

Shai Halevi
Tal Rabin (Eds.)

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Third Theory of Cryptography Conference, TCC 2006
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Preface

TCC 2006 was the third Theory of Cryptography Conference, which was held at Columbia University in Manhattan, New York, March 4-7, 2006. TCC 2006 was sponsored by the International Association for Cryptologic Research (IACR) and organized in cooperation with the Computer Science Department of Columbia University. The local arrangements chair was Tal Malkin.

The Program Committee, consisting of 13 members, received 91 submissions and selected for publication 31 of these submissions. The quality of the submissions was very high, and the selection process was a challenging one. The proceedings consist of the revised versions of these 31 papers. Revisions were not checked as to their contents, and the authors bear full responsibility for the contents of their papers. In addition to the 31 accepted papers, the program included two tutorials: A tutorial on “Black-Box Separation Results” by Omer Reingold and a tutorial on “Non-Black-Box Techniques” by Boaz Barak. The conference featured a rump session for informal short presentations of new results, chaired by Charlie Rackoff and boosted by Tequilas!

We are in debt to the many people who contributed to the success of TCC 2006, and we apologize for those whom we have forgotten to mention. First and foremost we thank the authors who submitted their papers to TCC 2006; a conference is only as good as the submissions that it receives. The Program Committee members made a concentrated effort during the short review period contributing their time, knowledge, expertise and taste, and for that we are extremely grateful. We also thank the large number of external reviewers who assisted the committee in the review process.

A heartfelt thanks goes to our local arrangements chair Tal Malkin and her assistant Sophie Majewski for facilitating the communication with Columbia University. Their hard work made the local arrangements an effortless process for us. We also thank Angelos D. Keromytis, Michael Locasto, and Angelos Stavrou for giving us a web server at Columbia University on which to host the TCC work and helping us manage it. We also want to thank IBM for their generous donation of our time and the financial support for students attending TCC.

This was the first year that TCC was sponsored by the IACR. Several people at the IACR helped us navigate this new terrain, in particular Andy Clark, Helena Handschuh and Kevin McCurley. We also benefited from advice from members of the TCC Steering Committee, including Mihir Bellare, Ivan Damgård, Oded Goldreich and Moni Naor. Additional help came from the organizers of last year’s TCC: Shafi Goldwasser, Joe Kilian and Joanne Talbot-Hanley, and the people at Springer, in particular Alfred Hofmann, Ingrid Beyer and Anna Kramer.

And last but not least, thanks to our group members Ran Canetti, Rosario Gennaro, Hugo Krawczyk and Masa Abe for all their support (emotional and otherwise).

December 2005

Shai Halevi and Tal Rabin
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Concurrent Zero Knowledge Without Complexity Assumptions*

Daniele Micciancio^{1,**}, Shien Jin Ong^{2,***}, Amit Sahai^{3,†}, and Salil Vadhan^{2,‡}

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Abstract. We provide *unconditional* constructions of *concurrent* statistical zero-knowledge proofs for a variety of non-trivial problems (not known to have probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms). The problems include Graph Isomorphism, Graph Nonisomorphism, Quadratic Residuosity, Quadratic Nonresiduosity, a restricted version of Statistical Difference, and approximate versions of the (coNP forms of the) Shortest Vector Problem and Closest Vector Problem in lattices.

For some of the problems, such as Graph Isomorphism and Quadratic Residuosity, the proof systems have provers that can be implemented in polynomial time (given an NP witness) and have $\tilde{O}(\log n)$ rounds, which is known to be essentially optimal for black-box simulation.

To the best of our knowledge, these are the first constructions of concurrent zero-knowledge proofs in the plain, asynchronous model (i.e., without setup or timing assumptions) that do not require complexity assumptions (such as the existence of one-way functions).

