

Group Signatures without NIZK: From Lattices in the Standard Model

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Abstract. In a group signature scheme, users can anonymously sign messages on behalf of the group they belong to, yet it is possible to trace the signer when needed. Since the first proposal of lattice-based group signatures in the random oracle model by Gordon, Katz, and Vaikuntanathan (ASIACRYPT 2010), the realization of them in the standard model from lattices has attracted much research interest, however, it has remained unsolved. In this paper, we make progress on this problem by giving the first such construction. Our schemes satisfy CCA-selfless anonymity and full traceability, which are the standard security requirements for group signatures proposed by Bellare, Micciancio, and Warinschi (EUROCRYPT 2003) with a slight relaxation in the anonymity requirement suggested by Camenisch and Groth (SCN 2004). We emphasize that even with this relaxed anonymity requirement, all previous group signature constructions rely on random oracles or NIZKs, where currently NIZKs are not known to be implied from lattice-based assumptions. We propose two constructions that provide tradeoffs regarding the security assumption and efficiency:

- Our first construction is proven secure assuming the standard LWE and the SIS assumption. The sizes of the public parameters and the signatures grow linearly in the number of users in the system.
- Our second construction is proven secure assuming the standard LWE and the subexponential hardness of the SIS problem. The sizes of the public parameters and the signatures are independent of the number of users in the system.

Technically, we obtain the above schemes by combining a secret key encryption scheme with additional properties and a special type of attribute-based signature (ABS) scheme, thus bypassing the utilization of NIZKs. More specifically, we introduce the notion of *indexed* ABS, which is a relaxation of standard ABS. The above two schemes are obtained by instantiating the indexed ABS with different constructions. One is a direct construction we propose and the other is based on previous work.

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1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Group signatures, originally proposed by Chaum and van Heyst [Cv91], allow members of a group to sign on behalf of the group while guaranteeing the properties of authenticity, anonymity, and traceability. The signatures do not reveal the particular identity of the group member who issued it, however, should the need arise, a special entity called the group manager can trace the signature back to the signer using some secret information, thus holding the group members accountable for their signatures. Due to the appealing properties group signatures offer, they have proven to be useful in many real-life applications including privacy-protecting mechanisms, anonymous online communication, e-commerce systems, and trusted hardware attestation such as Intel’s SGX.

Since their introduction, numerous constructions of group signatures have been proposed with different flavors: in the random oracle model [BBS04,CL04,GKV10] or standard model [BMW03,BW06,Gro07], supporting static groups [BMW03] or dynamic groups [BSZ05,BCC⁺16], and constructions based on various number theoretical assumptions such as strong RSA [ACJT00,CL02], pairing-based [BW06,Gro07], and lattice-based [GKV10,LLLS13]. Despite the vast amount of research concerning group signatures, in essence all constructions follow the *encrypt-then-prove* paradigm presented by Bellare, Micciancio, and Warinschi [BMW03]. To sign on a message, a group member encrypts its certificate provided by the group manager and then proves in (non-interactive) zero-knowledge of the fact that the ciphertext is an encryption of a valid certificate while also binding the message to the zero-knowledge proof.

Thus far, all group signature schemes have relied on non-interactive zero-knowledge (NIZK) proofs in the proving stage of the encrypt-then-prove paradigm. Since NIZKs for general languages are implied from (certified doubly enhanced) trapdoor permutations [FLS90,BY93] and from bilinear maps [GOS06,GS08], group signatures in the standard model are known to exist from factoring-based and pairing-based assumptions [BMW03,BW06,BW07,Gro07]. In contrast, constructions of lattice-based group signatures in the standard model have shown to be considerably difficult. Since the first lattice-based group signature in the random oracle model (ROM) proposed by Gordon et al. [GKV10], there has been a rich line of subsequent works [LLLS13,NZZ15,LNW15,LLM⁺16a,LLNW16,LNWX18,PLS18], however, all schemes are only provably secure in the ROM. This situation stems from the notorious fact that lattices are ill-fit with NIZKs. Although more than a decade has passed since the emergence of lattices, there is still only one construction of NIZK known in the standard model [PV08], where the language supported by [PV08] seems unsuitable to devise group signatures. Notably, the open problem of constructing lattice-based group signatures in the standard model, which has explicitly been stated in Laguillaumie et al. [LLLS13] for example, has not made any progress in the past decade or so. Taking prior works on group sig-

natures into consideration, it seems we would require a breakthrough result for lattice-based NIZKs or to come up with a different approach than the encrypt-then-prove paradigm to obtain a lattice-based group signature in the standard model.

1.2 Our Contribution

In this paper, we make progress on this problem and give the first construction of group signatures from lattices in the standard model. Our main result can be stated informally as follows:

Theorem 1 (Informal). *Under the hardness of the LWE and SIS problems with polynomial approximation factors,³ there exists a group signature scheme with full-traceability and CCA-selfless anonymity in the standard model.*

We explain the statement in more details in the following. Here, we basically adopt the syntax and the security notions of the group signatures defined by Bellare, Micciancio, and Warinschi [BMW03], which are presumably one of the most widely accepted definitions. Our construction satisfies the standard notion of full-traceability, which asserts that an adversary cannot forge a valid signature that can be opened to an uncorrupted user or that cannot be traced to anyone. As for anonymity, our construction satisfies CCA-selfless anonymity introduced by Camenisch and Groth [CG05]. The notion of CCA-selfless anonymity is a relaxation of CCA-full anonymity defined by Bellare et al. [BMW03]. Informally, full-anonymity requires that the adversary cannot distinguish signatures from two different members even if *all the signing keys of the members of the system are exposed* and it has access to an open oracle. On the other hand, CCA-selfless anonymity requires anonymity to hold only when *the signing keys of the two members in question are not exposed* and it has access to an open oracle. While the latter definition is weaker, as discussed by Camenisch and Groth [CG05], it is sufficient for some natural situations. For example, consider a situation where an adversary can adaptively corrupt users while the parties cannot erase the data. In this setting, the former security notion does not buy any more security than the latter. We emphasize that even with this relaxed security notion, no group signature from lattices is known in the standard model prior to our work. In particular, regardless of what the security notion we consider for anonymity, all prior lattice-based constructions required random oracles.

One potential drawback of the above construction may be that it has rather large public parameters and signatures, whose sizes grow linearly in the number of users in the system. A natural question would be whether we can make these sizes independent of the number of users. As a side contribution, we answer this question affirmatively under a stronger assumption:

³ By LWE and SIS problems with polynomial approximation factors, we mean they are problems which are as hard as certain worst case lattice problems with polynomial approximation factor.

Theorem 2 (Informal). *Under the hardness of the LWE problem with polynomial approximation factors and the subexponential hardness of the SIS problem with polynomial approximation factors, there exists a group signature scheme with full-traceability and CCA-selfless anonymity whose sizes of the public parameters and signatures are independent of the number of users.*

These results are obtained by a generic construction of group signatures from one-time signatures (OTS), secret key encryptions (SKE), and a new primitive which we call *indexed attribute-based signatures* (indexed ABS). We require the standard notion of strong unforgeability for the OTS and it can be instantiated by any existing schemes such as [Moh11]. For the SKE, we require some special properties. Specifically, we require the SKE to be anonymous in addition to standard notions of hiding the message. We also require the SKE to have a decryption circuit with logarithmic depth and the property which we call key-robustness. Intuitively speaking, the key-robustness requires that the ciphertext spaces corresponding to two random secret keys to be disjoint with all but negligible probability. Such an SKE with special properties can be instantiated from the standard LWE assumption. The indexed ABS is a relaxation of the standard notion of ABS, where the setup and key generation algorithms take additional inputs. We require it to satisfy the security notion that we call co-selective unforgeability and (perfect) privacy. We show two ways of instantiating the indexed ABS. As for the first instantiation, we provide a construction of an indexed ABS that is proven to have the required security properties under the standard hardness of the SIS assumption. This instantiation leads us to Theorem 1. As for the second instantiation, we view the constrained signature scheme by Tsabary [Tsa17] as an indexed ABS scheme. Using this we obtain Theorem 2. We note that unlike our first instantiation, since the constrained signature scheme in [Tsa17] does not offer sufficient security properties for our purpose, we need to utilize complexity leveraging that incurs a subexponential reduction loss to when constructing our group signature.

1.3 Overview of Our Technique

Preprocessing NIZKs. The starting point of our work is the recent breakthrough result of *preprocessing* NIZK for \mathbf{NP} from lattices in the standard model by Kim and Wu [KW18]. In a preprocessing NIZK [DMP88], a trusted third party generates a proving key k_P and a verification key k_V independently of the statement to be proven and provides k_P to the prover and k_V to the verifier. The prover can construct proofs using k_P and the verifier can validate the proofs using k_V . Preprocessing NIZKs can be seen as a general form of NIZKs; if both k_P and k_V need not be secret, then it corresponds to NIZKs in the common reference string (CRS) model; if k_P can be public but k_V needs to be secret, then it corresponds to designated verifier NIZKs [PsV06,DFN06]. The lattice-based preprocessing NIZK of Kim and Wu [KW18] can be viewed as a *designated prover* NIZK (DP-NIZK), where the proving key k_P needs to be kept secret but the

verification key k_V can be made public.⁴ Here, the zero-knowledge property of DP-NIZKs crucially relies on the fact that the verifier does not know the proving key k_P .

At first glance, DP-NIZKs seem to be all that we require to construct group signatures. The trusted group manager provides the user a (secret) proving key k_P on time of joining the group and publicly publishes the verification key k_V . This meets the criteria of DP-NIZKs since k_P will be kept secret by the group members and the proofs (i.e., signatures) can be publicly verified. Therefore, one might be tempted to substitute NIZKs in the CRS model with lattice-based DP-NIZKs to obtain a lattice-based group signature in the standard model. Unfortunately, this naive approach is trivially insecure. Specifically, the anonymity will be broken the moment a single group member becomes corrupt. If the group manager provides the same proving key k_P to the group members, then in case any of the group members become corrupt, k_P will be in the hands of the adversary. As we mentioned above, the zero-knowledge property of DP-NIZKs will break if the proving key k_P is known. An easy fix may be to instead provide proving keys $(k_{P_i})_{i \in I}$ respectively to each group members $i \in I$ and publicly publish the corresponding verification keys $(k_{V_i})_{i \in I}$. In this case, even if some of the group members become corrupt, their proving keys will not affect the zero-knowledge property of the other non-corrupt members using an independent proving key. However, the problem with this approach is that each proof constructed by a proving key k_{P_i} is implicitly associated with a unique verification key k_{V_i} . Since each verification key k_{V_i} is associated to a group member $i \in I$, the adversary can simply check which verification key accepts the proof (i.e., signature) to break anonymity. Therefore, although DP-NIZKs seem to be somewhat useful for constructing group signatures, it itself is not sufficient to be a substitute for NIZKs in the CRS model.

Viewing Attribute-Based Signatures as DP-NIZKs. The problem with the approach using DP-NIZKs is the following: if we give the same proving key k_P to every group member, then the scheme will be insecure against collusion attacks and if we give different proving keys k_{P_i} individually to each group members, then the scheme will lose anonymity. Therefore, the primitive we require for constructing group signatures is something akin to DP-NIZKs that additionally provides us with both collusion resistance and anonymity.

