



Commitment schemes, Identification Protocols and Fiat-Shamir Signatures

Applied Cryptography – Spring 2024

Simona Samardjiska

April 15, 2024

Institute for Computing and Information Sciences
Radboud University

Last time:

- Public key encryption
- Key Encapsulation Mechanisms
- Digital Signatures from trapdoor permutations

Last time:

- Public key encryption
- Key Encapsulation Mechanisms
- Digital Signatures from trapdoor permutations

Today:

- Commitment schemes
- Zero-Knowledge protocols
- Identification Protocols
- Fiat-Shamir Signatures
- DSA and ECDSA

Commitment schemes

Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

- Alice and Bob are getting a divorce!

Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

- Alice and Bob are getting a divorce!
- They are at the point where they cannot even stand facing each other, so they have to discuss over the phone how to split the furniture, the kids, etc.

Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

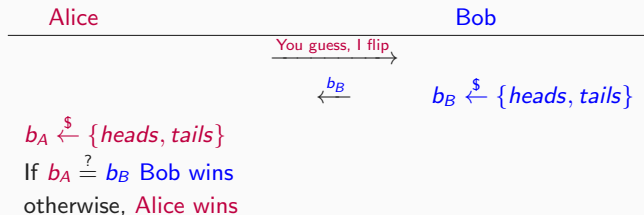
- Alice and Bob are getting a divorce!
- They are at the point where they cannot even stand facing each other, so they have to discuss over the phone how to split the furniture, the kids, etc.
- But one problem remains: **who gets the car?**

Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

- Alice and Bob are getting a divorce!
- They are at the point where they cannot even stand facing each other, so they have to discuss over the phone how to split the furniture, the kids, etc.
- But one problem remains: **who gets the car?**
- They decide to flip a coin over the phone. . .

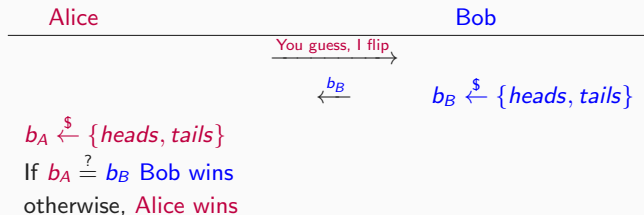
Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

- Alice and Bob are getting a divorce!
- They are at the point where they cannot even stand facing each other, so they have to discuss over the phone how to split the furniture, the kids, etc.
- But one problem remains: **who gets the car?**
- They decide to flip a coin over the phone. . .
- **First attempt:**



Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

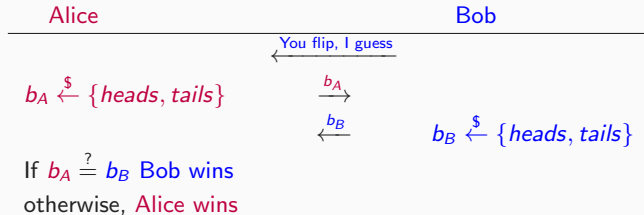
- Alice and Bob are getting a divorce!
- They are at the point where they cannot even stand facing each other, so they have to discuss over the phone how to split the furniture, the kids, etc.
- But one problem remains: **who gets the car?**
- They decide to flip a coin over the phone. . .
- **First attempt:**



- **Wait a minute, Alice can cheat!**

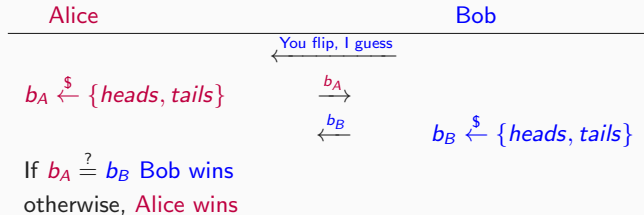
Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

- Second attempt:



Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

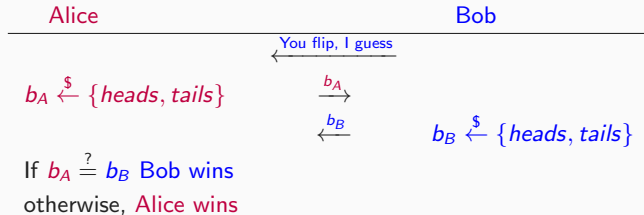
- Second attempt:



- Wait a minute, Bob can cheat!

Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

- Second attempt:



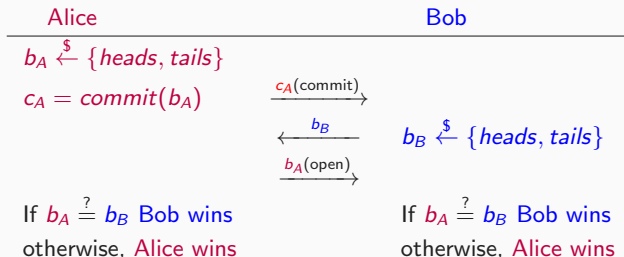
- Wait a minute, Bob can cheat!
- A deadlock! Any ideas?

Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

- **Third attempt: Use a commitment** (a locked box):
 - Commit to value $c = \text{commit}(b)$

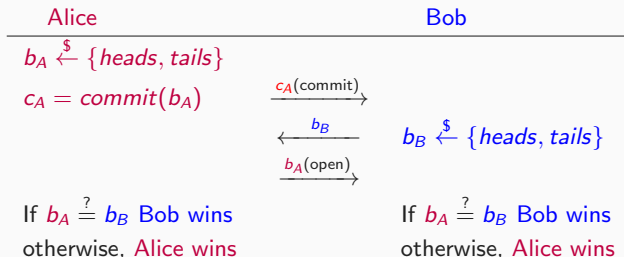
Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

- **Third attempt: Use a commitment** (a locked box):
 - Commit to value $c = \text{commit}(b)$
 - Reveal (open) value $b = \text{open}(c)$



Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

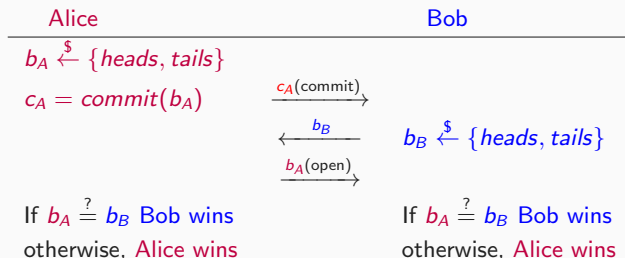
- **Third attempt: Use a commitment** (a locked box):
 - Commit to value $c = \text{commit}(b)$
 - Reveal (open) value $b = \text{open}(c)$



- When does this protocol work?

Coin flipping by telephone (Blum)

- **Third attempt: Use a commitment** (a locked box):
 - Commit to value $c = \text{commit}(b)$
 - Reveal (open) value $b = \text{open}(c)$



- When does this protocol work?
 - If Alice can find another b'_A such that $\text{commit}(b'_A) = \text{commit}(b_A)$, then **Alice can cheat!** (*commit should be binding!*)
 - If Bob can find b_A given $\text{commit}(b_A)$, then **Bob can cheat!** (*commit should be hiding!*)

Commitment scheme – formally

Given security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ and two finite sets $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{R} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$, a commitment scheme $\text{Comm} = (\text{Setup}, \text{Comm}, \text{Open})$ consists of three algorithms:

- **Setup** $\text{pk} \leftarrow \text{Setup}(1^\lambda)$
- **Commitment algorithm**: Takes random $r \in \mathcal{R}$, the message $M \in \mathcal{M}$ and outputs $(C, D) \leftarrow \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, r)$. C is said to be the commitment of M , and D is the opening (decommitment).
- **Opening (verification) algorithm**: Takes as input the commitment of M , the opening D , and outputs $M' = \text{Open}(\text{pk}, C, D) \in \mathcal{M}$ or $\perp \notin \mathcal{M}$ to indicate an invalid commitment.

Commitment scheme – formally

Given security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ and two finite sets $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{R} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$, a commitment scheme $\text{Comm} = (\text{Setup}, \text{Comm}, \text{Open})$ consists of three algorithms:

- **Setup** $\text{pk} \leftarrow \text{Setup}(1^\lambda)$
- **Commitment algorithm**: Takes random $r \in \mathcal{R}$, the message $M \in \mathcal{M}$ and outputs $(C, D) \leftarrow \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, r)$. C is said to be the commitment of M , and D is the opening (decommitment).
- **Opening (verification) algorithm**: Takes as input the commitment of M , the opening D , and outputs $M' = \text{Open}(\text{pk}, C, D) \in \mathcal{M}$ or $\perp \notin \mathcal{M}$ to indicate an invalid commitment.

Correctness: For all $M \in \mathcal{M}$

$$\text{Open}(\text{pk}, (\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, r))) = M$$

Note:

- Often the opening simply contains the message M and the random coins r used in the commitment generation,
- Now, the verification consists of running again the Comm algorithm and checking whether it matches

Commitment scheme – properties

Binding property: The sender can not change their mind after committing

Commitment scheme – properties

Binding property: The sender can not change their mind after committing

- **Unconditional/statistical binding:** Even with an infinite computational power, it is not possible to change mind!

Commitment scheme – properties

Binding property: The sender can not change their mind after committing

- **Unconditional/statistical binding:** Even with an infinite computational power, it is not possible to change mind! In this case b is uniquely determined/is determined with overwhelming probability by $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, b, r)$
- **Computational binding:** (Limited to computationally bounded senders.) For every PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} the probability of finding two different valid openings of a commitment is negligible.

