Polynomial Commitments*

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Abstract

We introduce and formally define polynomial commitment schemes, and provide two efficient constructions. A polynomial commitment scheme allows a committer to commit to a polynomial with a short string that can be used by a verifier to confirm claimed evaluations of the committed polynomial. Although the homomorphic commitment schemes in the literature can be used to achieve this goal, the sizes of their commitments are linear in the degree of the committed polynomial. On the other hand, polynomial commitments in our schemes are of constant size (single elements). The overhead of opening a commitment is also constant; even opening multiple evaluations requires only a constant amount of communication overhead. Therefore, our schemes are useful tools to reduce the communication cost in cryptographic protocols. On that front, we apply our polynomial commitment schemes to four problems in cryptography: verifiable secret sharing, zero-knowledge sets, credentials and content extraction signatures.

1 Introduction

Commitment schemes are fundamental components of many cryptographic protocols. A secure commitment scheme allows a committer to publish a value, called the *commitment*, which binds her to a message (binding) without revealing it (hiding). Later, she may open the commitment and reveal the committed message to a verifier, who can check that the message is consistent with the commitment.

We review three well-known ways a committer can commit to a message. Let g and h be two random generators of a group \mathbb{G} of prime order p. The committer can commit to a random message $m \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p$ simply as $\mathcal{C}_{\langle g \rangle}(m) = g^m$. This scheme is unconditionally binding, and computationally hiding under the assumption that the discrete logarithm (DL) problem is hard in \mathbb{G} . The second scheme, known as a Pedersen commitment [19, 40], is of the form $\mathcal{C}_{\langle g,h \rangle}(m,r) = g^m h^r$, where r is a randomly chosen value in \mathbb{Z}_p . Pedersen commitments are unconditionally hiding, and computationally binding under the DL assumption. Third, the committer may publish H(m) or H(m||r) for any one-way function H. In practice a collision-resistant hash function is often used. A survey by Damgård [22] covers the basics of commitment schemes in detail.

Now consider committing to a polynomial $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$, a problem motivated by verifiable secret sharing. Suppose $\phi(x)$ has degree t and coefficients ϕ_0, \ldots, ϕ_t . We could commit to the string $(\phi_0|\phi_1|\ldots|\phi_t)$, or to some other unambiguous string representation of $\phi(x)$. Based on the commitment function used, this option may have a constant size commitment which uniquely

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determines $\phi(x)$. However, it limits the options for opening the commitment; opening must reveal the entire polynomial. This is not always suitable for cryptographic applications, most notably secret sharing, that require evaluations of the polynomial $(i.e., \phi(i))$ for $i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ be revealed to different parties or at different points in the protocol without revealing the entire polynomial. One solution is to commit to the coefficients, e.g., $C = (g^{\phi_0}, \ldots, g^{\phi_t})$, which allows one to easily confirm that an opening $\phi(i)$ for index i is consistent with C. However, this has the drawback that the size of the commitment is now t+1 elements of \mathbb{G} .

Our Contributions. The main contribution of this paper is an efficient scheme to commit to polynomials $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ over a bilinear pairing group, called PolyCommit_{DL}, with the following features. The size of the commitment is constant, a single group element. The committer can efficiently open the commitment to any correct evaluation $\phi(i)$ along with an element called the witness, which allows a verifier to confirm that $\phi(i)$ is indeed the evaluation at i of the polynomial $\phi(x)$. The construction is based on an algebraic property of polynomials $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ that (x-i) perfectly divides the polynomial $\phi(x) - \phi(i)$ for any $i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. The hiding property of the scheme is based on the DL assumption. The binding property of the scheme is proven under the SDH assumption [8]. Using a technique similar to Pedersen commitments, we also define a stronger commitment scheme PolyCommit_{Ped}, which achieves unconditional hiding and computational binding under the SDH assumption.

When a set of evaluations $\{\phi(i): i \in S\}$ is opened at the same time, what we term *batch opening*, the overhead still remains a *single* witness element. Security of batch opening assumes that the bilinear version of the SDH (BSDH) problem [28] is hard. Further, our schemes are homomorphic and easily randomizable. As in other work on reducing communication costs (e.g., [10]) the global system parameters are somewhat large (O(t) in our case). Reducing communication complexity (i.e., the number of bits transferred) is our goal, and to this end we apply the PolyCommit schemes to the following four applications.

First we apply the PolyCommit schemes to the Feldman verifiable secret sharing (VSS) protocol [24]. The new VSS protocol requires a broadcast with size O(1) as compared to O(n) required in the best known protocols in the literature (where n is the number of participants) [24, 40].

Second, we define and use the PolyCommit schemes to construct a relaxed type of zero-knowledge set (ZKS) [36]. A ZKS is a commitment to a set S, such that the committer may prove that $i \in S$, or $i \notin S$ without revealing additional information about S, not even |S|. We define nearly zero-knowledge sets as ZKS that do not attempt to hide the size of the committed set. This is sufficient for most applications of zero-knowledge sets, and our construction has constant size proofs of (non)membership as compared to the best known constructions of ZKS that require non-constant communication [17, 34]. In our construction, PolyCommit_{Ped} is used to commit to the polynomial ϕ such that $\phi(i) = 0$ if $i \in S$. We apply the same relaxation to elementary zero-knowledge databases (ZK-EDB), and achieve constant communication there as well. Here, we view our ZK-EDB scheme as a commitment to an indexed list of messages $(i, m_i = \phi(i))$.

In the next application we leverage the efficiency of batch opening, by using the PolyCommit schemes in an efficient general construction of a *content extraction signature* (CES) scheme [45]. A CES scheme allows a signature holder to extract signatures for subsections of the signed message. The general construction, when instantiated with our commitment scheme and a general secure signature scheme, is as efficient as the best known CES scheme, which relies on specific properties of the RSA signature scheme.

In the special case when the CES scheme is used to authenticate a list of attributes about a person, the result is a digital credential with an efficient *selective show* operation. A selective

show allows the credential holder to reveal only a subset of the attributes, with proof that the revealed attributes are signed. More precisely, the communication cost of revealing k attributes in a credential with t attributes is O(k), while known credential systems (such as [12, 15]) must communicate O(t) bits. We also show how to efficiently prove knowledge of committed values, allowing predicates on attributes to be proven in zero-knowledge (also with complexity O(k)).

Outline. In the rest of this section, we compare our contributions with related work (work related to each application is included in the respective subsection). In $\S 2$, we cover some preliminary material and describe the cryptographic assumptions made in the paper. $\S 3$ defines polynomial commitments and presents our constructions. $\S 4$ is devoted to applications: verifiable secret sharing ($\S 4.1$), zero-knowledge sets and elementary databases ($\S 4.2$), and selective disclosure of signed data and credentials ($\S 4.3$). In $\S 5$, we present some open problems. Due to space constraints, all security proofs are provided in the appendices.

Related Work. Similar to our scheme, a Merkle hash tree [35] allows many values to be committed to with a single element. Here, the leaves of a binary tree are the messages. Each non-leaf node has the value H(L||R) where L and R are its children, and H is a collision-resistant hash function. One can open the commitment to an individual message by revealing the message, and a path up the tree to the root. The opening has size $O(\log n)$ as compared to O(1) in our scheme, where n is the total number of elements. Further, this scheme is not homomorphic.

Chase et al. [18] introduce mercurial commitments to construct ZKS, which eventually led to the commitment schemes for committing to a vector of messages [17, 34]. Catalano et al. [17], and Libert and Yung [34] construct vector commitment schemes under the name trapdoor t-mercurial commitments. The security of both of these commitment schemes is based on SDH-like assumptions and their system parameters have size O(t), as in our scheme. In [17], all messages must be revealed when opening, while in [34], the committer may open a commitment to a single message. However, in [34], it is not possible to have arbitrary indices for committed messages since each of the t committed messages is associated with a value in the system parameters $g^{\alpha j}$ for $j \in [1, t]$. Our scheme does not have any such restriction on the domain for the indices, offering greater flexibility.

Another related primitive is a cryptographic accumulator [4], which aggregates a large set of input elements into a single element and can provide a witness as evidence that an element is included in the accumulator. Further, it is possible to use a witness to prove (in zero-knowledge) that the element is included in the accumulator. Camenisch and Lysyanskaya [14] extend the concept to dynamic accumulators, which support efficient updates. Au et al. [1] observe that a paring-based accumulator by Nguyen [38] is a bounded accumulator, i.e., only a fixed number of elements can be accumulated. They then go on to use bounded accumulators to construct a compact e-cash scheme [2]. However, the accumulated elements in this scheme are not ordered, which makes it inappropriate for accumulating polynomials. While the PolyCommit schemes provide the same features as non-dynamic accumulators, they also have additional features (hiding and batch opening) and are more general since we can commit to a polynomial instead of a set.

2 Preliminaries

In what follows, all adversaries are probabilistic polynomial time (PPT) algorithms with respect to a security parameter κ expect if stated otherwise. Further, they are *static* and they have to choose their nodes before protocol instances start. A function $\epsilon(\cdot): \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is called *negligible* if for all c > 0 there exists a k_0 such that $\epsilon(k) < 1/k^c$ for all $k > k_0$. In the rest of the paper, $\epsilon(\cdot)$ will always

denote a negligible function. We use the notation $e: \mathbb{G} \times \mathbb{G} \to \mathbb{G}_T$ to denote a symmetric (type 1) bilinear pairing in groups of prime order $p \geq 2^{2\kappa}$. The choice of type 1 pairings was made to simplify presentation, however, our constructions can easily be modified to work with pairings of types 2 and 3 as well. For details of bilinear pairings, see Appendix A.

We use the discrete logarithm (DL) assumption [35, Chap. 3], and the t-strong Diffie-Hellman (t-SDH) assumption [8] to prove the security of the PolyCommit_{DL} and PolyCommit_{Ped} schemes. Security of two additional properties of the schemes require a generalization of the t-Diffie-Hellman inversion (t-DHI) assumption [37, 7], and the bilinear version of t-SDH, the t-BSDH assumption [28].

Definition 2.1. Discrete logarithm (DL) Assumption. Given a generator g of \mathbb{G}^* , where $\mathbb{G}^* = \mathbb{G}$ or \mathbb{G}_T , and $a \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, for every adversary $\mathcal{A}_{\mathrm{DL}}$, $\Pr[\mathcal{A}_{\mathrm{DL}}(g, g^a) = a] = \epsilon(\kappa)$.

Mitsunari, Sakai and Kasahara [37] introduced the weak Diffie-Hellman assumption, which was renamed the t-DHI assumption by Boneh and Boyen [7] as this assumption is stronger than the Diffie-Hellman assumption, especially for large values of t. See Cheon [20] for a security analysis.

The t-DHI problem is, on input $\langle g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle \in \mathbb{G}^{t+1}$ to output $g^{1/\alpha}$, or equivalently (see [9]), $g^{\alpha^{t+1}}$. In this paper, we use a generalization of the t-DHI assumption, where \mathcal{A} has to output a pair $\langle \phi(x), g^{\phi(\alpha)} \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x] \times \mathbb{G}$ such that $2^{\kappa} > \deg(\phi) > t$. We call this assumption the t-polynomial Diffie-Hellman (t-polyDH) assumption. This assumption was implicitly made by [1, 2] to support their claim that the accumulator of [38] is bounded. In Appendix B, we discuss the generic group model security of the t-polyDH assumption.

Definition 2.2. t-polynomial Diffie-Hellman (t-polyDH) Assumption. Let $\alpha \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$. Given as input a (t+1)-tuple $\langle g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle \in \mathbb{G}^{t+1}$, for every adversary $\mathcal{A}_{t\text{-polyDH}}$, the probability $\Pr[\mathcal{A}_{t\text{-polyDH}}(g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t}) = \langle \phi(x), g^{\phi(\alpha)} \rangle] = \epsilon(\kappa)$ for any freely chosen $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ such that $2^{\kappa} > \deg(\phi) > t$.

