

Resettable Statistical Zero-Knowledge for NP

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Abstract

Resettable statistical zero-knowledge [Garg–Ostrovsky–Visconti–Wadia, TCC 2012] is a strong privacy notion that guarantees statistical zero-knowledge even when the prover uses the same randomness in multiple proofs.

In this paper, we show an equivalence of resettable statistical zero-knowledge arguments for NP and witness encryption schemes for NP.

- Positive result: For any NP language L , a resettable statistical zero-knowledge argument for L can be constructed from a witness encryption scheme for L under the assumption of the existence of one-way functions.
- Negative result: The existence of even resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for NP imply the existence of witness encryption schemes for NP under the assumption of the existence of one-way functions.

The positive result is obtained by naturally extending existing techniques (and is likely to be already well-known among experts). The negative result is our main technical contribution.

To explore workarounds for the negative result, we also consider resettable security in a model where the honest party's randomness is only reused with fixed inputs. We show that resettable statistically hiding commitment schemes are impossible even in this model.

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1 Introduction

Randomness is essential for zero-knowledge proofs/arguments. When either the prover or the verifier is deterministic, zero-knowledge proofs/arguments cannot exist for non-trivial languages [GO94].¹ In contrast, when the prover and the verifier can freely use perfect randomness, zero-knowledge proofs/arguments exist for all languages in NP under the minimum assumption of the existence of one-way functions [GMW91, Nao91, HILL99].

A natural question is whether zero-knowledge proofs/arguments can exist for non-trivial languages when randomness is only available in a restricted form. Previous work has investigated this question for several restricted uses of randomness. The study of cryptography with imperfect randomness [DOPS04] investigated this question in settings where only imperfect high-entropy randomness is available. The study of cryptography with tamperable randomness [ACM⁺17] investigated this question in the presence of tampering attacks on randomness. (Strong impossibility results are known in both cases [DOPS04, ACM⁺17].)

The study of *resettable security* [CGGM00] investigated this question in settings where zero-knowledge proofs/arguments are repeatedly executed with the same randomness. Zero-knowledge proofs/arguments are called *resettable zero-knowledge* [CGGM00] if they remain zero-knowledge when the prover randomness is reused. They are called *resettablely sound* [MR01, BGGL01] if they remain sound when the verifier randomness is reused. They are called *simultaneously resettable zero-knowledge* [BGGL01, DGS09] if they are both resettable zero-knowledge and resettablely sound. Resettable security is not only of theoretical interest but also of practical interest because generating perfect randomness often requires expensive operations (and is sometimes even impossible).

The resettable security of zero-knowledge proofs has been extensively studied, with strong positive results (e.g., [CGGM00, BGGL01, DL07, DGS09, PTW09, BOV12, COSV12, COPV13, COP⁺14, BP15, OSV15, CPS16, COV17, BKS21]).² Of particular note, even simultaneously resettable zero-knowledge arguments are known to exist for all languages in NP under the assumption of the existence of one-way functions [COPV13]. The main technical point of these positive results is to use perfect randomness as the keys of pseudorandom functions (PRFs) and use pseudorandomness everywhere else. In particular, the pseudorandomness is generated by applying the PRFs to the communication transcript; as a result, even if the same randomness is reused, each execution is run with computationally independent randomness whenever adversarial parties send different messages.

However, only a few positive results are known for *resettable statistical zero-knowledge* [GOVW12]. Resettable statistical zero-knowledge is a natural strengthening of resettable (computational) zero-knowledge, and it guarantees statistical zero-knowledge even when the prover randomness is reused. Resettable statistical zero-knowledge is theoretically well-motivated because it helps us understand which notion of zero-knowledge can be achieved with limited uses of randomness. Practically, an advantage of resettable statistical zero-knowledge (over its computational counterpart) is *everlasting security* [MU10]; i.e., no security is compromised even if the underlying hardness assumptions are broken after protocol executions.³ It is known that resettable statistical zero-knowledge proofs exist for all languages that admit hash proof systems [GOVW12].⁴

Compared with its computational counterpart, resettable statistical zero-knowledge is hard to realize since techniques developed in the computational setting are not helpful in the statistical setting. For example, even if each execution is run with computationally independent randomness, this does not seem sufficient to realize resettable statistical zero-knowledge.

1.1 Our Results

We study the problem of constructing resettable statistical zero-knowledge arguments for NP (i.e., for all languages in NP).

In the positive direction, we observe that given a *witness encryption scheme* for NP [GGSW13], a resettable statistical zero-knowledge argument for NP can be obtained by straightforwardly extending existing tech-

¹If zero-knowledge is only required to hold against honest verifiers or bounded-auxiliary-input verifiers, deterministic-prover zero-knowledge arguments for non-trivial languages are known to exist [FNV17, DL20, BC20].

²We focus on those that study resettable security in the plain model, i.e., without relying on any trusted setup (such as common reference strings).

³In order to break computational soundness, cheating provers need to break the underlying hardness assumptions during protocol executions.

⁴When the honest prover strategy is allowed to be computationally unbounded, positive results are also known for, e.g., SZK.

niques [GOVW12].⁵

Theorem 1. *Assume the existence of one-way functions. Then, if there exists a witness encryption scheme for an NP language L , there also exists a resettable statistical zero-knowledge argument for L .*⁶

Witness encryption schemes are a generalization of public-key encryption schemes, and a message encrypted with an NP statement can be decrypted by using any corresponding witness. (The encrypted message is hidden if the statement is false.) Witness encryption schemes for NP can be obtained from *indistinguishability obfuscations* [GGH⁺13], which are known to exist under certain sets of well-founded assumptions [JLS21, JLS22]. Also, recent work has given witness encryption schemes for NP under new lattice assumptions (which are not known to imply indistinguishability obfuscations) [Tsa22, VWW22].

A natural question for our positive result is whether the use of witness encryption schemes is essential. It is known that both resettable zero-knowledge arguments for NP and statistical zero-knowledge arguments for NP can be obtained from one-way functions [CPS16, HNO⁺09]. Therefore, at first sight, it seems reasonable to conjecture that resettable statistical zero-knowledge arguments for NP can also be constructed from one-way functions.

We provide a strong negative result in this direction. As our main technical contribution, we show that even resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for NP require witness encryption schemes for NP.

Theorem 2. *Assume the existence of one-way functions. Then, if there exists a resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for all languages in NP, there also exists a witness encryption scheme for all languages in NP.*

Together with [Theorem 1](#), this result implies an equivalence of resettable statistical zero-knowledge arguments for NP and witness encryption schemes for NP. It also implies that, unless witness encryption schemes for NP are obtained from one-way functions, resettable statistical zero-knowledge arguments for NP require stronger primitives than resettable (computational) zero-knowledge arguments for NP do. (This is in contrast to the case of *concurrent zero-knowledge* [DNS98], a notion closely related to resettable zero-knowledge.⁷ In the case of concurrent zero-knowledge, positive results for *statistical concurrent zero-knowledge* [GMOS07] (and even *statistical concurrent non-malleable zero-knowledge* [OOR⁺14]) are known for NP under the existence of one-way functions [GMOS07, Kiy20].)

Finally, to find a way to circumvent the above negative result, we consider resettable statistical security in a “fixed-input” setting. In the standard definition of resettable computational/statistical zero-knowledge [CGGM00, GOVW12], the prover randomness is reused to generate multiple proofs for multiple statements and witnesses. In the fixed-input setting, the prover randomness is reused to generate multiple proofs for a single statement and witness. (Verifier messages may be different in these multiple proofs.) Our proof of the above negative result does not hold in the fixed-input setting.

We show that *resettable statistically hiding commitment schemes* cannot exist even in the fixed-input setting.

Theorem 3 (informal). *When multiple commitments are generated with the same committer randomness and committer input but different receiver messages, no computationally binding commitment scheme can be statistically hiding.*

Thus, even in the fixed-input setting, we cannot hope to use the naive approach of obtaining a resettable statistical zero-knowledge argument for NP from a resettable statistically hiding commitment scheme. Whether resettable statistical zero-knowledge arguments for NP can be constructed in the fixed-input setting from a weaker primitive than witness encryption schemes for NP is left as an interesting open problem.

2 Overview of Our Techniques

[Section 2.1](#) explains the positive result: a resettable statistical zero-knowledge argument for an NP language L from a witness encryption scheme for L . [Section 2.2](#) and [Section 2.3](#) explain the negative results: the im-

⁵This observation is likely to be already well-known among experts in the area.

⁶While a prior positive result [GOVW12] gives a resettable statistical zero-knowledge *proof* for a subclass of NP, this result gives a resettable statistical zero-knowledge *argument* for NP.

⁷In concurrent zero-knowledge, multiple proofs are generated using independent randomness in each execution. In resettable zero-knowledge, multiple proofs are generated using the same randomness.

possibility of resettable statistically hiding commitment schemes and the negative result on resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for NP.

2.1 Resettable Statistical Zero-Knowledge from Witness Encryption

As mentioned in Section 1, we construct a resettable statistical zero-knowledge argument for an NP language \mathbf{L} from a witness encryption scheme for \mathbf{L} by naturally extending existing techniques [GOVW12]. Although this construction does not involve new techniques, we provide a brief overview because it provides some intuition regarding our negative result on resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for NP (Section 2.3).

Preliminaries. First, we explain the existing techniques we rely on, namely those developed by Garg, Ostrovsky, Visconti, and Wadia (GOVW) [GOVW12]. Specifically, we recall their resettable statistical zero-knowledge proof for all languages that admit hash proof systems.

At a high level, the construction by GOVW [GOVW12] is similar to the classical interactive proof for Graph Non-Isomorphism by Goldreich, Micali, and Wigderson [GMW91]. In particular, it starts with the verifier committing to a random string m in a way that the following hold.

1. When the statement is true, any honest prover can efficiently obtain m .
2. When the statement is false, the committed string m is statistically hidden.

The prover is expected to reply with m , and the verifier accepts if and only if the reply is indeed equal to m . The first property above guarantees completeness, and the second property guarantees soundness. In addition, in the construction by GOVW [GOVW12], the commitment by the verifier is extractable by a rewinding simulator even against resetting committers,⁸ and this extractability guarantees resettable statistical zero-knowledge.⁹ More details are given below.

In the construction by GOVW [GOVW12], several *instance-dependent primitives* [IOS97] are used as building blocks. In instance-dependent primitives, each party receives an instance x of a language \mathbf{L} as additional common input, and the security depends on whether the instance belongs to the language. The construction by GOVW [GOVW12] uses the following instance-dependent primitives.

- **An instance-dependent non-interactive extractable commitment scheme** $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}$. When $x \in \mathbf{L}$, the committed value can be efficiently extracted using any corresponding witness. When $x \notin \mathbf{L}$, the committed value is statistically hidden.
- **An instance-dependent resettablely extractable commitment scheme** $\text{RECom}_{\mathbf{L}}$.¹⁰ When $x \in \mathbf{L}$, the committed value can be extracted from any resetting committer using rewinding techniques. When $x \notin \mathbf{L}$, the committed value is statistically hidden.
- **An instance-dependent resettablely sound statistical witness-indistinguishable argument** $\text{rs-SWI}_{\mathbf{L}}$ for NP. When $x \in \mathbf{L}$, resettable (computational) soundness holds. When $x \notin \mathbf{L}$, statistical witness indistinguishability holds. (Here, x is the instance given as additional common input, not the NP statement being proven.)

As observed by GOVW [GOVW12], these instance-dependent primitives exist for all languages that admit hash proof systems.

Given these building blocks, the construction by GOVW [GOVW12] can be described as follows. Let $x \in \mathbf{L}$ be the statement to be proven, and suppose it is also used as additional common input in each instance-dependent primitive.

1. $V \rightarrow P$: The verifier commits to a random string m using $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}$.

⁸In this overview, a *resetting adversary* is informally defined as an adversarial party that can force honest parties to reuse the same randomness in multiple executions.

⁹Following GOVW [GOVW12], we consider resettable statistical zero-knowledge in the model where cheating verifiers run in polynomial time and distinguishers run in unbounded time.

