Modern Verifiable Computation

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Lecture Outline

- 1. Interactive Proofs
 - Motivation, History of Work
 - Techniques:
 - Sum-Check Protocol
 - IP=PSPACE [LFKN, Shamir]
 - MatMult Protocol [T., 2013]
 - GKR Protocol [GKR, 2008]
- 2. Multi-Prover Interactive Proofs
 - Why can MIPs with polynomial-time verifiers solve harder problems than IPs?
 - Why can MIPs with linear-time verifiers solve "easy" problems more efficiently than IPs?
 - Sketch of a state-of-the-art MIP [BTVW, unpublished]
- 3. PCPs
 - Reltionship to MIPs
 - A first PCP from an MIP
 - A state-of-the-art PCP [BSS08]
- 4. Argument Systems
 - From "short" PCPs [Kilian 1992]
 - Without short PCPs [IKO 2007, GGPR 2013]
 - Basis of all implemented argument systems

Interactive Proofs: Motivation and Model

Outsourcing

- Many applications require outsourcing computation to untrusted service providers.
 - Main motivation: commercial cloud computing services.
 - Also, weak peripheral devices; fast but faulty co-processors.
 - Volunteer Computing (SETI@home,World Community Grid, etc.)
- User requires a guarantee that the cloud performed the computation correctly.





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AWS Customer Agreement

WE... MAKE **NO REPRESENTATIONS** OF ANY KIND ... THAT THE SERVICE OR THIRD PARTY CONTENT WILL BE UNINTERRUPTED, **ERROR FREE** OR FREE OF HARMFUL COMPONENTS, OR THAT ANY CONTENT ... WILL BE SECURE OR **NOT OTHERWISE LOST OR DAMAGED**.



Goals of Verifiable Computation

- 1. Provide user with guarantee of correctness.
 - Ideally user not do (much) more work than just **read the input**.
 - Ideally cloud will not do much more than just **solve the problem**.
- 2. Achieve security against malicious clouds, but lightweight for use in benign settings.

Possible Approaches

- 1. Make strong assumptions.
 - Replication [ACKLW02, HKD07,...] assumes majority of responses are correct.
 - Trusted hardware [JSM01, CGJ+09, SSW10...]
- 2. Make minimal assumptions.
 - Interactive proofs (this part of the talk).
 - Argument systems (use cryptography).
- 3. Use two or more clouds.
 - 1. Refereed games: assumes 1 cloud is honest.
 - 2. Multi-Prover Interactive Proofs: assumes clouds cannot communicate with each other.



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- Prover **P** and Verifier **V**.
- P solves problem, tells V the answer.
 - Then P and V have a conversation.
 - P's goal: convince V the answer is correct.
- Requirements:
 - 1. Completeness: an honest P can convince V to accept.
 - 2. Soundness: V will catch a lying P with high probability (secure even if P is computationally unbounded).



A Brief History of Interactive Proofs

Interactive Proofs, Pre-2008

- 1985: Introduced by [GMR, Babai].
 - IPs were believed to be just slightly more powerful than classical static (i.e., NP) proofs.
 - i.e. let **IP** denote class of problems solvable by an interactive proof with a poly-time verifier. It was believed that **IP** ≈ **NP**.

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 - i.e., IPs with a poly-time verifier can actually solve **much** more difficult problems than can classical static proofs.
 - But IPs were still viewed as impractical.
 - Main reason: P's runtime.
 - When applying IPs of [LFKN, Shamir] even to very simple problems, the honest prover would require **superpolynomial** time.

- 2008: [GKR] addressed P's runtime.
 - They gave an IP for any function computed by an efficient **parallel** algorithm.
 - P runs in polynomial time.
 - V runs in (almost) linear time, so outsourcing is useful even though problems are "easy".



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 - P runs in polynomial time.
 - V runs in (almost) linear time, so outsourcing is useful even though problems are "easy".
- But GKR is not practical out of the box.
 - P still requires a lot of time (**cubic** blowup in runtime).







P starts the conversation with an answer (output).



V sends series of challenges. P responds with info about next circuit level.







F₂ circuit

V sees input directly, so can check P's final statement directly.

- 2012: [CMT] implemented the GKR protocol (with refinements).
- Demonstrated low concrete costs for V.
- Brought P's runtime down from $\Omega(S^3)$, to O(S log S), where S is circuit size.
 - Key insight: use **multilinear** extension of circuit within the protocol.
 - Causes enormous cancellation in P's messages, allowing fast computation.



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- Still not good enough on its own.
 - **P** is $\sim 10^3$ times slower than just evaluating the circuit.
 - Naïve implementation of GKR would take trillions of times longer.
 - Both P and V can be sped up 40x-100x using GPUs [TRMP12].



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 - Includes any **data parallel** computation.
- Experimentally yields a prover just 10x slower than a C++ program that evaluates the circuit gate-by-gate.



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Interactive Proofs, Post-2008

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 - Includes any **data parallel** computation.
- Experimentally yields a prover just 10x slower than a C++ program that evaluates the circuit gate-by-gate.

Problem	P time	P time	Circuit Eval	V time	Protocol	Rounds
	[CMT12]	[T13]	Time	[Both]	Comm [T13]	[T13]
DISTINCT (n=2 ²⁰)	56.6 minutes	17.2 s	1.88 s	.03 s	40.7 KB	236

Interactive Proofs in Context: Related Work on Argument Systems

Work on Argument Systems (We'll See Them Later)

- Substantial body of recent work implements argument systems **with pre-processing** for circuit evaluation.
 - [SMBW12, SVP+12, B-SCGT13, GGPR13, SVB+13, PHGR13, BFR+13, B-SCGT+13, B-SCTV14, WSRBW15, CFH+15, ...]
- Advantages of our approach:
 - Secure against computationally unbounded provers.
 - No or minimal pre-processing for large classes of computation.
 - Unmatched prover efficiency when applicable.
- Advantages of arguments:
 - Applicable to "deep" circuits.
 - Support for "non-deterministic circuits".
 - Crypto properties: public verifiability, zero-knowledge, etc.

Comparison to Argument Systems, Cont'd

- [WHGSW16] have implemented our interactive proofs in hardware.
 - Motivation: Protecting against Hardware Trojans.
- They chose our interactive proofs instead of argument systems because of advantages not mentioned on previous slide.
 - IPs **do not require crypto** operations (expensive; hard to implement in hardware).
 - Our IPs permit **superior parallelization** for both **P** and **V**.
 - Our IPs have highly local data flows.
 - Existing argument systems require P to perform FFTs on vectors as large as the circuit being verified, and all "parts" of the prover algorithm must touch these vectors.

Interactive Proof Techniques: Preliminaries

Schwartz-Zippel Lemma

- Informally: any two distinct low-degree polynomials over **F** disagree at a randomly chosen input with high probability.
- Formally: let $g_1 \neq g_2$ be *d*-variate polynomials over field **F**. Then

 $\Pr[g_1(r_1,...,r_d) = g_2(r_1,...,r_d)] \le \max(\deg(g_1), \deg(g_2)) / |\mathbf{F}|$

when each r_i is chosen at random from **F**.

Low-Degree and Multilinear Extensions

- Definition [Extensions]. Given function f: {0,1}^v → F, where F is a field, a v-variate polynomial g over F is said to extend f if f(x) = g(x) for all x ∈ {0,1}^v.
- Definition [Multilinear Extensions]. Any function $f: \{0,1\}^{\nu} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}$ has a **unique** multilinear extension (MLE), denoted \tilde{f} .

