

Lesson 15

News

- EIP4844- Shard blob transactions

<https://twitter.com/pseudotheos/status/1504457560396468231>

| | Before EIP-4844 (Send ETH) | Before EIP-4844 (Swap tokens) | After EIP-4844 (Send ETH) | After EIP-4844 (Swap tokens) |
|---|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Boba Network | \$0.06 | \$0.40 | \$0.0006 | \$0.0040 |
| Loopring | \$0.07 | \$0.69 | \$0.0007 | \$0.0069 |
| zkSync | \$0.09 | \$0.22 | \$0.0009 | \$0.0022 |
| Polygon Hermez | \$0.25 | - | \$0.0025 | - |
| Optimism | \$0.37 | \$0.54 | \$0.0037 | \$0.0054 |
| Arbitrum One | \$0.53 | \$0.74 | \$0.0053 | \$0.0074 |
| Data sourced from L2fees.info | | March 17, 2022 | | |

- zkRollups on Cardano

<https://docsend.com/view/x3xzywf8pxnixh7c>



- Starknetjs

<https://www.starknetjs.com/>

Sigma Protocols

See [article](#)

A Sigma protocol follows these 3 steps:

1. **Commitment**: The prover generates a random number, creates a commitment to that randomness and sends the commitment to the verifier.
2. **Challenge**: After getting the commitment, the verifier generates a random number as a challenge and sends it to the prover. It is important that the verifier does not send the challenge before getting the commitment or else the prover can cheat.
3. **Response**: The prover takes the challenge and creates a response using the random number chosen in step 1, the challenge and the witness. The prover will then send the response to the verifier who will do some computation and will or will not be convinced of the knowledge of the witness.

EXAMPLE

To prove knowledge of x in $g^x = y$ without revealing x ,

1. The prover generates a random number r , creates a commitment $t = g^r$ and sends t to the verifier.
2. The verifier stores t , generates a random challenge c and sends it to the prover.
3. The prover on receiving the challenge creates a response $s = r + x \cdot c$. The prover sends this response to the verifier.

The process can be made non interactive with the Fiat Shamir heuristic as follows

1. The prover generates a random number r and creates a commitment $t = g^r$. The prover hashes g , t and y to get challenge $c : c = \text{Hash}(g, y, t)$.
2. The prover creates a response to the challenge as $s = r + c \cdot x$. The prover sends tuple (t, s) to the verifier.

The verifier now generates the same challenge c as $\text{Hash}(g, y, t)$ and again checks if g^s equals $y^c \cdot t$.

Sigma protocols are efficient at proving algebraic statements such as the discrete log problem, but for more general statements we use SNARKS / STARKS

Fermat's little theorem (for multiplicative inverses)

Fermat's little theorem states that if p is a prime number, then for any integer a , the number $a^p - a$ is an integer multiple of p .

In the notation of modular arithmetic, this is expressed as

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

If a is not divisible by p , Fermat's little theorem is equivalent to the statement that $a^{p-1} - 1$ is an integer multiple of p , that is

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

From this we get

$$a^{-1} \equiv a^{p-2} \pmod{p}$$

Let $p = 7$ and $a = 2$. We can compute the inverse of a as:

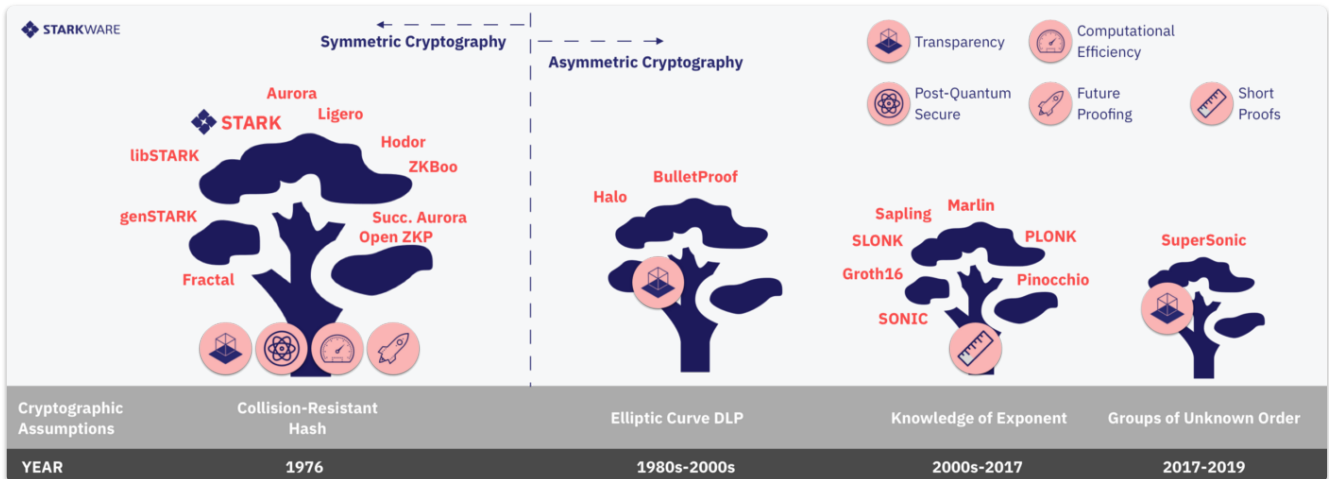
$$a^{p-2} = 2^5 = 32 \equiv 4 \pmod{7}.$$

This is easy to verify: $2 \times 4 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$.

Overview of ZKP systems

From Cambrian Explosion [article](#) from Starkware

We can divide ZKP systems according to their underlying cryptographic assumptions, and categorise into symmetric and asymmetric assumptions



This leads to the following consequences

1. Computational Efficiency
Asymmetric primitives require that we arithmetize over large algebraic domains: large prime fields and large elliptic curves
Symmetric systems can arithmetize over any field, leading to greater efficiency
2. Post-Quantum Security
Only symmetric systems are post-quantum secure
3. Maturity of some assumptions
 1. Groups of Unknown Order and Knowledge of Exponent assumptions are less mature
4. Proof Size
SNARK proofs are orders of magnitude smaller than STARKS, typically under 200 bytes, at 128 bits of security.
Improvements in terms of trusted setups have increased the proof size, for example in PLONK.

Low degree compliance

There are 2 ways to achieve the 'hiding' that we need for the zero knowledge aspect of verification

1. Homomorphic hiding
As used by libSNARK, Zokrates, ZCash etc.
What is given to the prover is a sequence of encryptions of powers of x_0 (i.e., encryptions of $x_0^1, x_0^2, \dots, x_0^{1000}$) so that the prover can evaluate any degree-1000 polynomial, but only polynomials of degree at most 1,000. Roughly speaking, the system is secure since the prover does not know what x_0 is, and this x_0 is randomly (pre-)selected, so that if the prover tries to cheat then with very high probability they will be exposed.

2. Commitment Schemes

This approach requires the prover to commit to the set of low-degree polynomials y sending some cryptographically crafted commitment message to the verifier.

This is the method used by most STARKs like libSTARK and succinct Aurora, as well as by succinct proof systems like ZKBoo, Ligerio, Aurora and Fractal.

Arithmetisation Schemes

Most systems reduce computational problems to arithmetic circuits which are then converted to a set of constraints, typically, R1CS constraints.

This approach allows for circuit-specific optimizations but requires the verifier, or some entity trusted by it, to perform a computation that is as large as the computation (circuit) being verified.

Systems such as libSTARK, and succinct Aurora, must use a succinct representation of computation, one that is akin to a general computer program and which has a description that is exponentially smaller than the computation being verified.