Boneh and Boyen [8] defined the t-SDH assumption that is related to but stronger than the t-DHI assumption and has exponentially many non-trivially different solutions, all of which are acceptable.

Definition 2.3. t-Strong Diffie-Hellman (t-SDH) Assumption. Let $\alpha \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$. Given as input a (t+1)-tuple $\langle g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle \in \mathbb{G}^{t+1}$, for every adversary $\mathcal{A}_{t\text{-SDH}}$, the probability $\Pr[\mathcal{A}_{t\text{-SDH}}(g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t}) = \langle c, g^{\frac{1}{\alpha+c}} \rangle] = \epsilon(\kappa)$ for any value of $c \in \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{-\alpha\}$.

Security of the batch opening extension of our commitment schemes requires the bilinear version of the t-SDH assumption, the t-BSDH assumption [28].

Definition 2.4. t-Bilinear Strong Diffie-Hellman (t-BSDH) Assumption. Let $\alpha \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$. Given as input a (t+1)-tuple $\langle g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle \in \mathbb{G}^{t+1}$, for every adversary $\mathcal{A}_{t\text{-BSDH}}$, the probability $\Pr[\mathcal{A}_{t\text{-BSDH}}(g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t}) = \langle c, e(g, g)^{\frac{1}{\alpha+c}} \rangle] = \epsilon(\kappa)$ for any value of $c \in \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{-\alpha\}$.

A similar assumption was also made in [30], but with a different solution: $\langle c, e(g, h)^{1/(\alpha+c)} \rangle$, where $h \in_R G$ is an additional system parameter.

Note that we bound $\deg(\phi)$ by 2^{κ} as evaluations can be found for polynomials with higher degrees in PPT using number theoretic techniques $(e.g., \text{ for } \phi(x) = x^{p-1}, g^{\phi(\alpha)} = g \text{ for any } \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*)$. In practice, $\deg(\phi) \ll 2^{\kappa}$.

3 Polynomial Commitments

In this section we provide a formal definition of a polynomial commitment scheme, followed by two constructions. In the first construction the commitments are computationally hiding, while in the second they are unconditionally hiding. We also prove the security properties and discuss some useful features of our constructions.

3.1 Definition

A polynomial commitment scheme consists of six algorithms: Setup, Commit, Open, VerifyPoly, CreateWitness, and VerifyEval.

- **Setup**(1^{κ} , t) generates an appropriate algebraic structure \mathcal{G} and a commitment public-private key pair $\langle \mathsf{PK}, \mathsf{SK} \rangle$ to commit to a polynomial of degree $\leq t$. For simplicity, we add \mathcal{G} to the public key PK. Setup is run by a trusted or distributed authority. Note that SK is not required in the rest of the scheme.
- **Commit(PK**, $\phi(x)$) outputs a commitment \mathcal{C} to a polynomial $\phi(x)$ for the public key PK, and some associated decommitment information d. (In some constructions, d is null.)
- **Open**(PK, C, $\phi(x)$, d) outputs the polynomial $\phi(x)$ used while creating the commitment, with decommitment information d.
- **VerifyPoly**(PK, C, $\phi(x)$, d) verifies that C is a commitment to $\phi(x)$, created with decommitment information d. If so the algorithm outputs 1, otherwise it outputs 0.
- **CreateWitness**(**PK**, $\phi(x)$, i, d) outputs $\langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle$, where w_i is a witness for the evaluation $\phi(i)$ of $\phi(x)$ at the index i and d is the decommitment information.
- **VerifyEval**(PK, C, i, $\phi(i)$, w_i) verifies that $\phi(i)$ is indeed the evaluation at the index i of the polynomial committed in C. If so the algorithm outputs 1, otherwise it outputs 0.

Note that it is possible to commit to a list of messages (m_1, \ldots, m_{t+1}) by associating each to a unique key (index) k_1, \ldots, k_{t+1} in \mathbb{Z}_p , and interpolating to find $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$, such that $\deg(\phi) \leq t$ and $\phi(k_j) = m_j$.

In terms of security, a malicious committer should not be able to convincingly present two different values as $\phi(i)$ with respect to \mathcal{C} . Further, until more than $\deg(\phi)$ points are revealed, the polynomial should remain hidden. Next, we formally define the security and correctness of a polynomial commitment.

- **Definition 3.1.** We say (Setup, Commit, Open, VerifyPoly, CreateWitness, and VerifyEval) is a *secure polynomial commitment scheme* if it satisfies the following properties.
- Correctness. Let $\mathsf{PK} \leftarrow \mathsf{Setup}(1^{\kappa})$ and $\mathcal{C} \leftarrow \mathsf{Commit}(\mathsf{PK}, \phi(x))$. For a commitment \mathcal{C} output by $\mathsf{Commit}(\mathsf{PK}, \phi(x))$, and all $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$,
 - the output of Open(PK, \mathcal{C} , $\phi(x)$) is successfully verified by VerifyPoly(PK, \mathcal{C} , $\phi(x)$), and,
 - any $\langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle$ output by CreateWitness(PK, $\phi(x)$, i) is successfully verified by VerifyEval(PK, C, i, $\phi(i)$, w_i).

Polynomial Binding. For all adversaries A:

$$\Pr \begin{pmatrix} \mathsf{PK} \leftarrow \mathsf{Setup}(1^\kappa), \; (\mathcal{C}, \langle \phi(x), \phi'(x) \rangle) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathsf{PK}) : \\ \mathsf{VerifyPoly}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}, \phi(x)) = 1 \; \land \\ \mathsf{VerifyPoly}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}, \phi'(x)) = 1 \; \land \\ \phi(x) \neq \phi'(x) \end{pmatrix} = \epsilon(\kappa).$$

Evaluation Binding. For all adversaries A:

$$\Pr \begin{pmatrix} \mathsf{PK} \leftarrow \mathsf{Setup}(1^\kappa), \; (\mathcal{C}, \langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle, \langle i, \phi(i)', w_i' \rangle) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathsf{PK}) : \\ \mathsf{VerifyEval}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}, i, \phi(i), w_i) = 1 \; \land \\ \mathsf{VerifyEval}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}, i, \phi(i)', w_i') = 1 \; \land \\ \phi(i) \neq \phi(i)' \end{pmatrix} = \epsilon(\kappa).$$

 $\begin{aligned} \textbf{Hiding.} \ \ \text{Given } \langle \mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C} \rangle \ \text{and} \ & \{ \langle i_j, \phi(i_j), w_{\phi_{i_j}} \rangle : j \in [1, \deg(\phi)] \} \ \text{for} \ \phi(x) \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p[x] \ \text{such that VerifyEval} \\ & (\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}, i_j, \phi(i_j), w_{\phi_{i_j}}) = 1 \ \text{for each} \ j, \end{aligned}$

- no adversary \mathcal{A} can determine $\phi(\hat{j})$ with non-negligible probability for any unqueried index \hat{j} (computational hiding) or
- no computationally unbounded adversary $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$ has any information about $\phi(\hat{j})$ for any unqueried index \hat{j} (unconditional hiding).

3.2 Construction: $PolyCommit_{DL}$

We now provide an efficient construction of a polynomial commitment scheme. PolyCommit_{DL} is based on an algebraic property of polynomials $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$: (x-i) perfectly divides the polynomial $\phi(x) - \phi(i)$ for $i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. In the literature, Herzberg *et al.* [31] have used this technique in their share recovery scheme.

Setup(1^{κ}, t) computes two groups \mathbb{G} , and \mathbb{G}_T of prime order p (providing κ -bit security) such that there exists a symmetric bilinear pairing $e: \mathbb{G} \times \mathbb{G} \to \mathbb{G}_T$ and for which the t-SDH assumption holds. We denote the generated bilinear pairing group as $\mathcal{G} = \langle e, \mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_t \rangle$. Choose a generator $g \in_R \mathbb{G}$. Let $\alpha \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ be SK, generated by a (possibly distributed) trusted authority. Setup also generates a (t+1)-tuple $\langle g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle \in \mathbb{G}^{t+1}$ and outputs PK = $\langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle$. Note that SK is not required by the other algorithms of PolyCommit_{DL}, and it can be discarded by the authority if t is fixed.

Commit(PK, $\phi(x)$) computes the commitment $\mathcal{C} = g^{\phi(\alpha)} \in \mathbb{G}$ for polynomial $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[X]$ of degree t or less. For $\phi(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\deg(\phi)} \phi_j x^j$, it outputs $\mathcal{C} = \prod_{j=0}^{\deg(\phi)} (g^{\alpha^j})^{\phi_j}$ as the commitment to $\phi(x)$.

Open(PK, C, $\phi(x)$) outputs the committed polynomial $\phi(x)$.

VerifyPoly(**PK**, \mathcal{C} , $\phi(x)$) verifies that $\mathcal{C} \stackrel{?}{=} g^{\phi(\alpha)}$. If $\mathcal{C} = \prod_{j=0}^{\deg(\phi)} (g^{\alpha^j})^{\phi_j}$ for $\phi(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\deg(\phi)} \phi_j x^j$ the algorithm outputs 1, else it outputs 0. Note that this only works when $\deg(\phi) \leq t$.

CreateWitness(**PK**, $\phi(x)$, i) computes $\psi_i(x) = \frac{\phi(x) - \phi(i)}{(x-i)} \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ and outputs $\langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle$, where the witness $w_i = g^{\psi_i(\alpha)}$ is computed in a manner similar to \mathcal{C} , above.

VerifyEval(**PK**, C, i, $\phi(i)$, w_i) verifies that $\phi(i)$ is the evaluation at the index i of the polynomial committed to by C. If $e(C,g) \stackrel{?}{=} e(w_i, g^{\alpha}/g^i)e(g,g)^{\phi(i)}$, the algorithm outputs 1, else it outputs 0.

VerifyEval is correct because

$$e(w_{i}, g^{\alpha}/g^{i})e(g, g)^{\phi(i)} = e(g^{\psi_{i}(\alpha)}, g^{(\alpha-i)})e(g, g)^{\phi(i)}$$

$$= e(g, g)^{\psi_{i}(\alpha)(\alpha-i)+\phi(i)}$$

$$= e(g, g)^{\phi(\alpha)} = e(\mathcal{C}, g) \text{ as } \phi(x) = \psi_{i}(x)(x-i) + \phi(i)$$

Theorem 3.2. PolyCommit_{DL} is a secure polynomial commitment scheme (as defined in Definition 3.1) provided the DL and t-SDH assumptions hold in \mathcal{G} .

A proof of Theorem 3.2 is provided in Appendix C.1. The proof of the binding property is based on the t-SDH assumption, while the proof of the hiding property is based on the DL assumption.

3.3 Construction: PolyCommit_{Ped}

PolyCommit_{Ped} is also based on the same algebraic property of polynomials $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$: (x-i) perfectly divides the polynomial $\phi(x) - \phi(i)$ for $i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$; however, it uses an additional random polynomial $\hat{\phi}(x)$ to achieve unconditional hiding.

We use the fact that the basic $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{DL}}$ scheme is homomorphic in nature. Observe that given $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{DL}}$ commitments \mathcal{C}_{ϕ_1} and \mathcal{C}_{ϕ_2} associated with polynomials $\phi_1(x)$ and $\phi_2(x)$ respectively, one can compute the commitment \mathcal{C}_{ϕ} for $\phi(x) = \phi_1(x) + \phi_2(x)$ as $\mathcal{C}_{\phi} = \mathcal{C}_{\phi_1}\mathcal{C}_{\phi_2}$. Further, given two witness-tuples $\langle i, \phi_1(i), w_{\phi_1 i} \rangle$ and $\langle i, \phi_2(i), w_{\phi_2 i} \rangle$ at index i associated with polynomials $\phi_1(x)$ and $\phi_2(x)$ respectively, the corresponding tuple for index i for polynomial $\phi(x) = \phi_1(x) + \phi_2(x)$ can be given as $\langle i, \phi_1(i) + \phi_2(i), w_{\phi_1 i} w_{\phi_2 i} \rangle$. The $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{Ped}}$ construction uses the homomorphic property to combine two commitments (one to $\phi(x)$, one to $\phi(x)$), although each commitment uses a different generator. Next, we define our $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{Ped}}$ construction.

