# Relativistic commitment and zero-knowledge proofs 

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# Relativistic commitment and zero-knowledge proofs 

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## Interactive proofs

- Interactive proofs: a great model with many applications both in cryptography and in complexity.

- Multi-prover interactive proofs: split the prover into 2 or more non communicating agents [BGKW88].


If the verifier knows that the provers are split and cannot communicate then they can actually prove more things to the verifier.

## Multi-prover interactive proofs

- First goal was to remove computational assumptions from cryptographic protocols. However, non realistic model.
- Still a lot of developments in cryptography and in complexity theory (2 player games, PCP theorem).
- Relativistic cryptography: use special relativity theory to make non communicating provers a realistic model.
- Hope: increase the possibilities for unconditional cryptography. Of notable importance regarding retroactive security.


## Special relativity theory

- Developed by Einstein in 1905, precedes general relativity.
- Governing principles
- The laws of physics are identical in all non-accelerating frames of reference.
- The speed of light in a vacuum is the same for all observers (hence finite).
- A lot of unexpected consequences for objects travelling close to the speed of light (for eg. twin paradox)
- Unfortunately, we won't use most of these cool things in relativistic cryptography.


## Non superluminal signaling

- What we use from special relativity theory $=$ non superluminal signaling.
- NSS : no information carrier can travel faster than the speed of light.
- Doesn't disallow instantaneous effects that don't transmit information such as entanglement.
- We use NSS to enforce that some parties don't have access to some information at a given time.


## How to enforce non-communicating provers

- Put the 2 provers at some distance $D$.
- Since any information carrier travels at a speed $c \approx 300000 \mathrm{~km} / \mathrm{sec}$, information takes time $\tau=\frac{D}{c}$ to travel between the 2 provers.
- Simplest idea: make sure the whole protocol runs in time $<\tau$ to ensure that no-communication could be done between the provers.
- For ex: if $D=6880 \mathrm{~km}$ (distance between Paris and Barbados), $\tau \approx 22.9 \mathrm{~ms}$. Actually quite large.
- Different space-time constraints can also be used, at a given time during the protocol, each prover has access only to the information that could have physically traveled to it. Also, could be used to disallow a joint cheating strategy for the provers.


## (Highly non exhaustive) historical timeline



# Classical relativistic bit commitment secure against quantum adversaries 

- Enforce the non communication constraint: put the provers very far apart and use timing constraints.

- By the triangle inequality, $V$ is at least $\frac{\text { very far }}{2}$ apart from one of the provers. This implies that timing constraints are hard to achieve.
- Idea to circumvent this: also split the verifiers.

- Each player has a clock and all players agree on some absolute time.


## Bit commitment

Bit commitment: protocol that performs the 2 following phases

- A commit phase comm $=\left(\operatorname{comm}_{P}, \operatorname{comm}_{V}\right)$ : an interactive protocol involving $P=\left(P_{1}, P_{2}\right)$ and $V_{1}, V_{2}$. The provers have an input $b \in\{0,1\}$ - the bit they want to commit to.
- An open phase open $=\left(\right.$ open $_{P}$ open $\left._{V}\right)$ : an interactive protocol involving $P, V$. At the end of the protocol, $V$ outputs a value $b^{\prime} \in\{0,1\} \cup \perp$.
Provers and verifiers have access to some shared randomness.

Security requirements for the bit commitment scheme

- Perfect completeness: if $P$ and $V$ follow the protocol honestly then after the open phase, we always have $b=b^{\prime}$. In particular, we never have $b^{\prime}=\perp$.
- Perfect Hiding property: For any strategy comm ${ }_{V}^{*}$, the transcript of $\left(\operatorname{comm}_{P}, \operatorname{comm}_{V}^{*}\right)$ should be independent of $b$.
- Perfect binding property (very informally): $P$ should not be able to "change his mind" during the open phase.
Those requirements can also be extended to the imperfect setting.


## On the binding property

Several ways to define binding property.

- Sum-binding property: $\forall$ comm ${ }_{P}^{*}$,

$$
\sum_{b^{\prime} \in\{0,1\}} \max _{\text {open }}^{*}\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[V \text { outputs } b^{\prime} \mid\left(\text { comm }_{P}^{*}, \text { open }_{P}^{*}\right)\right]\right) \leq 1+\varepsilon
$$

Weak definition. For example, it could allow a cheating strategy comm** such that

- wp. $\frac{1}{2}, P$ can reveal whatever value $b^{\prime}$ he wants and $V$ will accept it.
- wp. $\frac{1}{2}, V$ will always output $\perp$.

Still standard as a (weak) binding property. Well defined against quantum adversaries. We will present a strengthening of the sum-binding definition to avoid such behavior.

## The relativistic $F_{Q}$ bit commitment protocol. $A=$ Prover.

Commit to a bit $d \in\{0,1\}$.


- Non signaling condition: message 3 should be independent of message 1.


## Proposition

The relativistic $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit commitment protocol is perfectly hiding and $\sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}}$ sum-binding.

- Hiding property: perfectly satisfied if we can enforce different randomness (here $a \in_{R} \mathbb{F}_{Q}$ ) at each run of the commit phase.
- Sum-binding property: satisfied if message 3 is independent of message 1.

Let $T$ be the time when $B_{1}$ sends message 1 . Let $T^{\prime}$ be the time when $B_{2}$ receives message 3 and let $D$ the distance between $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$. If:

$$
\left(T^{\prime}-T\right) * c \leq D
$$

then the non-signaling constraint is satisfied. Requires only to know the positions and timing of honest Bobs.

## Hiding property:

- After the commit phase, $a$ is a purely random string so $y=a \oplus b \cdot d$ is, from Bob's point of view, a totally random string.

How does a cheating $\left(\operatorname{comm}^{*}(P)\right.$, open* $\left.(P)\right)$ strategy for Alice look like?

- Alice 1 and Alice 2 can share an entangled state $|\psi\rangle$.
- Alice 1 receives $b \in_{R} \mathbb{F}_{Q}$ from Bob 1, performs a measurement defined by comm* on her part of the entangled state and outputs $y \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$.
- Alice 2, depending on the value $d$ she wants to decommit to, perform a measurement defined by open* $(d)$ and outputs some value $a \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$.


## Relate to a CHSH game

We consider the following game

## $C^{H S H}{ }_{Q, 2}$

2 player entangled game between Alice and Bob. Alice receives a uniformly random $b \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$, Bob receives a random $d \in\{0,1\}$. They produce respective outputs $y, a \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$. They win iff. $y-a=x * y$ $(x * 0=0$ and $x * 1=x)$.

We can show the following:

## Bit commitment to entangled games equivalence

If the relativistic $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit commitment scheme is $\varepsilon$ sum-binding then $\omega^{*}\left(\right.$ CHSH $\left._{Q, 2}\right)=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.

Consider a strategy $S_{0}=\left(\operatorname{comm}_{P}^{*}\right.$, open $\left._{P}^{*}\right)$ for the relativistic $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit commitment scheme such that

$$
\sum_{d} \frac{1}{2}\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Alice succ. reveals } d \mid \operatorname{comm}_{P}^{*}, \operatorname{open}_{P}^{*}(d)\right]\right)=1+\varepsilon
$$

Transforming such a strategy into a strategy for the $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, 2}$ game

- $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ share the same entangled state $|\psi\rangle$.
- On input $b$, Adeline performs $\operatorname{COMM}_{P}^{*}(b)$ to get outcome $y$.
- On input $d$, Bastian performs $\operatorname{OPEN}_{P}^{*}(d)$ to get outcome a.
- They win $y-a=b * d$.

Let $S_{1}$ the above strategy for the $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, 2}$. We have $\omega^{*}\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, 2} \mid S_{1}\right)=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. From there we have the following statement:

## From bit commitment to entangled games

If the relativistic $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit commitment scheme is $\varepsilon$ sum-binding then $\omega^{*}\left(C H S H_{Q, 2}\right) \geq \frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.

In a very similar fashion, we can transform any strategy for the game $\omega^{*}\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, 2}\right)$ into a cheating strategy for the $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ commitment. So:

## Bit commitment to entangled games equivalence

If the relativistic $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit commitment scheme is $\varepsilon$ sum-binding then
$\omega^{*}\left(C H S H_{Q, 2}\right)=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$.
We can equivalently study the 2 . We can show:

$$
\omega^{*}\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, 2}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 Q}}
$$

How?, via consecutive measurements lemmata.