The two existing methods for achieving this

(i) Algebraic Intermediate Representations (AIRs) used by libSTARK, genSTARK and StarkWare's systems, and

(ii) succinct R1CS of succinct-Aurora, are best described as arithmetizations of general computer programs.

These succinct representations are powerful enough to capture the complexity class of nondeterministic exponential time (NEXP), which is exponentially more expressive and powerful than the class of nondeterministic polynomial time (NP) described by circuits.

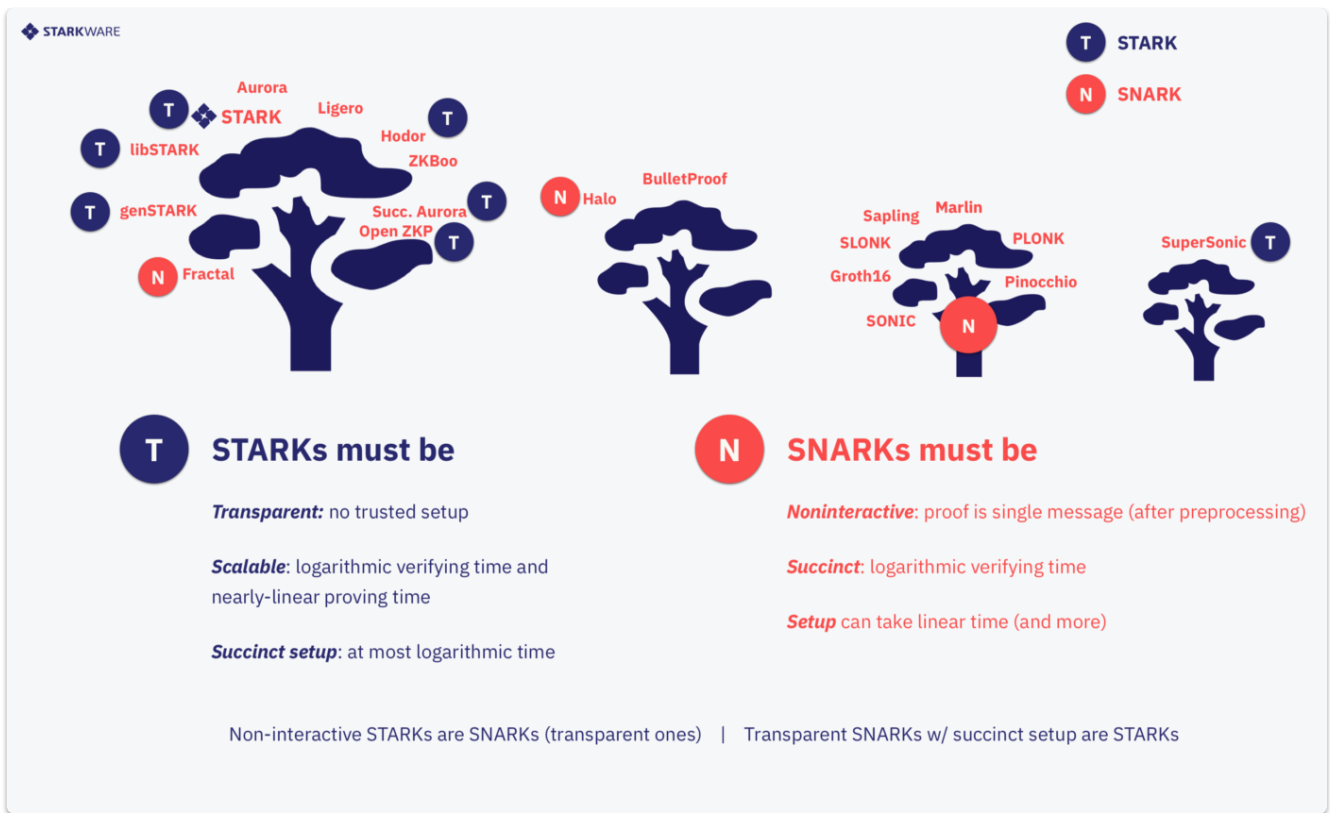
The type of assumption we follow will also dictate the domain of numbers we use, for example whether we use bilinear pairings, or cycles of curves.

