

Introduction to Zero-Knowledge Proofs

Distributed Lab

August 22, 2024



Plan

1 Introduction

- Classical Proofs
- Goal of the course

2 Relations. Languages. NP Statements.

- Language of true statements. Examples.
- P and NP Statements

3 Interactive Proofs

- Quadratic Residue Interactive Proof
- Completeness and Soundness
- Zero-Knowledge and Honest-Verifier Zero-Knowledge
- Proof of Knowledge

4 Fiat-Shamir Heuristic

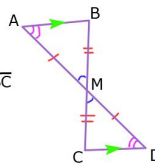
- Cryptographic Oracles
- Fiat-Shamir Transformation

Introduction

Classical Proofs

- First proofs you have probably encountered were **geometry proofs**.
- You were given **axioms** and you can prove certain **statements** \times using them.
- The proof π is a sequence of logical steps that lead from axioms to the statement. Essentially, you have a witness w that proves the statement.
- Your teacher is the **verifier** \mathcal{V} who checks your proof, while you are the **prover** \mathcal{P} .
- This is a **classical proof** and in a sense, it is a **non-interactive proof**.

Given: M is the midpoint of \overline{AD} and \overline{BC}
 Prove: $\overline{AB} \parallel \overline{CD}$



Statements	Reasons
1. Given: M is the midpoint of \overline{AD} and \overline{BC}	1. Given
2. $\overline{AM} \cong \overline{MD}$ $\overline{BM} \cong \overline{MC}$	2. Definition of Midpoint
3. $\angle AMB \cong \angle DMC$	3. Vertical Angles Theorem
4. $\triangle ABM \cong \triangle DMC$	4. SAS Thm
5. $\angle A \cong \angle D$	5. CPCTC
6. $\overline{AB} \parallel \overline{CD}$	6. Converse of Alt. Interior Angles Thm

Figure: Geometry proof.

Motivation

Note

However, we cannot use such proofs in the digital world.

- Proofs must be verified by computers. Therefore, we need to develop **mathematic framework** to be able to program them.
- This leads to the question: what is **statement**? What is **proof**? What is **witness**? How to formally define them?
- We need to formalize these concepts.

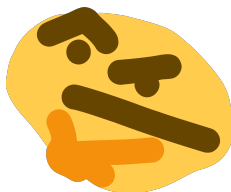


Figure: Hmm...

The most basic setting

- We have a **prover** \mathcal{P} and a **verifier** \mathcal{V} .
- Prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove some statement x to the verifier.
- Prover \mathcal{P} has a **witness** w that contains all necessary information to prove the statement x . He sends π as a proof.
- Verifier \mathcal{V} wants to be convinced that the statement x is true.

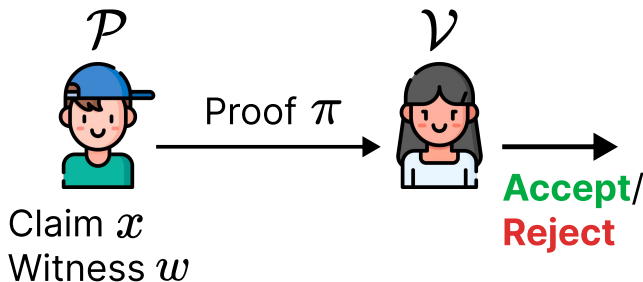


Figure: Typical setup for cryptographic proofs.

The Goal of SNARKs, STARKs etc.

We will try to solve the following problems:

- **Completeness:** If x is true, π proves the statement.
- **Soundness:** If x is false, the prover \mathcal{P} should not be able to convince the verifier \mathcal{V} via any π^* .
- **Zero-knowledge:** π does not reveal anything about w .
- **Argument of knowledge:** Sometimes, the prover \mathcal{P} should convince the verifier \mathcal{V} that besides x is true, he **knows** the witness w .
- **Succinctness:** The proof should be short, ideally polylogarithmic in the size of the statement ($\pi = \text{polylog}(|x|)$) + fast verification.
- **Arithmetization:** We need to convert the statement x into some algebraic form + make it relatively universal.

