  $PK_i = h^{u_i}$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- For  $1 \leq i \leq t$ ,  $\mathcal{A}$  selects  $SK_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  uniformly at random and sends  $PK_i = g^{SK_i}$  to  $\mathcal{B}$  (challenger in the perspective of  $\mathcal{A}$ ).
- For  $1 \leq i \leq t$  and  $-(\ell - 1) \leq i \leq -1$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  selects  $f_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  uniformly at random, sets  $v_i = h^{f_i}$  and  $y_i = PK_i^{f_i}$ . Finally, for  $i = 0$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  sets  $v_0 = h^\beta$  and  $y_0 = v_0^{u_0}$ , i.e., internally she assumes  $f_0 = \beta$  but note that she does not know  $f_0$  explicitly.
- For  $t + 1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  generates  $v_i = h^{p(i)}$  via lagrange interpolation in the exponent, where  $p \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{t+\ell-1}$  which is determined by the  $t + \ell$  evaluations, namely,  $p(0) = f_0 = \beta$ ,  $p(i) = f_i$  for  $-(\ell - 1) \leq i \leq -1$  and  $1 \leq i \leq t$ . After obtaining  $v_i$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  sets  $y_i = v_i^{u_i}$  for  $t + 1 \leq i \leq n$ .
- Now that  $\mathcal{B}$  has  $\{PK_i, y_i\}_{i=-(\ell-1)}^n$ , as a simulator she samples a random  $t + \ell - 1$  degree polynomial  $z'(X)$  and sets  $c'_i = \frac{PK_i^{z'(i)}}{y_i^d}$  when the challenge value  $d$  in the interactive version of the proof scheme is given.
- $\mathcal{B}$  sets  $h^\gamma$  as the last element in  $s_b$ .
- Finally,  $\mathcal{B}$  sends  $\{y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_n, c'_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, c'_n, d, z'(X)\}$  along with  $s_b$  and public information to  $\mathcal{A}$ , simulating the role of a IND1-Secrecy challenger.
- $\mathcal{A}$  outputs the bit  $b'$  as its guess for  $b$ . If  $b' = 0$  then  $\mathcal{B}$  guesses  $\gamma = \alpha \cdot \beta$ , otherwise  $\gamma$  is guessed to be a random element in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .

□

**Theorem 3.2.2.** *Assuming Polynomial Discrete Logarithm (PDL) and Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) are computationally hard,  $\Lambda_{RO}^{\text{packed}}$  is secure against any static computationally bounded adversary. Moreover, if  $n$  is the number of parties then the security of  $\Lambda_{RO}^{\text{packed}}$  holds whenever  $n \geq 2t + \ell$  where  $t$  is the maximum number of adversarially corrupted parties and  $\ell \geq 1$  is the number of secrets to be shared.*

*Proof.* We want to prove the *Correctness*, *Verifiability* and *IND1-Secrecy* properties and it follows directly as in the PPVSS  $\Lambda_{RO}$ .

- **Correctness:** Assume the dealer  $D$  and parties  $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n$  follow the protocol. We show that verification returns *true* and reconstruction of secrets in both approaches will return the intended secrets. Given a setup from initial phase of the protocol for an input  $1^\lambda$  we have  $(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n, (d, z(X)))$  from the sharing phase of the  $\Lambda_{RO}^{packed}$  where  $y_0 = \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{f_j}$ ,  $y_i = PK_i^{f_i}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $d$  is an output from the random oracle  $\mathcal{H}$  for the input  $(y_0, \dots, y_n, c_0, \dots, c_n)$  and  $z(X) = r(X) + df(X)$  is a  $t + \ell$ -degree polynomial such that  $f(X)$  is a secret polynomial,  $r(X)$  is the polynomial (also secret to  $D$ ) chosen uniformly at random,  $c_0 = \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{r(j)}$  and  $c_i = PK_i^{r(i)}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .

Now with  $(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n, (d, z(X)))$ , a verifier does the following computation for verification using  $\ell$  commitment (/encryption) keys:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathcal{H}(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n, \frac{\prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 h_j^{z(j)}}{y_0^d}, \frac{PK_1^{z(1)}}{y_1^d}, \dots, \frac{PK_n^{z(n)}}{y_n^d}) \\ &= \mathcal{H}(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n, \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 \frac{h_j^{r(j)+df(j)}}{h_j^{df(j)}}, \frac{PK_1^{r(1)+df(1)}}{PK_1^{df(1)}}, \dots, \frac{PK_n^{r(n)+df(n)}}{h_n^{df(n)}}) \\ &= \mathcal{H}(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n, \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 h_j^{r(j)}, PK_1^{r(1)}, \dots, PK_n^{r(n)}). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the computation will result  $d$  value and consequently verifier will return *true* as this is exactly verification step in  $\pi_{mod-PDL}^{AoK}$ .

Moreover, the reconstruction phase always yields  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  in both the approaches. Explicitly, it is clear in the optimistic phase that yields  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  after one checks  $y_0 = \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{f_j}$  when given

$(g, \{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0, y_0, \{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0)$ . The Pessimistic case also yields  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  which inherently is the reconstruction step from the PVSS  $\Pi_S$  [4]. In essence, we just proved that if the dealer and parties follow the protocol, then verification step returns true and the Reconstruction phase returns the actual secrets.

- **Verifiability:** We will show that if verification algorithm returns true then with high probability  $y_i$  is a valid encryption of  $i$ 'th share of the secrets  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  which is intended to party  $P_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $y_0$  is the commitment of  $\ell$  secrets and reconstruct algorithm returns  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  irrespective of the two approaches.