At this point, we would like to draw the attention to attribute-based signatures (ABS) [MPR11]. In ABS, a signer assigned with an attribute \mathbf{y} is provided a signing key $\mathbf{sk}_{\mathbf{y}}$ from the authority and the signer can anonymously sign a message associated with a policy C using $\mathbf{sk}_{\mathbf{y}}$ if and only if $C(\mathbf{y}) = 1$. In addition, using the master public key \mathbf{mpk} , anybody can verify the signature regardless of who signed it. The first requirement of an ABS, which captures unforgeability, is that any collusion of signers with attributes $(\mathbf{y}_i)_{i \in I}$ cannot forge a signature on a message associated with a policy C if $C(\mathbf{y}_i) = 0$ for all $i \in I$. The sec-

⁴ As mentioned in Section 4 of [KW18], their scheme is only publicly verifiable when considering a slightly weaker notion of zero-knowledge than the standard notion of zero-knowledge for preprocessing NIZKs. In our work, the weaker notion suffices.

ond requirement, which captures anonymity, is that given a valid signature on a message associated with a policy C , the attribute \mathbf{y} that was used to sign the message must remain anonymous. Namely, signatures generated by $\text{sk}_{\mathbf{y}_0}$ and $\text{sk}_{\mathbf{y}_1}$ are indistinguishable if $C(\mathbf{y}_0) = C(\mathbf{y}_1) = 1$. Looking at the similarity between DP-NIZKs and ABS, it is tempting to view a witness \mathbf{w} as an attribute \mathbf{y} and to set the proving key k_P as the ABS signing key $\text{sk}_{\mathbf{w}}$. To prove that \mathbf{w} is a valid witness to the statement \mathbf{x} , i.e., $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathcal{R}$ for the **NP** relation \mathcal{R} , the prover first prepares a circuit $C_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{w}) := \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$ that has the statement \mathbf{x} hard-wired to it. Then the prover signs some message associated with the policy $C_{\mathbf{x}}$ using its proving key $k_P = \text{sk}_{\mathbf{w}}$ and outputs the signature as the proof π . The verifier can publicly verify the proof π by checking whether or not the signature is valid. At a high level, the soundness of the proof system would follow from the unforgeability of ABS and the zero-knowledge property would follow from the anonymity of ABS. Furthermore, our initial motivation of satisfying collusion resistance and anonymity is met by the properties of ABS; even if the proving keys $(k_{P_i} = \text{sk}_{\mathbf{w}_i})_{i \in I}$ are compromised, it cannot be used to prove a statement \mathbf{x} such that $\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}_i) = 0$ for all $i \in I$ and the proofs constructed by different proving keys are indistinguishable from one another since the single mpk can be used to check the validity of all proofs (unlike the above case where unique verification keys k_{V_i} were assigned to each proving keys k_{P_i}).

Constructing Groups Signatures from ABS. While the idea of viewing ABS as some variant of DP-NIZK seems to be a great step forward, the question of how to use it to construct a group signature remains. Let us come back to the basic but powerful encrypt-then-prove paradigm of Bellare et al. [BMW03]. Recall that with this approach, the group manager issues a certificate to each group member $i \in I$ and publishes a public key for a public-key encryption scheme. To sign, a group member i encrypts its certificate as ct_i under the public key of the group manager and creates a NIZK proof of the fact that ct_i encrypts the certificate. Observe that each group member i implicitly constructs a member-specific statement $\mathbf{x}_i = \text{ct}_i$ when generating the NIZK proof and sets the pair of certificate and the randomness used to create ct_i as the witness \mathbf{w}_i . Traceability follows since each statement \mathbf{x}_i encrypts the identity of the signer and the group manager who holds the secret key can decrypt them. Anonymity of the group signature is also intact even though the statement \mathbf{x}_i used by each group member is different, due to the semantic security of the underlying public-key encryption scheme. Now, let us look at the above approach through the lens of NIZK-like ABSs: The group manager issues a certificate *and an ABS signing key* $\text{sk}_{\mathbf{w}_i}$ for some witness \mathbf{w}_i to each group member $i \in I$, and to sign, a group member i encrypts its certificate as ct_i under the public key of the group manager and uses the ABS signing key $\text{sk}_{\mathbf{w}_i}$ to *create an ABS signature for some policy* $C_{\mathbf{x}_i}$ which serves as a NIZK proof of the fact that ct_i encrypts the certificate. In order for this approach to work, the witness (i.e., attribute) embedded to the ABS signing key $\text{sk}_{\mathbf{w}_i}$ must be an accepting input to the policy $C_{\mathbf{x}_i}$ which has the statement $\mathbf{x}_i = \text{ct}_i$ hard-wired. Although it may be not obvious at first glance, as a matter of fact, this approach is impossible! Notably, the group manager

cannot prepare in advance a witness \mathbf{w}_i to a statement \mathbf{x}_i that will be chosen by the group member at the time of signing. Recall that the witness \mathbf{w}_i to $\mathbf{x}_i = \text{ct}_i$ was the certificate *and* the randomness used to create ct_i . The group manager can embed in the ABS signing key a certificate but not the randomness since there is no way to not know what kind of randomness will be used to generate the ciphertext by the group member beforehand. Therefore, to use the ABS as a type of NIZK proof system, we must devise a mechanism for constructing statements \mathbf{x}_i while keeping the witness \mathbf{w}_i fixed once and for all at the time of preparation of the ABS signing key.

This brings us to our final idea. To overcome the above problem, we embed the group member identifier $i \in I$ and a key K_i of a *secret key encryption* scheme to the ABS signing key $\text{sk}_{i||K_i}$. We then construct the statements \mathbf{x}_i so that i and K_i can be reused as the fixed witness.⁵ The following is the high-level construction of our group signature.

- GS.KeyGen: The group manager provides user $i \in I$ with a key K_i of an SKE scheme and an ABS signing key $\text{sk}_{i||K_i}$ where the string $i||K_i$ is interpreted as an attribute.
- GS.Sign: To sign on a message M , the group member $i \in I$ prepares a ciphertext $\text{ct}_i \leftarrow \text{SKE.Enc}(K_i, i)$, views the statement \mathbf{x}_i as ct_i , and prepares a circuit $C_{\mathbf{x}_i}$ with the statement \mathbf{x}_i hard-wired such that $C_{\mathbf{x}_i}(i||K_i) := (i \in I) \wedge (i = \text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct}_i))$. Then using $\text{sk}_{i||K_i}$, it runs the ABS signing algorithm on message M with $C_{\mathbf{x}_i}$ as the policy. The signature is $\Sigma = (\sigma_{\text{ABS}}, \text{ct}_i)$.
- GS.Vrfy: To verify a signature $\Sigma = (\sigma_{\text{ABS}}, \text{ct})$, it prepares the circuit $C_{\text{ct}}(z||y) := (z \in I) \wedge (z = \text{SKE.Dec}(y, \text{ct}))$ and runs the ABS verification algorithm with message M , signature σ_{ABS} and policy C_{ct} .
- GS.Open: To trace a signer from a signature $\Sigma = (\sigma_{\text{ABS}}, \text{ct})$, the group manager uses the secret keys $(K_i)_{i \in I}$ to extract the group member identifier from the ciphertext ct .

It can be checked that the scheme is correct. If the ciphertext ct_i encrypts $i \in I$, then $\text{sk}_{i||K_i}$ can be used to construct a signature for the policy $C_{\mathbf{x}_i}$ where $\mathbf{x}_i = \text{ct}_i$. We briefly sketch the traceability and anonymity of our group signature. First, traceability holds from the key robustness of the SKE scheme and the unforgeability of the ABS scheme. The former property states that the ciphertext space of a different set of secret keys must be disjoint. In particular, this implies that the set of statements $\mathbf{x}_i = \text{ct}_i$ (i.e., languages) constructed by each group member will be disjoint. Therefore, since this also implies that the set of policies $C_{\mathbf{x}_i}$ used by each group members will be disjoint, it allows us to reduce the problem of traceability to the unforgeability of the underlying ABS scheme. We note that although key robustness may be a non-standard property to consider for SKE schemes, it is an easy property to satisfy. Second, anonymity holds from

⁵ Our core idea of fixing the witness can also be realized by instead embedding $i \in I$ and a (weak) PRF seed into the ABS signing key, and using a *public key* encryption scheme. We provide detailed discussions on our choice of using SKEs in the full version.

the anonymity and semantic security of the SKE scheme and the anonymity of the ABS scheme. Here, anonymity of an SKE scheme informally states that the ciphertext does not leak what secret key was used to construct it. Specifically, if there were two ciphertexts, it must be difficult to tell whether they are an encryption under the same key or two different keys. These two properties allow us to argue that the ciphertext ct_i leaks no information of the group member identity. Furthermore, the anonymity of the ABS scheme ensures that σ_{ABS} does not leak the group member identity as well. Hence the signature $\sigma = (\sigma_{\text{ABS}}, \text{ct}_i)$ remains anonymous.

Interestingly, our construction does not need to explicitly rely on “certificates” anymore as was done in prior constructions. This is because the signing key $\text{sk}_i \parallel \kappa_i$ is not only a proving key for the NIZK proof system, but also implicitly a certificate. In particular, since the ABS can be viewed as a variant of *designated prover* NIZKs, the fact that a signer was able to construct a valid signature implicitly implies that the signer was certified by the group manager. Therefore, there is no need for adding another layer of certificate to our construction as was done in previous group signature constructions. Finally, we point out in advance that our actual construction in Section 4 is more complicated than the above high-level structure due to the fact that we additionally capture CCA anonymity rather than only CPA anonymity. In CCA anonymity, the adversary is further provided with an open oracle that opens (i.e., traces) a signature to a signer. Since in the security proof, the reduction algorithm will no longer hold the opening key and must simulate the open oracle on its own, extra complications are incurred compared to the CPA anonymity setting where there is no such open oracle. This situation is analogous to the difference between CPA and CCA-encryption schemes.

To the knowledgeable readers, we remark that the above idea is similar to those of Kim and Wu [KW18] for constructing DP-NIZKs. In particular, the way we embed a key of an SKE scheme, rather than the witness, to the ABS signing key is analogous to the way [KW18] embeds the key of an SKE scheme to a signature of a homomorphic signature scheme [GVW15]. Notably, both schemes crucially rely on the fact that once some private information has been embedded into an ABS signing key (resp. a homomorphic signature), the signing key (resp. signature) can be reused to generate proofs for arbitrary statements.

Constructing ABS with the Desired Properties. We now change the discussion on how to instantiate the above generic construction. Since we can instantiate SKEs through a combination of relatively standard techniques, we focus on how to instantiate ABSs from lattices in this overview. A natural way of instantiating the ABS required in our GS construction would be to use the ABS scheme proposed by Tsabary [Tsa17] proven secure under the SIS assumption, which is the only known ABS construction from lattices.⁶ In their paper, two ABS schemes are proposed. The first scheme is constructed from homomorphic signatures and the second is a direct construction. We focus on the second con-

⁶ Actually, the paper proposes constructions of constrained signature (CS), which is a slightly different primitive from ABS. However, this primitive readily implies ABS.

struction here, because the anonymity notion achieved by the first scheme is not sufficient for our purpose.⁷ In fact, even the latter scheme does not provide a sufficient security notion that is required for our purpose, namely, for the proof of full-traceability. While Tsabary’s ABS scheme achieves selective unforgeability where the adversary is forced to declare its target policy with respect to which it will forge a signature at the beginning of the security game, we require the ABS to be unforgeable even if the adversary is allowed to *adaptively* choose its target policy. The necessity of the adaptiveness of the target policy can be seen by recalling that a forgery in the full-traceability game is of the form $\Sigma^* = (\sigma_{\text{ABS}}^*, \text{ct}^*)$, where ct^* is an adaptively chosen ciphertext that specifies the target policy C_{ct^*} . An easy way to resolve this discrepancy is to assume the subexponential hardness of the SIS problem and prove that Tsabary’s scheme is adaptively unforgeable via complexity leveraging [BB04b]. This approach leads us to Theorem 2.