Commitment scheme – properties

Binding property: The sender can not change their mind after committing

- **Unconditional/statistical binding:** Even with an infinite computational power, it is not possible to change mind! In this case b is uniquely determined/is determined with overwhelming probability by $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, b, r)$
- **Computational binding:** (Limited to computationally bounded senders.) For every PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} the probability of finding two different valid openings of a commitment is negligible.

Hiding property: a commitment to b reveals (almost) no information about b

Binding property: The sender can not change their mind after committing

- **Unconditional/statistical binding:** Even with an infinite computational power, it is not possible to change mind! In this case b is uniquely determined/is determined with overwhelming probability by $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, b, r)$
- **Computational binding:** (Limited to computationally bounded senders.) For every PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} the probability of finding two different valid openings of a commitment is negligible.

Hiding property: a commitment to b reveals (almost) no information about b

- **Unconditional/statistical hiding:** for every $M_0, M_1 \in \mathcal{M}$ the two distribution ensembles

$$\{C_0 | (C_0, D_0) \leftarrow \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_0, R_0)\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{C_1 | (C_1, D_1) \leftarrow \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_1, R_1)\}$$

are identical/statistically indistinguishable, i.e. the statistical distance between the two is zero/negligible.

Commitment scheme – properties

Binding property: The sender can not change their mind after committing

- **Unconditional/statistical binding:** Even with an infinite computational power, it is not possible to change mind! In this case b is uniquely determined/is determined with overwhelming probability by $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, b, r)$
- **Computational binding:** (Limited to computationally bounded senders.) For every PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} the probability of finding two different valid openings of a commitment is negligible.

Hiding property: a commitment to b reveals (almost) no information about b

- **Unconditional/statistical hiding:** for every $M_0, M_1 \in \mathcal{M}$ the two distribution ensembles

$$\{C_0 | (C_0, D_0) \leftarrow \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_0, R_0)\} \quad \text{and} \quad \{C_1 | (C_1, D_1) \leftarrow \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_1, R_1)\}$$

are identical/statistically indistinguishable, i.e. the statistical distance between the two is zero/negligible.

- **Computational hiding:** (Limited to computationally bounded receivers.) For every PPT algorithm \mathcal{A} and every $M_0, M_1 \in \mathcal{M}$ the two distribution ensembles above are computationally indistinguishable.

Perfectly binding and perfectly hiding commitment:

Perfectly binding and perfectly hiding commitment:

- perfectly binding \Rightarrow there exist no different R_0, R_1, M_0, M_1 s.t.
 $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_0, R_0) = \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_1, R_1)$

Perfectly binding and perfectly hiding commitment:

- perfectly binding \Rightarrow there exist no different R_0, R_1, M_0, M_1 s.t.
 $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_0, R_0) = \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_1, R_1)$
- \Rightarrow An unbounded adversary can always find M given $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, R)$ (by brute-forcing all M and R)

Perfectly binding and perfectly hiding commitment:

- perfectly binding \Rightarrow there exist no different R_0, R_1, M_0, M_1 s.t.
 $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_0, R_0) = \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_1, R_1)$
- \Rightarrow An unbounded adversary can always find M given $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, R)$ (by brute-forcing all M and R)
- \Rightarrow Such commitment scheme **does not exist!**

Perfectly binding and perfectly hiding commitment:

- perfectly binding \Rightarrow there exist no different R_0, R_1, M_0, M_1 s.t.
 $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_0, R_0) = \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M_1, R_1)$
- \Rightarrow An unbounded adversary can always find M given $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, R)$ (by brute-forcing all M and R)
- \Rightarrow Such commitment scheme **does not exist!**

Hash based commitment:

$$\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, M, R) = H(R||M) \text{ where } R \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{t\lambda}$$

- Computationally binding if H - collision resistant
- Computationally hiding if H - preimage resistant

In the ROM:

- If message length is bounded - statistical binding can be achieved
- Statistical hiding can be achieved for $t \geq 5$

Pedersen bit-commitment:

$$\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R) = g^R \cdot h^B \text{ where } R \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_n \text{ and } h \in \langle g \rangle, |\langle g \rangle| = n$$

h is such that $\log_g h$ is unknown to the parties

Pedersen bit-commitment:

$$\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R) = g^R \cdot h^B \text{ where } R \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_n \text{ and } h \in \langle g \rangle, |\langle g \rangle| = n$$

h is such that $\log_g h$ is unknown to the parties

- Computationally binding under DL assumption

Pedersen bit-commitment:

$$\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R) = g^R \cdot h^B \text{ where } R \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_n \text{ and } h \in \langle g \rangle, |\langle g \rangle| = n$$

h is such that $\log_g h$ is unknown to the parties

- Computationally binding under DL assumption
 - $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R_0) = \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, 1 - B, R_1) \Rightarrow g^{R_0} \cdot h^B = g^{R_1} \cdot h^{1-B}$

Pedersen bit-commitment:

$$\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R) = g^R \cdot h^B \text{ where } R \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_n \text{ and } h \in \langle g \rangle, |\langle g \rangle| = n$$

h is such that $\log_g h$ is unknown to the parties

- Computationally binding under DL assumption
 - $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R_0) = \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, 1 - B, R_1) \Rightarrow g^{R_0} \cdot h^B = g^{R_1} \cdot h^{1-B}$
 - $\Rightarrow \log_g h = (R_0 - R_1)/(1 - 2B)$

Pedersen bit-commitment:

$$\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R) = g^R \cdot h^B \text{ where } R \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_n \text{ and } h \in \langle g \rangle, |\langle g \rangle| = n$$

h is such that $\log_g h$ is unknown to the parties

- Computationally binding under DL assumption
 - $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R_0) = \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, 1 - B, R_1) \Rightarrow g^{R_0} \cdot h^B = g^{R_1} \cdot h^{1-B}$
 - $\Rightarrow \log_g h = (R_0 - R_1)/(1 - 2B)$
 - \Rightarrow DL broken!

Pedersen bit-commitment:

$$\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R) = g^R \cdot h^B \text{ where } R \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_n \text{ and } h \in \langle g \rangle, |\langle g \rangle| = n$$

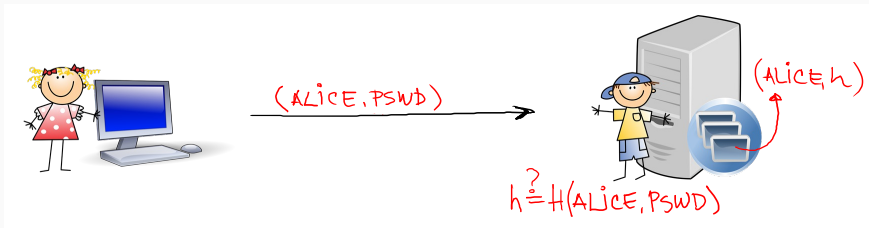
h is such that $\log_g h$ is unknown to the parties

- Computationally binding under DL assumption
 - $\text{Comm}(\text{pk}, B, R_0) = \text{Comm}(\text{pk}, 1 - B, R_1) \Rightarrow g^{R_0} \cdot h^B = g^{R_1} \cdot h^{1-B}$
 - $\Rightarrow \log_g h = (R_0 - R_1)/(1 - 2B)$
 - \Rightarrow DL broken!
- Perfectly hiding - g^R and $g^R h$ are perfectly indistinguishable

Zero Knowledge Protocols

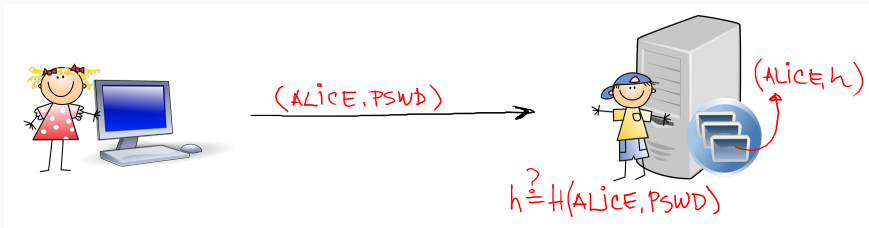
In practice ...

- Most common type of authentication - using passwords
- Typical flow:



In practice ...

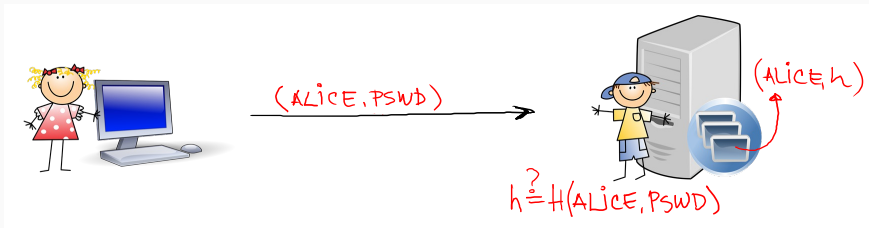
- Most common type of authentication - using passwords
- Typical flow:



- Many things can go wrong when password is sent to server and hash stored at server

In practice ...