Without loss of generality, assume  $\ell$  public keys,  $\{PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  for encrypting secrets is given. Then, it is easy to observe that  $(g, -(\ell-1), \dots, n, y_0, \dots, y_n) \in$



$L_{PK_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, PK_n}^{mod-PDL}$ , where  $L_{PK_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, PK_n}^{mod-PDL}$  is the CRS dependent language defined by the relation  $R_{mod-PDL}$  (defined in equation 3.1) and the witness is  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t+\ell-1}$ . As a consequence, if the verification phase outputs true, then  $y_0$  is a valid commitment of the secrets,  $\{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$  is a set of valid encryptions of the corresponding shares and *optimistic reconstruction* approach will yield the secrets  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ . Also, due to the special soundness property of  $\pi_{mod-PDL}^{AoK}$  and as  $n \geq t + \ell$  any extractor can extract the unique witness polynomial when given two acceptable transcripts in the interactive setting of  $\pi_{mod-PDL}^{AoK}$ , which means that the pessimistic reconstruction approach also yields the same secrets as in optimistic approach, i.e.,  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ .

- **IND1-Secrecy:** We will prove that our scheme will not leak any information about the secrets to any static computationally bounded adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  who corrupts at most  $t$  parties and has access to their secret keys, all public information except the secret keys of target entities, i.e.,  $\{SK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , assuming the DDH assumption is true.

In a nutshell, let  $s_0 = (g^{f_{-(\ell-1)}}, \dots, g^{f_0})$  and  $s_1 = (g^{f'_{-(\ell-1)}}, \dots, g^{f'_0})$  be the tuples of secrets in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  chosen at random by the IND1-Secrecy challenger. The challenger runs the setup phase of our PPPVSS scheme  $\Lambda_{RO}^{packed}$  to obtain the public keys  $\{PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  for encrypting the secrets and the public keys  $\{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n$  to encrypt the shares meant for shareholders  $P_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . The challenger runs  $share(n, t + \ell - 1, s_0, \{PK_i\}_{i=-(\ell-1)}^n)$  and obtains  $(y_0, \dots, y_n, \pi_{PPPVSS}^{share})$  as the encrypted secrets and shares and the proof of correctness of the sharing phase. The challenger chooses  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  uniformly at random and sends  $s_b, (y_0, \dots, y_n, \pi_{PPPVSS}^{share})$  along with the public information generated in the sharing phase to  $\mathcal{A}$ . *Without loss of generality, let  $f_i = f'_i$  for  $-(\ell - 1) \leq i \leq -1$ , i.e.,  $\mathcal{A}$  is trying to distinguish between two tuples of secrets where they may differ only in last position.*

By contradiction, assume  $\mathcal{A}$  can break the IND1-Secrecy property of our scheme. Then we will show that there exists an adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  who can break the DDH assumption using  $\mathcal{A}$  as a subroutine. Also, without loss of generality assume  $\mathcal{A}$  corrupts first  $t$  shareholders, i.e., corrupts  $P_1, \dots, P_t$  so it knows their secret keys.

Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be an adversary who is given a DDH instance  $(h, h^\alpha, h^\beta, h^\gamma)$ , where  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  with  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  being non-zero. Now  $\mathcal{B}$  using  $\mathcal{A}$  simulates the IND1 game  $\mathcal{A}$  as follows:

- $\mathcal{B}$  sets  $g = h^\alpha$ .
- For  $t + 1 \leq i \leq n$  and  $-(\ell - 1) \leq i \leq 0$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  selects  $u_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  (implicitly defines  $s_i = \frac{u_i}{\alpha}$ ) uniformly at random and sends  $PK_i = h^{u_i}$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- For  $1 \leq i \leq t$ ,  $\mathcal{A}$  selects  $SK_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  uniformly at random and sends  $PK_i = g^{SK_i}$  to  $\mathcal{B}$  (challenger in the perspective of  $\mathcal{A}$ ).

- For  $1 \leq i \leq t$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  selects  $f_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  uniformly at random, sets  $v_i = h^{f_i}$  and  $y_i = PK_i^{f_i}$ .
- For  $-(\ell - 1) \leq j \leq -1$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  selects  $f_j \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  uniformly at random, sets  $v_j = h^{f_j}$ . Also,  $\mathcal{B}$  sets  $v_0 = h^\beta$ . Now that she has  $\{v_j, u_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , she sets  $y_0 = \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 v_j^{u_j}$ . Observe that  $\mathcal{B}$  assumes  $f_0 = \beta$  but does not know it explicitly.
- For  $t + 1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  generates  $v_i = h^{p(i)}$  via lagrange interpolation in the exponent, where  $p \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{t+\ell-1}$  which is determined by the  $t + \ell$  evaluations, namely,  $p(0) = f_0 = \beta$ ,  $p(i) = f_i$  for  $-(\ell - 1) \leq i \leq -1$  and  $1 \leq i \leq t$ . After obtaining  $v_i$ ,  $\mathcal{B}$  sets  $y_i = v_i^{u_i}$  for  $t + 1 \leq i \leq n$ .
- Now that  $\mathcal{B}$  has  $\{PK_i, y_i\}_{i=0}^n$ , as a simulator she samples a random  $t + \ell - 1$  degree polynomial  $z'(X)$  and sets  $c'_i = \frac{PK_i^{z'(i)}}{y_i^d}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$  and  $c'_0 = \frac{\prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 PK_j^{z'(j)}}{y_0^d}$  when the challenge value  $d$  in the interactive version of the proof scheme is given.
- $\mathcal{B}$  sets  $h^\gamma$  as the last element in  $s_b$ .
- Finally,  $\mathcal{B}$  sends  $\{y_0, \dots, y_n, c'_0, \dots, c'_n, d, z'(X)\}$  along with  $s_b$  and public information to  $\mathcal{A}$ , simulating the role of a IND1-Secrecy challenger.
- $\mathcal{A}$  outputs the bit  $b'$  as its guess for  $b$ . If  $b' = 0$  then  $\mathcal{B}$  guesses  $\gamma = \alpha \cdot \beta$ , otherwise  $\gamma$  is guessed to be a random element in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .

