

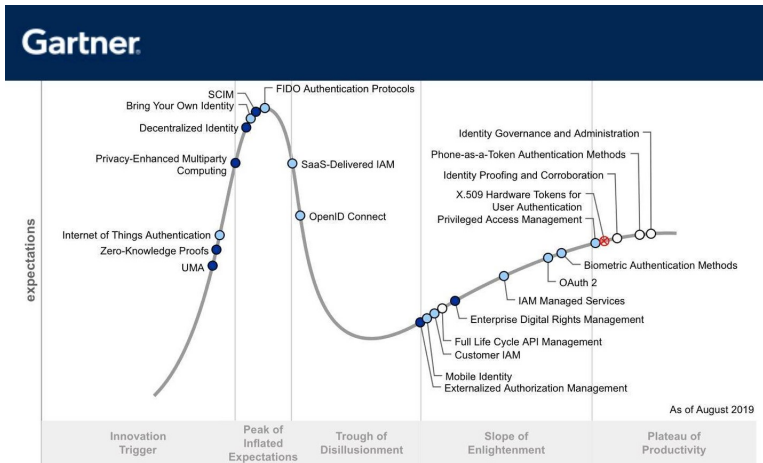
Zero Knowledge Proofs

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Gartner Hype Cycle for Identity



Source: <https://twitter.com/IdentityMonk/status/1158564314577612800>

Zero Knowledge Proofs

- Proofs that yield nothing beyond the validity of an assertion
- Examples of assertions
 - I know the discrete log of a group element wrt a generator
 - I know an isomorphism between two graphs G_1, G_2
- Proofs are a sequence of statements each of which is an axiom or follows from axioms via derivation rules
 - Traditional proofs do not have explicit provers and verifiers
- ZKPs involve explicit interaction between prover and verifier
- Prover and verifier will be modeled as algorithms or machines
 - Verifier is assumed to be probabilistic polynomial-time (PPT)
 - Prover may or may not be PPT

Examples of Interactive Proofs

- Proving that two chalks have different colours to a colour-blind verifier
- Proof of Quadratic Residuosity
 - For a positive integer N , x is called a quadratic residue modulo N if

$$x = w^2 \bmod N \text{ for some } w$$

- Suppose $N = pq$ for distinct primes p and q with $|p| = |q| = n$.
 - Without knowing the factorization of N , the best algorithms for checking $x \in QR_N$ run in $\exp\left(\mathcal{O}(n^{\frac{1}{3}})\right)$ steps
 - Using the factorization of N , $x \in QR_N$ can be checked in time which is polynomial in n
- Proof of Quadratic Non-Residuosity
 - Exhaustive checking is not feasible
 - Use an idea similar to the chalks example
- More details on the last two examples

<http://cyber.biu.ac.il/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/WS-19-1-ZK-intro.pdf>

Knowledge vs Information

- In information theory, entropy is used to quantify information
- Entropy of a discrete random variable X defined over an alphabet \mathcal{X} is

$$H(X) = - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log p(x)$$

- Knowledge is related to computational difficulty, whereas information is not
 - Suppose Alice and Bob know Alice's public key
 - Alice sends her private key to Bob
 - Bob has not gained new information (in the information-theoretic sense)
 - But Bob now knows a quantity he could not have calculated by himself
- Knowledge is related to publicly known objects, whereas information relates to private objects
 - Suppose Alice tosses a fair coin and sends the outcome to Bob
 - Bob gains one bit of information (in the information-theoretic sense)
 - We say Bob has not gained any knowledge as he could have tossed a coin himself

Modeling Assertions and Proofs

- The complexity class \mathcal{NP} captures the asymmetry between proof generation and verification
- A language is a subset of $\{0, 1\}^*$
- Each language $L \in \mathcal{NP}$ has a polynomial-time verification procedure for proofs of statements “ $x \in L$ ”
 - Example: L is the encoding of pairs of finite isomorphic graphs
- Let $R \subset \{0, 1\}^* \times \{0, 1\}^*$ be a relation
- R is said to be polynomial-time-recognizable if the assertion “ $(x, y) \in R$ ” can be checked in time $\text{poly}(|x|, |y|)$
- Each $L \in \mathcal{NP}$ is given by a PTR relation R_L such that

$$L = \{x \mid \exists y \text{ such that } (x, y) \in R_L\}$$

and $(x, y) \in R_L$ only if $|y| \leq \text{poly}(|x|)$

- Any y for which $(x, y) \in R_L$ is a proof of the assertion “ $x \in L$ ”