## Theorem

Let $P$ and $Q$ be two projectors and $|\psi\rangle$ a quantum pure state. Let:
$p=\operatorname{Tr}(P|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P) \quad ; \quad q:=\operatorname{Tr}(Q|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| Q) \quad ; \quad E:=\operatorname{Tr}(Q P|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P Q)$.
If $p+q \geq 1$ then $E \geq p(p+q-1)^{2}$.

- Idea of proof, use a geometric argument
- We write $|\psi\rangle=\cos (\alpha)\left|\psi_{P}\right\rangle+\sin (\alpha)\left|\psi_{P}^{\perp}\right\rangle$ st. $P|\psi\rangle=\cos (\alpha)\left|\psi_{P}\right\rangle$ and $\left|\psi_{P}\right\rangle$ of norm 1.
- Similarly, we write $|\psi\rangle=\cos (\beta)\left|\psi_{Q}\right\rangle+\sin (\alpha)\left|\psi_{Q}^{\perp}\right\rangle$ st. $Q|\psi\rangle=\cos (\beta)\left|\psi_{Q}\right\rangle$ and $\left|\psi_{Q}\right\rangle$ of norm 1 .
- We have $p=\cos ^{2}(\alpha) ; q=\cos ^{2}(\beta)$ and $E=p \operatorname{Tr}\left(Q\left|\psi_{P}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{P}\right| Q\right)$.

We now compute $E=\cos ^{2}(\alpha) \operatorname{tr}\left(Q\left|\psi_{P}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{P}\right| Q\right)$.

- Since $\left|\psi_{Q}\right\rangle \in \operatorname{Im}(Q)$ and is of norm 1 , we can construct an orthonormal basis $\left|e_{1}\right\rangle, \ldots,\left|e_{k}\right\rangle$ of $\operatorname{Im}(Q)$ with $\left|e_{1}\right\rangle=\left|\psi_{Q}\right\rangle$.
- We can write $Q=\sum_{i=1}^{k}\left|e_{i}\right\rangle\left\langle e_{i}\right|$ so $Q \succcurlyeq\left|\psi_{Q}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{Q}\right|$.
- This implies $E \geq \cos ^{2}(\alpha)\left|\left\langle\psi_{P} \mid \psi_{Q}\right\rangle\right|^{2}$.

To conclude, use the Angle distance

## Angle Distance

Angle $\left(|\phi\rangle,\left|\phi^{\prime}\right\rangle\right):=\operatorname{Arccos}\left(\left|\left\langle\phi \mid \phi^{\prime}\right\rangle\right|\right)$. It's a distance (in particular, it has the triangular inequality).

- Angle $\left(|\psi\rangle,\left|\psi_{P}\right\rangle\right)=\alpha$; Angle $\left(|\psi\rangle,\left|\psi_{Q}\right\rangle\right)=\beta$. From triangle inequality: $\operatorname{Arccos}\left(\left|\left\langle\psi_{P} \mid \psi_{Q}\right\rangle\right|\right) \leq \alpha+\beta$.
- This implies $\left|\left\langle\psi_{P} \mid \psi_{Q}\right\rangle\right| \geq \cos (\alpha+\beta)$. If $\alpha+\beta \leq \pi$, we get

$$
\left|\left\langle\psi_{P} \mid \psi_{Q}\right\rangle\right|^{2} \geq \cos ^{2}(\alpha+\beta) \quad \Rightarrow \quad E \geq \cos ^{2}(\alpha) \cos ^{2}(\alpha+\beta)
$$

- Using the trigonometric inequality

$$
\cos ^{2}(\alpha+\beta) \geq \cos ^{2}(\alpha)+\cos ^{2}(\beta)-1
$$

we can conclude that

$$
E \geq \cos ^{2}(\alpha)\left(\cos ^{2}(\alpha)+\cos ^{2}(\beta)-1\right)^{2}=p(p+q-1)^{2}
$$

Optimality of the bound

- This bound is optimal for 1 dimensional projectors $P=\left|\psi_{P}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{P}\right|$ and $Q=\left|\psi_{Q}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{Q}\right|$ if $|\psi\rangle \in \operatorname{span}\left(\left|\psi_{P}\right\rangle,\left|\psi_{Q}\right\rangle\right)$.
- If $p+q=1$, we indeed have $E=0$. Take for example $P=|0\rangle\langle 0| ; Q=|1\rangle\langle 1| ;|\psi\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle+|1\rangle)$.
- Here: $p=\operatorname{tr}(P|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) q=\operatorname{tr}(Q|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|)=\frac{1}{2}$ and $E=\operatorname{tr}(P Q|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| Q P)=0$ since $Q P=0($ matrix $)$.


## Theorem

Let $P$ and $Q$ be two projectors and $|\psi\rangle$ a quantum pure state. Let:

$$
p=\operatorname{Tr}(P|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) \quad ; \quad q:=\operatorname{Tr}(Q|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) \quad ; \quad E:=\operatorname{Tr}(Q P|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P Q) .
$$

If $p+q \geq 1$ then $E \geq p(p+q-1)^{2}$.
Extension to mixed states:

## Theorem

Let $P$ and $Q$ be two projectors and $\rho$ a quantum mixed state. Let:

$$
p=\operatorname{Tr}(P \rho) \quad ; \quad q:=\operatorname{Tr}(Q \rho) \quad ; \quad E:=\operatorname{Tr}(Q P \rho P Q)
$$

If $p+q \geq 1$ then $E \geq p(p+q-1)^{2}$.

- $\rho$ is in some quantum register $A$. Consider a purification $|\psi\rangle$ of $\rho$ in registers $A B$.
- $P$ and $Q$ are projectors on $A$. Let $P^{\prime}=P \otimes I_{B}$ and $Q^{\prime}=Q \otimes I_{B}$, which are projectors on $A B$. We have

$$
p=\operatorname{Tr}(P \rho)=\operatorname{Tr}\left(P^{\prime}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|\right) \quad ; \quad q=\operatorname{Tr}(Q \rho)=\operatorname{Tr}\left(Q^{\prime}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|\right)
$$

- If we define $E^{\prime}=\operatorname{Tr}\left(Q^{\prime} P^{\prime}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P^{\prime} Q^{\prime}\right)$, we can easily show that $E^{\prime}=E$.
- By using the theorem on pure states, we can conclude.

Applications to quantum encodings

- 2 parties Alice and Bob, which share a quantum state

$$
\sigma=\sum_{x_{0}, x_{1} \in\{0,1\}} p_{x_{0}, x_{1}}\left|x_{0}, x_{1}\right\rangle\left\langle x_{0}, x_{1}\right| x_{0}, x_{1} \otimes \sigma_{B}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right) .
$$

- Bob can guess $x_{0}$ with probability $p_{0}$, Bob can guess $x_{1}$ with probability $p_{1}$. We can assume wlog that this can be done via projective measurements (eventually by adding ancilla qubits to $\left.\sigma_{B}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right)\right)$.
- We relate $p_{0}, p_{1}$ and the probability of learning $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right)$.


## Proposition

Suppose Alice and Bob share a state

$$
\sigma=\sum_{x_{0}, x_{1} \in\{0,1\}} p_{x_{0}, x_{1}}\left|x_{0}, x_{1}\right\rangle\left\langle x_{0},\left.x_{1}\right|_{A} \otimes \sigma_{B}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right) .\right.
$$

If there is a strategy for Bob to guess $x_{0}$ wp. $p_{0}$ and $x_{1} w p . p_{1}$ then there exists a strategy to guess $x_{0} \oplus x_{1} w p .\left(p_{0}+p_{1}-1\right)^{2}$.

Proof:

- Let $P^{0}=\left\{P_{x}^{0}\right\}_{x \in\{0,1\}^{n}}$ and $P^{1}=\left\{P_{x}^{1}\right\}_{x \in\{0,1\}^{n}}$ those measurements. For any $b \in\{0,1\}$, each $P_{x}^{b}$ is a projector and $\sum_{x \in\{0,1\}^{n}} P_{x}^{b}=I$ (which also implies $P_{x}^{b} P_{x^{\prime}}^{b}=\delta_{x, x^{\prime}} P_{x}^{b}$ ).