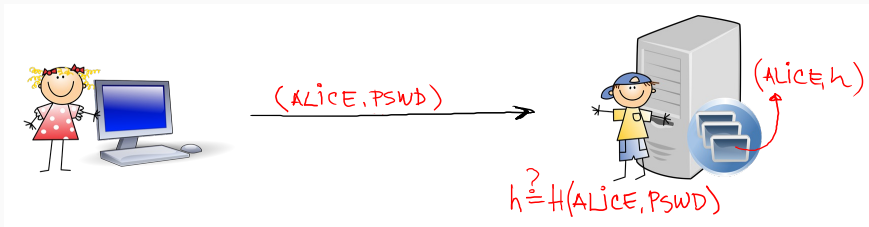
- Most common type of authentication - using passwords
- Typical flow:



- Many things can go wrong when password is sent to server and hash stored at server
 - insecure communication
 - insecure storage
- Alice would rather not send her password...

In practice ...

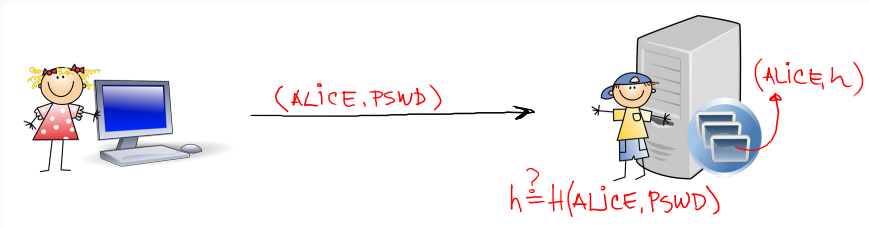
- Most common type of authentication - using passwords
- Typical flow:



- Many things can go wrong when password is sent to server and hash stored at server
 - insecure communication
 - insecure storage
- Alice would rather not send her password... but still be able to prove she knows it

In practice ...

- Most common type of authentication - using passwords
- Typical flow:



- Many things can go wrong when password is sent to server and hash stored at server
 - insecure communication
 - insecure storage
- Alice would rather not send her password... but still be able to prove she knows it
- Solution?

Zero Knowledge Identification Protocols

- Alice (the prover \mathcal{P}) wants to prove the knowledge of a secret to Bob (the verifier \mathcal{V})

Zero Knowledge Identification Protocols

- Alice (the prover \mathcal{P}) wants to prove the knowledge of a secret to Bob (the verifier \mathcal{V})
- They engage in an **interactive proof** protocol
- Important:
 - Alice should (almost) always be able to convince Bob if she knows the secret (completeness)

Zero Knowledge Identification Protocols

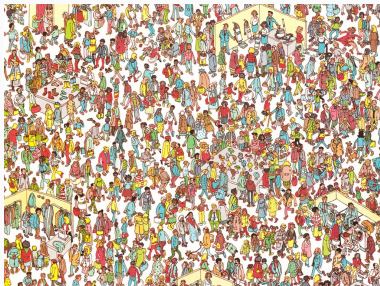
- Alice (the prover \mathcal{P}) wants to prove the knowledge of a secret to Bob (the verifier \mathcal{V})
- They engage in an **interactive proof** protocol
- Important:
 - Alice should (almost) always be able to convince Bob if she knows the secret (completeness)
 - Alice should (almost) never be able to convince Bob if she doesn't know the secret, even if she cheats (soundness)

Zero Knowledge Identification Protocols

- Alice (the prover \mathcal{P}) wants to prove the knowledge of a secret to Bob (the verifier \mathcal{V})
- They engage in an **interactive proof** protocol
- Important:
 - Alice should (almost) always be able to convince Bob if she knows the secret (completeness)
 - Alice should (almost) never be able to convince Bob if she doesn't know the secret, even if she cheats (soundness)
 - The interaction should leak the secret as little as possible even if Bob cheats

Zero Knowledge Identification Protocols

- Alice (the prover \mathcal{P}) wants to prove the knowledge of a secret to Bob (the verifier \mathcal{V})
- They engage in an **interactive proof** protocol
- Important:
 - Alice should (almost) always be able to convince Bob if she knows the secret (completeness)
 - Alice should (almost) never be able to convince Bob if she doesn't know the secret, even if she cheats (soundness)
 - The interaction should leak the secret as little as possible even if Bob cheats
 - Ideally, not at all - **Zero-Knowledge (ZK) property**



Let L be a language. The pair $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is an interactive proof system for L (proving membership of statement) if it satisfies the following two conditions:

- Completeness: If $x \in L$, then the probability that $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ rejects x is negligible in the length of x .
- Soundness: If $x \notin L$ then for any prover \mathcal{P}^* , the probability that $(\mathcal{P}^*, \mathcal{V})$ accepts x is negligible in the length of x . This probability is called **soundness error**.

Some terminology:

- **Cheating parties** will be denoted by $\mathcal{P}^*, \mathcal{V}^*$ - they don't follow the protocol (may use a cheating strategy)

Let L be a language. The pair $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is an interactive proof system for L (proving membership of statement) if it satisfies the following two conditions:

- **Completeness:** If $x \in L$, then the probability that $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ rejects x is negligible in the length of x .
- **Soundness:** If $x \notin L$ then for any prover \mathcal{P}^* , the probability that $(\mathcal{P}^*, \mathcal{V})$ accepts x is negligible in the length of x . This probability is called **soundness error**.

Some terminology:

- **Cheating parties** will be denoted by $\mathcal{P}^*, \mathcal{V}^*$ - they don't follow the protocol (may use a cheating strategy)
- **Transcript** - a record of the entire conversation between the parties

Let L be a language. The pair $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ is an interactive proof system for L (proving membership of statement) if it satisfies the following two conditions:

- **Completeness:** If $x \in L$, then the probability that $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ rejects x is negligible in the length of x .
- **Soundness:** If $x \notin L$ then for any prover \mathcal{P}^* , the probability that $(\mathcal{P}^*, \mathcal{V})$ accepts x is negligible in the length of x . This probability is called **soundness error**.

Some terminology:

- **Cheating parties** will be denoted by $\mathcal{P}^*, \mathcal{V}^*$ - they don't follow the protocol (may use a cheating strategy)
- **Transcript** - a record of the entire conversation between the parties
- The verifier is always polynomial time bounded
- The prover may be unbounded (proof systems) or polynomial time bounded (argument systems)
- In practice we will be always interested in **arguments**

What does Zero Knowledge mean?

- Whatever strategy the verifier follows, and whatever a priori knowledge he may have, he learns nothing except for the truth of the prover's claim

What does Zero Knowledge mean?

- Whatever strategy the verifier follows, and whatever a priori knowledge he may have, he learns nothing except for the truth of the prover's claim
- if nothing is leaked, this means that the verifier can **simulate** the conversation with the prover without even interacting with him!

What does Zero Knowledge mean?

- Whatever strategy the verifier follows, and whatever a priori knowledge he may have, he learns nothing except for the truth of the prover's claim
- if nothing is leaked, this means that the verifier can **simulate** the conversation with the prover without even interacting with him!

An interactive proof system or argument $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ for language L is **zero-knowledge** if for every PPT verifier \mathcal{V}^* , there is a simulator $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{V}^*}$ running in expected probabilistic polynomial time, such that:

For $x \in L$ the distribution of transcripts output by $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{V}^*}$ on input x is

- perfectly (perfect ZK)
- statistically (statistical ZK)
- computationally (computational ZK)

indistinguishable from the distribution of transcripts produced by $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V}^*)$ on input x (given to \mathcal{V}^*).

What does Zero Knowledge mean?

- Whatever strategy the verifier follows, and whatever a priori knowledge he may have, he learns nothing except for the truth of the prover's claim
- if nothing is leaked, this means that the verifier can **simulate** the conversation with the prover without even interacting with him!

An interactive proof system or argument $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ for language L is **zero-knowledge** if for every PPT verifier \mathcal{V}^* , there is a simulator $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{V}^*}$ running in expected probabilistic polynomial time, such that:

For $x \in L$ the distribution of transcripts output by $\mathcal{S}_{\mathcal{V}^*}$ on input x is

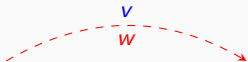
- perfectly (perfect ZK)
- statistically (statistical ZK)
- computationally (computational ZK)

indistinguishable from the distribution of transcripts produced by $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V}^*)$ on input x (given to \mathcal{V}^*).

- the simulator can generate messages of a transcript **in any order it wants**

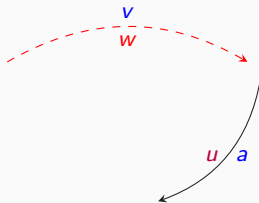
An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it



An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

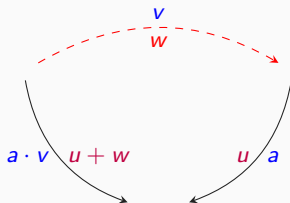
- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it



- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it

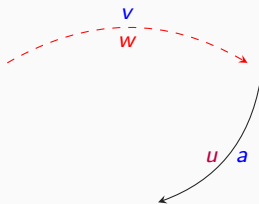


- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication
- Prover shows they can close circle, by revealing **only one** of purple values

$\mathcal{P}(\text{pk} = v, \text{sk} = w)$	$\mathcal{V}(\text{pk} = v)$

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it

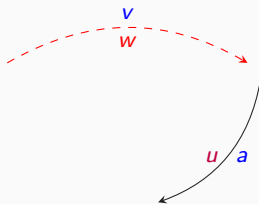


- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication
- Prover shows they can close circle, by revealing **only one** of **purple values**