□

### 3.3 Conclusion

In this chapter, we generalized PPVSS to Packed PPVSS and presented two practical schemes based on Packed Shamir secret sharing. The reason to introduce the PPPVSS  $\Lambda'_{RO}$  is because of its potential applications in some e-voting protocols. In this thesis, we wanted to mainly focused on randomness beacon application based on PVSS, due to this reason we introduced our second PPPVSS  $\Lambda_{RO}^{packed}$  which is based on the NIZK AoK  $\pi_{mod-PDL}^{AoK}$  for the modified-PDL problem.

In the next chapter, we will revisit the randomness beacon ALBATROSS [9] based on PVSS, and replace the Packed Shamir secret sharing based PVSS with our PPPVSS  $\Lambda_{RO}^{packed}$ .

### PPPVSS based on Packed Shamir secret sharing 2.3

**Initialization:** All parties  $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and dealer  $D$  agree on the prime field  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ . Also, each party  $P_i$  registers their public key  $PK_i$  in the public ledger and all agree on a set of commitment keys or public keys,  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , whose secret keys are known to target entities with the cipher text space being a group  $(\mathcal{G}, \times)$ . More importantly, all entities agree on two NIZK proof protocols, one for the dealer during sharing phase  $\pi_{PPVSS}^{share}$  and the other for Pessimistic reconstruction phase  $\pi_{PPVSS}^{pes}$ .

**Share:**

- Dealer  $D$  samples a  $t + \ell$ -degree polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  uniformly at random and sets  $\{f(j) = f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  as the set of all secrets.
- For each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $D$  computes  $f(i) = f_i$  and encrypts it with  $PK_i$  to obtain  $y_i = Enc(PK_i, f_i)$ .  $D$  also encrypts(/commits) to the secrets  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  using the encryption(/commitment) keys  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  to obtain  $\{y_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ .
- $D$  uses the agreed upon proof system  $\pi_{PPVSS}^{share}$  to prove that they have encrypted the shares and commitments(/encryptions) of  $\ell$  secrets corresponding to the correct polynomial that evaluates to  $\ell$  secrets.
- $D$  broadcasts  $\{y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_0, \dots, y_n, \pi_{PPVSS}^{share}\}$ .

**Verification:** Given public keys  $\{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and commitment(/public) keys  $\{h_j, PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , any entity can check  $\pi_{PPVSS}^{share}$  to verify the correctness of the encrypted shares  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and  $\{y_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  being the commitments(/encryptions) of the  $\ell$  secrets, and outputs **true** or **false** accordingly.

**Reconstruction:** Similar to [5], there are two approaches to reconstruct the secrets  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  based on the cooperation of the dealer  $D$  which are as follows:

- **Optimistic Reconstruction:**  $D$  publishes  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , then any verifier (not necessarily shareholders) when given  $\{y_j, h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  can check if each  $y_j$  is a valid commitment(/encryption) of the secret  $f_j$  and returns **false** if the check fails; otherwise returns  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ .
- **Pessimistic Reconstruction:** If  $D$  refuses to reveal  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , then any set  $\mathcal{Q}$  consisting at least  $t + \ell$  shareholders will do the following:
  - Each party  $P_i \in \mathcal{Q}$  decrypts their share  $y_i$  using their private key  $SK_i$  corresponding to  $PK_i$  to obtain  $f_i$  and then they publish  $f_i$  along with proof  $\pi_{PPVSS}^{pes}$  which proves that the  $f_i$  is the correct decryption of  $y_i$ .
  - If  $\mathcal{Q}$  consists at least  $t + \ell$  honest parties, they can use the lagrange interpolation to compute the secrets  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  as follows:

$$f_j = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{Q}} f_i \left[ \prod_{k \in \mathcal{Q}, k \neq i} \frac{-k - j}{i - j} \right], j \in \{-(\ell-1), \dots, 0\}$$

where  $\lambda_i = \prod_{k \neq i} \frac{k}{k-i}$  are lagrange coefficients.

FIGURE 3.1: PPPVSS based on Packed Shamir secret sharing, version 1

## PPPVSS based on Packed Shamir secret sharing 2.3

**Initialization:** All parties  $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and dealer  $D$  agree on the prime field  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ . Also, each party  $P_i$  registers their public key  $PK_i$  in the public ledger and all agree on a set of commitment keys or public keys,  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , whose secret keys are known to target entities with the cipher text space being a group  $(\mathcal{G}, \times)$ . More importantly, all entities agree on two NIZK proof protocols, one for the dealer during sharing phase  $\pi_{PPPVSS}^{share}$  and the other for Pessimistic reconstruction phase  $\pi_{PPPVSS}^{pes}$ .