1 Introduction

In the two decades since their introduction [2], zero-knowledge proofs have taken on a central role in the study of cryptographic protocols, both as a basic building block for more complex protocols and as a testbed for understanding important new issues such as composability (e.g., [3]) and concurrency (e.g., [4]). The “classic” constructions of zero-knowledge proofs came primarily in two flavors. First, there were direct constructions of zero-knowledge proofs for specific problems, such as QUADRATIC RESIDUOSITY [2] and GRAPH ISOMORPHISM [5]. Second, there were general constructions of zero-knowledge proofs for entire classes of

* A full version of this paper is available [1].

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problems, such as all of **NP** [5].¹ Both types of results have played an important role in the development of the field.

The general results of the second type show the wide applicability of zero knowledge, and are often crucial in establishing general feasibility results for other cryptographic problems, such as secure multiparty computation [8,5] and CCA-secure public-key encryption [9, 10, 11]. However, they typically are too inefficient to be used in practice. The specific results of the first type are often much more efficient, and are therefore used in (or inspire) the construction of other efficient cryptographic protocols, e.g., identification schemes [12] and again CCA-secure public-key encryption [13, 14, 15]. Moreover, the specific constructions typically do not require any unproven complexity assumptions (such as the existence of one-way functions), and yield a higher security guarantee (such as *statistical* zero-knowledge proofs).² The fact that the proof systems are unconditional is also of conceptual interest, because they illustrate the nontriviality of the notion of zero knowledge even to those who are unfamiliar with (or who do not believe in the existence of) one-way functions.³

Concurrent zero knowledge. In recent years, a substantial effort has been devoted to understanding the security of cryptographic protocols when many executions are occurring concurrently (with adversarial scheduling). As usual, zero-knowledge proofs led the way in this effort, with early investigations of concurrency for relaxations of zero knowledge dating back to Feige's thesis [22], and the recent interest being sparked by the work of Dwork, Naor, and Sahai [4], which first defined the notion of concurrent zero knowledge. Research on concurrent zero knowledge has been very fruitful, with a sequence of works leading to essentially tight upper and lower bounds on round complexity for black-box simulation [23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28], and partly motivating the first non-black-box-simulation zero-knowledge proof [29]. However, these works are primarily of the *second* flavor mentioned in the first paragraph. That is, they are general feasibility results, giving protocols for all of **NP**. As a result, these protocols are fairly inefficient (in terms of computation and communication), rely on unproven complexity assumptions, and only yield computational zero knowledge (or, alternatively, computational soundness).

There have been a couple of works attempting to overcome these deficiencies. Di Crescenzo [30] gave unconditional constructions of concurrent zero-knowledge

¹ See the textbook [6] and survey [7] by Oded Goldreich for a thorough introduction to zero-knowledge proofs.

² Of course, this partition into two types of zero-knowledge protocols is not a precise one. For example, there are some efficient zero-knowledge proofs for specific problems that use complexity assumptions (e.g., [16] and there are some general results that are unconditional (e.g., [17, 18, 19]).

³ It should be noted that the results of [20,21] show that the existence of a zero-knowledge proof for a problem outside **BPP** implies some weak form of one-way function. Still, appreciating something like the perfect zero-knowledge proof system for GRAPH ISOMORPHISM [5] only requires believing that there is no *worst-case* polynomial-time algorithm for GRAPH ISOMORPHISM, as opposed to appreciating notions of average-case complexity as needed for standard one-way functions.

proofs in various timing models. That is, his protocols assume that the honest parties have some synchronization and may employ delays in the protocol, and thus do not work in the standard, asynchronous model (and indeed he states such a strengthening as an open problem). Micciancio and Petrank [31] gave an efficient (in terms of computation and communication) transformation from honest-verifier zero-knowledge proofs to concurrent zero-knowledge proofs. However, their transformation relies on the Decisional Diffie–Hellman assumption, and yields only computational zero knowledge.