Though the above approach works, it incurs a subexponential security loss, which is not desirable. At first glance, one may think that the underlying ABS must be adaptively unforgeable to be used in our generic GS construction; an adversary can adaptively make arbitrary many key queries and signing queries, and generate a forgery depending on the answers which it gets from these queries. Unfortunately, the only known construction of a lattice-based ABS scheme in the standard model with such a strong security property is provided by complexity leveraging as described above. However, a more careful observation reveals that we do not actually require the full power of adaptive unforgeability. First, the ABS scheme does not have to support an unbounded number of signing keys since the number of members in the group signature is fixed at setup in the static setting. Furthermore, we can relax the syntax of the ABS so that the key generation algorithm takes a user index i as an additional input, since each signing key in the group signature is associated with a user index. Finally, we can relax the unforgeability requirement of the ABS so that the adversary is forced to make all the key queries at the beginning of the security game while the target policy associated with the forgery can be chosen adaptively. We call this security notion *co-selective unforgeability*, since this is somewhat dual to the selective unforgeability notion where the key queries can be adaptive but the target policy is required to be declared at the beginning of the game.

Indeed, co-selective unforgeability is enough for instantiating our generic GS construction, because, in the construction the attributes hardwired to the signing keys of the ABS are $\{i \| K_i\}$ independent from the public parameter of the ABS and can be chosen at the outset of the security game. With this observation in mind, we define a relaxed version of ABS which we call *indexed ABS* and provide a construction which does not resort to complexity leveraging.

⁷ More specifically, the first scheme only achieves a so-called weakly-hiding property, where the key attribute is not leaked from a signature, but two signatures that are signed by the same user can be linked. Translated into the setting of group signature, this allows an adversary to link two different signatures by the same user, which trivially breaks anonymity.

Constructing Indexed ABS. Our starting point is the observation made by Tsabary [Tsa17], who showed that a homomorphic signature scheme can be viewed as a very weak form of an ABS scheme. In light of this observation, we can view the fully homomorphic signature scheme by Gorbunov, Vaikuntanathan, and Wichs [GVW15] as a single-user ABS scheme. In the scheme, the master public key is of the form $\text{mpk} = (\mathbf{A}, \vec{\mathbf{B}} = [\mathbf{B}_1 \parallel \dots \parallel \mathbf{B}_k])$ where \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B}_i are random matrices over $\mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ and a secret key sk_x for an attribute $x \in \{0, 1\}^k$ is a matrix with small entries $\vec{\mathbf{R}} = [\mathbf{R}_1 \parallel \dots \parallel \mathbf{R}_k]$ such that $\vec{\mathbf{B}} = \mathbf{A}\vec{\mathbf{R}} + x \otimes \mathbf{G}$, where \mathbf{G} is the special gadget matrix whose trapdoor is publicly known. To sign on a policy $F : \{0, 1\}^k \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ and a message \mathbf{M} , the signer uses the homomorphic evaluation algorithms [BGG⁺14, GV15] to compute matrices \mathbf{R}_F and \mathbf{B}_F such that $\mathbf{B}_F = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}_F + F(x)\mathbf{G}$ from sk_x , where \mathbf{R}_F is a matrix with small entries and \mathbf{B}_F is a publicly computable matrix. When $F(x) = 1$, the signer can compute the trapdoor for the matrix $[\mathbf{A} \parallel \mathbf{B}_F]$ from \mathbf{R}_F using the technique of [ABB10a, MP12] and sample a short vector \mathbf{e}_F from a Gaussian distribution such that $[\mathbf{A} \parallel \mathbf{B}_F]\mathbf{e}_F = \mathbf{0}$ using the trapdoor. The signature on (F, \mathbf{M}) is the vector \mathbf{e}_F . It can be seen that \mathbf{e}_F does not leak information of x , since the distribution from which it is sampled only depends on the master public key and F . Furthermore, the scheme satisfies a relaxed version of the co-selective unforgeability, where the adversary can corrupt a single user but is *not* allowed to make signing queries. To see this, let us assume that there is an adversary who chooses x at the beginning of the game and generates a forgery \mathbf{e}_{F^*} for F^* such that $F^*(x) = 0$ given $(\text{mpk}, \text{sk}_x)$. Then, we can solve the SIS problem using this adversary. The reduction algorithm is given a matrix \mathbf{A} as the problem instance of SIS and x from the adversary. It then sets $\vec{\mathbf{B}} = \mathbf{A}\vec{\mathbf{R}} + x \otimes \mathbf{G}$ and gives $\text{sk}_x := \vec{\mathbf{R}}$ to the adversary at the beginning of the game. For the forgery \mathbf{e}_{F^*} output by the adversary, we have $[\mathbf{A} \parallel \mathbf{B}_{F^*}]\mathbf{e}_{F^*} = \mathbf{0}$. Since $\mathbf{B}_{F^*} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}_{F^*}$, we can extract a short vector $\mathbf{z} := [\mathbf{I} \parallel \mathbf{R}_{F^*}]\mathbf{e}_{F^*}$ such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{0}$, which is a solution to the SIS problem.

There are two problems with this scheme. First, the scheme can only support a single user, whereas we need a scheme to support multiple users. It can be seen that the security of the above scheme can be broken in case the adversary obtains the keys of two different users. Second, the unforgeability of the scheme is broken once the adversary is given an access to a signing oracle. Indeed, a valid signature for a policy-message pair (F, \mathbf{M}) is also valid for (F, \mathbf{M}') with different $\mathbf{M}' \neq \mathbf{M}$, since the above signing and verification algorithms simply ignore the messages \mathbf{M} . In other words, the message is not bound to the signature.

We first address the former problem. In order to accommodate multiple users in the system, we change the master public key of the scheme to be $(\mathbf{A}, \{\vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)}\}_{i \in [N]})$, where N is the number of users. The secret key for a user i and an attribute $x^{(i)}$ is $\mathbf{R}^{(i)}$ such that $\vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)} = \mathbf{A}\vec{\mathbf{R}}^{(i)} + x^{(i)} \otimes \mathbf{G}$. To sign on a message, the user i first computes the trapdoor for $[\mathbf{A} \parallel \mathbf{B}_F^{(i)}]$ similarly to the above single-user construction. It then extends the trapdoor for the matrix $[\mathbf{A} \parallel \mathbf{B}_F^{(1)} \parallel \dots \parallel \mathbf{B}_F^{(N)}]$ using the trapdoor extension technique [CHKP10]. Then, it samples a short vector \mathbf{e}_F from a Gaussian distribution such that

$[\mathbf{A} \parallel \mathbf{B}_F^{(1)} \parallel \dots \parallel \mathbf{B}_F^{(N)}] \mathbf{e}_F = \mathbf{0}$. It can be observed that \mathbf{e}_F does not reveal the attribute x nor the user index i since the distribution from which it is sampled only depends on the master public key and F . Note that the trapdoor extension step is essential for hiding the user index i . We can prove unforgeability for the scheme similarly to the single-user case. A key difference here is that, since there are now N matrices in the master public key, we can embed up to N user attributes $\{x^{(i)}\}_{i \in [N]}$ into the master public key as $\mathbf{B}^{(i)} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}^{(i)} + x^{(i)} \otimes \mathbf{G}$.

Next, we address the latter problem. We apply the classic OR-proof technique [FLS90] and show that a scheme that is unforgeable only when the adversary cannot make signing queries can be generically converted into a scheme that is unforgeable even when the adversary can make signing queries. To do so, we introduce a dummy user that is not used in the real system. In the security proof, the signing queries are answered using the signing key of the dummy user. In order to enable this proof strategy, a naïve approach would be to change the scheme so that in order to sign on (F, M) , the signer signs on a modified new policy F' , which on input $x \in \{0, 1\}^k$ outputs $F(x)$ and outputs 1 on input a special symbol. Then, we associate the attribute of the dummy user with the special symbol. By the privacy property of the original (no signing query) ABS, the fact that the signing queries are answered using the dummy key instead of the key specified by the adversary will be unnoticed. A problem with this approach is that since the reduction algorithm has the secret key associated with the special symbol, it can sign on *any* message and policy. Namely, any forgery output by the adversary will not be useful for the reduction algorithm since it could have constructed it on its own to begin with. To resolve this problem, we partition the space of all possible message-policy pairs into two sets, the challenge set and the controlled set, using an admissible hash [BB04a, FHPS13]. Then, we associate the dummy key with an attribute that can sign on any pair in the controlled set, but not on the challenge set. We then hope that the adversary outputs the pair that falls into the challenge set, which allows us to successfully finish the reduction. By the property of the admissible hash, this happens with noticeable probability and we can prove the security of the resulting scheme.

1.4 Related Works

In the full version, we provide detailed discussions on the different models of group signatures and constructions based on other assumptions.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Group Signature

Here, we adopt the definition of group signature schemes from the work of Bellare, Micciancio, and Warinschi [BMW03], with the relaxation regarding the anonymity suggested by Camenisch and Groth [CG05].

Syntax. Let $\{\mathcal{M}_\kappa\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a family of message spaces. In the following, we occasionally drop the subscript and simply write \mathcal{M} when the meaning is clear. A group signature (GS) scheme is defined by the following algorithms:

GS.KeyGen $(1^\kappa, 1^N) \rightarrow (\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, \{\text{gsk}_i\}_{i \in [N]}):$ The key generation algorithm takes as input the security parameter κ and the number of users N both in the unary form and outputs the group public key gpk , the opening key gok , and the set of user secret keys $\{\text{gsk}_i\}_{i \in [N]}$.

GS.Sign $(\text{gpk}, \text{gsk}_i, M) \rightarrow \Sigma:$ The signing algorithm takes as input the group public key gpk , the i -th user's secret key gsk_i (for some $i \in [N]$), and a message $M \in \mathcal{M}_\kappa$ and outputs a signature Σ .

GS.Vrfy $(\text{gpk}, M, \Sigma) \rightarrow \top$ or $\perp:$ The verification algorithm takes as input the group public key gpk , the message M , and a signature Σ and outputs \top if the signature is deemed valid and \perp otherwise.

GS.Open $(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, M, \Sigma) \rightarrow i$ or $\perp:$ The opening algorithm takes as input the group public key gpk , the opening key gok , a message M , a signature Σ and outputs an identity i or the symbol \perp .

For GS, we require correctness, CCA-selfless anonymity, and full traceability.

Correctness. We require that for all $\kappa, N \in \text{poly}(\kappa)$, $(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, \{\text{gsk}_i\}_{i \in [N]}) \in \text{GS.KeyGen}(1^\kappa, 1^N)$, $i \in [N]$, $M \in \mathcal{M}_\kappa$, and $\Sigma \in \text{GS.Sign}(\text{gpk}, \text{gsk}_i, M)$, $\text{GS.Vrfy}(\text{gpk}, M, \Sigma) = \top$ holds.