Note

SNARK, STARK, etc. will solve these problems!

Example to demonstrate the goal

Example

Given a hash function $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\ell$, \mathcal{P} wants to convince \mathcal{V} that he knows the preimage $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ such that $H(x) = y$.

- **Zero-knowledge:** The prover \mathcal{P} does not want to reveal *anything* about the pre-image x to the verifier \mathcal{V} .
- **Argument of knowledge:** Proving y has a pre-image is useless. \mathcal{P} must show he **knows** $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ s.t. $H(x) = y$.
- **Succinctness:** If the hash function takes n operations to compute, the proof should be **much** shorter than n operations. **State-of-art:** size is $\text{polylog}(n) = O((\log n)^c)$. Verification time is also typically polylogarithmic (or even $O(1)$ in some cases).

Note

But first, let us start with the basics.

Relations. Languages. NP Statements.

Definition (Relation)

Given two sets \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} , the **relation** is $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$.

- \mathcal{X} is typically a set of **statements**.
- \mathcal{Y} is a set of **witnesses**.

Definition (Language of true statements)

Let $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ be a relation. We say that a statement $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is a **true** statement if $(x, y) \in \mathcal{R}$ for some $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, otherwise the statement is called **false**. We define by $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ (the language over relation \mathcal{R}) the set of all true statements, that is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}} = \{x \in \mathcal{X} : \exists y \in \mathcal{Y} \text{ such that } (x, y) \in \mathcal{R}\}.$$

Language Example #1: Semiprimes

Example (Product of Two Primes (Semiprimes))

Claim: number $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is the product of two prime numbers $w = (p, q) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$. The **relation** is given by:

$$\mathcal{R} = \{(n, p, q) \in \mathbb{N}^3 : n = p \cdot q \text{ where } p, q \text{ are primes}\}$$

In this particular case, the **language of true statements** is defined as

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}} = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : \exists w = (p, q) \text{ are primes such that } n = p \cdot q\}$$

- **Valid witness #1:** $n = 15 \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$. Witness: $w = (3, 5)$.
- **Invalid witness:** $n = 16 \notin \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$. There is no valid witness.
- **Valid witness #2:** $n = 50252009 \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$. Witness: $w = (5749, 8741)$.

Question: Is $n = 27$ a true statement? What about $n = 26$?

Language Example #2: Square Root

Reminder

$\mathbb{Z}_N^\times = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N : \gcd\{x, N\} = 1\}$. **Example:** $\mathbb{Z}_{10}^\times = \{1, 3, 7, 9\}$

Example

Claim: number $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^\times$ is a **quadratic residue** modulo N :

$(\exists w \in \mathbb{Z}_N^\times) : \{x \equiv w^2 \pmod{N}\}$ (w is **modular square root** of x).

Relation: $\mathcal{R} = \{(x, w) \in (\mathbb{Z}_N^\times)^2 : x \equiv w^2 \pmod{N}\}$

Language: $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^\times : \exists w \in \mathbb{Z}_N^\times \text{ such that } x \equiv w^2 \pmod{N}\}$.

Examples for $N = 7$:

- $4 \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ since $5^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$.
- $3 \notin \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ since there is no valid witness for 3.

Question: Is $x = 1$ a true statement for $N = 5$? What about $x = 4$?

NP Statements: Demonstration

Well. . . We are simply going to send witness w to the verifier \mathcal{V} and he will check if the statement is true (meaning, whether $x \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$).

