

## Lecture 7: Arithmetisations

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Arithmetisation is the encoding of a computation as an *algebraic constraint satisfaction problem*. This reduces the complexity of verifying its correctness to a few probabilistic algebraic checks. In a proof system, the choice of arithmetisation limits the corresponding range of IOPs that can be used to check it (see Figure 1).

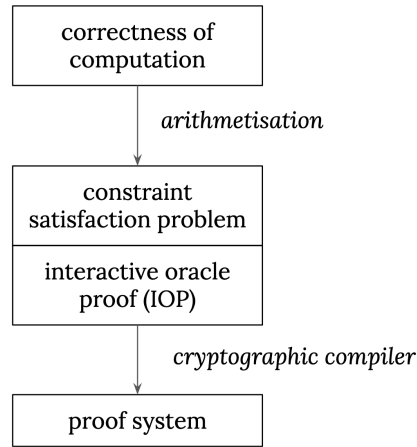


Figure 1: The components of a proof system. Recall from *Lecture 3 (Commitment Schemes)* that a commitment scheme can be used to compile an interactive oracle proof (IOP) into a proof system.

## 1 Quadratic Arithmetic Programs (QAPs)

The Quadratic Arithmetic Program (QAP) [9] is a way to translate statements into a system of quadratic equations over polynomials. They can be checked by linear interactive proofs (LIPs) [10], algebraic IOPs [6], multilinear IOPs ([14], [15]). Any circuit with multiplicative complexity  $n$  can be translated to a QAP over degree- $n$  polynomials.

**Definition 1.1.** [Quadratic Arithmetic Program (QAP)] A *Quadratic Arithmetic Program*  $Q$  of degree  $d$  and size  $m$  consists of polynomials  $\{L_j(X)\}, \{R_j(X)\}, \{O_j(X)\}, j \in [0, \dots, m-1]$ , and a target polynomial  $T(X) := \prod_{i=0}^{d-1} (X - i)$  of degree  $d$ . An assignment  $(1, x_1, \dots, x_{m-1})$  satisfies  $Q$  if

$$T(X) \mid P(X), P(X) := L(X) \cdot R(X) - O(X),$$

where  $L(X) := \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} x_j \cdot L_j(X)$ ,  $R(X) := \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} x_j \cdot R_j(X)$ ,  $O(X) := \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} x_j \cdot O_j(X)$ .

**Rank-1 Constraint System (R1CS).** Arithmetic circuits can be expressed a simplified form known as *Rank-1 Constraint System (R1CS)*, which can in turn be transformed into a QAP.

Argument system	Arithmetization	Information-theoretic protocol	Cryptographic compiler
Groth16 [10]	R1CS	linear interactive proof (LIP)	bilinear pairings
Marlin [6]	R1CS	algebraic holographic proof (AHP)	adapted KZG commitment
Spartan [15]	R1CS	variant of sumcheck protocol	SPARK
Dory [14]	R1CS	multilinear IOP	bilinear pairings
Nova [13]	Relaxed R1CS	multilinear IOP	multilinear PCS

Table 1: Examples of proof systems which make use of R1CS arithmetisation.

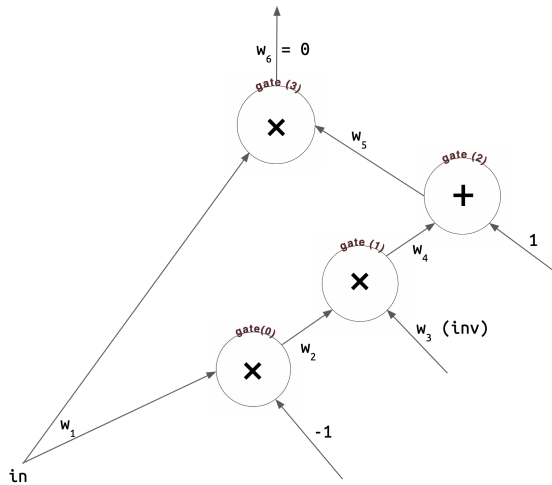
In *Lecture 2 (Circom 1)*, we saw the `IsZero` circuit, which checks a claim about whether a given value is zero. Let's convert `IsZero` into an R1CS circuit, and then transform it into a QAP.

```

1 template IsZero() {
2     signal input in;
3     signal output out;
4
5     signal inv;
6
7     inv <-- in != 0 ? 1/in : 0;
8
9     out <== -in*inv + 1;
10    in*out == 0;
11 }

```

Listing 1: The `IsZero` circuit, taken from `comparators.circom` in `circomlib`.



