

Outsourcing computations and security

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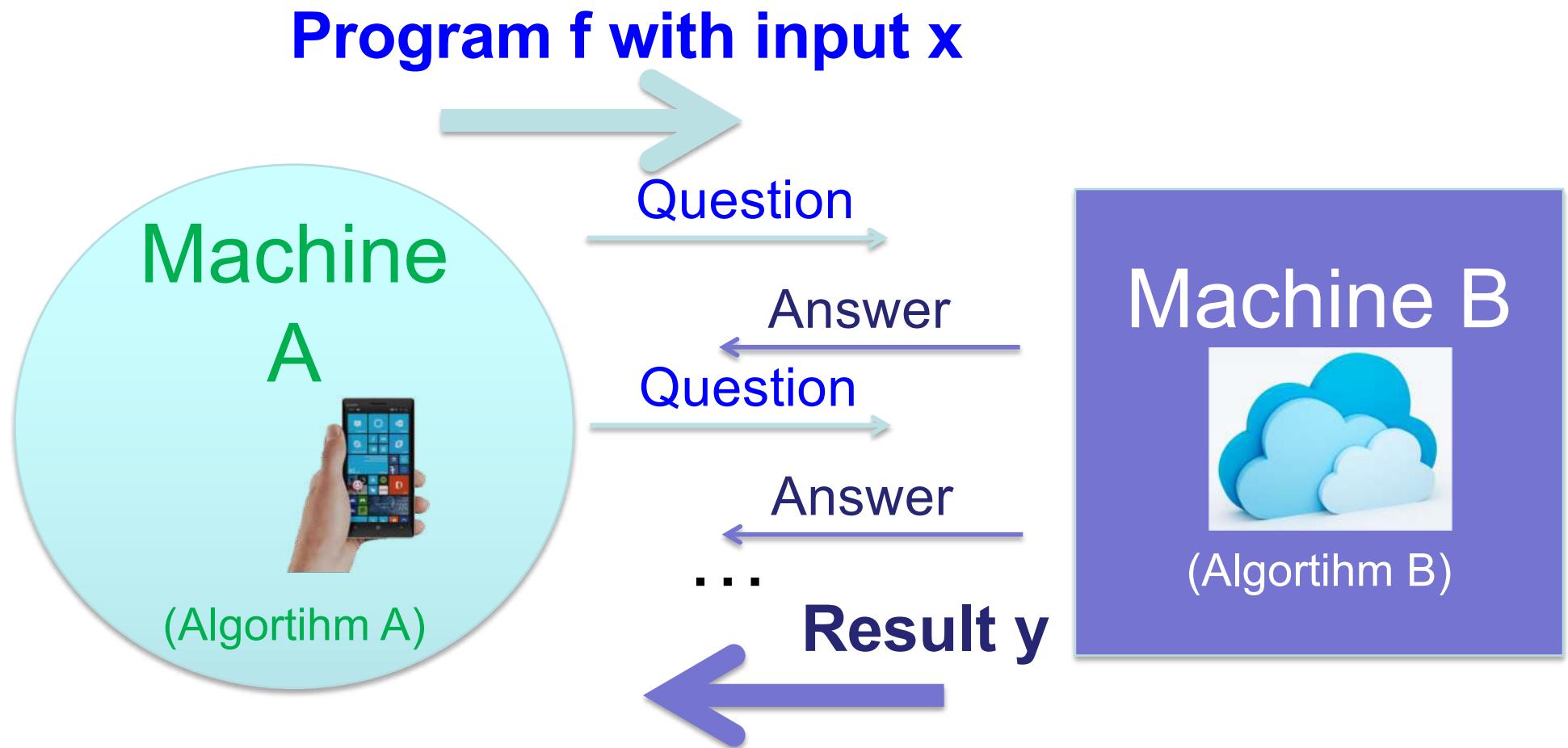
1. Computation with encrypted data : FHE
2. Interactive verification of results
3. Zero-knowledge proofs
 - Interactive zero-knowledge protocols
 - exercise
4. Secure multiparty Computations

Distributed, heterogeneous



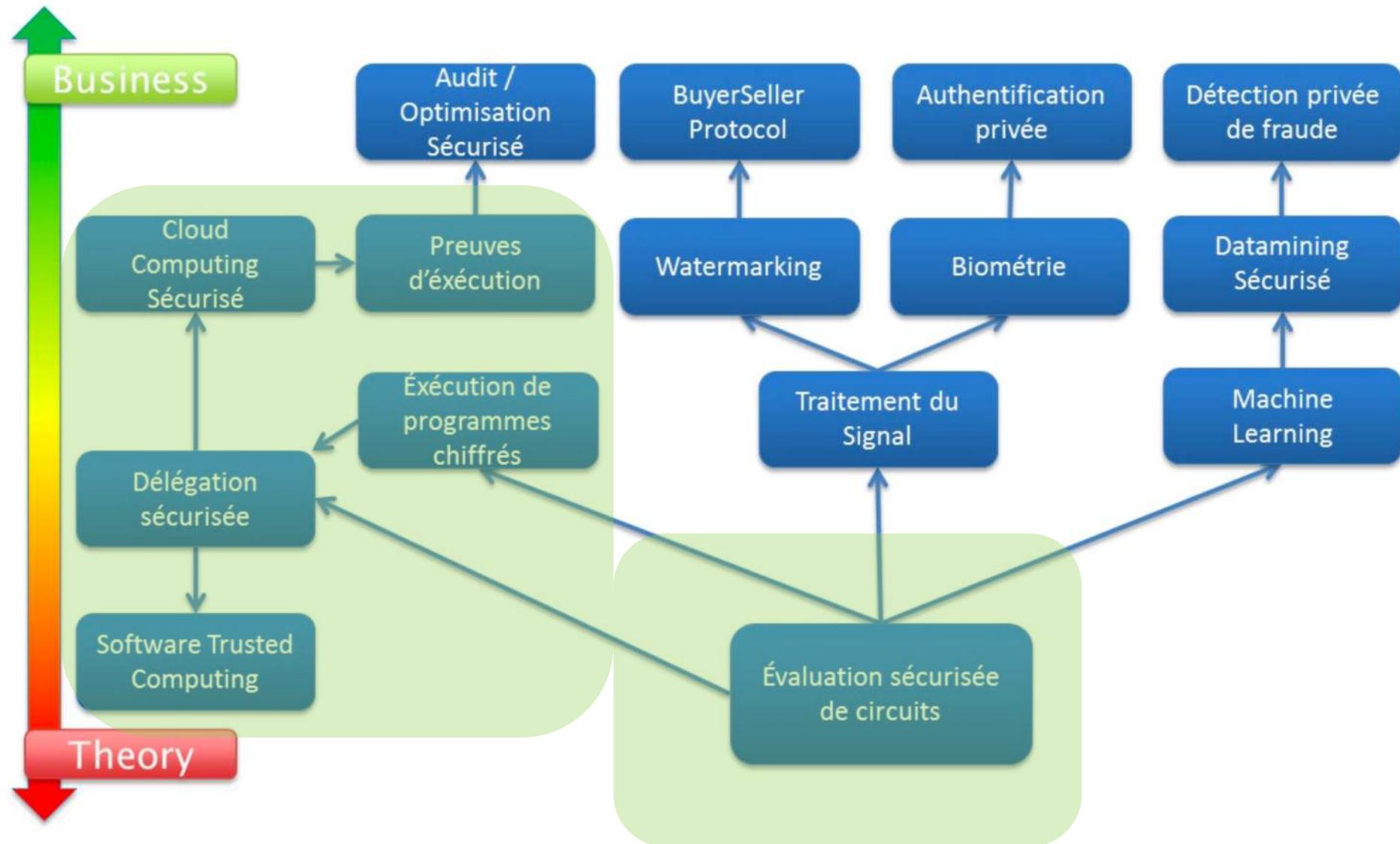
Various computing abilities and levels of trust

Outsourcing protocols and security



Trust in the result ?
=> protocols for trustfully delegation of computations

Positioning in current trends & market



Outsourcing computations and security

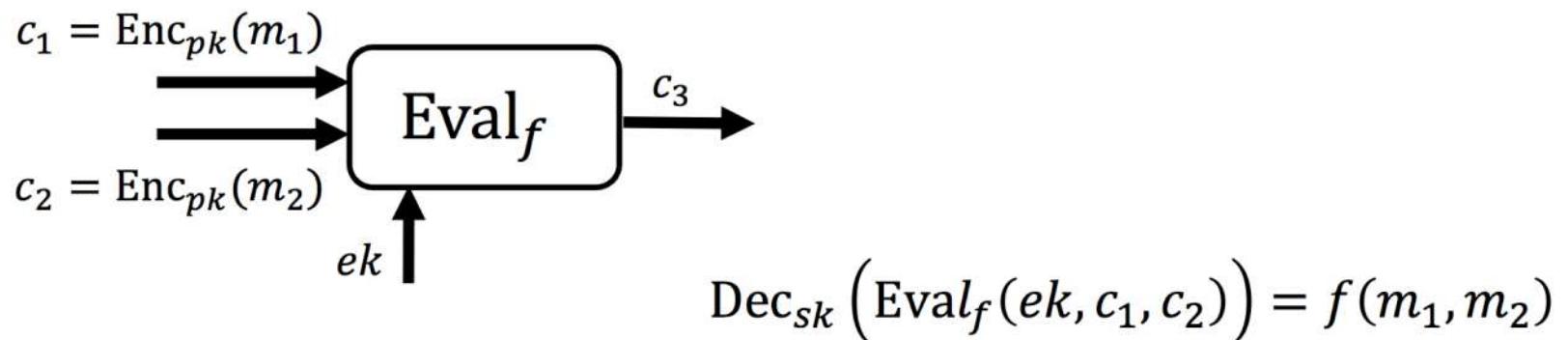
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Computations with encrypted data