Improvements to ZK Systems

Typically these have occurred in 3 ways

1. Fundamentally different approaches

Such as SNARK vs STARK



RECURSIVE SNARKS

Initial attempts required paired curves to be found where as the recursion progressed the order of the curve became smaller, which meant less security.

A better approach was to use a cycle of curves which allows infinite recursion, however finding such cycles is not easy.

Examples are the pasta curves - Pallas and Vesta

2. Optimisation of existing schemes

For example

- Amortisation of inner product
- PLONK versus SONIC

| 2^{17} Gates | PLONK | | Marlin |
|----------------|-------|------------------|-----------|
| Curve | BN254 | BLS12-381 (est.) | BLS12-381 |
| Prover Time | 2.83s | 4.25s | c. 30s |
| Verifier Time | 1.4ms | 2.8ms | 8.5ms |

- Incremental Verification

[Article](#) from Vitalik

The problem is with verification times for IPAs

| Technology | Cryptographic assumptions | Proof size | Verification time |
|--------------------------------|--|--------------------|---------------------------|
| FRI | Hashes only (quantum safe!) | Large (10-200 kB) | Medium (poly-logarithmic) |
| Inner product arguments (IPAs) | Basic elliptic curves | Medium (1-3 kB) | Very high (linear) |
| KZG commitments | Elliptic curves + pairings + trusted setup | Short (~500 bytes) | Low (constant) |

instead of verifying a size- n computation with a proof that still takes $O(n)$ time to verify, break that computation up into smaller size- k steps, make n/k proofs for each step, and merge them together so the verifier's work goes down to a little more than $O(k)$. These techniques allow us to do incremental verification :

If new things keep being introduced that need to be proven, you can just keep taking the existing proof, mixing it in with a proof of the new statement, and getting a proof of the new combined statement out.

This is the approach taken by Halo

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| IPA + Halo-style aggregation | Basic elliptic curves | Medium (1-3 kB) | Medium (constant but higher than KZG) |

3. General Cryptographic improvements

MIMC - MINIMAL MULTIPLICATIVE COMPLEXITY

- Optimising for the large fields used in proofs.

It addresses the question

How could a construction for a secure block cipher or a secure cryptographic hash functions look like that minimizes the number of field multiplications?

STARKAD AND POSEIDON - NEW HASH FUNCTIONS FOR ZERO KNOWLEDGE PROOF SYSTEMS

Often the most expensive part of a ZKP is proving the knowledge of a pre image under a certain cryptographic hash function, which is expressed as a circuit over a large prime field. A zero-knowledge proof of coin ownership in the Zcash cryptocurrency is a notable example, where the inadequacy of SHA-256 hash function for such a circuit caused a huge computational penalty. Poseidon (<https://eprint.iacr.org/2019/458.pdf>) uses 8 times fewer constraints per message bit than a Pedersen hash.

Cost of hash verification

From <https://ethresear.ch/t/using-gkr-inside-a-snark-to-reduce-the-cost-of-hash-verification-down-to-3-constraints/7550>

Large arithmetic circuits C (e.g. for rollup root hash updates) have their costs mostly driven by the following primitives:

- Hashing (e.g. Merkle proofs, Fiat-Shamir needs)
- Binary operations (e.g. RSA, rangeproofs)
- Elliptic curve group operations (e.g. signature verification)
- Pairings (e.g. BLS, recursive SNARKs)
- RSA group operations (e.g. RSA accumulators)