The `circom IsZero` program can be “flattened” into four constraints, each of the form `left ◦ right = output`:

$$w_1 \cdot (-1) = w_2 \quad (0)$$

$$w_2 \cdot w_3 = w_4 \quad (1)$$

$$w_4 + 1 = w_5 \quad (2)$$

$$w_1 \cdot w_5 = w_6 \quad (3)$$

In the arithmetic circuit representation (left), each of these constraints corresponds to an addition or multiplication gate.

The prover is claiming to know some *legal assignment*  $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6)$ , so that when each value  $a_i$  is assigned to corresponding wire  $w_i$ , and  $w_6 = 0$ , the circuit is satisfied.

For each gate  $g_i$ , we create three wire vectors  $\vec{l}_i, \vec{r}_i, \vec{o}_i$ , containing the coefficients of each variable  $w_j$  at the gate. The wire vectors also include a constant term  $w_0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
g_0 : w_1 \cdot (-1) = w_2 & \quad \left| \begin{array}{cccccccc} & w_0 & w_1 & w_2 & w_3 & w_4 & w_5 & w_6 \\ \vec{l}_0 = & ( & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & ) \\ \vec{r}_0 = & ( & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & ) \\ \vec{o}_0 = & ( & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & ) \end{array} \right. , \\
\\
g_1 : w_2 \cdot w_3 = w_4 & \quad \left| \begin{array}{cccccccc} & w_0 & w_1 & w_2 & w_3 & w_4 & w_5 & w_6 \\ \vec{l}_1 = & ( & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & ) \\ \vec{r}_1 = & ( & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & ) \\ \vec{o}_1 = & ( & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & ) \end{array} \right. , \\
\\
g_2 : w_4 + 1 = w_5 \\
\implies (w_4 + 1) \cdot 1 = w_5 & \quad \left| \begin{array}{cccccccc} & w_0 & w_1 & w_2 & w_3 & w_4 & w_5 & w_6 \\ \vec{l}_2 = & ( & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & ) \\ \vec{r}_2 = & ( & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & ) \\ \vec{o}_2 = & ( & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & ) \end{array} \right. , \\
\\
g_3 : w_1 \cdot w_5 = w_6 & \quad \left| \begin{array}{cccccccc} & w_0 & w_1 & w_2 & w_3 & w_4 & w_5 & w_6 \\ \vec{l}_3 = & ( & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & ) \\ \vec{r}_3 = & ( & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & ) \\ \vec{o}_3 = & ( & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & ) \end{array} \right. .
\end{aligned}$$

Now, we collect each of the left  $l_i$  wire vectors into a matrix  $\mathcal{L} = (\vec{l}_0, \vec{l}_1, \vec{l}_2, \vec{l}_3)$ , and likewise for the right  $\mathcal{R} = (\vec{r}_0, \vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, \vec{r}_3)$  and output  $\mathcal{O} = (\vec{o}_0, \vec{o}_1, \vec{o}_2, \vec{o}_3)$  vectors:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L} &= \begin{pmatrix} w_0 & w_1 & w_2 & w_3 & w_4 & w_5 & w_6 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \vec{l}_0 \\ \vec{l}_1 \\ \vec{l}_2 \\ \vec{l}_3 \end{matrix}, \quad \mathcal{R} = \begin{pmatrix} w_0 & w_1 & w_2 & w_3 & w_4 & w_5 & w_6 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \vec{r}_0 \\ \vec{r}_1 \\ \vec{r}_2 \\ \vec{r}_3 \end{matrix}, \\
\\
\mathcal{O} &= \begin{pmatrix} w_0 & w_1 & w_2 & w_3 & w_4 & w_5 & w_6 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \vec{o}_0 \\ \vec{o}_1 \\ \vec{o}_2 \\ \vec{o}_3 \end{matrix}.
\end{aligned}$$

The  $\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{O}$  matrices, along with our witness vector  $\vec{x} = (1, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6)$ , gives the R1CS form of the `IsZero` circuit. A satisfying  $\vec{x}$  fulfils the equation  $\boxed{\mathcal{L} \cdot \vec{x} + \mathcal{R} \cdot \vec{x} - \mathcal{O} \cdot \vec{x} = 0.}$

**R1CS to QAP.** Recall the definition 1.1 of a QAP of degree  $d$  and size  $m$ . We can think of the degree  $d$  as the number of constraints, and the size  $m$  as the number of variables. In our example, we have  $d = 4, m = 7$ . By converting the R1CS form to a QAP, we have reduced our check from three matrix multiplications to a single polynomial identity.