- Outsourcing computation with secret input
 - Computation is performed on encrypted data
 - Based on asymmetric encryption (eg thanks to **fully homomorphic encryption**) [Gentry 2009]



Homomorphic multiplication

- **Remind El Gamal** (in cyclic group G with g a generator):
 - Bob has private key b and public key $B=g^b$
 - Alice: $c=E(m) = (c_1=g^r, c_2=m \cdot B^r)$ Bob: $D(c)=c_1^{-b} \cdot c_2 = m$
- **El Gamal enables homomorphic multiplication:**
 - $C=E(M) = (g^r, M \cdot B^r)$
 - $C'=E(M') = (g^{r'}, M' \cdot B^{r'})$
 - Multiplication of ciphertext in G matches multiplication of plaintext (*e.g. integers plaintext*)
$$\begin{aligned} C \cdot C' &= (g^r \cdot g^{r'}, M \cdot B^r \cdot M' \cdot B^{r'}) = (g^{r+r'}, M \cdot M' \cdot B^{r+r'}) \\ &= E(M \cdot M') \text{ so Bob outsources } M \cdot M' \text{ without revealing } M \text{ ad } M' \end{aligned}$$
 - Enables anyone to compute as many multiplications of ciphertexts as desired
 - **Question 1:** Does it work with RSA ?

Homomorphic encryption: El Gamal e-vote

- **Remind El Gamal** (in cyclic group G with g a generator):
 - Bob has private key b and public key $B=g^b$
 - Alice: $c=E(m) = (c_1=g^r, c_2=m \cdot B^r)$ Bob: $D(c)=c_1^{-b} \cdot c_2 = m$
- **El Gamal enables homomorphic addition** (*note Alice encrypts g^M instead of M*)
 - $C=E(g^M) = (g^r, g^M \cdot B^r)$ (**encode g^M instead of M**)
 - $C'=E(g^{M'}) = (g^{r'}, g^{M'} \cdot B^{r'})$
 - Multiplication of ciphertext in G matches addition of plaintext (*e.g. integers plaintext*)
$$C \cdot C' = (g^r \cdot g^{r'}, g^M \cdot B^r \cdot g^{M'} \cdot B^{r'}) = (g^{r+r'}, g^{M+M'} \cdot B^{r+r'})$$
$$= E(g^{M+M'})$$
 - Enables anyone to compute as many additions of ciphertexts as desired
 - **Question 1:** if $M+M'$ small, how to decrypt $M+M'$ from $g^{M+M'}$ without discrete log ?
- **Application: electronic vote by homomorphic addition of small integers**
 - Each voter (Alice) sends her encrypted vote v (0 or 1) to the voting machine (Bob) :
 - $C(0)=(g^r, B^r)$ $C(1)=(g^r, g \cdot B^r)$: each voter checks her encrypted vote is correctly stored
 - Each one can compute the encrypted score of the vote : $\prod_{\text{voter}}(C) = (g^{\sum r}, g^{\sum v} \cdot B^{\sum r})$
 - The voting machine knows secret b : it computes $g^{\sum v}$ and publishes score Σv and Σr
 - **Question 2:** How the voting machine computes $\sum_{\text{voters}} v$ from $\prod_{\text{voter}}(C) = (g^{\sum r}, g^{\sum v} \cdot B^{\sum r})$?
 - **Question 3 :** How each voter verifies the result $\sum_{\text{voters}} v$?

Fully Homomorphic Encryption (FHE)

- Does there exist homomorphic boolean encryption ? => YES [Craig 2010]
- **Somewhat Fully Homomorphic Encryption** [Marten van Dijk, Craig Gentry, Shai Halevi, Vinod Vaikuntanathan]
 - Secret p : a large odd integer (eg thousands of digits)
 - For $x \in \{0,1\}$: $E(x) = pq + 2.r + x$
With random $q \sim$ million of digits and $r \sim$ twenty digits (the **noise**)
 - Knowing p : $(E(x) \bmod p) \bmod 2 = (2.r+x) \bmod 2 = x$
 - Without knowing p : $E(x)$ give no information
- **Fully homomorphic with x and y booleans:**
 - $E(x)+E(x')=p.(q+q') + 2(r+r')+x+x' \Rightarrow \bmod p \bmod 2 = x \text{ XOR } x'$
 - $E(x).E(x')=p (pqq'+q(2r'+x')+q'(2r+x)) + 2(2rr'+rx'+r'x) + x.x' \Rightarrow \bmod p \bmod 2 = x \text{ AND } x'$
 - Beware : AND and XOR operations increase the noise
 - If noise r larger than p , decryption is impossible (eg if $2r = p.u+v$ then $(E(x) \bmod p) \bmod 2 = (v+x) \bmod 2$)
 - choice of p and the q 's large enough!
- Anyway with operations, the noise increases and may become larger than p
Key Gentry's idea: *remote bootstrapping*
 - Refresh the noise by outsourcing « $\bmod p$ » on the cipher domain
homomorphic computation with AND and XOR (so without revealing p , only its ciphering !)
- Many applications of FHE :
 - example: outsourcing AES encryption/decryption !

Outsourcing and privacy

- Homomorphic scheme enables to outsource encryption with secret key (or signature)
- Homomorphic encryption enables publicly Verifiable computation [Fiore, Gennaro 2012, ...]
 - Server computes on private data and produces a verifiable digest of the computation
 - Enables some verification of the computation
 - Different from a direct result certification

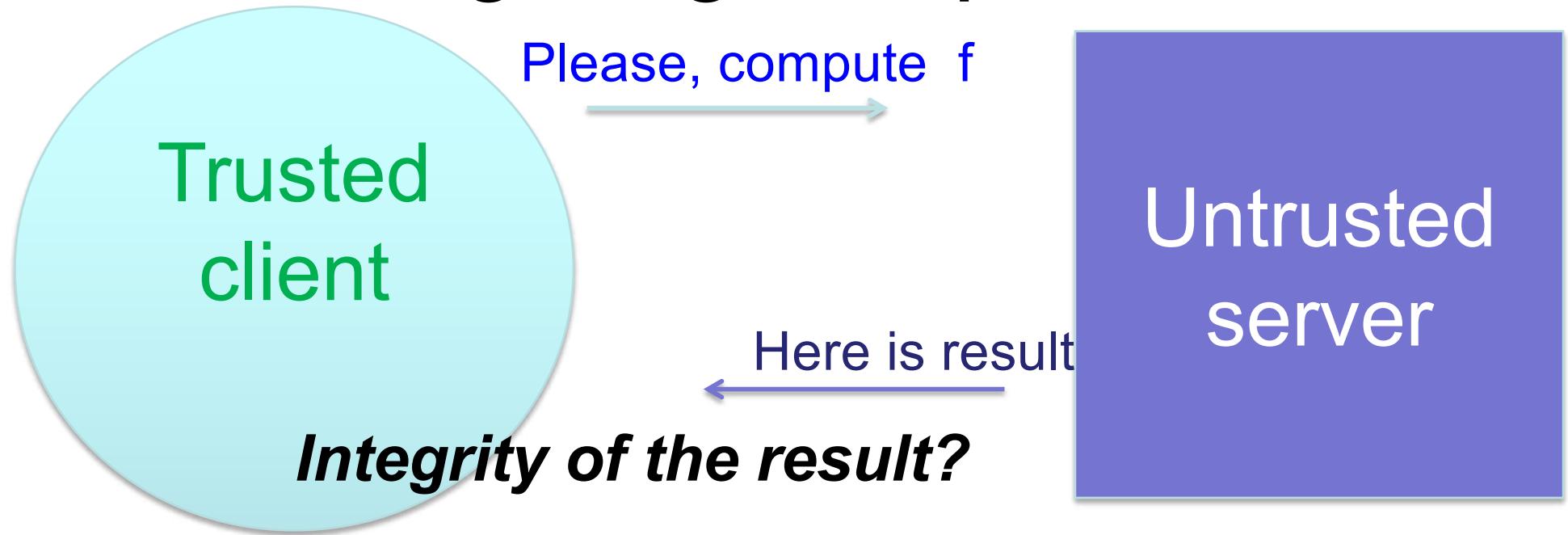
Outsourcing computations and security

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2. **Interactive verification of results**
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 - exercise
4. Multiparty computations