Full Traceability. We now define the full traceability for GS scheme. This security notion is defined by the following game between a challenger and an adversary A . During the game, the challenger maintains lists \mathcal{Q} and \mathcal{T} , which are set to be empty at the beginning of the game.

Setup: At the beginning of the game, the challenger runs $\text{GS.KeyGen}(1^\kappa, 1^N) \rightarrow (\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, \{\text{gsk}_i\}_{i \in [N]})$ and gives $(1^\kappa, \text{gpk}, \text{gok})$ to A .

Queries: During the game, A can make the following two kinds of queries unbounded polynomially many times.

- **Corrupt Query:** Upon a query $i \in [N]$ from A , the challenger returns gsk_i to A . The challenger also adds i to \mathcal{T} .
- **Signing Queries:** Upon a query $(i, M) \in [N] \times \mathcal{M}_\kappa$ from A , the challenger runs $\text{GS.Sign}(\text{gpk}, \text{gsk}_i, M) \rightarrow \Sigma$ and returns Σ to A . The challenger adds (i, M) to \mathcal{Q} .

Forgery: Eventually, A outputs (M^*, Σ^*) as the forgery. We say that A wins the game if:

1. $\text{GS.Vrfy}(\text{gpk}, M^*, \Sigma^*) \rightarrow \top$, and
2. either of the following conditions (a) or (b) is satisfied:
 - (a) $\text{GS.Open}(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, M^*, \Sigma^*) = \perp$,
 - (b) $\text{GS.Open}(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, M^*, \Sigma^*) = i^* \notin \mathcal{T} \wedge (i^*, M^*) \notin \mathcal{Q}$.

We define the advantage of an adversary to be the probability that the adversary A wins, where the probability is taken over the randomness of the challenger and the adversary. A GS scheme is said to satisfy full traceability if the advantage of any PPT adversary A in the above game is negligible for any $N = \text{poly}(\kappa)$.

CCA-Selfless Anonymity. We now define CCA-selfless anonymity for a GS scheme. This security notion is defined by the following game between a challenger and an adversary A .

Setup: At the beginning of the game, the adversary A is given 1^κ as input and sends $i_0^*, i_1^* \in [N]$ to the challenger. Then the challenger runs $\text{GS.KeyGen}(1^\kappa, 1^N) \rightarrow (\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, \{\text{gsk}_i\}_{i \in [N]})$ and gives $(\text{gpk}, \{\text{gsk}_i\}_{i \in [N] \setminus \{i_0^*, i_1^*\}})$ to A .

Queries: During the game, A can make the following two kinds of queries unbounded polynomially many times.

- **Signing Queries:** Upon a query $(b, M) \in \{0, 1\} \times \mathcal{M}_\kappa$ from A , the challenger runs $\text{GS.Sign}(\text{gpk}, \text{gsk}_{i_b^*}, M) \rightarrow \Sigma$ and returns Σ to A .

- **Open Queries:** Upon a query (M, Σ) from A , the challenger runs $\text{GS.Open}(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, M, \Sigma)$ and returns the result to A .

Challenge Phase: At some point, A chooses its target message M^* . The challenger then samples a secret coin $\text{coin} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$ and computes $\text{GS.Sign}(\text{gpk}, \text{gsk}_{i_{\text{coin}}^*}, M^*) \rightarrow \Sigma^*$. Finally, it returns Σ^* to A .

Queries: After the challenge phase, A may continue to make signing and open queries unbounded polynomially many times. Here, we add a restriction that A cannot make an open query for (M^*, Σ^*) .

Guess: Eventually, A outputs $\widehat{\text{coin}}$ as a guess for coin.

We say that the adversary A wins the game if $\widehat{\text{coin}} = \text{coin}$. We define the advantage of an adversary to be $|\Pr[A \text{ wins}] - 1/2|$, where the probability is taken over the randomness of the challenger and the adversary. A GS scheme is said to be CCA-selfless anonymous if the advantage of any PPT adversary A is negligible in the above game for any $N = \text{poly}(\kappa)$.

Remark 3. Note that Camenisch and Groth [CG05] defines selfless anonymity slightly differently by allowing the adversary to adaptively choose the targets and corrupt the users other than the targets. However, since the number of users N is polynomially bounded, these two definitions are equivalent w.l.o.g, and we chose the above formalization for simplicity of presentation.

2.2 Secret Key Encryption and Other Primitives

We will use some cryptographic primitives such as secret key encryptions (SKE) and one-time signatures (OTS) to construct a GS scheme. The definitions of these primitives will appear in the full version. Since we require an SKE to have some non-standard properties, we provide a brief explanation here. We require key robustness, which intuitively says that the ciphertext spaces corresponding to two random secret keys are disjoint with all but negligible probability. In addition, we require SKE to satisfy IND_r-CCA security, which stipulates that a ciphertext is indistinguishable from a pseudorandom ciphertext that is publicly samplable, even if the distinguisher is equipped with a decryption oracle.

2.3 Admissible Hash Functions

Here, we define the notion of admissible hash, which was first introduced by [BB04a]. We follow the definition of [FHPS13,BV15] with minor changes.

Definition 4. Let $\ell := \ell(\kappa)$ and $\ell' := \ell'(\kappa)$ be some polynomials. We define the function $\text{WldCmp} : \{0, 1\}^\ell \times \{0, 1\}^\ell \times \{0, 1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ as

$$\text{WldCmp}(y, z, w) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \forall i \in [\ell] \left((y_i = 0) \vee (z_i = w_i) \right)$$

where y_i , z_i , and w_i denote the i -th bit of y , z , and w respectively. Intuitively, WldCmp is a string comparison function with wildcards where it compares z and w only at those points where $y_i = 1$. Let $\{\text{H}_\kappa : \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\kappa)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\kappa)}\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a family of hash functions. We say that $\{\text{H}_\kappa\}_\kappa$ is a family of admissible hash functions if there exists an efficient algorithm AdmSmp that takes as input 1^κ and $Q \in \mathbb{N}$ and outputs $(y, z) \in \{0, 1\}^\ell \times \{0, 1\}^\ell$ such that for every polynomial $Q(\kappa)$ and all $X^*, X^{(1)}, \dots, X^{(Q)} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\kappa)}$ with $X^* \notin \{X^{(1)}, \dots, X^{(Q)}\}$, we have

$$\Pr_{(y,z)} \left[\text{WldCmp}(y, z, \text{H}(X^*)) = 0 \wedge \left(\bigwedge_{j \in [Q]} \text{WldCmp}(y, z, \text{H}(X^{(j)})) = 1 \right) \right] \geq \Delta_Q(\kappa),$$

for a noticeable function $\Delta_Q(\kappa)$, where the probability above is taken over the choice of $(y, z) \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \text{AdmSmp}(1^\kappa, Q)$.

As shown in previous works [Lys02,FHPS13], a family of error correcting codes $\{\text{H}_\kappa : \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\kappa)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\kappa)}\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}}$ with constant relative distance $c \in (0, 1/2)$ is an admissible hash function. Explicit and efficient constructions of such codes are given in [SS96,Zém01,Gol08] to name a few.

3 Indexed Attribute-Based Signatures

In this section, we define the syntax and the security notion of indexed attribute-based signature (indexed ABS). We require indexed ABS to satisfy unforgeability and privacy. For the former, we consider two kinds of security notions that we call co-selective unforgeability and no-signing-query unforgeability. While the latter notion of unforgeability is weaker, we will show that an indexed ABS scheme that only satisfies this weaker security notion can be converted into a scheme with the stronger security notion without losing privacy.

3.1 Indexed Attribute-Based Signature

Syntax. Let $\{\mathcal{C}_\kappa\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a family of circuits, where \mathcal{C}_κ is a set of circuits with domain $\{0, 1\}^{k(\kappa)}$ and range $\{0, 1\}$, and the size of every circuit in \mathcal{C}_κ is bounded by $\text{poly}(\kappa)$. Let also $\{\mathcal{M}_\kappa\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a family of message spaces. In the following, we occasionally drop the subscript and simply write \mathcal{C} and \mathcal{M} when the meaning is clear. An indexed attribute-based signature (indexed ABS) scheme for the circuit class \mathcal{C} is defined by the following algorithms:

- ABS.Setup**($1^\kappa, 1^N$) \rightarrow (mpk, msk): The setup algorithm takes as input the security parameter κ and the bound on the number of users N both in the unary form and outputs the master public key mpk and the master secret key msk.
- ABS.KeyGen**(msk, i, x) \rightarrow sk_x : The key generation algorithm takes as input the master secret key msk, the user index $i \in [N]$, and the attribute $x \in \{0, 1\}^k$ and outputs the user secret key sk_x . We assume that i and x are implicitly included in sk_x .
- ABS.Sign**(mpk, sk_x, M, C) \rightarrow σ : The signing algorithm takes as input the master public key mpk, the secret key sk_x associated to x , a message $M \in \mathcal{M}_\kappa$, and a policy $C \in \mathcal{C}_\kappa$ and outputs the signature σ .
- ABS.Vrfy**(mpk, M, C, σ) \rightarrow \top or \perp : The verification algorithm takes as input the master public key mpk, a message M , a policy C , and a signature σ . It outputs \top if the signature is deemed valid and \perp otherwise. We assume that the verification algorithm is deterministic.

We require correctness, privacy, and co-selective unforgeability.

Correctness. We require correctness: that is, for all $\kappa, N \in \text{poly}(\kappa)$, (mpk, msk) \in ABS.Setup($1^\kappa, 1^N$), $i \in [N]$, $x \in \{0, 1\}^k$, $C \in \mathcal{C}_\kappa$ such that $C(x) = 1$, $M \in \mathcal{M}_\kappa$, $\text{sk}_x \in$ ABS.KeyGen(msk, i, x), and $\sigma \in$ ABS.Sign(mpk, sk_x, M, C), ABS.Vrfy(mpk, M, C, σ) = \top holds.

Perfect Privacy. We say that the ABS scheme has perfect privacy if for all $\kappa, N \in \text{poly}(\kappa)$, (mpk, msk) \in ABS.Setup($1^\kappa, 1^N$), $x_0, x_1 \in \{0, 1\}^k$, $i_0, i_1 \in [N]$, $C \in \mathcal{C}_\kappa$ satisfying $C(x_0) = C(x_1) = 1$, $M \in \mathcal{M}$, $\text{sk}_{x_0} \in$ ABS.KeyGen(msk, i_0, x_0), and $\text{sk}_{x_1} \in$ ABS.KeyGen(msk, i_1, x_1), the following distributions are the same:

$$\{\sigma_0 \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \text{ABS.Sign}(\text{mpk}, \text{sk}_{x_0}, M, C)\} \approx \{\sigma_1 \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \text{ABS.Sign}(\text{mpk}, \text{sk}_{x_1}, M, C)\}.$$

Co-Selective Unforgeability. We now define the co-selective unforgeability for ABS scheme. This security notion is defined by the following game between a challenger and an adversary A. During the game, the challenger maintains a list \mathcal{Q} , which is set to be empty at the beginning of the game.

Key Queries: At the beginning of the game, the adversary A is given 1^κ as input. It then sends 1^N , $\{(i, x^{(i)})\}_{i \in [N]}$, and $\mathcal{S} \subseteq [N]$ such that $x^{(i)} \in \{0, 1\}^k$ for all $i \in [N]$ to the challenger.