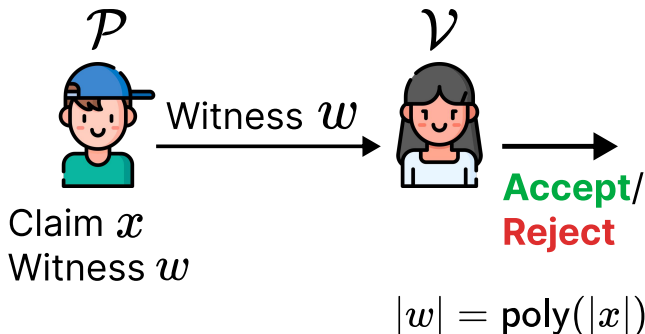


Figure: Typical setup for cryptographic proofs.

NP Statements

Definition (P Language)

Problem is in the **P** class if exists a polytime algorithm checking $x \in \mathcal{L}$.

Definition (NP Language)

A language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ belongs to the **NP** class if there exists a polynomial-time verifier \mathcal{V} such that the following two properties hold:

- **Completeness:** If $x \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$, then there is a witness w such that $\mathcal{V}(x, w) = 1$ with $|w| = \text{poly}(|x|)$. Essentially, it states that true claims have *short* proofs.
- **Soundness:** If $x \notin \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$, then for any w it holds that $\mathcal{V}(x, w) = 0$. Essentially, it states that false claims have no proofs.

Theorem

Any **NP** problem has a zero-knowledge proof.

Question (aka Motivation)

But can we do better?

Sending witness is... Weird...

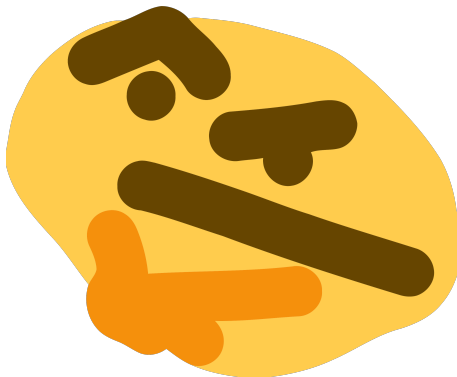


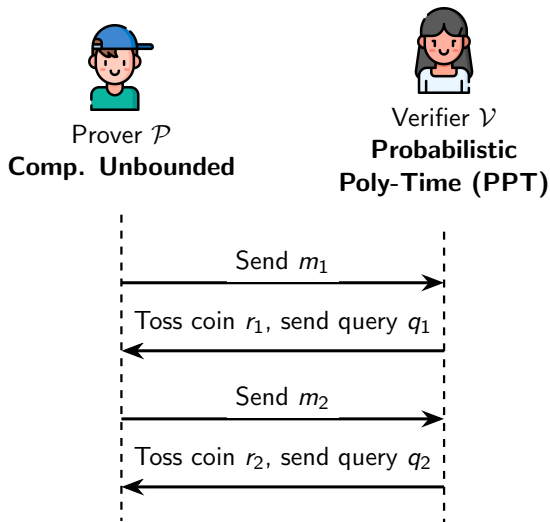
Figure: Hmm... #2

Interactive Proofs

Solution!

We add two more ingredients:

- **Interaction:** instead of **passively** receiving the proof, the verifier \mathcal{V} can **interact** with the prover \mathcal{P} by sending **challenges** and receiving **responses**.
- **Randomness:** \mathcal{V} can send random coins (challenges) to the prover, which \mathcal{P} can use to generate responses.



Quadratic Residue Interactive Proof

Problem Statement

- **Statement:** $x \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ where our **language** is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^{\times} : \exists w \in \mathbb{Z}_N^{\times} \text{ such that } x \equiv w^2 \pmod{N}\}$$

- **Witness:** $w =$ modular square root of x .

How does \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{V} interact? Consider the figure below.

\mathcal{P}



1. Sample r from \mathbf{Z}_N uniformly
2. Send $a = r^2 \pmod{N}$

I know w s.t.
 $w^2 = x \pmod{N}$

\mathcal{V}



Is x indeed a
quadr. residue?