Using this strategy, the probability that Bob respectively guesses $x_{0}$ and $x_{1}$ are:

$$
p_{0}=\sum_{x_{0}, x_{1}} p_{x_{0}, x_{1}} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{x_{0}}^{0} \sigma_{B}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right)\right) \quad ; \quad p_{1}=\sum_{x_{0}, x_{1}} p_{x_{0}, x_{1}} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{x_{0}}^{1} \sigma_{B}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right)\right)
$$

## Projectors on winning subspace

Let the following 2 projectors

$$
W^{0}=\sum_{x_{0}, x_{1}}\left|x_{0}, x_{1}\right\rangle\left\langle x_{0}, x_{1}\right| \otimes P_{x_{0}}^{0} \quad ; \quad W^{1}=\sum_{x_{0}, x_{1}}\left|x_{0}, x_{1}\right\rangle\left\langle x_{0}, x_{1}\right| \otimes P_{x_{1}}^{1} .
$$

These are the projectors on the winning subspace. We have $p_{0}=\operatorname{tr}\left(W^{0} \sigma\right)$ and $p_{1}=\operatorname{tr}\left(W^{1} \sigma\right)$.

If Bob applies, $P^{0}$ and then $P^{1}$, the probability of getting both outcomes correctly is

$$
p_{01}=\sum_{x_{0}, x_{1}} p_{x_{0}, x_{1}} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{x_{1}}^{1} P_{x_{0}}^{0} \sigma_{B}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right) P_{x_{0}}^{0} P_{x_{1}}^{1}\right)
$$

$\underset{\text { André Chailloux be written (lnria, Paris) }}{\text { which }} \underset{\text { Relativistic commitment and zero-knowledge }}{p_{01}}=\underset{\text { Bellairs, March } 48}{\operatorname{Tr}} W^{2018} W_{28 / 104}$

Similarly, we define

$$
p_{10}=\operatorname{Tr}\left(W^{0} W^{1} \sigma W^{1} W^{0}\right)
$$

$x_{0}, x_{1}$ are bits so $p_{0}, p_{1} \geq \frac{1}{2}$. We can use the consecutive projection lemma to get

$$
p_{01} \geq p_{0}\left(p_{0}+p_{1}-1\right)^{2} \quad ; \quad p_{10} \geq p_{1}\left(p_{0}+p_{1}-1\right)^{2} .
$$

To conclude, we use the following strategy to try to learn $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right)$ :

- wp. $\frac{1}{2}$, Bob applies measurement $P^{0}$ and gets $y_{0}$ then $P^{1}$ on the resulting state and gets $y_{1}$, he outputs $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}\right)$.
- wp. $\frac{1}{2}$ Bob applies measurement $P^{1}$ and gets $y_{1}$ then $P^{0}$ on the resulting state and gets $y_{0}$, he outputs $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}\right)$.

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Bob guesses }\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right)\right] \geq \frac{1}{2}\left(p_{01}+p_{10}\right) \geq p(2 p-1)^{2} .
$$

where recall that $p=\frac{p_{0}+p_{1}}{2}$. If needed:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Bob guesses }\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right)\right] \geq \max \left\{p_{0}, p_{1}\right\} \cdot(2 p-1)^{2} .
$$

Improvement: if we want to learn $x_{0} \oplus x_{1}$.

## Lemma

Let $P$ and $Q$ be two projectors and $\rho$ a quantum mixed state. Let:
$p=\operatorname{Tr}(P \rho) ; q:=\operatorname{Tr}(Q \rho) ; E:=\operatorname{Tr}(Q P \rho P Q+(I-Q)(I-P) \rho(I-P)(I-Q))$
If $p+q \geq 1$ then $E \geq(p+q-1)^{2}$.

## Proposition

Suppose Alice and Bob share a state

$$
\sigma=\sum_{x_{0}, x_{1} \in\{0,1\}} p_{x_{0}, x_{1}}\left|x_{0}, x_{1}\right\rangle\left\langle x_{0},\left.x_{1}\right|_{A} \otimes \sigma_{B}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right) .\right.
$$

If there is a strategy for Bob to guess $x_{0} w p . p_{0}$ and $x_{1} w p . p_{1}$ then there exists a strategy to guess $x_{0} \oplus x_{1} w p .\left(p_{0}+p_{1}-1\right)^{2}$.

This proposition is actually tight for non trivial examples.

Extension to $x_{0}, x_{1} \in\{0,1\}^{n}$.

- The above arguments (for learning $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}\right)$ ) can be extended without problems.
- But we still need the constraint

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Bob can guess } x_{0}\right]+\operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Bob can guess } x_{1}\right] \geq 1 \text {. }
$$

- The improvement when considering $x_{0} \oplus x_{1}$ is not known to work when $x_{0}, x_{1} \in\{0,1\}^{n}$.
- Performing consecutive measurement doesn't seem to be the best strategy in most cases.
- This bound is even worse sometimes than random guessing.
- We don't of generic form to do better than consecutive measurements.
- It will still be good enough for many cases, even if it's rarely tight.

Idea used several times:

- Gentle measurements
- Two provers in isolation
- FF15,CCL16,CL17


## CHSH

2 player entangled game between Alice and Bob. They receive respective uniformly random inputs $x, y \in\{0,1\}$ and produce respective outputs $a, b \in\{0,1\}$. They win iff. $a \oplus b=x \cdot y$.

Idea: use the $\oplus$ learning lemma to bound the value of the CHSH. To do this, fix a cheating strategy $S$ for Alice and Bob

- Let Alice perform her strategy on input $x$ to get output $a$. Let $X_{0}=a$ and $X_{1}=x \oplus a$. Notice that $X_{0} \oplus X_{1}=x$.
- The winning condition of CHSH can be rephrased as follows
(1) if $y=0$, Bob must output $b=a$.
(2) if $y=1$, Bob must output $b=a \oplus y$
- This means that:
$\operatorname{Pr}[$ Alice and Bob win CHSH using $S]=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{y \in\{0,1\}}\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[\right.\right.$ Bob guesses $\left.X_{y}\right]$

From non signaling, we know that $E:=\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{Bob}$ guesses $x]=\frac{1}{2}$. If we define $V:=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{y \in\{0,1\}}\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[\right.\right.$ Bob guesses $\left.\left.X_{y}\right]\right)=$ $\operatorname{Pr}[A l i c e ~ a n d ~ B o b ~ w i n ~ C H S H ~ u s i n g ~ S] ., ~ w e ~ h a v e ~$

$$
\frac{1}{2}=E \geq(2 V-1)^{2} \Rightarrow V \leq \cos ^{2}(\pi / 8)
$$

## Extension to $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, 2}$

## $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, 2}$

2 player entangled game between Alice and Bob. Alice receives a uniformly random $x \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$, Bob receives a random $y \in\{0,1\}$. They produce respective outputs $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$. They win iff. $a+b=x * y$ $(x * 0=0$ and $x * 1=x)$.

Again, fix a cheating strategy $S$ for Alice and Bob. Let $X_{0}=a$ and $X_{1}=x+a$. Again, notice that $X_{1}-X_{0}=x$ so if Bob learns $\left(X_{0}, X_{1}\right)$, he can learn $x$. We write again

$$
E:=\operatorname{Pr}[\text { Bob guesses } x]
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
V & :=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{y \in\{0,1\}}\left(\operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Bob guesses } X_{y}\right]\right) \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Alice and Bob win } C^{\prime} H_{2} H_{2, Q} \text { using } \mathrm{S}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Applying the consecutive measurements lemma, we have

$$
\frac{1}{Q}=E \geq V(2 V-1)^{2} \geq \frac{1}{2}(2 V-1)^{2} .
$$

From there, we get $V \leq \frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 Q}}$. Since this is true for any cheating strategy $S$, we conclude that

$$
\omega^{*}\left(\text { CHSH }_{Q, 2}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 Q}}
$$

Used crucially the fact that there is a single possible opening for each $d$.

## Relativistic string commitment

## Relativistic string commitment

- Committing to a single bit is not always enough.
- We would like to commit to string of bits at the same time and say something about this commitment
- But the sum-binding definition is weak and is not well suited for such statements. We have also access to the special binding property
- Having access to those, can we manage to say something about string commitment? Yes but requires some work.


## String sum binding

A minimal requirement we would want from a $T$-string commitment is the following

$$
\forall\left(\text { comm }_{P}^{*}, \text { open }_{P}^{*}\right)
$$

$\sum_{x \in \mathbb{F}_{T}} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\right.$ Alice succ. reveals $x \mid\left(\operatorname{comm}_{P}^{*}\right.$, open $\left.\left._{P}^{*}(x)\right)\right] \leq 1+\varepsilon$.