Setup: The challenger runs ABS.Setup($1^\kappa, 1^N$) \rightarrow (mpk, msk) and ABS.KeyGen(msk, $i, x^{(i)}$) \rightarrow $\text{sk}_{x^{(i)}}$ for $i \in [N]$. It then gives mpk and $\{\text{sk}_{x^{(i)}}\}_{i \in [\mathcal{S}]}$ to A.

Signing Queries: During the game, A can make signing queries unbounded polynomially many times. When A queries (M, C, i) such that $M \in \mathcal{M}$, $C \in \mathcal{C}$, $i \in [N]$, and $C(x^{(i)}) = 1$, the challenger runs ABS.Sign(mpk, $\text{sk}_{x^{(i)}}, M, C$) \rightarrow σ and returns σ to A. The challenger then adds (M, C) to \mathcal{Q} .

Forgery: Eventually, A outputs (M*, C*, σ^*) as the forgery. We say that A wins the game if:

1. $C^* \in \mathcal{C}$,
2. ABS.Vrfy(mpk, M*, C*, σ^*) \rightarrow \top ,
3. $C^*(x^{(i)}) = 0$ for $i \in \mathcal{S}$,
4. (M*, C*) \notin \mathcal{Q} .

We define the advantage of the adversary to be the probability that the adversary A wins in the above game, where the probability is taken over the coin tosses made by A and the challenger. We say that a scheme satisfies co-selective unforgeability if the advantage of any PPT adversary A in the above game is negligible in the security parameter.

No-Signing-Query Unforgeability. We now define a weaker definition of unforgeability. We define the no-signing-query unforgeability game by modifying the co-selective unforgeability game above by adding some more restrictions on A . Namely, we prohibit A from making any signing queries and require $\mathcal{S} \neq \emptyset$. We do not change the winning condition of the game and define the advantage of A as the probability that A wins. Note that Item 4 becomes vacuous because we will always have $\mathcal{Q} = \emptyset$. We say that a scheme satisfies no-signing-query unforgeability if the advantage of any PPT adversary A in the game is negligible.

Remark 5 (Comparing indexed ABS with standard ABS). The syntax of the indexed ABS is a relaxation of the standard ABS [MPR11,OT11,SAH16]: the setup algorithm takes 1^N as an additional input and the key generation algorithm takes an index i as an additional input. It is easy to check that standard ABS can be used as indexed ABS by simply ignoring the additional inputs.

3.2 From No-Signing-Query to Co-selective Unforgeability

Here, we show that an indexed ABS scheme $\text{ABS} = (\text{ABS.Setup}, \text{ABS.KeyGen}, \text{ABS.Sign}, \text{ABS.Vrfy})$ that is no-signing-query unforgeable can be generically converted into a new indexed ABS scheme $\text{ABS}' = (\text{ABS}'.\text{Setup}, \text{ABS}'.\text{KeyGen}, \text{ABS}'.\text{Sign}, \text{ABS}'.\text{Vrfy})$ that is co-selective unforgeable. If ABS is perfectly private, so is ABS' . To enable the resulting scheme ABS' to deal with function class $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathcal{C}_\kappa\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}}$, where \mathcal{C}_κ is a set of circuits C such that $C : \{0, 1\}^{k(\kappa)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, we require ABS to be able to deal with a (slightly) more complex function class $\mathcal{F} = \{\mathcal{F}_\kappa\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}}$. We define \mathcal{F}_κ as

$$\mathcal{F}_\kappa = \left\{ F[\tilde{\mathbf{M}}, C] : \{0, 1\}^{k(\kappa)+2\ell(\kappa)+1} \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \mid \tilde{\mathbf{M}} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\kappa)}, C \in \mathcal{C}_\kappa \right\}, \quad (1)$$

where $F[\tilde{\mathbf{M}}, C]$ is defined in Fig. 1. We assume that the circuit $F[\tilde{\mathbf{M}}, C]$ is deterministically constructed from $\tilde{\mathbf{M}}$ and C in a predetermined way. Let $\{\mathcal{H}_\kappa\}_\kappa$ be a family of collision resistant hash functions where an index $h \in \mathcal{H}_\kappa$ specifies a function $h : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell'(\kappa)}$, where $\{0, 1\}^{\ell'(\kappa)}$ is the input space of an admissible hash function $\text{H}_\kappa : \{0, 1\}^{\ell'(\kappa)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell(\kappa)}$. We construct ABS' as follows.

$\text{ABS}'.\text{Setup}(1^\kappa, 1^N)$: It runs $\text{ABS.Setup}(1^\kappa, 1^{N+1}) \rightarrow (\text{mpk}, \text{msk})$ and samples a random index of collision resistant hash function $h \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{H}_\kappa$. It then outputs the master public key $\text{mpk}' = (\text{mpk}, h)$ and the master secret key $\text{msk}' := \text{msk}$.
 $\text{ABS}'.\text{KeyGen}(\text{msk}, i, x)$: It runs $\text{ABS.KeyGen}(\text{msk}, i, x \| 0^{2\ell+1}) \rightarrow \text{sk}_{x \| 0^{2\ell+1}}$ and returns $\text{sk}'_x := \text{sk}_{x \| 0^{2\ell+1}}$.

$\text{ABS}'.\text{Sign}(\text{mpk}', \text{sk}'_x, \text{M}, C)$: It first parses $\text{mpk}' \rightarrow (\text{mpk}, h)$ and $\text{sk}'_x \rightarrow \text{sk}_{x\|0^{2\ell+1}}$ and computes $\tilde{\text{M}} = \text{H}(h(\text{M}\|C))$. It then constructs a circuit $F[\tilde{\text{M}}, C]$ that is defined as in Fig. 1. It finally runs $\text{ABS}.\text{Sign}(\text{mpk}, \text{sk}_{x\|0^{2\ell+1}}, \text{M}, F[\tilde{\text{M}}, C]) \rightarrow \sigma$ and outputs $\sigma' := \sigma$.

$\text{ABS}'.\text{Vrfy}(\text{mpk}', \text{M}, C, \sigma)$: It first parses $\text{mpk}' \rightarrow (\text{mpk}, h)$. It then computes $\tilde{\text{M}} = \text{H}(h(\text{M}\|C))$ and constructs a circuit $F[\tilde{\text{M}}, C]$ that is defined as in Fig. 1. It then outputs $\text{ABS}.\text{Vrfy}(\text{mpk}, \text{M}, F[\tilde{\text{M}}, C], \sigma)$.

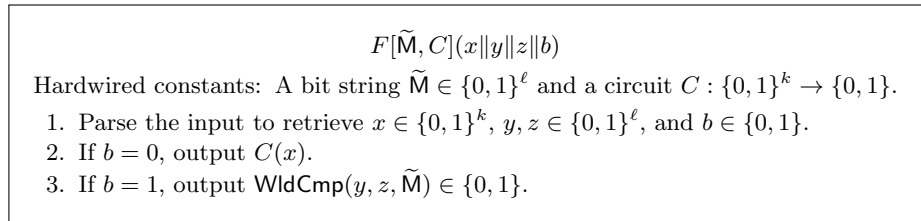


Fig. 1. Description of the circuit $F[\tilde{\text{M}}, C]$.

Correctness. We observe that if $C(x) = 1$, we have $F[\tilde{\text{M}}, C](x\|0^{2\ell+1}) = C(x) = 1$ by the definition of $F[\tilde{\text{M}}, C]$. The correctness of ABS' therefore follows from that of ABS .

Perfect Privacy. The following addresses the privacy of ABS' .

Theorem 6. *If ABS is perfectly private, so is ABS' .*

Proof. If $C(x_0) = C(x_1) = 1$, we have $F[\tilde{\text{M}}, C](x_0\|0^{2\ell+1}) = C(x_0) = 1$ and $F[\tilde{\text{M}}, C](x_1\|0^{2\ell+1}) = C(x_1) = 1$ by the definition of $F[\tilde{\text{M}}, C]$. The theorem therefore follows from the perfect privacy of ABS .

Co-selective Unforgeability. The following theorem addresses the co-selective unforgeability of ABS' . The proof will appear in the full version.

Theorem 7. *If ABS is no-signing-query unforgeable and perfectly private, \mathcal{H}_κ is a family of collision resistant hash functions, and H_κ is an admissible hash function, then ABS' is co-selective unforgeable.*

4 Generic Construction of Group Signatures

In this section, we give a generic construction of a GS scheme from three building blocks: an indexed ABS , an OTS , and an SKE . As we will show in Sec. 7, by appropriately instantiating the building blocks, we obtain the first lattice-based GS scheme in the standard model.

Ingredients. Here, we give a generic construction of a GS scheme $\text{GS} = (\text{GS.KeyGen}, \text{GS.Sign}, \text{GS.Vrfy}, \text{GS.Open})$ from an indexed ABS scheme $\text{ABS} = (\text{ABS.Setup}, \text{ABS.KeyGen}, \text{ABS.Sign}, \text{ABS.Vrfy})$ with perfect privacy and co-selective unforgeability, an OTS scheme $\text{OTS} = (\text{OTS.KeyGen}, \text{OTS.Sign}, \text{OTS.Vrfy})$ with strong unforgeability, and an SKE scheme $\text{SKE} = (\text{SKE.Gen}, \text{SKE.Enc}, \text{SKE.Dec})$ with key robustness and INDr-CCA security. We require the underlying primitives to satisfy the following constraints:

- $\text{SKE.M}_\kappa \supseteq [N+1] \times \{0, 1\}^{\ell_1(\kappa)}$, where SKE.M_κ denotes the plaintext space of SKE and $\ell_1(\kappa)$ denotes the upper-bound on the length of ovk that is output by $\text{OTS.Setup}(1^\kappa)$.
- We require the underlying indexed ABS scheme to be able to deal with function class $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathcal{C}_\kappa\}_{\kappa \in \mathbb{N}}$, where \mathcal{C}_κ is defined as

$$\mathcal{C}_\kappa = \left\{ C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}] \mid \text{ovk} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_1(\kappa)}, \text{ct} \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_2(\kappa)} \right\}, \quad (2)$$

where $C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}]$ is defined in Fig. 2 and $\ell_2(\kappa)$ is the upper bound on the length of a ciphertext ct output by $\text{SKE.Enc}(K, M)$ for $K \in \text{SKE.Gen}(\text{SKE.Setup}(1^\kappa))$ and $M \in \text{SKE.M}_\kappa$.

- We require $\text{OTS.M}_\kappa = \{0, 1\}^*$, where OTS.M_κ denotes the message space of OTS. Note that any OTS scheme with sufficiently large message space can be modified to satisfy this condition by applying a collision resistant hash to a message before signing.

Construction. We construct GS as follows.

$\text{GS.KeyGen}(1^\kappa, 1^N)$: It first samples $\text{pp} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Setup}(1^\kappa)$ and $(\text{mpk}, \text{msk}) \xleftarrow{\$} \text{ABS.Setup}(1^\kappa, 1^{N+1})$. It then samples $K_i \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Gen}(\text{pp})$ and $\text{sk}_{i\|K_i} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{ABS.KeyGen}(\text{msk}, i, i\|K_i)$ for $i \in [N]$. Finally, it outputs

$$\text{gpk} := (\text{pp}, \text{mpk}), \quad \text{gok} := \{ K_i \}_{i \in [N]}, \quad \{ \text{gsk}_i := (i, K_i, \text{sk}_{i\|K_i}) \}_{i \in [N]}.$$

$\text{GS.Sign}(\text{gsk}_i, M)$: It first samples $(\text{ovk}, \text{osk}) \xleftarrow{\$} \text{OTS.KeyGen}(1^\kappa)$ and computes $\text{ct} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Enc}(K_i, i\|\text{ovk})$. It then runs

$$\text{ABS.Sign}(\text{mpk}, \text{sk}_{i\|K_i}, C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}], M) \rightarrow \sigma,$$

where the circuit $C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}]$ is defined in Fig. 2. It further runs $\text{OTS.Sign}(\text{osk}, M\|\sigma) \rightarrow \tau$. Finally, it outputs $\Sigma := (\text{ovk}, \text{ct}, \sigma, \tau)$.