¹⁰GOVW [GOVW12] does not explicitly define this primitive, and implicitly obtains it by combining $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}$, a pseudorandom function, and a sophisticated rewinding technique developed in the context of concurrent zero-knowledge [PRS02].

2. $V \rightarrow P$: The verifier commits to m using $\text{RECom}_{\mathbf{L}}$.
3. $V \rightarrow P$: Using $\text{rs-SWI}_{\mathbf{L}}$, the verifier proves that the above two steps were done correctly.
4. $P \rightarrow V$: The prover extracts m from the $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}$ commitment and sends m to the verifier.

The completeness, soundness, and resettable statistical zero-knowledge follow naturally from the security of the underlying instance-dependent primitives. The construction by GOVW [GOVW12] does not work for all NP since the above instance-dependent primitives are not known to exist for all NP.

Our construction. We use a witness encryption scheme for NP and a one-way function to convert the construction by GOVW [GOVW12] into a one for NP. The key point is that a witness encryption scheme can be used in place of the instance-dependent non-interactive extractable commitment scheme. Indeed, even in witness encryption schemes, encrypted values can be extracted using any corresponding witness when $x \in \mathbf{L}$, and encrypted values are hidden when $x \notin \mathbf{L}$. The only difference is that when $x \notin \mathbf{L}$, witness encryption schemes are computational hiding rather than statistical hiding. Fortunately, unlike GOVW [GOVW12] (whose goal was to obtain a resettable statistical zero-knowledge proof for a subclass of NP), we aim to construct a resettable statistical zero-knowledge argument for NP. In the security analysis of resettable statistical zero-knowledge arguments, the prover (which acts as a receiver in the witness encryption scheme) is computationally bounded. Thus, computational hiding is sufficient for our purpose.¹¹ In the same way, we can replace the other two instance-dependent primitives with constructions that (i) are instance-dependent w.r.t. all languages in NP (or not instance dependent at all) and (ii) can be obtained from one-way functions and witness encryption schemes for NP.¹² This way, we can obtain a construction that works for all languages in NP.

2.2 Impossibility of Resettable Statistically Hiding Commitment

Next, we explain the impossibility of resettable statistically hiding commitment schemes. This impossibility is a good warm-up for our negative result on resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for NP (Section 2.3).

We show that resettable statistical hiding and computational binding cannot be achieved simultaneously. Recall that statistical hiding implies that a random commitment to 1 can be “explained” as a commitment to 0. More formally, when we use notation $\tau_b(\text{rnd}_C, \text{rnd}_R)$ to denote the commitment generated with committer input b , committer randomness rnd_C , and receiver randomness rnd_R , we have that a random 1-commitment $\tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_R)$ is equal to a 0-commitment $\tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_R)$ for certain $\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}$ with high probability, i.e.,

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_R} \left[\begin{array}{l} \exists \text{rnd}_C^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C} \text{ s.t.} \\ \tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_R) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_R) \end{array} \right] \geq 1 - \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

(Here, λ is the security parameter and ℓ_C is the length of committer randomness.) Resettable statistical hiding requires the above to hold even when the same committer randomness is used for multiple (say, t) commitments, i.e.,

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_{R,1}, \dots, \text{rnd}_{R,t}} \left[\begin{array}{l} \exists \text{rnd}_C^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in \{1, \dots, t\} : \\ \tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_{R,i}) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_{R,i}) \end{array} \right] \geq 1 - \text{negl}(\lambda). \quad (1)$$

We show that the left-hand side of (1) is negligible when computational binding holds. Fix $\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}$ arbitrarily in

¹¹Witness encryption schemes were previously used in similar ways in the context of deterministic-prover zero-knowledge arguments/proofs [FNV17, DL20, BC20].

¹²For technical reasons, when the commitments in Steps 1 and 2 are computationally hiding, the consistency proof in Step 3 must guarantee zero-knowledge. Fortunately, a resettable sound zero-knowledge argument for NP can be obtained from one-way functions [CPS16], and we use it in our construction.

the left-hand side of (1). We have

$$\begin{aligned}
& \Pr_{\text{rnd}_{R,1}, \dots, \text{rnd}_{R,t}} \left[\begin{array}{l} \exists \text{rnd}_C^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in \{1, \dots, t\} : \\ \tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_{R,i}) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_{R,i}) \end{array} \right] \\
& \leq \sum_{\text{rnd}_C^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C}} \Pr_{\text{rnd}_{R,1}, \dots, \text{rnd}_{R,t}} \left[\begin{array}{l} \forall i \in \{1, \dots, t\} : \\ \tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_{R,i}) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_{R,i}) \end{array} \right] \\
& = \sum_{\text{rnd}_C^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C}} \left(\Pr_{\text{rnd}_R} \left[\tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_R) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_R) \right] \right)^t. \tag{2}
\end{aligned}$$

(The second line follows from the union bound. The third line holds since each $\text{rnd}_{R,i}$ is sampled independently.) Let us use computational binding to obtain an upper bound on (2). Since even a non-uniform cheating committer cannot break computational binding, we have the following for any $\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}$ and $\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}$.

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd}_R} \left[\tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_R) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_R) \right] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{2}. \tag{3}$$

(Indeed, if (3) does not hold, a cheating committer that commits to 0 using randomness $\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}$ can open it to 1 using $\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}$ with non-negligible probability.) It follows from (3) that (2) is at most $2^{-\lambda}$ when t is sufficiently large (concretely, $t \geq \ell_C + \lambda$). Since (2) holds for any $\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}$, the left-hand side of (1) is also at most $2^{-\lambda}$. Therefore, we conclude that resettable statistical hiding does not hold when computational binding holds.

2.3 Witness Encryption from Resettable Statistical Witness Indistinguishability

Finally, we explain that resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for NP imply witness encryption schemes for NP.

We begin by noting that the techniques described in Section 2.2 do not work. By arguing as in Section 2.2, we can show the incompatibility of resettable statistical witness indistinguishability and computational binding. However, since interactive arguments are not required to be binding, the incompatibility does not lead to a contradiction.

Given this difficulty, we use more general resetting attacks than in Section 2.2. In particular, the prover randomness is reused to prove multiple statements. (Note that in Section 2.2, the committer randomness is only reused to generate multiple commitments for the same committer input $b \in \{0, 1\}$.)

Overall approach. As a starting point, we observe that in our positive result (Section 2.1), the transcript between the prover and the verifier does not depend on the witness that the prover uses. That is, when the witness used by the prover is different but the randomness is the same, the same transcript is generated. (This is because the witness is only used during the extraction of m .) Roughly speaking, we show that (i) any interactive argument for NP satisfying such a “witness-independence” property can be used to construct a witness encryption scheme for NP, and (ii) resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for NP must satisfy such a property. More details are explained below.

Step 1: witness encryption from “witness-independent” argument. We show this step by using *predictable arguments* [FNV17]. Predictable arguments are private-coin interactive arguments such that the verifier can predict prover messages by using its private randomness. (An example is the interactive proof for Graph Non-Isomorphism by Goldreich, Micali, and Wigderson [GMW91].¹³) It is known that a witness encryption scheme for NP can be obtained from a predictable argument for NP [FNV17].¹⁴ Therefore, we show that a predictable argument for NP can be obtained from any interactive argument for NP that satisfies a certain “witness-

¹³There, on input two graphs (G_0, G_1) , the verifier sends a random isomorphic copy of G_b for a random $b \in \{0, 1\}$ and checks whether the prover replies with b .

¹⁴This implication is shown by using that (i) given a true statement, the secret value predicted by the verifier can be efficiently obtained using any corresponding witness (this is because of correctness), and (ii) given a false statement, the secret value predicted by the verifier is computationally hidden (this is because of soundness).

independence” property. Toward this end, consider proving a statement $x \in \mathbf{L}$ by using an interactive argument (P, V) as follows.¹⁵

1. The verifier generates a “trapdoor statement” $x' \in \mathbf{L}'$ and a corresponding witness w' for a certain NP language \mathbf{L}' . Concretely, the verifier evaluates a pseudorandom generator $x' := \text{PRG}(w')$ using a random seed w' and views x' as an instance of $\mathbf{L}' := \{x' \mid \exists w' \text{ s.t. } \text{PRG}(w') = x'\}$.
2. The verifier executes (P, V) in its own head with statement $x \in \mathbf{L} \vee x' \in \mathbf{L}'$ and witness w' . (That is, the verifier internally emulates both the prover and the verifier of (P, V) using x, x' , and w' .) Let the prover randomness and transcript of this execution be denoted by rnd_P and $(\beta_1, \alpha_1, \dots, \beta_\rho, \alpha_\rho)$, respectively. (Each β_i is a verifier message, each α_i is a prover message, and ρ is the round complexity of (P, V) .)
3. The verifier sends x' and rnd_P to the prover. Then, for each $i \in \{1, \dots, \rho\}$ in sequence, the verifier sends β_i to the prover and checks whether the prover replies with α_i . (The prover, given as input a witness w for $x \in \mathbf{L}$, is expected to obtain α_i by executing (P, V) with statement $x \in \mathbf{L} \vee x' \in \mathbf{L}'$, witness w , prover randomness rnd_P , and verifier messages β_1, \dots, β_i .)

Note that the verifier only checks whether the prover’s replies agree with the predicted values $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_\rho$. This construction is a predictable argument if (P, V) satisfies the following conditions.

Condition 1 (witness-independence condition). *Let $\tau_x(x', w, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)$ denote the transcript of (P, V) generated with statement $x \in \mathbf{L} \vee x' \in \mathbf{L}'$, witness w , prover randomness rnd_P , and verifier randomness rnd_V . Then, the following holds for any statement $x \in \mathbf{L}$ and any corresponding witness w .*

$$\Pr_{(x', w'), \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V} [\tau_x(x', w, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau_x(x', w', \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)] \geq 1 - \text{negl}(\lambda),$$

where x' and w' are sampled as in the above construction.

Indeed, the completeness follows from the above condition since it guarantees that an honest prover can obtain each α_i using w . Also, it can be shown that the soundness follows from the soundness of (P, V) . Thus, given any interactive argument for NP that satisfies the above witness-independence condition, we can obtain a predictable argument for NP, and therefore, a witness encryption scheme for NP as well.

Step 2: “witness independence” of resettable statistical witness indistinguishability. It remains to show that any resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for NP satisfies the above witness-independence condition. Considering the contrapositive, we show that an interactive argument (P, V) for NP is not resettable statistical witness indistinguishable if it does not satisfy the witness-independence condition. By definition, when (P, V) does not satisfy the witness-independence condition, there exists a statement $x \in \mathbf{L}$ and a corresponding witness w such that the following holds.

$$\Pr_{(x', w'), \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V} [\tau_x(x', w, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau_x(x', w', \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)] \geq \frac{1}{\text{poly}(\lambda)}. \quad (4)$$

For simplicity, we assume something stronger in this technical overview. In particular, we assume that there exists a statement $x \in \mathbf{L}$ and a corresponding witness w such that for sufficiently large t , there exist t instances $x'_1, \dots, x'_t \in \mathbf{L}'$ and corresponding witnesses w'_1, \dots, w'_t such that the following holds for all $i \in \{1, \dots, t\}$.

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V} [\tau_x(x'_i, w, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau_x(x'_i, w'_i, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)] = 1. \quad (5)$$

(That is, the probability in the left-hand side of (4) is 1 for t statements and witnesses.) Under this assumption, we show that (P, V) is not resettable statistical witness indistinguishable.¹⁶ Recall that, like statistical hiding in [Section 2.2](#), statistical witness indistinguishability requires that a proof generated with one witness $w^{(0)}$ can be “explained” as a proof generated with another witness $w^{(1)}$. Resettable statistical witness indistinguishability requires that the same holds even when the same randomness is used to prove multiple statements. Thus, if (P, V) is resettable statistical witness indistinguishable, it satisfies the following for any $x \in \mathbf{L}$ and $x'_1, \dots, x'_t \in \mathbf{L}'$.

