

# Zero-Knowledge Against Quantum Attacks

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# The Graph Isomorphism problem

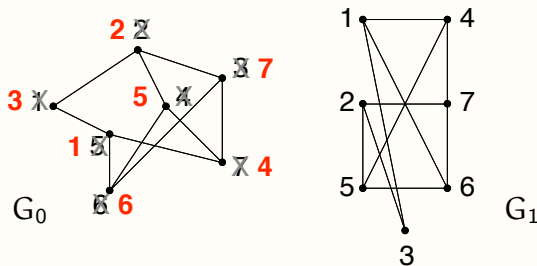
Consider the following problem (not known to be in BQP).

## The Graph Isomorphism Problem

**Input:** Two (simple and undirected) graphs  $G_0$  and  $G_1$ .

**Yes:**  $G_0$  and  $G_1$  are isomorphic ( $G_0 \cong G_1$ ).

**No:**  $G_0$  and  $G_1$  are not isomorphic ( $G_0 \not\cong G_1$ ).



Isomorphism:

$1 \rightarrow 3, 2 \rightarrow 2, 3 \rightarrow 7, 4 \rightarrow 5, 5 \rightarrow 1, 6 \rightarrow 6, 7 \rightarrow 4.$

# Zero-knowledge proof for graph isomorphism?

Consider the following scenario:

- There are two parties: a **prover**  $P$  and a (polynomial-time) **verifier**  $V$ .
- Both parties receive a pair of graphs  $(G_0, G_1)$ .
- Under the assumption that  $G_0 \cong G_1$ , the prover  $P$  knows a permutation  $\sigma \in S_n$  satisfying  $\sigma(G_1) = G_0$ .
- The prover  $P$  wants to convince the verifier  $V$  that  $G_0 \cong G_1$  (even if this is not the case).
- The prover  $P$  does not want to reveal the permutation  $\sigma$  (or any other “knowledge” about  $G_0$  and  $G_1$ ).

A protocol (or *interactive proof system*) that achieves the final condition is said to be **zero-knowledge**.

# Three required properties

A prover/verifier pair  $(P, V)$  constitutes a valid zero-knowledge interactive proof system for the graph isomorphism problem if the following three properties are satisfied:

- 1. Completeness.** If  $G_0 \cong G_1$ , the prover  $P$  successfully convinces the verifier  $V$  that  $G_0 \cong G_1$  (with high probability).
- 2. Soundness.** If  $G_0 \not\cong G_1$ , then **no prover**  $P'$  can successfully convince  $V$  that  $G_0 \cong G_1$  (except with small probability).
- 3. Zero-knowledge property.** If  $G_0 \cong G_1$ , then **no verifier**  $V'$  can *extract any knowledge*\* through an interaction with  $P$ .

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\* Definition required!

# A zero-knowledge proof system for Graph Isomorphism

The following protocol (described for honest parties) is a zero-knowledge protocol for Graph Isomorphism [GOLDREICH, MICALI & WIDGERSON, 1991].

## The GMW Graph Isomorphism Protocol

Assume the input is a pair  $(G_0, G_1)$  of simple, undirected graphs each having vertex set  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ . Let  $\sigma \in S_n$  be a permutation satisfying  $\sigma(G_1) = G_0$  if  $G_0 \cong G_1$ , and let  $\sigma$  be arbitrary otherwise.

**Prover's step 1:** Choose  $\pi \in S_n$  uniformly at random and send  $H = \pi(G_0)$  to the verifier.

**Verifier's step 1:** Choose  $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}$  randomly and send  $\alpha$  to the prover. (Implicit: challenge prover to show  $H \cong G_\alpha$ .)

**Prover's step 2:** Let  $\tau = \pi\sigma^\alpha$  and send  $\tau$  to the verifier.

**Verifier's step 2:** Accept if  $\tau(G_\alpha) = H$ , reject otherwise.

Sequential repetition reduces soundness error. . .