 $f: \{0,1\}^2 \to \mathbf{F}$



 $\widetilde{f}:\mathbf{F}^2\to\mathbf{F}$



A Useful Expression for the MLE

Lemma (Lagrange Interpolation): Let *f*: {0,1}^ν → **F**. Then as formal polynomials,

Equation (*):
$$\widetilde{f}(x) = \sum_{w \in \{0,1\}^{\log n}} f(w) \cdot \widetilde{\delta}_w(x),$$

where $\widetilde{\delta}_w(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{\nu} (x_i w_i + (1 - x_i)(1 - w_i))$

is the MLE of the function $\delta_w : \{0,1\}^v \rightarrow \mathbf{F}$ defined via:

 $\delta_w(y) = 1$ if y = w, and $\delta_w(y) = 0$ otherwise.

Evaluating The MLE At Any Point, Efficiently

• Let $f: \{0,1\}^{\nu} \to \mathbf{F}, r \in \mathbf{F}^{\nu}$, and $n = 2^{\nu}$. Given as input f(w) for all $w \in \{0,1\}^{\nu}$, one can compute $\tilde{f}(r)$ in $O(n \log n)$ time and $O(\log n)$ space with a single streaming pass over the input.

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• Proof: By Equation (*):
$$\widetilde{f}(r) = \sum_{w \in \{0,1\}^{\log n}} f(w) \cdot \widetilde{\delta}_w(r).$$

Compute RHS by initializing $\tilde{f}(r) \leftarrow 0$ and processing update (w, f(w)) via: $\tilde{f}(r) \leftarrow \tilde{f}(r) + f(w) \bullet \tilde{\delta}(r).$

Evaluation takes $O(\log n)$ to compute.

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• Can also reduce runtime to O(n) using dynamic programming, but this requires more space [Vu et al., 2013].

A Final Technical Hammer: Sum-Check Protocol [LFKN90]

Sum-Check Protocol [LFKN90]

- Input: V given oracle access to a *d*-variate polynomial g over field **F** with $\deg_i(g) = O(1)$ for all $i \in \{1, ..., d\}$.
- Goal: compute the quantity:

$$\sum_{b_1 \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{b_2 \in \{0,1\}} \dots \sum_{b_d \in \{0,1\}} g(b_1,\dots,b_d)$$

- **Start**: P sends claimed answer C_1 .
- **Round 1**: **P** sends **univariate** polynomial $S_1(X_1)$ claimed to equal

$$\sum_{b_2 \in \{0,1\}} \dots \sum_{b_d \in \{0,1\}} g(X_1, b_2, \dots, b_d)$$

• V checks that $C_1 = s_1(0) + s_1(1)$.

- V picks r_1 at random from **F** and lets $C_2 = s_1(r_1)$.
- **Round 2**: V sends r_1 to P. They recursively check that

$$C_2 = \sum_{b_2 \in \{0,1\}} \dots \sum_{b_d \in \{0,1\}} g(r_1, b_2, \dots, b_d)$$

• Round d: P sends univariate polynomial $S_d(X_d)$ claimed to equal $g(r_1, r_2, ..., r_{d-1}, X_d).$

• V picks r_d at random, checks that $s_d(r_d) = g(r_1, r_2, ..., r_d)$.

Costs of Sum-Check Protocol

- P sends *d* messages, each a univariate polynomial of degree $\deg_i(g) = O(1)$.
- V processes each message in O(1) time, and makes one oracle query to g in final round.
- P computes a sum over up to 2^{d-i} terms in round *i*.
 Naively, this requires evaluating g at 2^{d-i} points.

First Application of Sum-Check: An IP For #SAT [LFKN]

• Let ϕ be a Boolean formula of size S over *n* variables.

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- Protocol: Apply sum-check to an extension polynomial g of ϕ .
 - Note: in final round, V needs to compute g(r) for some randomly chosen r in \mathbf{F}^n .

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- Protocol: Apply sum-check to an extension polynomial g of φ.
 Note: in final round, V needs to compute g(r) for some randomly chosen r in Fⁿ.
- Where does g come from? Arithmetize ϕ .
 - i.e., replace ϕ with arithmetic circuit computing extension g of ϕ .
 - AND $(y_1, y_2) \Longrightarrow$ multiplication gate $y_1 * y_2$.
 - NOT $(y_1) \Rightarrow 1 y_1$
 - OR(y_1, y_2) \Longrightarrow $y_1 + y_2 y_1 * y_2$.
 - Total degree of g is at most S, and V can evaluate g(r) gate-by-gate in time O(S).



Transforming a Boolean circuit ϕ into an arithmetic circuit computing an extension of ϕ .

Costs of #SAT Protocol for Φ

• Let ϕ be a Boolean formula of size S over n variables.

Rounds	Communication	VTime	PTime
n	P sends a degree S polynomial in reach round \Longrightarrow O(S*n) field elements sent in total.	 •O(S) time to process each of the <i>n</i> messages of P •O(S) time to evaluate g(r) → O(S*n) time total 	P must evaluate g at $O(2^n)$ points to determine each message \longrightarrow $O(S^*n^*2^n)$ time in total.

Second Application: An Optimal Interactive Proof For Matrix Multiplication

[Thaler13]: Optimal IP For n x n MatMult

• Goal: Given n x n matrices A, B over field **F**, compute C=A*B.

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- Goal: Given n x n matrices A, B over field **F**, compute C=A*B.
- P simply determines the "right answer", and then P does $O(n^2)$ extra work to prove its correctness.
- Doesn't matter how P obtains the right answer!
- Optimal runtime up to leading constant assuming no $O(n^2)$ time algorithm for MatMult.
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Problem Size	Naïve MatMult Time	Additional P time	V Time	Rounds	Protocol Comm
1024 x 1024	2.17 s	0.03 s	0.09 s	11	264 bytes
2048 x 2048	18.23 s	0.13 s	0.30 s	12	288 bytes

Comparison to Freivalds' Algorithm

- Freivalds (MFCS, 1979) gave the following protocol for MatMult. To check AB=C:
 - V picks random vector x.
 - Accepts if $A^{*}(Bx) = Cx$.
 - No extra work for P, $O(n^2)$ time for V.

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 - Accepts if $A^{*}(Bx) = Cx$.
 - No extra work for P, $O(n^2)$ time for V.
- Our big win: verifying algorithms that invoke MatMult, but aren't really interested in matrices.
 - E.g. Best-known graph diameter algorithms square the adjacency matrix, but are only interested in a single number.
 - Total communication for us is $O(\log^2 n)$, Freivalds' is $\Omega(n^2)$.

MatMult Protocol: Technical Details

Notation

 Given *n*×*n* input matrices A, B over field F, interpret A and B as functions mapping {0, 1}^{log n} × {0, 1}^{log n} to F via:

$$A(i_1,...,i_{\log n},j_1,...,j_{\log n}) = A_{ij}.$$

- Let C=A*B denote the true answer.
- Let $\widetilde{A}, \widetilde{B}: \mathbf{F}^{\log n} \times \mathbf{F}^{\log n} \to \mathbf{F}$ denote the multilinear extensions of the functions A and B.

 $D: \{0,1\}^2 \to \mathbf{F}$



 $\widetilde{D}:\mathbf{F}^2\to\mathbf{F}$



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MatMult Protocol

- P sends a matrix D claimed to equal C=A*B.
- V evaluates \widetilde{D} at a random point $(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2) \in \mathbf{F}^{\log n} \times \mathbf{F}^{\log n}$.
- By Schwartz-Zippel: it is safe for V to believe that *D* equals the correct answer *C* as long as:

$$\widetilde{D}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2) = \widetilde{C}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2).$$

• Goal becomes: compute $\widetilde{C}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2)$.