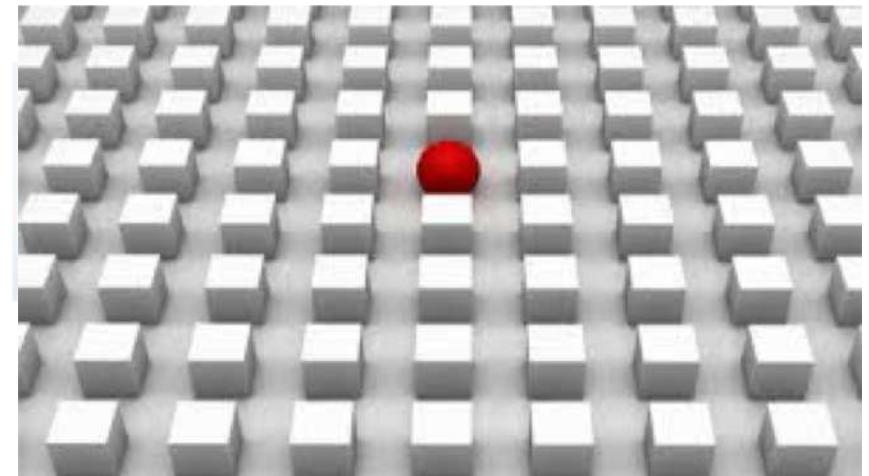
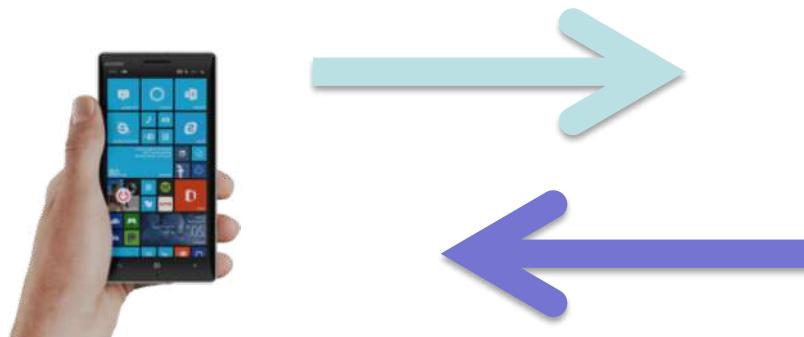
Delegating computation



- Contexts
 - Co-processor (overclocked...)
 - Supercomputer (soft errors)
 - Cloud computing
 - Volunteer computing

Attack models

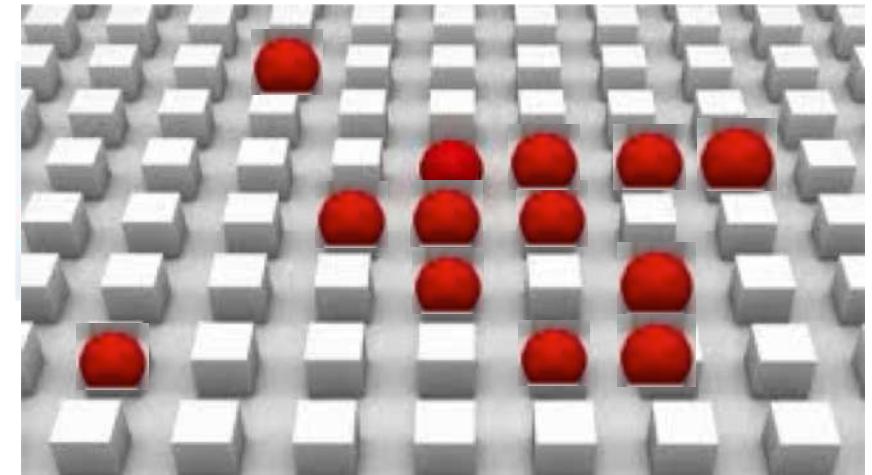
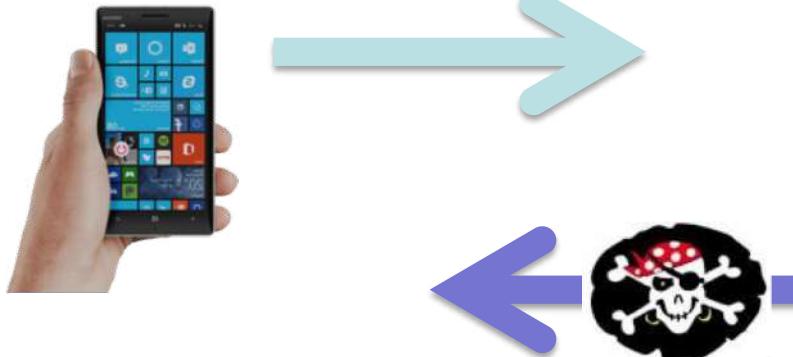
- No attack [current HPC and grid computing platform]
 - Failure (MTBF)



- **Attack on few isolated resources**
 - Soft errors - corruption of part of the computation

Attack models

- No attack [current HPC and grid computing platform]
 - Failure (MTBF)

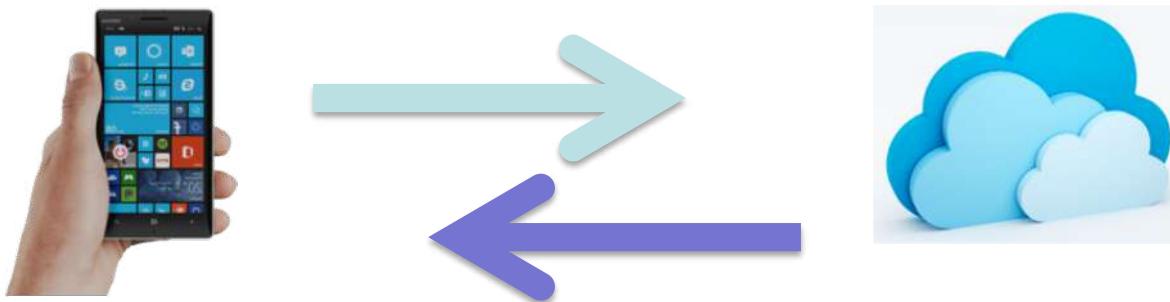


- **Attack on few isolated resources**
 - Soft errors - corruption of part of the computation
- **Massive attacks**

Countermeasures against such attacks (detect/correct)

Verifiable [outsourced] computation

- Trusted but slow Client (Verifier, Victor) sends a function F with input x to the server



- Fast but untrusted Server (Prover, Peggy) returns $y = F(x)$ and a proof Π that y is correct.

Computing Π should take almost same time than F .

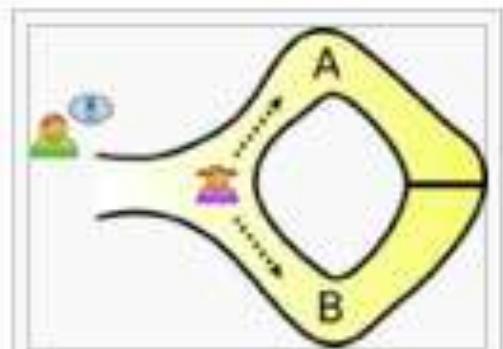
Verifying Π should take less time than computing F .

Motivating example

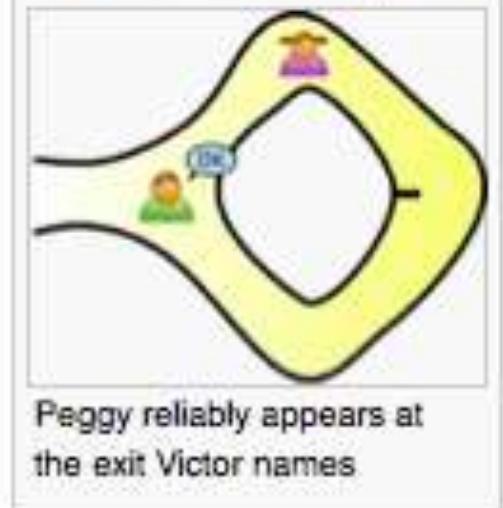
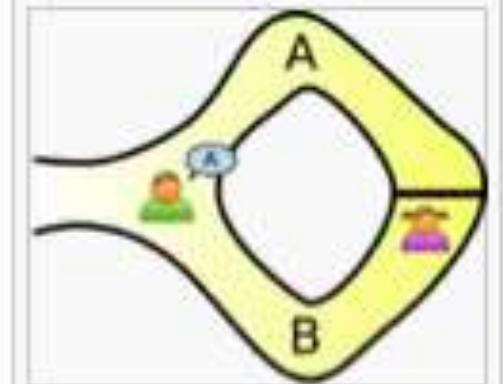
- Peggy has developed a nice application that efficiently solves Traveling Salesman Problem
- Victor sends Peggy the location (map) of his clients and pays her for the shortest Hamiltonian circuit
- Can Victor check he really gets the shortest?

Example [wikipedia]

- A tunnel, closed by a trapdoor rock.
- Ali Baba knows the secret
 - « Iftah Ya Simsim » («Open Sesame»)
 - "Close, Simsim" («Close Sesame»).
- Victor design a protocol that « proves » Ali Baba gets the secret without revealing it
 - Ali Baba (indeed Peggy) is *the Prover*
 - Victor is *the Verifier*
 - Peggy leaks no information (*0-knowledge*)



Peggy randomly takes either path A or B, while Victor waits outside



Proof and Interactive proof

- Importance of « proof » in crypto: eg. identity proof=authentication
- Two parts in a proof:
 - Prover: knows the proof (-> the secret) [or is intended to know]
 - Verifier: verifies the proof is correct (-> authentication)
- Correctness of a proof system/verifier:
 - **Completeness:** *every valid proof is accepted* by the verifier
 - **Soundness:** *every invalid proof is rejected* by the verifier
- Interactive proof system
 - Protocol (questions/answers) between the verifier and the prover
 - Verifier: **probabilistic** algorithm, **polynomially bounded**
 - Soundness: every invalid proof is rejected with good probability ($\geq c > 1/2$)
 - Competeness: every valid proof is accepted with good probability ($\geq c' > 1/2$)

Decision problem

Does x belongs to L ?