$\text{GS.Vrfy}(\text{gpk}, M, \Sigma)$: It first parses $\Sigma \rightarrow (\text{ovk}, \text{ct}, \sigma, \tau)$. It then outputs \top if

$$\text{ABS.Vrfy}(\text{mpk}, M, C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}], \sigma) = \top \wedge \text{OTS.Vrfy}(\text{ovk}, M\|\sigma, \tau) = \top,$$

where $C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}]$ is defined in Fig. 2. Otherwise, it outputs \perp .

$\text{GS.Open}(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, M, \Sigma)$: It first runs $\text{GS.Vrfy}(\text{gpk}, M, \Sigma)$ and returns \perp if the verification result is \perp . Otherwise, it parses $\Sigma \rightarrow (\text{ovk}, \text{ct}, \sigma, \tau)$. It then computes $d_i \leftarrow \text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct})$ for $i \in [N]$ and outputs the smallest index i such that $d_i \neq \perp$. If there is not such i , it returns \perp .

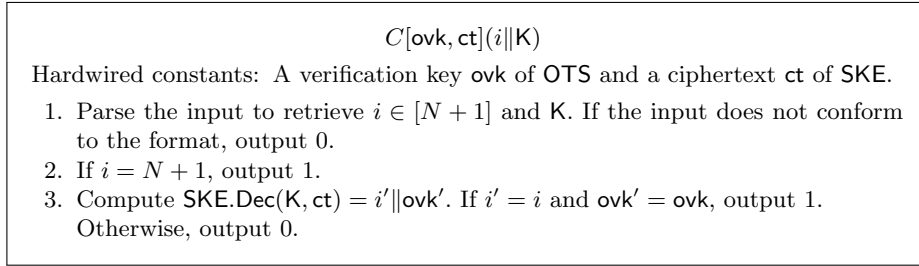


Fig. 2. Description of the circuit $C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}]$.

Remark 8 (Construction Using Public Key Encryption). We remark that we may be able to obtain an alternative construction using a public key encryption (PKE) instead of an SKE. See full version for further discussion.

Correctness. We show that correctly generated signature $\Sigma = (\text{ovk}, \text{ct}, \sigma, \tau)$ passes the verification. We have $\text{OTS.Vrfy}(\text{ovk}, \text{M}\|\sigma, \tau) = \top$ by the correctness of OTS. Furthermore, we have $\text{ABS.Vrfy}(\text{mpk}, \text{M}, C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}], \sigma) = \top$ since $C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}](i\|\text{K}_i) = 1$, which follows from $\text{SKE.Dec}(\text{K}_i, \text{ct}) = i\|\text{ovk}$ by the correctness of SKE.

CCA-Selfless Anonymity. The following theorem addresses the CCA-selfless anonymity of the above GS scheme. The proof will appear in the full version.

Theorem 9. *If ABS is perfectly private and co-selective unforgeable, OTS is strongly unforgeable, and SKE is INDr-CCA-secure and key robust, then GS constructed above is CCA-selfless anonymous.*

Traceability. The following addresses the traceability of the above GS scheme.

Theorem 10. *If ABS is co-selective unforgeable and SKE has key robustness, then GS constructed above has full traceability.*

Proof. Let us fix a PPT adversary A and consider the full traceability game played between A and a challenger. Let (M^*, Σ^*) be a forgery output by A . We define F_1 to be the event that A wins the game and $\text{GS.Open}(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, \text{M}^*, \Sigma^*) = \perp$ holds, and F_2 be the event that A wins the game and $\text{GS.Open}(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, \text{M}^*, \Sigma^*) = i^*$ holds for i^* such that $i^* \notin \mathcal{T}$. Since both F_1 and F_2 are collectively exhaustive events of a successful forgery, it suffices to prove $\Pr[\text{F}_1] = \text{negl}(\kappa)$ and $\Pr[\text{F}_2] = \text{negl}(\kappa)$.

Lemma 11. *If ABS is co-selective unforgeable, we have $\Pr[\text{F}_1] = \text{negl}(\kappa)$.*

Proof. For the sake of the contradiction, let us assume that F_1 happens with non-negligible probability ϵ . We then construct an adversary B that breaks the

co-selective unforgeability of ABS with the same probability. The adversary B proceeds as follows.

At the beginning of the game, B is given 1^κ from its challenger. B then samples $\text{pp} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Setup}(1^\kappa)$ and $K_i \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Gen}(\text{pp})$ for $i \in [N]$ and submits 1^N , $\{(i, i\|K_i)\}_{i \in [N]}$, and $\mathcal{S} = [N]$ to its challenger. Then, B receives mpk and $\{\text{sk}_{i\|K_i}\}_{i \in [N]}$ from the challenger. It then gives 1^κ , $\text{gpk} := (\text{pp}, \text{mpk})$, and $\text{gok} := \{K_i\}_{i \in [N]}$ to A and keeps $\{\text{gsk}_i := (i, K_i, \text{sk}_{i\|K_i})\}_{i \in [N]}$ secret. During the game, A makes signing and corrupt queries. These queries are trivial to handle because B has $\{\text{gsk}_i\}_{i \in [N]}$. In particular, B can handle all signing queries from A without making signing query to its challenger. Eventually, A will output a forgery $(M^*, \Sigma^* = (\text{ovk}^*, \text{ct}^*, \sigma^*, \tau^*))$. If $\text{GS.Vrfy}(\text{gpk}, M^*, \Sigma^*) = \top$ and $\text{GS.Open}(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, M^*, \Sigma^*) = \perp$ hold, B outputs $(M^*, C[\text{ovk}^*, \text{ct}^*], \sigma^*)$ as its forgery. Otherwise, B aborts.

We claim that B wins the game whenever F_1 happens. To prove this, we first observe that $\text{ABS.Vrfy}(\text{mpk}, C[\text{ovk}^*, \text{ct}^*], \sigma^*) = \top$ holds because $\text{GS.Vrfy}(\text{gpk}, M^*, \Sigma^*) = \top$. We then show that B has not made any prohibited key query. Namely, we show $C[\text{ovk}^*, \text{ct}^*](i\|K_i) = 0$ for all $i \in [N]$. This follows since otherwise we have $\text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp$ for some i , which contradicts $\text{GS.Open}(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, M^*, \Sigma^*) = \perp$. We also note that B has not made any signing query. Since B's simulation is perfect, we can conclude that B wins the game with probability ϵ . This concludes the proof of the lemma.

Lemma 12. *If ABS is co-selective unforgeable and SKE has key robustness, we have $\Pr[F_2] = \text{negl}(\kappa)$.*

Proof. For the sake of the contradiction, let us assume that F_2 happens with non-negligible probability ϵ . We then construct an adversary B that breaks the co-selective unforgeability of ABS with non-negligible probability. We show this by considering the following sequence of games. In the following, let E_i denote the probability that F_2 occurs and the challenger does not abort in Game i .

Game 0: We define Game 0 as the ordinary full traceability game between A and the challenger. By assumption, we have $\Pr[E_0] = \epsilon$.

Game 1: In this game, the challenger samples $j^* \xleftarrow{\$} [N]$ at the beginning of the game and aborts if $j^* \neq i^*$ at the end of the game. Since the view of A is independent from j^* and GS.Open does not output any symbol outside $[N] \cup \{\perp\}$, we have $\Pr[E_1] = \epsilon/N$.

Game 2: In this game, the challenger aborts the game as soon as $j^* \neq i^*$ turns out to be true. Namely, it aborts if A makes a corruption query for j^* , or i^* defined at the end of the game does not equal to j^* . Since this is only a conceptual change, we have $\Pr[E_2] = \Pr[E_3]$.

Game 3: In this game, we change the previous game so that the challenger aborts at the end of the game if $|\{i \in [N] : \text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp\}| \neq 1$ for $(M^*, \Sigma^* = (\text{ovk}^*, \text{ct}^*, \sigma^*, \tau^*))$ output by A as the forgery. We claim that the probability that F_2 and $|\{i \in [N] : \text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp\}| \neq 1$ occur at the same time is negligibly small. Note that by the definition of GS.Open , F_2 implies $\text{SKE.Dec}(K_{i^*}, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp$ for $i^* \in [N]$. We therefore have

$|\{i \in [N] : \text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp\}| \geq 2$. However, the probability of this occurring is bounded by

$$\begin{aligned}
& \Pr[|\{i \in [N] : \text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp\}| \geq 2] \\
& \leq \Pr \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{pp} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Setup}(1^\kappa), K_j \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Gen}(\text{pp}) \text{ for } j \in [N] : \\ \exists \text{ct}^* \in \{0, 1\}^*, \exists i, i^* \in [N] \\ \text{s.t. } i \neq i^* \wedge \text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp \wedge \text{SKE.Dec}(K_{i^*}, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp \end{array} \right] \\
& \leq \sum_{i, i^* \in [N] \text{ s.t. } i \neq i^*} \Pr \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{pp} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Setup}(1^\kappa), K_i, K_{i^*} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Gen}(\text{pp}) : \\ \exists \text{ct}^* \in \{0, 1\}^* \\ \text{s.t. } \text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp \wedge \text{SKE.Dec}(K_{i^*}, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp \end{array} \right] \\
& \leq N(N-1)/2 \cdot \text{negl}(\kappa) \\
& = \text{negl}(\kappa),
\end{aligned}$$

where the second inequality is by the union bound and the third inequality is by the key robustness of SKE. Therefore, we have $|\Pr[E_2] - \Pr[E_3]| = \text{negl}(\kappa)$.

We then replace the challenger in Game 3 with an adversary B against the co-selective unforgeability of ABS with advantage $\Pr[E_3]$. The adversary B proceeds as follows.

At the beginning of the game, B is given 1^κ from its challenger. Then, B chooses its guess $j^* \xleftarrow{\$} [N]$ for i^* , samples $\text{pp} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Setup}(1^\kappa)$ and $K_i \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Gen}(\text{pp})$ for $i \in [N]$, and sends 1^N , $\{(i, i \| K_i)\}_{i \in [N]}$, and $\mathcal{S} = [N] \setminus \{j^*\}$ to the challenger. Then, B receives mpk and $\{\text{sk}_{i \| \kappa_i}\}_{i \in [N] \setminus \{j^*\}}$ from the challenger. It then sets $\text{gpk} := (\text{pp}, \text{mpk})$, $\text{gsk}_i := (i, K_i, \text{sk}_{i \| \kappa_i})$ for $i \in [N] \setminus \{j^*\}$, and $\text{gok} := \{K_i\}_{i \in [N]}$ and gives 1^κ , gpk , and gok to A. During the game, A makes two kinds of queries. B answers the queries as follows.