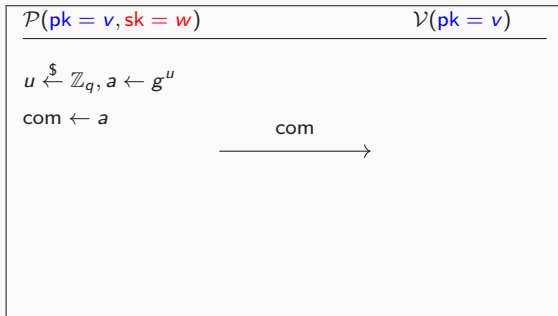
$\mathcal{P}(\text{pk} = v, \text{sk} = w)$	$\mathcal{V}(\text{pk} = v)$
$u \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q, a \leftarrow g^u$	
$\text{com} \leftarrow a$	

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it

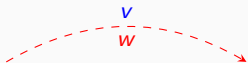


- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication
- Prover shows they can close circle, by revealing **only one** of **purple values**

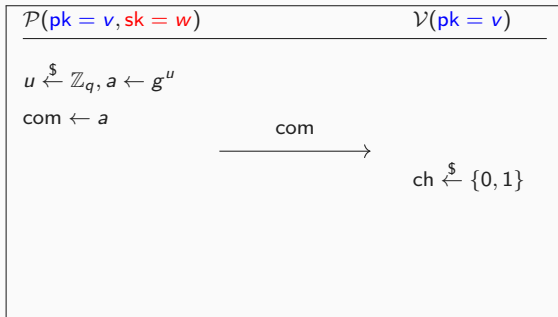


An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it

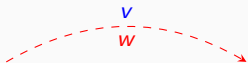


- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication
- Prover shows they can close circle, by revealing **only one** of **purple values**

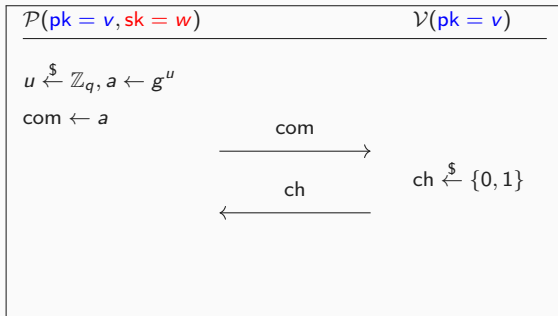


An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it

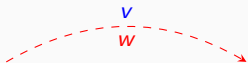


- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication
- Prover shows they can close circle, by revealing **only one** of **purple values**

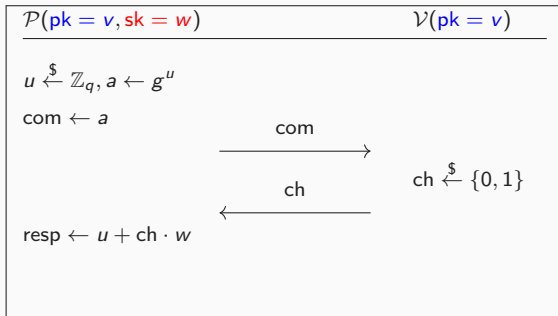


An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it

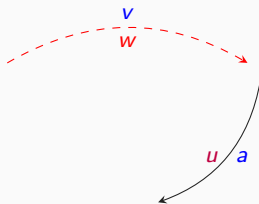


- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication
- Prover shows they can close circle, by revealing **only one** of **purple values**

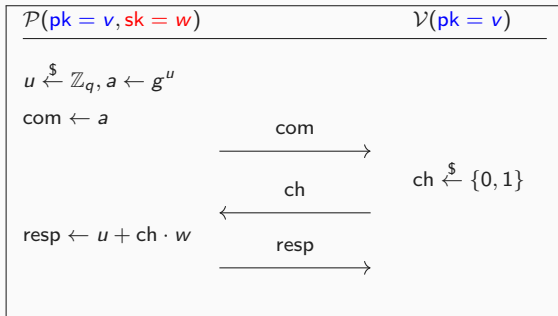


An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it

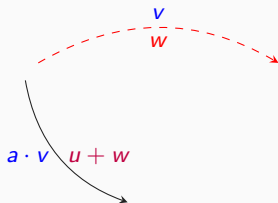


- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication
- Prover shows they can close circle, by revealing **only one** of **purple values**

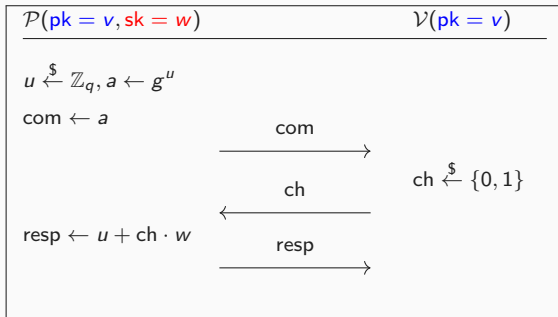


An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it

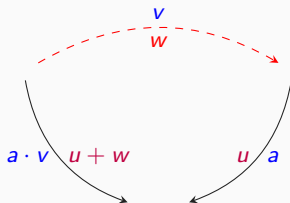


- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication
- Prover shows they can close circle, by revealing **only one** of **purple values**

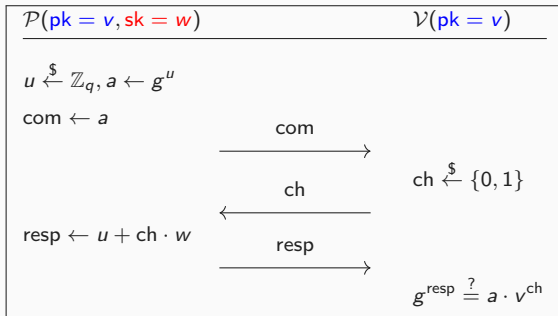


An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- Given p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q , $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$.
- The prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of w without revealing any information about it



- Inside of circle - addition
- Outside of circle - multiplication
- Prover shows they can close circle, by revealing **only one** of **purple values**



An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$.
 - \mathcal{P} commits to a .

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$.
 - \mathcal{P} commits to a .
 - If the real challenge $\text{ch} = \text{ch}^*$, the verifier accepts, otherwise it rejects.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
 - **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $resp \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{resp} / v^{ch^*}$.
 - \mathcal{P} commits to a .
 - If the real challenge $ch = ch^*$, the verifier accepts, otherwise it rejects.
- $\Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ convinces the verifier with probability $1/2$ - soundness error.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$.
 - \mathcal{P} commits to a .
 - If the real challenge $\text{ch} = \text{ch}^*$, the verifier accepts, otherwise it rejects.

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ convinces the verifier with probability $1/2$ - soundness error.

Can \mathcal{P} successfully answer both challenges?

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$.
 - \mathcal{P} commits to a .
 - If the real challenge $\text{ch} = \text{ch}^*$, the verifier accepts, otherwise it rejects.

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ convinces the verifier with probability $1/2$ - soundness error.

Can \mathcal{P} successfully answer both challenges?

- Suppose they can. Let resp_0 and resp_1 be the two correct answers to the challenges 0 and 1.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$.
 - \mathcal{P} commits to a .
 - If the real challenge $\text{ch} = \text{ch}^*$, the verifier accepts, otherwise it rejects.

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ convinces the verifier with probability $1/2$ - soundness error.

Can \mathcal{P} successfully answer both challenges?

- Suppose they can. Let resp_0 and resp_1 be the two correct answers to the challenges 0 and 1.
- Then we get $w = \text{resp}_1 - \text{resp}_0$, which is a contradiction – the prover can easily calculate w .

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$.
 - \mathcal{P} commits to a .
 - If the real challenge $\text{ch} = \text{ch}^*$, the verifier accepts, otherwise it rejects.

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ convinces the verifier with probability $1/2$ - soundness error.

Can \mathcal{P} successfully answer both challenges?

- Suppose they can. Let resp_0 and resp_1 be the two correct answers to the challenges 0 and 1.
- Then we get $w = \text{resp}_1 - \text{resp}_0$, which is a contradiction – the prover can easily calculate w .

To reduce the error to negligible in a security parameter λ , the protocol needs to be repeated λ times.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$.
 - \mathcal{P} commits to a .
 - If the real challenge $\text{ch} = \text{ch}^*$, the verifier accepts, otherwise it rejects.

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ convinces the verifier with probability $1/2$ - soundness error.

Can \mathcal{P} successfully answer both challenges?

- Suppose they can. Let resp_0 and resp_1 be the two correct answers to the challenges 0 and 1.
- Then we get $w = \text{resp}_1 - \text{resp}_0$, which is a contradiction – the prover can easily calculate w .

To reduce the error to negligible in a security parameter λ , the protocol needs to be repeated λ times. The soundness error becomes $1/2^\lambda$.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Completeness:** Trivially satisfied. If indeed $v = g^w$ and $a = g^u$, then the verifier will always accept. **Why?**
- **Soundness:** Suppose the prover does not know w . \mathcal{P} can always answer one challenge, if they prepare well. **How?**
 - \mathcal{P} makes a guess which challenge they will receive, say ch^* , and they prepare for it by calculating $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and then $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$.
 - \mathcal{P} commits to a .
 - If the real challenge $\text{ch} = \text{ch}^*$, the verifier accepts, otherwise it rejects.

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ convinces the verifier with probability $1/2$ - soundness error.

Can \mathcal{P} successfully answer both challenges?

- Suppose they can. Let resp_0 and resp_1 be the two correct answers to the challenges 0 and 1.
- Then we get $w = \text{resp}_1 - \text{resp}_0$, which is a contradiction – the prover can easily calculate w .