**Share:**

- Dealer  $D$  samples a  $t + \ell$ -degree polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  uniformly at random and sets  $\{f(j) = f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  as the set of all secrets.
- For each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $D$  computes  $f(i) = f_i$  and encrypts it with  $PK_i$  to obtain  $y_i = \text{Enc}(PK_i, f_i)$ .  $D$  also encrypts(/commits) to the secrets  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  using the encryption(/commitment) keys  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}$  and multiplies them together to obtain  $y_0$ .
- $D$  uses the agreed upon proof system  $\pi_{PPPVSS}^{share}$  to prove that they have encrypted the shares and committed to the  $\ell$  secrets corresponding to the correct polynomial that evaluates to  $\ell$  secrets.
- $D$  broadcasts  $\{y_0, \dots, y_n, \pi_{PPPVSS}^{share}\}$ .

**Verification:** Given public keys  $\{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and commitment(/public) keys  $\{h_j, PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , any entity can check  $\pi_{PPPVSS}^{share}$  to verify the correctness of the encrypted shares  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and  $y_0$  being the commitment of the  $\ell$  secrets, and outputs **true** or **false** accordingly.

**Reconstruction:** Similar to [5], there are two approaches to reconstruct the secrets  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  based on the cooperation of the dealer  $D$  which are as follows:

- **Optimistic Reconstruction:**  $D$  publishes  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , then any verifier (not necessarily shareholders) when given  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0, y_0$  can check if  $y_0$  is the valid product of the commitment(/encryptions) of the secrets  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  and returns **false** if the check fails; otherwise returns  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ .
- **Pessimistic Reconstruction:** If  $D$  refuses to reveal  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , then any set  $\mathcal{Q}$  consisting at least  $t + \ell$  shareholders will do the following:
  - Each party  $P_i \in \mathcal{Q}$  decrypts their share  $y_i$  using their private key  $SK_i$  corresponding to  $PK_i$  to obtain  $f_i$  and then they publish  $f_i$  along with proof  $\pi_{PPPVSS}^{pes}$  which proves that the  $f_i$  is the correct decryption of  $y_i$ .
  - If  $\mathcal{Q}$  consists at least  $t + \ell$  honest parties, they can use the lagrange interpolation to compute the secrets  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  as follows:

$$f_j = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{Q}} f_i \left[ \prod_{k \in \mathcal{Q}, k \neq i} \frac{-k - j}{i - j} \right], j \in \{-(\ell-1), \dots, 0\}$$

where  $\lambda_i = \prod_{k \neq i} \frac{k}{k-i}$  are lagrange coefficients.

FIGURE 3.2: PPPVSS based on Packed Shamir secret sharing, version 2

$\pi_{mod-PDL}^{AoK}$

Let  $(g, x_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, x_n, F_0, \dots, F_n) \in L_{g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n}^{mod-PDL}$  with its corresponding witness being  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{\leq t+\ell-1}$  where  $L_{g_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, g_n}^{mod-PDL}$  is the CRS dependent language defined by the relation  $R_{mod-PDL}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  be a random oracle (RO).

**Prover**

- Samples  $r \in_R \mathbb{Z}_q[X]_{t+\ell-1}$  uniformly at random and sets  $\Gamma_0 = \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_j^{r(x_j)}$  and  $\Gamma_i = g_i^{r(x_i)}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .
- Sets  $d \leftarrow \mathcal{H}(F_0, \dots, F_n, \Gamma_0, \dots, \Gamma_n)$ , where  $\mathcal{H}$  is an agreed upon Random Oracle (RO).
- Sets  $z(X) \equiv r(X) + df(X) \pmod{q}$  and returns the proof(/transcript)  $\pi := (d, z(X))$ .

**Verifier**

- First checks if  $z$  is a  $t + \ell - 1$  degree polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}_q[X]$ . If so, they proceed with the next step.
- Checks if  $d \leftarrow \mathcal{H}(F_0, \dots, F_n, \frac{\prod_{i=-(\ell-1)}^0 g_i^{z(x_i)}}{F_0^d}, \frac{g_1^{z(x_1)}}{F_1^d}, \dots, \frac{g_n^{z(x_n)}}{F_n^d})$ .
- If first two steps are correct then they output **true**, otherwise **false**.

FIGURE 3.3: A NIZK AoK for the *modified* Polynomial DL

$\Lambda'_{RO}$ 

**Initialization:** All parties  $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and dealer  $D$  agree on the prime field  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , a group  $(\mathbb{G}, \times)$  of order  $q$  with a generator  $g$ , random oracle  $\mathcal{H}$ . Also, each party  $P_i$  registers their public key  $PK_i$  in the public ledger and all agree on a set of commitment keys or public keys,  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , whose secret keys are known to target entities.

**Share:**

- Dealer  $D$  samples a  $t + \ell$ -degree polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  uniformly at random and sets  $\{g^{f_j} : f_j = f(j)\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  as the set of all secrets.
- For each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $D$  computes the encryptions of  $g^{f_i}$  with  $PK_i$  using  $f(i) = f_i$  to obtain  $y_i = PK_i^{f_i}$ .  $D$  also commits(/encrypts) to the secrets  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  using the encryption(/commitment) keys  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  to obtain  $\{y_j = (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ .
- $D$  uses a modified PDL proof scheme 2.4.2 to generate  $\pi_{share}$  as follows:
  - Samples a  $t + \ell$ -degree polynomial  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  uniformly at random and computes  $\{c_j = (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{r(j)}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  and  $c_i = PK_i^{r(i)}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .
  - Using  $\mathcal{H}$ ,  $d = \mathcal{H}(y_{-(\ell-1)} \dots, y_n, c_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, c_n)$  is computed.
  - Sets  $z(X) = r(X) + df(X)$ , hence  $\pi_{share} = (d, z(X))$  is obtained.
- $D$  broadcasts the encryptions of the shares along with the commitment (or product of the encryptions) of the secrets with  $\pi_{PDL}$  which proves the validity of the encrypted shares and committed (/encrypted) secrets, i.e., broadcasts  $\{y_i\}_{i=-(\ell-1)}^n$  and  $(d, z(X))$ .