Our Results. We give the first unconditional constructions of concurrent zero-knowledge proofs in the standard, asynchronous model. Our proof systems are statistical zero knowledge and statistically sound (i.e. they are interactive proofs, not arguments [32]). Specifically, our constructions fall into two categories:

1. Efficient proof systems for certain problems in **NP**, including QUADRATIC RESIDUOSITY, GRAPH ISOMORPHISM and a restricted form of quadratic non-residuosity for Blum integers, which we call BLUM QUADRATIC NONRESIDUOSITY. These proof systems all have prover strategies that can be implemented in polynomial time given an **NP** witness and have $\tilde{O}(\log n)$ rounds, which is essentially optimal for black-box simulation [27].
2. Inefficient proof systems for other problems, some of which are not known to be in **NP**. These include QUADRATIC NONRESIDUOSITY, GRAPH NON-ISOMORPHISM, the approximate versions of the complements of the CLOSEST VECTOR PROBLEM and SHORTEST VECTOR PROBLEM in lattices, and a restricted version of STATISTICAL DIFFERENCE (the unrestricted version is complete for statistical zero knowledge [33]). These proof systems have a polynomial number of rounds, and do not have polynomial-time prover strategies. These deficiencies arise from the fact that our construction begins with a public-coin, honest-verifier zero-knowledge proof for the problem at hand, and the only such proofs known for the problems listed here have a polynomial number of rounds and an inefficient prover strategy.

Techniques. One of the main tools for constructing zero-knowledge proofs are commitment schemes, and indeed the only use of complexity assumptions in the construction of zero-knowledge proofs for all of **NP** [5] is to obtain a commitment scheme (used by the prover to commit to the **NP** witness, encoded as, e.g., a 3-coloring of a graph). Our results rely on a relaxed notion of commitment, called an *instance-dependent commitment scheme*,⁴ which is implicit in [35] and formally defined in [36,34,19]. Roughly speaking, for a language L (or, more generally, a promise problem), a instance-dependent commitment scheme for L is a commitment protocol where the sender and receiver algorithms also depend on the instance x . The security requirements of the protocol are relaxed so that the hiding property is only required when $x \in L$, and the binding property is only required when $x \notin L$ (or vice-versa).

⁴ Previous works [34,19] have referred to this as “problem-dependent” commitment scheme, but this new terminology of “instance-dependent” seems more accurate.

As observed in [36], many natural problems, such as GRAPH ISOMORPHISM and QUADRATIC RESIDUOSITY, have simple, unconditional instance-dependent commitment schemes. This is useful because in many constructions of zero-knowledge proofs (such as that of [5]), the hiding property of the commitment scheme is only used to establish the zero-knowledge property and the binding property of the commitment scheme is only used to establish soundness. Since, by definition, the zero-knowledge property is only required when the input x is in the language, and the soundness condition is only required when x is not in the language, it suffices to use a instance-dependent commitment scheme. Specifically, if a language $L \in \mathbf{NP}$ (or even $L \in \mathbf{IP}$) has a instance-dependent commitment scheme, then L has a zero-knowledge proof [36] (see also [34,19]).

Existing constructions of *concurrent* zero-knowledge proofs [24,27,28] also rely on commitment schemes (and this is the only complexity assumption used). Thus it is natural to try to use instance-dependent commitments to construct them. However, these protocols use commitments not only from the prover to the verifier, but also from the verifier to the prover. Naturally, for the latter type of commitments, the roles of the hiding and binding property are reversed from the above — the hiding property is used to prove soundness and the binding property is used to prove (concurrent) zero knowledge. Thus, it seems that we need not only a instance-dependent commitment as above, but also one where the security properties are reversed (i.e. binding when $x \in L$, and hiding when $x \notin L$).