Post Quantum Cryptography

'Sufficiently' powerful quantum computers could weaken

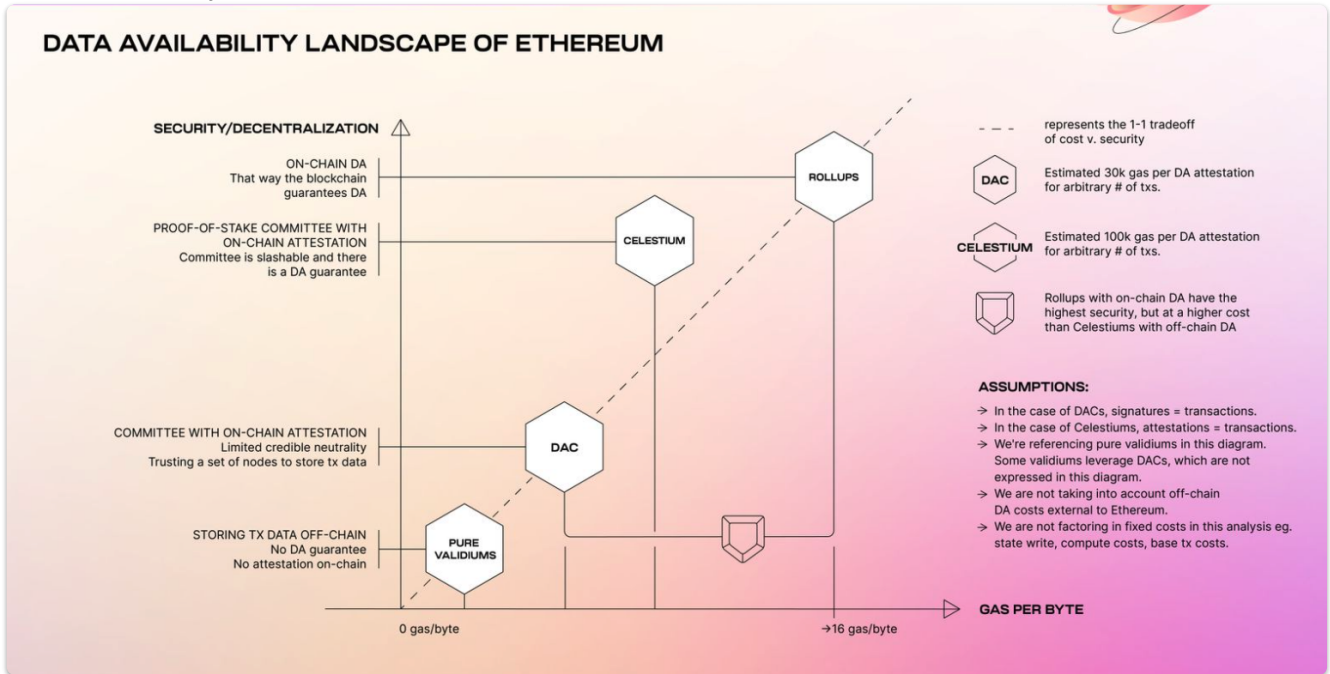
- Integer factorization problem
- Discrete logarithm problem
- EC discrete logarithm problem

Lattice-based constructions are currently important candidates for post-quantum cryptography. Unlike more widely used and known public-key schemes such as the RSA, Diffie-Hellman or elliptic-curve cryptosystems which are easily attacked by a quantum computer, some lattice-based constructions appear to be resistant to attack by both classical and quantum computers. (LWE - learning with errors is a computational problem that is thought to be hard to solve and thus can form the basis of a cryptosystem)

Lattice-based Zero-knowledge SNARKs for Arithmetic Circuits

[Lattice-based Zero-Knowledge Proofs: New Techniques for Shorter and Faster Constructions and Applications](#)

Data Availability



<https://pbs.twimg.com/media/FODoLYoVEAABhgd?format=png&name=small>

More about rollups : <https://twitter.com/pseudotheos/status/1504457560396468231>

Zk rollups also differ from optimistic rollups in the case where we have a big computation in a transaction, maybe reading many state variables, but with a single state transition, if we can create a proof of that computation, we have a big scaling advantage, but for this we need systems that can do general proof