Proposal for string commitment: $T$-generalization of the $F_{Q}$ bit commitment

Commit to a string $d \in \mathbb{F}_{T}$.

$$
\text { secret } a \in_{R} \mathbb{F}_{Q}
$$



- Non signaling condition: msg. 3 should be independent of msg. 1 .

Again, we can reduce to the $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, T}$ game.

## $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, T}$

2 player entangled game between Alice and Bob. Alice receives a uniformly random $x \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$, Bob receives a random $y \in \mathbb{F}_{T}$. They produce respective outputs $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$. They win iff. $a+b=x * y$.

Again, we map a cheating strategy for the string commitment to an entangled strategy for the $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, T}$ game.

## Proposition

The above mentioned relativistic $T$-string commitment scheme is $\left(T \omega^{*}\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, T}\right)-1\right)$ sum-binding

We need to bound $\omega^{*}\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, T}\right)$.

Cases where we know the value:

- $\omega^{*}\left(C H S H_{Q, Q}\right) \leq O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{Q}}\right)$.
- When $Q$ is an even power of a prime,
$\omega\left(C H S H_{Q, Q}\right)=\omega^{*}\left(C H S H_{Q, Q}\right)=\Theta\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{Q}}\right)$.
When $Q$ is an even power of a prime, the resulting $Q$-string commitment scheme is $\Theta(\sqrt{Q})$ sum-binding (we hoped for $\varepsilon$ sum-binding with $\varepsilon \ll 1$ ).

The scheme is still $\frac{1}{Q}$ special binding so in the case of string commitment, special binding doesn't imply sum-binding.

Can we say interesting things for some values of $T>2$ ? Yes.

## Proposition

$$
\omega^{*}\left(C H S H_{Q, T}\right) \leq \frac{1}{T}+\frac{4}{Q^{1 / 3}} .
$$

Idea, use a generalization of the consecutive measurement lemma.

## Corollary

The $F_{Q}$ based $T$-string commitment is $\frac{4 T}{Q^{1 / 3}}$ sum-binding. If we want an $2^{-k}$ sum-binding protocol for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we can take $Q=64 T^{3} 2^{3 k}$.

Recall that each message in the protocol is $\lceil\log (Q)\rceil$ so we can achieve an $n$-bit string commitment (i.e. $T=2^{n}$ ) with the $F_{Q}$ protocol where each message is $3 n+3 k+8$ bits.

Now we need to prove the proposition and dive into the generalization of consecutive measurements.

Again, the most generic way to look at this is to go back through the notion of encodings.

## Proposition

Let $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{T}$ be projectors and $|\psi\rangle$ a quantum pure state. Let:
$p_{i}=\operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i}\right) ; V:=\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i} p_{i}$ and
$E:=\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{j} P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i} P_{j}\right)$. We have

$$
E \geq \frac{1}{64}\left(V-\frac{1}{T}\right)^{3}
$$

Notice that this is an average case statement and not a worst case statement. Also, the bound is useful only for $V>\frac{1}{T}$.

Tight in the sense that we can find an example with $V=\frac{1}{T}$ and $E=0$. Take $|\psi\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{i=1}^{T}|i\rangle$ and $P_{i}=|i\rangle\langle i|$.

## Difficulty of the statement

Recall for $T=2$, we could have $p_{1}=p_{2}=\frac{1}{2}$ and $E=0$. Idea behind this worst case:

with $P_{i}=\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{i}\right|$ and $\left|\left\langle\psi_{1} \mid \psi_{2}\right\rangle\right|=0$. If those 3 vectors lie in a 2 dimensional subspace, we have $V=\frac{1}{2}$ and $E=0$.

## Known similar results?

Yes, proven for the study of sigma protocols with special soundness (i.e. in a similar context)

## Proposition (Unr12)

Let $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{T}$ be projectors and $|\psi\rangle$ a quantum pure state. Let: $p_{i}=\operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i}\right) ; V:=\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i} p_{i}$ and
$E:=\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{j} P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i} P_{j}\right)$. If $V \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}}$ then

$$
E \geq \frac{T}{(T-1)} V\left(V^{2}-\frac{1}{T}\right)
$$

## Proposition

Let $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{T}$ be projectors and $|\psi\rangle$ a quantum pure state. Let: $p_{i}=\operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i}\right) ; \quad V:=\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i} p_{i}$ and
$E:=\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{j} P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i} P_{j}\right)$. We have

$$
E \geq \frac{1}{64}\left(V-\frac{1}{T}\right)^{3}
$$

We define $\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle=\frac{P_{i}|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{p_{i}}}$. One can check that the $\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle$ are of norm 1 and that $\left|\left\langle\psi \mid \psi_{i}\right\rangle\right|^{2}=p_{i}$. Fix any $i, j \neq i$. As in the $T=2$, we get

$$
E_{i, j}:=\operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{j} P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i} P_{j}\right)=p_{i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{j}\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{i}\right| P_{j}\right) \geq p_{i}\left|\left\langle\psi_{i} \mid \psi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2} .
$$

with $E=\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i} E_{i, j}$.

Extremal case: when can we get $E=0$ ? If for any $i, j \neq i$, we have

- $\left\langle\psi_{i} \mid \psi_{j}\right\rangle=0$.
- OR $\left\langle\psi \mid \psi_{i}\right\rangle=0$.
a quick analysis gives $V=\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i}\left|\left\langle\psi \mid \psi_{i}\right\rangle\right|^{2} \leq \frac{1}{T}$.
By a counterpositive, if $V>\frac{1}{T}$ then $E>0$.

So we need to show that the $\left|\left\langle\psi_{i} \mid \psi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2}$ are not too small on average. We show the following

## Lemma

Let

$$
S=T \cdot V=\sum_{i}\left|\left\langle\psi \mid \psi_{i}\right\rangle\right|^{2} \quad ; \quad C=\sum_{i, j \neq i}\left|\left\langle\phi_{i} \mid \phi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2} .
$$

We have

$$
S \leq 1+\sqrt{\frac{(n-1) C}{n}}
$$

## Proof of the lemma

Let $M=\sum_{i=1}^{T}\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{i}\right|$. Let $\lambda_{1} \geq \lambda_{2} \geq \ldots \lambda_{T}$ the $T$ (not necessarily distinct) eigenvalues of $M$. We first have

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{T} \lambda_{i}=\operatorname{Tr}(M)=\sum_{i=1}^{T} \operatorname{Tr}\left(\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{i}\right|\right)=T
$$

Notice that

$$
\lambda_{1}=\max _{|\Omega\rangle} \sum_{i=1}^{T}|\langle\psi \mid \Omega\rangle|^{2} \geq S
$$

Next we write $M^{2}=\sum_{i, j=1}^{T}\left\langle\psi_{i} \mid \psi_{j}\right\rangle\left|\psi_{i}\right\rangle\left\langle\psi_{j}\right|$ and

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{T} \lambda_{i}^{2}=\operatorname{tr}\left(M^{2}\right)=\sum_{i, j=1}^{T}\left\langle\psi_{i} \mid \psi_{j}\right\rangle^{2} \leq \sum_{i, j=1}^{T}\left|\left\langle\psi_{i} \mid \psi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2}=T+C
$$

This gives us

$$
T+C \geq \sum_{1}^{T} \lambda_{i}^{2}=\lambda_{1}^{2}+\sum^{T} \lambda_{i}^{2} \geq S^{2}+\frac{(T-S)^{2}}{T-1}
$$

From there, we can conclude $S \leq 1+\sqrt{\frac{(T-1) C}{T}}$ or equivalently

$$
\begin{equation*}
V \leq \frac{1}{T}+\frac{T-1}{T} \sqrt{\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i}\left|\left\langle\phi_{i} \mid \phi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recall that we want to relate $V=\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i}\left|\left\langle\phi \mid \phi_{i}\right\rangle\right|^{2}$ and $E=\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i}\left|\left\langle\phi \mid \phi_{i}\right\rangle\right|^{2}\left|\left\langle\phi_{i} \mid \phi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2}$.

Easy case: if $\forall i,\left|\left\langle\phi \mid \phi_{i}\right\rangle\right|^{2}=V$ (symmetric case), we can rewrite $E=\frac{V}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i}\left|\left\langle\phi_{i} \mid \phi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2}$ and plugging this in Eq 1:

$$
V \leq \frac{1}{T}+\frac{T-1}{T} \sqrt{\frac{E}{V}} \Rightarrow E \geq\left(\frac{T}{T-1}\right)^{2} V\left(V-\frac{1}{T}\right)^{2}
$$

General case, more cumbersome calculations.

