

Zero Knowledge Protocols

CS 6750 Lecture 10

November 19, 2009

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Mise en Situation

Suppose Alice knows a secret S

- You want to check that Alice knows the secret
- How can Alice convince you she does?

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- How can Alice convince you she does?

... without actually revealing S !

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Consider a cave looking as follows: [Picture missing]

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Repeat until Bob is convinced

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Bob has a scrambled Rubik's cube

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- Bob gives her the scrambled cube
- She secretly scrambles it further (remembering how)
- Bob asks her to either: unscramble the cube now, or restore the original scrambling
- Alice can do either if she knows how to unscramble the original cube; not otherwise

Zero Knowledge Protocols

Introduced by Goldwasser, Micali, and Rackoff in 1985

- Refined and explored by Goldreich, Micali, and Wigderson in 1986

There is a constantly changing definition of zero knowledge protocols and many papers are still coming out

- We will remain informal here

The Setup

The Prover

- has a secret
- Usually a probabilistic polynomial time (interactive) Turing machine
 - Sometimes completely unconstrained

The Verifier

- Usually a probabilistic polynomial time (interactive) Turing machine

No limits on the number of rounds of communication

Properties

Completeness

- A prover who knows the secret (honest prover) can prove it with probability 1

Soundness

- The probability that a cheating prover can get away with it can be made arbitrarily small

Zero Knowledge

- If the prover knows the secret, no verifier learns anything beyond that fact

Properties

Completeness

- A prover who knows the secret (honest prover) can prove it with probability 1

Sou

More precisely:

... does not learn anything useful beyond that fact

Zu

- If the prover does not know the secret, no verifier learns anything beyond that fact

Applications

Zero-knowledge protocols can be used when secret knowledge too sensitive to reveal needs to be verified