- Verifier
 - An element x
 - Ask questions to prover to determine : « $x \in? L$ »
 - Gets answer:
 - Completeness: Is convinced that x in L , if so
 - Soundness: reject « x in L » if not so

Fundamental theorem [Goldreich&al]

- Def: IP = set of decision problem that admits a randomized polynomial time verification algorithm
i.e. both size of transcripts and number of operations performed by verifier are polynomial
- $\text{IP} = \text{PSPACE}$
 - NP included in IP .
- Any (PSPACE) computation admits a randomized deterministic polynomial verification algorithm.

Exercise: authentication based on quadratic residue (1/3)

- A **trusted third part T** provides a Blum integer $n=p \cdot q$; n is public.
- **Alice (Prover) builds her secret and public keys:**
 - chooses a random s coprime to n
 - Compute $v := (s^2) \text{ mod } n$. [NB v ranges over all square coprime to n]
 $v = \text{quadratic residue}$ that admits $s = \text{modular square root}$
 - Alice Secret key: s - Alice Public key: v and identity photo registered by T
- Naïve authentication protocol : **Bob (Verifier)** authenticates Alice as follows:
 1. Alice chooses a random $r < n$; she sends $y = r^2 \text{ mod } n$ and $z = r \cdot s \text{ mod } n$ to Bob.
 2. Bob authenticates iff $z^2 = y \cdot v \text{ mod } n$.
- Question : does this protocol ensures :
 1. Completeness ? (ie anyone who knows the secret key s is accepted)
 2. Soundness ? (ie anyone who doesn't know the secret key s is rejected)

Exercise: authentication based on quadratic residue (2/3)

- A **trusted third part T** provides a Blum integer $n=p \cdot q$; n is public.
- **Alice (Prover) builds her secret and public keys:**
 - chooses a random s coprime to n
 - Compute $v := (s^2) \text{ mod } n$. [NB v ranges over all square coprime to n]
 $v = \text{quadratic residue}$ that admits $s = \text{modular square root}$
 - Alice Secret key: s - Alice Public key: v and identity photo registered by P
- Authentication protocol : **Bob (Verifier)** authenticates Alice as follows:
 1. Alice chooses a random $r < n$; she sends $y = r^2 \text{ mod } n$ to Bob.
 2. Bob sends a uniformly random bit : b (ie b is either 0 or 1 with probability 1/2)
 3. Alice computes $z := rs^b \text{ mod } n$ and sends z to Bob.
Bob authenticates iff $z^2 = y \cdot v^b \text{ mod } n$.
- Question : does this protocol ensures :
 1. Completeness ? (ie anyone who knows the secret key s is accepted)
 2. Soundness ? (ie anyone who doesn't know the secret key s is rejected)

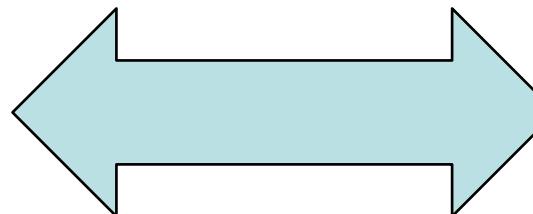
Exercise: authentication based on quadratic residue (3/3)

- A **trusted third part T** provides a Blum integer $n=p \cdot q$; n is public.
- **Alice (Prover) builds her secret and public keys:**
 - For $i=1, \dots, k$: chooses at random s_i coprime to n
 - Compute $v_i := (s_i^2) \bmod n$. [NB v_i ranges over all square coprime to n]
 $v_i = \text{quadratic residue}$ that admits $s_i = \text{modular square root}$
 - Secret key: s_1, \dots, s_k
 - Public key: v_1, \dots, v_k and identity photo, ... registered by T
- Authentication protocol : **Bob (Verifier)** authenticates Alice as follows:
 1. Alice chooses a random $r < n$; she sends $y = r^2 \bmod n$ to Bob.
 2. Bob sends a random bits: b_1, \dots, b_k
 3. Alice computes $z := r s_1^{b_1} \cdot \dots \cdot s_k^{b_k} \bmod n$ and sends z to Bob.
Bob authenticates iff $z^2 = y \cdot v_1^{b_1} \cdot \dots \cdot v_k^{b_k} \bmod n$.
- Question : prove that this protocol provides:
 1. Completeness (ie anyone who knows the secret key s is accepted)
 2. Soundness with error probability $\leq 2^{-k}$
(ie anyone who doesn't know the secret key s is rejected with proba $\geq 1 - 2^{-k}$)

The power of interaction

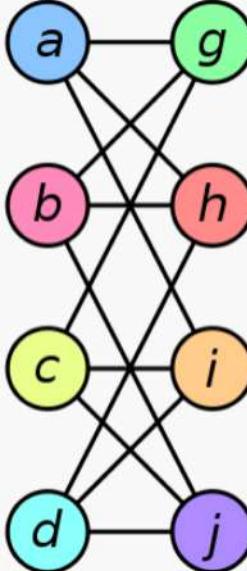
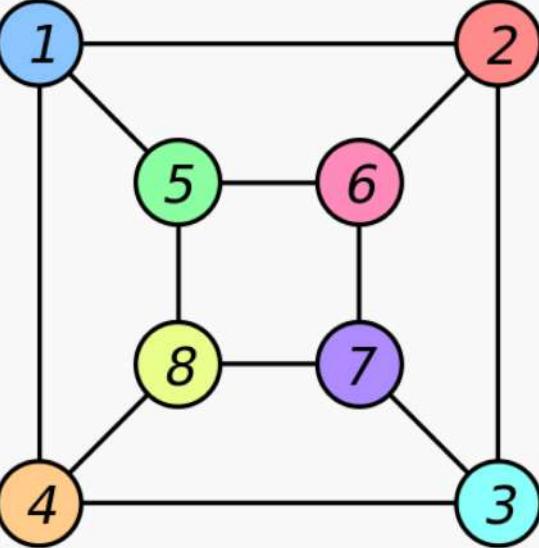


Verifier
(Victor)



Prover
(Peggy)

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

Graph G	Graph H	An isomorphism between G and H
		$\begin{aligned}f(a) &= 1 \\f(b) &= 6 \\f(c) &= 8 \\f(d) &= 3 \\f(g) &= 5 \\f(h) &= 2 \\f(i) &= 4 \\f(j) &= 7\end{aligned}$

On 2010/10/24, 8 am

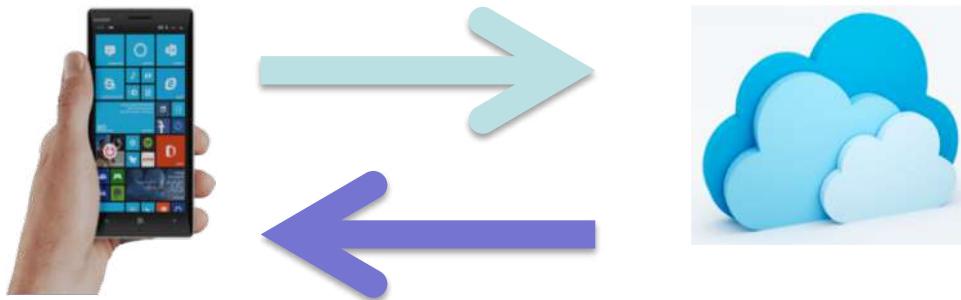
- $\in \text{NP}$, but not known to be in NP or in NP -complete or in NP -intermediate
- Does it belongs to co-NP or not ? (Open question)
- but Subgraph isomorphism problem is NP -complete

Example of interactive computation

- Graph isomorphism:
 - Input: $G=(V,E)$ and $G'=(V',E')$
 - Output: YES iff $G == G'$ (i.e. a permutation of $V \rightarrow V'$ makes $E=E'$)
- In NP but not known today to be NP-complete or in P
 - In 2015, Babai proposes a quasi-polynomial algorithm [$2^{O(\log^k n)}$]
(a bug was claimed on 2017/1/1 and fix on 2017/1/7)
- Not known to be in co-NP
- Assume an NP Oracle for Graph isomorphism =>
then a probabilistic verifier can verifies that two graphs are not isomorphic in polynomial time.
 - Protocol and error probability analysis.

Interactive graph [non]-isomorphism

- Victor
 - Toss $b := \text{rand}\{1,2\}$
 - $H := \text{random_permutation}(E_b)$
 - Asks Peggy: to which H is isomorphic to : E_1 or E_2 ?



Peggy returns y and Π

- Victor checks Π and if OK
 - If $y \neq b$: Victor has a proof that E_1 isomorphic to E_2
 - Else $y = b$: Victor stated that E_1 is not isomorphic to E_2 with error probability $\frac{1}{2}$

Interactive Algorithm Graph Isomorphism

Verifier

```
AlgoGraphIso(G1=(V1,E1), G2=(V2,E2) ) {  
    If (#V1 != #V2) or (#E1 != #E2)  
        return "NO : G1 not isomorphic to G2";  
    n := #V1 ;  
    For (i=1 .. k) {  
        P := randompermutation([1, ..., n]) ;  
        b := random({1,2}) ;  
        G' := P(Gb) ;  
        ( i, Pi) := Call OracleWhichIsIso(G1, G2, G') ;  
        If (Gi ≠ Pi(G')) FAILURE("Oracle is not reliable") ;  
        If ( b ≠ i) return "YES : G1 is isomorphic to G2" ;  
    }  
    return "NO : G1 not isomorphic to G2";  
}
```

Prover

```
OracleWhichIsIso(G1, G2, G') {  
    // precondition: G' is isomorphic to  
    // G1 or G2 or both.  
    // Output: i into {1,2} and a permutation  
    // Pi such that Gi = P( G' )  
    ... ;  
    Return ( i, Pi ) ;  
}
```

Theorem: Assuming OracleWhichIsIso of polynomial time,
AlgoGraphIso(G₁, G₂) proves in polynomial time $k \cdot n^{O(1)}$ that :

- either G₁ is isomorphic to G₂ (no error)
- or G₁ is not isomorphic with error probability $\leq 2^{-k}$.