- When A makes a corrupt query for $i \in [N]$, B proceeds as follows. If $i = j^*$, B aborts. Otherwise, it gives gsk_i to A.
- When A makes a signing query for (i, M) , B answers the query using gsk_i if $i \neq j^*$. If $i = j^*$, B first samples $(\text{ovk}, \text{osk}) \xleftarrow{\$} \text{OTS.KeyGen}(1^\kappa)$ and computes $\text{ct} \xleftarrow{\$} \text{SKE.Enc}(K_{j^*}, j^* \| \text{ovk})$. It then makes a signing query $(M, C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}], j^*)$ to its challenger, who returns σ to B. Then, it runs $\text{OTS.Sign}(\text{osk}, M \| \sigma) \rightarrow \tau$ and returns $\Sigma := (\text{ovk}, \text{ct}, \sigma, \tau)$ to A.

Eventually, A will output a forgery $(M^*, \Sigma^* = (\text{ovk}^*, \text{ct}^*, \sigma^*, \tau^*))$. If either of $\text{GS.Vrfy}(\text{gpk}, M^*, \Sigma^*) = \top$ or $i^* = j^*$ does not hold, where $i^* := \text{GS.Open}(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, M^*, \Sigma^*)$, B aborts. It also aborts if $|\{i \in [N] : \text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp\}| \neq 1$. Otherwise, B outputs $(M^*, C[\text{ovk}^*, \text{ct}^*], \sigma^*)$ as its forgery.

We claim that B wins the game whenever E_3 occurs. To see this, we first observe that we have $\text{ABS.Vrfy}(\text{mpk}, C[\text{ovk}^*, \text{ct}^*], \sigma^*) = \top$ by $\text{GS.Vrfy}(\text{gpk}, M^*, \Sigma^*) = \top$. We then prove that B has never made prohibited corrupt queries. Namely, we show $C[\text{ovk}^*, \text{ct}^*](i \| K_i) = 0$ for all $i \in [N] \setminus \{i^*\}$. This follows since we have $|\{i \in [N] : \text{SKE.Dec}(K_i, \text{ct}^*) \neq$

$\perp\}$ = 1 and $\text{SKE.Dec}(K_{i^*}, \text{ct}^*) \neq \perp$, where the latter follows from $\text{GS.Open}(\text{gpk}, \text{gok}, M^*, \Sigma^*) = i^*$. Finally, we show that \mathbf{B} has never made prohibited signing queries. Recall that \mathbf{B} has only made signing queries of the form $(M, C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}], i^*)$ and all such queries are made in order to answer the signing query (i^*, M) made by \mathbf{A} . Because \mathbf{A} has won the game, we have $M^* \neq M$, which implies $(M^*, C[\text{ovk}^*, \text{ct}^*]) \neq (M, C[\text{ovk}, \text{ct}])$ as desired. Since \mathbf{B} simulates Game 3 perfectly, we have that the winning probability of \mathbf{B} is exactly $\Pr[\mathbf{E}_3]$. This concludes the proof of the lemma.

5 Construction of Indexed ABS from Lattices

In this section, we give a new construction of indexed ABS scheme from the SIS assumption. Combined with an appropriate SKE scheme and OTS scheme, we can instantiate the generic construction of GS in Sec. 4 to obtain the first lattice-based GS scheme in the standard model. We refer Sec. 7 to more discussions.

5.1 Preliminaries on Lattices

Here, we recall some facts on lattices that are needed for the exposition of our construction. Throughout this section, n , m , and q are integers such that $n = \text{poly}(\kappa)$ and $m \geq n \lceil \log q \rceil$. In the following, let $\text{SampZ}(\gamma)$ be a sampling algorithm for the truncated discrete Gaussian distribution over \mathbb{Z} with parameter $\gamma > 0$ whose support is restricted to $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $|z| \leq \sqrt{n}\gamma$.⁸

Definition 13 (The SIS Assumption). *Let n, m, q, β be integer parameters. We say that the $\text{SIS}(n, m, q, \beta)$ hardness assumption holds if for any PPT adversaries \mathbf{A} we have*

$$\Pr[\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{0} \wedge 0 < \|\mathbf{z}\|_\infty \leq \beta(\kappa) : \mathbf{A} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_{q(\kappa)}^{n(\kappa) \times m(\kappa)}, \mathbf{z} \leftarrow \mathbf{A}(1^\kappa, \mathbf{A})] \leq \text{negl}(\kappa).$$

We also say that the $\text{SIS}(n, m, q, \beta)$ problem is subexponentially hard if the above probability is bounded by $2^{-O(n^\epsilon)} \cdot \text{negl}(\kappa)$ for some constant $0 < \epsilon < 1$.

For any $n = \text{poly}(\kappa)$, any $m = \text{poly}(n)$, any $\beta(n) > 0$, and $q \geq \beta\sqrt{n} \cdot \omega(\log n)$, it is known that the $\text{SIS}(n, m, q, \beta)$ problem is as hard as certain worst case lattice problems with approximation factor $\beta(n) \cdot \text{poly}(n)$. We abuse the term and refer to $\text{SIS}(n, m, q, \beta)$ with $\beta \leq \text{poly}(\kappa)$ as the SIS problem with polynomial approximation factor.

Trapdoors. Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$. For all $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m'}$, we let $\mathbf{A}_\gamma^{-1}(\mathbf{V})$ be an output distribution of $\text{SampZ}(\gamma)^{m \times m'}$ conditioned on $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A}_\gamma^{-1}(\mathbf{V}) = \mathbf{V}$. A γ -trapdoor for \mathbf{A} is a trapdoor that enables one to sample from the distribution $\mathbf{A}_\gamma^{-1}(\mathbf{V})$ in time $\text{poly}(n, m, m', \log q)$, for any \mathbf{V} . We slightly overload notation and denote a γ -trapdoor for \mathbf{A} by \mathbf{A}_γ^{-1} . We also define the special gadget matrix $\mathbf{G} \in$

⁸ During construction, we fix n and consider this very weak bound for one-dimensional discrete Gaussian samples for simplicity of analysis.

$\mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ as the matrix obtained by padding $\mathbf{I}_n \otimes (1, 2, 4, 8, \dots, 2^{\lceil \log q \rceil})$ with zero-columns. The following properties had been established in a long sequence of works [GPV08,CHKP10,ABB10a,ABB10b,MP12,BLP+13].

Lemma 14 (Properties of Trapdoors). *Lattice trapdoors exhibit the following properties.*

1. Given \mathbf{A}_{γ}^{-1} , one can obtain $\mathbf{A}_{\gamma'}^{-1}$ for any $\gamma' \geq \gamma$.
2. Given \mathbf{A}_{γ}^{-1} , one can obtain $[\mathbf{A} \parallel \mathbf{B}]_{\gamma}^{-1}$ and $[\mathbf{B} \parallel \mathbf{A}]_{\gamma}^{-1}$ for any \mathbf{B} .
3. For all $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ and $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times m}$, one can obtain $[\mathbf{A}\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{G} \parallel \mathbf{A}]_{\gamma}^{-1}$ for $\gamma = m \cdot \|\mathbf{R}\|_{\infty} \cdot \omega(\sqrt{\log m})$.
4. There exists an efficient procedure $\text{TrapGen}(1^n, 1^m, q)$ that outputs $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A}_{\gamma_0}^{-1})$ where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ for some $m = O(n \log q)$ and is 2^{-n} -close to uniform, where $\gamma_0 = \omega(\sqrt{n \log q \log m})$.

Lemma 15 (Fully Homomorphic Computation [GV15]). *There exists a pair of deterministic algorithms (PubEval, TrapEval) with the following properties.*

- $\text{PubEval}(\vec{\mathbf{B}}, F) \rightarrow \mathbf{B}_F$. Here, $\vec{\mathbf{B}} = [\mathbf{B}_1 \parallel \dots \parallel \mathbf{B}_k] \in (\mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m})^k$ and $F : \{0, 1\}^k \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is a circuit.
- $\text{TrapEval}(\vec{\mathbf{R}}, F, x) \rightarrow \mathbf{R}_{F,x}$. Here, $\vec{\mathbf{R}} = [\mathbf{R}_1 \parallel \dots \parallel \mathbf{R}_k] \in (\mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m})^k$, $\|\mathbf{R}_i\|_{\infty} \leq \delta$ for $i \in [k]$, $x \in \{0, 1\}^k$, and $F : \{0, 1\}^k \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is a circuit with depth d . We have $\text{PubEval}(\mathbf{A}\vec{\mathbf{R}} + x \otimes \mathbf{G}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}_{F,x} + F(x)\mathbf{G}$ where we denote $[x_1\mathbf{G} \parallel \dots \parallel x_k\mathbf{G}]$ by $x \otimes \mathbf{G}$. Furthermore, we have $\|\mathbf{R}_{F,x}\|_{\infty} \leq \delta \cdot m \cdot 2^{O(d)}$.
- The running time of (PubEval, TrapEval) is bounded by $\text{poly}(k, n, m, 2^d, \log q)$.

The above algorithms are taken from [GV15], which is a variant of a similar algorithms proposed by Boneh et al. [BGG+14]. The algorithms in [BGG+14] work for any polynomial-sized circuit F , but $\|\mathbf{R}_{F,x}\|_{\infty}$ becomes super-polynomial even if the depth of the circuit is shallow (i.e., logarithmic depth). On the other hand, the above algorithm runs in polynomial time only when F is of logarithmic depth, but $\|\mathbf{R}_{F,x}\|_{\infty}$ can be polynomially bounded. The latter property is useful since our main focus is on the constructions of GS schemes from the SIS assumption with polynomial approximation factors.

5.2 Construction

Here, we show our construction of indexed ABS. The scheme satisfies no-signing-query unforgeability. By applying the conversion in Sec. 3.2 to the scheme, we can obtain a scheme with co-selective unforgeability. Note that the signing and the verification algorithm below ignore the input message M . This is not a problem because the no-signing-query security does not require non-malleability with respect to the message.

We denote the circuit class that is dealt with by the scheme by $\{\mathcal{F}_{\kappa}\}_{\kappa}$, where \mathcal{F}_{κ} is a set of circuits F such that $F : \{0, 1\}^{k(\kappa)} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ and with depth at most $d_{\mathcal{F}} = O(\log \kappa)$.

ABS.Setup($1^\kappa, 1^N$): On input 1^κ and 1^N , it sets the parameters $n, m, q, \gamma_0, \gamma$, and β as specified later in this section, where q is a prime number. Then, it picks random matrices $\mathbf{B}_j^{(i)} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ for $i \in [N], j \in [k]$. We denote $\vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)} = [\mathbf{B}_1^{(i)} \parallel \dots \parallel \mathbf{B}_k^{(i)}]$. It also picks $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A}_{\gamma_0}^{-1}) \xleftarrow{\$} \text{TrapGen}(1^n, 1^m, q)$ such that $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ and a random vector $\mathbf{r} \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^m$. It then computes $\mathbf{u} := \mathbf{A}\mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$. It finally outputs

$$\text{mpk} = \left(\mathbf{A}, \{\vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)}\}_{i \in [N]}, \mathbf{u}, \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{msk} = \left(\mathbf{A}_{\gamma_0}^{-1}, \{\vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)}\}_{i \in [N]} \right).$$

ABS.KeyGen(msk, i, x): On input $\text{msk} = (\mathbf{A}_{\gamma_0}^{-1}, \{\vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)}\}_{i \in [N]})$, $i \in [N]$, and $x \in \{0, 1\}^k$, it samples $\vec{\mathbf{R}}^{(i)} \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{A}_{\gamma_0}^{-1}(\vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)} - x \otimes \mathbf{G})$ where $\vec{\mathbf{R}}^{(i)} \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times mk}$ using $\mathbf{A}_{\gamma_0}^{-1}$. Note that $\vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)} = \mathbf{A}\vec{\mathbf{R}}^{(i)} + x \otimes \mathbf{G}$ and $\|\vec{\mathbf{R}}^{(i)}\|_\infty \leq \gamma_0\sqrt{n}$ holds by the definition of the distribution $\mathbf{A}_{\gamma_0}^{-1}(\vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)} - x \otimes \mathbf{G})$. It then outputs $\text{sk}_x := (i, \vec{\mathbf{R}}^{(i)})$.