- Key authentication
- PIN numbers
- **Smart cards**

Example 3: Discrete Log

P wants to convince V that $\alpha^k = \beta$ for some k in $[0..\lambda]$

- α, β known

P

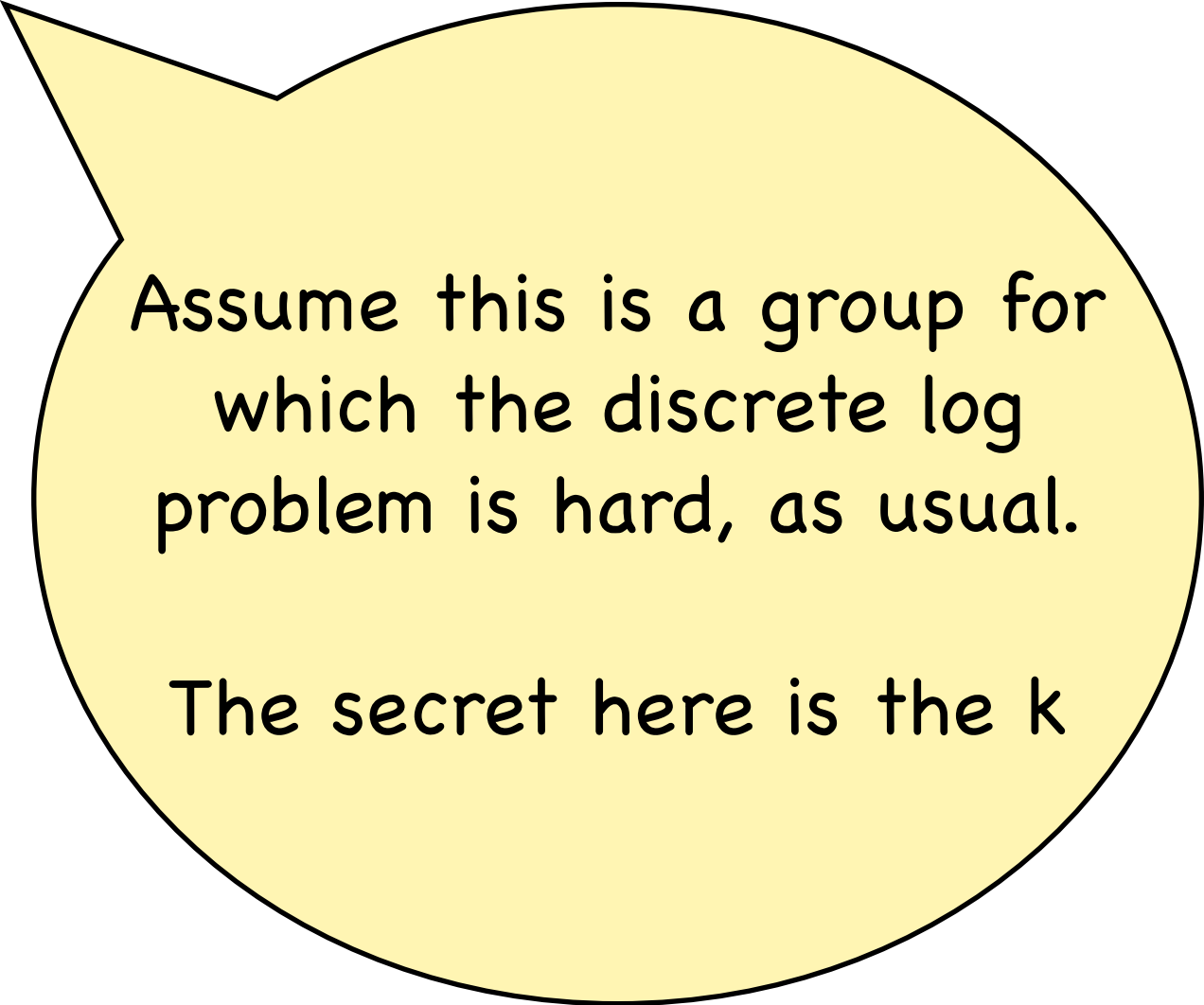
V

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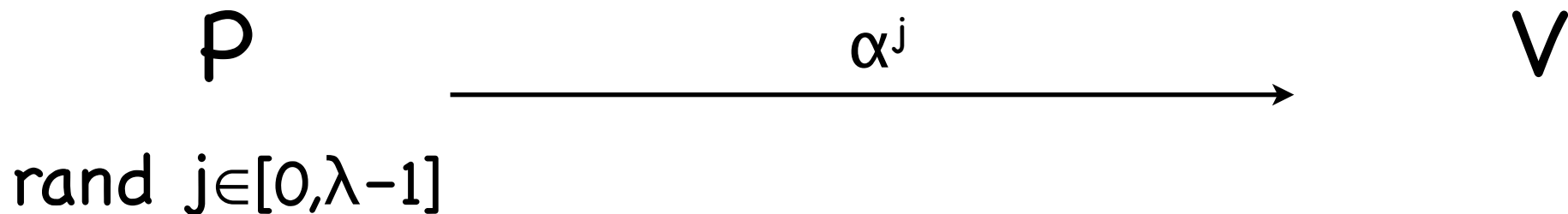
Assume this is a group for which the discrete log problem is hard, as usual.

The secret here is the k

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α^j

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rand $j \in [0, \lambda - 1]$

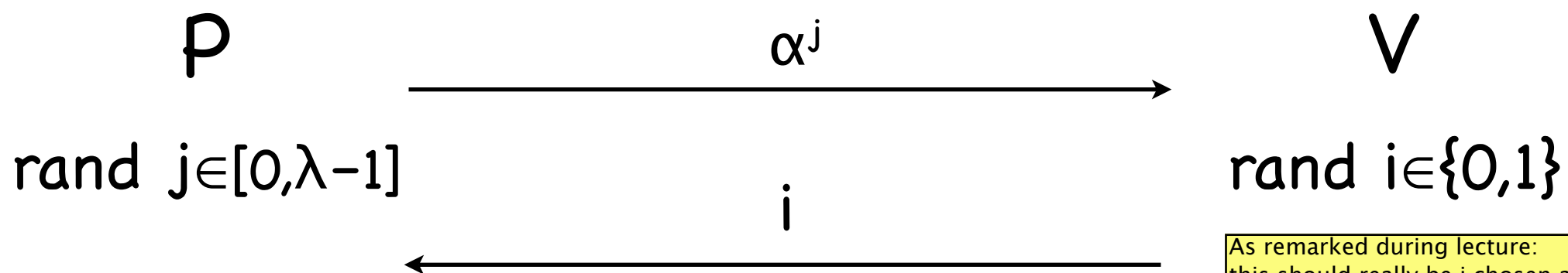
You want
to avoid 0 or 1 here (why?)