Verkle trees

See [article](#)
and [Ethereum Cat Herders Videos](#)

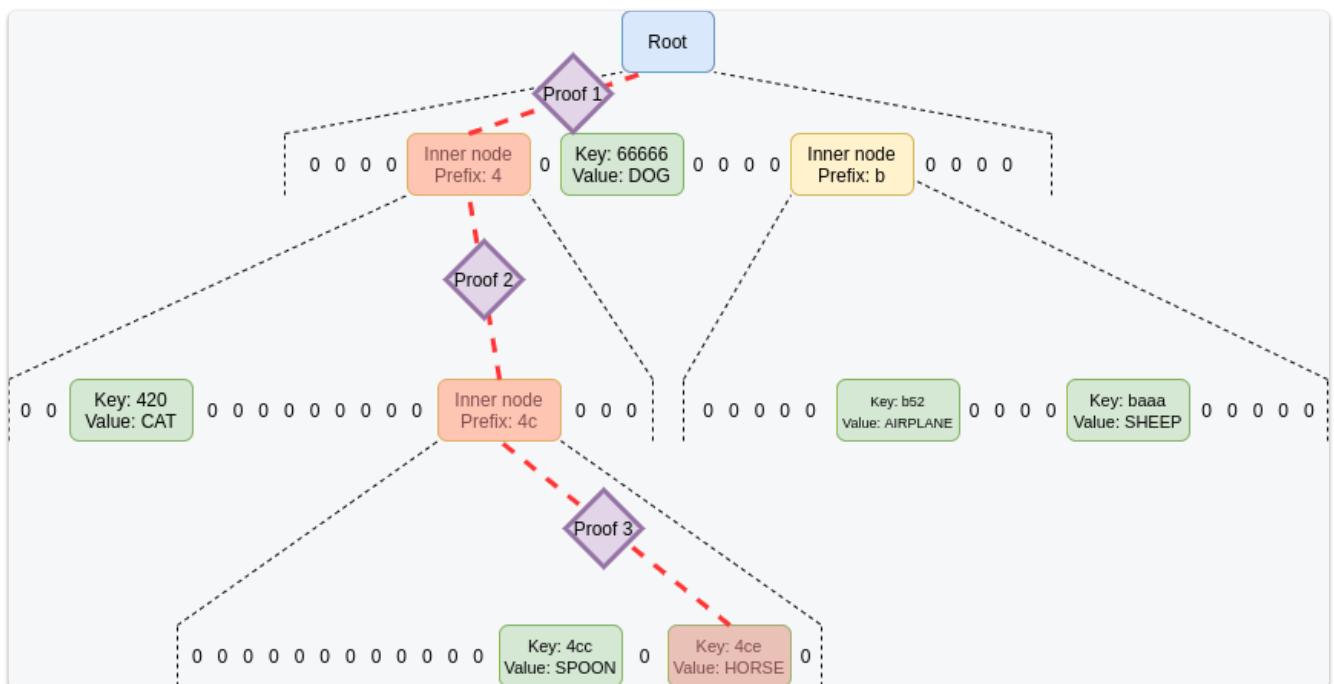
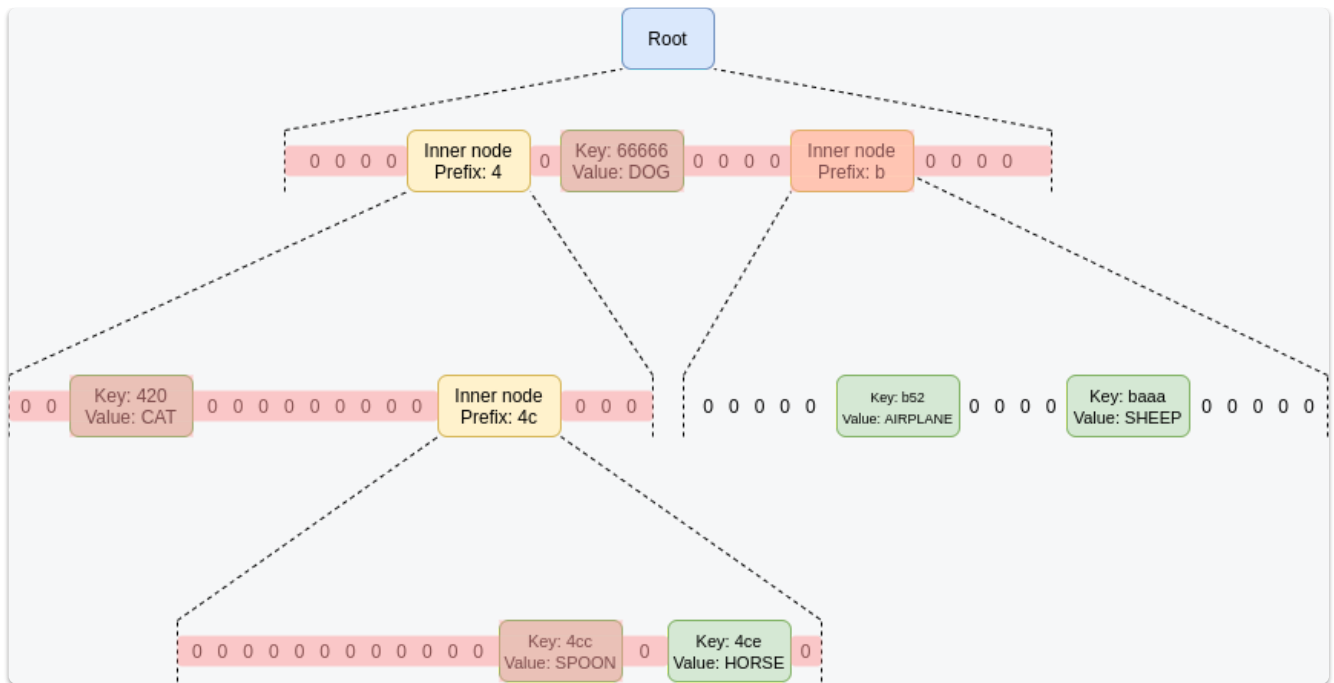
Like merkle trees, you can put a large amount of data into a Verkle tree, and make a short proof ("witness") of any single piece, or set of pieces, of that data that can be verified by someone who only has the root of the tree.