Interactive Proof Systems

- Let $\langle A, B \rangle(x)$ denote the output of B when interacting with A on common input x
- Output 1 is interpreted as “accept” and 0 is interpreted as “reject”

Definition

A pair of interactive machines (P, V) is called an **interactive proof system for a language L** if machine V is polynomial-time and the following conditions hold:

- **Completeness:** For every $x \in L$,

$$\Pr[\langle P, V \rangle(x) = 1] \geq \frac{2}{3}$$

- **Soundness:** For every $x \notin L$ and every interactive machine B ,

$$\Pr[\langle B, V \rangle(x) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{3}$$

- Remarks
 - Soundness condition refers to any possible prover while completeness condition refers only to the prescribed prover
 - Prescribed prover is allowed to fail with probability $\frac{1}{3}$
 - Arbitrary provers are allowed to succeed with probability $\frac{1}{3}$
 - These probabilities can be made arbitrarily small by repeating the interaction

Generalized Interactive Proof Systems

Definition

Let $c, s : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be functions satisfying $c(n) > s(n) + \frac{1}{p(n)}$ for some polynomial $p(\cdot)$. A pair of interactive machines (P, V) is called a **generalized** interactive proof system for a language L with **completeness bound** $c(\cdot)$ and **soundness bound** $s(\cdot)$ if machine V is polynomial-time and the following conditions hold:

- **Completeness:** For every $x \in L$,

$$\Pr[\langle P, V \rangle(x) = 1] \geq c(|x|)$$

- **Soundness:** For every $x \notin L$ and every interactive machine B ,

$$\Pr[\langle B, V \rangle(x) = 1] \leq s(|x|)$$

The following three conditions are equivalent

- There exists an interactive proof system for L with completeness bound $\frac{2}{3}$ and soundness bound $\frac{1}{3}$
- For every polynomial $q(\cdot)$, there exists an interactive proof system for L with error probabilistic $\max(1 - c(|x|), s(|x|))$ bounded above by $2^{-q(|x|)}$
- There exists a polynomial $q(\cdot)$ and a generalized interactive proof system for the language L , with acceptance gap $c(|x|) - s(|x|)$ bounded below by $\frac{1}{q(|x|)}$.

Graph Isomorphism

- Graphs $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$ are isomorphic if there exists a bijection $\pi : V_1 \mapsto V_2$ such that $(u, v) \in E_1 \iff (\pi(u), \pi(v)) \in E_2$

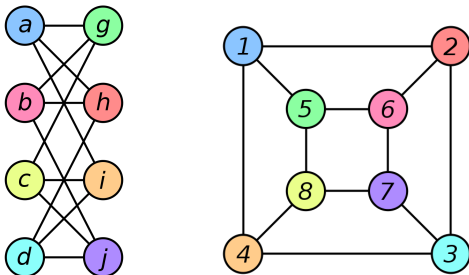


Image source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Graph_isomorphism

$$\begin{aligned}\pi(a) &= 1, \pi(b) = 6, \pi(c) = 8, \pi(d) = 3, \\ \pi(g) &= 5, \pi(h) = 2, \pi(i) = 4, \pi(j) = 7\end{aligned}$$

Interactive Proof for Graph Non-Isomorphism

- Graphs $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$ are isomorphic if there exists a bijection $\pi : V_1 \mapsto V_2$ such that $(u, v) \in E_1 \iff (\pi(u), \pi(v)) \in E_2$
- Graphs G_1 and G_2 are non-isomorphic if no such bijection exists
- Prover and verifier execute the following protocol
 - Verifier picks $\sigma \in \{1, 2\}$ randomly and a random permutation π from the set of all permutations over V_σ
 - Verifier calculates $F = \{(\pi(u), \pi(v)) \mid (u, v) \in E_\sigma\}$ and sends the graph $G' = (V_\sigma, F)$ to prover
 - Prover finds $\tau \in \{1, 2\}$ such that G' is isomorphic to G_τ and sends τ to verifier
 - If $\tau = \sigma$, verifier accepts claim. Otherwise, it rejects.
- Remarks
 - Verifier is a PPT machine but no known PPT implementation for prover
 - If G_1 and G_2 are not isomorphic, then verifier always accepts
 - If G_1 and G_2 are isomorphic, then verifier rejects with probability at least $\frac{1}{2}$
 - Acceptance gap is bounded from below by $\frac{1}{2}$