**Verification:** Given public keys  $\{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and commitment(/public) keys  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , any entity can check  $\pi_{PDL}$  to verify the correctness of the encrypted shares  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and  $\{y_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  being the commitments(/encryptions) of the secrets. They will output **true** or **false** based on the verification of the proof. The procedure is outlined as follows:

- The entity checks if  $z(X)$  is a  $t + \ell$ -degree polynomial or not.
- Checks if  $d = \mathcal{H}(y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_n, \frac{(h_{-(\ell-1)} \text{ or } PK_{-(\ell-1)})^{z(-( \ell-1))}}{y_{-(\ell-1)}^d}, \dots, \frac{PK_n^{z(n)}}{y_n^d})$ .
- Outputs **true** if both of the above checks are satisfied, otherwise **false**.

**Reconstruction:** Similar to [5], there are two approaches to reconstruct the secrets  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  based on the cooperation of the dealer  $D$  which are as follows:

- **Optimistic Reconstruction:**  $D$  publishes  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , then any verifier (not necessarily a shareholder) when given  $g, \{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0, y_{-(\ell-1)}, \dots, y_0$  can check if  $\{y_j = h_j^{f_j} \text{ or } PK_j^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  and returns  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  if all checks pass, if not they return **false**.
- **Pessimistic Reconstruction:** If  $D$  refuses to reveal  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , then any set  $\mathcal{Q}$  consisting at least  $t + \ell$  shareholders will do the following:
  - Each party  $P_i \in \mathcal{Q}$  decrypts their share  $y_i$  using their private key  $SK_i$  corresponding to  $PK_i$  to obtain  $g^{f_i}$  and then they publish  $g^{f_i}$  along with a DLEQ proof 2.4.1,  $\pi_{DLEQ}$  which proves that  $g^{f_i}$  is the correct decryption of  $y_i$ .
  - If  $\mathcal{Q}$  consists at least  $t + \ell$  honest parties, they can use the lagrange interpolation to compute the secrets  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  as follows:

$$g^{f_j} = \prod_{i \in \mathcal{Q}} (g^{f_i})^{\prod_{k \in \mathcal{Q}, k \neq i} \frac{-k-j}{i-j}} = g^{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{Q}} f_i \prod_{k \in \mathcal{Q}, k \neq i} \frac{-k-j}{i-j}}.$$

 FIGURE 3.4:  $\Lambda'_{RO}$ , a packed version of  $\Lambda_{RO}$  [5]

$\Lambda_{RO}^{packed}$ 

**Initialization:** All parties  $\{P_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and dealer  $D$  agree on the prime field  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , a group  $(\mathbb{G}, \times)$  of order  $q$  with a generator  $g$ , random oracle  $\mathcal{H}$ . Also, each party  $P_i$  registers their public key  $PK_i$  in the public ledger and all agree on a set of commitment keys or public keys,  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , whose secret keys are known to target entities.

**Share:**

- Dealer  $D$  samples a  $t + \ell$ -degree polynomial  $f \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  uniformly at random and sets  $\{g^{f_j} : f_j = f(j)\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  as the set of all secrets.
- For each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $D$  encrypts  $g^{f_i}$  ( $f(i) = f_i$ ) using  $PK_i$  to obtain  $y_i = PK_i^{f_i}$ .  $D$  also encrypts(/commits) to the secrets  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  using the encryption(/commitment) keys  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  and multiplies them together to obtain  $y_0 = \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{f_j}$ .
- $D$  uses a variant of the modified-PDL proof scheme 3.1 to generate  $\pi_{share}$  as follows:
  - Samples a  $t + \ell$ -degree polynomial  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q[X]$  uniformly at random and computes  $c_0 = \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{r(j)}$  and  $c_i = PK_i^{r(i)}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ .
  - Using  $\mathcal{H}$ ,  $d = \mathcal{H}(y_0, \dots, y_n, c_0, \dots, c_n)$  is computed.
  - Sets  $z(X) = r(X) + df(X)$ , hence  $\pi_{share} = (d, z(X))$  is obtained.
- $D$  broadcasts the encryptions of the shares along with the commitment of the secrets with  $\pi_{share}$  which proves the validity of the encrypted shares and committed secret, i.e., broadcasts  $\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n$  and  $(d, z(X))$ .

**Verification:** Given public keys  $\{PK_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and commitment(/public) keys  $\{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , any entity can check  $\pi_{share}$  to verify the correctness of the encrypted shares  $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$  and  $y_0$  being the commitment of the secrets. They will output **true** or **false** based on the verification of the proof. The procedure is outlined as follows:

- The entity checks if  $z(X)$  is a  $t + \ell$ -degree polynomial or not.
- Checks if  $d = \mathcal{H}(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_n, \frac{\prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{z(j)}}{y_0^d}, \frac{PK_1^{z(1)}}{y_1^d}, \dots, \frac{PK_n^{z(n)}}{y_n^d})$ .
- Outputs **true** if both of the above checks are satisfied, otherwise **false**.