Thus, it is a MonteCarlo (randomized) algorithm for proving GRAPH ISOMORPHISM

Analysis of error probability

<i>Truth:</i> $G_1 = G_2 ??$	<i>Prob(Output of AlgoGraphIso(G_1, G_2))</i>	“YES : G_1 is isomorphic to G_2 ”	“NO: G_1 not isomorphic to G_2 ”
Case $G_1 = G_2$ (completeness)		Prob = $1 - 2^{-k}$	Prob = 2^{-k}
No: Case $G_1 \neq G_2$ (soundness)		Impossible (Prob = 0)	Always (Prob = 1)

-When the algorithm output YES : G_1 is isomorphic to G_2 then $G_1 = G_2$
=> no error on this output.

-When the algorithm output “NO: G_1 not isomorphic to G_2 ” then we may have an error (iff $G_1 = G_2$), but with a probability $\leq 2^{-k}$

One-sided error => Monte Carlo algorithm for Graph-Isomorphism

Efficient verifiable computing by spot checking

- Check polynomial equality by random evaluation [Schwartz-Zippel]
 - Choose r_1, \dots, r_n at random in a subset S of a field
 - If $Q(r_1, \dots, r_n) = 0$ then $Q = 0$ with error probability $\leq \deg(Q) / |S|$
- Example: *Verifying matrix multiplication* (**Friedval's algorithm**)
 - To check $C = A \cdot B$, choose a random vector r and verify $C \cdot r = A \cdot (B \cdot r)$

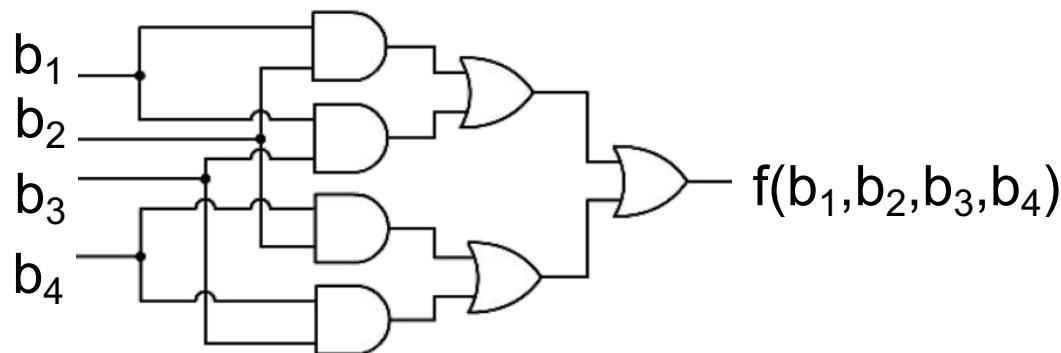
Cost : linear in $\text{size}(A) + \text{size}(B) + \text{size}(C)$

Interactive linear algebra

- Most dense linear algebra reduces to Matrix multiplication
 - Locally compute the (recursive) scheme in $O(n^2)$ while outsourcing all Matrix Multiplications
 - [Algorithm-Based Secure and Fault Tolerant Outsourcing of Matrix Computations, A Kumar, JL Roch, HAL 2013]
- Alternatively provide efficient certificates for sparse linear algebra
 - [Interactive certificates for linear algebra, JD Dumas, E Kaltofen, ISSAC 2014]

Verifying general circuits

- Inputs : $b_1 \dots b_n$ Outputs : $y_1 \dots y_m$
- How to verify $y_1 \dots y_m = f(b_1 \dots b_n)$



The power of interaction

- Theorem : $\text{IP} = \text{PSPACE}$
- Any problem in PSPACE has a polynomial verifier
 - TQBF (quantified Boolean formula problem)
- A polynomial interactive scheme for #SAT

P, NP, IP = PSACE

Complexity classes

Decision problems (1 output bit: YES/ NO)

Deterministic polynomial time:

- P : both Yes/No sides
- NP : certification for the Yes side
- co-NP: certification for the No side

Randomized polynomial time:

- BPP: Atlantic City: $\text{prob(error)} < 1/2$
- RPP: Monte Carlo: $\text{prob(error YES side)}=0$; $\text{prob(error NO side)}< 1/2$
- ZPP: Las Vegas: $\text{prob(failure)}<1/2$ but $\text{prob(error)}=0$

IP Interactive proof

- Verifier: randomized polynomial time
- Prover: interactive (dynamic), unbound power
 - $F(x) = \text{YES} \Rightarrow$ it exists a correct prover Π such that $\text{Prob[Verifier } (\Pi, x) \text{ accepts]} = 1$;
 - $F(x) = \text{NO} \Rightarrow$ for all prover Π : $\text{Prob[Verifier } (\Pi, x) \text{ accepts]} < 1/2$.
- Theorem: $\text{IP} = \text{PSPACE}$ (interaction with randomized algorithms helps!)

PCP: Probabilistic Checkable Proofs (static proof)

- $\text{PCP}(r, q)$: the verifier uses random bits and reads q bits of the proof only.
- Theorem: $\text{NP} = \text{PCP}(\log n, O(1))$

#3-SAT in IP

- Arithmetization in F_2 : each clause c has a poly. $Q(c)$
 - $Q(\text{not}(x)) = 1-x$ $Q(x \text{ and } y) = x.y$
 - $Q(x \text{ or not}(y) \text{ or } z) = Q(\text{not}(\text{not}(x)) \text{ and } y \text{ and not}(z)) = 1 - ((1-x).y.(1-z))$
- Let $F = c_1 \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } c_m$ a 3-SAT CNF formula, and
 $g(X_1, \dots, X_n) = Q(c_1).Q(C_2). \dots .Q(c_m) : \deg(g) \leq 3m$
Then $\#F = \sum_{b_1=0,1} \dots \sum_{b_n=0,1} g(b_1, \dots, b_n)$
- Since $\#F \leq 2^n$, for $p > 2^n$, $(\#F = K)$ is equivalent to $(\#F = K \bmod p)$
 - To limit to a polynomial number of operations, computation is performed mod a prime p in $2^n \dots 2^{n+1}$ (provided by prover and checked by verifier)
- Let $h_n(X_n) = \sum_{b_1=0,1} \dots \sum_{b_{n-1}=0,1} g(b_1, b_2, \dots, b_{n-1}, X_n)$:
 h_n is an univariate polynomial (in X_n) of degree $\leq m$

#3-SAT: interactive polynomial proof

Verifier

input: $F(X_1, \dots, X_n) = (c_1 \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } c_m)$
K an integer; let $g(x) = \prod_{i=1,n} \text{Pol}(c_i)$

Accepts iff convinced that $\#F = K$.

Preliminar receive p, check p is prime in $\{2^n, 2^{2n}\}$

Compute $g(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i=1,n} \text{Pol}(c_i)$ $\deg(g) \leq 3m$

Check $K = \sum_{X_1=0,1} \dots \sum_{X_n=0,1} g(X_1, \dots, X_n) [p]$:

1. If $n=1$, if $(g(0)+g(1) = K)$ accept ; else reject.

If $n \geq 2$, ask $h_n(X)$ to P.

3. Receive $s(X)$ of degree $\leq m$.

Compute $v = s(0) + s(1)$; if $(v \neq K)$ reject.

Else choose $r = \text{random}(0, \dots, p-1)$; let $K_n = s(r)$
and use the same protocol to check

$K_n = \sum_{X_1=0,1} \dots \sum_{X_{n-1}=0,1} g(X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}, r) [p]$

Prover

Preliminar: sends p prime in $\{2^n, 2^{2n}\}$

2. Send $s(X)$; [note that if P is not cheating, $s(X) = h_n(X)$]

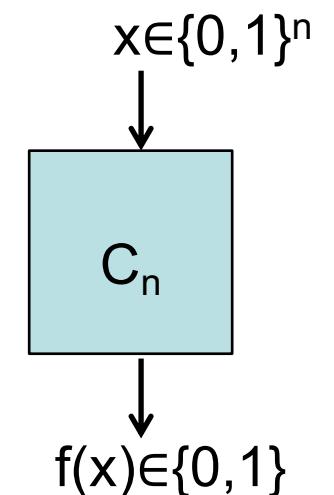
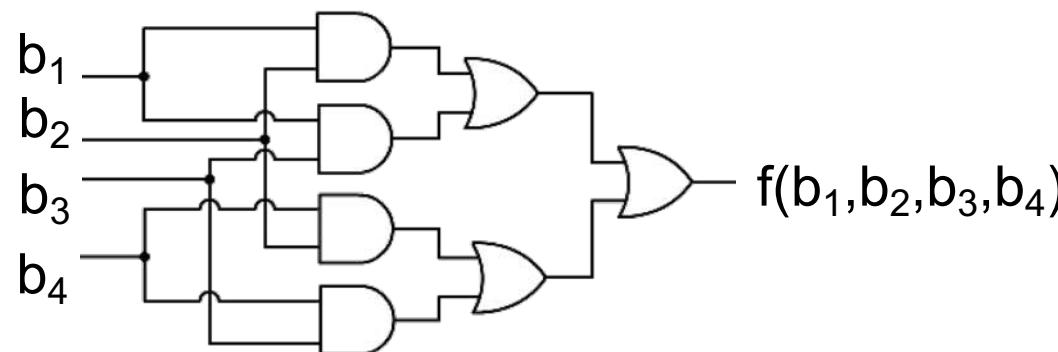
Theorem: This is a sound and complete, polynomial time randomized
interactive proof of #3-SAT.