¹⁵Similar constructions were previously considered in the contexts of deterministic-prover zero-knowledge [\[BC20\]](#) and witness maps [\[CPW20\]](#).

¹⁶The general case can be handled with a little care.

Condition 2 (necessary condition of resettable statistical witness indistinguishability). Let $(w_1^{(0)}, \dots, w_t^{(0)})$ and $(w_1^{(1)}, \dots, w_t^{(1)})$ be any two t -tuples of witnesses such that each $w_i^{(0)}$ and $w_i^{(1)}$ are witnesses for $x \in \mathbf{L} \vee x'_i \in \mathbf{L}'$. Then, the following holds.

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V} \left[\exists \text{rnd}_P^{(0)} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in \{1, \dots, t\} : \tau_x(x'_i, w_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau_x(x'_i, w_i^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \geq 1 - \text{negl}(\lambda). \quad (6)$$

Let us consider the above condition for the instances x and x'_1, \dots, x'_t satisfying (5). As in Section 2.2, we show that the left-hand side of (6) is negligible. Toward this end, we start by carefully defining $w_1^{(0)}, \dots, w_t^{(0)}$ and $w_1^{(1)}, \dots, w_t^{(1)}$. Specifically, using witnesses w and w'_1, \dots, w'_t that satisfy (5), we define them as follows.

- $w_i^{(0)}$ is an arbitrary witness for $x \in \mathbf{L} \vee x'_i \in \mathbf{L}'$.
- $w_i^{(1)}$ is defined by randomly sampling $b_i \in \{0, 1\}$ and setting $w_i^{(1)} := w$ if $b_i = 0$ and $w_i^{(1)} := w'_i$ if $b_i = 1$.

The key point is that $w_i^{(0)}$ and $w_i^{(1)}$ are defined so that two transcripts generated with them disagree with high probability. Indeed, since the transcript generated with w and that generated with w'_i disagree as shown in (5), at least one of them disagrees with the transcript generated with $w_i^{(0)}$. Thus, for any $\text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(1)}$, and rnd_V , we have the following.

$$\Pr_{b_i} \left[\tau_x(x'_i, w_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau_x(x'_i, w_i^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \leq \frac{1}{2}. \quad (7)$$

Given (7), we can proceed as in Section 2.2. Specifically, the left-hand side of (6) satisfies the following when $w_1^{(0)}, \dots, w_t^{(0)}$ and $w_1^{(1)}, \dots, w_t^{(1)}$ are defined as above by sampling $b_1, \dots, b_t \in \{0, 1\}$.

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr_{b_1, \dots, b_t, \text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V} \left[\exists \text{rnd}_P^{(0)} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in \{1, \dots, t\} : \tau_x(x'_i, w_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau_x(x'_i, w_i^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \\ & \leq \sum_{\text{rnd}_P^{(0)}} \Pr_{b_1, \dots, b_t, \text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V} \left[\forall i \in \{1, \dots, t\} : \tau_x(x'_i, w_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau_x(x'_i, w_i^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \\ & \leq \sum_{\text{rnd}_P^{(0)}} \frac{1}{2^t}. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

(The third line holds since we have (7) for any $\text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(1)}$, and rnd_V .) From an average argument, we can fix b_1, \dots, b_t so that (8) holds when $w_1^{(1)}, \dots, w_t^{(1)}$ are defined based on the fixed values. That is, we have

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V} \left[\exists \text{rnd}_P^{(0)} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in \{1, \dots, t\} : \tau_x(x'_i, w_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau_x(x'_i, w_i^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \leq \sum_{\text{rnd}_P^{(0)}} \frac{1}{2^t}.$$

Thus, the left-hand side of (6) is negligible when t is sufficiently large. Thus, (P, V) is not resettable statistical witness indistinguishable when it does not satisfy the witness-independence condition. This concludes the technical overview.

Remark 1 (On the possibility of constructing witness encryption for \mathbf{L} from resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for \mathbf{L}). As shown above, in the proof of Theorem 2, we obtain a witness encryption scheme for \mathbf{L} by using a resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for a related NP language. This is sufficient to prove Theorem 2 since it only states that the existence of resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for NP implies the existence of witness encryption schemes for NP.

However, theoretically speaking, it is more desirable if we obtain a witness encryption scheme for \mathbf{L} by using a resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for \mathbf{L} . (The positive result in Theorem 1 is shown in such a form.)

Unfortunately, our techniques seem insufficient to prove this desirable version of the result. A problem occurs in Step 1, i.e., the transformation from a “witness-independent” argument (P, V) to a predictable argument. Recall that in the transformation, the verifier of the predictable argument obtains a transcript of (P, V) in its head to predict prover messages. The problem is that if (P, V) is used for \mathbf{L} (the language for which the predictable argument is designed), the verifier cannot obtain a transcript of (P, V) because it does not know a witness for \mathbf{L} . In this paper, we avoid this problem by having the verifier prepare a “trapdoor statement” x' and use (P, V) for $x \in \mathbf{L} \vee x' \in \mathbf{L}'$. As a result, (P, V) is required to work for a slightly larger language than the predictable argument.

A potential way to circumvent the above problem is to start with resettable statistical zero-knowledge instead of resettable statistical witness indistinguishability. If (P, V) is a resettable statistical zero-knowledge argument, the verifier of the predictable argument can use the simulator of (P, V) to obtain a transcript. (This is the approach used by Bitansky and Choudhuri [BC20] to obtain a predictable argument for \mathbf{L} from a deterministic-prover zero-knowledge argument for \mathbf{L} .) In this case, however, it seems that the prover can obtain the same transcript as the verifier only when the prover can determine the prover randomness used in the simulated transcript. (In the context of deterministic-prover zero-knowledge, this problem does not arise because prover randomness does not exist.) Although the prover randomness is indeed efficiently recoverable in the case of the construction shown in our positive result (Theorem 1), we do not know if the same property holds for all resettable statistical zero-knowledge arguments. Therefore, even if we start with resettable statistical zero-knowledge, it is not clear if we can show Theorem 2 in the above desirable form. \diamond

3 Preliminaries

3.1 Notations and Conventions

We use λ to denote the security parameter. For any binary strings $a, b \in \{0, 1\}^*$, we use $a \parallel b$ to denote their concatenation. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we use $[n]$ to denote the set $\{1, \dots, n\}$. We use poly to denote an unspecified polynomial, negl to denote an unspecified negligible function, and PPT as an abbreviation of “probabilistic polynomial-time.” For any NP language \mathbf{L} , we use $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}$ to denote the corresponding witness relation. For any instance $x \in \mathbf{L}$, we use $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}(x)$ to denote the set of the witnesses for $x \in \mathbf{L}$. For any pair of probabilistic interactive Turing machines (P, V) , we use $\text{output}_V[P(x) \leftrightarrow V(y)]$ to denote the random variable representing the output of V in an interaction between $P(x)$ and $V(y)$. Similarly, we use $\text{trans}[P(x) \leftrightarrow V(y)]$ to denote the random variable representing the transcript of an interaction between $P(x)$ and $V(y)$. For a set S , we denote by $s \leftarrow S$ the process of obtaining an element $s \in S$ by a uniform sampling from S . For any probabilistic algorithm Algo and an input x , we denote by $y \leftarrow \text{Algo}(x)$ the process of obtaining an output y by running $\text{Algo}(x)$ with uniform randomness. When we write $\text{Algo}(x; \text{rnd})$, it means that Algo is run with input x and random tape rnd .

The reader is assumed to have basic knowledge of cryptography, such as the definitions of statistical/computational indistinguishability, one-way functions, and pseudorandom generators. (For these definitions, see standard textbooks like [Gol01].) In this paper, every adversarial party is modeled as a non-uniform Turing machine, i.e., takes a non-uniform string (denoted by $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$) as additional input. While we do not explicitly specify the length of non-uniform strings, the length is always assumed to be bounded by a polynomial in λ .

3.2 Witness Encryption

We recall the definition of witness encryption schemes [GGSW13].

Definition 1 (Witness Encryption). *A witness encryption scheme for an NP language \mathbf{L} consists of two polynomial-time algorithms.*

Encryption. *The algorithm $\text{Enc}(1^\lambda, x, m)$ takes as input a security parameter λ (in unary), an unbounded-length string x , and a message $m \in \{0, 1\}$, and outputs a ciphertext ct .*

Decryption. *The algorithm $\text{Dec}(\text{ct}, w)$ takes as input a ciphertext ct and an unbounded-length string w , and outputs a message m or the symbol \perp .*

These algorithms satisfy the following two conditions.

Correctness. For any $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $m \in \{0, 1\}$, $x \in \mathbf{L}$, and $w \in \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}(x)$,

$$\Pr \left[\text{Dec}(\text{Enc}(1^\lambda, x, m), w) = m \right] = 1.$$

Soundness Security. For any PPT adversary \mathcal{A} , there exists a negligible function negl such that for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \notin \mathbf{L}$, and $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$\left| \Pr \left[\mathcal{A}(\text{Enc}(1^\lambda, x, 0), z) = 1 \right] - \Pr \left[\mathcal{A}(\text{Enc}(1^\lambda, x, 1), z) = 1 \right] \right| \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

A witness encryption scheme can be naturally extended to encrypt a string (rather than a bit) by encrypting each bit of the string independently.

3.3 Interactive Argument, Witness Indistinguishability, and Zero-Knowledge

We recall the definition of interactive arguments and their basic privacy notions (e.g., [Gol01]).

Definition 2 (Interactive Argument). For any NP language \mathbf{L} , a pair of PPT interactive Turing machines (P, V) is called an interactive argument for \mathbf{L} if it satisfies the following.

Completeness. For any polynomial poly , there exists a negligible function negl such that for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \in \mathbf{L} \cap \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)}$, and $w \in \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}(x)$,

$$\Pr \left[\text{output}_V \left[P(1^\lambda, x, w) \leftrightarrow V(1^\lambda, x) \right] = 1 \right] \geq 1 - \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

Soundness. For every PPT interactive Turing machine P^* and polynomial poly , there exists a negligible function negl such that for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \in \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)} \setminus \mathbf{L}$, and $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$\Pr \left[\text{output}_V \left[P^*(1^\lambda, x, z) \leftrightarrow V(1^\lambda, x) \right] = 1 \right] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

In the above, P is called the prover and V is called the verifier.

Definition 3 (Statistical Witness Indistinguishability). An interactive argument (P, V) for an NP language \mathbf{L} is called statistical witness indistinguishable if for any PPT interactive Turing machine V^* , any sequence $\{x_\lambda, w_\lambda^{(0)}, w_\lambda^{(1)}\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $x_\lambda \in \mathbf{L} \cap \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)}$ and $w_\lambda^{(0)}, w_\lambda^{(1)} \in \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}(x)$, and any sequence of non-uniform strings $\{z_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, the following ensembles are statistically indistinguishable.

- $\left\{ \text{output}_{V^*} \left[P(1^\lambda, x_\lambda, w_\lambda^{(0)}) \leftrightarrow V^*(1^\lambda, x_\lambda, z_\lambda) \right] \right\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$.
- $\left\{ \text{output}_{V^*} \left[P(1^\lambda, x_\lambda, w_\lambda^{(1)}) \leftrightarrow V^*(1^\lambda, x_\lambda, z_\lambda) \right] \right\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Definition 4 (Zero-Knowledge). An interactive argument (P, V) for an NP language \mathbf{L} is called (computational) zero-knowledge if for any PPT interactive Turing machine V^* , there exists a PPT Turing machine \mathcal{S} such that for any sequence $\{x_\lambda, w_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $x_\lambda \in \mathbf{L} \cap \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)}$ and $w_\lambda \in \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}(x)$ and for any sequence of non-uniform strings $\{z_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, the following ensembles are computationally indistinguishable.

- $\left\{ \text{output}_{V^*} \left[P(1^\lambda, x_\lambda, w_\lambda) \leftrightarrow V^*(1^\lambda, x_\lambda, z_\lambda) \right] \right\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$.
- $\left\{ \mathcal{S}(1^\lambda, x_\lambda, z_\lambda) \right\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$.