Our first observation is that actually we only need to implement the commitment schemes from the verifier to the prover. This is because the concurrent zero-knowledge proof system of Prabhakaran, Rosen and Sahai [28] is constructed by a general compiler that converts *any* public-coin zero-knowledge proof into a concurrent zero-knowledge proof, and this compiler only uses commitments from the verifier to the prover. (Intuitively, the verifier commits to its messages in an initial “preamble” stage, which is designed so as to allow concurrent simulation.) Since all the problems we study are unconditionally known to have public-coin zero-knowledge proofs, we only need to implement the compiler. So we are left with the task finding instance-dependent commitments that are binding when $x \in L$ and hiding when $x \notin L$. Thus, for the rest of the paper, we use this as our definition of instance-dependent commitment.

This idea works directly for some problems, such as GRAPH NONISOMORPHISM and QUADRATIC NONRESIDUOSITY. For these problems, we have instance-dependent commitments with the desired security properties, and thus we can directly use these commitments in the compiler of [28]. Unfortunately, for the complement problems, such as GRAPH ISOMORPHISM and QUADRATIC RESIDUOSITY, we only know of instance-dependent commitments that are hiding when $x \in L$, and binding when $x \notin L$.

Thus, for some of our results, we utilize a more sophisticated variant of instance-dependent commitments, due to Bellare, Micali, and Ostrovsky [35]. Specifically, they construct something like a instance-dependent commitment scheme for the GRAPH ISOMORPHISM problem, but both the hiding and binding

properties are non-standard. For example, the binding property is as follows: they show that if $x \in L$ and the sender can open a commitment in two different ways, then it is possible for the sender to extract an **NP** witness for $x \in L$. Thus we call these *witness-binding commitments*. Intuitively, when we use such commitments, we prove concurrent zero knowledge by the following case analysis: either the verifier is bound to its commitments, in which case we can simulate our proof system as in [28], *or* the simulator can extract a witness, in which case it can be simulated by running the honest prover strategy. In reality, however, the analysis does not break into such a simple case analysis, because the verifier may break the commitment scheme in the middle of the protocol. Thus we require that, in such a case, an already-begun simulation can be “continued” once we are given an **NP** witness. Fortunately, the classic (stand-alone) proof systems for GRAPH ISOMORPHISM and QUADRATIC RESIDUOSITY turn out to have the needed “witness-completable simulation” property.

An additional contribution of our paper is to provide abstractions and generalizations of all of the above tools that allow them to be combined in a modular way, and may facilitate their use in other settings. First, we show how the “preamble” of the Prabhakaran–Rosen–Sahai concurrent zero-knowledge proof system [28] can be viewed as a way to transform any commitment scheme into one that is “concurrently extractable,” in the sense that we are able to simulate the concurrent execution of many sessions between an adversarial sender and the honest receiver in a way that allows us to extract the commitments of the sender in every session. This may be useful in constructing other concurrently secure protocols (not just proof systems). Second, we provide general definitions of witness-binding commitment schemes as well as witness-completable zero-knowledge proofs as possessed by GRAPH ISOMORPHISM and QUADRATIC RESIDUOSITY and as discussed above.

Perspective. The recent works of Micciancio and Vadhan [34] and Vadhan [19] hypothesized that every problem that has a statistical (resp., computational) zero-knowledge proof has a instance-dependent commitment scheme.⁵ There are several pieces of evidence pointing to this possibility:

1. A restricted form of a complete problem for statistical zero knowledge has a instance-dependent commitment scheme [34].
2. If instance-dependent commitments exist for all problems with statistical zero-knowledge proofs, then instance-dependent commitments exist for all of problems with (general, computational) zero-knowledge proofs [19].
3. Every problem that has (general, computational) zero-knowledge proofs also has inefficient instance-dependent commitments. These commitments are in-

⁵ Actually, the works of [34] and [19] refer to instance-dependent commitments where the hiding property holds on YES instances and the binding property on NO instances, which is opposite of what we use. For statistical zero knowledge, this does not matter because the class of problems having statistical zero-knowledge proofs is closed under complement [17]. But for computational zero knowledge, it means that outline presented here might yield a concurrent zero-knowledge *argument* system rather than a proof system.