MatMult Protocol

- Goal: Compute $\widetilde{C}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2)$.
- For Boolean vectors $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j} \in \{0,1\}^{\log n}$, clearly:

$$C(\mathbf{i},\mathbf{j}) = \sum_{\mathbf{k} \in \{0,1\}^{\log n}} A(\mathbf{i},\mathbf{k}) B(\mathbf{k},\mathbf{j}).$$

• This implies the following **polynomial** identity: $\widetilde{C}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum \widetilde{A}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{b})\widetilde{B}(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{y})$

$$\widetilde{C}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{\mathbf{b} \in \{0,1\}^{\log n}} \widetilde{A}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{b}) \widetilde{B}(\mathbf{b},\mathbf{y}).$$

• So V applies sum-check protocol to compute $\widetilde{C}(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2) = \sum_{b_1 \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{b_2 \in \{0,1\}} \dots \sum_{b_{\log n} \in \{0,1\}} g(b_1, \dots, b_{\log n}),$

where
$$g(\mathbf{z}) = \widetilde{A}(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{z}) * \widetilde{B}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{r}_2)$$
.

- At end of sum-check, V must evaluate $g(\mathbf{r}_3) = \widetilde{A}(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_3) \cdot \widetilde{B}(\mathbf{r}_3, \mathbf{r}_2)$.
- Suffices to evaluate $\widetilde{A}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_3)$ and $\widetilde{B}(\mathbf{r}_3,\mathbf{r}_2)$. How?

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- Suffices to evaluate $\widetilde{A}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_3)$ and $\widetilde{B}(\mathbf{r}_3,\mathbf{r}_2)$. How?
- Can be done in O(n²) time by "Fast Evaluation of MLE" lemma in preliminaries.

- Recall: using sum-check to compute $\sum_{k \in \{0,1\}^{\log n}} g(k_1, \dots, k_{\log n}).$
- Round i: P sends quadratic polynomial $s_i(X_i)$ claimed to equal:

$$\sum_{b_{i+1}\in\{0,1\}} \dots \sum_{b_{\log n}\in\{0,1\}} g(r_{3,1},\dots,r_{3,i-1},X_i,b_{i+1}\dots,b_{\log n}).$$

- Suffices for P to specify $s_i(0)$, $s_i(1)$, and $s_i(2)$.
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- So O(n*n²)=O(n³) **total** time. Can we improve this?
- Yes: each entry A_{ij} contributes to $g(r_{3,1},...,r_{3,i-1},\{0,1,2\},b_{i+1}...,b_{\log n})$ for only **one** tuple $(b_{i+1}...,b_{\log n}) \in \{0,1\}^{\log n-i}$.

Making P Fast • $\widetilde{A}(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{z}) = \sum_{\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j} \in \{0,1\}^{\log n}} \widetilde{A}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{j}} \, \delta_{(\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j})}(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{z}).$

• Only interested in **z**'s of the form

$$\mathbf{Z} = (r_{3,1}, \dots, r_{3,i-1}, \{0,1,2\}, b_{i+1}, \dots, b_{\log n}).$$

• Claim:
$$\overset{\sim}{\delta}_{(\mathbf{i},\mathbf{j})}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{z}) = 0$$
 unless $(j_{i+1},...,j_{\log n}) = (b_{i+1},...,b_{\log n})$

Implementing P Quickly

- Summary: In round i, P must evaluate g at n/2ⁱ points of a special form (trailing entries are Boolean).
- Each matrix entry A_{ij}, B_{ij} contributes to only **one** of these evaluations.
- So P can run in $O(n^2)$ time per round, or $O(n^2 \log n)$ time across all log n rounds.

Implementing P Quickly

- With care: can bring P's time down to $O(n^2)$.
- Key idea: **Reuse work** across rounds.
 - If two entries $(\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}), (\mathbf{i}', \mathbf{j}') \in \{0, 1\}^{\log n} \times \{0, 1\}^{\log n}$ agree in their last k bits, then $A_{\mathbf{ij}}$ and $A_{\mathbf{i'j}}$, contribute to the **same** point in rounds k and up.
 - Can treat (**i**,**j**) and (**i'**,**j'**) as a single entity thereafter.
 - Only $n/2^k$, entities of interest in round k.
 - Total work across all rounds is proportional to

$$\sum_{\leq k \leq \log n} n / 2^k = 2n$$

Third Application: The GKR Protocol

The GKR Protocol: Overview



F₂ circuit









Notation

- Assume layers i and i+1 of C have S gates each.
 - Assign each gate a binary label (log S bits).
- Let $W_i(\mathbf{a}): \{0,1\}^{\log S} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}$ output the value of gate \mathbf{a} at layer i.
- Let $add_i(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}) : \{0, 1\}^{3\log S} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}$ output 1 iff $(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}) = (in_1(\mathbf{a}), in_2(\mathbf{a}))$ and gate \mathbf{a} is an addition gate.
- Let $\operatorname{mult}_i(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}): \{0,1\}^{3\log S} \to \mathbf{F}$ output 1 iff

 $(\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c})=(in_1(\mathbf{a}), in_2(\mathbf{a}))$ and gate \mathbf{a} is a multiplication gate.

GKR Protocol: Goal of Iteration i

- Iteration i starts with a claim from P about $W_i(\mathbf{r}_1)$ for a random point $\mathbf{r}_1 \in \mathbf{F}^{\log S}$.
- Goal: Reduce this to a claim about $\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{r}_2)$ for a random point $\mathbf{r}_2 \in \mathbf{F}^{\log S}$.
- Key Polynomial Identity. The following equality holds as formal polynomials:

 $\widetilde{W}_i(\mathbf{a}) =$

$$\sum_{\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}\in\{0,1\}} \widetilde{\operatorname{add}}_{i}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) \left(\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{b}) + \widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{c}) \right) + \widetilde{\operatorname{mult}}_{i}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) \left(\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{b}) \bullet \widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{c}) \right).$$

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GKR Protocol: Goal of Iteration i

• So V applies sum-check protocol to compute $\widetilde{W}_i(\mathbf{r}_1) =$

 $\sum_{\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}\in\{0,1\}} \widetilde{\operatorname{add}}_{i}(\mathbf{r}_{1},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) \left(\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{b}) + \widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{c}) \right) + \widetilde{\operatorname{mult}}_{i}(\mathbf{r}_{1},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) \left(\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{b}) \bullet \widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{c}) \right).$

- At end of sum-check protocol, V must evaluate $\widetilde{\operatorname{add}}_{i}(\mathbf{r}_{1},\mathbf{r}_{2},\mathbf{r}_{3})\Big(\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{r}_{2})+\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{r}_{3})\Big)+\widetilde{\operatorname{mult}}_{i}(\mathbf{r}_{1},\mathbf{r}_{2},\mathbf{r}_{3})\Big(\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{r}_{2})\cdot\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{r}_{3})\Big)$ for randomly chosen $\mathbf{r}_{2},\mathbf{r}_{3} \in \{0,1\}^{\log S}$.
- Let us assume V can compute $\widetilde{add}_i(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3)$ and $\widetilde{mult}_i(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3)$ unaided in polylog(n) time.
- Then V only needs to know $W_{i+1}(\mathbf{r}_2)$ and $W_{i+1}(\mathbf{r}_3)$ to complete this check.
- Then iteration i+1 is devoted to computing these values.

- There is one remaining problem: we don't want to have to separately verify both $\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{r}_2)$ and $\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{r}_3)$ in iteration i+1.
- Solution: Reduce verifying both of the above values to verifying $\widetilde{W}_{i+1}(\mathbf{r}_4)$ for a single point $\mathbf{r}_4 \in \mathbf{F}^{\log S}$.