Setup(1^{κ} , t) computes two groups \mathbb{G} and \mathbb{G}_T of prime order p (providing κ -bit security) such that there exists a symmetric bilinear pairing $e: \mathbb{G} \times \mathbb{G} \to \mathbb{G}_T$ and for which the t-SDH assumption holds. We denote the generated bilinear pairing group as $\mathcal{G} = \langle e, \mathbb{G}, \mathbb{G}_t \rangle$. Choose two generators $g, h \in_R \mathbb{G}$. Let $\alpha \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ be SK, generated by a (possibly distributed) trusted authority. Setup also generates a (2t+2)-tuple $\langle g, g^{\alpha}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t}, h, h^{\alpha}, \dots, h^{\alpha^t} \rangle \in \mathbb{G}^{2t+2}$ and outputs $\mathsf{PK} = \langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^{\alpha}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t}, h, h^{\alpha}, \dots, h^{\alpha^t} \rangle$. Note that SK is not required by the other algorithms of the commitment scheme, and it can be discarded by the authority if t is fixed.

Commit(**PK**, $\phi(x)$) chooses $\hat{\phi}(x) \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ of degree t and computes the commitment $\mathcal{C} = g^{\phi(\alpha)}h^{\hat{\phi}(\alpha)} \in \mathbb{G}$ for the polynomial $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[X]$ of degree t or less. For $\phi(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\deg(\phi)} \phi_j x^j$ and $\hat{\phi}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\deg(\hat{\phi})} \hat{\phi}_j x^j$, it outputs $\mathcal{C} = \prod_{j=0}^{\deg(\phi)} (g^{\alpha^j})^{\phi_j} \prod_{j=0}^{\deg(\hat{\phi})} (h^{\alpha^j})^{\hat{\phi}_j}$ as the commitment to $\phi(x)$.

Open(PK, C, $\phi(x)$, $\hat{\phi}(x)$) outputs the committed polynomials $\phi(x)$ and $\hat{\phi}(x)$.

VerifyPoly(**PK**, \mathcal{C} , $\phi(x)$, $\hat{\phi}(x)$) verifies that $\mathcal{C} \stackrel{?}{=} g^{\phi(\alpha)} h^{\hat{\phi}(\alpha)}$. If $\mathcal{C} = \prod_{j=0}^{\deg(\phi)} (g^{\alpha^j})^{\phi_j} \prod_{j=0}^{\deg(\hat{\phi})} (h^{\alpha^j})^{\hat{\phi}_j}$ for $\phi(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\deg(\phi)} \phi_j x^j$ and $\hat{\phi}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\deg(\hat{\phi})} \hat{\phi}_j x^j$, the algorithm outputs 1, else it outputs 0. Note that this only works when both $\deg(\phi)$ and $\deg(\hat{\phi}) \leq t$.

CreateWitness(**PK**, $\phi(x)$, $\hat{\phi}(x)$, i) computes $\psi_i(x) = \frac{\phi(x) - \phi(i)}{(x-i)}$ and $\hat{\psi}_i(x) = \frac{\hat{\phi}(x) - \hat{\phi}(i)}{(x-i)}$, and outputs $\langle i, \phi(i), \hat{\phi}(i), w_i \rangle$. Here, the witness $w_i = q^{\psi_i(\alpha)} h^{\hat{\psi}_i(\alpha)}$.

VerifyEval(**PK**, C, i, $\phi(i)$, $\hat{\phi}(i)$, w_i) verifies that $\phi(i)$ is the evaluation at the index i of the polynomial committed to by C. If $e(C,g) \stackrel{?}{=} e(w_i,g^{\alpha}/g^i)e(g^{\phi(i)}h^{\hat{\phi}(i)},g)$, the algorithm outputs 1, else it outputs 0.

Suppose $h = g^{\lambda}$ for some unknown λ . Then VerifyEval is correct because

$$\begin{array}{lcl} e(w_i,g^{\alpha}/g^i)e(g^{\phi(i)}h^{\hat{\phi}(i)},g) & = & e(g^{\psi_i(\alpha)+\lambda\hat{\psi}_i(\alpha)},g^{(\alpha-i)})e(g,g)^{\phi(i)+\lambda\hat{\phi}(i)} \\ & = & e(g,g)^{(\psi_i(\alpha)(\alpha-i)+\phi(i))+\lambda(\hat{\psi}_i(\alpha)(\alpha-i)+\hat{\phi}(i))} \\ & = & e(g,g)^{\phi(\alpha)+\lambda\hat{\phi}(\alpha)} \text{ as } \phi(x) = \psi_i(x)(x-i)+\phi(i) \text{ and } \hat{\phi}(x) = \hat{\psi}_i(x)(x-i)+\hat{\phi}(i) \\ & = & e(g^{\phi(\alpha)}h^{\hat{\phi}(\alpha)},g) = e(\mathcal{C},g) \end{array}$$

Theorem 3.3. PolyCommit_{Ped} is a secure polynomial commitment scheme (as defined in Definition 3.1) provided the t-SDH assumption holds in G.

A proof of Theorem 3.3 is provided in Appendix C.2. The proof of the binding property is based on the t-SDH assumption, while the hiding property is unconditional.

3.4 Features

We next discuss some important features of PolyCommit_{DL} and PolyCommit_{Ped}.

Homomorphism. In §3.3, we describe that the PolyCommit_{DL} scheme is (additive) homomorphic in nature. It is easy to see that the PolyCommit_{Ped} is also homomorphic nature. Observe that given PolyCommit_{Ped} commitments C_1 and C_2 associated with polynomial pairs $\langle \phi_1(x), \hat{\phi}_1(x) \rangle$ and $\langle \phi_2(x), \hat{\phi}_2(x) \rangle$ respectively, one can compute the commitment C for $\phi(x) = \phi_1(x) + \phi_2(x)$ and $\hat{\phi}(x) = \hat{\phi}_1(x) + \hat{\phi}_2(x)$ as $C_{\phi} = C_{\phi_1}C_{\phi_2}$. Further, given two witness-tuples $\langle i, \phi_1(i), \hat{\phi}_1(i), w_{\phi_1i} \rangle$ and $\langle i, \phi_2(i), \hat{\phi}_2(i), w_{\phi_2i} \rangle$ at index i associated with polynomial pairs $\langle \phi_1(x), \hat{\phi}_1(x) \rangle$ and $\langle \phi_2(x), \hat{\phi}_1(x) \rangle$ respectively, the corresponding tuple for index i for polynomial $\phi(x) = \phi_1(x) + \phi_2(x)$ and $\hat{\phi}(x) = \hat{\phi}_1(x) + \hat{\phi}_2(x)$ can be given as $\langle i, \phi_1(i) + \phi_2(i), \hat{\phi}_1(i) + \hat{\phi}_2(i), w_{\phi_1i}w_{\phi_2i} \rangle$.

Unconditional Hiding for PolyCommit_{DL}. When $t' < \deg(\phi)$ evaluations have been revealed, PolyCommit_{DL} unconditionally hides any unrevealed evaluation, since the t'+1 evaluations $\langle \alpha, \phi(\alpha) \rangle, \langle i_1, \phi(i_1) \rangle, \ldots, \langle i_{t'}, \phi(i_{t'}) \rangle$ are insufficient to interpolate a polynomial of degree > t'. Note that the evaluation pair $\langle \alpha, \phi(\alpha) \rangle$ is available in an exponentiated form $\langle g^{\alpha}, g^{\phi(\alpha)} \rangle$.

Indistinguishability of Commitments. When a polynomial commitment scheme is randomized, an adversary cannot distinguish commitments to chosen sets of key-value pairs. When committing to a set of key-value pairs $(\langle k_1, m_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle k_{t+1}, m_{t+1} \rangle)$, if indistinguishable PolyCommit_{DL} commitments are required, it is sufficient to set one m_i to a random value. On the other hand, the PolyCommit_{Ped} scheme is inherently randomized and can be used directly.

Trapdoor Commitment. The constructions are also trapdoor commitment schemes, where $\mathsf{SK} = \alpha$ is the trapdoor. For $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{DL}}$, given α , a *simulator* can create witnesses for arbitrary values with respect to $\mathcal{C} = g^d$ for an unknown d. To "prove" $\phi(i) = r$ (where ϕ is the polynomial supposedly committed to by \mathcal{C}), output $w = [\mathcal{C} \cdot g^{-r}]^{1/(\alpha-i)}$. It can easily be checked that $\mathsf{VerifyEval}(\mathsf{PK},\mathcal{C},i,r,w) = 1$. The same also applies to $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{Ped}}$ commitments.

Batch Opening. In the case when multiple evaluations in a PolyCommit_{DL} commitment must be opened, the opening may be batched to reduce the computation and the communication of both the committer and the verifier; *i.e.*, opening multiple evaluations at the same time is cheaper than opening each of those evaluations individually using CreateWitness and VerifyEval. Let $B \subset \mathbb{Z}_p$, |B| < t be a set of indices to be opened, for a commitment $\mathcal{C} = g^{\phi(\alpha)}$ created using PolyCommit_{DL}. The witness for the values $\phi(i)$, for all $i \in B$, is computed as $w_B = g^{\psi_B(\alpha)}$ for the polynomial $\psi_B(x) = \frac{\phi(x) - r(x)}{\prod_{i \in B}(x-i)}$ where r(x) is the remainder of the polynomial division $\phi(x)/(\prod_{i \in B}(x-i))$; *i.e.*, $\phi(x) = \psi_B(x) \left(\prod_{i \in B}(x-i)\right) + r(x)$ and for $i \in B$, $\phi(i) = r(i)$. We define two algorithms for batch opening. The algorithm CreateWitnessBatch(PK, $\phi(x)$, B) outputs $\langle B, r(x), w_B \rangle$ and the algorithm VerifyEvalBatch(PK, $\mathcal{C}, B, r(x), w_B$) outputs 1 if $e(\mathcal{C}, g) \stackrel{?}{=} e(g^{\prod_{i \in B}(\alpha-i)}, w_B)e(g, g^{r(\alpha)})$ holds, deg r(x) = |B|, and $r(i) = \phi(i)$ for all $i \in B$.

In terms of security, since commitments are formed in the same way as the Commit algorithm of PolyCommit_{DL} and CreateWitnessBatch reveals no more information than running the CreateWitness algorithm of PolyCommit_{DL} for all batch elements individually, the hiding property (proven in Theorem 3.2) still holds. For binding, an adversary should not be able to open a batch B containing an index i, in a manner that conflicts with the value $\phi(i)$ output in an individual opening of index i. Formally, we say that batch opening is binding if the following holds:

$$\Pr \begin{pmatrix} \mathsf{PK} \leftarrow \mathsf{Setup}(1^\kappa,t), (\mathcal{C},\langle B, w_B, r(x) \rangle, \langle i \in B, w_i, \phi(i) \rangle) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathsf{PK}) : \\ \mathsf{VerifyEvalBatch}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}, B, w_B, r(x)) = 1 \land \\ \mathsf{VerifyEval}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}, i, w_i, \phi(i)) = 1 \land \\ \phi(i) \neq r(i) \end{pmatrix} = \epsilon(\kappa).$$

Theorem 3.4. The construction of CreateWitnessBatch, VerifyEvalBatch in §3.4 is binding provided the t-BSDH assumption holds in \mathbb{G} .

This theorem is proven in Appendix C.3. The above construction of CreateWitnessBatch, VerifyEvalBatch can trivially modified for PolyCommit_{Ped} due to homomorphic nature of PolyCommit_{DL}.