To reduce the error to negligible in a security parameter λ , the protocol needs to be repeated λ times. The soundness error becomes $1/2^\lambda$.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$ for randomly chosen $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{\text{ch}^*}$ for randomly chosen $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. \mathcal{S} sends $\text{com} = a$ to \mathcal{V}^* .

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{resp} / v^{ch^*}$ for randomly chosen $resp \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. \mathcal{S} sends $com = a$ to \mathcal{V}^* .
 - ③ \mathcal{S} gets a challenge ch from \mathcal{V}^* . If $ch = ch^*$, \mathcal{S} outputs $(a, ch^*, resp)$.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{resp} / v^{ch^*}$ for randomly chosen $resp \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. \mathcal{S} sends $com = a$ to \mathcal{V}^* .
 - ③ \mathcal{S} gets a challenge ch from \mathcal{V}^* . If $ch = ch^*$, \mathcal{S} outputs $(a, ch^*, resp)$. If $ch \neq ch^*$, \mathcal{S} **rewinds the verifier** \mathcal{V}^* to the point before it receives com , and goes to step 2.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{ch^*}$ for randomly chosen $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. \mathcal{S} sends $\text{com} = a$ to \mathcal{V}^* .
 - ③ \mathcal{S} gets a challenge ch from \mathcal{V}^* . If $ch = ch^*$, \mathcal{S} outputs (a, ch^*, resp) . If $ch \neq ch^*$, \mathcal{S} **rewinds the verifier** \mathcal{V}^* to the point before it receives com , and goes to step 2.
- **Rewinding of adversaries/cheating parties:**

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{resp} / v^{ch^*}$ for randomly chosen $resp \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. \mathcal{S} sends $com = a$ to \mathcal{V}^* .
 - ③ \mathcal{S} gets a challenge ch from \mathcal{V}^* . If $ch = ch^*$, \mathcal{S} outputs $(a, ch^*, resp)$. If $ch \neq ch^*$, \mathcal{S} **rewinds the verifier** \mathcal{V}^* to the point before it receives com , and goes to step 2.
- **Rewinding of adversaries/cheating parties:** We always consider these to be probabilistic Turing machines, so rewinding is possible, until a desired output is produced

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{ch^*}$ for randomly chosen $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. \mathcal{S} sends $\text{com} = a$ to \mathcal{V}^* .
 - ③ \mathcal{S} gets a challenge ch from \mathcal{V}^* . If $ch = ch^*$, \mathcal{S} outputs (a, ch^*, resp) . If $ch \neq ch^*$, \mathcal{S} **rewinds the verifier** \mathcal{V}^* to the point before it receives com , and goes to step 2.
- **Rewinding of adversaries/cheating parties:** We always consider these to be probabilistic Turing machines, so rewinding is possible, until a desired output is produced
- **\mathcal{S} is expected probabilistic polynomial time:**

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{resp} / v^{ch^*}$ for randomly chosen $resp \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. \mathcal{S} sends $com = a$ to \mathcal{V}^* .
 - ③ \mathcal{S} gets a challenge ch from \mathcal{V}^* . If $ch = ch^*$, \mathcal{S} outputs $(a, ch^*, resp)$. If $ch \neq ch^*$, \mathcal{S} **rewinds the verifier** \mathcal{V}^* to the point before it receives com , and goes to step 2.
- **Rewinding of adversaries/cheating parties:** We always consider these to be probabilistic Turing machines, so rewinding is possible, until a desired output is produced
- **\mathcal{S} is expected probabilistic polynomial time:** One round is expected to be repeated 2 times, hence whole simulation takes expected 2λ time.

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{\text{resp}} / v^{ch^*}$ for randomly chosen $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. \mathcal{S} sends $\text{com} = a$ to \mathcal{V}^* .
 - ③ \mathcal{S} gets a challenge ch from \mathcal{V}^* . If $ch = ch^*$, \mathcal{S} outputs (a, ch^*, resp) . If $ch \neq ch^*$, \mathcal{S} **rewinds the verifier** \mathcal{V}^* to the point before it receives com , and goes to step 2.
- **Rewinding of adversaries/cheating parties:** We always consider these to be probabilistic Turing machines, so rewinding is possible, until a desired output is produced
- **\mathcal{S} is expected probabilistic polynomial time:** One round is expected to be repeated 2 times, hence whole simulation takes expected 2λ time.
- **Distributions of simulated and real protocol are exactly the same:**

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Zero-Knowledgness:** We will show the protocol is zero-knowledge. We build a simulator \mathcal{S} (no knowledge of the secret w , and is polynomially bounded) as follows:
 - ① \mathcal{S} starts the verifier \mathcal{V}^* by giving it the parameters p, q, g and the public v
 - ② \mathcal{S} makes a guess which challenge it will receive, say ch^* , and it prepares for it by calculating $a = g^{resp} / v^{ch^*}$ for randomly chosen $resp \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$. \mathcal{S} sends $com = a$ to \mathcal{V}^* .
 - ③ \mathcal{S} gets a challenge ch from \mathcal{V}^* . If $ch = ch^*$, \mathcal{S} outputs $(a, ch^*, resp)$. If $ch \neq ch^*$, \mathcal{S} **rewinds the verifier** \mathcal{V}^* to the point before it receives com , and goes to step 2.
- **Rewinding of adversaries/cheating parties:** We always consider these to be probabilistic Turing machines, so rewinding is possible, until a desired output is produced
- **\mathcal{S} is expected probabilistic polynomial time:** One round is expected to be repeated 2 times, hence whole simulation takes expected 2λ time.
- **Distributions of simulated and real protocol are exactly the same:** The candidate commitments a are uniform over the group $\langle g \rangle$, as well as the responses, just as in the real protocol. The challenge is produced just as in the real protocol (it is produced by \mathcal{V}^*). Hence the distributions are identical (we say the protocol is perfect zero-knowledge.)

Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

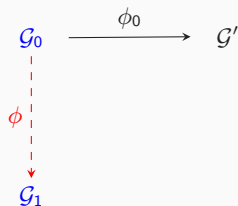
- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



$\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1, \phi)$	$\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1)$

Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

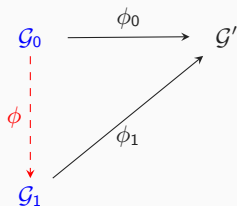
- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



$\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1, \phi)$	$\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1)$

Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



$\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1, \phi)$	$\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1)$

Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



\mathcal{G}'

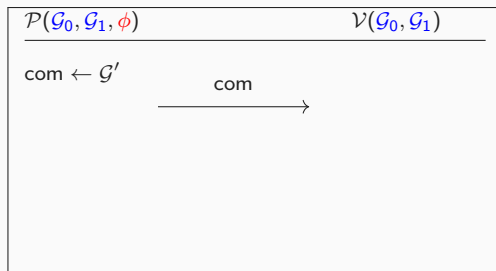
$\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1, \phi)$	$\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1)$
$\text{com} \leftarrow \mathcal{G}'$	

Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



\mathcal{G}'

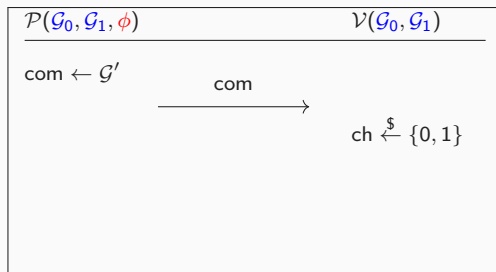


Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



\mathcal{G}'

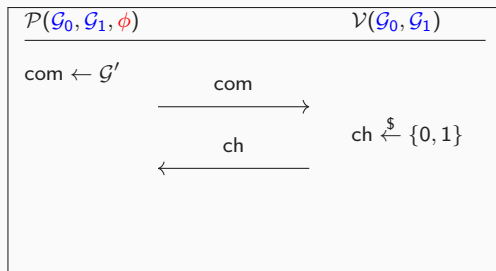


Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



\mathcal{G}'

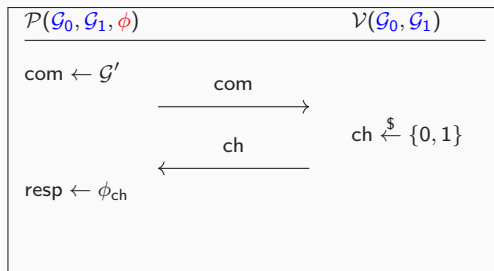


Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it

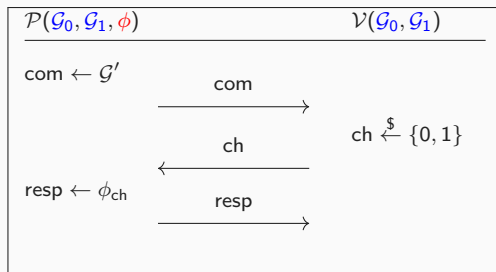
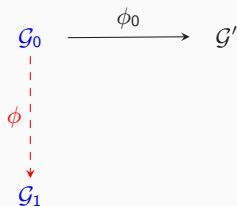


\mathcal{G}'



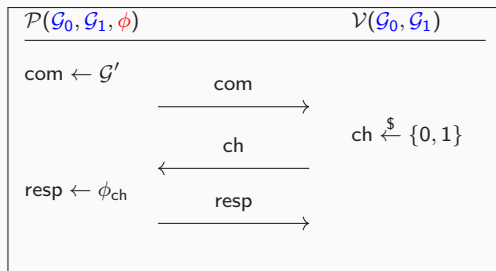
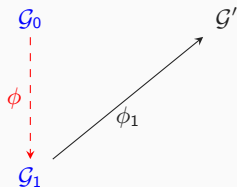
Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