# A zero-knowledge proof system for Graph Isomorphism

The **completeness and soundness** properties are straightforward:

- If  $G_0 \cong G_1$ , then the verifier will accept every time.
- If  $G_0 \not\cong G_1$ , then  $H$  cannot be isomorphic to both  $G_0$  and  $G_1$ ; so the verifier must reject with probability at least  $1/2$  (regardless of any cheating prover's strategy).

If the protocol is repeated sequentially  $m$  times (with independent random choices for each repetition) then the prover can succeed every time if  $G_0 \cong G_1$ . If  $G_0 \not\cong G_1$ , however, the maximum probability with which any prover could succeed in each repetition drops to  $2^{-m}$ .

It remains to consider the zero-knowledge property. . .

# Definition of zero-knowledge

Let  $(V'(z), P)(x)$  denote the random variable describing the output of verifier  $V'$  given *auxiliary input*  $z$  after interacting with  $P$  on input  $x$ .

## Definition of Zero-knowledge (classical)

An interactive proof system  $(P, V)$  for a given problem  $A = (A_{\text{yes}}, A_{\text{no}})$  is **zero-knowledge** if, for every polynomial-time verifier  $V'$  there exists a **polynomial-time simulator**  $S$  such that, for every  $x \in A_{\text{yes}}$ ,

$$(V'(z), P)(x) \quad \text{and} \quad S(x, z)$$

are indistinguishable.\* [GOLDWASSER, MICALI & RACKOFF, 1989].

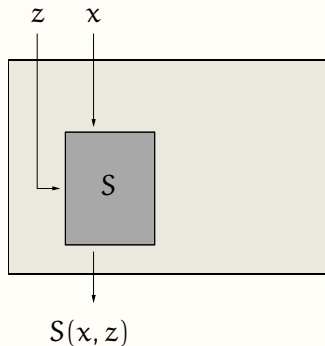
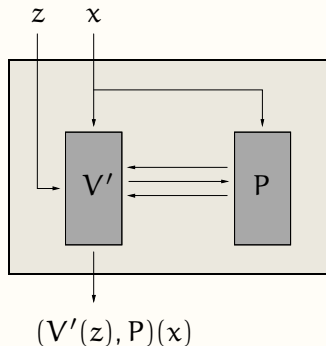
This **auxiliary input** definition captures the idea that zero-knowledge proofs should not **increase** knowledge.

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\* Different notions of indistinguishability give rise to different variants of zero-knowledge, such as **statistical** and **computational** zero-knowledge.

# Definition of zero-knowledge

In other words, these two processes should be indistinguishable provided  $x$  is a “yes” input to the problem being considered:



The zero-knowledge property requires nothing in case  $x$  is a “no” input. . .



# Zero-knowledge property for the GMW protocol

How might a (classical) cheating verifier  $V'$  act?

## Interaction between $P$ and a cheating verifier $V'$

**Prover's step 1:** Choose  $\pi \in S_n$  uniformly at random and send  $H = \pi(G_0)$  to the verifier.

**Verifier's step 1:** Perform some **arbitrary** polynomial-time computation on  $(G_0, G_1)$ , auxiliary input  $z$ , and  $H$  to obtain  $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}$ . Send  $\alpha$  to  $P$ .

**Prover's step 2:** Let  $\tau = \pi\sigma^\alpha$  and send  $\tau$  to the verifier.

**Verifier's step 2:** Perform some **arbitrary** polynomial-time computation on  $(G_0, G_1)$ ,  $z$ ,  $H$ , and  $\tau$  to produce output.

# Zero-knowledge property for the GMW protocol

We can simulate any such classical verifier as follows:

## Simulator for $V'$

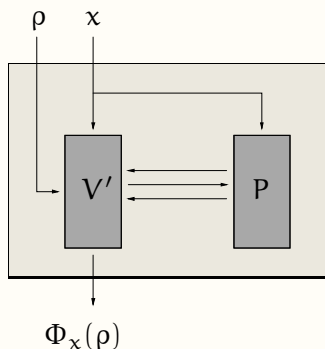
1. Choose  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  and  $\tau \in S_n$  uniformly, and let  $H = \tau(G_b)$ .
2. Simulate whatever  $V'$  does given prover message  $H$ . Let  $a$  denote the resulting message back to the prover.
3. If  $a \neq b$  then **rewind**: go back to step 1 and try again.
4. Output whatever  $V'$  would after receiving  $\tau$ .

