Focus thus for in the course: protecting communication (e.g., message confidentiality and message integrity)

Remainder of course : protecting <u>computations</u>

→ Idea will seem very counter-intuitive, but surprisingly powerful ← (DSA/ECDSA signatures based on ZK!) > Showcases the importance and priver of 1. [:::: Zero-knowledge: a defining idea at the heart of theoretical cryptography L> Showcases the importance and power of definitions (e.g., "What does it mean to know something?")

We begin by introducing the notion of a "proof system"

- Goal : A prover wants to convince a verifier that some statement is true

"The number N is a product of two prime numbers p and q" } these are all examples of statements e.g., "This Sudoku puzzle has a unique solution"

the verifier is assumed to be an officient aborithm We model this as follows:

 $\frac{Prover}{X} (X) \qquad \frac{Verifier}{X} (X) \qquad X: statement that the prover is trying to prove (known to both)$  $<math display="block">\frac{\pi}{X} \rightarrow \qquad Ti: the prover and verifier) \qquad > We will write L to denote the set of true$ Ti: the prover of X statements (called a baryunge) $<math display="block">\frac{V}{X} = \frac{V}{X} = \frac{V}$ 

 $L \gg b \in \{0,13 - given obstanent x and proof <math>\pi$ , verifier decides whether to accept or reject Properties we care about:

- <u>Completeness</u>: Honest prover should be able to convince honest verifier of true statements

 $\frac{\forall x \in \mathcal{L} : \forall r \mid T \leftarrow P(x) : \forall (x, \pi) \ge 1] = 1}{\frac{\text{Could relax requirement to allow for}}{\text{Some error}}$  $\forall x \notin L : Pr[\pi \leftarrow P(x) : V(x, \pi) = 1] = negl(|x|)$   $\Box$  negligible in the statement length

Typically, proofs are "one-shot" (i.e., single message from prover to verifier) and the verifier's decision algorithm is deterministic → Languezes with these types of proof systems precisely coincide with NP (proof of statement x is to send NP witness w)

Recall that NP is the class of languages where there is a deterministic solution-checker:

Proof system for NP;

<u>verifier</u> (x) -> accept if R(x,w)=1 prover (X) Ś

Perfect completeness + Soundness

Going beyond NP: we augment the model as follows

allows proving statements that are beyond NP - Add randomness: the verifier can be a randomized algorithm - Add interaction: verifier can ask "questions" to the prover

Interactive proof systems [Goldwasser-Micali-Rackoff]: randomised prover (x) verifier (R) 

L> b & {0,13

Interactive proof should satisfy completeness + soundness (as defined earlier)

Consider following example: Suppose prover wants to convince verifies that N = pg where p, g are prime (and secret).  $\frac{1}{\pi} = (p, q)$ 

accept if N=pg and reject otherwise

Proof is certainly complete and sound, but now verifier also learned the factorization of N. (may not be desirable if prover was trying to convince verifier that N is a proper RSA modulus (for a cryptographic scheme) without revealing factorization in the process L> In some sense, this proof conveys information to the verifier [i.e., verifier learns something it did not know before seeing the proof J

Zeno-knowledge: ensure that verifier does not learn anything (other than the fact that the statement is true)

We will introduce a notion of a "simulator." How do we define "zero-knowledge"?

for a language L Definition. An interactive proof system (P,V) is zero-knowledge if for all efficient (and possibly mulicious) verifiers V\*, there exists an efficient simulator S such that for all XEL:  $V_{iew_{V^{*}}}(\langle P,V\rangle(x)) \approx S(x)$ 

random variable denoting the set of messages sent and received by  $V^{\#}$  when interacting with the prover P on input  $\chi$ 

What does this definition mean?

- $View_{VX}$  (P <> V\* (x)): this is what V\* sees in the interactive proof protocol with P
- S(x): this is a function that only depends on the statement x, which  $V^*$  already has
- If these two distributions are indistinguishable, then anything that V\* could have learned by talking to P, it could have learned just by invoking the simulator itself, and the simulator output only depends on X, which V\* already knows
- L> In other words, anything V\* could have karned (i.e., computed) after interacting with P, it could have karned without ever talking to P!
- Very remarkable definition:

can in fact be constructed from OWFS

- More remarkable: Using cryptographic commitments, then every language LEIP has a zero-knowledge proof system.
  - L> Namely, anything that can be proved can be proved in zero-knowledge!

We will show this theorem for NP languages. Here it suffices to construct a single zero-knowledge proof system for an NP-complete language. We will consider the language of graph 3-colorability.

K 3-colorable

3-coloring: given a graph G, can you color the vertices so that no adjacent nodes have the same color?

## cryptographic analog of a sealed "envelope" (see HWH)

We will need a commutment scheme. A (non-interactive) commitment scheme consists of three algorithms (Setup, Commit, Open): - Setup -> 0 : Outputs a common reference string (used to generate/validate convitments) o -Conmit( $\sigma, m$ )  $\rightarrow$  ( $c, \pi$ ): Takes the CRS  $\sigma$  and message m and outputs a commitment c and opening  $\pi$ Verify  $(\sigma, m, L, \pi) \rightarrow 0/1$ : Checks if c is a valid commitment to m (given  $\pi$ )

