Computer Security CS 426 Lecture 35



#### Commitment & Zero Knowledge Proofs

Fall 2010/Lecture 35

#### Readings for This Lecture

- Optional:
  - Haveli and Micali: "Practical and Privably-Secure Commitment Schemes from Collision-Free Hashing"
  - Jean-Jacques et al.: <u>How to</u> <u>explain Zero-Knowledge</u> <u>Protocols to Your Children</u>



• This lecture's topics won't be in the final exam

#### Commitment schemes

- An electronic way to temporarily hide a value that cannot be changed
  - Stage 1 (Commit)
    - Sender locks a message in a box and sends the locked box to another party called the Receiver
  - State 2 (Reveal)
    - the Sender proves to the Receiver that the message in the box is a certain message
- Usage scenarios: flipping fair coins, bidding for a contract

### Types of commitment

- Bit commitment
- Integer commitment
- String commitment

# Security properties of commitment schemes

- Hiding
  - at the end of Stage 1, no adversarial receiver learns any information about the committed value
- Binding
  - at the end of Stage 1, no adversarial sender can successfully reveal two different values in Stage 2

#### A broken commitment scheme

- Using encryption
  - Stage 1 (Commit)
    - the Sender generates a key k and sends E<sub>k</sub>[M] to the Receiver
  - State 2 (Reveal)
    - the Sender sends k to the Receiver, the Receiver can decrypt the message
- What is wrong using the above as a commitment scheme? Is it hiding? Is this binding?

#### Formalizing Security Properties of Commitment schemes

- Two kinds of adversaries
  - those with infinite computation power and those with limited computation power
- Unconditional hiding
  - the commitment phase does not leak any information about the committed message, in the information theoretical sense (similar to perfect secrecy)
- Computational hiding
  - an adversary with limited computation power cannot learn anything about the committed message (similar to semantic security)

#### Formalizing Security Properties of Commitment schemes

- Unconditional binding
  - after the commitment phase, an infinite powerful adversary sender cannot reveal two different values
- Computational binding
  - after the commitment phase, an adversary with limited computation power cannot reveal two different values
- No commitment scheme can be both unconditional hiding and unconditional binding

## Another (also broken) commitment scheme

- Using a one-way function *H* 
  - Stage 1 (Commit)
    - the Sender sends c=H(M) to the Receiver
  - State 2 (Reveal)
    - the Sender sends *M* to the Receiver, the Receiver verifies that c=*H*(*M*)
- What is wrong using this as a commitment scheme? Is it binding? Is it hiding?

### Commitment Schemes Using Cryptographic Hash Functions

- A scheme likely secure enough in practice, but difficult to prove security (assuming only H is one-way and strongly collision-resistant)
  - To commit to message M, choose random, fixedlength r, send H(r || M)
  - To open commitment, send r, M
  - Receiver cannot fully recover M.
    - Is this computational or information theoretic hiding?
  - Sender cannot find another M' to open.
    - Is this computational or information theoretic binding?

Commitment must be randomized.

#### For Provably Secure Commitment Scheme based on Cryptogrpahic Hash

- See Haveli and Micali:
  - "Practical and Privably-Secure Commitment Schemes from Collision-Free Hashing"
  - Uses Universal Hashing ( a family of hash functions with some properties)

#### The Pederson Commitment Scheme

- Public parameters: (p,g,h)
  - p: large prime (1024 bit)
  - g: a number in [2, p-1]
  - h: another element such that log<sub>g</sub>h is unknown
- Protocol
  - To commit to x, committer chooses random r and sends (g<sup>x</sup>h<sup>r</sup> mod p) to the receiver.
  - To open, the committer sends x and r to the receiver
- Benefits:
  - One can prove many things about the committed value without opening it

#### Pedersen Commitment Scheme (cont.)

- Unconditionally hiding
  - Given a commitment c, every value x is equally likely to be the value committed in c.
  - For example, given x,r, and any x', there exists r' such that g<sup>x</sup>h<sup>r</sup> = g<sup>x'</sup>h<sup>r'</sup>, in fact r = (x-x')a<sup>-1</sup> + r mod q.
- Computationally binding
  - Suppose the sender open another value x' ≠ x. That is, the sender find x' and r' such that c = g<sup>x</sup>h<sup>r'</sup> mod p. Now the sender knows x,r,x', and r' s.t., g<sup>x</sup>h<sup>r</sup> = g<sup>x'</sup>h<sup>r'</sup> (mod p), the sender can compute log<sub>g</sub>(h) = (x'-x)·(r-r')<sup>-1</sup>. Assume DL is hard, the sender cannot open the commitment with another value.

#### Properties of Interactive Zero-Knowledge Proofs

- Zero-knowledge Proof of Knowledge
  - Proving knowing a secret, without revealing any information about the secret.
- Completeness
  - Given honest prover and honest verifier, the protocol succeeds with overwhelming probability
- Soundness
  - No one who doesn't know the secret can convince the verifier with nonnegligible probability
- Zero knowledge
  - The proof does not leak any additional information

### Intuitive Explanation of ZK

- See the paper "How to explain Zero-Knowledge Protocols to Your Children"
  - http://sparrow.ece.cmu.edu/group/630f08/readings/ZK-IntroPaper.pdf

### Schnorr Protocol (ZK Proof of Knowing Discrete Log)

- System parameter: p, q, g
  - We have  $g^q = 1 \mod p$
- Public identity: c = g<sup>a</sup> mod p
- Private authenticator:
- Protocol
  - 1. P: picks random r in [1..q], sends  $d = g^r \mod p$ ,

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- 2. V: sends random challenge e in [1..2<sup>t</sup>]
- 3. P: sends y=r- ea (mod q)
- 4. V: accepts if  $d = g^y c^e \mod p$

#### Security of Schnorr Protocol -Soundness

- Probability of forge: 1/2<sup>t</sup>
  - The prover who does not know *a* can cheat by guess *e*
  - Set  $d = c^e g^y$  at the first step
- We build a knowledge extractor as follows. Suppose the prover is challenged twice with on same c, first with e1, second with e2.
  - Send e1, receive y1 such that  $g^{y1}c^{e1} = d$
  - Send e2, receive y2 such that  $g^{y2}c^{e2} = d$
  - $-g^{y_1-y_2}=c^{e_2-e_1}$ , output  $\log_g(c) = (y_1-y_2) \cdot (e_2-e_1)^{-1}$

Pedersen Commitment – ZK Prove know how to open

- Public commitment c = g<sup>x</sup>h<sup>r</sup> (mod p)
- Private knowledge x,r
- Protocol:
  - 1. P: picks random y, s in [1..q], sends  $d = g^{y}h^{s}$  mod p
  - 2. V: sends random challenge e in [1..q]
  - 3. P: sends u=y+ex, v=s+er (mod q)
  - 4. V: accepts if  $g^{u}h^{v} = dc^{e} \pmod{p}$
- Security property similar to Schnorr protocol

# Other Things One Can Prove in ZK fashion with Pederson Commitments

- The committed value is a bit.
- The committed value is in a range.
- Two committed values equal
- Two committed values satisfy some linear relations
- And many more

### Coming Attractions ...

Network Security Defenses