- Let $Z=\left\{i: p_{i} \geq \frac{V}{\kappa}\right\}$ for a parameter $\kappa>1$ that will be fixed later.
- $S_{Z}:=\sum_{i \in Z} p_{i} \geq \frac{1}{\left(1+\frac{1}{\kappa-1}\right)} S . C_{Z}=\sum_{i, j \neq i \in Z}\left|\left\langle\phi_{i} \mid \phi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S_{Z} \leq 1+\sqrt{C_{Z}} \\
& E=\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i}\left|\left\langle\phi \mid \phi_{i}\right\rangle\right|^{2}\left|\left\langle\phi_{i} \mid \phi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2} \\
& \geq \frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i \in Z}\left|\left\langle\phi \mid \phi_{i}\right\rangle\right|^{2}\left|\left\langle\phi_{i} \mid \phi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2} \\
& \geq \frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i \in Z} \frac{V}{\kappa}\left|\left\langle\phi_{i} \mid \phi_{j}\right\rangle\right|^{2}=\frac{V C_{Z}}{\kappa T(T-1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
S_{Z} \leq 1+\sqrt{\frac{\kappa E T(T-1)}{V}} \leq 1+T \sqrt{\frac{\kappa E}{V}} \\
S \leq\left(1+\frac{1}{\kappa-1}\right) S_{Z} \leq\left(1+\frac{1}{\kappa-1}\right)\left(1+T \sqrt{\frac{\kappa E}{V}}\right) \\
V \leq\left(1+\frac{1}{\kappa-1}\right)\left(\frac{1}{T}+\sqrt{\frac{\kappa E}{V}}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

Optimization in $\kappa$, relation between $E$ and $V . \kappa=\max \left(2,\left(\frac{V}{T^{2} E}\right)^{1 / 3}\right)$. We get

$$
E \geq \frac{1}{64}\left(V-\frac{1}{T}\right)^{3}
$$

## Interpretation in terms of encodings

## Proposition (General learning lemma for pairs of strings)

Suppose Alice and Bob share a state

$$
\sigma=\sum_{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}} p_{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}}\left|x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots,\left.x_{n}\right|_{A} \otimes \sigma_{B}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) .\right.
$$

If for each $i$, there is a strategy for Bob to guess $x_{i} w p . p_{i}$ then there exists a couple $(i, j)$ and a strategy for Bob to guess $\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)$ wp.

$$
p_{i, j} \geq \frac{1}{64 n^{3}}\left(\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}\right)-1\right)^{3}
$$

## Proposition (Counterpositive: the special soundness lemma)

Suppose Alice and Bob share a state

$$
\sigma=\sum_{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}} p_{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}}\left|x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\rangle\left\langle x_{1}, \ldots,\left.x_{n}\right|_{A} \otimes \sigma_{B}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) .\right.
$$

If for each $i, j \neq i$, Bob can guess $\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) w p . \leq \varepsilon$ then

$$
\sum_{i} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Bob can guess } x_{i}\right] \leq 1+4 n \varepsilon^{1 / 3}
$$

We can recognize here already the relation between the sum binding property and the special binding property. If $\varepsilon \leq \frac{2^{-3 k}}{(4 n)^{1 / 3}}$ for some $k$ then $\sum_{i} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\right.$ Bob can guess $\left.x_{i}\right] \leq 1+2^{-k}$.

## Proposition

$$
\omega^{*}\left(C H S H_{Q, T}\right) \leq \frac{1}{T}+\frac{4}{Q^{1 / 3}} .
$$

## Proof:

- Fix Alice's input/output pair $x, a \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$. Let $X_{y}=a+x * y$. Bob has a random $y \in \mathbb{F}_{P}$ and wins the game if he guesses $X_{y}$.
- For any $y, y^{\prime} \neq y$, we have $x=\frac{X_{y^{\prime}}-X_{y}}{y^{\prime}-y}$ so if Bob can guess $X_{y}$ and $X_{y}^{\prime}$ then he can guess $x$. On average on $x$, $a$, this happens wp. $\frac{1}{Q}$ by non-signaling.
- By using the special soundness lemma, we have

$$
\omega^{*}\left(C H S H_{Q, T}\right)=\frac{1}{T} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{F}_{P}} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Bob can guess } X_{y}\right] \leq \frac{1}{T}+\frac{4}{Q^{1 / 3}}
$$

- We deal with averaging on $(x, a)$ similarly as for the $T=2$ case.


## Corollary

The $F_{Q}$ based $T$-string commitment is $\frac{4 T}{Q^{1 / 3}}$ sum-binding. If we want an $2^{-k}$ sum-binding protocol for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we can take $Q=64 T^{3} 2^{3 k}$.

## Parallel repetition of bit commitment

- We proved the sum-binding property for a string commitment.
- Problem: We can only reveal the whole string or nothing. In most cases, it's nice to be able to reveal some bits of the string.
- With the special soundness lemma, we can also prove that the parallel repetition of the $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit commitment preserves the sum-binding property as a string commitment.
- The generic $\mathbb{F}_{Q} Q$-string commitment scheme is not sum-binding even though it is special binding.
- Can we still say something about its security as a string commitment?
- Yes: distributionally ${ }^{+}$sum-binding.


## Definition

A bit commitment is $\varepsilon$ distributionally ${ }^{+}$sum-binding if $\forall$ comm $_{P}^{*}$, there is a pr. distr. $r$ st $\forall d$ and $\forall \operatorname{open}_{P}^{*}(d)$, we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\mathrm{V} \text { outputs } d \mid\left(\operatorname{comm}_{P}^{*}, \operatorname{open}_{P}^{*}(d)\right)\right] \leq r(d)+\varepsilon .
$$

## Proposition

The $\mathbb{F}_{Q} Q$-string commitment is $\frac{4}{Q^{1 / 6}}$ distributionally ${ }^{+}$secure against quantum adversaries.

## Relativistic zero-knowledge for NP

## Sigma protocols

Consider protocols between a single prover $P$ and a single verifier $V$ of the following form:
(1) $P$ commits to $n$ bits (or strings) $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$.
(2) $V$ sends a challenge chall to the prover.
(3) Depending on chall, $P$ opens some of the $x_{i}$. He also sends an answer $a$ to the verifier.
Many (zero-knowledge) protocols can be expressed in the above form.

Using the $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ relativistic bit commitment in order to transform a $\Sigma$-protocol into a relativistic protocol.


- V accepts if $\operatorname{Accept}\left(\mathrm{m}_{1}\right.$, chall, $\left.\mathrm{m}_{2}, \mathrm{x}_{1}\right)$ and
$\left\{\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{i}}, \mathrm{x}_{\mathrm{i}}\right\}_{\mathrm{i}_{i} \in \mathrm{l}}$ consistent with $\left\{\mathrm{y}_{\mathrm{i}}\right\}_{\mathrm{i}} \in \mathrm{l}$
In order to analyze cheating provers, the relativistic protocol can then be directyl transformed into an entangled 2 player game between $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$.

A zero-knowledge protocol for a language $L$ is an interactive protocol between a prover $P$ and verifier $V$, parametrized by a security parameter $k$, with the following properties:

- Completeness: $\forall x \in L, \operatorname{Pr}[V$ accepts $] \geq 1-n e g l(k)$.
- Soundness: $\forall x \notin L, \operatorname{Pr}[V$ accepts $] \leq n e g l(k)$.
- Zero-knowledge: there is polynomial time simulator $S$ st. $\forall x \in L, \forall$ cheating $V^{*}$ and $\forall \rho$ (auxiliary state),

$$
\operatorname{StatDiff}\left(S_{V^{*}}(x, \rho), \operatorname{view}_{V^{*}}(x, \rho)\right) \leq \operatorname{neg} I(k)
$$

where view $_{V^{*}}(x, \rho)$ is verifier's view of the protocol (the transcript as well as his quantum and classical registers).

## Hamiltonian cycle problem

We consider an undirected graph $G=(V, E)$.


## Hamiltonian cycle problem

We consider an undirected graph $G=(V, E)$ without self loops.


A Hamiltonian cycle is a cycle going through each vertex exactly once.
Determining whether a graph contains a Hamiltonian cycle is an NP-complete problem.