Moreover, $\text{prob}(V \text{ rejects } | K \neq \#F) \geq (1-m/p)^n$,
also $\text{prob}(\text{error}) \leq 1 - (1-m/p)^n \leq mn2^{-n}$.

[Lund, Fortnow, Karloff, Nisan 1992]

A key tool: the **sum-check** protocol

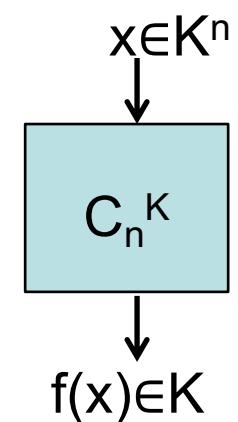
- **Input** : a (boolean) circuit C_n of depth δ that implements a function f with n bits in input :



- **Output** : $S_n = \sum_{b_1=0,1} \dots \sum_{b_n=0,1} f(b_1, \dots, b_n)$
- Let $d=2^\delta$: #usefull gates $\leq d$.
Theorem: The verifier *interactively* computes S_n in polynomial time $(n+d)^{O(1)}$. (if $\delta=O(\log n)$, polynomial in n)
- Application: number of elements that verify a predicate (#SAT)

Key 1: Arithmetization

- Transform the boolean circuit C_n in an arithmetic circuit C_n^2 in any field K (eg mod p) :
 - $x \text{ and } y = x \cdot_K y$ $\text{not}(x) = 1 - x$
 - $x \text{ or } y = \text{not}(\text{not}(x) \text{ and } \text{not}(y)) = 1 -_K (1 -_K x) \cdot_K (1 -_K y)$
- Transform the circuit C_n^2 in a circuit C_n^K with input in a (large) field K .
 - Gates are $+$ and x in K
 - When inputs are 0 or 1, the output is the same than C_n
- Now, the circuit can be seen as a polynomial in n variables (the input) with degree d
 - For $m=\log \#K$, the circuit can be evaluated in time $(nm)^{O(1)}$, polynomial for any [random] input in K^n .
- **Key 2: induction on the number of sum**
 - Each sub-sum is verified with Schwartz-Zippel

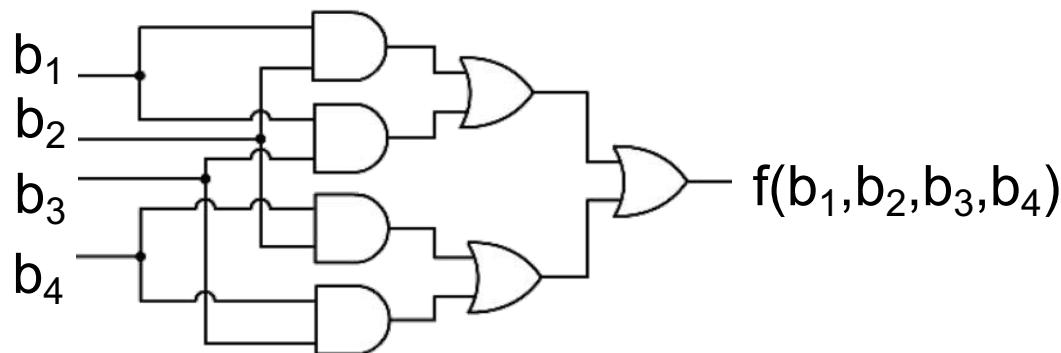


Interactive verification of #3-SAT

- Let: $\Phi = (c_1 \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } c_m)$ be a 3-SAT CNF formula
- Arithmetization of Φ gives $g(X_1, \dots, X_n) = Q(c_1) \cdot Q(c_2) \dots Q(c_m)$
- $\text{Deg}(g) \leq 3m$ (small)
Polynomial-size circuit to evaluate g at any (b_1, \dots, b_n)
- To prove $\#\text{SAT}(\Phi)=K$ reduces to a sequence of sum-check
 - computation in F_p with p prime $> 2^n$

Verifying general circuits

- Inputs : $b_1 \dots b_n$ Outputs : $y_1 \dots y_m$
- How to verify $y_1 \dots y_m = f(b_1 \dots b_n)$



[Goldwasser, Kalai, Rothblum 2008][Thaler Crypto 2015]

Outsourcing general circuits

- Circuits C with n inputs and outputs,
 - Work W , depth D
 - Each level is of degree 1 (multilinear extension)
- Computation is valid iff all levels are corrects
 - Verified by a sum-check at each level
- Cost = $(N + D) \log^{O(1)} (N + W)$
- Optimization when the computation resumes to a reduction of independent parallel computations

Illustration on Matrix Multiplication

- Let A and B matrices (n,n) in K with $m = \log_2 n$
- A is a (boolean) function $\{0,1\}^m \times \{0,1\}^m \rightarrow K$:
$$A(i_1, \dots, i_m, j_1, \dots, j_m) = A(i, j)$$
- Let g_A be the polynomial multilinear extension of A
- The g_C verifies
$$g_C(i_1, \dots, i_m, j_1, \dots, j_m) = \sum_{k=0..n} g_A(i_1, \dots, i_m, k_1, \dots, k_m) \cdot g_B(k_1, \dots, k_m, j_1, \dots, j_m)$$
- With the sum-check protocol, this sum of n elements is verified in $O(\log n)$
- Generalizes to parallel computations with logarithmic depth (NC1)

Practical efficiency ?

- Further improvements [Thaler]
 - Sum of products only
 - Same circuit for any coefficient

Problem Size	Naïve MatMult Time	Additional P time	V Time	Rounds	Protocol Comm
1024 x 1024	2.17 s	0.03 s	0.67 s	11	264 bytes
2048 x 2048	18.23 s	0.13 s	2.89 s	12	288 bytes

- Yet far from Fiedvald's verification

What have we learned ?

- Interactive proof : generalization of a mathematical proof in which a prover interacts with a polynomial-time probabilistic verifier:
 - Completeness and soundness
- Input: x , proof of property $L(x)$
Correct proof: x is accepted iff $L(x)$ is true.
 - Completeness : any x : $L(x)=\text{true}$ is accepted (with prob $\geq 2/3$).
 - Soundess : any y : $L(y)=\text{false}$ is rejected (with prob $\geq 2/3$).
- Powerful interactive proof w.r.t. « static » proof
 - IP = PSACE

Conclusion on outsourcing

- Verifying delegated computation
 - Interaction between models provides power
 - Enables the provable use of untrusted platforms
 - Overclocked processors, algorithms with faults, quantum computing, ...
 - Fully Homomorphic Encryption (powerful but yet expensive)
 - Current research to improve FHE efficiency
- On going research - Applications
 - Cloud computing. (web services)
 - Outsourced fault-tolerant computation
 - Secure remote storage (privacy)
 - Secure control-command for critical infratscture (SCADA)
 - A promising market (eg digital doctor)



<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1MCa4d00OLQ>

Outsourcing computations and security

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1. Computation with encrypted data : FHE
2. Interactive verification of results
- 3. Zero-knowledge proofs**
 - Interactive zero-knowledge protocols
 - exercise
4. Secure multiparty computations

Interactive proof and zero knowledge protocols

- Zero-knowledge: definition
- Probabilistic complexity classes and Interactive proofs
 - Graph isomorphism and PCP
- Some zero knowledge protocols:
 - Feige-Fiat-Shamir authentication protocol
 - Extension to signature
 - Guillou-Quisquater authentication and signature
- Computational Complexity: A Modern Approach. Sanjeev Arora and Boaz Barak
<http://www.cs.princeton.edu/theory/complexity/>
- Handbook of Applied Cryptography [Menezes, van Oorschot, Vanstone]
- Applied Cryptography [Schneier]
- Contemporary cryptography [Opplinger]

The power of interaction



Verifier
(Victor)



Prover
(Peggy)

Zero knowledge

- How to state that the prover leaks *no information* ?



all interactive informations provided by the prover (ie the transcripts) could have been produced offline by the verifier himself alone!

=> by stating the verifier can produce the transcript of the protocol in (expected) polynomial time alone, with no help of the prover !

- **Def:** a sound and correct interactive protocol is **zero-knowledge** if there exists a *non-interactive randomized polynomial time* algorithm (named « **simulator** ») which, for any input x accepted by the verifier (using interaction with the prover) can produce transcripts indistinguishable from those resulting from interaction with the real prover.
- **Consequence:** releases no information to an observer.

Graph [non]-isomorphism and zero knowledge

- In a zero-knowledge protocol, the verifier learns that G_1 is isomorphic to G_2 but nothing else.