**Note:** this gives an **expected** polynomial-time simulator: output agrees **exactly** with the distribution representing the view of  $V'$ . . . can be converted to a **worst case** polynomial-time simulator whose output agrees **almost exactly** with the view of  $V'$ .

# Quantum version of the definition

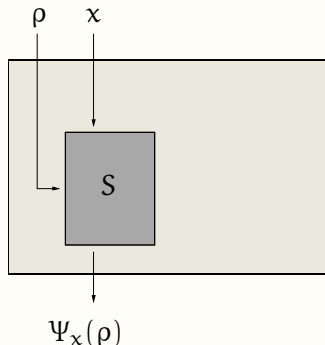
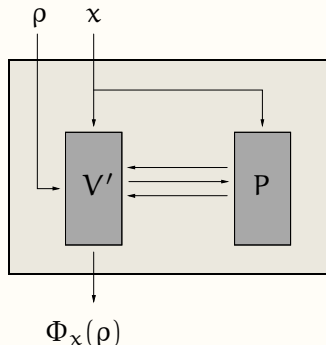
Suppose that some verifier  $V'$  tries to use **quantum information** to extract knowledge from  $P$ . (Note that the prover  $P$  is still classical, so the input  $x$  and any information exchanged between  $V'$  and  $P$  must be classical.)

The interaction between  $V'$  and  $P$  on input  $x$  induces some **admissible mapping** on the auxiliary input:



# Quantum version of the definition

If  $P$  is zero-knowledge even against a verifier  $V'$  that uses **quantum information**, then there should exist a simulator  $S$  that, given any “yes” input  $x$ , performs an **admissible mapping**  $\Psi_x$  on the auxiliary input that is **indistinguishable** from  $\Phi_x$ :



# Problem with the quantum definition?

These definitions are fairly straightforward. . . but have been considered problematic for several years.

**The problem:** No nontrivial protocols were previously shown to be zero-knowledge with respect to these definitions, even protocols already proved zero-knowledge in the classical setting.

The problem was first identified by Jeroen van de Graaf in his 1997 PhD thesis:

*“Rewinding by reversing the unitary transformation induced by [the verifier], or taking snapshots is impossible.*

*But. . . showing that rewinding by reversing or by taking snapshots is impossible does not show that no other ways to rewind in polynomial time exist.”*

[VAN DE GRAAF, 1997]

# Problem with the quantum definition?

Consider a deviant quantum verifier  $V'$  for the Graph Isomorphism protocol that acts as follows:

## Verifier $V'$

1. Begin the protocol with auxiliary quantum register  $\mathbf{W}$  (possibly provided by a third party, and possibly entangled with some other register).
2. Receive graph  $H$  from  $P$ .
3. Measure  $\mathbf{W}$  with respect to some binary-valued projective measurement  $\{\Pi_0^H, \Pi_1^H\}$  **that depends on  $H$** . Let  $\alpha$  be the outcome, and send  $\alpha$  to  $P$ .
4. After receiving  $\tau$  from  $P$ , output  $(H, \alpha, \tau)$  along with the register  $\mathbf{W}$ .

How can we simulate such a verifier?

# Problem with the quantum definition?

Two principles are working against us:

- The **no cloning theorem** prevents making a copy of the auxiliary input register's state.
- Measurements are **irreversible**.

Suppose that we randomly choose  $b$  and  $\tau$ , and let  $H = \tau(G_b)$  as for our simulator before. . .

. . . if the measurement  $\{\Pi_0^H, \Pi_1^H\}$  gives outcome  $b$ , the simulation works. But if the measurement outcome is **not**  $b$ , then the state of  $\mathbf{W}$  is irreparably harmed, and we cannot recover the original state.