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Multi-Prover Interactive Proofs

Lecture Outline

- 1. Interactive Proofs
 - Motivation, History of Work
 - Techniques:
 - Sum-Check Protocol
 - IP=PSPACE [LFKN, Shamir]
 - MatMult Protocol [T., 2013]
 - GKR Protocol [GKR, 2008]
- 2. Multi-Prover Interactive Proofs
 - Why can MIPs with polynomial-time verifiers solve harder problems than IPs?
 - Why can MIPs with linear-time verifiers solve "easy" problems more efficiently than IPs?
 - Sketch of a state-of-the-art MIP [BTVW, unpublished]
- 3. PCPs
 - Reltionship to MIPs
 - A first PCP from an MIP
 - A state-of-the-art PCP [BSS08]
- 4. Argument Systems
 - From "short" PCPs [Kilian 1992]
 - Without short PCPs [IKO 2007, GGPR 2013]
 - Basis of all implemented argument systems

A k-Prover MIP [Ben-Or, Goldwasser, Kilian, Wigderson, 1988]



Provers cannot communicate with each other.

What Does a Second Prover Buy?

- First Answer: **Non-Adaptivity**.
- Theorem [FRS 1994]: Let L be a language and M a probabilistic polynomial time Turing Machine such that:
 - a) x in L \Leftrightarrow there exists an oracle O such that M^O accepts x with probability 1.
 - b) x not in L \Leftrightarrow for all oracles O, M^O rejects x with probability at least 2/3.

Then there is a 2-prover MIP for L where V runs in polynomial time.

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 - b) x not in L \iff for all oracles O, M^O rejects x with probability at least 2/3. Then there is a 2-prover MIP for L where V runs in polynomial time.
- Proof: The MIP is
 - V simulates M on input x and every time M poses a query q_i to the oracle, V asks q_i to P_1 .
 - Afterward, V picks a random q_i and asks it to P_2 .
 - V outputs 0 if P_2 's answer to q_i does not match P_1 's, or if M would output 0 when treating P_1 's answers as the oracle's responses.
 - V repeats the above 3k times, where k is an upper bound on the number of oracle queries M makes. At the end, if V hasn't output 0, it outputs 1.

But What Does Non-Adaptivity Buy?

- Answer: Efficient support for non-determinism.
 - For any language L is in **NP**, the provers will be able to convince V that they hold a witness w that the input is in L, **without** sending w to V.
 - This is the core of the famous result that **MIP=NEXP** [BFL 1991], and ultimately of the PCP theorem.

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 - This is the core of the famous result that **MIP=NEXP** [BFL 1991], and ultimately of the PCP theorem.
- But in the real world, no one is solving NEXP-complete problems (or even NP-complete problems) in the worst case.
 - Can MIPs solve "easy" problems more efficiently than IPs?
 - Answer:Yes.
 - Reason: Support for non-determinism enables more efficient transformations from computer programs to problems amenable to probabilistic checking (i.e., circuit evaluation).

Efficient Reductions from RAMs to Non-Deterministic Circuit Evaluation

- Suppose we have a RAM M running in time T.
- We will turn M into a non-deterministic circuit C of size O(T*polylogT) that computes the same function as M. That is:
 - C will take an explicit input x and non-deterministic input w.
 - M accepts $x \iff$ there is a w such that C(x, w)=1.
 - Such efficient transformations from RAMs to **deterministic** circuits are not known.
- And then we can apply to C an efficient MIP for non-deterministic circuit evaluation.

Sketch of the Transformation

[Gurevich and Shelah 89, Robson91, Ben-Sasson et al. 2013]

- A **trace** of M on input x is the list of the (time, configuration) pairs that arise when running M on x.
 - A configuration specifies the bits in M's program counter and registers.
- C takes x as explicit input, and takes an entire **trace** of M as nondeterministic input.
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- C takes x as explicit input, and takes an entire **trace** of M as nondeterministic input.
- C then checks the trace for correctness, and if so outputs whatever M outputs in the trace.
 - C must check two properties of the trace.
 - **Time consistency** (the claimed state at time t correctly follows from the claimed state at time t-1).
 - **Memory consistency** (whenever M reads a value from a memory location, the value that is returned is the last value that was written).
 - Time-consistency is easy to check: represent M's transition function as a small subcircuit, apply it to each entry t of the trace and check that it equals entry t+1.
 - Checking memory consistency is done by "re-sorting" the trasncript based on memory location, with ties broken by time.

Non-Deterministic Circuit Evaluation

- Given: An arithmetic circuit C over **F** of size S with explicit input x and non-deterministic input w, and claimed output(s) y.
- Goal: Determine if there exists a w such that C(x, w)=y.

Non-Deterministic Circuit Evaluation

- Given: An arithmetic circuit C over **F** of size S with explicit input x and non-deterministic input w, and claimed output(s) y.
- Goal: Determine if there exists a w such that C(x, w)=y.
- Assign each gate in C a (log S)-bit label.
- Call a function $W: \{0,1\}^{\log S} \rightarrow \mathbf{F}$ a *transcript* for C.
 - Say that *W* is *correct* on x if it satisfies the following properties:
 - The values W assigns to the explicit input gates equal x.
 - The value W assigns to the output gates is y.
 - The values W assigns to the intermediate gates correspond to the correct operation of the gates.
 - Clearly there is a w such that C(x, w)=1 iff there is a correct transcript for C.

Sketch of 2-Prover MIP for Non-Deterministic Circuit Evaluation

[Blumberg, Thaler, Vu, Walfish, unpublished]

- Protocol Sketch:
 - P_1 and P_2 claim to hold an extension *Z* of a correct transcript W for C.
 - Identify a polynomial $g_{x,Z}: \{0,1\}^{3\log S} \to \mathbf{F}$ (that depends on x and Z) such that: Z extends a correct transcript $\iff g_{x,Z}(a,b,c) = 0 \forall (a,b,c) \in \{0,1\}^{3\log S}$.

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 - V checks this by running sum-check protocol with P_1 to compute

$$0 \stackrel{?}{=} \sum_{(a,b,c) \in \{0,1\}^{3\log S}} g_{x,Z}^2(a,b,c).$$

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- To perform final check in sum-check protocol, V needs to evaluate $g_{x,Z}^2$ at a random point. But this requires evaluating Z at a random point, and Z only "exists" in P₁'s head.
 - So V asks P_2 for the evaluation of Z.
 - Soundness analysis of sum-check is valid as long as P₂'s claim about Z is consistent with a low-degree polynomial. So V also runs a low-degree test with P₁ and P₂.

• Identify a polynomial $g_{x,Z} : \{0,1\}^{3\log S} \to \mathbf{F}$ (that depends on x and Z) such that: *Z* extends a correct transcript $\iff g_{x,Z}(a,b,c) = 0 \ \forall \ (a,b,c) \in \{0,1\}^{3\log S}$.

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- Let add(a,b,c) output 1 iff $(b,c)=(in_1(a), in_2(a))$ and gate a is an addition gate.
- Let $mult(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c})$ output 1 iff $(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}) = (in_1(\mathbf{a}), in_2(\mathbf{a}))$ and gate \mathbf{a} is a mult gate.
- Let io(a,b,c) output 1 iff gate a is in the explicit input x and (b,c)=(0,0), or if a is an output gate and b and c are in-neighbors of a.
- Let $I_x(\mathbf{a})$ output $x_{\mathbf{a}}$ if \mathbf{a} is an input gate, $y_{\mathbf{a}}$ if \mathbf{a} is an output gate, and 0 otherwise.
- Key Lemma: For $G_{x,W}: \{0,1\}^{3\log S} \to \mathbf{F}$ defined below, W is a correct transcript on x iff $G_{x,W}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) = 0$ for all $(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c})$ in $\{0,1\}^{3\log S}$.