**Reconstruction:** Similar to [5], there are two approaches to reconstruct the secrets  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  based on the cooperation of the dealer  $D$  which are as follows:

- **Optimistic Reconstruction:**  $D$  publishes  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , then any verifier (not necessarily shareholders) when given  $g, \{h_j \text{ or } PK_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0, y_0$  can check if  $y_0 = \prod_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0 (h_j \text{ or } PK_j)^{f_j}$  and then returns  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  when the check passes, if not they return **false**.
- **Pessimistic Reconstruction:** If  $D$  refuses to reveal  $\{f_j\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$ , then any set  $\mathcal{Q}$  consisting at least  $t + \ell$  shareholders will do the following:
  - Each party  $P_i \in \mathcal{Q}$  decrypts their share  $y_i$  using their private key  $SK_i$  corresponding to  $PK_i$  to obtain  $g^{f_i}$  and then they publish  $g^{f_i}$  along with a DLEQ proof 2.4.1,  $\pi_{DLEQ}$  which proves that  $g^{f_i}$  is the correct decryption of  $y_i$ .
  - If  $\mathcal{Q}$  consists at least  $t + \ell$  honest parties, they can use the lagrange interpolation to compute the secrets  $\{g^{f_j}\}_{j=-(\ell-1)}^0$  as follows:

$$g^{f_j} = \prod_{i \in \mathcal{Q}} (g^{f_i})^{\prod_{k \in \mathcal{Q}, k \neq i} \frac{-k-j}{i-j}} = g^{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{Q}} f_i \prod_{k \in \mathcal{Q}, k \neq i} \frac{-k-j}{i-j}}.$$

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FIGURE 3.5:  $\Lambda_{RO}^{packed}$ , an alternative packed version of  $\Lambda_{RO}$  [5]





## Chapter 4

# Revisiting a Randomness Beacon Protocol

Randomness Beacon [17] is required in applications like e-voting [2] and anonymous messaging ([24],[22]) to provide fresh random values to all the parties. In 2020, Cascudo and David published ALBATROSS [9], the state-of-the art randomness beacon protocol based on a PVSS as a building block where each party in the randomness beacon protocol acts as a dealer once, so that all parties can influence the output randomness. Interestingly, we observed that each party is expected to reveal their secrets (they secret shared as a dealer) as part of the randomness beacon protocol, but to prove that the secrets are valid and not just some random evaluations of the secret polynomial they have to reveal the whole secret polynomial itself. As a consequence, if some entity wants to verify the secrets' validity then they have to simulate the whole sharing phase of the underlying PVSS protocol, which is very expensive because all the rest of the parties are expected to do the simulation of that party as a dealer. For reference, if there are  $n$  parties, then  $n - 1$  parties should simulate the sharing phase of the protocol, which in total is  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  simulations.

In this chapter, we present our randomness beacon protocol in figures 4.1 and 4.2 which in many cases is efficient than ALBATROSS. To put simply, we replaced the building block being PVSS with our PPPVSS  $\Lambda_{RO}^{packed}$  3.5. In the subsequent sections, we will discuss the computational and communication costs of our protocol and compare it with the ALBATROSS. We will show that our protocol performs more efficient compared to ALBATROSS in many cases and also address the cases where we are not computationally efficient. More interestingly, we will show that in terms of communication, we outperform ALBATROSS.

### 4.1 Computational Complexity

See table 4.1 for an overview.

- In ALBATROSS, a dealer(as a part of **commit**) should compute  $n(\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e)$

### Randomness Beacon using PPPVSS

Our protocol with PPPVSS is run between a set  $\mathcal{P}$  of  $n$  parties  $P_1, \dots, P_n$  who have access to a public ledger where they can post information for later verification. It is assumed that the Setup phase of  $\Lambda_{RO}^{packed}$  is already done and the public keys  $pk_i$  of each party  $P_i$  along with  $\{\mathbb{P}_i\}_{i=1}^\ell$  being Commitment keys (or public keys of target people) to encrypt the  $\ell$  secrets are already registered in the ledger. In addition, the parties have agreed on a Vandermonde  $(n-2t) \times (n-t)$ -matrix  $M = M(\omega, n-2t, n-t)$  with  $\omega \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ .

1. **Commit:** For  $1 \leq j \leq n$ :

- Shareholder  $P_j$  executes the Distribution phase of the PPPVSS as Dealer for  $\ell = n-2t$  secrets, publishing commitments (/encryptions) of secrets,  $y_{-(\ell-1)}^j, \dots, y_{-1}^j, y_0^j$ , and encryptions of shares  $\{y_i^j\}_{i=1}^n$  along with  $\pi_{proof}^j$ , which is a NIZK PoK for proving the correctness of committed(/encrypted) secrets and encrypted secret shares on the public ledger, also learning the secrets  $h^{s_0^j}, \dots, h^{s_{-(\ell-1)}^j}$  and their corresponding exponents  $s_0^j, \dots, s_{-(\ell-1)}^j$ .

2. **Reveal:**

- Each shareholder checks the validity of the proof  $\pi_{proof}^j$ , i.e., the **verification phase of PPPVSS protocol**.
- After a set  $\mathcal{C}$  containing at least  $n-t$  shareholders publish their shares in the public ledger,  $P_j \in \mathcal{C}$  reveals  $\ell$  secrets.
- Every shareholder verifies the validity of secrets by reproducing the commitments using the commitment keys (/public keys of target people).
- At this point, if every party in  $\mathcal{C}$  has opened their secrets correctly, go to step 4' in Figure 4.2. Otherwise, proceed to step 3 in Figure 4.2.