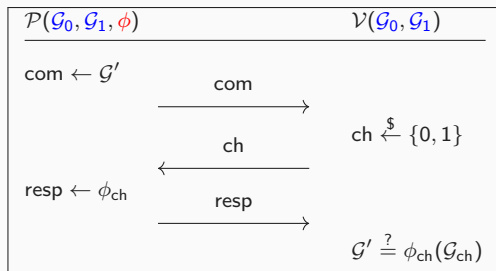
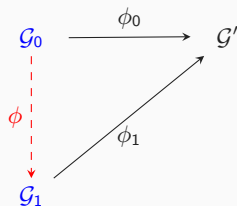
Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



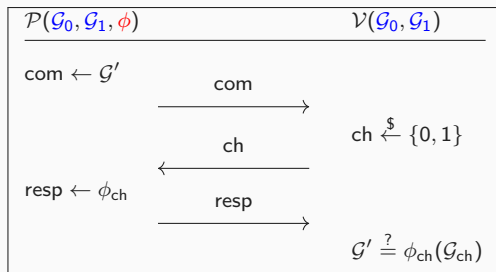
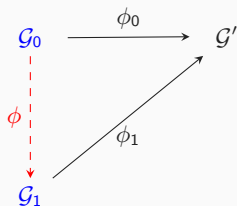
Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it

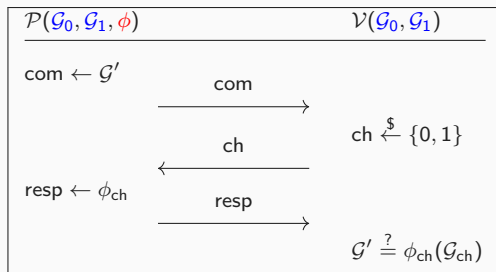
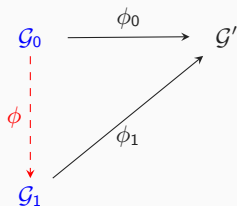


Note:

- No probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms are known for the GI problem

Homework - ZK for Graph Isomorphism (GI)

- Let ϕ be an isomorphism between two graphs \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 s.t. $\mathcal{G}_1 = \phi(\mathcal{G}_0)$.
- Given $\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_1$, the prover \mathcal{P} wants to prove to the verifier \mathcal{V} knowledge of ϕ without revealing any information about it



Note:

- No probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms are known for the GI problem
- This generalizes to other isomorphisms on different objects
- **Homework: Show in detail that the above protocol is Zero-Knowledge!**

Applications of ZK proofs

- Whenever we need to prove knowledge of secrets without revealing them
- Hence, for protecting confidentiality, privacy, anonymity
- Indispensible tool in Privacy-enhancing technologies (PETs)

Applications of ZK proofs

- Whenever we need to prove knowledge of secrets without revealing them
- Hence, for protecting confidentiality, privacy, anonymity
- Indispensable tool in Privacy-enhancing technologies (PETs)

Concrete applications:

- For anonymous, verifiable voting
 - voters can be sure their vote is anonymous (their identity is not connected to the cast vote) and that their vote is included in the tally.

- Whenever we need to prove knowledge of secrets without revealing them
- Hence, for protecting confidentiality, privacy, anonymity
- Indispensible tool in Privacy-enhancing technologies (PETs)

Concrete applications:

- For anonymous, verifiable voting
 - voters can be sure their vote is anonymous (their identity is not connected to the cast vote) and that their vote is included in the tally.
- For user authentication
 - as identification schemes without revealing or exchanging the passwords

Applications of ZK proofs

- Whenever we need to prove knowledge of secrets without revealing them
- Hence, for protecting confidentiality, privacy, anonymity
- Indispensible tool in Privacy-enhancing technologies (PETs)

Concrete applications:

- For anonymous, verifiable voting
 - voters can be sure their vote is anonymous (their identity is not connected to the cast vote) and that their vote is included in the tally.
- For user authentication
 - as identification schemes without revealing or exchanging the passwords
- In multi-party computation
 - to make sure parties don't cheat and follow the protocol specs

Applications of ZK proofs

- Whenever we need to prove knowledge of secrets without revealing them
- Hence, for protecting confidentiality, privacy, anonymity
- Indispensible tool in Privacy-enhancing technologies (PETs)

Concrete applications:

- For anonymous, verifiable voting
 - voters can be sure their vote is anonymous (their identity is not connected to the cast vote) and that their vote is included in the tally.
- For user authentication
 - as identification schemes without revealing or exchanging the passwords
- In multi-party computation
 - to make sure parties don't cheat and follow the protocol specs
- For preserving privacy of data
 - for example, to show to the bank you have enough income to repay a loan, without revealing the actual income

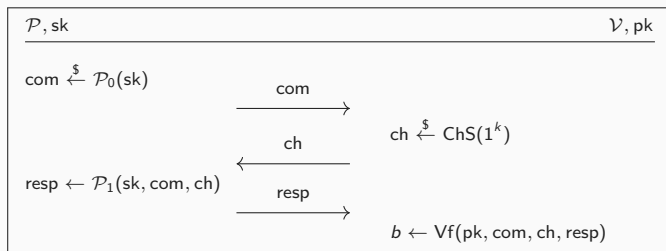
Applications of ZK proofs

- Whenever we need to prove knowledge of secrets without revealing them
- Hence, for protecting confidentiality, privacy, anonymity
- Indispensible tool in Privacy-enhancing technologies (PETs)

Concrete applications:

- For anonymous, verifiable voting
 - voters can be sure their vote is anonymous (their identity is not connected to the cast vote) and that their vote is included in the tally.
- For user authentication
 - as identification schemes without revealing or exchanging the passwords
- In multi-party computation
 - to make sure parties don't cheat and follow the protocol specs
- For preserving privacy of data
 - for example, to show to the bank you have enough income to repay a loan, without revealing the actual income
- In Blockchain technologies
 - for privacy and anonymity

Sigma protocols

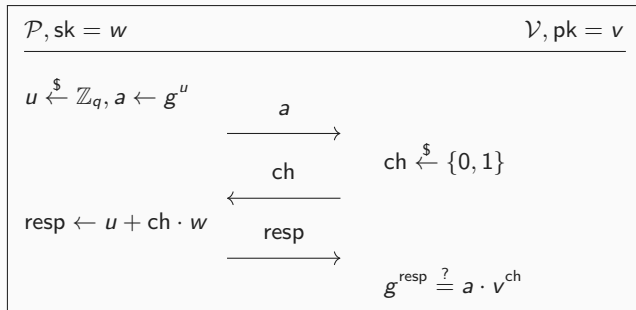


Given a relation $R = V \times W$, where $sk \in W$ is called **witness** and language $L_R = \{v \in V \mid \exists w \in W, (v, w) \in R\}$ for the relation, a Σ protocol is a three move protocol as above satisfying:

- **Completeness:** (as before)
- **Special soundness:** There exists a PPT algorithm \mathcal{K} - knowledge extractor, that given two valid transcripts $trans = (com, ch, resp)$, $trans' = (com, ch', resp')$, $ch \neq ch'$, extracts the witness sk with non-negligible probability
- **Special Honest Verifier ZK:** Same as before, except, the verifier is honest (follows the protocol), and the simulator \mathcal{S} needs to output a valid transcript for a given challenge ch .

Recall Schnorr's protocol

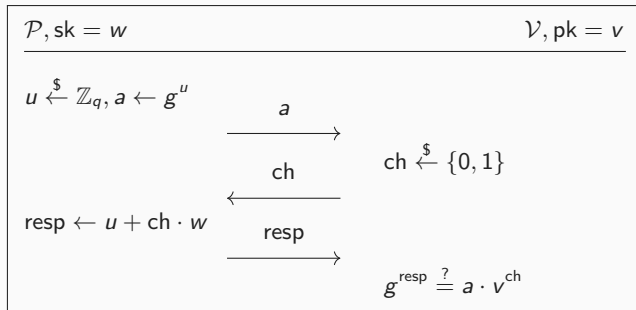
p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q . $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$



- **Soundness error** - $1/2$, so needs many rounds to achieve negligible soundness error

Recall Schnorr's protocol

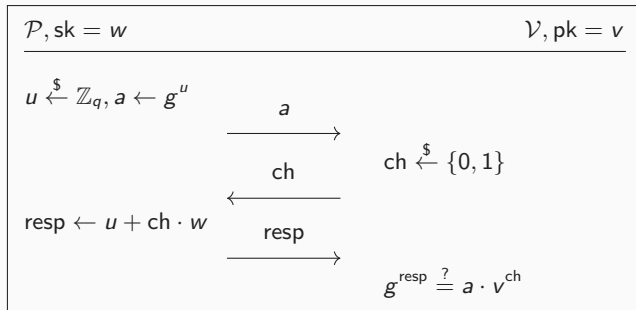
p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q . $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$



- **Soundness error** - $1/2$, so needs many rounds to achieve negligible soundness error
- Each round performs expensive exponentiations in a group of order q

Recall Schnorr's protocol

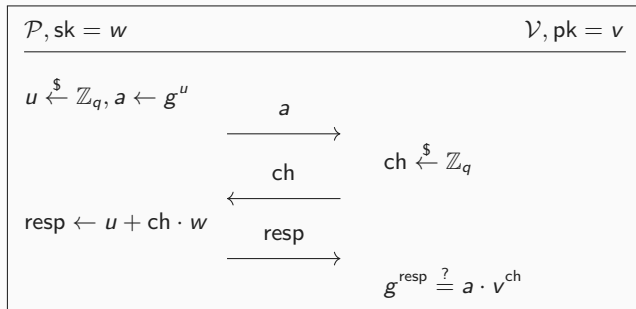
p -prime, $q|p-1$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q . $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $v = g^w \pmod{p}$



- **Soundness error** - $1/2$, so needs many rounds to achieve negligible soundness error
- Each round performs expensive exponentiations in a group of order q
- Can we do better?