 $G_{x,W}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) \coloneqq \mathrm{io}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) \bullet (\mathbf{I}_x(\mathbf{a}) - \mathbf{W}(\mathbf{a})) + \mathrm{add}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c})(\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{a}) - (\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{W}(\mathbf{c})) + \mathrm{mult}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) \bullet (\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{a}) - \mathbf{W}(\mathbf{b}) \bullet \mathbf{W}(\mathbf{c}))$

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- Identify a polynomial $g_{x,Z}$: $\{0,1\}^{3\log S} \to \mathbf{F}$ (that depends on x and Z) such that: *Z* extends a correct transcript $\iff g_{x,Z}(a,b,c) = 0 \ \forall \ (a,b,c) \in \{0,1\}^{3\log S}$.
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• So we define:

 $g_{x,Z}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) = \widetilde{\mathrm{io}}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) \bullet (\widetilde{\mathrm{I}}_{x}(\mathbf{a})-Z(\mathbf{a})) + \widetilde{\mathrm{add}}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c})(Z(\mathbf{a})-(Z(\mathbf{b})+Z(\mathbf{c})) + \widetilde{\mathrm{mult}}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b},\mathbf{c}) \bullet (Z(\mathbf{a})-Z(\mathbf{b}) \bullet Z(\mathbf{c}))$

Costs of the 2-Prover MIP for Non-Deterministic Circuit Evaluation

Rounds	VTime	P ₁ Time	P ₂ Time
log S	$O(n + \log^2 S)$	O(S log S)	O(S log S)

Combining this MIP with the RAM \implies non-deterministic circuit reduction sketched before, we get an MIP that can simulate any RAM that runs in time T. In the MIP, V runs in time O(n + polylog(T)) and P₁ and P₂ run in time O(T*polylog(T)).



The PCP Model For A Language L

- V is given oracle access to a static proof string π in Σ^{ℓ} .
 - Standard notions of completeness and soundness must hold.
 - If x is in L, then there must exist a proof string causing V to accept.
 - If x is not in L, there for all proof strings, V must reject w.h.p.
 - ℓ is called the **length** or **size** of the proof.
 - \sum is called the **alphabet**.
 - **Prover time** refers to the time required to generate π .
 - If V only looks at q entries of the proof string, then q is referred to as the **query cost**.

Relationship Between MIPs and PCPs

- Every MIP can be turned into a PCP and vice versa.
 - But the transformations can blow up costs (e.g., P time, V time, communication, query costs, etc.).

$MIP \Longrightarrow PCP Transformation$

- Lemma: Suppose L has a k-prover MIP in which V sends one message to each prover, with each message consisting of at most r_Q bits, and each prover sends at most r_A bits in response. Then L has a k-query PCP over alphabet $\Sigma = [2^{r_A}]$ with proof size $k2^{r_Q}$. V's runtime, soundness error and completeness error are the same as in the MIP.
- Proof: For each prover P_i in the MIP, the PCP has an entry for every possible message to P_i. The PCP verifier simulates the MIP verifier, treating the proof string as the provers' answers in the MIP.

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- Proof: For each prover P_i in the MIP, the PCP has an entry for every possible message to P_i. The PCP verifier simulates the MIP verifier, treating the proof string as the provers' answers in the MIP.
- Highlights a key difference between MIPs and PCPs.
 - MIP provers only need to compute answers "on demand".
 - A PCP prover must "write down" an answer to every possible question V might ask.

$PCP \Rightarrow MIP$ Transformation

- Lemma: Suppose L has a PCP system in which V makes k queries to a proof of length ℓ over an alphabet Σ with soundness error δ_s . Then L has a(k + 1)-prover MIP in which P and V's runtimes are preserved, and the soundness error of the MIP is at most max{ $1-1/k, \delta_s$ }.
- Proof: For each PCP query q_i that the PCP verifier makes, the MIP verifier poses q_i to a different prover P_i , then picks $i \in [k]$ at random and poses q_i to the remaining prover to make sure its answer matches that of P_i .

$PCP \Rightarrow MIP$ Transformation

- Lemma: Suppose L has a PCP system in which V makes k queries to a proof of length ℓ over an alphabet Σ with soundness error δ_s . Then L has a(k + 1)-prover MIP in which P and V's runtimes are preserved, and the soundness error of the MIP is at most max{1-1/k, δ_s }.
- Proof: For each PCP query q_i that the PCP verifier makes, the MIP verifier poses q_i to a different prover P_i , then picks $i \in [k]$ at random and poses q_i to the remaining prover to make sure its answer matches that of P_i .
- Highlights the two more key differences between MIPs and PCPs.
 - In an MIP, each prover can act **adaptively** if asked more than one question.
 - Even if the provers in an MIP don't act adaptively, they may not answer with respect to the same function $\pi.$

A First PCP, From an MIP

- In the MIP from earlier, it was sound to work over a field of size polylog(S), and V set O(log S) field elements to each prover, where S was the size of (non-deterministic) circuit we were simulating.
 - So total number of bits sent by V was $r_Q = O(\log(S) * \log\log(S))$ \Rightarrow PCP of length $O(2^{r_Q}) = S^{O(\log\log S)}$.
- By tweaking parameters in the MIP itself, we can reduce r_Q to O(log S).

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- By tweaking parameters in the MIP itself, we can reduce r_0 to O(log S).
 - Don't assign gates binary labels and use multilinear extensions over log S variables.
 - Instead, assign them labels in base b for b=(log S)/(loglog S), so each label consists of b digits, since b^b=S.
 - Can use extensions of degree b in each variable, so it is still sound to work over a field **F** of size polylog(S).
 - So r_Q becomes O(b *log | F |)=O((log S)/(loglog S)*loglog S) = O(log S) \Rightarrow PCP of size poly(S).

A State of the Art PCP

- [BSS 2005]: A PCP for simulating a RAM M running in time T, with proof length O(T*polylog(T)) and O(polylog(T)) queries by V.
- [BSGHSV 2005]: Reduced V's **time** in the PCP to O(n*polylog(T))
- [BSCGT 2013]: Improved constants, and showed how to generate the proof in time O(T*polylog(T)) using FFTs.
 - Still complicated, large hidden constants, must work over fields of characteristic 2.

Argument Systems

Argument Systems

- Argument systems are constructed in a 2-step process:
 - 1. Construct an information-theoretically secure protocol for a model in which cheating provers behave in a restricted model.
 - 2. Use crypto to force a single prover to behave in this model.

Argument Systems and Their Properties						
Information-Theoretically Secure Model	Crypto Primitive	Argument System Properties	Reference			
Polynomial size PCP	CRHF	4-message argument for NP Zero-Knowledge (ZK) Proof of Knowledge (PoK)	Kilian 1992			
"linear" PCP of exponential size	Additively homomorphic encryption	Same as above, but with pre-processing (also, simpler w/better constants)	IKO 2007, GGPR 2013			
	"linear only" additively homomorphic encryption	2-message argument for NP with pre-processing ZK+PoK+public verifiability	GGPR 2013, BCIOP 2013			
MIP	Fully-Homomorphic Encryption (FHE)	4-message "complexity- preserving" argument for NP with PoK	Bitansky- Chiesa 2012			
No-signaling MIP	FHE or PRI	2-message argument for P Publicly verifiable [PR15]	KRR 2014			

Merkle Trees

- A Merkle Hash Tree gives a way to outsource storage of a bunch of data to an untrusted "prover" P.
- Fix a collision resistant hash function $h: \{0,1\}^k \times \{0,1\}^k \rightarrow \{0,1\}^k$. The prover uses h to build a hash tree over the data.
- Suppose V knows the root hash.



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- Suppose V knows the root hash.
- If V wants to know a data block, she asks P to provide the data block, and all nodes on its path to the root, along with their siblings.
 - Called the **witness path** for the data block.
- V checks that all provided nodes actually equal the hash of the children, and that the claimed root hash is correct.
- For P to lie about the value of the data block, there must be a hash-collision somewhere on the real root-to-leaf path and the claimed root-to-leaf path.