FIGURE 4.1: Commit and Reveal phase of the Randomness Beacon using PPPVSS

commitments and to give a proof he should do an additional  $n(\mathbb{P}_e + \mathbb{E}_x)$ . Also, on dealer should do  $l(\mathbb{P}_e + \mathbb{E}_x)$  for computing secrets and keeping it to himself. In total dealer needs to do  $(2n+l)[\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$ .

- In **Reveal**, a verifier should compute  $2n\mathbb{E}_x$  which internally requires additional  $n\mathbb{P}_e$ , i.e., in total it requires  $(n-1)n(2\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e)$  computations for

Protocol	Output size	Commit (by Dealer)	Reveal (by shareholder)	Recovery (by shareholder)
<b>ALBATROSS</b> , <i>Honest case</i>	$l^2$	$(2n+l)[\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$	<b>Share Verification -</b> $(n-1)n[2\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$ <b>Secret Verification -</b> $(n-1)(n+l)[\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$	-
<b>with PPPVSS</b> , <i>Honest case</i>	$l^2$	$2(n+l)[\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$	<b>Share Verification -</b> $(n-1)(n+l)[2\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$ <b>Secret Verification -</b> $(n-1)l\mathbb{E}_x$	-
<b>ALBATROSS</b> , <i>Robust case</i>	$l^2$	$(2n+l)[\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$	<b>Share Verification -</b> $(n-1)n[2\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$ <b>Secret Verification -</b> $(n-t-1)(n+l)[\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$	$[3+4(n-t)]t\mathbb{E}_x$
<b>with PPPVSS</b> , <i>Robust case</i>	$l^2$	$2(n+l)[\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$	<b>Share Verification -</b> $(n-1)(n+l)[2\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$ <b>Secret Verification -</b> $(n-t-1)l\mathbb{E}_x$	$[3+4(n-t)]t\mathbb{E}_x$

TABLE 4.1: Computational cost of dealer and shareholders,  $\mathbb{E}_x$  =group exponentiation and  $\mathbb{P}_e$  =polynomial evaluation in group  $G$  with order  $q$ , where  $q$  is a large prime

each verifier.

- \* In **Robust case** where  $t$  dealers do not open their polynomials, a verifier should verify  $n-t$  polynomials of honest dealers, i.e., for each honest dealer, a verifier has to do  $n\mathbb{P}_e$  to evaluate secret share exponents and does  $n\mathbb{E}_x$  to get secret shares and cross checks them in the public ledger. Also, finally the verifier computes  $l\mathbb{P}_e$  to get secret exponents and get  $l$  secrets by doing  $l\mathbb{E}_x$ . As there are  $n-t$  honest dealers, the verifier has to compute  $(n-t)(n+l)(\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e)$ .
- \* In **Honest case**, everyone would have been honest and so each verifier has to do  $(n-1)(n+l)(\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e)$ .
- **Recovery** phase only exists if some party does not open the polynomial leading to PVSS reconstruction phase, in the worst case there should be reconstruction for the secrets of  $t$  malicious parties. Given a malicious shareholder who has not opened the secret polynomial, each shareholder/reconstructor has to decrypt their share, which requires  $1\mathbb{E}_x$  and should give

a DLEQ proof that they have decrypted correctly, which additionally requires  $2\mathbb{E}_x$ ; Also the re-constructor should verify DLEQ proofs of correct share decryption from  $n - t$  honest shareholders requiring them to do  $4(n - t)\mathbb{E}_x$ . In total, each re-constructor requires  $[3 + 4(n - t)]t\mathbb{E}_x$ .

- Using PPPVSS in randomness beacon protocol, a dealer(as a part of **commit**) requires to do  $(n + l)[\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$  and  $(l - 1)\mathbb{M}_G$  to compute  $\{y_i\}_{i=0}^n$ . For generating the proof that  $y_i$ 's are valid encryptions of the secret shares and also  $y_0$  is a commitment of the  $l$  secrets, the dealer should do  $(n + l)[\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e]$  which internally requires additional  $(l - 1)\mathbb{M}_G$ . In total, a dealer has to do  $2[(n + l)[\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e] + (l - 1)\mathbb{M}_G]$ .
  - In **Reveal**, a verifier should do  $(n + l)(2\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e)$  and  $(l - 1)\mathbb{M}_G$  for each proof. In total, a verifier has to do  $(n - 1)(n + l)[2\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{P}_e] + (n - 1)(l - 1)\mathbb{M}_G$ .
    - \* In **Robust case** with  $t$  malicious parties not opening the secret polynomials, a verifier should do  $l\mathbb{E}_x + (l - 1)\mathbb{M}_G$  to verify each proof, so in total each verifier should do  $(n - t - 1)[l\mathbb{E}_x + (l - 1)\mathbb{M}_G]$ .
    - \* In **Honest case** where everyone is honest, a verifier will do  $(n - 1)l(\mathbb{E}_x + \mathbb{M}_G)$ .
  - The computational complexity of each re-constructor in **Recovery** phase is exactly same as in the case of ALBATROSS.