The adjacency matrix $M_{G}$ of $G$ is a $V \times V$ st. $M_{G}(i, j)=1$ iff. $(i, j) \in E$. For our example:


$$
M_{G}=\left(\begin{array}{lllllll}
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

The adjacency matrix $M_{G}$ of $G$ is a $V \times V$ st. $M_{G}(i, j)=1$ iff. $(i, j) \in E$.


$$
M_{G}=\left(\begin{array}{lllllll}
0 & 0 & \boldsymbol{1} & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \boldsymbol{1} & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \boldsymbol{1} & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \mathbf{1} \\
0 & \boldsymbol{1} & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \boldsymbol{1} & 0 & 0 \\
\mathbf{1} & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

If you are given the $\mathbf{1}$ corresponding to a Hamiltonian cycle, one can check whether it indeed forms such a cycle or not. We don't need to look at the rest of the matrix to determine this.

Zero-knowledge protocol for Hamiltonian cycle using bit commitment
(1) The prover picks a random permutation $\Pi: V \rightarrow V$. He commits to each of the bits of the adjacency matrix $M_{\Pi(G)}$ of $\Pi(G)$.
(2) The verifier sends a random bit (called the challenge) chall $\in\{0,1\}$ to the prover.
(3) - If chall $=0$, the prover decommits to all the elements of $M_{\Pi(G)}$, and reveals $\Pi$.

- If chall $=1$, he reveals only the bits (of value 1 ) of the adjacency matrix that correspond to a Hamiltonian cycle $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ of $\Pi(G)$.
(9) The verifier checks that these decommitments are valid and correspond, for chall $=0$ to $M_{\Pi(G)}$ and, for chall $=1$, to a Hamiltonian cycle.

The relativistic zero-knowledge protocol for Hamiltonian cycle will exactly be plugging in the $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ parallel relativistic bit commitment in the zero-knowledge protocol.

Relativistic zero knowledge protocol for Hamiltonian cycle
Input - The provers and the verifiers are given a graph $G=(V, E)$.
Auxiliary Input - The provers $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ know a Hamiltonian cycle $\mathcal{C}$ of $G$. Preprocessing - $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ agree beforehand on a random permutation $\Pi: V \rightarrow V$ and on an $n \times n$ random matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_{n}^{\mathbb{F} Q}$.
(1) Commitment to each bit of $M_{\Pi(G)}: V_{1}$ sends a matrix $B \in \mathcal{M}_{n}^{\mathbb{F} Q}$ where each element of $B$ is chosen uniformly at random in $\mathbb{F}_{Q} . P_{1}$ outputs the matrix $Y \in \mathcal{M}_{n}^{\mathbb{F} Q}$ such that $\forall i, j \in[n], Y_{i, j}=A_{i, j}+\left(B_{i, j} *\left(M_{\Pi(G)}\right)_{i, j}\right)$.
(2) The verifier sends a random bit chall $\in\{0,1\}$ to the prover.
(3) If chall $=0, P_{2}$ decommits to all the elements of $M_{\Pi(G)}$, i.e. he sends all the elements of $A$ to $V_{2}$ and reveals $\Pi$.

- If chall $=1, P_{2}$ reveals only the bits (of value 1 ) of the adjacency matrix that correspond to a Hamiltonian cycle $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ of $\Pi(G)$, i.e. for all edges $(u, v)$ of $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$, he sends $A_{u, v}$ as well as $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$.
(9) The verifier checks that those decommitments are valid:
- if chall $=0$, the prover's opening $A$ must satisfy

$$
\forall i, j \in[n], \quad Y_{i, j}=A_{i, j}+\left(B_{i, j} *\left(M_{\Pi(G)}\right)_{i, j}\right)
$$

- if chall $=1$, the prover's opening $A$ must satisfy
$\forall(u, v) \in \mathcal{C}^{\prime}, \quad Y_{u, v}=A_{u, v}+B_{u, v}$.

What do we need to prove?

- Completeness: The single prover/verifier zero-knowledge protocol for Hamiltonian cycle is perfectly complete and so is the $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit commitment scheme. If both parties are honest and we are in a yes instance, the protocol always succeeds.
- Soundness: This will be the hardest part. An extra difficulty will arise because there are several valid openings.
- Zero-knowledge: The commitment is perfectly hiding and the original zero-knowledge protocol is perfectly zero-knowledge. We will show that this relativistic zero-knowledge protocol remains perfectly zero-knowledge.

Generic idea to use special learning lemma for bounding entangled games


A game is projective if for each $x, a, y$ there is a unique $b_{x, a}(y)$ such that the players win the game on inputs $(x, y)$ and outputs $(a, b)$.

When fixing $(x, a)$, the probability of winning the game is the probability for Bob of guessing $b_{x, a}(y)$. If we can bound the probability of guessing a couple $b_{x, a}(y), b_{x, a}\left(y^{\prime}\right)$ for $y \neq y$ then we can use the special learning lemma to bound the value of the game.

The projective property is crucial for this argument.

All the CHSH type games we considered were projective (even unique) so the argument worked well.

In terms of commitment, given a fixed transcript for the commit phase and a fixed string $s$, there is a unique opening string for $s$.

However, in the zero-knowledge protocol, there are many valid strings that can be opened (one for each permutation).

Consider a graph $G$ with no Hamiltonian cycle. The cheating provers must win the following entangled game in order to convince the verifiers.

## RZK-HAM game

- $P_{1}$ receives a matrix $B \in \mathcal{M}_{n}^{\mathbb{F}_{Q}}$ where each element of $B$ is chosen uniformly at random in $\mathbb{F}_{Q} . P_{2}$ receives a random input bit chall.
- $P_{1}$ outputs a matrix $Y \in \mathcal{M}_{n}^{\mathbb{F}_{Q}}$. If chall $=0$ then $P_{2}$ outputs a permutation $\Pi$ and a matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_{n}^{\mathbb{F}_{Q}}$. If chall $=1$ then $P_{2}$ outputs a cycle $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ and $n$ strings $\left\{A_{(u, v)}^{\prime}\right\}_{(u, v) \in \mathcal{C}^{\prime}}$ in $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$.
- If chall $=0$, the two players win if
$\forall i, j \in[n], \quad Y_{i, j}=A_{i, j}+\left(B_{i, j} *\left(M_{\Pi(G)}\right)_{i, j}\right)$. If chall $=1$, the two players win if for all edges $(u, v)$ of $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}, Y_{u, v}=A_{u, v}+B_{u, v}$, which corresponds to revealing 1 for each edge of the cycle $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$.

An entangled 2 player game $G$ is said to be $\alpha$-projective iff.
$\forall x, y, a \mid\{b: A$ and B win G on inputs $(x, y)$ and ouputs $(a, b)\} \mid \leq \alpha$.

## Proposition

The RZK-HAM game is $n$ ! projective.

## Proof.

When $P_{2}$ decides the string he wants to reveal, there is a unique way to open this string, this comes from the property of our $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ string commitment.

- If chall $=0$, there is an opening that the verifier will accept for each permutation $\Pi$, so $n!$ valid outputs for $P_{2}$.
- If chall $=1$, there is an opening that the verifier will accept for each cycle $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$. There are again $n$ ! such cycles.
This shows that the game is $n!-$ projective


## Proposition

The RZK-HAM protocol has special soundness $\frac{1}{Q}$.

## Proof

Proving this is equivalent to proving that for any strategy used by $P_{1}, P_{2}$ can send a valid opening for both chall $=0$ and chall $=1 \mathrm{wp} . \frac{1}{Q}$. We fix an input/output pair $(B, Y)$ for $P_{1}$ and we consider winning outputs for $P_{2}$ for both inputs. For chall $=0$, we have a permutation $\Pi$ and a matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_{n}^{\mathbb{F} Q}$ which is a valid opening of $M_{\Pi(G)}$ meaning that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall(i, j), \quad A_{i, j}=Y_{i, j}-B_{i, j} *\left(M_{\Pi(G)}\right)_{i, j} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

For chall $=1$, we have a cycle $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ of $\{1, \ldots,|V|\}$ as well as openings $A_{u, v}^{\prime}$ for each $(u, v) \in \mathcal{C}^{\prime}$. Because it is a winning output, the openings must satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall(u, v) \in \mathcal{C}^{\prime}, A_{u, v}^{\prime}=Y_{u, v}-B_{u, v} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Proof continued

If the graph $G$ (hence also $\Pi(G)$ ) does not contain a Hamiltonian cycle then there has to be an edge $(u, v)$ of $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ such that $\left(M_{\Pi(G)}\right)_{u, v}=0$. For this specific $(u, v)$, we combine Equations 2 and 3 and get:

$$
A_{u, v}=Y_{u, v} \quad ; \quad A_{u, v}^{\prime}=Y_{u, v}-B_{u, v}
$$

This implies that $A_{u, v}-A_{u, v}^{\prime}=B_{u, v}$ which happens with probability at most $\frac{1}{Q}$ from non-signaling.