So pick $j \in [j_0, \lambda - 1]$ where $1 < j_0 \leq \lambda - 1$

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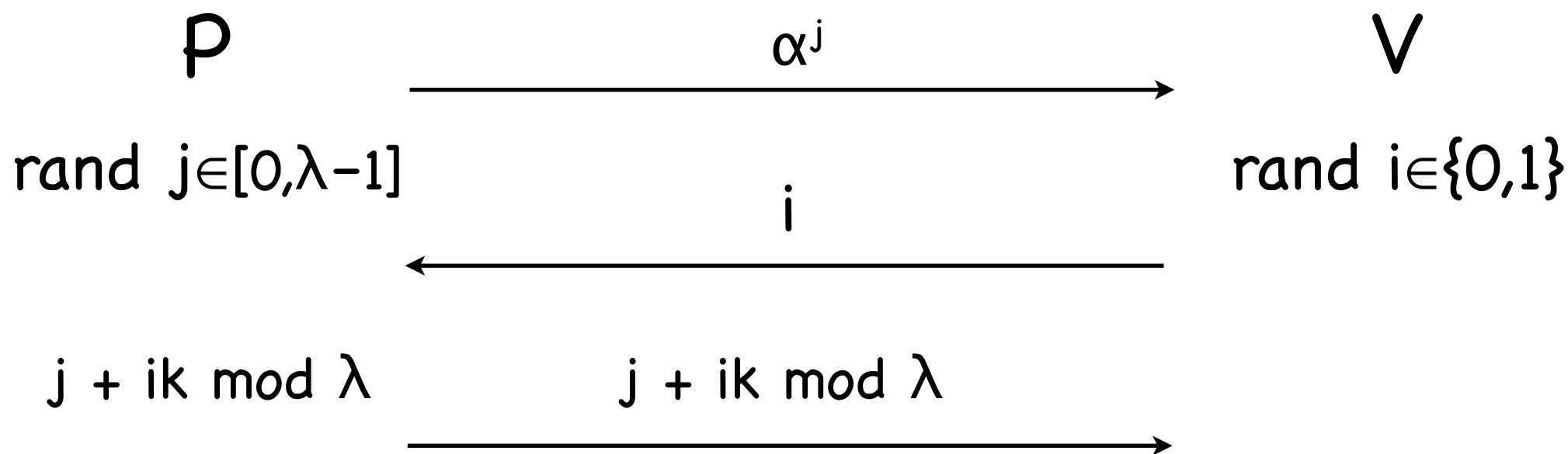


As remarked during lecture:
this should really be i chosen at
random in $[1..\lambda - 1]$