Schnorr identification protocol

A more efficient **single round variant** - Schnorr identification protocol



- We show Schnorr identification protocol is Σ -protocol
- **Completeness:** Prover that knows w always succeeds

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Special soundness:** Given two accepting transcripts for the same commitment
 $\text{trans} = (\text{com}, \text{ch}, \text{resp}) = (a, \text{ch}, u + \text{ch} \cdot w)$, and
 $\text{trans}' = (\text{com}, \text{ch}', \text{resp}') = (a, \text{ch}', u + \text{ch}' \cdot w)$, we have

$$w = \frac{\text{resp} - \text{resp}'}{(\text{ch} - \text{ch}')} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{the witness can be extracted with probability 1.}$$

- **Not known to be ZK:** (but no known attacks)
 - One round implies that the challenge space must be exponentially large

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Special soundness:** Given two accepting transcripts for the same commitment
 $\text{trans} = (\text{com}, \text{ch}, \text{resp}) = (a, \text{ch}, u + \text{ch} \cdot w)$, and
 $\text{trans}' = (\text{com}, \text{ch}', \text{resp}') = (a, \text{ch}', u + \text{ch}' \cdot w)$, we have

$$w = \frac{\text{resp} - \text{resp}'}{(\text{ch} - \text{ch}')} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{the witness can be extracted with probability 1.}$$

- **Not known to be ZK:** (but no known attacks)
 - One round implies that the challenge space must be exponentially large
 - This implies “rewinding until challenge is guessed” requires exponential time

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Special soundness:** Given two accepting transcripts for the same commitment
 $\text{trans} = (\text{com}, \text{ch}, \text{resp}) = (a, \text{ch}, u + \text{ch} \cdot w)$, and
 $\text{trans}' = (\text{com}, \text{ch}', \text{resp}') = (a, \text{ch}', u + \text{ch}' \cdot w)$, we have

$$w = \frac{\text{resp} - \text{resp}'}{(\text{ch} - \text{ch}')} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{the witness can be extracted with probability 1.}$$

- **Not known to be ZK:** (but no known attacks)
 - One round implies that the challenge space must be exponentially large
 - This implies “rewinding until challenge is guessed” requires exponential time
 - This implies PPT simulator as previously will fail!

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Special soundness:** Given two accepting transcripts for the same commitment
 $\text{trans} = (\text{com}, \text{ch}, \text{resp}) = (a, \text{ch}, u + \text{ch} \cdot w)$, and
 $\text{trans}' = (\text{com}, \text{ch}', \text{resp}') = (a, \text{ch}', u + \text{ch}' \cdot w)$, we have

$$w = \frac{\text{resp} - \text{resp}'}{(\text{ch} - \text{ch}')} \Rightarrow \text{the witness can be extracted with probability 1.}$$

- **Not known to be ZK:** (but no known attacks)
 - One round implies that the challenge space must be exponentially large
 - This implies “rewinding until challenge is guessed” requires exponential time
 - This implies PPT simulator as previously will fail!
- **Special HVZK:** For given $\text{ch} \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - Choose $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and calculate $a \leftarrow g^{\text{resp}} v^{-\text{ch}}$

An example walkthrough - Schnorr protocol

- **Special soundness:** Given two accepting transcripts for the same commitment
 $\text{trans} = (\text{com}, \text{ch}, \text{resp}) = (a, \text{ch}, u + \text{ch} \cdot w)$, and
 $\text{trans}' = (\text{com}, \text{ch}', \text{resp}') = (a, \text{ch}', u + \text{ch}' \cdot w)$, we have

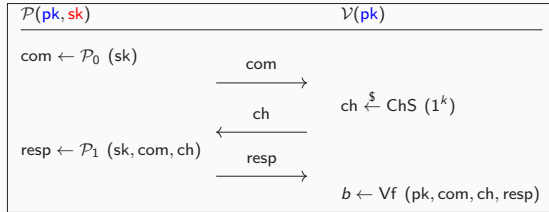
$$w = \frac{\text{resp} - \text{resp}'}{(\text{ch} - \text{ch}')} \Rightarrow \text{the witness can be extracted with probability 1.}$$

- **Not known to be ZK:** (but no known attacks)
 - One round implies that the challenge space must be exponentially large
 - This implies “rewinding until challenge is guessed” requires exponential time
 - This implies PPT simulator as previously will fail!
- **Special HVZK:** For given $\text{ch} \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - Choose $\text{resp} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ and calculate $a \leftarrow g^{\text{resp}} v^{-\text{ch}}$
 - The distributions of the real transcripts and the simulated transcripts are the same – in both a given valid transcript occurs with prob. $1/q$ (in one first u is chosen a random, in the other first resp is chosen at random.)

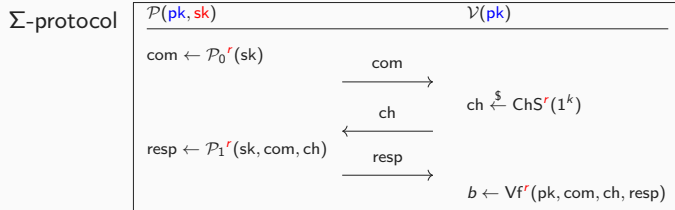
Fiat-Shamir signatures

The Fiat-Shamir transform

Σ -protocol

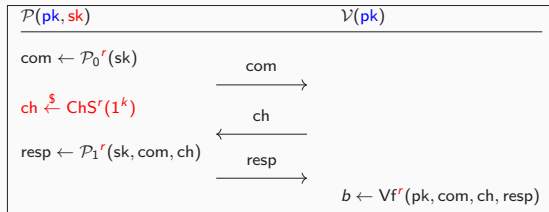


The Fiat-Shamir transform

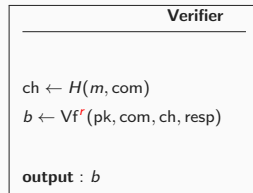
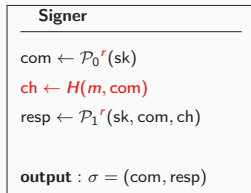


The Fiat-Shamir transform

Σ -protocol



FS signature



The Fiat-Shamir transform

Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ the security parameter, $\text{IDS} = (\text{KGen}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ an identification scheme that is a Σ -protocol (special sound with knowledge error κ and HVZK).

Let $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^r$ be modelled as a random oracle. The **Fiat-Shamir signature scheme** derived from IDS is the triplet of algorithms $(\text{KGen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vf})$ s.t.:

- $(\text{sk}, \text{pk}) \leftarrow \text{KGen}(1^k)$,
- $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp}) \leftarrow \text{Sign}(\text{sk}, m)$ where $\text{com} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}_0^r(\text{sk})$, $h = H(m, \text{com})$, $\text{resp} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}_1^r(\text{sk}, \text{com}, h)$.
- $\text{Vf}(\text{pk}, m, \sigma)$ parses $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp})$, computes $h = H(m, \text{com})$, and outputs $\mathcal{V}^r(\text{pk}, \text{com}, h, \text{resp})$.

The Fiat-Shamir transform

Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ the security parameter, $\text{IDS} = (\text{KGen}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ an identification scheme that is a Σ -protocol (special sound with knowledge error κ and HVZK).

Let $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^r$ be modelled as a random oracle. The **Fiat-Shamir signature scheme** derived from IDS is the triplet of algorithms $(\text{KGen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vf})$ s.t.:

- $(\text{sk}, \text{pk}) \leftarrow \text{KGen}(1^k)$,
 - $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp}) \leftarrow \text{Sign}(\text{sk}, m)$ where $\text{com} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}_0^r(\text{sk})$, $h = H(m, \text{com})$, $\text{resp} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}_1^r(\text{sk}, \text{com}, h)$.
 - $\text{Vf}(\text{pk}, m, \sigma)$ parses $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp})$, computes $h = H(m, \text{com})$, and outputs $\mathcal{V}^r(\text{pk}, \text{com}, h, \text{resp})$.
-
- The number of rounds r is chosen such that $\kappa^r < \frac{1}{2^\lambda}$.

The Fiat-Shamir transform

Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ the security parameter, $\text{IDS} = (\text{KGen}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{V})$ an identification scheme that is a Σ -protocol (special sound with knowledge error κ and HVZK).

Let $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^r$ be modelled as a random oracle. The **Fiat-Shamir signature scheme** derived from IDS is the triplet of algorithms $(\text{KGen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vf})$ s.t.:

- $(\text{sk}, \text{pk}) \leftarrow \text{KGen}(1^k)$,
 - $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp}) \leftarrow \text{Sign}(\text{sk}, m)$ where $\text{com} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}_0^r(\text{sk})$, $h = H(m, \text{com})$, $\text{resp} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}_1^r(\text{sk}, \text{com}, h)$.
 - $\text{Vf}(\text{pk}, m, \sigma)$ parses $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp})$, computes $h = H(m, \text{com})$, and outputs $\mathcal{V}^r(\text{pk}, \text{com}, h, \text{resp})$.
-
- The number of rounds r is chosen such that $\kappa^r < \frac{1}{2^\lambda}$.
 - Note that the “full” signature is $(\text{com}, h, \text{resp})$, but h can be omitted, since it can be recreated from m and com .