## How we transformed special soundness security into sum-binding security

## Proposition

Let $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{T}$ be projectors and $|\psi\rangle$ a quantum pure state. Let:
$p_{i}=\operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i}\right) ; \quad V:=\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i} p_{i}$ and
$E:=\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{j} P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i} P_{j}\right)$. We have

$$
E \geq \frac{1}{64}\left(V-\frac{1}{T}\right)^{3}
$$

Use it to bound the value of projective games from special soundness

## Proposition

Let $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{T}$ be projectors that can be written as $P_{i}=\sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} P_{i}^{s}$ where $P_{i}^{s}$ are orthogonal projectors for any fixed $i$. Let $|\psi\rangle$ be a quantum pure state and let

$$
p_{i}=\operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|\right)=\sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{i}^{s}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|\right) ; \quad V:=\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i} p_{i}
$$

and

$$
E:=\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{s, s^{\prime} \neq s=1}^{\alpha} \sum_{i, j \neq i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{j}^{s^{\prime}} P_{i}^{s}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i}^{s} P_{j}^{s^{\prime}}\right) .
$$

We have

$$
E \geq \frac{1}{64 \alpha}\left(V-\frac{1}{T}\right)^{3}
$$

Use it to bound the value of $\alpha$-projective games from special soundness

Proof of the proposition. We can sum the outside projector to get

$$
E=\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} \sum_{i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{j} P_{i}^{s}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i}^{s} P_{j}\right)
$$

## Lemma (Pinching inequality)

For any projector $P_{i}=\sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} P_{i}^{s}$ where $P_{i}^{s}$ are orthogonal projectors and $|\psi\rangle$, we have

$$
\sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} P_{i}^{s}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i}^{s} \succcurlyeq P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i}
$$

This gives us immediately

$$
\begin{aligned}
E & =\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} \sum_{i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{j} P_{i}^{s}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i}^{s} P_{j}\right) \\
& \geq \frac{1}{\alpha}\left(\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{i} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{j} P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{i} P_{j}\right)\right) \\
& \geq \frac{1}{64 \alpha}\left(V-\frac{1}{T}\right)^{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

This can also be extended when we only have 2 projectors with an improved bound.

## Proposition

Let $P_{0}, P_{1}$ be projectors that can be written as $P_{i}=\sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} P_{i}^{s}$ where $P_{i}^{s}$ are orthogonal projectors for any fixed $i \in\{0,1\}$. Let $|\psi\rangle$ be a quantum pure state and let

$$
p_{i}=\operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{i}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|\right)=\sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{i}^{s}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|\right) ; \quad V:=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} p_{i}
$$

and

$$
E:=\frac{1}{T(T-1)} \sum_{s, s^{\prime} \neq s=1}^{\alpha} \operatorname{Tr}\left(P_{1}^{s^{\prime}} P_{0}^{s}|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| P_{0}^{s} P_{1}^{s^{\prime}}\right)
$$

We have

$$
E \geq \frac{2}{\alpha}\left(V-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}
$$

We have the formula $E \geq \frac{2}{\alpha}\left(V-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}$. The RKZ-HAM protocol (or entangled game) has special soundness $\frac{1}{Q}$ so we can plug in $E=\frac{1}{Q}$. We obtain

$$
\omega^{*}\left(G_{\text {RZK-HAM }}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{n!}{2 Q}}
$$

by taking $Q=\frac{n!}{2^{k+1}}$, we get that the soundness of the protocol is $\frac{1}{2}+2^{-k}$.
We just need to perform this protocol in parallel to reduce the soundness to a negligible quantity. This can be done similarly, since we know the $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit commitment behaves well when run in parallel.

What about the zero-knowledge property? What is the verifier's view of the protocol?

- No matter what the verifier sends during the commit step, he obtains uniformly random strings from the prover.


## Multi-round protocols

- We presented the $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit/string commitment protocol with an application to a zero-knowledge protocol for Hamiltonian cycle.
- We could commit and immediately after perform an opening.
- But the underlying bit/string commitment protocol works only for a very short of time.
- Here, we show to increase the commit time.


## The relativistic $F_{Q}$ bit commitment protocol



- If $P_{1}, P_{2}$ are at a distance $D$, the commitment is valid for a time $<\frac{D}{c}$.
- Idea: instead of revealing $a, P_{2}$ commits to a using a $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ string commitment scheme.
- 2 possibilities: make the alphabet size explode with the number of rounds or use a bad string commitment.


## Multi-round $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit commitment

In this form, first proposed in [LKB+14].
(1) Preparation phase: $\mathcal{A}_{1}, \mathcal{A}_{2}\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.\mathcal{B}_{1}, \mathcal{B}_{2}\right)$ share $k$ random numbers $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{k}$ (resp. $\left.b_{1}, \ldots, b_{k}\right) \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$, for even $k$. Here, $q$ is a prime power $p^{n}$ for some prime $p$ and $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ refers to the Galois field of order $q$.
(2) Commit phase: $\mathcal{B}_{1}$ sends $b_{1}$ to $\mathcal{A}_{1}$, who returns $y_{1}=a_{1}+\left(d * b_{1}\right)$ where $d \in\{0,1\}$ is the committed bit.
(3) Sustain phase, starting at $i=2$ : at round $i, \mathcal{B}_{i \bmod 2}$ sends $b_{i} \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$ to $\mathcal{A}_{i} \bmod 2$, who returns $y_{i}=a_{i}+\left(a_{i-1} * b_{i}\right)$.
(9) Reveal phase: $\mathcal{A}_{1}$ reveals $d$ and $a_{k}$ to $\mathcal{B}_{1}$. $\mathcal{B}_{1}$ checks that $a_{k}=y_{k}+\left(a_{k-1} * b_{k}\right)$.
Timing constraints: round $j$ finishes before any information about $b_{j-1}$ reaches the other Alice.

How to include the sustain phase in the security? Give as much power as possible to the cheating parties.
The bit commitment protocol consists of comm $=(\operatorname{comm}(P), \operatorname{comm}(V))$; sust $=(\operatorname{sust}(P), \operatorname{sust}(V)) ;$ open $=(\operatorname{open}(P)$, open $(V))$.

## Perfect hiding property

For any strategy comm* $(V)$, sust* $(V)$, the transcript of $\left(\operatorname{comm}(P), \operatorname{comm}^{*}(V), \operatorname{sust}(P), \operatorname{sust}^{*}(V)\right)$ should be independent of $d$.

## Sum-binding property

$$
\begin{gathered}
\forall \operatorname{comm}^{*}(P), \sum_{b^{\prime} \in\{0,1\}} \max _{\operatorname{open}^{*}(P), \text { sust }^{*}(P)} \\
\operatorname{Pr}\left[V \text { outputs } b^{\prime} \mid\left(\operatorname{comm}^{*}(P), \operatorname{sust}^{*}(P), \text { open }^{*}(P)\right)\right] \leq 1+\varepsilon
\end{gathered}
$$

Even though the string commitment used in the sustain phase doesn't have the sum-binding property, it's still possible to prove the binding property, at least in the classical case. For $r$ rounds:

- LKB+14: $\varepsilon \approx O\left(\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{Q}}\right)^{1 / 2^{r}}\right)$. Proof idea, reduce to a single game.
- [FF15,CCL15] : $\varepsilon=O\left(\frac{r}{\sqrt{Q}}\right)$. [FF15]: based on composition of relativistic bit commitment schemes. [CCL15] : recursive analysis using 2 player games.


## [CCL15] proof



Let $\widetilde{a}_{i}(d):=y_{i}-\widetilde{a}_{i-1} * b_{i}$ with $\widetilde{a}_{0}=d$. For single-round protocol, $A_{2}$ must guess $\widetilde{a}_{i}(d)$ in order to successfully reveal $d$.