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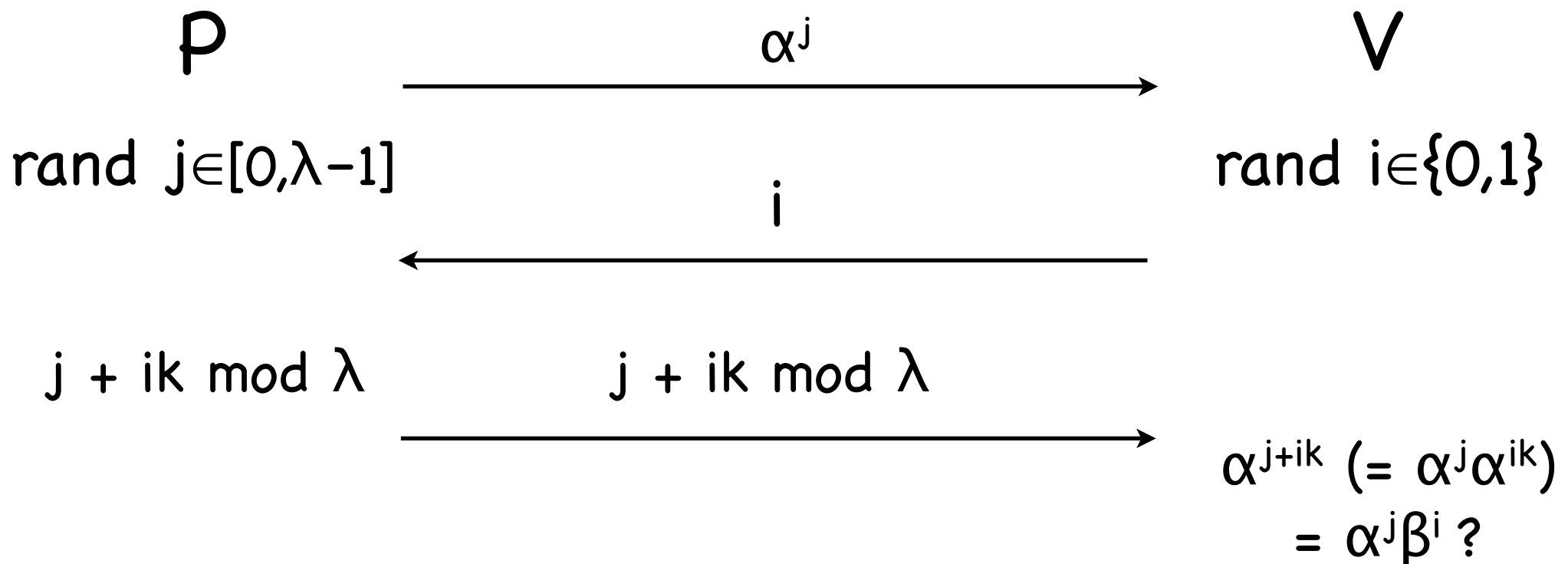
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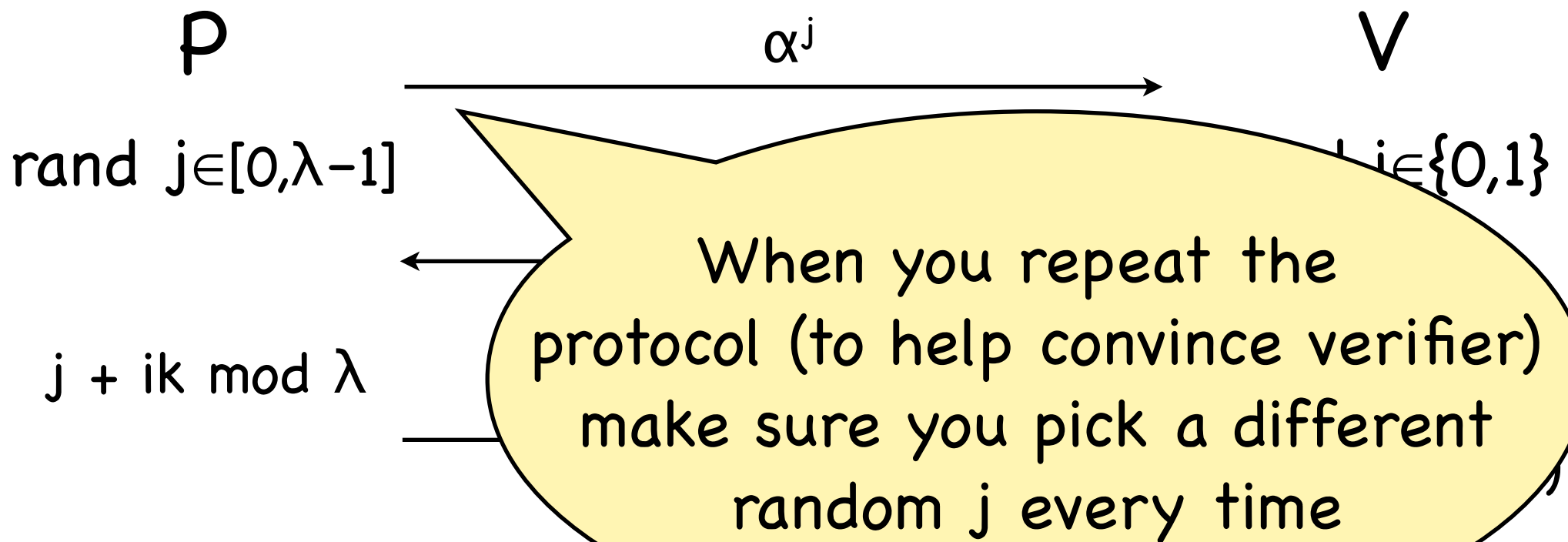
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Example 4: Graph 3-Coloring