In the above, V^* is called the cheating verifier and \mathcal{S} is called the simulator.

3.4 Resettable Security of Interactive Arguments

First, we recall the definition of resettable statistical zero-knowledge [GOVW12].

Definition 5 (Resettable Statistical Zero-Knowledge). *An interactive argument (P, V) for an NP language L is called resettable statistical zero-knowledge if for every PPT interactive Turing machine V^* , there exists a PPT Turing machine S such that for any polynomials poly_x and poly_t , the following holds.*

Let $t_\lambda := \text{poly}_t(\lambda)$. Fix any sequences of t_λ -tuple $\{(x_{\lambda,1}, \dots, x_{\lambda,t_\lambda})\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{(w_{\lambda,1}, \dots, w_{\lambda,t_\lambda})\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $x_{\lambda,i} \in L \cap \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}_x(\lambda)}$ and $w_{\lambda,i} \in \mathbf{R}_L(x_{\lambda,i})$ for every $i \in [t_\lambda]$. Then, for any sequence of non-uniform strings $\{z_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, the following two ensembles, denoted by $\{D_\lambda^0\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{D_\lambda^1\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, are statistically indistinguishable.

Distribution D_λ^0 .

1. Randomly select t_λ random tapes $\text{rnd}_1, \dots, \text{rnd}_{t_\lambda}$ for the prover P , resulting in deterministic strategies $\{P^{(i,j)}\}_{i,j \in [t_\lambda]}$ that are defined by $P^{(i,j)}(\alpha) = P(1^\lambda, x_{\lambda,i}, w_{\lambda,i}, \alpha; \text{rnd}_j)$ for every $i, j \in [t_\lambda]$.¹⁷ Each $P^{(i,j)}$ is called an incarnation of P .
2. On input $1^\lambda, x_{\lambda,1}, \dots, x_{\lambda,t_\lambda}$, and z_λ , machine V^* initiates $\text{poly}(\lambda)$ -many (arbitrarily interleaved) interactions with the $P^{(i,j)}$'s, where V^* is allowed to send arbitrary messages to each of $P^{(i,j)}$ and obtain the responses of $P^{(i,j)}$ to such messages. Once V^* decides it is done interacting with the $P^{(i,j)}$'s, it produces an output based on its view of these interactions.
3. The output of the distribution is the final output of V^* .

Distribution D_λ^1 . The output of the distribution is the output of $S(1^\lambda, x_{\lambda,1}, \dots, x_{\lambda,t_\lambda}, z_\lambda)$.

In the above, V^* is called the cheating verifier and S is called the simulator.

Next, we define resettable statistical witness indistinguishability. The following definition is based on the definition of resettable (computational) witness indistinguishability [CGGM00]. However, since we only give a negative result about resettable statistical witness indistinguishability (and therefore considering a weaker security definition makes our result stronger), the definition is weaker than the natural one; see Remark 2 below for details.

Definition 6 (Resettable Statistical Witness Indistinguishability). *An interactive argument (P, V) for an NP language L is called resettable statistical witness indistinguishable if for every PPT interactive Turing machine V^* and any polynomials $\text{poly}_x, \text{poly}_t$, the following holds.*

Let $t_\lambda := \text{poly}_t(\lambda)$. Fix any sequence of t_λ -tuple $\{(x_{\lambda,1}, \dots, x_{\lambda,t_\lambda})\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, $\{(w_{\lambda,1}^0, \dots, w_{\lambda,t_\lambda}^0)\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, and $\{(w_{\lambda,1}^1, \dots, w_{\lambda,t_\lambda}^1)\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that (i) $x_{\lambda,i} \in L \cap \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}_x(\lambda)}$ and $w_{\lambda,i}^0, w_{\lambda,i}^1 \in \mathbf{R}_L(x_{\lambda,i})$ for every $i \in [t_\lambda]$ and (ii) $x_{\lambda,i} \neq x_{\lambda,j}$ for every distinct $i, j \in [t_\lambda]$. Then, for any sequence of non-uniform strings $\{z_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, the following two ensembles, denoted by $\{D_\lambda^0\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{D_\lambda^1\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, are statistically indistinguishable.

Distribution D_λ^b ($b \in \{0, 1\}$).

1. Randomly select a random tape rnd for the prover P , resulting in deterministic strategies $P^{(1)}, \dots, P^{(t_\lambda)}$ that are defined by $P^{(i)}(\alpha) = P(1^\lambda, x_{\lambda,i}, w_{\lambda,i}^b, \alpha; \text{rnd})$ for every $i \in [t_\lambda]$.
2. On input $1^\lambda, x_{\lambda,1}, \dots, x_{\lambda,t_\lambda}$, and z_λ , machine V^* initiates t_λ sequential interactions with the $P^{(i)}$'s, where the i -th interactions is done with $P^{(i)}$.
3. The output of the distribution is the final output of V^* .

Remark 2. Compared with the natural definition that we can think of, Definition 6 is weak since V^* is only allowed to interact with each incarnation once in sequence. (Additionally, as a minor restriction, the statements $x_{\lambda,1}, \dots, x_{\lambda,t_\lambda}$ are required to be distinct.) \diamond

¹⁷ $P(1^\lambda, x_{\lambda,i}, w_{\lambda,i}, \alpha; \text{rnd}_j)$ denotes the message sent by P on input $(1^\lambda, x_{\lambda,i}, w_{\lambda,i})$ and random tape rnd_j after seeing the message-sequence α .

Finally, we recall the definition of resettable soundness [BGGL01].

Definition 7 (Resettable Sound Argument). A resetting attack of a cheating prover P^* on a resettable verifier V is defined by the following two-step random experiment, indexed by a security parameter λ .

1. Uniformly select and fix $t = \text{poly}(\lambda)$ random tapes $\text{rnd}_1, \dots, \text{rnd}_t$ for V , resulting in deterministic strategies $V^{(j)}(x) = V_{x, \text{rnd}_j}$ defined by $V_{x, \text{rnd}_j}(\alpha) = V(1^\lambda, x, \alpha; \text{rnd}_j)$, where $x \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ and $j \in [t]$. Each $V^{(j)}(x)$ is called an incarnation of V .
2. On input 1^λ , machine P^* initiates $\text{poly}(\lambda)$ -many sequential interactions with the $V^{(j)}(x)$'s. The activity of P^* proceeds in rounds. In each round, P^* chooses $x \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ and $j \in [t]$, thus defining $V^{(j)}(x)$, and conducts a complete session with it. Once P^* decides it is done interacting with the $V^{(j)}(x)$'s, it produces an output based on its view of these interactions.

Let (P, V) be an interactive argument for an NP language \mathbf{L} . We say that (P, V) is resettable sound if the following two conditions hold.

Resettable-completeness. Consider an arbitrary polynomial-size resetting attack,¹⁸ and suppose that in some session, after selecting an incarnation $V^{(j)}(x)$, the attacker follows the (honest) strategy P .¹⁹ Then, if $x \in \mathbf{L}$, the probability that $V^{(j)}(x)$ rejects is negligible.

Resettable-soundness. For every polynomial-size resetting attack, the probability that in some session the corresponding $V^{(j)}(x)$ has accepted and $x \notin \mathbf{L}$ is negligible.

Remark 3. Definition 7 is known to be equivalent to the (seemingly stronger) “interleaving” version of the definition, where P^* is allowed to initiate $\text{poly}(\lambda)$ -many arbitrarily interleaved interactions with the $V^{(j)}(x)$'s [BGGL01]. \diamond

If a resettable sound argument is zero-knowledge (resp. statistically witness indistinguishable), it is called a resettable sound zero-knowledge (resp. statistical witness-indistinguishable) argument. It is known that a constant-round resettable sound zero-knowledge argument exists for all languages in NP under the assumption of one-way functions [CPS16].

3.5 Predictable Argument

We recall the definition of predictable arguments [FNV17]. The following definition is based on that given in [BC20], which is weaker than the original definition [FNV17] in that the existence of witness extractors is not required.

Definition 8 (Predictable Argument). A ρ -round predictable argument for an NP language \mathbf{L} is specified by a tuple of algorithms $\Pi = (\text{Chal}, \text{Resp})$ as follows.

1. The verifier V samples $(\beta, \alpha) \leftarrow \text{Chal}(1^\lambda, x)$, where $\beta := (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_\rho)$ and $\alpha := (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_\rho)$.
2. For all $i \in [\rho]$ in increasing sequence, the verifier V and the prover P do the following.
 - (a) V sends β_i to P .
 - (b) P sends $\tilde{\alpha}_i := \text{Resp}(1^\lambda, x, w, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_i)$ to V .
3. V outputs 1 if $\tilde{\alpha}_i = \alpha_i$ for all $i \in [\rho]$, and outputs 0 otherwise.

The algorithms are required to satisfy the following two conditions.

Completeness. There exists a negligible function negl such that for any $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \in \mathbf{L}$, and $w \in \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}(x)$,

$$\Pr \left[\text{output}_V \left[P(1^\lambda, x, w) \leftrightarrow V(1^\lambda, x) \right] = 1 \right] \geq 1 - \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

¹⁸Polynomial-size resetting attacks are those such that the cheating provers take polynomial-length non-uniform inputs and run in polynomial time.

¹⁹To consider honest prover strategies that are implementable in probabilistic polynomial time, we need to supply P with an adequate NP witness. Thus, we consider a resetting attack that for every selected $x \in \mathbf{L}$ also provides P with $w \in \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}(x)$. In this case, we require that when $V^{(j)}(x)$ interacts with $P(x, w)$, it rejects with negligible probability.

Soundness. For any PPT cheating prover P^* and any polynomial poly , there exists a negligible function negl such that for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \in \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)} \setminus \mathbf{L}$, and $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$\Pr \left[\text{output}_V \left[P^*(1^\lambda, x, z) \leftrightarrow V(1^\lambda, x) \right] = 1 \right] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

It is known that predictable arguments are equivalent to witness encryption schemes [FNV17].²⁰

Theorem 4 ([FNV17]). Let \mathbf{L} be any NP language. There exists a predictable argument for \mathbf{L} if and only if there exists a witness encryption scheme for \mathbf{L} .

3.6 Commitment Scheme and Resettable Statistical Hiding

First, we recall the definition of statistically hiding (bit-)commitment schemes (e.g., [Gol01]).²¹

Definition 9 (Statistically Hiding Commitment). A pair of PPT interactive Turing machines (C, R) is called a statistically hiding (bit-)commitment scheme if it satisfies the following.

Computational Binding. Let ℓ_R denote the length of the random tape for R . Then, for every pair of PPT interactive Turing machines (C_0^*, C_1^*) , there exists a negligible function negl such that for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ and $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$\Pr \left[\begin{array}{l} \tau = \tau_0 \wedge \tau = \tau_1 \\ \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{rnd}_R \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_R(\lambda)} \\ \tau \leftarrow \text{trans} \left[C_0^*(z) \leftrightarrow R(1^\lambda; \text{rnd}_R) \right] \\ (\text{rnd}_0, \text{rnd}_1) \leftarrow C_1^*(\tau, z) \\ \tau_0 := \text{trans} \left[C(1^\lambda, 0; \text{rnd}_0) \leftrightarrow R(1^\lambda; \text{rnd}_R) \right] \\ \tau_1 := \text{trans} \left[C(1^\lambda, 1; \text{rnd}_1) \leftrightarrow R(1^\lambda; \text{rnd}_R) \right] \end{array} \right\} \leq \text{negl}(\lambda). \end{array} \right.$$

Statistical Hiding. For every PPT interactive Turing machine R^* and a sequence of non-uniform strings $\{z_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, the following ensembles are statistically indistinguishable.

- $\{\text{output}_{R^*} [C(1^\lambda, 0) \leftrightarrow R^*(z_\lambda)]\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$.
- $\{\text{output}_{R^*} [C(1^\lambda, 1) \leftrightarrow R^*(z_\lambda)]\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$.

In the above, C is called the committer and R is called the receiver.