In Table 1 we show the communication overhead of various commitment schemes, when Alice commits to t values, and then must reveal k of them. Overhead excludes the communication cost of sending the committed values, as it is the same in all schemes. The values in Table 1 count the number of communicated elements for various commitment schemes. The size of each element is approximately equal to 2κ . From the table, we can see that the communication overhead of PolyCommit_{DL} is constant when batch opening is used and we suggest PolyCommit_{DL} for opening multiple evaluations simultaneously. Without batch opening, the overhead savings is greatest when k (the number of openings) is much smaller than t (the number of committed values).

Strong Correctness. The verifiable secret sharing application will require an additional property of the PolyCommit scheme: it should not be possible to commit to a polynomial of degree greater than t. This is called the strong correctness property.

To define strong correctness for the PolyCommit schemes is not easy, e.g., there are many polynomials ϕ' of degree greater than t such that $\phi(\alpha) = z \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p$ and so g^z is trivially a PolyCommit_{DL}

	Hash	Pedersen	$PolyCommit_{\mathrm{DL}}$	$PolyCommit_{DL}$	$PolyCommit_{Ped}$	$PolyCommit_{Ped}$
				(Batch)		(Batch)
Commitment size	t	t	1	1	1	1
k-opening overhead	0	k random	k witnesses	1 witness	k random +k	k random +1
		values			witnesses	witness
Total overhead	t	t+k	k+1	2	k+2	k+2
Total overhead	$\approx t$	$\approx 2t$	$\approx t + 1$	2	t+2	t+2
when $k \approx t$						

Table 1: Comparison of commitment scheme communication overhead. A commitment to t messages is created, then later k < t messages must be revealed.

commitment to some polynomial of degree t' such that $2^{\kappa} > t' > t$. To avoid this triviality, we require that an adversary \mathcal{A} must convince a challenger \mathcal{B} that he knows ϕ with the following game. \mathcal{A} creates a commitment to a claimed polynomial ϕ' of degree t'. \mathcal{B} challenges \mathcal{A} with t'+1 indices $I \subset \mathbb{Z}_p$. \mathcal{A} wins if he is able to produce $\{\langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle \}_{i \in I}$ accepted by VerifyEval and that the interpolation (in exponents) of any t'+1 witnesses generates a degree t-1 polynomial. Similarly for PolyCommit_{Ped}. Refer to Appendix C.4, for proof of the following theorem.

Theorem 3.5. PolyCommit_{DL} and PolyCommit_{Ped} have the strong correctness property if the t-polyDH assumption holds in \mathcal{G} .

Practicality and Efficiency Improvements. Here, we discuss the practicality of Setup $(1^{\kappa}, t) = \langle \mathsf{SK}, \mathsf{PK} \rangle$. It is trivial in presence of a trusted authority. In absence of a single trusted party, Setup can be distributed. Here, $\mathsf{SK} = \alpha$ is computed in a distributed form (i.e., shared by multiple parties forming a distributed authority) using the concept of distributed key generation [40] over \mathbb{Z}_p . PK is computed using a distributed multiplication protocol over \mathbb{Z}_p [3, 27]. As we do not require SK during our protocols and as anybody can verify the correctness of PK using pairings, it is possible to consider PK as a global reusable set, shared in many systems.

Further, the exponentiations required when committing and creating witnesses can be trivially parallelized. Also, since $\mathcal{C} = g^{\phi(\alpha)}$ is computed as a product of powers (sometimes called a multi-exponentiation), we suggest using fast exponentiation techniques [41] instead of a naïve implementation. It is also possible to precompute $e(\mathcal{C}, g)$ and e(g, g) for use during verification.

4 Applications

In this section, we describe applications of our commitment schemes to verifiable secret sharing ($\S4.1$), zero-knowledge sets and elementary databases ($\S4.2$), and selective disclosure of signed data and credentials ($\S4.3$).

4.1 Verifiable Secret Sharing (VSS)

For integers n and t such that $n > t \ge 0$, an (n,t)-secret sharing scheme [43, 6] is a method used by a dealer to share a secret s among a set of n participants in such a way that any subset of t+1 or more participants can compute the secret s, but subsets of size t or fewer cannot.

In secret sharing, nodes may need a procedure to verify the correctness of the dealt values in order to prevent malicious behaviour by the dealer. To solve this problem, Chor *et al.* [21] introduced verifiability in secret sharing, which led to the concept of *verifiable secret sharing* (VSS).

An (n,t)-VSS scheme consists of two phases: the *sharing* (Sh) phase and the *reconstruction* (Rec) phase.

Sh phase. A dealer P_d distributes a secret $s \in \mathcal{K}$ among n nodes, where \mathcal{K} is a sufficiently large key space. At the end of the Sh phase, each honest node P_i holds a share s_i of the distributed secret s.

Rec phase. In this phase, each node P_i reveals its secret share s_i' and a reconstruction function is applied in order to compute the secret $s = \text{Rec}(s_1', s_2', \ldots, s_n')$ or output \bot indicating that P_d is malicious. For honest nodes $s_i' = s_i$, while for malicious nodes s_i' may be different from s_i or even absent.

VSS schemes have two security requirements: secrecy and correctness.

Secrecy (VSS-S). A t-limited adversary who can compromise t nodes cannot compute s during the Sh phase.

Correctness (VSS-C). The reconstructed value should be equal to the shared secret s or every honest node concludes that the dealer is malicious by outputting \bot .

Here, we consider VSS schemes in the computational complexity setting. In this setting, any malicious behaviour by P_d is caught by the honest nodes in the Sh phase itself and the VSS-C property simplifies to the following: the reconstructed value should be equal to the shared secret s.

Further, many VSS applications avoid participation by all parties during the Rec phase. It is required that broadcasts from any t+1 honest nodes (or any 2t+1 nodes) is sufficient to reconstruct s. Therefore, along with secrecy and correctness, we mandate the correctness property that we refer as the strong correctness requirement.

Strong Correctness (VSS-SC). The same unique value s is reconstructed regardless of the subset of nodes (of size greater than 2t) chosen by the adversary in the Rec algorithm.

Further, some VSS schemes achieve a stronger secrecy guarantee.

Strong Secrecy (VSS-SS). The adversary who can compromise t nodes does not have any more information about s except what is implied by the public parameters.

Feldman [24] developed the first efficient VSS protocol, which forms the basis of all VSS schemes defined in the literature. In the literature, the discrete logarithm commitment or Pedersen commitment is used in the Feldman VSS achieve the binding (correctness) and the hiding (secrecy) properties. Both of these commitment schemes trivially satisfy the strong correctness (VSS-SC) property of VSS by the fact that the size of a commitment to a polynomial $\phi(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ is equal to $\deg(\phi) + 1$, which is O(n) (since for optimal resiliency, $\deg(\phi) = t = \lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor$). However, the commitment to a polynomial has to be broadcast to all nodes, which results in a linear-size broadcast for Feldman VSS and their variants and a linear complexity gap between the message and the bit complexities. Our goal is to close this gap using one of the PolyCommit schemes. Next, we apply PolyCommit_{DL} to existing polynomial-based VSS schemes. By doing so, we reduce the broadcast message size of VSS by a linear factor, making it equal to the message complexity. Although PolyCommit_{DL} can be used in any univariate polynomial-based VSS scheme, we choose the Feldman VSS for ease of exposition.

Our efficient Feldman VSS (eVSS) scheme requires $\mathsf{Setup}(1^\kappa, t)$ of $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{DL}}$ be run once, which outputs $\mathsf{PK} = \langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^\alpha, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle$. Further, as we are working in the synchronous communication model, a resiliency bound of $n \geq 2t+1$ is required for VSS to provide correctness against a t-limited Byzantine adversary as the n-t honest nodes available during the Sh and Rec phases should at least be equal to t+1 (the required threshold). In Figure 1, we present eVSS that uses the

Sh Phase

- 1. To share a secret $s \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, the dealer P_d chooses a random degree t polynomial $\phi(x) = \sum_{j=0}^t \phi_j x^j \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ such that $\phi(0) = \phi_0 = s$. It then broadcasts $\mathcal{C} = \mathsf{Commit}(\mathsf{PK}, \phi(x))$.
- 2. For $\ell \in [1, n]$, P_d computes a share $s_\ell = \phi(\ell)$, a witness $w_\ell = \mathsf{CreateWitness}(\mathsf{PK}, \phi(x), \ell)$ and sends $\langle \ell, \phi(\ell), w_\ell \rangle$ to node P_ℓ over a secure and authenticated channel.
- 3. After receiving $\langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle$ from P_d , node P_i runs VerifyEval(PK, C, $i, \phi(i), w_i$). If the verification fails, P_i broadcasts an accusation message against P_d .
- 4. If more than t nodes accuse P_d , then it is clearly faulty and is disqualified. If not, for each accusing party P_ℓ , P_d broadcasts the corresponding share and witness $\langle \ell, \phi(\ell), w_\ell \rangle$ such that VerifyEval holds.
- 5. If any of the revealed shares fails VerifyEval, P_d is disqualified and the protocol stops. If there is no disqualification, each node P_{ℓ} accepts the received share s_{ℓ} .

Rec Phase

During reconstruction, any t+1 or more nodes P_i publish their accepted shares and witnesses $\langle i, s_i, w_i \rangle$. All t+1 (or more) nodes verify each of the broadcast shares $\langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle$ using VerifyEval and then interpolate the pairs $\langle i, \phi(i) \rangle$ to determine the secret $s = \phi(0)$.

Figure 1: eVSS: An efficient Feldman VSS using PolyCommit_{DL}

PolyCommit_{DL} scheme in the Feldman VSS. In the Sh and the Rec phases of the eVSS scheme, the VSS methodology remains exactly the same as that of Feldman VSS except here t+1 commitments of the form g^{ϕ_j} for $\phi(x) = \sum_{j=0}^t \phi_j x^j$ are replaced by a single polynomial commitment $\mathcal{C} = g^{\phi(\alpha)}$. In addition, along with a share s_i , P_d now sends a witness w_i to node P_i . Overall, the eVSS protocol needs O(1) broadcast instead of O(n) required by the Feldman VSS. In case of multiple accusations, dealer P_d can use the batch opening feature described in §3.4 to provide a single witness for the complete batch. Furthermore, due to the homomorphic nature of PolyCommit, the eVSS scheme can easily converted to a distributed key generation protocol [40].

Theorem 4.1. The eVSS protocol implements a synchronous VSS scheme with the VSS-S and VSS-SC properties for $n \ge 2t + 1$ provided the DL, t-SDH and t-polyDH assumptions hold in \mathcal{G} .

We need to prove the secrecy, correctness and strong correctness properties of a synchronous VSS scheme. Secrecy and correctness result directly from Theorem 3.2, while Theorem 3.5 provides the strong correctness property. The secrecy provided by eVSS is computational against a t-bounded adversary, and unconditional against a t-1 bounded adversary. Share correctness is computational.

 $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{DL}}$ can easily be replaced by $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{Ped}}$ in the above eVSS scheme. In that case, we achieve the strong secrecy (VSS-SS) property as $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{Ped}}$ is unconditional hiding (Theorem 3.3).

4.2 Nearly ZKSs and Nearly ZK-EDBs

In this section, we define and give an efficient construction of a new primitive called a nearly ZKS. Micali et al. [36] define zero-knowledge sets (ZKSs). Basically a ZKS allows a committer to create a short commitment to a set of values S, such that he may later efficiently prove statements of the form $k_j \in S$ or $k_j \notin S$ in zero-knowledge. No additional information about S is revealed. Perhaps the most challenging aspect in ZKS construction is that not even an upper bound on |S| may be revealed. The closely related notion of zero-knowledge elementary databases (ZK-EDB) is also defined in [36]. Loosely speaking, an EDB is a list of key-value pairs, and a ZK-EDB allows a committer to prove that a given value is associated with a given key with respect to a short commitment.

We argue that relaxing the requirements of a ZKS is sufficient for known applications, and show this leads to a significantly more efficient primitive. In particular, by not hiding |S|, the size of the proof that an element is (or is not) in a committed set is reduced by a factor of sixteen or more, when compared to the best known ZKS construction.