Quadratic Residue Interactive Proof



I know w s.t.
 $w^2 = x \pmod{N}$

1. Sample r from \mathbf{Z}_N uniformly
 2. Send $a = r^2 \pmod{N}$
- If I gave you the square root of a and ax , you would be convinced that the claim is true, but you learn the witness w .
 - Instead, I will send you either r or rw , but you are to choose!



Is x indeed a
quadr. residue?

Quadratic Residue Interactive Proof

\mathcal{P}



I know w s.t.
 $w^2 = x \pmod{N}$

1. Sample r from \mathbf{Z}_N uniformly
 2. Send $a = r^2 \pmod{N}$
- If I gave you the square root of a and ax , you would be convinced that the claim is true, but you learn the witness w .
 - Instead, I will send you either r or rw , but you are to choose!

\mathcal{V}



Is x indeed a
quadr. residue?



Ok, I choose random bit b

Quadratic Residue Interactive Proof

\mathcal{P}



I know w s.t.
 $w^2 = x \pmod{N}$

1. Sample r from \mathbf{Z}_N uniformly
 2. Send $a = r^2 \pmod{N}$
- If I gave you the square root of a and ax , you would be convinced that the claim is true, but you learn the witness w .
 - Instead, I will send you either r or rw , but you are to choose!

\mathcal{V}



Is x indeed a
quadr. residue?



Ok, I choose random bit b

- If $b=0$, send $z = r$
- If $b=1$, send $z = rw \pmod{N}$

→ Check if $z^2 = ax^b$

Quadratic Residue Interactive Proof: Analysis

Interactive Protocol

- 1 \mathcal{P} samples $r \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_N^\times$ and sends $a = r^2$ to \mathcal{V} .
- 2 \mathcal{V} sends a random bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$ to \mathcal{P} .
- 3 \mathcal{P} sends $z = r \cdot w^b$ to \mathcal{V} .
- 4 \mathcal{V} accepts if $z^2 = a \cdot x^b$, otherwise it rejects.
- 5 Repeat $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ times.

Lemma

*The aforementioned protocol is **complete** and **sound**.*

Completeness. If $b = 0$, then $z = r$ and thus $z^2 = r^2 = a$, check passes. If $b = 1$, then $z = rw$ and thus $z^2 = r^2 w^2 = ax$, check passes.

Quadratic Residue Interactive Proof: Analysis

Soundness. The main reason why the protocol is sound is inscribed in the theorem below.

Theorem

For any prover \mathcal{P}^ with $x \notin \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$, the probability of \mathcal{V} accepting the proof is at most $1/2$.*

Corollary. After repeating the protocol λ times, we have

$$\Pr[\mathcal{V} \text{ accepts after } \lambda \text{ rounds}] \leq \frac{1}{2^\lambda} = \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

Thus, we showed both **completeness** and **soundness** of the protocol.

Interactive Protocol Definition

$\langle \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V} \rangle(x)$ reads as “interaction between \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{V} on the statement x ”.

Definition

A pair of algorithms $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is called an **interactive proof** for a language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ if \mathcal{V} is a polynomial-time verifier and the following two properties hold:

- **Completeness:** For any $x \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$, $\Pr[\langle \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V} \rangle(x) = \text{accept}] = 1$.
- **Soundness:** For any $x \notin \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ and for any prover \mathcal{P}^* , we have

$$\Pr[\langle \mathcal{P}^*, \mathcal{V} \rangle(x) = \text{accept}] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda)$$

Definition

The class of **interactive proofs (IP)** is defined as:

$$\text{IP} = \{\mathcal{L} : \text{there is an interactive proof } (\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V}) \text{ for } \mathcal{L}\}.$$

Zero-Knowledge Informal Definition

Definition

An interactive proof system $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is called **zero-knowledge** if for any polynomial-time verifier \mathcal{V}^* and any $x \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$, the interaction $\langle \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V}^* \rangle(x)$ gives nothing new about the witness w .