#### 4.1.1 Computational Cost analysis

The dealer has to do a bit more work in the case of our protocol in contrast to ALBATROSS, more explicitly, they have to compute  $\ell$  more group exponentiations and polynomial evaluations. But as a consequence, we decrease computational cost in the *Reveal* phase whenever  $l < \frac{n(n-t-1)}{2(n-1)}$ , roughly speaking, if the number of secrets are less than half of the honest parties then we always perform better in terms of computation when compared to the ALBATROSS.

## 4.2 Communication Complexity

Protocol	Commit (by Dealer)	Reveal (by Dealer)	Recovery (by shareholder)
ALBATROSS	$nG + (t + l)\mathbb{Z}_q$	$(t + l)\mathbb{Z}_q$	$1G + 1\mathbb{Z}_q + 1R_o$
with PPPVSS	$(n + 1)G + (t + l)\mathbb{Z}_q$	$l\mathbb{Z}_q$	$1G + 1\mathbb{Z}_q + 1R_o$

TABLE 4.2: Communication cost of dealer and (each) shareholder,  $R_o$  being the random oracle,  $G$ =group of order  $q$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  = modular group of order  $q$ , where  $q$  is a large prime

See table 4.2 for an overview.

- In ALBATROSS, a dealer (as a part of **commit**) should send  $n$  group elements as commitments,  $t + l$  elements in  $\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$  that defines the polynomial used in the ZKP and 1 extra element in  $\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$  from RO.
  - In **Reveal**, an honest dealer would broadcast  $t + l$  coefficients in  $\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$  concerning the secret polynomial.
  - If some party has not revealed their polynomial, then in **Recovery** phase a re-constructor using PVSS reconstruction protocol should broadcast 1 element in group which is being the decrypted secret, for the proof of correct decryption, they have to broadcast 3 more group elements along with a polynomial which requires  $t + l$  coefficients in  $\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$  and 1 group element from RO.
- Using PPPVSS in randomness beacon protocol, a dealer (as a part of **commit**) should send  $n + 1$  group elements as commitments,  $t + l$  elements in  $\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$  that defines the polynomial used in the ZKP and 1 extra element in  $\mathbb{Z}/q\mathbb{Z}$  from RO.
  - In **Reveal**, an honest dealer would broadcast  $l$  elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  concerning the exponents to construct the secret.
  - If some part has not revealed their secrets, then the communication cost of each re-constructor is exactly same as in the case of ALBATROSS.

#### 4.2.1 Communication Cost analysis

The best to offer from our randomness beacon protocol is the communication cost. Though the dealer has to communicate only one extra group element compared to ALBATROSS in the commit phase, as a consequence for a fixed number of secrets the dealers' communication cost is constant as opposed to linear in number of corrupted parties in ALBATROSS.

**Randomness Beacon using PPPVSS (cont.)**

3. **Recovery:** Let  $\mathcal{C}_a$  be the set containing at most  $t$  malicious shareholders(as Dealers) who did not open the exponents corresponding to their  $\ell$  secrets,  $\{h^{s_i^k}\}_{i=0}^{-(\ell-1)}$  for each  $P_k \in \mathcal{C}_a$ , in *Reveal* phase.
- Every shareholder  $P_j$  should decrypt the secret share of each malicious shareholder(Dealer) in  $\mathcal{C}_a$ , and give a DLEQ proof 2.4.1 which asserts that the decryption is performed correctly,i.e., each shareholder should perform the *pessimistic* reconstruction phase of the PPPVSS  $\Lambda_{RO}^{packed}$  for every shareholder(Dealer) who has not revealed the exponents corresponding to their secrets.
- 4 **Output:** Let  $T$  be the  $(n - t) \times \ell$  matrix with rows indexed by the shareholders in  $\mathcal{C}$  and where the row corresponding to  $P_a \in \mathcal{C}$  is  $(h^{s_0^a}, \dots, h^{s_{-(\ell-1)}^a})$ .
- Each computes the  $\ell \times \ell$ -matrix  $R = M \circ T$  by applying FFTE to each column  $T^{(j)}$  of  $T$ , resulting in column  $R^{(j)}$  of  $R$  (since  $R^{(j)} = M \circ T^{(j)}$  and  $M$  is Vandermonde) for  $j \in [0, \ell - 1]$ .
  - Shareholders output the  $\ell^2$  elements of  $R$  as final randomness.
- 4' **Alternative Output:** if every party in  $\mathcal{C}$  has opened her secrets correctly in step *Reveal*, then:
- Shareholders compute  $R = M \circ T$  in the following way:  
Let  $S$  be the  $(n - t) \times \ell$  matrix with rows indexed by the shareholders in  $\mathcal{C}$  and where the row corresponding to  $P_a \in \mathcal{C}$  is  $(s_0^a, \dots, s_{-(\ell-1)}^a)$ . Then each party computes  $U = M \circ S \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\ell \times \ell}$  (using the standard FFT in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  to compute each column) and  $R = h^U$ .
  - Shareholders output the  $\ell^2$  elements of  $R$  as final randomness.

FIGURE 4.2: Recovery and Output phase of the Randomness Beacon using PPPVSS

## Chapter 5

# Conclusion

The final chapter contains the overall conclusion. It also contains suggestions for future work and industrial applications.





# Appendices



## Appendix A

# The First Appendix

Appendices hold useful data which is not essential to understand the work done in the master's thesis. An example is a (program) source. An appendix can also have sections as well as figures and references<sup>[1]</sup>.

### A.1 More Lorem

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## Appendix B

# The Last Appendix

Appendices are numbered with letters, but the sections and subsections use arabic numerals, as can be seen below.

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