Note: one can imagine **potential attacks** based on this issue. It seems plausible that a verifier  $V'$  could **transfer knowledge** to a third party that an interaction with  $P$  really took place.

In the remainder of this talk I will argue that the GMW Graph Isomorphism protocol is indeed zero-knowledge against quantum verifiers:

- For any quantum verifier  $V'$ , there exists a simulator  $S$  that induces precisely the same admissible mapping as the interaction between  $V'$  and  $P$  (on a “yes” input to the problem).
- The method gives a way to “rewind” the simulator, but it requires more than just reversing the verifier’s actions. (The entire simulation will be quantum, even though the prover is classical.)
- The method generalizes to several other protocols (but I will only discuss the Graph Isomorphism example in this talk for simplicity).



# Assumptions on $V'$

Assume  $V'$  uses three registers:

**W**: stores the auxiliary input.

**V**: represents workspace of arbitrary size.

**A**: single qubit representing the message sent by  $V'$ .

Register **W** starts in the auxiliary state, and registers **V** and **A** are initialized to all zeroes.

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Assume  $V'$  operates as follows:

- For each graph  $H$  on  $n$  vertices,  $V'$  has a corresponding unitary transformation  $V_H$  that acts on  $(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{A})$ .
- Upon receiving  $H$  from  $P$ , the  $V'$  applies  $V_H$  to  $(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{A})$ , measures **A** in the standard basis, and sends the result  $\alpha$  to  $P$ .
- After  $P$  responds with some permutation  $\tau$ ,  $V'$  simply outputs  $(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{A})$  along with the prover messages  $H$  and  $\tau$ .

# Simulator construction

The simulator will use registers **W**, **V**, and **A** along with:

**Y**: stores the provers first message.

**B**: stores the simulator's guess for  $\alpha$ .

**Z**: stores the prover's second message.

**R**: stores “randomness” used to generate transcripts.

Define a unitary operator  $V$  on  $(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{Y})$  that represents a unitary realization of  $V'$ :

$$V = \sum_H V_H \otimes |H\rangle \langle H|.$$

Define  $T$  to be a unitary operation on registers  $(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{R})$  for which

$$T : |00 \cdots 0\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n!}}} \sum_{b, \tau} |\tau(G_b)\rangle |b\rangle |\tau\rangle |b, \tau\rangle.$$

The operation  $T$  produces a superposition over *transcripts*.

# Simulator construction

Now define the simulator as follows:

## Simulator

1. Perform  $T$ , followed by  $V$ .
2. Perform a measurement  $\{\Pi_0, \Pi_1\}$  whose outcome corresponds to the XOR of  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  (in the computational basis).
3. If the measurement outcome is 1, we need to **rewind and try again**:
  - Perform  $V^*$  followed by  $T^*$ .
  - Perform a **phase flip** in case any of the qubits in any of the registers  $(\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{R})$  is set to 1 (i.e., perform  $2\Delta - I$ , where  $\Delta = I_{\mathbf{W}} \otimes |00 \cdots 0\rangle \langle 00 \cdots 0|$ .)
  - Perform  $T$  followed by  $V$ .
4. Output registers  $(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Z})$ . (Registers  $\mathbf{B}$  and  $\mathbf{R}$  are traced out.)

# Analysis of simulator

Assume that the auxiliary input is  $|\psi\rangle$ , and  $x = (G_0, G_1)$  for  $G_0 \cong G_1$ . Let

$$|\varphi\rangle = |\psi\rangle |00 \cdots 0\rangle$$

be the state of all registers given this input.

The simulator performs  $T$ , then  $V$ , then measures w.r.t.  $\{\Pi_0, \Pi_1\}$ .

Assuming  $G_0 \cong G_1$ , the outcome will **always be uniformly distributed**.