For double-round protocol, $A_{1}$ must guess $\widetilde{\mathrm{a}}_{2}(d)=y_{2}+b_{2} * \widetilde{a}_{1}(d)$. We can reduce to the following 2 player game.
$\left(\widetilde{a}_{1}, b_{1}, d\right)$

$\left(\widetilde{a}_{2}, d\right)$
$\left(b_{2}, d\right)$

$y_{2}$
$b_{1}$ doesn't intervene directly in the winning condition (it does only in the sense that $A_{1}$ knows $\widetilde{a}_{1}$ ) and $d$ is known by both players.

So we can reduce to the following game:


For a fixed $d$, they win the game if $\widetilde{a}_{2}(d)-y_{2}=b_{2} * \widetilde{a}_{1}(d)$. Exactly (up to the - sign) the $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, Q}$ game. However, $\widetilde{a}_{1}$ is not necessarily a uniform random string unknown from $A_{2}$. If $p_{1}(d)=\operatorname{Pr}\left[A_{2}\right.$ can guess $\left.\widetilde{a}_{1}(d)\right]$, we have that

$$
p_{1}(0)+p_{1}(1) \leq 1+2 \sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}} .
$$

from the sum-binding security of the single round protocol.

This motivates defining the game $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, Q}^{-}(p)$ as follows:

## $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, Q}^{-}(p)$

2 player entangled game between $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$. Alice receives a string $\widetilde{a}_{1} \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$ st. $\max _{c}\left\{\operatorname{Pr}\left[\widetilde{a}_{1}=c\right]\right\}=p$, Bob receives a random $b_{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$. They produce respective outputs $\widetilde{a}_{2}, y_{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$. They win iff. $y_{2}-\widetilde{a}_{2}=\widetilde{a}_{1} * b_{2}$.

Notice that $\omega\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, Q}^{+}(p)\right) \geq p$ and
$\omega\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, Q}^{+}\left(\frac{1}{Q}\right)\right)=\omega\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, Q}^{+}\left(\frac{1}{Q}\right)\right)$. From the previous analysis, we have (for classical adversaries) that the 2 -round $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ bit commitment is $\varepsilon$ sum-binding for $\varepsilon$ such that

$$
\omega\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, Q}^{-}\left(p_{1}(0)\right)\right)+\omega\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, Q}^{-}\left(p_{1}(1)\right)\right)=1+\varepsilon
$$

with

$$
p_{1}(0)+p_{1}(1) \leq 1+\sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}} .
$$

We can prove the following bound

$$
\omega\left(\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, Q}(p)\right) \leq p+\sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}} .
$$

Plugging this in the previous, we get

$$
p_{1}(0)+p_{1}(1)+2 \sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}}=1+\varepsilon
$$

which gives $\varepsilon \leq 4 \sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}}$.

We proved the following:

- The 1 round protocol is $\varepsilon$-binding for $\varepsilon=2 \sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}}$.
- The 2 round protocol is $\varepsilon$-binding for $\varepsilon=4 \sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}}$.

The recursive statement actually works: the $r$ round protocol is $\varepsilon$-binding for $\varepsilon=2 r \sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}}$.

Proof idea of the classical bound: actually very close to the quantum setting for $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q}$.

## Proposition (Classical learning lemma)

Suppose Alice has a string $x=x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and Bob has a string $c(x)$, all given with some joint probability distribution $q(x, c(x))$. Suppose that Bob has a strategy to learn $x_{i} w p . p_{i}$ and let $V=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} p_{i}$. There is a strategy to guess $\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) w p . p_{i, j}$ such that

$$
E:=\frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i} p_{i, j} \geq \frac{n V}{n-1}\left(V-\frac{1}{n}\right)
$$

Fix a strategy $S$. For a fixed $(x, c(x)$ ), this strategy is deterministic (the randomness can be included in $\mathrm{c}(\mathrm{x})$. For each i , let $s_{i}(x, c(x)) \in\{0,1\}=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\operatorname{Bob}\right.$ guesses $\left.x_{i} \mid S\right]$. We use the consecutive measurement strategy to try to learn $\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)$ for any $i, j \neq i$. Let:

- $V(x, c(x))$ the probability of guessing $x_{i}$ for a random $i$ for a fixed $(x, c(x))$
- $E(x, c(x))$ the probability of guessing a random $\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)$ for a random $i, j \neq i$ and a fixed $(x, c(x))$.
We have

$$
\begin{gathered}
V(x, c(x))=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} s_{i}(x, c(x))=\frac{\kappa}{n} \text { for some } \kappa \in \mathbb{N} . \\
\begin{aligned}
E(x, c(x)) & =\frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i, j \neq i} s_{i}(x, c(x)) s_{j}(x, c(x))=\frac{\kappa(\kappa-1)}{n(n-1)} \\
= & \frac{n V(x, c(x))}{n-1}\left(V(x, c(x))-\frac{1}{n}\right) .
\end{aligned}
\end{gathered}
$$

If we define $f_{n}(X)=\frac{n X}{n-1}\left(X-\frac{1}{n}\right)$ we can see that $f_{n}$ is convex and by rewriting the above equation, we have $E(x, c(x))=f_{n}(V(x, c(x)))$. We can now conclude

$$
\begin{aligned}
E & =\mathbb{E}_{x, c(x)}[E(x, c(x))]=\mathbb{E}_{x, c(x)}\left[f_{n}(V(x, c(x)))\right] \\
& \geq f_{n}\left(\mathbb{E}_{x, c(x)}[E(x, c(x))]\right)=f_{n}(V)=\frac{n V}{n-1}\left(V-\frac{1}{n}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly as before, we can use this to bound the value of the $C H S H_{Q, Q}(p)$ game.

Issue with the quantum case? We need to bound the quantum value of

## $\mathrm{CHSH}_{Q, Q}^{-}(p)$

2 player entangled game between $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$. Alice receives a string $\widetilde{a}_{1} \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$ st. $\operatorname{Pr}\left[A_{2}\right.$ can guess $\left.\widetilde{a}_{1}\right] \leq p$, Bob receives a random $b_{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$. They produce respective outputs $\widetilde{a}_{2}, y_{2} \in \mathbb{F}_{Q}$. They win iff. $y_{2}-\widetilde{a}_{2}=\widetilde{a}_{1} * b_{2}$.
but with a subtelty. $A_{2}$ has some information about $\widetilde{a}_{1}$ which could be of the form of a shared state $\left|\psi_{\tilde{a}_{1}}\right\rangle$ with $A_{1}$. This means that

- It is no longer a 2 player entangled game in the usual sense.
- Our proof technique does not work here.

If we can show that the entangled value of the above game (with share state $\left|\psi_{\widetilde{a}_{1}}\right\rangle$ is smaller than $p+f(q)$ then the $r$-round $\mathbb{F}_{Q}$ protocol would be $\varepsilon$ sum-binding secure against quantum adversaries with $\varepsilon=2 r f(q)$.

It is possible to show a bound for the above problem of the form $\sqrt{p}+f(q)$. Behaves very poorly when considering multiple rounds.

In the case, where the shared state is independent of the inputs, we can use the consecutive learning lemma and use the fact that $A_{1}$ can guess $b_{2}$ wp. $\frac{1}{Q}$. This gives the bound $p+\sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}}$.

$b_{2}$


However, if we considered the opposite strategy i.e. trying to apply the consecutive measurements on $A_{2}$, we would only get $\frac{1}{Q}+\sqrt{p}$ which is potentially much worst. (For example, for $\mathrm{CHSH}_{2, Q}$ i.e. $p=\frac{1}{2}$, this would give a bound larger than $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$ while we know a bound of $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{\sqrt{Q}}$.

In the case, where the shared state is independent of the inputs, we can use the consecutive learning lemma and use the fact that $A_{1}$ can guess $b_{2}$ wp. $\frac{1}{Q}$. This gives the bound $p+\sqrt{\frac{2}{Q}}$.


If there is an entangled state that depends on $\widetilde{a}_{i}$ then the above scenario doesn't make sense. What we can do is to consider the opposite strategy i.e. trying to apply the consecutive measurements on $A_{2}$, we would only get $\frac{1}{Q}+\sqrt{p}$ which is potentially much worst. (For example, for $\mathrm{CHSH}_{2, Q}$ i.e. $p=\frac{1}{2}$, this would give a bound larger than $\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$ while we know a bound of $\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{\sqrt{Q}}$.