To convert our  $\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{O}$  matrices into  $L(X), R(X), O(X)$  polynomials, let's examine the properties these polynomials should have. At each variable  $j$  and gate  $i$ , we want  $L_j(i)$  to select the coefficient of variable  $w_j$  at the left wire of gate  $g_i$ ; and similarly for  $R_j(i), O_j(i)$ . In other words:

$$L_j(i) = \mathcal{L}_{ij} = \vec{l}_i[j], R_j(i) = \mathcal{R}_{ij} = \vec{r}_i[j], O_j(i) = \mathcal{O}_{ij} = \vec{o}_i[j].$$

Let's take a look at gate  $g_2(i = 2) : w_4 + 1 = w_5$ .

$$\begin{aligned} L(2) &= x_0 \cdot L_0(2) + x_1 \cdot L_1(2) + x_2 \cdot L_2(2) + x_3 \cdot L_3(2) + x_4 \cdot L_4(2) + x_5 \cdot L_5(2) + x_6 \cdot L_6(2) \\ &= x_0 \cdot 1 + x_1 \cdot 0 + x_2 \cdot 0 + x_3 \cdot 0 + x_4 \cdot 1 + x_5 \cdot 0 + x_6 \cdot 0 \\ &= x_0 + x_4 = 1 + x_4. \end{aligned}$$

$L(2)$  returns us the left wire value of  $g_2$ . Similarly:

$$\begin{aligned} R(2) &= x_0 \cdot R_0(2) + x_1 \cdot R_1(2) + x_2 \cdot R_2(2) + x_3 \cdot R_3(2) + x_4 \cdot R_4(2) + x_5 \cdot R_5(2) + x_6 \cdot R_6(2) \\ &= x_0 \cdot 1 + x_1 \cdot 0 + x_2 \cdot 0 + x_3 \cdot 0 + x_4 \cdot 0 + x_5 \cdot 0 + x_6 \cdot 0 \\ &= x_0 = 1, \\ O(2) &= x_0 \cdot O_0(2) + x_1 \cdot O_1(2) + x_2 \cdot O_2(2) + x_3 \cdot O_3(2) + x_4 \cdot O_4(2) + x_5 \cdot O_5(2) + x_6 \cdot O_6(2) \\ &= x_0 \cdot 0 + x_1 \cdot 0 + x_2 \cdot 0 + x_3 \cdot 0 + x_4 \cdot 0 + x_5 \cdot 1 + x_6 \cdot 0 \\ &= x_5. \end{aligned}$$

So  $P(2) = L(2) \cdot R(2) - O(2) = (1 + x_4) \cdot 1 - x_5 = 0 \iff x_0, \dots, x_6$  fulfil gate  $g_2$ . Notice that the target polynomial  $T(X)$  is constructed to evaluate to vanish at the gate indices  $j \in \{0, \dots, d-1\}$ . In other words, if  $T(X)|P(X)$ , then our witness  $\vec{x} = (1, x_1, \dots, x_6)$  fulfils  $P(X)$  at every gate.

(NB: To construct the  $L_j$ 's, we set each  $L_j$  to be the *interpolation polynomial* of the values in column  $\mathcal{L}[j]$  at the evaluation points  $(0, \dots, d-1)$ ; and similarly for the  $R_j$ 's and  $O_j$ 's.)

**Math building block: Lagrange interpolation.** Given points and evaluations  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=0}^{d-1}$ , we can construct an *interpolation polynomial*  $\mathcal{I}(X)$  such that  $\mathcal{I}(x_i) = y_i$ :

$$\mathcal{I}(X) := \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} y_i \cdot \mathcal{L}_i(X),$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_i(X)$  is the **Lagrange basis polynomial** over the evaluation domain  $\{x_0, \dots, x_{d-1}\}$ :

$$\mathcal{L}_i(X) := \prod_{x_j \neq x_i} \frac{X - x_j}{x_i - x_j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X = x_i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

When the evaluation domain is  $\{0, \dots, d-1\}$ , we get  $\mathcal{L}_i(X) = 1$  if  $X = i$ , and 0 otherwise.