Next, we define resettable statistical hiding. The definition is similar to the definition of resettable statistical witness indistinguishability (Definition 6). Since we only give a negative result about resettable statistical hiding, the definition is weaker than the natural one; see Remark 4 below for details.

Definition 10 (Resettable Statistical Hiding Commitment). A commitment scheme (C, R) is called resettable statistical hiding if for every PPT interactive Turing machine R^* and every sequence of non-uniform strings $\{z_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, the following two ensembles, denoted by $\{D_\lambda^0\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{D_\lambda^1\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$, are statistically indistinguishable.

Distribution D_λ^b ($b \in \{0, 1\}$).

1. Randomly select a random tape rnd for the committer C , resulting in deterministic strategy C_b that is defined by $C_b(\alpha) = C(1^\lambda, b, \alpha; \text{rnd})$.
2. On input 1^λ and z_λ , machine R^* initiates $\text{poly}(\lambda)$ -many sequential interactions with C_b . Once R^* decides it is done interacting with C_b , it produces an output based on its view of these interactions.
3. The output of the distribution is the output of R^* .

Remark 4. Definition 10 is weak in that R^* is only allowed to interact with a single incarnation of C . \diamond

²⁰In [FNV17], the equivalence is shown for stronger versions of predictable arguments and witness encryption schemes (*predictable arguments of knowledge* and *extractable witness encryption schemes*, respectively). However, as mentioned in [FNV17], the equivalence also holds for predictable arguments and witness encryption schemes.

²¹For notational simplicity, we assume that the reveal phase proceeds as follows: (i) the committer reveals the committed value and the random tape that it used in the commit phase; (ii) the receiver checks whether the revealed committed value and random tape reproduce the transcript of the commit phase.

3.7 Instance-Dependent Primitives

We recall the definitions of several instance-dependent primitives.

3.7.1 Instance-dependent non-interactive commitment.

First, we recall the definition of instance-dependent non-interactive commitment schemes. The definition below is the version given in [GOVW12].

Definition 11 (Instance-dependent non-interactive commitment). *A PPT Turing machines Com is called an instance-dependent (perfectly binding statistically hiding) non-interactive commitment scheme with respect to a language \mathbf{L} if it satisfies the following.*

Perfect Binding. *For every $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \in \mathbf{L}$, $m_0, m_1 \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$, and $\text{rnd}_0, \text{rnd}_1 \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\lambda)}$ (where ℓ is the length of the random tape of Com), if $m_0 \neq m_1$, then $\text{Com}(1^\lambda, x, m_0; \text{rnd}_0) \neq \text{Com}(1^\lambda, x, m_1; \text{rnd}_1)$.*

Statistical Hiding. *For every $\{x_\lambda\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{m_\lambda^{(0)}, m_\lambda^{(1)}\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $x_\lambda \in \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)} \setminus \mathbf{L}$ and $m_\lambda^{(0)}, m_\lambda^{(1)} \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$, the following two ensembles are statistically indistinguishable.*

$$\left\{ \text{Com}(1^\lambda, x_\lambda, m_\lambda^{(0)}) \right\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}} \quad \text{and} \quad \left\{ \text{Com}(1^\lambda, x_\lambda, m_\lambda^{(1)}) \right\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}.$$

Additionally, Com is called (efficiently) extractable if it satisfies the following.

Extractability. *There exists a polynomial-time Turing machine E such that for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \in \mathbf{L}$, $w \in \mathbf{R}_\mathbf{L}(x)$, and $m \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$,*

$$\Pr [\tilde{m} = m \mid c \leftarrow \text{Com}(1^\lambda, x, m); \tilde{m} := E(c, w)] = 1.$$

In the above, E is called the extractor.

3.7.2 Instance-dependent resettably sound statistical witness-indistinguishable argument.

Next, we recall the definition of instance-dependent resettably sound statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments. (The following is the version given in [GOVW12].) *Instance-dependent resettably sound statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments* for an NP language \mathbf{L} are defined w.r.t. another NP language \mathbf{L}' . The differences from (ordinary) resettably sound statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments are the following.

- In addition to receiving an instance x of \mathbf{L} as the statement to be proven, the prover P and the verifier V take an instance x' of \mathbf{L}' as an additional common input.
- The resettably-completeness and resettably-soundness are required to hold only when $x' \in \mathbf{L}'$.²²
- The statistical witness indistinguishability is required to hold only when $x' \notin \mathbf{L}'$.²³

If instance-dependent non-interactive commitment schemes exist w.r.t. a language \mathbf{L} , instance-dependent resettably sound statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for NP also exist w.r.t. \mathbf{L} [GOVW12].

4 Resetable Statistical Zero-Knowledge from Witness Encryption

This section shows that a resetable statistical zero-knowledge argument for NP can be constructed from a witness encryption scheme for NP.

Theorem 5 (restatement of Theorem 1). *Assume the existence of one-way functions. Then, if there exists a witness encryption scheme for an NP language \mathbf{L} , there also exists a resetable statistical zero-knowledge argument for \mathbf{L} .*

²²The definition of a resetting attack (Definition 7) is modified as follows. (1) A sequence (x'_1, \dots, x'_t) such that $x'_k \in \mathbf{L}'$ is fixed at the beginning of the experiment. (2) The incarnations of V are defined as $\{V^{(j,k)}(x)\}_{j,k \in [t]}$, where each $V^{(j,k)}(x) = V_{x, x'_k, \text{rnd}_j}$ is defined by $V_{x, x'_k, \text{rnd}_j}(\alpha) = V(x, x'_k, \alpha; \text{rnd}_j)$. (3) When interacting with an incarnation of V , the cheating prover P^* chooses x, j , and k to define $V^{(j,k)}(x)$.

²³That is, the requirement is that for any $x \in \mathbf{L}$ and $x' \notin \mathbf{L}$, a proof generated with common input (x, x') and private input $w_x^{(0)}$ is statistically indistinguishable from a proof generated with common input (x, x') and private input $w_x^{(1)}$.

4.1 Preliminary: Construction by Garg et al. [GOVW12]

As described in Section 2.1, our construction is based on a prior construction by Garg, Ostrovsky, Visconti, and Wadia (GOVW) [GOVW12]. We start by recalling their construction. Let \mathbf{L} be any language such that an instance-dependent non-interactive commitment scheme exists w.r.t. \mathbf{L} . GOVW [GOVW12] gave a resettable statistical zero-knowledge proof for \mathbf{L} using the following two building blocks, both of which are instance dependent w.r.t. \mathbf{L} .

- $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}$: An instance-dependent non-interactive extractable commitment scheme. It is (i) perfectly binding and extractable when a true instance $x \in \mathbf{L}$ is given to the committer and the receiver, and (ii) statistically hiding when a false instance $x \in \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)} \setminus \mathbf{L}$ is given to them (cf. Definition 11).
- $\text{rs-SWI}_{\mathbf{L}} = (\text{rs-SWI.P}_{\mathbf{L}}, \text{rs-SWI.V}_{\mathbf{L}})$: An instance-dependent resettably sound statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for NP. It is (i) resettably sound when a true instance $x \in \mathbf{L}$ is given to the prover and the verifier as an additional common input, and (ii) statistically witness indistinguishable when a false instance $x \in \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)} \setminus \mathbf{L}$ is given to them (cf. Section 3.7).

The construction by GOVW [GOVW12] is given in Figure 1.²⁴

4.2 Our Construction and Its Security

We are ready to prove Theorem 5.

Proof. Let \mathbf{L} be any NP language. We obtain a resettable statistical zero-knowledge argument for \mathbf{L} from the following building blocks.

- $\text{WE} = (\text{WE.Enc}, \text{WE.Dec})$: A witness encryption scheme for \mathbf{L} .
- $\text{rs-ZK} = (\text{rs-ZK.P}, \text{rs-ZK.V})$: A resettably sound zero-knowledge argument for NP (which can be obtained from one-way functions [CPS16]).

Our resettable statistical zero-knowledge argument for \mathbf{L} is obtained by modifying the construction in Figure 1 as follows.

- WE.Enc is used instead of $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}$, and WE.Dec is used instead of its extractor.
- rs-ZK is used instead of $\text{rs-SWI}_{\mathbf{L}}$.

The completeness and resettable statistical zero-knowledge can be verified by inspection. In particular, the resettable statistical zero-knowledge can be verified by observing that when $x \in \mathbf{L}$, WE and rs-ZK guarantee the same security as $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}$ and $\text{rs-SWI}_{\mathbf{L}}$ against V^* , respectively. (The extractability of WE follows from its perfect correctness.)

Regarding the soundness, we prove it by using a hybrid argument. Assume for contradiction that there exists a PPT cheating prover P^* and a polynomial p such that for infinitely many $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, there exist $x \in \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)} \setminus \mathbf{L}$ and $z \in \{0, 1\}^*$ such that $P^*(1^\lambda, x, z)$ makes an honest verifier $V(1^\lambda, x)$ output 1 with probability at least $1/p(\lambda)$. Fix any such P^* , λ , x , and z . Then, consider the following hybrid experiments $H_0, \dots, H_{\kappa^2+2}$.

- Hybrid H_0 is the real soundness experiment, where $P^*(1^\lambda, x, z)$ interacts with an honest verifier $V(1^\lambda, x)$. From our assumption, V outputs 1 with probability at least $1/p(\lambda)$.
- Hybrid H_1 is identical with H_0 except that the execution of rs-ZK in Step 2 is simulated. From the zero-knowledge of rs-ZK , there exists a negligible function negl_1 such that V outputs 1 with probability at least $1/p(\lambda) - \text{negl}_1(\lambda)$.
- Hybrid H_2 is identical with H_1 except that in Step 1, the commitment c is computed by $c \leftarrow \text{WE.Enc}(1^\lambda, x, 0^\lambda)$ rather than by $c \leftarrow \text{WE.Enc}(1^\lambda, x, m)$. From the soundness security of WE , there exists a negligible function negl_2 such that V outputs 1 with probability at least $1/p(\lambda) - \text{negl}_2(\lambda)$.

²⁴The description of the construction differs slightly from that given in the technical overview (Section 2.1). Specifically, $\text{RECom}_{\mathbf{L}}$ is instantiated in Steps 1(b) and 3 using $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}$, a pseudorandom function, and the so-called *PRS preamble* [PRS02].

The common input is a security parameter λ and an instance x of \mathbf{L} . The private input to the prover is a witness w for $x \in \mathbf{L}$. Let $\kappa = \omega(\log \lambda)$ be a parameter that is defined based on λ . (E.g., $\kappa := \lceil \log^2 \lambda \rceil$.)

1. **Determining Message:** V does the following.

- (a) Sample a uniformly random string $m \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ and compute $c \leftarrow \text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}(1^\lambda, x, m)$.
- (b) For every $i \in [\kappa]$ and $j \in [\kappa]$, sample uniformly random strings $\sigma_{i,j}^0, \sigma_{i,j}^1 \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ such that $\sigma_{i,j}^0 \oplus \sigma_{i,j}^1 = m$ and compute $c_{i,j}^0 \leftarrow \text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}(1^\lambda, x, \sigma_{i,j}^0)$ and $c_{i,j}^1 \leftarrow \text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}(1^\lambda, x, \sigma_{i,j}^1)$.
- (c) Send $(c, \{c_{i,j}^0, c_{i,j}^1\}_{i,j \in [\kappa]})$ to P .

2. **Proof of Consistency:** V uses $\text{rs-SWL}_{\mathbf{L}}$ to prove the following NP statement: There exist \tilde{m} , rnd , and $\{\tilde{\sigma}_{i,j}^0, \text{rnd}_{i,j}^0, \tilde{\sigma}_{i,j}^1, \text{rnd}_{i,j}^1\}_{i,j \in [\kappa]}$ that satisfy all of the following.