Definition

The pair of algorithms $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is called a **zero-knowledge interactive protocol** if it is *complete*, *sound*, and *zero-knowledge*.

I know witness,
but I will not show
you it!



Well, the claim is true,
but what was the witness
anyway?!

Verifier's View

Question #1

What has the verifier learned during the interaction?

- First things first, he learned that the statement x is true.
- He also knows queries (q_1, \dots, q_ℓ) and random coins (r_1, \dots, r_ℓ) he tossed (since he is the one who has sent them).
- Moreover, he knows the prover's messages $(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_\ell)$.

Definition

All the conversation that verifier has witnessed is called **verifier's view** and is denoted as

$$\text{view}_V(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V}) = (m_1, r_1, q_1, m_2, r_2, q_2, \dots, m_\ell, r_\ell, q_\ell).$$

Fact: $\text{view}_V(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is a **random variable**.

Verifier's View: Example

Example

For QN test, set $N := 3 \times 2^{30} + 1$ (prime number), and \mathcal{P} wants to convince that $1286091780 \in \mathcal{L}_R$. Conversation is the following:

- ➊ During the first round, \mathcal{P} sends 672192003 to \mathcal{V} .
- ➋ \mathcal{V} sends $b = 0$ to \mathcal{P} .
- ➌ \mathcal{P} sends 2606437826 to \mathcal{V} .
- ➍ \mathcal{V} verifies that indeed $2606437826^2 \equiv 672192003 \pmod{N}$.
- ➎ During the second round, \mathcal{P} sends 2619047580 to \mathcal{V} .
- ➏ \mathcal{V} chooses $b = 1$ and sends to \mathcal{P} .
- ➐ \mathcal{P} sends 1768388249 to \mathcal{V} .
- ➑ \mathcal{V} verifies that $1768388249^2 \equiv 2619047580 \times 1286091780 \pmod{N}$.
- ➒ Conversation ends.

Verifier's View: Example

Example

The **view of the verifier** \mathcal{V} is the following:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{view}_{\mathcal{V}}(\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{P})[1286091780] \\ &= (672192003, 0, 2606437826, 2619047580, 1, 1768388249) \end{aligned}$$

- Essentially, this view is the same as you have witnessed.
- You have not learned anything about w that prover \mathcal{P} knows.
- The witness was $w = 3042517305$ and two randomnesses were $r_1 = 2606437826$ and $r_2 = 3023142760$.
- This is a random variable: conversation could be different.

Zero-Knowledge Formally: Simulation Paradigm

Question #2

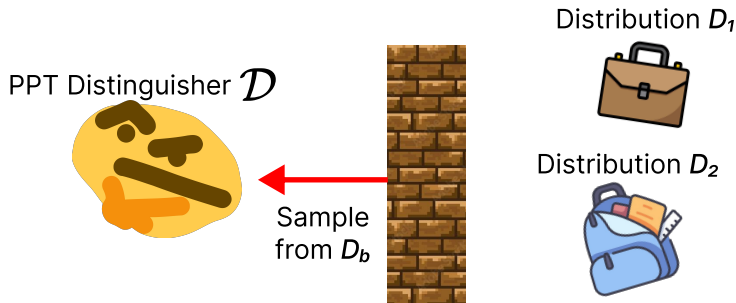
What does it mean that the protocol is zero-knowledge?

- Protocol is zero-knowledge if, given the verifier's view $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$, verifier cannot infer any information about the witness w .
- What does it mean that verifier \mathcal{V} learns nothing new? It means that this view could have been simulated by \mathcal{V} *without even running an interaction*.
- Call the view after the real interaction as **real view**, while the view after the simulation as **simulated view**.

Note

Such idea of defining the zero-knowledge is called **simulation paradigm** and currently the most widely used way to prove zero-knowledge.