Previous protocol (slide 24 or next) **not known to be zero-knowledge:**
correct transcript $X=(G', i, P')$ with $G' = P_{\text{rand}}(G_{\text{rand}})$ and $G_i = P'(G')$

- If $G_1 \neq G_2$: (we have $b=i$) \Rightarrow Entropy(transcript X) = $1 + \log n!$
Simulation: $(P'^{-1}(G_i), i=\text{rand}(1,2), P'=\text{RandPerm}) ==_{\text{distribution}} X$
 \Rightarrow No information revealed !
- If G_1 is isomorphic to G_2 : Prover sends the permutation P_i such that $G_1 = P_i(G_2)$: then i is independent from G'
Entropy(transcript X) = $2 + \log n!$
so the verifier learns 1 additional bit to only a random bit and a random permutation



Non-known zero knowledge Interactive Algorithm Graph Isomorphism

Verifier

```
AlgoGraphIso(G1=(V1,E1), G2=(V2,E2) ) {  
    If (#V1 != #V2) or (#E1 != #E2)  
        return "NO : G1 not isomorphic to G2";  
    n := #V1 ;  
    For (i=1 .. k) {  
        P := randompermutation([1, ..., n]) ;  
        b := random({1,2}) ;  
        G' := P(Gb) ;  
        ( i, Pi) := Call OracleWhichIsIso(G1, G2, G') ;  
        If (Gi ≠ Pi(G')) FAILURE("Oracle is not reliable") ;  
        If ( b ≠ i) return "YES : G1 is isomorphic to G2" ;  
    }  
    return "NO : G1 not isomorphic to G2";  
}
```

Prover

```
OracleWhichIsIso(G1, G2, G') {  
    // precondition: G' is isomorphic to  
    // G1 or G2 or both.  
    // Output: i into {1,2} and a permutation  
    // Pi such that Gi = P( G' )  
    ... ;  
    Return ( i, Pi ) ;  
}
```

Theorem: Assuming OracleWhichIsIso of polynomial time,
AlgoGraphIso(G₁, G₂) proves in polynomial time $k \cdot n^{O(1)}$ that :

- either G₁ is isomorphic to G₂ (no error)
- or G₁ is not isomorphic with error probability $\leq 2^{-k}$.

Thus, it is a MonteCarlo (randomized) algorithm for proving GRAPH ISOMORPHISM

A zero-knowledge interactive proof for Graph Isomorphism

Verifier

input: $(G_1=(V_1, E_1), G_2=(V_2, E_2))$

Accepts prover if convinced that G_1 is isomorphic to G_2

2. Receives H ;

Chooses $b=\text{random}(1,2)$ and sends b to the prover

4. receives P'' and checks $H = P''(G_b)$

Prover

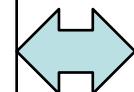
gets G_1, G_2

private secret perm. $P_s: G_2=P_s(G_1)$

1. Chooses a random perm. P' and sends to verifier $H=P'(G_2)$

3. Receives b ;

if $b=1$ sends $P''=P' \circ P_s$ to the verifier
else $b=2$: sends $P''=P'$ to the verifier



Theorem: This is a zero-knowledge, sound and complete, polynomial time interactive proof that the two graphs G_1 and G_2 are isomorphic.

Zero-knowledge interactive proof for Graph Isomorphism

- Completeness
- Soundness
- Zero-knowledge
- Polynomial time

Zero-knowledge interactive proof for Graph Isomorphism

- Completeness
 - if $G_1 = G_2$, verifier accepts with probability 1.
- Soundness
 - if $G_1 \neq G_2$, verifier rejects with probability $\geq \frac{1}{2}$
- Zero-knowledge
 - Simulation algorithm:
 1. Choose first $b = \text{rand}(1,2)$ and π random permutation (like P');
 2. Compute $H = \pi(G_b)$;
 3. Output transcript $[H, b, \pi]$;
 - The transcript $[H, b, \pi]$ is distributed uniformly, exactly as the transcript $[H, b, P']$ in the interactive protocol.
- Polynomial time

Another simulation algorithm (following the prover's protocol but cheating)

Simulator:

```
Do {  
    1. b' = random(1,2) and π=random(permutation)  
    2. Compute H=π(Gb') // prover would send H to verifier  
    3. b = random(1,2) ; // prover would receive b from verifier  
} while (b ≠ b') ; // cheat to find a valid transcript in polytime  
Output transcript [H, b, π]
```

- Polynomial time:
 - Expectation time = $\text{Time}_{\text{Loop_body}} \cdot \sum_{k \geq 0} 2^{-k} \leq 2 \cdot \text{Time}_{\text{Loop_body}}$

Exercise

- N is a public integer.
Provide an interactive polynomial time protocol to prove a verifier that you know the factorization $N=P.Q$ without revealing it.
 - Application:
 - a sensitive building, authorized people know 2 secret primes P and Q (and $N=PQ$)
 - The guard knows only N

Quadratic residue authentication: is this version perfectly zero-knowledge?

- A **trusted part T** provides a Blum integer $n=p \cdot q$; n is public.
- **Alice (Prover) builds her secret and public keys:**
 - For $i=1, \dots, k$: chooses at random s_i coprime to n
 - Compute $v_i := (s_i^2) \bmod n$. [NB v_i ranges over all square coprime to n]
 $v_i = \text{quadratic residue}$ that admits $s_i = \text{modular square root}$
 - Secret key: s_1, \dots, s_k
 - Public key: v_1, \dots, v_k and identity photo, ... registered by T
- **Bob (Verifier)** authenticates Alice: **Zero-knowledge protocol in 3 messages :**
 1. Alice chooses a random $r < n$; she sends $y = r^2 \bmod n$ to Bob.
 2. Bob sends k random bits: b_1, \dots, b_k
 3. Alice computes $z := r s_1^{b_1} \cdot \dots \cdot s_k^{b_k} \bmod n$ and sends z to Bob.
Bob authenticates iff $z^2 = y \cdot v_1^{b_1} \cdot \dots \cdot v_k^{b_k} \bmod n$.
- **Simulation algorithm** : *is the protocol perfectly zero-knowledge?*
 1. Choose k random bits b_1, \dots, b_k and a random $z < n$;
compute $w = v_1^{b_1} \cdot \dots \cdot v_k^{b_k} \bmod n$ and $y = z^2 \cdot w^{-1} \bmod n$;
 2. Transcript is $[y; b_1, \dots, b_k; z]$

Feige-Fiat-Shamir zero-knowledge authentication protocol

- A **trusted part T** computes a Blum integer $n=p \cdot q$; n is public.
- **Alice (Prover) builds her secret and public keys:**
 - For $i=1, \dots, k$: chooses at random s_i coprime to n
 - Compute $v_i := (s_i^2) \bmod n$. [NB v_i ranges over all square coprime to n]
 $v_i = \text{quadratic residue}$ that admits $s_i = \text{modular square root}$
 - Secret key: s_1, \dots, s_k
 - Public key: v_1, \dots, v_k and identity photo, ... registered by T
- **Bob (Verifier)** authenticates Alice: **Zero-knowledge protocol in 3 messages :**
 1. Alice chooses a random $r < n$ and a sign $u = \pm 1$; she sends $y = u \cdot r^2 \bmod n$ to Bob.
 2. Bob sends k random bits: b_1, \dots, b_k
 3. Alice computes $z := r \cdot s_1^{b_1} \cdot \dots \cdot s_k^{b_k} \bmod n$ and sends z to Bob.
Bob authenticates iff $z^2 = +/- y \cdot v_1^{b_1} \cdot \dots \cdot v_k^{b_k} \bmod n$.
- Remark: possible variant: Alice chooses its own modulus n

Feige-Fiat-Shamir

<i>Truth: X=Alice or anyone else?</i>	<i>Prob(Output of authentication)</i>	<i>YES: “Authentication of Alice OK”</i>	<i>NO: “Authentication of Alice KO »</i>
Case X = Alice (completeness)		Always	Impossible
Case X \neq Alice (soundness)		Prob = 2^{-k}	Prob = $1 - 2^{-k}$

■ Completeness

- Alice is always authenticated (error prob=0)

■ Soundness

- Probability for Eve to impersonate Alice = 2^{-k} . If t rounds are performed: 2^{-kt}

■ Zero-knowledge

- A simulation algorithm exists that provides a transcript which is indistinguishable with the trace of interaction with correct prover.

From zero-knowledge authentication to zero knowledge signature

- Only one communication: the message+signature
 - The prover uses a CSPRNG (e.g. a secure hash function) to generate directly the random bits of the challenge
 - The bits are transmitted to the verifier, who verifies the signature.
- Example: Fiat-Shamir signature
 - Alice builds her secret key (s_1, \dots, s_k) and public key (v_1, \dots, v_k) as before.
 - Let M be a message Alice wants to sign.
 - Signature by Alice
 1. For $i=1, \dots, t$: chooses randomly r_i and computes w_i s.t. $w_i := r_i^2 \bmod n$.
 2. Computes $h = H(M \parallel w_1 \parallel \dots \parallel w_t)$ this gives $k \cdot t$ bits b_{ik} , that appear as random (similarly to the ones generated by Bob in step 2 of Feige-Fiat-Shamir)
 3. Alice computes $z_i := r_i \cdot s_1^{b_{i1}} \cdot \dots \cdot s_k^{b_{ik}} \bmod n$ (for $i = 1 \dots t$) ;
She sends the message M and its signature: $\sigma = (z_1 \dots z_t, b_{11} \dots b_{tk})$ to Dan
 - Verification of signature σ by Dan:
 1. Dan computes $y_i := z_i^2 \cdot (v_1^{b_{i1}} \cdot \dots \cdot v_k^{b_{ik}})^{-1} \bmod n$ for $i=1..t$
A correct signature gives $y_i = w_i$
 2. Computes $H(M, \parallel y_1 \parallel \dots \parallel y_t)$ and he verifies that he obtains the bits b_{ik} in Alice's signature

Zero-knowledge vs other asymmetric protocols

- No degradation with usage.
- No need of encryption algorithm.
- Efficiency: often higher communication/computation overheads in zero-knowledge protocols than public-key protocols.
- For both , provable security relies on conjectures (eg: intractability of quadratic residuosity)

Exercise

- Guillou-Quisquater zero-knowledge authentication and signature protocol.