Motivation. Much of the literature on ZKSs does not consider applications [17, 18, 26, 34, 42]. In the applications of ZKSs (and ZK-EDBs) suggested in [36] the size of the set (or DB) is not crucial to the intended security or privacy of the application. The applications given are to improve privacy and access control when the records of an EDB contain sensitive information about people, e.g., medical records. In such cases, revealing a bound on the number of records in the database clearly does not affect the privacy of an individual whose information is kept in the database.

Another use of ZKSs and ZK-EDBs is for committed databases [39]. In this application, a database owner commits to the database and then proves for every query that the response is consistent with the commitment. For many applications the *contents* of the committed database must be hidden, but the size may be revealed. An example is given in Buldas *et al.* [13]. Here ZK-EDBs are used to increase the accountability of a certification authority by preventing it from providing inconsistent responses to queries about the validity of a certificate. Clearly, keeping the number of certificates hidden is not required. Therefore, a weaker type of ZKS primitive that does not hide the size of the set will suffice for most practical applications of ZKSs. We call a ZKS that may leak information about the size of the set a *nearly ZKS*. Similarly, a *nearly ZK-EDB* is a ZK-EDB that may leak information about the number of records it contains.

We note that an accumulator also represents a set of values with proofs of membership, and some even allow proofs of non-membership (for example, see [23, 33]). Accumulators do not however, guarantee hiding (the ZK property), for example, in [23] after seeing responses to t non-membership queries we may recover the entire accumulated set.

Construction of a Nearly ZKS. The construction will use PolyCommit_{Ped}, and allows us to commit to $S \subset \mathbb{Z}_p$ such that $|S| \leq t$. The basic idea is to commit to a polynomial ϕ , such that $\phi(k_j) = 0$ for $k_j \in S$, and $\phi(k_j) \neq 0$ for $k_j \notin S$. Our construction relies on a ZK proof that proves $\phi(k_j) \neq 0$ without revealing $\phi(k_j)$ to maintain privacy for queries when $k_j \notin S$. Although a construction based on PolyCommit_{DL} is also possible, we choose PolyCommit_{Ped} as the required ZK proof is simpler in the latter case. For convenience we describe our protocols assuming the ZK proof is non-interactive, however, an interactive ZK proof may be used as well.

SetupZKS $(1^{\kappa}, t)$ outputs PK = Setup $(1^{\kappa}, t)$. t is an upper bound on the size of the set which may be committed.

CommitZKS(**PK**, S) requires $|S| \leq t$. Define $\phi(x) = \prod_{k_j \in S} (x - k_j) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$. Output $\mathcal{C} = \mathsf{Commit}(\mathsf{PK}, \phi(x))$. Let $\hat{\phi}(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ be the random degree t polynomial chosen in PolyCommit_{Ped}.

QueryZKS(PK, C, k_j) allows the committer to create a proof that either $k_j \in S$ or $k_j \notin S$. Compute $\langle k_j, \phi(k_j), \hat{\phi}(k_j), w_j \rangle = \mathsf{CreateWitness}(\mathsf{PK}, \phi(x), \hat{\phi}(x), k_j)$.

- (i) If $k_j \in S$, output $\pi_{Sj} = (k_j, w_j, \hat{\phi}(k_j), \perp)$.
- (ii) If $k_j \notin S$, create $z_j = g^{\phi(k_j)} h^{\hat{\phi}(k_j)}$ and a ZK proof of knowledge of $\phi(k_j)$ and $\hat{\phi}(k_j)$ in $z_j = g^{\phi(k_j)} h^{\hat{\phi}(k_j)}$. Let $\gamma_j = \langle z_j, \text{ZK proof} \rangle$. Output $\pi_{S_j} = (k_j, w_j, \perp, \gamma_j)$.

VerifyZKS(PK, C, π_{S_i}) parses π_{S_i} as $(k_i, w_i, \hat{\phi}(k_i), \gamma_i)$.

- (i) If $\hat{\phi}(k_i) \neq \bot$, then $k_i \in S$. Output 1 if VerifyEval(PK, $C, k_i, 0, \hat{\phi}(k_i), w_i$) = 1.
- (ii) If $\gamma_j \neq \bot$, then $k_j \notin S$. Parse γ_j as $\langle z_j, \text{ZK proof} \rangle$. If $e(\mathcal{C}, g) \stackrel{?}{=} e(w_j, g^{\alpha k_j}) e(z_j, g)$, and the ZK proof of knowledge of z_j is valid, output 1. Output 0 if either check fails.

A security definition and proof are provided in Appendix D. The ZK proof of knowledge may be implemented using any secure ZK proof system allowing proof of knowledge of a discrete logarithm (see [16] for examples).

Construction of a Nearly ZK-EDB. This construction makes use of the above nearly ZKS construction and PolyCommit_{DL}. Let $D = (K, V) \subset \mathbb{Z}_p^t \times \mathbb{Z}_p^t$ be a list of key-value pairs that will define the database $(K \text{ and } V \text{ are ordered lists of equal length such that the value } m_j \in V$ corresponds to the key $k_j \in K$). The values may repeat, but the keys must be distinct. We write $D(k_j)$ to denote the value associated to key k_j (if $k_j \notin K$, then $D(k_j) = \bot$). The underlying idea of our construction is to commit to the keys using our nearly ZKS, and also commit to ϕ , such that $\phi(k_j) = m_j$, using PolyCommit_{DL}, since it is sufficient for security and more efficient. The reason for using the nearly ZKS is to respond to queries when $k \notin D$ without revealing any additional information.

SetupEDB $(1^{\kappa}, t)$ runs SetupZKS $(1^{\kappa}, t)$, and outputs PK.

CommitEDB(PK, D = (K, V)) sets $C_1 = \text{CommitZKS}(PK, K)$. It then interpolates the t (or fewer) points $(k_j, m_j) \in D$, and one or more random points $(k_r, m_r) \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p$ to get a polynomial $\phi_2(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$, assured to be of degree t. Set $C_2 = \text{Commit}(PK, \phi_2(x))$ and output $\mathcal{E} = (C_1, C_2)$.

QueryEDB(PK, \mathcal{E}, k_i) parses \mathcal{E} as $(\mathcal{C}_1, \mathcal{C}_2)$.

- (i) If $k_j \in K$, compute $\pi_{Sj} = \mathsf{QueryZKS}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}_1, k_j)$ to show that $k_j \in K$ and $\langle k_j, m_j, w_{m_j} \rangle = \mathsf{CreateWitness}(\mathsf{PK}, \phi_2(x), k_j)$ to show that $D(k_j) = m_j$. Output $\pi_{Dj} = (\pi_{Si}, m_j, w_{m_j})$.
- (ii) If $k_j \notin K$, we show that $k_j \notin K$, set $\pi_{Sj} = \mathsf{QueryZKS}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}_1, k_j)$. Output $\pi_{Dj} = (\pi_{Sj}, \bot, \bot)$.

VerifyEDB(**PK**, \mathcal{E} , π_{Dj}) parses π_{Dj} as (π_{Sj}, m_j, w_{m_j}) and \mathcal{E} as $(\mathcal{C}_1, \mathcal{C}_2)$.

- (i) If $m_j \neq \bot$, then $k_j \in K$, output (k_j, m_j) if $\mathsf{VerifyZKS}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}_1, \pi_{Sj}) = 1$ and $\mathsf{VerifyEval}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}_2, k_j, m_j, w_{m_j}) = 1$.
- (ii) If $m_j = \bot$, then $k_j \notin K$, output 1 if VerifyZKS(PK, C_1, π_{S_j}) = 1.

Efficiency of our nearly ZKS and ZK-EDBs. The size of the commitment is a single group element for a nearly ZKS, or two elements for a nearly ZK-EDB. Proof that $k_j \in S$, consists of two group elements, while proof that $k_j \notin S$ consists of about five group elements (when ZK proofs are implemented using a standard three-move ZK protocol, made non-interactive with the Fiat-Shamir heuristic). The proof sizes for our nearly ZK-EDB construction are three and about five group elements (respectively).

The ZK-EDB in the literature with the shortest proofs is that of Libert and Yung [34] (based on their ZKS construction). Asymptotically, (non)membership proofs are $O(\kappa/\log(t))$ bits, where κ is a security parameter, and t is the size of the system parameters. For the parameter choices given [34], proof sizes range from 80–220 group elements. The computation of their scheme and ours is nearly equal. Therefore, using nearly ZK-EDBs in the place of ZK-EDBs reduces communication costs by at least a factor of sixteen.

4.3 Credentials and Selective Disclosure of Signed Data

In this section we briefly describe two applications of the PolyCommit schemes, and we will show how polynomial commitments can reduce communication costs. Both applications are based on the following idea. Suppose Alice has a list of values (m_1, \ldots, m_t) , which will be signed by Trent. If Trent signs the concatenation, then Alice must reveal all m_i to allow Bob to verify the signature. However, if Trent signs $\mathcal{C} = \text{Commit}(\mathsf{PK}, \phi(x))$ where $\phi(i) = m_i$, then Alice may allow Bob to verify that Trent has signed m_i without revealing the other m_j . Bob verifies the signature on \mathcal{C} , and Alice produces a witness to prove that \mathcal{C} opens to m_i at position i, allowing Alice to convince Bob that Trent signed m_i .

Content Extraction Signatures. If (m_1, \ldots, m_t) are parts of a document, then signing a polynomial commitment is a *content extraction signature* (CES) scheme. Steinfeld *et al.* [45] introduce CES and give a generic construction of CES signatures. The scheme requires a standard commitment scheme, which is then used to commit to each of the t sub-messages (m_1, \ldots, m_t) individually, forming a vector of commitments, which is signed. The scheme is secure, provided the signature scheme is secure, and the commitment scheme is hiding and binding.

Since both PolyCommit schemes are hiding and binding, and allow a list of messages to be committed, they can be used in the general construction of Steinfeld $et\ al$. Along with the commitment, Trent should also sign t so that Bob knows that only indices $\{1,\ldots,t\}$ correspond to valid sub-messages. The new scheme is nearly as communication efficient as a specific scheme in [45] which has the lowest communication cost. The latter, however, depends on specific properties of the RSA signature scheme and is secure in the random oracle model. Using a polynomial commitment scheme gives an efficient generic construction. Therefore, efficient standard model CES schemes are possible by combining any of the PolyCommit schemes with a signature scheme secure in the standard model.

Pseudonymous Credentials. If (m_1, \ldots, m_t) are attributes about Alice, and Trent is an identity provider, then the signature Alice holds on \mathcal{C} is a digital credential [12] that allows Alice to reveal only as much information as is necessary to complete an online transaction. Here, we create \mathcal{C} using $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{DL}}$, as batched openings are efficient for $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{DL}}$.

Disclosing a single m_i requires Alice to transmit $(C, \mathsf{Sign}_{\mathsf{Trent}}(C), \langle i, m_i, w_i \rangle)$, the size of which is independent of t. In the case that Alice reveals a subset of the attributes, a single witness may be used to reduce communication even further using batch opening (described in §3.4).

If Trent signs multiple commitments to the same attributes (but includes an extra randomized attribute), Alice may present a different commitment to the same verifier unlinkably. This is the functionality in the Brands credential system [12]. The Camenisch-Lysyanskaya system [15] allows a single credential to be shown many times unlinkably. In both systems, proofs involving the credential have computation and communication costs which are O(t) where t is the total number of attributes in the credential.