Zero Knowledge Interactive Proofs

- Consider an interactive proof system (P, V) for a language L
 - In an interactive proof, we need to guard against a malicious prover
 - To guarantee zero knowledge, we need to guard against a malicious verifier
- Recall that knowledge is related to computational difficulty
- Informal definition
 - An interactive proof system is **zero knowledge** if whatever can be efficiently computed **after interaction** with P on input x can also be efficiently computed from x (**without interaction**)
- Formal definition (ideal)
 - We say (P, V) is **perfect zero knowledge** if for every PPT interactive machine V^* there exists a PPT algorithm M^* such that for every $x \in L$ the random variables $\langle P, V^* \rangle(x)$ and $M^*(x)$ are **identically distributed**
 - M^* is called a **simulator** for the interaction of V^* with P
- Unfortunately, the above definition is too strict
- A relaxed definition is used instead

Perfect Zero Knowledge

Definition

Let (P, V) be an interactive proof system for a language L . We say that (P, V) is **perfect zero knowledge** if for every PPT interactive machine V^* there exists a PPT algorithm M^* such that for every $x \in L$ the following two conditions hold:

1. With probability at most $\frac{1}{2}$, machine M^* outputs a special symbol \perp .
2. Let $m^*(x)$ be the random variable describing the distribution of $M^*(x)$ conditioned on $M^*(x) \neq \perp$. Then the random variables $\langle P, V^* \rangle(x)$ and $m^*(x)$ are **identically distributed**.

- Remarks

- M^* is called a **perfect simulator** for the interaction of V^* with P
- By repeated interactions, the probability that the simulator fails to generate the identical distribution can be made negligible
- **Alternative formulation:** Replace $\langle P, V^* \rangle(x)$ with $\text{view}_{V^*}^P(x)$
 - A verifier's view consists of messages it receives and any randomness it generates
 - Simulator M^* has to change accordingly

ZK Proof for Graph Isomorphism

- An isomorphism ϕ between graphs $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$ exists
- Prover and verifier execute the following protocol
 - Prover picks a random permutation π from the set of permutations of V_2
 - Prover calculates $F = \{(\pi(u), \pi(v)) \mid (u, v) \in E_2\}$ and sends the graph $G' = (V_2, F)$ to verifier
 - Verifier picks $\sigma \in \{1, 2\}$ randomly and sends it to prover
 - If $\sigma = 2$, then prover sends π to the verifier. Otherwise, it sends $\pi \circ \phi$ to the verifier where $(\pi \circ \phi)(v)$ is defined as $\pi(\phi(v))$
 - If the received mapping is an isomorphism between G_σ and G' , the verifier accepts. Otherwise, it rejects
- Remarks
 - Verifier is a PPT machine. If ϕ is known to prover, it is a PPT machine
 - If G_1 and G_2 are isomorphic, then verifier always accepts
 - If G_1 and G_2 are not isomorphic, then verifier rejects with probability $\frac{1}{2}$
 - The prover is perfect zero knowledge (to be argued)

Simulator for Graph Isomorphism Transcript

- For an arbitrary PPT verifier V^* , $\text{view}_{V^*}^P(x) = \langle G', \sigma, \psi \rangle$ where ψ is an isomorphism between G_σ and G'
- The simulator M^* uses V^* as a subroutine
- On input (G_1, G_2) , simulator randomly picks $\tau \in \{1, 2\}$ and generates a random isomorphic copy G'' of G_τ
 - Note that G'' is identically distributed to G'
- Simulator gives G'' to V^* and receives $\sigma \in \{1, 2\}$ from it
 - V^* is asking for an isomorphism from G_σ to G''
- If $\sigma = \tau$, then the simulator can provide the isomorphism $\pi : G_\tau \mapsto G''$
- If $\sigma \neq \tau$, then the simulator outputs \perp
- If the simulator does not output \perp , then $\langle G'', \tau, \pi \rangle$ is identically distributed to $\langle G', \sigma, \psi \rangle$