First, suppose that the measurement  $\{\Pi_0, \Pi_1\}$  gives **outcome 0**. The resulting state of all registers is

$$|\sigma_0\rangle = \sqrt{2}\Pi_0 VT|\varphi\rangle.$$

This is the **target state**: it represents a successful simulation because

$$\text{tr}_{\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{R}} |\sigma_0\rangle \langle \sigma_0| = \Phi(|\psi\rangle \langle \psi|).$$

(Nothing is surprising here... the simulator has been lucky and didn't need to rewind.)

# Analysis of simulator

Suppose on the other hand that the **measurement outcome was 1**. The resulting state is

$$|\sigma_1\rangle = \sqrt{2}\Pi_1 VT|\varphi\rangle.$$

Time to rewind and try again...

Performing the “rewind and try again” procedure results in the state

$$VT(2\Delta - I)T^*V^*|\sigma_1\rangle.$$

## Claim

$$VT(2\Delta - I)T^*V^*|\sigma_1\rangle = |\sigma_0\rangle \quad (\text{the target state}).$$

Note: this would not happen for **arbitrary** choices of  $|\varphi\rangle$ ,  $V$ ,  $T$ ,  $\Pi_0$ ,  $\Pi_1$ , etc. ... the claim relies on the fact that the measurement  $\{\Pi_0, \Pi_1\}$  gives outcome 0 and 1 with equal probability for **all** choices of  $|\psi\rangle$ .

# Proof of claim

The fact that the measurement  $\{\Pi_0, \Pi_1\}$  gives outcomes 0 and 1 with equal probability for **all** choice of  $|\psi\rangle$  implies

$$\Delta T^* V^* \Pi_0 V T \Delta = \Delta T^* V^* \Pi_1 V T \Delta = \frac{1}{2} \Delta.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} & \langle \sigma_0 | V T (2\Delta - I) T^* V^* | \sigma_1 \rangle \\ &= 2 \langle \varphi | T^* V^* \Pi_0 V T (2\Delta - I) T^* V^* \Pi_1 V T | \varphi \rangle \\ &= 4 \langle \varphi | T^* V^* \Pi_0 V T \Delta T^* V^* \Pi_1 V T | \varphi \rangle \\ &\quad - 2 \langle \varphi | T^* V^* \Pi_0 V T T^* V^* \Pi_1 V T | \varphi \rangle \\ &= 4 \langle \varphi | \Delta T^* V^* \Pi_0 V T \Delta T^* V^* \Pi_1 V T \Delta | \varphi \rangle \\ &= \langle \varphi | \Delta | \varphi \rangle \\ &= 1, \end{aligned}$$

so  $V T (2\Delta - I) T^* V^* | \sigma_1 \rangle = | \sigma_0 \rangle$ .

□

# Analysis of simulator

This establishes that the admissible map  $\Psi$  agrees with the map  $\Phi$  corresponding to the actual interaction on all pure state auxiliary inputs:

$$\Psi(|\psi\rangle \langle\psi|) = \Phi(|\psi\rangle \langle\psi|)$$

for all  $|\psi\rangle$ .

Admissible maps are **completely determined** by their actions on pure state inputs, however, so

$$\Psi = \Phi;$$

the simulator **agrees precisely** with the actual interaction on **every possible state** of the auxiliary input register (including the possibility it is entangled with another register).

The simulation method just described can be adapted to prove several other protocols are zero-knowledge against quantum attacks, including:

- Quantum protocols for any problem having an **honest verifier** quantum statistical zero-knowledge proof system:

$$\text{QSZK} = \text{QSZK}_{\text{HV}}.$$

- The Goldreich-Micali-Wigderson **Graph 3-Coloring** protocol assuming unconditionally binding and quantum computationally concealing bit commitments. (See [ADCOCK & CLEVE, 2002].)
- Presumably several other proof systems. . .

Adapting the simulator to other protocols may require iterating the “rewind and try again” process.



# Future work/open questions

1. Find further applications and generalizations of the method.
2. Identify limitations of the method.
3. Identify good candidates for quantum one-way functions.