Let us compare these costs to credentials based on $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{DL}}$. First we consider a selective show, where Alice reveals the set of attributes $B = \{m_1, \ldots, m_k\}, k \leq t$, to Bob. With our credentials, the communication cost is 2k+2 elements if we send $(m_1, w_1), \ldots, (m_k, w_k)$, the commitment \mathcal{C} and Trent's signature on \mathcal{C} . Using batch opening (§3.4), only a single witness is required for all k attributes, reducing communication to k+3 elements. For computation we count exponentiations and pairings. Alice's computation is O(tk), since CreateWitness is O(t), however this computation

²For simplicity we count Trent's signature as a single group element; in practice it may be larger or smaller, but not significantly.

only needs to be done once, and all of it may be precomputed (by creating the witness for each of the attributes). With batch opening Alice's computation is O(t), but she must know B in advance to precompute the witness. Bob's computation is O(k) with or without batch opening. However, if Bob knows the indices of B in advance and does O(t) precomputation, his online computation is constant.

For many interesting applications of credentials, selective show is insufficient because Alice would like to prove something about m_i (e.g., $m_i < 1990$) without revealing m_i . Appendix E describes how Alice may prove knowledge of a nonzero committed value $\phi(i)$ without revealing it. She may compose this proof with other proofs about m_i using standard ZK proof techniques for proving knowledge of, relations between or the length of discrete logarithms [16].

Since the communication costs per attribute of proving knowledge of a committed value are constant, if k attributes are involved in showing a credential, the complexity of the show will be O(k). However, since the constants are not small, whether this is more efficient than a show with complexity O(t) in another system (say, [12]) depends on the relative sizes of t and k.

5 Open Problems

Finally, we list a few open problems related to the polynomial commitment schemes. 1. Is it possible to construct efficient polynomial commitment schemes under weaker assumptions? 2. What other protocols does PolyCommit improve? (For example, can PolyCommit reduce communication of asynchronous VSS protocols or verifiable shuffles? See the protocol of Groth and Ishai [29]) 4. We have mainly focused on the communication costs, but our construction asks for nontrivial computation. Is it possible to reduce computation cost as well?

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A Bilinear Pairings

For three cyclic groups \mathbb{G} , $\hat{\mathbb{G}}$, and \mathbb{G}_T (all of which we shall write multiplicatively) of the same prime order p, a bilinear pairing e is a map $e: \mathbb{G} \times \hat{\mathbb{G}} \to \mathbb{G}_T$ with the following properties.

• Bilinearity: For $g \in \mathbb{G}$, $\hat{g} \in \hat{\mathbb{G}}$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$, $e(g^a, \hat{g}^b) = e(g, \hat{g})^{ab}$.

• Non-degeneracy: The map does not send all pairs in $\mathbb{G} \times \hat{\mathbb{G}}$ to unity $\in \mathbb{G}_T$.

If there is an efficient algorithm to compute $e(g, \hat{g})$ for any $g \in \mathbb{G}$ and $\hat{g} \in \hat{\mathbb{G}}$, the pairing e is called admissible. We also expect that it is not feasible to invert a pairing. All pairings considered in this paper are admissible and infeasible to invert. We call such groups \mathbb{G} and $\hat{\mathbb{G}}$ pairing-friendly groups. We refer readers to [5, Chap. IX and X] for a detailed mathematical discussion of bilinear pairings.

Following [25], there are three types of pairings: namely, type 1, 2, and 3. In type 1 pairings, an isomorphism $\phi: \hat{\mathbb{G}} \to \mathbb{G}$ as well as its inverse ϕ^{-1} are efficiently computable. These are also called symmetric pairings as for such pairings $e(g, \hat{g}) = e(\phi(\hat{g}), \phi^{-1}(g))$ for any $g \in \mathbb{G}$ and $\hat{g} \in \hat{\mathbb{G}}$. In type 2 pairings, only the isomorphism ϕ , but not ϕ^{-1} , is efficiently computable. Finally in type 3 pairings, neither of ϕ nor ϕ^{-1} can be efficiently computed. For the simplicity of the discussion, we assume only type 1 (symmetric) pairings in this paper and observe that the work can be easily extended to accommodate type 2 and 3 pairings.

B Generic Group Model Security for the t-polyDH Assumption

While t-polyDH is a new assumption, it is a member of the "uber-assumption" family of Boneh, Boyen and Goh [9], under one of the extensions given by Boyen [11]. The extension allows the general lower bound proven in [9] to be applied to problems with expoentially many solutions, such as polyDH and SDH (called "flexible challenges" in [11]). For a polyDH problem instance, where the adversary must output a polynomial of degree d > t, the generic group model analysis of [9, 11] gives an asymptotic lower bound of $\Omega(\sqrt{p/d})$ group operations.

The value of d relevant for our use of the polyDH assumption comes from the VSS application of Section 4.1. Here the adversary would play the role of the dealer, who may distribute at most n shares (one to each of the participants). The polynomial specified by the adversary may therefore have degree at most n, and so the lower bound on the complexity of polyDH in this application is $\Omega(\sqrt{p/n})$.

C Security Proofs for the PolyCommit Schemes

C.1 Security of PolyCommit_{DL} – Proof of Theorem 3.2

We prove that the properties of Definition 3.1 hold for $\mathsf{PolyCommit}_{\mathsf{DL}}$.

Correctness. We have already proved the correctness in §3.2.

Polynomial Binding. Suppose there exists an adversary \mathcal{A} that breaks polynomial binding for a commitment \mathcal{C} by outputting two polynomials $\phi(x)$ and $\phi'(x)$ that are accepted by VerifyPoly. We construct an algorithm \mathcal{B} that uses \mathcal{A} to efficiently compute $SK = \alpha$.

For $\phi(x)$ and $\phi'(x)$ generated by \mathcal{A} , $\mathcal{C} = g^{\phi(\alpha)} = g^{\phi'(\alpha)}$. For a polynomial $\phi''(x) = \phi(x) - \phi'(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$, the corresponding $\mathcal{C}_{\phi''} = g^{\phi''(\alpha)} = g^{\phi(\alpha)}/g^{\phi'(\alpha)} = 1$ as the commitment scheme is homomorphic in nature. Therefore, $\phi''(\alpha) = 0$, *i.e.*, α is a root of polynomial $\phi''(x)$ and by factoring $\phi''(x)$ [44, Chap. 21], \mathcal{B} can easily find $\mathsf{SK} = \alpha$ and solve the instance of the *t*-SDH problem given by the system parameters.

Evaluation Binding. Suppose there exists an adversary \mathcal{A} that breaks the evaluation binding property of commitment \mathcal{C} and computes two witness tuples $\langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle$ and $\langle i, \phi(i)', w_i' \rangle$ for index

i that are accepted by VerifyEval. We show how to construct an algorithm \mathcal{B} , using \mathcal{A} , that can break the t-SDH assumption.

 \mathcal{B} presents the t-SDH instance $\langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle$ as PK to \mathcal{A} . \mathcal{A} outputs a commitment \mathcal{C} , and two witness tuples $\langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle$ and $\langle i, \phi(i)', w_i' \rangle$ for an index $i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ such that $e(C, g) = e(w_i, g^{\alpha-i})e(g, g)^{\phi(i)} = e(w_i', g^{\alpha-i})e(g, g)^{\phi(i)'}$. For $\psi_i = \log_g w_i$ and $\psi_i' = \log_g w_i'$,

$$\psi_i(\alpha - i) + \phi(i) = \psi_i'(\alpha - i) + \phi(i)'$$

$$\frac{\psi_i - \psi_i'}{\phi(i)' - \phi(i)} = \frac{1}{\alpha - i}$$

Therefore, algorithm \mathcal{B} computes

$$\begin{pmatrix} w_i \\ \overline{w_i'} \end{pmatrix}^{\frac{1}{\phi(i)' - \phi(i)}} = g^{\frac{\psi_i - \psi_i'}{\phi(i)' - \phi(i)}}$$

$$= g^{\frac{1}{\alpha - i}}$$

and returns $\langle -i, g^{\frac{1}{\alpha-i}} \rangle$ as a solution for the *t*-SDH instance. It is easy to see that the success probability of solving the instance is the same as the success probability of \mathcal{A} , and the time required is a small constant larger than the time required by \mathcal{A} .

Hiding. Suppose there exists an adversary \mathcal{A} that breaks the hiding property of commitment \mathcal{C} and correctly computes polynomial $\phi(x)$ (without loss of generality $\deg(\phi) = t$) given t valid witness tuples $\langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle$. We show how to use \mathcal{A} to construct an algorithm \mathcal{B} than can break the DL assumption.

Let $\langle g, g^a \rangle \in \mathbb{G}^2$ be a DL instance that \mathcal{B} needs to solve. \mathcal{B} generates PK for \mathcal{A} by randomly picking $\alpha \in_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ and computing PK = $\langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle$. \mathcal{B} sets $\langle j, \phi(j) \rangle \in_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{Z}_p^2$ as polynomial $\phi(x)$'s evaluations at indices j. It then assumes $\phi(0) = a$, which is the answer for the DL instance and computes $g^{\phi(\alpha)}$ using t+1 exponentiated evaluations: $\langle 0, g^a \rangle$ and the t other chosen pairs $\langle j, g^{\phi(j)} \rangle$. Finally, \mathcal{B} computes witnesses w_j for the t chosen evaluations $\langle j, \phi(j) \rangle$ as $w_j = (g^{\phi(\alpha)}/g^{\phi(j)})^{\frac{1}{\alpha-j}}$, and sends PK and t witness tuples $\langle j, \phi(j), w_j \rangle$ to \mathcal{A} . Once \mathcal{A} returns polynomial $\phi(x)$, \mathcal{B} returns the constant term $\phi(0)$ as the solution for the DL instance.

It is easy to see that the success probability of solving the DL instance is the same the success probability of \mathcal{A} , and the time required is a small constant larger than the time required by \mathcal{A} .

C.2 Security of PolyCommit_{Ped} – Proof of Theorem 3.3

We prove that the properties of Definition 3.1 hold for PolyCommit_{Ped}.

Correctness. We have already proved the correctness in §3.3.

Polynomial Binding. Suppose there exists an adversary \mathcal{A} that breaks polynomial binding for a commitment \mathcal{C} of PolyCommit_{Ped} by outputting two polynomial pairs $\langle \phi(x), \hat{\phi}(x) \rangle$ and $\langle \phi'(x), \hat{\phi}'(x) \rangle$ that are accepted by VerifyPoly. We construct an algorithm \mathcal{B} that uses \mathcal{A} to efficiently solve a DL instance.

Given a DL instance $(g, h = g^{\lambda})$, \mathcal{B} chooses $\alpha \in_{R} \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ and presents $\mathsf{PK} = \langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^{\alpha}, \dots, g^{\alpha^{t}}, h, h^{\alpha}, \dots, h^{\alpha^{t}} \rangle$ to \mathcal{A} for t specified by \mathcal{A} . \mathcal{A} generates a commitment \mathcal{C} , and two polynomial pairs $\langle \phi(x), \hat{\phi}(x) \rangle$ and $\langle \phi'(x), \hat{\phi}'(x) \rangle$ that are accepted by VerifyPoly. It then forwards the commitment and two polynomial

pairs to \mathcal{B} . As $\mathcal{C} = g^{\phi(\alpha)} h^{\hat{\phi}(\alpha)} = g^{\phi'(\alpha)} h^{\hat{\phi}'(\alpha)}$,

$$g^{\phi(\alpha)+\lambda\hat{\phi}(\alpha)} = g^{\phi'(\alpha)+\lambda\hat{\phi}'(\alpha)}$$

$$g^{\phi(\alpha)-\phi'(\alpha)+\lambda(\hat{\phi}(\alpha)-\hat{\phi}'(\alpha))} = 1$$

$$\phi(\alpha)-\phi'(\alpha)+\lambda(\hat{\phi}(\alpha)-\hat{\phi}'(\alpha)) = 0.$$

Therefore, \mathcal{B} computes the discrete logarithm value $\lambda = \frac{\phi'(\alpha) - \phi(\alpha)}{\hat{\phi}(\alpha) - \hat{\phi}'(\alpha)}$. It is easy to see that the success probability of solving the instance is the same as the success probability of \mathcal{A} , and the time required is a small constant larger than the time required by \mathcal{A} .