- (a) $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}(1^\lambda, x, \tilde{m}; \text{rnd}) = c$.
- (b) $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}(1^\lambda, x, \tilde{\sigma}_{i,j}^b; \text{rnd}_{i,j}^b) = c_{i,j}^b$ for every $i \in [\kappa]$, $j \in [\kappa]$, and $b \in \{0, 1\}$.
- (c) $\tilde{\sigma}_{i,j}^0 \oplus \tilde{\sigma}_{i,j}^1 = \tilde{m}$ for every $i \in [\kappa]$ and $j \in [\kappa]$.

3. **Resettable PRS Phase:** P samples a random key $s \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ of a pseudorandom function PRF and computes $\omega := \text{PRF}(s, x \parallel \text{msg})$, where $\text{msg} := (c, \{c_{i,j}^0, c_{i,j}^1\}_{i,j \in [\kappa]})$. Next, P divides ω into κ blocks of κ -bit each, i.e., obtains $(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_\kappa)$ such that $\omega = \omega_1 \parallel \dots \parallel \omega_\kappa$ and $|\omega_i| = \kappa$ for every $i \in [\kappa]$. Then, for each $k \in [\kappa]$ in sequence, P and V do the following.

- (a) P sends ω_k to V .
- (b) V sends the opening of $c_{k,1}^{\omega_{k,1}}, \dots, c_{k,\kappa}^{\omega_{k,\kappa}}$ to P , where $\omega_{k,j}$ is the j -th bit of ω_k for each $j \in [\kappa]$. (In other words, V sends $(\sigma_{k,1}^{\omega_{k,1}}, \text{rnd}_{k,1}^{\omega_{k,1}}), \dots, (\sigma_{k,\kappa}^{\omega_{k,\kappa}}, \text{rnd}_{k,\kappa}^{\omega_{k,\kappa}})$ to P , where $\text{rnd}_{k,j}^{\omega_{k,j}}$ is the random tape used to compute $c_{k,j}^{\omega_{k,j}}$.)
- (c) The prover P aborts the protocol if the openings are invalid (i.e., $\exists j \in [\kappa]$ s.t. $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}(1^\lambda, x, \sigma_{i,j}^{\omega_{k,j}}; \text{rnd}_{i,j}^{\omega_{k,j}}) \neq c_{i,j}^{\omega_{k,j}}$).

4. **Final Message:**

- (a) P runs the extractor of $\text{Com}_{\mathbf{L}}$ on input (c, w) and sends the extracted message to V . (If the extractor aborts, P aborts the protocol.) The extracted message is denoted by m' .
- (b) V outputs 1 if and only if $m = m'$.

Figure 1: Construction by GOVW [GOVW12].

- Hybrid $H_{(i-1)\kappa+(j-1)+3}$ for each $i, j \in [\kappa]$ is identical with $H_{(i-1)\kappa+(j-1)+2}$ except that in Step 1, the random strings $(\sigma_{i,j}^0, \sigma_{i,j}^1)$ are samples uniform randomly from $\{0, 1\}^\lambda \times \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ without the condition of $\sigma_{i,j}^0 \oplus \sigma_{i,j}^1 = m$. From the soundness security of WE, there exists a negligible function negl_3 such that V outputs 1 with probability at least $1/p(\lambda) - \text{negl}_2(\lambda) - ((i-1)\kappa + (j-1) + 1) \cdot \text{negl}_3(\lambda)$.

Thus, in H_{κ^2+2} , the honest verifier outputs 1 with non-negligible probability. This is a contradiction since in H_{κ^2+2} , we have $m = m'$ with probability at most $2^{-\lambda}$. (The cheating prover P^* obtains no information about m in H_{κ^2+2} .) \square

5 Witness Encryption from Resettable Statistical Witness Indistinguishability

This section shows that resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for NP imply witness encryption schemes for NP.

Algorithm $\text{Chal}(1^\lambda, x)$:

1. Sample an instance $\hat{x} \in \widehat{\mathbf{L}}$ and a corresponding witness \hat{w} as follows. Sample a uniformly random string $s \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda$ and compute $r := \text{PRG}(s)$. Then, let $\hat{x} := (x, r)$ and $\hat{w} := s$.
2. Run $(\text{rSWI.P}, \text{rSWI.V})$ with prover input $(1^\lambda, \hat{x}, \hat{w})$ and verifier input $(1^\lambda, \hat{x})$ by emulating both the prover and the verifier internally. Let $\tau = (\beta_1, \alpha_1, \dots, \beta_\rho, \alpha_\rho)$ be the resulting transcript. (Each β_i is sent by the verifier, and each α_i is sent by the prover.) Let rnd_P and rnd_V be the random tapes used by the prover and the verifier, respectively.
3. Output (β, α) , where $\beta := ((r, \text{rnd}_P, \beta_1), \beta_2, \dots, \beta_\rho)$ and $\alpha := (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_\rho)$.

Algorithm $\text{Resp}(1^\lambda, x, w, (r, \text{rnd}_P, \beta_1), \beta_2, \dots, \beta_i)$:

1. Let $\hat{x} := (x, r)$ as in Chal and view w as a witness for $\hat{x} \in \widehat{\mathbf{L}}$.
2. Run the prover of $(\text{rSWI.P}, \text{rSWI.V})$ with prover input $(1^\lambda, \hat{x}, w)$, prover random tape rnd_P , and verifier messages β_1, \dots, β_i . Let $\tilde{\alpha}_i$ be the resulting prover next message.
3. Output $\tilde{\alpha}_i$.

Figure 2: Our predictable argument $\text{PA} = (\text{Chal}, \text{Resp})$.

Theorem 6 (restatement of [Theorem 2](#)). *Assume the existence of one-way functions. Then, if there exists a resetttable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for all languages in NP, there also exists a witness encryption scheme for all languages in NP.*

As stated in [Section 3.5](#), witness encryption schemes and predictable arguments are equivalent. Thus, to prove [Theorem 6](#), it suffices to prove the following.

Theorem 7. *Assume the existence of one-way functions. Then, if there exists a resetttable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for all languages in NP, there also exists a predictable argument for all languages in NP.*

5.1 Proof of [Theorem 7](#)

Proof. Fix any NP language \mathbf{L} , and assume the existence of resetttable statistical witness-indistinguishable arguments for all languages in NP. Our goal is to obtain a predictable argument for \mathbf{L} . Let PRG be any pseudorandom generator (whose existence is implied by the existence of one-way functions). For concreteness, we assume that PRG expands a λ -bit seed to a 2λ -bit pseudorandom string.

To obtain a predictable argument for \mathbf{L} , we use a resetttable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for a related NP language $\widehat{\mathbf{L}}$. Let \mathbf{L}_{PRG} be the NP language such that $\mathbf{L}_{\text{PRG}} := \{r \mid \exists s \in \{0, 1\}^\lambda \text{ s.t. } r = \text{PRG}(s)\}$. Then, the NP language $\widehat{\mathbf{L}}$ is defined as follows.

$$\widehat{\mathbf{L}} = \{(x, r) \mid x \in \mathbf{L} \vee r \in \mathbf{L}_{\text{PRG}}\}.$$

Let $\text{rSWI} = (\text{rSWI.P}, \text{rSWI.V})$ be a resetttable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for $\widehat{\mathbf{L}}$. Let ρ be the round complexity of rSWI. Without loss of generality, we assume that the verifier sends the first message in rSWI.

Our predictable argument $\text{PA} = (\text{Chal}, \text{Resp})$ for \mathbf{L} is given in [Figure 2](#). In what follows, we prove its completeness and soundness.

First, we prove the completeness of PA. From the construction of PA, it suffices to prove the following: When $(x, r) \in \widehat{\mathbf{L}}$ is chosen as in Chal, the resetttable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument $(\text{rSWI.P}, \text{rSWI.V})$ produces the same transcript when it is used with the same randomness and two different witnesses (one is a witness w for $x \in \mathbf{L}$ and the other is a witness s for $r \in \mathbf{L}_{\text{PRG}}$). Motivated by this observation, we consider the following lemma.

Lemma 1. Let \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{L}_{aux} be NP languages. For each $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, let $D_{\text{aux},\lambda}$ be a distribution over $\mathbf{L}_{\text{aux}} \cap \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)}$ that has negligible collision probability, i.e., $\Pr[x_0 = x_1 \mid x_0, x_1 \leftarrow D_{\text{aux},\lambda}] = \text{negl}(\lambda)$. Let (P, V) be any resettable statistical witness-indistinguishable argument for $\widehat{\mathbf{L}} := \{(x, x') \mid x \in \mathbf{L} \vee x' \in \mathbf{L}_{\text{aux}}\}$. Then, there exists a negligible function negl such that for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \in \mathbf{L}$, and $w \in \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}(x)$, it holds

$$\Pr \left[\tau_0 \neq \tau_1 \mid \begin{array}{l} x' \leftarrow D_{\text{aux},\lambda}; w' \leftarrow \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}_{\text{aux}}}(x'); \hat{x} := (x, x') \\ \text{Sample a random tape } \text{rnd}_P \text{ for } P \\ \text{Sample a random tape } \text{rnd}_V \text{ for } V \\ \tau_0 := \text{trans} [P(1^\lambda, \hat{x}, w; \text{rnd}_P) \leftrightarrow V(1^\lambda, \hat{x}; \text{rnd}_V)] \\ \tau_1 := \text{trans} [P(1^\lambda, \hat{x}, w'; \text{rnd}_P) \leftrightarrow V(1^\lambda, \hat{x}; \text{rnd}_V)] \end{array} \right] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

Given Lemma 1, we can prove the completeness of PA by observing that the sampling of $r \in \mathbf{L}_{\text{PRG}} \cap \{0,1\}^{2\lambda}$ in PA has negligible collision probability because of the pseudorandomness of PRG. The proof of Lemma 1 is given in Section 5.2.

Next, we prove the soundness of PA. Let us denote the verifier of PA by PA.V (which interacts with the prover by using Chal as described in Definition 8). Assume for contradiction that there exists a PPT cheating prover P^* and polynomials $\text{poly}, \text{poly}'$ such that for infinitely many $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, there exist $x \in \{0,1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)} \setminus \mathbf{L}$ and $z \in \{0,1\}^*$ such that

$$\Pr \left[\text{output}_V \left[P^*(1^\lambda, x, z) \leftrightarrow V(1^\lambda, x) \right] = 1 \right] \geq \frac{1}{\text{poly}'(\lambda)}. \quad (9)$$

Fix any such λ, x , and z . We derive a contradiction by using a hybrid argument to break the soundness of (rSWI.P, rSWI.V) in the last hybrid experiment. Concretely, we consider the following hybrid experiments.

- Hybrid H_0 is the real experiment, where PA.V interacts with P^* by using Chal. Concretely, the interaction proceeds as follows.
 1. PA.V samples $(\beta, \alpha) \leftarrow \text{Chal}(1^\lambda, x)$, where $\beta := ((r, \text{rnd}_P, \beta_1), \beta_2, \dots, \beta_\rho)$ and $\alpha := (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_\rho)$.
 2. PA.V sends $(r, \text{rnd}_P, \beta_1)$ to P^* and receives a reply $\tilde{\alpha}_1$ from P^* .
 3. For all $i \in \{2, \dots, \rho\}$ in increasing sequence, PA.V sends β_i to P^* and receives a reply $\tilde{\alpha}_i$ from P^* .
 4. PA.V outputs 1 if and only if $\tilde{\alpha}_i = \alpha_i$ for all $i \in [\rho]$.

From (9), PA.V outputs 1 with probability at least $1/\text{poly}'(\lambda)$.

- Hybrid H_1 differs from H_0 in that in Step 4, PA.V outputs 0 if $(\beta_1, \tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots, \beta_\rho, \tilde{\alpha}_\rho)$ is not an accepting transcript of (rSWI.P, rSWI.V).

In this hybrid, PA.V outputs 1 with probability at least $1/\text{poly}'(\lambda) - \text{negl}(\lambda)$ because of the completeness of (rSWI.P, rSWI.V). Indeed, when $\tilde{\alpha}_i = \alpha_i$ for all $i \in [\rho]$, the transcript $(\beta_1, \tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots, \beta_\rho, \tilde{\alpha}_\rho)$ is accepting with overwhelming probability since it is equal to the honest transcript $(\beta_1, \alpha_1, \dots, \beta_\rho, \alpha_\rho)$ that Chal generated using a valid witness for $\hat{x} \in \widehat{\mathbf{L}}$.