When the evaluation domain is  $\{\omega^0, \dots, \omega^{n-1}\}$ , we get  $\mathcal{L}_i(X) = 1$  if  $X = \omega^i$ , and 0 otherwise.

The QAP arithmetisation induces protocols that verify equations on a secret element in the exponent. Since we currently only have cryptographic  $k$ -linear maps for  $k = 2$  (via elliptic curve pairings), quadratic constraints are the most general form that these protocols can work with. However, a separate class of arithmetisations enables a more flexible constraint format, with constraints of degree higher than two. The following three sections are adapted from [7].

Argument system	Arithmetization	Information-theoretic protocol	Cryptographic compiler
STARK [2]	AIR	algebraic linking IOP (uses FRI as RS-IOPP)	Merkle trees
PlonK [8]	RAP	polynomial IOP	KZG commitment
Halo 2 ([3], [4])	RAP	polynomial IOP	inner product argument

Table 2: Examples of proof systems which make use of AIR, PAIR, and RAP arithmetisations.

## 2 Algebraic Intermediate Representations (AIR)

An *Algebraic Intermediate Representation (AIR)* [16] is a representation of a program consisting of *uniform computations*. An AIR  $P$  over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is defined by a set of multivariate *constraint polynomials*  $\{f_i(X_1, \dots, X_{2w})\} \in \mathbb{F}^d[X_1, \dots, X_{2w}]$ . An execution trace  $T$  for  $P$  consists of  $n$  rows of width  $w$ ;  $T$  is a *valid* execution trace if all  $f_i(T[j], T[j+1]) = 0$  for any  $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . In the context of a virtual machine,  $P$  verifies  $n$  steps of a state transition function over  $w$  registers.

**AIR for Fibonacci sequence.** We can specify an AIR program for the Fibonacci sequence using two state transition polynomials:

$$f_1(X_1, X_2, X_1^{next}, X_2^{next}) = A^{next} - (B + A); f_2(X_1, X_2, X_1^{next}, X_2^{next}) = B^{next} - (B + A^{next}).$$

step	a	b
$i = 1$	1	1
$i = 2$	2	3
$i = 3$	5	8
$i = 4$	13	21

As an example, let's check that the state transition holds on row  $i = 2$ :

$$f_1(X_1, X_2, X_1^{next}, X_2^{next}) = 5 - (3 + 2) = 0;$$

$$f_2(X_1, X_2, X_1^{next}, X_2^{next}) = 8 - (5 + 3) = 0.$$

*Exercise: can you modify this program to make an AIR of width 3?*

**Math building block: Roots of unity.** AIR encodes a column of values  $\vec{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$  as its Lagrange interpolation polynomial over the evaluation domain  $\{\omega, \dots, \omega^n\}$ , where  $\omega$  is an  $n$ -th root of unity in a multiplicative subgroup of order  $n$ :

$$V(X) = \begin{cases} \vec{v}[i] & \text{when } X = \omega^i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This lets us “shift” up and down rows by multiplying by a factor of  $\omega$ . For instance:

$$V^{next}(X) = V(\omega X), V^{prev}(X) = V(\omega^{-1} X).$$

### 3 Preprocessed AIR (PAIR)

In a *Preprocessed AIR*, or **PAIR**, we introduce  $t$  predefined columns  $\{c_i\}_{i=1}^t \in \mathbb{F}^n$  to the execution trace, in addition to the  $w$  witness columns supplied by the prover. These are used to introduce non-uniform constraints to the AIR, and are often referred to as “selectors”.

**PAIR for addition and multiplication.** *Let’s construct a PAIR where we perform an addition on some rows, and a multiplication on other rows. For this purpose, we define the “addition selector”  $s_1$ , and the “multiplication selector”  $s_2$ . The constraint polynomial is:*

$$f(X_1, X_2, X_1^{next}, X_2^{next}) = S_1 \cdot (A^{next} - (A + B)) + S_2 \cdot (A^{next} - A \cdot B).$$

*Let’s check the constraint on row  $i = 1$ , where only the addition operation is enabled:*

step	$s_1$	$s_2$	$a$	$b$
$i = 1$	1	0	0	1
$i = 2$	0	1	1	2
$i = 3$	1	1	2	2
$i = 4$	0	1	4	0

$$f(X_1, X_2, X_1^{next}, X_2^{next}) = 1 \cdot (1 - (0 + 1)) + 0 \cdot (1 - (0 \cdot 1)) = 0;$$

*and row  $i = 3$ , where both operations are enabled:*

$$f(X_1, X_2, X_1^{next}, X_2^{next}) = 1 \cdot (4 - (2 + 2)) + 1 \cdot (4 - (2 \cdot 2)) = 0.$$

### 4 Randomised AIR with Preprocessing (RAP)

A *Randomised AIR with Preprocessing (RAP)* allows for rounds of interaction to introduce verifier randomness. In a later round, randomness from the earlier rounds can be used as variables in constraints. This enables *local* constraints (between adjacent rows) to check *global* properties.