Verkle trees provide, however, is that they are much more efficient in proof size. If a tree contains a billion pieces of data, making a proof in a traditional binary Merkle tree would require about 1 kilobyte, but in a Verkle tree the proof would be less than 150 bytes.

Verkle trees replace hash commitments with vector commitments or better still a polynomial commitment.

Polynomial commitments give us more flexibility that lets us improve efficiency, and the simplest and most efficient vector commitments available are polynomial commitments.

The number of nodes needed in a merkle proof is much greater than in a verkle proof



Vector commitments vs. Hash

- Vector commitments: existence of an “opening”, a small payload that allow for the verification of a portion of the source data without revealing it all.
- Hash : verifying a portion of the data = revealing the whole data.



Proof sizes

Merkle

Leaf data +
15 sibling
32 bytes each
for each level (~7)

= ~3.5MB for 1K leaves

Verkle

Leaf data +
commitment + value + index
32 + 32 + 1 bytes
for ~4 levels
+ small constant-size data

= ~ 150K for 1K leaves

Other Research Areas

A useful resource is from [Zkproof](#)

Example papers from their latest workshops

[Leo language](#)

[Sigma protocols](#)

[Framework for SNARKY ceremonies](#)

[Groth16 Aggregation](#)

[Security Analysis of MPC](#)

[Messaging on Ethereum](#)

[Benchmarking ZKP Systems](#)