G a known graph, Prover has a (secret) 3-coloring

- Wants to convince Verifier she has one

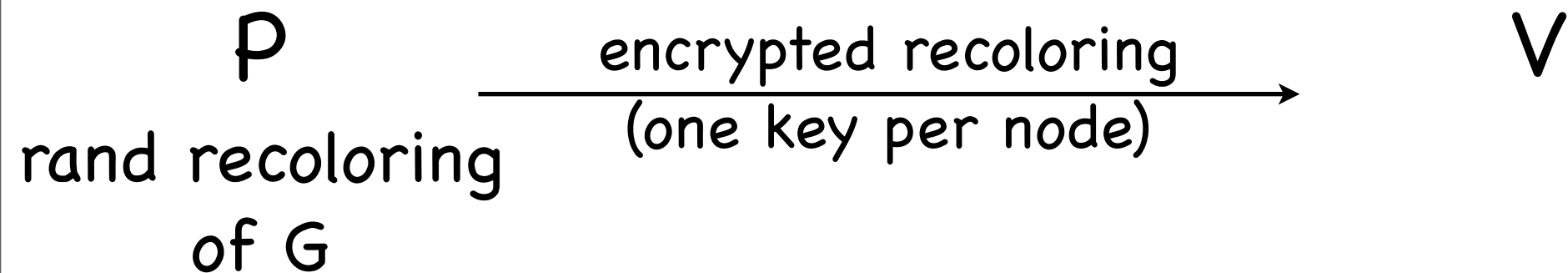
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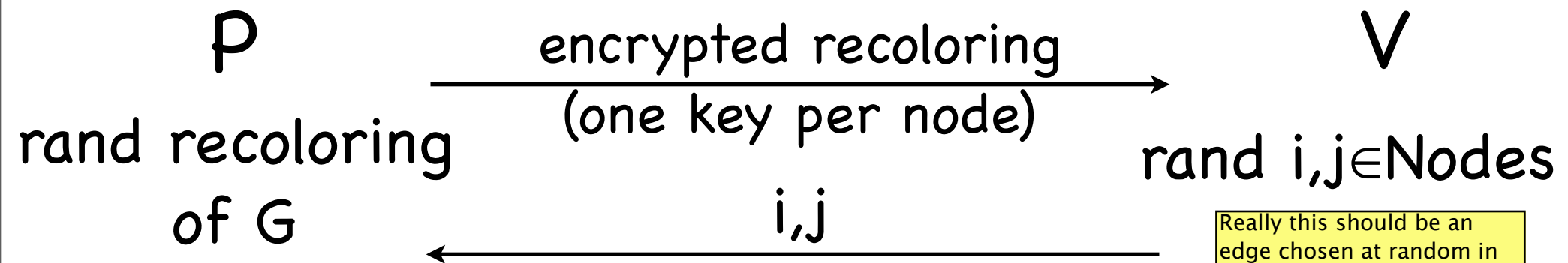
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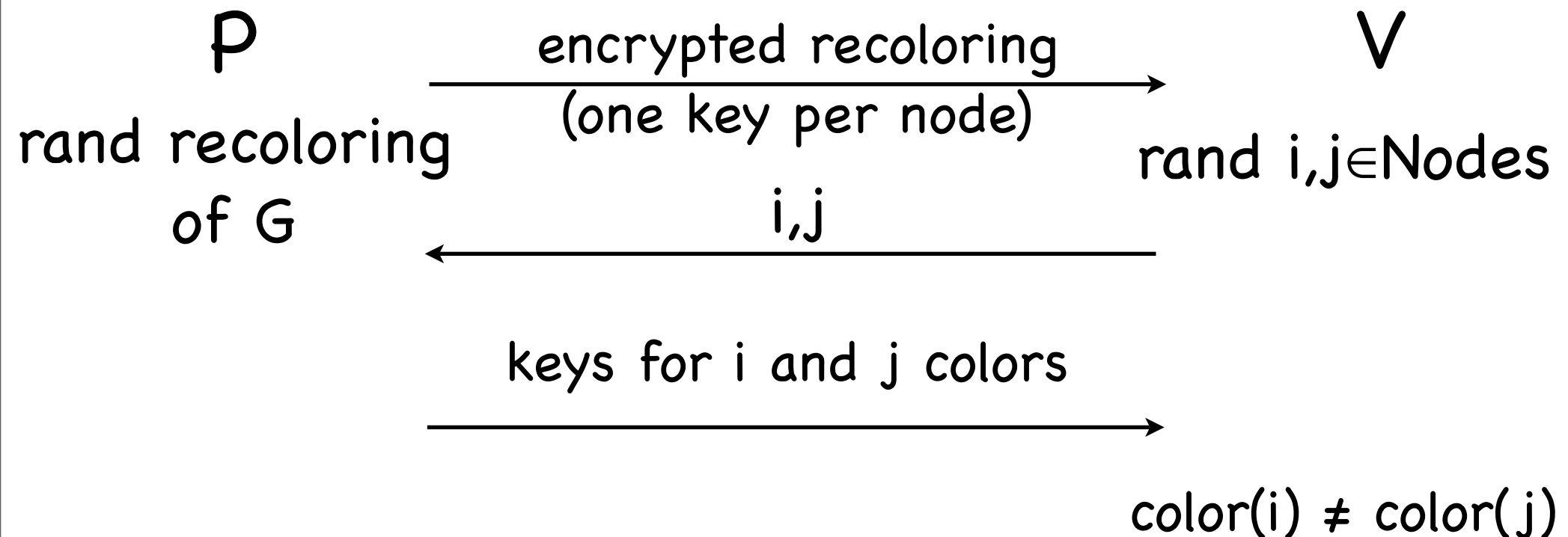


Really this should be an edge chosen at random in the graph, and V sends the two nodes at the end of the chosen edge.