- Combine a PCP with a Merkle tree.
- In more detail:
 - 1. Commit Phase of the Argument System:

2. Reveal Phase of the Argument System:

- Combine a PCP with a Merkle tree.
- In more detail:
 - 1. Commit Phase of the Argument System:
 - V sends a collision-resistant hash function h to P.
 - Let π be a PCP attesting to $x \in L$. P builds a Merkle tree over π using h and sends the root hash to V.
 - 2. Reveal Phase of the Argument System:
 - Let q_1, \ldots, q_k be the PCP verifier's queries to π . V sends these queries to P.
 - P sends back $\pi(q_1), ..., \pi(q_k)$ plus the witness path for each.

- Combine a PCP with a Merkle tree.
- In more detail:
 - 1. Commit Phase of the Argument System:
 - V sends a collision-resistant hash function h to P.
 - Let π be a PCP attesting to $x \in L$. P builds a Merkle tree over π using h and sends the root hash to V.
 - 2. Reveal Phase of the Argument System:
 - Let q_1, \ldots, q_k be the PCP verifier's queries to π . V sends these queries to P.
 - P sends back $\pi(q_1), ..., \pi(q_k)$ plus the witness path for each.
- Soundness proof sketch: By security of the Merkle Tree, after the reveal phase P is "committed" to answer all k queries in the Reveal Phase using a single, fixed function π . Hence, by soundness of the PCP, if P can convince V to accept with non-negligible probability, then $x \in L$.

Costs of Kilian's Argument System When Instantiated with State-Of-The-Art PCP for Non-Deterministic Circuit Evaluation

Messages	Communication	VTime	PTime
4	polylog(S)	O(n + polylog S)	O(S*polylog S)

Downsides:

*State-of-the-art PCPs are complicated, concretely expensive.

*The argument system is interactive, not publicly verifiable (though it can be made ZK and PoK). *State-of-the-art PCPs require a lot of space for the prover (who must perform FFTs over entire computation traces).

Argument Systems from Linear PCPs [Ishai, Kushilevitz, Ostrovsky, 2008]

Interactive Arguments from Linear PCPs

- The reason Kilian needs a polynomial-size PCP is that the prover must materialize the full proof π to commit to it.
- Can avoid this if π is structured (i.e., linear).
 - i.e., $\pi: \mathbf{F}^{\nu} \to \mathbf{F}$ and $\pi(q_1 + q_2) = \pi(q_1) + \pi(q_2)$.
- Step 1: Give commit/reveal protocol for linear functions $\pi : \mathbf{F}^{\nu} \to \mathbf{F}$.
 - Will use a semantically secure **additively homomorphic** encryption scheme.
 - i.e. $\operatorname{Enc}(q_1 + q_2) = \operatorname{Enc}(q_1) + \operatorname{Enc}(q_2)$.
- Step 2: Give a linear PCP for non-deterministic circuit evaluation.
 - First, we give one of length $|\mathbf{F}|^{O(S^2)}$ due to [IKO, 2007].
 - Then, we give one of length $|\mathbf{F}|^{O(S)}$ due to [GGPR, 2013].

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4 $V \rightarrow P$ communication: O(S) field elements O(S), but amortizable	$O(S * \log^2 S)$
$P \rightarrow V$ communication: O(1) field elements over a batch of inputs to	C

Step 1: Commit/Reveal For Linear Functions $\pi: \mathbf{F}^{\nu} \to \mathbf{F}$

- Guarantee: At end of commit phase, there is some function π' (not necessarily linear) such that if P passes V's test with non-negligible probability, then answers in the reveal phase are consistent with π' .
- Commit phase:

• Reveal phase:
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- Commit phase:
 - V chooses a random $r \in \mathbf{F}^{\nu}$, sends $\operatorname{Enc}(r_1), \ldots, \operatorname{Enc}(r_{\nu})$ to P.
 - P sends $e = Enc(\pi(r))$ to V using homomorphism of Enc.
 - V lets s=Dec(e).
- Reveal phase:
 - Given queries $q_1, ..., q_k$ to π , V picks $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k$ at random, sends $q_1, ..., q_k$ and $q^* := r + \sum_i \alpha_i q_i$ to P.
 - P sends claimed answers $a_1, ..., a_k, a *$ to the queries.

• V checks if
$$a^* = s + \sum_i \alpha_i a_i$$
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- V checks if $a^* = s + \sum_i \alpha_i a_i$.
- Assume the number of queries V asks in reveal phase is $\tilde{k}=1$ for simplicity.
- Consider two runs of the reveal phase, where:
 - In Run 1, V sends q_1 and $q^* := r + \alpha q_1$ and P responds with a_1 and a^* .
 - In Run 2, V sends q_1 and $q^* := r + \alpha' q_1$ and P responds with $a'_1 \neq a_1$ and a^* .
 - And V accepts both runs.
- Claim: In this case, P can solve for (α, α') . Hence, P can solve for r, breaking semantic security of the encryption scheme.

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- Proof: Even though P doesn't know s, P knows by V's acceptance that

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$$a^{**} = s + \alpha^* a_1^*$$

Also, P doesn't know r, but he knows:

 $q^* = r + \alpha q_1$ $q^* = r + \alpha' q_1 \longrightarrow \qquad (q^* - q^*) = \alpha q_1 - \alpha' q_1$ (Equality of Vectors)

Pick any j s.t.
$$q_{1,j} \neq 0$$
. Then

$$(q_j^* - q_j^{**}) = (\alpha - \alpha')q_1$$

- V chooses a random $r \in \mathbf{F}^{\nu}$, sends $\operatorname{Enc}(r_1), \ldots, \operatorname{Enc}(r_{\nu})$ to **P**.
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Reveal phase:

• Given queries $q_1, ..., q_k$ to π, V picks $\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k$ at random, sends $q_1, ..., q_k$ and $q^* := r + \sum_i \alpha_i q_i$ to **P**.

 $)q_1$

- P sends claimed answers $a_1, ..., a_k, a *$ to the queries.
- V checks if $a^* = s + \sum_i \alpha_i a_i$.
- Assume the number of queries V asks in reveal phase is k=1 for simplicity.
- Consider two runs of the reveal phase, where:
 - In Run 1, V sends q_1 and $q^* := r + \alpha q_1$ and P responds with a_1 and a^* .
 - In Run 2, V sends q_1 and $q^* := r + \alpha' q_1$ and P responds with $a'_1 \neq a_1$ and a^* .
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(Equality of Vectors)
$$Pick any j s.t. q_{1,j} \neq 0. Then:$$

$$(q^{*} - q^{*'}) = (\alpha - \alpha')q_{1}$$

Since $a_1 \neq a_1'$, P has two linearly independent equations in two unknowns, so P can solve for (α, α')

Proof of Binding:

 q^*

Step 2: A Linear PCP For Non-Deterministic Circuit Evaluation of Size I F $I^{O(S^2)}$

- Fix a circuit C taking explicit input x and non-deterministic input w, with claimed outputs y.
- Call a vector $W \in \mathbf{F}^{s}$ a transcript for C.
 - Say *W* is a **correct** transcript for input x if:
 - $W_a x_a = 0$ for all input gates a.
 - $W_a y_a = 0$ for all output gates a.
 - $W_a (W_{\text{in}_1(a)} + W_{\text{in}_2(a)}) = 0$ for all addition gates a.
 - $W_a (W_{\text{in}_1(a)} \bullet W_{\text{in}_2(a)}) = 0$ for all multiplication gates a.
 - Note: S + 1 w constraints in total. 2 for the output gate, 0 for nondeterministic witness gates, and 1 for all others.
 - Note: All constraints are of the form $Q_i(W) = 0$ for a polynomial Q_i of degree at most 2 in the entries of W.