Evaluation Binding. Suppose there exists an adversary \mathcal{A} that breaks the evaluation binding property of commitment \mathcal{C} and computes two witness tuples $\langle i, \phi(i), \hat{\phi}(i), w_i \rangle$ and $\langle i, \phi(i)', \hat{\phi}(i)', w_i' \rangle$ for index i that are accepted by VerifyEval with non-negligible probability. We show how to construct an algorithm \mathcal{B} that breaks the t-SDH assumption with non-negligible probability using \mathcal{A} .

Let the t-SDH instance be $\langle g, g^{\beta}, \dots, g^{\beta^t} \rangle$. \mathcal{B} chooses a random bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$ and creates an input for \mathcal{A} based on it.

b=0: Let $\alpha=\beta$. \mathcal{B} chooses $\lambda\in_R\mathbb{Z}_p^*$, computes a t+1 tuple $\langle h,h^{\alpha},\ldots,h^{\alpha^t}\rangle$ such that $h=g^{\lambda}$ and presents $\langle \mathcal{G},g,g^{\alpha},\ldots,g^{\alpha^t},h,h^{\alpha},\ldots,h^{\alpha^t}\rangle$ as PK to \mathcal{A} .

b=1: \mathcal{B} chooses $\alpha \in_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, sets $h=g^{\beta}$ and presents $\langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^{\alpha}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t}, h, h^{\alpha}, \dots, h^{\alpha^t} \rangle$ as PK to \mathcal{A} .

 \mathcal{A} outputs a commitment \mathcal{C} , and two witness tuples $\langle i, \phi(i), \hat{\phi}(i), w_i \rangle$ and $\langle i, \phi(i)', \hat{\phi}(i)', w_i' \rangle$ for an index $i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ such that $e(C, g) = e(w_i, g^{\alpha - i})e(g^{\phi(i)}h^{\hat{\phi}(i)}, g) = e(w_i', g^{\alpha - i})e(g^{\phi(i)'}h^{\hat{\phi}(i)'}, g)$.

After verification, there are two cases for \mathcal{B} .

First Case: $w_i \neq w_i'$

If b = 1, \mathcal{B} aborts the game and returns failure, else \mathcal{B} returns the following solution:

Let
$$w_i = g^{\psi_i} h^{\hat{\psi}_i} = g^{\psi_i + \lambda \hat{\psi}_i}$$
 and $w'_i = g^{\psi'_i} h^{\hat{\psi}'_i} = g^{\psi'_i + \lambda \hat{\psi}'_i}$.
$$(\psi_i + \lambda \hat{\psi}_i)(\alpha - i) + \phi(i) + \lambda \hat{\phi}(i) = (\psi'_i + \lambda \hat{\psi}_i)'(\alpha - i)) + \phi(i)' + \lambda \hat{\phi}(i)'$$

$$\frac{(\psi_i + \lambda \hat{\psi}_i) - (\psi'_i + \lambda \hat{\psi}'_i)}{\phi(i)' - \phi(i) + \lambda(\hat{\phi}(i)' - \hat{\phi}(i))} = \frac{1}{\alpha - i}$$

Therefore, algorithm $\mathcal B$ computes

and \mathcal{B} returns $\langle -i, g^{\frac{1}{\alpha-i}} \rangle$ as a solution for the t-SDH instance.

Second Case: $w_i = w'_i$

If b = 0, \mathcal{B} aborts the game and returns failure, else \mathcal{B} returns the following solution:

For such two tuples $\langle i, \phi(i), \hat{\phi}(i), w_i \rangle$ and $\langle i, \phi(i)', \hat{\phi}(i)', w_i \rangle$,

$$e(g^{\phi(i)}h^{\hat{\phi}(i)},g) = e(g^{\phi(i)'}h^{\hat{\phi}(i)'},g).$$

 $\phi(i) + \beta\hat{\phi}(i) = \phi(i)' + \beta\hat{\phi}(i)',$

and \mathcal{B} computes $\beta = \log_g h = \frac{\phi'(\alpha) - \phi(\alpha)}{\hat{\phi}(\alpha) - \hat{\phi}'(\alpha)}$. \mathcal{B} then chooses $c \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus -\beta$ and returns $\langle c, g^{\frac{1}{\beta+c}} \rangle$ as a solution for the *t*-SDH instance.

Now we analyze \mathcal{B} 's success probability. Let $\delta = \delta_1 + \delta_2$ is \mathcal{A} 's success probability, where δ_1 is the probability that \mathcal{A} wins with $w_i = w_i'$ and δ_2 is the probability that \mathcal{A} wins with $w_i \neq w_i'$. \mathcal{B} succeeds when b = 0 and $w_i = w_i'$, or when b = 1 and $w_i \neq w_i'$. For randomly chosen b, $\Pr[b = 0] = \Pr[b = 0] = 1/2$. Therefore, $\Pr[\mathcal{B} \text{ succeeds}] = \delta_1/2 + \delta_2/2 = \delta/2$. If δ is non-negligible, \mathcal{B} outputs the correct solution to the t-SDH instance with non-negligible probability.

Hiding. We prove that given a PolyCommit_{Ped} public key PK, a commitment \mathcal{C} , and any t valid evaluation tuples $\langle i, \phi(i), \hat{\phi}(i) \rangle_{i \in I}$ and the associated witnesses w_i to an adversary \mathcal{A} , \mathcal{A} has no information about another evaluation tuple $\langle j, \phi(j), \hat{\phi}(j) \rangle$ for any $j \in \{\mathbb{Z}_p - I\}$. Let $view_{\phi} = \{\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{C}, \langle i, \phi(i), \hat{\phi}(i), w_i \rangle_{i \in I}\}$ be the information available to \mathcal{A} . We will show that

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ computes } \langle j, \phi(j), \hat{\phi}(j) \rangle | view_{\phi}] = \Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ computes } \langle j, \phi(j), \hat{\phi}(j) \rangle]$$

for any $j \in \{\mathbb{Z}_p - I\}$. Note that I is an arbitrary set of t elements of \mathbb{Z}_p (possibly chosen by \mathcal{A}).

Both committed polynomials $(\phi(x))$ and $\hat{\phi}(x)$ are of degree less than t. Therefore, the witness polynomial $\frac{\phi(x)+\lambda\hat{\phi}(x)-\phi(\alpha)-\lambda\hat{\phi}(\alpha)}{x-\alpha}$ is of degree $\leq t-1$ and the witness w_j for any $j\in\mathbb{Z}_p$ is fixed given t input tuples $\langle i,\phi'(i),\hat{\phi}'(i),w_i\rangle_{i\in I}$.

For an index $j \in \{\mathbb{Z}_p - I\}$, it is easy to see that for every $\phi(j)' \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ there is exactly one $\hat{\phi}(j)'$ such that the witness tuple $\langle j, \phi(j)', \hat{\phi}(j)', w_j \rangle_{i \in I}$ is verified for given \mathcal{C} and fixed w_j by VerifyEval as follows:

$$e(C,g) = e(w_j, g^{\alpha-j})e(g^{\phi(j)'}h^{\hat{\phi}(j)'}, g) = e(w_j, g^{\alpha-j})e(g^{\phi(j)'+\lambda\hat{\phi}(j)'}, g)$$

Observe that for all such $\phi(j)'$ and $\hat{\phi}(j)'$ pairs, the value $\phi(j)' + \lambda \hat{\phi}(j)'$, call it $\overline{\phi}(j)$, is constant. Further, there is exactly one $\phi'(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ of degree t such that $\phi'(j) = \phi(j)'$ and $\phi'(i) = \phi(i)$ for the t input evaluation tuples and there is exactly one $\hat{\phi}'(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_p[x]$ of degree t such that $\hat{\phi}'(j) = \hat{\phi}(j)'$ and $\hat{\phi}'(i) = \hat{\phi}(i)$ for the t input evaluation tuples.

In order to show that $view_{\phi}$, does not contain any information about the evaluation $\phi(j)$ and $\hat{\phi}(j)$ at index j of the committed polynomials, it must be shown that the above $\phi'(x)$ and $\hat{\phi}'(x)$ satisfy $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}' = g^{\phi'(\alpha)}h^{\hat{\phi}'(\alpha)} = g^{\phi'(\alpha)+\lambda\hat{\phi}'(\alpha)}$ and $w_i = w_i' = g^{\frac{\phi'(i)+\lambda\hat{\phi}'(i)-\phi'(\alpha)-\lambda\hat{\phi}'(\alpha)}{i-\alpha}}$ for $i \in I$. This easily follows from the fact that $\overline{\phi}(j) = \phi(j)+\lambda\hat{\phi}(j) = \phi'(j)+\lambda\hat{\phi}'(j)$ is fixed. For $\overline{\phi}(i) = \phi(i)+\lambda\hat{\phi}(i)$ for all $i \in I$ and $\overline{\phi}(j)$, the polynomial $\overline{\phi}(x) = \phi'(x)+\lambda\hat{\phi}'(x)$ of degree $\leq t$ is fixed for any candidate $\phi'(x)$ and $\hat{\phi}'(x)$. As a result, $g^{\phi'(\alpha)+\lambda\hat{\phi}'(\alpha)} = \mathcal{C}$ and $g^{\frac{\phi'(i)+\lambda\hat{\phi}'(i)-\phi'(\alpha)-\lambda\hat{\phi}'(\alpha)}{i-\alpha}} = w_i$ for $i \in I$ for any candidate $\phi'(x)$ and $\hat{\phi}'(x)$.

Note that it also indicates that p possible choices exist for the committed polynomials $\phi(x)$ and $\hat{\phi}(x)$.

C.3 Security of Batch Opening – Proof of Theorem 3.4

Suppose an adversary outputs a commitment \mathcal{C} and two verifiable openings $\langle B, w_B, r(x) \rangle$, and $\langle i \in B, w_i, \phi(i) \rangle$. We show this adversary can be used to solve the instance of the t-BSDH problem given by the system parameters. Let $p(x) = \prod_{j \in B} (x-j)$, and define p'(x) = p(x)/(x-i). Write $w_B = g^b$ and $w_i = g^y$ for some $b, y \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. Since the verification equations of VerifyEval and VerifyEvalBatch hold,

$$e(\mathcal{C}, g) = e(g^{p(\alpha)}, w_B)e(g, g^{r(\alpha)}) = e(g^{\alpha-i}, w_i)e(g, g^{\phi(i)})$$

and so from the exponents:

$$p(\alpha)b + r(\alpha) = (\alpha - i)y + \phi(i)$$

$$p(\alpha)b - (\alpha - i)y = \phi(i) - r(\alpha).$$

Now, write $r(\alpha) = r'(\alpha)(\alpha - i) + r(i)$ for $r'(x) = \frac{r(x) - r(i)}{x - i}$, and substitute for $r(\alpha)$, which gives

$$p(\alpha)b - (\alpha - i)y = \phi(i) - r'(\alpha)(\alpha - i) - r(i)$$

$$(\alpha - i)[p'(\alpha)b - y + r'(\alpha)] = \phi(i) - r(i)$$

$$\frac{1}{\alpha - i} = \frac{p'(\alpha)b - y + r'(\alpha)}{\phi(i) - r(i)}.$$

Note that since $\phi(i) \neq r(i)$ their difference is nonzero, and we can compute r'(x) since we know r(x). Therefore the solution to the t-BSDH problem is

$$e(g,g)^{1/(\alpha-i)} = e(g^{p'(\alpha)}, w_B)e(g^{r'(\alpha)}/w_i, g)^{1/(\phi(i)-r(i))}$$
.

C.4 Strong Correctness – Proof of Theorem 3.5

We first prove the theorem for $PolyCommit_{DL}$.

Suppose there exists an adversary \mathcal{A} that verifiably commits to a polynomial of degree greater than t using $\mathsf{PK} = \langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle$. We construct an algorithm \mathcal{B} that uses \mathcal{A} to break the polyDH assumption.