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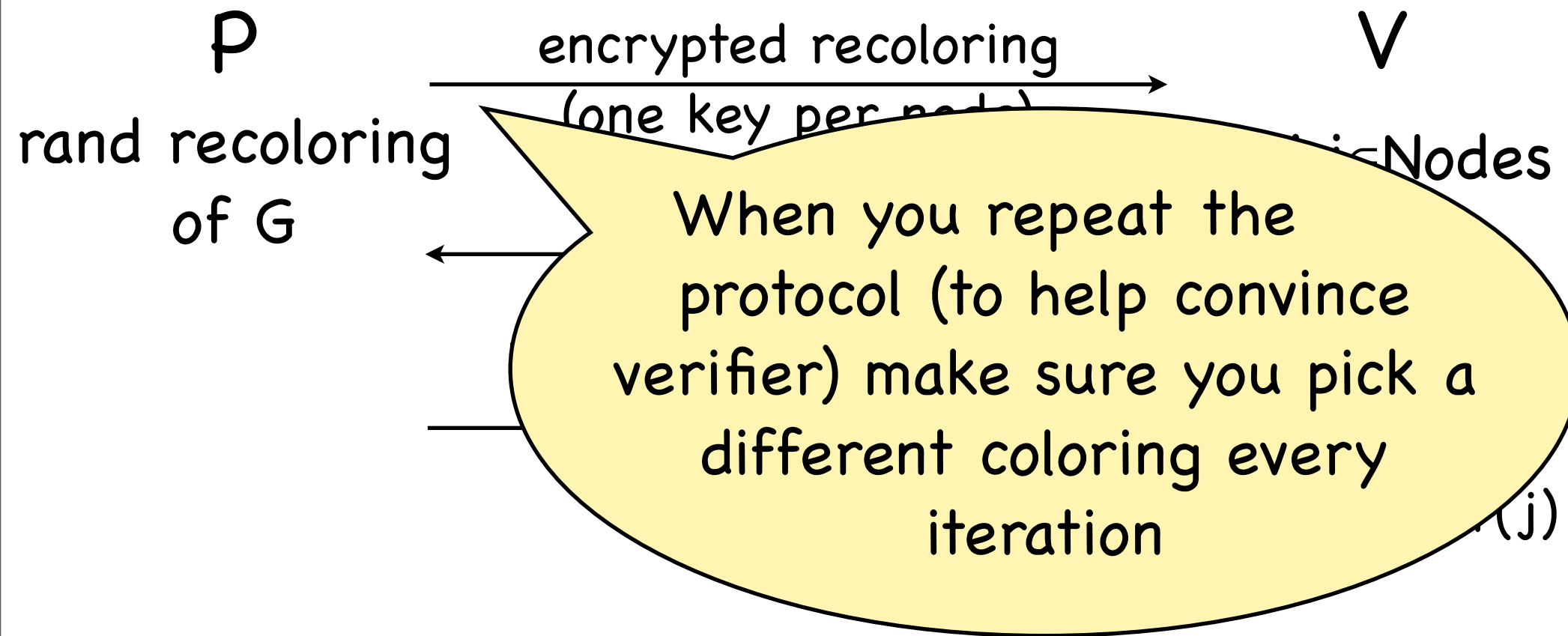
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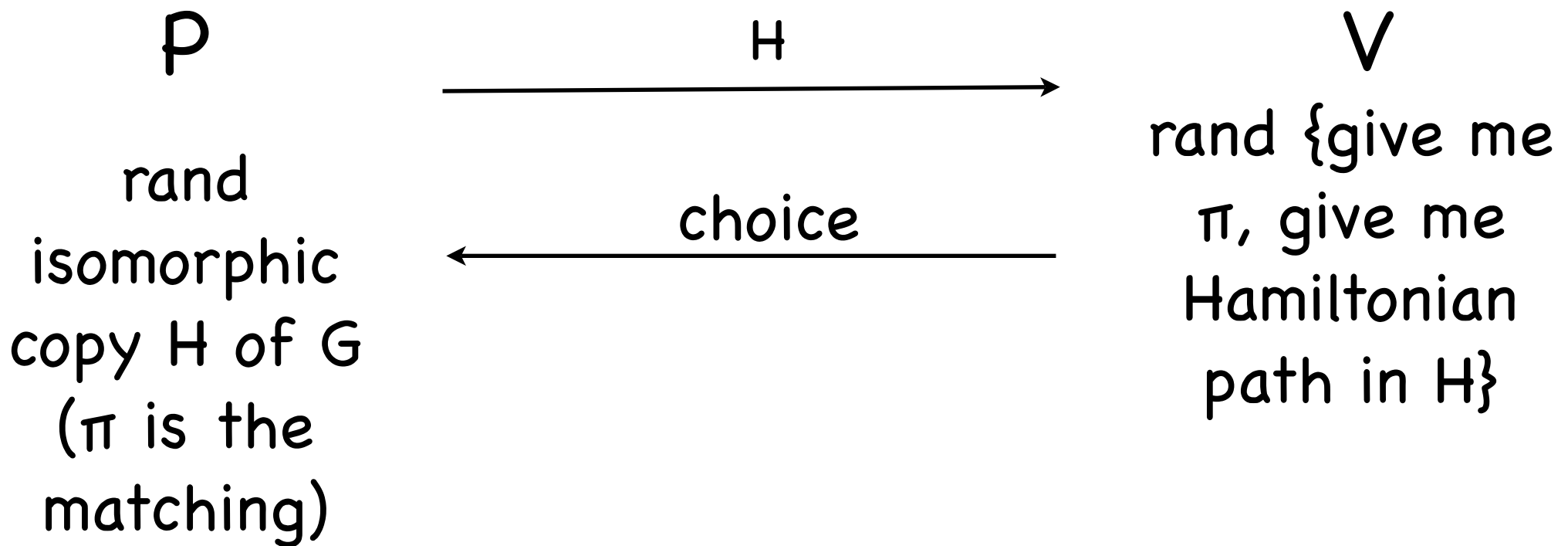