**RAP for multiset equality.** *Suppose that we had a width-2 AIR and wanted to check that the values in one column  $(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  was a complete permutation of the other  $(b_1, \dots, b_n)$ . This is called a multiset equality check. It suffices to check that, for a uniformly randomly chosen  $\gamma \in \mathbb{F}$ ,*

$$\prod_{i \in [n]} (a_i + \gamma) = \prod_{i \in [n]} (b_i + \gamma) \implies \prod_{i \in [n]} (a_i + \gamma) / (b_i + \gamma) = 1.$$

*To check this “grand product” over all rows of both columns, the prover uses the verifier challenge  $\gamma$  to construct a running product  $\vec{z} = (1, z_1, \dots, z_n)$ , such that*

$$z_i = \prod_{1 \leq j \leq i} (a_j + \gamma) / (b_j + \gamma).$$

*At the final row  $i = n$ , we are left to check that  $z_n = \prod_{i \in [n]} (a_i + \gamma) / (b_i + \gamma) = 1$ . We also have to enforce on the first row  $i = 1$  that  $z_1 = 1$ .*

*Exercise: can you write a constraint that applies only on the row  $i = 1$ ? (Hint:  $\mathcal{L}_1(X) = 1$  when  $i = 1$ , 0 otherwise; so a constraint  $\mathcal{L}_1(X) \cdot f(X)$  is enforced only on the row  $i = 1$ .)*

**RAP for multiset equality (cont.).**

To illustrate the multiset equality check, let us consider an example where  $b$  simply contains a shift of the elements in  $a$ . To check that  $\vec{z}$  was correctly constructed as a running product, we introduce a column  $z$  to the execution trace:

step	$a$	$b$	$z$
$i = 1$	$a_1$	$a_2$	1
$i = 2$	$a_2$	$a_3$	$\frac{(a_1+\gamma)}{(a_2+\gamma)}$
$i = 3$	$a_3$	$a_1$	$\frac{(a_1+\gamma)(a_2+\gamma)}{(a_2+\gamma)(a_3+\gamma)}$
$i = 4$	0	0	$\frac{(a_1+\gamma)(a_2+\gamma)(a_3+\gamma)}{(a_2+\gamma)(a_3+\gamma)(a_1+\gamma)}$

At each step, we check the constraint

$$Z^{next} \cdot (B + \gamma) - Z \cdot (A + \gamma) = 0.$$

As an example, applying this on the row  $i = 2$  checks

$$\frac{(a_1 + \gamma)(a_2 + \gamma)}{(a_2 + \gamma)(a_3 + \gamma)} \cdot (a_3 + \gamma) - \frac{(a_1 + \gamma)}{(a_2 + \gamma)} \cdot (a_2 + \gamma) = 0.$$

This inductively checks that  $z$  is accumulating the products of  $a, b$  as expected.

## 5 Other arithmetisations

Some arithmetisations not covered here include: layered arithmetic circuits, Boolean circuits, and the Boolean hypercube. These sometimes lend themselves to information-theoretic models beyond the IOP, such as MPC-in-the-head [12]. In *Lecture 9 (Proving Systems Stack; Recursion and Proof Composition)*, we will analyse some of the factors that go into picking a suitable arithmetisation.

Argument system	Arithmetization	Information-theoretic protocol	Cryptographic compiler
Virgo [17]	layered arithmetic circuits	GKR protocol + IOP)	Merkle tree
Ligero [1]	arithmetic circuits	MPC-in-the-head, ZKIPCP	Merkle tree
BooLigero [11]	Boolean circuits	MPC-in-the-head, IOP	Ligero
HyperPlonK [5]	Boolean hypercube	sumcheck protocol (multilinear IOP)	multilinear PCS

Table 3: Some examples of other arithmetisations.

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