Step 2: A Linear PCP For Non-Deterministic Circuit Evaluation of Size I \mathbf{F} I^{$O(S^2)$}

- Let $W \otimes W \in \mathbf{F}^{S^2}$ be the vector whose (i,j)'th entry equals $W_i \bullet W_j$.
- Define $(W, W \otimes W) \in \mathbf{F}^{S+S^2}$ as the concatenation of W and $W \otimes W$.
- For any vector $d \in \mathbf{F}^{v}$, define $\pi_{d} : \mathbf{F}^{v} \to \mathbf{F}$ via $\pi_{d}(x) = \langle x, d \rangle$.
 - The set of all $|\mathbf{F}|^{\nu}$ evaluations of π_d is called the **Hadamard encoding** of d.

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- Define $(W, W \otimes W) \in \mathbf{F}^{S+S^2}$ as the concatenation of *W* and $W \otimes W$.
- For any vector $d \in \mathbf{F}^{\nu}$, define $\pi_d : \mathbf{F}^{\nu} \to \mathbf{F}$ via $\pi_d(x) = \langle x, d \rangle$.
 - The set of all $|\mathbf{F}|^{v}$ evaluations of π_{d} is called the **Hadamard encoding** of d.
- Honest proof π contains all evaluations of the function $\pi_{(W,W\otimes W)}$.
- V must check:
 - 1. π is linear.
 - 2. Assuming 1. holds, that π is of the form $\pi_{(W,W\otimes W)}$ for some W.
 - 3. Assuming 1. and 2. hold, that W also satisfies all constraints required for W to be a valid transcript.

Checking 1: Linearity Testing

• V picks $q_1, q_2 \in \mathbf{F}^{S+S^2}$ at random, and checks that $\pi(q_1) + \pi(q_2) = \pi(q_1 + q_2)$.

- [Blum, Luby, Rubinfeld, 1993]: Over a field of characteristic 2, if this test passes with probability δ then there exists a linear function π 'such that $\pi'(x) = \pi(x)$ for a δ -fraction of inputs x.
- Over other fields, weaker guarantees are known.
- From now on, let us assume for simplicity that if π passes the linearity test, then π is actually linear.

Checking 2: Assuming π is Linear, Check That it is of the Form $\pi_{(W,W\otimes W)}$ for some W.

- Since π is linear, $\pi = \pi_d = \langle \bullet, d \rangle$ for some d.
- To check that $d = (W, W \otimes W)$ for some W, V picks $q', q'' \in \mathbf{F}^{S}$ at random.
 - Let $a = (q', \overline{0}), \ \overline{0} \in \mathbf{F}^{S^2}$.
 - Let $b = (q'', \vec{0}), \vec{0} \in \mathbf{F}^{S^2}$.
 - Let $c = (\overrightarrow{0}, q' \otimes q''), \ \overrightarrow{0} \in \mathbf{F}^{S^2}$.
- V checks that $\pi(a) \bullet \pi(b) = \pi(c)$.
- Proof of completeness of this check:

i=1 j=1

• If $d = (W, W \otimes W)$ then the check will pass because:

$$\pi(a) = \langle W, q' \rangle \text{ and } \pi(b) = \langle W, q'' \rangle, \text{ so } \pi(a) \bullet \pi(b) = \sum_{i=1}^{s} \sum_{j=1}^{s} W_i q_i' W_j q_j''$$

while $\pi(c) = \sum_{i=1}^{s} \sum_{j=1}^{s} W_i W_j q_i' q_j''.$

Checking 2: Assuming π is Linear, Check That it is of the Form $\pi_{(W,W\otimes W)}$ for some W.

- Since π is linear, $\pi = \pi_d = \langle \bullet, d \rangle$ for some d.
- To check that $d = (W, W \otimes W)$ for some W, V picks $q', q'' \in \mathbf{F}^{S}$ at random.
 - Let $a = (q', \overline{0}), \ \overline{0} \in \mathbf{F}^{S^2}$.
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 - Let $c = (\overrightarrow{0}, q' \otimes q''), \ \overrightarrow{0} \in \mathbf{F}^{S^2}$.
- V checks that $\pi(a) \bullet \pi(b) = \pi(c)$.
- Proof of soundness of this check:
 - If $d \neq (W, W \otimes W)$ for any W, then $\pi(a) \bullet \pi(b)$ and $\pi(c)$ are both multilinear polynomials in the entries of q' and q'', and these polynomials are not equal.
 - So Schwartz-Zippel implies, that the test will fail with probability at least $1-2S/|\mathbf{F}|$.

Checking 3: Assuming $\pi = \pi_{(W,W\otimes W)}$, Check That WSatisfies All Constraints Required By A Valid Transcript.

- V needs to check that $Q_i(W) = 0$ for all constraints *i*.
- V picks $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots$ at random from **F** and checks whether $\sum \alpha_i Q_i(W) = 0$.

This is a degree 2 polynomial in the entries of W, i.e., a linear combination of the entries of $(W, W \otimes W)$. So it can be evaluated with a single query to $\pi = \pi_{(W, W \otimes W)}$.

- Completeness of this step is obvious (if W satisfies all constraints, the test will pass).
- Proof of Soundness: If W does not satisfy all constraints, then $\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} Q_{i}(W)$ is a degree 1 polynomial in the α_{i} 's, so by Schwartz-Zippel, $\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} Q_{i}(W) \neq 0$ with probability at least $1 - 1/|\mathbf{F}|$ over the random choice of the α_{i} 's.

A Linear PCP of Size |F|^{O(S)} [Gennaro, Gentry, Parno, Raykova, 2013]

- Same setup as [IKO 2007]. Recall:
- Fix a circuit C taking explicit input x and non-deterministic input w, with claimed outputs y.
- Call a vector $W \in \mathbf{F}^{S}$ a transcript for C.
 - Say *W* is a **correct** transcript for input x if:
 - $W_a x_a = 0$ for all input gates *a*.
 - $W_a y_a = 0$ for all output gates *a*.
 - $W_a (W_{in_1(a)} + W_{in_2(a)}) = 0$ for all addition gates *a*.
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 - $W_a (W_{in_1(a)} \bullet W_{in_2(a)}) = 0$ for all multiplication gates *a*.
 - In all cases, constraint is of the form:

 $f_{1,i}(W) \bullet f_{2,i}(W) - f_{3,i}(W) = 0$

for some linear functions $f_{1,i}(W), f_{2,i}(W)$, and $f_{3,i}(W)$.

- Next two slides are devoted to the following goals.
 - Given any transcript W, identify a polynomial $g_{x,W}(t)$ such that W satisfies all constraints $\Leftrightarrow g_{x,W}(t)$ vanishes on H.
 - Develop an efficient **proof** that $g_{x,W}(t)$ vanishes on H.

- Let $H = \{\sigma_1, ..., \sigma_m\}$ be an arbitrary set of distinct values in **F**.
- Lemma (**): Let $h_H(t) = \prod_{i=1}^m (t \sigma_i)$. Let g(t) be any univariate polynomial of degree d over **F**. Then:

$$g(\sigma_i) = 0 \text{ for all } \sigma_i \in H$$

 \exists a polynomial h^* of degree at most d - m such that $g(t) = h_H(t) \bullet h^*(t)$.