rand
isomorphic
copy H of G
(π is the
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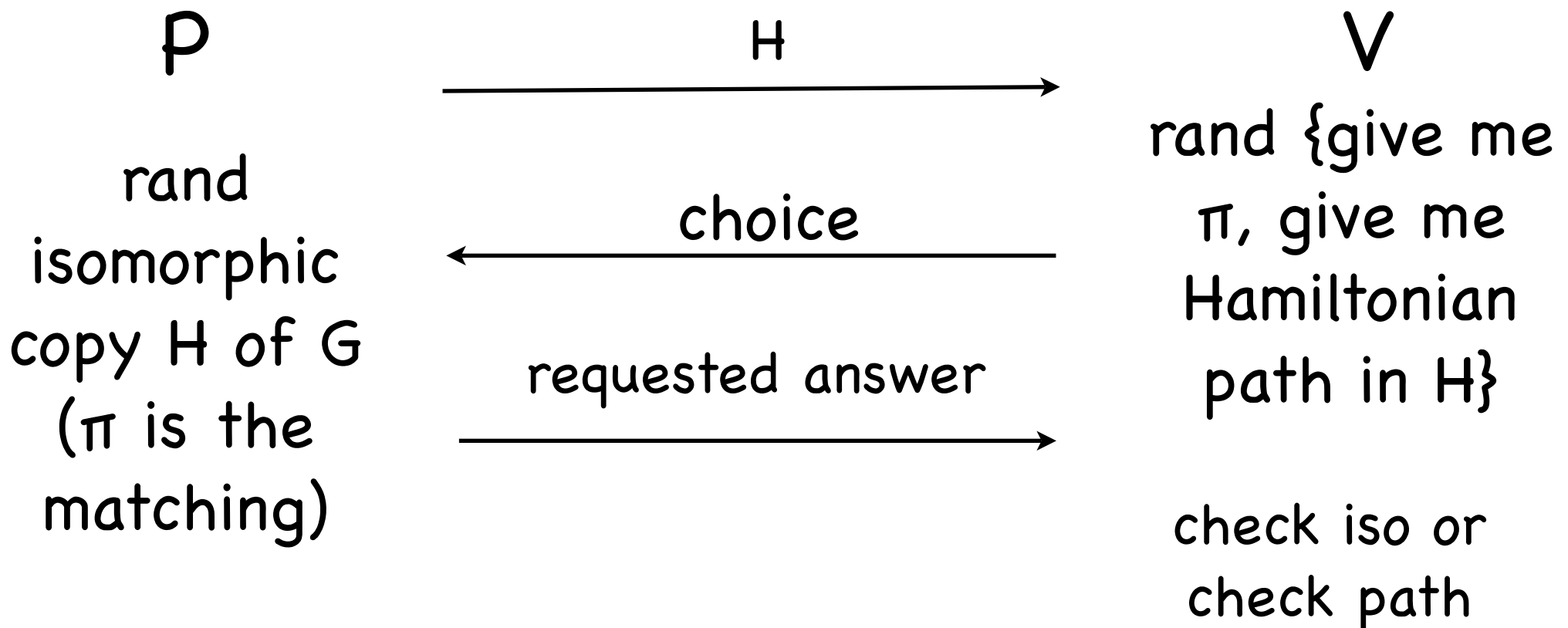
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Example 5: Hamiltonian Path

Even if V knows H , it is hard to reconstruct π from G and H

(Although no one knows quite how hard...)

isomorphic copy H of G
(π is the matching)

requested answer

V
rand {give me π , give me Hamiltonian path in H }

check iso or check path

Commitment Scheme

A key ingredient in many zero knowledge protocols

- Interesting in its own right

How do you flip a coin in real life?

(1) Bob "calls" the coin flip

(2) Alice flips the coin, and if Bob's call is correct, he wins, otherwise Alice does

Flipping a Coin Over the Phone

How do you do this over the telephone?

- Bob cannot trust Alice to reply honestly

Need **commitment**:

- A value of 0 or 1 is committed to by encrypting it or hashing it with a one-way function to get a “blob”
- We can verify the commitment by “unwrapping” this blob after revealing the key

Flipping a Coin Over the Phone

How do you do this over the telephone?

- Bob cannot trust Alice to reply honestly

(1) Bob "calls" the coin flip and tells Alice only a commitment to his call

(2) Alice flips the coin and reports the result

(3) Bob reveals what he committed to; if that matches the coin result Alice reported, Bob wins

Flipping a Coin Over the Phone

H For Alice to be able to skew the results in her favor, she must be able to understand the call hidden in Bob's commitment, so if the commitment scheme is a good one, Alice cannot affect the results.