Feige-Fiat-Shamir zero-knowledge authentication protocol

- A **trusted part T** (or Alice) computes a Blum integer $n=p \cdot q$; n is public.
- **Alice (Prover) builds her secret and public keys:**
 - For $i=1, \dots, k$: chooses at random s_i coprime to n and n random bits d_i
 - Compute $v_i := (s_i^2) \bmod n$. [NB v_i ranges over all square coprime to n]
 $(-1)^{d_i} v_i = \text{quadratic residue}$ that admits $s_i = \text{modular square root}$
 - Secret key: s_1, \dots, s_k . (Note that $v_i \cdot s_i^2 = (-1)^{d_i} = 1$ or $-1 \bmod n$)
 - Public key: v_1, \dots, v_k and identity photo, ... registered by T
- **Bob (Verifier)** authenticates Alice: **Zero-knowledge protocol in 3 msgs :**
 1. Alice chooses a random value $r < n$. She sends $y := r^2 \bmod n$ to Bob.
 2. Bob sends k random bits: b_1, \dots, b_k
 3. Alice computes $z := r \cdot s_1^{b_1} \cdot \dots \cdot s_k^{b_k} \bmod n$ and sends z to Bob.
Bob computes $w = z^2 \cdot v_1^{b_1} \cdot \dots \cdot v_k^{b_k}$ and authenticates iff $y=w$ or $y=-w \bmod n$.
- Soundness and completeness, perfectly zero knowledge
 - Probability for Eve to impersonate Alice = 2^{-k} . If t rounds are performed: 2^{-kt}
 - Alice always authenticated (error prob=0)
 - Zero knowledge: transcript

Interactive zero knowledge protocol

What have we learned?

- Soundness + completeness
- Interactive proof (computers, profs) >> static proof (books)
- Zero-knowledge: simulation that provides a transcript indistinguishable from the correct interaction!
- Everywhere in crypto:
 - Authentication, signature, security proofs (IND-CCA)
- Perspective: outsourcing with verifiable trust

Outsourcing computations and security

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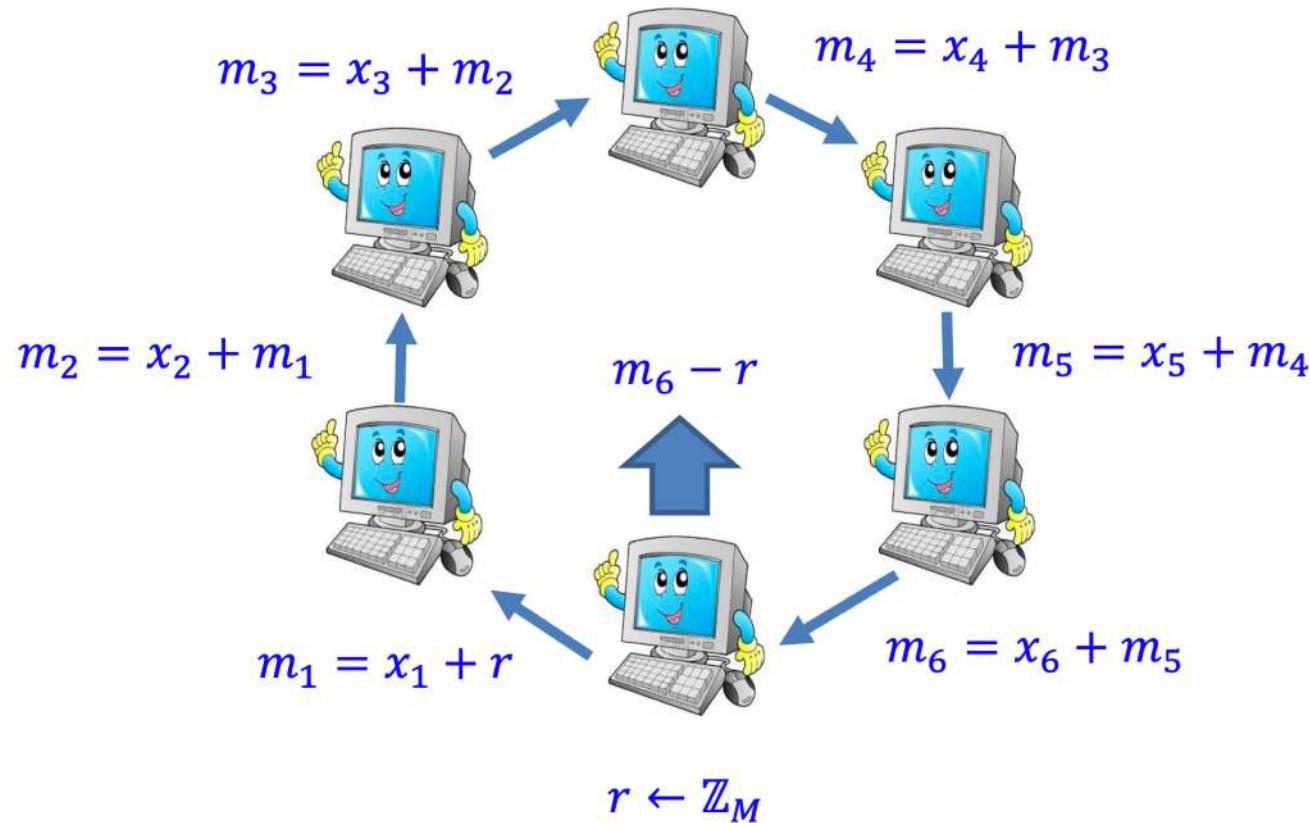
1. Computation with encrypted data : FHE
2. Interactive verification of results
3. Zero-knowledge proofs
 - Interactive zero-knowledge protocols
 - exercise
4. **Secure multiparty computations**

Secure multiparty computation

- Examples [Ran Cohen lecture : <https://www.cs.tau.ac.il/~iftachh/Courses/Seminars/MPC/Intro.pdf>]
- n parties P_i . Each party P_i has a secret x_i
- All parties jointly compute $y=f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
 - without revealing information on any secret x_i (except y)
- The computation must preserve certain security properties
 - Even if some parties collude and attack the protocol
- Basic solutions : rely on TTP
 - Each party sends her secret x_i to TTP;
 - TTP computes $y=f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and sends it to a verifier
 - Verifier sends y to the parties (that may verify it too)
 - Eg the voting protocol with FHE (see section 1)
- Can we do as well without any TTP ?

Multi-party Computation without TTP

- Eg: compute $\sum x_i$



- Note this scheme is not resistant facing corruption(s)

Oblivious transfer 1 among 2

- Alice has 2 plaintexts M_0 and M_1
- Bob asks Alice to send him M_s without revealing to Alice he wants M_0 or M_1 .

Oblivious transfer 1 among 2

- Alice has 2 plaintexts M_0 and M_1
- Bob asks Alice to send him M_s without revealing to Alice he wants M_0 or M_1 .
- One solution: (with multiplicative RSA)
 - Alice has RSA public (n,e) and secret d
 - Alice chooses random r_0 and r_1
and she sends $x_0=r_0^e \text{ mod } n$ and $x_1=r_1^e \text{ mod } n$ to Bob
 - Bob chooses random k and sends $v=(x_s + k^e) \text{ mod } n$ to Alice
 - Alice compute $C_0 = M_0 + (v - x_0)^d \text{ mod } n$ and $C_1 = M_1 + (v - x_1)^d \text{ mod } n$
She sends C_0 and C_1 to Bob
 - Bob computes $C_s - k$ and obtains his desired M_s .
- Note : a solution with FHE sends only one message C
(but Alice computes all C_i with Bob public key)

Secret sharing problem

« k among n »:

- S is a shared secret among n entities :
 - S is known by a TTP
 - S is represented by D_1, \dots, D_n with D_i secret of i
 - Knowledge of at least k values enables to compute S
 - Knowledge of less of $k-1$ D_i provides no information on S

Shamir protocol for secret sharing

- Use error correcting codes...
- Let F a (large) finite field such that S is uniquely and secretly represented in F
 - $\text{Prob}(S=x) = 1/\text{card}(F)$
- **Shamir's Protocol**
 - Let $f(X) = S + a_1.X + a_2.X^2 + \dots + a_{k-1}X^{k-1}$ with a_1, \dots, a_k randomly chosen in F (let $a_0=S$)
 - Let n distinct elements $w_i \neq 0$ in F
(for instance $w_i = i$ if characteristic(F) > n , or $w_i = g^i$ etc)
 - Each party i owns $(w_i, f(w_i))$
- **Multiparty computation of the secret by k parties :**
 - by interpolation of f (degree $k-1$) from k values $f(w_i)$: CRT
 - If less than $k-1$ values: then all values for S have same probability
- Moreover: resist to errors
 - possibility of correcting r errors (or attacks)
 - with $k+r$ values si $r \geq 2.\#\text{errors}$

Shamir's protocol properties

- **Perfect secrecy** (indistinguishability, like OTP)
- Minimal: la taille de chaque D_i n'est pas plus grande que la taille de S
- **Dynamic** possible to change the polynomial from time to time
- **Extendable** : adding parties is possible
- **Flexible**: party with high priority owns several values
- But requires confidence in the TTP that distributes the value

Conclusion

Outsourcing computations and security

1. Computation with encrypted data : FHE
2. Interactive verification of results
3. Zero-knowledge proofs
 - Interactive zero-knowledge protocols
 - exercise
4. Secure multiparty Computations