Computational Indistinguishability



Definition (Informal Computational Indistinguishability)

D_1 and D_2 are **computationally indistinguishable** (denoted by $D_1 \approx D_2$) if for any PPT distinguisher \mathcal{D} , even after polynomial number k of samples from D_b (where $b \xleftarrow{R} \{0, 1\}$), for prediction \hat{b} : $\Pr[\hat{b} = b] < \frac{1}{2} + \text{negl}(k)$.

Zero-Knowledge Formally (Kind of)

Finally, we are ready to define the **zero-knowledge**.

Definition (Honest-Verifier Zero-Knowledge (HVZK))

An interactive protocol $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is **honest-verifier zero-knowledge (HVZK)** for a language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ there exists a poly-time simulator Sim such that for any valid statement $x \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$:

$$\text{view}_{\mathcal{V}}(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})[x] \approx \text{Sim}(x, 1^\lambda)$$

Definition (Zero-Knowledge (ZK))

An interactive protocol $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is **zero-knowledge (ZK)** for a language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ if *for every poly-time verifier \mathcal{V}^* there exists a poly-time simulator Sim such that for any valid statement $x \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$:*

$$\text{view}_{\mathcal{V}^*}(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V}^*)[x] \approx \text{Sim}(x, 1^\lambda)$$

Proof of Knowledge: Why?

Now, the main issue with the above definition is that *we have proven the statement correctness, but we have not proven that the prover **knows** the witness*. These are completely two distinct things!

Example

Consider the **discrete logarithm relation and language** for a cyclic group $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ of order r :

$$\mathcal{R} = \{(P, \alpha) \in E(\mathbb{F}_p) \times \mathbb{Z}_r : P = [\alpha]G\},$$
$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}} = \{P \in E(\mathbb{F}_p) : \exists \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_r \text{ such that } P = [\alpha]G\}$$

Question

What does it mean that $X \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$?

Turns out $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}} = E(\mathbb{F}_p)$, so the proof $X \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ itself is useless.

Proof of Knowledge: Definition

- 1 The knowledge of witness means that we can **extract** the witness while interacting with the prover.
- 2 Thus, there should be an algorithm called **extractor** \mathcal{E} which can extract the witness w .
- 3 \mathcal{E} is given more power than \mathcal{V} (otherwise, if the protocol is zero-knowledge, we cannot extract w). \mathcal{E} can **rewind** and **call** prover \mathcal{P} multiple times.
- 4 Sometimes, this is referred to as “extractor \mathcal{E} uses \mathcal{P} as an oracle”.

Definition (Proof of Knowledge)

The interactive protocol $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is a **proof of knowledge** for $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ if exists a poly-time extractor algorithm \mathcal{E} such that for any valid statement $x \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$, in expected poly-time $\mathcal{E}^{\mathcal{P}}(x)$ outputs w such that $(x, w) \in \mathcal{R}$.

Proof of Knowledge: Example

Lemma

The quadratic residue interactive protocol is a proof of knowledge.

Proof. Let us define the extractor \mathcal{E} for the statement x as follows:

- ① Run the prover to receive $a \equiv r^2 \pmod{N}$ (r is chosen randomly from \mathbb{Z}_N^*).
- ② Set verifier's message to $b = 0$ to get $z_1 \leftarrow r$.
- ③ **Rewind** and set verifier's message to $b = 1$ to get $z_2 \leftarrow rw \pmod{N}$.
- ④ Output $z_2/z_1 \pmod{N}$

The extractor \mathcal{E} will always output w if $x \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$. □

Fiat-Shamir Heuristic

Fiat-Shamir Transformation

Statement

Any interactive public-coin protocol can be converted into a non-interactive public-coin protocol with preserving completeness, soundness, and zero-knowledge.

One of such transformations is called **Fiat-Shamir heuristic**. Idea:

1

Thanks for your attention!