Similarly, Bob cannot affect the result if he cannot change the value he commits to.

(3) Bob reveals what he committed to; if that matches the coin result Alice reported, Bob wins

Bit Commitment Properties

Concealment:

- Receiver cannot determine the value of the bit from the “blob”

Binding:

- Sender cannot open the “blob” as both a zero and a one

ZK from NP-Complete Problems

Given an instance of an NP-complete problem

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- Prover generates a new isomorphic instance based on the original one
- Prover commit the solution to the new problem to Verifier with a commitment protocol
- Verifier can challenge Prover with one of the questions:
 - Prove the two instances are isomorphic
 - Or show me the solution to the new instance

ZK from NP-Complete Problems

Given an instance of an NP-complete problem

- Prover generates a new isomorphic instance based on the original one
- Prover commit the solution to the new problem to Verifier with a commitment protocol
- Verifier can challenge with random questions:
 - Prove the two instances are isomorphic
 - Or show me the solution to the original problem

As usual, repeat procedure until Verifier is satisfied.

ZK from NP-Complete Problems

Given an instance of an NP-complete problem

- Prover generates a new isomorphic instance based on the original one
- Prover commit the solution to the new instance
- Verifier with a commitment scheme asks the prover questions:
 - Prove the two instances are isomorphic
 - Or show me the solution to the new instance

Tricky bit:

Verifier should not be able to transfer a solution back to the original instance

Graph Isomorphism

G_0 and G_1 are known graphs.

Prover knows a (secret) isomorphism π between them.

P

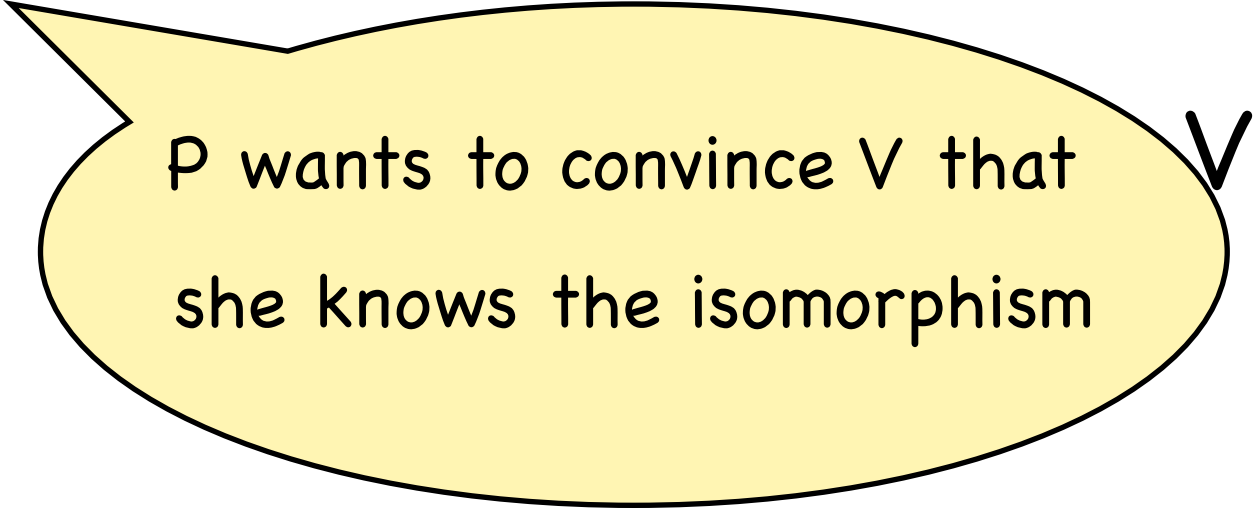
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H

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random H and
isomorphism μ
between G_0 and H

$$\sigma_0 = \mu$$

$$\sigma_1 = \mu \circ \pi^{-1}$$

Graph Isomorphism

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H

V



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rand $i \in \{0,1\}$

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V

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rand $i \in \{0,1\}$

σ_i



check that σ_i is an
isomorphism
between G_i and H

$$\sigma_0 = \mu$$

$$\sigma_1 = \mu \circ \pi^{-1}$$

More about NPC Problems

Every NPC problem yields a zero knowledge protocol

- Assumes existence of one-way functions
- Or existence of an encryption scheme
 - Basically, for commitment scheme

Variant that does not require such an assumption:

- Use multiple independent provers instead of only one, allowing the verifier to validate prover results against each others to avoid being misled.

ZK Proofs of Identity

If a private key is used as an identity, we can use a zero-knowledge proof for identity

- Chess Master problem: When Alice is proving her identity to a malicious node, the malicious node may be proving to a third party
- Cf wormhole attacks on wireless networks

Proposed solutions:

- Accurately synchronized clocks