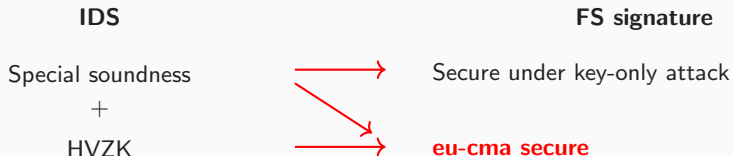
Security of FS signatures [Pointcheval & Stern '96]

Structure of proof:



Security of FS signatures [Pointcheval & Stern '96]

Structure of proof:



Proof in ROM (see additional literature if interested!)

KeyGen:

- 1 Choose two primes p, q s.t. $q|p-1$, and $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q .
- 2 Choose a random $w \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and compute $v = g^w \pmod{p}$
- 3 Output public key $\text{pk} = v$ and private key $\text{sk} = w$

Sign: Given message M ,

- 1 $u \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q, \text{com} \leftarrow g^u$,
- 2 Set $\text{ch} = H(M, \text{com})$ and calculate $\text{resp} \leftarrow u + \text{ch} \cdot w$
- 3 Set $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp})$
- 4 Output message - signature pair (M, σ)

Verify: To verify the message - signature pair (M, σ)

- 1 Parse $\sigma = (\text{com}, \text{resp})$ and calculate $\text{ch} = H(M, \text{com})$
- 2 Check $g^{\text{resp}} \stackrel{?}{=} a \cdot v^{\text{ch}}$ and output Accept if check succeeds, otherwise Fail

Schnorr signature and Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- Schnorr signature proposed in 1990
 - simple, efficient, provably secure,

Schnorr signature and Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- Schnorr signature proposed in 1990
 - simple, efficient, provably secure, unfortunately, patented (1990-2010)

Schnorr signature and Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- Schnorr signature proposed in 1990
 - simple, efficient, provably secure, unfortunately, patented (1990-2010)
- In 1990's RSA signature also patented

Schnorr signature and Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- Schnorr signature proposed in 1990
 - simple, efficient, provably secure, unfortunately, patented (1990-2010)
- In 1990's RSA signature also patented
- NIST proposes in 1991 the Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
 - NIST standard from 1994 - Federal standard (FIPS 186) and ANSI X9.30 Part 1

Schnorr signature and Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- Schnorr signature proposed in 1990
 - simple, efficient, provably secure, unfortunately, patented (1990-2010)
- In 1990's RSA signature also patented
- NIST proposes in 1991 the Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
 - NIST standard from 1994 - Federal standard (FIPS 186) and ANSI X9.30 Part 1
 - Very similar to Schnorr, but initially no proof!!!

Schnorr signature and Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- Schnorr signature proposed in 1990
 - simple, efficient, provably secure, unfortunately, patented (1990-2010)
- In 1990's RSA signature also patented
- NIST proposes in 1991 the Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
 - NIST standard from 1994 - Federal standard (FIPS 186) and ANSI X9.30 Part 1
 - Very similar to Schnorr, but initially no proof!!!
 - Modified versions under suitable models later shown to be provably secure ...
 - In ISO/IEC 14888, $h = H(M)$ replaced by $h = H(M, r)$

Schnorr signature and Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- Schnorr signature proposed in 1990
 - simple, efficient, provably secure, unfortunately, patented (1990-2010)
- In 1990's RSA signature also patented
- NIST proposes in 1991 the Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
 - NIST standard from 1994 - Federal standard (FIPS 186) and ANSI X9.30 Part 1
 - Very similar to Schnorr, but initially no proof!!!
 - Modified versions under suitable models later shown to be provably secure ...
 - In ISO/IEC 14888, $h = H(M)$ replaced by $h = H(M, r)$
 - ECDSA - elliptic curve version over the elliptic curve group $E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$
 - additive notation, otherwise same as DSA (see assignment)

Schnorr signature and Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- Schnorr signature proposed in 1990
 - simple, efficient, provably secure, unfortunately, patented (1990-2010)
- In 1990's RSA signature also patented
- NIST proposes in 1991 the Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
 - NIST standard from 1994 - Federal standard (FIPS 186) and ANSI X9.30 Part 1
 - Very similar to Schnorr, but initially no proof!!!
 - Modified versions under suitable models later shown to be provably secure ...
 - In ISO/IEC 14888, $h = H(M)$ replaced by $h = H(M, r)$
 - ECDSA - elliptic curve version over the elliptic curve group $E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$
 - additive notation, otherwise same as DSA (see assignment)
 - ECDSA is widely used today in blockchain, iOS, secure messaging apps, in TLS (but not even close to RSA signatures)!
 - Faster signing, slower verification than RSA, significantly smaller keys

Schnorr signature and Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- Schnorr signature proposed in 1990
 - simple, efficient, provably secure, unfortunately, patented (1990-2010)
- In 1990's RSA signature also patented
- NIST proposes in 1991 the Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
 - NIST standard from 1994 - Federal standard (FIPS 186) and ANSI X9.30 Part 1
 - Very similar to Schnorr, but initially no proof!!!
 - Modified versions under suitable models later shown to be provably secure ...
 - In ISO/IEC 14888, $h = H(M)$ replaced by $h = H(M, r)$
 - ECDSA - elliptic curve version over the elliptic curve group $E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$
 - additive notation, otherwise same as DSA (see assignment)
 - ECDSA is widely used today in blockchain, iOS, secure messaging apps, in TLS (but not even close to RSA signatures)!
 - Faster signing, slower verification than RSA, significantly smaller keys

Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

KeyGen: Same as for Schnorr with private key $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and public key $y = g^x \pmod{p}$

- 1 Choose two primes p, q s.t. $q|p-1$, and $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ of order q .
- 2 Choose a random $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and compute $y = g^x \pmod{p}$
- 3 Output public key $\text{pk} = y$ and private key $\text{sk} = x$

Sign: Given message M ,

- 1 $k \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q, r \leftarrow (g^k \pmod{p}) \pmod{q}$,
- 2 Set $h = H(M)$ and calculate $s \leftarrow (h + xr)k^{-1}$ (In Schnorr: $h = H(M, r)$ and $s \leftarrow k + h \cdot x$)
- 3 Set $\sigma = (r, s)$ and output message - signature pair (M, σ)

Verify: To verify the message - signature pair (M, σ)

- 1 Parse $\sigma = (r, s)$, verify $0 < r, s < q$ and calculate $h = H(M)$
- 2 Compute $u_1 = H(m)s^{-1} \pmod{q}$ and $u_2 = rs^{-1} \pmod{q}$
- 3 Check $(g^{u_1}g^{u_2} \pmod{p}) \pmod{q} \stackrel{?}{=} r$ and output Accept if check succeeds, otherwise Fail

Sensitive security of DSA and ECDSA

- DSA and ECDSA are very sensitive regarding the ephemeral key k
- Must not be reused, and should be unpredictable for attackers

Sensitive security of DSA and ECDSA

- DSA and ECDSA are very sensitive regarding the ephemeral key k
- Must not be reused, and should be unpredictable for attackers
- In December 2010, a group calling itself fail0verflow announced recovery of ECDSA private key used by Sony to sign software for PlayStation 3
 - Sony's "epic fail": k was static instead of random!
- Suppose $s_1 = (H(M_1) + xr)k^{-1}$ and $s_2 \leftarrow (H(M_2) + xr)k^{-1}$
use same k for two messages M_1 and M_2
- Now: $s_1 - s_2 = (H(M_1) - H(M_2))k^{-1}$
- I.e., $k = (H(M_1) - H(M_2))(s_1 - s_2)^{-1}$
- Once k is known, the secret key can be easily derived:
 $x = (s_1 k - H(M_1))(r)^{-1}$

Sony's ECDSA code

```
int getRandomNumber()
{
    return 4; // chosen by fair dice roll.
              // guaranteed to be random.
}
```

Recommendations for key sizes and usage by NIST, ECRYPT

Algorithm	Param.	Key length	Classical security	Usage
RSA-1024	N	1024	80 bits	disallowed for key transport
RSA-1024/DSA-1024	N/q	1024	80 bits	disallowed signature key gen./legacy signature verification
RSA-2048/DSA-2048	N/q	2048	112 bits	acceptable
RSA-3072/DSA-3072	N/q	3072	128 bits	recommended
RSA-7680/DSA-7680	N/q	7680	192 bits	long term
RSA-15360/DLP-15360	N/q	15360	256 bits	long term
ECDSA-160	p	80	80 bits	disallowed signature key gen./legacy signature verification
ECDSA-224	p	224	112 bits	acceptable
ECDSA-256	p	256	128 bits	recommended
ECDSA-384	p	384	192 bits	long term
ECDSA-512	p	512	256 bits	long term

Today:

- Commitments
- Zero-Knowledge protocols
- Identification Protocols
- Fiat-Shamir Signatures
- DSA and ECDSA

Today:

- Commitments
- Zero-Knowledge protocols
- Identification Protocols
- Fiat-Shamir Signatures
- DSA and ECDSA

Next time:

- Post-Quantum Cryptography
- Hash-Based signatures