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

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

with surprising implications (DSA/ECTER signatures based on ZK!) Zero-knowledge: a defining idea at the heart of theoretical cryptography L> Idea will seem very counter-intuitive, but surprisingly powerful ← 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

e.g., "This Sudoku puzzle has a unique solution"

these are all examples of statements "The number N is a product of two prime numbers p and q" " I know the discrete log of h base g

the verifier is assumed to be an efficient about the We model this as follows:

prover (X) verifier (X) X: statement that the prover is trying to prove (known to both prover and verifier) L> We will write L to denote the set of true T1: the proof of X statements (called a language)

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

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

 $\forall x \in \mathcal{L} : \mathcal{P}_{r} \lfloor \pi \leftarrow \mathcal{P}(x) : \mathcal{V}(x,\pi) \ge 1] = 1$

- Soundness: Dishonest prover cannot convince honest verifier of fake statement $\forall x \notin L : \Pr[\pi \leftarrow P(x) : V(x,\pi) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{3}$ Important: We are not restricting to efficient provers

and the verifier's decision algorithm is deterministic Typically, proots are "one-shot" (i.e., single message from prover to verifier)

→ Languezes with these types of proof systems precisely coincide with NP (proof of statement x is to send NP witness w)

Going beyond NP: we augment the model as follows

- Add randomness: the verifier can be a randomized algorithm

- Add interaction: verifier can ask "questions" to the prover

Interactive proof systems [Goldwasser - Micali - Rackoff]:

prover (X)		verifier (X)	
	>]		Set of languages that have an
			interactive proof system is denoted
			IP
			languages that can be decided
			Theorem (Shanir): IP=PSPACE large class of languages!]

Takeoway: interaction and randomness is very useful

L> In fact, enables a new property called zero-knowledge

to convince verifier that N is a proper RSA modulus (for a cryptographic scheme) <u>without revealing</u> factorization in the process In some sense, this proof conveys information to the verifier [i.e., verifier learns something it did not know before seeing the proof]

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

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

for a language L

<u>Definition</u>. An interactive proof system (P,V) is zero-knowledge if for all efficient (and possibly muliciaus) verifiers V*, there exists an efficient simulator S such that for all XEL: Viewy*(<P,V)(X)) ≈ S(X)

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

What does this definition mean?

Viewyx (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 learned 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.

r 3-colorable

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