 \mathcal{B} presents the polyDH instance $\langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle$ as PK to \mathcal{A} . \mathcal{A} outputs a commitment \mathcal{C} and t', where t' is the claimed degree of the committed polynomial. If $t' \leq t$, then \mathcal{B} returns failure and stops, else \mathcal{B} chooses and sends a set I of t'+1 random indices to \mathcal{A} . \mathcal{A} returns t'+1 evaluation tuples of the form $\langle i, \phi(i), w_i \rangle$ for $i \in I$. \mathcal{B} verifies these t'+1 evaluation tuples using VerifyEval. If a verification fails, then \mathcal{B} returns failure and stops. Once all verifications are successful, \mathcal{B} interpolates t'+1 values $\phi(i)$ to compute the claimed committed polynomial $\phi'(x)$. If $\deg(\phi'(x)) < t'$, then \mathcal{B} returns failure and stops, else \mathcal{B} is assured that $\deg(\phi) \geq t'$. t' + 1verifications does not confirm that $\phi'(x)$ is the committed polynomial $\phi(x)$ as $\phi(x)$ can be of degree > t'. The verifications only assure that the evaluations of $\phi'(x)$ at the verified indices are equal to those of $\phi(x)$. We can represent $\psi_i(x)|_{x=\alpha} = \psi_i(\alpha) = \frac{\phi(\alpha) - \phi(i)}{\alpha - i} = \frac{\phi(i) - \phi(\alpha)}{i - \alpha} = \psi_\alpha(i) = \psi_\alpha(x)|_{x=i}$. To confirm that the committed polynomial is of degree t' and consequently $\phi(x) = f'(x)$, \mathcal{B} interpolates (in the exponent) t'+1 w_i values from the evaluation set to generate exponentiated coefficients of the polynomial $\psi_{\alpha}(x)$. If deg (f) > t', then $\psi_{\alpha}(x)$ should be of degree > t' - 1. Therefore, if the coefficient $\psi_{t'}$ associated with $q^{\alpha^{t'}}$ is non-zero, then \mathcal{B} returns failure and stops, else \mathcal{B} returns $\phi(x)$ and \mathcal{C} as an answer to the polyDH instance. Although it possible that $\psi_{\alpha}(x)$ is of degree t'-1for $\phi(x)$ with degree greater than t', the success probability of \mathcal{A} to achieve that is negligible for indices randomly chosen by the verifier \mathcal{B} .

It is easy to see that the success probability of solving the instance is negligibly less than the success probability of \mathcal{A} in verifiably committing to a polynomial of degree greater than t, and the time required is a small constant larger than the time required by \mathcal{A} .

For PolyCommit_{Ped}, given a polyDH instance $\langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t} \rangle$ \mathcal{B} first chooses $\lambda \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ and sends PK for PolyCommit_{Ped} to \mathcal{A} as $\langle \mathcal{G}, g, g^{\alpha}, g^{\alpha^2}, \dots, g^{\alpha^t}, h, h^{\alpha}, h^{\alpha^2}, \dots, h^{\alpha^t} \rangle$. The rest of the proof remains the nearly the same, except we use the fact that \mathcal{B} knows λ .

D Security of Nearly Zero-Knowledge Databases

Since nearly ZKS are a special case of nearly ZK-EDBs, we only discuss security of the latter. Our description of the security properties for ZK-EDB follows Libert and Yung [34]. A secure nearly ZK-EDB must satisfy the following properties.

Completeness. For all databases D = (K, V) such that $|D| \le t$,

$$\Pr\left(\begin{matrix} \mathsf{PK} \leftarrow \mathsf{SetupEDB}(1^\kappa, t), \; \mathcal{E} \leftarrow \mathsf{CommitEDB}(\mathsf{PK}, D), \; \pi_{Dj} \leftarrow \mathsf{QueryEDB}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{E}, k_j) : \\ \mathsf{VerifyEDB}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{E}, \pi_{Dj}) = 1 \end{matrix} \right) = 1 - \epsilon(\kappa) \; .$$

Soundness. For all databases D = (K, V) and all PPT adversaries \mathcal{A} ,

$$\Pr \begin{pmatrix} \mathsf{PK} \leftarrow \mathsf{SetupEDB}(1^\kappa, t), \ D \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathsf{PK}), \ (\mathcal{E}, k_j, \pi_{Dj}, \pi'_{Dj}) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathsf{PK}, D) \ : \\ \mathsf{VerifyEDB}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{E}, \pi_{Dj}) = 1 \ \land \\ \mathsf{VerifyEDB}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{E}, \pi'_{Dj}) = 1 \ \land \\ \pi_{Dj} \neq \pi'_{Dj} \end{pmatrix} = \epsilon(\kappa) \ .$$

Note that π_{Dj} and π'_{Dj} are proofs for same key k_j .

Zero-Knowledge. For any PPT adversary \mathcal{A} and database D, such that $|D| \leq t$, there must exist a PPT simulator \mathcal{S} with an oracle access to D, such that the outputs of the following two experiments are indistinguishable. Note that \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{S} may keep state throughout the experiments.

Real experiment:

- 1. Set $PK \leftarrow SetupEDB(1^{\kappa}, t), \mathcal{E} \leftarrow CommitEDB(PK, D)$
- 2. For $j = 1, ..., \ell$, \mathcal{A} outputs k_j and is given $\pi_{D_j} \leftarrow \mathsf{QueryEDB}(\mathsf{PK}, \mathcal{E}, k_j)$.

The output of the experiment is $(PK, \mathcal{E}, k_1, \dots, k_\ell, \pi_{D1}, \dots, \pi_{D\ell})$.

Ideal experiment:

- 1. Set $PK \leftarrow \mathcal{S}(1^{\kappa}, t), \mathcal{E}' \leftarrow \mathcal{S}(PK)$.
- 2. For $j = 1, ..., \ell$, \mathcal{A} outputs k_j and \mathcal{S} outputs $\pi_{D'_j}$.

The output of the experiment is $(PK, \mathcal{E}', k_1, \dots, k_{\ell}, \pi_{D_1'}, \dots, \pi_{D_{\ell}'})$.

Theorem D.1. The nearly ZK-EDB construction of §4.2 is secure provided the t-SDH assumption holds in \mathcal{G} .

Proof. Completeness is clear. Let $\mathcal{E} = (\mathcal{C}_1, \mathcal{C}_2)$ be a nearly ZK-EDB. For soundness, there are two cases to consider. In the first, the adversary must output π_{Dj} which shows $k_j \notin D$ and $\pi_{D'_j}$ which shows $k \in D$. This requires π_{Dj} to show that $\phi_1(k_j) \neq 0$ with respect to the polynomial ϕ_1 committed to in \mathcal{C}_1 , and $\pi_{D'_j}$ to show that $\phi_1(k_j) = 0$, also with respect to \mathcal{C}_1 . This is not possible since the polynomial commitment scheme is binding. In second case, the adversary must output π_{Dj} and $\pi_{D'_j}$ such that verification of π_{Dj} and $\pi_{D'_j}$ for respectively (k_j, m_j) and (k_j, m'_j) is successful. Here, $m_j \neq m'_j$. This would violate the binding property with respect to commitment \mathcal{C}_2 , since π_{Dj} shows $\phi_2(k_j) = m_j$, and $\pi_{D'_j}$ shows $\phi_2(k_j) = m'_j$ where $m_j \neq m'_j$. The PolyCommitDL scheme is secure provided the t-SDH assumption holds, therefore the ZK-EDB will be sound under these assumptions as well.

For the ZK property, if the set Q of \mathcal{A} 's queries contains K, then \mathcal{A} knows all of D, and the ZK property has no meaning since there is nothing left to hide. Therefore, we only consider the case when there is one or more $k_j \in K$ which has not been queried by \mathcal{A} , which will occur with high probability since CommitZKS adds a random value to the set.

To prove the ZK property, we describe the simulator S for the ideal experiment above. In Step 1 of the ideal experiment, S runs $\mathsf{Setup}(1^{\kappa},t)$ honestly, but knows the trapdoor $\mathsf{SK} = \alpha$. S then outputs $\mathcal{E}' \leftarrow (\mathcal{C}'_1 = g^{d_1}h^{r_1}, \mathcal{C}'_2 = g^{d_2})$ for $d_1, d_2, r_1 \in_R \mathbb{Z}_p$. \mathcal{C}'_1 is the commitment (nearly ZKS) to the keys, and \mathcal{C}'_2 the commitment to the values.

At this point we note that since S knows α , he can create witnesses for arbitrary values with respect to C_1' and C_2' . For example, to prove $(\phi_1(k_j), \hat{\phi}_1(k_j)) = (v, y)$ (where ϕ_1 , and $\hat{\phi}_1$ are the polynomials supposedly committed to by C_1') S outputs $g^wh^{\hat{w}}$ where $w = (d_1 - v)/(\alpha - k_j)$ and $\hat{w} = (r_1 - y)/(\alpha - k_j)$. It can easily be checked that $e(C_1', g) \stackrel{?}{=} e(g^wh^{\hat{w}}, g^{\alpha - k_j})e(g^vh^y, g)$. The simulated witnesses have the same distribution as honest witnesses since $\hat{\phi}_1$ is chosen at random. We also note that the simulated witnesses satisfy the verification equation (of VerifyEval), and they may be used in proofs that $\phi_1(i) \neq 0$.

For Step 2, \mathcal{A} provides k_j , and \mathcal{S} must create $\pi_{D'_j}$. First \mathcal{S} queries D to learn $m_j = D(k_j)$. \mathcal{S} now creates $\pi_{D'_j}$ by following QueryEDB, except \mathcal{S} creates simulated witnesses, consistent with \mathcal{E} . Since the witnesses output by \mathcal{S} are (i) distributed identically to real witnesses, and (ii) are consistent with some polynomials ϕ'_1 , ϕ'_2 , and \mathcal{A} does not learn either of ϕ_1 , ϕ_2 (recall $K \not\subseteq Q$), as a set, the simulated witnesses are consistent.

Since the outputs from the experiments are indistinguishable, the ZK property is satisfied, proving the construction is a secure nearly ZK-EDB.

E Proving Knowledge of a Value Committed with PolyCommit_{DL}

Suppose Alice has created $C = \mathsf{Commit}(\mathsf{PK}, \phi(x))$, and would like to prove knowledge of $\phi(i) \neq 0$ to Bob, for some public i. Define $w_i = \mathsf{CreateWitness}(\mathsf{PK}, \phi(x), i)$, A = e(C, g), $B = e(g^{\alpha - i}, w_i)$ and C = e(g, g). VerifyEval must ensure that $A = BC^{\phi(i)}$, or equivalently, $A/B = C^{\phi(i)}$ holds in \mathbb{G}_T . However, since A/B reveals $C^{\phi(i)}$ we must blind w_i .

Alice computes $\mathcal{C}' = \mathcal{C}^r$ and $w_i' = w_i^r$ and sends these to Bob. Both parties compute $Y = \frac{e(\mathcal{C}',g)}{e(g^{\alpha-i},w_i')}$. Abstractly, Alice must prove knowledge of r and $\phi(i)$ such that $\mathcal{C}' = \mathcal{C}^r$ and $Y = e(g,g)^{r\phi(i)}$.

Now to implement this proof. Let $\gamma = e(g, g)$, and ζ be a random element in \mathbb{G}_T . To prove the multiplication, Alice creates $C = \gamma^{\phi(i)} \zeta^z$, $C' = C^r$. Now Alice and Bob run the protocol:

Common Values:
$$\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{C}', w_i', C, C', Y$$

$$ZKPK\{(r, \phi(i), z, x = zr) : \mathcal{C}' = \mathcal{C}^r \land C = \gamma^{\phi(i)} \zeta^z \land C' = C^r \land C'/Y = \zeta^x\}$$

Note that (i) Y is computed by both parties, (ii) the proof that $\phi(i) \neq 0$ is invalid if Y = 1, and (iii) the first equation is in \mathbb{G} while the other three are in \mathbb{G}_T .