- Recall: Constraint *i* is of the form: $f_{1,i}(W) \bullet f_{2,i}(W) - f_{3,i}(W) = 0.$
- For each gate *a* in C, define three univariate polynomials A_a , B_a , and C_a of degree m-1 through interpolation:

 $\begin{aligned} A_a(\sigma_i) &= \text{coefficient of } W_a \text{ in } f_{1,i}. \\ B_a(\sigma_i) &= \text{coefficient of } W_a \text{ in } f_{2,i}. \\ C_a(\sigma_i) &= \text{coefficient of } W_a \text{ in } f_{3,i}. \end{aligned}$

• Similarly, define 3 final polynomials of degree m-1 through interpolation:

 $\begin{aligned} A'_{a}(\sigma_{i}) &= \text{constant coefficient in } f_{1,i}.\\ B'_{a}(\sigma_{i}) &= \text{constant coefficient in } f_{2,i}.\\ C'_{a}(\sigma_{i}) &= \text{constant coefficient in } f_{3,i}. \end{aligned}$

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• Recall: Constraint *i* is of the form:

 $f_{1,i}(W) \bullet f_{2,i}(W) - f_{3,i}(W) = 0.$

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• Recall: Constraint *i* is of the form:

$$f_{1,i}(W) \bullet f_{2,i}(W) - f_{3,i}(W) = 0.$$

• Define:

$$g_{x,W}(t) = \left(\left(\sum_{\text{gates } a} W_a \bullet A_a(t) \right) + A'(t) \right) \bullet \left(\left(\sum_{\text{gates } a} W_a \bullet B_a(t) \right) + B'(t) \right) - \left(\left(\sum_{\text{gates } a} W_a \bullet C_a(t) \right) + C'(t) \right)$$

• Then: W satisfies all constraints $\Leftrightarrow g_{x,W}(t)$ vanishes on $H \Leftrightarrow^{\text{Lemma (**)}}$ (Key Condition): $g_{x,W}(t) = h_H(t) \cdot h(t)$ for some h of degree at most S.

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$$g_{x,W}(t) = \left(\left(\sum_{\text{gates } a} W_a \bullet A_a(t) \right) + A'(t) \right) \bullet \left(\left(\sum_{\text{gates } a} W_a \bullet B_a(t) \right) + B'(t) \right) - \left(\left(\sum_{\text{gates } a} W_a \bullet C_a(t) \right) + C'(t) \right)$$

•Then: W satisfies all constraints $\Leftrightarrow g_{x,W}(t)$ vanishes on $H \Leftrightarrow$ (Key Condition): $g_{x,W}(t) = h_H(t) \cdot h(t)$ for some h of degree at most S.



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V can compute from π by evaluating π_d at the point $(1,r,r^2,...,r^S)$.





1- and 2-Message Arguments

Micali's Argument System in RO Model

- [Micali 1994] gave a one-message argument system in the Random Oracle model using the Fiat-Shamir heuristic to remove interaction from Kilian's protocol.
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 - At least, if you want security against non-uniform cheating provers.
- Attention therefore turns to 2-message argument systems in standard model.
 - Goal: obtain same efficiency as 4-message argument systems obtained by combining commit/reveal protocol for linear functions from [IKO 2007] with GGPR's linear PCP.
 - Such arguments are called SNARGs (Succinct Non-interactive ARGuments).
 - "Succinct" refers to efficient support for non-determinism, i.e., P can convince V it holds a non-deterministic witness w that x in L, without sending w to V.
- There are obstacles to basing such 2-message arguments on standard (i.e., falsifiable) assumptions. Existing constructions use non-falsifiable ones.

2-Message Arguments from Linear PCPs

- Idea: Replace the 4-message commit/reveal protocol for linear functions of [IKO 2007] with a 2-message one.
 - Rather than use an additively homomorphic encryption scheme, use a stronger primitive: "linear-only" encryption.
 - Roughly, this is an encryption scheme that is:
 - Semantically secure
 - Additively Homomorphic
 - "linear-only" i.e., P is forced to behave in a linear manner.
 - More formally, given ciphertexts $c_1 = \text{Enc}(a_1), ..., c_k = \text{Enc}(a_k)$, it is assumed that the only way to efficiently compute a new ciphertext c' in the image of Enc is to "know" $\beta, \alpha_1, ..., \alpha_k$ such that $c' = \text{Enc}(\beta + \alpha_1 \bullet a_1 + ... + \alpha_k \bullet a_k)$.
 - Actually formalized with an extractability guarantee.

2-Message Arguments from Linear PCPs: Protocol Details

- V simulates the linear PCP verifier, sending queries q₁,...,q_k to P encrypted under a linear-only encryption scheme.
- P uses the homomorphism property to compute $\text{Enc}(\pi(q_1)),...,\text{Enc}(\pi(q_k))$.
- P sends these values to V, who decrypts them and simulates the PCP verifier's accept/reject process.
- Soundness proof sketch: By linear-only property, when P convinces V to accept, P must "know" an affine function Ω such that Ω(q₁),...,Ω(q_k) convinces the PCP verifier. By semantic security of Enc, Ω must be independent of the queries V sent to P. Hence, Ω must actually be a linear PCP proof. Soundness now follows from soundness of the linear PCP.
- Completeness is obvious.

Argument Systems Satisfying Additional Properties

- Proof of Knowledge (PoK): Whenever P can convince V that input x is in language L, there must exist a polynomial time extractor algorithm E that, given access to P, can output a witness w that x is in L.
 - Important in crypto settings where there may be many valid solutions/witnesses, but only one "correct" one.
 - E.g. Suppose V knows only a Merkle-hash h(x) of an input x, and wants to make sure P correctly executed some computation C on x to produce some output y.
 - A SNARG without PoK can only guarantee that there exists a x' such that C(x')=y and h(x')=h(x). This is not meaningful since such an x' could always exist, as there are collisions under h (even though they are hard to find).
 - But if the argument systems also satisfies PoK, then P must **know** such a x', not just that such an x' exists. And by collision-resistance of h, x' actually must equal to true input x.
- The arguments systems I've described do satisfy PoK.

Argument Systems Satisfying Additional Properties

- Public Verifiability. The linear-only encryption-based SNARG from before is not publicly verifiable, since V's secret key is required to decrypt P's messages and thereby execute the PCP verifier's checks.
- Instead, use a "linear-only one-way encoding" scheme. This satisfies 4 rough properties.
 - Additive homomorphism, to enable P to compute the "encoding" of $Enc(\pi(q_1)),...,Enc(\pi(q_k))$ from $q_1,...,q_k$.
 - Linear-only.
 - Allows any party to execute the linear PCP verifier's decision predicate on encoded answers, **without** decoding.
 - The candidate linear-only encodings in the literature only support a limited class of verifier decision predicates. The PCP verifier's test must be of the form "Test if $Q(\pi(q_1),...,\pi(q_k)) = 0$ ", where Q is a quadratic polynomial. Fortunately, GGPR's PCP verifier satisfies this property.
 - "One-Way" Property: ensures that, given encodings of any set of queries $q_1,...,q_k$, P cannot "learn" a set of answers that would cause V's check to pass, unless P actually knows a linear PCP proof π causing the PCP verifier to accept.
- Candidate linear-only one-way encoding schemes are based on knowledge of exponent assumptions in bilinear groups.

Implementations
Implementations of Argument Systems

- 4-message argument system based on [IKO 2007]'s commit/reveal protocol for linear functions and linear PCP of size | F |^{o(S²)} implemented and refined by [SMBW 2012] and [SVPBBW 2012] ("Pepper" and "Ginger").
- 4-message argument system based on [IKO 2007]'s commit/reveal protocol for linear functions and [GGPR 2013]'s linear PCP of size | F |^{o(S)} implemented by [SBVBPW 2013] ("Zaatar").
- 2-message argument system based on the above theory works (but with stonger cryptographic primitives) implemented by [PHGR 2013] ("Pinocchio"), and also by [BSCGTV13] ("SNARKs for C").
- Many subsequent refinements: [VSBW 2013], [BFRSBW 2013], [WSRBW 2015], [BSCTV14], [BSCGTV15], [CFHKKNPZ15], etc.
- See [Blumberg and Walfish, CACM 2016] for a now-slightly-out-of-date comparison of implementations (including interactive proofs).

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