ABS.Sign($\text{mpk}, \text{sk}_x, \text{M}, F$): It outputs \perp if $\text{M} \notin \mathcal{M}_\kappa$, $F \notin \mathcal{F}$, or $F(x) = 0$. Otherwise, it first parses $\text{sk}_x \rightarrow (i, \vec{\mathbf{R}}^{(i)})$. It then computes $\mathbf{B}_F^{(i)} := \text{PubEval}(\vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)}, F)$ and $\mathbf{R}_{F,x}^{(i)} := \text{TrapEval}(\vec{\mathbf{R}}^{(i)}, F, x)$ such that $\|\mathbf{R}_{F,x}^{(i)}\|_\infty \leq \gamma$. By Lemma 15 and since $F(x) = 1$, we have $\mathbf{B}_F^{(i)} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}_{F,x}^{(i)} + \mathbf{G}$. It then computes $[\mathbf{A}\|\mathbf{B}_F^{(i)}\|_\beta]^{-1}$ from $\mathbf{R}_{F,x}^{(i)}$ (see Item 3 in Lemma 14) and further computes $[\mathbf{A}\|\mathbf{B}_F^{(1)}\| \dots \|\mathbf{B}_F^{(N)}\|_\beta]^{-1}$ from $[\mathbf{A}\|\mathbf{B}_F^{(i)}\|_\beta]^{-1}$ (see Item 2 in Lemma 14). Finally, it samples $\mathbf{e} \xleftarrow{\$} [\mathbf{A}\|\mathbf{B}_F^{(1)}\| \dots \|\mathbf{B}_F^{(N)}\|_\beta]^{-1}(\mathbf{u})$ and outputs the signature $\sigma := \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{Z}^{m(N+1)}$.

ABS.Vrfy($\text{mpk}, \text{M}, \sigma, F$): It outputs \perp if $F \notin \mathcal{F}$ or $\sigma = \mathbf{e} \notin \mathbb{Z}^{m(N+1)}$. Otherwise, it first computes $\mathbf{B}_F^{(i)} = \text{PubEval}(F, \vec{\mathbf{B}}^{(i)})$ for $i \in [N]$. It then checks whether $\|\mathbf{e}\|_\infty \leq \sqrt{n}\beta$ and $[\mathbf{A}\|\mathbf{B}_F^{(1)}\| \dots \|\mathbf{B}_F^{(N)}\|_\beta] \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{u}$. If they hold, it outputs \top and otherwise \perp .

Correctness. The correctness of the scheme can be seen by observing that the verification equation and $\|\mathbf{e}\|_\infty \leq \sqrt{n}\beta$ follow from the definition of the distribution $[\mathbf{A}\|\mathbf{B}_F^{(1)}\| \dots \|\mathbf{B}_F^{(N)}\|_\beta]^{-1}(\mathbf{u})$ from which \mathbf{e} is sampled.

Parameter Selection. As long as the maximum depth of the circuit class \mathcal{F}_κ is bounded by $O(\log \kappa)$, we can set all of $n, m, \gamma_0, \gamma, \beta$, and q to be polynomial in κ . Notably, this allows us to reduce the security of the scheme to $\text{SIS}(n, m, q, \beta_{\text{SIS}})$ with $\beta_{\text{SIS}} = \text{poly}(\kappa)$. We refer to the full version for the precise requirements for these parameters and a concrete selection.

5.3 Security Proofs

Theorem 16. *Our ABS scheme is perfectly private.*

Proof. It can be seen that the signature $\sigma = \mathbf{e}$ for (F, M) is chosen from the distribution $[\mathbf{A}\|\mathbf{B}_F^{(1)}\| \dots \|\mathbf{B}_F^{(N)}\|_\beta]^{-1}(\mathbf{u})$, which only depends on mpk and F . The theorem readily follows.

Theorem 17. *Our ABS scheme satisfies no-signing-query unforgeability assuming SIS($n, m, q, \beta_{\text{SIS}}$) is hard.*

The proof will appear in the full version.

6 Instantiating SKE

Here, we discuss how to instantiate the SKE required for the generic construction of GS in Sec. 4. Since this can be done by a combination of known results and standard techniques, we only give a high level overview here and refer to the full version for the details. We require the SKE to be INDr-CCA secure and to have key robustness and a decryption circuit with $O(\log \kappa)$ -depth. The requirement for the depth of the circuit is needed to combine it with our indexed ABS scheme in Sec. 5.2, which can only deal with circuits with logarithmic depth.

To obtain such a scheme, we follow the MAC-then-Encrypt paradigm and show a generic construction of such an SKE from another SKE and a MAC. For the latter SKE, we require INDr-CPA security, key robustness, and a decryption circuit with $O(\log \kappa)$ -depth. For the MAC, we require strong unforgeability and a verification circuit with $O(\log \kappa)$ -depth. Although an insecure example of the MAC-then-Encrypt approach is known [BN00], we avoid the pitfall by authenticating a part of the ciphertext in addition to the plaintext using the MAC. We also note that the Encrypt-then-MAC approach may not work in our setting, because the MAC part may reveal the information about the user and destroy the INDr-CCA security (in particular, anonymity) of the resulting SKE scheme.

It remains to show how to instantiate the inner SKE and MAC. For the SKE, we use a secret key variant of the Regev encryption scheme [Reg05], where we pad the message with zeroes before encrypting it and the decryption algorithm returns \perp to a ciphertext that does not conform to this format. The padding makes the ciphertext somewhat redundant, and due to this redundancy, we can prove key robustness of the scheme by a standard counting argument. The INDr-CPA security of the scheme is proven from the LWE assumption by a straightforward reduction. The decryption circuit of the scheme can be implemented by an $O(\log \kappa)$ -depth circuit, since the decryption algorithm only involves basic algebraic operations such as the computation of an inner-product, modulo reduction, and comparison, all of which are known to be in \mathbf{NC}^1 . We then discuss how to instantiate the MAC. We need the MAC scheme to have strong unforgeability and a decryption circuit with $O(\log \kappa)$ -depth. To obtain such a scheme, we downgrade the (public key) signature scheme proposed by Micciancio and Peikert [MP12] to a MAC scheme. Since the scheme satisfies strong unforgeability as a signature scheme, it is trivial to see that the scheme is strongly unforgeable as a MAC as well. The verification circuit of the scheme can be implemented by an $O(\log \kappa)$ -depth circuit, since the verification algorithm only involves basic algebraic operations, similarly to the decryption algorithm of the above SKE.

We finally remark that another way of obtaining the SKE required for the generic construction in Sec. 4 may be to downgrade the CCA-secure public

key encryption scheme by Micciancio and Peikert [MP12] to an SKE scheme. However, this approach requires the LWE assumption with larger approximation factor than our approach described above.

7 New Group Signature Constructions

By combining all the results in the previous sections, we obtain the first lattice-based group signatures in the standard model. We show two instantiations, which provide tradeoffs between the security assumption and efficiency. The first instantiation leads to a scheme that is proven secure under the SIS and LWE assumption with polynomial approximation factors, but has long group public key and signatures that are linear in the number of users N . The second instantiation is more efficient and these parameters do not depend on N . However, in order to prove security, we have to assume the subexponential hardness of the SIS problem (with polynomial approximation factors).

First Instantiation. The generic construction of GS schemes in Sec. 4 requires an OTS scheme, an SKE scheme, and an indexed ABS scheme. We instantiate the OTS by the scheme proposed by Mohassel [Moh11], which is strongly unforgeable under the SIS assumption with polynomial approximation factors. We instantiate the SKE by the scheme that is sketched in Sec. 6 (and described in full details in the full version. The scheme satisfies INDr-CCA security under the LWE assumption with polynomial approximation factors, key-robustness, and can have arbitrarily large message space, which are the required properties for the generic construction. Furthermore, the maximum depth of the decryption circuit of the SKE, which is denoted by d_{Dec} hereafter, is $O(\log \kappa)$. We now consider how to instantiate the indexed ABS scheme. In addition to the perfect privacy and co-selective unforgeability, we require the indexed ABS to be capable of dealing with the circuit class \mathcal{C}_κ defined in Eq. (2). It is easy to see that we can bound the maximum depth d_C of circuits in \mathcal{C}_κ by $d_C = O(\log N + \log \ell_1 + d_{\text{Dec}}) = O(\log \kappa)$. To obtain such an indexed ABS scheme, we apply the conversion in Sec. 3.2 to our indexed ABS scheme in Sec. 5.2, whose no-signing-query unforgeability is shown under the SIS assumption with polynomial approximation factors. Note that the conversion requires a collision resistant hash, which is known to be implied by the same SIS assumption [MR04]. In order to make sure that the ABS scheme obtained through this conversion can deal with the circuit class \mathcal{C}_κ , we require the original indexed ABS to be capable of dealing with a circuit class \mathcal{F}_κ defined in Eq. (1). It is easy to see that the function `WldCmp` can be implemented by an $O(\log \ell)$ -depth circuit and thus we can bound the maximum depth $d_{\mathcal{F}}$ of the circuit class \mathcal{F}_κ by $d_{\mathcal{F}} = d_C + O(\log \ell) = O(\log \kappa)$. Since $d_{\mathcal{F}} = O(\log \kappa)$, we can instantiate the latter indexed ABS by the construction in Sec. 5.2. Summing up the above discussion, we have the following theorem:

Theorem 18 (Theorem 1 restated). *Under the hardness of the SIS and LWE with polynomial approximation factors, we have a group signature scheme with CCA-selfless anonymity and full traceability in the standard model whose sizes of the public parameters and signatures are linear in the number of users N .*

Second Instantiation. Here, we show another way of instantiating our generic construction in Sec. 4. We use the same SKE as the first instantiation above, but we instantiate the indexed ABS scheme with the scheme proposed by Tsabary [Tsa17]. To do so, we first state the following theorem.

Theorem 19 (Adapted from Sec. 6 of [Tsa17]). *There is an indexed ABS scheme for the circuit class C_κ defined in Eq. (2) with perfect privacy and co-selective unforgeability whose master public key and signature sizes are bounded by $\text{poly}(\kappa)$, i.e., independent of the number of users N , assuming the subexponential hardness of the SIS problem with polynomial approximation factors.*

The above theorem is obtained by the result by [Tsa17], but some adaptations are required. We refer to the full version for discussions.

We then combine the ABS scheme given by Theorem 19 with the SKE scheme used in the first instantiation. We then obtain the following theorem.

Theorem 20 (Theorem 2 restated). *Under the hardness of the LWE problem and the subexponential hardness of the SIS problem with polynomial approximation factors, there exists a group signature scheme with full-traceability and CCA-selfless anonymity whose sizes of the public parameters and signatures are $\text{poly}(\kappa)$, i.e., independent of the number of users N .*

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