- Hybrid H_2 differs from H_1 in that in Steps 2, 3, and 4, each verifier message β_i is replaced with the message $\tilde{\beta}_i$ that is computed by running the verifier of (rSWI.P, rSWI.V) with verifier input $\hat{x} = (x, r)$, verifier random tape rnd_V , and prover messages $(\tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots, \tilde{\alpha}_{i-1})$, where rnd_V is the verifier random tape that was used in Chal to obtain $(\beta_1, \alpha_1, \dots, \beta_\rho, \alpha_\rho)$.

In this hybrid, PA.V still outputs 1 with probability at least $1/\text{poly}'(\lambda) - \text{negl}(\lambda)$ since each $\tilde{\beta}_i$ is equal to β_i when $\tilde{\alpha}_j = \alpha_j$ for every $j \in \{1, \dots, i-1\}$.

- Hybrid H_3 differs from H_2 in that in Step 4, PA.V no longer checks $\tilde{\alpha}_i \stackrel{?}{=} \alpha_i$ for any $i \in [\rho]$ and outputs 1 if and only if $(\tilde{\beta}_1, \tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots, \tilde{\beta}_\rho, \tilde{\alpha}_\rho)$ is an accepting transcript of (rSWI.P, rSWI.V).

In this hybrid, PA.V still outputs 1 with probability at least $1/\text{poly}'(\lambda) - \text{negl}(\lambda)$ since the success probability of P^* only increases in this hybrid.

- Hybrid H_4 differs from H_3 in that in Step 1, (i) Chal is no longer executed, (ii) rnd_P and rnd_V are sampled uniformly as in Chal, and (iii) r is sampled uniformly from $\{0, 1\}^{2\lambda}$. (That is, β and α are no longer generated, and r is truly random rather than pseudorandom.)

In this hybrid, PA.V outputs 1 with probability at least $1/\text{poly}'(\lambda) - \text{negl}'(\lambda)$ for a negligible function negl' because of the pseudorandomness of PRG.

We derive a contradiction by using H_4 to construct a successful cheating prover P_{rSWI}^* against the soundness of (rSWI.P, rSWI.V). In H_4 , we have $(x, r) \notin \widehat{\mathbf{L}}$ with overwhelming probability since $r \in \{0, 1\}^{2\lambda}$ is in the image of PRG with probability at most $1/2^\lambda$. Thus, from an average argument, we can fix r in H_4 in such a way that (i) $(x, r) \notin \widehat{\mathbf{L}}$ and (ii) with this fixed value, PA.V outputs 1 with non-negligible probability. For any such r , our cheating prover P_{rSWI}^* interacts with an honest verifier of (rSWI.P, rSWI.V) with statement (x, r) as follows.

P_{rSWI}^* internally invokes P^* and executes H_4 while forwarding the messages from the external verifier to P^* as $\tilde{\beta}_1, \dots, \tilde{\beta}_\rho$ and forwarding the messages $\tilde{\alpha}_1, \dots, \tilde{\alpha}_\rho$ from P^* to the external verifier.

From the construction, P_{rSWI}^* perfectly emulates H_4 for the internal P^* . Thus, P_{rSWI}^* makes the external verifier output 1 with non-negligible probability. Since $\hat{x} = (x, r) \notin \widehat{\mathbf{L}}$, we have derived a contradiction. \square

5.2 Proof of Lemma 1

Proof. Assume for contradiction that there exists a polynomial p such that for infinitely many $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$, there exist $x_{\mathbf{L}} \in \mathbf{L}$ and $w_{\mathbf{L}} \in \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}}(x_{\mathbf{L}})$ such that

$$\Pr \left[\begin{array}{l} \tau_0 \neq \tau_1 \\ \left. \begin{array}{l} x' \leftarrow D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}; w' \leftarrow \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}_{\text{aux}}}(x'); \hat{x} := (x_{\mathbf{L}}, x') \\ \text{Sample a random tape } \text{rnd}_P \text{ for } P \\ \text{Sample a random tape } \text{rnd}_V \text{ for } V \\ \tau_0 := \text{trans} [P(1^\lambda, \hat{x}, w_{\mathbf{L}}; \text{rnd}_P) \leftrightarrow V(1^\lambda, \hat{x}; \text{rnd}_V)] \\ \tau_1 := \text{trans} [P(1^\lambda, \hat{x}, w'; \text{rnd}_P) \leftrightarrow V(1^\lambda, \hat{x}; \text{rnd}_V)] \end{array} \right\} \end{array} \right] \geq \frac{1}{p(\lambda)}. \quad (10)$$

Fix any such $\lambda, x_{\mathbf{L}}, w_{\mathbf{L}}$. Let ℓ_P be the length of rnd_P and ℓ_V be the length of rnd_V . Let $t := 4p(\lambda) \cdot (\ell_P + \ell_V)$. For simplicity, we use the following notation below: $\tau(\hat{x}, w, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)$ denotes the transcript of (P, V) generated with statement \hat{x} , witness w , prover random tape rnd_P , and verifier random tape rnd_V . That is,

$$\tau(\hat{x}, w, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) := \text{trans} [P(1^\lambda, \hat{x}, w; \text{rnd}_P) \leftrightarrow V(1^\lambda, \hat{x}; \text{rnd}_V)].$$

Given this notation, we can write (10) as follows.

$$\Pr_{x', w', \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V} [\tau(\hat{x}, w_{\mathbf{L}}, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau(\hat{x}, w', \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)] \geq \frac{1}{p(\lambda)}, \quad (11)$$

where the probability is taken over $x' \leftarrow D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}$, $w' \leftarrow \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}_{\text{aux}}}(x')$, $\hat{x} := (x_{\mathbf{L}}, x')$, $\text{rnd}_P \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$, and $\text{rnd}_V \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_V}$.

We derive a contradiction by breaking the resettable statistical witness indistinguishability of (P, V) . In particular, we give a t -tuple of instances $(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_t)$ and two t -tuples of witnesses $(\hat{w}_1^{(0)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(0)})$, $(\hat{w}_1^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(1)})$ such that (i) each $\hat{w}_i^{(0)}$ and $\hat{w}_i^{(1)}$ are valid witnesses for $\hat{x}_i \in \widehat{\mathbf{L}}$ and (ii) we can easily design a cheating verifier and a distinguisher that break the resettable statistical witness indistinguishability of (P, V) w.r.t. these tuples.

5.2.1 Instances $(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_t)$.

We define $(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_t)$ so that the following holds: $\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_t$ are t distinct instances of $\widehat{\mathbf{L}} \cap \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)}$ such that for each \hat{x}_i , the probability in the left-hand side of (11) is at least $1/2p(\lambda)$ under the condition that $\hat{x} = \hat{x}_i$. Below, we observe that there indeed exist such t instances. In particular, we obtain such t instances with non-zero probability by sampling sufficiently many instances of \mathbf{L}_{aux} from $D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}$. For each x' in the support of $D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}$, let $\delta(x')$ denote the probability in the left-hand side of (11) with \hat{x} being fixed to $(x_{\mathbf{L}}, x')$. That is,

$$\delta(x') := \Pr_{w', \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V} [\tau((x_{\mathbf{L}}, x'), w_{\mathbf{L}}, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau((x_{\mathbf{L}}, x'), w', \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)].$$

From (11) and an average argument, we have

$$\Pr_{x' \leftarrow D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}} \left[\delta(x') \geq \frac{1}{2p(\lambda)} \right] \geq \frac{1}{2p(\lambda)}. \quad (12)$$

Let N be the random variable representing the number of samples that we need to obtain from $D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}$ to obtain an instance x' such that $\delta(x') \geq 1/2p(\lambda)$. Then, from (12), the expected number of samples that we need to obtain from $D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}$ to obtain t such instances is at most $t \cdot \mathbb{E}[N] \leq t \cdot 2p(\lambda)$. Therefore, from Markov's inequality, when we sample $2t \cdot 2p(\lambda)$ instances of \mathbf{L}_{aux} by $x'_i \leftarrow D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}$ for each $i \in [2t \cdot 2p(\lambda)]$, we have

$$\Pr_{\forall i \in [2t \cdot 2p(\lambda)]: x'_i \leftarrow D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}} \left[\left| \left\{ x'_i \text{ s.t. } \delta(x'_i) \geq \frac{1}{2p(\lambda)} \right\} \right| \geq t \right] \geq \frac{1}{2}. \quad (13)$$

Recalling that $D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}$ is assumed to satisfy $\Pr[x'_0 = x'_1 \mid x'_0, x'_1 \leftarrow D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}] = \text{negl}(\lambda)$, we obtain the following from (13).

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr_{\forall i \in [2t \cdot 2p(\lambda)]: x'_i \leftarrow D_{\text{aux}, \lambda}} \left[\left| \left\{ x'_i \text{ s.t. } \delta(x'_i) \geq \frac{1}{2p(\lambda)} \right\} \right| \geq t \wedge x'_i \neq x'_j \text{ for } \forall i \neq j \right] \\ & \geq \frac{1}{2} - (2t \cdot 2p(\lambda))^2 \cdot \text{negl}(\lambda) > 0. \end{aligned}$$

That is, with non-zero probability, we obtain distinct t instances $x'_{i_1}, \dots, x'_{i_t} \in \mathbf{L}_{\text{aux}} \cap \{0, 1\}^{\text{poly}(\lambda)}$ such that $\delta(x'_{i_j}) \geq 1/2p(\lambda)$ for every $j \in [t]$. By fixing any such $x'_{i_1}, \dots, x'_{i_t}$ and defining the t -tuple $(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_t)$ by $\hat{x}_j := (x_{\mathbf{L}}, x'_{i_j})$ for every $j \in [t]$, we can guarantee that the t -tuple $(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_t)$ satisfies the desired requirement.

5.2.2 Witnesses $(\hat{w}_1^{(0)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(0)})$.

Each $\hat{w}_i^{(0)}$ is an arbitrary witness for $\hat{x}_i \in \hat{\mathbf{L}}$.

5.2.3 Witnesses $(\hat{w}_1^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(1)})$.

We define $(\hat{w}_1^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(1)})$ so that the following holds w.r.t. the above-defined $(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_t)$ and $(\hat{w}_1^{(0)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(0)})$.

Requirement 1. When sampling $\text{rnd}_P^{(1)} \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$ and $\text{rnd}_V \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_V}$, we have

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V} \left[\begin{array}{l} \nexists \text{rnd}_P^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in [t]: \\ \tau(\hat{x}_i, \hat{w}_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau(\hat{x}_i, \hat{w}_i^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_V) \end{array} \right] \geq \frac{1 - 2^{-\lambda}}{4p(\lambda)}.$$

That is, the requirement is that when we generate t transcripts of (P, V) by using witnesses $(\hat{w}_1^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(1)})$ and (common) uniform randomness, with non-negligible probability they cannot be “explained” as being generated with witnesses $(\hat{w}_1^{(0)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(0)})$. Later, we use this requirement to design a distinguisher that breaks the resettable statistical witness indistinguishability of (P, V) . (Essentially, the distinguisher checks whether the given t transcripts can be explained as being generated with $(\hat{w}_1^{(0)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(0)})$.) In what follows, we observe that there indeed exist t witnesses satisfying this requirement.