ZK Proof for Quadratic Residuosity

- Interactive protocol for QR of $x = w^2$ modulo $N = pq$
 - P picks $r \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ and sends $y = r^2$ to V
 - V picks a bit $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$ and sends b to P
 - If $b = 0$, P sends $z = r$. If $b = 1$, P sends $z = wr$
 - If $b = 0$, V checks $z^2 = y$. If $b = 1$, V checks $z^2 = xy$
- If $x \in QR_N$, then V always accepts
- We want to prove that if $x \notin QR_N$, then for any P^*

$$\Pr[\langle P^*, V \rangle(x) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{3}$$

- Using the fact that QR_N is a group, we can argue that

$$\Pr[\langle P^*, V \rangle(x) = 1] \geq \frac{2}{3} \implies x \in QR_N$$

- For an arbitrary PPT verifier V^* , $\text{view}_{V^*}^P(x) = \langle y, b, z \rangle$ where $z^2 = x^b y$
 - To show the protocol is ZK, consider a simulator M^* which does the following
 - M^* picks $z \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ and $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$
 - M^* sets $y = \frac{z^2}{x^b}$
 - If $V^*(y) = b$, then M^* outputs $\langle y, b, z \rangle$. Otherwise, M^* outputs \perp

ZK Proof for Quadratic Non-Residuosity

- Interactive protocol for QNR of x modulo $N = pq$
 - V picks $y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ and a bit $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$
 - If $b = 0$, V sends $z = y^2$. If $b = 1$, V sends $z = xy^2$
 - If $z \in QR_N$, P sends $b' = 0$. If $z \in \overline{QR}_N$, P sends $b' = 1$
 - V accepts if $b' = b$
- If $x \notin QR_N$, then V always accepts. Otherwise, it rejects with probability $\frac{1}{2}$
- The above protocol is HVZK but **not** ZK!
- Consider a PPT verifier V^* which wants to find out if some $u \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ is in QR_N
 - By replacing x in the above protocol with u , verifier V^* can get information about u
 - If the protocol was ZK, then there exists a PPT M^* which can get the same information without interacting with P
 - This contradicts the non-existence of PPT algorithms for checking membership in QR_N
- **Solution:** V has to prove that it either knows the square root of z or zx^{-1} to P
- The number of interaction rounds increases from 2 to 4

ZK Proof for Quadratic Non-Residuosity

- ZK Interactive protocol for QNR of x modulo $N = pq$
 - V picks $y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ and a bit $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$
 - If $b = 0$, V sends $z = y^2$. If $b = 1$, V sends $z = xy^2$
 - For $1 \leq j \leq m$,
 - V picks $r_{j,1}, r_{j,2} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ and $\text{bit}_j \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$
 - V computes $\alpha_j = r_{j,1}^2$ and $\beta_j = xr_{j,2}^2$.
 - If $\text{bit}_j = 1$, V sends $\text{pair}_j = (\alpha_j, \beta_j)$. If $\text{bit}_j = 0$, V sends $\text{pair}_j = (\beta_j, \alpha_j)$.
 - P sends V a bit string $[i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m] \in \{0, 1\}^m$
 - V sends P the sequence v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m
 - If $i_j = 0$, then $v_j = (r_{j,1}, r_{j,2})$.
 - If $i_j = 1$, then $v_j = yr_{j,1}$ if $b = 0$. So V sends a square root of $z\alpha_j$
 - If $i_j = 1$, then $v_j = xyr_{j,2}$ if $b = 1$. So V sends a square root of $z\beta_j$
 - P checks the following:
 - If $i_j = 0$, P checks if $(r_{j,1}^2, r_{j,2}^2 x)$ equals pair_j , possibly with elements in the pair interchanged.
 - If $i_j = 1$, P checks if $v_j^2 z^{-1}$ is a member of pair_j .
 - If all checks pass and $z \in QR_N$, P sends $b' = 0$. If $z \in \overline{QR}_N$, P sends $b' = 1$
 - V accepts if $b' = b$

References

- Sections 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 of *Foundations of Cryptography, Volume I* by Oded Goldreich
- Alon Rosen's lecture in the 9th BIU Winter School on Cryptography
 - <https://cyber.biu.ac.il/event/the-9th-biu-winter-school-on-cryptography/>
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