Before defining $(\hat{w}_1^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(1)})$, we make a preliminary observation. Roughly speaking, we observe that there are t witnesses w'_1, \dots, w'_t for $x'_1, \dots, x'_t \in \mathbf{L}_{\text{aux}}$ such that when sampling uniform random tapes rnd_P and rnd_V , the transcript generated with $w_{\mathbf{L}}$ and that generated with w'_i disagree at sufficiently many i 's. Concretely, we observe the following. Recall that the t -tuple of instances $(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_t)$ are defined so that for each $\hat{x}_i = (x_{\mathbf{L}}, x'_i)$, we have the following when sampling $w' \leftarrow \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}_{\text{aux}}}(x')$, $\text{rnd}_P \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$, and $\text{rnd}_V \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_V}$.

$$\Pr_{w', \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V} \left[\tau(\hat{x}_i, w_{\mathbf{L}}, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau(\hat{x}_i, w', \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \geq \frac{1}{2p(\lambda)}.$$

From an average argument, for each $\hat{x}_i = (x_{\mathbf{L}}, x'_i)$, there exists $w'_i \in \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{L}_{\text{aux}}}(x'_i)$ for which the above holds, i.e.,

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V} \left[\tau(\hat{x}_i, w_{\mathbf{L}}, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau(\hat{x}_i, w'_i, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \geq \frac{1}{2p(\lambda)}. \quad (14)$$

For each $i \in [t]$, fix any w'_i satisfying (14). For each $i \in [t]$, $\text{rnd}_P \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$, and $\text{rnd}_V \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_V}$, let $\tau_{0,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)$ and $\tau_{1,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)$ be the transcripts defined as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_{0,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) &:= \tau(\hat{x}_i, w_{\mathbf{L}}, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V). \\ \tau_{1,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) &:= \tau(\hat{x}_i, w'_i, \text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V).\end{aligned}$$

Then, from (14) and the linearity of expectation, we have the following when sampling $\text{rnd}_P \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$ and $\text{rnd}_V \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_V}$.

$$\begin{aligned}& \mathbb{E}_{\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V} [|\{i \in [t] \text{ s.t. } \tau_{0,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau_{1,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)\}|] \\ &= \sum_{i \in [t]} \Pr_{\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V} [\tau_{0,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau_{1,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)] \\ &\geq \frac{t}{2p(\lambda)}.\end{aligned}\tag{15}$$

Thus, as stated at the beginning of this paragraph, a random transcript generated with $w_{\mathbf{L}}$ and that generated with w'_i disagree at many i 's.

We proceed to define $(\hat{w}_1^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(1)})$. From (15) and an average argument, with probability at least $1/4p(\lambda)$ over the choice of $\text{rnd}_P \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$ and $\text{rnd}_V \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_V}$, we have

$$|\{i \in [t] \text{ s.t. } \tau_{0,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau_{1,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)\}| \geq \frac{t}{4p(\lambda)} = \ell_P + \lambda.\tag{16}$$

Note that for any $\text{rnd}_P \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$ and $\text{rnd}_V \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_V}$ satisfying (16), we have

$$\begin{aligned}& \Pr_{\forall i \in [t]: b_i \leftarrow \{0,1\}} \left[\exists \text{rnd}_P^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in [t] : \right. \\ & \quad \left. \tau(\hat{x}_i, \hat{w}_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau_{b_i,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \\ &\leq \sum_{\text{rnd}_P^{(0)} \in \{0,1\}^{\ell_P}} \Pr_{\forall i \in [t]: b_i \leftarrow \{0,1\}} \left[\forall i \in [t] : \right. \\ & \quad \left. \tau(\hat{x}_i, \hat{w}_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau_{b_i,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \\ &\leq 2^{\ell_P} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{\ell_P + \lambda}} = \frac{1}{2^\lambda}.\end{aligned}\tag{17}$$

(The first inequality follows from the union bound. The second inequality follows from (16) since for any i such that $\tau_{0,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau_{1,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)$, at least one of these two transcripts disagrees with $\tau(\hat{x}_i, \hat{w}_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V)$.) Recalling that we have (16) with probability at least $1/4p(\lambda)$ over the choice of rnd_P and rnd_V , we obtain the following from (17): When sampling $\text{rnd}_P \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$, $\text{rnd}_V \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_V}$, and $b_i \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$ for every $i \in [t]$, we have

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V, b_1, \dots, b_t} \left[\nexists \text{rnd}_P^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in [t] : \right. \\ \left. \tau(\hat{x}_i, \hat{w}_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau_{b_i,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \geq \frac{1 - 2^{-\lambda}}{4p(\lambda)}.\tag{18}$$

From an average argument, we can fix $b_1, \dots, b_t \in \{0, 1\}$ in (18) so that when sampling $\text{rnd}_P \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$ and $\text{rnd}_V \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_V}$, we have

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V} \left[\nexists \text{rnd}_P^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in [t] : \right. \\ \left. \tau(\hat{x}_i, \hat{w}_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) \neq \tau_{b_i,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V) \right] \geq \frac{1 - 2^{-\lambda}}{4p(\lambda)}.\tag{19}$$

Let us define $(\hat{w}_1^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(1)})$ by $\hat{w}_i^{(1)} := w_{\mathbf{L}}$ when $b_i = 0$ and $\hat{w}_i^{(1)} := w'_i$ when $b_i = 1$ for each $i \in [t]$. Then, recalling the definitions of $\tau_{0,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)$ and $\tau_{1,i}(\text{rnd}_P, \text{rnd}_V)$, we can see from (19) that the t -tuple $(\hat{w}_1^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(1)})$ satisfies [Requirement 1](#) as desired.

5.2.4 Deriving a contradiction.

We are ready to derive a contradiction. Consider the following verifier and distinguisher against the resettable statistical witness indistinguishability of (P, V) .

Verifier V^* . Recall that V^* interacts with deterministic prover strategies $P^{(1)}, \dots, P^{(t)}$ that are defined by $P^{(i)}(\alpha) = P(1^\lambda, \hat{x}_i, \hat{w}_i^{(b)}, \alpha; \text{rnd}_P)$ for each $i \in [t]$. (The prover random tape rnd_P and the choice b are unknown to V^* .)

V^* takes $z = ((\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_t), (\hat{w}_1^{(0)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(0)}), (\hat{w}_1^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(1)}))$ as non-uniform input. V^* uniformly samples a random tape $\text{rnd}_V \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_V}$ for the honest verifier strategy V and interacts with each $P^{(i)}$ by using V with statement \hat{x}_i and random tape rnd_V . Let τ_1, \dots, τ_t be the t resulting transcripts. Then, V^* outputs $(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_t, \text{rnd}_V, z)$.

Distinguisher D . D takes as input the verifier output $(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_t, \text{rnd}_V, z)$. Then, D checks by brute force whether there exists $\text{rnd}_P^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$ such that $\tau(\hat{x}_i, \hat{w}_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau_i$ for every $i \in [t]$. If such $\text{rnd}_P^{(0)}$ exists, D outputs 0. Otherwise, D outputs 1.

Let us analyze the success probability of D . When the deterministic prover strategies $P^{(1)}, \dots, P^{(t)}$ use $(\hat{w}_1^{(0)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(0)})$, the distinguisher D never output 1 since there always exists $\text{rnd}_P^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_P}$ such that $\tau(\hat{x}_i, \hat{w}_i^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_P^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_V) = \tau_i$ for every $i \in [t]$. When the deterministic prover strategies $P^{(1)}, \dots, P^{(t)}$ use $(\hat{w}_1^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{w}_t^{(1)})$, the distinguisher D outputs 1 with non-negligible probability because of [Requirement 1](#). Thus, V^* and D successfully break the resettable statistical witness indistinguishability of (P, V) . Therefore, we have derived a contradiction. \square

6 Impossibility of Resettable Statistically Hiding Commitment

This section shows the impossibility of resettable statistically hiding commitment schemes.

Theorem 8. *There does not exist any statistically hiding commitment scheme.*

Proof. Fix any computationally binding commitment scheme (C, R) . We show that (C, R) cannot be resettable statistically hiding. Let $\ell_C(\lambda)$ denote the length of the committer random tape and $\ell_R(\lambda)$ denote the length of the receiver randomness. Consider the following cheating receiver and distinguisher against the resettable statistical hiding of (C, R) .

Receiver R^* . Recall that R^* is allowed to interact with deterministic committer strategy C_b polynomially many times, where C_b is defined by $C_b(\alpha) = C(1^\lambda, b, \alpha; \text{rnd}_C)$. (The private input b and the committer random tape rnd_C are unknown to R^* .) Let $t(\lambda) := \ell_C(\lambda) + \lambda$.

For each $i \in [t(\lambda)]$ in sequence, R^* samples a random tape rnd_i for the honest receiver strategy R and interacts with C_b by using R with random tape rnd_i . Let $\tau_1, \dots, \tau_{t(\lambda)}$ be the $t(\lambda)$ resulting transcripts. Then, R^* outputs $(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_{t(\lambda)}, \text{rnd}_1, \dots, \text{rnd}_{t(\lambda)})$.

Distinguisher D . D takes the receiver output $(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_{t(\lambda)}, \text{rnd}_1, \dots, \text{rnd}_{t(\lambda)})$ as input. Then, D checks by brute force whether there exists $\text{rnd}_C^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C(\lambda)}$ such that for every $i \in [t(\lambda)]$, it holds $\text{trans}[C(1^\lambda, 0; \text{rnd}_C^{(0)}) \leftrightarrow R(1^\lambda; \text{rnd}_i)] = \tau_i$. If such $\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}$ exists, D outputs 0. Otherwise, D outputs 1.

Let us analyze R^* and D . Fix any $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. For any $b \in \{0, 1\}$, $\text{rnd}_C \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C(\lambda)}$, and $\text{rnd}_R \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_R(\lambda)}$, let $\tau_b(\text{rnd}_C, \text{rnd}_R)$ be defined by

$$\tau_b(\text{rnd}_C, \text{rnd}_R) := \text{trans}[C(1^\lambda, b; \text{rnd}_C) \leftrightarrow R(1^\lambda; \text{rnd}_R)].$$

To show that R^* and D indeed break the resettable statistical hiding of (C, R) , it suffices to show the following for every $\text{rnd}_C^{(1)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C(\lambda)}$.

$$\Pr_{\forall i \in [t(\lambda)]: \text{rnd}_i \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell_R(\lambda)}} \left[\begin{array}{l} \exists \text{rnd}_C^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C(\lambda)} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in [t(\lambda)] : \\ \tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_i) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_i) \end{array} \right] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda). \quad (20)$$

(Indeed, if we have (20), the distinguisher D outputs 0 with negligible probability when $b = 1$ while it outputs 0 with probability 1 when $b = 0$.) Thus, we focus on showing (20). For any $\text{rnd}_C^{(1)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C(\lambda)}$, we use the union bound to obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
& \Pr_{\forall i \in [t(\lambda)]: \text{rnd}_i \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{\ell_R(\lambda)}} \left[\begin{array}{l} \exists \text{rnd}_C^{(0)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C(\lambda)} \text{ s.t. } \forall i \in [t(\lambda)] : \\ \tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_i) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_i) \end{array} \right] \\
& \leq \sum_{\text{rnd}_C^{(0)} \in \{0,1\}^{\ell_C(\lambda)}} \Pr_{\forall i \in [t(\lambda)]: \text{rnd}_i \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{\ell_R(\lambda)}} \left[\begin{array}{l} \forall i \in [t(\lambda)] : \\ \tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_i) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}_i) \end{array} \right] \\
& \leq \sum_{\text{rnd}_C^{(0)} \in \{0,1\}^{\ell_C(\lambda)}} \left(\Pr_{\text{rnd} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{\ell_R(\lambda)}} \left[\tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}) \right] \right)^{t(\lambda)}. \tag{21}
\end{aligned}$$

Note that from the computational binding of (C, R) (which we assume to hold against non-uniform adversaries), we have the following for every $\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}_C^{(1)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_C(\lambda)}$.

$$\Pr_{\text{rnd} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{\ell_R(\lambda)}} \left[\tau_0(\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}, \text{rnd}) = \tau_1(\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}, \text{rnd}) \right] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda) \leq \frac{1}{2}. \tag{22}$$

(Indeed, if the above does not hold, a non-uniform cheating committer can break the binding property of (C, R) by committing to 0 using $\text{rnd}_C^{(0)}$ and opening it to 1 using $\text{rnd}_C^{(1)}$.) By combining (21) and (22) while recalling $t(\lambda) = \ell_C(\lambda) + \lambda$, we obtain (20) as desired. \square

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